

T
391

A Study of
Armenian Elementary Schools in Syria
Related to Their History, Background, and Teachers' Beliefs

A Thesis

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts in the
Education Department of the
American University of Beirut
Beirut, Lebanon

By
Asadoor N. Bedian

September, 1961

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In bringing this work to completion, the writer acknowledges with gratefulness the invaluable guidance and assistance of Dr. Donald H. Martin, who, as the writer's advisor, supervised and helped his plan of work. The writer would also like to thank Dr. Habib A. Kurani and Dr. Naim N. Atiyeh for their willingness to serve as members of the writer's Committee. Special acknowledgement is due to Dr. Pergrouhi Najarian Svajian who, as the writer's former advisor, helped him in choosing the topic of the thesis as well as in the preparation of the instruments to be used.

The writer is indebted to all parents, principals, and teachers, who, so willingly cooperated in answering the various questionnaires. The writer also wished to acknowledge the cooperation of the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation in Aleppo, Syria, in allowing him to use the valuable data concerning the Armenian schools in Syria for the purposes of this thesis.

Finally the writer is indebted to his son Vahe for painstakingly performing the arithmetical calculations for the tabulations of the responses.

September 5, 1961
American University of Beirut
Beirut, Lebanon

Asadoor N. Bedian

ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with the Armenian elementary schools in Syria and attempts to describe these educational institutions with their history, background, and teacher beliefs. Also it proposes several possible approaches to the instructional improvement in these schools and professional growth for the teachers.

Through a chart and a questionnaire prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation in Aleppo and several other questionnaires prepared by the writer, the number and locality, staff and enrolment, budget and curriculum of the Armenian elementary schools are presented and discussed. The findings show that out of sixty-eight Armenian schools in Syria fifty-eight are elementary or below elementary level and the great majority of these schools are concentrated in a few cities and towns. These institutions follow a syllabus prescribed by the Ministry of Education, teaching additional subjects in Armenian in accordance with the provisions set forth by law. All these schools rely heavily on external resources in balancing their budgets. And the teachers serving in these institutions are poorly educated, underpaid, and overloaded.

A questionnaire specially prepared to depict the beliefs, attitudes, and practices of the Armenian elementary school teachers concerning some educational issues was administered to 154 teachers

in urban and rural areas. It is believed that there are approximately 600 Armenian teachers serving in the Armenian schools in Syria. The following general observations can be made as a result of the analysis of the responses:

1. Teachers revealed a wide range of differences in their attitudes and beliefs concerning psychological and pedagogical issues.
2. Significant stereotypes were seen operating in their beliefs and practices.
3. Deficiencies were identified in their understanding of the nature of the child, and several questionable class-room procedures were observed.

The material conditions under which the Armenian elementary school teacher works are extremely difficult, due to the fact that these institutions do not possess even a minimal amount of equipment, facilities, and supplies. The education offered tends to be traditional and academic. The Armenian elementary school teacher does not have the preparation adequate to the demands of his task. These factors combined with the professional incompetencies identified has brought the writer of this thesis to the conclusion that an attempt should be made toward the professional improvement of the Armenian elementary school personnel. The following four alternatives are presented as gateways to the professional improvement of the present teachers and to the recruitment of well qualified prospective teachers:

1. An in-service program including summer courses and activities and training on the job.
2. Summer seminars at the American University of Beirut.
3. Establishment of a normal school in Syria to prepare qualified teachers for future recruitment.
4. Securing professional training in the normal schools of Syria operated by the Ministry of Education.

At present no single program alone could satisfactorily meet the needs of these schools. The proposals made seem to be different phases of one single effort.

Finance has been, is, and will continue to be the most acute problem of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria. New demands and new trends of thought bring about a definite conviction that teachers with deeper understanding and better professional training must serve in these institutions. Consequently substantial additional funds are needed to actualize the proposed improvements and to provide adequate incomes for the teachers.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

<u>Chapter</u>	<u>Page</u>
I. Introduction	1
A. The Purpose, Scope, and Significance of the Study	1
B. Instruments Used and Samples Chosen	4
C. Limitations of the Study	8
D. Method of Analysis	9
II. Armenian Elementary Schools in Syria - A Brief Survey	12
A. Historical Background of Armenian Schools in Syria	12
B. Background Statistics Concerning Armenian Schools in Syria	19
C. The Present Curriculum of the Armenian Elementary Schools in Syria	45
III. Findings, Analysis, and Conclusions of the Main Questionnaire	51
A. The Content, the Sample, and the Administration of the Main Questionnaire	51
B. Findings, Analysis, and Conclusions of the Main Questionnaire	57
IV. Implications of the Study	89
A. The Armenian Elementary School, the Teacher, and His Task	89
B. Competencies Needed by the Armenian Elementary School Teacher	94

C. Proposals for the Professional Improvement of the Armenian Elementary School Teacher	102
D. Looking to the Future	115
Appendix A. Questionnaire Concerning Historical Background of Armenian Schools in Syria	118
Appendix B. Armenian Schools in Syria (A Chart Prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Founda- tion, 1958-59)	119
Appendix C. Questionnaire Concerning Personal Background of Armenian Teachers	124
Appendix D. Main Questionnaire and Tabulations of the Responses	127
Appendix E. Questionnaire Submitted to Parents	145
Sources Consulted	146

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
1 Armenian Population in Syria	13
2 Armenians and Their Schools in the Middle East	16
3 Growth of Armenian Schools in Syria	17
4 Location and Level of Armenian Schools in Syria	20
5 Religious Denomination, Level, and Number of Teachers in Armenian Schools in Syria	21
6 Nationality of Armenian Teachers	24
7 Religious Denomination of Armenian Teachers	24
8 Age of Armenian Teachers	25
9 Marital Status of Armenian Teachers	26
10 Salary of Armenian Teachers	26
11 Teaching Experience of Armenian Teachers	28
12 Teaching Load of Armenian Teachers	28
13 Level of Education of Armenian Teachers in Rural Areas	30
14 Level of Education of Armenian Teachers in Urban Areas	30
15 Level of Education of Armenian Teachers in Rural and Urban Areas	30
16 Level of Education of Armenian Teachers According to Calouste Gulbenkian Questionnaire	31
17 Knowledge of Languages of Armenian Teachers	33
18 Armenian Teachers' Desire for Further Education	35

19	No Subjects Mentioned for Further Education by Armenian Teachers	36
20	Population and Enrolment in Urban and Rural Areas	39
21	Age of Acceptance to Kindergarten	40
22	Parental Attitudes and Practices Regarding Secondary Education	40
23	Budget of Armenian Schools in Syria	41
24	Budget, Student Fees, and External Resources of Schools of Three Religious Denominations	43
25	Annual Expenditure Per Pupil	44
26	Time-Table of Syrian Public Primary Schools	46
27	Time-Table of Armenian Elementary Schools	47
28	Respondents to the Main Questionnaire	53

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. The Purpose, Scope, and Significance of the Study

The Armenian community in Syria, numbering around 90,000, is a minority group with its own network of private schools following the syllabus prescribed by the Ministry of Education and teaching additional subjects in Armenian in accordance with the provisions set forth by law. Most of these schools are elementary schools organized and maintained by Armenian civic and religious organizations.

This study attempts to give an accurate picture of the development, present condition, and needs of Armenian elementary schools in Syria. The findings of several questionnaires circulated among teachers, principals, and parents of children studying in these schools will be used to provide the outlines of this picture.

On the basis of these findings several possible approaches to the improvement of teaching in these schools will be proposed. Little has been written concerning the history and current problems of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria. The writer's experience with these schools during the past twenty-four years convinces him of the urgent need for the improvement of teaching in them. In order to provide a realistic and solid basis for his suggestions for improving the work of these schools this survey was conducted.

This study has three main divisions. The first part presents a historical background of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria with some statistics concerning number and locality, staff and student

body, budget, and curriculum. The second part presents the findings, analysis, and some conclusions based on the responses of a number of Armenian elementary school principals, kindergarten leaders,* and teachers to a questionnaire on some educational issues. The third part presents implications and several possible approaches to instructional improvement in the schools and professional growth for the teachers.

The principal questions which this study seeks to answer are the following:

1. What is the background, development, and organization of Armenian elementary schools in Syria?
2. What is the present curriculum of the Armenian elementary school?
3. What attitudes do teachers have toward their career?
4. What is the attitude of the teachers toward themselves as educators?
5. What major problems are the teachers facing?
6. What is the understanding of the teachers on such major educational issues as the nature of the learner, discipline, subject matter, evaluation, etc.?
7. In what areas do teachers desire further training?
8. What kinds of activities may be provided for the professional improvement of the Armenian elementary school teachers in Syria?

A knowledge of the background, development, and organization of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria may be a first step in understanding the present conditions that prevail in these schools. A knowledge of the present curriculum will reveal much of the academic content to which the Armenian learner is exposed. As we come to know the attitudes of teachers toward their career and toward themselves as educators we, to a certain degree, may be able to discern their status as members of their profession. By knowing the major problems that these teachers are facing we may identify some of their needs, and these in turn may serve to indicate the nature of the help to be provided. A

* The kindergarten teacher responsible for the organization, supervision, and guidance of the activities in the kindergarten.

basic understanding of the beliefs, attitudes and practices of the Armenian elementary school teachers in such major educational issues as the nature of the learner, discipline, subject matter, evaluation, etc. will further identify their professional incompetencies and help in suggesting constructive ways for their improvement. Knowledge of the areas in which teachers desire further training may serve as an index to their personal appraisal of their needs. A careful study of the above-mentioned points will suggest the kinds of activities that may be provided for the professional improvement of these teachers.

Practically every Armenian elementary school in Syria has a kindergarten, usually comprising a program which extends over a period of three years. In this study kindergarten leaders and teachers are grouped together with elementary school teachers and principals in forming the sample. Statistical data include the following:

1. Name, locality, and religious denominations of all the Armenian educational institutions.
2. Nationality, religious denomination, age, sex, marital status, salary, teaching experiences, teaching load, level of education, knowledge of languages of teachers, and area in which further education is desired.
3. Enrolment.
4. Budget, tuition fees, and external resources.
5. The present curriculum of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria.

New government regulations and socio-economic adjustments are confronting the Armenian elementary schools with new and difficult demands. As a result, the elementary school teacher is obliged to assume

responsibilities which are different from those required of him in the past. There is also discrepancy between the complexity of his task and his general knowledge and professional training. All these factors, revealed by the findings of this study, emphasize the need for instructional improvement. Such a program may improve instruction in the Armenian elementary school and in turn assist the child in orienting and adjusting himself to an environment where his grandparents came as refugees, where he is expected to live as a citizen aware of his rights, privileges, and responsibilities, and where he is to serve as a useful member of the community at large.

During the past few years the need for instructional improvement in the Armenian elementary schools has been in the minds of some educators. In 1955 the Educational Committee of Armenian General Benevolent Union in Aleppo planned an in-service program for the professional improvement of the Armenian elementary school teachers in Syria. The Central Committee approved the idea and a limited sum of money was made available. But the program was not put into practice for lack of qualified educators to serve as instructors and leaders. The present study will ascertain more precisely the nature and extent of this need and present several alternatives for consideration in meeting the need more effectively.

Some statistical data about Armenian schools and teachers in Syria were collected by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation during the scholastic year of 1958-59. The present study will make use of this information.

No previous research has been conducted concerning the beliefs, attitudes, and practices of Armenian elementary school teachers on important problems of education and teaching. The writer has been in close contact with most of these schools as the Secretary of the Educational Committee of Armenian General Benevolent Union in Syria for a period of ten years. Furthermore the first four years of his educational career were spent in Armenian elementary schools, and during the last twenty years he has served in a secondary school where he has had continuous contact with the graduates of Armenian elementary schools.

B. Instruments Used and Sample Chosen

Five different instruments are used in this study.

1. A questionnaire¹ was forwarded to every principal of an Armenian educational institution in Syria, (sixty-eight in number) asking for a brief historical background about each institution. Twenty five principals responded.

2. A chart² was prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation during the scholastic year of 1958-59. It comprises the name, locality, religious denomination, number of students, number of teachers for both sexes, budget, and fees collected from students of all Armenian educational institutions at all levels.³

3. This same Committee forwarded a questionnaire⁴ to be answered by teachers of Armenian schools in Syria. The questionnaire

1 See Appendix A.

2 See Appendix B.

3 The original chart also included names and addresses of principals.

4 See Appendix C.

asked for a wide range of information. From this information only those items will be used which supplement the data obtained through a questionnaire¹ prepared by the writer of this thesis and designed for this study. 310 teachers responded to Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire, 270 Armenian teachers and 40 non-Armenian teachers. For the purposes of this study only the responses of the Armenian teachers are tabulated and presented. To include the non-Armenian teachers in the sample would enlarge the scope of this study and introduce a number of additional factors which would go beyond the requirements of this thesis. The items chosen from this questionnaire are nationality, religious denomination, salary, teaching load, knowledge of languages, and area in which further education is desired by the responding teachers.

4. A questionnaire² was sent to some parents asking about the ages of their children and their sex, their view about the age at which the child should enter kindergarten, the age at which their children actually entered kindergarten, their intention to give secondary education to girls and boys, and how many girls and boys have actually entered secondary schools. This questionnaire was answered by forty-two parents of an Armenian elementary school in Aleppo equally divided into three economic classes as upper, middle, and lower.

5. A questionnaire was prepared by the writer of this thesis to obtain background information concerning the teachers of Armenian elementary schools, and their opinions, beliefs, and practices pertaining to

1 See Appendix D.

2 See Appendix E.

some educational issues. In the present study this questionnaire will be referred to as the main questionnaire. The sampling groups for this questionnaire were taken from the following schools with comparatively large teaching staffs and student enrolments.

- a. Five Armenian elementary schools in Aleppo.
- b. Two Armenian elementary schools in Medan, the Armenian quarter in Aleppo.
- c. An Armenian elementary school in Damascus.
- d. Two Armenian elementary schools in rural areas.

The total number of respondents to the main questionnaire was 154 out of which 120 were from Aleppo, 7 from Damascus, and 27 from rural areas.

The chart prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation includes all Armenian educational institutions at all levels. Out of sixty-eight schools two are secondary, eight are intermediate, and the remaining fifty-eight schools are at the elementary or below the elementary level including kindergartens. There are 866 teachers in all these schools and the number of Armenian teachers is believed to be approximately 600 (no exact number is available). Forty-five percent of the Armenian teachers answered the Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire. Only a limited number of these teachers teach above the elementary level. When data taken from Gulbenkian survey appear in the present study, it must be remembered that figures include all schools at all levels.

All the other instruments used dealt with only the elementary schools (including kindergartens). The respondents to the main questionnaire comprise twenty-six per cent of the Armenian teachers. Almost seventy-eight per cent of these respondents were from Aleppo, although Aleppo comprises only seventy-two per cent of the pupils of the Armenian schools. A larger representation of Aleppo teachers was the result of practical considerations. For instance, there are many small institutions scattered throughout Syria where the administration of the main questionnaire would be quite difficult. The questionnaires administered in Aleppo were filled out in the presence of the writer except for one school where Mrs. Y. Bedian was in charge. In the two schools of rural areas the principals took over this responsibility.

Two main factors were taken into consideration in the preparation of the main questionnaire: (a) the level of education of the Armenian school teacher and (b) the time required to answer the questionnaire. A pretest was performed in Damascus in the largest Armenian elementary school; and the result was satisfactory because questions were discriminative, teachers in general had welcomed the task, and the time involved, as foreseen, was thirty to forty minutes.

The questionnaires forwarded to parents had a relatively small sampling group. It was distributed among the parents of only one elementary school. The sample being so small and biased, the results must be taken with caution. The questionnaires forwarded to the principals about brief historical facts were answered by forty per cent of the principals.

All questionnaires were anonymous and the language used was Armenian. The respondents were informed that their answers would not appear individually in the thesis, but would be used to discover general characteristics. To keep the precise meaning of the original much care was taken in translating the main questionnaire from English to Armenian.

C. Limitations of the Study

The Armenian schools above elementary level are not included in this study except for some statistical data; nor is the inter-relationship of the elementary and secondary schools discussed at length. Approximately eighty-five per cent of the Armenian educational institutions are at the elementary or below the elementary level (including kindergartens). To include the schools above elementary level would not serve the purpose or increase the unity of the study. Moreover, the teaching staffs of these schools are so limited that they would not form an adequate sampling group.

The kindergarten is an integral part of the Armenian elementary school and in this study no distinction is made between kindergarten teacher and elementary school teacher except in such cases as would render distinction useful and meaningful. Also no attempt is made to divide the sampling group of the main questionnaire into principals, kindergarten leaders, elementary school teachers, and kindergarten teachers. Although the study might gain in identifying the needs and beliefs of each group, splitting the sampling group into smaller units might obscure the general trends in thought on educational issues.

A comprehensive picture of the Armenian elementary schools would include financial problems, material needs, curriculum organization, administrative structure, and many other areas related to the life of a school. In this study each of these points has been touched upon in a general way. The beliefs and practices of the teachers concerning educational issues are included in the form of responses by the teachers to the main questionnaire.

D. Method of Analysis

An important part of this study of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria is the tabulation of a wide variety of facts concerning their history, evolutionary development, and their present status as educational centers.

The sequence in which data are arranged, discussed or analyzed will follow the general outline of the thesis. First, data pertaining to the historical background of Armenian schools will be presented and discussed. Second, background statistics about schools and teachers will be tabulated and interpreted. Third, the findings of the main questionnaire will be tabulated and analyzed.

No uniform method is used in the tabulation of data. Each item is treated according to the way it can best serve the purposes of the study. In general, however, the procedure includes the tabulation of facts and responses in frequency and percentage, although, in some cases, as in regard to teaching experience, mean and range are used. Simple statistical calculations are employed due to the nature of the data, and results are arranged in tabular form.

Particular attention is called to the data collected in the main questionnaire. As indicated above, each respondent to the main questionnaire was given the assurance that his identity would not be revealed, and was urged to be serious and frank in his responses. In spite of this there is reason to believe that some teachers were apprehensive about giving completely candid replies to some questions of a personal nature. In the analysis and interpretation of data these points will be taken into consideration.

Responses to question twenty-five of the main questionnaire will be compared with the results obtained by E.K. Wickman¹ and others on the relationship between children's behaviors and teachers' attitudes. Responses to the other twenty-four questions in part one and to the twenty-five statements of part two will be reported partly as beliefs and practices and partly as stereotypes concerning some psychological and pedagogical issues.

As stated earlier in this chapter, the main questionnaire was administered to 154 teachers of Armenian elementary schools, 127 from Aleppo and Damascus and 27 from rural areas in two elementary schools. Responses are tabulated separately for the two groups, but analysis and interpretation will begin with the urban group, the rural group being used principally for purposes of comparison.

1 E.K. Wickman, Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitude (New York, 1928).

CHAPTER II

ARMENIAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN SYRIA - A BRIEF SURVEY

A. Historical Background of the Armenian Schools in Syria.

1. The Armenian Community in Syria.

In this section dealing with the background of the Armenian schools in Syria, attention will be given to the stages through which the Armenian community has passed as it has become an important minority group. Further, it will be shown how a system of private schools has emerged and developed with this minority group.

The settlement of Armenians in Syria began during the middle ages. Aleppo, as an important trading center between Europe and Persia and the Far East, attracted many Armenian merchants. At the beginning of the seventeenth century, there were approximately 300 Armenian families living in Aleppo. In 1616 the important Church of Forty Martyrs was built. Later, another sanctuary, the church of Holy Virgin, was erected near it. During this period a seminary and a school were operating under the leadership of the Armenian Prelate, Channes of Edessa, and Archbishop Der Khachadoor.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century more Armenians took refuge in Syria, largely because of the Turkish massacres of 1895 and 1896. The great massacres during the First World War, organized by the Turkish government, practically exterminated the Armenian population

of Asia Minor. At the end of the war many of the survivors returned to their homes in Turkey. Some preferred to settle in Syria, mainly in Aleppo. The prewar Armenian population of Syria was approximately 15,000.

After the war, part of Cilicia was granted to France; but on October 20, 1921, the French withdrew, thus creating a critical condition for the Armenian population living in this area. During the period of 1921-25 nearly all Armenians living in Turkey once more left to take refuge in the Arab lands or to migrate to different countries of the world. In 1939 Alexandretta (Sanjak) was ceded to Turkey, and Armenians in this area left their homes and property to settle in Syria and Lebanon.

In 1925 the Armenian community in Syria numbered nearly 75,000, more than 40,000 living in Aleppo (exact figures not available). In 1946-47 around 20,000 Armenians were repatriated to Soviet Armenia from Syria. At present the Armenian population in Syria is estimated at 90,000, belonging to three religious denominations.¹

TABLE 1

Armenian Population in Syria in Terms of Religious Denomination, Number, and Percentage

<u>Denomination</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Armenian Orthodox	65,000	72.2
Armenian Catholic	20,000	22.2
Armenian Protestant	5,000	5.6

1 These figures were obtained in 1961 from the religious leaders of the three denominations.

The present population of Syria is four and a half millions; therefore Armenians form only 2% of the total population; but in Aleppo they compose 13.3% of the city population. The great majority of Armenians came to Syria penniless and settled in huts. Through their own efforts and with the encouragement of the Syrian Government their living conditions improved. They became Syrian citizens and enjoyed the protection and benefits of the law. Armenians brought with them new ideas in craftsmanship, sports, arts, etc. They became able mechanics, thus helping the advancement of Syria in this direction. A. H. Hourani, writing in 1947, described the Armenian minority group in Syria in the following way:

The Armenian element in Aleppo is particularly large and important. It numbers 60,000; many of these have long been resident in the town, while others came in during the period of persecution. Their economic position is strong. Almost wholly urban in occupation, they are particularly prominent in certain branches of trade and industry and a number of crafts. They are also numerous in the free professions, but there are few of them in government service because of their general ignorance of Arabic.

2. The Establishment and Development of Armenian Schools in Syria.

Religion and the school, faith and reason, spiritual aspirations and the attainment of education, are unified and correlated in the body of the church of Armenia, par excellence.²

Armenians from ancient times believed that education was the

-
- 1 A.H. Hourani, Minorities in the Arab World (Oxford University Press, London, 1947), pp. 83-84.
 - 2 H.B. Boghossian, Highlights of Armenian History and Its Civilization, 1957, p. 41.

most dynamic force in the progress of a nation. From the beginning education was used as an instrument for the advancement of Christianity. Monasteries became centers of education to prepare priests for work in the church. Public schools were established under the supervision of Archbishops. After the adoption of the National Constitution in Turkey in 1860, education became co-education for all ranks of the people. The national educational system operated only under the auspices of the church authorities, though some private schools were established through the efforts of individuals and societies. In Turkey a number of foreign missionary schools were founded, principally through the efforts of French, German, and American missionaries. In these institutions many Armenians were educated and some of the graduates became founders of private schools.

It was stated above that an Armenian school and a seminary were operating at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Some schools had been started in the Kessab region as early as 1855. In 1895 Nercessian school was operating in Aleppo with a student body of 700 pupils. In 1919 Haygazian school was established and in 1920 these two institutions united to form one school at the elementary level. The migration of Armenians to Syria occurred mainly during the years between 1921 and 1925. During this period at least thirteen elementary schools were established in urban and rural areas through the efforts of individuals, societies, and church authorities.

Aleppo was the destination of many Armenian refugees from Turkey. With their arrival schools were begun in the city itself and in the

barracks on the outskirts of the city where many destitute families settled. Material conditions were deplorable, but thousands of children attended schools and received a very rudimentary education. Since a whole generation had been deprived of education during the First World War, adolescents now attended elementary schools with their younger sisters and brothers. Similar conditions prevailed among the Armenian schools in the rural areas. In the nineteen-thirties the barracks were demolished and the Armenian population built a new quarter, Medan (Nor Kugh), with an enlarged network of schools. A few more schools were established after 1940, and during this period the existing schools were enlarged to accommodate a larger number of students in better buildings.

TABLE 2

Armenians and Their Schools in the Middle East^a

Country	Number of Armenians	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils
Syria	70,000 ^b	68	16,850
Lebanon	100,000	62	13,502
Cyprus	3,600	5	656
Jordan	4,000	4	613
Egypt	40,000	8	1,671
Iraq	22,000	7	2,176
Iran	120,000	39	13,858
Turkey	50,000	25	5,000
Total	409,600	218	54,326 ^c

a George Chamich, "Our Schools and Our Pupils," Chanasser, xxi, (Beirut, Lebanon, November 1, 1960), p. 335.

b The writer of this thesis disagrees with Mr. George Chamich about the number of Armenians in Syria. Mr. Chamich states that the data presented were collected from the Armenian bishoprics of each country. The bishoprics of the Armenian Orthodox and the Armenian Catholic churches and the leader of Armenian Protestants in Aleppo supplied the writer with figures which added up to 90,000. This figure was further checked by informed leaders of the Armenian community in Syria.

c This total is misprinted as 58,326 instead of 54,326.

It is seen that in Syria there is a larger number of Armenian schools, accomodating a larger number of students, than in any other country of the Middle East.

A questionnaire was forwarded to the principals of all Armenian schools in Syria seeking a brief historical background of each institution. Principals of fifteen schools in cities and ten schools in rural areas responded. From other sources it was possible to obtain the dates of foundation of twenty-eight other schools, thus bringing the total to fifty-three. Table 3 shows the growth of Armenian schools in Syria in terms of date of foundation, number, and percentage for urban and rural areas.

TABLE 3
Growth of Armenian Schools in Syria

<u>Date</u>	<u>No. of Urban Schools</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>No. of Rural Schools</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Before 1920	3	9.7	4	18.2	7	13.2
1920-1929	14	45.2	6	27.3	20	37.7
1930-1939	10	32.3	8	36.4	18	34.0
1940-1949	3	9.7	-	-	3	5.7
1950-1961	1	3.2	4	18.2	5	9.4

It will be noticed that the first main spurt in the establishment of schools occurred between 1920 and 1929. During this period 45.2% of all urban schools and 27.3% of the rural schools were founded.

In the subsequent decade nearly an equal number of schools was established, thus, including the institutions founded before 1920, 85% of the Armenian schools in Syria were operating before the start of the Second World War. The data supplied by the principals concerning the historical background of their schools also indicate the following facts:

a) The number of pupils of both urban and rural areas has more than doubled during the interval between foundation and the present time.

b) 73% of the urban schools and 90% of the rural schools own their school buildings.

c) As they look to the future, 65% of the principals desire to have a new building or to enlarge and repair their present buildings; 22% wish to extend their schools to higher level of instruction; and 13%, mostly in rural areas, want to secure means of continuing the existence of their schools.

Toward the end of 1950, through the initiative and effort of Miss Leila Karageuzian, \$300,000 was collected to build new schools, add new rooms, and improve the sanitary conditions in existing facilities. Miss Karageuzian participated with a generous donation of \$20,000 to this fund. Half of this sum was used to equip Armenian schools in Syria with new desks and to effect immediate repairs in some of the most needy schools. During the coming years, partly from the same fund and partly from the Armenian General Benevolent Union, \$108,150 was allocated to the Armenian schools in Syria. With this

sum two school buildings were purchased, one in Aleppo and one in Damascus; two new school buildings were erected, one on the outskirts of Aleppo and the other in a rural area; and several other schools were enlarged and repaired. In 1960-61 Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation spent \$30,000 for repairs and improvement. Another \$13,000 probably will be spent during the coming scholastic year for the same purpose by the same Foundation. In spite of these two important efforts and in spite of the contributions of the Armenian community to improve the physical conditions of the Armenian schools, adequate school buildings are still the main concern of the principals. The executive secretary of the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation in Syria visited all Armenian schools in 1961. According to his estimate only 25% of the school buildings are fit to serve as education centers.

Throughout its history the Armenian community has taken pride in its educational institutions. Following periods of persecution and exile, at times when thousands of orphans needed care, education was considered an immediate imperative. Appreciation and gratitude is due to the Syrian government for the help given to this desolate minority group.

B. Background Statistics Concerning Armenian Schools in Syria.

In this section a number of important facts concerning Armenian schools will be presented. The major items will include the organization, teaching staff, enrolment, budget, and curriculum.

1. Name, number, locality, level, and religious denomination.

The chart, prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation during the scholastic year of 1958-59, presents number, name, locality, religious denomination, number of students and teachers, budget, and fees collected. There are sixty-eight Armenian educational institutions in Syria.

Table 4 presents the location and level of the Armenian schools in Syria in terms of number and percentage.

TABLE 4
Location and Level of Armenian Schools
in Syria

	<u>Urban</u>		<u>Rural</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>	
Below elementary	8	28.6	20	71.4	28
Elementary	23	76.7	7	23.3	30
Intermediate	5	62.5	3	37.5	8
Secondary	2	100.0	-	-	2

In this study the schools below the elementary level are referred to as elementary schools. Most of these schools below the elementary level are in rural areas, while the majority of the intermediate schools, as well as the two secondary schools, are in the urban areas.

It is seen that thirty-eight schools are located in the cities and thirty schools in rural areas. Aleppo, comprising two-thirds of the Armenian population in Syria, has twenty-nine schools at different levels. There are nine schools in the Kessab region, but these are relatively small institutions. Fifteen elementary and three intermediate schools are scattered all over the Northern agricultural region of Syria, Kamishli and El Haseke' being important centers. These two towns alone comprise sixty-two per cent of the pupils of rural areas. It is obvious and significant that the Armenian schools are concentrated in a few cities and towns.

Names of the Armenian schools in Syria are listed in the chart in Appendix B.

The Armenian schools in Syria belong to three religious denominations. Table 5 shows religious denomination, level, and number of teachers of these institutions.

TABLE 5

Religious Denomination, Level, and Number of
Teachers in Armenian Schools in Syria

	<u>Elementary</u>	<u>Intermediate</u>	<u>Secondary</u>	<u>Number of Teachers</u>
Armenian Orthodox	36	4	1	531
Armenian Catholic	10	4	1	231
Armenian Pro- testant	12	-	-	104

There are forty-one Armenian Orthodox, fifteen Armenian Catholic, and twelve Armenian Protestant schools. Armenian Orthodox schools have two main divisions: thirty-three national schools and eight schools belonging to different organizations. In principle the bishopric of Aleppo administers thirty national schools and the bishopric of Damascus three; but due to the existing misunderstandings in the Armenian Orthodox church some schools operate independently of any church authority. There is more uniformity in the administration of Armenian Protestant schools. Little information is available concerning the organization of Armenian Catholic schools.

2. Teaching staff; number, nationality, religious denomination, age, marital status, salary, teaching experience, teaching load, level of education, knowledge of languages, and area in which further education is desired.

In 1958-59, according to the chart¹, 866 teachers were serving in the Armenian educational institutions in Syria, 530 (61.2%) women teachers and 336 (38.8%) men teachers. It is believed that the number of Armenian teachers is approximately 600 (69.3% of the total group). During the same scholastic year the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation circulated a questionnaire covering a wide range of information about the teachers of the Armenian schools. 270 Armenian teachers responded to this questionnaire--35 principals, 175 women

1 In this study the word chart will refer to the chart prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation in Aleppo in 1958-59.

teachers, 46 men teachers, and 14 kindergarten leaders. To supplement the data obtained from the main questionnaire the following items were chosen from the Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire: nationality, religious denomination, salary, teaching load, knowledge of languages, and area in which further education is desired. Additional selected items will be used for comparison with the results of the main questionnaire. The respondents to the main questionnaire were 154, 127 from Aleppo and Damascus, and 27 from rural areas. The items chosen from the main questionnaire are age, marital status, teaching experience, and level of education.

The sampling group of the main questionnaire includes teachers of only elementary schools and kindergartens, while that of the Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire comprises teachers serving in all Armenian schools. Out of sixty-eight Armenian educational institutions only two are exclusively at secondary level. There are fifty-eight elementary schools and eight intermediate schools having a few classes above the elementary level. It is believed that approximately ninety-five per cent of the sampling group of Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire were elementary and kindergarten teachers. These facts have permitted the writer of this thesis to use the data collected by Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire in describing the teachers of Armenian elementary schools in Syria.

The teachers of Armenian schools in Syria belong to three nationalities. Table 6 shows the distribution of these teachers in terms of nationality, number, and percentage.

TABLE 6

Nationality of Armenian Teachers

<u>Countries</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
United Arab Republic	252	93.3
Lebanon	17	6.3
Jordan	1	0.4

A great majority of the teachers are citizens of the United Arab Republic and practically all of them are from the Northern region, Syria.

The teachers of Armenian schools in Syria belong to three religious denominations as presented in Table 7.

TABLE 7

Religious Denomination of Armenian Teachers

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
Armenian Orthodox	190	70.4
Armenian Protestant	40	14.8
Armenian Catholic	37	13.7
Did not respond	3	1.1

Teachers serving in Catholic schools did not respond to the questionnaire in proportion to their number. The number of teachers in Catholic institutions is more than double the number of teachers in Protestant institutions and still fewer Catholic teachers responded.

A teacher's age is frequently an index to the nature of his role in school life. The age of the teacher is an important factor in staff turn-over from year to year and the stability of the internal life of the school. The individual teacher's age may be an index to his vitality, experience, and receptivity to innovations. Table 8 presents age levels for both sexes in terms of number and percentage.

TABLE 8
Age of Armenian Teachers

<u>Age</u>	<u>Women</u>		<u>Men</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
15-24	59	51.3	6	15.4	65	42.2
25-34	39	33.9	14	35.9	53	34.4
35-44	8	7.0	14	35.9	22	14.3
45-54	5	4.4	4	10.3	9	5.8
55-64	3	2.6	-	-	3	1.9
65 plus	1	0.9	1	2.6	2	1.3

Eighty-five per cent of women teachers are between the ages of fifteen and thirty-four, while seventy-two per cent of men teachers are between the ages of twenty-five and forty-four. A sharp decrease in the number of women teachers after the age of thirty-four may indicate that in general teaching is not a life career for women.

Table 9 presents the marital status of the Armenian elementary school teachers in rural and urban areas in terms of number and percentage.

TABLE 9
Marital Status of Armenian Teachers

	<u>Rural</u>		<u>Urban</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per cent</u>
Single women	15	55.6	84	66.1	99	64.3
Single men	3	11.1	12	9.4	15	9.7
Married women	4	14.8	12	9.4	16	10.4
Married men	5	18.5	19	15.0	24	15.6

The majority of the teachers in the Armenian schools are unmarried women between the ages of fifteen to thirty-four; thus staff changes tend to occur frequently, contributing an element of instability to the lives of these institutions. Male teachers, on the contrary, are mostly married, but their number is relatively small.

The financial reward of the teacher affects his attachment to the career and his motivation on the job. Principals and teachers of both sexes with mean and range are presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10
Monthly Salary^a of Armenian Teachers

	<u>Total</u>	<u>Responded</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Range</u>
Women principals	4	3	193	60-320
Men principals	31	16	269	110-415
Women teachers	189	171	90	15-240
Men teachers	46	45	196	100-340

^aIn Syrian pounds

Eight principals and eighteen women teachers did not state their salaries; they may have been sisters, priests, preachers or teachers without a salary. In relation to the standard of living in Syria the income of principals and teachers is quite low. The overall average income of each person in this sampling group is 124 Syrian pounds, which is hardly equal to the income of an unskilled worker in Syria. The following quotation from World Survey of Education¹ about the teachers teaching in public schools in Syria can serve as a basis for comparison:

The salary range for a primary school teacher with dependents starts at the government grade of ten with L.S. 136 per month and ends at grade four with L.S. 423 per month. In the case of large family, the allowance paid for wife and children might amount to as much as fifty per cent of the basic pay.

The implications of such a situation are quite clear. In general, able young men or women will tend not to choose teaching as a life career. The social status of the Armenian teacher is not encouraging. Salary is a crucial problem facing the Armenian educational institutions and their personnel. Many able teachers have already deserted the profession. If an immediate remedy is not found, the future of Armenian schools is seriously threatened.

The number of years that a teacher spends on the job attests to his experience with youngsters. In Table 11 teaching experience for the various professional categories is dealt with in terms of number, mean and range.

1 United Nations, Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), World Survey of Education, (Zurich, 1958), II, p. 966.

TABLE 11

Teaching Experience of Armenian Teachers

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Mean in Years</u>	<u>Range</u>
Principals	10	13.6	3-34
Kindergarten leaders	10	14.7	1-35
Kindergarten teachers	43	6.7	1-31
Women teachers	61	7.7	1-43
Men teachers	30	11.2	1-48

Principals and kindergarten leaders as well as men teachers have served the profession a longer period than the women teachers. In comparison to the results of Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire the mean of this sampling group is one year less; this shows that during the past two years younger teachers seem to have been employed in the Armenian elementary schools in Syria.

The problem of teaching load is directly related to the effectiveness of the teacher's efforts and to some extent to the satisfaction he derives from his work. The number of periods in teaching responsibility for principals, kindergarten leaders, and teachers is presented in Table 12 in terms of number, mean, and range.

TABLE 12

Teaching Load^a of Armenian Teachers

	<u>Total</u>	<u>Responded</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Range</u>
Principals	35	31	19	6-40
Kindergarten leaders	14	14	24	7-34
Teachers	221	201	31	20-47

a In periods of forty to forty-five minutes.

On the average principals have a teaching load of nineteen periods and kindergarten leaders twenty-four periods per week. It is obvious that both groups are overloaded with teaching responsibilities; consequently they will find little time for control and guidance. The position of the classroom teacher is not different; teaching an average of thirty-one periods a week makes his work less efficient. It is easy to conclude that to promote more effective teaching in the Armenian elementary schools, the teaching load of all personnel must be considerably reduced.

The profession of teaching involves such factors as knowledge of subject matter, teaching skills, maturity of thinking, understanding of human nature, resourcefulness in specific schools situations, and awareness of new trends in society and fields of knowledge. The level of education of the individual teacher is of prime importance in relation to these areas. This has led the writer to present this item in fuller detail.

In Table 13, dealing with the teachers in rural areas only, three categories are used, namely, women teachers, men teachers, and principals. In Table 14 dealing with urban teachers, two more categories are added, namely, kindergarten leaders and kindergarten teachers. Such a subdivision was advisable because of the size of the sample of the urban teachers. Table 15 summarizes the totals for rural and urban teachers with a grand total for the whole group.

TABLE 13

Level of Education of Armenian Teachers in Rural Areas

	<u>Women Teachers</u>		<u>Men Teachers</u>		<u>Principals</u>	
	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Elementary	16	84.2	2	33.3	-	-
Junior High Sch.	2	10.2	1	16.7	1	50.0
High School	1	5.3	2	33.3	1	50.0
Secondary	-	-	1	16.7	-	-

TABLE 14

Level of Education of Armenian Teachers in Urban Areas

	<u>Women Teachers</u>		<u>Men Teachers</u>		<u>Kindergarten Leaders</u>		<u>Kindergarten Teachers</u>		<u>Principals</u>	
	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Elementary	4	7.8	4	16.7	4	50.0	18	50.0	-	-
Junior High Schools	18	35.3	5	20.8	1	12.5	16	44.4	1	12.5
High Sch.	23	45.1	9	37.5	2	25.0	2	5.6	2	25.0
Secondary	5	9.8	5	20.8	1	12.5	-	-	4	50.0
College	1	2.0	1	4.2	-	-	-	-	1	12.5

TABLE 15

Level of Education of Armenian Teachers in Rural and Urban Areas

	<u>Rural Total</u>		<u>Urban Total</u>		<u>Grand Total</u>	
	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Elementary	18	66.7	30	23.6	48	31.2
Junior High School	4	14.8	41	32.3	45	29.2
High School	4	14.8	38	30.0	42	27.3
Secondary	1	3.7	15	11.8	16	10.4
College	-	-	3	2.4	3	1.9

For purposes of comparison Table 16 presents the results of Calouste Gulbenkian Questionnaire in connection to the level of education.

TABLE 16

Level of Education of Armenian Teachers According to Calouste Gulbenkian Questionnaire

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Elementary	109	40.4
Junior High School	64	23.7
High School	63	23.3
Secondary	20	7.4
College	13	4.8
Specialization	1	0.4

In this study the different levels of education were defined in the following manner:

Elementary - Five or six years of education beyond kindergarten.

Junior High School - Arabic or French brevet or two to four years of education beyond elementary level.

High School - Graduates of Antelias Seminary, Jerusalem Seminary, Melkonian Educational Institute, Karen Yeppe Secondary School (without baccalaureate), Armenian High School for Girls in Aleppo, or five years of education beyond elementary level.

Secondary - Arabic or French baccalaureate, or two years of education beyond high school.

College - Four years of education beyond high school.

Specialization - A degree in a particular field of study as pharmacy, medicine, etc.

All over the world requirements for the preparation of teachers are steadily increasing. In some countries elementary school teachers are asked to complete four years of college study. It is true that this is too high a standard for the Armenian elementary school teachers in Syria. But the absence of a single principal or teacher holding a degree of B.A. in education in the sampling group indicates how far behind the Armenian educator has fallen. The situation is very critical in the rural areas where two-thirds of the personnel have only an elementary education. In urban areas the picture is a bit more encouraging; for three-fourths of the personnel of this sampling group have a level of education between junior high school and secondary school. Teaching has become a profession. In the second half of the twentieth century mastery of the 3 R's does not qualify a person to teach young children. Crow and Crow have defined areas of teacher competence in the following manner:

The trend in teacher education is toward an increasing emphasis upon (1) the personal qualities and self-control possessed by the candidate for teaching, (2) his understanding of child nature and development, (3) his cultural sensibility, (4) his ability to learn and apply psychological principles of teaching, (5) his mastery of the subject¹ matter and skills of his teaching field.

1 Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow, Human Development and Learning, (American Book Company, New York, 1956), pp. 481-82.

Judged by these criteria the Armenian elementary principal or teacher in Syria does not have the adequate preparation that his task demands. This point is of great importance for the implications of this study.

In every level of education the sampling group of the main questionnaire (1960-61) compares favorably with that of Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire (1958-59), except in the last item which is insignificant for the purposes of this study. It is likely that in the near future Armenian elementary schools will have teachers with better mastery of subject matter, but they may continue to be deficient in their understanding of child nature and mastery of teaching techniques and skills.

Knowledge of languages is an instrument for the teacher in his use of printed resources toward professional improvement. In this study the concern is for the identification of languages that can be employed as an instrument for group improvement. Table 17 presents knowledge of languages in terms of number and percentage.

TABLE 17

Knowledge of Languages of Armenian Teachers

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Armenian	262	97.0
Arabic	110	40.7
English	102	37.8
French	89	33.0

It is doubtful that as many teachers have a truly adequate knowledge of Arabic, English or French as the table presents. The responses of the teachers to this item of the questionnaire expressed a subjective appraisal. A possible reason for more teachers having reported a knowledge of English than of French may be the fact that a comparatively small number of teachers from Catholic schools responded to the Calouste Gulbenkian questionnaire. Rapid progress is being achieved in the mastery of Arabic language and it is hoped that after some years there will be many more Armenian teachers capable of teaching Arabic subjects in the Armenian elementary schools. Nevertheless, at present the Armenian language is the only common means of communication for the great majority of the Armenian teachers in Syria.

Interest in further education may indicate a desire for personal improvement or increased professional competency. This item in the questionnaire was open-ended, thus allowing the respondent to identify the subject of his own interest. Table 18 summarizes the responses of principals, women teachers and men teachers who expressed a desire for further education.

TABLE 18

Armenian Teachers' Desire for Further Education

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Principals</u>	<u>Women Teachers</u>	<u>Men Teachers</u>	<u>Total</u>
Education	9	70	7	86
Armenian	4	26	11	41
Arabic	4	18	8	30
English	1	23	4	28
Science	1	15	5	21
French	-	19	-	19
Mathematics	1	7	7	15
Religion	4	3	4	11
Psychology	3	5	2	10
Music	-	8	2	10
History	3	3	3	9
Armenian Literature	1	4	3	8
Geography	-	4	-	4
Philosophy	2	-	1	3
Accounting	-	1	2	3
Physical training	-	3	-	3
Economics	1	1	-	2
Physics	-	-	2	2

In addition to the subjects included in Table 18 each of the following subjects was mentioned by only one teacher; journalism,

Armenian History, engineering, politics, chemistry, painting, nursing, social sciences, agriculture, and needle work. Some teachers mentioned more than one subject, while others did not mention any.

Table 19 summarizes the number of principals, kindergarten leaders, women teachers, and men teachers who left the item unanswered.

TABLE 19
No Subjects Mentioned for Further Education by Armenian Teachers

Age Level	Principals	Kindergarten leaders	Women Teachers	Men Teachers
15-24	-	-	11	1
25-34	2	1	6	2
35-44	2	2	6	-
45-54	4	-	3	-
55-64	3	-	1	2
65 +	1	-	-	-

It is significant and encouraging that eighty-six principals, kindergarten leaders and teachers expressed the desire for improvement in the field of professional education. On the other hand only ten have mentioned psychology. It might be assumed that the former group considered psychology as an integral part of education. The other items mentioned indicate interest in the fields that each is engaged to teach. Items such as philosophy, accounting, journalism, etc., indicate personal interests. 34.3% of the principals, 21.4%

of the kindergarten leaders, 15.4% of women teachers, and 10.9% of men teachers did not express any desire for further education. For such a large number of principals and kindergarten leaders to express no interest in further education is out of keeping with their responsibility in school administration and teacher guidance. Age may be an important factor, because eighty per cent of this group are above the age of thirty-four.

Conclusion

From a reading of this section of the present chapter, dealing with the nature of the teaching staff, it is an understatement to conclude that a large variety of individuals are teaching in the Armenian elementary schools. In terms of age they span five decades. In teaching experience the range is from a single year to forty-eight years. Their salaries range from 15 to 415 Syrian pounds. Nevertheless there is some value in deriving from the statistics a description of a typical teacher. That teacher is a woman, unmarried, between the ages of fifteen and thirty-four. Her religious denomination is Armenian Orthodox and she is a citizen of the United Arab Republic. She has a junior high school education, teaches thirty-one periods per week, receives ninety Syrian pounds per month and has taught for about seven years.

From this description of the teaching staff one can identify three pervasive factors exerting adverse effects upon the life of Armenian elementary schools in Syria. The teachers are poorly

educated, underpaid, and overloaded. That such a group would manifest a relatively low level of professional motivation and effective performance is understandable.

3. Enrolment

In the chart prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation in 1958-59, the total Armenian school population in Syria is 16,684. This number includes the pupils of kindergarten, elementary, and post elementary levels. The Armenian schools offer three years of work in the kindergarten and six years in the elementary school. There are no data available for the number of pupils in each group. On the basis of twenty-four years of acquaintance with the Armenian schools in Syria the writer estimates that ninety per cent of the pupils in Armenian schools attend kindergarten and elementary classes. It must also be pointed out that a small number of non-Armenians attend Armenian schools, especially in rural areas. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the total number of pupils will be taken as the number of pupils in Armenian elementary schools in Syria.

Table 20 presents the distribution of the Armenian student population in Syria in terms of locality and religious denomination.

TABLE 20

Population and School in Urban and Rural Areas

	Population		Pupils					
	No.	Per Cent	Urban		Rural		Total	
			No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
Armenian Orthodox	65,000	72.2	6908	54.4	2576	64.4	9484	56.8
Armenian Catholic	20,000	22.2	4456	35.1	1288	32.2	5744	34.6
Armenian Protestant	5,000	5.5	1323	10.4	133	3.3	1456	8.7

Seventy-two per cent of the Armenian population in Syria belongs to the Orthodox denomination, but the student body in their schools is only fifty-seven per cent. It is obvious that a considerable number of Armenian Orthodox pupils are attending Catholic or protestant schools. This statement is supported by the fact that Catholic and Protestant schools have a greater percentage of Armenian pupils than the size of their population would suggest.

Forty-two parents of Armenian pupils in Aleppo, divided equally as to upper, middle, and lower economic classes, responded to the questionnaire concerning the age requirements for the entrance of children into kindergarten. Table 21 shows their responses concerning the age at which children actually enter kindergarten and concerning the age at which the parents would prefer to have children enter kindergarten.

TABLE 21

Age of Acceptance to Kindergarten

	<u>Mean of Age at which Children should En- ter Kindergarten</u>	<u>Mean of Ages at which Children Entered Kin- dergarten</u>
Upper Income	3.7	4.1
Middle Income	3.7	4.2
Lower Income	3.3	5.8
Average	3.6	4.7

The results indicate that all parents actually entered their children into the kindergarten at a later age than they would prefer. The schools, in general, oppose the entrance of children into the kindergarten before age four. The lower income group favors entrance at the earliest age, but actually enters children at the latest age. On the other hand, difficulties faced in the matter of child care at home, and on the other hand inability to pay school expenses may account for this conflict between what is desired and what is practiced.

Table 22 summarizes the results of responses to other items in the same questionnaire, this time concerning parents' attitudes and practices with regard to secondary school attendance.

TABLE 22

Parental Attitudes and Practices Regarding Secondary Education

	<u>Should Attend Secondary School</u>		<u>Number having Secon- dary School Age Level</u>		<u>Actually Attending or Graduated</u>			
	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>		<u>Boys</u>	
					<u>No.</u>	<u>Per</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>Per</u>
Upper Income	100%	100%	24	21	17	70.8	14	66.7
Middle Income	100%	100%	20	18	12	60.0	13	72.2
Lower Income	85%	100%	25	23	9	36.0	10	43.5

These data suggest that although most parents seem to desire a secondary education for their children, a sizeable proportion are prevented from fulfilling that desire. Since the sample is so small these results must be taken with caution; but it is reasonable to assume that the financial factor is the main impediment to secondary school attendance, particularly among lower income families.

4. Budget, tuition, and external resources.

As a refugee minority group attempts to build a school system of its own, it may expect to confront financial difficulties. The Armenian schools in Syria have not been exceptions to this rule. No problem facing these institutions has been as acute as that of finance.

An analysis of the financial structure of these schools shows that funds are derived from two general sources; student fees and external resources. Table 23 presents the budget of the Armenian schools in Syria, together with amounts and percentages collected through student fees and through external resources.¹

TABLE 23

Budget of Armenian Schools in Syria

	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Budget	1,488,098	100
Fees	669,235	44.9
External resources	818,863	55.0

1 The sums indicated in the tables in this part of the study are derived from the chart prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation. The sums mentioned are in Syrian pounds.

The data of this table clearly indicate that these schools depend largely upon external resources in the balancing of their budgets. These strategic external resources include government subsidies, aid from benevolent unions and foundations, funds available through church organizations, donations from individuals, and income from school activities. Any future plans for these schools should include some such analysis of these external resources as is given in the following paragraphs:

Private schools in general receive an annual contribution from the Ministry of Education. The sum paid is calculated on the basis of the size of the school, its needs, and the quality of the work accomplished. In addition the ministry often assigns teachers to teach in Armenian elementary schools. The Ministry of Education underwrites the salaries of these teachers, thus providing further financial assistance.

An important source of financial aid to the Armenian schools in Syria throughout the past forty years has been the Armenian General Benevolent Union. This is the largest Armenian Benevolent union in the world; and its share in the support given to the educational institutions of the Armenian community in Syria is unmatched. This union works through its own educational committee. The yearly budget for education alone in Syria is about L.S. 160,000.

Another organization which has recently begun to give substantial help to the Armenian schools is Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation. In addition to the sizeable sums spent for building repairs, during the last three years this foundation, through its Advisory Committee,

has spent more than a quarter of a million Syrian pounds in supporting needy students in Armenian schools. These are two examples of the exceptionally direct and effective manner in which this Foundation is able to attack specific needs in the Armenian community.

In organizing, administering, and financing the Armenian schools in Syria, the heads of the three religious denominations play important roles. The Armenian Orthodox Church has its education committee in Aleppo which is responsible for most of the so-called national schools. Political authorities officially recognize the Archbishops of Aleppo and Damascus as the supreme heads of the national schools. Funds from church resources are made available to support their educational institutions. The Armenian Evangelical Union plays a similar role in connection with the Armenian Protestant schools in Syria. Little information is available concerning the organization of the Armenian Catholic schools.

The budgets of the schools supported by the three Armenian religious denominations are analyzed in Table 24 with respect to amounts and percentages from student fees and from external sources.

TABLE 24

Budget, Student Fees, and External Resources of Schools of Three Religious Denominations

	Armenian Orthodox		Armenian Catholic		Armenian Protestant	
	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
Budget	968,359	100	380,357	100	139,382	100
Fees	452,758	46.7	161,251	42.4	55,227	39.7
External Resources	515,601	53.2	219,106	57.6	84,155	60.4

From the data in this table it is clear that these church-related schools rely heavily upon external sources for financial support.

The average expense of each pupil and the fees collected from each pupil for the three religious denominations is presented in Table 25.

TABLE 25

Annual Expenditure Per Pupil

	Average Expense Per Pupil	Average Fees Per Pupil	Average Expense Per Pupil	
			Urban	Rural
Armenian Orth.	102	48	115	67
Armenian Cath.	66	28	76	33
Armenian Prot.	96	38	94	110

The results indicate that Armenian Orthodox schools on the average spend more for each pupil and collect more from each pupil. However an additional fact not shown in the table is that the budget of the Armenian Orthodox schools is not more secure than those of the other two denominations. This is due to the fact that some preachers in Protestant schools and many sisters and priests in Catholic schools teach without receiving a salary directly from the school budget. The column in the table dealing with average fee per pupil may account for the practice of Orthodox families of sending their children to Catholic or Protestant schools. In the last column it is seen that Protestant schools in rural areas spend more per pupil than in urban areas. This is due to the fact that most of these schools have a very limited number of pupils.

A conclusion to be drawn from the foregoing discussion of budget is that Armenian elementary schools in Syria rely heavily on external resources. Moreover the expenditure per pupil (eighty-nine Syrian pounds) is inadequate to provide an even minimal standard of education.

C. The Present Curriculum of the Armenian Elementary Schools in Syria.

This part of the thesis, though entitled the present curriculum of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria, does not purport to a comprehensive exposition and analysis of all that is offered to the Armenian learner and the teaching methods employed. Instead, it is a limited discussion of certain aspects of school practice involving three factors:

- a) Strong links with the Syrian educational system.
- b) An historical commitment to Armenian culture and tradition.
- c) A process of evolution resulting from the interaction of the first two factors.

Article twenty-one of the revised Constitution of Syria adopted in 1953 proclaims that every citizen has the right to education and that elementary education is compulsory and is to follow a unified program.

Below is given the time-table of Syrian public primary schools, dated 1957-58. The numbers indicate periods per week.

TABLE 26

Time-Table of Syrian Public Primary Schools, 1957-58

Subjects	Grade				
	1st.	2nd	3rd	4th	5th.
Koran and religion	4	4	4	3	3
Arabic	13	13	9	8	8
Arithmetic	5	5	5	5	5
Science and hygiene	4	4	4	4	4
History	-	-	2	2	2
Geography	-	-	2	2	2
Civis	-	-	-	2	2
Handwriting	-	2	2	2	2
Drawing and handicrafts	3	2	2	2	2
Physical Training and singing	3	2	2	2	2
Free activity	2	2	2	2	2
Total periods per week	34	34	34	34	34

It is obvious that such a curriculum is organized according to separate subjects. Mastery of the Arabic language is particularly emphasized. Social studies--history, geography, and civics--are offered in the upper classes. The last three items--drawing and handicrafts, physical training and singing, and free activity--are designed for aesthetic, physical, and social development of the pupils.

The curricula in the private schools are almost identical. During the last few years the Ministry of Education introduced the curriculum of the public schools into Armenian elementary schools with some

adjustments so that these private schools may teach a few additional subjects in accordance with the provisions of the law.

The 1960-61 time-table for the Armenian elementary schools in Syria prescribed by the Ministry of Education is presented below.

TABLE 27

Time-Table of Armenian Elementary Schools, 1960-61

Subjects	1st.	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Arabic language	12	11	10	10	8	8
Arithmetic in Arabic	3	3	3	5	5	5
Social sciences in Arabic	-	-	1	2	5	5
Science in Arabic	1	1	1	3	3	3
English	-	-	-	3	3	3
Singing	2	2	2	1	1	1
Drawing and handicrafts	4	4	4	3	3	3
Physical training	2	2	2	2	2	2
Armenian language	8	9	9	8	7	7
Arithmetic in Armenian	3	3	3	-	-	-
Science in Armenian	1	1	1	-	-	-
Religion in Armenian	2	2	2	3	3	3
Total periods per week	38	38	38	40	40	40

It is seen that the Ministry of Education has taken into consideration the needs of the Armenian community in Syria. Such a program allows the Armenian learner to master the Arabic language and at the

same time keep a link with his own culture. Even the kindergarten upper class is supervised by inspectors to see that the Armenian learner makes a good start in Arabic language.

One basic change distinguishing the curriculum of 1960-61 from that of 1957-58 is the grouping of geography, history, and civics under one heading as social studies. This indicates a definite tendency toward the grouping of related subjects. Another important change is the introduction of a foreign language in the three upper classes of the elementary school.

During the scholastic year of 1958-59, elementary schools began to operate on the basis of a six year program. This did not alter the number of years in the educational ladder; for, instead of four years of preparation for the brevet certificate, in the secondary school only three years are now required. Another important change which occurred during the same year was the removal of examinations at the end of the elementary education. Under the new ruling promotion from elementary to secondary level is based on a pupil's school achievement; whereas formerly it was based on the result of a single examination in each subject.

Two more changes in the public primary school practice can be pointed out, and these are now expected to be practiced in the Armenian elementary schools as well.

They are as follows:

1. In elementary schools evaluation is no more made in terms of numerical grades. Achievement of the pupil is now appraised by the words "good", "satisfactory", or "weak".

2. Promotion up to the fourth grade is automatic, except when the pupil has missed an important part of the year's work or when age is an important factor.

It can be concluded that with the present curriculum the Armenian learner is confronted with an extremely wide variety of subjects, totalling twelve. As a consequence of this overloading the time spent by the Armenian learner has extended to thirty-eight to forty periods. These facts suggest that an almost unreasonable demand is being made of the pupils in these schools.

A study of modern theories of curriculum development will show alternatives to the present separate subjects program of study.

Florence B. Stratemeyer¹ and others in their Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living present four varied types of curriculum design. First is the organization by separate subjects in which the scope and organization of school experiences are designated in terms of the subjects to be studied. Sequence is determined with reference to what is most appropriate for different maturity levels. Second is the organization by subject fields or groups of related subjects-- history and geography as social studies. Scope and sequence are determined in much the same way as in the case of separate subjects. Third, and in contrast to the two preceding bases of curriculum design, are the patterns where scope and sequence are still designated

1 Florence B. Stratemeyer, et al., Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living (2nd ed., Teachers College, New York, 1957), p. 87.

from grade to grade but in terms of broad areas that out across subject fields. Aspects of life in which the learner must function effectively--communication, development and conservation of human and material resources; home and family life--are used to determine scope and organization, while sequence rests upon adjudged optimum placement in terms of the maturity of the learners as in the two preceding positions. Fourth are the designs in which choice of subject matter for any pupil group, how it is organized, and how it flows in sequence from grade to grade emerge from the needs or problems faced by the group, broadly interpreted. This organization is distinct from the other three in that neither scope, organization, nor sequence is specifically outlined and preplanned grade by grade.

Earlier in this section, it was stated that in the curriculum of 1960-61 geography, history, and civics were grouped under a single heading as social studies. This practice of grouping related subjects may be extended into other academic areas and lead to still further exploration of the organization of the curriculum. Herein lies the hope of relieving the Armenian learner of the excessive load that he is now carrying. Thus the Armenian schools operating in close conjunction with the Syrian system of education may evolve a program designed to adjust the Armenian learner to the Syrian community at large.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS, ANALYSIS, AND CONCLUSIONS

OF THE MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE

A. The Content, the Sample, and the Administration of the Main Questionnaire

A questionnaire was prepared by the writer of this thesis to determine the beliefs, attitudes, and practices of the Armenian elementary school teachers in Syria. In the preparation of this questionnaire the assumption was made that the Armenian elementary school teacher has a limited education and lacks professional training. The facts revealed in Chapter Two confirm this assumption. These teachers are not in a position to handle a questionnaire dealing with broad, theoretical, and technical educational issues. Also a lengthy questionnaire would neither be well received nor thoughtfully answered. Moreover, it may be assumed that the respondents would be sensitive concerning inquiries involving possible threat or embarrassment. Consequently, in the preparation of this questionnaire, items were selected to cover the daily experiences and practices of the Armenian elementary school teacher. The items were structured for easy reply. Attempt was also made to approach personal problems in an indirect way.

The questionnaire consisted of two main divisions. The first

part included twenty-five questions out of which the first twenty-one were of multiple choice form each question offering three alternatives. The respondents were asked to check the statement that applied to them the most. In the twenty-second, twenty-third, and twenty-fourth questions the respondents were asked to arrange the three given statements in the order of their importance. Question twenty-five consisted of three columns of qualities describing student behavior. The first column included nine good qualities, and the second nine poor qualities. The respondents were asked to check three qualities in each column that they thought to be the most important. The third column included nine unclassified qualities and the respondents would decide whether each quality was good or poor.

Part two consisted of twenty-five statements to be answered as "yes" or "no". It is recognized that not all of these statements could be answered categorically with "yes" or "no". However, the teachers were urged to answer every item and, when in doubt, to make the best possible guess.

The sampling groups for this questionnaire included the following schools each with a comparatively large teaching staff and enrolment.

1. Five Armenian elementary schools in the city of Aleppo.
2. Two Armenian elementary schools in Medan, the Armenian quarter in Aleppo.
3. An Armenian elementary school in Damascus.
4. Two Armenian elementary schools in rural areas.

The total number of respondents was 154, of which 120 were from Aleppo, 7 from Damascus, and 27 from rural areas. This sampling group included approximately twenty-six per cent of the total number of the Armenian elementary school personnel, composed of principals, kindergarten leaders, and teachers. Table 28 presents the three groups in terms of member and locality.

TABLE 28

Respondents to the Main Questionnaire

	<u>Urban</u>	<u>Rural</u>
Principals	8	2
Kindergarten leaders	8	2
Teachers	111	23

Before administering the questionnaire to the teachers in Aleppo and rural areas, a pretest was performed in the largest Armenian elementary school in Damascus to determine whether the questions were discriminative, whether teachers tended to respond favorably, and whether the time involved was reasonable. The results obtained were satisfactory; and the responses were combined with the sample group of Aleppo.

The questionnaires administered in Aleppo were filled out in the presence of the writer, except for one school, where Mrs. Y. Bedian was in charge. The principals took over this responsibility in the rural areas. Letters were forwarded to the principals including extensive instructions concerning the administration of the questionnaires.

Through the prelate of the Armenian Orthodox Bishopric of Aleppo, Archbishop Ghevont Chebeyan, permission was obtained from the Educational Committee of the Armenian National Schools to administer the questionnaires in their schools as well as to send other questionnaires to obtain background information concerning these schools.

Before the administration of the questionnaires the principals were interviewed to discuss the nature and the purpose of the questionnaire. Every principal interviewed was cooperative and also assisted in establishing favorable respondent rapport. The writer's personal acquaintance with a considerable number of principals and teachers was of great help in the successful administration of the questionnaires.

Before the administration of the questionnaires, teachers were briefed orally on the purpose and the significance of the task they were being asked to undertake. After the informative first sheet of the questionnaire was filled out, the writer read with great care the instructions at the beginning of the questionnaire. The points stressed in the instructions were the following:

1. Teachers were being asked to help in a study which would propose ways of helping the Armenian elementary school teachers in Syria.
2. Questionnaires were anonymous and responses would appear in the study only as group totals.
3. They were requested to be serious and frank in their answers and not to try to find out "right" or "wrong" answers, but

rather base their responses on their own experience and ideas.

Seating arrangements were not ideal in all situations and several teachers began to think aloud. Their attention was drawn to the fact that each respondent's personal views were necessary for the study. They would conform to the requirements and the administration of the questionnaire would continue smoothly. Some teachers worked without asking any questions, especially those who had a higher level of education. Several others would ask questions concerning particular statements. The writer would point out that they were expected to make their own choice. In no way was any help given to any respondent, directly or indirectly. Part C of question twenty-five troubled most of the respondents, as expected. The qualities ascribed to the behavior patterns of the learners were quite unstructured in this part of the questionnaire. Again, everybody was urged to make his own choice. Several respondents were through in less than half an hour, while others took nearly one hour to answer all the items. In all schools in which the writer was administering the questionnaires the responses were checked to avoid missing replies.

After the administration of the questionnaire practically every group of teachers entered into a spirited discussion concerning certain items. The writer took part in these discussions without expressing any preference toward any statement, but rather pointing out that people in general would naturally differ in their opinions. Several principals requested an extra copy of the questionnaire to use in discussions in their staff meetings. They were given these

copies after the administration of the questionnaires was completed in Aleppo schools.

The questionnaires were presented in Armenian. Much care was taken in translating from the original English to Armenian, so as to keep the precise meaning of the original.

Respondents were given the assurance that their identities would not be revealed. In spite of this, it is believed that several respondents were apprehensive about being completely candid in treating certain statements of a personal nature; or they may not have known an answer and merely tried to guess. Still others may have been tempted to choose the "right" answer, irrespective of their own beliefs and practices. Any questionnaire of this nature, to a certain extent, is, of course, subject to these risks.

The method employed in the analysis of the findings of this questionnaire does not follow a uniform procedure. The criteria for evaluating the responses will involve the determination of preferences, attitudes, practices, and beliefs of the respondents, and, if necessary, compare these with psychological and pedagogical principles generally accepted by contemporary educational experts. Several responses will be reported as simple facts.

The responses of the urban and rural groups are tabulated separately, but analysis and interpretation will begin with the responses of the urban sampling group, the rural group being used for purposes of comparison. No attempt is made to divide the sampling group into principals, kindergarten leaders, elementary school teachers,

and kindergarten teachers, instead, all will be considered as one group. Had the sample been larger it would have been desirable to split it into smaller units to identify the beliefs and the needs of each group. The word "teachers" will be used in the analysis to represent the whole sample. Responses are tabulated according to frequency and percentage and in reporting the results the percentage is based on the total number of responses.

B. Findings, Analysis, and Conclusions of the Main Questionnaire

The main questionnaire and the complete tabulation of the responses of both urban and rural teachers are presented in Appendix D. However, in the paragraphs that will now follow, related items from the questionnaire are grouped for discussion.

The analysis and interpretation of questions one, two, eight, twenty-three and twenty-four will characterize teacher attitudes and beliefs toward self and profession.

Question One:

The first question concerns teachers' attitudes toward their career. More than half of the respondents state that teaching is a life career for them. More than one-third like teaching but do not intend to remain in it for a long time, and a small percentage will quit teaching as soon as they find a better job. Somewhat less than half of the respondents expressed discontent toward their career. This attitude is shown by three-fourths of rural teachers. It can

be concluded that many more teachers are dissatisfied with their career and will try to desert their job than a community school system can afford to lose.

Question Two:

Nearly half of the respondents believe that they are good teachers and have the qualities that the profession demands. Approximately an equal number of teachers had stated that they have chosen teaching as a life career. This affirmative self-appraisal by teachers with limited knowledge in subject matter and with practically no professional training shows a marked lack of insight into self or ignorance of professional standards. An equal number believes that with adequate training they could be good teachers. On the other hand this indicates that an important number of teachers are aware that they are not particularly efficient teachers and at the same time confirm the value of professional training. The responses of the teachers in the rural areas indicate similar self-appraisal.

Question Eight:

Half of the teachers assume that teaching is an easy job that an average person can do; another forty-five per cent think that the good teacher is "born," and a small percentage agree with the idea that only persons who have adequate training can become good teachers. Respondents display some concern not to expose their weaknesses. As untrained teachers themselves they are unwilling to accept or unable to see the importance of training. The

stereotype that the good teacher is "born" is more widespread than one might suspect, and interestingly enough more often expressed by urban teachers with a higher level of education than the rural teachers.

Question Twenty-three:

Half of the respondents believe that an understanding of the nature of the child has first priority in the teaching profession. The second item chosen is mastery of subject matter. Third comes the ability to apply psychological principles. The first choice seems to indicate, on the part of the Armenian elementary school teacher, an awareness of the importance of knowing the nature of the learner. The second choice indicates the great extent to which these teachers value mastery of subject matter. It may be noted that rural teachers appear to consider the ability to apply psychological principle more important than the mastery of subject matter.

Question Twenty-four:

The respondents are almost unanimous in their opinion that the good teacher is the one who likes his job and who likes the learner. Success of the learners in examinations and special attention paid to the gifted children are considered equal in importance as good qualities of a teacher. Very similar responses were made by rural teachers.

Questions three, four, and twenty-two deal with difficulties

that teachers are facing.

Question Three:

More than half of the teachers consider their teaching load too heavy. This was pointed out by the writer in the earlier discussion of teaching load. Teaching thirty-one periods per week definitely affects adversely the quality of the work done. Approximately one-fourth of the respondents state that other duties out of school take much of their time and energy. This is another handicap for the Armenian elementary school teacher. It is seen that fifteen per cent of the teachers state that they cannot obtain help when faced with difficulties. Rural teachers are almost equally divided in their choices. This might suggest that more rural teachers than urban teachers feel unable to obtain help when faced with difficulties.

Question Four:

Low salary is chosen as the major problem of the teachers by a large majority. In an earlier discussion of teachers' salaries it was indicated that on the average the present financial condition of the Armenian elementary school teacher is hardly equal to that of an unskilled worker and that this would seriously threaten the future of these institutions. Lack of respect for his personal dignity as the major problem is chosen by approximately one-fifth of the respondents. Such a belief on the part of some teachers will affect adversely their personalities. The threat of being fired is a concern

of practically no one. It seems that professionally the urban teacher has little to lose. The threat of being fired as a major problem was chosen by a larger percentage of rural teachers.

Question Twenty-two:

A majority of the teachers feel hopeless when the achievement of their pupils is not up to their expectation. The probable reason for the priority given this item is the fact that in the Armenian elementary schools the success of the teacher is mainly evaluated by the success of his pupils in the mastery of the subject matter. Nearly an equal number of respondents feel helpless because they lack the knowledge of subject matter as well as teaching techniques. This item was considered second in importance. How could a teacher expect his students to achieve well if he lacks the knowledge of the subject matter as well as teaching techniques? Least important was considered not to be allowed to practice what one believes in. This suggests a lack of personal point of view on the part of the Armenian elementary school teacher. Responses of the rural teachers were quite similar to those of the urban teachers.

In conclusion it can be stated that teaching load, salary, and achievement of the learners are the major concerns of the teachers responding to the questionnaire.

Questions five, seven, eleven, twelve, and eighteen present some practices of the Armenian elementary school teachers in relation to their profession and classroom procedures.

Question Five:

It would appear unusual that nearly half of the respondents have been able to do extensive reading for their instructional improvement. The Armenian translation of this item could be understood as "reading for general knowledge." Almost half of the group desire but can't find the time to do extensive reading. The stereotype that one cannot become a better teacher through reading is expressed only by a small percentage. The writer doubts if the teachers understood the meaning of the item correctly. It is believed that teachers, in general, do little professional reading, and had the translation been clearer, many more would have chosen the third item. Teachers in rural areas have chosen each item with equal frequency; thus the stereotype among them is expressed more strongly. Having a lower level of education and little access to books and periodicals, they probably tend to rationalize more.

Question Seven:

More than half of the respondents desire but cannot find the time to visit the homes of their students. Less than one third practice it and believe in its usefulness. Eleven per cent rationalize by saying that they do not visit the homes of their students so as not to be prejudiced toward any student. Among the teachers of rural areas this apparent rationalization is expressed by a greater number of teachers (26.9%). It is believed that few teachers visit the homes of their students and those who have checked the first item may not practice it on a large scale. It can be concluded that in

the Armenian elementary school teacher and parent are not cooperating to aid the child toward satisfactory behavior and greater achievement.

Question Eleven:

Approximately half of the teachers go to every class after full preparation and one-third prepare the lesson in case there is any need. The extent of the preparation may be questionable, but the need is at least expressed by the great majority of the teachers. Some teachers teaching the same book in the same grade for many years may find little reason for pre-planning, because their conception of lesson preparation may be synonymous to merely knowing the subject to be taught. Bossing says that lesson planning is essentially an experience in anticipatory teaching. It is living through in advance, mentally and emotionally, the classroom experience as the teacher visualizes it.¹ Had the Armenian elementary school teacher understood preparation before meeting his students as such a broader concept, the number of respondents choosing the first item may have been considerably less. Similar responses have been made by the teachers of the rural areas, except that a smaller percentage of this group tend to think that they never need to prepare a lesson before meeting the class.

Question Twelve:

Nearly half of the respondents grade their students according to achievement and effort; and approximately one-third also

1 Nelson L. Bossing, Teaching in Secondary Schools (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1952), p. 284.

consider the behavior of the learner. The word behavior must not be understood to mean changes produced in behavior patterns of the learner, but rather how the child behaves in class. The Armenian translation of the word makes this differentiation very explicit. Therefore effort and behavior are important factors in determining the grade of the pupil, thus making teacher evaluation quite subjective. In the Armenian elementary school appraisal is largely in terms of the subject matter acquired by the learner. The inclusion of effort and behavior indicates to what extent the teacher may be prejudiced in his grading system. The same method of grading is exhibited in the responses of the rural teachers.

Question Fourteen:

The majority of the teachers desire to use examinations only as an aid in evaluation and one-fourth are determined to remove examinations from schools. It is doubtful whether the respondents are aware of recent evaluation procedures, with the emphasis being placed upon the development of behavior patterns to insure competence in meeting successfully life situations. A greater percentage of rural teachers depend on examinations as the main tool of evaluation (36% against 11% of city teachers) and fewer want to remove examinations from schools (16% against 25.2%). This suggests that rural teachers tend to be more traditional in their evaluating procedures.

Question Eighteen:

Most of the teachers agree that the teacher should admit

his ignorance frankly when he does not know the answer to a question put forward by the student. This is in accordance with modern educational practices recommended by experts in the field. A little more than one-third of the respondents recommend asking the students to find the answer without revealing their ignorance. Only a small fraction of the sample (4.7%) recommend giving a fictitious or irresponsible answer to hide their ignorance. Similar responses have been made by the rural teachers to the same item. A higher percentage of the rural teachers (52%) recommend asking the student to find the answer and only 44% agree that the teacher should admit his ignorance. Perhaps cultural values attached to the status of teachers may be partially responsible for this lack of readiness on the part of some teachers to reveal their ignorance.

Ten more questions concerning the area of teacher beliefs concerning the nature of the learner, classroom procedures, discipline, attitudes toward parents, and other educational issues will be discussed and analyzed in the paragraphs that follow.

Question Fifteen:

Teachers are almost unanimous in their opinion that the slow child may not be slow in every learning situation. This corresponds to the findings of some studies concerning ability differences among learners. These responses also indicate that the teacher does

not look at the slow learner as a hopeless case, and therefore may try to provide learning situations where even the slow learner can achieve some progress. Only 4.7% believe that, in general, the effort that the teacher makes to improve the slow learner is a waste of time. This attitude is displayed by a larger percentage (11.1%) of the rural teachers. Almost every teacher, both urban and rural, disagrees with the statement that the slow child must not be accepted to school.

Question Nineteen:

In the hypothetical case presented in this item, a large majority of the respondents believe that John's behavior was the result of his home environment. An individual's overt reactions to a situation often reflect his home influences. The stereotype that John had inherited the characteristics of his father was expressed by 11.8% of the urban teachers and 16% of the rural teachers. Only 0.8% of the urban teachers saw little hope in improving John in any way; but 8% of the rural teachers agreed with this point of view. This shows that only a small percentage of both urban and rural teachers see little hope in improving behavior patterns of problem children. In general the Armenian elementary school teacher is aware of the strong impact of home environment on the behavior patterns of the pupils.

Question Twenty:

In studying this hypothetical case, a little more than half of the respondents express the belief that Henry was stealing books to

satisfy a need, and recommended that some kind of job be found to enable him to earn pocket money. Another sizeable group of teachers (46.4%) thought that Henry must be suspended but not expelled from school. The Armenian elementary school teacher is exhibiting an understanding of the underlying causes of child behavior. This wholesome attitude is displayed by a relatively smaller group of rural teachers.

Question Twenty One:

Only 47.2% of the respondents were able to detect the relation between Mary's timidity and home environment, while a larger group (52%) believed that she must be forced to share class discussions to overcome her difficulty. These respondents were not aware that before recommending any clue to overcome the difficulty one must seek to understand the bases of the exhibited behavior, and that merely forcing Mary to take part in classroom discussions may have adverse consequences. Among rural teachers this attitude toward the timid child was more widespread (68%). Only 0.8% of the urban teachers thought Mary was naturally timid, while 4% of the rural teachers took this position.

Question Six:

A little less than half of the respondents believe that parents have been helpful in solving some problems. Among rural teachers only 22.2% have such an attitude toward the parent. Approximately half of the teachers think that parents create more problems than they

solve or that parents exert pressure on the teacher in favor of their child. This negative attitude on the part of the teachers toward parents is displayed far more by the rural teacher (77.8%). The Armenian elementary school teacher seems to have had unrewarding experiences with parents. Whether the responsibility lies on the understanding parent or on the unqualified teacher is controversial. But it is quite obvious that the respondents are unable to see parents as a rich source of information and that some basic problems of the pupils can only be solved by the cooperation of the parents.

Question Seventeen:

Approximately half of the respondents believe that kindergartens are created so that children may acquire certain skills. Only one-third of the rural teachers agreed with this point of view; the remaining two-thirds believe that kindergartens are created so that the child may be disciplined from an early age. 41.7% of the urban teachers took the same position. This negative approach may account for the unhappy classroom atmosphere prevailing in so many kindergartens. The emphasis put on disciplining the child from an early age is associated with the fear that failure in complete control even in the kindergarten will indicate the incompetency of the teacher. Cultural demands strengthen this unwholesome attitude. It is interesting to note that while 4.7% of the urban teachers believe that kindergartens are created so that parents may get rid of their children, none of the rural teachers sided with this point of view.

Question Nine:

To which grades must the able teacher be assigned is the problem dealt with in this question. 87.4% of the urban teachers and 65.4% of the rural teachers believe that the lower the grade the more able the teacher must be. The writer doubts strongly if teachers would be willing to put such a belief into practice. In general the level of the grade to which a teacher is assigned is considered a criterion in determining the status of the teacher.

Question Thirteen:

Three-fourths of the respondents believe that a student must repeat his class when he fails in an important subject such as arithmetic or language. A still higher percentage of rural teachers (84.6%) agree with this idea. Such a belief reflects the emphasis put on the achievement of mastery in particular subjects. It is encouraging to see that 21.3% of the urban teachers and 15.4% of the rural teachers recommend promotion on the basis of age. It is obvious that the majority of the teachers are not aware of the principle of continuous promotion in elementary schools recommended by many educators. It was already stated that the Ministry of Education in Syria has made promotion in the first four grades of the elementary schools automatic. If the Armenian elementary school teacher sees the importance of developmental experiences and of desirable social attitudes, perhaps, then, he will agree to promote pupils on the basis of age.

Question Ten:

Almost three-fourths of the respondents have taken an

intermediate position concerning the problem of sharing responsibilities in decision making. They neither favor the idea that the principal will make decisions and teachers will put them into practice, nor do they agree to bring in the learner as a participant in decision making. Still it is encouraging and significant that fifteen per cent of the teachers favor the participation of the learner. In rural areas more teachers (30.8%) want the principal to assume the responsibility of decision making and only a very small percentage favor pupil participation. It may be suspected that in rural schools the authoritarian atmosphere is more prevailing than in urban schools.

Question Sixteen:

A little more than half of the respondents, both urban and rural, believe that physical punishment really disciplines some children. This attitude attests to the wide use of corporal penalties in the Armenian elementary schools in Syria including the kindergartens. Control of the overt behavior of the pupils by means of physical punishment is considered as a negative approach to the problem of discipline by contemporary educationists. The emphasis nowadays is on self-discipline. More urban teachers (32.8%) than rural teachers (19.2%) confess that physical punishment is the result of the anger of the teacher. Only a small group of urban teachers (13.6%) believe that the possibility of physical punishment brings order into the classroom. If it does not bring order and it is being used, then the rationalization will follow that it really disciplines some children.

Consequently the learning situation will no more be democratic and the Armenian elementary teacher will tend to be authoritarian. It must also be mentioned that physical punishment is forbidden by law.

Question Twenty Five:

Question twenty-five deals with teacher attitudes toward child behavior. All children misbehave at times. It is natural that our adult standards can neither be fully understood nor entirely adhered to by children. But how far are we able to understand our children and honor their own processes of child growth and development? Recurring behavior problems are the result of personality difficulties; therefore parents or teachers should understand the underlying causes if they expect to help the child. Research has shown that teachers and mental hygienists differ in their interpretation of children's behavior. In the following paragraphs a brief summary of a study by E.C. Hunter will be presented on this topic.¹ The trends revealed by Hunter will be used as a basis for interpreting the responses of the Armenian elementary school teachers.

That teachers should understand better the social and emotional dynamics of children's behavior is increasingly evident. Effective guidance of behavior depends upon the proper gauging of background factors and the careful appraisal of misbehavior tendencies. The comparative seriousness of behavior problems in children has now been the subject of systematic study for three decades.

1 E.C. Hunter, "Changes in Teachers' Attitudes toward Children's Behavior Over the Last Thirty Years," Mental Hygiene, ix4 (1957), 3-11.

In 1926-27 Wickman¹ in his own classic investigation revealed that teachers and mental hygienists differed markedly in their interpretation of children's behavior problems. The teachers rated as most serious transgressions against authority, dishonesty, immoralities, violations of rules, lack of orderliness, and lack of application to school work. In striking contrast, a group of mental hygienists rated the proceeding items low in the scale of seriousness, but rated most serious unsocial, withdrawing and recessive behavior. Also to the clinicians, excessive suspiciousness, dreaminess, being over-critical of others, sensitiveness and shyness, which were minimized by teachers, were danger signals for trouble in the future.

Mitchell² in 1940-41 compared teachers' and mental hygienists' attitudes toward pupil behavior with Wickman's findings. On the whole he found that teachers continued to be more concerned with teaching conformity and respect for authority than with helping pupils meet their basic needs.

Sparks³ in 1952 showed that varying amounts of experience had little effect on the attitudes of teachers toward behavior problems but that the amount of education did affect ratings. Teachers with education beyond the bachelor's degree were closer to the clinicians in their appraisal of children's behavior than were teachers with less education.

-
- 1 E.K. Wickman, Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes (The Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1928).
 - 2 John C. Mitchell, "A Study of Teachers' and Mental Hygienists' Ratings of Certain Problems of Children", Journal of Educational Research XXXVI (1942), 292-307.
 - 3 J. N. Sparks, "Teachers' Attitudes toward the Behavior Problems of Children", Journal of Educational Psychology, VIIIIL (1952), 284-91.

Hunter in his own study found that although teachers continue to be concerned with much annoying and aggressive behavior, their understanding of causal factors and of the consequences of behavior patterns has expanded and deepened over the last three decades. Teachers today are dealing more effectively with the whole child over the long span. The more highly trained teachers specially are better able than teachers formerly were to analyze and interpret the significance of recessive and withdrawing forms of behavior.

Question twenty-five consisted of three columns of nine qualities describing student behavior. Column A listed nine good qualities and column B listed nine poor qualities; and the teacher was asked to check three qualities in each column that he thought to be the most important. The third column included nine unclassified qualities and the teacher was asked to decide himself whether each quality was a good or poor quality.

Wickman¹ states that from the reports of teachers on the occurrence of undesirable behavior in their pupils it appears that teachers are most aware of these problems which affect the child's application to school work. In the Armenian school, submission to order and routine in the classroom is a prerequisite for effective study. High achievement on the part of the learner reflects the efficiency of the teacher and good control not only facilitates teacher's work but is regarded by the culture as one of the best qualities of the teacher.

1 Wickman, 50.

According to the responses of the Armenian elementary school teachers the rank order of the nine good and poor qualities stands as follows:¹

A. Good Qualities

1. Intelligent
2. Diligent
3. Obedient
4. Prompt
5. Honest
6. Respectful
7. Cooperative
8. Serious
9. Modest

B. Poor Qualities

1. Lazy
2. Dishonest
3. Talkative
4. Disobedient
5. Dull
6. Boastful
7. Quarrelsome
8. Timid
9. Aggressive

It is obvious that the respondents rated high those qualities as good which directly contributed to better achievement and efficient classroom control. If the learner is intelligent, diligent, obedient, and prompt, the immediate teaching purposes of the teacher will not be frustrated. While if the learner is honest, respectful, cooperative, serious, and modest (qualities low in rank), there is no guarantee that the achievement of the pupil will be up to the expectation of the teacher.

The rank order of poor qualities suggest a similar trend, with the exception of the second item, dishonest. A lazy, talkative, disobedient, and dull learner will not only fail himself, but also fail

1 Urban teachers chose intelligent and diligent, dull and boastful with equal frequency.

the teacher. It is obvious that the Armenian elementary school teacher is particularly sensitive to those problems in pupils that frustrate mastery of subject matter and endanger his status as a teacher. The items lowest in rank--boastful, quarrelsome, timid, aggressive--suggest difficulties in children in their social and emotional adjustment. We may conclude with Wickman¹ that the personal problems of the child seem to be subordinated to the problems encountered in teaching and in classroom management. It is surprising to find the adjective honest the fifth in rank in good qualities and its antonym the second in rank in poor qualities. Probably the teacher takes honesty for granted in high achievement, while he would emphatically object if that achievement is secured through dishonesty. Why the quality of being intelligent was the first in rank in good qualities and its antonym the fifth in poor qualities is difficult to explain. It is possible that in good qualities the teachers rated high those items that secured high achievement, while in poor qualities classroom control and moral values might have operated as important criteria.

The respondents of rural areas made similar choices in good qualities. The same four adjectives--intelligent, prompt, diligent, and obedient--appeared with the highest frequency. In the poor qualities, lazy came first; then came dull, boastful, talkative.² These qualities, except the quality of boastfulness, are directly related to school achievement and classroom control. Thus there is more consistency in the choices of the rural teachers. It appears that being

1 Ibid., p. 43.

2 Rural teachers chose boastful and talkative with equal frequency.

boastful is resented in the rural area more than in the urban area. No teacher in the rural area chose timid as a significant poor quality. Among urban teachers 15.7% made this choice. It seems that none of the rural teachers are aware of this personal problem of the child.

The third group of qualities, where the teacher was expected to decide himself whether the quality was good or poor, brought about some confusion in the minds of the respondents. Several teachers could not see a clear-cut division as good or poor in these qualities. This was expected because the questions were quite unstructured.

The mental hygienists in Wickman's study¹ rated high the qualities of being over-critical of others, sensitive, shy, and dreaming; while restless and inquisitive were rated quite low. Quietness and submissiveness do not appear on Wickman's list. It may be assumed that mental hygienists would consider these two qualities as serious behavior problems of children. Modern psychologists tend not to resent the use of competition as an achievement--motivating incentive, provided that unequal competition is not permitted.

These nine items were rated as good qualities in the following rank order:

1. Competitive	(93.6%)
2. Inquisitive	(90.2%)
3. Sensitive	(84.0%)
4. Quiet	(62.9%)
5. Shy	(52.8%)

1 Ibid., Table VIII, p. 243.

6. Critical	(42.4%)
7. Submissive	(34.4%)
8. Restless	(30.6%)
9. Dreaming	(16.1%)

It is obvious that no item was chosen by every respondent as good or poor quality. This wide range of difference indicates great variety in approach to these behavioral problems of children. The Armenian elementary school teacher may value competitiveness and inquisitiveness, since these qualities promote achievement; but he displays a relative ignorance concerning the sensitive, quiet, shy, critical, submissive, restless, and dreaming child. It is believed that the respondents lacked the professional awareness necessary to discern the underlying causes and the seriousness of these qualities for the future life of the learner. The mental hygienist would rate all these items, probably with the exception of competitiveness, as poor qualities.

The implication of the discrepancy between the ratings of the mental hygienist and the Armenian elementary school teacher is of great importance. Once more we come to the conclusion that personality problems of the children are not properly evaluated when main emphasis is on the academic achievement of the learner. Thus, qualities which facilitate orderly teaching processes are valued and adult standards are imposed on pupils. Consequently, the classroom atmosphere can no more be democratic and the teacher tends to be autocratic. It becomes obvious that the Armenian elementary school teacher has much to learn about the nature of the learner if he is going to be effective in his teaching career.

Rural teachers displayed a similar lack of understanding of behavior problems of children with the exception that a considerably larger number of rural teachers than urban teachers considered submissiveness a good quality.

PART II

The second part of the main questionnaire presented twenty-five statements to be answered as yes or no. Respondents were urged not to leave any statement unanswered and, when in doubt, to make the best possible guess. In theory, statements of this nature must be precise in phrasing and consistent in application. The writer believes that the first of these criteria was met, but cannot claim that these statements are all consistent in nature. Therefore the choices made by the respondents must be taken to be true or false in general.

In the analysis of the responses these twenty-five statements are divided into the following three categories:

- A. Stereotypes--statements which display non-rational beliefs, not supported by objective evidence.
- B. Attitudes and beliefs--statements which disclose certain patterns of thinking and feeling on the part of the teacher toward the learner or the learning situation.
- C. Practices--statements which are operational suggesting how the teacher would act in certain school situations. These categories cannot be employed as airtight divisions; rather they tend to be relative and arbitrary, and, to a certain extent, even, overlapping.

A. Numbers ten, eleven, fifteen, sixteen, twenty-four, and twenty-five are grouped as stereotypes.

Walter Lippmann, one of the earliest writers on stereotypes, says that for the most part we do not first see and define, we define first and then see. In the great blooming, buzzing confusion of the outer world we pick out what our culture has already defined for us, and we tend to perceive that which we have picked out in the form stereotyped for us by our culture.¹

Thus stereotypes are firmly established irrational beliefs. The individual with stereotypes is entirely convinced, at least on the emotional plane, of the correctness of his views and does not hesitate to express them as final judgements. He comes out with black and white distinctions and is inflexible in his opinions.

10. Almost two-fifths of the respondents think that boys are more intelligent than girls. Half of the rural teachers agree with them. Research has shown practically no difference in intelligence between the sexes. And whatever differences there are may be attributed to environmental factors. Such a stereotype will affect teacher attitudes and practices as well as influencing pupil self-concept.

11. Approximately three-fourths of both urban and rural teachers believe that arithmetic shows best the differences in intelligence among students. An erroneous understanding of the word intelligence may be the underlying factor in such a stereotype. This may adversely influence curriculum organization and promotion of pupils.

1 Walter Lippmann, Public Opinion (Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1922), p. 81.

15. Approximately forty-five per cent of the respondents assume that sometimes one-third or one half of a class of twenty-five students may fail in a certain subject. Such a stereotype tends to project failure on to the pupils. A larger percentage of rural teachers (65.4%) display this stereotype.

16. A majority of the respondents believe that more students fail in arithmetic because it is a difficult subject. A larger group of urban teachers (81.5%) agrees with the statement. Such a stereotype concerning any subject matter is an unsound appraisal of learning activities.

24. Almost half of the urban teachers and three-fourths of the rural teachers believe that a good teacher uses half of the period to explain the new lesson. The Armenian elementary school teacher tends almost to exhaust himself by talking and explaining, thus forcing the child to be a listener. The stereotype displayed in this item also tends to render the classroom teacher a domineering figure before the eyes of the children.

25. Approximately forty-two per cent of the urban teachers and fifty-six per cent of the rural teachers think that home assignments are not done well because parents are unable or unwilling to help their children. The probable underlying mechanism in the formation of such a stereotype is projection. The kindergarten and elementary school teacher is trying to hold the parent responsible instead of questioning the quantity of the home assignment made and the quality of the work required from pupils. Several modern educationalists would even question the use of home assignments at these age levels.

For instance, Burton has summarized several studies in this area by stating that "home study is not a significant factor in affecting the achievement of pupils."¹

It is natural for the Armenian elementary school teacher to have his own stereotypes. He too has been subjected to a unique schooling of attitude formation in the family, school, community, and the culture at large. He too has relatively fixed and naive opinions on professional issues. Moreover stereotypes are communicable and contagious. An elementary school teacher with stereotypes will be in an exceptionally good position to spread his own irrational thinking on the minds of children. At this age children are incapable of questioning the validity of a teacher's statements, for they regard him as the symbol of final truth.

B. Numbers three, seven, eight, nine, twenty, and twenty-one are grouped as teacher attitudes and beliefs.

The following quotation summarizes the meaning and development of attitudes.

Every human experience is accompanied by affective qualities known as feeling tones. Feeling tones are present in all sensations as pleasantness or unpleasantness, satisfaction or annoyance. These experience qualities, which are individual and personal, relate to and affect the way a person thinks or behaves in any situation. Feeling tones are among the components that form the basis of an individual's attitudes...An individual's thoughts, interests, and behavior are influenced by his attitudes.

1 Burton, William H. The Guidance of Learning Activities (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1944), p. 344.

Attitudes act as dynamic forces in human behavior. They give it direction and influence the mental-set of the individual in any situation. Attitudes are not necessarily constant. They vary with the intensity of the individual's interest and with the persons or situations involved.

Teachers have their own attitudes toward the learner and the learning situation. They have their own feeling tones and these tend to be expressed as overt behavior in practice. These feeling tones also determine to a certain degree the beliefs of the individual teacher. Moreover teacher attitudes and beliefs, directly or indirectly, influence or condition the attitude patterns of pupils.

3. Both urban and rural respondents are almost unanimous in stating that they are not ashamed to tell others that they are teachers. In spite of the fact that only 55.6% of the teachers had chosen teaching as a life career, still the Armenian elementary school teacher is not inclined to underrate his status.

7. Only a majority of the teachers believe that most children are obedient. It is believed that the authoritarian atmosphere prevailing in the Armenian elementary schools at times will force the child to exhibit his resentment, thus prompting the teacher to form such an attitude toward the learner. It is encouraging to see that a large number of rural teachers (81.5%) agree with the statement.

8. Approximately seventy per cent of the urban teachers and only sixty-three per cent of the rural teachers believe that most

1 Crow and Crow, pp. 80-81.

children are eager to learn. When the teacher is dominating and when the pupil does not share in preplanning, the learner will understandably exhibit little eagerness to learn.

9. It is encouraging that almost three-fourths of the urban teachers and four-fifths of the rural teachers believe that physical defect hampers the achievement of even the intelligent child. Educators think that physical handicap interferes with school achievement. And there is no reason why the gifted child would be an exception.

20. The great majority of both urban and rural teachers agree that the dignity of every learner must be respected. Such a wholesome attitude displayed by these teachers may be an asset in developing other favorable attitudes toward the learner.

21. Teachers are almost unanimous in believing that the student will not try his best if he does not like the teacher. Therefore teachers admit the importance of pupil attitudes toward the teacher. Almost three-fourths of the rural teachers agreed with this statement. The rural teachers appear to be somewhat less aware of the importance of pupil attitudes toward the teacher as a motivational factor.

C. Question number one, two, four, five, six, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, twenty-two, and twenty-three are grouped under the heading of practices.

1. The great majority of the teachers are not confused when somebody visits their classes. The writer, from his personal experience, strongly doubts if this is the case in reality.

2. Almost eighty-five per cent of the teachers indicate readiness to take part in an in-service summer session. This is meaningful for the implications of this study. Therefore it may be safely assumed that if an in-service program is organized there will be enough teacher candidates to take part in it. A smaller percentage of rural teachers (63%) has shown this readiness.

4. Both urban and rural teachers are almost unanimous that discipline is the major problem in their work. Educationists generally believe that discipline tends to become a minor problem if the pupil is actively engaged in meaningful work. But the teacher who tries to gain overt obedience to his commands when he is the only person active in the classroom will face many discipline problems. Moreover, it is believed that community demands and teachers' conceptions of "good discipline" have operated together to convince the teacher that full control is imperative.

5. Almost one-fifth of the teachers do not think that teacher meetings have been fruitful. It may be assumed that some teachers have not obtained the assistance needed from their superiors. Rural teachers almost unanimously agree with the statement.

6. It is worth noting that 35.5% of the teachers think that order in the school is the responsibility of the principal. Probably several respondents were inclined to think that as order in the classroom is the responsibility of the teacher, so order in the school is

the responsibility of the principal. Is such a wrong conception of classroom and school the result of the control exercised by the principals? Far more rural teachers (57.7%) have this erroneous conception of the responsibility of order in the school.

12. More than one-third of the respondents think that the main task of the teacher is to teach the gifted child. There is value in meeting the academic needs of the gifted child; but to regard this as the teacher's main task is a misconception which may have serious consequences for the average and the slow children. Near an equal percentage of rural teachers have expressed the same opinion.

13. More than one-fourth of the respondents agree with the statement that the grade is a powerful weapon in the hands of the teacher in disciplining the child. If we assume that agreement also means practice, we see a very narrow conception of child control. Far more teachers in the rural areas (42.3%) have taken the same position.

14. Almost three-fourths of the teachers think that students must be grouped according to their ability. This would facilitate the work of the teacher in school achievement. But the writer does not believe that the respondents are aware of the shortcomings of homogeneous grouping. Moreover, in the kindergarten and elementary school, learning to live together must not be outweighed by mastery of fundamentals. It is interesting to note that only 55.6% of the rural teachers favor grouping according to ability.

17. The majority of the teachers oppose the idea of teaching most of the subjects in a self-contained classroom arrangement. Lack

of professional training may cause the teacher to be insecure in facing diverse learning situations. Moreover, the popular emphasis on the mastery of subject matter may be another reason for the choice made. Definitely, teachers are missing the advantage of knowing and working with the whole child. A smaller group of rural teachers have taken such a position. Perhaps in rural areas the practice is to assign the same teacher to teach many subjects to the same group or grade.

18. It is encouraging to see that both urban and rural teachers are almost unanimous in thinking that the gifted child too needs the help of the teacher. The gifted child also experiences problems, perhaps different in nature. Helping him to solve his problems and satisfy his needs is a major responsibility of the teacher.

19. Both urban and rural teachers, almost unanimously, agree with the statement that the purpose of the school is to prepare the child for future adult life. The writer believes that in the Armenian elementary schools in Syria this preparation for future life may be so much emphasized that the present needs of the children may be overlooked.

22. Almost equal percentages of both urban and rural respondents, 80.8% and 81.5% respectively, are reluctant to accept children into kindergarten before the age of four. This is in sharp contrast with the desire of the parents to enter their children at an earlier age, as discussed in a former section of this thesis.

23. A great majority of the teachers agree with the statement that competition must be encouraged in school. Educators recommend competition with one's own record of performance to avoid the harmful

effects that may result through excessive competition. Rural teachers, almost unanimously, agree with the statement.

It may be seen that an entire chapter has been devoted to the analysis of the main questionnaire. Throughout this analysis the emphasis has been on the richness of detail provided by the responses of the teachers involved. For this reason each item in the questionnaire has been dealt with separately. Any attempt to summarize and generalize upon this detailed analysis cannot do justice to the larger body of material to which it refers. Nevertheless, the following general observations can be made:

1. Teachers revealed a wide range of differences in teacher attitudes and beliefs on psychological and pedagogical issues.
2. Significant stereotypes were operating in their beliefs and practices.
3. There were deficiencies in evaluation methods employed and a considerable number of teachers were inclined to see a hierarchy in subject matter.
4. A considerable number of teachers could not sense the value of parent-teacher cooperation in solving the problem of children.
5. A deficient notion of discipline and control was overtly expressed by a sizeable number of respondents leading to the questionable belief that physical punishment would discipline some children.

6. Pupil participation in lesson planning was not acceptable for the majority of the teachers.
7. Qualities of pupils directly contributing to better achievement and efficient classroom control were rated high, while qualities which might have adverse consequences for the mental health and future life of children were rated low.
8. The majority of the teachers favor grouping for instruction according to ability and departmentalized instruction.
9. Teaching load, salary, and achievement of the learner are the major concerns of the teachers.
10. Discipline is the major classroom problem for the great majority of the teachers.
11. Almost unanimously teachers agree that the purpose of the school is to prepare the child for adult life.

These are some of the major areas where deficiencies were identified. It must be pointed out that a comprehensive and detailed examination of all the incompetencies of the Armenian school teacher is beyond the scope of this thesis. It must also be mentioned that the respondents displayed certain positive attitudes and basic understandings of child nature in limited areas, probably gained through their direct contact with children over a period of several years.

CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

In chapter two of this thesis the background of the Armenian schools in Syria was described, the stages through which the Armenian community had passed as it has become an important minority group were pictured, and the development of a system of private schools of this minority group was presented. Further, important facts concerning the Armenian schools in Syria were discussed concerning school organization, teaching staff, enrolment, budget, and curriculum. In chapter three an attempt was made to determine the beliefs, attitudes, and practices of the Armenian elementary school teachers in Syria through a questionnaire prepared by the writer of this thesis. Now, in this last chapter of the thesis, the implications of this study will be presented under the following four headings:

- A. The Armenian elementary school, the teacher, and his task.
- B. Competencies demanded by the profession.
- C. Proposals for instructional improvement.
- D. A look to the future.

A. The Armenian Elementary School, the Teacher, and His Task.

The material conditions under which the Armenian teacher works are extremely difficult and inadequate. Very few schools were originally

built to become centers of education. It was already stated that the most important plan for the future, according to principals, was that of securing better school buildings. Sanitary conditions are poor, and, particularly in rural areas, both teacher and pupil suffer immensely from the inadequacy of physical facilities. Ten years ago the situation was far more discouraging. Due to the efforts of the Armenian General Benevolent Union, Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, and community leaders a considerable improvement was accomplished. The Ministry of Education played an important role in this respect by formulating certain minimum requirements concerning the physical condition of these educational institutions. Furthermore, most of the Armenian elementary schools do not possess even a minimal amount of equipment, facilities, and supplies. Classrooms are often overcrowded, and it becomes nearly impossible for even the devoted teacher to meet the individual needs of the pupils.

The Armenian learner enters kindergarten at approximately four years and six months. He must spend in general three years at this pre-elementary stage of his schooling. The program consists of non-academic activities such as games, music, dancing, etc. for the first two years, but academic preparation begins in the third year. Before he is seven years old, the child is already engaged with books and homework assignments. Moreover he must deal with two languages, Arabic and Armenian. Classes for this age group are an integral part of the elementary schools, housed in the same building and administered by the same principal. There is a kindergarten leader responsible for the organization and guidance of the activities.

The course of study at the elementary level lasts six years and at around thirteen years of age the Armenian learner will be a graduate of elementary school. For a considerable number of pupils this is the final stage of their formal education. Data collected from ten schools concerning their graduates in 1958 showed that less than one third of these graduates entered secondary school. This clearly demonstrates the importance of elementary education for the Armenian learner. Whatever the knowledge the pupil acquires in these institutions, be it language or arithmetic, science or general knowledge, it must serve him as his basic academic preparation. Such a situation puts additional significance to the work of the teacher in his task of educating the Armenian learner.

The Armenian community in Syria for long years was isolated from the Arab culture due to the absence of a common language. Only after thirty-five years has the Armenian learner begun to master the Arabic language. The Armenian teacher himself was unaware of the social and cultural needs of the pupil. Meeting the requirement of both Armenian and Arab cultures was an impossible task, since the teacher himself was not equipped with the skills and knowledge that the task demanded. Due to the effective intervention of the Ministry of Education the situation was ameliorated. The public school program was introduced into the Armenian elementary school and the Armenian learner is now making considerable progress in the mastery of the Arabic language. It may also be expected that in the near future a new generation of Armenian teachers will be equipped with an adequate knowledge of both the Arabic language and the Arab culture to help the Armenian learner to come closer to the

community at large and assume fuller responsibilities as loyal citizens.

The Armenian kindergarten or elementary school teacher does not have the adequate preparation that his task demands. It was pointed out in chapter two that these teachers are recruited principally from elementary and junior high school graduates. The teacher may be a person who has failed to join a more profitable profession. Though verbally praised, he is, in general, placed at a low level on the social scale. Quite often he is in the profession temporarily and may desert his teaching career when a better position is secured. His salary is so small that his personal attachment to the profession may soon be defeated by his material needs. Thus teaching may no more be attractive for him either socially and economically. He is so heavily overloaded in his school task that he is unable to find time and seek means to surmount his personal limitations. In and out of school duties exhaust his personal resources as an educator and leader. Consequently it is natural that he may assume an attitude of unconcern and carry out his duties with little enthusiasm.

It was repeatedly stated that the Armenian elementary school teacher or principal does not have the preparation adequate to the demands of his task. The full weight of this statement will become clearer if we compare the level of education of these educators with another group of elementary school teachers.

In 1953 Luther E. Bradfield collected data from fifty selected elementary schools in Arkansas concerning the teachers, their problems

and extent of supervisory assistance.¹ His findings showed that half of the teachers responding to the question indicated they had completed four years of college work and held a bachelor's degree. The largest group was composed of those with three or more years of college training. The typical teacher held a bachelor's degree. Practically all beginning teachers and those who had taught from one to four years had completed four years of college training and held a bachelor's degree. Ninety-five per cent of the teachers had completed at least three years of college work.

In the present study it was shown that in rural areas two-thirds of the teachers were graduates of elementary school. Approximately eighty-eight per cent of the total sampling group were graduates of elementary school, junior high school or high school. Moreover it was stated that not a single teacher or principal held a bachelor's degree in education. It becomes obvious that with this level of education and with no professional training the Armenian elementary school teacher cannot be effective in the performance of his task as an educator.

Education in the Armenian elementary school is traditional and academic, often divorced from the needs of the learner and of society. The teacher continues to employ the same approach that he was subjected to as a learner. Imparting knowledge through the textbook is considered to be his main task. Verbalism prevails at all ranks of the educational ladder, thus encouraging the pupil to recite what he has acquired

1 Luther E. Bradfield, "Elementary School Teachers: Their Problems and Supervisory Assistance," Educational Administration and Supervision, VI (1959), pp. 102-6.

from texts with relatively little understanding. The program of instruction is rigid and prescribed from "above". Motivation and incentives for the learner are either non-existent or extrinsic in nature. Under these circumstances effective teaching cannot be realized.

B. Competencies Needed by the Armenian Elementary School Teacher.

The foregoing discussion presented some of the major problems confronting the Armenian elementary schools and teachers. Now attention will be given to one specific area, namely, teacher competencies. The purpose is to develop certain criteria based on the thoughts of contemporary educationalists. In the light of these criteria recommendations will be made concerning ways of improving teacher competencies.

Teacher competencies may be divided into three areas.

1. The teacher as a person.
2. The teacher as a citizen.
3. The teacher as a member of the teaching profession.

1. It is said that every teacher, whether he is aware of it or not, has a philosophy of education. The way he views life and its problems will not only determine his value judgements but also affect his attitudes concerning his pupils and colleagues. Whether the teacher considers the teaching profession important and valuable enough to devote a whole life to it is influenced by the value he attaches to the self-realization of each individual and the social welfare of the community at large. The Armenian elementary school teacher lacks the security that his profession should offer him. The factors involved

in such a situation are both economic and professional. He may realize that the task confronting him is of supreme importance, but he is unable to contribute all the potential resources that he possesses. Consequently he may either return into complacency or feel defeated in his own drive for achievement. Moreover his disappointments may endanger his mental health. He is expected to be emotionally stable and attempt to solve his or pupil's problems calmly and intelligently. A number of questions may be raised in this connection. Can the Armenian elementary school teacher adapt himself to the prevailing conditions? Can he safe-guard his mental health? Can he continue to enjoy his profession? Can he reduce his fears and worries? Can he achieve a satisfactory degree of self-esteem?

2. The culture in which the Armenian teacher is to perform his duties and assume his responsibilities expects him to be an enlightened person. He is not only to be an example for his pupils, but also to other citizens in the community. He is to be actively interested in the major problems of the group and be ready to serve in many kinds of out-of-school activities. He must assume leadership in youth organizations, sports clubs, scouting, Sunday school, etc. In rural areas the scope of this activity is still wider. There he is the symbol of knowledge and leadership. If he is a principal, he is expected to find solutions to practically any kind of problem that the group may face.

Unfortunately, the Armenian community in Syria is split into opposing groups and the teacher is expected to side with one to resist the other. Often he is unable to rise above a clique mentality and

keep his integrity of thought. Moreover the school in the Armenian community is expected to achieve diverse goals. The teacher cannot escape from assuming corresponding roles. It is true that his main responsibility is toward the learner, but the community has its own demands too. Thus the Armenian teacher must know the needs of the community in which he is engaged to work, try to be the major link between home and school, rise above trivial problems and be able to keep his integrity of thought, direct his pupils toward life-long goals, show readiness to serve his group and his country, be a good citizen himself and cultivate a deep-rooted understanding of good citizenship in his pupils. Can the Armenian elementary school teacher assume all these roles? Can he achieve all these goals? Is he in a position to realize the importance of all these goals and roles? Are we not expecting from him too much when we have given him so little?

3. There is a definite feeling today that education must play a large part in the readjustment which society must undergo. Consequently the demand will be for teachers with a broad and deep understanding of life. Education today cannot be defined as teaching of dates and facts, symbols and formulas; rather it must help pupils to sense broader areas of life situations. Moreover, knowing the child has become imperative. Morse and Wingo emphasize the idea in the following statement:

The learner, in our schools, is a changing, growing, maturing being. His growth needs at any point affect what he will learn and how and what he will need to learn. There is a sequence in his unfolding potentialities as well as in the

adjustments he must make. You can understand and help him better today if you knew what happened to him yesterday and what problems he will face tomorrow.¹

The range of competencies that a teacher is expected to possess as a professional in the guidance of learning is varied and wide. In the following pages some of the basic professional competencies of the teacher that modern thought stresses will be presented.

a. The teacher should understand the principles of human growth and development. He must possess an adequate knowledge of behavior through the best available research and supplement these with a knowledge of the background of the particular group with which he is expected to work.

b. The teacher should know the basic principles which are essential to effective learning. Learning is a process of adaptation through new behavior patterns to solve new problems. Learning is an active process related to the learner's purposes. When he is not actively engaged in the learning situation he will display lack of interest and find the classroom situation quite dull. A good teacher will provide experiences directly related to the life of the learner to develop skills that he may efficiently use in other but similar life situations.

c. The teacher must be able to create a classroom climate in which his relation with the pupils is friendly. Maximum learning can-

1 William C. Morse and G. Max Wingo, Psychology and Teaching (Chicago, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1955), p. 51.

not take place in an atmosphere of high authority on the part of the teacher and complete submissiveness on the part of the pupil. This may result in fear and worry, enemies of effective learning.

d. The teacher must be able to adjust learning to individual differences. Research has shown the existence of individual differences in interests, needs and abilities among learners. This does not suggest that group purposes or needs are to be neglected. Stratemeyer makes this idea clear in the following statements:

Children need to be understood and treated as the individuals they are, each with his unique potentialities and rate of growth, each with his own background, problems to be solved, specific habits to be satisfied.¹

e. The teacher must be able to make learning meaningful for the pupil. This does not only imply that the content of the curriculum must be appropriate for the maturity level of the child, but also it must be directly related to his life and purposes. If the teacher is able to achieve this goal, motivation will be the natural result of interest. Stratemeyer in simple but candid words makes the following comment:

.....To the learner the thing that arouses him, that sets a problem at his growth level, becomes his goal--a slide to be climbed, a doll to be dressed, a book to be read, an experience to be shared with a friend, a request to be made, a problem to be solved. It is in terms of his purposes that the learner identifies sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in an experience and draws conclusions for future action.²

1 Florence B. Stratemeyer, et al., Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living (New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948), p. 57.

2 Ibid., p. 61.

f. The teacher must believe with educators that the normal child is able to learn and enjoys learning. Such an attitude on the part of the teacher will not only facilitate his personal relationship with the learner but also serve as a basis in selection of experiences. A wise teacher will give up any learning experience which does not appeal to the learner. He will also be alert in discerning the causes of lack of interest and be ready to go along with the needs and purposes of the pupil.

g. The teacher must be able to have a sound understanding of evaluation in assessing pupil progress and growth, the emphasis being on the quality rather than on the quantity. Reproducing what has been memorized from books is not to be regarded as a high degree of achievement, rather the able teacher must look to see if the learner is able to use the acquired knowledge successfully in life situations to solve his problems.

h. The teacher must be able to act with the other person's best interest at heart. This guiding principle of his professional ethics must not only be given lip service but effectively implemented in his daily life, particularly in his relations with his pupils and with his colleagues.

One could continue to enumerate and discuss many more competencies that a teacher of our century is expected to possess. The following quotation, though lengthy, well summarizes the competencies in the career of the teacher:

(1) The heart of the school program should be experiences which interest and challenge boys and girls. Vicarious experiences must be based on sufficient first hand experiences to have meaning to the learner. Knowledge is important, but it must be related to action.

(2) School experiences should be consistent with the physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual needs of children.

(3) A controlling purpose must be that each child shall have the opportunity to grow and develop to his optimum. He needs to feel that he "belongs" and that he has the ability to achieve in areas considered important by his peers and by adults.

(4) Differences in the way children learn and achieve must be recognized. Genuine respect for individual differences in all phases of personality and ability calls for an informal classroom atmosphere in which children learn from one another and where questions of boys and girls are welcomed by the teacher and other adults. Learning materials of varying degree of difficulty are essential. Education is not regarded primarily as "ground to be covered", but rather as a means of meeting needs for effective living.

(5) The criterion of achievement should be growth in desirable behavior characteristics--desirable action in performing the tasks of daily living now and in the future. The school must recognize its double responsibility of enabling the child to appreciate his heritage and to assist the home, church and community in developing citizens capable of coping with tremendous current problems. The skills, knowledge, attitudes, values and understanding considered necessary for effective citizenship must be given careful and specific consideration by adults in planning the educational program of schools. Experiences which best enable boys and girls to develop these characteristics should then be provided.

Success of the program should be evaluated in terms of actual change in the actions, the thinking, the behavior of boys and girls.

(6) Evaluation, a process of decision--making, that is indispensable to effective learning, should be an actual part of teaching. It includes determining values, identifying and clarifying purposes, and arriving at judgements which are supported by evidence. Evaluation, as a basic factor in developing a good learning environment, involves the intelligent and continued use of procedures which help teachers and children to keep clearly in mind (a) the job to be done, (b) appropriate ways of accomplishing the job, and (c) needed next steps in bringing about improvement.¹

It was stated that the Armenian elementary school teacher has practically no professional training. But teaching has become a profession and no teacher could expect to be effective in his task of educating the children of this minority group without an adequate knowledge of human growth and development, without understanding the basic principles essential to effective learning, without understanding the nature of the child and identifying individual differences to be able to meet the needs of every pupil.

It was also stated that the Armenian elementary school teacher has only a limited education, is poorly paid, is overloaded in his school task, teaches in schools where physical conditions are far from being satisfactory, where even a minimal amount of equipment, facilities, and supplies are lacking. These factors combined with the

1 National Education Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Creating a Good Environment for Learning (Washington, D.C., 1954), pp. 275-76.

professional incompetencies identified listed at the end of chapter three will bring us to the conclusion that an attempt must be made toward the professional improvement of the Armenian elementary school personnel. In the following section of this thesis alternatives for the realization of this goal will be proposed and discussed.

C. Proposals for the Professional Improvement of the Armenian Elementary School Teacher.

The preceding section of this chapter ended with the conclusion that an attempt must be made for the professional improvement of the Armenian elementary school personnel. In this part of the chapter the writer attempts to suggest several possible ways of helping the Armenian elementary school teacher toward this improvement. For many of the ideas that will be advanced documentation is not claimed; because, in most cases, these go beyond the data that this study offers. But it must be stated that this attempt is not mere speculation; it is based on the data at hand and on the personal knowledge and experience of the writer. The following four possible sources of professional improvement will be explored:

1. In-service training program.
2. Summer seminars at the American University of Beirut.
3. Normal school program.
4. Syrian Teachers College.

These points will now be discussed in the above order.

1. In-service training program.

Even in the most advanced countries in-service education has come to be recognized as an integral part of educational planning. If

schools are expected to keep pace with evolving personal and social needs, their provision for in-service training must be regarded as of prime importance. Every school system must be prepared to modify its old ways of doing things and improve its practices to create better learning situations for the child. The importance of these facts cannot be overemphasized for the Armenian elementary school and teacher.

The question may be raised as to whether or not the Armenian elementary school teacher can benefit from an in-service training with his meagre education when his interest in the profession is limited and the material conditions in which he is expected to perform his task are discouraging. The responses of the teachers to the questionnaire indicated that almost eighty-five per cent of the urban teachers and sixty-three per cent of the rural teachers have shown readiness to participate in an in-service summer session. The writer strongly believes that the Armenian teacher is eager to learn and to improve. Moreover, it is suggested that if material reward were to accompany improvement, his responsiveness to opportunities for in-service growth and also his attachment to his career will be strengthened.

In this part of the thesis the scope and organization of an in-service training program will not be dealt with in full detail, nor will related problems such as budget and personnel be fully discussed. Rather the nature of such a program and its implications for the apparent needs of the group will be clarified, and some other factors such as locality and language will be briefly presented.

The fact that successful learning, not only for children, but for adults as well, is effectively achieved only through the active participation of the learners must be the cornerstone of an in-service program. Many teachers with different levels of education and with different backgrounds must be led through meaningful learning experiences. The success of an in-service program depends on application of democratic principles and the meeting of individual needs.

The findings of this study identified certain incompetencies of the Armenian elementary school teacher as well as several questionable beliefs and attitudes, practices, and stereotypes. To secure improvement in these and other related areas, it is proposed that in-service program be divided into two major parts.

1. Summer courses and activities.
2. Training on the job.

Each part will now be discussed.

Summer Sessions:

The types of activity which may be undertaken during summer may include an elementary course in educational psychology, conferences and discussions, and demonstration--workshop, experiences. A course in educational psychology will seek to acquaint the teacher with the nature of child-growth and development, the dynamics of human behavior and learning, the essentials of the educative process, and the role of the teacher in this process. The outcomes anticipated are stated in the following quotation:

1. Better understanding of children (physically, mentally, and emotionally) and the implications of these understandings for teaching and learning.

2. Adjustment of school environment and school activities to meet the needs of children and provide for their interests.
3. Self-analysis on the part of the teacher and improved teacher efficiency.
4. A permanent interest for child study.¹

Conferences and discussions will offer opportunities to look into individual or group problems and attempt to find solutions. Every activity planned should be the outgrowth of some expressed need on the part of the participants. A planning committee composed of teachers collect suggestions from the teachers of various schools to determine areas of major interest. In general, however, activities and discussions may fall into three groups:

1. Those related to community problems.
2. Those dealing with the needs of individual schools.
3. Those planned as concrete help in classroom procedures.

Through the medium of demonstration--workshop experiences, teachers may observe and grapple with methods and skills useful in the solution of problems facing the Armenian learner and teacher. Instructors may conduct model lessons in various subjects with children attending such summer schools. Demonstrations may depict activities which should result in increased alertness and professional skill for the teachers as well as a greater amount of creative work for children. Student participation in planning and execution may be emphasized and personal experiences of individual boys and girls may be taken as integral parts of curriculum and teaching.

1 Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, In-Service Growth of School Personnel (Twenty-First Yearbook, XXI, No. 6, 1942), p. 293.

During summer most of the teachers will be free to follow the program offered, and moreover there is the possibility of securing qualified educators from other countries, particularly from Lebanon. Care must be taken that the material offered is in keeping with the knowledge and understanding of the teachers. The most appropriate site for such classes is Aleppo where more than two-thirds of the teachers live and work. The findings of this study have shown that Armenian is the only means of communication for this group. The fact that adequate texts and printed materials are not available in this language put the prospective instructors under the obligation of full preplanning of printed material before the start of the program. This will be a valuable opportunity for the leaders to tailor their material to the needs and readiness of the in-service group.

The duration of the summer session will be two months each summer, and the leaders will attend for three consecutive years. Those who complete the whole course successfully will be awarded a certificate to that effect. The program for the first summer will include the three activities mentioned above, namely a brief course in educational psychology, conferences and discussions on various topics based on the interests and problems of each group, and demonstration workshop experiences in summer schools. The program for the next two summers will depend largely on the results obtained during the first summer.

It is believed that every teacher or principal taking part in the in-service program will join discussion groups to share ideas on such topics as guidance, supervision, evaluation, promotion, and methods of teaching particular subjects. Special attention must be paid to the needs of principals and kindergarten leaders; for the success of the in-service program will depend partly on the quality of the work achieved during summers and partly on the manner in which principals and kindergarten leaders encourage the day to day application of new ideas, concepts and skills throughout the school year.

Such a program cannot be proposed without considering the financial problems involved. Armenian elementary schools are in no position to make material sacrifices. The only hope is in finding a foundation or benevolent union having the material resources to sponsor such a program. Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation is already spending substantial sums by sending kindergarten leaders or teachers and principals abroad for professional improvement. Will the Foundation be willing to use these funds for an in-service program? Moreover, certificated teachers will expect better salaries; and this fact must be considered as one highly probable outcome of such a program of professional improvement.

(b) Training on the job

This part of the program can be either an alternative or a supplement to the summer sessions; therefore its organization

and scope will vary accordingly. It is likely, however, that not all teachers will be able to attend summer sessions. Therefore, it is recommended that training on the job be a part of the whole in-service training, hereby seeking to meet, at least partially, the needs of individual institutions and teachers.

The plan for this part of the in-service program is to have a group of qualified educators, in the role of curriculum consultants, visit practically every Armenian elementary school in Syria during the scholastic year. Their responsibilities may include observation of the teacher at work, individual conferences and counseling with teachers, conferences and discussions with the teaching staff, studying each institution functionally and solving local problems peculiar to each situation, looking into the possibilities of meeting government requirements with greater degrees of success. Any educator responsible for this part of the program will work with each school from one to four weeks, depending on the size and needs of each institution.

The cooperative sharing of ideas must be the outstanding feature of the curriculum consultant's work. The aim is to find areas in which the principal, the teacher, the pupil, or the community may be seeking help. It is likely that any educator working in this part of the program can fail easily if he is not tactful, cooperative, and understanding.

The visit of the curriculum consultant must follow an invitation by the school authorities. In no case should he try to force

his way into a school. Through correspondence consent can be obtained and assurance can be given that his ultimate aim is to help.

Both parts of this in-service program require qualified leaders, and such leaders are not readily available in Syria. Educators may be secured from abroad or arrangements might be made to develop these leaders from the ranks of present teachers by giving university education to able and enthusiastic candidates. The minimum qualification of any instructor or educator working in the program should be a bachelor's degree in education.

The following basic principles are quoted for the successful operation of such in-service programs:

A desirable program of in-service education:

1. Begins with an inventory, or survey, to determine the current local needs.
2. Starts where the teacher actually is and leads by moderate steps toward higher professional standards.
3. Sets up specific objectives.
4. Involves specific and cooperative planning.
5. Substitutes leadership for authority.
6. Is adjusted to the needs, interests, and capacities of each teacher.
7. Is unbiased, free from preconceived ideas and prejudices.
8. Is concerned with teacher personality as well as scholastic achievement.
9. Recognizes individual merit.

10. Is organized in such a way that its effectiveness can be evaluated.
11. Results in self-analysis and self-evaluation.
12. Is continuing, evolving plan.¹

2. Summer Seminars at the American University of Beirut

A second alternative for the professional improvement of the Armenian elementary school teacher is a provision for summer seminars in the American University of Beirut. The advantages of such a program are many. In an organized institution, such as the American University of Beirut, qualified leadership personnel is available. Working with highly trained educators will enlarge the perspective of the Armenian elementary teacher and enable him to study his career more objectively. Also these summer seminars may create an atmosphere for freedom of thought and expression for all participants. Naturally the seminars will de-emphasize straight academic teaching; instead they will emphasize new insights into the teaching task. Teachers whose work has been subject-centered may be introduced to new instructional practices. Attention may be given to the development in the teacher of a familiarity with specific classroom activities which he may use in his own classroom work. Participants may observe model lessons in the teaching of different subjects. Audio-visual aids may be amply used to acquaint the teacher with cheap but useful types of materials.

1 Ibid., p. 409.

This alternative has its own limitations. Only 37.8% of the respondents to the main questionnaire stated that they have a knowledge of the English language. It was already stated that these responses must be taken with reservation. Thus the number of Armenian elementary school teachers who can benefit from summer sessions in an American university is assumed to be quite limited.

Summer seminars may also be organized at the French University of Saint Joseph in Beirut for those who have an adequate knowledge of the French language. But the same limitations as those mentioned above will be operating. The writer is in no position to know the likely number of participants in such programs nor is he able to determine the expenses involved.

3. Normal school program

The purpose of the in-service program or university summer seminars was to secure professional training for the teachers now serving in the Armenian elementary schools. On the other hand the purpose of establishing a normal school in Syria is that of preparing qualified teachers for future recruitment. How and when this can be achieved is a question for which there is no ready-made answer. It may be stated, however, that such a plan will be a slow process; but in the long run it is likely to prove effective.

Perhaps a more practical approach to the preparation of teachers is the establishment of a two-year course in education in the two Armenian secondary schools in Aleppo, namely Karen Yeppe and Calouste Gulbenkian Secondary School. Karen Yeppe is already a

secondary school preparing students for the Syrian baccalaureate. This institution has produced a considerable number of teachers for the Armenian elementary schools, mainly serving in Aleppo. Calouste Gulbenkian Secondary School will become a full fledged secondary institution within a year. These two schools could start programs of teacher preparation if funds were made available by an organization having the material resources. This would enable the Armenian elementary schools to recruit teachers to replace those with a rudimentary education and with no professional training. Moreover such a plan would enable the Armenian elementary schools to meet governmental requirements in the recruitment of new teachers.

Another institution preparing teachers is Melkonian Educational Institute in Cyprus. For more than three decades this institution has prepared teachers for Armenian schools. But the program offered needs a radical change if it is to come closer to the modern theory and practice of education. It must, however, be stated that this institution can prepare only a limited number of teachers for the Armenian elementary schools in Syria.

A major advantage of establishing normal schools with a limited program in the two secondary schools now operating in Aleppo is the fact that in these institutions teacher preparation may be provided as a concomittant continuous of the existing secondary program. Moreover pupils from rural areas may study in these schools and then serve in the schools of their own villages or towns. One possible limitation of this proposal is the fact that it may prove extremely

difficult to secure government recognition for the degrees awarded. In spite of this it may be assumed that such a program would go far toward meeting the needs of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria.

4. Syrian normal schools.

The last but not the least important suggestion for the preparation of future teachers for the Armenian elementary schools refers to the Syrian normal schools. There are two normal schools in Aleppo alone preparing teachers for elementary schools. To be eligible for these schools the candidate must have a brevet certificate. These normal schools have a program which extends over three years, and, upon the completion of the credits required, the candidate is awarded a diploma which officially entitles him to teach in any elementary school in Syria. Little is known to the writer of this thesis concerning the curriculum and organization of this pre-service program.

As the Armenian learner acquires fuller knowledge of the Arabic language, he will be in a better position to benefit from the opportunities that these public institutions offer. It was already stated that the Armenian learner in all levels of education follows the program prescribed by the Ministry of Education. He must obtain his brevet to be eligible for secondary education. The Syrian University in Damascus offers a program of four years of post-baccalaureate studies leading to a degree of "licence". Those who want to acquire

professional training in teaching must study an additional year. Both the normal schools and the Syrian University offer ample opportunities to the Armenian learner to secure professional training in education.

An obvious implication of the existing system of education in Syria is the fact that the Armenian learner is expected to follow in the footsteps of the Arab learner if he expects to obtain degrees officially recognized by the Ministry of Education. The improvements achieved in the field of pre-service teacher education in Syria are very encouraging; and there is no reason why the Armenian teacher-trainee will not benefit from the opportunities that his country is so generously offering.

Four alternatives have been presented as gateways to the professional improvement of the Armenian elementary school teacher or for the recruitment of prospective teachers. They seem to be different phases of one single effort. At present no single program alone could satisfactorily meet the needs of the Armenian elementary schools. It cannot be claimed that herein all of the alternatives to the problem have been exhausted. This has been an attempt to suggest certain ways taking into consideration the needs of the Armenian elementary school teachers, the future turn-over of the teaching staff, and the existing educational opportunities of the country where these institutions are expected to meet the needs of this minority group.

D. Looking to the Future

Looking to the future one is forced to speculate on developments that may emerge in the course of time. This will not be a casual attempt to anticipate future events; rather it will be based on the existing state of affairs and not detached from reality. In the second chapter of this thesis it was seen that Armenian educational institutions have been continuously growing. But the direction of the growth has been mainly horizontal, and directed toward the ability to offer an opportunity of education to every member of this minority group. However, in recent years, this growth has taken a vertical direction. Several schools have begun to operate at an intermediate level, and a few have become well organized secondary schools. It is hoped that this upward movement will continue in the years to come. New demands are facing the Armenian learner and the Armenian schools have to assume new roles. An elementary education, which was the basis of his training, can no more meet his ever-growing needs.

This growth has another phase too. As the schools in the urban areas enlarge and move upward, the schools in the rural areas are declining. Several schools in rural areas have already closed their doors. The Armenian population is showing a definite tendency to move into towns and cities. It may be anticipated that the number of Armenian schools in rural areas may decrease, thus obliging the schools in towns and cities to accommodate more pupils. Particularly the schools below the elementary level may wither away. Continuous

growth or death are the alternatives for any educational institution. This means that there must be continuous growth on the part of the educational workers too. Herein lies one major problem of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria. Will the growth of the teacher match the growth of the schools?

It was stated that the Ministry of Education is introducing changes in the curriculum of elementary schools, the tendency being toward better provision for the needs of the learners. In a world of change and tension schools have to assume increasingly important roles. To a degree schools reflect the culture they grow in and in turn bring changes in that same culture. This means that the Armenian learner has to come closer to the Arab culture without losing his own identity. This has been achieved to a large degree in the past few years and it may be predicted that this movement toward increased interaction between the Armenian learner and the Arab culture will be a continuous process. Will this interaction culminate with integration?

New demands and new trends bring about a definite feeling that the education of the Armenian learner must undergo a process of readjustment. This brings forth a new demand for teachers with broader and deeper understandings of their own society and of life in general. From where will these teachers come? The desperate financial situation of the Armenian educational institutions does not give any sign of hope. Will the community make an additional effort toward more material sacrifice? Will the Ministry of Education

increase the subsidies for the Armenian schools or assume wholly the educational burden of this minority group? Will there be foundations pouring in substantial additional funds to save these institutions from complete loss of identity?

Finance has been, is, and will continue to be the most acute problem of the Armenian elementary schools in Syria. All over the world the responsibilities of the teacher are emphasized and the role he plays in the forward movement of human welfare is glorified. And practically all over the world the material reward of the teacher remains at a minimum. The Armenian elementary teacher is not an exception to this state of affairs.

APPENDIX A

Dear Principal:

I am writing a thesis about the Armenian elementary schools in Syria and the professional improvement of the teachers serving in these institutions. I am in need of brief historical facts about each school. I will be thankful if you could answer the following questions on a separate sheet. Your answers will not appear in the thesis as separate facts, but will be added to those of other schools to discover general characteristics.

1. (a) When was the school founded?
(b) By what name?
(c) With how many students?
(d) By whom?
2. (a) What changes have taken place in the student body?
(b) What is the present number?
3. (a) Does the institution own the school building?
(b) For how many years?
4. What projects do you have to be realized in the near future?
5. Any other fact that you consider important in the history of your school.

APPENDIX B

Armenian Schools in Syria

(Prepared by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, 1958-1959)

No.	Name of the School	Locality	Denomination	Number of Students	Number of Teachers	Women	Men	Budget ⁴	Collected from students
1.	National Vartanian	Aleppo	O ¹	344	13	7	6	14867	5398
2.	Armenian Evangelical (Ashrafieh)	"	P ²	120	8	6	2	8900	2000
3.	Setrag Mesrobian	"	O	170	12	11	1	23134	6180
4.	Bethel (Jebel Sayda)	"	P	37	2	2	-	2565	264
5.	Hripsimiantz	"	O ³	35	2	2	-	2064	200
6.	National Kermantigian	"	O	150	7	5	2	9172	4715
7.	Hovsepian	"	C	280	11	10	1	12270	5575
8.	National Sahagian	"	O	721	30	21	9	71500	37084
9.	National Zavarrian	"	O	530	24	17	7	45509	24566
10.	Vartanantz	"	C	447	19	9	10	30498	17817
11.	National Mesrobian	"	O	473	16	9	7	30000	15000
12.	Gulligian (Medan)	"	O	365	13	6	7	27000	21500
13.	Bethel	"	P	425	25	19	6	43000	23000

APPENDIX B (Cont'd.)

No.	Name of the School	Locality	Denomination	Number of Students	Number of			Budget from students	Collected
					Teachers	Women	Men		
14.	Varvaria	Aleppo	C	415	10	9	1	9580	3120
15.	*Pierre Sainte (Ram)	"	C	2116	76	48	28	144985	27802
16.	National Gulbenkian	"	O	175	8	8	-	14670	5975
17.	*National Karen Yeppe	"	O	300	31	9	22	140000	58525
18.	National Ousoumasiratz-- Levonian	"	P	265	16	12	4	20584	6234
19.	National Gertasiratz	"	O	470	23	16	7	43745	25650
20.	*Gulligian (city)	"	O	550	42	13	29	60250	30000
21.	*Militarian	"	C	322	15	4	11	35200	16500
22.	*Colleges des Soeurs de l'Immaculee Conception	"	C	365	26	17	9	61445	45638
23.	Sainte Thereza	"	C	261	13	11	2	16950	9445
24.	Orphelina "La Providence"	"	C	30	-	-	-	13850	7440
25.	Lazar Najarian and *Calouste Gulbenkian Secondary School	"	O	660	37	17	20	109272	40810
26.	Emmanuel	"	P	216	14	12	2	19700	12000
27.	National Aramian	"	O	60	4	4	-	4170	850
28.	National Haigazian	"	O	791	49	38	11	108601	48490
29.	Guenatz	"	P	170	13	8	5	18961	7674

APPENDIX B (Cont'd.)

No.	Name of the School	Locality	Denomination	Number of Students	Number of Teachers	Women	Men	Budget	Collected from students
30.	National Zavarian	Damascus	O	115	11	6	5	9243	2700
31.	Sahagian-G. Gulbenkian	"	O	169	13	10	3	20899	10000
32.	*National Tarqmanchatz	"	O	332	14	9	5	20610	13650
33.	National Miatzyal	"	O	172	12	7	5	19496	9027
34.	National Papkenian	"	O	50	3	2	1	1335	665
35.	Armenian Evangelical	"	P	90	9	6	3	11000	2500
36.	Armenian Catholic Patriarchate	"	C	185	12	10	2	10985	1140
37.	National Saint Hagopiantz	Latakia	O	187	12	9	3	14200	7500
38.	National Sahagian	Homs	O	124	8	5	3	7090	4200
39.	National Nebastengal	Kessab	O	22	6	4	2	2950	300
40.	National Ousoumssiratz Miatzyal	"	O	140	9	6	3	6250	1750
41.	Armenian Evangelical	"	P	78	10	6	4	9050	1100
42.	Mesrobian	Karadouran	O	35	3	1	2	2600	600
43.	National Miatzyal	"	O	32	2	2	-	975	400
44.	Armenian Evangelical	"	P	15	2	1	1	1635	155
45.	Armenian Evangelical	Koerkune	P	24	3	3	-	2124	195

APPENDIX B. (Cont'd.)

No.	Name of the School	Locality	Denomination	Number of Students	Number of Teachers	Women	Men	Budget	Collected from students
46.	Armenian Evangelical	Ediz Olouk	P	10	1	1	-	695	30
47.	Armenian Evangelical	Bagh jaghaz	P	6	1	1	-	1168	75
48.	Sarafian	Ain-el-Arab	0	169	7	3	4	8513	2074
49.	National Karmian	"	0	84	8	5	3	4925	1040
50.	National School	Derik	0	85	3	1	2	4310	1125
51.	*National School	Kamishli	0	1181	56	18	38	81574	54954
52.	*Saint Hovsepianz (Boys)	"	0	203	8	3	5	8540	7354
53.	*Saint Hovsepianz Immaculee Conception (Girls)	"	0	380	14	14	-	10540	9000
54.	National School	Amondra	0	41	4	2	2	2850	1100
55.	National School	El-Haseke	0	107	5	3	2	6150	3000
56.	Miatzyal School	"	0	521	15	10	5	16800	7000
57.	National School	Derbesie	0	31	2	1	1	2550	255
58.	Gulligian	"	0	102	8	4	4	16000	2150
59.	Sainte Therese	"	0	82	6	3	3	4600	2500
60.	National Mesrobian	Ras al'Ain	0	84	5	3	2	3350	980
61.	National Aramian	Afrin	0	15	2	1	1	1000	624

APPENDIX B (Cont'd.)

No.	Name of the School	Locality	Denomination	Number of Students	Number of Teachers	Women	Men	Budget	Collected from student
62.	National Veratznount	Yakoubie	0	50	5	2	3	4371	317
63.	National Sahagian	Azaz	0	62	5	3	2	3950	1136
64.	National Khozenian	Tel Abiad	0	110	4	2	2	5500	3700
65.	National Mubarrian	Raqqa	0	135	7	4	3	10000	1000
66.	National School	Deir-el-Zor	0	30	3	3	-	2800	885
67.	National Mesrobian	Jarablus	0	61	5	3	2	2978	2882
68.	Saint Hovsepianz	"	0	102	4	3	1	2050	720
TOTAL				16684	866	530	336	1488098	669235

- 1 0 - Armenian Orthodox
- 2 P - Armenian Protestant
- 3 0 - Armenian Catholic
- 4 Numbers concerning budget and fees collected from students are in Syrian Pounds
- * Schools above elementary level

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire Used by the Advisory Committee of Calouste Gulbenkian
Foundation

1. Family name, father's name, first name (according to the identity card)
2. Date and place of birth
3. Citizenship
4. Religious denomination
- *5. Male - female
- *6. Married - single
7. Number of children
8. Number of persons dependent on him
Number of persons having income
- *9. Level of education
 - a) Elementary
 - b) Secondary
 - c) College
 - d) Technical
10. Graduate of
 - a)
 - (In order of b)
 - sequence c)
 - d)
11. Specialization according to diploma
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)
- *12. Languages known
 - a) Armenian - speaking-writing

*Cross out the part that does not correspond to your answer.

- b) Arabic - speaking-writing
 - c) English - speaking-writing
 - d) French - speaking-writing
 - e) Other languages
13. Subjects taught a) b)
(The last three c) d)
years) e) f)
14. Subjects preferred a) b)
c) d)
15. The school where he is teaching now
- *16. His status in that school a) Principal b) Head teacher
c) Permanent d) Visiting
17. Basic monthly salary
18. Family allowance
19. Number of periods teaching each week (period - 45 minutes)
20. Number of periods in other duties
- *21. Other work than teaching: Yes - No
22. Books published: a)
b)
c)
23. Years of experience in teaching
24. In which countries has he been other than Syria and how long?
a) Resident b) Visitor
25. In what area does she want to have further education?
26. Is teaching a life job for her?

27. Other remarks:

28. Address:

Signature and seal
of the principal

Signature of
the teacher

Date:

APPENDIX D

THE MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE

Age----- Sex----- Male----- Female-----
Single Married Number of children-----

Level of Education:

- (a) Elementary graduate
- (b) Some secondary education (number of years-----)
- (c) Secondary school graduate
- (d) College education:
 - 1. Number of years
 - 2. Degree
- (e) Beyond college:
 - 1. Degree-----
 - 2. Number of years-----
 - 3. Specialization-----
- (f) Last school attended-----
- (g) List class attended-----

Number of years you have been teaching-----

Subjects that you are teaching this year:

- (a) (b) (c)
- (d) (e) (f)

Full time teacher-----

Part time teacher-----explain what other job you have, if any----

Your position in the school:

- | | |
|---------------|--------------------------|
| (a) Teacher | (b) Kindergarten teacher |
| (c) Principal | (d) Kindergarten leader |

You are asked to help in a study which will try to propose ways of helping the Armenian elementary school teachers in Syria. Your replies will be added to those of many other teachers and only the group totals will be known. Do not put your name on the paper and try to be perfectly frank in your answers. Remember that you will answer these questions in view of your own experiences and ideas. Don't try to find out which is the wrong and which is the right answer, rather put down what you think. The seriousness and frankness with which you answer will largely determine the success of this study.

PART I

Below is a list of statements and you are asked to check (✓) the one which you think is the nearest correct answer in each case. If you are not sure make the best possible guess. Check every item but only one out of the three choices given.

1. (a) I have chosen teaching as a life career.
(b) Though I like teaching I don't intend to remain in it long.
(c) I will quit teaching as soon as I can find a better job.
2. (a) I am a good teacher because I have the qualities that the profession demands.
(b) I am not motivated to be a good teacher because moral and material rewards are not satisfactory.

- (c) I could be a good teacher if I had the adequate training.
3. Teachers are handicapped in their task because:
- (a) Teaching load is too heavy.
 - (b) Other duties out of school take much of their time and energy.
 - (c) They can't receive help when faced with difficulties.
4. The major problem of the Armenian elementary school teacher is:
- (a) Very low salary.
 - (b) Lack of respect for his personal dignity.
 - (c) The threat of being fired.
5. During the last few years:
- (a) I have been able to do extensive reading for my instructional improvement.
 - (b) I wanted but did not have the time to do extensive reading for my instructional improvement.
 - (c) I don't believe that through reading one could become a better teacher.
6. (a) Parents have been helpful in solving some problems.
- (b) Parents create more problems than they solve.
 - (c) Parents exert pressure on the teacher in favor of their child.
7. (a) I usually visit the homes of my students because I find such practice very useful.
- (b) I don't visit the homes of my students not to be prejudiced toward any students.
 - (c) I want but can't find the time to visit the homes of my students.

8. (a) Teaching is an easy job that any average person can do well.
- (b) Only persons who had adequate training can become good teachers.
- (c) The good teacher is "born".
9. (a) The less able teacher must be assigned to the lower grades.
- (b) The lower the grade the more able the teacher must be.
- (c) The best teacher must be assigned to the graduating class.
10. (a) It is better if the principal makes decisions and asks teachers to put them into practice.
- (b) It is better if teachers share this responsibility with the principal.
- (c) It is better if the learner also participates with teachers and principals in making decisions.
11. (a) I go to every class after full preparation.
- (b) I preplan the lesson in case there is any need.
- (c) I never need to prepare a lesson before meeting the class.
12. (a) I grade my students according to their achievement.
- (b) A student must repeat his class when he fails in an important subject such as arithmetic or language.
- (c) A student must not repeat his class if he is as old as his classmates.
14. (a) Examinations should be used as the main tool of evaluating the success of the student.

- (b) Examinations should be used as an aid in evaluation.
 - (c) Examinations must be removed from schools.
15. (a) The slow child may not be slow in every learning situation.
- (b) The slow child must not be accepted to school.
 - (c) In general the effort that the teacher puts to improve the slow learner is a waste of time.
16. (a) The possibility of physical punishment brings order into the class.
- (b) Physical punishment is the result of the anger of the teacher.
 - (c) Physical punishment really disciplines some children.
17. (a) Kindergartens are created so that children may acquire certain skills.
- (b) Kindergartens are created so that parents may get rid of their children.
 - (c) Kindergartens are created so that the child may be disciplined, from an early age.
18. An intelligent child asks a question the answer to which the teacher does not know at the moment.
- (a) The teacher must give some answer to hide his ignorance.
 - (b) The teacher must admit his ignorance frankly.
 - (c) The teacher must ask the students to find the answer without revealing his ignorance.

19. John is a troublesome student. Moreover he puts little effort in his school work and is quite irresponsible. A visit to the home showed that the family was very poor. It is said that John is like his father, lazy and irresponsible.
- (a) John's behavior was the result of his home environment.
 - (b) John had inherited the characteristics of his father.
 - (c) There is little hope that John may be improved in any way.
20. Henry, who is twelve years old, is very active and sometimes aggressive. The principal decided to expel him from school when he caught him stealing books for the second time. Henry is an orphan and the mother works as a servant.
- (a) The principal's decision was right.
 - (b) Henry must be suspended but not expelled from school.
 - (c) Some kind of a job must be found to bring him a little pocket money.
21. Mary, eleven years old, is a timid girl and does not take part in class discussions, although she does very well in written work.
- (a) She is naturally timid and there is no hope that she may overcome it.
 - (b) Home environment must be studied to find the causes.
 - (c) She must be forced to share class discussions to overcome her difficulty.

In the twenty-second, twenty-third, and twenty-fourth questions arrange the following statements in the order of their importance by putting 1, 2, 3.

22. (a) I feel helpless because I lack the knowledge of subject matter as well as teaching techniques.
- (b) I feel helpless when I am not allowed to practice what I believe.
- (c) I feel helpless, when, in spite of my efforts, the achievement of my students is not up to my expectation.
23. In the teaching profession it is important:
- (a) To understand the nature of the child.
- (b) To have the ability to apply psychological principles.
- (c) To have mastered the subject matter.
24. The good teacher is the one:
- (a) Who likes his job and the learners.
- (b) Whose students do well in examinations.
- (c) Who pays special attention to the gifted children.
25. Below are lists of good and poor qualities of students; in the first and second columns check three qualities that you think are the most important. In the third column there are nine other qualities. Encircle (G) if you think any quality is good and encircle (B) if you think it is a poor quality.

A. Good Qualities

1. Obedient
2. Respectful
3. Intelligent
4. Diligent

B. Poor Qualities

1. Aggressive
2. Quarrelsome
3. Disobedient
4. Dishonest

C. Other Qualities

1. G B Dreaming
2. G B Shy
3. G B Quiet
4. G B Restless

A. Good Qualities

- 5. Modest
- 6. Honest
- 7. Cooperative
- 8. Prompt
- 9. Serious

B. Poor Qualities

- 5. Lazy
- 6. Dull
- 7. Timid
- 8. Boastful
- 9. Talkative

C. Other Qualities

- 5. G B Submissive
- 6. G B Inquisitive
- 7. G B Competitive
- 8. G B Sensitive
- 9. G B Critical

PART II

Below is a list of statements and you are asked to encircle the word "Yes" if you agree, or the word "No" if you disagree. Don't leave any statement unanswered and when in doubt make the best possible guess.

Yes No 1. I get confused when somebody visits my class.

Yes No 2. I am ready to take part in an in-service summer session.

Yes No 3. I am ashamed to tell others that I am a teacher.

Yes No 4. Discipline is the major problem in my work.

Yes No 5. Teacher meetings have been fruitful.

Yes No 6. Order in school is the responsibility of the principal.

Yes No 7. Most children are obedient.

Yes No 8. Most children are eager to learn.

Yes No 9. Physical defect hampers the achievement of even the intelligent child.

Yes No 10. Boys are more intelligent than girls.

Yes No 11. Arithmetic shows best the differences in intelligence among students.

Yes No 12. The main task of the teacher is to teach the gifted child.

- Yes No 13. The grade is a powerful weapon in the hands of the teacher in disciplining the child.
- Yes No 14. Students should not be grouped according to their ability.
- Yes No 15. It is possible that sometimes one-third or half of a class of twenty-five students fail in a certain subject.
- Yes No 16. More students fail in arithmetic because it is a difficult subject.
- Yes No 17. A teacher should not teach one or two subjects in all grades, rather teach most of the subjects in one grade.
- Yes No 18. The gifted child also needs the help of the teacher.
- Yes No 19. The purpose of the school is to prepare the child for future life.
- Yes No 20. The dignity of every learner must be respected.
- Yes No 21. The student will not try his best if he does not like the teacher.
- Yes No 22. No child must be admitted to kindergarten before the age of four.
- Yes No 23. Competition must be encouraged in school.
- Yes No 24. A good teacher uses half of the period to explain the new lesson.
- Yes No 25. Home assignments are not done well because parents are unable or unwilling to help their children.

PART I

Question	<u>Urban</u>			<u>Rural</u>		
		One		One		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	70	46	10	7	18	2
Per Cent	55.6	36.5	7.9	25.9	66.7	7.4
Missing		1			---	
Question		Two			Two	
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	59	11	57	14	3	10
Per Cent	46.5	8.7	44.9	51.9	11.1	37.0
Missing		---			---	
Question		Three			Three	
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	70	33	18	9	10	8
Per Cent	57.8	27.3	14.9	33.3	37.0	29.7
Missing		6			---	
Question		Four			Four	
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	96	27	3	17	5	4
Per Cent	76.2	21.4	2.4	65.4	19.2	15.4
Missing		1			1	

Question	<u>Urban</u>			<u>Rural</u>		
	Five			Five		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	55	60	9	9	9	9
Per Cent	44.3	48.4	7.3	33.3	33.3	33.3
Missing		3			---	

Question	Six			Six		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	58	42	24	6	15	6
Per Cent	46.8	33.8	19.4	22.2	55.6	22.2
Missing		3			---	

Question	Seven			Seven		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	38	14	75	7	7	12
Per Cent	29.9	11.0	59.1	26.9	26.9	46.2
Missing		---			1	

Question	Eight			Eight		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	63	7	57	3	14	9
Per Cent	49.6	5.5	44.9	11.5	53.8	34.6
Missing		---			1	

Question	<u>Urban</u>			<u>Rural</u>		
	Nine			Nine		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	4	111	12	3	17	6
Per Cent	3.1	87.4	9.4	11.5	65.4	23.1
Missing	---			1		

Question	Ten			Ten		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	14	94	19	8	17	1
Per Cent	11.0	74.0	15.0	30.8	65.4	3.8
Missing	---			1		

Question	Eleven			Eleven		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	68	42	16	16	9	1
Per Cent	54.0	33.3	12.7	61.5	34.6	3.8
Missing	1			1		

Question	Twelve			Twelve		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	19	67	41	1	15	10
Per Cent	15.0	52.8	32.3	3.8	57.7	38.5
Missing	---			1		

Question	<u>Urban</u>			<u>Rural</u>		
	Thirteen			Thirteen		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	6	94	27	-	22	4
Per Cent	4.7	74.0	21.3	-	84.6	15.4
Missing		---			1	

Question	Fourteen			Fourteen		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	14	81	32	9	12	4
Per Cent	11.0	63.8	25.2	36.0	48.0	16.0
Missing		---			2	

Question	Fifteen			Fifteen		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	119	2	6	24	-	3
Per Cent	93.7	1.6	4.7	88.9	-	11.1
Missing		---			---	

Question	Sixteen			Sixteen		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	17	41	68	6	5	15
Per Cent	13.6	32.8	53.6	23.1	19.2	57.7
Missing		2			1	

Question	<u>Urban</u>			<u>Rural</u>		
	Seventeen			Seventeen		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	68	6	53	9	-	18
Per Cent	53.6	4.7	41.7	33.3	-	66.7
Missing	---			---		
Question	Eighteen			Eighteen		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	6	77	44	1	11	13
Per Cent	4.7	60.6	34.7	4.0	44.0	52.0
Missing	---			2		
Question	Nineteen			Nineteen		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	111	15	1	19	4	2
Per Cent	87.4	11.8	0.8	76.0	16.0	8.0
Missing	---			2		
Question	Twenty			Twenty		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	2	59	66	2	15	8
Per Cent	1.6	46.4	52.0	8.0	60.0	32.0
Missing	---			2		
Question	Twenty-One			Twenty-One		
Item	a	b	c	a	b	c
Number	1	60	66	1	7	17
Per Cent	0.8	47.2	52.0	4.0	28.0	68.2
Missing	---			2		

Rural

Question Choice	Urban			Rural							
	Per Cent	Twenty-Two Per Cent	Per Cent	Per Cent	Twenty-Two Per Cent	Per Cent					
First	16	13.3	22	18.3	82	68.3	-	4	19.0	17	80.9
Second	29	24.2	59	49.2	32	26.7	7	11	52.4	3	14.3
Third	75	62.5	39	32.5	6	5.0	14	6	28.6	1	4.8
Missing											

7

6

Twenty-Three

Question Choice	Urban			Rural							
	Per Cent	Twenty-Three Per Cent	Per Cent	Per Cent	Twenty-Three Per Cent	Per Cent					
First	61	50.4	39	32.2	21	17.4	13	5	22.7	4	18.2
Second	32	26.6	30	24.8	59	48.8	5	10	45.5	7	31.8
Third	28	23.1	52	43.0	41	33.9	4	7	31.8	11	50.0
Missing											

6

5

Twenty-Four

Question Choice	Urban			Rural							
	Per Cent	Twenty-Four Per Cent	Per Cent	Per Cent	Twenty-Four Per Cent	Per Cent					
First	110	90.9	7	5.8	4	3.3	19	2	9.1	1	4.6
Second	6	5.0	57	47.1	58	47.9	1	12	54.5	9	40.9
Third	5	4.1	57	47.1	59	48.8	2	8	36.4	12	54.5
Missing											

5

Rural

Question Twenty-Five

Item	A. Good Qualities		B. Poor Qualities		A. Good Qualities		B. Poor Qualities	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1	55	43.3	14	11.0	13	48.1	7	25.9
2	25	19.7	27	21.3	5	18.5	8	29.6
3	71	55.9	48	37.8	18	66.7	8	29.6
4	71	55.9	55	43.3	15	55.6	8	29.6
5	10	7.9	85	66.9	-	-	15	55.6
6	50	39.4	40	31.5	6	22.2	13	48.1
7	25	19.7	20	15.7	5	18.5	-	-
8	53	41.7	40	31.5	16	59.2	11	40.7
9	21	16.5	52	40.9	3	11.1	11	40.7

<u>Item</u>	<u>Urban</u>					<u>Rural</u>					
	<u>C. Other Qualities</u>					<u>C. Other Qualities</u>					
	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Negative</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Positive</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Negative</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Missing</u>
1	20	16.1	104	83.9	124	5	19.2	21	80.8	26	1
2	66	52.8	59	47.2	125	14	53.8	12	46.2	26	1
3	78	62.9	46	37.1	124	15	62.5	9	37.5	24	3
4	38	30.6	86	69.4	124	8	30.8	18	69.2	26	1
5	43	34.4	82	65.6	125	17	63.0	10	37.0	27	-
6	111	90.2	12	9.8	123	20	80.0	5	20.0	25	2
7	117	93.6	8	6.4	125	19	82.6	4	17.4	23	4
8	105	84.0	20	16.0	125	23	88.5	3	11.5	26	1
9	53	42.4	72	57.6	125	10	37.0	17	63.0	27	-

PART II

Question	Urban			Rural			Missing	
	Yes		No	Yes		No		
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent		
1	23	18.4	102	81.6	6	22.2	21	77.8
2	107	84.9	19	15.1	17	63.0	10	37.0
3	7	5.6	119	94.4	2	7.4	25	92.6
4	115	92.0	10	8.0	26	96.3	1	3.7
5	101	80.2	25	19.8	25	96.2	1	3.8
6	44	35.5	80	64.5	15	57.7	11	42.3
7	79	62.7	47	37.3	22	81.5	5	18.5
8	88	70.4	37	29.6	17	63.0	10	37.0
9	94	74.6	32	25.4	20	80.0	5	20.0
10	49	39.5	75	60.5	13	50.0	13	50.0
11	94	75.2	31	24.8	19	73.1	7	26.9
12	45	36.0	80	64.0	8	30.8	18	69.2
13	35	27.8	91	72.2	11	42.3	15	57.7
14	34	27.0	92	73.0	12	44.4	15	55.6
15	57	45.2	69	54.8	17	65.4	9	34.6
16	78	61.9	48	38.1	22	81.5	5	18.5
17	37	29.4	89	70.6	10	37.0	17	63.0
18	120	95.2	6	4.8	25	96.2	1	3.8
19	122	97.6	3	2.4	26	96.3	1	3.7
20	113	90.4	12	9.6	23	85.2	4	14.8
21	115	92.0	10	8.0	20	74.1	7	25.9
22	101	80.8	24	19.2	22	81.5	5	18.5
23	112	88.9	14	11.1	26	96.3	1	3.7
24	60	48.0	65	52.0	20	74.1	7	25.9
25	53	42.1	73	57.9	15	55.6	12	44.4

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE FORWARDED TO PARENTS

You are asked to help in a study which will propose ways of improving the Armenian elementary schools in Syria. Please answer the following questions and send the sheet to the principal of the school concerned.

1. Write in order the ages of your children:

Girls: 1----- 2----- 3----- 4-----

Boys: 1----- 2----- 3----- 4-----

2. What is the proper age when the child must first enter the kindergarten?-----

3. At what age did your children first enter school?

(a) First child: Years----- months-----

(b) Second child: Years----- months-----

(c) Third child: Years----- months-----

(d) Fourth child: Years----- months-----

4. Do you intend to give secondary education to your children?

Write "Yes" if you intend to, and "No" if you don't.

Girls----- Boys-----

5. How many children do you have who have attended school at secondary level?

Girls----- Boys-----

SOURCES CONSULTED

1. Boghossian, H.B. Highlights of Armenian History and Its Civilization. 1957.
2. Bossing, Nelson L. Teaching in Secondary Schools. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1952.
3. Bradfield, Luther E. "Elementary School Teachers: Their Problems and Supervisory Assistance," Educational Administration and Supervision. VI (1959), pp. 102-6.
4. Brubacher, John S. Modern Philosophies of Education. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 2nd ed., New York, 1950.
5. _____ A History of the Problems of Education. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1947.
6. Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. In-Service Growth of School Personnel. Twenty-First Year Book, XXI, No. 6, 1942.
7. Chamich, George. "Our Schools and Our Pupils," Chanasser. XXI, (Beirut, Lebanon), November 1, 1960, p. 335.
8. Crow, Lester D. and Crow, Alice. Human Development and Learning. American Book Company, New York, 1956.
9. Dewey, John. Democracy and Education. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1915.
10. Hourani, A.H. Minorities in the Arab World. Oxford University Press, London, 1947.
11. Hunter, E.C. "Changes in Teachers' Attitudes toward Children's Behavior over the Last Thirty Years," Mental Hygiene. IXL, 1957, pp.3-11.
12. Lippmann, Walter. Public Opinion. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1922.
13. Morse, William C. and Wingo Max. Psychology and Teaching. Chicago, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1955.
14. Najjar, Farid J. "Guides to the Improvement of Teacher Education in Lebanon," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Dept. of Education, Columbia University), 1957.

15. National Education Association, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Creating a Good Environment for Learning. Washington D.C., 1954.
16. Stratemeyer, Florence B., et al. Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living. 2nd ed., Teachers College, New York, 1957.
17. United Nations, Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). World Survey of Education. II, Zurich, 1958.
18. Wickman, E.K. Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitude. The Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1928.