

## INFORMATION TO USERS

This material was produced from a microfilm copy of the original document. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or patterns which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting thru an image and duplicating adjacent pages to insure you complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a large round black mark, it is an indication that the photographer suspected that the copy may have moved during exposure and thus cause a blurred image. You will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., was part of the material being photographed the photographer followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin photoing at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue photoing from left to right in equal sections with a small overlap. If necessary, sectioning is continued again — beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. The majority of users indicate that the textual content is of greatest value, however, a somewhat higher quality reproduction could be made from "photographs" if essential to the understanding of the dissertation. Silver prints of "photographs" may be ordered at additional charge by writing the Order Department, giving the catalog number, title, author and specific pages you wish reproduced.
5. PLEASE NOTE: Some pages may have indistinct print. Filmed as received.

**Xerox University Microfilms**

300 North Zeeb Road  
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

7815372

MASOUDI, AKBAR  
A COMPARISON OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN IRAN AND  
THE UNITED STATES,

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA, PH.D., 1977

University  
Microfilms  
International 300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106

© 1978

AKBAR MASOUDI

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA  
GRADUATE COLLEGE

A COMPARISON OF TEACHER EDUCATION  
IN IRAN AND THE UNITED STATES

A DISSERTATION  
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the  
degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY  
AKBAR MASOUDI  
Norman, Oklahoma  
1977

A COMPARISON OF TEACHER EDUCATION  
IN IRAN AND THE UNITED STATES

APPROVED BY

Phil B. ...  
Henry R. ...  
James ...  
John D. Pulliam

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

Dedicated  
to my mother  
FATIMA MASOUDI  
a model of womanhood  
and  
to my brother  
JAMSHEED MASOUDI  
a gentleman and a humanitarian  
with much respect and appreciation

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to Professor Robert F. Bibens, the chairman of my dissertation committee, for his sincere interest and valuable assistance throughout the doctoral program. The completion of this study would have been impossible without his critical and sympathetic understanding, encouragement and support.

Particular acknowledgment goes to Regents Professor Glenn R. Snider for his kindness, firm discipline, and excellent and competent guidance which were manifest throughout this study. Sincere gratitude is also expressed to the other members of the doctoral committee, Dr. Gerald Kidd and Professor John D. Pulliam, who willingly gave time and counsel whenever requested.

I am also deeply grateful to my sister, Ms. Manijeh, and my brothers, Messrs. Jamsheed, Mohammad Nabi and Mohammad Shafi Masoudi, who sustained me with their prayers and encouragement.

Finally, I pay tribute to my mother, Mrs. Fatima Masoudi. Only with the inspiration and guidance provided by her love, wisdom and understanding were the beginning and the completion of this work possible.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iii
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	vii
LIST OF CHARTS . . . . .	viii
 Chapter	
I. THE PROBLEM. . . . .	1
Introduction . . . . .	1
Need for the Study . . . . .	5
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	7
Scope of the Problem . . . . .	8
Operational Definitions. . . . .	8
Procedure and Source of Data . . . . .	9
Treatment of the Data. . . . .	10
Organization of the Study. . . . .	11
II. BACKGROUND OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN IRAN. . . . .	12
Focus on Geography . . . . .	12
Structure of the Government. . . . .	16
Cultural History . . . . .	18
Classical Education in Iran. . . . .	23
Introduction of Modern Education . . . . .	28
Education since 1921 . . . . .	37
The Present System of Education. . . . .	44
Authority and Responsibility . . . . .	44
Structure. . . . .	47
Elementary Education . . . . .	50
Guidance Cycle . . . . .	51
Secondary Cycle. . . . .	54
Higher Education . . . . .	58
Summary. . . . .	61
III. DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN IRAN . . . . .	62
Source of Teacher Supply . . . . .	65

Elementary Teachers. . . . .	66
Tribal Teacher Training Center	66
Normal Schools . . . . .	67
Kindergarten Teachers. . . . .	68
The Literacy Corps . . . . .	69
Guidance Cycle Teachers. . . . .	72
Secondary Teacher Education. . .	74
The University of Teacher	
Education. . . . .	75
Objectives . . . . .	75
History, Background and Growth	
of the University. . . . .	76
Administrative Structure . . .	79
Educational Specialties. . . .	81
Faculty. . . . .	82
Student Admission and Retention.	85
Structure of Curriculum Content	
in Iranian Secondary Teacher	
Education Institutions . . . . .	86
General Education. . . . .	87
Professional Education . . . .	88
Critical Analysis. . . . .	91
Academic Specialization. . . .	93
Critical Analysis. . . . .	95
In-Service Education . . . . .	100
Teachers' Organization . . . . .	102
Teachers' Associations Prior	
to 1961. . . . .	103
The Present State. . . . .	106
 IV. THE BACKGROUND OF TEACHER EDUCA-	
TION IN THE UNITED STATES. . . . .	109
 The Country and Its People . . .	109
The Formative Period: 1607-1865.	112
The Period of the Educational	
Evolution: 1865-1919 . . . . .	117
Present System of Education	
in America . . . . .	119
Authority for Education. . . .	119
State Responsibility and	
Control. . . . .	119
Local Responsibility and	
Control. . . . .	120
Sources of School Funds. . . .	122
Organization of American	
Schools. . . . .	123
Higher Education . . . . .	125
Summary. . . . .	127



V.	DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. . . . .	129
	Brief Historical Summary . . . .	129
	Transition to the Teachers' College. . . . .	132
	Teacher Education in Colleges and Universities . . . . .	134
	Teacher Education Institutions .	136
	The Control, Organization, and Accreditation of Teacher Education Institutions . . . . .	140
	State Approval . . . . .	142
	Regional Accreditation . . . .	146
	National Accreditation . . . .	148
	Certification. . . . .	156
	Major Components in the Educa- tion of Teachers . . . . .	167
	General Education. . . . .	173
	Academic Specialization. . . .	178
	Professional Education . . . .	180
	Selection and Retention. . . . .	186
	In-Service Education . . . . .	190
	Incentives and Opportunities .	192
	Professional Organizations . . .	195
VI.	COMPARISON AND ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN IRAN AND THE UNITED STATES . . . . .	202
	Teacher Education Institutions .	204
	Control and Accreditation. . . .	211
	Student Admission and Retention.	218
	Structure of Curriculum Content in Secondary Teacher Education .	220
	In-Service Education . . . . .	228
	Teacher Organizations. . . . .	230
VII.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS. . . . .	237
	Summary and Conclusions. . . . .	237
	Findings . . . . .	238
	Conclusions. . . . .	241
	Recommendations. . . . .	243
	BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	249

## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
1. University of Teacher Education Faculty Distribution by Rank and Assignment . . . . .	83
2. Classification of Approved Teacher Education Institutions according to Function and Control. . . . .	137
3. Number of Approved Teacher Educa- tion Institutions and Types of Approval Accreditation . . . . .	144
4. States That Participate in Recip- rocal Teacher Certification. . . . .	153
5. Minimum Requirements for Lowest Regular Teaching Certificates. . . . .	160
6. Course Hours Required in General Education. . . . .	175
7. Course Requirements in General Education for Secondary Educa- tion Majors. . . . .	177
8. Total Number of Hours Required in Professional Education . . . . .	181
9. Course Requirements in Psycho- logical Foundations for Secon- dary Education Majors. . . . .	182
10. Course Hours Required in Field Experiences. . . . .	184
11. Field Experiences Offered by the Institutions . . . . .	185
12. Criteria Used by 386 Colleges and Universities for Selecting Students into Teaching Education Programs . . . . .	187

## LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

FIGURE	Page
1. Political Map of Iran. . . . .	15
2. Chart of the System of Formal Education in Iran. . . . .	49
3. Organizational Chart of the University of Teacher Education. . . . .	80
4. Political Map of the United States . . . . .	110
5. The Structure of Education in the United States. . . . .	124
6. Relationship of General-special- professional Education: Pattern A. . . . .	169
7. Relationship of General-special- professional Education: Pattern B. . . . .	170
8. Relationship of General-special- professional Education: Pattern C. . . . .	171
9. Relationship of General-special- professional Education: Pattern D. . . . .	172

A COMPARISON OF TEACHER EDUCATION  
IN IRAN AND THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Iran is a new nation with a long history and cultural tradition. It faces many problems in the social, cultural and economic development of its people. One of the greatest of these problems, both in importance and in scope, is the improvement of its educational system in order to meet the needs of a young generation involved in the process of inclusive reform: social, economic, and political.<sup>1</sup>

No matter how one views the concept of national development and its relationship to human resources, the need to develop an appropriate educational system is essential. The teacher in such an education system performs a significant function since his role is to perpetuate society's heritage

---

<sup>1</sup>In January, 1963, upon the initiative of the King of Iran, comprehensive administrative, economic and social reforms were undertaken in the country. These reform programs have since then been known as the "White Revolution." (Author).

and simultaneously to energize human resources toward social progress. In recognizing the crucial role of teachers in social and cultural change, Lynch and Plunkett indicated that from teachers must come much of the vision, expertise and cultural sensitivity to interpret and respond to pressure for change and initiate qualitative development in education.<sup>1</sup>

If the premise that the teacher is a central element in the formal education of a nation's human capital and that the level of education cannot rise far above the quality of the teacher in the classroom,<sup>2</sup> then the selection and preparation of these teachers are of significant social concern. Concerted efforts must be made, therefore, to produce the best teacher a nation can afford.

Furthermore, teacher education provides a vital link between a nation's institutions of higher learning and the public they are designed to serve. Not all youth, even in the most affluent societies, can personally and directly be enrolled in a college or university. The benefits of higher education to the majority of the population are thus generally transmitted by the teacher who is a product of this higher education. The institutions that educate teachers, the teacher

---

<sup>1</sup>James Lynch and H. Dudley Plunkett, "Introduction," in Teacher Education and Cultural Change: England, France, and West Germany, by James Lynch and H. Dudley Plunkett (Hamden, Connecticut: The Shoe String Press, Inc., 1973), p. 15.

<sup>2</sup>John S. Brubacher, A History of the Problems of Education, second edition (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 465.

educators themselves, and the governmental departments concerned with teacher education are thus clearly a part of the nation's overall strategy in the development process.

To meet the educational crisis facing both the developing countries and the industrialized nations, Dr. Philip H. Coombs of the International Institute for Educational Planning suggests not only the development of innovations, but a habit of innovating in education.<sup>1</sup> In this process he draws attention to the central role of teacher preparation:

Educational systems will not be modernized until the whole system of teacher-training is drastically overhauled, stimulated by pedagogical research, made intellectually richer and more challenging, and extended far beyond preservice training into a system for continuous professional reward and career development for all teachers.<sup>2</sup>

Educators and all those concerned with the education of a nation should be encouraged to develop the capacity to build institutions that will train teachers who will themselves be innovators of educational and even community development. Perhaps the strongest statement comes from Freeman Butts. Writing in Education and the Development of Nations, he declares that the education of teachers must be viewed as belonging at the very heart of any human resources development plan that hopes to contribute to the modernization and building of a

---

<sup>1</sup>Philip H. Coombs, The World Educational Crisis (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968), pp. 164-169.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 168.

free nation.<sup>1</sup>

Questions have been raised that relate in one way or another to teacher preparatory programs in Iranian colleges and universities. Recent projects and innovations indicate the government's awareness of the problems existing in the preparation of teachers. Point seven of the Charter of the Education Revolution<sup>2</sup> in Iran emphasizes the importance of teacher education in the attainment of the nation's goals:

As teacher-training plays a fundamental role in the country's education planning and social and scientific progress, all institutions concerned with teacher-training programs should make every effort to strengthen them and adjust them to the needs of the nation.<sup>3</sup>

Over the ten year period from the academic year 1965-66 to 1975-76, the number of students in all elementary schools increased from 2,564,568 students to 4,468,299 students in grades one through five. Enrollment at the secondary level for the same period increased from 508,959 to 2,139,179.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>R. Freeman Butts, "Teacher Education: A Focal Point," in Education and the Development of Nations, ed. by John W. Hanson and Cole S. Brembeck (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966), p. 375.

<sup>2</sup>In October, 1967, Education Revolution, as the sixth complementary point to the Charter of White Revolution, of January, 1963, was declared.

<sup>3</sup>Ministry of Science and Higher Education, "Charter of Education Revolution," in Education Revolution Conference, by Ministry of Science and Higher Education, (Ramsar, Iran: Ministry of Culture and Art Press, August, 1968), p. 14.

<sup>4</sup>Statistics recomputed from data in Summary of Educational Statistics: 1975-1976 by Ministry of Education, (Tehran, Iran: Department of Coordination for Educational Plans, Bureau of Statistics, 1976), p. III. (In Farsi)

An increase of this magnitude in student enrollment, and further future expansion of the educational system, emphasizes the crucial position of teacher education in Iran.

Because of the increasing emphasis on the Iranian educational system, this project is aimed at examining and comparing teacher education programs in Iran and the United States. The comparison is made with a view to formulating recommendations for the improvement of teacher education in Iran.

### Need for the Study

Teacher education has been debated at several regional and annual conferences on the evaluation of the Revolution in Education in Iran. However, there is a dearth of literature which deals comprehensively with education for secondary school teachers.

From the research literature, there is a need to explore and develop more effective ways of preparing educational personnel to meet the challenges of a changing society, and for focusing the thinking of teacher educators on conceptualizing the nature and scope of professional education at the secondary level. Teacher education programs for the future should cater to the new teacher roles, utilize technology to create new approaches to teaching and take into consideration the needs of the learner, especially in terms of the masses now entering secondary schools in Iran as a



result of free secondary and higher education.<sup>1</sup>

There has been an absence of emphasis in teacher preparation in Iran on social problems which exist; such as lack of respect for the profession of teaching, little sense of service to the country and humanity, and doubtful attitudes about the ideals of democracy. Teachers must be alert to the need to develop a sense of responsibility for educating the child according to his individual abilities and needs and for guiding him wisely to the solution of his own problems. Only when these goals have been accomplished can Iran be recognized among the educated nations of the world.

A review of the literature reveals that there is a great concern for the improvement of teacher preparatory programs in both Iran and the United States, and much effort is being expended to upgrade existing programs. The review of the literature, both American and Iranian, and the concern of this investigator for the improvement of teacher preparation programs in Iran, have prompted the problem of comparing teacher education programs in Iran and the United States.

---

<sup>1</sup>In September, 1974, education was declared free for the first eight years of schooling. Vocational/technical secondary schools are free too, but academic secondary schools and university education would be free to students who pledge two years of government service for each year of education. Ministry of Science and Higher Education. Remarks by His Imperial Majesty the Shahanshah Aryamehr and the Resolution of the Seventh Conference on the Evaluation of the Revolution in Education, (Ramsar, Iran: Ministry of Science and Higher Education, September, 1974). p. 9. These provisions are crystalized in the form of the 15th point of the White Revolution.

Considerable research was conducted using, among other sources, the following in order to see if any study was undertaken regarding teacher education in Iran compared with that in the United States: Dissertation Abstracts, Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities, American Doctoral Dissertations, Research Studies in Education, and American Dissertations on Foreign Education. None of these sources showed any study comparing teacher education in Iran and the United States.

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to identify and analyze the major characteristics of secondary teacher education programs in Iran in comparison with programs of teacher education institutions in the United States. More specifically, the study proposed to:

1. Identify the current status and characteristics of the secondary teacher education programs in Iran.
2. Make a comparison of the official Iranian Teacher Education Programs with teacher preparation practices recommended for institutions engaging in teacher education in the United States.
3. Develop recommendations directed toward the improvement of Teacher Education Programs in Iran.

The major aim of the study was the development of recommendations, in terms of fundamental principles, that are applicable to the development of an excellent program of teacher education in modern Iran; or the formulation of policy alternatives for program reform in Iranian teacher education.

### Scope of the Problem

This study has certain dimensions, and limitations, which need to be stated in order to make the investigation feasible. The scope of the investigation was as follows:

1. Teacher education, in this investigation, includes the preparation of teachers for secondary schools. It does not involve programs for the preparation of elementary, vocational, or college teachers.
2. Some aspects of the cultural history of Iran were investigated to furnish background information essential for interpreting the current status of Iranian teacher education.
3. There was particular emphasis on the problems of teacher education in Iran, and the recommendations of contemporary writers for solution of these problems.

### Operational Definitions

1. Teacher Education: A term which encompasses all that an institution does in the preparation of teachers, including admission and selection, curriculum, and requirements for graduation.
2. Educational Program: A sequence of courses and experiences designed to prepare the teacher specifically for the responsibilities of particular types of teaching positions, as well as to fulfill appropriate certification requirements for teaching. This includes the entire pattern of general academic preparation, specialization for teaching fields, and professional courses in education.
3. Education: Education in this study is a general term for the specifically classified professional courses offered in teacher colleges for the preparation of teachers and relating directly to educational philosophy, psychology, history, sociology, and comparative studies of education. Teaching practice, curriculum, methods of instruction, administration and supervision are also included.

4. Student Teaching: The period of guided teaching during which the student takes increasing responsibility for the work with a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks.
5. Curriculum: The arrangement or organization of the planned experiences directed by schools and colleges. Specifically, it is the composition of the respective subject-matter fields or school disciplines.
6. Teacher Training Colleges: Teacher-preparing institutions, supported by the state (Iranian government or tax, state, and federally supported institutions in the United States) to educate secondary school teachers through a four-year curriculum.

#### Procedure and Source of Data

The survey method, as described by Van Dalen,<sup>1</sup> was used in this project. It is a means of collecting detailed descriptions of existing conditions with the intent of employing the data to justify conditions, or to make plans for improvement. The basic procedure in collecting the data for the conduct of this study was to examine the literature on the history and practice of teacher preparation in Iran and the United States. The literature was reviewed to identify those practices considered to be desirable for preparation of secondary teachers in general, and for Iranian institutions of teacher education in particular.

The literature on suggested reform and innovations in the preparation of secondary teachers was examined also to identify those qualities considered essential for successful teaching in the secondary schools.

---

<sup>1</sup>Deobold B. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research: An Introduction, 3rd Ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1973), p. 196.

Other sources of information were the writings of individuals concerned with the improvement of education in Iran and the United States. Professional books, bulletins and periodicals which discussed the study of teacher education were also reviewed. From these various sources the investigator gathered and analyzed data to develop recommendations for policies and practices relating to teacher education in Iran. Because this study deals with subject matter that needs to utilize primary materials in Iran, many of the documents that are cited as sources for the material in this investigation were in Farsi (the modern term for Persian), the Iranian official language. This is acknowledged throughout this investigation by a reference in the footnotes to the terms "in Persian" or "in Farsi", which are used interchangeably. This means that the original source has been translated into English by the writer of this study. Primary materials consisting of government documents and publications were collected in Iran by the author through visiting government offices and educational institutions. Other primary materials were collected by conducting personal interviews of government officials and educators in Iran.

#### Treatment of the Data

The quantitative and the qualitative forms of expression were used in presenting the data in this study,<sup>1</sup> while tables,

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 195-196.

figures, and charts, were utilized to assist in interpreting the data. The data were compared and contrasted to identify similarities and differences, and the findings of the study provided the bases for recommendations for improvement of the Iranian programs of teacher preparation.

### Organization of the Study

The introduction, need for the study, statement of the problem, scope of the problem, definitions, procedure and data treatment are presented in Chapter One. In Chapters Two and Three, documents were selected and interpreted to present a brief history of education in Iran, and its present structure of curriculum in teacher education programs. In Chapters Four and Five, a short historical background as well as the present approaches of American systems of teacher preparation are presented. In Chapter Six, comparable elements of teacher education programs in Iran and the United States are examined and interpreted. The methodology of comparative education should allow an adequate perspective for this investigation, and the conclusions of this study and the investigator's recommendations for improvement of the Iranian programs of teacher preparation are presented in Chapter Seven.

## CHAPTER II

### BACKGROUND OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN IRAN

Social institutions including educational institutions are shaped by their environment. Geographic, historic, and cultural elements profoundly influence the organization and philosophy of social institutions. For this reason, this chapter is a discussion of such elements as they have influenced the development of teacher education in Iran.

#### Focus on Geography

Iran, also known as Persia,<sup>1</sup> is located in Western Asia. On its northern border lies the continental mass of the Soviet Union, to the west its neighbors are Turkey and Iraq, and to the east are Pakistan and Afghanistan. The Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman constitute its boundaries to the south. Iran's present-day borders have been established as a result of a series of wars in which she had been unable to preserve her territorial integrity and therefore suffered some losses

---

<sup>1</sup>In March, 1935, the official name Iran was adopted to replace the Hellenistic name of Persia. It means "Land of the Aryans." See George Lenczowski, The Middle East in World Affairs, 3rd ed. (New York: Cornell University Press, 1962), p. 182.

of territory from the invasions of aggressive and militarily powerful neighbors.<sup>1</sup> This historical experience of wars was due in large part to the strategic location of Iran as a link between the Far East, especially India, and as an area of dispute between the Russians from the North and the British to the South.<sup>2</sup> Today, Iran still plays an important role in great power politics, and those involved in the direction of her foreign policy are aware of the tremendous pressures on Iran by other nations and must therefore see to it that Iran must continue to survive as a free nation.

Iran, with an area of 628,000 square miles, is approximately as large as France, Britain, Germany, Italy, Belgium, and Holland combined. However, this size of Iran is actually much smaller than it was as late as the 19th century.<sup>3</sup>

Iran is mostly a plateau, which may be described in general terms as high land some 4,000 feet above sea level, strewn with mountains.<sup>4</sup> The plains have flat to gently rolling surfaces, and not much vegetation on them. Forests, desert scrub, or tufts of grass cover most slopes of the highlands. The rugged high mountains (6,000-18,000 feet above sea level) make up almost one-half of the plateau and are intersected by deep valleys.

---

<sup>1</sup>Donald N. Wilber, Iran, Past and Present (Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1975), p. 40.

<sup>2</sup>Richard N. Frye, Iran (New York: Henry Holt Co., 1953), p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 8.



Iran's climate is diversified, primarily because of its topography. Rainfall, the result of atmospheric depressions moving eastward from the region of the Mediterranean Sea, ranges from fifty inches in the region southwest center of the Caspian, to eight inches in the interior and the south, to less than two inches in the desert area.<sup>1</sup>

Thunderstorms, so familiar to the Americans, are quite rare. Winter temperatures are very low in the north but warm in the south. Summers are hot in all parts of Iran except at the highest elevations.

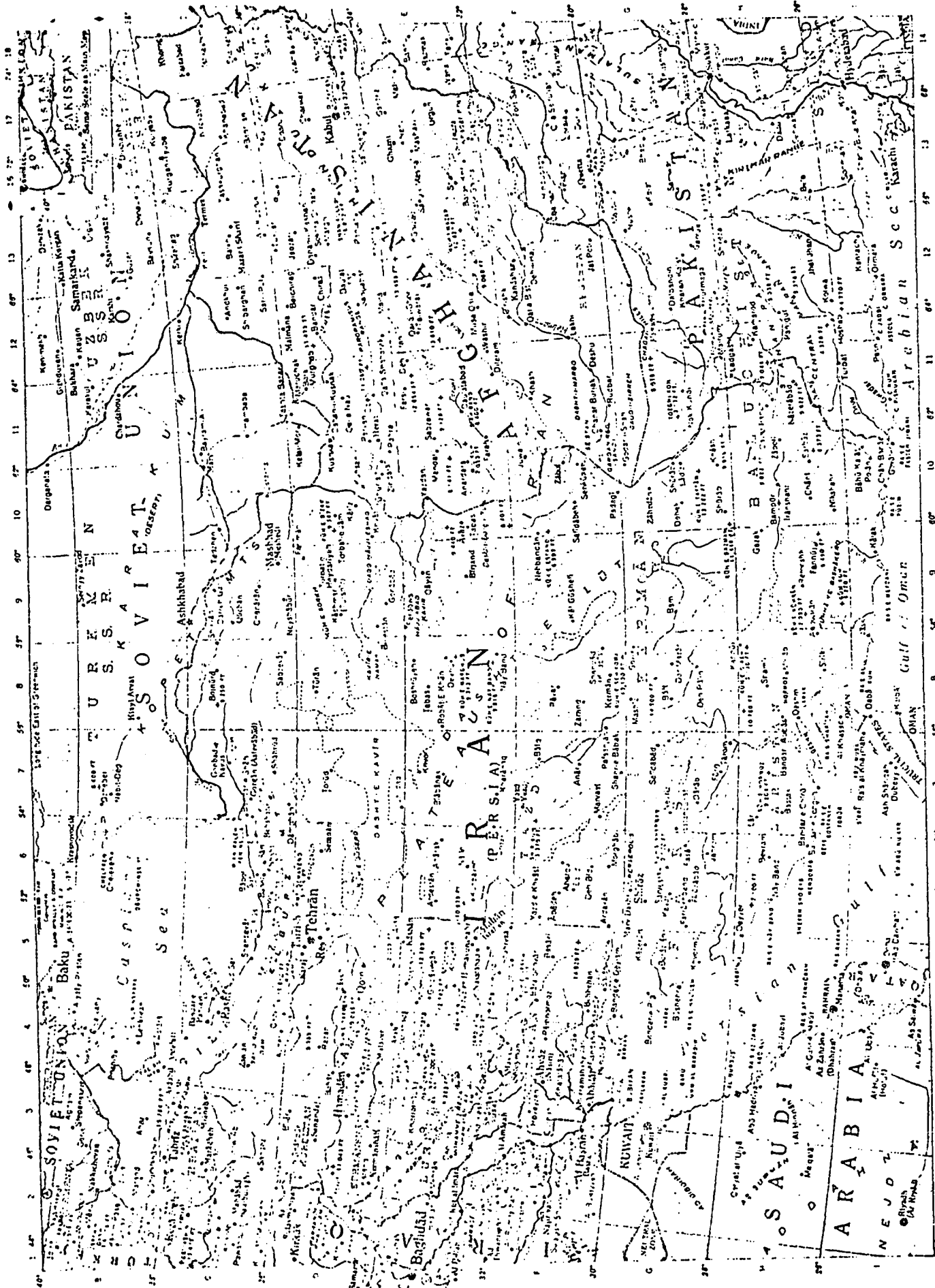
In the 1976 preliminary census, there was an estimated 32,900,000 people in the country.<sup>2</sup>

Iran is a Moslem nation with the people using the Persian language as a means of communication. However, there are many other religious denominations that exist in the country and the non-Moslems enjoy full social and legal rights under the Iranian Constitution--the first of its kind to be drafted in Asia. The practice of the principle of religious freedom is symbolized by the fact that religious minorities are represented in the Majlis (the National Consultative Assembly) by their own deputies. There are two Christian deputies, one Zoroastrian, one Jewish, and one Assyrian. No restrictions

---

<sup>1</sup>Harvey H. Smith, William W. Cover, John B. Folan, Michael L. Messenburg, Julius Szentadoyany, and Suzanne Telki, Area Handbook for Iran (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 17

<sup>2</sup>The Europa Yearbook, World Survey, 1977 ed., s.v. "Iran."



Laurent Conformal Conic Projection  
 Scale 1:1,000,000 (1 inch = 125 statute miles)

are placed on economic enterprise or social activities of members belonging to minority groups in Iran.<sup>1</sup>

### Structure of the Government

The renaissance of Iran began with the Constitutional Revolution of 1906, when an Imperial Decree was issued to convene a Constitutional Assembly. This Assembly adopted the Constitution of Iran on December 30, 1906.<sup>2</sup>

The nature of the state, authority, rights of citizens, legitimacy, and organization of the government are set forth in the Constitution of 1906, supplemented in 1907, and later amended in 1925, 1949, 1957, and 1967. The Constitution launched a new era turning Iran from medievalism toward the modern world.<sup>3</sup>

The Constitution provides for a government composed of three branches: the executive, the judicial, and the legislative. The executive power is vested in a cabinet and with the governmental officials who act in the name of the Shah, the constitutional monarch and the commander-in-chief of the armed forces. The judicial power is exercised by the hierarchy of courts from the district courts up through the Supreme Court. The legislative power is vested in the Senate and the National

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Information and Tourism, Basic Facts about Iran 3rd ed. (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Information and Tourism, Publications Department, November, 1974), pp. 118-119.

<sup>2</sup>The Europa Yearbook, op. cit.

<sup>3</sup>H. H. Smith, et al, op. cit., p. 243.

Consultative Assembly. Bills do not become law until signed by the Shah.<sup>1</sup>

The Cabinet, headed by the Prime Minister, is composed of several ministers. The Prime Minister is appointed by the Shah with the approval of Parliament, which must also approve the composition of the Cabinet. The ministers have a joint responsibility for the affairs of the country.

The Parliament is bicameral. The National Assembly changes with the increase of the population inasmuch as one deputy should represent every 100,000 inhabitants.<sup>2</sup> In the July, 1971 election, there were 268 deputies in the Assembly. The Senate has 60 members, half of whom are appointed by the Monarch and the other half are elected by popular vote. Half of the members of the Senate represent Tehran.<sup>3</sup>

The country is divided into a number of territorial administrative units directly responsible to the central government through their respective ministries. According to the latest state division (March, 1974), Iran is divided into twenty-one provinces, two independent Governorate-Generals, 153 counties, and 461 municipalities.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 229.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ministry of Information and Tourism, Basic Facts About Iran, p. 56.

<sup>4</sup>The Europa Yearbook, op. cit.

### Cultural History

In order to understand a people with a life span of 2,700 years of recorded history, and with a fate and civilization transcending in importance its national borders, one needs a comprehensive interpretation of its history to explain the unity of its national ego. To the uninformed such a history would seem to be fragmented and devoid of any harmony. It is, of course, beyond the scope of this study to explore and interpret the recorded past of Iran during the last two and a half milleniums. However, a short account of Iran's history is included in this investigation in order to complete the background information about Iran as part of an attempt to develop an understanding of the educational system of that country.

The most significant fact of Iran's history is the succession of foreign invaders who intruded into the country. Some of the great powers of the world invaded the country. In spite of these invasions, Iran managed to reassert its national individuality and has been able to preserve its cultural and political entity after periods of national crisis. In the words of Edward G. Browne:

Again and again Persia has been apparently submerged by Greeks, Partians, Arabs, Mongols, Turks, and Afghans; again and again she has been broken up into petty states ruled by tribal chiefs; and yet she has re-emerged as a distinct nation with peculiar and well-marked characteristics.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Edward G. Browne, The Persian Revolution: 1905-1909 (London: Frank Cass & Co., Ltd., 1966), preface, xiii.

The earliest Iranians were Aryans who migrated westward from Central Asia onto the Iranian plateau in the seventeenth century B.C. These Aryans--the word means nobles or lords--were nomadic and spoke an Indo-European language. They raised horses and cattle.<sup>1</sup> Between 1500 and 1200 B.C., groups of these people moved down into the Indian subcontinent while others remained on the plateau.

The Iranians apparently reached the plain to the east of Hamadan after 1200 B.C., which is now a western province. These people were first mentioned in an Assyrian inscription of 844 B.C.<sup>2</sup> The history of Iranian monarchy, however, dates from 559 B.C., when Cyrus the Great ascended the throne. Cyrus the Great united the Iranian tribes, defeated the Median king in 550 B.C. and established the Achaemenian Dynasty after a series of successful military campaigns.<sup>3</sup>

The empire founded by Cyrus had no equal in the past history of the Iranians in its extent, organization, artistic achievement, religious tolerance, and respect for human rights. In the estimation of D. N. Wilber:

. . . it is apparent that in the field of public administration, political organization, continuity of government and tolerance of race and creed the Achaemenids far surpassed the Greek city states.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 25.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 26

<sup>3</sup>George G. Cameron, History of Early Iran (New York: Greenwood Press, 1968), pp. 212-227.

<sup>4</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 29.

The Archaemenian empire lasted until 320 B.C. when it was destroyed by Alexander the Great. Another Iranian group, the Partians were overthrown by the Sassanians, who revived the Achaemenian empire. The grandeur of the Sassanians was invaded by Arab Moslems in the 7th century A.D., and the advent of Islam<sup>1</sup> opened a new era in the history of the nation.

Before Islam was introduced to Iran, Zoroastrianism had a great impact upon the education and socialization of the people. For almost thirteen centuries, the Zoroastrian religion formed the nucleus of Iranian education.<sup>2</sup> Although the roots of this religion can be traced as far back as the fifteenth century B.C., its real founder was Zoroaster who appears to have lived about one hundred years before the Iranians established their empire.<sup>3</sup> This prophet of the ancient Iranians said:

. . . if an alien, or a friend or a brother should come to you in pursuit of knowledge and learning, accept him and teach him what he seeks.<sup>4</sup>

Education had three dimensions in ancient Iran: physical, moral, and religious. It was a public affair, aimed primarily

---

<sup>1</sup>Islam is an Arabic word for submission, with reference to the will of God.

<sup>2</sup>Issa Sadig, Modern Persia and her Educational System (New York City: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1931), p. 32.

<sup>3</sup>Edward Burns and Philip Ralph, World Civilization: From Ancient to Contemporary (New York: W. W. Morton & Co., 1964), pp. 92-93.

<sup>4</sup>Ministry of Information, Iran (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Information Press, 1971), p. 167.

at preparing the youth to become hardy and experienced soldiers in order to defend the empire. In Achaemenid times the young men were taught not only how to ride and shoot the bow, but to appreciate the truth and to distinguish between good and evil.<sup>1</sup>

Zoroastrianism taught purity and immortality of soul, as well as the ideas of resurrection from death and the final judgment of the soul. Emphasis was placed also on freedom of will to choose between good and evil, the principles of good thought, good words, and good deeds. Morality, right conduct, and good human relations had a special place in the religion and were thus reflected in educational processes. Education in the Zoroastrian era was not restricted to the elementary level, but also included the higher branches of learning. In addition to ordinary schools, there were important scientific and cultural centers of education, such as:

. . . Hellenistic, Alexandrian, Syrian and Hindu philosophy and science had spread out to the Sassanian centers of learning . . . . When the tradition of Greek education had all but faded away in Europe in the early Christian centuries, when the academy of Athens was closed in 524 by Emperor Justinian, . . . it was in Sassanian Persia . . . that Syrian, Alexandrian, and Jewish scholars found refuge. There they preserved these traditions, improved upon and added to them, and later passed them on through Islamic scholarship to European educators.<sup>2</sup>

The most famous of these centers was the Jundi-Shapur academy. Scientific, literary, and cultural activities

---

<sup>1</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 202.

<sup>2</sup>Mehdi Nakosteen, History of Islamic Origins of Western Education (Boulder: University of Colorado Press, 1964), p. 17.



flourished at Jundi-Shapur. This center of learning impressed the Arabs. It was especially famous for medicine. There and elsewhere many books were translated from Greek, Sanskrit and Syrian into Pahlavi (middle Persian Language).<sup>1</sup>

The libraries of Zoroastrian temples included many scientific and ethical books written in the Pahlavi language, many of which were later translated into Arabic, and centuries later into Latin, and still later into European languages.<sup>2</sup>

For several centuries, Jundi-Shapur University was a great intellectual center for the study of medicine, philosophy, mathematics, and astronomy. The academy, an intellectual sanctuary for many great scholars, gradually lost its importance in the late 880's. At that time scientific works appeared in Baghdad and Samarra, and also in Cordova and other Spanish and Sicilian academic communities.<sup>3</sup>

It should be noted that because of the structure of Iranian society and the inter-relationship of the various classes, the education of children was not universal. Reading and writing were usually given to the upper classes as their prerogative. Nevertheless, individuals still had the opportunity to move upward in social status through educational endeavor and evidence of educational ability.

---

<sup>1</sup>Richard N. Frye, The Golden Age of Persia (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1975), p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Nakosteen, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 22.

Classical Education in Iran

Frequent wars against Byzantium and problems of succession to the throne weakened and exhausted the military power of the Iranian Empire thus threatening its political stability during the first part of the seventh century A.D.<sup>1</sup> During this period, a new religious force swept over the western part of the Arabian Peninsula.<sup>2</sup>

At about 610 A.D., when many Arab tribes worshipped nature gods, Mohammad introduced the religion of Islam. In 622 A.D., he and a small band of followers were forced to flee from Mecca and to Medina where he had already made converts.<sup>3</sup> It is this flight that marks the beginning of the Islamic calendar. By 632 A.D., the year of his death, Mohammad had united most of the Arabian peninsula, both religiously and politically. Within the space of a century, his successors had brought a vast area from China to North Africa and Spain under Islamic rule.<sup>4</sup> By the eighth century, the Middle East enjoyed a civilization culturally far superior to that of Western Europe.<sup>5</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Frye, Persia, p. 55.

<sup>2</sup>H. H. Smith, op. cit., p. 46.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 214.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Joseph Syliowicz, Education and Modernization in the Middle East (Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University Press, 1973), p. 51.

Toward the end of 634 A.D., the first Arab and Iranian confrontation took place.<sup>1</sup> By the death of Yazdegird III in 651, the last of the Sassanian rulers, the armies of the Sassanid Empire gave way before the onslaught of inspired Muslim forces.<sup>2</sup> After seventeen years of resistance, all the Iranian domain came under Arab administration.

After the adoption of the Muslim religion in the 7th century, Iranian education was based upon the Koran. The Mosques or affiliated religious primary schools were the chief centers for schooling outside the home.<sup>3</sup> These schools, taught by Muslim priests, were supported by individual philanthropy or by religious foundations. The curriculum included religious instruction from the Koran, reading, writing, and some simple arithmetic.<sup>4</sup>

Islam fostered the growth of knowledge and learning. Everybody had access to at least elementary education irrespective of race or social status. The utilitarian nature of the mosque made universal elementary education almost a reality. Teaching in the mosque usually took place after each prayer, five times a day. Therefore, opportunities for primary education were readily available to children who wished to take advantage of them. The monitorial methods of teaching were

---

<sup>1</sup>Frye, Persia, p. 57.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 67.

<sup>3</sup>H. H. Smith, op. cit., p. 165.

<sup>4</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 202.

employed. In later years when education became more popular, each mosque was able to establish its own library.

The first public building in the smallest moslem area is a mosque. Wherever Islam spread in the first century of its dramatic growth, the tradition of the mosque as a center of worship went along with it. Therefore, it was natural that the early Caliphs would in time see the significance of the mosque not only as a place for worship, socialization and unifying functions, but as a center for instruction of the young. Within the first three centuries Baghdad possessed 3,000 mosques. In the fourteenth century an estimated 12,000 of them were in existence in Alexandria alone.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, the best means to actualize universal elementary education could not be anything other than mosques.

Before long, many mosques acquired fame as centers of learning and scholarship, developing into important institutions with large libraries and thousands of students. . . . lectures on such subjects as the Koran, law tradition, Arabic philology, history, and sometimes even medicine were given to large audiences comprised of young students, mature townspeople, and travellers passing through.<sup>2</sup>

Before the establishment of schools as an organized center for educational activities across the nation, other centers such as writing schools, the mosque schools, the palace schools, bookshop schools, and the library salons were in operation. These schools had their limitations: the curriculum was narrow, they did not always attract the best

---

<sup>1</sup>Nakosteen, op. cit., p. 47.

<sup>2</sup>Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 53.

teachers, physical facilities were not conducive to learning, and conflict between educational and religious purposes was frequent. These and other factors such as progress and diffusion of knowledge, a zeal to promote higher learning, and a larger cadre of qualified and learned men to teach led to the establishment of organized schools as such.

Schools as organized educational institutions did not develop until the 11th century. The opening of the first public school in 1066 by Nizam-al-Mulk (a great Iranian prime minister in the administration of the Seljug sultans), though not the first school in Islam, marks the transition from the mosque schools and the beginning of a system of public education.<sup>1</sup>

The public school had a slow start. It began at first with only one teacher. It provided rooms for students and was supported by endowments. Later, it grew and had not only several instructors, but also preceptors or tutors who oversaw the memorization of texts. A system of licenses, each one to teach one book, and a differentiated faculty was developed. These schools which gradually came to be the centers of higher learning, were expanded to promote not only the cause of education, but also to serve political indoctrination motives as well. They united various religious factions and produced the justification for the rule of the sultan.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Nakosteen, op. cit., pp. 38-41.

<sup>2</sup>Frye, op. cit., p. 229.

Although these institutes of higher learning may have been founded as early as the ninth century, the first real college developed in Naisabur, Iran, early in the eleventh century.<sup>1</sup> But the most famous college, which in time became the model for the whole college system, was Nizamiye in Baghdad, founded by Nizam-al-Mulk. Large sums of money were invested in the establishment and maintenance of these schools with generous scholarships, pensions, and rations granted to all worthy students. In fact, Nizam-al-Mulk supplied the schools with libraries, the best teachers he could find, and made education almost universal.<sup>2</sup> These schools were well distributed from East to West. They became standardized and other people built many more and named them after Nizam-al-Mulk.

The curriculum was broad and comprehensive but religiously oriented. Though the emphasis remained upon the Koran, religious traditions, and Islamic law, such subjects as logic, mathematics, geometry, astronomy, music, the natural sciences, medicine, literature, rhetoric, and grammar were also taught.<sup>3</sup>

It is proper to note that Koranic learning should not connote a cheap and pedantic education nor exist as an end

---

<sup>1</sup>Bayard Dodge, Muslim Education in Medieval Times (Washington: Middle East Institute, 1962), p. 19, cited in Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 63.

<sup>2</sup>Nakosteen, op. cit., pp. 38-40.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 52-56.

in itself. It is believed that religion, in general, brings with it dogmatism and some sort of narrow-mindedness. Nevertheless it should be asserted that in the golden age of Islam (750-1150) cultural-educational activities did not permit theology and dogma to limit scholarship. Searches were conducted into every field of human knowledge, learning was respected, and the scholar honored. It was during this period that the science and philosophy of the Greeks, pre-Islamic Iran, and Hindus were introduced to the western world.<sup>1</sup>

This intellectual vitality and enlightened scholarship continued as long as religious leaders did not become part of the bureaucracy or concerned with their own self-aggrandizement. Once the control of the intellectual life came to rest within a group that resisted innovation and change, education declined. Emphasis was placed upon scholasticism, and freedom of inquiry was discouraged. Conservatism prevailed, and movement developed to prevent change in educational processes. This eventually led to educational, artistic, and intellectual stagnation.

#### Introduction of Modern Education

Contact was re-established with some European countries in the early seventeenth century when the West tried to halt the Ottoman Turks' expansions and threats by keeping them preoccupied in the East:

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 37-38.

The Holy See sent emissaries to the Court of the Shah to inquire if the Turks could be kept preoccupied in the East.<sup>1</sup>

From this time in Iran, interest grew in foreign ideas, languages, and way of life; on the Western side, a feeling of expansionism and extension of influence in other countries took a firmer root. A prime example was the case of Iran with the two contending rivals, Russia and Britain, which cost Iran a vast part of its territory.

For Iran to preserve her independence in the face of this strong challenge, it was vital that reforms be undertaken in many areas. According to Eslami-Nodushan:

It brought them to consider that, if they wished to prolong their independence and resist encroachment of foreigners, they must be armed with the modern technology and implements of Europe.<sup>2</sup>

Accordingly, students were sent to Europe, the first printing press was brought to Iran, and publication of a newspaper was started.<sup>3</sup> These efforts and the urgent need for military officers, high level trained administrators, and officials, culminated in the founding of the first modern school in Iran, the Dar-al-Fonun (Poly-technic Institute) in 1851 by Amir Kabir, the able prime minister of Naser-ed-Din Shah who had acceded to the throne in 1848. He personally supervised the entire project, and recruited teachers from

---

<sup>1</sup>Amin Banani, The Modernization of Iran, 1921-1941 (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1961), p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>Mohammad Ali Eslami-Nodushan, "The Influence of Europe on Literary Modernization in Iran," Middle East Journal 23 (Autumn, 1969), pp. 529-534.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 530.



France, Austria, and Iranians who had been abroad for training since 1811.<sup>1</sup>

The spirit of the institution was from the outset French, as was the language of instruction. Fields of study included such military subjects as artillery, infantry, cavalry, and military engineering as well as medicine, science and mathematics.<sup>2</sup>

The school enjoyed a high esteem and regard from the start. Although it was expected to start with thirty students, the demand was so great that one-hundred and five students, all sons of the aristocracy, were enrolled.<sup>3</sup> Of this number, sixty-one studied military subjects.

The ages of the students admitted ranged from fourteen to sixteen years. They studied for six years or more. Tuition was free and the students also received a special allowance plus two suits annually, as well as free meals daily.<sup>4</sup> In fact, this was Iran's first government supported school of higher learning. A picturesque description of the school is given by an English visitor to the school in the late nineteenth century:

The first room entered was the French classroom, where, under a Persian teacher, a large class was reciting and taking good hold of the language. The walls of the room were covered with very fair pencil-sketches and oil paintings, the work of the pupils. In the English room Professor Tyler showed us a class of bright boys translating our mother-tongue. These,

---

<sup>1</sup>Szyliowicz, op. cit., pp. 170-171.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Reza Arasteh, "The Growth of Higher Institutions in Iran," International Review of Education, 7 (1961), p. 328.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

with Russian, Arabic, and Turkish are the foreign languages taught. Had we come in the morning the sciences would have been on the programme. There was scientific apparatus and a small library representing many languages.

The extent of the curriculum, the drill, and the evident success of the instruction in the Shah's college were a great surprise to us. The number in attendance was two hundred and fifty composed of Persians and Armenians, with a few Hindus. All the native races and religions are admitted. All are in some degree supported. Some are given only a few tomans, while others have full support, the morning and evening meals being provided at the college. His majesty's object in maintaining the college is to prepare educated officers for the army and the civil services.<sup>1</sup>

The college flourished and served as a higher education institute until the end of the nineteenth century when it was changed into a high school. The establishment of Dar-al-fonun represented a landmark in the introduction of modern education into the country. It influenced all aspects of the system, even to the extent of changing the style of literary works.<sup>2</sup> Most of its 1100 graduates not only occupied top governmental positions, but were very influential and active in the intellectual and political movements, and in bringing about the 1906 revolution which replaced an absolute monarchy with a constitutional monarchy.<sup>3</sup>

The success of Dar-al-fonun encouraged the establishment of a number of higher institutes of education in other parts of the country, championed by different ministries. Military

---

<sup>1</sup>S. G. Wilson, Persian Life and Customs (New York: Fleming H. Revell Co., 1895), pp. 151-152.

<sup>2</sup>Eslami-Nodushan, op. cit., p. 530.

<sup>3</sup>Arasteh, Growth of Higher Institutions, p. 330.

schools opened in Tabriz (1884) and Esfahan (1886). The Ministry of Foreign Affairs established a School of Political Science in 1901. The Ministry of Economy opened its College of Agriculture in 1902, while the Ministry of Education was responsible for the establishment of a School of Fine Arts in 1911 and a Boy's Normal School in 1919. Not to be outdone, the Ministry of Justice opened its school of Law in 1921.<sup>1</sup> This new orientation of education was largely the result of Iran's contact with the West and its attempts at organizing a modern military and bureaucratic establishment. However, the educational contribution of missionaries to Iran should not be overlooked.

Christian missionaries are to be credited for educational and medical contributions along with their religious activities both before and after the advent of Islam. As Waterfield<sup>2</sup> indicates, many of the doctors and other learned men who made the University of Jundi-Shapur famous were Christians. When the Caliph Ma'mun (813-33) founded an institute of higher education known as the "House of Knowledge", one of its famous heads was a Christian scholar called Abu Zayd Hunain.<sup>3</sup> However, since the notion of nationality and religion were closely allied in pre- and early Islamic era,

---

<sup>1</sup>H. H. Smith, op. cit., pp. 165-166.

<sup>2</sup>Robin E. Waterfield, Christians in Persia, (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1973), p. 18.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 36.

no place was left for Persian Christians. Because it was difficult for a Persian to be a Christian at the same time, difficulties were created for Persians who wanted to be Christians. In time, when Islam swept Iran, to be a Persian, one had to be a Muslim. This compelled the monks to direct their energies to evangelism.<sup>1</sup>

The first educational institution established as such, Wilber believes, was opened in 1836 in Rezaiyeh,<sup>2</sup> after the Reverend Justin and Mrs. Perkins of the American Board of Commissioners, reached Tabriz in August, 1834 where they quickly established a school which used the monitorial system to make up for staff shortage.<sup>3</sup>

By 1841 the mission had opened seventeen schools in sixteen different villages and in 1851 Mr. Stockings, superintendent of the schools, reported the existence of forty-five schools with 871 pupils of whom 203 were women.<sup>4</sup>

However, if it had not been because of competition with Catholic missionaries, as Perkins noted, they would never have opened even half of those schools because of pecuniary reasons.<sup>5</sup>

At Tehran Alborz College, the outgrowth of the American High School for boys since 1925, was granted a charter by the

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 37.

<sup>2</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 202.

<sup>3</sup>Waterfield, op. cit., pp. 103-105.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 109.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 110.

Board of Regents of the State of New York in 1928, and thus enjoyed the status of an accredited liberal arts college.

According to Wilber:

The development of this institution was the life work of the late Samuel Jordan, Principal of the school from 1899 and president from the time it became a college until his retirement in 1940.<sup>1</sup>

At the same time in relation to Alborz College, Sage College for Women was operating.<sup>2</sup> In addition, primary and secondary schools were sponsored by the Alliance Israelite Universelle and the Alliance Francaise. By 1926 there were forty-five foreign-sponsored schools.<sup>3</sup> In addition to American schools, British, German, French, and Russian schools were in operation in various parts of the country.

Reza Shah the Great (the founder of the Pahlavi Dynasty, ascended the throne in 1925 and ruled until 1951, when he had to abdicate the throne in favor of his son, the present monarch) was much concerned with the creation of a sense of national identity, which deeply affected the Iranian school system. He emphasized education's political socialization function. This ambition to build an Iranian nation cost missionary schools their operation in the country. In 1939 and 1940, all these schools were nationalized to halt the

---

<sup>1</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 203.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ali Mohammad Kardan, L'organisation scolaire en Iran (Geneva: Imprimerie Reggiam et Jacond, 1957), p. 45, cited in Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 173.

spread of Soviet propaganda through the media of the Russian schools.<sup>1</sup>

Since the end of World War II the government regulations have been relaxed and several foreign sponsored schools have been authorized to operate in Iran. There are some twenty foreign schools operating under bilateral educational agreements or under the regulations of the Ministry of Education.

The impetus from the missionary schools, to some extent, caused the initiation of modern education in Iran. They provided a powerful incentive for the government to improve its own standards of education. As mission schools grew in number, the government began to take steps to erect better schools of its own. In time, the schools equalled the foreign schools, making their presence unnecessary in Iran.<sup>2</sup>

Interest in educational reform also increased towards the end of the 19th century. Although the Ministry of Education was founded in 1855,<sup>3</sup> the government's systematic attempt started with the establishment of the Council for National Schools in 1898.<sup>4</sup> This body, consisting of prominent

---

<sup>1</sup>Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 242. All these schools were nationalized and foreign missionary teachers expelled from Iran on the ground that the Russians would be entitled to open their own schools if the other nationalities retained theirs.

<sup>2</sup>Reza Arasteh, Education and Social Awakening in Iran: 1950-1968. 2nd ed. (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1969), p. 123.

<sup>3</sup>Wilber, op. cit., p. 202.

<sup>4</sup>Banani, op. cit., p. 89.

men of the day, opened ten schools in the same year,<sup>1</sup> and by 1901, twenty-one such schools had been established, seventeen of which were located in Tehran.<sup>2</sup>

The early part of the 20th century further witnessed a series of new laws concerning education. Attempts were embodied in Articles 18 and 19 of the Constitutional Law of 1907, which provided for compulsory modern education for all Iranians and for the establishment of a Ministry of Science and Arts to organize all schools within the country. In 1910, in the second session of the Congress, the Ministry of Education was reorganized, the need for compulsory elementary education was reemphasized, and it advocated the collection of educational statistics, adequate teacher training, adult education, study abroad, the establishment of libraries, and the publication of textbooks. Again, when the Fundamental Law of the Ministry of Education was passed in 1911, these principles were reaffirmed.<sup>3</sup>

All these developments, however, were on a very small scale. Iran entered the first decade of the twentieth century essentially a feudal society and many educational as well as other reforms that had to be implemented were not yet initiated. Iran still lacked an adequate infrastructure

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 173.

<sup>3</sup>Arasteh, op. cit. A full text of the laws may be found in pages 135-142 of this book.

of human and physical resources, and any reformer determined to build a modern educational system would essentially have to begin anew.

At the same time, the grip and influence of the conservatives and some narrow-minded religious reactionaries were too strong to let any real innovative educational movement save the system from stagnation. Banani put it this way:

The extensive planning and the organizational reforms of the Constitutional era bore few practical fruits. Inertia brought on by clerical influence, political instability, scarcity and mismanagement of funds, and the lack of qualified teachers and administrators posed nearly insurmountable obstacles. The only real achievement of this period was the founding of nine more state elementary schools and the sending of thirty students to Europe.<sup>1</sup>

#### Education Since 1921

The aftermath of World War I brought about drastic changes in the political configuration of the Middle Eastern countries.<sup>2</sup> However, national sentiment in Iran was strong enough to withstand the challenge of colonial powers, and in 1921, Reza Shah emerged as a self-made capable leader. Within four years, in December, 1925, the Constitutional Assembly proclaimed him as the King of Iran.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Banani, op. cit., p. 91.

<sup>2</sup>The Ottoman Empire disappeared and such new countries as Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Palestine, and Jordan reemerged and at the same time, they became mandates of France and England.

<sup>3</sup>Banani, op. cit., p. 43.



Under Reza Shah the Great, Iranian education underwent numerous and significant changes. The first step, after the creation of the High Council of Education in 1921, was to integrate and centralize the existing schools into a hierarchical structure and to make education, which varied from school to school, uniform in all elementary and secondary schools. To achieve this, in 1921 the Ministry of Education drew up the first full program for elementary and secondary education ever existing.<sup>1</sup> It consisted of six years of elementary education and two cycles of secondary, three years each, patterned after the French Lycée.<sup>2</sup>

These efforts were faced with the same perennial obstacles: lack of qualified teachers and administrators, and the most pressing of all, the traditional social context of the time.

The first teacher-training institution patterned after the French école normale and two other secondary school level centers were turning out teachers since 1918. The output of these institutes, however, could not meet the needed number of qualified teachers. In addition, the low remuneration and status of teachers attracted few persons to the profession. These circumstances left the state of teaching with teachers who were mostly poorly trained. Consequently, traditional educational methods and philosophies were again grafted into potentially modern institutions.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 92.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 93.

<sup>3</sup>Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 236.

To alleviate the problem, the Congress appropriated funds to send 100 students abroad annually over a period of five years. Of this number, 35 percent were to become teachers. Altogether, by 1934, 640 students had participated in this program--studying mainly in France--of whom 200 had become secondary and college teachers.<sup>1</sup> Another step was the teaching act of March, 1934. Legislation enacted in that year envisaged the founding of twenty-five teacher colleges in five years. In fact, the goals of the act were exceeded; thirty-six colleges were founded, many new teachers entered the profession, and vast improvement took place in the social position and salary of teachers.<sup>2</sup>

Important changes occurred, particularly in such fields as communications, industry, transportation, and social relations during Reza Shah's reign. The country became integrated. He stopped the country from disintegrating between warring factions which were ignited by foreign agitators. A degree of secularization occurred as he adopted various measures to limit the influence of the religious institutions. Secular legal codes were adopted. The nucleus of a modern educational system was built. The position of women changed somewhat and an economic base laid. During his term in power, Reza Shah laid the foundations for further changes in many areas of the society and culture as he painfully but inexorably moved Iran

---

<sup>1</sup>Arasteh, Education and Social Awakening, p. 87.

<sup>2</sup>Banani, op. cit., p. 94.

into the twentieth century and exposed the country to modernity. However, despite the efforts to make education the cornerstone of the reform program, much was left to be done. Banani has summarized the educational attempts of the period as follows:

Indeed the entire period from 1921 to 1941 must be considered a time of experimentation and gradual expansion of school curriculum rather than of immediate achievements.<sup>1</sup>

Reza Shah's abdication of power in 1941 and the Allied occupation of Iran, which lasted until 1945, created severe economic and political dislocations within the country. It was several years before Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, the present monarch, who inherited his father's throne in 1941, began drastic changes. His goal has been to elevate the country to a modern dynamic society.

Manpower planning has always been the most persistent nagging problem of the country. Since 1948, a great deal of attention has been given to this topic in the National Development Plans.<sup>2</sup> The third plan (1962-1967) of these series provided the first comprehensive educational program in the country's history; it was designed to resolve faulty planning and administrative deficiencies that had plagued the country

---

<sup>1</sup>Banani, op. cit., p. 93.

<sup>2</sup>In order to allocate resources to achieve specific results and goals, Iran's economic development since 1948 has been largely channelled through "Development Plans" of a five or seven year duration. Plan and Budget Organization is the national development agency through which these plans are carried out.

and to integrate the quantitative expansion of the system which had taken place in the preceding decade.

The plan, which was regarded as the first part of a twenty-year program to modernize education and to relate it to the country's manpower requirements specified the long-range goals that were to be achieved as qualitative improvements in the existing system and expansion of free and compulsory education opportunities to all Iranians between seven and twelve years of age. The Plan identified several major areas of concern if the long-range goals were to be achieved, including: the expansion of the teaching staff and the upgrading of its qualifications; the improvement of educational facilities; the rewriting of curriculae to reflect the new educational philosophy which de-emphasizes memorization; the preparation of new teaching materials to enable teachers to apply the new teaching philosophy; and an increase in financial resources to be obtained by tapping local funds.<sup>1</sup>

By 1968, which marked the beginning of the Fourth National Development Plan (1968-1972), the goals of the Third Plan were only partially reached. The state of the achievements of the Plan were officially described as follows:

Although relative progress has been made during the Third Plan period . . . about 40 percent of all

---

<sup>1</sup>George Baldwin, "Iran's Experience with Manpower Planning: Concepts, Techniques, and Lessons," in Frederick Harbison and Charles Myers, eds., Manpower and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965), pp. 160-161.

primary and secondary school teachers still do not hold the qualifications required for teaching at their respective levels.

Teaching methods are still old-fashioned and inadequate, and academic text-books, other than those used at the primary school level, do not conform to modern scientific educational progress. . . . A large number of school buildings are not suitable for their purpose, . . . a considerable number of schools still operate on a two-shift system. . . . The number of dropouts, especially in vocational and technical schools, is high, and the average number of hours that teachers actually work is less than the desired level. These and other factors have resulted in the per capita cost of education being very high, particularly in vocational and industrial schools . . . About 40 percent of children of primary school age and about 80 percent of adolescents are at present not receiving education.<sup>1</sup>

The Fourth Development Plan (1968-1972), was a most drastic step toward remedying problems of the educational system by a total overhaul reorganization of the system from a 6-6 system to a 5-3-4 structure. (The new system of education will be presented in more detail in the next section.) The new plan aimed to eliminate the lack of resonance between educational outputs and the country's manpower requirements and to raise standards.<sup>2</sup>

The Fourth Plan assigned the highest priority among the social objectives to education. The plan aimed to enroll 93 percent of the elementary school age group in the cities and 55 percent of the rural children of the same age group by the end of 1972.<sup>3</sup> The plan also projected to triple the number

---

<sup>1</sup>Fourth National Development Plan, 1968-1972 (Tehran, Iran: Plan Organization, 1968), pp. 262-263.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 264.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 266.

of students in vocational schools (to increase the number of students from 17,000 at the end of the Third Plan period to 50,000 at the end of the Fourth Plan, 1972)<sup>1</sup> and to double university student enrollment.

The executive branch of the Ministry of Education underwent drastic changes as well. The excessive administrative centralization was found responsible for much of the inefficiency, imbalance, and shortcomings of the educational system. Therefore, the reorganization of the ministry to delegate authority and responsibility to local chiefs of education in each province was suggested. This was aimed: to encourage the local population to participate actively in the administration and supervision of educational affairs and to obtain their financial support for the expansion of educational facilities; to reduce administrative personnel in Tehran and limit the Ministry's activities to planning, establishing overall standards, preparing programs and supervisory duties; to transfer qualified personnel from administrative to teaching jobs; and finally, to speed up the tempo of activity by adopting modern administrative, financial and personnel methods and procedures.<sup>2</sup>

Iran is now in the last two years of its Fifth Development Plan (1973-1978). However, it is still far from achieving the objectives of the Fourth Development Plan. Many serious problems still remain in the nation's educational program.

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 268.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 274.

### The Present System of Education

Authority and Responsibility--Under the provisions of the organic Education Act of 1911, responsibility for national education was vested solely in the Ministry of Education. Accordingly, all educational institutions and activities, including private and public schools, universities and independent institutions of higher learning, were under the Ministry's supervision.<sup>1</sup>

This extreme form of centralized authority not only stifled any kind of ingenuity and creativity on the part of individual, local needs, and needed innovations, but placed an increasingly heavy strain on the management of the Ministry.

With the passage of the Educational Act of 1968, the Ministry of Science and Higher Education was established to assume part of the educational responsibilities. To further the distribution of responsibility, other ministries created in the recent past, accepted some of the educational activities along with their own functions.

Rather than describing the functions of each ministry in detail, certain responsibilities of a number of them will be summarized as follows.

The Ministry of Education is charged with the promotion of pre-school, elementary, and secondary education, both public and private; to establish curricula and administer school

---

<sup>1</sup>Mohammad Ali Toussi, Present Education System in Iran (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, General Department of Planning and Studies, 1968), pp. 3-4.

examinations; to write and approve textbooks; to plan the public school budget; and to approve all expenditures. In addition, vocational education, literacy promotion, the education of exceptional children, extra-curricular activities, physical education, and hygiene in the schools as well as adult education and trade schools are under this ministry.<sup>1</sup> It is also responsible for preparing and educating teachers for the kindergarten, elementary and guidance level of schools in Iran.<sup>2</sup>

This Ministry is headed by the Minister of Education who is a political appointee and a member of the Council of Ministers. He is aided by a number of under-secretaries and general directors who exercise technical and administrative supervision over the sub-sections of the Ministry of Education.<sup>3</sup> The High Council of Education also assists the Ministry in an advisory and legislative capacity in matters relating to elementary and secondary education.<sup>4</sup>

The Ministry has provided for the establishment of provincial administrative units vested with extensive authority

---

<sup>1</sup>Area Handbook for Iran, pp. 168-169; Iraj Ayman, Educational Innovations in Iran (Paris: UNESCO Press, 1974), p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>UNESCO, Further Education of Teachers in Service in Asia: A Regional Survey (Bangkok: UNESCO Regional Office of Education in Asia, 1973), p. 89.

<sup>3</sup>Toussi, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>4</sup>The Educational System of Iran [Reprint] (Washington, D.C.: Institute of International Studies, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974), p. 3.



and responsibility, each of which, in turn, delegate authority to district and sub-district offices of education.<sup>1</sup> Although they are all responsible to the Ministry of Education, the 1968 Act for the Regionalization of Education provided for some degree of local autonomy. This legislation empowered local educational administrations to have educational councils popularly elected in each region.<sup>2</sup> These councils are responsible for their regions' financial and administrative affairs as they relate to education, in matters such as pay increases, staff promotions, building schools, and providing instructional materials.<sup>3</sup>

The Ministry of Science and Higher Education is responsible for post-secondary education, scientific research and development, and through continuous evaluations, plans and coordinates higher learning programs. This Ministry controls all colleges, universities, and institutions of higher learning even if they are part of or sponsored by other public or private agencies. The Ministry approves the degrees, curricula, faculties and rules and regulations promulgated by these institutions.<sup>4</sup> This Ministry is in charge of the preparation of teachers for secondary schools.<sup>5</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Toussi, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>2</sup>Ayman, op. cit., p. 10.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>UNESCO, Further Education of Teachers, p. 89.

The Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts contributes significantly to the enhancement of Iranian education. The programs of this office are designed to promote the cultural and aesthetic aspects of education. The Ministry also sponsors various academies of language and arts and is responsible for archaeological excavations and studies, museums and national treasures.<sup>1</sup>

The Ministries of Cooperatives and Rural Affairs, Labour and Social Work, Public Health, Roads, Post, Telegraph and Telephone, Agriculture, Economy, Interior, and Foreign Affairs, and a host of independent agencies have established educational institutions to serve manpower needs through in-service training. However, the first two ministries, namely, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, enjoy and exert the major influences over educational authority in Iran.

#### Structure

Education in Iran is comprised of four levels--elementary, guidance or middle school, secondary, and post-secondary in order to achieve the following aims;

1. To provide an equal opportunity for all Iranians, men and women in all classes of the population, urban or rural, to receive instructions and to take their rightful place in society.
2. To train a sufficient number of workers, technicians, engineers, specialists, and executives able to run the economy in the interests of national development.

---

<sup>1</sup>Ayman, op. cit., p. 6.

3. To train young people to participate actively and effectively in political and social life, to make judicious use of their social rights, to respect the law and to become useful members of a free and progressive society.
4. To develop the cultural and artistic talents of young people so that they may contribute to the enrichment of the Iranian cultural heritage and civilization.
5. To ensure the physical development, health, and vitality of future generations.
6. To instill in young people faith in a morally sound and rational form of social ideology, and foster in them the human qualities and virtues inspired by spiritual principles and by religious instruction.<sup>1</sup>

Part of the program in most provinces includes kindergartens, vocational education, adult education, and schools or classes for the gifted, the retarded, the handicapped, and the psychologically disturbed children. The organization and curriculum of private schools are similar to those of the free public schools. The school year for all levels usually begins in mid-September and ends in mid-June. School is in session six days a week, with Friday as the weekly holiday. Some higher learning institutions operate on the semester basis.<sup>2</sup>

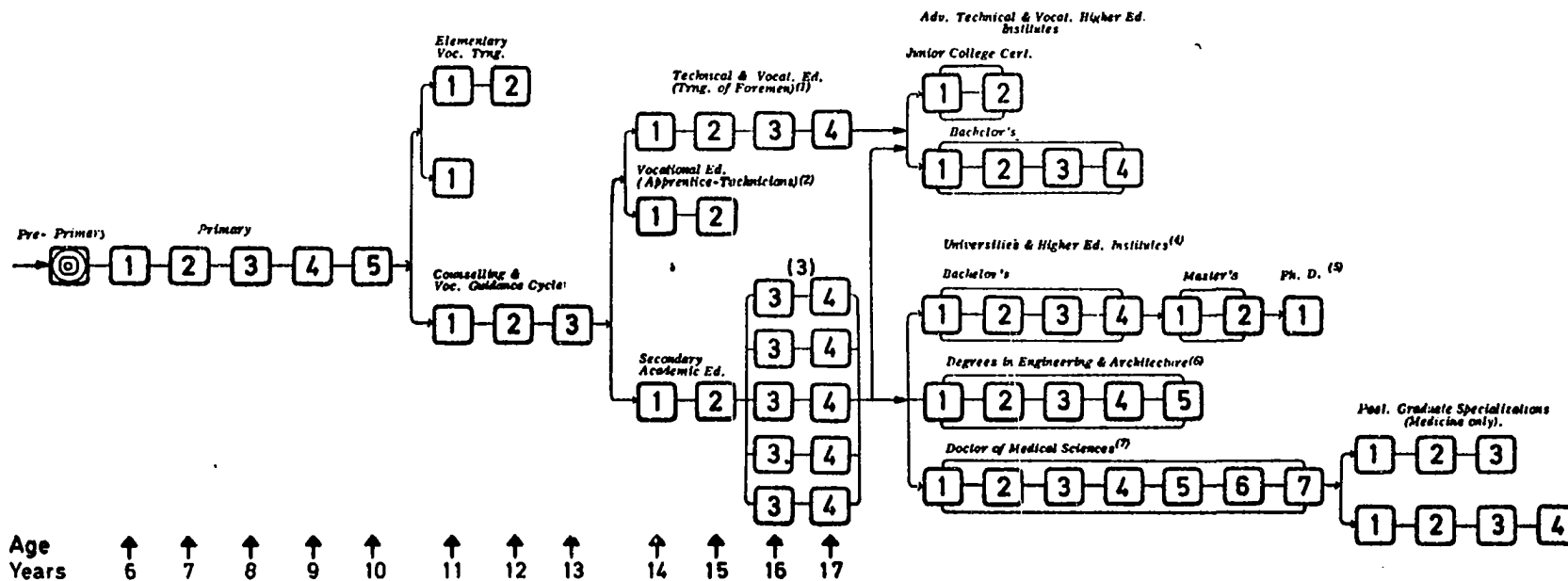
The preceding discussion simply dealt with some of the general ideas concerning education in Iran. Some of the peculiarities of each level are summarized as follows:

---

<sup>1</sup>UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Vol. V (Paris: UNESCO, 1971), p. 607.

<sup>2</sup>The Educational System of Iran, p. 2.

# Chart of The System of Formal Education in Iran. (The New System)



- (1) This is equivalent to 2nd Degree Technicians (Assistant - Technicians).
- (2) This course may be abolished in the near future.
- (3) At present, 10 fields of specialization are offered. These are: Mathematics; Natural Sciences; Literature & Humanities; Foreign Languages; Education; Economics; Sociology & Social Studies; Statistics; Nutrition & Home Economics; and Art. These fields are subject to changes as decisions are not finalized.
- (4) These are average durations required for the completion of each level of study. These durations sometimes vary between higher education establishments.
- (5) Doctorate requires minimum period of 1 year and maximum period of 3 years.
- (6) Possible to obtain degree equivalent to B.Sc. after 4 years and M.Sc. after 5 years at some Higher Education Institutions.
- (7) Doctoral for Pharmacy, Dentistry, and Veterinary Medicine usually requires a minimum period of 6 years.

### Elementary Education

Elementary schools provide education for five years. The minimum entrance age is six. The compulsory attendance law, first passed in 1907 and reiterated in 1911, 1932, and 1943, committed the government to the implementation of compulsory free primary education.<sup>1</sup> However, none of these were fully put into effect; as a consequence, the rate of illiteracy was extremely high.

In September, 1974, at the Seventh Conference on the Evaluation of the Revolution in Education, private elementary and middle schools which were using the standard curricula of the Ministry of Education were recommended to be nationalized, with the full expenses covered by the government.<sup>2</sup> This resolution, which is one of the many attempts to eradicate illiteracy, along with the free meal program, had a great impact on school enrollment. The average annual rate of increase of students rose from 6 percent in the previous years to 13 percent and from 15 percent to 27 percent for elementary and guidance schools, respectively.<sup>3</sup> Total enrollment from

---

<sup>1</sup>Toussi, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>2</sup>Ministry of Science and Higher Education, Remarks by His Imperial Majesty, the Shahansha Aryamehr and the Resolution of the Seventh Conference on the Evaluation of the Revolution in Education (Ramsar, Iran: Ministry of Science and Higher Education, September, 1974), p. 20.

<sup>3</sup>Ministry of Science and Higher Education, Eighth Conference on the Evaluation of the Revolution in Education, Ramsar, August 30-September 4 (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Information & Tourism Press, March, 1976), p. 51. (In Persian)

kindergarten through graduate school reached an all-time high of 7.8 million in the academic year 1975-1976, of which 4.5 million were elementary school students.<sup>1</sup> Further increases in school enrollment are expected for the next several years because "any individual who is prepared to serve in the country's social and economic development programmes and posts a service bond will be entitled to free secondary and higher education as well as educational grants."<sup>2</sup>

A standard curriculum, approved by the High Council of Education, is followed by primary schools.<sup>3</sup> The main objectives of this curriculum are to teach the basics of knowledge and help the child to develop a proper mental, emotional and physical health along with a firm basis in moral values.<sup>4</sup>

#### Guidance Cycle

Until 1971, Iran used the 6-6 plan with six years each for both the elementary and secondary school programs. Since the educational system was not responding to the country's progress in terms of manpower training and producing qualified scientists and technologists, the need for reform was obviously felt:

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Education, Summary of Educational Statistics: 1975-1976 (Tehran, Iran: Department of Coordination for Educational Plans, Bureau of Statistics, 1976), p. III. Figures are rounded up. (In Persian)

<sup>2</sup>Plan and Budget Organization, A Summary of Iran's Fifth National Development Plans 1973-1978 (Revised, May, 1975, p. 200. (In Persian)

<sup>3</sup>Toussi, op. cit., p. 9.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

Previous education policy had as its aim the training of administrators while almost entirely neglecting the training of technicians, engineers, and industrial management staff.<sup>1</sup>

During 1964-65, the Ministry of Education held a number of meetings asking for professional views of professors and specialists to investigate the possibility of major educational reform.<sup>2</sup> These deliberations culminated in the introduction of the present system of education with the emphasis on guidance cycle and secondary education as instrumental and essential in the coordination of the educational system and curricula with new social needs.

The guidance cycle part of the new system has been put into effect on a gradual basis since 1971.<sup>3</sup> After satisfactorily completing five years of elementary education, a pupil of eleven or twelve years of age starts the "middle" or "guidance cycle" of three years duration. This level of education is devoted to exploring the students' aptitudes through exposure to various experiences with basic principles of different trades and skills at the time as they absorb theoretical knowledge. During this period the talents of all students will be evaluated, their enthusiasm for technical and vocational work will be kindled, and they will be given

---

<sup>1</sup>UNESCO, World Survey of Education, p. 607.

<sup>2</sup>Ayman, op. cit., p. 27.

<sup>3</sup>UNESCO, Teacher Education in Asia, A Regional Survey (Bangkok: Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1972), p. 128.

the proper kind of guidance so that students can be channelled into different types of secondary education depending on their interests and abilities, and the needs of the country.<sup>1</sup>

The curriculum is uniform and general in nature. It consists of the following subjects:

religious and moral instruction, social sciences (civics, geography and history) Persian language (reading, writing, composition and grammar), experimental sciences, mathematics, introduction to technical and vocational education, foreign language physical education, and arts.<sup>2</sup>

As mentioned above, the curriculum of this period includes technical and vocational courses in addition to the theoretical ones. This is in order that conditions conducive to the development of pupils' interests in technical and vocational fields will be created and more students will be directed towards the technical and vocational fields which are required for an industrial economy.

Although education has virtually been free after the free education act of 1974 at all levels of educational institutes patronized by the government, nevertheless, the elementary and guidance cycle are both free of tuition and free from any obligations to serve the government. However, at present, only the five year primary course is compulsory,

---

<sup>1</sup>Plan Organization, Progress Report on Development Projects in the First Three Years of the Fourth Plan (March, 1968-1971) (Tehran, Iran: Plan Organization, Bureau of Information & Public Relations, n.d.), pp. 93-94; Ayman, op. cit., p. 27.

<sup>2</sup>Ministry of Education, 139th Session of the Ministry of Education, December 5, 1974, p. 5 (In Persian)



and when the enrollment of all children of primary school age is completed and the country's finances permit, the first eight years of schooling will be compulsory in rural and urban areas throughout the country.<sup>1</sup> This ideal is projected to be completed by the end of the Fifth Development Plan (1973-1978).<sup>2</sup>

### Secondary Cycle

The secondary level of education in Iran is organized as a four-year program: academic or technical/vocational, both of which are divided into two stages. The first stage consists of a three-year course and the second for one year. The latter is mainly devoted to providing further specialization in either academic courses or in technical/vocational training. In other words, it is intended to be either terminal in nature or to prepare students for the universities.<sup>3</sup> This plan, which established the new system of secondary education, was approved by the High Council of Education in August, 1975.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>UNESCO, World Survey of Education, p. 608.

<sup>2</sup>Plan & Budget Organization, A Summary of Iran's Fifth Development Plan, 1973-1978 (Revised), (Tehran, Iran: Plan Organization, May 1975), p. 199. (In Persian)

<sup>3</sup>Ministry of Education, The New Secondary Education System in Iran (Tehran, Iran: The Department of Research and Curriculum Development, August, 1975, mimeographed), p. 9.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 2; Ministry of Science and Higher Education, 8th Conference, p. 56.

### Academic Secondary Education

Academic secondary education is usually given to separate schools that offer the following four fields.<sup>1</sup>

1. Mathematics and physics
2. Experimental sciences
3. Literature and culture
4. Social studies and economics

In order to provide students with further opportunities to evaluate and choose their major field of study appropriate to their abilities and interests, the first year of academic secondary school has been divided into only two main branches, humanities and sciences. Thus, after the completion of the first year, those who were in sciences can continue in either experimental sciences or mathematics and physics on the basis of their achievements and interests or shift to social economics or literature and culture after taking a qualifying test.<sup>2</sup> This degree of flexibility is provided for those who start with humanities as well.

### Vocational/Technical Secondary Education

The aim of technical schools is to train second class technicians and foremen for industry, services, and rural vocations and agriculture. In meeting the great variety of manpower needs of the country, technical/vocational education

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Education, The New Secondary Education in Iran, p. 9.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 12.

offers fifteen major branches and forty-two specializations or sub-branches.<sup>1</sup>

The government has made a concerted effort to increase the number and quality of vocational schools. In the academic year 1975-1976, there were 147 industrial technical schools, 118 rural technical and vocational schools, 265 technical services schools (27 girl technical services, 210 commercial and banking, 28 secretarial), and 71 higher technical institutes in operation under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. There is a total number of 129,726 students.

Additional investment in the areas of technical and vocational training is aimed at the achievement of an equilibrium between the supply and demand for technical and skilled laborers. Realization of this goal is expected to extend well into the years of the Sixth Plan. It is projected to increase the number of centers to reach the capacity for training 600,000 skilled laborers, both new manpower and in-service training of existing employees for industrial services, and agricultural sections, by the end of the Sixth Plan.<sup>2</sup> At the same time, the centers and schools for training technicians will have a capacity of 1,200,000 persons.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>Plan and Budget Organization, Fifth Development Plan, p. 200.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

The second stage of one year, or the last year of secondary education, both academic and technical, is planned in the light of the following considerations:

1. All abler students in the academic and technical schools should have access to higher education by studying necessary prerequisite courses related to their specializations during the last year of secondary education.
2. Education in the last year should be concentrated on specializations rather than general courses.
3. Provision should be made for those who have followed academic streams, but are not willing to continue their studies at higher institutions of education, learn some marketable skills.<sup>1</sup>

The advantages of this new system of education are many if it is implemented and practiced systematically. It provides, besides being flexible and interchangeable, many educational choices for students of various age groups and social backgrounds who would otherwise drop out because of poor motivation, on the one hand, and limitations of the system, on the other. It helps to reorient the social outlook of the country toward a dynamic independent nation.

As mentioned before, Iran's economic development in the post-World War II period has been largely channelled through planning programs of a five-or seven year duration. Perhaps the restructuring of the educational system to include the guidance cycle and the administrative reform to decentralize

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Education, The New Secondary Education in Iran, p. 12.

education within the country should be considered as the most important proposals of the Fourth Plan. In a social context where "White-Collar" occupations in general and admission to the university in particular, are the very first priority of people; where limited coordination, cooperation, and planning are the major bottlenecks to efficient administration, such structural reforms are a must.

It is necessary to divert students into technical and vocational specialties of the country's manpower needs are to be met and the pressures for admission to the universities reduced. However, if meaningful educational change is to be achieved in this context, an efficient educational bureaucracy that can not only stress structural reform but also consider the functional variables involved in the implementation of different programs is vital.

To create such a perspective within the existing context of Iranian educational administration presents a massive and complex challenge. Even though the new-found attention that is being accorded to education and the administrative changes that have been made are promising, it takes a prolonged, comprehensive and determined effort, administered by able and dedicated officials at all levels, to mobilize the nation for progress and independence.

#### Higher Education

The educational system in Iran has such a structure that each level of education prepares the student for the next.

High school graduates with a high academic standing as the first prerequisite, who pass a test of intelligence and general information as the second one,<sup>1</sup> may enter a junior college, a technical institute, a professional school, a four-year college, or the undergraduate division of a university.

Iran post-secondary education institutions offer diverse programs and vary in size and scope of degree offerings. Some are privately controlled, affiliated to ministries or other government organizations, but most are operated by the government. There is a great degree of uniformity in standards and practices. An institution charter, issued by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education--in some cases the Parliament passes formal charters as in the case of Pahlavi University--prescribes procedures and sets the degree of autonomy of the institution in matters such as appointment, promotion, and dismissal of faculty members; setting standards for student admission and retention; establishing curriculum and granting degrees.

Most colleges and universities are administered by a governing body or board, usually known as a board of trustees or regents made up of ex-officio members and regular members legally responsible for the operation of the institute.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Science and Higher Education, Eighth Conference, pp. 55-56.

<sup>2</sup>Office of Councils, A Guide to the University of Teacher Education, 1975-1976 (Tehran: Teacher University Press, 1975), pp. 19-25. (In Persian)

Decisions regarding policies, management, and personnel are made by the board of trustees, but the president of the university, with the administrative staff, is the executive responsible for operating the institution. The board is also responsible for nominating the president of the university who is then officially appointed to the position by a royal decree.<sup>1</sup> The president, with the assistance of one or more vice-presidents, directs the general administration of the institution.

In the academic year 1975-76, the higher education system of Iran was comprised of 207 institutions: twelve universities, eighty "B.A. granting" colleges, and 115 junior colleges and technical institutes<sup>2</sup> with a total enrollment of 151,905 students (109,111 boys, 42,789 girls).<sup>3</sup> Of this number, fifty-two percent were in Tehran; twenty-six percent were in the cities of Esfahan, Ahwas, Tabriz, Mashad, and Shiraz; and the last twenty-one percent were scattered in other cities of the country.<sup>4</sup> In addition, there were 650 foreign students studying in Iranian institutions of higher learning in the 1975-76 academic year. The majority came

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education, Statistics of Higher Education in Iran: 1975-76 (Tehran: Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Press, 1976), Vol. 1, pp. 4-5. (In Persian)

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 1.

from Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iraq, the United States, Tanzania, Jordan and others.<sup>1</sup>

### Summary

In this chapter an effort has been made to outline the system of education in Iran, starting from the ancient period to the present national system of education. Since the pre-Islamic history of Iran has always been remembered with national pride, this section was included as well as education during the first centuries of Islamic influence.

The modern era of education, being of recent past, is included because education during this period has the most bearing on the present system of education in Iran. The historical review of general education during these periods should be helpful in understanding teacher-education programs. Only through the historical background can it be seen that a need for educated teachers was felt during the mid-19th century and that a beginning was made during the early 20th century.

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 83-87.



### CHAPTER III

#### DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN IRAN

A brief historical summary of teacher education and then a description of the sources of teacher supply for all levels are presented in this chapter in order to establish the basis for analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of teacher education programs in Iran.

Prior to 1918, from what has been presented in Chapter II, it can be inferred that teaching in Iran could not be considered a profession.<sup>1</sup> Until then, the great majority of teachers continued to teach without professional preparation and in most cases without much education of any kind. The qualifications required for teaching were simply possession of some knowledge of the subject matter, maturity, a pious and religious attitude, good conduct, and authority over children.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>In 1918, the first teacher training college was founded for preparing elementary school teachers. In Issa Sadig, Modern Persia and Her Educational System, p. 76.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

It was in 1918 that the movement toward the institutionalization and organization of the education of teachers began in Iran. This started with the establishment of the normal schools. Patterned after the école normale of France, the first normal school was established by the Minister of Education in 1918. It was intended primarily to prepare teachers for a few modern elementary schools which had been opened in that same year. The output of this institute and a second one opened a year later to prepare female teachers<sup>1</sup> could not meet the needed cadre of qualified teachers. In addition, the low remuneration and status of teachers attracted only a few teacher trainees. These circumstances did not help improve the qualifications of the teachers who were usually poorly prepared. In 1929, of the 2,428 teachers in the entire country, 93 percent of them were ineligible for salary increase or promotion owing to their lack of qualifications.<sup>2</sup>

To alleviate the problem, the Congress appropriated funds to send one hundred students abroad annually over a period of five years beginning in 1928. Of this number, thirty-five percent were to become teachers. By 1934, two hundred of a total of 640 participants in the program had become secondary and collegiate teachers.<sup>3</sup> Another step

---

<sup>1</sup>Ali Dehghan, Teacher Education in France, England and Iran (Tehran: University of Tehran Press, 1950), p. 94. (In Farsi)

<sup>2</sup>Kardan, L'organisation Scolaire en Iran, p. 89, cited in Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 236.

<sup>3</sup>Arasteh, Education and Social Awakening, p. 87.

taken by the Government was the passage of the Teacher Education Act of March, 1934. According to this Act, the Government was authorized by the legislature to undertake the following activities:

1. Establish twenty-five normal schools in five years--the first concrete effort ever made to prepare teachers for teaching in elementary schools.

2. Improve Tehran Teachers College. As a result, the institution was able to extend its programs, upgrade its instruction and improve upon its status.

3. Stabilize the social and economic status of the normal school graduates. Therefore, laws providing for tenure, promotion, and retirement benefits for teachers were enacted.

4. Increase the salary and promote the position of those elementary and secondary school teachers who were not holding teaching certificates.<sup>1</sup>

Thus, teaching in Iran began to take on the attributes of a profession. There was a serious attempt to break away from the past when teaching was an occupation requiring no special preparation other than the possession of general knowledge. With these developments, "a new, relatively secure and respectable professional class, admirably placed for furthering the national goals of the regime, was created, and a corresponding change in social attitudes came about."<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Dehghan, op. cit., p. 95.

<sup>2</sup>Banani, op. cit., p. 262.

### Sources of Teacher Supply

As was mentioned earlier, Iran has always had to contend with the problem of recruiting and training teachers whenever attempts have been made to bring about changes. Although relative progress has been made during recent years, nevertheless, in the 1975-76 school year, there was a shortage of 120,000 and 7,553 school teachers in the elementary and secondary schools, respectively, based on a minimum class size of thirty pupils per teacher in both elementary and secondary schools.<sup>1</sup> And yet the prospects for the near future are worsened because of the passage of the Free Public Education Act of 1974 (see Chapter II, p. 51 ), which will encourage more student enrollment in the years to come.

This shortage of teachers is not only the most serious problem limiting the quantitative expansion of the system over the next few years, but it also constitutes the country's largest manpower shortage. The success or failure of any educational project is dependent upon the ability, skill, knowledge, and motivation of the teacher. The highest priority must be attached to the expansion and improvement of teacher education institutions by responsible authorities.

At this time of writing the normal source of teachers were as follows:

---

<sup>1</sup>Rahim Sheikh-ul-Islami, A Report on Teacher Recruitment (Tehran: Institution for Research and Planning in Science and Education, 1976), pp. 3-7 (In Farsi).

1. Tribal Normal Schools
2. Normal Schools
3. Kindergarten Teacher Training Centers
4. Teacher Training Centers for Guidance Cycle
5. Bachelor or Higher Degree Granting Institutions

The education of teachers at all levels is under the direction of the Central Government. The Department of Teacher Training of the Ministry of Education oversees the process of educating teachers at the elementary and guidance levels, while the institutions preparing secondary school teachers are under the auspices of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.

#### Elementary Teachers

##### Tribal Teacher Training Center

The Tribal Teacher Training Center admits only students from tribal communities to undergo a one-year course after finishing their elementary education. A graduate of a tribal teacher training center is expected to return and teach in his community.

The curriculum for prospective tribal teachers is flexible, attuned to the needs and nature of their future careers. In addition to common subjects, some educational psychology, teaching methods, and areas of study specially relevant to tribal life, such as health and sanitation, are included.

At the present time, there is only one such center located in Shiraz, with an enrollment of one thousand during the 1975-76 school year.<sup>1</sup>

### Normal Schools

Education at a normal school in Iran qualifies its recipients to teach classes which comprise the first level in the school system. These centers offer a two-year program for students who have completed ten years of schooling. A student participates in approximately forty classroom hours per week of courses from the following list:

Pedagogy and psychology, Persian languages and literature, mathematics, experimental sciences, foreign language, social sciences, religion and ethics, arts and crafts, physical education, teaching methods and practice teaching.<sup>2</sup>

The Iranian government provides various forms of incentives to attract more students to the teaching profession. A law passed in 1975 entitled all students in normal schools and teacher training centers to subsidies ranging from \$130 to \$140.<sup>3</sup> This and other factors, such as free education and large numbers of unemployed high school graduates, resulted

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Education, Summary of Educational Statistics: 1975-1976, p. 4.

<sup>2</sup>"By-Laws and Curriculum of the Normal Schools," Approved by the High Council of Education, 103rd Session, Tehran, June 25, 1973, pp. 8-9, Mimeographed (Farsi).

<sup>3</sup>Ministry of Education, Department of Teacher Training, Allocation of Students of Educational Districts to Normal Schools and Teacher Training Centre: 1976-1977 (Tehran: Ministry of Education, Unit of Planning, Issue No. 14, July 1976), p. 1. (In Farsi)

in increased enrollments. Thus, the number of students enrolled at teacher training institutions under the supervision of the Ministry of Education totaled 48,000 in 1976-1977, or an increase of more than 8,000 students compared to the total enrollment of such students during 1975-76.<sup>1</sup>

During the school year 1975-76 there were 110 normal schools in Iran with a total number of 20,094 students.<sup>2</sup> Fourteen more newly founded, with a capacity of 1,200 students, were expected to start their educational activities during the 1976-77 school year.<sup>3</sup>

Normal schools are not co-educational, although two new building complexes, each comprising a boys' normal school and a girls' normal school in close proximity, share some of the facilities.<sup>4</sup>

#### Kindergarten Teachers

Teachers for kindergartens are trained in special normal schools of which there were twenty-seven in operation with 3,992 students during the school year 1975-76.<sup>5</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ministry of Education, Summary of Educational Statistics: 1975-1976, pp. 3-4.

<sup>3</sup>Ministry of Education, Department of Teacher Training, Allocation of Students, 1976-1977, p. 1.

<sup>4</sup>M. W. Stephano, Teacher Training for the Elementary and Guidance Cycle Schools of Iran (Tehran, Iran: Near East Foundation, 1972), p. 3.

<sup>5</sup>Ministry of Education, Department of Teacher Training, Allocation of Students: 1976-1977, p. 3.

Only high school graduates are admitted to these special normal schools. The candidates are selected on the basis of a qualifying examination, an interview, and the projected need of areas where kindergartens are available. Those selected undergo a one-year program of training before they are assigned to their posts.

### The Literacy Corps

Another source which attempts to add to the supply of teachers is the Literacy Corps. This organization functions especially in rural areas where the urgent needs of both children and adults for basic education are easily recognizable. The implementation of this ambitious project has not only helped to alleviate the teacher shortage in rural areas, but has also contributed to upgrading the teaching profession.

The Literacy Corps was created by the Royal Decree of October 13, 1962. It was devised as a crash program which concentrated primarily on elementary education in rural areas of the country where 76 percent of the children of school age did not have any access to education.<sup>1</sup> Equally important is the service of Corps teachers in the capacity of advisors for social, cultural, and economic betterment of that segment of the population.

The implementation of this program was made possible by giving secondary school graduates the option of doing their

---

<sup>1</sup>Pierre Furter, Possibilities and Limitations of Functional Literacy: The Iranian Experiment (Paris: UNESCO, 1973), p. 10.



military service as primary teachers in rural areas and villages after a six-month period of initial training.<sup>1</sup>

During the orientation period, the trainees continue their military training and take subjects such as Persian language, arithmetic, science, teaching methods, and educational psychology. In addition, other courses such as rural hygiene, rural development, vocational and agricultural development, and economics are also taught. This constitutes the core of the training to be prepared for eighteen months of service as first level school teachers.

In order to expand the scope of the program, the Women's Literacy Corps was introduced in 1968 for female secondary school and university graduates. During the 1975-1976 school year, there were over 14,316 Literacy Corpsmen of the twenty-fourth, twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth groups and 7,971 Literacy Corpwomen of the twelfth, thirteenth and fourteenth groups teaching 665,116 pupils in 14,732 Literacy Corps schools.<sup>2</sup> Additionally, 126,612 adults, with thirty-three percent women, attended classes conducted in Literacy Corps schools. Furthermore, some of Literacy Corps teachers served in ordinary schools.<sup>3</sup>

According to official reports, about 80 percent of the first groups of Literacy Corps members remained in the employment

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>2</sup>Ministry of Education, Summary of Educational Statistics: 1975-1976, p. 9.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

of the Ministry of Education as regular teachers in the rural areas upon the completion of their military service. With subsequent groups over the years the number has remained over 50 percent. Thus, the Literacy Corps has provided the Ministry with a steady stream of thousands of new teachers available for the ordinary first-level school.<sup>1</sup>

But, impressive as they are, these statistics reveal only part of the real impact of the Education Corps on rural schooling; in practice, a number of children who would no doubt never have attended school without the Education Corps, complete their education in an ordinary school after starting in an Education Corps establishment.<sup>2</sup>

The program provides incentives for the more diligent Corps members. A number of them are given scholarships to study for a Bachelor's or Master's degree in order to be prepared for supervisory or counseling positions in either rural or urban areas.<sup>3</sup>

#### Guidance Cycle Teachers

The initiation of guidance cycle<sup>4</sup> as an integral part of the new educational system necessitated teachers specially trained to work at this level. The minimum qualifications for teaching at this level is the Associate Degree granted by Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers.

---

<sup>1</sup>UNESCO, Further Education of Teachers, p. 92.

<sup>2</sup>Ayman, op. cit., p. 21.

<sup>3</sup>J. Hallak, N. Cheikhestani, and H. Varlet, The Financial Aspects of First-Level Education in Iran (Paris: UNESCO, 1972), p. 15.

<sup>4</sup>Supra. P. 51

The first centers were planned and established in 1969; offering specialization in five groups of subject matter:

1. mathematics,
2. experimental sciences,
3. Persian languages and social sciences,
4. foreign languages, and
5. vocational and technical education.<sup>1</sup>

In 1975-76, there were twenty-four of these centers in operation with an enrollment of 15,027 students.<sup>2</sup> It was predicted that this number would increase to 19,400 trainees for the following school year.<sup>3</sup>

The course of study is of two years duration. Some basic admission criteria have been established which have to be met by applicants:

1. Graduate of a high school
2. Twenty-five years of age or younger at the time of enrollment (age limit for in-service teachers is thirty)
3. Physical and mental stability
4. Take part in an entrance examination

---

<sup>1</sup>Detailed Curriculum for the Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers (Tehran: Ministry of Education, Department of Research and Curriculum Planning, March 1972), Preface. (Farsi)

<sup>2</sup>Estimated Statistics of Normal Schools and Teacher Training Centers: 1975-1976, (Tehran: Ministry of Education, Office of Teacher Training, Issue No. 13, March, 1976), Preface (Farsi).

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 1.

5. Be a Moslem or member of another officially recognized denomination.<sup>1</sup>

The organization and structure of the program at these centers can best be described as a composite of these components: (a) general courses; (b) areas of specialization; and (c) electives. Elective courses for each major, although limited in number, are designed to be closely related to the area of specialization of each student. This is intended to provide adequate depth in and understanding of, the subject matter which he plans to teach.<sup>2</sup> All students, regardless of the specific branch of study in which they are enrolled, study the following general subjects:

General Psychology, Educational Psychology, Principles and Methods of Education, History of Education, Comparative Education, Principles of Guidance and Counseling, Practical Arts, Physical Education, Religious Education, Foreign Language, Test and Measurement in Education, Farsi (reading, writing and speech)<sup>3</sup>

It is expected that the general courses will develop and provide an adequate understanding of adolescent development, learning processes, and organization and curricula currently

---

<sup>1</sup>Constitution of the Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers. Approved by the High Council of Education, 105th session, (Tehran: Ministry of Education, February 1973), p. 1 Mimeograph. (Farsi)

<sup>2</sup>Detailed Curriculum for Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers. Approved by the High Council of Education, 145th session (Tehran: Ministry of Education, April 1975). Mimeograph (Farsi) A detailed description of courses required for each branch of study and its corresponding electives is presented in the document.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 1.

employed in schools in order to enable teachers to effectively work with, and teach, adolescents.

The Associate Degree may also be earned by in-service teachers who have had at least three years of teaching experience and possess high school diplomas. The course work is exactly the same except that it must be covered in four summer sessions or in evening classes during three academic years, depending upon the locality of the teachers and availability of facilities.

At the present time, all guidance cycle teacher training centers are non-boarding institutions. However, all students receive a monthly stipend of \$140.<sup>1</sup>

#### Secondary Teacher Education

The complex known as the University of Teacher Education which educates school personnels at the bachelor's, master's and certificate program levels is the major source of secondary teachers in Iran. Other single-purpose teacher education institutions are Revolution Corps University, Shemiran Higher Institution, Arak Science Institute and four Teachers Colleges. Among multi-purpose institutions which bear a share of responsibility in secondary teacher education are Tehran, Pahlavi, Azarabadeghan, Ferdowsi, Jundi-Shapour, Esfahan and Razi Universities. It is expected that in the future these universities will play a greater role in teacher education than

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Education, Allocation of Students to Normal Schools and Teacher Training Centers, 1976-1977, p. 1.

has been the case in the past. The College of Education at Tehran University is the harbinger; it has been offering doctoral programs in History and Philosophy of Education since the school year 1974-75. It is probable that other institutions of higher education will follow the same course of action in the near future.

All teacher education institutions have been approved by the Iranian Government. A brief description of the goals, structure and organization of the University of Teacher Education is presented below. This information should provide a general background about the nature of the organizational climate of teacher education in Iran.

### The University of Teacher Education

#### Objectives

The University provides a statement of objectives specific to its functions as follows:

- To prepare qualified teachers for Normal Schools, Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers, and Teacher Colleges;
- To prepare school administrators;
- To plan, organize and conduct programs for preparing secondary school teachers;
- To prepare educational specialists;
- To prepare school counselors;
- To furnish educational materials and advisory services for students;

-- And to conduct experimental and research studies in education.<sup>1</sup>

### History, Background and Growth of the University

The goals and objectives described here have developed and evolved during the fifty-seven years of the history of the University of Teacher Education. That history began in 1918<sup>2</sup> when the first unit for teacher education called "Central Teacher Training" was established in Tehran.

This institute, with its affiliated elementary school for practical experience of prospective teachers, prepared elementary school teachers until 1928. It offered a curriculum equivalent to that of high schools as well as instruction in logic, psychology, and methods of teaching. In 1928, because of an increase in the number of high schools and a dearth of secondary school teachers, this institution was elevated to college level under the revised names of "Teachers College", and a year later "Higher Teacher Training College", to prepare secondary school teachers. In 1929, the constitution of the institution was established by legislative action. Accordingly, its curriculum and administrative structure were organized and students were given subsidies. It admitted only

---

<sup>1</sup>Report on the Accomplishments of the University of Teacher Education in the Academic Year 1975-1976, prepared for the 9th Conference on the Evaluation of the Revolution in Education (Tehran: University of Teacher Education Press, 1976), p. 11 (In Farsi).

<sup>2</sup>Sadig, Banani, Dehghan give "1918" as the year the first normal school was established, however, many other authorities have established "1919" as the correct date.

high school graduates who were required to complete their course of study in three years. Its first graduates were absorbed by the Ministry of Education in 1931.

The change from normal school to college status was legitimate because the school did offer college level courses, a major portion of which were academic in nature. Students had a choice of major fields in the arts or sciences. The aspiring teachers were offered, for the first time, courses in philosophy and history of education, foundations of secondary education, sociology of education and educational psychology.

In 1934 this unit of secondary teacher training was dissolved and incorporated into a new institution called University of Tehran. As a result, those high school graduates who volunteered for the profession of teaching would enroll either in the College of Liberal Arts or Sciences after passing a competitive entrance exam and a special test for prospective teachers. These students were entitled to subsidies. They followed the regular college curriculum in addition to some professional courses in education.

In the fall of 1955, the Higher Teacher Training College separated itself from the University of Tehran and regained its autonomy. It started a new era in its educational activities and in 1963 adopted a new name, "The National Organization for Teacher Training and Educational Research." Its new responsibilities included:



1. To prepare secondary school teachers;
2. To offer programs for certificates for school principals and supervisors; and
3. To do educational research.

The education of teachers beyond the bachelor's degree, master's degree and graduate diploma in specialized subjects (mathematics) has been in operation since 1967.

The complex known as the National Organization for Teacher Training and Educational Research was at one time under the direction of the Ministry of Education, but since its elevation to full university status since the academic year 1974-1975 as the University of Teacher Education, it has been under the direction of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.

One of the major aims of the University is to expand secondary teacher education at the national level. The University is responsible for integrating all facilities in the nation for the training of teachers and for the promotion of serious educational study and research. In addition, at the present time, colleges of education are being established under the University auspices in different cities, based on meeting the priority of local needs. The University is also expanding its facilities by adding a new complex which is expected to accommodate six thousand students, and with the ultimate future capacity of ten thousand.

### Administrative Structure<sup>1</sup>

The University of Teacher Education is a member of the Iranian system of higher education which, under the direction of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, coordinates all collegiate institutions constituting the University.

By constitutional enactment the Board of Trustees of the University, consisting of seven members, are as follows:

1. The Minister of Science and Higher Education  
or his fully empowered representative
2. The Minister of State and Head of Plan and  
Budget Organization or his fully empowered  
representative
3. The Secretary of the Central Council of Uni-  
versities and Colleges
4. Four perceptive and insightful personalities  
who can effectively enhance the developmental  
expansion of the University.

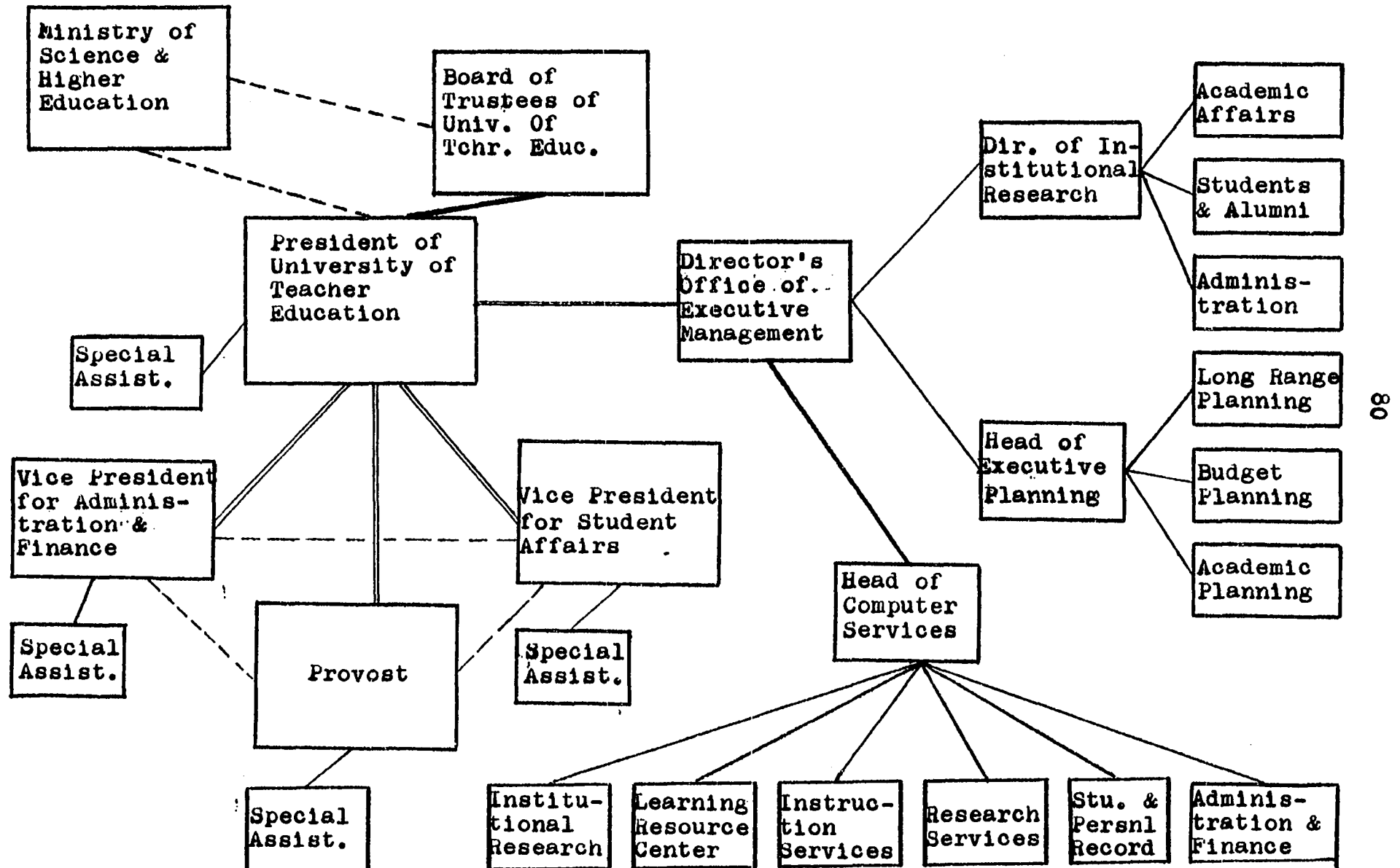
The first three serve as ex-officio members whereas the last four are appointed by royal decree with the advice and suggestion of the Minister of Science and Higher Education. They are appointed to serve for a term of three years and can be reappointed.

The Table of Organization showing the administrative structure of the University is illustrated on the following page.

---

<sup>1</sup>All the information in this section is adapted and translated from the University of Teacher Education Bulletin 1975-1976, and other publications of the institute.

# ORGANIZATIONAL CHART OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION



The academic organization of the University is derived in part from its general objectives. The Board of Regents of the University, in conjunction with the stated objectives of the institutions, have approved the new organization of the University. It is composed of the following colleges:

1. Graduate College
2. College of Education
3. College of Liberal Studies
4. College of Sciences

#### Educational Specialties<sup>1</sup>

The University has been assigned as its major responsibility the preparation of qualified teachers for public secondary schools. Essential to this preparation are the activities of planning, organizing, and conducting programs in teacher education. It has to expand qualitatively and quantitatively before it can fully accomplish its objectives. However, in the academic year 1976-1977, the University offered educational specialization in the following programs:

1. Persian Language Arts
2. Foreign Languages
3. Social Studies (History and Geography)
4. Mathematics
5. Physics
6. Chemistry
7. Biology

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

8. Geology
9. Educational Psychology
10. Educational (Specialists)
11. School Guidance and Counseling
12. Health and Physical Education

### Faculty

If the central objectives of a university are to be achieved, it will be through the work of the faculty. The Faculty of the University of Teachers Education is composed of professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, and instructors in education and the President of the university, ex-officio. The chief administrative officer of each college is the Dean.

Table 1 gives a composite picture of the faculty by showing the number of members occupying each professional rank, degree held, and whether such employment is full or part-time.

The general requirements for admission to college include (a) having met conscription requirements; (b) having graduated from high school; and (c) having passed CEE. Besides the above requirements, candidates for admission to secondary education teaching courses also have to meet the following:

1. Should not be more than twenty-four years old;
2. Pass physical examination; the handicapped or partially deaf or blind are not admitted;
3. Not holding any jobs, either governmental or non-governmental jobs;

TABLE 1

## UNIVERSITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION FACULTY DISTRIBUTION BY RANK AND ASSIGNMENT

Degree Held  Rank	1974-1975 School Year						1975-1976 School Year					
	Doctorate		Master's		Bachelor's		Doctorate		Master's		Bachelor's	
	F.T.	P.T.	F.T.	P.T.	F.T.	P.T.	F.T.	P.T.	F.T.	P.T.	F.T.	P.T.
Professor	25						27					
Associate Professor	29		2				29		1			
Assistant Professor	34	1	21				34		25			
Instructor	1		41		35				54		21	
Foreign Teachers	4						1		1		1	
Total	93	1	64		35		91		81		22	

Source: A Report on the University of Teacher Education Accomplishments:

1975-1976, p. 84.

4. Not enrolled at another educational institution at the same time; and

5. No financial support or housing is guaranteed.<sup>1</sup>

A student admitted under these requirements is expected to enroll in the first semester after admission. Failure to do so means that the candidate has to meet all the requirements the following year.<sup>2</sup>

Other than the faculty of professional rank, the University has within its employ several other categories of personnel who perform a variety of functions. Thirty-one highly qualified faculty members are assigned research and development duties. Several faculty members are sent abroad to expand their studies in special fields. In the summer of 1975, according to a contract with the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA), eight experienced members of the University of Teacher Education spent two weeks visiting and participating in educational activities of that institution. The following summer, another group of eleven faculty members performed the same function.

In order to provide the University with quality professors, a number of qualified students are sent abroad annually to attain higher degrees and broaden their perspectives. During the year 1975-1976, a total of seventy-six students were given scholarships to study in the United States, England, and France.

---

<sup>1</sup>A Guide to University of Teacher Education: 1975-1976,  
pp. 43-96.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 44.

### Student Admission and Retention

Open admission policy, so familiar to Americans, is beyond the experience of college aspirants in Iran. The number of students admitted to colleges and universities is limited because of inadequate facilities and accommodations with the result that a great number of applicants have to be refused admission. The Ministry of Science and Higher Education has had to organize admission to the different educational institutions on a national scale and the Testing Center of the Ministry holds Centralized Entrance Examinations (CEE) in the form of written tests once a year in the summer for this purpose.<sup>1</sup> Each candidate indicates on his entry form, the fields in which he wishes to pursue his studies in the order of his preference. The list of successful applicants is published by the colleges and universities after the results, assessed in points, are known.

The tests and materials of the CEE are composed of objective tests combined into a test battery. The battery is supposed to measure "intelligence", abilities of the applicant in the Persian language and a foreign language, natural and social sciences, and mathematics at the high school level. The combination of these subject matters varies depending on the areas of major emphases of high school graduates.

---

<sup>1</sup>Abbas Bazargan, Selection of College Freshmen in Iran, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 106 353, April, 1975), p. 3. (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Washington, D.C.: March 30-April 3, 1975.)



Due to the recent expansion of existing facilities, and the establishment of new universities, there are plans to ban CEE and to introduce a comprehensive qualifying examination at the conclusion of the secondary education course for high school graduation and to assert the student's ability to benefit from the university education.<sup>1</sup>

A student is eligible to continue his studies if he maintains a grade-point average of 2.0 or higher (based on a 4.0 scale). Otherwise, he will be placed on probation. If the grade-point average of each of the three successive semesters or four alternatives ones is less than 2.0, the student is dismissed from the program.<sup>2</sup>

#### Structure of Curriculum Content in Iranian Secondary Teacher Education Institutions

A review of available information provided by the secondary teacher education institutions in Iran have made it possible to identify the components of their curricula in terms of general education, professional education, and area of specialization.<sup>3</sup> These components are specifically outlined in some catalogues while intertwined within the total scope

---

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Science and Higher Education, Eighth Conference, p. 121.

<sup>2</sup>A Guide to University of Teacher Education: 1975-1976, p. 54.

<sup>3</sup>All the information presented in this section are drawn and translated from college catalogues and from materials gathered from personal interviews, except where otherwise stated, that the author had with educational authorities and educators during his last visit to Iran.

of the system, but some colleges had not outlined the course work for each aspect of teacher education.

### General Education

Institutions of higher learning involved in the preparation of secondary school teachers in Iran generally provide a foundation of general education for beginning students.

Each student completing a certificate program is required to take some general education courses. The reason for this is the belief that a teacher should have a broad cultural background and be well-grounded in a wide variety of general subject areas. The areas from which a teacher trainee may draw his twenty hours of general education are listed as follows:

### General Studies Components

- 
1. Persian Language and Professional Writing
  2. Cultural History of Iran
  3. Foreign Language
  4. Experimental Sciences
  5. Mathematics
  6. Social Studies
  7. Psychology
  8. Humanities
  9. Health and Physical Education
-

Each institution in which teacher education students are enrolled meets the general education requirement in a different way, as each has a different facility and acts as a matter of expediency. For example, students at the University of Teacher Education can select four hours (2 + 2) in the area of Social Sciences from courses in Archaeology, History, Geography, Economics, Psychology, Sociology, and others. At other institutions, the options are more limited. All universities and colleges, however, seem to accept generally the importance of the general education elements in the teaching program and have therefore included courses in that area.

#### Professional Education

The secondary teacher education institutions in Iran have been assigned the major responsibility of preparing qualified teachers for the public secondary schools. To meet this responsibility, these institutions have offered courses that provide professional understanding of child and adolescent behavior as well as train the teacher to effectively work with, and teach, students.

Professional education courses usually encompass psychological and social foundations, methods and materials of teaching, and field experiences. All the trainees must take both the psychology of adolescence and the psychology of childhood. These two courses are designed to provide the student with the opportunity to study the findings and methods of psychology, child development, and other behavioral findings.

All majors must take courses in educational psychology and learning, courses which are designed to provide the student with a body of knowledge about teaching and learning which will lay the basis for his performance as a teacher.

In addition, there are also courses which give the student an orientation about the organization and structure of the educational system of Iran. The following course outline describes the professional educational requirements at the University of Teacher Education.

#### Professional Education

---

Education 590707	Scientific Philosophy and Scientific Methods	2
Education 600102	General Psychology	2
Education 590102	Educational Statistics	2
Education 600201	Psychology of Childhood	2
Education 590201	Comparative Education	2
Education 590203	Test and Measurement	2
Education 600202	Psychology of Adolescent	2
Education 590202	History of Education	2
Education 600301	Education Psychology and Learning	2
Education 590303	Principles of Guidance and Counseling	2
Education 590302	Audio Visual	2
Education 590304	Educational Administration	2
		<hr/> 24

---

Source: Adapted from: A Guide to the University of Teacher Education: 1975-1976, p. 91.

The professional education sequence for prospective teachers varies somewhat from institution to institution and even within an institution. For example, the University of Teacher Education, as is shown on page 89, requires twenty-four semester hours of professional education excluding two

hours of practicum while the University of Revolution Corps requires its students to complete eleven hours of professional education, in which two hours of practicum are included.

Another example is the case of students from other departments who have interest in the education profession and decide to select it as the minor area of study. These students will follow the same pattern as the undergraduate students in their respective colleges except that thirty semester hours should be devoted to professional education. Thus, such students are able to meet the certification requirements that qualify them to teach an academic discipline at the secondary school level. The total course requirements in professional education ranges from eleven to thirty hours for all institutions on a semester system. Of this number, an average of two hours is devoted to student teaching.

At this time there is no university school for pre-service experiences attached to any teacher education institution in Iran. It should be noted, however, that the University of Teacher Education has included in its new building plans at Hessarak the construction of an experimental school which will serve as an educational laboratory for the University.<sup>1</sup> Public school sites are secured for student teaching practice.

Assignment of students to the practicum experience takes place during their senior year. While the students are engaged

---

<sup>1</sup>Comprehensive Plan of the University of Teacher Education (Tehran, Iran: University of Teacher Education Press, September 1974), pp. 38-40. (In Farsi)

in their teaching experiences, they are under the supervision of an instructor or professor from the College in which they are enrolled. The supervisor is usually the general supervisor, and occasionally the same person who acts as the student's advisor.

### Critical Analysis

Almost all teacher education institutions accept the importance of humanistic and behavioral elements in the professional parts of the teaching program. However, the approach is both inadequate and insufficient. Of the total course requirements in professional education, which ranges from eleven to thirty hours for all institutions on a semester system, little time is devoted to practical aspects of teaching.

In the professional studies component of the curriculum, a student becomes acquainted with methods of teaching, learning theory, and behavioral and humanistic studies. But, at the same time, he is to be provided with the laboratory and clinical experience necessary to understand the theoretical principles which he needs to be able to apply in his daily life. Without field experiences or without time devoted to this phase of professional education, the student would not have the opportunity to examine and come to understand the way schools operate and their role in the larger scheme of things; he would not have a chance to observe, record, and analyze behavior, i.e., pupil behavior, teacher behavior, and the interaction of teachers and pupils. Therefore, it is

crucially important to the professional career of a teacher trainee to be provided with extensive practical experiences, while at the same time his knowledge of theoretical principles is being increased.

The 'better' programs attempt to integrate studies of learners with field work that illustrates development principles. Genuinely advanced programs integrate these studies with Methods Courses so that instructional strategies may be considered in terms of the learner's needs and predispositions.<sup>1</sup>

But more important to the success of the prospective teacher is his experience with the cooperating teacher during the practicum--not only the cooperating teacher's mastery of his subject matter, interest in and rapport with his students, and devotion to the teaching profession are important factors, but he must also be willing to give his time and energy and offer trust and support to the student teacher. While exercising control, the cooperating teacher must, at the same time, encourage the teacher trainee to be creative. The cooperating teacher is in a most delicate and important position, his sincere belief in the practice teaching effort is essential to the student's success.

In the supervision of student teachers general supervisors should be used as sparingly as possible in order to allow the student's own advisor or professor to evaluate the student's performance as much as possible. It is also an important

---

<sup>1</sup>Martin Haberman and T. M. Stinnett, Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1973), p. 80.

consideration that college supervisors be assigned a student teacher load which is compatible with their other duties.

Finally, for those who supervise their own advisees, the student teaching setting serves the supervising teacher in two ways. First, the supervisor is able to observe and evaluate the student whom he has guided throughout the teacher training experience. Secondly, this experience can contribute to the confirmation of advice given to the student at an earlier time in the instructional process. This self-evaluation may lead to self-reservations in making different recommendations to future advisees, or it may confirm the wisdom of past actions.

#### Academic Specialization

Another important component of the education of teachers is academic specialization. In the area of specialization, each student's course work falls into three categories, including major area of study, minor area, and electives.

In this section, the typical curriculum of a mathematics major at the University of Teacher Education is described. Although there are some variations from institution to institution, these differences are minor. The purpose for including it at this point is to demonstrate the dimensions of program for a typical student in attempting to acquire the knowledge of his profession. The general studies component and professional education courses are not included in order to avoid repetition.



Content for the Teaching Specialty (Major)

<u>Course No.</u>	<u>Course Title</u>	<u>Credit Hr.</u>
530777 <sup>1</sup>	Logic of Mathematics and Sets	3
530770	Mathematical Constructions	3
530772	Sets of Numbers	4
530113	Analytic Geometry I	2
530114	Analytic Geometry II	2
530115	Calculus I	4
530117	Introductory Algebra	3
530116	Calculus II	3
530115	Calculus III	2
530210	Intro. Analysis	3
530211	Theory of Groups	3
530212	Topology	3
530216	Algebra I	3
530215	Algebra II	3
530311	Analysis I	3
530312	Analysis II	3
530316	Theory of Numbers	3
530319	Intro. Topology	3
530415	Analytic Functions	3
530418	Differential Geometry	4
Total - Specialized Education		60

Content for Minor Area of Study

<u>Course No.</u>	<u>Course Title</u>	<u>Credit Hr.</u>
530213	Differential Equations I	4
530214	Differential Equations II	2
530217	Linear Algebra	3
530313	Mechanics I	3
530314	Mechanics II	3
530321	Geometry & Linear Algebra I	3
530322	Geometry & Linear Algebra II	3
530416	Probability	3
530417	Statistics	3
530419	Basic Computer Prog.	3
530420	School Text Analysis	2
Total - Minor Area of Study		26

Note: The student can take Mechanics or Geometry and Linear Algebra.

---

<sup>1</sup>The first three numbers indicate the department offering the course; the 4th number indicates the student's classification; and the last two indicate the semester: odd numbers for fall semester and even number for spring semester.

Content for Ten Hours of Electives

<u>Course No.</u>	<u>Course Title</u>	<u>Credit Hr.</u>
500204	Mechanical Radiations	2
500210	Electricity	2
500411	Theory of Relativity	2
500412	Space Physics	2
500426	Astro-physics	2
530317	Linear Planning	3
530318	Non-Euclidean Geometry	2
530411	Differential Manifolds	2
530414	Algebra III	3
530421	Theory of Numbers	2
530422	Research Project	2
Ten hours of electives from courses listed above.		10

Critical Analysis

A student majoring in mathematics or any other discipline must complete sixty hours of specialized education. The student's minor field is expected to be related to his major area. As depicted above, in addition to the sixty hours of mathematics for specialization, twenty-six more credits in mathematics are to be acquired by the students to fulfill minor area requirements. Furthermore, if the student chooses to further specialize his knowledge of theoretical and factual principles, which is expected, he can take another ten hours of mathematics as electives. In this manner, a student with ninety-six hours in one area of concentration (from a total of 140 hours required for a bachelor's degree) ends his pre-service education and begins his professional career. These courses are more than just subject matter; they are the legacy of a system of education which believed that:

- a. Teaching is telling;

- b. Memorization is learning;
- c. Being able to repeat factual information in examinations is evidence of understanding.<sup>1</sup>

An analysis of college catalogues reveals that the practical aspects of teacher education in almost all institutions is neglected and theoretical, and abstract subjects are emphasized. This, therefore, produces graduates who are not adequately prepared to serve as catalysts to bring about change and innovation. Knowing a fact is not enough; one must be able to apply it. Theoretical knowledge must be reinforced and augmented by practical application whenever possible if educational products are to be socially oriented rather than merely scholastic.

Critics attack the separation of theory and practice. Students should have the opportunity to interrelate them much sooner than in the final year. Ideas about learning also favor early integration. Smith proposes that professional education provides students with practical experiences as well as theory throughout a total pre-service program. He believes that a training program for a beginning teacher should consist of three interrelated parts: a theoretical component, a training component, and a teaching field component. He contends that theoretical knowledge is abstract and has little applicability to the real world. "If theoretical knowledge is to

---

<sup>1</sup>John W. Renner, Robert F. Bibens, and Gene D. Shepherd, Guiding Learning in the Secondary School (New York: Harper & Row, 1972), p. 43.

become meaningful and relevant it must be adapted to suit the unique reality that exists."<sup>1</sup>

At the risk of oversimplification, it could be suggested that the Iranian system of teacher education exemplifies much of what was practiced at the turn of the century in Western Europe or in the United States. It seems to have a distinctive job to do: to pass on the salient, approved items of knowledge which pre-eminently cultivates "the mind" and to promote the old concept of teacher as an "all knowledgeable person." It has tended to neglect creativity, personality development and self-realization. Students are overloaded with excessive subject matter at the expense of total development: a development that can be brought about by (a) providing opportunities for the student to take an active part in the planning of the work, (b) creating a more stimulating physical and social school environment, and (c) promoting contacts between the educating institution and society at large.

It is incumbent upon the teacher training system to try to fulfill the demands which will be made of the teacher in the future. The new curricula in Iran for the eight-year compulsory school and the restructured secondary school have already placed new demands upon the teacher. There are certain aspects in the new secondary school curriculum of

---

<sup>1</sup>B. Othanel Smith, Teachers for the Real World (Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969), p. 70.

relevance to teachers on which particular emphasis is expected to be placed, e.g.:

- To be more objective
- To cooperate with the pupils
- To plan for individualization of work
- To be responsible for the total development  
of the pupil

These goals are plausible, but the point of concern is whether teacher-trainees are being given the resources and facilities which accommodate the accomplishment of these tasks.

The present rather meager and formal curriculum tends to stress disproportionately the intellectual acquisition of subject matter to the exclusion of personal meaning (emotional, intuitive, normative) for the professional practitioner. It has not been formulated with reference to the present needs and conditions of the Iranian people and Iranian teachers. It is not related to the important issues and problems of national life and does not give teachers a sympathetic understanding and insight into elements of national culture.

During the author's visit to some colleges and universities involved in the preparation of teachers, from interviews with a few educators and individual students, it could be inferred that most of the institutions confine their activities to formal instruction, that the defects of educational system--its narrowness, verbalism and lifelessness--are all reflected in the spirit and work of the training institutions and during their pre-service education. The prospective teachers cram

ill-digested notes on irrelevant psychology; acquire a smattering of educational theory; read a few extracts from history of education which do not throw any light on the progress of great educational movements; and develop hazy notions about school management and practical teaching methods which are outmoded.

Both in the universities and colleges there is heavy use of lectures. This has two undesirable consequences. It saps the intellectual independence of the teachers who want to "cover the courses" instead of participating in the thrill of creative learning and grappling with fruitful ideas on their own. On the other hand, the professors are so engrossed in writing and dictating notes of lectures that they have little time for other activities, particularly small group discussions without which ideas remain vague and confused.

There is no time provided in the curriculum for the prospective teacher to develop the skill and ability to be more concerned with diagnosis of pupils, planning, constructing and evaluating learning programs and learn to work "together" with students; become more the manager of the means to acquire knowledge--the interpreter of that knowledge rather than becoming the transmitter of that knowledge:

. . . /now/ instructional objectives /are/ characterized by movement away from what is to be learned to an objective of learning how to learn; away from acquisition of isolated facts to an objective of understanding the key concept, the organizing structure of a discipline, and gaining control over its methods of inquiry; away from ability to memorize and recall to an objective of

acquiring attitudes, skills and knowledge that enable rational approaches to confrontations with personal economic, social, and political problems.<sup>1</sup>

It has been mentioned earlier that ninety-six hours, or almost 70 percent of the student's training period is spent on subject matter-specialization, with little or no provision for other aspects of importance. A change is to be made in this respect in that the number of hours required for specialization is to be reduced somewhat; more serious attention should be paid to change of attitude--to develop new attitudes toward students, work, and their colleagues. This change of attitude also includes new attitudes toward educational innovations and debate, toward new working methods and toward school levels and subjects other than the teacher's own specialization.

#### In-Service Education

In-service education programs in Iran may be termed "officially directed programs." The Department of In-Service Education of the Ministry of Education is responsible for planning and organizing programs for the further education of teachers in service at each level: elementary, guidance cycle, and secondary education. It initiates programs which contribute to the continued professional growth of practitioners. Through its leadership, consultative and regulatory functions, the Department of In-Service Education usually facilitates the establishment of local, regional, and nation-wide in-service programs.

---

<sup>1</sup>Margaret Lindsey and Associates, Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College Press, 1969), p. 3.

The programs organized by this department range from one week to three months, and in some cases they may be longer. All in-service teacher education programs are financed by the Ministry and no fees are paid by the participants. In addition, the participants are given travel allowances during the period they participate in the program.

The status of the Iranian teachers range from the university graduates on the upper stratum to the poorly prepared teachers below. Since economic advantage and prestige follow every level of teachers' stratification, academic credits leading to higher degrees and higher salary rates have been used as means to encourage teachers to pursue these programs.<sup>1</sup> In 1976, the Department of In-Service Education reported that since its establishment in 1973, some 52,000 teachers, principals, and administrators participated in twenty-three refresher courses, extension courses, and workshops to get acquainted with the new curriculum, textbooks, and methods of teaching.<sup>2</sup>

In addition to programs offered in the country, opportunities are offered to take advantage of the experience of other countries--where the educational horizon is far expanded, and where scientific approaches to education are far more marked. Accordingly, a number of elementary and secondary school teachers are sent to the United States, England, and

---

<sup>1</sup>In-Service Education Programs: 1976 (Tehran: Ministry of Education, Department of In-Service Education, 1976), pp. 1-36. (In Persian)

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.



Italy to get acquainted with new approaches to educational administration. Belgium is chosen as the site for some guidance cycle and technical and vocational teachers to learn more about laboratory and workshop equipment.<sup>1</sup>

Also the individual roles of the Iranian universities in helping to promote professional aid and academic advancement are significant. The programs are organized in collaboration with the Ministry of Education. Evening classes and summer courses are arranged for teachers, school administrators and counsellors. At present, arrangements are being made with the universities to provide accommodations for the participating teachers who come from communities faced with secondary school teacher shortages. These teachers are expected to return to their communities after graduation.<sup>2</sup>

#### Teachers' Organization

In Iran there are no functioning professional associations that resemble those with which Americans are so familiar in the United States. The government is skeptical about giving teachers the opportunity to unionize or to carry on collective bargaining in order to improve the economic status of the members of the teaching profession. One may find it difficult to understand why, in a relatively prosperous country such as Iran, teachers do not follow the pattern that has worked successfully in the United States to demand more

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., Preface, p. III.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., Preface, p. IV.

economic benefits and encouragement for professional growth. To understand the situation some historical background may be helpful.

#### Teacher's Associations Prior to 1961

The first teachers' association, Mehregan, was initiated by graduates of the Teachers College in 1932.<sup>1</sup> Its primary purpose was to bring together dedicated educators who were concerned with improving the quality of education at all levels and instilling in teachers a greater awareness of their professional responsibilities.

Political turmoils in different times, however, had their impact on the growth and working of teachers' organizations in Iran. During World War II, the organization was infiltrated by political ideologies.

As the poorest paid employees, the teachers were specially good target for the Tudeh (Iranian Communist Party) and many of them sympathized with Tudeh objectives, even if they did not join outright.<sup>2</sup>

In 1946, through an organized fifteen-day work stoppage, licensed teachers demanded higher pay and benefits equal to those of other occupational groups with similar academic qualifications and responsibilities.<sup>3</sup> After this successful strike, the organization became more politically involved.

---

<sup>1</sup>Leonard Binder, Iran: Political Development in a Changing Society (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1962), p. 196.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 195-196.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

This involvement led the Tudeh members to break away from Mehregan and set up their own club in 1950. After the 1953 crisis, the Tudeh group was declared illegal and Mehregan remained in good grace with the Government. At that time, the tenor of the organization shifted to educational activities; membership was open to all teachers and it provided services to members with salary, rank and placement problems.

It should be borne in mind that government regulations control entry into the profession and it is the government that allocates prestige. That was literally true in the case of this teachers' group. The leader of Mehregan's opposition to the Tudeh party won him and the organization some favor. He was elected to Parliament for one session. However, "his speeches against the new oil consortium and in favor of land distribution cost him favor again, . . . and a rival teachers' organization was established."<sup>1</sup> In 1961, he organized and mobilized a teachers' strike which led to the fall of the prime minister of the time and his cabinet. He was then named the Minister of Education in the new cabinet. The doubling of teachers' salaries can be considered as one of his major accomplishments. The strike, however, cost the organization its existence. Peter Avery put it this way:

The strike of teachers . . . was much more serious. It broke out on 2nd May /1961/. Teachers were demanding higher pay; but their demands and what their action could lead to were different matters and, in

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

view of the latter, prompt steps had to be taken. . .<sup>1</sup>

Mehregan was the largest group, consisting of about 5,000 members.<sup>2</sup> This organization derived its power from province-based affiliates that varied in size, influence and viewpoint. Being a member of the World Confederation of Organization of the Teaching Profession, its immediate concern was the raising of the standards of teaching as a profession in Iran. But as noted above, it was not indifferent to the political atmosphere of the time.

In 1943, another organization, the Society of Graduates of Normal Schools, was formed.<sup>3</sup> Its members consisted of graduates of normal schools. This association arranged seminars and conferences and played an important role in improving the status of the teachers.

Other teachers' associations of lesser importance came into being during Mehregan's active life. These were set up to compete with Mehregan for political reasons. However, since the 1961 strike and the banning of teachers' organizations, there has been no evidence to indicate any autonomous teachers' group.

---

<sup>1</sup>Peter Avery, Modern Iran (London: Ernest Benn Limited, 1965), pp. 492-493.

<sup>2</sup>World Confederation of Organization of the Teaching Profession, WCOT Annual Report (Washington, D.C.: WCTOP, 1969), p. 53.

<sup>3</sup>Ministry of Education, Fundamental Rules and Regulations for Graduates of Normal Schools (Revised) (Tehran: Ministry of Education, 1946), pp. 2-3.

### The Present State

The observation has been made that the demands and strikes of teachers for higher salaries and allowances proved troublesome to the government. Although the old resistance to teachers' organizations is weakening a new approach of cooperation is developing, official recognition of an autonomous teachers' organization has not been forthcoming.

In recent years, the Ministry of Education has set up the Society of Secondary School Teachers in their special fields of teaching. It is a unique association blending governmental paternalism, individual self-interest, and professional aspirations. It is non-political, non-profit and unaffiliated with trade unions with membership open to those with special subject matter interests.<sup>1</sup> It is intended to improve the social and educational morale of secondary school teachers. The association conducts and disseminates research findings on new developments in science, mathematics, and other subjects and new techniques in teaching. It has also provided for maintaining working relationships with similar organizations in other parts of the world. And finally, it has an opportunity to make suggestions and recommendations in curriculum and textbook revision.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>"By-Laws for the Establishment of Secondary Teachers Organizations." (Tehran: Office of Education, Department of Secondary Education Planning, February, 1972), p. 1. (In Persian)

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-2.

The number of breadth of activities carried on by the Organization and its affiliates in different cities are suggestive of other areas of concern to teachers which are deliberately excluded. However, for a number of reasons the organization has not been effective: it is established by the Ministry of Education, it carries the imposition of various pre-requisites, and there are activity limitations and obligations associated with membership in the association.

Although almost all teachers in Iran are civil servants, there are many drawbacks to the Organization's effectiveness as an agency which ought to have the long-range best interests of the teachers at heart. One of the most significant of these drawbacks is that it is considered as an extension of the Ministry of Education rather than as an organization being sponsored and dominated by the classroom teachers or even school administrators. A second problem is the teachers' own lack of knowledge about organization and the advantage which may accrue to it. The majority have a poor conception of the organization's administration. This lack of knowledge breeds indifference, noninvolvement, and noncommitment to the profession. A third weakness is that none of the clauses of the society's constitution makes any mention of the "promotion of teacher welfare." There is little hope that an organization will prosper if its activities do not affect and promote its members' life and professional status, respectively. Finally, and probably most significant of all, is the lack of professional attributes in many teachers in Iran. Their low

salaries and low positions in civil service have had the inevitable consequence of placing them down the list of prestigious professions. It is incumbent upon the teachers' association to make valiant and conscientious efforts to improve the situation, to raise the status of the teaching profession with respect to other occupational groups in the country. As a result of such efforts on the part of the Organization, the more talented college aspirants should be eager to enlist in the teaching profession.

## CHAPTER IV

### THE BACKGROUND OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

In the same manner that certain background information related to Iran was presented in the previous chapter, it seemed appropriate to set forth similar information for the United States. This brief history will hopefully provide an account of how the present system of teacher education came to be what it is.

#### The Country and Its People

The United States, a federal republic in North America, is officially known as the United States of America (U.S.A), but it is frequently referred to as the United States (U.S.), or simply as America.<sup>1</sup> The boundaries of the United States are evident from the map on page 110 of this chapter.

Territorially, the United States comprises fifty states and the District of Columbia. Its possessions include the Canal Zone, the Virgin Islands of the United States, American Samoa, Guam, and other small Caribbean and Pacific Islands.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Encyclopedia Americana (1973) , S.V. "The United States".

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.



# UNITED STATES



The country, made up of two belts of high land with a vast low land between them, occupies an area of 3,615,122 square miles.<sup>1</sup> It is longer than the continent of Australia and nearly as large as Europe. Of single countries, only Russia, Canada, and China exceed it in land area.

The United States is the world's fourth most populous country. According to the 1970 Census it had a population of 203,211,926.<sup>2</sup> The society is highly urbanized and industrialized. In 1970 only five percent of the population lived on farms; however farm production was more than adequate to meet the needs of the entire population.

The United States of America, unlike Iran, is a younger country and often referred to as the New World. It is new in many respects. It is new in the sense that it was discovered less than 500 years ago. It is new in the sense that the people are "new"; although coming from the "Old World"; they have developed new patterns of life, in a comparatively short time, which are typically American and are different but at the same time similar to the old world.

Iran, in any of its attempts to rejuvenate the nation, almost always had to contend with the perennial problems of traditionalism, attack upon the problems of economic survival, and readjustments in its overt beliefs and institutions. The

---

<sup>1</sup>Bureau of Census, 1970 Census of Population (Washington, D.C.: Department of Commerce, 1972), Vol. 1, Part A, Section 1, p. 41.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

trend for America has been easier. A vast, undeveloped, and open society needed to throw out hardly anything to start out anew. "America, even in 1859, was still infant, still a year away from its first maturational experience in blood, the Civil War."<sup>1</sup>

The Formative Period: 1607-1865

Colonists came to the New World early in the seventeenth century for some combination of economic and social reasons.<sup>2</sup> A great value was attached to education from the very start. Those who sought religious freedom and the love of God were particularly concerned about education. For example, the Puritans considered first the building of churches and schools before the introduction of any other amenities. In 1642, the General Court of Massachusetts required that all parents and masters undertake the education of their children. Five years later, in 1647, Massachusetts passed the famous Old Deluder Satan Act which placed educational responsibility on the local governments.<sup>3</sup> To them, schools were the best instrument of social control and transmitters of philosophical and religious values.

---

<sup>1</sup>Seymour W. Itzkoff, A New Public Education (New York: David McKay Co., 1976), p. 83.

<sup>2</sup>John D. Pulliam, History of Education in America (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1976), 2nd ed., p. 11.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 30.

These men saw in a formal system of education the way to protect and propagate their system of values down through the generations, protect their commonwealth from random changes, give meaning and identity to the various facets of their life style, and provide a symbolic code by which the exigencies of life on earth be met with intelligence and reason . . .<sup>1</sup>

The first American schools tended to reflect European patterns. In time, the mode of education gradually expanded to meet the needs of a dynamic society and to suit the American Spirit. "Nevertheless, schools in the Colonies were not merely transplanted but also revolutionized in spirit and sometimes in form."<sup>2</sup>

Different patterns of education developed in the North, the South, and the Middle Colonies. The Pauper school, the old field school, the charity school, the dame school, the plantation school, the academy, the Latin grammar school, and many others existed, while the rich people had private tutors for their children. What was most significant was that schools existed in large quantities.<sup>3</sup>

Three levels of education were introduced in the colonies: elementary, secondary, and post-secondary.<sup>4</sup> Elementary education was provided by the dame and writing schools. They were private-venture schools supported by small fees from parents and

---

<sup>1</sup>Itzkoff, op. cit., p. 44.

<sup>2</sup>Pulliam, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 26.

<sup>4</sup>S. Alexander Rippa, Education in a Free Society, (New York: David McKay Co., 1976), pp. 26-48.

maintained by widows or spinsters in their own homes. In reading and writing schools, reading, reckoning and elementary accounts were taught. All teaching and learning were religious in nature.<sup>1</sup>

Secondary education began in the Latin grammar schools. Secondary schools received boys at the age of seven or eight and instructed them mainly in humanistic and classical education.<sup>2</sup> As the name implies, much time was devoted to the teaching of Latin to serve the needs of the church. The acts of 1642 and 1647 of Massachusetts were of prime importance in the establishment of the public school system in America. By 1751, a new type of secondary school, the academy, had developed in Philadelphia. It provided practical experience needed in the growth of commerce and navigation.<sup>3</sup>

American higher education began with the foundation of Harvard College in the fall of 1636. The first of the nine colonial colleges in America, it provided the Puritan church with trained ministers. Indeed, all denominations wanted to provide for a literate clergy.<sup>4</sup> The Congregationalists built Yale (1701) and Dartmouth (1769). The Episcopalians founded William and Mary (1693) and Kings College (1754), which later became Columbia University. The Presbyterians established the

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>John S. Brubacher, A History of the Problems of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966), pp. 404-406.

<sup>3</sup>Pulliam, op. cit., p. 27.

<sup>4</sup>Rippa, op. cit., p. 82.

College of New Jersey, which became Princeton, in 1746. In 1764, the College of Rhode Island was founded to provide formal training for Baptist ministers, and later it was renamed Brown University. Queens College which was founded by the members of the Dutch Reformed Church in 1766, later became Rutgers. As one scholar noted:

Indeed, the aim of training students for the ministry was stated in the charter of all the Colonial colleges founded before 1776, except the College of Philadelphia, which was not specifically under church control.<sup>1</sup>

The land ordinance of 1785, which provided the sixteenth section of each township being reserved for the support of education, offered incentives and extended educational opportunities in the new nation. Henceforth, every state that was admitted into the Union had its share of land except Texas, Maine, and West Virginia.<sup>2</sup>

The social status and the level of knowledge among colonial teachers varied greatly. In most cases, much depended on the level of instruction in which a person was engaged.<sup>3</sup> Beyond their education in subject matter, colonial teachers did not have any professional preparation.<sup>4</sup> However, Quaker teachers received an apprentice training, which was the first teacher education in America.<sup>5</sup> Licensing of teachers

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 72.

<sup>3</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 476.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Pulliam, op. cit., p. 26.

was a matter of examining the candidate's religious orthodoxy in addition to how well he knew his subject and could "govern" a school.<sup>1</sup>

As educational emphasis shifted from training for the ministry to education for citizenship during the national period, a need for free tax-supported public schools arose. The first important legislation to this effect was the Free School Act of 1834 in Pennsylvania.<sup>2</sup> During this period, educational leaders such as Horace Mann, James G. Carter, and Henry Barnard laid the groundwork for a free public school system.

In 1839, teacher education became a reality with the establishment of the first normal school.<sup>3</sup> By 1865, modern American state school systems were clearly formed, and teacher education had received a great impetus as more teachers were required for the thriving public schools. The public high school also stood as an integral part of a unified system of public education. It has been suggested that "more than any other single factor this idea of a public school open to ALL is the most distinctive feature of American education."<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 492.

<sup>2</sup>Rippa, op. cit., p. 128.

<sup>3</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 479.

<sup>4</sup>Rippa, op. cit., p. 134.

The Period of the Educational Evolution: 1865-1919

The period after the Civil War saw schools attempting to respond to the great pressure of overcrowding that resulted from compulsory education laws. By 1890, a total of twenty-seven states and territories required parents or guardians to send their children to schools.<sup>1</sup> In the first years after 1900, the chief thrust of the reforms was in the schools serving lower-class families. The immediate effects of industrialization and urbanization disturbed that stratum of society drastically. Their jobs changed and with their jobs, their mode of living. For the children of thousands of people attracted to the city by these new jobs, the schools made their most immediate and fundamental adjustments.

Probably the most radical changes in the early twentieth century in response to new demands put upon schools was the wide-scale introduction of vocational and technical courses; a classical education for the majority had become a useless luxury. Vocational schools continued to grow from 1907 to 1917 and culminated in the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, which provided federal aid for vocational education.<sup>2</sup>

In the realm of teacher education much development also took place. After 1860, the role of the normal school as the institution for preparation of elementary school teachers was

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 170.

<sup>2</sup>Pulliam, op. cit., p. 91.



generally accepted. Some normal schools such as Bridgewater College in Massachusetts began to prepare both elementary and secondary school principals. The popularity of the new trend spread and the idea was extended to include the training of high school teachers.<sup>1</sup> This move was accented by the increasing high school student population, the pressing state demand of educational requirements for teacher certification, and the development of "education" as an academic discipline in the state universities.<sup>2</sup>

The most striking feature of this area was the evolution of the new conception of man and the subject matter as a result of the impact of Darwinism and the new psychology. Society as a whole was forced to reconsider man's situation in the universe and to recognize its implications for education.<sup>3</sup> The educator who was willing to accept the implications of both Darwinism and the new psychology found himself having to make fundamental and comprehensive changes in his educational philosophy. As a result, three fundamental theoretical justifications for a new approach to education appeared prior to the First World War: G. Stanley Hall's monumental study of adolescence in 1904; Edward L. Thorndike's work in educational psychology between 1913 and 1918; and John Dewey's

---

<sup>1</sup>C. A. Richardson, et al., The Education of Teachers in England, France, and the United States (Paris: UNESCO 1953), p. 233.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Rippa, op. cit., pp. 176-180.

most explicit statement of his philosophy of education, Democracy and Education, in 1916.

### Present System of Education in America

#### Authority for Education

One basic strength of the American educational system is its decentralized authority. The Tenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution states that:

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.<sup>1</sup>

Since responsibility for education is not mentioned in the Constitution, basic authority for elementary and secondary education rests with the states. Thus, each state has the right and responsibility to organize and operate its educational system as it deems appropriate within the framework of the rights and privileges guaranteed by the Constitution.<sup>2</sup>

#### State Responsibility and Control

Since each state plans its own educational system, their practices and policies differ. Each state's department of education, under policies set by that state's board of education and chief state school officer, administers its educational enterprise. The state board of education determines state

---

<sup>1</sup>Calvin Grieder, Truman M. Pierce, and K. Forbis Jordan, Public School Administration, 3rd ed. (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1969), p. 56.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 56-57.

educational policies in compliance with laws enacted by the state legislature.<sup>1</sup>

Board members are either elected by the people or appointed by the state governor and serve for terms ranging from two to six years. The board's responsibility covers general policymaking relating to such affairs as allocation of school funds, certification of teachers, textbook and library services, provision for records and educational statistics, and the overall coordination of the state school system.<sup>2</sup>

The chief state school officer is called superintendent of public instruction or state commissioner of education. He may be elected by the people or appointed by the governor of the state or by the state board of education. His term of office is from one to six years during which he acts as the head of the executive branch of the state school system.<sup>3</sup>

#### Local Responsibility and Control

As mentioned earlier, basic authority for education is vested in the states, each of which (except Hawaii) delegates the bulk of the responsibility for public school operation to the local school districts within its jurisdiction. A unique

---

<sup>1</sup>Institute of International Studies, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Progress of Education in the United States of America: 1972-73 and 1973-74 (Washington, D.C.: p. 23 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. Ed 111 086)).

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 23-24.

feature, peculiar to American educational practices, is the system of local control of schools.

The broad authority given local boards of education allows public educational programs to be responsive to the will of the people and the needs of the community. The teacher shares in this authority, enjoying some measure of independence in selecting methods and materials under guidelines established by the state department of education.<sup>1</sup>

There were 16,960 school districts in the United States in 1973, (20,608 in 1969, 40,520 in 1960), and the number is still decreasing as consolidation of smaller districts into larger units takes place.<sup>2</sup> The number of school districts varies among the states from one in the District of Columbia or Hawaii to 1,238 in Nebraska.

Each local school district elects or appoints its board of education members who operate the local school system through the school superintendent and his staff.<sup>3</sup> The activities of various voluntary organizations such as the parent-teacher associations, the associations of local school boards, and associations of teachers, contribute to the efficient running of schools at the local level through their publications, meetings, and workshops.

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 25.

<sup>2</sup>National Center for Education Statistics, The Condition of Education, 1976 ed. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976), p. 20.

<sup>3</sup>Grieder, et al, op. cit., p. 123.

### Sources of School Funds

The expenses of education are met through three main sources: local, state, and Federal support.<sup>1</sup> The proportion of funds for educational expenditure from each source frequently changes.<sup>2</sup> The federal share was 6.9 percent in 1950-60 and 9.8 percent in 1975-76. The 1975-76 figure showed a decline for the federal share from a high of 11.9 percent in 1967-68.<sup>3</sup> In 1976, the United States spent an estimated 75.1 billion dollars to support the public and non-public elementary and secondary schools. Of this total, 36.5 percent came from the states, 7 percent from the federal government, 46.8 percent from local sources (almost all of the local share was raised by property taxes), and 9.7 percent from all other sources.<sup>4</sup>

The United States federal government does not have direct control over public schools. However, the Northwest Ordinance of 1785 set a precedent.<sup>5</sup> Since then, a variety of programs and procedures have been used by the federal government through the U.S. Office of Education, to support educational activities. Its focus is on the following objectives:

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 420.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>National Center for Education Statistics, op. cit., 1976 ed., p. 26.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 189.

<sup>5</sup>Rippa, op. cit., p. 72.

1. To equalize educational opportunity for groups and individuals who are at an educational disadvantage by reason of their economic situation, race, location, or physical or physical or mental handicaps.
2. To improve the quality and relevance of American education, primarily through assistance to research, develop experimentation, demonstration, dissemination, and training.
3. To provide relief for areas of special need-limited general support to selected educational entities, foundations, and activities such as State and local education agencies, developing institutions, and vocational and adult education.<sup>1</sup>

Compensatory educational programs administered by the Office of Education receive the largest proportion of federal funds. In the fiscal year 1974, it was about \$1.7 billion.

#### Organization of American Schools

American schools are organized into three levels: elementary, secondary, and post-secondary education. In most states, educational programs include kindergarten, vocational education, adult education, and schools or classes for the gifted, the mentally retarded, the blind, the partially seeing, the deaf, the hard of hearing, and crippled children.<sup>2</sup>

Some communities provide nursery schools for three or four year old children from one to two years before they enter kindergarten. Kindergarten enrolls four or five year olds for a period of one or two years before they enter the first grade. Pre-kindergarten enrollment of three and four year olds in the

---

<sup>1</sup>Institute of International Studies, op. cit., p. 21.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 26.

population was 21.7 percent in 1975, while 84.1 percent of the five years old age group participated in kindergarten in the same year.<sup>1</sup>

Elementary schools provide a six year education and admit children six years of age. In some communities, elementary schools run from the first grade through the eighth.

Secondary education provides at least 4 years of schooling, and in some cases 6 years. No definite organization pattern of school system is followed. Many of the points which are used to justify the 6-3-3 plan are now cited in support of the 4-4-4 plan, with a middle school consisting of grades 5-8 replacing the junior high school.<sup>2</sup> And yet the practice of the "Two-Two Plan", with Grades 9 and 10 making up the lower division and Grades 11 and 12 the upper division of high schools, is not unusual.

Factors such as size of city, financial economy, pupil transportation, administrative problems, and local preferences have some bearing on school organization.<sup>3</sup> As shown in Figure 5, the 8-4, 6-3-3, and 6-6 plans are in operation.

#### Higher Education

The history of American higher education, as mentioned earlier, dates back to 1636 (Harvard College) long before the

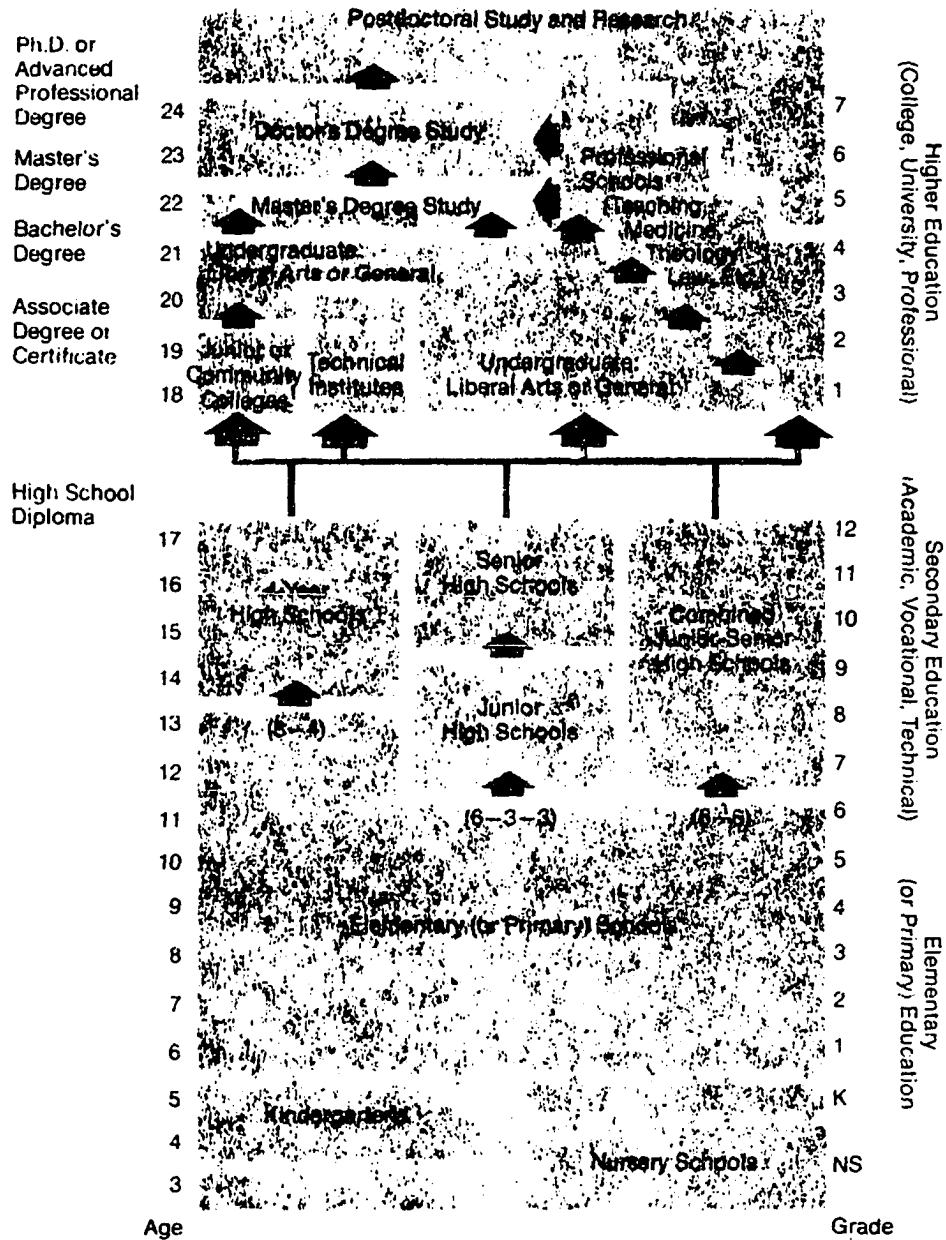
---

<sup>1</sup>National Center for Education Statistics, 1976 ed., op. cit., p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>Grieder, op. cit., p. 16.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Figure 5.—The structure of education in the United States



NOTE.—Adult education programs, while not separately delineated above, may provide instruction at the elementary, secondary, or higher education level.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. National Center for Education Statistics. Digest of Educational Statistics, 1974.



establishment of the Office of Education. Since then, diversity and independence have been salient characteristics of post-secondary education in this country.

American colleges and universities offer a wide range of programs. High school graduates may go to a junior or community college, a technical institute, a professional school, a four year college, or the undergraduate division of a university. A community college, public or private, usually offers a 2 or 3 year program of study beyond the secondary level leading to a certificate. Credits may be applied toward a bachelor's degree in a 4-year college.<sup>1</sup> The growth and encouragement of junior or community colleges is intended to counteract the rising costs of colleges and universities. They were organized to promote the democratization of the American college.<sup>2</sup>

The four-year college offers a curriculum in the liberal arts and sciences and confers the bachelor's degree upon completion of the program. A college may be independent or an undergraduate division of a university. Independent colleges sometimes offer advanced degrees, particularly at the master's level.<sup>3</sup>

The university is comprised of a college of liberal arts and sciences that awards either a B.A. or B.S. degree, one or more professional schools, and a graduate school that offers

---

<sup>1</sup>Institute of International Studies, op. cit., p. 28.

<sup>2</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 455.

<sup>3</sup>Institute of International Studies, op. cit., p. 28.

opportunities for advanced study and research. Since no single standard designates an institution as a university, the term "university" is part of the name of some colleges or other institutions that do not offer doctorate degrees.<sup>1</sup>

Higher education has become increasingly accessible to all segments of the population. In 1974, there were 3,038 institutions of higher learning in the United States with an enrollment of over ten million.<sup>2</sup>

### Summary

American education started in the seventeenth century as an offshoot of the European system. Since that time it has been modified to suit the nation's aspirations and purposes. Unlike the Iranian system, American schools are locally controlled. Early colonial schools in America were established and controlled by local communities. This system of control has persisted except that state legislatures enact educational laws and set standards for the quality of education. This practice of local control has resulted in variations in school standards which have necessitated the development of various professional organizations and voluntary accrediting agencies for the purpose of establishing common standards.

There are three levels in the American educational system: elementary, secondary, and post-secondary. The

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 29.

<sup>2</sup>National Center of Education Statistics, op. cit., p. 187.

American junior college is notable in regard to its purpose of democratizing post-secondary education and extending education beyond high school for a higher percentage of people. Elementary and secondary education is free and tax-supported. The present trend is toward the provision of tax-supported free education from kindergarten to the end of junior college for all children and youths between five and twenty years of age.

## CHAPTER V

### DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE UNITED STATES

A brief historical summary of teacher education and then a description and analysis of the requirements of secondary teacher education programs in the United States are presented in this chapter. Because of the massive scope of subject matter, this chapter discusses only those factors that have been selected as being contributive to the quality of teacher education and training.

#### Brief Historical Summary

Teacher preparation and education has not always been a function of colleges and universities. It is only in the present century that universities and colleges have taken over the major responsibility for the training and education of teachers in the United States.

The development of normal schools early in this century presaged the professionalization of teacher preparation in the United States:

When did teaching in the United States begin to  
take on the attributes of a profession? . . .

Probably the period that reflected a clear break with the past, in which teaching was considered an incidental or part-time occupation requiring no special preparation other than the possession of general knowledge, was when the nation began to establish normal schools--schools dedicated specifically to the preparation of elementary school teachers.<sup>1</sup>

Historically, credit for the initiation of normal schools should be given to lay organizations and the efforts of one single individual--the Reverend Samuel R. Hall,<sup>2</sup> who established the first such teacher training school in 1823. Other notable personages who contributed to the normal school movement were James G. Carter, Horace Mann, and Henry E. Dwight. James G. Carter wrote articles that advocated the idea of the normal school. Horace Mann eloquently espoused the same idea while Henry E. Dwight, who had visited a Prussian teacher seminary, initiated the idea of securing legislation providing for a public normal school. Such legislation was enacted leading to the establishment of the first public normal school in the United States which opened its doors at Lexington, Massachusetts on July 3, 1839.<sup>3</sup>

During the two decades that followed the establishment of this publicly supported normal school, eleven other schools were established in the states of Connecticut, New York, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, and

---

<sup>1</sup>T. M. Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers (New York: McMillan Company, 1968), p. 52.

<sup>2</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 479.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 479-480.

Minnesota.<sup>1</sup> By 1886, there were 103 state normal schools, twenty-two city normal schools, two county normal schools, and more than 100 private normal schools.<sup>2</sup> In 1898, a report of the Commission of Education stated that there were already a total of 166 public normal schools with an enrollment of 44,808 students; 165 private normal schools with 23,572 students; and about 25,000 potential teachers were enrolled in universities, colleges, and high schools, bringing the grand total of such students to 93,687.<sup>3</sup>

By the end of the 19th century, the normal schools had become recognized as institutions for the chief sources of teachers for the public schools. But, it was actually not until well into the 20th century that people began to accept the idea that teachers should have adequate training and education, so that for several decades the normal schools provided only a minimum of training for prospective teachers.

As long as teaching paid such salaries as ten dollars a month and for only three to seven months of the year, it could scarcely demand any considerable investment in preparation. Hence, the normal schools were established, not to meet the demand, but to create a standard. Their existence was a reminder to the public and to the teachers that preparation for teaching was needed. Their great achievement was the development of the concept that teaching could be a profession.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, op. cit., p. 407.

<sup>2</sup>Edgar B. Wesley, National Education Association: The First Hundred Years (New York: Harper, 1957), p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>4</sup>Lucien B. Kinney, Certification in Education (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 54.

The normal schools offered instructions of a practical nature in "schoolkeeping" as well as a review of the common branches, with discussion of the methods of teaching them. The normal schools also offered subjects in English, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, physiology, scripture, music, and drawing.<sup>1</sup> Although many of these institutes enjoyed the status of two-year colleges, their offerings were predominantly at the secondary level.<sup>2</sup>

Normal schools were the principal agencies for the training of elementary school teachers. At the same time, due to the increasing popularity of the high school, there was a great need for teachers to staff them. As a result of this, normal schools made it a requirement for their students to have a high school diploma for admission. This made it possible for the normal schools to extend their programs, up-grade their instruction, and offer courses at the college level.<sup>3</sup>

#### Transition to the Teachers' College

Around 1900, the state normal schools experienced a transition. From 1911 to 1920, nineteen of these schools changed their names to "teacher colleges" or "colleges of education." Between 1921 and 1930, 69 schools also changed

---

<sup>1</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 481.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, op. cit., p. 408.

<sup>3</sup>Paul Woodring, "Development of Teacher Education," in New Directions in Teacher Education (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 4.

their names. Between 1931 and 1940, the remaining schools followed suit, thereby making the term "normal school" obsolete in the end.<sup>1</sup> The situation was described by one observer as follows:

Once this transition [normal schools become teachers colleges] got underway, it moved quite rapidly. Thus, in 1920 immediately after the First World War there were in the United States forty-six teachers colleges and 137 normal schools. Only eight years later on the eve of the economic depression the proportion had almost reversed itself, there being then 137 teachers colleges and 69 normal schools.<sup>2</sup>

With the increase in the number of the teachers colleges, teaching methods and standards improved. Several accrediting associations, along with their committees and commissions enforced higher standards for high school teachers. Moreover, teachers colleges were required to have training schools and proper libraries; standards were set for buildings, and indifferent financial support was considered as evidence of an inadequate educational program.<sup>3</sup> As a result of all these conditions, the status of state teachers colleges was elevated to that of degree-granting colleges.

State teachers colleges, however, did not last long. During the 1950's and the late 1960's another transformation was underway: the conversion of state teachers colleges to multipurpose state colleges or state universities which granted

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 485.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 486.



liberal arts and other degrees as well as degrees in education.<sup>1</sup> These institutions continued to be a major source of supply for elementary teachers as well as high school teachers. By 1970, the single-purpose teachers colleges had become almost as obsolete as the normal schools.<sup>2</sup>

#### Teacher Education in Colleges and Universities

In spite of numerous difficulties, the professional study of education slowly but surely made its way into the academic strongholds of the college and university.

For example, there had always been conflict between the colleges and the normal schools and later on between universities and teachers colleges. Still later, conflict developed between colleges of liberal arts and colleges of education of the universities. This conflict had its roots as far back as the initiation of the idea of teacher education.

Indeed, even academies, though their teacher training departments taught these subjects, thought such instruction somewhat beneath their dignity.<sup>3</sup>

Nevertheless, because of the increasing demand for trained teachers, the systematization of curricula, and the continued improvement of standards of teacher training institutions, education eventually came to be accepted as a discipline. Gradually, education became a college subject. In

---

<sup>1</sup>Martin Haberman and T. M. Stinnett, op. cit., p. 48.

<sup>2</sup>Woodring, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>3</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 487.

the middle of the nineteenth century, professional education began to be incorporated in the curricula of higher education:

In 1852, Indiana University was the first to yield to the demand for adding education to the list of higher studies. The state universities of Iowa and Michigan were not far behind. After the Civil War the latter two institutions transformed their chairs of pedagogy into departments of education. Before the century was out, even old foundations like Harvard and Yale offered courses in education.<sup>1</sup>

The founding of Teachers College in Columbia University in 1892 was a significant event for the future development of higher study in education.

It was at Teachers College that outstanding educators and philosophers like Dewey, Thorndike, Kilpatrick, Bagley, and others worked as faculty members.<sup>2</sup> These able men educated other outstanding educational leaders, and through their personal efforts and professional abilities established the dignity and prestige of education as a discipline and a science.

By 1910, most of the universities of the Middle West had reorganized their departments of education into independent schools of education.<sup>3</sup> Of the single purpose teacher education institutions, only five public and eleven private

---

<sup>1</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 489; Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 409; Woodring, op. cit., p. 6; Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 59.

<sup>2</sup>Woodring, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>3</sup>Brubacher, op. cit., p. 489.

ones had survived in 1970.<sup>1</sup>

The history of American teacher education and the evolution from normal schools to teachers colleges and departments or schools of education in the universities indicate that there has been a gradual change from teacher "training" to teacher "education" in the United States. In spite of this tremendous growth, teacher education still faces many challenges in the future. There is still need for hard work, continued research, theory building and further expansion of the literature of the field. There is also need for closer cooperation between members of the different disciplines, between universities, schools and the communities they serve. Furthermore, requirements pertaining to standards and procedures need to be developed and established so that school and college personnel can assume joint responsibility for designing, conducting, and evaluating all pre-service and continuing teacher education programs.

#### Teacher Education Institutions

According to Table 2, p. 137, the states reported a total of 1,265 colleges and universities approved for teacher education in 1974. Almost all were multi-purpose institutions except for a few which were single-purpose teachers colleges. A single-purpose teacher-education institution, private or public, is established exclusively for teacher preparation

---

<sup>1</sup>Habermann and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 57.

TABLE 2 - CLASSIFICATION OF APPROVED TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS ACCORDING TO FUNCTION AND CONTROL

STATE	TEACHER'S COLLEGES <sup>a</sup>		UNIVERSITIES		PUBLIC GENERAL EDUCATION	PRIVATE LIB. ARTS COLLEGES	JUNIOR COLLEGES <sup>b</sup>	TOTALS:
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Alabama			11	2	1	12		26
Alaska			2	1				3
Arizona			3			1		4
Arkansas			5	1	4	7	4	21
California			20	11	5	26		62
Colorado			5	1	5	4		15
Connecticut			1	7	4	5		17
Delaware			1		1			2
Florida			9	5		8		22
Georgia			2	3	12	15		32
Hawaii			1		1	2		4
Idaho			2		1	2	3	8
Illinois		(e)3	11	9	1	39		63
Indiana			5	6		23	3	37
Iowa			3	4		20		27
Kansas			4	1	3	(d)12		20
Kentucky			7	1	1	13		22
Louisiana			10	4	1	5		20
Maine			5		1	9		15
Maryland			3	1	7	10		21
Massachusetts		2	2	7	10	32		53
Michigan			9	2	3	15		29
Minnesota			3	2	6	14		25
Mississippi			3		5	8		16
Missouri	1		9	2	2	23		37
Montana			2		3	3		8
Nebraska			2	2	4	7		15

TABLE 2 - Continued

STATE	TEACHER'S COLLEGES		UNIVERSITIES		PUBLIC GENERAL EDUCATION	PRIVATE LIB. ARTS COLLEGES	JUNIOR COLLEGES	TOTALS:
	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Nevada			2					2
New Hampshire			1		2	11		14
New Jersey			1	3	8	10		22
New Mexico			5	1		2	1	9
New York		2	5	16	18	58		99
North Carolina			15	4		24		43
North Dakota			2		4	2		8
Ohio			11	11		31		53
Oklahoma			4	4	8	3		19
Oregon			3	3	3	6		15
Pennsylvania		1	4	10	13	55		83
Puerto Rico(e)			1	4		2		7
Rhode Island			1	1	1	7		10
South Carolina			2	3	6	14		25
South Dakota			3	1	3	5		12
Tennessee			10	4		21		35
Texas			23	12	1	22		58
Utah			2	1	2	1		6
Vermont			1	1	3	9		14
Virginia			4	2	10	17		33
Washington			2	4	3	6		15
Washington, D.C.	1			5	1	1		8
West Virginia			2		9	7		18
Wisconsin			13			19		32
Wyoming			1					1
TOTALS:	2	8	258	162	176	648	11	1,265

Source: Stinnett, A Manual On Standards, p. 130

and is often called a teachers college.<sup>1</sup> The trend is toward further decline of single-purpose teacher education institutions. At the present time only ten, two public and eight private, teachers colleges remain compared to sixteen, five public and eleven private, in 1970.<sup>2</sup>

Multi-purpose institutions, in addition to maintaining schools, colleges, or departments of education, also provide programs for a variety of other fields according to their function and level. Table 2 shows that of the 1,265 approved teacher education institutions, 420 were universities (258

---

<sup>1</sup>W. Earl Armstrong and T. M. Stinnett, A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1964), pp. 151-152.

<sup>2</sup>T. M. Stinnett, A Manual on Standards Affecting School Personnel in the United States (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Division of Instruction and Professional Development, June, 1974), p. 129.

<sup>a</sup>Separate, single-purpose institutions for teacher preparation. Institutions included in this category in previous editions because of name (teachers college or college of education) may or may not be included here in this edition since some also offer liberal arts and general studies and are now so classified.

<sup>b</sup>Institutions offering at least two but less than four years of college preparation.

<sup>c</sup>Includes two campuses of the National College of Education listed separately.

<sup>d</sup>The state chose to classify three private institutions named "university" as liberal arts colleges.

<sup>e</sup>The institutional list for Puerto Rico is from Education Directory, 1972-73--"Higher Education"--published by the U.S. Office of Education. Although not included elsewhere in this manual, information for Puerto Rico is included in this chapter because of national accreditation of teacher education programs at one of its institutions.

public and 162 private); 824 general or liberal arts colleges (176 public and 648 private); ten teachers colleges (2 public and 8 private); and eleven junior colleges.

It is apparent from these statistics that the low state of professional preparation of teachers which was characteristic of the normal school period has evolved into a respected and recognized endeavor of all types of institutions of higher education.

The Control, Organization, and Accreditation  
of Teacher Education Institutions

American public institutions of higher education are established by statutory enactments or the constitutions of the states in which they are located. There is no federal or central authority that exerts any semblance of supervisory control over them. Even within the states, each college or university may be autonomous and independent of state agencies. Each institution, public or private, organizes its program with a high degree of autonomy. This independence has necessitated the assignment of a set of monitors in teacher education to recognize "the responsibility to guarantee a minimum level of acceptable performance on the part of the trainers and achievement on the part of the trainees."<sup>1</sup> This process of program monitoring has been labeled "accreditation" while

---

<sup>1</sup>David L. Clark and Gerald Marker, "The Institutionalization of Teacher Education," in Teacher Education: The Seventy-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, part II, Kevin Ryan, ed. (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1975), p. 64.

monitoring individuals has been designated as "certification."<sup>1</sup>

The accreditation process, a uniquely American institution, was developed because of the absence of federal control of education and the lack of authority by states to oversee higher education, and also because of the strong demand for the development of uniform, minimum national standards for higher education.<sup>2</sup>

John Mayor, in his study, Accreditation in Teacher Education, lists five purposes of accreditation:

1. Service to the Public. Accreditation is supposed to guarantee to the citizen quality in an institution of higher education.
2. Institutional Improvement. Minimum standards, the initial accreditation, and the periodic reevaluation visitations are seen as major thrust for the improvement of teacher education.
3. Facilitating Transfers. The establishment of national standards or norms allows college and university admissions officers to make easier and more rapid judgments regarding the admission or graduation of a student, and the movement of a student on to the next level of matriculation.
4. Raising Standards of the Profession. An important objective of accreditation is to raise the standards of education for the practice of a profession. Almost every profession has adopted accreditation as a means of suggesting how its practitioners should be prepared, and as necessary, of enforcing its ideas.
5. Information for Prospective Employers. Accreditation is taken as proof of the quality of training which a

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>National Education Association, Teachers Can Change Teacher Education by Influencing State Approval and National Accreditation (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Division of Instruction and Professional Development, 1976), p. 3. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 124 548)



graduate from the institution has received.<sup>1</sup>

There are three levels of approval or accreditation in teacher preparation: (1) state, (2) regional, and (3) national. It is usually compulsory at the state level, where an institution must be approved by the state if its graduates are to be eligible to receive certificates to teach. The regional accrediting agencies evaluate the total institution, and accreditation at the national level, through the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) concerns its evaluation of the teacher education programs.<sup>2</sup>

The steps involved in accreditation are summarized by the National Education Association as follows:

1. The accrediting agency decides what standards or criteria of measurement it will employ.
2. On-site visitations to the institution are conducted by a team of qualified experts to determine if the institution's policies and practices meet the established standards.
3. The accrediting agency publishes a list of institutions that have met its standards.
4. Periodic reviews are conducted to assure that the institution continues to meet the established standards.<sup>3</sup>

#### State Approval

In each of the fifty states, the state department of

---

<sup>1</sup>John R. Mayor and Willis G. Swartz, Accreditation in Teacher Education: Its Influence on Higher Education (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Accrediting, 1965), pp. 12-13.

<sup>2</sup>National Education Association, Teachers Can Change Teacher Education, p. 6.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

education is involved directly or indirectly in the process of accreditation or approval of the state's teacher education programs.<sup>1</sup> In the majority of states, the state board of education is assigned the responsibility for approving colleges and universities for the preparation of teachers.<sup>2</sup> In twelve states it is the duty of the state department of education to accredit teacher education.<sup>3</sup> In some states the chief state school officer is charged with performing this function. Table 3 shows all approved teacher education institutions and their types of approval/or accreditation. In the states of Montana and Nevada, as well as the District of Columbia, there is either no formal process for state approval of the teacher education institutions or any legal authority for doing the same. However, Montana and Nevada rely on the accreditation of regional professional associations.<sup>4</sup>

The standards adopted by the states for the accreditation of teacher education institutions are among the factors which determine the content of their teacher education programs and the requirements for certification of teachers.<sup>5</sup> According

---

<sup>1</sup>Chapter 1 of Standards for State Approval of Teacher Education, 1973 of the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education (Salt Lake City, Utah State Board of Education, 1973), gives a comprehensive discussion of the state departments of education involved in accreditation and their statutory authority.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on School Personnel, p. 129.

<sup>3</sup>Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., p. 24.

<sup>4</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on School Personnel, p. 124.

<sup>5</sup>Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., p. 25.

TABLE 3 - NUMBER OF APPROVED TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND  
TYPES OF APPROVAL/ACCREDITATION

STATE	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS APPROVED BY STATE	TYPES OF ACCREDITATION	
		REGIONAL ASSOCIATION	NATIONAL (NCATE) <sup>a</sup>
1	2	3	4
Alabama	26	25	10
Alaska	3	3	0
Arizona	4	4	3
Arkansas	21	20	14
California	62	62	16
Colorado	15	15	(b)8
Connecticut	17	17	6
Delaware	2	2	0
D.C., Wash.	(c)8	7	3
Florida	22	20	6
Georgia	32	32	15
Hawaii	4	3	0
Idaho	8	8	3
Illinois	63	54	26
Indiana	37	32	20
Iowa	27	27	18
Kansas	20	19	14
Kentucky	22	22	8
Louisiana	20	18	8
Maine	15	14	3
Maryland	21	21	6
Massachusetts	53	50	18
Michigan	29	29	16
Minnesota	25	25	22
Mississippi	16	15	7
Missouri	37	36	17
Montana	(c)8	8	4
Nebraska	15	15	13
Nevada	(c)2	2	1
New Hampshire	14	11	3
New Jersey	(e)22	19	7
New Mexico	9	8	4
New York	99	99	23
North Carolina	43	43	16
North Dakota	8	8	6
Ohio	53	51	20
Oklahoma	19	19	15
Oregon	15	15	9
Pennsylvania	83	83	27
Puerto Rico <sup>f</sup>	(c)7	5	1
Rhode Island	10	9	2
South Carolina	25	21	2
South Dakota	12	12	8

TABLE 3 - Continued

STATE	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS APPROVED BY STATE	TYPES OF ACCREDITATION	
		REGIONAL ASSOCIATION	NATIONAL (NCATE) <sup>a</sup>
1	2	3	4
Tennessee	35	34	13
Texas	58	56	24
Utah	6	6	5
Vermont	14	13	1
Virginia	33	33	8
Washington	15	15	11
West Virginia	18	18	10
Wisconsin	32	31	21
Wyoming	1	1	1
TOTALS:	1,265	1,215	522

Source: Stinnett, A Manual On Standards, p. 133.

TABLE 3 - FOOTNOTES

<sup>a</sup> National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

<sup>b</sup> Colorado listed separately three branches of the University of Colorado and indicated national accreditation for each. The NCATE, however, lists only the University of Colorado at Boulder: its records include Colorado Springs and Denver branch campuses as blanketed under the UC system, whose central office and main campus are at Boulder.

<sup>c</sup> Either no legal authority or no formal process for approval.

<sup>d</sup> Massachusetts has been authorized, by special action of the legislature, to approve preparation programs but at the time of this report funds had not been appropriated to do so. Consequently, there are no state approved teacher education programs as described on page 131. However, the institutions listed are appropriately chartered and approved for granting degrees and their courses and credits are acceptable for Massachusetts certification via the transcript evaluation route.

<sup>e</sup> Two state colleges in their third year of operation are not yet fully approved.

<sup>f</sup> The institutional list for Puerto Rico is from Education Directory, 1972-73--"Higher Education"--published by the U.S. Office of Education. Although not included elsewhere in this manual, information for Puerto Rico is included in this chapter because of national accreditation of teacher education programs at one of its institutions.

to Stinnett, a growing number of states (35 of them) rely on a combination of standards for approving institutions. They use theirs in combination with regional (regional accrediting association), National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC), and/or specialty group recommended criteria (e.g., American Association for the Advancement of Science).<sup>1</sup>

### Regional Accreditation

As mentioned earlier, the regional accrediting agencies are concerned only with accreditation of the institutions in general. They do not really address themselves to the question of whether these institutions are able to prepare students for specific professions: "They have no legal base for their activities, functioning as voluntary associations with only institutions as members."<sup>2</sup>

A concern for the improvement of college admission standards and requirements and the improvement of relations between the secondary schools and colleges led to the creation of the six regional accrediting associations.<sup>3</sup> The New England Association, created in 1885, assumed accreditation functions in 1952. The Middle States Association, organized in 1889, began the accreditation of colleges in 1921, and of

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on School Personnel, p. 129.

<sup>2</sup>Clark and Marker, op. cit., p. 67.

<sup>3</sup>Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 173.

secondary schools in 1928. The North Central Association, inaugurated in 1895, formally accredited secondary schools in 1905 and colleges in 1910. In 1895, the Southern Association was organized but did not start accrediting secondary schools until 1912, and higher institutions until 1917. The Northwest Association, formed in 1917, accredited secondary schools in 1918 and higher institutions in 1921. The Western Association, organized in 1924, accredited institutions in 1949.<sup>1</sup>

All these associations have similar accreditation practices. Their primary goal is to provide common standards. All delegate the task of accreditation to two commissions: a commission for accrediting colleges and universities, and a commission for high schools.<sup>2</sup> Five associations require the institutions under review to undertake self evaluation and to provide information to the visiting teams.<sup>3</sup> All have set up formal standards which are usually based on such educational specifications as graduation requirements, size of the library, the administrative staff, the institutions' sources of revenue, faculty salary, training experience, teacher load, extra-curricular activities, provisions for student health, and follow-up study of alumni. All expect the team chairman to write out the reports and to keep the recommendations secret. Member institutions are expected to maintain membership standards

---

<sup>1</sup>Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., p. 36.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 39.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

and academic effectiveness, to supply information when needed, and to report important academic changes. The visiting teams are concerned with the total institutional accreditation and not just a segment of the programs. The associations require membership fees and regular maintenance subscriptions.<sup>1</sup>

In recent years, the regional accrediting associations have shown a marked interest in and concern for teacher education. All the associations are now requiring a minimum teaching qualification of a bachelor's degree for secondary schools.<sup>2</sup> About eighty-five percent of the four-year institutions are accredited by the regional associations.<sup>3</sup> An interesting innovation recently introduced by the regional accrediting associations was the creation of a Federation of Regional Accrediting Commission for Higher Education charged with the development of general procedures for the coordination of the evaluation and accreditation of higher institutions. The new body may develop to become an accrediting association of national importance.<sup>4</sup>

#### National Accreditation

In 1945, the first movement of the organized teaching profession for a more effective accrediting process was started

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 44.

<sup>2</sup>Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., p. 46.

<sup>3</sup>Clark and Marker, op. cit., p. 67.

<sup>4</sup>National Education Association, Teachers Can Change Teacher Education, p. 14.

by the NCTEPS with a series of meetings devoted to the study of a national program for the accreditation of teacher education institutions.<sup>1</sup> The result of this movement was the 1952 meeting at Kalamazoo, Michigan with a design and support for a National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.<sup>2</sup> It was not until July 1, 1954, however, when the Council started functioning as an active organization.<sup>3</sup>

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education is the only national accrediting agency recognized by the National Commission on Accreditation.<sup>4</sup> It evaluates and accredits the professional component of teacher education programs. The statement of purposes, policies, and procedures of the council is as follows:

The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education representing five constituent organizations and open to associate organizations is a non-profit voluntary accrediting body devoted exclusively to the evaluation and accreditation of teacher education programs. It is recognized by the National Commission on Accrediting as the only national accrediting agency for the field of teacher education, which includes programs for the preparation of teachers for all grades and subjects at the elementary and secondary school levels and programs for the preparation of

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 458, and Kinney, op. cit., p. 91.

<sup>2</sup>Kinney, ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 459.

<sup>4</sup>See T. M. Stinnett, Education in the States: Nationwide Developments since 1900 (Washington, D.C.: Council of Chief State School Offices, 1969), pp. 407-24, and Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., for the historical development of this organization.



school service personnel for these levels.<sup>1</sup>

NCATE accredits only four-year institutions. Such schools are eligible for an accreditation evaluation by the national association, NCATE, if they fulfill the following prerequisites:

1. They are approved by the appropriate State Department of Education at the degree levels and in the categories for which the accreditation is sought.
2. They are fully accredited by the appropriate regional accrediting associations.
3. Students have been graduated from the program to be accredited so that an evaluation may be made of the quality of the preparation.
4. "Evidence of letter of intent to comply with affirmative action guidelines of the United States Office of Education."<sup>2</sup>

NCATE's efforts are geared to accomplish its designated purposes:

1. To assure the public that particular institutions--those named in the annual list--offer programs for the preparation of teachers and other professional school personnel that meet standards of quality;
2. To insure that children and youth are served by well prepared school personnel;
3. To advance the teaching profession through the improvement of preparation programs;
4. To provide a practical basis for reciprocity among the states in certifying professional school personnel.

---

<sup>1</sup>National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, Twenty-First Annual List (Washington, D.C.: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1974), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

The Council gathers a great deal of information about how the university is structured, how it defines its teacher preparation functions, and how much education its faculty members have. It looks for clarity and appropriateness of the teacher-education objectives, for the adequate arrangement of professional and academic courses, for the effectiveness of student personnel programs, and student teaching facilities.<sup>1</sup>

Teacher education institutions seeking NCATE accreditation develop a self-study report covering all the Council's standards. The institution arranges with NCATE for an on-site visit of from two to four days duration by a team appointed by NCATE but approved by the institution to be accredited. The task of the team, which carries the title of NCATE Visitation and Appraisal Committee, is not to evaluate the institution but to validate the institutional report. This Committee, representing a wide range of institutions and specialties, recommends full or partial accreditation, deferral or denial of accreditation to the NCATE Council.<sup>2</sup>

NCATE describes its relationship with the regional accrediting agencies and state education departments as follows:

The Council shares information with them [the regionals] and conducts joint or independent

---

<sup>1</sup>Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., pp. 55-56. For a complete set of the most recent NCATE standards (1970) along with an analysis of the standards, see Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., pp. 182-250.

<sup>2</sup>Clark and Marker, op. cit., pp. 68-69.

evaluations in accord with agreed upon policies and procedures. The Council also conducts joint evaluations involving teams representing State Departments of Education, when this is desired. In joint evaluations involving the Council and the regional associations, the two organizations have joint teams of evaluators and the institutions prepare separate reports to each organization. Each accrediting agency takes separate action on the institutions and publishes separate lists of accredited institutions.<sup>1</sup>

The 1974-1975 annual list of NCATE represents about forty percent or 540<sup>2</sup> of the total of 1,265 approved teacher education colleges and universities (see Table 3, page 144) leaving 725 without the Council's accreditation. Although NCATE institutions are preparing about four-fifths of the new teachers graduated each year, still a large number of institutions not accredited by the Council present a real problem to achieve the free movement of qualified teachers across state lines.

However, many educators believe that the work of NCATE constitutes the real foundation for reciprocity. A growing number of states are participating in reciprocity pacts. Table 4, page 153 includes thirty-one states that grant reciprocity privileges in the certification of teachers who are graduates of NCATE accredited institutions.

From an intensive study on the subject of accreditation, two purposes or functions emerge. The first is to establish a minimum level of competency by the practitioners of the

---

<sup>1</sup>National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 21st Annual List, p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

TABLE 4 - STATES THAT PARTICIPATE IN RECIPROCAL TEACHER CERTIFICATION

STATE	RECIPROCITY SYSTEM			
	Interstate Certifica- tion Proj.	NCATE	NASDTEC	Northeastern States Com- pact (Elem. Teachers)
1	2	3	4	5
Alabama		X		
Alaska	X		X	
Arizona		X		
Arkansas		X		
California	X			
Colorado		X	X	
Connecticut	X			(a)X
Delaware	X	X	X	X
D.C., Wash.			X	
Florida	X	X		
Georgia		X		
Hawaii	X			
Idaho	X			
Illinois		X		
Indiana	X	X	X	
Iowa	X	X		
Kansas			X	
Kentucky	X	X	X	
Louisiana				
Maine	X	X		X
Maryland	X	X	X	(b)X
Massachusetts	X	X		X
Michigan				
Minnesota	X	X	X	
Mississippi		X		
Missouri		X		
Montana				
Nebraska	X	X	X	
Nevada				
New Hampshire				X
New Jersey	X		X	X
New Mexico			X	
New York	X			(e)X
North Carolina	X	X	X	
North Dakota		X		
Ohio	X		X	
Oklahoma	X	(d)X	X	
Oregon		X		
Pennsylvania	X	X	X	(e)X
Rhode Island	X	X		(e)X

TABLE 4 - Continued

STATE	RECIPROCITY SYSTEM			
	Interstate Certifica- tion Project	NCATE	NASDTEC	Northeastern States Com- pact (Elem. Teachers)
1	2	3	4	5
South Carolina	X			
South Dakota	X	X	X	
Tennessee		X		
Texas		X		
Utah	X	X	X	
Vermont	X	X	X	(e)X
Virginia	X		X	
Washington	X	X	X	
West Virginia	X	X		
Wisconsin	X		X	
Wyoming				
TOTALS:	31	31	22	11

Source: Stinnett, A Manual On Standards, p. 25.

TABLE 4 - FOOTNOTES

<sup>a</sup>Under the Northeastern Compact, Connecticut does not accept candidates prepared in Massachusetts.

<sup>b</sup>Under the Northeastern Compact, Maryland will accept both elementary and secondary candidates from the other member states.

<sup>c</sup>Previously signatory states which for this survey did not report participation in the Northeastern Compact.

<sup>d</sup>Oklahoma grants certificates to NCATE graduates from the other 30 states in the system.

profession, thus providing the public with qualified teachers. The second purpose is to stimulate the continuous development and improvement of the practioners' competencies. With reference to the first purpose, Stinnett says that "It may be that the NCATE has achieved the basic goal for which it was established--the placing of a quality floor under institutional programs of teacher education."<sup>1</sup> With reference to the second purpose, it is the opinion of Larson that:

As the universe of available institutions is visited and accredited, that is, found to meet some minimal standards, and as the second and third rounds of visits occur, the agency's purpose is likely to change gradually from one of applying standards to one of institutional stimulation and improvement.<sup>2</sup>

This analysis of control and accreditation leads to the conclusion that (1) most American teachers are trained in all-purpose institutions; (2) these institutions have some measure of autonomy from the state or federal agencies, and this independence enables the institutions to develop their individual standards while endeavoring to meet the standards set by their state departments of education and the voluntary accrediting agency; (3) the recognition the states or the voluntary accrediting agencies accord the institutions constitutes accreditation or approval; (4) accrediting practices encourage

---

<sup>1</sup>T. M. Stinnett, A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States (Washington, D.C.: National Education Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1970), p. 4.

<sup>2</sup>Rolf W. Larson, "Accreditation: Some Professional Problems," Learning Today 5 (Summer, 1972), p. 31.

the participation and involvement of many individuals and groups in teacher education programs and also promote educational leadership; (5) accreditation stimulates institutional efficiency and improvement of the teaching profession; (6) it provides information to prospective employers with regard to the quality of the training that the graduates have received; and (7) it makes possible the employment of teachers educated in other states.

### Certification

All states have regulations which require certification for teaching and for other educational positions. Certification is the legal sanction granted by the state to an individual to teach. It represents an effort on the part of the state to prevent incompetent persons from directing the learning of students and to give some assurance that public money is being spent for the services of competent teachers. The idea of certification is presented by Lucien B. Kinney in his monograph Certification in Education as:

A process of legal sanction, authorizing the holder of a credential to perform specific services in the public schools of the state. Its widely accepted purpose is to establish and maintain standards for the preparation and employment of persons who teach.<sup>1</sup>

Generally, teacher certification standards began to improve as the states centralized responsibility for certification. At first the states issued single certificates that

---

<sup>1</sup>Lucien B. Kinney, Certification in Education (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p. 3.

entitled the holder to teach at any grade level, with no differentiation between certificates for elementary and secondary school teachers. This trend naturally caused a tightening of standards for certification.<sup>1</sup>

Fluctuations in the quality of certification standards took place because of such factors as World War I, the Depression, World War II, and other events. The Depression created a surplus of teachers, whereas the two World Wars caused the waiving of certificate requirements in many states. Some states found it necessary to issue emergency certificates to persons who otherwise could not have met standards strictly enforced for certification in order to meet urgent classroom needs.

Standards for emergency certificates employed by the states ranged from a few weeks of preparation beyond high school to the requirement of a master's degree. During World War II it was estimated that approximately one in seven teachers in the United States had been issued emergency certificates.<sup>2</sup> In later years, the decision by the profession to correct this situation has resulted in a steady decline of teachers with substandard qualifications. In 1973, the National Education Association estimated that 2.2 percent of elementary school teachers did not have a college degree. For secondary schools, the figure was placed at 0.7 percent. It was 1.4 percent for

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 426.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 434.



both secondary and elementary schools.<sup>1</sup>

At present there is a general surplus of teachers<sup>2</sup> compared with the demand. The number of prospective teachers from the 1974 graduating class seeking teaching positions which totaled 223,450, were competing for only 108,400 teaching positions that were open to them. This meant a surplus of 115,050 teaching candidates.<sup>3</sup> The NEA disputes the accuracy of these figures by stating that the supply of new teachers at that time was actually smaller by 466,500 than the number of positions needed to be filled to raise the quality of school programs and services to minimum levels (adopt quality criterion)<sup>4</sup> in the fall of 1974.<sup>5</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>National Education Association, Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1973 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1974), p. 38.

<sup>2</sup>By 1963, all states required at least the bachelor's degree for secondary teachers. (See Stinnett, A Manual on Standards, 1974, p. 1). Fourteen states also require considerable advanced work, usually a fifth year, if new teachers decide to maintain their positions after the initial period of certification (see Stinnett, op cit., p. 1). The District of Columbia requires a master's degree for senior and vocational high school certificates. Arizona and California also expect a master's degree as a standard, but this has not been fully enforced (see Haberman and Stinnett, Teacher Education, p. 19).

<sup>3</sup>National Education Association, Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1974 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1975), p. 1.

<sup>4</sup>National Education Association, Teacher Supply and Demand, 1973, pp. 20-22. Quality criterion estimates are based on a minimum standard of staffing required for effective instruction, i.e., the number of new teachers needed immediately (a) to fill new positions created to accommodate enrollment changes and trends toward improvement, (b) to replace teachers who leave, (c) to replace (or upgrade)

Eligibility for high school certificates, in all states as shown in Table 5, page 160, is based upon the possession of a bachelor's degree including prescribed work in professional courses. The predominant practice is to issue certificates that specify the subjects or fields the holder is qualified to teach. The duration of certificates may be for terms of five to ten years, although five years is the usual practice. A total of twenty-six states issue life or permanent certificates.<sup>1</sup>

In the course of the years, many states have dropped some general requirements--those that the applicant must meet regardless of his field of teaching. Some of these requirements that have been dropped include age, loyalty oath, and U.S. citizenship.<sup>2</sup> Eighteen states require a general health certificate and thirteen a chest X-ray or other tests for tuberculosis. Eleven states require special courses such as the history of the state; some may be satisfied by examination

---

teachers having substandard qualifications, (d) to reduce misassignment, (e) to reduce overcrowded classes, and (f) to reinstate financially induced program cutbacks and increase provision for at least minimally comprehensive programs. This criterion suggests a minimum class size of 24 pupils per teacher in elementary schools and a minimum per teacher load of 124 pupils per day in secondary schools.

<sup>5</sup>National Education Association, Teacher Supply and Demand, 1974, p. 7. Completion of a master's degree is increasingly being used as the minimum to be expected of persons considered to be fully qualified teachers.

<sup>1</sup>Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Only twenty-five states will require U.S. citizenship for certification. See Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 23.

TABLE 5A - MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS FOR LOWEST REGULAR TEACHING CERTIFICATE

STATE	(A) Elementary School				
	Degree	General Education (Semester Hours)	Professional Education (Total Semester Hours)	Student Teaching (Included in Column 4)	Educational Philosophy Psychology Sociology (Included in Column 4)
1	2	3	4	5	6
Alabama	B	59	27	6	-
Alaska	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Arizona	(a) B	40	24	6	3
Arkansas	B	48	18	6	3
California	(b) B	AC	(t) AC	(t) AC	(t) AC
Colorado	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Connecticut	(e) B	75	30	6	6
Delaware	B	60	30	6	6
D.C., Washington	(d) B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Florida	B	45	20	6	6
Georgia	(e) B	40	18	6	-
Hawaii	B	AC	18	(f) AC	-
Idaho	B	42	24	6	(x) 6
Illinois	B	78	16	5	2
Indiana	(h) B	97	27	8	10
Iowa	B	40	20	5	-
Kansas	B	50	24	5	12
Kentucky	B	45	24	8	(j) -
Louisiana	B	46	24	4	9
Maine	B	60	30	6	3
Maryland	(k) B	80	26	8	6
Massachusetts	(l) B	-	18	(m) 2	-
Michigan	(n) B	40	20	6	(o) 6
Minnesota	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Mississippi	B	48	36	6	6
Missouri	B	AC	18	5	7
Montana	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Nebraska	(q) B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Nevada	B	-	(r) 18	6	-
New Hampshire	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
New Jersey	B	45	24	(t) -	(u) -
New Mexico	(v) B	48	24	6	-
New York	(w) B	NS	24	(f) NS	-
North Carolina	B	35-40%	15-20%	-	-
North Dakota	B	NCATE	16	5	-
Ohio	(x) B	60	29	6	6
Oklahoma	B	50	21	9	-
Oregon	B	-	24	6	-
Pennsylvania	(z) B	AC	AC	AC	AC

TABLE 5A - Continued

1	2	3	4	5	6
Rhode Island	(aa)B	-	30	6	-
South Carolina	B	42-45	21	6	3
South Dakota	(bb)B	30	26	6	-
Tennessee	B	40	24	4	-
Texas	B	60	18	6	-
Utah	B	AC	25	8	6
Vermont	B	AC	18	9	3
Virginia	B	60	18	6	3
Washington	(cc)B	(dd) 70%	(dd) 20%	-	-
West Virginia	B	40	20	6	AC
Wisconsin	B	AC	26	5	AC
Wyoming	B	40	23	C	-

TABLE 5B - MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS FOR LOWEST REGULAR TEACHER CERTIFICATE

STATE	(B) Secondary School				
	Degree	General Education (Semester Hours)	Professional Education (Total Semester Hrs.)	Student Teaching (Included in Col. 4)	Educational Philosophy Psychology Sociology (Included in Column 4)
1	2	3	4	5	6
Alabama	B	44	21	6	-
Alaska	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Arizona	(a)B	40	22	6	3
Arkansas	B	48	18	6	3
California	(b)B	AC	(t)AC	AC	(t)AC
Colorado	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Connecticut	(e)B	45	18	6	6
Delaware	B	60	18	6	9
D.C., Washington	(d)M	AC	AC	AC	AC
Florida	B	45	20	6	6
Georgia	(e)B	40	18	6	-
Hawaii	B	AC	18	(f)AC	-
Idaho	B	-	20	6	(z)6
Illinois	B	42	16	5	2
Indiana	(h)B	50	18	6	6
Iowa	B	40	20	5	-
Kansas	B	50	20	5	12
Kentucky	(l)B	45	17	8	(j)-
Louisiana	B	46	18	4	9
Maine	B	60	18	6	3

TABLE 5B - Continued

STATE	(B) Secondary School (cont'd.)				
	Degree	General Education (Semester Hours)	Professional Education (Total Semester Hours)	Student Teaching (Included in Column 4)	Educational Philosophy-Psychology-Sociology (Included in Column 4)
1	2	3	4	5	6
Maryland	(k)B	-	18	6	6
Massachusetts	(l)B	-	12	(m)2	-
Michigan	(n)B	40	20	6	(o)6
Minnesota	B	-	(p)27	(p)6	-
Mississippi	B	48	18	6	6
Missouri	B	40	18	5	7
Montana	B	AC	16	AC	AC
Nebraska	B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Nevada	B	-	20	6	-
New Hampshire	(n)B	AC	AC	AC	AC
New Jersey	B	45	15	(t)-	(u)-
New Mexico	(v)B	48	18	6	-
New York	(w)B	NS	12	(f)NS	-
North Carolina	B	35-40%	15-20%	-	-
North Dakota	B	NCATE	16	5	-
Ohio	(x)B	30	21	6	6
Oklahoma	B	50	21	9	-
Oregon	(y)B	-	20	6	-
Pennsylvania	(z)B	AC	AC	AC	AC
Rhode Island	aaB	-	18	6	-
South Carolina	B	42-45	18	6	-
South Dakota	B	-	20	6	-
Tennessee	B	40	24	4	-
Texas	B	60	18	6	-
Utah	B	AC	21	8	6
Vermont	B	AC	18	9	3
Virginia	B	48	15	6	3
Washington	ccB	(dd)70%	(dd)20%	-	-
West Virginia	B	40	20	6	-
Wisconsin	B	AC	18	5	AC
Wyoming	B	40	20	C	-

Source: Stimmet, A Manual On Standards, pp. 12-13

TABLE 5 - FOOTNOTES

THE LEGEND: A dash (-) means not reported. AC means approved curriculum. B means completion of bachelor's degree. M means completion of the master's degree. C means a course. NS means not specified. NCATE means standards of the Nat'l. Council for Accred. of Teacher Education.

- <sup>m</sup>The requirement is 6 s.h. for the bilingual education certificate.
- <sup>n</sup>For the provisional certificate. Valid for six years and renewable for three: teachers must complete an additional 18 s.h. for continuing certification.
- <sup>o</sup>Or equivalent.
- <sup>p</sup>Quarter hours.
- <sup>q</sup>Elementary teachers in accredited schools must hold a certificate based on the degree. Nebraska does issue provisional rural elementary and commitment certificates on a minimum of 60 s.h., valid only for specifically endorsed grades or subjects in designated classes of school districts for a limited time.
- <sup>r</sup>For the five-year nonrenewable certificate: teachers must qualify for the regular certificate, which requires 30 s.h.
- <sup>s</sup>A provisional conversion license may be issued to the holder of a bachelor's degree from a regionally accredited institution but not in a program approved by New Hampshire. A certificate will be issued on completion of the conversion program and recommendation of the superintendent attesting to competent performance and satisfactory professional growth.
- <sup>t</sup>College requirement: not included in total professional education column.
- <sup>u</sup>Educational psychology, included in total professional education.
- <sup>v</sup>For the provisional certificate. Valid for four years and renewable once for four years. Teachers must complete a fifth year of preparation for continuing certification.
- <sup>w</sup>For the provisional certificate. Valid for five years only. Teachers must qualify for permanent certification by completing a fifth year of preparation.
- <sup>x</sup>Total s.h.---124.
- <sup>y</sup>For the initial certificate. Valid for three years and renewable once for three years. Secondary teachers must complete a fifth year of preparation for continuing certification.
- <sup>z</sup>For the provisional certificate, valid for three years and renewable once for three years. Teachers must qualify for the permanent certificate by completing 24 s.h. of postbaccalaureate work.
- <sup>aa</sup>For the provisional certificate. Valid for six years only. Teachers must qualify for the professional certificate by completing a fifth year of preparation (36 s.h. or a master's degree).

and some only for particular teachers. Thirty-two states charge a small certification fee ranging from one dollar to twenty dollars.<sup>1</sup>

The once prevalent national or state proficiency examination as a prerequisite to certification is practically obsolete. Only three states, Mississippi, North Carolina, and South Carolina still require the National Teacher Examination. However, as Stinnett notes, court decisions have tended to outlaw this requirement in states where it still remains.<sup>2</sup>

While certification continues to rest in state hands, there are new trends and powerful forces in progress that seek to change the credit counting approach to certification. Stinnett reports that the majority of the states (45 of them) use the approved-program approach. Certification in this case is based upon the recommendation of the institution that the student has completed a program of teacher education according to the minimum standards of the state. Accordingly,

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on Standards, 1974, p. 5.

<sup>bb</sup>South Dakota still lists a non-degree elementary certificate. Valid for teaching grades K-9, except in K-12 school systems. The 1970 edition noted that this certificate was to be discontinued in 1972.

<sup>cc</sup>For the provisional certificate. Valid for three years and renewable once for three years. Teachers must qualify for the standard certificate by completing a fifth year of preparation.

<sup>dd</sup>Ten percent electives.

This implies that the state exercises careful scrutiny of a teacher education program before approval . . . on the basis of a campus visit and positive appraisal of a program by a team broadly representative of the profession. . . . It implies further that the institution's recommendation of a candidate who has completed the program is given major emphasis in issuing the certificate.<sup>1</sup>

Another development is the stand that the NEA has taken in the passage of teacher standards and licensure acts which vest responsibility in state commissions predominantly composed of teachers. A resolution of the NEA states that:

The Association believes that, for maximum improvement in these areas [of uniformity and reciprocity of professional certification and accreditation standards and practices of educational institutions], broad and intensified participation of the teaching profession is essential.<sup>2</sup>

By 1976, only Oregon and California had moved in that direction. Although some states prefer certain variations of the NEA Model Act, it is believed that most states will adopt this position.<sup>3</sup>

The most recent trend is a performance based certification (PBC) approach. There appears to be a move toward performance-based teacher education as well as a call for PBC. On June 10, 1972, for example, the Texas State Board of Education, formally committed the state to a Competency/Performance concept in

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

<sup>2</sup> Stinnett, A Manual on Certification, 1970, p. 6.

<sup>3</sup> Robert B. Howsam and others, Educating: A Profession (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1976), p. 56, (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No., ED 117053).



teacher education and certification.<sup>1</sup>

Once this new approach is adopted, teaching qualifications would depend on the achievement of stated objectives rather than the completion of a specific conglomerate of courses. PBC, however, has been examined and analyzed as follows:

The first question is, should teacher or pupil behavior be used as evidence of teacher competence? Here, the point is that teacher behavior is believed to be a more appropriate basis on which to judge teacher competence. The second question is, on what basis should specific behavioral indicators of competence be selected for observation? It is intellectually unjustifiable at this time to establish a particular set of behavior indicators of teacher competence or certification criteria. Question three is, under what conditions should teacher behavior be observed in order to assess competence? Teacher behavior must be assessed in several contexts and over time if assessments are to be generalizable. If the final question asks, what kind of measure of teacher behavior should be used to assess competence? Observation systems need to be identified and developed which are characterized by strong reliability and validity and by enough scope to reflect the range and complexity of teacher-student interaction.<sup>2</sup>

The above analysis comes to the conclusion that "the empirical evidence to support the sufficiency of those teacher behaviors to bring about significant gains in pupil learning is generally lacking."<sup>3</sup> The same view is evident

---

<sup>1</sup>W. Robert Houston and Robert W. Howsam, "CBTE: The Ayes of Texas," Phi Delta Kappan 55 (January, 1974), pp. 299-303.

<sup>2</sup>Ronald L. Van Sickle, "Measurement Issues and Competency-Based Teacher Certification", Paper presented before the Annual Meeting of the National Council for Social Studies, 1975, Social Studies (1975).

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

in an article by Robert B. Howsam who raises the warning that:

Litigation is being brought against those agencies which refuse to grant certification to individuals on the grounds that they have not completed a required sequence of preparatory courses. These refusals are merely arbitrary unless certification authorities can document the beneficial outcome of such requirements in improving teaching skills.<sup>1</sup>

Under these conditions, it would be wise not to close off alternatives in teacher education by means of certification requirements. Nevertheless, it is necessary that more research be done in order to enable educators to frame sets of teaching skills in ways that can be translated into comprehensive teacher education programs and research activities.

#### Major Components in the Education of Teachers

The primary goal of teacher education is to change the trainee's behavior. Teacher education seeks to change the pre-service teacher's knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values which have been determined essential for effective teaching. A professional view of teaching is given by Robert B. Howsam as follows:

[demanding] complexities require rigorous preservice preparation to be the foundation for career-long professional development. Teachers need to be well educated in liberal or general studies, since All school teachers are teachers of general education. They must also be well versed in the discipline connected to their teaching fields and their learning implications for students. Teachers also require intensive preparation in the conceptual framework within which teachers can develop diagnostic and planning skills. A broad repertoire of teaching behaviors and skills must be another major

---

<sup>1</sup>Howsam, et al, op. cit., p. 124.

focus of teacher education, incorporating both theoretical and experiential components.<sup>1</sup>

Eighty percent of the four-year institutions of higher education or some fourteen hundred sites in the United States operate teacher education. This means that teacher education is conducted, in one fashion or another, in the full range of four year higher educational settings. The extremes of the range extend from the one-member teacher education faculty in the small liberal arts college to the school or college with two or three hundred faculty members in a university offering preparation in education specializations through the doctoral level.<sup>2</sup> This system of professional programs is responsible for the initial certification of approximately three hundred thousand new teachers each year.<sup>3</sup>

Variety is one characteristic that is most notable when examining different teacher education programs. Despite this variety, however, there are common characteristics among teacher education programs that can be placed under three categories: (1) general education, (2) specialized education, and (3) professional education. The particular semester-hour requirement within each of the three areas mentioned above varies from one institution to another depending upon the accredited approved program of each institution. So does the

---

<sup>1</sup>Howsam, et al., op. cit., p. 80.

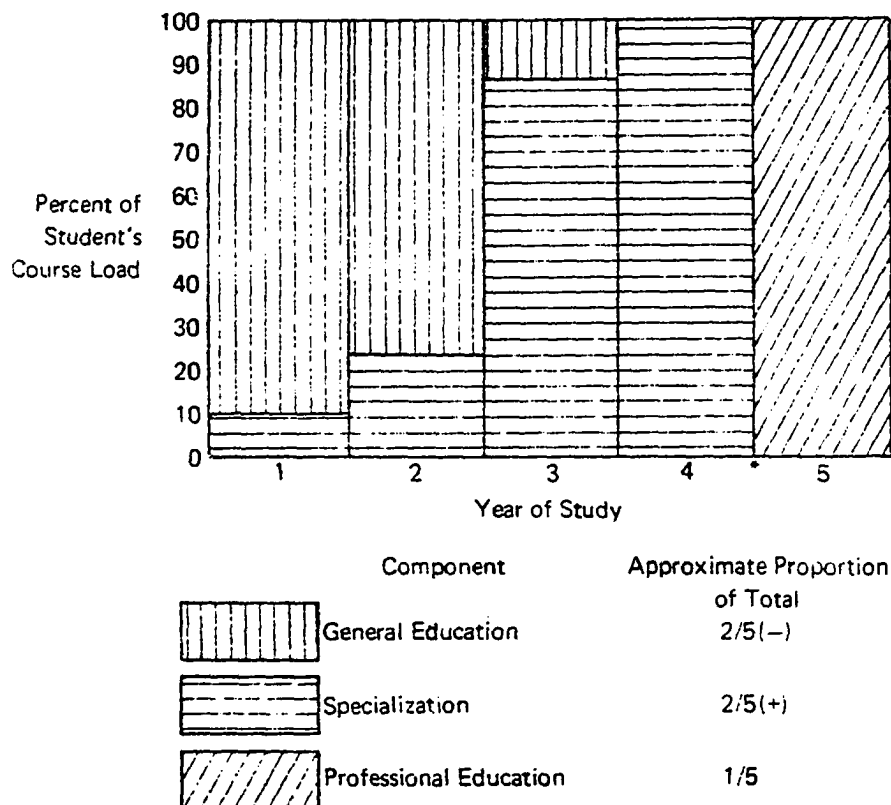
<sup>2</sup>David L. Clark and Gerald Marker, op. cit., p. 55.

<sup>3</sup>The Education Professions, 1971-72 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972), p. 50.

manner in which each is structured into the four years of study.

The professional component as it is integrated in the general college program may be understood through a number of graphic illustrations. The following designs are typically fitted to the undergraduate program of the institution so that the student may pursue teacher preparation without interference with any institutional cognate major he or she may elect. As Clark and Marker observe, "in almost all institutions preservice preparation programs for teachers are designed

Figure 6 Relationship of general-special-professional education: pattern A



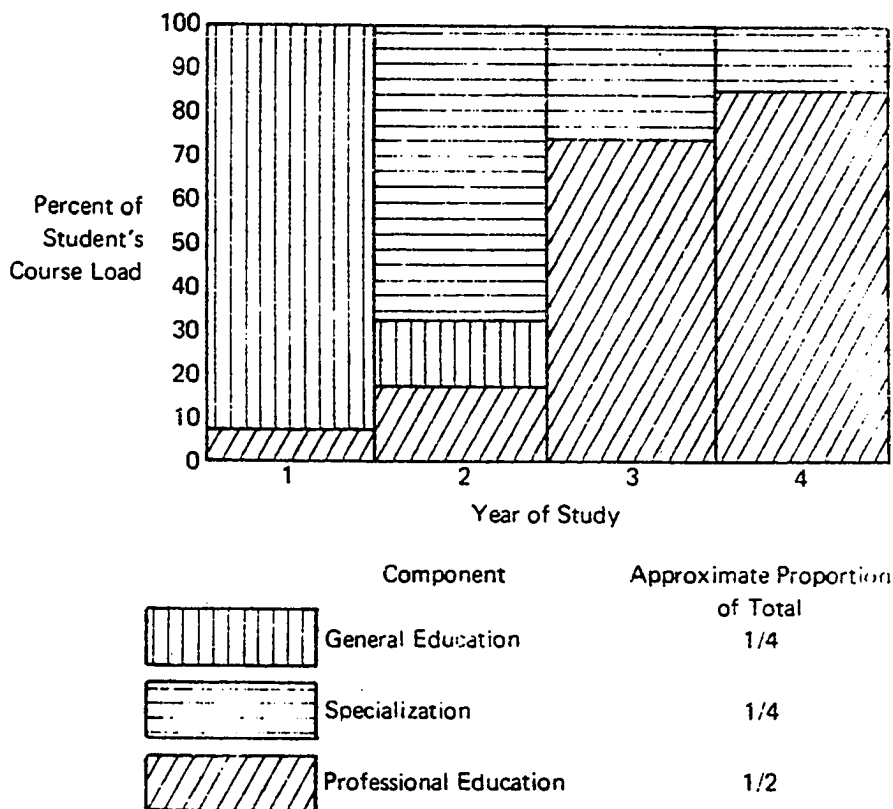
\*Represents point of completion of Bachelors Degree.

Source: Haberman and Stinnett, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

as an integral part of the undergraduate offering of the institution."<sup>1</sup>

Figure 6 represents the requirements of an additional year of professional study after the B.A. The student receives a master's degree for this fifth year. In this approach, although the would-be teacher devotes a full year to professional aspects of teaching, the program has its disadvantages--the professional studies cannot be integrated with student's general and liberal studies.

Figure 7. Relationship of general-special-professional education: pattern B

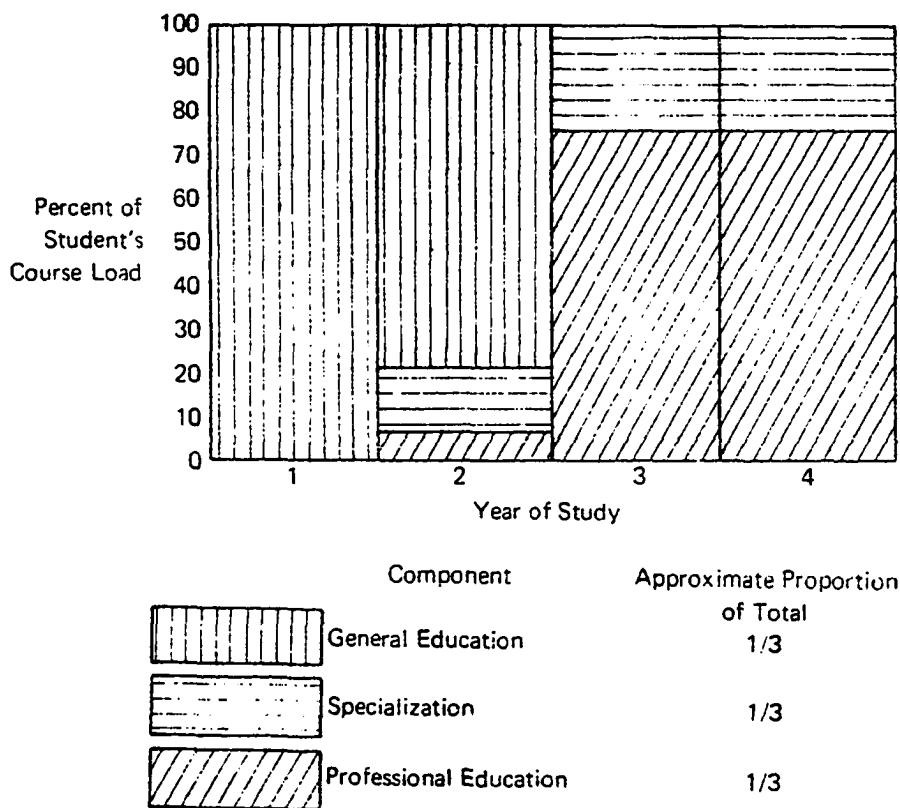


Source: Haberman and Stinnett, *op. cit.*, p. 87.

<sup>1</sup>Clark and Marker, *op. cit.*, p. 55.

Figure 7 represents a typical state college that calls for course work in all three components during all four years. The advantage of this pattern is the great opportunity for integration of general, liberal, and professional education. However, the relatively smaller emphasis on general and liberal courses are considered as weak points. More commonly, however, colleges offer the general education in the first two years and the specialized and professional study in the last two. This approach, represented in figure 8, is that offered by large multi-purpose universities.

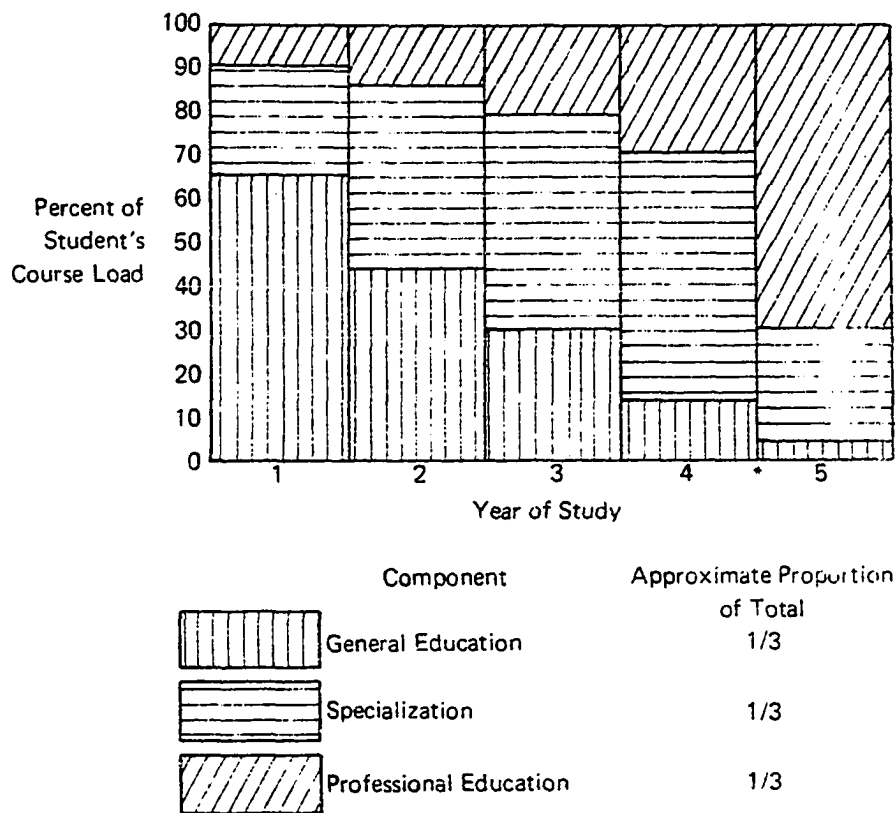
Figure 8 . Relationship of general-special-professional education: pattern C



Source: Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 88.

Figure 9 represents a balanced five-year program. With too much to squeeze into four years as noted before, with a surplus of teacher supply, these programs are more promising.<sup>1</sup>

Figure 9. Relationship of general-special-professional education: pattern D



\*Represents point of completion of Bachelors Degree.

Source: Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 89.

<sup>1</sup>Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 89.

## General Education

Prospective teachers enter the university like all other students through a program of general or liberal studies. But liberal education is of special significance to teachers, for, as Howsam reflects, it should meet their professional as well as personal needs.<sup>1</sup> One position about general education is that taken by the AACTE in its 1969 Recommended Standards for Teacher Education, a relevant portion of which is quoted as follows:

. . .general education should include the studies most widely generalizable. Far more important than the specific content of the general studies is that they be taught with emphasis upon generalization rather than with academic specialization as a primary objective. . . . That programs of study in general education are individualized according to the needs and interests of students . . . . The professional part of a curriculum designed to prepare teachers should be distinguishable from the general studies component: the latter includes whatever instruction is deemed desirable for all students, regardless of their prospective occupation. . . . There is a planned general studies component requiring that at least one-third of each curriculum for prospective teachers consist of studies in the symbolics of information and behavioral sciences, and humanities.<sup>2</sup>

The following standards for the approval of general education were developed by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) in Standards for State Approval of Teacher Education:

---

<sup>1</sup>Howsam, et al, op. cit., p. 82.

<sup>2</sup>American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Recommended Standards for Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969), pp. 3-4.



1. General education is based on those studies known as the liberal arts, which embrace the broad areas of the humanities, mathematics, the biological and physical sciences, and the social and behavioral sciences.
2. The content of general education selected with discrimination from the aggregate of human experience, should embody the major idea and principles of various divisions of knowledge as they bear on common concerns.
3. Since general education is a developmental experience achieved with the maturation of the college student, it should be emphasized throughout the baccalaureate program, and continued in diminishing proportions into graduate study.
4. In the belief that a general education program relevant to the future is attained by a carefully selected sequence of experiences with increase in depth as the student matures, each institution approved for education of teachers shall be responsible for building a sequential program of general studies which will help the college student attain an understanding and application of:
  - a. Language skills as essential tools in communication
  - b. World Literature with emphasis on, but not limited to, the writings of English and American authors
  - c. The aesthetic values in human experience expressed through the fine arts
  - d. The scientific and mathematical concepts upon which contemporary civilization depends
  - e. Contemporary world culture
  - f. Social, geographic, political, and economic conditions and their impacts on current problems in the nations and the world
  - g. The growth and development of the United

States as a nation and its place in the world

h. The principles of physical and mental health as they apply to the individual and the community.

i. American culture and heritage.<sup>1</sup>

A survey jointly sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and the Teacher Programs and Services Group of the Educational Testing Services (TES) on undergraduate teacher education of 871 AACTE member institutions in June, 1973, showed that the total number of course requirements in general education ranged from forty-six to sixty hours for forty-three percent of the respondent institutions on a semester system as shown in Table 6, Page 175.<sup>2</sup>

Table 6

Course Hours Required in General Education (No = 440)				
	Elementary Teaching		Secondary Teaching	
	No. of Inst.	%	No. of Inst.	%
30 hours or less	24	6%	48	11%
31-45 hours	119	27%	109	25%
46-60 hours	181	41%	189	43%

<sup>1</sup>National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, Standards for State Approval of Teacher Education, 1971, pp. 19-20.

<sup>2</sup>Susan S. Sherwin, Teacher Education: A Status Report (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1974), p. 64.

Table 6--continued

	Elementary Teaching		Secondary Teaching	
	No. of Inst.	%	No. of Inst.	%
61-75+ hours	75	17%	53	12%
NA	41	9%	41	9%
	440	100%	440	100%

Source: Susan Sherwin, Teacher Education: A Status Report, p. 14.

By comparison, an NEA report on 294 NCATE accrediting institutions in 1957-58 showed a median requirement of forty-six semester hours in general education, with a range from eleven to ninety-seven hours.<sup>1</sup> Another study based on a survey of 1960 or 1961 graduates from thirty-two schools, showed a mean of 96.5 in the academic education for secondary teachers as revealed by their transcripts.<sup>2</sup>

The course work in general education for secondary education majors is shown below. The subjects are grouped together into fields or categories.

From the literature concerning the area of general education, it may be seen that the trend is toward the interdisciplinary approach and the integration of the various courses usually offered in the general education sequence. Whenever this is done, some believe that the courses are offered in a

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, The Professional Problem of Teachers, p. 410.

<sup>2</sup>James Koerner, The Miseducation of Teachers (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1963), p. 128.

Table 7

Course Requirement in General Education for Secondary Education Majors		
<u>Categories</u>	<u>Mean Course Hours of Those Responding</u>	<u>No. Responding</u>
Humanities	14.0	558
Social Sciences	11.5	578
Sciences	9.6	505
Mathematics	6.2	367
Health and Physical Education	4.5	435
Other	10.4	277

Source: Susan Sherwin, Teacher Education: A Status Report, p. 13.

manner more closely related to the newer instructional patterns.

Howsam recommends:

That all prospective teachers participate in an experience focusing on the nature and implications of knowledge, in conjunction with general education studies. Taught by an interdisciplinary team, students will consider alternative ways of knowing, unique structures of knowledge in the different fields, linkages among concepts in the various disciplines, and the implications of these ideas for teaching at elementary and secondary levels. The instructional team should include at least one member from professional education along with appropriate representation from other behavioral and social sciences.<sup>1</sup>

Because of the rapid expansion of knowledge now available in the various academic fields of teacher preparation, it is the responsibility of educators to take advantage of this in preparing teachers in the content or specialized areas of

---

<sup>1</sup>Howsam, et al., op. cit., p. 82.

teacher education, by placing emphasis on the basic structure of knowledge and on "learning how to learn."<sup>1</sup>

#### Academic Specialization

Another component of the education of teachers is study in the academic specialization areas. Programs preparing secondary teachers require candidates to do substantial work in subject areas.

This idea is not new but the emphasis upon it has increased in recent years. On one hand, recognition has been given the importance of pushing the teacher's scholarship beyond the level of the contents to be taught. On the other, the importance of knowledge about knowledge is emphasized.

B. Othanel Smith supports this view as follows:

To sum up, the subject-matter preparation of the teacher should consist of two interrelated parts: first, command of the content of the disciplines constituting his teaching field and of the subject matter to be taught; and second, command of knowledge about knowledge.<sup>2</sup>

Knowledge about knowledge is:

The subject matter of each field of teaching is a mixture of different forms of knowledge. All of the fields contain concepts. Some contain laws or law-like statements. Others contain values either as major emphasis or as incidental to other forms of content. It is important for the teacher to be aware of these knowledge forms because studies have shown that each is taught and learned in a

---

<sup>1</sup>Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (New York: Vintage Books, 1960), pp. 17-54.

<sup>2</sup>B. Othanel Smith, Saul B. Cohen, and Arthur Pearl, Teachers for the Real World (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969), p. 113.

different way. Current programs of subject matter preparation do not enable a teacher to identify the forms of subject matter or to relate teaching behavior appropriately to the way they are more easily learned.<sup>1</sup>

Teacher education students and nonteaching majors generally enroll in the same classes together, although the sequence of courses appropriate for a teaching major is often different from regular academic majors. The parties involved on the distinctions between the sequence for the teaching versus the nonteaching majors are specified by AACTE's Recommended Standards:

The instruction in the subject matter for the teaching specialties is the basic responsibility of the respective academic departments; the identification and selection of courses and other learning experiences required for a teaching specialty, however, are the joint responsibility of appropriate members of the faculty in the teaching specialty concerned and members of the teacher education faculty.<sup>2</sup>

Most states now require a major and/or minor subject specialization for teaching in the secondary schools. But the number of hours for the major or minor in all states is far from uniform. The extent of requirements ranges from a low of eighteen to a high of forty-eight hours for teaching a subject full time.<sup>3</sup> The exact number of hours taken for the major field of study varies within some institutions

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 127.

<sup>2</sup>American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Recommended Standards for Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969), p. 4.

<sup>3</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on Standards, 1974, pp. 139-143.

according to the selected field, there being in these instances no attempt to standardize the requirement among the several subject matter departments.

Secondary school teachers usually specialize in a particular field. English, mathematics, social studies, and sciences are the subjects most commonly taught. Other specialities include health and physical education, business education, home economics, foreign languages and music. Increasingly, teachers are developing courses which deal with particular areas within the broad subjects so students may acquire in-depth as well as general knowledge.

#### Professional Education

The third component is the professional education which prepares a person to carry out the role of the teacher successfully, whether in the classroom, the school, or the community.

Professional education courses usually encompass psychological and social foundations, methods and materials of teaching and field experiences. The total course requirement is usually from sixteen to twenty-five hours. 66 percent of 440 institutions surveyed by AACTE/ETS fall in this category as shown in Table 8, p. 181.

In the majority of institutions these requirements in professional education have remained the same and will continue to do so.<sup>1</sup>

The NASDTEC recognizes the following experiences as

---

<sup>1</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 16.

Table 8

Total Number of Hours Required in Professional Education N = 440				
	<u>Elementary Education</u>		<u>Secondary Education</u>	
	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
15 hours or less	6	1%	23	5%
16 - 25 hours	81	18%	336	76%
26 - 35 hours	202	46%	52	12%
36 - 45 hours	85	19%	8	2%
46 - 55 hours	20	5%	1	.2%
56 - 65 hours	10	2%	3	.7%
NA	36	8%	17	4%
Totals	440	99%	440	99.91%

Source: Susan S. Sherwin, Teacher Education: A Status Report, p. 15.

being essential in the professional sequences of courses:

1. Knowledge of the processes of human growth, development, and learning, and the practical application of this knowledge to teaching.
2. Knowledge of research, methods, materials, and media appropriate to teaching. The special emphasis should be in the student's field of teaching specialization.
3. Ability to teach effectively and to work ethically and constructively with pupils, teachers, administrators, and parents.
4. Understanding of the historical, philosophical and sociological foundations underlying the development and organization of public education in the United States.
5. Understanding of the purposes, administrative organizations, and operation of the total



education program of the school.

6. Ability and willingness to analyze the teaching act as a means of continually improving his teaching skills.<sup>1</sup>

It is also recommended by the NASDTEC that each typical course may include American Education, Methods of Teaching, Philosophy and History of Education, and Educational Psychology. Almost all institutions have at least one course requirement in the area of Psychological and Social Foundations. The means of course hours concerning psychological foundations are shown in the following table.

Table 9

Course Requirements in Psychological Foundations for Secondary Education Majors			
Course	N = 719 Mean Course Hours	S.D.	No. of Ins- titutions Responding
Gen./Intro. Psy- chology	3 - 4	.9	359
Child Psychology	2 - 7	.9	49
Adolescent Psychol- ogy	3 - 0	.7	259
Educational Psychol- ogy	3 - 2	1.0	504
Human Growth and Development	3 - 4	1.1	205
Tests & Measurement	2 - 7	.8	237
Others	3 - 6	2.1	43

Source: Susan S. Sherwin, Teacher Education: A Status Report, p. 18.

<sup>1</sup>NASDTEC, Standards for State Approval, p. 21.

### Field Experience

The central and integrating element in the professional education of teachers is the professional practice itself, that is, teaching. When Conant made his study of teacher education in the United States, the one common feature he noted was practice teaching.<sup>1</sup> Field experience provides an opportunity to examine and come to understand the way schools operate and their role in the larger scheme of things. It is a period of observing, recording and analyzing behavior-- pupil behavior, teacher behavior (their own and others), and the interaction of teachers and pupils. The AACTE's Recommended Standards points out very strongly that:

. . . If teaching is to be more than a craft, teachers need to understand the theoretical principles which explain what they do. . . . Whereas the study of teaching and learning theory provides the prospective teacher with principles of practice, and the laboratory exercises illuminate and demonstrate these principles, clinical experience confronts the student with individual cases or problems the diagnosis and solution of which involve the application of principles and theory . . . [and] during [practicum] the student tests and reconstructs the theory which he has evolved and . . . he further develops his own teaching style. It provides an opportunity for the student to assume major responsibility for the full range of teaching duties in a real school situation under the guidance of qualified personnel from the institution and from the cooperating elementary or secondary school.<sup>2</sup>

Field experience requirements for the certification of

---

<sup>1</sup>James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book co., 1963), pp. 51-54.

<sup>2</sup>American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education Recommended Standards for Teacher Education, pp. 5-6.

secondary school teachers vary from state to state.

As the following table indicates, some schools require as few as three semester hours, while others require an amount in excess of fifteen hours. A majority (54 percent) require between seven to fourteen hours. Students are required to spend an increasing number of hours on field experience.<sup>1</sup> Table 10 on p. 184 portrays more specific information about these field experiences.

Table 10

Course Hours Required in Field Experience N = 440				
	Elementary Teaching		Secondary Teaching	
	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
3 hours	21	5%	26	6%
4 - 6 hours	75	17%	115	26%
7 - 9 hours	133	30%	164	37%
10 - 14 hours	104	24%	75	17%
15 + hours	59	13%	33	8%
NA	48	11%	27	6%

Source: Susan Sherwin, Teacher Education: A Status Report, p. 17.

Table 11, p. 185 reinforces the increasing trend toward field-based programs. There are also some notable variations. Sherwin reports that more New England institutions have tutoring in the sophomore year (64 percent) and student teaching in the junior year (19 percent). More Middle Atlantic institutions

<sup>1</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 24.

Table 11

Field Experience Offered by the Institution N = 719				
<u>Experiences</u>	<u>Freshman Year</u> %	<u>Sophomore Year</u> %	<u>Junior Year</u> %	<u>Senior Year</u> %
Student Teaching	0%	.4%	7%	97%
Classroom Observation	16%	58%	74%	31%
Tutoring	15%	46%	61%	22%
Teacher-Aide Experience	12%	48%	57%	15%
Community Experience (Social Worker/ Club, etc.)	23%	42%	41%	21%
Interviews	4%	25%	44%	26%
Other	2%	2%	5%	3%

Source: Susan Sherwin, Teacher Education: A Status Report, p. 24.

offer community experience in the sophomore (56 percent) and junior (55 percent). Generally, institutions in the East and West South Central states have consistently lower rates of participation in field experiences. Smaller institutions generally offer more field experience earlier in the college program; for example, teacher-aide (61 percent) in the freshman year. Black institutions offer more community experiences in all four years.<sup>1</sup>

Practicum or student teaching is performed almost wholly in the senior year (97 percent, see Table 11), and a high

---

<sup>1</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 25.

percentage of institutions (74 percent) offer classroom observations in the junior year and fifty-eight percent in the sophomore year along with relatively high percentages for teacher-aide experiences in the junior year (57 percent) and sophomore year (48 percent).

### Selection and Retention

The selection of potential teachers is an essential factor in determining quality and effectiveness in any teacher education program, as well as the ultimate effectiveness of the teacher in the classroom. Since almost all single-purpose teacher education institutions have transformed into multi-purpose institutions, common standards for entrance are expected from all candidates irrespective of vocational interests. An initial admission, however, does not necessarily qualify students for admission to teacher education. A formal application for admission to the program must be made, in most cases, at the end of the sophomore year, involving requirements in addition to those for admission to the college.<sup>1</sup> The application is carefully scrutinized, and if the applicant has the desired qualifications, a recommendation is made for his acceptance in the teacher education program. Subsequent evaluations and recommendations at three or more points in the student's preparation are made. If the student is considered to have the necessary qualities--personal, social, ethical fitness and academic ability--he will

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 80.

be approved for student teaching.<sup>1</sup>

Every institution, therefore, uses a number of criteria for admitting students to its teacher education programs. These criteria, both objective and subjective, reflect a rational process for selecting students whose success in the profession can be reasonably predicted.

In a recent survey, it was found that grades are still the most frequently used criteria for selecting students for teacher education.<sup>2</sup> The other prominent criteria on which most institutions based their selection are English and speech proficiencies. The table below indicates several clear patterns.

Table 12

Criteria Used by 386 Colleges and Universities For Selecting Students into Teacher Education Programs		
Rank	Criteria	Frequency
1	College Grades	344
2	English Proficiency	238
3	Speech Proficiency	237
4	Academic References	205
5	Direct Experiences with Children/ Youth	172
6	References	164
7	Direct Interviews	161
8	Physical Examinations	158
9	"Why I Want to Teach" Statements	128
10	Varied Personality Exams/Attitude Tests	84

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 80-81.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 80.

Table 12--continued

Rank	Criteria	Frequency
11	High School Grades	59
12	Police Records	31
13	Loyalty Oath	16

Source: Martin Haberman, Guidelines for the Selection of Students into Programs of Teacher Education (Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators and Eric Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1972), p. 14.

Susan Sherwin also reported that a large majority of institutions require a minimum grade point average and recommendations for entry into their programs (87 percent and 72 percent, respectively).<sup>1</sup> In both studies, varied personality examination/attitude tests ranked very low.

The most interesting fact in these two studies is that more than 68 percent of the respondents to the first survey did not contemplate any changes in their system of selection<sup>2</sup> whereas the second study, which took place about two years later, noted that some of the institutions were reexamining their admission requirements to strengthen their programs.<sup>3</sup>

A third study on a random sample of one hundred institutions of all North Central Association Colleges and universities accredited by the National Council for Accreditation

---

<sup>1</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 29.

<sup>2</sup>Haberman, op. cit., p. 16.

<sup>3</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 10.

of Teacher Education was conducted by Harold Brubacher in 1973. His findings concerning the selection-retention program were supported by questionnaire responses and a review of selected literature.

1. Multiple criteria are more satisfactory than any single criterion for both selection and retention in teacher education.
2. Student progress should be reviewed at periodic points throughout preparation.
3. Presently, nearly all institutions practice selective retention in addition to selective admission.
4. Scholastic aptitude, whether represented by high school graduating class standing or by college grade point average, is the most commonly utilized selection-retention standard.
5. The personal interview and other forms of faculty-student interaction should be employed as a selection-retention technique.
6. Improved selection-retention criteria should be developed.
7. Most institutions require students to apply for admission to the teacher education program at a specific time.
8. Few applicants are denied entry to teacher education programs regardless of the size or nature of the institution.
9. A need exists for better record keeping and more comprehensive testing of prospective teacher education candidates.
10. Evaluations of the personality and character of prospective candidates are necessary.
11. A joint administrative and faculty committee to evaluate student progress in the teacher education program is preferable to evaluation by one person.



12. A need exists to identify, early in the program, persons not suitable to become teachers. Early identification will aid not only the profession, but will allow rejected applicants the opportunity to pursue an alternative career choice before investing considerable energy and resources.
13. Performance in the laboratory phase of teacher education was viewed as closely related to ultimate teaching success.
14. More interviewing and counseling were suggested as means of aiding students in the self-selection process.
15. Earlier and expanded laboratory experiences facilitate retention decisions, both from the standpoint of self-selection and institutional screening.
16. An introductory course in education, including the use of supply-demand data for various teaching fields, provides an effective orientation to the program and serves as a screening device.
17. Performance-based programs whether adopted wholly or incrementally, will receive increased utilization.<sup>1</sup>

In-Service Education  
The Need for In-Service Education Today

The American society is not static, but is ever changing. The changing concepts of the aims and values of education, the roles of the teacher and the functions of the school have grave implications for in-service education.

The call for in-service education is the most urgent and

---

<sup>1</sup>Harold A. Brubaker, "Who Should Become a Teacher? Current State of Selection-Retention Politics of Teacher Education Institutions" (Bowling Green, Ohio: Bowling Green University, Department of Curriculum Instruction, 1973), pp. 4-5. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 115 608.)

demanding of the pressures exerted upon the education profession today. Because recent estimates indicate that 75 percent of the teaching force will be stable in the 1970's, with the balance in constant change, it becomes very important that the quality and reach of inservice training be enhanced.<sup>1</sup> Also because most persons who will be teaching for the next twenty years are now in place, the need for the future will not be for preservice education, but for inservice education.<sup>2</sup>

There is support for the view that it is impossible for any individual to learn all that he needs to know for a career in education in a professional school in the writings of Charles E. Silberman and Harold Howe.<sup>3</sup> Teacher training institutions have not yet learned how to turn out the perfect practitioner and probably never will. Even if this were possible, the perfect teacher of today might be very inadequate for the future. Therefore,

Inherent in the whole notion of in-service education is the belief that all professional people can grow and develop; that once they become professional adults, they do not or at

---

<sup>1</sup>Harold Howe, II, "Improving Teacher Education Through Exposure to Reality," in Donald J. McCarthy and Associates, New Perspectives on Teacher Education (San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1973), p. 61.

<sup>2</sup>Donald J. McCarthy, "Responsibility of the Dean for Reform," in Donald J. McCarthy and Associates, op. cit., p. 243.

<sup>3</sup>Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 467; Howe, "Improving Teacher Education," p. 53.

least should not stand still.<sup>1</sup>

Consequently, the need for a set of "planned activities for the instructional improvement of professional staff-members"<sup>2</sup> is obvious.

The purpose of in-service education is "to enable educators to acquire the competencies needed to (a) implement education-improvement activities directed toward specified student needs; (b) improve their own or expected goals of professional development, which may or may not lead to higher levels of certification; and (c) meet their own goals of personal growth."<sup>3</sup>

#### Incentives and Opportunities

In-service education practices in the United States vary from state to state and from school system to school system. Each local system or individual school is responsible for making provision for the in-service education of its teachers. To encourage classroom teachers to identify their

---

<sup>1</sup>Ben M. Harris, "In-Service Growth--The Essential Requirement," Educational Leadership, XXIV (December, 1966), p. 257.

<sup>2</sup>Ben M. Harris, Wailand Bessent and Kenneth E. McIntyre, In-Service Education: A Guide to Better Practice (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>Gene Bottoms, "Responsibilities of Local School Systems, State Departments of Education, Institutions of Higher Education, and Professional Organizations for In-Service Education," in Roy A. Edelfelt and Margo Johnson, eds., Rethinking In-Service Education (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1975), p. 38.

school problems and work cooperatively for solutions, some local systems often set aside certain afternoons for joint action by teachers. Also, special courses are offered with the hope that teachers will be encouraged to pursue additional learning experiences.<sup>1</sup> More states and additionally more local school districts now formally require secondary school teachers to have earned a graduate degree or graduate credits after their initial teaching certificates. Salary increments and leaves of absence for professional reasons have been used as the chief means to encourage teachers to pursue those programs.<sup>2</sup>

Besides the leadership offered by the professional leaders of the local community, various universities initiate programs which contribute to the continued professional growth of practitioners. These may take the form of follow-up studies of the graduates, extension courses, workshops, or providing consultants and specialists to the local school systems.

Professional organizations, being concerned that their members maintain those qualities that characterize professional persons, have been another source of in-service education. Their leadership role necessitates taking an active part in originating and promoting programs and stressing the importance of those programs with the school district and school community. Offering courses and workshops on subjects of

---

<sup>1</sup>Institute of International Studies, op. cit., p. 69.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

interest, development of new curriculae materials and the dissemination of information on new techniques are part of that effort.<sup>1</sup>

Also, state education departments have been concerned with the promotion, encouragement and development of in-service programs for public school personnel. Through their leadership, consultative, and regulatory functions, they usually facilitate the establishment of local, regional, and statewide in-service programs. Special training centers providing resources and technical competence to local school districts that cannot afford their own programs are among efforts to enhance the capabilities of practicing teachers.<sup>2</sup>

The changes that are taking place in education require not only the attention of the educational profession, but that of the nation. Teachers, administrators, professional organizations, national and state governments, must provide whatever resources are needed to meet the challenge of the future.

The first revolution in American education was a revolution in quantity. Everyone was to be provided the chance for an education of some sort. That revolution is almost won in the schools, and is on its way in higher education. The second revolution is underway. The next turn of the wheel must be a revolution in quality.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.

<sup>3</sup> Francis Keppel, The Necessary Revolution in American Education (New York: Harper & Row, 1966), p. 1.

The quality of education will be determined by the competence of the teacher in the classroom, the program, and the materials. In-service education can have a significant effect on teachers and programs. The quality of in-service education may be the most important factor in attempts made for providing quality education.

### Professional Organizations

A basic function of any profession is to provide the specialized services which society has entrusted to it at the highest possible levels of competence. To facilitate the performance of this function, the members of the profession join in a professional association in order to exercise some controls over preparation and admission of members, to exchange knowledge and experience among practitioners, and to protect society from incompetents. The association also shields its members from competition of the unqualified and elevates the character and service of the profession.<sup>1</sup>

Educators, like other professionals, have organized many associations concerned with interests of their professional fields. These associations reflect the diversity and complexity of education. The Education Directory 1976-1977 listed over 1,200 associations. One reason for the proliferation of teacher organizations is that membership generally is voluntary. Another reason for the large number of American

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, pp. 54-55.

teachers associations is the wide variety of specialities in teaching--science, math, and so on--with each specialty having one or more associations, at both the national and state level.

For teachers in elementary and secondary schools there are two major professional associations--the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT). There is at least one NEA affiliate in each state. There are also nearly 500 state-wide NEA associations, most of which serve special interests of teachers.<sup>1</sup> In addition, there are thousands of local associations, assuming that there is at least one association representing one of the 16,000 local school districts in the United States.<sup>2</sup>

Social fellowship, better salaries and improved conditions for teachers in the system, service to school and community, and general advancement of the profession are among the services usually rendered by local associations.<sup>3</sup> At the state level, education associations render their largest service in interpreting educational problems to the public and in promoting legislation favorable to the school system and to the teaching profession.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>T. M. Stinnett and Raymond E. Cleveland, "The Politics and Rise of Teacher Organizations," in Policy Issues in Education by Allan C. Ornstein, Steven I. Miller, ed. (Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1976), p. 88.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 89.

<sup>3</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 372.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 377-379.

The NEA, organized on August 26, 1857, at Philadelphia, was the first national organization of teachers in the United States.<sup>1</sup> It was first called the National Teachers' Association. Thirteen years later it merged with other organizations to form the National Education Association (1870). Finally, an act of Congress in 1906 incorporated the association under the revised name of the National Education Association of the United States.<sup>2</sup>

The association is a voluntary organization and has both teachers and administrators for members, thereby establishing the principle that the diverse professional groups involved in education can effectively work together in one organization. Teachers, teacher educators, principals, superintendents, curricular specialists, and higher education personnel are under NEA sponsorship. In 1975-76, membership reached the historic high of 1,886,000 educators,<sup>3</sup> or 75.4 percent of the nation's teachers.

The NEA has remained the dominant teachers' organization over its entire history. Its purpose is stated in the Preamble to the Constitution of the NEA of the United States to:

. . . serve as the national voice for education,  
advance the cause of education for all individuals,  
promote professional excellence among educators,

---

<sup>1</sup>National Education Association, NEA Handbook, 1976-1977 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1976), p. 147.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 8.



gain recognition of the basic importance of the teacher in the learning process, protect the rights of educators and advance their interests and welfare, secure professional autonomy, unite educators for effective citizenship, promote and protect human and civil rights, and obtain for its members the benefits of an independent, united teaching profession.<sup>1</sup>

The NEA works through its Departments, Committees, and Commissions which work toward raising professional standards through national conferences, publication, and research.

Each department develops its membership criteria and engages in special-interest activities which aim toward elevating the work of the classroom teachers. The Department of Classroom Teachers, for instance, accepts members who are engaged directly in full time teaching duties. The department maintains several publications and provides superior inservice opportunities for teachers, and these activities have served as effective laboratories for the development of professional leadership. Other activities of the department are annual regional conferences in six regions of the United States in addition to its annual national conference which is conducted on a college-credit, inservice workshop.<sup>2</sup> In short, the NEA Department of Classroom Teachers is the medium for teachers to learn from participation in professional organizations, from the local level to the NEA and its affiliated international education organizations.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 152.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 391.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Perhaps the greatest efforts expended by the NEA to elevate and protect standards for admission to practice came following the end of World War II. In 1946, the NEA established the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, frequently referred to as NCTEPS. NCTEPS since its inception has been actively engaged in the advancement of professional standards including those standards for institutions which prepare teachers. In an effort to provide impetus for the professional standards movement, the Commission encouraged state and local associations to organize their own TEPS Commissions.<sup>1</sup>

The National Education Association exerts great influence on teacher certification. The prerequisite for membership of at least a bachelor's degree and for a regular teaching certificate must definitely influence certification criteria of various states. For membership, the by-laws state that "Active members shall hold or shall be eligible to hold a baccalaureate or higher degree or the regular teaching, vocational, or technical certificates."<sup>2</sup>

The Association strongly supports control of entry and continuation in the teaching profession by members of the profession. This position is formally stated in Resolution F-1, adopted in 1969, as amended in 1975, as follows:

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 284.

<sup>2</sup>National Education Association, Handbook, 1976-77, p. 138.

The National Education Association believes the profession must govern itself. The Association also believes that each state should have a professional standards board, with a majority of K-12 public school classroom teachers. Professional standards boards should have legal responsibility for determining policy and procedure for teacher certification, approval of teacher certification, approval of teacher preparation programs, recognition of national accreditation of preparation programs, and programs designed to improve teacher education.<sup>1</sup>

Another organization which holds simultaneously internal and external relationships to teacher education is the American Federation of Teachers (AFT). Though a considerably smaller organization than NEA, the AFT, nevertheless, is very powerful. The federation is organized along labor union lines, attempts to unite teachers on the basis of their common economic interests as well as their professional ties, and has helped revolutionize the attitude of NEA leaders toward collective bargaining and the use of sanctions. Since its founding and issuance of its charters in 1916 by the American Federation of Labor, the AFT has exerted an influence totally out of proportion to the size of its membership in the space of a few years.

Among the objectives of the AFT in its constitution are the following:

1. To obtain exclusive bargaining rights for teachers and other educational workers, with the right to strike.

---

<sup>1</sup>Ronald G. Corwin, "The New Teaching Profession," in Teacher Education, the Seventy-Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Kevin Ryan, ed. (Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1975), p. 233.

2. To obtain for them all the rights to which they are entitled.
3. To bring association of teachers into relations of mutual assistance and cooperation.
4. To raise the standards of the teaching profession by securing the conditions essential to the best professional service.
5. To promote such a democratization of the schools as will enable them better to equip their pupils to take their place in the industrial, social, and political life of the community.
6. To promote the welfare of the children of the nation by providing progressively better educational opportunity for all.<sup>1</sup>

AFT's decision to promote collective bargaining in 1956 enabled the federation to rise rapidly in membership during the sixties and seventies. By 1975, the "Union" could boast of a membership of more than 450,000.<sup>2</sup>

Though the AFT historically has been more interested in the working conditions of teachers, it has also made important contributions to the professional aspects of teaching. According to Howsam,<sup>3</sup> AFT

. . . publications indicate breadth of professional interest, a depth in scholarly approaches to problems, and an increasingly important place for teacher education--particularly as it relates to an internship program for beginning teachers.

---

<sup>1</sup> American Federation of Teachers, Constitution of the American Federation of Teachers (Washington, D.C.: American Federation of Teachers, 1974), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup> Howsam, et al., p. 70.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid.

CHAPTER VI

COMPARISON AND ANALYSIS OF SECONDARY  
TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN  
IRAN AND THE UNITED STATES

In this chapter an analysis and comparison of the secondary teacher education practices in Iran and the United States is presented. This comparison is based on what has been depicted and analyzed in the preceding chapters. However, an attempt has been made to incorporate wherever appropriate selected new approaches, trends, and developments in the context of teacher education in the United States which might be useful to teacher education program planners and policymakers in Iran.

Before further proceeding (to analysis and comparison of the major aspects of the secondary teacher education in Iran and the United States) it is important to remember that regardless of how similar the pre-service education of teachers may be in the two countries, there are certain factors that must be considered before a comparison of the two systems may be undertaken. First of all, the people of these two countries live and work in two different contexts

in which the activities of other individuals constrain their own. Second, the conventions and assumptions upon which the two systems of education are based are historically so deeply rooted that this accounts for two apparently distinctive teacher education processes. Third, it also must be realized that teacher education and educators in the United States have been influenced by developments and discoveries in other systems of education. The same thing is true in Iran. Fourth, the political and social systems of these two countries are so dissimilar as to make it difficult for any policymaker to undertake total change in any sphere of policymaking such as the field of education.

It would be a mistake to assume that everything in the area of teacher education in the United States is worth copying or importing into Iran or that everything that has been done in Iran needs thorough revision in order to institute significant changes in the system. Perhaps it is best to sum up the essential difference between the two systems as follows: whereas in America, it is the community that sets the standards and values for teachers to perform, in Iran, it is the teacher who orients the community to values and standards set at the national level by the government. This difference is important because it explains fundamental differences in the behavior of teachers as a professional body in each country. It explains, at least in Iran, why the programs planned for the aspiring teachers are hardly discussed with

the lay people or the practitioner, whereas in America, constant efforts are made, through professional organizations, teachers associations, lobbyists and different schools of education to encourage faculty and interested parties to submit proposals for an array of programs. The extent of local autonomy and decentralized authority for the public control of education and teacher preparation in the United States have hardly ever been practiced in Iran, where only in recent years some measures of decentralization have begun.

This crucial fact, by itself, explains much of the different position of the teachers in the two countries. In the following sections, more differences and similarities have been explored.

#### Teacher Education Institutions

For several decades, teacher education in the United States has been fully incorporated into the universities. Single-purpose and exclusive teacher education institutions are practically non-existent at present in the United States. In 1974, of a total of 1,265 colleges and universities approved for teacher education, all were multi-purpose institutions except that ten--two public and eight private--teacher colleges remained, compared to sixteen--five public and eleven private--in 1970.<sup>1</sup>

The general outlines of the picture of the

---

<sup>1</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on Standards, 1974, p. 129.

corresponding institutions in Iran, that of teacher education establishments, are different. In Iran, more than half of the secondary teachers are prepared in single-purpose schools. It has been only in recent years that universities have started to play a role in teacher preparation and certificate programs. The promotion of the National Organization for Teacher Training and Educational Research to full status university in 1974, and the expansion of facilities along with the development of departments of education at other universities indicate the movement toward multi-purpose institutions. While American institutions of teacher education tend to offer programs both at the elementary and secondary levels, in Iran, elementary teacher education is not offered at the bachelor's degree level.<sup>1</sup> Each of the four-year institutions intended for teacher preparation educate only secondary teachers. This limitation is due to the fact that almost none of the normal schools have attempted to extend their programs, upgrade their instruction and offer courses at the college level. In the United States, many of the universities, multi-purpose colleges and teacher's colleges are the outgrowth of normal schools.<sup>2</sup> The recently established and rapidly growing number of schools offering teacher education

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, pp. 66-69.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, pp. 132-134.



programs in Iran, however, offer the feasibility of requiring higher academic standards for elementary teachers and the eventual transition of existing normal schools.

There has been tremendous pressure in both societies on institutions of teacher education. The major problem in Iran appears to be pressure for expansion. The number of applicants increasingly tends to exceed the number of available places. Rapid growth is likely to have adverse effects on faculty-student ratio. Such growth is being stimulated by a demand for more professionally prepared teachers and the concern for huge number of pupils who will eventually continue to secondary schools because of the relaxing of tuition charges.

The teacher education programs appear, thus far, to have been little affected by enrollment pressures and new teacher roles, and evidence little change in their scope of programs and the breadth of offerings over the past few years in Iran.

There is evidence in every part of the United States that the cries of inadequate preparation are being responded to in a number of sensible, relevant ways. Certain innovative teacher education programs are summarized here to illustrate the breadth of new trends in preparing teachers.

a) A definitive trend in American teacher education is that of single institutions offering multiple programs for prospective teachers. Certain teacher education

institutions have developed highly diversified programs which allow students a variety of choices depending on their interests and aptitudes. Most notable among such institutions are the University of Massachusetts, Indiana University and the University of California at Los Angeles. Urban Teacher Education Program, Off-Campus Teacher Education Program, Open Education, Explorations, Education in Community Services, Integrated-Day Teacher Education Program are some of the programs offered at the School of Education of the University of Massachusetts.

b) One of the most recent innovations is field based preservice teacher education (FBPTE). It is defined as:

an optimal mix of early and continuous developmental experiences, sequenced to meet the attitudinal and skill development needs of preservice teachers that occur in realistic educational settings with children.<sup>1</sup>

Teachers, administrators, parents, professional educators and scholars from various disciplines cooperatively plan and evaluate experiences of a FBPTE program. Eight responsibilities are to be assumed by the university faculties in planning, establishing and maintaining a FBPTE program:

- 1) to identify a rationale for establishing a FBPTE program;
- 2) to design a program sequence;
- 3) to identify and select a variety of learning

---

<sup>1</sup>Hans Anderson, "Role of the University in Field Based Preservice Teacher Education," Teacher Education Forum, vol. 4, No. 9 (May 1976) (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED. 128304).

experiences;

- 4) to design field experiences;
- 5) to identify sites and participating field agents;
- 6) to try-evaluate (continuous evaluation throughout the program development stages);
- 7) to provide participant pay off; and
- 8) to protect the faculty (to be aware of the time/energy factor because FBPTTE programs are more time and energy consuming than traditional programs).<sup>1</sup>

c) Another development which has had a profound influence throughout the United States is the competency-based approach to teacher education (CBTE), also called performance-based teacher education (PBTE). These programs have been established as a result of a dispassionate analysis of the competencies required by teachers, followed by systematic attempts to prepare prospective teachers for their skills. According to a recent issue of Phi Delta Kappan CBTE promises four sets of goals.

Long Range: 1. To improve quality of instruction in the nation's schools as a consequence of improved teacher education.

Intermediate Range: 1. To prepare knowledgeable and skillful teachers in a curriculum whose elements have been tested for validity against criteria of school effectiveness.

Short Range: 1. To identify tentative teacher competencies to prepare instructional materials and evaluation procedures, the teacher education curricula and promote teacher behavior research.

Immediate: 1. Stronger relationships between teacher

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

educators, public schools, and the organized teacher profession.

2. Greater student satisfaction with skill-oriented teacher education programs.

3. Increased accountability of teacher education programs.<sup>1</sup>

d) There are still other teacher education institutions where the emphasis is on "humanizing" the teacher education experience, which often means that the prospective teacher is expected to learn about himself as an individual before he can interact effectively with learners.

This school of thought, exemplified by the works of Arthur Combs and his Colleagues at the University of Florida, is in direct opposition to some basic principles upon which CBTE is based. In this program, teaching is considered as a "helping profession" and the importance of the "self" of the teacher is stressed. More explicitly, the teacher education program at the University of Florida is based on the following principles.

--People do only what they would rather do. That is, people behave according to choices they make from among alternatives they see available to them at the moment.

--Learning has two aspects: a) acquiring new information, and b) discovering the personal meaning of that information.

--It is more appropriate for people to learn a few concepts rather than many facts.

--Learning is much more efficient if the learner first feels a need to know that which is to be learned.

---

<sup>1</sup>Benjamin Rosner and Patricia M. Kay, "Will the Promise of C/PBTE Be Fulfilled," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. IV, No. 5 (January, 1974), pp. 290-294.

- No one specific item of information, and no specific skill, is essential for effective teaching.
- People learn more easily and rapidly if they help make the important decisions about their learning.
- Objectivity is not a valuable asset for a teacher. What is needed instead is concern for students.
- Teachers teach the way they have been taught--not the way they have been taught to teach.
- Pressure on students produces negative behaviors, such as cheating, avoidance, fearfulness, etc.
- Teachers would be more effective if they were self-actualizers. They should be creative, self-motivated, well-liked persons.<sup>1</sup>

e) A particular strategy, called teacher education centers, designed to facilitate the transition between pre-service and in-service education is just beginning to flourish in the United States. Teacher educators on campus have effected arrangements with public school systems for the support of center personnel who organize and implement both the pre-service and in-service activities within the center. One of the significant services of these centers is the efforts directed at improving the supervisory skills of the cooperating teachers so that they would become more effective themselves as teacher educators.

Other activities of such centers are attempts to provide answers for problems with which teacher education has been concerned for a long time. Some of the goals of

---

<sup>1</sup>Robert Blume, "Humanizing Teacher Education," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. LII, No. 7 (March, 1971), p. 412.

centers include:

- to link together pre-service and in-service education into one continuing program;
- to integrate curriculum development and staff development effectively;
- to facilitate communication between educational constituencies (students, teachers, administrators, college and university staff, interested community) in order to make the best use of available resources;
- to individualize professional growth--for the pre-professionals as well as for the practicing professionals.

It is expected that the Iranian educational authorities will expand provisions for the development of the student, for the preservation and advancement of knowledge, and for direct additional services which may enhance the attainment of goals set to transform the country to a dynamic and progressive one. In addition, each institution will set as its objective the development and maintenance of an environment wherein programs designed to achieve generally agreed upon goals may thrive.

#### Control and Accreditation

In regard to the question of where the right and responsibility to organize and operate the educational

system resides, in the United States and Iran, it is necessary to distinguish clearly between the nature of educational authority in the two systems. Since responsibility for education is not mentioned in the Constitution of the United States, the basic authority for planning, organizing and operating the educational system rests with the states.<sup>1</sup> Institutions of higher education are established by statutory enactments or the Constitutions of the states in which they are located. There is no federal or central authority that exerts any semblance of supervisory control over them. Even within the states, each college or university may be autonomous and independent of state agencies. Finally, each institution, public or private, organizes its program with a high degree of autonomy. The result is less uniformity in specifics than is the case among the Iranian institutions.

The two factors limiting the power of these institutions are the financial control exerted by local or state authorities who allocate funds received from taxes and federal support in the form of grants,<sup>2</sup> and the accrediting agencies. Ostensibly, these two factors, directly or indirectly, coordinate the activities of the universities, colleges and junior colleges in the United States

The independence and autonomy of American higher

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, pp. 119-120.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 122..

education has necessitated the assignment of a set of monitors in teacher education to recognize "the responsibility to guarantee a minimum level of acceptable performance on the part of the trainers and achievement on the part of the trainees."<sup>1</sup> More explicitly, accreditation serves the following purposes:

1. Service to the public. Accreditation is supposed to guarantee to the citizen quality in an institution of higher education.

2. Institutional improvement. Minimum standards, the initial accreditation, and the periodic reevaluation visits are seen as a major thrust for the improvement of teacher education.

3. Facilitating transfers. The establishment of national standards or norms allows college and university admissions officers to make easier and more rapid judgments regarding the admission or graduation of a student, and the movement of a student on to the next level of matriculation.

4. Raising standards of the profession. An important objective of accreditation is to raise the standards of education for the practice of a profession. Almost every profession has adopted accreditation as a means of suggesting how its practitioners should be prepared, and as necessary, of enforcing its ideas.

---

<sup>1</sup>Clark and Marker, op. cit., p. 64.



5. Information for prospective employers. Accreditation is taken as a proof of the quality of training which a graduate from the institution has received.<sup>1</sup>

In the United States, accreditation is usually compulsory at the state level, where an institution must be approved by the state if its graduates are to be eligible to receive certificates to teach. In the majority of states, the state board of education is assigned the responsibility for approving colleges and universities for the preparation of teachers.<sup>2</sup> In some states the chief state school officer is in charge of performing this function. In the states of Montana and Nevada, as well as the District of Columbia, there is neither a formal process for state approval of the teacher education institutions nor any legal authority for doing the same. However, Montana and Nevada rely on the accreditation of regional professional associations.<sup>3</sup>

The standards adopted by the states for the accreditation of teacher education institutions are among the factors which determine the content of the teacher education programs and the requirements for certification of teachers. In recent years a combination of state, regional, national

---

<sup>1</sup>Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., pp. 12-13.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on Standards, 1974, p. 129.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

and/or specialty group recommended criteria has been used by a growing number of states.<sup>1</sup>

In addition to state accreditation, American teacher education institutions may seek the recognition of the regional accrediting associations, of which there are six.<sup>2</sup>

These associations, functioning as voluntary agencies with only institutions as members, are intended for the improvement of college admission standards and requirements and the improvement of relations between the secondary schools and colleges.<sup>3</sup> They usually require the institutions to evaluate themselves and to provide the information their visiting teams require. The associations look for such educational specifications as admission and retention criteria, graduation requirements, and other aspects such as size of the library, the administrative staff, and sources of income, faculty salary and training, experience and teaching load and the provision for extra-curricular activities, for student health, and for the follow-up study of alumni.

To establish common standards of teacher education at the national level, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) was founded.<sup>4</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Supra, pp. 146-148.

<sup>3</sup>Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 173.

<sup>4</sup>Supra, pp. 148-156.

The Council conducts joint or independent evaluations in accordance with agreed upon policies and procedures. It looks for clarity and appropriateness of the teacher-education objectives, for the adequate arrangement of professional and academic courses, for the effectiveness of student personnel programs, and student teaching facilities.<sup>1</sup>

The 1974-1975 annual list of NCATE institutions represents about 40 percent or 540 of the total of 1,265 approved teacher education colleges and universities (see table 4, p. 153) leaving 725 without the Council's accreditation. Although NCATE institutions are preparing about four-fifths of the new teachers graduated each year, the large number of institutions not accredited by the Council present a real problem for the free movement of qualified teachers across state lines. However, many educators believe that the work of NCATE constitutes the real foundation for reciprocity. The trend is toward more states participating in reciprocity pacts. Table 4, p. 153 includes thirty-one states that grant reciprocity privileges in the certification of teachers who are graduates of NCATE accredited institutions.

By contrast, Iran does not practice accreditation; no voluntary accrediting agencies exist for that purpose. As has been pointed out in the second and third chapters of this investigation, the centralized systems of education that

---

<sup>1</sup>Mayor and Swartz, op. cit., pp. 55-56.

came into being since the late 1800's in Iran demand a uniformity in planning and management procedures that tend to favor certain kinds of educational programs--those that are highly detailed with most of the curricular items obligatory. The Ministry of Science and Higher Education possesses broad authority. This Ministry controls all colleges, universities, and institutions of higher learning even if they are part of, or sponsored by, other public or private agencies. The Ministry approves the degrees, curricula, faculties and rules and regulations promulgated by these institutions.<sup>1</sup> Although each institution of higher education has a board of regents, the concern of these boards appears to be with broad policies; generally in line with those of the Ministry. In other words, the policies and programs of each institution which is concerned with the preparation of teachers are to be approved by that Ministry. This is logical in the sense that the central government is (a) the major source of financial support, and (b) almost all the graduates of these schools are absorbed by the Ministry of Education. Teaching faculty may meet, deliberate and recommend, but the final authority legally resides with the Minister of Science and Higher Education.

At the present time in Iran there are clear trends toward locally-based decision-making. This shift to

---

<sup>1</sup>Ayman, op. cit., p. 10.

de-centralized authority should improve Iran's present conservative and peaked pyramid of hierarchies in decision making processes. It may be also a more realistic approach toward achieving change in education. The task may become one of fostering and enhancing local innovation, rather than implementing what may be an alien instructional plan.

However, a critical issue is associated with uniformity as against flexibility in teacher education. To what extent is it educationally and socially desirable to mandate a single program, however effective it seems, and thereby rule out competing alternatives? The lack of knowledge of the effects of various teacher education programs, as well as the apparently conflicting goals for the educational systems in either of the societies seems to favor the desirability of promoting diversity.

From an intensive study on the subject of accreditation, two purposes or functions emerge. The first is to establish a minimum level of competency by the practitioners of the profession, thus providing the public with qualified teachers. The second purpose is to stimulate the continuous development and improvement of the practitioners' competencies.

#### Student Admission and Retention

With reference to admission standards and qualifications, both countries regard high academic achievement as

the best indication of likely success in teaching.<sup>1</sup> Consideration is also given to characteristics such as mental health, emotional stability, maturity and personality. However, there are some variations in the degree of emphasis and process of selection in each country.

The selection of teacher trainees in the United States is done principally in two sequential stages: (1) the initial selection for admission to the institution; and (2) subsequent selection for the teacher education program. Screening after initial admission tends to be at the end of the sophomore year and limited mainly to a consideration of academic achievement. Subsequent evaluations and recommendations at three or more points in the student's preparation are made. Evaluations usually take place at staff meetings. Faculty members at some institutions keep records on students in the form of a series of comments or grades. If the student is considered to have the necessary qualities--personal, social, ethical fitness and academic ability--he will be approved for student teaching.<sup>2</sup>

In Iran, admission to the colleges and universities operates through the Centralized Entrance Examinations (CEE) once a year in the form of written tests. Each candidate indicates on his entry form the fields in which he

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, pp. 186-190.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, pp. 80-81.

wishes to pursue his studies in order of his preference. In addition to the general requirements, candidates for admission to secondary education programs should be (1) twenty-four years of age or younger; (2) not holding any jobs, either governmental or non-governmental jobs; and (3) not enrolled at another educational institution at the same time. Evaluations are usually in the form of mid-term and final examinations. A student is eligible to continue his studies and be qualified for student teaching if he maintains a grade-point average of 2.0 or higher (based on a 4.0 scale); otherwise he will be placed on probation.

#### Structure of Curriculum Content in Secondary Teacher Education

In the two countries under discussion, despite contextual differences, there are common characteristics among secondary teacher education programs that make this comparison possible.

In common with the Iranian situation, secondary teacher education programs in the United States can be placed under three categories: (1) general education, (2) specialized education, and (3) professional education. The particular semester-hour requirement within each of the three areas mentioned above varies from one institution to another depending upon the accredited approved program of each institution. So does the manner in which each is structured

into the four years of study in both countries.

In both societies, each student completing a certificate program is required to take some general education courses. The reason for this is the belief that a teacher should have a broad cultural background and be well-grounded in a wide variety of general subject areas.<sup>1</sup> Hours required in the general education program, among American institutions, ranged from forty-six to sixty semester hours for forty-three percent of the 440 respondents from a sample of 871 AACTE member institutions in June, 1973.<sup>2</sup> In the survey, however, extreme cases--less than thirty or over seventy-five semester hours--were not unusual. This is in contrast to the situation in almost all secondary teacher education institutions in Iran which require twenty semester hours of general education. However, in both systems, general education programs consist of courses in humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, mathematics, health and physical education. In most American institutions an interdisciplinary approach is used in the fields of English, the social sciences, and natural science. The trend is toward encouraging prospective teachers to participate in an experience focusing on the nature and implications of knowledge, in conjunction with general education studies.

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, pp. 87, 173-178.

<sup>2</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 64.



Alternative ways of learning, unique structures of knowledge in the different fields, linkages among concepts in the various disciplines, and the implications of these ideas for teaching are recommended by educators.<sup>1</sup>

Another point of contrast is the degree of emphasis being placed on the area of subject specialty of aspiring teachers in the two countries. It is well evidenced from the analysis of requirements for teaching specialization that the education of secondary teachers in America is much less subject-centered than it is in Iran, more attention being paid to teaching method and material than to mastery of the subjects that have to be taught.

Hours in academic specialization taken by secondary education students in the United States range from a low of eighteen to a high of forty-eight for teaching a subject full time.<sup>2</sup> The exact number of hours taken for the major field of study varies within some institutions according to the selected field, there being in these instances no attempt to standardize the requirement among the several subject matter departments.

In contrast to the above, an Iranian student majoring in any discipline must complete sixty hours of specialized education as a result of the heavy emphasis on the

---

<sup>1</sup>Howsam, et al., op. cit., p. 82.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett, A Manual on Standards, 1974, pp. 139-143.

content for the teaching specialty. As is depicted in Chapter III, p. 93, the student's minor field is expected to be related or closely related to his major. This means another twenty-six credit hours in one area of concentration. Furthermore, if the student chooses to further specialize his knowledge, which is expected, he can take another ten hours of related courses as electives. In this manner, a student accumulates as many as ninety-six hours in one area of concentrated study in an academic field. These extreme cases are prevalent in Iranian institutions, whereas in the United States, if a student elects the standard subject matter major of approximately thirty credit hours, he is required to do at least one minor of fifteen to twenty credit hours in another subject matter area. In lieu of the standard major/minor plan, however, students may pursue a comprehensive major in which case the minor is not mandatory. Another possible arrangement in some schools is for students to elect two thirty hour majors or a broad field major of approximately fifty to fifty-five credit hours instead of the conventional major/minor plan.

The third component is professional education which prepares the student to carry out the role of the teacher successfully, whether in the classroom, the school, or the community. The extent of work in this area varies among the institutions in the two societies, but the striking difference is not so much in the theoretical as it is in the

practical aspects of the secondary teacher education programs in Iran and the United States.

In both systems, students become acquainted with methods of teaching, learning theory, and behavioral and humanistic studies. Almost all of the trainees take both the psychology of adolescence and the psychology of childhood in order to study methods of psychology, child development, and other behavioral findings. All majors take courses in educational psychology and learning, courses which are designed to provide the student with a body of knowledge about teaching and learning which will provide the foundation for his performance as a teacher. In addition, there are also courses which give the student an orientation about the organization and structure of the educational system of each country. But a point of dispute is whether prospective teachers are given enough opportunities to observe, record, and analyze behavior--pupil behavior, teacher behavior (their own and others), and the interaction of teachers and pupils.

The total number of course hour requirements in professional education is usually from sixteen to twenty-five hours in American Institutions;<sup>1</sup> and for its counterpart, Iran, it ranges from eleven to thirty hours for

---

<sup>1</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 15.

all institutions on a semester system.<sup>1</sup> Whereas in Iran an average of only two hours is devoted to practical aspects, in the United States the field experience represents approximately one-third to half (fifty-four percent require between seven to fourteen semester hours)<sup>2</sup> of the total professional instructional program; and yet, students are required to spend an increasing number of hours on field experience.<sup>3</sup> This is due to the fact that "the 'better' programs attempt to integrate studies of learners with field work that illustrates development principles."<sup>4</sup> As indicated earlier, the majority of innovative programs are drastically field oriented. Theoretical knowledge is reinforced and augmented by practical application wherever possible.

Critics attack the separation of theory and practice. Students should have an opportunity to interrelate them much sooner than in the final year. Ideas about learning and the learner also favor early integration. Smith believes that a training program for a beginning teacher should consist of three interrelated parts: a theoretical component, a training component, and a teaching field

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, pp. 88-90, 180-185.

<sup>2</sup>Sherwin, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 24.

<sup>4</sup>Haberman and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 80.

component. He contends that theoretical knowledge is abstract and has little applicability to the real world.

If theoretical Knowledge is to become meaningful and relevant it must be adapted to suit the unique reality that exists.<sup>1</sup>

In the pre-service education of prospective teachers in Iran, there is not enough time provided for the development of the skills and abilities needed to be more concerned with diagnosis of pupils, planning, constructing and evaluating learning programs and learning to work with the students; for becoming more the manager of the means to acquire knowledge, rather than merely the transmitter of knowledge.

It has been mentioned earlier that subject-matter specialization is heavily emphasized, while other aspects of importance are somehow overlooked. A change needs to be made in this respect in that the number of hours required for specialization should be reduced somewhat; more serious attention should be paid to the change of attitudes--to the development of new attitudes toward students, work, and colleagues. This change of attitude also includes new attitudes toward educational innovations and debate, toward new working methods and toward other school levels and subjects other than the teacher's own specialization. Finally, professors who are involved in teacher education, whether in

---

<sup>1</sup>B. O. Smith, op. cit., p. 70.

the area of professional, general or specialized courses should provide experiences necessary in overcoming traditional concepts.

The role of professors is instrumental to the success of any improvement in teacher education. If they are to perform their tasks efficiently and effectively they need to be prepared for the new roles they are expected to perform. It is expected that educators will model the behavior they want prospective teachers to possess.

College instructors, professors and administrators will need to broaden their perception of what better teacher education calls for. As Houston has pointed out:

The people who design teacher education programs, implement them, interact with future and inservice teachers and evaluate the results of such programs--these are the people whose roles, tasks and perceptions must be changed.<sup>1</sup>

College instructors will need to alter their schedules to permit them to visit schools and hold training sessions, not only for the benefit of practicing teachers but for public school teachers who will assist in supervising and guiding student teachers.

Determining who are the people best qualified in terms of probity, expertise and performance to become

---

<sup>1</sup>Robert Howsam and W. Robert Houston, "Change and Challenge," in Competency-Based Teacher Education: Progress, Problems and Prospects, ed. by Robert Howsam and W. Robert Houston (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1972), p. 14.

teacher educators is a very important task. These are the people to rethink, redesign and reinstitute policies, practices and procedures in education. First-rate educators are absolutely essential if the quality of teacher education is to be improved.

### In-Service Education

The call for in-service education is the most urgent and demanding of the pressures exerted upon the education profession today. The changing concepts of the aims and values of education, the roles of the teacher and the functions of the school have grave implications for in-service education.<sup>1</sup>

The nature of in-service education in Iran is mostly remedial. The purpose of such a program is primarily to enable teachers to bridge the gap between what they are expected to know and do and what in fact their level of knowledge and their teaching competencies are.

The Department of In-Service Education of the Ministry of Education is responsible for planning and organizing these programs. Through its leadership, consultative and regulatory functions, the Department usually facilitates the establishment of local, regional, and nationwide in-service programs.

Unlike Iran, in-service education in the United

---

<sup>1</sup>The rationale, views and ideas of educators concerning in-service education are included in chapter V.

States has almost passed the stage of being 'remedial' in nature. It is an attempt to implement education-improvement activities, improve professional development, and meet the goals of personal growth.<sup>1</sup> Each local school system or individual school makes provisions for the in-service education of its teachers. To encourage classroom teachers to identify their school problems and work cooperatively for solutions, some local systems often set aside certain afternoons for joint action by teachers. Also, special courses are offered with the hope that teachers will be encouraged to pursue additional learning experiences.<sup>2</sup> More states, and additionally more local school districts, now formally require secondary teachers to have earned a graduate degree or graduate credits after their initial teaching certificate. In common with the United States, the roles of the Iranian universities are significant in helping to promote professional aid and academic advancement among the teachers through their departments of education.

Professional organizations in both countries, although in a more limited scope in Iran, have been another source of in-service education. Offering courses and workshops on subjects of interest, development of new curricular

---

<sup>1</sup>Bottoms, op. cit., p. 38.

<sup>2</sup>Progress of Education in the United States, p. 69.



materials and the dissemination of information on new techniques are part of that effort.

Also, state departments of education in the United States have been concerned with the promotion, encouragement and development of in-service programs for public school personnel. Special training centers providing resources and technical competence to local school districts that cannot afford their own programs are among efforts to enhance the capabilities of practicing teachers.<sup>1</sup>

Despite vast improvements in the qualifications of teachers through in-service education in Iran, there still remains much to be done in this area. There is still a great need to upgrade the abilities of many of the teachers hired to meet the "shortage" years which probably will extend well into the 1980's. Jobs have always been plentiful for teacher education graduates, regardless of the quality of their education or performance. These teachers who still have twenty or twenty-five years of teaching to be performed, deserve assistance in responding to the changing needs of the classroom and in learning to adapt their teaching techniques to the findings of modern research.

#### Teacher Organizations

Teacher organizations both in Iran and the United

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

States have undergone a dramatic change since the early 1960's; but the trend of change has been in opposing directions. Whereas American teacher organizations have become more militant (emphasizing political action, collective bargaining and teacher strikes for higher pay and better working conditions), the Iranian teacher association has re-oriented its priorities away from the provisions of concrete welfare benefits toward the articulation of professional goals for its members.<sup>1</sup>

There are two national organizations representing teachers in the United States: The National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT). In addition, there are state organizations and thousands of local associations, assuming that there is at least one association representing one of the 16,000 local districts in the United States.<sup>2</sup>

Social fellowship, better salaries and improved conditions for teachers in the system, service to school and community, and general advancement of the profession are among the services usually rendered by local associations.<sup>3</sup> At the state level, education associations render their largest service in interpreting educational problems to the

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, pp. 106-108.

<sup>2</sup>Stinnett and Cleveland, op. cit., p. 89.

<sup>3</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers, p. 372.

public, publications, promoting legislation favorable to the school system and to the teaching profession, fact finding or research, teacher welfare and other services.<sup>1</sup>

Established in 1857, the NEA is the largest professional organization in the world.<sup>2</sup> Its membership now numbers over 1.8 million, or 75.4 percent of the American teachers.<sup>3</sup> There is at least one NEA affiliate in each state. There are also nearly 500 state-wide NEA associations most of which serve special interests of teachers.<sup>4</sup>

The NEA works through its seventeen headquarters divisions, thirty-four departments, thirty-five commissions and committees, one council, and a staff of over 1,100 persons to carry out its policies.<sup>5</sup> It has a research division which is the only source of the most recent national data on education.

The thirty-four departments reflect the wide diversity of the activities of the NEA. The largest is the Department of Classroom Teachers which includes approximately 85 percent of the NEA membership. The department maintains several publications and provides superior in-service

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 377-379.      <sup>2</sup>Supra, p. 197.

<sup>3</sup>National Education Association, NEA Handbook, 1976-1977, p. 147.

<sup>4</sup>Stinnett and Cleveland, op. cit., p. 88.

<sup>5</sup>Stinnett, Professional Problems, pp. 384-385.

opportunities for teachers, and these activities have served as effective laboratories for the development of professional leadership. Other activities of the department are annual regional conferences in six regions of the United States in addition to its annual national conference which is conducted on a college-credit, in-service workshop.<sup>1</sup>

The publications of the Department of Classroom Teachers include (1) the News Bulletin, which provides information concerning the purpose, activities and achievements of local associations and state departments of the classroom teachers; (2) the Official Report which is published annually to make available to members information concerning the accomplishments of the NEA Department of Classroom Teachers; and (3) a series of Discussion Pamphlets. The titles of some of these pamphlets are impressive and revealing. Among others they comprise Teacher Tenure, Paying for Schools, Ethics for Teachers, Credit Union for Teachers, Salary Scheduling, School Marks and Promotion, Teacher Rating, Lifetime Standards of Preparation, Democracy in School Administration, Teacher Retirement, and Teacher Leaves of Absence. School administrators are members of departments such as the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and the Department of Elementary School Principals. Other departments

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 390-391.

include art education, educational research, foreign languages and speech.

The NEA exerts great influence on teacher certification. The prerequisite for membership of at least a bachelor's degree and for a regular teaching certificate must definitely influence certification criteria of various states. The association strongly supports control of entry and continuation in the teaching profession by members of the profession. A detailed description of goals, objectives and multiplicity of services provided for the teachers of the United States by so large and complex an organization as the NEA is impossible here. It suffices only to note that the NEA and its various units publish more than twenty professional journals and more than two hundred other publications annually.

Another national teacher organization is the American Federation of Teachers. Organized along labor union lines since its foundation in 1916, it attempts to unite teachers on the basis of their common economic interests as well as their professional ties.<sup>1</sup> The AFT has exerted an influence totally out of proportion to the size of its membership (450,000 in 1975) in the space of a few years. As a competitor to NEA, it has helped to cause a dramatic change that took place in the NEA's policy toward

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, pp. 200-201.

collective negotiations.

Prior to the 1960's, the NEA had condemned collective bargaining, strikes, and affiliation with labor movements. The victory of the AFT in New York City, the dissatisfaction of urban teachers with the NEA's limited approach to improving teacher welfare gradually revolutionized the attitude of NEA leaders toward collective bargaining and the use of sanctions. During the 1960-61 school year there were only three teacher strikes nationwide, but by the 1970-71 school year the number had grown to 180 nationwide. During the decade over five hundred strikes occurred, and two-thirds of the more than 500,000 teachers who participated were members of the NEA or its affiliates.<sup>1</sup>

In contrast to NEA and AFT, the Society of Secondary School Teachers in Iran is sponsored by the Ministry of Education; it is a governmental organization available only to secondary school teachers with special subject matter interests. Although it is intended to improve the social and educational morale of secondary teachers, the association is viewed by the typical teacher as an extension of the larger system of government. This group is unaffiliated with the trade union and it has no right to political activities, collective bargaining, strikes or the use of

---

<sup>1</sup>National Center for Education Statistics, 1976 ed., op. cit., p. 131.

sanctions. Being civil servants, the salary and working conditions of teachers are affected only through acts of congress. Congressional amendments or decisions at the Ministerial level also affect the curriculum and the adoption of textbooks in Iran.

An overall assessment of the effectiveness of the Society of Secondary School Teachers in Iran is extremely difficult because frequently there is a considerable difference between what the Ministry of Education aims to accomplish (the stated goals)<sup>1</sup> through the association and the work that is actually done. Probably the best way of summarizing the role of the teacher's organization in Iran is to say that it is potentially instrumental in helping teachers gain a greater awareness of their responsibilities and importance in the development of their country. Through its efforts to improve the quality of instruction and in its support of educational innovations it can effect important changes in the educational system. As it attempts to expand the organization to unite both elementary and secondary teachers and provides more services to the teachers and nation it should become a more effective agency in guiding policy-makers in the government of Iran.

---

<sup>1</sup>Supra, p.106.

## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations based on the study. The purpose, design and methodology, findings and conclusions are presented first. Recommendations are presented in the section which follows.

#### Summary and Conclusions

##### Summary

The purposes of this study were twofold: the first was to identify and analyze the major characteristics of secondary teacher education programs in Iran in comparison with programs of teacher education institutions in the United States. The second was to develop recommendations directed towards the improvement of teacher education programs in Iran.

For the purpose of the study, the survey method of investigation was utilized. A collection of detailed descriptions of existing conditions with the intent of employing the data to justify conditions, or to make plans



for improvement is required by the method.

To collect detailed data, the available literature on teacher education in the United States and Iran was reviewed. Factors which seemed more contributive to the quality of teacher and teacher education were extracted. For the purpose of comparison, the following areas were selected: (1) types of teacher institutions, their control and accreditation; (2) selection and retention of education students; (3) major components in the education of teachers; (4) student teaching programs; (5) certification of teachers; (6) in-service education programs; and (7) the influence of teacher organizations on education and the education of teachers. The cultural history of the United States and Iran provided backgrounds for understanding the current status of teacher education programs in the two nations.

For purpose of analysis, the qualitative and the quantitative forms of expression were used. Tables, charts and figures were employed in presenting the data.

In the previous chapter the similarities and differences were identified and discussed and their implications for the improvement of Iranian teacher education were presented. Certain innovative programs were also incorporated into the comparison in order to illustrate new trends in preparing teachers in the United States.

### Findings

The specific results of the investigation pointed

up some similarities and contrasts. The comparison revealed that:

1. The United States and Iran were similar in the way university and college courses were organized. The introduction of credit hours as a way of reorganizing Iranian institutions of higher education held promise for greater flexibility.

2. In a typical four-year program 120 or 140 semester hours of credit in an American or an Iranian higher education institution, respectively, had to be obtained. To graduate, a certain standard had to be achieved. A minimum grade point average of 2.0 was required in both countries, but a substantial number of American institutions had been demanding a higher average in a student's major subject.

The investigation also revealed some differences as follows:

1. Almost all American teachers tended to receive their education in multi-purpose institutions, whereas in Iran secondary teacher preparation was mostly the work, not of the universities, but of the colleges or departments of education.

2. A high degree of selectivity operated in Iranian collegiate education which served to place only the more academically able students in college and university classrooms, while in the United States, the open admission policy facilitated the participation of a high percentage of students

in higher education.

3. The institutions of teacher education in Iran did not have as much freedom of organizing their programs and establishing their standards as their counterparts in the United States.

4. The normal pattern of teacher education programs in the United States was much broader and less specialized than its counterpart, Iran, where academic specialization was heavily emphasized.

5. Professional education tended to be emphasized more in teacher education institutions in the United States than in Iran.

6. The same pattern of contrast also held for student teaching which received little attention on a nationwide basis in Iran, while in the United States, there was a tendency to move teacher preparation programs, both preservice and inservice, away from the campus to sites in public school districts.

7. Other findings of the study revealed that the nature of inservice education in Iran was more remedial than in the United States, where education-improvement activities, professional development, and personal growth were emphasized.

8. Finally, it was found that while American teacher organizations--as autonomous entities--offered professional leadership at the national and state levels, they were gradually becoming more influential in the design of teacher

education programs. This was in contrast to the Iranian case where teacher associations, organized along governmental lines, had reoriented their priorities away from the provision of concrete welfare benefits toward the articulation of professional goals for its members.

### Conclusions

The study brought out the need for change in the structure and methodology of teacher education programs in Iran. In the critical analysis of the Iranian teacher education programs, the need for adjustment and modification in order to produce competent teachers was stressed. The professional education sequences, while concentrating on behavioristic and humanistic studies, needed to incorporate learning and teaching theory and some laboratory and clinical experiences. While increasing the students' knowledge of theoretical principles, their practical experiences needed to be emphasized if the principle that a teacher's education must be both general and specialized and both practical and theoretical was to be practiced.

The importance of field experience, including student teaching as the central and integrating element in the professional education of teachers, as well as the crucial position of the cooperating teacher during the practicum needed to be emphasized in Iran.

The emerging roles of teachers need to be capitalized

on if teachers in Iran are to be able to cope with the array of differences among students now entering secondary schools--differences in ability, attainment, interest, life-style, motivational pattern and background. The education of teachers should be centered on the roles they must play in human resource development plans that hope to contribute to the more rapid modernization and building of a dynamic Iran. It was emphasized that a modern education would expect teachers to be (1) competent in diagnosis of student needs in order to prescribe the right kind of activities and resources for learning; (2) counselors, helping students to make decisions about specified courses and activities in keeping with their interests, abilities and motivations; (3) managers of the means to acquire knowledge and instructional facilitators; (4) skilful in the use of media for the instruction of students; (5) researchers and scholars, engaging in activities as will enhance the teaching-learning process; (6) innovators and receptive to innovations, produce changes by encouraging, testing and bringing about changes in the classroom and in the system; (7) persons, willing to empathize with students, understand their values, help them to develop self-awareness as a means of self-actualization.

Initiative should come from professors involved in teacher education, whether in the area of professional, general or specialized courses, in providing experiences necessary to overcome traditional concepts. They need to

broaden their perception of what better teacher education calls for. College instructors, professors and administrators must be prepared for the new roles they are expected to perform. Their expertise and performance are absolutely essential in the preparation of competent teachers.

Changes are necessary in the status of the teachers' organization. Its role is instrumental in promoting professional excellence among educators, securing professional autonomy, protecting the welfare of practitioners and enhancing the wellbeing of the children of the nation by providing progressively better educational opportunities for all.

### Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study as well as on the literature on suggested reforms and innovations in the preparation of secondary teachers, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

1. A Task Force should be established, charged with the development of criteria for the evaluation of current programs of teacher education in Iran. The criteria should carefully consider characteristics of good teacher education programs, especially those in the United States and the identification of those competencies regarded as most crucial for effective teaching in secondary schools. The Task Force should also be responsible for: a) facilitating the collaboration of professional educators, administrators, teachers,

parents, and the general public as members of the Task Force; b) institutionalizing the forms of this collaboration and to devise ways and means of communication between the parties; c) developing a commitment to the importance of the task among all members of the Task Force; d) ensuring that faculty members from each discipline are involved in the task in ways they find rewarding; and e) improving new relations with public schools with emphasis on involving them more directly in teacher preparation.

2. A basis of future programs of secondary teacher education should be the broad areas of identified competencies and expected teacher roles.

3. The programs of secondary teacher education should be based upon planning which integrates the major components of the program, general education, specialization and professional education in a developmental sequence.

4. The design of secondary teacher education should include a continuous interlocking relationship between practice and theory. This means contributive related field experiences, and student teaching related to theory course.

5. Single-purpose colleges of education should be expanded to multi-purpose institutions with the content of professional courses for teachers to be determined by members of the profession; and specialized subject courses should remain under the control of the professors of non-professional subjects.

6. A media center should be established, with library facilities, housed within the complex or in close proximity. The center should be used as a data bank for the storage and retrieval of instructional materials. Provision should be made for the training of college instructors and teacher trainees in the use of audio-visual equipment.

7. More provisions should be made for the re-orientation of teacher educators to the responsibilities of the teacher's role. Seminars and workshops should be organized to bring them up to date with the new approaches to teacher education. Teacher educators should take an active part in reorganizing their programs; they should learn to operate as teams, and use an interdisciplinary approach to teaching.

8. Annual follow-up studies of teacher education graduates should be implemented to provide immediate feedback to the faculty regarding the perceived value of the programs which they completed.

9. The total program for the preparation of secondary teachers must be evaluated, not as an end in itself, but as a means to provide a basis for continuous self-appraisal on the part of those taking part in the process. The goal is to incorporate mechanisms of self-renewal in every aspect of the process of educating teachers.

10. Social maturity, scholastic aptitude, evaluations



of the personality and character of prospective candidates should constitute the measures for both selection and retention in teacher education.

11. An introductory education course should be offered at the freshman level. Changes should allow the student to determine, at this level of education, if teaching is likely to be a desirable profession for him/her.

12. Teacher education should set its policies in such a way that makes it possible to divert trainees who appear to be non-promising or unenthusiastic about the profession of teaching.

13. Students' class loads should be reduced so that the habits of self-study, self-development, self-renewal and self-direction can be emphasized.

14. The number of hours required for specialization should be reduced somewhat. More express attention and time should be provided for laboratory experience, field experience and student teaching.

15. The education courses and teaching practice components of the program need to involve developmental, graduated experiences, beginning as soon as students enter a teacher preparation program.

16. A regularly scheduled seminar should be held, concurrent with the student teaching experience and directed by college supervisors, to include students of teaching, principals, cooperating teachers, and other support

personnel.

17. Cooperating teachers must be provided the opportunity of participating in an inservice program, preferably for credit, dealing specifically with the supervision of student teaching.

18. Group dynamics, group conversations, refresher courses and graduate work should constitute a continuation of pre-service education of teachers. Critical appraisal of phenomena and problems, following of educational research and development work and knowledge of the most recent findings in the field are also included.

19. The teachers' organization in Iran should be reorganized and strong leadership provided in order to:

- a) allow practicing teachers to participate more directly in planning and developing programs of secondary school teachers;
- b) develop the capacity of the teachers to take part in the decision-making process and to take responsibility for their own working situations.

20. Finally, the education of teachers must capitalize on the importance of respect for the human dignity and personality of the student and respect for his right to personal development. This demands the requisite objectivity of teachers to provide neutral information on controversial issues concerning attitudes toward life and views of society.

Because Iran is a different social, economic and political entity than the United States, it is recognized

that many recommendations made herein will be difficult to implement. It is believed, however, that a purposeful movement in the directions identified can be made and the net result should be extremely beneficial to the educational system and programs in Iran.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### Books

- Arasteh, Reza. Education and Social Awakening in Iran: 1950-1968. 2nd ed. Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1969.
- Avery, Peter. Modern Iran. London: Ernest Benn Ltd., 1965.
- Banani, Amin. The Modernization of Iran, 1921-1941. Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University Press, 1961.
- Binder, Leonard. Iran: Political Development in a Changing Society. Berkeley & Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1962.
- Browne, Edward G. The Persian Revolution: 1905-1909. London: Frank Cass & Co., 1966.
- Brubacher, John S. A History of the Problems of Education. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966.
- Bruner, Jeromes. The Process of Education. New York: Vintage Books, 1960.
- Burns, Edward, and Ralph, Philip. World Civilization: from Ancient to Contemporary. New York: W. W. Morton & Co., 1964.
- Cameron, George G. History of Early Iran. New York: Greenwood Press, 1968.
- Conant, James B. The Education of American Teacher. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963.
- Coombs, Philip H. The World Educational Crisis. New York: Oxford University Press, 1968.
- Dehghan, Ali. Teacher Education in France, England, and Iran. Tehran, Iran: University of Tehran Press, 1950.

- Frye, Richard N. The Golden Age of Persia. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1975.
- Frye, Richard N. Iran. New York: Henry Holt Co., 1953.
- Furter, Pierre. Possibilities and Limitations of Functional Literacy: the Iranian Experiment. Paris: UNESCO, 1973.
- Grieder, Calvin; Pierce, Truman M.; and Jordan, K. Forbis. Public School Administration. 3rd ed. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1969.
- Haberman, Martin; Stinnett, T. M. Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1973.
- Hallak, J.; Cheikhestani, M.; and Varlet, H. The Financial Aspects of First-level Education in Iran. Paris: UNESCO, 1972.
- Harris, Ben M.; Bessent, Wailand; and McIntyre, Kenneth E. In-service Education: a Guide to Better Practice. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.
- Itzkoff, Seymour W. A New Public Education. New York: David McKay Co., 1976.
- Keppel, Francis. The Necessary Revolution in American Education. New York: Harper & Row, 1966.
- Kinney, Lucien B. Certification in Education. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1964.
- Koerner, James. The Miseducation of Teachers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1963.
- Lenczowski, George. The Middle East in the World Affairs. 3rd ed. New York: Cornell University Press, 1962.
- Lindsey, Margaret; and Associates. Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College Press, 1969.

- Nakosteen, Mehdi. History of Islamic Origins of Western Education. Boulder, Col.: University of Colorado Press, 1964.
- Pulliam, John D. History of Education in America. 2nd ed. Columbia, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1976.
- Renner, John W.; Bibens, Robert F.; and Shepherd, Gene D. Guiding Learning in the Secondary School. New York: Harper & Row, 1972.
- Richardson, Cyril A.; Brule, Helen; and Snyder, Harold E. The Education of Teachers in England, France, and the United States. Paris: UNESCO, 1953.
- Rippa, S. Alexander. Education in a Free Society. 3rd ed. New York: David McKay Co., 1976.
- Sadig, Issa. Modern Persia and Her Educational System. New York City: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1931.
- Sherwin, Susan S. Teacher Education: A Status Report. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and Educational Testing Service, 1974.
- Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the Classroom. New York: Random House, 1970.
- Smith, B. Othanel. Teachers for the Real World. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969.
- Smith, Harvey H.; Cover, William W.; Folan, John B.; Messenburg, Michael L.; Szentadony, Julius; and Telki, Suzanne. Area Handbook for Iran. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.
- Stinnett, T. M. Professional Problems of Teachers. 3rd ed. New York: McMillan Co., 1968.
- Syliowicz, Joseph. Education and Modernization in the Middle East. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1973.
- Van Dalen, Deobold B. Understanding Educational Research: An Introduction. 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973.

UNESCO. Further Education of Teachers in Service in Asia: A Regional Survey. Bangkok: UNESCO, Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1973.

UNESCO. Teacher Education in Asia, A Regional Survey. Bangkok: Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1972.

Waterfield, Robin E. Christians in Persia. New York: Barnes and Noble, 1973.

Wesley, Edgar B. National Education Association: the First Hundred Years. New York: Harper, 1957.

Wilber, Donald N. Iran: Past and Present. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1975.

Wilson, S. G. Persian Life and Customs. New York: Fleming H. Revell Co., 1895.

#### Articles and Periodicals

Anderson, Hans. "Role of the University in Field Based Preservice Teacher Education." In Teacher Education Forum, May 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 128 304)

Arasteh, Reza. "The Growth of Higher Education in Iran." International Review of Education, 7 (1961).

Baldwin, George. "Iran's Experience with Manpower Planning: Concepts, Techniques, and Lessons." In Frederick Harbison and Charles Myers, eds., Manpower and Education. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.

Blume, Robert. "Humanizing Teacher Education." In Phi Delta Kappan, March 1971.

Bottoms, Gene. "Responsibilities of Local School Systems, State Departments of Education/Institutions of Higher Education, and Professional Organizations for In-service Education." In Rethinking In-Service Education. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1975.

- Butts, R. Freeman. "Teacher Education: A Focal Point." In Education and the Development of Nations, ed. by John W. Hanson and Cole S. Brembeck. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966.
- Clark, David L.; and Marker, Gerald. "The Institutionalization of Teacher Education," in Teacher Education: the Seventy-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, ed. by Kevin Ryan. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975.
- Corwin, Ronald G. "The New Teaching Profession," in Teacher Education, the Seventy-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, ed. by Kevin Ryan. Chicago, Illinois: the University of Chicago Press, 1975.
- Eslami-Nodushan, Mohammad Ali. "The Influence of European Literary Modernization in Iran." Middle East Journal, Autumn 1969.
- Harris, Ben M. "In-Service Growth--the Essential Requirement." Educational Leadership, December 1966.
- Houston, Robert W. and Howsam, Robert W. "CBTE: the Ayes of Texas." In Phi Delta Kappan, January 1974.
- Howe II, Harold. "Improving Teacher Education through Exposure to Reality." In New Perspectives on Teacher Education, ed. by Donald J. McCarthy and Associates. San Francisco, Cal.: Jossey-Bass, 1973.
- Howsam, Robert W. and Houston, Robert W. "Change and Challenge." In Competency-Based Teacher Education: Progress, Problems and Prospects, ed. by Robert Howsam and W. Robert Houston. Chicago: Science Research Associations, 1972.
- Larson, Rolf W. "Accreditation: Some Professional Problems." Learning Today, Summer 1972.



- Lynch, James and Plunkett, H. Dudley. "Introduction." In Teacher Education and Cultural Change: England, France, and West Germany. James Lynch, and H. Dudley Plunkett, Hamden, Connecticut: Shoe String Press, 1973.
- McCarthy, Donald J. "Responsibility of the Dean for Reform." In New Perspectives on Teacher Education, ed. by Donald J. McCarthy and Associates. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass, 1973.
- Rosner, Benjamin; and Kay, Patricia M. "Will the Promise of C/PBTE Be Fulfilled?" Phi Delta Kappan, January 1974.
- Stinnett, T. M.; and Cleveland, Raymond E. "The Politics and Rise of Teacher Organization." In Policy Issues in Education, ed. by Allan C. Ornstein, Steven I. Miller. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Co., 1976.
- Wiggins, Sam P. "The Teacher Education Market Paradox." In The Journal of Teacher Education, Fall 1974.
- Woodring, Paul. "Development of Teacher Education." In New Directions in Teacher Education. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957.

#### Documents

- Bureau of Census. 1970 Census of Population. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1972.
- "Bylaws and Curriculum of the Normal Schools." Tehran, Iran: Approved by the High Council of Education, 103rd session, June 25, 1973. Mimeographed. (In Persian)
- "Bylaws for the Establishment of Secondary Teachers' Organizations." Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, Department of Secondary Education Planning, February 1972. (In Persian)

Comprehensive Plan of the University of Teacher Education. Tehran, Iran: University of Teacher Education Press, September 1974. (In Persian)

Constitution of the Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers. Approved by the High Council of Education, 105th session. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, February 1973. Mimeographed. (In Persian)

Detailed Curriculum for Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers. Approved by the High Council of Education, 145th session. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, April 1975. Mimeographed. (In Persian)

The Education Professions, 1971-1972. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.

Fundamental Rules and Regulations for Graduates of Normal Schools (revised). Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, 1946. (In Persian)

In-service Education Programs: 1976. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, Department of In-service Education, 1976. (In Persian)

Institute of International Studies, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Educational System of Iran (reprint). Washington, D.C.: Institute of International studies (DHEW), 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 104 741)

Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education. Statistics of Higher Education in Iran: 1975-1976. Tehran, Iran: Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Press, 1976.

Ministry of Education, 139th Session of the Ministry of Education, December 5, 1974. (In Persian)

Ministry of Education. The New Secondary Education System in Iran. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, the Department of Research and Curriculum Development, August 1975. Mimeographed. (In Persian)

Ministry of Education. Summary of Educational Statistics: 1975-1976. Tehran, Iran: Department of Coordination for Educational Plans, Bureau of Statistics, 1976. (In Persian)

Ministry of Education, Department of Research and Curriculum Planning. Detailed Curriculum for the Guidance Cycle Teacher Training Centers. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, Department of Research and Curriculum Planning, March 1972. (In Persian)

Ministry of Education, Department of Teacher Training. Allocation of Students of Educational Districts to Normal Schools and Teacher Training Centers: 1976-1977. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, Unit of Planning, Issue No. 14, July 1976. (In Persian)

Ministry of Education, Office of Teacher Training. Estimated Statistics of Normal Schools and Teacher Training Centers: 1975-76. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, Office of Teacher Training, Issue No. 13, March 1976. (In Persian)

Ministry of Information and Tourism. Basic Facts about Iran. 3rd ed. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Information and Tourism, Publications Department, November 1974.

Ministry of Information. Iran. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Information Press, 1971.

Ministry of Science and Higher Education. "Charter of Education Revolution." In Education Revolution Conference, by Ministry of Science and Higher Education. Ramsar, Iran: Ministry of Culture and Arts Press, August 1968.

Ministry of Science and Higher Education. Eighth Conference on the Evaluation of the Revolution in Education. (Ramsar, August 30-September 4, 1975) Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Information and Tourism, March 1976. (In Persian)

Ministry of Science and Higher Education. Remarks by His Imperial Majesty the Shahanshah Aryamehr and the Resolution of the Seventh

Conference on the Evaluation of the Revolution in Education. Ramsar, Iran: Ministry of Science and Higher Education, September 1974.

National Center for Education Statistics. The Condition of Education, 1976. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976.

Office of Councils. A Guide to the University of Teacher Education: 1975-76. Tehran, University of Teacher Education Press, 1975. (In Persian)

Plan and Budget Organization. Fourth National Development Plan, 1968-1072. Tehran, Iran: Plan and Budget Organization, 1968.

Plan and Budget Organization. Progress Report on Development Projects in the First Three Years of the Fourth Plan (March, 1968-1971). Tehran, Iran: Plan and Budget Organization, Bureau of Information & Public Relations, n.d.

Plan and Budget Organization. A Summary of Iran's Fifth National Development Plan 1973-1978 (revised). Tehran, Iran: Plan and Budget Organization, May 1975.

Report on the Accomplishments of the University of Teacher Education in the Academic Year 1975-76. Tehran, Iran: University of Teacher Education Press, 1976. (In Persian)

Sheikh-ul-Islami, Rahim. A Report on Teacher Recruitment. Tehran, Iran Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education, 1976. (In Persian)

Stephano, M. W. Teacher Training for the Elementary and Guidance Cycle Schools of Iran. Tehran, Iran: Near East Foundation, 1972.

Toussi, Mohammad Ali. Present Educational System of Iran. Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, General Department of Planning and Studies, 1968.

#### Association Publications

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Recommended Standards for Teacher

Education, 1969.

American Federation of Teachers. Constitution of the AFT. Washington, D.C.: American Federation of Teachers, 1974.

Armstrong, W. Earl; Stinnett, T. M. A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1964.

Bazargan, Abbas. Selection of College Freshmen in Iran. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 106 353) Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.: March 30-April 3, 1975.

Haberman, Martin. Guidelines for the Selection of Students into Programs of Teacher Education. Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators and ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1972.

Howsam, Robert B.; Corrigan, Dean C.; Denemark, George W.; and Nash, Robert J. Educating a Profession. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1976. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 117 053)

National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification. Standards for State Approval of Teacher Education. 4th ed., 1971 (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 062 278)

National Education Association. NEA Handbook, 1976-1977. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1976.

National Education Association. Teachers Can Change Teacher Education by Influencing State Approval and National Accreditation. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Division of Instruction and Professional Development, 1976.

National Education Association. Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1973. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1974.

National Education Association. Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1974.  
Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1975.

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. Twenty-First Annual List.  
Washington, D.C.: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 1974.

Stinnett, T. M. A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1970.

Stinnett, T. M. A Manual on Standards Affecting School Personnel in the United States.  
Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Division of Instruction and Professional Development, June 1974.

Vansickle, Ronald L. Measurement Issues and Competency-Based Teacher Certification.  
Paper presented to the Annual Meeting of the National Council for Social Studies, 1975. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 118 560)

World Confederation of Organization of the Teaching Profession. WCOTP Annual Report.  
Washington, D.C.: WCOTP, 1969.

#### Encyclopedias and Yearbooks

Encyclopedia Americana. 1973 ed.. s.v. "The United States."

The Europa Yearbook, World Survey. 1977 ed., s.v. "Iran."