Chapter II
Review of Related Literature

Introduction

Teacher education is one of the oldest concerns of post-secondary institutions for the retention of a common heritage through transmission of knowledge and skills to the young, as well as the development of personal attitudes and abilities necessary for dealing with societal change, is a persistent need of mankind. Only recently, however, have systematic investigations been undertaken in an effort to improve this area of study. Such a task is a formidable one that is complicated by two factors: the “knowledge explosion” and the changing needs of a dynamic society.

First, the basic knowledge is expanding at an ever increasing rate due to the large technological advancement. Existing knowledge is continually refined and supplanted by new knowledge. This “knowledge explosion” not only imposes demands upon educators in keeping abreast with current educational thought, it also complicates the task of students in selecting the content of educational pursuits.

Further, additional demands upon the teacher educator depend on the dynamic nature of society. Clearly, societal needs of the future will differ from these present. Hence, not only must teacher education be relevant to the present it must also serve the needs of the future when the breadth of knowledge is expanded still further. The problems imposed by the “knowledge explosion” and changing societal needs are particularly acute in Iran, a nation which is undergoing a period of rapid growth due largely to the exportation of oil, investment in diverse economic sectors, industrialization, and mechanization of rural areas. These influences have brought an unprecedented demand for improved educational systems. Consequently, Iranian educators must reevaluate existing teacher education programs in terms of the changing needs of Iranian society.

In the pages that follow, a review of the literature concerning Teacher Education in other countries as well as literature published by UNESCO is presented in an effort to
identify projected trends in teacher education which can be related to Teacher Education in West Azerbaijan Iran.

_ Dariush Norouzi_ (1997) has conducted a study on professional efficiency of the faculty members in Allameh Tabataba'i University. In this study, the researcher has investigated the status of the efficiency of the faculty members and included the factors which affect their efficiency.

_ Gholamreza Nderizadeh_ (2002) has conducted a study on the theoretical and philosophical aspects of training in-service and its coordination with the Islamic education system. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the theoretical and philosophical aspects of training in-service with Islamic education system. In this study, teachers training in-service programs are defined as continuing and lifelong learning process which is necessary for all teachers during their service.

_ Ali Malekzadeh_ (2003) has studied the viewpoint of the faculty members on the training activities of the training and research center of Kerman Medicine University. The research was mainly confined to the training programs offered by the Training and Research Center of Kerman Medicine University. According to the results of this study, 91.6% of the faculty members and university teachers were interested to participate in training activities.

_ Nahid Beheshti_ (2005) has conducted a study on the efficiency of the training in-service programs for university teachers conducted in Management and Planning Organization for Educational Management in Tehran State from the viewpoint of the participants in the courses. The results of the study show that the participants of the training in-service courses believed on positive effects of training programs offered by Management and Planning Organization for Educational Management. However, most of these studies conducted to investigate the teachers' in-service training programs focused on school teachers.
Abbas Tarighi Taher (1999) has investigated the existing barriers and faults in short-term training programs offered by Education Department in Hamadan. According to the results of this study, there is a gap and significant difference between the present situation and desired one. The findings of the study reflected that because of the poor effect of participation in such courses on the academic staff career promotion and placement, the staff are not motivated and shows unwillingness to participate in training in-service courses.

Fahimeh Nasiri (2004) has studied the feasibility of establishing of virtual training in-service programs in Education Ministry of Iran. This study was conducted to prove the existing facilities of the human resources training and development departments located in Education Ministry of Iran to find out whether it is possible to establish virtual training in-service programs or not. If it is possible, the structure, mode of transaction, participants, educational materials, etc. is investigated. The research presented has a picture which establishes that establishment of virtual training in-service programs according to the viewpoint of the training in-service experts of Education Ministry of Iran are possible. Such programs will be practical for a highly qualified managerial society.

UNESCO (1972) has conducted a study on further education of teachers in service in Asia (a regional survey). This survey assembles information on the developments and trends in in-service teacher training in Asia, identifies the growing points of innovative approaches for improving in-service teacher preparation, and identifies ways that further education of teachers is linked to programs of curriculum development and the introduction of new teaching methods in schools. Questionnaires were sent to all member states in Asia, and those from which responses were received were visited by the professional staff members of the Asian Institute of Teacher Educators to collect supplementary data. This study discusses the background of the education systems in Asia, then stages of development, institutional framework, types of in-service programs, innovations in in-service programs, and some common problems. Further reports on in-service teacher education in Afghanistan, Burma, India, Indonesia,
Iran, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and Thailand are provided. A bibliography with materials grouped according to country is included.

_J.S. Rajput and K. Walia_ (2001) has conducted a study on reforms in Teacher Education in India. In this study, the researchers have reviewed the reforms in teacher education considering the IT and ICT developments. The well-established tradition of teaching and learning in India has retained its inherent strength even under adverse circumstances. The post-independence period was characterized by major efforts being made to nurture and transform teacher education. The system of teacher preparation has come under considerable pressure as a result of the expansion and growth of school education, through efforts to universalize elementary education. Having inherited a foreign model of teacher preparation at the time of independence from Britain in (1941), major efforts have been made to adopt and up-to-date the teacher education curriculum to local needs, to make it more context based, responsive and dynamic with regard to best meeting the particular needs of India. The current system of teacher education is supported by a network of national, provincial and district level resource institutions working together to enhance the quality and effectiveness of teacher preparation programs at the pre-service level and also through in-service programs for serving teachers throughout the country. The changing role of teachers and the changing definitions of teacher effectiveness have been increasingly studied and analyzed, with research undertaken and the outcomes being feed back into the system to facilitate the process of education reform. The current focus of researchers, policy makers and practitioners with regard to teacher education is on the development of professional competencies, and on the most effective ways of achieving higher levels of commitment and motivation for higher-level performance on the part of teachers. In addition, important possibilities are arising with regard to current developments involving the new information and communication technologies. As a result, teacher education in India is on the brink of a major transformation.

_N. Jayaram and Philip G. Altbach_ (2004) has conducted a study on the changing status of the academic profession in China and India. They stated that being late
starters in the sphere of modern higher education, developing countries find themselves in a difficult situation; on the one hand, they need to cope up with the rest of the world, particularly the advanced ones in the West; on the other, they confront the inexorable changes wrought by mystification and globalization and their ever increasing integration into the world economy.

By examining the developments in China and India, the “Asian giants” in higher education this study has discussed the problems and prospects of the professoriate in developing countries. These two countries count together for more than one-third of the world’s population. For the case of India they have stated: studies on college teachers have invariably emphasized the sad deficiency of academic preparation of the people entering the profession and their declining commitment to it. This lack of qualification no doubt has a lot to do with the deplorable standards of Master’s and Doctoral level education. For decades most Master’s degree holders easily found employment at colleges, or even at universities, with absolutely no training in or orientation to teaching, and with doubtful aptitude for that vocation. To ensure proficiency in the subject and aptitude for teaching or research on the part of candidates aspiring to become teachers, the UGC introduced the scheme of the National Eligibility Test (NET). Many state governments have been permitted by the UGC to conduct a State Eligibility Test, which is treated as equivalent to the NET. As a screening mechanism, the NET is a step in the right direction. Despite these efforts, standards of post-baccalaureate education remain generally low.

Regardless of the importance of qualifications and screening at the point of entry into the profession, the need for post induction training and periodical professional enhancement can hardly be exaggerated. Starting in 1987, the UGC established at least one Academic Staff College (ASC) in each state with the mandate to improve standards of teaching through “orientation courses” (focusing on pedagogy and social relevance of education, for young lecturers) and “refresher courses” (providing up-to-date information on the content of various disciplines, for senior lecturers).

The ASCs conducted programs to orient the new entrants into the profession and improve the knowledge and skills of those already in it. To instill a sense of seriousness, an
element of compulsion has also been introduced: Those entering the profession are required to attend an orientation course before they complete their probation. Professionals in service must attend two refresher courses to become eligible for career advancement or promotion. As with all initiatives carrying a compulsory element, the original objectives underlying the establishment of ASCs are lost and the courses have been ritualized.

The dwindling recruitment to permanent posts at universities and colleges has reduced the enthusiasm for orientation courses. However, the situation concerning refresher courses differs given the large number of teachers seeking career advancement and the ASC’s facilities are limited. To meet the demand for such courses, the UGC has been providing grants to departments at universities without ASCs to organize refresher courses. In addition to the ASC refresher courses, University departments and disciplinary associations have organized “self-financed” courses. Most refresher courses, whether they are organized by the ASCs or University departments (UGC-sponsored or self-financed), are conducted as a formality and they generally lack the advanced academic orientation which is expected of them.

_Saroj Pandey_10 (2004) has conducted a study on teacher education researches in developing countries: a review of Indian studies. Teacher education research in India is predominantly a post-independence phenomenon, which gained momentum between 1950 and 1960. By the end of the 1960s, 85 doctoral themes had been approved by various Indian Universities, out of which 40% of the researches were undertaken by Bombay University, the first University to institute a doctoral program in education in the country before independence in 1947. A review of researches in Teacher Education is followed by an analysis that identifies those aspects of the Indian education system that mostly need attention.

_Caroline Dyer_11 (2005) has studied decentralization to improve the quality of teacher: District Institutes of Education and Training in India. Decentralization is often expected to improve democratic participation and empowerment, and improve government responsiveness to local needs. International experience demonstrates that
striking the right balance between centralization and decentralization remains highly challenging, and that developing appropriate institutional capacity to discharge new responsibilities is difficult and often neglected, yet both are crucial to effective decentralization. Taking a sample of six District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) across three states as a case study, this paper explores India's policy and processes of decentralizing Teacher Education. It identifies as major barriers to the emergence of DIETs their recruitment and staffing policies, and contested agendas of power, control and accountability. Yet it also finds evidence from two districts of progress towards establishing productive partnerships, in an emerging process of decentralization that is allowing the DIETs to play a significant role in supporting teachers. Here, the DIET idea is justified, and the potential of a decentralized teacher education system to improve systemic accountability towards quality improvement and primary teachers is demonstrated.

_Gurrey, P_ (1963) education and training of teachers, London on the other hand, has emphasized that the main task of teacher training colleges is to develop the person. He asserted that what the individual is of far greater importance than what he knows and that confidence is exceedingly more important to success in teaching than “sufficient maturity “ or “capacity for study in depth “.Furthermore, Gurrey has maintained that teacher educators must work for the development of whole persons rather than bookworms, competent technician or efficient imparters of information .To Gurrey , it is how students utilize knowledge that matters rather than the mere accumulation of information .

_Fogarty, R_ (1976) the content of teacher education, the preparation of teachers in Australia has emphasized the development of the teacher as a person the development of personality, attitudes, values , patterns of behavior ,tendencies and disposition . For example, he noted that teacher education institutions in Australia strive “to help each student make himself into, not only the accomplished practitioner, but also the most fully developed person he is capable of becoming.” Thus, institutions of teacher education in
Australia have identified their objectives as helping the student to understand himself and to build upon his own resources. Consequently, teacher education in Australia has become more personalized, more responsive to individual needs, and better integrated with the unique characteristic of the persons matriculating these programs.

_Shears, LW_\(^{14}\), (1976) the curriculum of a teachers college the preparation of in Australia identified three main objectives for teachers colleges:

(1) The development of the student as a person, including intellectual, social, physical and emotional characteristics, as well as his character and sense of values

(2) The development of the student as a scholar and a prospective teacher of children through the acquisition of knowledge to be taught and skills essential to developing attitudes and imparting knowledge

(3) The development of the student as cities in society with understanding of all aspects of society and its culture.

Although Shears recognized the need for technical training of the teacher, he directed more attention to personal development, general education, and citizenship training.

_Duffie Donald_\(^{15}\) (1962), teacher education and training noted that communication, automation, improved methods of transportation, and other products of a technological world have made life more complex and have influenced man’s thinking, social outlook, sense of values, and general needs. Therefore, Duffie suggested that teacher education must strive to prepare students for life in a different society and structure.

_According to Stratemeyer_\(^{16}\), Florence B., issues and problem in teacher education a well-known American educator, teacher education not only must prepare students for adaptation to a changing world it must also prepare students for an active involvement in the change process. Teacher education, Stratemeyer has maintained, must prepare students to contribute to the improvement of society in three ways:

(1) as an active citizen
(2) as an educational leader in his community
(3) as a guide of children and youth helping them to become informed and active citizens

_The Commonwealth Conference_ on Teacher Education held in Nairobi, Kenya in 1973 identified the purpose of teacher education as providing preparation for effective participation in a nation’s education system by enabling the trainee to acquire the necessary academic competence, skills and attitudes. Teacher education, according to the conference report, should strive to develop well-rounded individuals who are aware of the world and possess the ability to think and work creatively, logically and constructively.

_Joined committee_ (1973) on higher education, and Teacher Education program, Washington State Teacher Education in the United States reflects an emphasis upon the development of specific skills related to teaching. For example, the 1971 Teacher Certification standards adopted by the Washington State Board of Education stated that Teacher Education Programs should be directed toward the development of identifiable tasks related to teaching in the public schools. Thus, the concept of competency based teacher education, like the views of Rasik, deemphasized personal development.

_Mayhew, Lewis_ B. and for J., 1971 changing the curriculum, San Francisco tasks is to transform young, promising human being into constructive, creative personalities who have understood themselves, who build their potentialities and achieve maturity as a complete one as possible. The transformation of individual students into constructive, creative personalities is the end of teaching. Our work should focus on the student rather than on our discipline. On the student as a real flesh and blood, total human being is there before us; and on the student as an individual.

_Spaulding, Seth_ (1970) Teacher Education in studies of Teacher Education by international experts as reported in UNESCO publications, it is maintained that there
should be a clear analysis of the skills, attitudes, and knowledge of the teacher in order that the teacher is able to perform effectively in educating the young. The functions of the teacher have been identified as follows:

The teacher’s functions are many and varied. He not only interacts with children in variety of ways, but he sets learning goals, he manages a teaching environment which may include a variety of teaching devices, that is (i.e.) oratory equipments, meeting rooms, playgrounds, and so on; he does research, on the one hand to find out more about his students, their interests, how well they are doing, and on the other hand, to find out more about whatever he is teaching so that he can keep up with his field; he assists educational research and development specialists with their work; he provides a variety of services within the school and to the community including visits with parents, guidance services to students, talks and lectures when so invited by community groups; and especially in developing countries, he is often called upon to perform community development activities of one kind or another.

According to the report of the Commonwealth Conference on Teacher Education, (1973) the role of the teacher, especially in developing countries, has become more complex and professionally rewarding. The function of the teacher in two fields first, the teacher must conserve what is of continuing value in traditional and current society and transmit this heritage. Second, he must prepare individuals for a new society. The conference maintained that teachers are themselves members of society and, as such, assume multiple roles. In the words of Porter, “They are not only teachers, but also parents, taxpayers, electors and members of various smaller associations and interest group. Sometimes these roles are in conflict; what the individual demands as a teacher or a parent may not be what he wishes to pay for as a taxpayer.”

Cooper, Russell M, (1956) Teacher Education in the American Sense in his discussion concerning the function of teachers, stated that the good teacher (1) motivates students to what to learn, (2) relates new material to the child’s past experience and present purpose, (3) understands and adjusts his teaching to individual differences, (4) make sure that each student is actively involved in classroom activities, (5) help the child to
combine direct experience with generalization, and (6) cooperates readily with the total staff in fostering broad educational values and solving school problems. Cooper maintained that the teacher must be scientifically grounded in the subject to be taught. In addition, Cooper proposed that the teacher must understand the learning process, children, and the goals to be sought through education.15

_Teacher Education for a free people, The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education for a free people, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, New York, 1956, pp.1-17._

_Hirst and Peters_23 (1965) suggested that an important role of the teacher is the transmission of moral standards to students. This task is not accomplished through instruction but through the quality of the relationship between the teacher and the learner. In other words, pupils develop such attitudes as benevolence, fairness and freedom as a result of the teacher student relationship. Consequently, Hirst had maintained that a major concern of Teacher Education Institution must be the not to alienate the child from his culture, and should, furthermore launch the student from a static and custom-bound environment into a new world of modern ideas, outlook, knowledge and gadgets. In other words, the teacher should be regarded as an agent of cultural preservation as well as an agent for cultural innovation and transformation.

_Conant, James B_24 (1963) Education of American Teacher argued that teachers, as informed persons in their Communities, should have intellectual expertise which will enable them to communicate with various groups and colleagues from diverse fields of study. He emphasized, therefore, broad academic education for teachers, and divided the course of general education for teachers into two categories. In the first category there are those subjects which are already studied in high school, namely, Literature, Mathematics, Social Studies, Sciences (physical and biological), and Art and Music Appreciation. The second category includes those subjects that are not studied in high school. They are general Psychology, Sociology, Anthropology, Philosophy, Economics and Political Science. Conant maintained that general education should occupy about one-half of the students` time during four years. He also suggested that subjects in the first category –
those studied in high school, should be studied in some depth, while courses in the second category should be taught at an introductory level.

In teachers’ specialized education, Conant utilized the term “concentration” instead of the so-called “major field. “According to Conant, the terms “major” and “minor” have been used loosely and have little meaning. He states that it was is risky to assume that a holder of a Bachelor’s Degree from an American college had necessarily pursued the recognized subject in depth, or in sequence or co-Herent pattern. Many of the subject in which students concentrate are very far afield from such traditional subject as English and Mathematics, and the requirements for them very often not more than an accumulation of a specified number of semester-hour “credits”.

Nevertheless, Conant asserted that an adequate preparation in a specialized field of study is essential for teachers, especially for secondary School teachers. He suggested that a program of “concentration “should have coherence; “it should either be sequential or be capable of being tested comprehensively. “Based on these assumptions, Conant’s recommendations for the preparation of elementary and high school teachers are that the program for teachers of kindergarten and grade one, two, and three be prepared in the content and methodology of all subjects taught in these early school years. Depth in a single subject or cluster of subjects is not necessary.

The program for teachers of grades four, five, and six should provide depth of content and methods of teaching in a specific subject or cluster of subjects normally taught in these grades with only an introduction to the remaining elementary school subjects. An institution should award a teaching certificate for teachers in grades seven to twelve in one field only. The fields would be as follows: Social Studies, English, Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry Combined, Biology, Foreign Languages, Music, Art, and Physical Education.

Finally, Conant maintained that each Teacher Training Institution be provided “freedom “to develop its own program, and assume responsibility for those graduates it certifies as being competent to teach.
Lord James of Rusholme \(^{25}\) (1972) writing from a British perspective and experience, criticized the emphasis placed on educational theory rather than adequate preparation of students for their first professional assignment and charged that much of the theoretical study of education is irrelevant to students, especially to those who have had little practical experience with children or teaching. He emphasized the importance of relating theoretical knowledge to practices in teaching and maintained that teacher training should involve in-depth study of teaching methods and educational theory and a broadly based general education. To Lord James, teacher education curriculum should include two interrelated components: “special studies” and “general studies” He identified the aims of these components as follows:

In special studies, the aim will be to encourage the student to pursue his chosen subjects in some depth and to acquire some degree of mystery of them. In general studies, the aim will rather be to stimulate individual thought and discussion, to enable the student to realize the kind of problems and experiences that exist in fields outside his own, to make good the deficiencies in his intellectual and cultural awareness and above all, to tempt him to further efforts of self-education in directions which he had not previously considered.

The third and final element of teacher education attended to by Lord James of Rusholme was teaching practice. He proposed that practical experience should be included in the early stages of training and continued throughout the program. Lord James suggested that practical experience should accomplish the following objective:

1. Provide a basis for the illustration and reinforcement of theoretical studies.
2. Familiarize the student with the teaching situation.
3. Satisfy regional bodies of student`s suitability to undertake the next stage of training

The Conference on Teacher Education \(^{26}\), (1962) sponsored by the fund for the advancement of education, envisioned five interrelated aspects of teacher preparation. They were: (1) Liberal Education, (2) Specialized Knowledge of the subject to be taught, (3) professional knowledge which includes an understanding of the role of the school, contributions of the behavioral sciences, and an appreciation of the components of the...
According to Hilliard, (1971) Teacher Education is education for professional. He noted that the characteristic of the teacher as a professional person is that “he uses knowledge to organize, encourage and assist certain generally approved kinds of learning through a system of formal education, namely, schools, colleges, and universities, extra-mural.

_Courses, and Hilliard_ 27 Hilliard explained that the professional education of a teacher involves three main components. The first is the development of his own education for which Hilliard suggested the three year course of academic study. Second; the course of a component of teaching practice in a school enables the prospective teacher to acquaint himself, through first-hand experience, of the conditions in which he will practice his profession.

According to Hilliard (1971), the teacher must relate to the students and adjust his teaching to their needs and capabilities. The teacher, therefore, must have a store of knowledge in several areas, most obviously in the principles and methods of teaching, as well as educational psychology. In addition, Hilliard suggested that professional training should enable the prospective teacher to defend his educational ideas and practices in an informed and intelligent way. Furthermore, courses in educational theory can provide the prospective teacher with some confidence in meeting the complex demands which will be placed upon him as a professional person.

_Fogarty_ 28 proposed four main areas of study for Teacher Education. The first is general education. He noted that all teachers should have a broad foundation of general education in the liberal arts and sciences because they produce a “liberally educated person”; without general education, the teacher not only becomes a second class citizen and professional, but more importantly, a second class person.

The second area is a specialized field of study. Fogarty viewed this from three perspectives: (1) the teacher, at least for the sake of his own confidence, should study at some considerable depth the subject(s) he is a teacher, (2) all teachers should take up some special field of study, not only to be well grounded in the subject to be taught, but
also to be able to bring first hand intellectual experience to class work, and (3) study in depth of a chosen subject, in British thinking, is the surest means of forming a cultivated mind.

The third area of teacher education is termed professional study which includes both theoretical and practical aspects of the professional programs. This area of study has been divided into four sub-areas as follows: The first is termed the sociological, anthropological, philosophical and comparative foundations of education. The second sub-area identified is primarily psychological foundations. The third includes a general survey about educational institutions, structure, administration, instructional materials, methods, and the use of T.V and other audio visual aids. The fourth is supervised professional experiences which include observations, student learning, and related types of activities. Finally, the fourth area of Teacher Education, as suggested by Fogarty, is the personal development of the teacher, which includes not only formal courses in subject such as psychology of adjustment, personality development and mental health, but also provides for judicious use of reliable evaluative instruments and sympathetic counseling. In this area of study, Fogarty emphasized the critical period of professional education and applicability of professional courses to teaching as well as to the students` own lives.

_ Rasik_29 in his model based on the systems approach to curriculum design and teacher training, proposed that teacher education curricula should promote the teacher`s general knowledge, knowledge of the elements of the task, and abilities to perform the total task. Rasik maintained that the objectives of a teacher training program should be clearly defined in terms of the skills needed by teachers, and that the program should be acceptable to the individual needs of each trainee in terms of his previous level of achievement, his pace of learning, and his particular subject preferences. Furthermore, Rasik noted that Teacher Education Programs must prepare the prospective teacher for classroom teaching. In this stage, he suggested that before the student is allowed to teach in a real classroom, he should be tested under laboratory or simulated conditions and then under supervised teaching conditions in a real classroom.
Shears\textsuperscript{30}, has identified five subject areas of teacher education. Teaching content (general), which is learned for its own sake, leads the list. The curriculum in this area is composed of courses such as Language, Social Sciences, Mathematics, Art and Music. Specific teaching content, which is designed to be taught by prospective teachers, completes the two types of content. This second area includes the content and methods of teaching various disciplines mentioned above, as well as Physical Education and Health Education. The third area, teaching theory, includes principles involved in school and classroom organization, learning theories, child development studies, and the use and place of individualized instructional materials. The last two areas include teaching practice and education studies. In other words, shears maintains that various disciplines such as Psychology, History, Philosophy, Sociology, Anthropology, Economics and Human Ecology contribute to our understanding of education. Shears has argued that the success of education studies depends upon the level of competence already attained by the student in the discipline or disciplines he is applying to problems in education.

Spaulding noted that teacher education is composed of three interrelated components(1) academic training in traditional disciplines,(2)interdisciplinary education which includes study about the Environment, Pollution, Population, Economics and Sociology of Development which is necessary, according to Spaulding, to understand and live effectively in a changing world, and (3) teacher’s professional Education. In the words of Spaulding, “teachers’ professional education consist of (a) basic courses in the principles of education, education philosophy and psychology, educational administration, and other foundations, (b) clinical training a prior step to student Teaching, (c) internship and teaching practice.

Professor Spaulding asserted that the basic professional course work should be oriented toward social methodologies in the examination of teaching learning problems. It should also take into account courses in child development, the role of education in community development, in social change, economic change and political development. In addition, he emphasized the use of new technological devices such as micro-lessons, closed circuit television, and video tape in assisting prospective teachers in creating the condition for their own learning, for discovery, and for creativity.
_Elmer Smith_31, in his remarks concerning the importance of specialized that the prospective teacher should find in his major a command in some depth of his subject for which he is expected to teach and a link between his liberal education and his purely professional work. Smith Suggested that the prospective teacher’s major should promote within the individual a beginning ability to work in his field at a somewhat advanced level, not only teaching him to think in terms of the methods called for by the major, but equally important, stimulating him literally to think in these terms as part of the whole pattern of his life. In addition, Smith maintained that increased knowledge and the rapid change that have occurred in the number of courses offered in the secondary school, require teachers’ college “to make provision for some form of systematic inquiry into the problems which relate to the selection and application of content in the development of appropriate instruction for secondary school. “In other words, according to Smith, “there is increasing need for knowledge that is specialized.

Finally, Smith suggested that the purpose of pre-service courses should be in a position to provide an admixture of direct and abstract experience to give meaning to generalization and principles emphasis should be placed on the factors which tend to influence the prospective teachers’ understanding of the setting of objectives, the selection of content, the choice of methods, the condition of learning, analysis of the process of teaching, and the measurement of learning.

_Dash, J_32, (1985), carried an investigation into the development of teacher education programmed in Orissa with reference to motivation, cost structure an quality. The objectives of the inquiry were (I) to study the factors that motivated the authorities to set up private training colleges, (II) to study the factors that prompted the trainees to pursue the B.Ed. Course, (III) to ascertain the sources of finance, private costs and unit cost of the B.Ed. program, and (IV) to determine the quality of the B.Ed. program. The findings of the study were: 1. the private training colleges were established mostly with commercial motives and parochial feelings. 2. Inadequate physical facilities, inefficient teachers, poor quality of trainees, unsuitable practice teaching and undue expansion of training colleges was reflected in the poor status of teacher-training programmers’ in the
3. Faulty admission procedures for trainees and their negative attitude towards the teaching profession were other findings.

_Hemambujam, K., A_ (1983) conducted a critical study of teacher education at the secondary level in Tamil Nadu. The objectives of the study were:

(I) To conduct a survey of teacher education at secondary level and make a critical appraisal of the B.Ed. Program in Tamil Nadu, at its operational set-up.

(II) To report briefly on the historical background and the evolution of teacher education at the secondary level in India and especially in Tamil Nadu among others. The findings of the study were: 1. the state government controlled the recruitment of all the teacher educators. Selection was done on the reservation basis; the service of teacher educators was secure and their salaries were directly paid.

(III) The comprehensive B. Ed. curriculum was not effectively implemented (due to time shortage, semester internal assessment)

(IV) The revised B. Ed. syllabus in force in Tamil Nadu was appropriate and fulfilled the requirements on the professional side, but lacked in content knowledge of the academic subjects among others.

_Mishra, A._ (1986) studied about the growth of teacher education for women and problem thereof with special reference to UP. The objectives of the study were (I) to prepare a resume of the history of teacher education in the country, (II) to study the growth of such institutions in UP, (III) to enquire into the numerical growth of students and teachers in the institutions of female teacher education, and (IV) to ascertain how far the financial assistance to such institutions had grown.

The major findings of the study were:

1. There was a steady growth in the number of training institutions for women, especially in post-independence India. The last teacher education department for women was opened in 1973. A study of the number of books in the library, furniture, building and staff revealed that the investment of grants on these items
hail also grown. Examination results, both in the theory papers and practical, also showed improvement.

2. Regarding teacher educations at the primary level, the findings showed that a number of programs had been launched in the past and, with the march of time, they had been amalgamated under a new nomenclature, finally learning to the emergence of the BTC courses.

3. Regarding problems at the higher level, it was found that the staff was confronted many difficulties arising out of the grip of private managements and local political pressures with regard to examinations and admission. They had also some problems with building accommodation. Government colleges had no such problems, except the problem of transfer and stagnation at the BTC stage. Women teacher educators suffered from scarcity of living quarters, water-supply and personal insecurity. In the institutions located in the interior, there was no regular electric supply.

_Bordoloi, A.D_ (1990), did a critical evaluation of Teacher Education in Assam at the primary level (luring the post-independence period with specific reference to the curriculum and in-service training). The study attempted to critically evaluate the teacher education in Assam at the primary level during the post-independence period with special reference to curriculum and in-service training.

The major findings were:

1. Despite existence of 22 training centers which give training for lower primary teachers, there was still a backlog of untrained lower primary teachers and quality of entrants to the institutes was not up to the mark.
2. They suffered from lack of physical and educational facilities.
3. Organization and evaluation of practice teaching were not scientific. Supervision of practice teaching was not satisfactory.
4. One year Ed curriculum was found to be too heavy. Curriculum of basic training center seemed to be practical in outlook but theoretical in practice.
Trained teachers did not get a chance to apply what they learnt in actual classroom situation as the curriculum of each class of secondary school was found to be heavy and teachers were expected to complete their courses.

_Fullan & Connell_ (1987) conducted a study on Teacher Education in Canada for the Ontario Ministry of education. They suggested that it is the overall countenance of Teacher Education rather than any of its parts that need reform. They cited theory and practice, quality of schooling, knowledge and knowing, what it means to be a teacher and the teacher as a professional as areas of change. They recommended that facilities of teaching become more inquiry based both in terms of research and reporting of innovative Teacher Education programs.

_Nzomo, J., Kariuki, M., Guantai, L_ (2001) in their study about the quality of Education in African schools, have pointed out some issues which governments must address to ensure quality of education. They include: the growing gap between the demand and supply of teachers; the increasing demand for better quality teachers and teacher educators; and the need for social and professional regulation in relation to quality assurance among others.

_Terence R. Keen_ (1981) has studied raising perceptual awareness of the teacher: a teaching appraisal technique. It is a matter of some importance for institutions of further and higher education to investigate ways of improving teaching effectiveness. Many studies have been undertaken in both Europe and elsewhere. These have, in general, been published in the academic journals and a number of conferences have been held to discuss the techniques proposed. Almost without exception, the proposals which have been considered rely on behaviorally orientated methodologies a kin to the many techniques currently in use in the USA (and in other countries where teaching assessment is common practice). It has been the researcher's contention that such techniques are an inappropriate way of improving teaching effectiveness as they demand a pre-specification of criteria deemed to be appropriate, the teacher is then assessed against this 'ideal profile'. It is the researcher's view that the teacher should be perceived as a professional,
capable of undertaking his task with autonomy. This is particularly valuable if a mechanism exists to assist him in identifying his strengths and weaknesses so that he can capitalize on the former whilst endeavoring to eradicate the latter (through the application of appropriate staff development).

Thus, in 1975, as part of a doctoral research project, the researcher devised a teaching appraisal system which became known as TARGET. TARGET is an acronym for Teaching Appraisal by Repertory Grid Elicitation techniques and is based on the principles of personal construct psychology. The primary objective when using the TARGET system is to raise the perceptual awareness of the teacher to his strengths and weaknesses, this, in turn, may enable him to become more effective at this job. However, the system remains far less threatening than those aforementioned behavioral techniques.

Since 1975, TARGET has been, and is still, used in a number of institutions of further and higher education in the UK, USA, and Australia and even in India; the methodology developed has been refined and improved over the intervening period. Consequently, the technique now proposed by the researcher as the most efficient way of raising perceptual awareness (and thus achieving the same goals as the TARGET system), is to encourage individual lecturers to sit in front of a small microprocessor and interact with a program, (designed using the same principles of personal construct psychology), such that feedback can be given immediately in terms of his strengths and weaknesses.

This study briefly considers the TARGET system as it was devised, the interactive computer program as it is currently used at Garnett College, (and some other institutions in Europe and Australia) and finally, illustrates the principles underlying both the TARGET and interactive computer program by describing the game of MISUNDERSTOOD, which can be played without the hardware support, of the video or computing kind, necessary in both the former methods. MISUNDERSTOOD can be played in groups of three or four (with a number of groups playing simultaneously) as a one-off staff development exercise. It has already been successfully used by an international motor company, a number of educational institutions and the Prison
Education Officers Training Scheme. The researcher contends therefore, that raising perceptual awareness by any of the three methods described in this study makes a positive and worthwhile contribution to the improvement of the effectiveness of the FE teacher, and supports this with evidence drawn from his experience of applying the techniques in a number of institutions in which he has been employed and had some responsibility for staff development.

_George Brown and Madeleine Atkins_\(^{39}\) (1986) have conducted a study on academic staff training in British universities: Results of a national survey. A survey of academic staff training in 42 universities and 25 colleges in the United Kingdom is reported and discussed. In this study, the results indicate that most training continues to be focused upon teaching skills but there is a growing recognition of the importance of training for all staff in research and management as well as teaching. There appears to be sufficient expertise and resources to provide training on most topics but various constraints on training activities are reported. The respondents provided a set of suggestions for enhancing training. These included greater institutional or departmental recognition and the provision of courses that are relevant, practical and enjoyable.

_Beverley Sparks and Graham Bradley_\(^{40}\) (1991) have studied a competency-based study of academic staff development needs. The role of Australian academics is undergoing a period of rapid change as the Federal Government attempts to restructure both the higher education system and the economy. With these changes in role comes a need for the continuing professional development of academics. This study gives details of a study which adopted a competency-based approach to identify the job requirements, skill-deficiencies and training needs of one group of Australian academics. This group - staff from the Business faculties of (former) Colleges of Advanced Education is of particular interest because its members are experiencing uncommonly rapid growth and change. In general, the respondents tended to rate (a) teaching skills as more important than research skills, (b) their own teaching skills as more highly developed than their research competencies, and (c) their desire for training as greatest with respect to several
specific research skills. Some potential barriers to the successful implementation of professional development programs are discussed.

_Huda Ayyash-Abdo_ (2000) has evaluated status of female teachers in the Middle East and North Africa regions. The purpose of this study was to examine the status of female teachers in nine Middle Eastern and North African countries. The results indicated that ineffective pre-service and in-service training, teachers' educational level, and lack of follow up of female teachers at all levels have limited professional competency and growth. In addition, socio-cultural constraints on women have made a negative impact and have contributed to the existing gender disparity. It was also found that lack of monetary and non-monetary incentives negatively impacted the status of female teachers. In light of this assessment, implications are drawn to dramatically increase the time committed to in-service and pre-service training as well as mentor programs. In addition, distance education could also be a viable strategy for training teachers in the region.

_Yueh-mei Chen_ (2000) has conducted a study on teacher training for the employment of teaching strategies in critical-thinking via a computer simulation: an example in gender equality issues. The purpose of this study were (a) to examine the effectiveness of a computer simulation program (Computer Simulation for Teaching Critical Thinking on Gender Equality, CSTCT-GE) on pre-service teachers’ improvement in professional knowledge for teaching critical thinking and teaching efficacy for critical thinking; and (b) to examine the effects of gender, educational degree, critical-thinking ability, motivation for professional growth, and level of training involvement on pre-service teachers’ increase in professional knowledge and teaching efficacy for critical thinking. The main findings of this study were as follows:

1. CSTCT-GE was effective in improving the pre-service teachers’ professional knowledge and teaching efficacy for critical thinking.
2. The pre-service teachers’ increase in professional knowledge did not have significant effects on their enhancement of teaching efficacy for critical thinking.
3. There were no significant gender and educational degree effects on the pre-service teachers’ improvement of professional knowledge and teaching efficacy for critical thinking.

4. There were no significant critical-thinking ability effects on the pre-service teachers’ enhancement of teaching efficacy for critical thinking.

5. There were no significant professional growth motivation on the pre-service teachers’ improvement of professional knowledge and teaching efficacy for critical thinking.

6. The pre-service teachers’ level of training involvement had positive effects on their increase of professional knowledge for teaching critical-thinking but not on their enhancement of teaching efficacy for critical thinking.

7. The pre-service teachers’ level of training involvement could effectively predict their professional knowledge for teaching critical thinking in the posttest.

8. The pre-service teachers’ level of professional growth motivation could effectively predict their teaching efficacy for critical thinking in both the pretest and the posttest.

9. Finally, the researcher proposed some suggestions for Educational Organizations, pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, and future studies.

_Içara Holmesland and Anne-Lise Høstmark Tarrou_43 (2001) have conducted a study on institutionalizing research in teacher education: the creation of a research center as a means of lifelong learning for teacher educators. Teacher education is being challenged by a new global context in which research becomes an integrated part of the work of today's teacher educators. This study focuses on the efforts made by one of the Norwegian university colleges to institutionalize research among the academic staff. It provides an account of different steps taken by the college's leadership, together with a group of teacher educators/researchers, to establish a research environment at the institution and describes the strategy used to stimulate research among its academic staff. Part of the discussion focuses on hindrances for establishing a research environment in an institution that has a strong teaching-dominated tradition and is the result of a merger of various previously independent small colleges. The project presents a narrative of some
specific events that have had a special impact in the establishment of a research centre at the college.

_Marin Manolescu_ (2006) has studied reforming Teacher Education in Romania. The reform of the Romanian system of initial and in-service teacher education is facing similar pressures to those experienced by other European countries' teacher education systems; In particular, the drive towards greater professionalization of teaching careers and university training for teachers. In Romania this process has vacillated between continuity and change, following a path marked by hesitations, recurrences, even temporary renunciation, and important acquisitions. At present, the new institutions that have assumed the role of initial teacher training for primary school and pre-school seem to be evolving irreversibly, in accordance with European institutional practices and structures and with the Bologna process. The system of in-service training for primary school and preschool has undergone serious reconsideration in recent years. The quality of this process is ensured by a strategy that regulates the existence of a free market for educational services, by the adoption of a transferable credits system, and by the establishment of standards for in-service training programs.

_Benjamin Piper_, Doctoral Candidate, International Education, Graduate School of Education in Harvard University, at present (2007) is conducting a study on improving quality: a mixed-methods analysis of the relationships between in-service teacher training, learner-centered pedagogy, and student achievement. According to this study, teacher training is an increasingly preferred remedy for low teacher quality and dismal student achievement in Sub-Saharan Africa. In-service teacher education and training (INSET) programs take place after teachers have begun their teaching careers and are regarded as an efficient way to impact large numbers of teachers in short periods of time. As a result, these programs have become an increasingly popular educational reform throughout Sub-Saharan Africa after the 1990 Education for All conference in Jomtien, Thailand, where the international community promised to provide access to quality education for all by 2000. This target remains distant. For example, primary and secondary enrollments in Ethiopia stand at 42% and 16% respectively. Those students
fortunate enough to enroll receive low-quality education: teacher-student ratios in Ethiopia are 72:1 and teachers have little formal education and very low-quality pre-service teacher preparation. These quality issues are the raison facts for dozens of new INSET programs in Sub-Saharan Africa. While the form and content of these INSET programs differ, they often use active learning methods, locally relevant materials, and employ group work both in the training itself and the pedagogy they foster. In Sub-Saharan Africa, such programs are referred to as “learner-centered.” This study employs a mixed-methods approach to examine an Ethiopian INSET program, and it will be evaluated first whether the program increases the use of learner-centered pedagogy, and, second, whether this new pedagogy increases student achievement. It is not clear, from empirical research, whether INSET programs in Sub-Saharan Africa actually increase learner-centered pedagogy, and whether that changed pedagogy improves student’s achievement. Nor do we know whether program effects differ by program duration, by the passage of time from program completion, and by teacher experience and qualifications.

This project will attempt to answer those questions using a unique mixed-methods design, nationally representative student achievement data, and close inspection of teacher pedagogy in primary classrooms.
Part II

Teacher Education in Iran & the World, Brief Review

Introduction

As investigation of educational system, institutions of Iranian teacher education, is the best pursued from an understanding of the historical development in institutions. It is hoped that an historical examination of the development of the Iranian educational system will not only produce a clearer understanding for the judgments made in the remainder this study.

For the purpose of organization this chapter is divided in to two sections: (1) Iranian traditional education, 642 to 1852 A.D., with a brief overview of education in ancient Iran, and (2) modern education which is divided into two categories, namely, (a) Education from 1852 until the end of World War II, and (b) Education after World War II to the present.

The latter section focuses upon the new educational system and educational planning under the national Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth plans.

Iranian Traditional Education

Education in Ancient Iran

In ancient Iran, the orientation of education was in accordance with the cultural pattern and religious teachings of Zoroaster. Zoroastrian doctrine was biased upon a moral philosophy [Witch emphasized ‘good thinking’ Saying and doing in addition, Zoroastrian doctrine maintained that ‘a healthy mind exists a Healthy body.’] Accordingly, the goals and aims of education were to provide good citizens with good moral character as well as healthy and strong bodies. Hence, education was viewed from a dual perspective. First, it was viewed as a process of physical training and the preparation of youth for further vocational training through physical activities such as archery, spear hurling, stone slinging and polo. All of these activities were relevant to the
agricultural society that existed. Second, education was viewed as a process of moral training for the development of personality through justice, purity, gratitude, piety, and courage.\textsuperscript{47}

Although education was well integrated with cultural pattern and was designed to socialize instead the program of indoctrination which emphasized physical fitness, loyalty, obedience and an unquestioning sense of duty to glorify the nation.\textsuperscript{3}

**Education from 642 to 1852**

The Arab invasion in 642 A.D. brought the Islamic religion to Iranian society. This radically changed Iranian patterns of belief, and hence the pattern of life. Consequently, the goals and aims of education were changed. Education emphasized cultural preservation as well as regional loyalties and partition which subsequently kept the country from coming under permanent Arab control. By that time Maktabs and Madrasahs\textsuperscript{48} were established to exercise formal education. The Islamic education system, in contrast to Zoroastrianism which emphasized theoretical and practical of schooling, was based on religious and moral training through rote memorization. The basic idea of the system was to teach the individual to read, write, and be familiar with the Quran and Iranian classical books. The teacher student relationship was biased upon student obedience. Clearly, the maktab – dar (the teacher) was regarded as an authoritative of given knowledge and the student, on the other hand, was viewed as a passive receiver. Thus, the maktab – dar was free to do what he wants. Consequently, the content of education, more than teaching methods could be challenged by the student.

Furthermore, the students under the Islamic educational system were frequently subjected to physical punishment. There was, however, an exception regarding to the use of physical punishment. A student who came from a wealthy family and who treated the maktab – dar in an acceptable manner by giving higher donations than other students was not subjected to physical punishment.

While general education was emphasized in the Maktabs, the Madraseh in which each individual was given the opportunity to choose his area of study and his teacher,
continued to emphasis classical education. The general education curriculum included Islamic philosophy, literature, science, mathematics. For future study student could travel to other cities or other

Islamic countries in which institute of higher education were established and could offer “the student a programmatic philosophy of life more that religious dogma”. During the 10th century, Iranian philosophers viewed education as a process of identifying with an ideal and attaining self-realization throughout one’s life. There were three groups that varied of the objectives of identification. Arasteh explains these as follows:

One group took as their goal Islamic values and the personal qualities of the saints; as through a succession of behavioral and mental states they tried to attain a permanent self-identity; others sought self-realization by taking God as their object of presence (the assumption that only God is present in every act). So, they might ultimately identify themselves with God. A third stage of self-realization was given permanence to the self by binge identified with the process of life itself. Thus he could perhaps have claimed, ‘I live therefore I am’ in place of Descartes, ‘I think, therefore I am.’ Through this approach Man was able to attain a unique state of existence characterized by the absence of anxiety, relatedness to all periods of existence, past, present and future, and positiveness in action and feeling.

However, efforts were made in adapting and applying a pragmatic philosophy of life to education. Emphasis was given to usefulness of practical training and the application of education to the real situations of life. Behind this philosophy were the idea of nationalism and the freeing of Iranian education and the nation from the Arabs. The theoretical and abstract Arabian educational system had penetrated the hearts and mined of Iranians. Then, for the first time, Ibo-e Sina (986-1037) gave priority to the child’s interest and activity in educational enterprises. Following Ibo-e Sina, Nasiral-din Tusi (1199-1274) focused attention on the psychological foundation of teaching and emphasized the importance of the needs and interests of the individual in education.

For almost six centuries (from the beginning of the 13th century until 1852) significant educational reform did not occur. Even the Renaissance, which tremendously changed
the social-economic and political state of Europeans countries, had little effect on Iranian society, especially those aspects of society reflected in the patterns of belief and philosophy of life. Indeed, education continues task in maktabs and madresehs.

**Iranian Modern Education**

**Education from 1852 until the end of World War II**

In 1828, the war between Iran and Russia, which ended in the Turkamanjai treaty, shook Iranian society. There was a great need for the reorganization of military and civil service as well as governmental institutions. To revitalize education, the government decided to reestablish higher education institution. In order to accomplish this goal, Mirza Taghi Khan Amir Kabir, the prime Minister of Iran, founded Dar-al Funun in 1852. Its function was to train students in various areas such as artillery, infantry, cavalry, military, engineering, medicine, surgery, physics, mathematics, mineralogy, and chemistry that were in great demand by society at that time.

Following Amir Kabir and the establishment of Dar-al Funun, a school of political science was opened by the Ministry of Foreign affairs in 1901. The curriculum required three years of study in liberal education. By 1919 the period of study was extended from three to five years and major changes occurred in its curriculum as follows:

The first three years offered such subjects as Islamic Jurisprudence, History, Geography, Politics, Mathematics, International law and French; and in the last two years the student pursued a specialized field, like international, administrative or commercial law, principals of judicial trials, the science of taxation, jurisprudence and logic.

After the establishment of the school of Political science, other higher education institution was opened. These included the College of Agriculture by the Ministry of Agriculture, in 1902; the school of Fine Arts by the school of low by the Ministry of justice in 1921; and finally, the teacher college in 1928. In 1934, by bringing all the higher educational institutions of the School of Military, Science, Medicine, Veterinary
A casual glance at the extension of higher education by individual ministries reveals that the ultimate purpose higher education was to provide bureaucratic administrative personnel for governmental position. Reform in both elementary and secondary education in a modern sense was relatively ignored until Mirza Hassan Rushdi-ye established his own modern elementary school in Tabriz in 1889. Rushidi-ye employed new methods of teaching and schooling could be meaningful to the students if curriculum and subject matter were relevant to the real situations of life. Therefore, he advocated changing the traditional patterns of schooling and presented new types of curriculum which offered more comprehensive and practical subject matter. The establishment of ‘Maderaseh Rushdi-ye stimulated parents, especially those who were against the orthodoxy of traditional school, to call for educational reform and opening of modern schools in other cities. In 1901, twenty one elementary schools which had been financed by parents with little subsidy from the government were opened. Their curriculum consisted of reading, writing, religious instruction, History, Arithmetic, Geometry, and some manual work and agriculture.

The significant characteristics of these schools were the relationship between teacher and student as mentioned in the Hablul –Matin.  

Teachers are asked to behave in a friendly manner toward their students, speak kindly to them and maintain a happy disposition. They must not use corporal punishment or profane language but they should have taken steps to correct misbehavior in the classroom by warning or by other forms of punishment.

While increasing attention was being given to higher education and elementary education in urban areas, the reform and extension of secondary education was neglected. People began to realize that when most students graduated from the maktabs and
madrasahs (new school) they failed to meet the entrance, requirements of higher education institution, particularly in sciences, mathematics and Persian literature. On the other hand, an increasing number of elementary schools in Tehran and other cities were faced with a shortage of elementary school teachers. The great demand for secondary education led to the establishment of the first private high school in Tehran in 1898. A few years later, madreseh nosem was founded for military training at the secondary level.

In 1907, the Ministry of Education was established. It was given the power to regulate all of the schools. Articles 18 and 19 of the supplementary constitutional law (October 8, 1907) of the Iranian constitution state as follows:

**Article 18.** The studies and teaching of science, education and art are free, except as prohibited by religious laws.

**Article 19.** The institution of schools at the expense of the state and the nation and compulsory education shall take place according to the law relating to the ministry of education.

All higher and primary schools are placed under the supreme direction and supervision of the education.

In 1911, the fundamental law of the Ministry of Education delineated the responsibilities of the Minister of Education. Some of those responsibilities were particularly relevant to this study and are presented as follows:

**Article 1:** Maktabs and madrasehs (basic school) are those institutions which are established for moral, scientific, and physical training.

**Article 2:** All school curricula will be planned by the Ministry of Education so as to provide for the growth and development of scientific, industrial and physical education.

**Article 3:** Elementary education is compulsory for all Iranians:

**Article 11:** Regardless of the extent of his education, one individual will be accepted as a teacher in official until he has passed an examination.
Article 15: Maktabs and Madresehs are of four types:
(1) Elementary schools in the villages and (2) those in the cities, (3) high schools and (4) higher institutions.

Article 18: The Ministry of Education will determine the instructions level for each school and will arrange the examinations and the conferring of diplomas. Civil service eligibility will be contingent upon possession of a diploma.

Article 22: The Government will finance elementary schools in the villages and cities. Funds for these expenses will come from a tax, collected according to law.

Article 24: Government conducted free schools are open only to the poor and those individuals of limited ability whom the Ministry of Education recommends.

This legislation gave the Ministry of Education power to exercise control over all aspects of education. The effort was made to describe uniform educational programs for all of the schools. This included the arranging the examinations and publication of textbooks. Educational statistics were collected to determine the educational needs of the country. Article 3 of the fundamental law was explicit in its emphasis on compulsory education, and Article 24 called for free education for those individuals who could not afford to pay tuition. These factors forced the ministry of education to translate the need for compulsory education into action. Unfortunately, because of the political instability, economic, and religion factors involved, it was difficult for the ministry to propagate literacy and to solve the problems of illiteracy. (According to the statistics published by UNESCO, in 1974 the percentage of illiteracy in Iran was still at 70 percent.)

The Ministry of Education was also responsible for making provisions for adequate teacher training and the preparation and training of sufficient higher education personnel. In 1918, the Ministry, for the first time in the history of Iran, established the boys’ normal school to prepare teacher for elementary and secondary school. For those who wanted to become elementary school teacher, the entrance requirement was a sixth grade elementary education. Candidates for elementary teaching position must have successfully passed three years of courses in academic subjects teaching experiences.
Admission for the upper level of that school which was designed to train teachers for higher school was a ninth education and a period of training at the college for four years.

The course of study included Persian Literature, Philosophy, History and Geography, Natural and Physical Science, Logic, Arabic language and Islamic law, Pedagogy and teaching apprenticeship. However, the establishment of only a boy’s normal school was not sufficient response to the need of Iranian educationally ‘qualified’ teachers. The expansion of elementary school found the country with a shortage of trained teachers. Once again those who were graduated from elementary schools or possessed an equivalent of sixth grade schooling were considered qualified to teach. The educational philosophy underlying the school curriculum was ‘to make God known to the child, and to make of the child a Persian who possessed the skills and attitudes necessary for adult life’. Thus, curriculum in the elementary school included Persian; reading and writing; religious instruction including the reading of the Quran without understanding it, since it is written in Arabic, as well as solid Geometry; and History which consisted of biographies of great men and kings, the dates of their reigns, and the wars in which they were involved.

The situation in secondary schools was much the same as in elementary schools. The aim of education was enriched and increase the amount of knowledge taught in elementary school and to prepare the student for enrollment in higher educational institution. Thus, secondary education was divided into two cycles with duration of three years schooling for each cycle. In the first cycle the curriculum consisted of Persian language, reading, spelling, composition, religion, Arabic, foreign language (French or German, and some school English or Russian), Mathematic (included arithmetic, plan geometry, algebra), sciences (physics and chemistry), History and Geography, calligraphy and drawing.

Curriculum in the second cycle include the same subject as the first cycle studied in a more thorough manner plus Philosophy, Hygiene and household arts for girls. It should be noted that Arabic was not considered a foreign language and was required the
same as Persian! In short, It was generally believed that the function of teacher is to transmit the function that can be fulfilled by any individual with the necessary knowledge. Thus, the belief that the student should be crammed full of theoretical information continued with beliefs in root of learning and memorization.

In 1926, the new government realized the importance of teacher training and founded the normal school for girls. However, the government did not realize the necessity of the establishment of higher institutions to prepare teachers for girls 'secondary school. At the time co-education did not exist in high schools in Iran. Thus, teachers for girls 'secondary school were almost always chosen from among middle-aged teachers from the secondary school for boys. In 1928, the first normal school, whose function was to prepare teachers for both boys elementary and secondary school, was transformed into the teachers college to train teacher for secondary school only. By this time, in order to improve the quality of teacher, the government changed the standards of admission for normal school and teacher colleges. Admission for enrollment school became a ninth – grade education, and the period of training was reduced from three years.

Only the holders of the secondary school certificate were admitted to the three years course of study of teacher colleges.

The new government also made serious attempt to solve the problems of the lack of human and physical resources by sending students abroad, opening new institutions, hiring foreign experts, and publishing curricular materials. Because of the demand for more teachers the effort was made in 1926 to offer in- service teacher education through number of evening classes in normal schools in several locations. However, they were discontinued a year later. One of the reasons was the low status of a majority of the teachers as determined by the civil service law. The salaries of teachers were very low and most teachers were hired on a contractual basis. Thus the career of teaching was not an attractive one and the teachers were not eager to attend in-service classes. In addition, the curriculum of in-service classes was rigid and the emphasis was a theory and
academic subjects rather than practical application of educational goals. The methods of teaching in these classes were exposition and lecture, and often the quality of the instruction was not even comparable to the abilities of the teachers who attended the classes.

As was previously stated, in the field of higher education increasing attention was given to sending students abroad in order to overcome the lack of qualified human resources. The law of May 23, 1928 requested the Ministry of Education to send 100 students abroad annually for a five year period. This legislation stated that 35 percent of these students were to become teachers in institutions of higher learning.

**Article IV of the 1954 Act States:**

The teachers colleges are institutions for the training of teachers (men and women) for secondary schools and for normal schools. Applicants for teachers colleges must first possess a certificate of completion of study from a normal school or a twelfth year secondary school. They must enroll in a course of study not less than three years in duration after which they may receive a diploma. Apart from its stated privileges the diploma is equivalent to a licentiate degree and carries with in full legal rights.

Times, efforts to improve the status of the teachers in terms of salary and promotion gave preference to the graduate of teachers colleges. This same law defined ten levels of advancement for all teachers and made them eligible for tenure and pension. This was the first step towards promoting the dignity of teachers and assuring their welfare. However, some critics have mentioned that despite the Best improvement in the position of teachers, their economic and social position were still relatively poor, and although a large number of person were now attracted to the profession, standards were low and traditional patterns remained the norm\(^{21}\). The 1934 law also provided for the founding of 25 normal schools in several locations within a five year period. In the same year a teachers college for women was opened in Tehran. As a result of the Act of 1934, there were thirty teacher training schools by 1941.\(^{22}\) While increasing attention was given
to the training of teachers, enrollment in elementary schools rose from 100,612 in 1929 to 287,245 in 1940\textsuperscript{23}.

The percentage of secondary enrollment increased far more rapidly. The increase in number of students was due to rapid urbanization and the demand for education, and to the superiority of the graduates from secondary and higher educational institutions in the governmental sector. It should be noted that in spite of the rapidly increasing number of students and the emphasis of the educational act of 1934 upon compulsory education, the power of landowners and zealous religious sects was so strong that it became difficult for the ministry of education to accomplish its prime mission of educating all children and youth in order to reduce illiteracy. Consequently, the total number of children attending schools never exceeded 15 percent of the actual school age children\textsuperscript{24}.

In 1943 (5\textsuperscript{th} of Mordad, 1322), for the third time since 1907 the law of general compulsory, free education was passed by the parliament. It started:

**Article 1.** The government is obligated to make elementary education available and compulsory within the next ten years from 1943 (1322).

**Article 2.** The compulsory elementary education period will be for six years. The curriculum and textbooks for elementary schools, in accordance with the needs of the various regions of the country, may differ. The ministry of education will take responsibility for publishing and printing the necessary books, upgrading their character and religious context.

**Article 3.** Education in the government elementary schools will be free throughout the country. Under no conditions should any charges be made of the student, nor shall money be accepted from him. Books will be provided, free of charge, to students financially poor\textsuperscript{25}.

However, occupation of Iran by allied forces during World War II, and economic and political problems of the country forced a postponement of the program of universal,
compulsory elementary education and improved education and facilities at the secondary and college levels.

In secondary, the establishment of Darul funun in 1852 by Amir kabir and the introduction of the European educational system in Iran induced the government to move from traditional education toward a more modern one in elementary and secondary schools as well as institutions of higher learning. Furthermore, the ministry of Education was established under the jurisdiction of the government and was given responsibilities for the regulation and unification of all aspects of educational endeavors. As a result of the explanation of education and the increasing demands for trained teachers, normal school and teachers ‘colleges were founded.

However, insufficient numbers of graduates from normal school and teachers ‘colleges forced the government to standards established by the Ministry of education.

**Education after World War II**

As a result of the nationalization of the country’s oil resources and economic and technical assistance from other countries, especially from the United States, the demand for education grew rapidly at all levels after war.

This can be shown by the following table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>Secondary School</th>
<th>Higher education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>28,243</td>
<td>28,196</td>
<td>3,383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>650,355</td>
<td>83,507</td>
<td>5,501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>1,436,169</td>
<td>295,846</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximate Increase</td>
<td>50,8 times</td>
<td>10,4 times</td>
<td>6 times</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The increasing number of students attending school at all levels created many problems such as the demand for more trained teachers, the establishment of more educational institutions and facilities, and the financing of such Institutions. For solving
these problems, private schools at both the primary and secondary levels were established.

These schools offered a relatively high quality of education and were financed by the assessment of tuition and fees and government subsidization\textsuperscript{57}.

The ministry of education found it necessary to change the philosophy underlying educational policies from the concept that the purpose of education was to enrich the student and enable him to accumulate knowledge and skills to the concept that the goal of education was to prepare students to become effective members of society. Consequently, the objectives of secondary education were defined to train capable, competent and faithful individuals, in a manner to develop well rounded individuals, with both spiritual and physical powers, and to give them moral and social virtues\textsuperscript{58}.

To achieve this goal, the ministry of education sought to modify curriculum content, methods of teaching, and the system of examinations. The old curricula which consisted of a wide variety of isolated courses now were grouped into ten major categories and some new subjects were introduced.

In 1959 the curriculum for the first cycle was rewritten, and an attempt was made to integrate the subject matter by grouping the twenty-one separate subject fields into ten major categories\textsuperscript{59}.

However, the shortage of persons trained specifically to be teachers prevailed. Graduates of the colleges of Literature and Science, Theology, Agriculture, Veterinary Medicine, Engineering, and others who had not been able to find jobs in other ministries, were hired by the Ministry of Education to teach in secondary schools. They are the holders of the second and the first cycles of secondary school certificate, even those who possessed only a six year elementary education had been hired as secondary and elementary school teachers. These untrained teachers of questionable ability had a subsequent effect on the educational enterprise. They prepared a low quality student who
graduated from secondary and higher educational institutions with high expectation of either pursuing a higher education or of obtaining white collar job in the government.

The shortage of qualified teachers and importance of teacher training had been specially recognized by the Shah of Iran who said: We face a big task in tightening up the standards of teacher training. In the present stage of our mushrooming educational development, most of our primary teachers have themselves received not more than 12 years schooling and may have not received that. For the moment I think that everybody agrees that incompletely prepared teachers can help our children incomparably more than no teachers at all: but only through drastic action will all our children be taught as they deserve. Our remedy is to help our present primary teachers modernize their cut look and methods through summer courses and in-service training programs during the school year; although we have done a good deal here, we can do much more. But the really acute need is for an ever growing stream of better-prepared new teachers. and we can get them only through better staffing of the teachers training schools, in other words, through better teachers to teach the teachers. The instructors of our teacher’s training schools have often had plenty of experience, but few of them possess any sort of college or university degree. To go for remedy this we must rapidly expand the National Teachers College of the University of Tehran, and I think we should establish similar colleges at each of our provincial universities⁶⁰.

As a result of special attention to the problem of teacher education, the number of normal schools increased from 30 in 1948 to 48 in 1958.⁶¹

Three years later there were 58 schools for training elementary schools teachers with a total enrollment of 7,730 in Tehran and provinces as shown in Table.
### Table No. 2.2.2 Total number of enrollment in training elementary schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Schools</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>No. School</th>
<th>No. Student Boys -- Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Normal School:</td>
<td>11 Years</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2232 -- 531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Training School:</td>
<td>13 Years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2400 -- 931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tribal Normal School:</td>
<td>7 Years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Normal:</td>
<td>11 Years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>42 Years</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>6068 -- 1462</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


(b) Teacher Training Schools, which provide elementary school teachers are open to secondary school graduates (12th grade) and are of one year duration.

(c) Tribal normal schools are of one year program and are open to graduates of the elementary schools (sixth grade). These schools are located in rural areas.

(d) Agricultural normal schools provide a two-year course for elementary school teachers in rural areas. Admission for entrance is a 9 years schooling. It should be noted all teacher training schools except Item (b) are boarding establishments subsidized by the government.

Despite rapid increases in the number of Teacher Training Institutions, the ministry of education was faced with new problems in addition to the problem of supplying adequate teachers. Since the status of teachers in terms of social position and salaries was very low, most experienced and qualified teachers were anxious either to resign or to transfer to the other ministries. Alaghband, in his investigation, pointed out that in 1964 the number of annual losses of teaching personnel through transfer, retirement, and death was between 2,000 and 2,500.}

82
The Ministry of Education, instead of promoting the status of teachers decided not to accept their resignation and instead compelled the teachers to assist in classes where the teachers were not motivated to teach.

In 1960, there were 9,300 primary schools with a total enrollment of 1,436,169 and with 40,500 teachers. Fifty-five percent of these teachers were graduated from elementary teacher training schools and 45 percent were not trained at all.

This, elementary schools were staffed by teachers who lacked adequate preparation; (i.e.) half had no training and half were inadequately trained. One reason for the lack of preparation was the curriculum of the teacher training schools. The ministry of education prescribed the curriculum, which consisted of the regular high school curriculum plus a very few introductory courses in general psychology and education. A typical curriculum of a normal school and a one-year teacher training school with the time allocations appears in tables 2.2.3 and 2.2.4 also from the report of seven years plan, plan organization, Iran.
Table No. 2.2.3 THE WEEKLY PROGRAM OF STUDENT IN TWO-YEARS
NORMAL SCHOOL 1961-1962

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Weekly Unit Last Year</th>
<th>Weekly Unit 2nd Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persian Language</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic and Religion</td>
<td>3 (Boys)</td>
<td>3 (Boys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (Girls)</td>
<td>2 (Girls)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics and Chemistry</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing and Geometry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology and education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 (Boys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 (Girls)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music and Songs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Exercise</td>
<td>3 (Boys)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 (Girls)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handcrafts and Agriculture</td>
<td>2 (Boys)</td>
<td>2 (Boys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 (Girls)</td>
<td>1 (Girls)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewing and Household Arts</td>
<td>2 (Girls)</td>
<td>2 (Girls)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice Teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td>4 (Boys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 (Girls)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (Boys)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Girls)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table No. 2.2.4 THE WEEKLY PROGRAM OF STUDENT IN THE ONE-YEAR TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOL 1961-1962

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Weekly Unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persian Literature</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion and Morals</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology and education</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics and its Methods of Teaching</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and its Methods of Teaching in Elementary School</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science and its Teaching Methods</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hygiene and Health</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice Teaching</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics (For Girls)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Exercise</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For general secondary schools (non_vocational schools) teachers were trained at the Teachers College of the University of Tehran and at the teachers college of the University of Tehran and at the University of Tabriz. The function of teachers college was to prepare teachers for secondary and normal schools and other Teacher Training Centers in one of several fields of specialization. In 1959- 60 the fields of specialization included Persian literature, Philosophy and Education, English Language and Literature,
French Language and Literature, History, Geography, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Natural Sciences, Elementary Education, Physical Education, and Home Economics.

Arasteh has stated the following concerning educational requirement:
A student in Teacher Training College takes subjects which he may be called upon to teach in High School. Within his field of specialization he has some choices in his course selection, but all students must enroll in a specified number of educational courses, particularly, the history of education, principles of education, educational psychology and comparative education. A student attends, on the average, 27 hours of classes a week, and in addition he must complete 30 hours of high schools practice teaching in both his second and third years.

In 1960 there were 295,844 (Table I) students taught by a total of 11,298 teachers in 1,163 secondary schools. Fifty-five percent of the teachers were not college graduates. Moreover, it was estimated that at least half of the remaining were graduated from college and universities other than teachers college. Because of the demand for teachers, any graduates of other colleges and universities (by that time, there were five more universities) regardless of whether or not they had been trained, were hired to teach in the secondary schools. In addition to this, high school graduates without any further preparation become teachers of the first cycle of secondary schools. It should be noted that the Ministry of Education exercised its control of the curriculum of teachers’ colleges. However, in practice, college professors had been given considerably more freedom on what to teach and how to teach in than was the practice in normal schools or other elementary Teacher Training Schools.

Educational Planning during the World War II

During World War II, when Iran was faced with acute economic crises, the committee for preparing the development and reform for the country was established by the government. These committees emphasized administrative reform. In 1946 it was transformed into a new committee called the high plan committee. The main purpose of
the high plan committee was to prepare a development plan for the country. Two years later, in 1948, the first seven year development plan, with technical assistance provided by overseas consultants Incorporated, was approved by the parliament. The first two years of the first plan were spent on (a) establishing an organization that would carry out the plan and (b) reorganizing the industries which the new plan inherited from the former Industrial and mining bank. However, in 1954, because of financial problems and lack of funds, the first seven year plan came to an end without having contributed to the country’s economic development.

**The Second Plan (1955-1962)**

In 1955 the Second Seven Year Plan, designed for increasing production, developing experts, preparing public necessities within the country, developing agriculture and industries, raising the educational and living standard of the peoples, was approved by the government. Provision on for educational programs was vested in the ministry of education which operated within the framework of financial support of the plan organization. Therefore, the ministry established the objectives with priorities given to (a) the rapid expansion of the primary school system until primary education because nearly universal, and (b) the rapid buildup of vocational training in both agriculture and industry.

The review of the second seven year plan reveals that the objectives of the ministry of education were not clear and realistic. At the time, it was estimated that there were about 2.85 million children of primary school age (6–12) and 2.09 million of secondary school age (12–18). It was further estimated that only about 40 percent of the primary age children and only 11 percent of the 12–18 years old attended school. Furthermore, the most acute problem confronting the educational system the quantity and quality of teachers were still being neglected.

At the time, the normal schools graduated only about 500 new teachers annually. This number was sufficient to teach only an additional 1200 students. If the primary school system had expanded at this rate for the next 25 years, there would have been enough qualified teachers to teach only 60 percent of the number of primary-age children.
in 1960. Even if the output of the trained primary teachers had been doubled in the next five years, by 1965, it would still have taken another 40 years to distribute the enrollment of 1960 into classes of 30.

As was noted, there were two teacher training colleges which graduated about 250 students annually for secondary schools. There was an immediate need for 3,600 more secondary schools. The ministry had estimated that, if these teachers colleges could have increased their enrollment from 400 to 1,000, the need for secondary school teachers could have been satisfied within seven years. These unrealistic goals showed that the ministry’s objectives were not based upon a careful assessment of needs for the training of teachers in terms of quantity and quality. Also it inevitably caused the ministry to hire a great number of teachers who had no training at all.

The Third Plan (1962-1967)

An analysis of the place of education in the second plan shows that there was no comprehensive program or systematic educational planning in Iran. Each educational body operated on an ad hoc basis, outside the framework of any predetermined plan and independently of other sectors, regardless of any relationship which existed between different educational levels. For this reason, serious educational planning became important in the third development plan (1962-1967). This plan represented an attempt to relate the output of educational institutions to manpower requirements of Iran in various fields. The outline of the third plan pointed out that the educational philosophy of Iran was outmoded and that its original aim to produce an intellectual elite and a group of administrative leaders had failed to meet the needs of the country.

The Third Plan went on to emphasize the needs of modern Iran for an educational system which would have assisted in raising the standard of living of the people, developing the resources of the country, and inculcating proper values and attitudes for full individual potential through knowledge and training. The ultimate goal was stated as the education of all citizens for daily living, including that part of life concerned with earning a livelihood. In order to obtain this goal, systems of mass education were
needed. As a result, the plan aimed at four important specific objectives: (1) the continued expansion of primary education, (2) the development of a good system of secondary vocational schools, (3) an increase in the number and quality of teachers, and (4) a major adult literacy program. Another major goal appeared to be the decentralization of educational administration, and the encouragement of local participation in education, including local financing of education.

To achieve these goals in light of the recommendations of the Asian conferences of ministers of education in Karachi (1959) and Tokyo (1962), a twenty-year program for Iran was developed. Along with the twenty-year plan, the Third Plan gave priority to the continuous expansion of primary education, with the intention of providing educational facilities for 60 percent of the children in the 7-12 age groups. It was expected that by the end of the third Plan, 2.225 million pupils or 681,000 new students were to be enrolled in primary schools. To meet this increased need, 61 percent of the total sum allocated to education was devoted to the primary level. However, due to a lack of systematic and consecutive statistics, the number of pupils enrolled in primary school exceeded the projection by about 675,000 students.

At the secondary level, the plan emphasized qualitative improvements and recommended that the rate of growth of secondary education be slowed down by (a) an entrance exam, (b) a system of tuition fees, and (c) an examination at the end of the first cycle or 9th grade.

The rate of growth was envisaged to be about 6 percent annually so that the number of students would reach 400,000 by the end of the third plan period. The rationale underlying secondary education was not only to prepare students for economic and social life, but for entrance to the university as well.

In spite of the expectations of the authors of the Third Plan, the enrollment in Secondary School reached 658,000 by the end of this period. This meant that the rate of growth not only was not slowed, but it tripled that envisioned by the plan. This was due
partly to inadequate data and statistics in regard to realistic official data and forecasts, estimates varied widely and partly to the educational aspirations of the graduates of primary schools and their demands for secondary education. This created two consequences: postponement of the qualitative goals established by the plan, and failure to correct the inadequacy of physical facilities and of quantity and quality of teachers.51

In regard to types of activities which included (a) a routine training schools, (b) short-term plans to train university graduates as teachers, (c) and extensive programs designed to train selected teachers for primary and secondary schools.71

It was estimated that to meet the projected increase in the number of primary and secondary students 46,848 teachers would be needed during the plan period. However, only 34,620 teachers were trained during this period. Table 7 shows the estimated and actual number of teachers trained during the plan period. Table 8 shows that the number of secondary pupils increased by 68 percent between 1961 and 1965 whereas the number of secondary schools increased by only 31 percent and the number of teachers by 34.5 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Training</th>
<th>Estimated</th>
<th>Actual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary School Teachers</td>
<td>37,698</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School Teachers</td>
<td>8,450</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational School Teachers</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>46,848</strong></td>
<td><strong>34,620</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Education in Iran since the Islamic Revolution in 1979

Since the Islamic Revolution of Iran in 1979, the educational system of the country has gone under qualitative and quantitative changes. The structure of the education system in Iran which is basically divided into six cycles has named, pre-school, primary\(^1\), lower secondary\(^2\), Higher Secondary\(^3\), Pre-University\(^4\) and Higher Education\(^3\). The analysis of the Iranian Education System requires an in-depth analysis of its structure, which goes beyond the scope of this study. Thus, here the higher education level of education system in Iran will be reviewed.

**Figure No. 2.2.1.1 Education System in Iran**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-School</th>
<th>• 1 Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Age 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>• Class 1 to 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Age 6 – 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Secondary</td>
<td>• Class 6 to 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Age 11 – 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Secondary</td>
<td>• Class 9 to 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Age 16 – 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-University</td>
<td>• Class 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Age 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>• Graduation : 4 Years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Post Graduation: 2 Years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Primary education (grades one through five) is both free and compulsory for children, 6 years of age is confirmed the subjects taught in elementary school are: the Qur’an, religious teaching, Persian composition, Dictation, Persian reading and comprehension, Social Studies, Arts (painting, calligraphy & workmanship), Mathematics, and Physical Education. Promotion to each grade is based on annual examinations. Pupils complete this phase of their education by passing the primary school leaving examination held at the end of grade five. Those who fail must wait a whole year before taking the examination again. If they fail a second time, they cannot go on to the next phase of education and must instead pursue basic vocational training.

• Primary school is followed by three years of general education called the Guidance Cycle (Doreh-e rahnamaii) covering grades six through eight (ages 11-14). The curriculum for this phase of education emphasizes both theoretical and applied knowledge with the aim of determining whether students will pursue academic or technical/vocational studies. Students who successfully pass a regional examination conducted at the end of this cycle are awarded a certificate of general education/general certificate of guidance education. Those who receive appropriate grades on the exam can then continue their education in either the academic or technical/vocational tracks.

• This phase of education covers three years (formerly four) from grade nine through grade 11 (ages 14 to 17). Pupils at this level undertake either an academic or technical/vocational track contingent on their aptitude shown during the guidance cycle. Each track has its own admission criteria approved by the supreme council of education. Secondary education at state institutions is free of charge. However, students are obliged to pay fees for heating, maintenance and textbooks.

• This phase of education lasts for one year (completion of 24 semester credits) leading to the Certificate of Completion/Diploma Students who complete the Pre-
University cycle are eligible to take the Konkur (University Entrance Examination) for admission to the first year of undergraduate study.

Iran has a large network of private, public, and state affiliated universities offering degrees in higher education. State-run universities of Iran are under the direct supervision of Ministry of Science, Research and Technology (MSRT) for non-medical universities and Ministry of Health and Medical education (MHME) for medical colleges and universities. Although, these two ministries are responsible for higher education, however, the Ministry of education (ME) also has jurisdiction over some higher education programs such as colleges and universities of primary and lower secondary teachers education and higher institutes of technical and vocational education.

Iran has 52 universities, 42 medical colleges and universities, 60 post-secondary technical institutions, about 200 colleges/ higher institutes/ professional schools and a number of teacher training colleges. When the Islamic Republic was proclaimed in 1979, the High Council of the Cultural Revolution was established as the supreme policy-making body for higher education. Admission to an institution of higher education in Iran requires a Certificate of Completion/Diploma and a passing grade on the entrance examinations of universities (Konkur). In addition, some faculties (science, engineering, agriculture and medical sciences) require a diploma in science or mathematics.

Although Iran has a number of private colleges, most of the country's universities are state-run. Due to increasing number of applicants, admission to higher education institutions of Iran is through a nation-wide entrance examination called Konkur and thus, only part of students can enter universities. Education in state universities is free of charge though private universities authorized by Ministry of Science, Research and Technology of Iran are allowed to charge tuition fees. Other higher education institutions, which are operated by either Ministries other than the MSRT/MHME or by private groups, should be accredited by either the MSRT or MHME, and their programs also should be approved by these ministries.
After 1983, the demand for higher education increased significantly. Started insisting the government to implement some reforms. As a result, new institutions were opened and additional postgraduate courses were added to the existing curriculum. Before 1989, privately owned colleges and universities were not allowed to operate in Iran. However, a change in policy that year permitted private institutions to offer courses for the first time after Islamic revolution. In fact, the number of the applicants of entrance examinations of Universities has increased year by year and admission to university remains extremely competitive and consequently very difficult. Although all universities work with full capacity, demand for higher education still far exceeds supply. The most recent statistics show that in 2006-07 there were 1,298,474 students enrolled in entrance examination of public higher education in Iran, about 450,000 students were admitted in state universities. In order to alleviate this problem at least partly and in order to enable all talented, interested students to pursue their higher education, Open University and Distance education institutions were established.

On the one hand, Islamic Azad University (IAU) was established in 1981. Its activities quickly expanded throughout the country, so that today thousands of students are benefiting from its high educational standards. Not relying on government funding, it charges students with tuition fees. About 388,000 students were enrolled in 357 campuses/branches of this university in 2006-07, who are studying full time or part time courses. The most recent statistics show that in 2006-07 there were 1,140,000 students enrolled in entrance examination of IAU, about 388,000 students were admitted in IAU campuses. About 55% percent of these students were female and 45% male.

However, considering the large number of applicants, students have to participate in Islamic Azad University entrance examination in order to enter this university; even its entrance examinations match those of other universities. The certificates issued by this university are recognized upon evaluation by the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology.
Figure No. 2.2.1.2 Map of Iran

On the other hand, Payame Noor University (PNU), which offers higher education courses via distance education, was set up in 1987. PNU is a state institution even though it charges tuition fees. PNU is now providing distance education in 97 fields of study. Its central campus and headquarters are located in Tehran, and it has 5 regional campuses, 457 branches and centers throughout the country and 4 overseas campuses (Austria, UK, Emirate, Afghanistan and Malaysia). PNU is a legal body under the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology of Iran. The nature and scale of its operation make PNU the most flexible and cost-effective higher education institution in Iran. It is also the largest state university in terms of student number and coverage. In 2006-07 academic years, the University enrolled about 681,100 students in 97-degree programs at 457 study campuses and branches. And it is still expanding, opening new branches across the country. The instructional media include self-study textbooks, TV Programs, audio-video tapes, slides, films, CDs, online learning and group and individual tutorials held at weekends and educational TV programs broadcast on Channel 7 of Islamic Republic of Iran Broadcasting (IRIB7) network. PNU mainly aims at providing applicants who are not able to attend universities and higher education institutions, the opportunity to continue
their education. Admission is gained through a national entrance exam. Degrees from this institution are recognized by the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology.

**Table No. 2.2.6. Grading System**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>0-4 Scale</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>0-20 Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>16-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>14-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>12-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>10-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Fail</td>
<td>0-9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:

An average of 12 is required for graduation in undergraduate level.
An average of 14 is required for graduation in postgraduate level.
An average of 16 is required for graduation in Doctorate level.

**2.2.3. TEACHER EDUCATION IN INDIA**

Post-independent India, especially the period after the promulgation of the constitution in 1950, witnessed a systematic development of education. Like other sectors, education received an impetus with the country instituting a series of five-year plans from 1951. Over time, commissions and committees have considered the problems and prospects of education and have recommended structural changes. The latest among them is the document on National Policy on education (1986). It examined all levels and aspects of education (including teacher education) in depth, and formulated comprehensive recommendations to bring about reforms in the educational system. Based on the recommendations of the educational Commission, and the debate that followed, a resolution regarding a national policy on education was adopted by the parliament in 1986. This resolution emphasized that the educational system must produce young men and women of character and ability, who are committed to national service and development.
Indian education has witnessed a massive quantitative expansion at all levels, and efforts have also been directed at qualitative improvement. Yet the policy statements were not accompanied by the required financial and organizational support. Thus, the problems of access, quality and utility still remained to be tackled, and it was soon recognized that neither normal linear expansion nor the existing pace and nature of improvement could meet the needs of the situation. This, together with a variety of new challenges and social needs, made it imperative to evolve a new design for education and new policy directions in the context of the contemporary realities and future concerns. The National Policy on education was, therefore, adopted in May 1986.

India is a federal country with 25 states and six union territories. Most of the administration and control of education is with the states. Education was a state responsibility until 1976, when it was brought under the concurrent list by a constitutional amendment. Committed expenditure on education at all levels has been the responsibility of state governments. The central government makes provisions for expenditure on education generally for stimulating developments of certain aspects and for centrally sponsored projects and schemes. The percentage of outlay on education, as a proportion of total public sector outlay, declined from 7.2 per cent in the first five-year Plan (1951-1956) to 2.6 per cent in the sixth five-year Plan (1980-1985). However, it again increased to 2.8 per cent during the current five-year Plan (1985-1990). The present outlay is considered inadequate to meet the financial needs of education at different levels. The National Policy on education, however, envisages that from the eighth five-year Plan onwards, the outlay for education would exceed six per cent of the national income.

2.2.3.1 Development of Teacher Education

Pre-service teacher education: Financial provisions for teacher education are included in the provisions for secondary education, as well as university education, in the departmental plans. In the absence of specific allocations for teacher education, it is difficult to judge adequacy of funds. However, there is currently a glut of trained teachers in certain states in the country; consequently, funding may be considered sufficient for
turning out the numbers required. But if the aim is to provide quality input teacher training institutions, for which financial resources are crucial, the funds are inadequate. The University Grants Commission (UGC) is helping teacher training institutions in the country make up deficiencies in the area of equipment, such as books for the library, and buildings, by giving specific grants.

The overall training capacity of elementary and secondary teacher training institutions is more than adequate at present to meet the requirements of elementary and secondary schools in the country. Although the demand for teachers in the country has been increasing from year to year, due to pressure for expansion of school facilities, the system has been able to meet the demand for additional teachers.

The output of elementary and secondary teachers has been increasing to meet the demand for additional teachers in the country. The number of elementary and secondary teacher training institutions has also increased. In 1979-1980, there were about 945 (presently around 1,000) elementary teacher training institutions in the country, with a total enrolment of 87,382. Assuming that the bulk of the teachers teaching at the middle level have had training from elementary teacher training institutions, the annual demand of around 85,000 teachers is met within the enrolment figure of 87,382. Output slightly exceeds demand. There were 338 (presently 550) secondary teacher training institutions in the country in 1970-1980, with a total enrolment of 56,339. The supply exceeds the demand for 45,000 teachers by 25 per cent.

The present rate of output of primary and middle school teachers may not exceed the targets of the seventh five-year Plan (1980-1985). During this period, the government proposes to enroll 25 million additional students in formal schools (10 million in classes 1 to 5 and 15 million in classes 6 to 8) to achieve universal primary education by 1990. Therefore, 970,000 teachers will be needed during the seventh Plan. The present rate for turning out primary and middle school teachers, especially given the 200,000 elementary teachers currently unemployed, can hardly meet the projected requirement for teachers.
Thus, the output of primary and middle school teachers will fall short of the demand for teachers.

The minimum qualifications prescribed for admission to elementary teacher education institutions are different in different states. In some states, the entry qualification is matriculation/high school certificate (that is, ten years of schooling), while other states require higher secondary (11 years) or senior secondary examination (12 years). But in most of the states and union territories, the entry qualification is matriculation. The duration of teacher training courses also varies from year to year.

2.2.3.2. New Initiatives in Teacher Education

The 1986 National Policy on Education (NPE) gives paramount importance to teachers’ status and their training. In fact, the NPE has stressed that attention will be given to overhauling the system of teacher education, bearing in mind the pivotal importance of teacher education. Keeping in mind the highest priority given to teacher education programmers in NPE and POA, the Department of education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India has prepared a centrally-sponsored scheme of teacher education, which has five parts:

- Large-scale orientation of teachers;
- Establishment of district institutes of education and training;
- Strengthening colleges of teacher education and upgrading of the Institute for Advance Study in education;
- Strengthening SCERTs; and
- Strengthening university departments of educational studies.

Central assistance, as regards these schemes, will be provided on the basis of: systematic identification of institutions; determination of requirements of each institution; and preparation of a proper programmer of teacher education, including the phasing out and closing down of substandard and redundant institutions.
Establishment of DIETs: A new type of educational institution called the District Institute of education and Training (DIET) has been conceived within the NPE and the POA as one of the major steps towards effective teacher education. The DIET is designed to improve and enrich the academic background of elementary school teachers, non-formal and adult education functionaries and other personnel at the lowest level of the educational system.

Thus, facilities for qualitative improvement are to be made available at the very doorstep of the teachers and others involved. DIET’s aim is to extend to the remotest parts of the country, with relative ease, the advantages of the educational knowledge available about management and planning, research and experimentation and the existing variety of rich resources and learning materials. It will provide academic support to the proposed District Boards of education.

The DIET is a step towards the decentralization of opportunities of professional preparation and extension of excellence from urban to rural areas, from the ‘elite’ to the ‘general’ population of teachers, from ‘higher’ to ‘lower’ levels of education, and from the ‘academic’ to the ‘teacher.’ It will provide guidance and leadership to ensure that effective measures are used in the four aspects of the universalization of elementary education through access, enrolment, retention and standards. The DIET should be in a position to devise for local situations specific ways to increase enrolment and, more importantly, drastically reduce the alarming drop-out rate at the primary school level. It should also facilitate the education and literacy of adults and others who, unfortunately, dropped out of the formal system when they should not have, due to economic and social handicaps.

2.2.3.2. Future Directions in Teacher Education

Conferring statutory status to NCTE: Despite concerted efforts by the NCTE over a period of more than a decade, there have been difficulties in the ways of implementing its recommendations for the maintenance of standards and the qualitative improvement of
teacher education at all levels. It has been realized time and again that, without the NCTE having statutory status, it is not possible for it to have powers to implement its policy and programmer. In light of the experience cited? The 1986 National Policy of education (NPE) has stated, ‘The National Council for Teacher education will be provided with the necessary capability to accredit institutions of teacher education and provide guidance regarding curricula and methods.’ The programmer of action for implementation of policy has suggested that, to remedy some of the difficulties inherent in the present constitution, the NCTE be given autonomous and statutory status. It will perform the following functions:

- Accreditation and non-accreditation of institutions of teacher education;
- The laying down of standards and norms for institutions of teacher education;
- The development of guidelines for curricula and methods of teacher education; and
- Other functions, such as the earning of credits for in-service education, and deciding upon the duration of various courses, the emphasis to be placed in training programmers for NFE/AE instructors, and the place and role of correspondence education in teacher education courses.

2.2.3.4. Networking of Teacher Education Institutions

The NPE also states that networking arrangements will be created between institutions of teacher education and university departments of education. With about 550 teacher training institutions at the secondary stage and about 1,000 at the elementary stage, it seems necessary to develop some innovative networking structures aimed at improving the existing educational system. These will have new mechanisms to achieve the following objectives:

- Mobilize human and physical resources to achieve their optimum utilization;
- Develop and maximize the utilization of teacher capacities;
• Raise and maintain the standard and quality of teacher training and school education; and

• Monitor and evaluate the performance and contribution of teacher education in terms of its ability to meet the needs of the school system.

To ensure efficiency and smooth functioning, an organizational structure with proper networking is needed. Horizontal linkage among the institutions of teacher education is essential to enable the institutions to assist one another through sharing educational resources.

Linkage among the institutions is also needed to rationalize pre-service training programmers and in-service education of a continuous nature to develop a national system of teacher education. At the district level, DIET will have its academic link with District Boards of education. The DIET will have direct links with secondary schools.

Vertical linkage is needed to remove isolation from such state level agencies as state departments of education, the State Council of educational Research and Training, state institutes of education, state institutes of science education, state institutes of educational technology, and other support institutions.

Further linkages should be established with such regional agencies as regional institutes of English, Regional Technical teacher training institutes, regional colleges of education, and other support institutions.

Another network can be established with the central agencies that work directly in the area of teacher education.

2.2.2. TEACHER EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA

Australian education, in terms of schools, has a history of approximately 200 years. For almost half of that time, the preparation of teachers was largely a matter of ‘apprenticeship’ in the form of the monitorial system imported from England. It was not until later in the nineteenth century, with the development of the earlier universities in Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Hobart and Adelaide, and the concurrent development of the first teachers’ colleges, that the process took an institutional form. That form, with the
major source of primary teachers being in teachers’ colleges, and that of secondary teachers in universities, lasted until the 1960s. The period since the 1960s has seen quite dramatic changes in the administration of teacher education programmers.

**Pre-service teacher education:** In the period before the 1960s, the main group with the formal responsibility for teacher education was the state education department. In the period since, the formal responsibility has moved to a variety of bodies: the commonwealth Tertiary education Commission, through its Universities Council and Council of CAEs; the various state authorities, such as the West Australian Post-secondary education Commission (WAPSEC); and individual institutions, including all Australian universities except two and the great majority of colleges of advanced education. It has been a period of unprecedented change, in both extent and rapidity. An aspect that has not been documented to any extent, but which is of considerable significance, is the almost complete phasing out of studentships. For a very long period, the teacher studentship was the traditional means of entering the profession. Students accepted a studentship, generally for the last two years of high school, and this continued through the period of training. It provided an allowance, a guaranteed entry into training in approved courses of preparation, guaranteed positions in teaching, and a financial penalty, the ‘bond,’ if the student did not accept a teaching position. They represented by far the largest number of tertiary scholarships, at their peak over 70,000 in comparison with 150,000 teachers in schools. Their effects were substantial and would repay further study. Surprisingly, after being a Centre of controversy for so long, they have occasioned scarcely a murmur in their passing.

2.2.2. TEACHER EDUCATION IN REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Since the end of the decade-long Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), China has made great efforts to modernize agriculture, industry, science and technology, and national defense. This has been known as the four modernizations Drive. Geared to this Four Modernization Drive, education has achieved great success in its restoration, development, and innovation, in which teacher education has played a strategic role. More significantly, it has been recognized that without effective teacher education the
successful realization of the Four Modernization Drive simply will not be possible. Thus, the Chinese government explicitly addressed the significance of teacher education as a ‘machine tool’ of the overall educational cause and the fundamental base for cultivating a new generalist who possesses lofty ideals, moral integrity, a strong sense of discipline, and a well-rounded educational background. The reason is that the current generation must be ready to commit itself to confront the challenges of the future. To recover from the destruction of education in general, and of teacher education in particular, the government has adopted the following basic measures.

In the past five years there has been much development in teacher education in China. The number of normal universities and teachers’ colleges has increased by 47 per cent (81 institutions); graduates, 50 per cent; admissions, nearly 200 per cent; enrolment, 25 per cent; and full-time faculty, 140 per cent. The increase of post-graduate enrolment has been the most notable. In 1985, the number of post-graduates was 3.6 times that of 1980. Among institutions of higher teacher education, teachers’ professional colleges constituted the majority, as teachers for junior secondary schools were in great demand. Among 253 institutions (1985), normal universities and teachers’ colleges accounted for 70; teachers’ professional colleges, 183. There was little increase in normal schools, however, because of the upgrading of many normal schools to teachers’ professional colleges. Yet in the same period, they turned out about 900,000 graduates, quite a considerable figure. In 1985, there were 1,028 normal schools across the country, including 57 for early childhood education, with enrolments of 24,352; new admissions accounted for 9,781. Full-time teachers numbered 2,595. The expansion of normal schools (early childhood) doubled in the past five years, both in terms of number of schools and student enrolments.

As regards in-service teacher education, in 1985, the enrolment of institutes of education was 2.8 times that of 1980. From 1984 to 1985, the number of teacher advancement schools increased by 256; enrolment rose by about 36 per cent. Correspondence courses and extension colleges for teacher education programmers have also been expanded. A great many teachers took various training programmers: single courses, advanced studies, remedial studies and teaching methodology.
Among the 247,122 teachers who attended the institutes of education in 1985, 79,480 were on a full-time basis and 167,642 on a part-time basis. In addition, in 1985, 34,033 teachers completed their studies in various short-term programmers in institutes of education. Admissions to these short-term programmers totaled 17,214 that year, and the total enrolments were 25,049. The increase in the number of teachers’ advancement schools was 256 in 1985, compared to 145 in 1984, and enrolments increased by 36 per cent.

In 1984, graduates of teachers’ correspondence institutes numbered 1,753 and enrolments were 2,611; correspondence departments and extension colleges sponsored by the teachers’ colleges and normal universities had 22,311 graduates; admissions were 52,624; and enrolments were 129,346. To meet the great demand for school teachers, both pre-service and in-service, teacher education programmers in general colleges and universities have been widely established. In China, teacher education generally denotes pre-service and in-service education for those who are to be in the career of teaching.

2.2.4 TEACHER EDUCATION IN JAPAN

Japan has placed special importance on the promotion of education ever since the modern school education system came into being in 1872 by aggressively implementing measures for securing teachers. This fact, coupled with the people’s traditional zeal for education and the idea of ‘equal opportunity in Education’ (with which educational reform was executed as part of democratization after the Second World War), has brought about the extensive popularization of education and high standards of education.

On the other hand, various phenomena called ‘desolation’ in education have appeared, particularly within secondary education. These involve excessive competition in entrance examinations and, in particular, the problem of bullying and school violence that has occurred in recent years. Another problem, which exists because the educational process places excessive emphasis on intellectual training and because there is uniform teaching and guidance, concerns schools which have not adequately coped with the diversification of the abilities and aptitudes of students, caused by the quantitative
expansion of education. There are some teachers who lack the capabilities required for effective teaching, and who also lack a sense of mission as teachers.

In view of new changes and the emergence of new tasks, due to educational development in Japan and the occurrence of these problems in current education, the development of science and technology, the advancement of the age of information, and the increased responsibility of Japan in the international community, the government set up a ‘National Council on educational Reform’ in August 1984 to examine educational reform from a long-term perspective. The Council recently submitted its second report. In the latest report, the subject of improving the quality of teachers has been taken up as an important part of improving the quality of elementary and secondary education. This means that it is accepted that the success or failure of school education depends upon teachers’ capabilities. The next section of this chapter pertains to the issues referred to by the National Council on educational Reform in its report concerning the role to be played by teachers.

Training elementary and secondary school teachers in Japan are trained in universities or junior colleges approved by the Minister of education, Science and Culture. Most elementary school teachers are trained through four-year elementary teacher training courses at national universities. Some are trained through other courses at universities and junior colleges. Lower secondary school teachers are trained at universities or junior colleges, while upper secondary school teachers are trained at universities (undergraduate courses) and graduate schools.

To become a teacher, an individual is required to obtain a teacher’s certificate awarded by the prefectural board of education. For each level or type of school teacher, certificates are divided into two classes according to the required years for graduation and the required number of credits to be accumulated through the teacher training courses undertaken. A regular teacher certificate granted by a prefectural board of education is valid in all prefectures for life.

To obtain an elementary school teacher’s certificate, the candidate must undergo practice teaching for four weeks; to obtain either a lower or upper secondary school teacher’s certificate, a candidate must undergo a two-week practice teaching session.
Longer teaching courses are available at schools attached to teacher training colleges and faculties.

2.2.5 TEACHER EDUCATION IN REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Pre-service Education

The teaching profession is one of the vocations in which strong professional ethics and social values are emphasized. Inevitably, it assumes a reciprocal relationship between teachers and students; therefore, greater emphasis has been placed on the social value and professional ethics of the teaching profession than perhaps on any other vocation.

In recent years, however, teachers themselves and the public at large have experienced major changes in their perception of the teaching profession because of dramatic shifts in values which occurred as the result of rapid industrialization. Teachers have witnessed a debasement of their working conditions in addition to unsatisfactory social and economic treatment. As a result, the dignity of the teaching profession has been lowered and the respect for teachers damaged. These changes have weakened the incentive system for teacher training applicants and have led to deterioration in the standards of teacher applicants.

As the quality of education can be no better than that of its teachers, it is necessary that every possible effort be made to improve the quality of teachers. These efforts should support the contention that teaching should be a profession. Therefore, it is desirable to identify the needs of teacher education and ensure that these are met.

Teachers’ evaluations, which reveal that teacher education institutions fail to adequately execute their functions and that condition for maintaining the teaching professions as a professional job are insufficiently addressed, support the need and importance of restructuring teacher education programmers.

To enhance the quality of teachers presupposes the qualitative amelioration of teacher education the existing selection systems of teacher education institutions fail to reflect the psychological factors of teacher applicants such considerations as aptitude,
personality, and attachment to the teaching profession. In other words, they don’t appropriately select and educate those teacher applicants who do possess the attitudes and confirmed beliefs required to serve as teachers.

Consequently, the existing scholastic achievement-oriented selection system needs to be shifted to a more developed selection system that takes into account these psychological factors. Additionally, it is worthwhile to study the way of selecting teacher applicants through recommendations by principals of their alma maters of Municipal and Provincial Boards of education in their hometowns. This kind of special selection system might be regarded as having significant meaning, in that it could select those teacher applicants who possess resolute preparedness and confirmed belief in teaching, have teacher applicants recognize anew their standing and roles, and support opportunities for the enhancement of teacher self-confidence and pride.

2.2.6 TEACHER EDUCATION IN MALAYSIA

Teacher Education in Malaysia is organized at two levels: University level: Five of the six local universities offer courses in education which can either be taken concurrently with an undergraduate degree or consecutively for a period of one year after completing the degree, leading to a diploma. Teachers so trained, known as graduate teachers, are normally assigned to teach the upper classes in Malaysian secondary schools. In addition, some universities also offer post-graduate courses leading to a Masters or a Doctorate in education.

College level: This five-semester programmer (2.5 years) for secondary school leavers who apply to become teachers is offered in 28 teachers’ colleges throughout the country. Those graduating from these institutions are awarded Certificates in education and are known as college-trained teachers. They usually teach in primary schools or in the lower classes of secondary schools.

The certificate programmer was of two-year duration until 1976, when it was extended to three years following the recommendations of the Cabinet committee which reviewed the implementation of the National education Policy in 1979. The program was again reviewed recently and all courses have now been reduced to 2.5 years except for trade courses which continue to be three years in duration. The university programs are
organized by the respective universities through their departments/faculties of education. As there is considerable autonomy within each university in the kind of programs it offers, the courses of study for the various programs tend to differ from one university to another.

The teachers’ colleges, however, come under the direct control of the Teacher education Division of the Ministry of education (TED). Various aspects of pre-service and in-service teacher education programs in the teachers’ colleges, including student selection, courses of study, examinations, certification and staffing and development, are centrally planned and coordinated by TED.

TED works closely with other professional divisions of the Ministry to ensure the success of its programs. For example, the educational Planning and Research Division provide input regarding the number of teachers to be trained yearly and the kind of subject specialization program that should be offered in the colleges.

The Curriculum Unit at TED liaises with the Ministry’s Curriculum Development Centre to ensure that the curriculum for teacher education is in line with the needs of the national school curriculum. The Ministry’s Schools Division looks after the posting of teachers graduating from the colleges; they are posted in the various states and schools throughout the country.

2.2.7 TEACHER EDUCATION IN REPUBLIC OF MALDIVES

Teacher education is altogether a recent development in the Maldives for the systematic launching of teacher education programs only dates back to 1977. Therefore, the various programs undertaken and the developmental trends and phases that teacher education has experienced and the structural changes it has undergone can all be regarded as new and innovative initiatives.

In 1977, the Maldives started its Teacher Education Program as a primary Teacher Training Project under the assistance of Unesco/UNDP and UNICEF. It was a major development that grew within the educational Development Centre (EDC) under its teacher training section.
This important activity was organized at a most crucial time. Public schools in the capital were almost entirely staffed by expatriate teachers and most of the atoll schools were staffed by untrained teachers.

Structural development: The scope and responsibility of the teacher training section has widened over the years with the section gradually increasing and strengthening both its administrative and professional capacities. The result has been the raising of the training of teachers to institute level in the eighth year of its introduction in the country. In March 1984, the teacher training section was separated from the EDC to form an autonomous body: the Institute for Teacher education (ITE). Thus, the raising of teacher training to institute level can be regarded as one of the major innovations in teacher education between 1977 and 1986. The most distinguishing aspect, however, was not the physical separation into a different building under an ‘Institute’ name. It was the qualitative transformation within the structural change that was most noteworthy, because it indicated that there was a sufficient professional and infrastructural maturity in the country to cope up with an expanded program of Teacher education. It highlighted the challenging task of teacher education and emphasized the importance of teacher education as one of the principal instruments for achieving universal primary education in the country.

While it is true that an ‘Institute’ is not only buildings, physical facilities are still essential to its effective operation. The transformation from a teacher training section to a teacher education institute provided independent premises, including classrooms, a library, audio-visual facilities and more independent working facilities for staff. The library enabled trainees and staff of the Institute to work more independently; library resources are also available to teachers and other personnel in the teaching field.

Developments in pre-service teacher education: A major development was a change in the duration of the primary teacher training course which began in 1977. For five years, from 1977 to 1981, a one-year primary teacher training course (Dhivehi Medium) was conducted.

During this time, trends were observed: a decrease in the average age of trainees and a poorer general education at the point of entry. Therefore, it was decided to extend the course duration from one year to two years, the first year being devoted to raising the
general educational standards of entrants and the second year to mainly teaching methodology and skills.

2.2.8 TEACHER EDUCATION IN NEPAL

The history of teacher training in Nepal dates back to 1948 when the first teacher training Centre was established to prepare primary school teachers for basic schools. However, with the discontinuation of the basic education scheme, influenced by the Gandhian movement to reform the education system, the operation of this training Centre was terminated after a few years.

The College of education was established in 1956, as recommended by the Nepal National Education Planning Commission of 1954, to provide a four-year B.Ed. program for secondary school teachers. Simultaneously, mobile Normal schools offered a ten-month training program to prepare primary school teachers. These mobile Normal schools were changed to permanent primary school teacher training centers in 1963. A one-year B.Ed. program was also started in the College of education to train graduates from other disciplines. The College of education and the training centers trained about 700 secondary teachers and over 9,000 primary school teachers between 1956 and 1971.

The implementation of the National education System Plan (1971-1976) opened up new possibilities for the development of teacher education in Nepal. The adoption of the policies that made training mandatory to secure tenure in teaching and the introduction of a salary differential between trained and untrained teachers made teacher training very popular in terms of both in-service and pre-service training. To meet the new demand for trained teachers, all training institutions the College of education, primary teacher training centers, the National Vocational Training Centre, and the English Language Training Centre, all of which were under the control of the Ministry of education were amalgamated into the Institute of education, Tribhuvan University. As a result, all teacher training activities were organized under the umbrella of the Institute of education (IOE).

The scope of activities of the IOE was considerably enlarged and diversified. For instance, during 1972-1978, the IOE conducted fifteen varieties of training program at its
sixteen campuses in different parts of the country. It also developed plans and program for teachers to upgrade their academic standing by participating in various training program. This helped thousands of primary teachers to upgrade their status to that of lower-secondary school teachers. Consequently, teacher education program became more academic and less professional, in the sense that teachers in training were more interested in accumulating academic credits than in simply learning skills to improve the quality of school instruction.

2.2.9 TEACHER EDUCATION IN NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand is a relatively small nation with a population of some 3.2 million people. One-third of all New Zealanders are said to be active in one way or another in the national system of education through the early childhood, primary, secondary, tertiary or continuing education sectors. Issues that form part of the debate and discussion within the wider community, therefore, become issues associated with education.

The overriding issue on the minds of many New Zealanders during the last twenty to thirty years has been one of coming to terms with an increasingly diverse community. Also, New Zealanders are recognizing their place as a South Pacific nation and becoming conscious that the indigenous people, the Maori, are expressing their aspirations for a future that recognizes their culture, language and values alongside those of the majority population. The current Maori perspective would see recognition of biculturalism, leading to New Zealand being recognized as a multicultural community, as being of vital importance. At the same time, the historical links of the majority population with Europe, while still significant, are nonetheless weakening. The resulting shift in the way the New Zealand community perceives itself raises a number of issues that impinge on the education and training of teachers.

With this shifting emphasis in mind this chapter begins with a summary of the more significant developments in teacher education in New Zealand since the mid-1970s. There follows a description of the current provisions for teacher education at the initial, induction,
Recognition of the increasing cultural diversity of the New Zealand community has led to special efforts to recruit into teaching a mix of candidates that better reflects the profile of the New Zealand population. As an alternative to quotas, the emphasis in selection has been on setting targets for Maori and Pacific Island candidates. Developments in the recruitment campaigns are on the identification of appropriate role models, the use of cultural networks as a means of recruitment, the inclusion of appropriate members of cultural communities on selection panels and the use of cultural settings to conduct selection interviews.

To provide specialist teachers with the Maori language, procedures have been introduced that allow for the attestation by the Maori community of candidates with a suitable background in Maori culture and language. The attestation is recognized by the department as a qualification providing for entry to secondary teacher training. Candidates, who are attested, however, are still required to undertake a teacher training selection interview.

Particular emphasis is given in the annual teacher training recruitment campaign to recruit teachers for subjects in which there is a shortage, and special financial assistance is available to those people with qualifications for which a special need exists.

By the mid-1970s, three-year primary teacher training was fully implemented and the enrolments of teachers’ colleges had increased significantly. New accommodation and facilities were being provided on each of the seven college campuses. By the late 1970s, however it was clear that teachers were in oversupply and college intakes were reduced. As a consequence, total enrolments fell by 50 per cent. At the same time, accommodation shortages were acute in the polytechnic sector and a number of joint sharing arrangements were initiated. The North Shore campus in Auckland was given over to a technical institute, and teacher training activity in the Auckland area was consolidated on the Epsom campus. The surplus teachers’ college accommodation also provided space for the introduction of such non-teaching program as social work and librarianship training.
2.2.10 TEACHER EDUCATION PHILIPPINES

Teacher education in the Philippines had its beginnings as early as the Spanish period (eighteenth century). Its growth and development are pronounced in terms of the number of teacher education institutions established in the thirteen regions of the country and in the promulgation of policies and standards by the Department of education, Culture and Sports on teacher education. Due attention is given not only to the quantitative but also to the qualitative aspects of student teacher preparation, which has since become the main thrust of the program. Teacher education program have always been dictated by the urgent needs of the time.

The American regime established the foundation of the present system of teacher education. To provide formal training for teachers, Act No. 74, passed by the Philippines Commission in 1901, established the Philippines Normal School. In 1916, the four-year secondary normal course was introduced in the capitals of six provinces, with applicants needing only intermediate graduation for admission. It was only in 1929 that entrance requirements for the Philippines Normal School included high school graduation as a prerequisite for admission. This normal course of two years, to prepare students for elementary school teaching, adopted a pragmatic program oriented towards the development of teaching skills. Emphasis was on methods because of the urgent need of the educational system to produce elementary school teachers in the shortest possible time. Earlier, even intermediate school graduates were recruited to teach in the primary schools. The three main types of curricula were the academic curriculum, the home economics curriculum, and the combined curriculum.

Since the early American regime and until the early 1960s, the only government agency involved in preparing secondary school teachers was the University of the Philippines College of education. The training of elementary school teachers was left to the Philippines Normal School and the regional normal schools. However, by the 1960s, not only the University of the Philippines but also state teachers’ colleges and some regional normal schools were offering both elementary and secondary teacher training courses.
The roots of present-day vocational and industrial/technical education are traceable to the establishment of public secondary schools in 1927; but it was only after the passage of the Vocational education Act of 1937 that the first vocational/industrial teacher education curriculum was organized. This law, which authorized vocational schools to offer a full secondary trade curriculum, gave rise to the need for professionally trained vocational school teachers.

The problem of undersupply of professionally qualified elementary school teachers spurred interest in the elementary teacher’s course, and so enrolment in elementary teacher education registered an upward trend. To encourage more schools to offer teacher education courses, requirements for opening normal schools and colleges were relaxed. As a result, teachers’ colleges mushroomed, resulting also in the relaxation of standards. To control and improve private teacher training institutions, therefore, various measures have been adopted by the government since 1950.
References


18. Joined committee on higher Education, Teacher Education programs, Washington state legislature, 1973, p.3


23. Hirst and Peters (1965),


27. Courses, and so on. Hilliard explained that the professional Education of a teacher involves three main components.


29. Rasik


35. Bordoloi, A.D


46. Zoroaster’s ideas about education appeared in avesta, one of Zoroaster’s books written in the Pahlavi language. For more information see “Ganjine-I Shayegan” edited and translated from the Pahlavi language into persian by Bahranji Sanjana. Also see Williams Jackson in monroa’s Encyclopadia of education, vol. IV, p.646

47. Arasteh, Ross, Education and a Social Awakening in Iran, Second Edition Revised, Leiden, E.J. Brill, 1969, p.4

48. Maktabs were non-grsded elementary Schools taught by one teacher called Maktab-dar, while Madrasehs were similar to higher education institutes which stressed Arabic Language, religious law, Islamic philosophy, and the Holy Quran

49. Arasteh, op.cit.,p.18.
50. It should be noted that the first formal University in Iran was established about 2500 Years ago during the reign of Darius and was called the University of Gondishapoor. This University was important center of higher learning in ancient Iran and continued to educate individuals until 300 years after arab invasion of Iran in the 7th century. For more comprehensive information see Education in Ancient Iran, by Aliresa Eekmat, Tehran, I. R.P.S.E., 1971( in Persian)

51. Szyliowics, op. oit., p. 171. Also see Arasteh, op. oit., p.28.

52. Arasteh, op. cit., p. 32. Also see Banani Amin, the Modernieation of Iran, Stanford University Press, Stanford, California, 1961, P. 89.

53. Institutte for Research and Planning in Science and Education ( IRPSE), Analytical Study on Financing of Higher Education in Iran, Tehran, Iran, May 1973, P.71

54. Hablut-Matin, Calautta, 1900, no5, pp.18-19, translation and quotation is from Arasteh, op. cit.,p.72


56. Figures are adapted from : The Report on seven Year Development for the plan Organisation of the Imperial Government of Iran, 1949.

57. In 1974, private schools at all levels become public and were financed by government.


63. Figures are drawn from : Statistics Year Books of the Minstry of Education - 1959-60 and 1960-61. Also from the report of seven year Plan, Plan Organization, Iran.
64. In recent years this organization is entitled “Plan and Budget Organisation”. This organization is responsible for all areas of development including economic, industrial, and agricultural as well as the development of education.

65. Review of the second seven year plan program of Iran, plan organization, Iran, 1960, P.5

66. Review of the second seven year plan, op.cit., p.94


70. Fourth National Development Plan, op.cit., pp. 259-60

71. Education in the third Developmental Plan, op. cit., pp. 7-8

72. Outline of the third Plan, op. cit., p.123. Also see Education in the third Developmental Plan, op.cit., table No.17.

73. Ministry of science, Research and technology, Iran

74. Adaval, S.B. (et al.) 1984. Analytical Study of Teacher Education in India. Allahabad:

75. Amitabh Prakashan. Adiseshiah, S.1985. ‘Education Reform Perspectives in India.’ Unesco ROEAP.


