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GRADUATE COLLEGE

AN HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN IRAN FROM 1900 TO 1971

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY

GHAFUR SADEGHY

Norman, Oklahoma

1972

AN HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN IRAN FROM 1900 TO 1971

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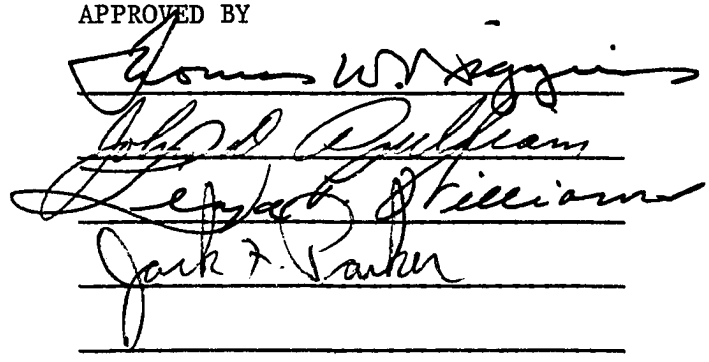

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

TO

MY PARENTS,

MY WIFE AND CHILDREN,

My first and most devoted teachers and friends,

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my appreciation to the many people whose interest and help have made this endeavor possible.

I fully realize that without the assistance of my advisors, teachers, colleagues, and friends, it would have been impossible for me to accomplish a study of this magnitude. Therefore, appreciation is due to all those who were involved in this work. To Thomas W. Wiggins, Chairman of the Dissertation Committee, who has guided, supervised, and inspired the author toward academic success, I extend deep appreciation. I am grateful to John Pulliam, the Co-chairman of the Dissertation Committee, whose help and counsel were manifest throughout this study. Also I am pleased to have this opportunity to express my appreciation to Lloyd Williams; his prompt and courteous attention to my efforts and his wise suggestions have made my task much easier. For the preparation of this dissertation, the author is deeply indebted to Jack Parker for his counsel, constructive criticisms, and helpful suggestions. At last, I must take this opportunity to recognize the contribution made to this effort by my wife, Carolyn, and my children, Gary and Bryan, who have graciously tolerated a part-time husband and father for many long months.

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AN HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN IRAN FROM 1900 TO 1971

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

> Put peace men in power; educate the editors and statesmen to responsibility...seize every pretext, however small, for arbitration methods, multiply the precedents; foster rival excitements, and invent new outlets for heroic energy; and from one generation to another the chances are the irritation will grow less acute and states of strain less dangerous among nations...[1]

President John F. Kennedy said in his inaugural address, "Ask not what your country can do for you, but what you can do for your country." With such major problems as ecological deterioration and the population explosion, the time has come to ask not what your world can do for you, but what you can do for the world.

It is time for nations to realize their independence and the need for cooperative action. It is no longer a question of whether to act or not to act, but whether we shall act with or without proper understanding and planning. Educators should take the initiative in this endeavor. Therefore, the basic purpose of this study is to produce

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[1]From an address by William James at the Universal Peace Congress Banquet in Boston in 1904.

greater awareness and understanding in one part of the world--Iran.

Background of the Problem

People and the Dynasties

The people of "The land of the lion and the sun" have been called Persians by Western people since ancient Greek times, but they have always called themselves Iranians. The Indo-European tribes were among the first settlers to come to this country, and they called themselves the Ary or Airy, which means wholesome and brave. The name Iran has been derived from the original Aryan through to Eran to the present day "Iran." In March 1935, the state was officially named Iran to replace the Hellenistic name of Persia.[1]

Iran has 2,500 years of recorded history, most of which dates from Achaimenid times when Cyrus, the founder of the Persian empire, was the ruler. The details of the political organization, the army, and the life of the people are derived from Greek historians.[2]

Many dynasties have ruled Iran since the Airyans came. The first of these were the Medes who established the first government in Iranian history. Iran has been conquered many times and has been influenced by many tribes, but has always managed to retain a sense of unity and nationhood.

According to Brown:

> Again and again Persia has been apparently submerged by Greeks, Parthians, Arabs, Mongols, Turks, and Afghans; again and again

---

[1]George Lenczowski, The Middle East in World Affairs, (3rd ed.; Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1962), p. 182.

[2]David N. Wilber, Iran Past and Present, (New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1963), p. 15.

> she has been broken up into petty states ruled by tribal chiefs; and yet she has hitherto always re-emerged as a distinct nation with peculiar and well marked idiosyncrasies.[1]

In 1794 Agha Muhammad Khan Qajar established sovereignty over Iran in the form of the Qajar dynasty. It lasted for 150 years. During this period Western influences began to be felt in the life of the nation, and were followed by definite European political and commercial expansion.[2] As the result of the two wars against Tsarist Russia and the two resulting treaties of Gulistan and Turkamanchi in 1813 and 1828 respectively, Iran lost part of her territory, and extraterritoriality was imposed upon her.[3]

The discovery of oil intensified the desire of England and Russia to control Iran politically. The Anglo-Russian convention of 1907 divided Iran into a neutral, a British, and a Russian sphere of influence.[4] Iran was left with a strip of desert. Germany was planning to complete a railway through Iran going from Berlin to Baghdad. Their agent, Wassmuss, was active in southern Iran, organizing tribal resistance to Britain.[5] Iranian sentiment toward the Western powers remained hostile, and both Russia and England steadily lost prestige

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[1]Edward G. Brown, Persian Revolution (Cambridge University Press, 1910), p. 13.

[2]Amin Banani, The Modernization of Iran, 1921-1941 (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1961), pp. 6-7.

[3]Henry C. Atyeo, "Nationalism in Iran," Social Education (Vol. 16, February, 1952), p. 69.

[4]Elgin Groseclose, Introduction to Iran (New York: Oxford University Press, 1947), p. 68.

[5]Amin Banani, The Modernization of Iran, 1921-1941, p. 34.

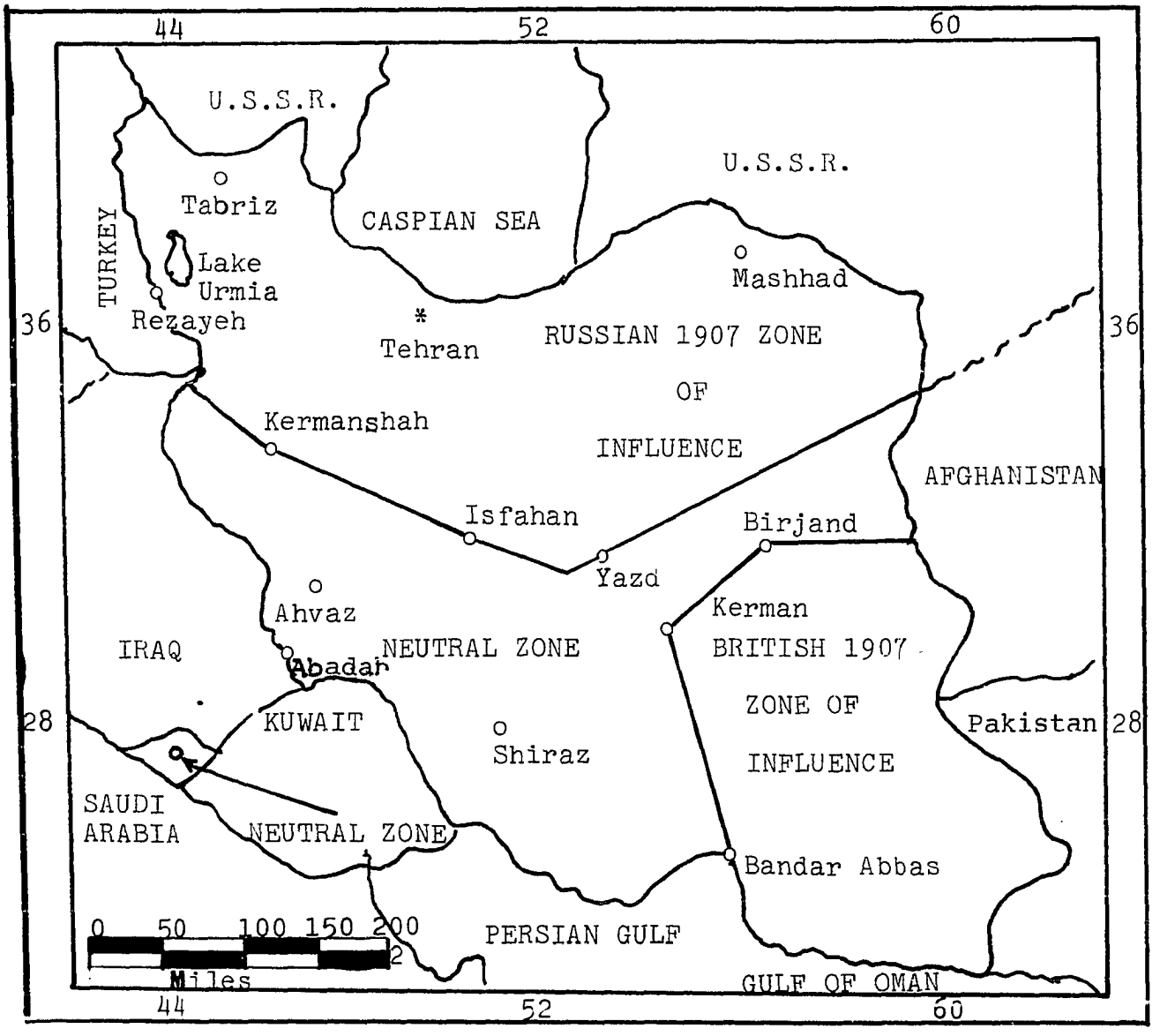

Fig. 1.--Foreign zones of interest in modern Iran[1]

The Russian 1907 zone of influence is in the Northern part of the country, and British 1970 zone of influence is in the Southern part.

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[1]Harvey H. Smith, William W. Cover, John B. Folan, Michael L. Messenburg, Julius Szentadorjany, and Suzanne Teleki, Area Handbook for Iran (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 58.

in Iran up to World War II. Their loss was Germany's gain.

According to Gable:

> Iran has experienced frequent interchange of cultural values and techniques. Periods of cultural borrowing and elaboration have alternated with periods of cultural purging and reformation. There have been fluctuations between strong and weak governments, benevolent and despotic rulers, centralized and decentralized administrations.[1]

Germany needed Iran for transit of water materials and passage of troops to neighboring countries. Also as Lengyel said:

> The importance of the Middle East to Europe can hardly be overestimated militarily and economically. Its huge oil reserves supply one-fourth of the Western world's supply. This loss would be disastrous to Europe.[2]

Revolution Leading to Constitution

In 1896 Nasie Ad-Din was assassinated, and his son, Muzoffar Ad-Din, reigned from 1896 until 1907.[3] During Muzoffar Ad-Din's reign of nearly eleven years, the conduct of affairs by the Shah and his ministers aroused increasing dissatisfaction. In the summer of 1905, the people asked for the first time for the grant of a constitution to replace the outmoded, centuries-old tradition of rule by the whims of an autocrat. The development of a constitution was influenced by Iranian intellectuals who held progressive views. Malkan Khan is representative of this development. He was a Persian minister in London from 1872 to 1889. Another progressive administrative leader was Sayyid Hasan

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[1]Richard W. Gable, Middle East Journal, Vol. 13, p. 408. (Richard W. Gable is Associate Professor in the School of Public Administration of the University of Southern California. From 1955 to 1957 he was a member of the USC faculty team which assisted the Faculty of Law, University of Tehran, in establishing the Institution for Administrative Affairs.

[2]Emile Lengyle, World Without End. (New York: John Day Company, 1953), p. 317.

[3]Wilber, Iran Past and Present, p. 79.

Taquizadeh who came from the northwestern province of Azarbaigan.[1]

After renewed pressure, the Shah, one year before his death in August 1906, proclaimed the constitution. His son, Muhammad Ali Shah, tried to restore the absolute Royal Power granted by the constitution. In June 1808, the Russian Cossack brigade allies of the Shah commanded by the Russian Colonel Liakhoff, bombarded the parliament building, causing the death of many of the deputies. The Shah then proclaimed the dissolution of parliament. The Russian Cossack brigade was defeated outside of Tehran, and in July, 1909, the revolutionary Iranian troops entered the city. Muhammad Ali Shah first sought refuge in the Russian Legation and then fled to Russia. The reinstated parliament, in 1909, named his eleven-year-old son, Ahmad Shah, ruler of Iran.[2] The course of his reign did not run smoothly. When the Ahmed Shah grew up he showed no interest in affairs of state and preferred to live in France.

In 1921 Reza Khan rose to power by a coup d'etat. He overthrew the government and became the Iranian Commander in Chief and Minister of War.[3] "Despite these difficulties negotiations proceeded, and on February 26, 1921, Iran and South Prussia concluded a treaty of friendship.

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[1]He had been given the title of prince on being appointed minister in London. In 1890 and the following year he published in London a newspaper entitled Qunun (Law), in which he vigorously attacked Nasi Ad-Din Shah and his methods of government. He advocated a breaking away from the evils of the past and an approach to freedom by means of constitutional government and the modification of laws. Needless to say the circulation of Qunun in Persia was banned, but some copies were smuggled into the country, where they exercised a considerable influence on the constitutional movement. Quoted from Gable. Middle East Journal, Vol. 13, p. 375.

[2]Wilbur. Iran Past and Present. pp. 81-82.

[3]The Middle East in World Affairs, p. 179.

Article 6 of the treaty reserved for South Prussia the right to send troops into Iranian territory should the latter become a base for anti-Soviet aggression.[1]

October 31, 1925, the Majlis (Parliament) deposed the absentee Shah, and, on December 13, proclaimed Reza Shah--Shah of Iran. Thus, the century-and-a-quarter-old Qajar dynasty came to an end, and the new Pahlavi dyansty came into power. Reza Khan's chief ambition was to emulate his Turkish counterpart, Mustafa Kemal. He wanted to emancipate Iran from foreign influence and to strengthen her by adopting Western reforms and technology. First he made an effort to strengthen his own position and his central government.[2]

In 1922 Reza Shah invited Arthur Chester Millspaugh, an American financial expert, to reorganize Iran's public finance. It was through Millspaugh's skillful administration that the government was provided with a steady income. The Shah was then able to proceed with a technological project of great significance, the construction of the great Trans-Iranian Railroad which linked Tehran with the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf. In addition, air communication was provided in which a German Junkers Airline gave passenger and mail service between the capital and some provincial towns. Then, in 1928, the Shah gave concession to the Imperial Airways to fly over the Iranian coast between Iraq and India.

Although Iran was not completely Westernized, all the changes that took place were motivated by Western-inspired ideals. As a result

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[1] Ibid., p. 177.

[2] Ibid., p. 179.

of Reza Shah's efforts, a Western army of nearly 400,000 men could be mobilized by 1941. This army was capable of maintaining the absolute authority of the central government of Iran. Reza Shah's government became a virtual military dictatorship, and he became steadily more autocratic as time passed.

On the outbreak of World War II Iran declared her neutrality and attempted a normal relationship with all the powers. However, on August 26, 1941, Russian forces entered Iran from the northwest and British troops marched across Iraq's frontier. British ships staged a surprise attack upon Iranian naval forces. The Iranian army put up a token resistance. Reza Shah abdicated the throne and was taken to Maurituis by the British, and later to South Africa where he died in 1944. Until this time he had almost single-handedly brought Iran abreast of the modern world. His twenty-two-year-old son, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi, succeeded him, and is the present Shah of Iran.[1]

Structure of the Government

The government of Iran in 1970 was firmly established as a constitutional monarchy, distinguished by the leadership of Mohammad Reza Shah as the royal head of state. The code of laws which had been drawn is "based largely on Belgium constitutional law, partly on French law and to some extent on the prevalent in Bulgaria."[1] The nature of the state, authority, rights of citizens, legitimacy, and organization of the government are set forth in the Constitution of 1905, as supple-

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[1]Laurence Lockhart, "Constitutional Laws of Persia; an Outline of Their Origin and Development," Middle East Journal, Vol. 13, 1959, p. 382.

TABLE 1

HISTORICAL DATES AND EVENTS

B.C.	
4500-3800	Early settlements near Susa, sialk, elsewhere.
2700-708	ELAMITE and ARYAN civilizations.
900	After prolonged period of wandering and nomadic life Aryans established villages in Iranian plateau.
708	Deioces founds MEDIAN Empire in western Persia.
546	Cyrus, King of Persia, founds the ACHAEMENIAN Empire. He defeated Croesus and captured Sadrdis.
525	Conquest of Egypt.
521	Darius begins construction of Persepolis.
466	Persian army was defeated by Greek.
404	War between Persia and Athens.
394	Conquest of Sparta.
330	Alexander the Great overthrows Achaemenians and sacks Persepolis.
320-250	SELEUCID rule.
247	Decline of Seleucids.
226	PARTHIAN rule.
53	War with Rome and conquest of Armenia.
A.D.	
226	Ardeshir I established SASSANIAN dynasty, overthrows Parthians.
363-408	War with Rome.
524-533	Byzantine wars.
529	Justinian close Athens schools and Greek scholars flee to Persia.
570	Conquest of Yemen.
603	War with Byzantium.
614	Capture of Damascus and Jerusalem.
620	Mohammad's Hegria (from Mecca to Medina), Moslem calendar year 1.
642	ARAB invasions of Iran; end of Sasanian rule.
1037-1157	SELJUK prominence.
1220	First MONGOL invasion, under Genghis Khan.
1256	Second MONGOL invasion, Kulagu Khan.
1336-1501	TIMURID period.
1484	Domination of Portuguese over Persian Gulf.
1500	Rise of Safavis.
1502-1736	SAFAVID dynasty, founded by Shah Isma'il I.
1587-1629	Shah Abbas the Great, construction at Isfahan.
1599	Arrival of English adventurers, Sir Anthony Sherely and his brother, Robert, regarded as initiation of political relationship with Europe.
1606	Defeat of Turkish army.
1618	Peace with Turkey.
1622	Portuguese expelled from Persian Gulf.
1736	Nadir Shah, overthrowing Safavids, seizes throne for AFSHARIDS.

1738-1739 Nadir Shah's Indian campaigns.
1750-1794 Zand dynasty.
1795-1925 QAJAR rule, founded by Agha Mohammad Khan.
1819 Treaty of Gulistan after a period of war with Russia. Persia gave extensive territories to Russia.
1827 Russian troops occupied Azerbaijan.
1828 Treaty of Turkamanchai with Russia.
1836 The first missionary school was established by American Presbyterians.
1851 Founding of a polytechnic in Tehran.
1855 Ministry of Education was established.
1859 The first government-run secular school opened.
1865 Russian captured Tashkand.
1868 Russian occupied Samarkand.
1873 Russian occupied Khivah.
1876 Russian captured Khokand.
1887 Construction of a short railway between Tehran and a suburb.
1897 Establishment of Education Council.
1901 The first contract for oil exploitation was signed between Persia and Great Britain.
1905 Constitutional movement and revolution.
1906 Persian Constitution.
The electoral law of September 2.
The Fundamental Law of December 30.
1907 Supplementary Fundamental Law.
1909 The new electorial law of July first.
1911 For the first time fifty students sent to Europe.
1916 Extension of Russian railway to Azerbaijan.
1918 The first teacher college for man and woman was separately established.
1921 The full program for elementary and secondary schools was scheduled.
1925 PAHLAVI dynasty, founded by Reza Shah the Great.
1934 The University of Tehran founded.
1935 Name of Iran was chosen for Persia.
1938 Completion of Trans-Iranian railroad.
1941 Mohammad Reza Shah accedes to the throne.
Russian army occupied North of Iran.
1942 Tripartite treaty of Alliance between Iran, United Kingdom and Soviet Union was signed.
1943 Declaration of Tehran.
Roosevelt conferred with Churchill and Stalin in Tehran.
1945-1946 Republic of Azerbaijan, as an independent democratic state was announced and supported by Russia.
1946 U.S. strongly supported Persian efforts to get the Soviet Troops to leave Iranian territory. Also showed positive interest in giving continuing consideration to Iran's economic needs and in protecting her integrity sizable funds began to flow to Iran and then shifted to military aids.

Deliverance of Azerbaijan.

1949 Communist party illegalized.

1951 Nationalization of oil industry.

1954 Oil consortium Agreement, first 50-50 profit split in Middle East.

1959 Iran and U.S. concluded a bilateral military agreement, officially described as an extension of Eisenhower Doctrine, helping countries directly subjected to communist aggression.

1960 Land Reform.

1963 White Revolution.

1969 Aug. Minister of Science and Higher Education stated that consideration has been made for the establishment of a university in Gachsaran with capacity of 4,000 students.

Oct. The bill of establishment of a Teacher's Training University was prepared for presentation to the Parliament. When the bill is approved, the Art College, Tehran Teacher's Training College, and Literacy Corps Training College will be integrated into this university.

Nov. Agreement was signed between Pahlavi University of Shiraz and Kent University (U.S.A.), according to which the certificates of two universities were announced equal. Regarding exchange of students and professors between the two universities agreement was reached.

Regulations about the foundation of colleges was issued by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education according to which "New educational branches must fulfill social, economic, cultural and scientific requirements of the country at the present stages of progress and development and preference must be made for scientific and technical branches."

End of 69 One hundred applications for foundation of institutes of higher education were being studied by The Ministry of Science and Higher Education. Rasht Business college was added. Most of applications concerned the establishment of colleges in Tehran, which were not accepted by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education and more attention was paid to provinces.

1970 Jan. Project of T. V. University in Iran on experimental basis.

Forest Faculty attached to Tehran University.

Due to the new decisions taken at the Board of Trustees of Universities, nearly 60 thousand high-school graduates will be able to enter universities, in the academic year (1970-1971).

mented in 1907, and later amended in 1925, 1949, 1957, and 1967. This constitution, secured with difficulty by nationalist reformers like Sayyid Hasan Taqizadeh and Maluk Khan, launched a new era and turned Iran from medievalism toward the modern world.[1]

Constitutionally under the Shah, who acts as Chief of State and Commander of the Armed Forces, the power of the state is distributed among the judicial, legislative, and executive branches of the government.

According to the Constitution the executive body of the Iranian State is a Council of Ministers, presided over by a Prime Minister. The Prime Minister and his cabinet members are chosen by the Parliament and appointed by Royal Decree. Consequently, the executive branch is responsible to the Parliament, which is made up of two legislative bodies--the National Assembly and the Senate--who are responsible for the general governance and state of the country. (Article 60 of the Supplementary Constitutional Law).[2]

The executive power at the administrative and policy-making levels is, therefore, exercised by the Prime Minister and his Council

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[1]Harvey H. Smith, William W. Cover, John B. Folan, Michael L. Messenburg, Julius Szentadoyany, and Suzanne Telki, Area Handbook for Iran (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971), p. 243.

[2]"The articles 26, 27 and 28 of the supplementary constitutional law of October, 1907, amended in December, 1925, governs the division and separation of power. The complete text of the constitution of 1906 and the supplementary constitutional law of 1907 can be found in L. P. Elwell-Sutton, Modern Iran, (London: George Routledge and Son, 1941)." Above quoted from M. Toussi, Superintendent's Perceptions of Decision Making in the Iranian Schools (unpublished dissertation, Michigan State University, 1961), p. 5.

of Ministers. The Council of Ministers is responsible for the implementation of decisions made and policies adopted by the legislative branch. The executive branch of the government, in turn, functions through a number of Ministries maintained according to the mandate of law. Each Ministry's governmental functions and responsibilities are outlined by law.[1]

For administrative purposes the country is divided into a number of territorial administrative units directly attached and immediately responsible to the central government through the respective Ministries. Each territorial unit (province) is sub-divided into districts which, in turn, are divided into a group of villages and settlements.[2]

Normally the provincial governor-general and the district governor are appointed by the central government. The central government directly staffs the local administrative units with personnel who are permanently employed in the civil service.[3]

The Minister of Education has overall responsibility for all state institutions of higher education. Eight under-secretaries work directly under the Minister of Education, each in charge of a major aspect of educational activities, with the exception of some specialized establishments like the military university and the higher military college which come under the ministry of National Defense, as well as

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

the Institute of Forestry, which comes under the Ministry of Agriculture.[1] (See Table 2, Organizational Chart, developed by Toussi).[2]

> The Ministry of Education is headed by the Minister of Education who is a political appointee and a member of the Council of Ministers. As a result of the political incumbency, the tenure of the office is entirely dependent upon the stability of the incumbent government. Within the period of 1943-1953, twenty-seven persons occupied the Office of the Minister of Education.[3]

This chart shows the subordinate functions of the ministry and their relationships.[4] This hierarchy of territorial subdivisions and field agents was developed in Iran in 1937 under Reza Shah Pahlavi, with Shahrestans under farmandars, bakhsh under bakhshdars, dehestans which like French cantons, have never been fully organized, and dehs under kadkhodas.[5] Also, Iran grouped its departments into large provinces--ostans (under ostandars). The following chart will illustrate the framework. Also, the second chart shows the distribution of some of the ostands in Iran in 1947.[6]

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[1]"Iran." World Survey of Education IV Higher Education. UNESCO, New York, 1966, p. 626.

[2]M. Toussi, Superintendent's Perceptions of Decision Making in the Iranian Schools. p. 10.

[3]Ibid., p. 11.

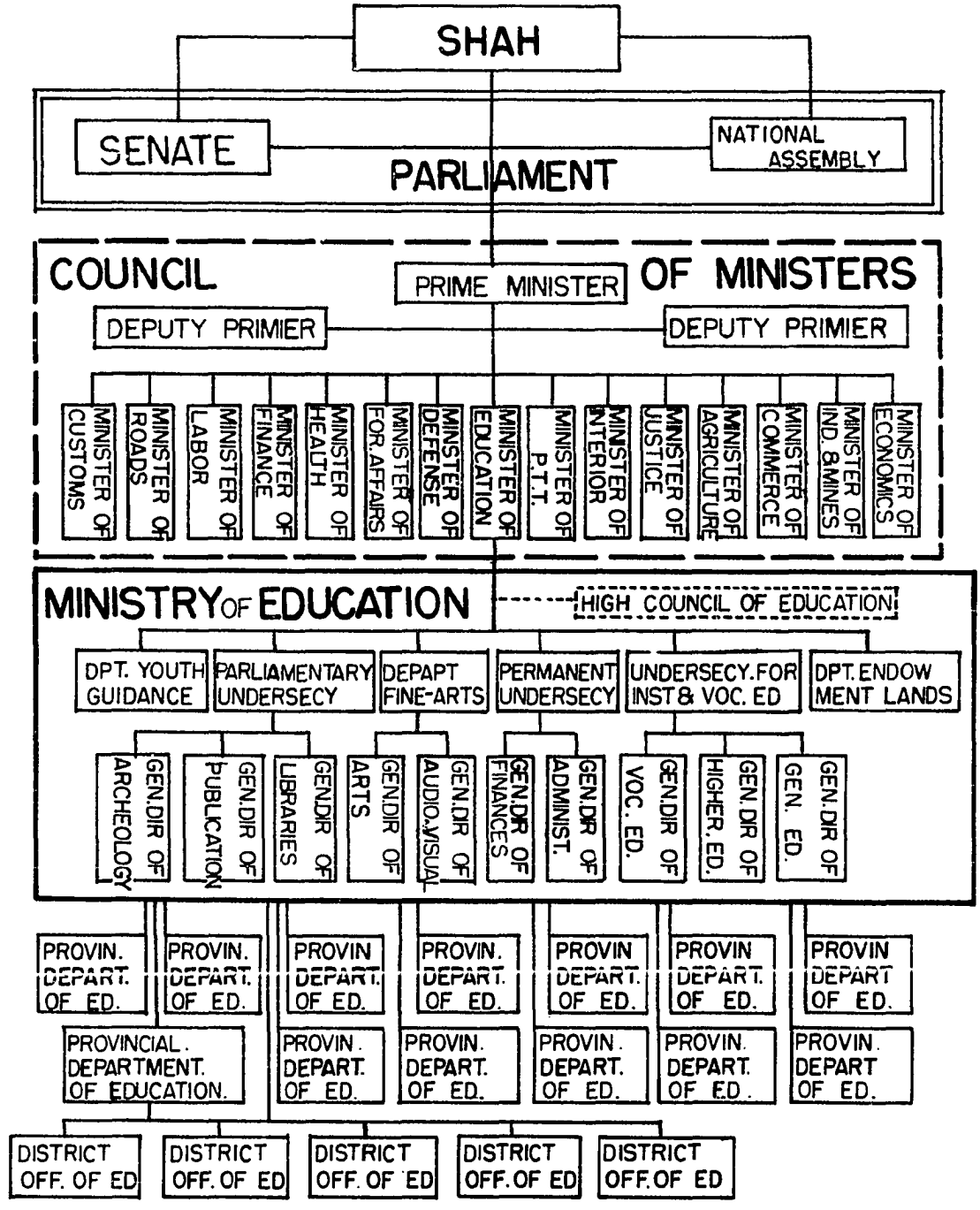
[4]For a more extended discussion of the structure of educational administration with respect to subordinate relation to the hierarchy of organizations, see M. Toussi, Superintendent's Perceptions of Decision Making in the Iranian Schools, pp. 9-13; A. Ekrami, A Program for the Improvement of Elementary Education in Iran (University of Minnesota, 1953), unpublished doctoral dissertation.

[5]W. Hardy Wickwar, Middle East Journal, Vol. 12, 1958, p. 251.

[6]Quoted by A. Ekrami, A Program for the Improvement of Elementary Education in Iran, p. 14.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN RELATION TO THE GOVERMENTAL STRUCTURE



—— LINE RELATION
-----ADVISORY RELATION

FIGURE 2

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN EACH OSTAN IN IRAN, 1947[a]

Ostan	No. of Counties	No. of Village Groupings	No. of Villages	Population	Area in Square Kilometers	Density of Population
1[b]	9	93	4,077	1,700,000	72,265	23.5
2	15	118	5,032	3,350,000	168,680	19.9
3 & 4	9	150	6,535	2,800,000	99,297	28.2
5	9	98	5,624	1,950,000	89,099	21.9
6	8	84	4,466	1,700,000	118,392	14.4
7	8	86	3,320	1,300,000	161,603	8.0
8	7	89	3,593	950,000	361,542	2.6
9	11	110	5,786	2,450,000	334,923	7.3
10	5	64	2,112	1,550,000	216,065	7.2
Total	81	892	40,545	17,750,000	1,621,866	10.9

[a]Statistics of the General Census Administration. Population figures, revised. Adapted from Overseas Consultants, Report on Seven Year Development Plan for the Plan Organization of the Imperial Government of Iran, Vol. II, Overseas Consultants, Inc., New York, 1949, Exhibits A-10 and B-16.

[b]Including Tehran.

Educational Structure

The Iranian educational system is based on the fundamental Law of Education of 1911. This set forth the principles governing the school system. As in France, education is highly centralized. "Other significant educational legislation includes the administrative law of the Ministry of Education (1910)."[1] According to Article 19 of the annex to the Iranian Constitution, the state is responsible for the organization, administration and financing of educational institutions, and the

[1]"Iran." World Survey of Education IV Higher Education, p. 625.

Ministry of Education is responsible for their proper functioning.[1]

On October 31, 1911, the Organic National Education Act set down the principles governing the organization of schools. Articles 3 and 5 state that public education is compulsory in Iran.[2]

The Higher Council for National Education was set up under the Law of March 11, 1922, for the purpose of promoting the extension of education and the development of scientific institutions.[3]

The Law of September 5, 1927, prescribes measures for the development of school children's physical and moral development.[4]

The Teacher Training Act of March 10, 1934, authorizes the establishment of new, and the expansion of existing, primary and senior teacher training schools, contains directives for the training of primary and secondary teachers, and establishes the qualifications for their appointment.[5]

The kindergarten regulations and syllabus approved on November 7, 1933, by the Higher Council for National Education, prescribe the entrance conditions, the functions and duties of principals, and the courses to be taught.[6]

The primary school regulations, approved on October 30, 1934, by the Higher Council, established the functions and professional duties

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[1]"Iran," World Survey of Education II Primary Education, p. 625.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid.

of the staff and the rules with which pupils must comply. These regulations have recently been amended by the council. The primary education curriculum, approved by the Higher Council on December 21, 1937, specifies the goals to be pursued and the subjects to be studied.[1]

The Compulsory Public Education Act of July 28, 1943, makes primary school attendance compulsory, specifies the duration of the course, gives authority for the revision of the primary school curriculum, confirms that schooling is free, provides the conditions for the building of new schools, the establishment of primary teacher training schools in towns where none exist, and the introduction of courses for the training of assistant teachers, and makes regulations for the recruitment, promotion and remuneration of teachers.[2]

At its meeting on November 3, 1943, the Higher Council approved the expanded program of rural studies for the fifth and sixth years of the primary course.[3]

The Law of July 1, 1954, fixes the sum of 2,500 rials per month as the minimum salary for teachers. The Law of December 1954, in relation to the increase of teachers' salaries, makes provision for higher rates for teachers.[4]

At its meeting on November 19, 1955, the Higher Council approved the technical and vocational training syllabus for the fifth and sixth

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

years of primary education.[1]

At its meeting on July 15, 1956, the Council completed and approved new kindergarten regulations of a kind more appropriate to current requirements and needs. These regulations provide, in particular, for a new service to deal specifically with kindergartens.[2]

According to UNESCO International Yearbook of Education there have been numerous changes under the leadership of the present shah. He has authorized the redistribution of ministerial responsibilities to meet the special needs of higher education. The government created the Ministry of Science and Higher Education in February 1968. Also, some ministries have established their own training and vocational schools.

Historical Development in Education

According to Landor, the Zorasterian religion is based on three excellent points--"good thoughts, good words, good deeds--and as long as people adhere to them it is difficult to see how they can go wrong."[3]

Education has played a very important role in our civilization, today and in the past. Recorded history was possible because of education, and it has steadily enabled the spread of culture and religion.

> Some three thousand years ago, Zoraster, prophet of the ancient Iranians, said, "... if an alien, or a friend, or a brother should come to you in pursuit of knowledge and learning, accept him and teach what he seeks...:[4]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "Educational System of Iran," Education Around the World, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1970, p. 3.

[3] A. Henry Savage Landor, Across Coveted Lands, Vol. 1. (New York: Charles Scribners Sons, 1903), p. 401.

[4] Iran, Tehran, Ministry of Information, Second ed., 1971, p. 167.

The Achaemenians, and later the Sassanians, both made considerable contributions to high standards of education.

> In Achaeminid times the young men were taught not only to ride and to shoot the bow, but to know the value of truth and to distinguish between good and evil.[1]

Soon after the Arab invasion and the adoption of the Moslem religion, education came to be based upon the Koran, just as in Europe education was based on the Bible. The "Maktab" (one-room religious school which was connected with the mosque) began to appear to supplement the instruction children received at home.

Before 1800, Iran did not have a consistently structured educational system. All education was controlled by the clergy. The curriculum centered around the Koran. Higher education was directed by the higher clergy in Madrassahs, moslem religious schools. Primary education was directed by the lower clergy in the intermediary stage between Maktabs and Madrassahs. The teacher in a Madrassah held much honor and prestige, whereas the Maktab teacher occupied a contemptible job of low prestige.[2]

Modern education in Iran began with the development of higher education. In the early 1800's the Iranian government began to recognize the need for people educated in science and technology. In 1852 the first college was founded in Tehran.[3] Efforts were made to train

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[1]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, pp. 202-203.

[2]Manuehehr Afzal and Issa Sadiq, Yearbook of Education, (New York: World Book Co., 1953), pp. 452-65.

[3]Ibid.

administrative personnel to direct the modernization program.[1]

The modern educational system was divided into three levels: primary, secondary, and higher. It is highly centralized state system structured as follows:

> The ministry of Education owns and controls all schools, supervises, subsidizes, and inspects the few private schools, arranges curricula, organizes and carries through the state examinations, employs and pays the teachers in the whole country. Schooling starts at the age of 7 (6+). There is no pre-primary stage, and the primary stage lasts for another 6 years, at the end of which there is a state examination. A successful candidate can proceed to secondary school, which lasts for another 6 years and is divided into two cycles of 3 years each. At the end of the first cycle there is a state examination for those who want to terminate their schooling or go to special schools such as primary teachers' colleges or technical schools. There is another state examination at the end of the fifth year of secondary school (eleventh year of schooling). The successful candidates in this examination who wish to go to the university normally spend another year specializing in mathematics, arts, natural sciences, or commerce, and will have to sit for the final twelfth-year secondary school examination which, if successful, admits them to the university.[2] (*)

Technical subjects were first taught by European professors. Gradually they were replaced by Iranians educated in Europe. The modern educators have inherited the prestige and honor of the upper clergy.[3]

Because of the frequency and cultural diversity of both welcome and unwelcome foreign invaders, Iran has been largely shaped by accidental confluence. Societal interdependence with other nations has been essential to Iranian security. Since 1900, Iran has been relatively free from

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[1]R. Arasteh, "The Education of Iranian Leaders in Europe and America," International Review of Education, 1963, p. 445.

[2]Yearbook of Education, p. 452.

(*)This system has since been modified. See Chapter V.

[3]Yearbook of Education, p. 452.

invasion. Therefore, interdependence has been more selective. However, the words of the Iranian poet Sa'Di may still have meaning for twentieth century Iran:

> Do not display all your secrets before your friends, for some day they may become your enemies; and do not exercise all your meanness on your enemies, for some day they may become your friends.[1]

Assumptions related to the problems discussed in this paper are founded on historical precedents associated with the nationalistic traditions of European, Asiatic countries, and the United States. In particular, it is assumed that there has been influence from French, British, Asiatic, and American traditions on the administrative structure in higher education in Iran since 1900.

Statement of the Problem

The problem for this research is based on the fact that there exists a general lack of accumulated knowledge related to the history of the administrative structure of higher education in Iran from 1900 until 1971. The purpose of this investigation is to trace the history of the administrative structure of higher education in Iran from 1900 until 1971. Special attention will be given to the universities of the country; technical schools as well as junior colleges will also be considered. European influences will receive emphasis, particularly those of the French and British. Recent American influence will also be considered. The research will culminate in an analysis of the present structure of Iranian higher educational administration.

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[1]Nakosteen, History of Islamic Origins of Western Education, A.D. 800-1350 (Boulder, Colorado: University of Colorado Press, 1964), p. 110.

Design of Study

Sources of Data

The sources of data for this study have been sought in authoritative books, periodicals, and reports, and by translating relevant Iranian documents. The logistical information comes from the Tehran Ministry of Education, Institute of International Studies, World Survey of Education, UNESCO, Internatlional Handbook of Universities and other institutions of higher education. The investigator spent four months in Iran securing information, gathering necessary data, and translating Iranian literature.

Additional data was collected by means of an interview schedule with selected subjects. The purposes were to identify and define the present administrative structure and compare this structure with the historical precedents.

Analysis of the Data

The data collected was analyzed for constellations of historical and empirical evidence yielding insight into the nature of the administrative structure of higher education in Iran from 1900 to 1971.

Significance of the Study

The lack of a firm commitment to an explicit historical precedent and perspective in the administrative structure of higher education has retarded progress in higher education in Iran. Some traditions emphasize the influence of the British formal school, where significantly nomothetic styles prevail. In other instances, more modern, democratic structures prevail. This investigation should clarify present conditions

relevant to administrative structure, reveal historical precedents and antecedents, and make possible some predictions about the future.

Related Literature

In reviewing the literature written in relation to the educational structure in Iran, the writer found that several studies on various educational problems have been researched, but very few deal with the institution of higher education. In an early study in the field of teacher training, Afzal, in 1956, wrote The Cultural Setting of the Problems of Teacher Training in Iran.[1] This study presented historical and comparative approach to the problem of teacher training. Teacher training is viewed in relation to the whole educational system; to the social, political, and economic colonialism of the nineteenth century, and to the rise of powerful ideologies--Fascism, Socialism, Communism--in the twentieth century.

Another study on teacher training was made in 1959 by Shariatmadari, The Professional Preparation of Elementary Teachers in Iran.[2] The author investigated the professional program of education for elementary teachers. Special attention was given to the principles of theory of the elementary curriculum.

Bassiri, in 1960, made a research study, Aspects of American

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[1]A. Manuchehr, The Cultural Setting of the Problems of Teacher Training in Iran (Unpublished dissertation, Columbia University, 1956).

[2]A. Shariatmadari, The Professional Preparation of Elementary Teachers in Iran (Unpublished dissertation, University of Tennessee, 1959).

College Teaching Which Have Implication to Higher Education in Iran.[1] The writer, from his own experiences, realized that philosophically the system of education and the methods of teaching in Iran were not in line with national needs and modern practices in education. It was discovered that the discrepancy was due to (1) a centralized system, (2) an exclusively-centered curriculum, (3) excessive lecturing and memorizing, (4) lack of effective teachers.

In 1961, Toussi examined the pattern of administrative practices in the Iranian educational system in his research entitled Superintendents Perceptions of Decision-Making in the Iranian Schools.[2] Special attention was paid to the role of five important educational positions, in reference to the performance of seventeen educational activities in the system.

Shams, in 1964, in his Appraisal of the Educational System of Iran in Terms of Contemporary Needs, gives facts about the current status of major aspects of Iranian education.[3] Data concerning socio-economic and political-cultural goals and trends in Iran are analyzed and used in constructing seven criteria by which Iran's educational program could be appraised.

There are over 20,000 Iranian students studying abroad 6,000 of

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[1]T. Bassiri, Aspects of American College Teaching Which Have Implication to Higher Education in Iran (Unpublished dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1960).

[2]M. Toussi, Superintendents Perceptions of Decision-Making in the Iranian Schools (Unpublished dissertation, Michigan State University, 1961).

[3]Y. Shams, An Appraisal of the Educational System of Iran in Terms of Contemporary Needs (Unpublished dissertation, Washington State University, 1964).

whom are in the United States.[1] Iran claims that this is draining the economic resources of the country, for many students remain abroad. Therefore, a Study of Iranian Students in Southern California was made by Borhannanesh in 1965, to learn why students come to the United States and do not return to Iran.[2] Borhannanesh believed that the social, economic, educational, and religious background of the students before they departed from Iran, in combination with their American experiences, affected their decision to remain or return.

Two studies made in 1966 brought into focus methodology for the Iranian educational system. Rossi brought into focus the history of extension and its movement to other countries in his Education and Extension Education in Iran.[3] Hosseini, in his Implications for Iranian Education As Derived from the American Reflective Thinking Approach to Teaching, proposed problem-solving and reflective thinking as an approach to classroom instruction in Iran.[4]

There have been many articles written about Iran's educational system. Burroughs' "Cultural Factors in the Education of Iran" stated that the early form of education was individualistic and that the

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[1]This figure includes only those students who have Iranian student passports or who are registered with their embassies.

[2]M. Borhannanesh, Study of Iranian Students in Southern California (Unpublished dissertation, University of California, 1965).

[3]J. Rossi, Education and Extension Education in Iran (Unpublished dissertation, Utah State University, 1966).

[4]A. Hosseni, Implications for Iranian Education As Derived from the American Reflective Thinking Approach to Teaching (Unpublished dissertation, Indiana Univeristy, 1966).

institution of modern education did not exist in Iran.[1] The purpose of the individual type of education was to transmit techniques of personal survival.

Today the educational system of Iran is in a period of change. The upper class still enjoys the greatest benefits, but the lower class is making an attempt to raise their standards by education. In relation to this, Brammer concluded that the students are caught in a social system where family background generally determines social status.[2] Also, the students' strong belief in "faith" conflicts with new values taught by the educational system. The westerner believes that he can master nature as well as harmonize with it; his aggressive, planful, behavior suggests this oreintation. Iran, however, is a society in transition with the ancient and the modern often existing side by side. Some have jumped the gap completely. Brammer believes that those young people who are still in transition suffer more from the emotional effects of their value conflicts than those who are traditionally oriented, or those who have completed the transition to a western-oriented value system.

Two excellent books written about Iran which contain a chapter on Iran's education are Iran Past and Present by Wilber,[3] and the

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[1]Franklin T. Burroughs, "Cultural Factors in the Education of Ancient Iran," Journal of Education Sociology, Vol. 36 (January 1963), pp. 237-40.

[2]Lawrence M. Brammer, "Problems of Iranian University Students," Middle East Journal, Vol. 18, (1964), pp. 443-50.

[3]Donald N. Wilber, Iran Past and Present (New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1963).

Modernization of Iran 1921-1941 by Banani.[1] The former gives a detailed history of education from the Achaemenid times to the present development of universities and the increasing shift toward American methods of teaching. The latter book focuses mainly on educational reforms between 1921 and 1941, during which time education was an agent of stagnation.

Another excellent book is the Area Handbook of Iran[2] which traces in detail the history of education in Iran. It also focuses on the 1970-71 progress and problems of education in Iran.

Nakosteen in his History of Islamic Origins of Western Education,[3] traces Muslim, European, and United States influences on the Iranian culture. He also discusses the rise of the universities in Iran, as well as the influence of Greek and Roman philosophies, and the contributions of Iranian scientists and poets to Iranian education.

Definition of Variables

(1) Middle level manpower. Comprised of occupations requiring vocational or trade education or equivalent work experience (school teachers, junior engineers, farmers, laboratory technicians, nurses, surveyors, mechanics, craftsmen, and community development workers).

(2) Intra- and inter-communication. Refers to personal interchange between all levels of people in one country.

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

[2]Smith, et al., Area Handbook of Iran, p. 124.

[3]Mehdi Nakosteen, History of Islamic Origins of Western Education, A.D. 800-1350 (Boulder, Colorado: University of Colorado Press, 1964).

(3) Culture-Shock. Reaction to strange culture.

(4) Cross Culture. Exchange of customs and ways between different countries with contrasting cultures.

(5) Administrative Practices. Procedures which are being followed to facilitate or achieve the attainment of certain purposes. Practices may stem from policies or from customs and traditions or expediency.

(6) Higher Education. Education beyond secondary level, which is provided by colleges and universities.

(7) Junior College Movement. A term used to refer to the growth, development, and status of the junior college in all its branches, especially during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

(8) Junior College. An educational institution requiring for admission as a regular student a high school diploma or its equivalent; two years of work in courses, terminal in character, of collegiate grade and quality; or both such standard and terminal courses, not conferring the baccalaureate degree.

(9) Terminal Education. A completion of formal full time education in the junior college.

(10) Democratic. That model of administrative structure characterized by the rule of the majority and the decentralization of the decision-making process.

(11) Autocratic. That model of administrative structure characterized by the rule of one person or an elite group and the centralization of the decision-making process.

(12) Laissez-faire. That model of administrative structure

characterized by an abstention from direction or interference by an administrative office.

(13) Farsi Language. The official language of the country is Farsi, an Indo-European Language based upon the old and middle Persian languages. After the conversion of Persia to Islam, many Arabic words were introduced and modified. Farsi is written in Arabic alphabet.

In addition to Farsi, the following languages, mostly along the borders, are being spoken:

a. Kurdish, is a language distinct from Persian, although belonging to Indo-European group.

b. Luri, has affinities with old Persian, to which it is more related than is Kurdish.

c. Turkish, the Azeri dialect of Turkish, spoken in Azerbaijan, is grammatically close to Anatolian Turkish, but the pronunciation is broader.

d. Baluchi, is an Aryan language mixed with modern Persian.

e. Arabic, spoken by the Arab tribes of Khuzistan and along the coast of the Gulf.

(14) Education Corps Programme. Is a campaign against illiteracy to increase the literacy rate among the 10-45 age groups.

CHAPTER II

EARLY ISLAMIC EDUCATION

According to Simplicius, one of the Greek historians and a teacher at the academy in Athens in 529, he and seven other Greek intellectuals, Proculus, Damascius, Eularmius, Prisciamus, Diogenes, and Ididorus, because of their liberal thought fled their country and came to Iran. The Shah of Iran, Shaphur, let them teach at the Gundi-Shapur where they strengthened the intellectual life of the institution. Thus, for 500 years the Gundi-Shapur has been the center for the study of medicine, philosophy, and mathematics. Many intellectuals from foreign countries like India, Greece, and Arabia became educated. Some authors, such as Ibn-Khaldun, say that:

> It was perhaps through Persia that the Greeks had learned their first lessons in science and philosophy.[1]

Dr. Thabih-Allah Safa states that: (using the Al-Ibri as his authority)

> Shapur, the son of Ardeshir, brought Greek physicians to Persia to study medicine. It was also under him that many Greek works were translated and preserved in the library of the Academy of Jundi-Shapur, among them works on philosophy and logic.[2]

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[1]Nakosteen. History of Islamic Origins of Western Education, p. 20.

[2]Ibid.

Some interesting facts are known about the teachers of the Academy of Athens who taught at Jundi-Shapur. Damascius, who was the head of the Athens Academy from 511 until it was closed in 529, stayed at Jundi-Shapur from 531 to 533. He was a disciple of Proclus and author of a highly controversial work (First Principles), a biography of Isidous, and some commentaries on Plato. Some scholars also ascribed to him the fifteenth Book of Euclid.

Simplicius, a native of Sicilia, lived in Athens until 529 and stayed at Jundi-Shapur until 533. He was a student of Damascius and Anirnonins. His writings consisted mainly of commentaries on Aristotle. He also wrote Book I of Euclid. Simplicius was known as a creative philosopher.

Priscianus of Lydia remained at Jundi-Shapur until 533. He was a favorite scholar of King Anushirwan, with whom he discussed many philosophical questions. These are preserved in a collection entitled "The Philosopher's Answer to the King's Questions." (Partial translation of the Pahlavi original is still extant). The work contains discussions on psychology, pediatrics, natural philosophy, astronomy, and natural history. Priscianus also wrote a commentary on Theophrastus' work on the senses. The original Greek manuscript of this work is lost, but a ninth century Latin translation of the work is extant. This translation is ascribed to the philosopher John Scotus Erigena, known as Solutines Eorum de Quibus dubitanit Choscroes Persarum.

Shirwan personally encouraged Nastorians and neoplatinists to use Syrian translations of Greek works in Jundi-Shapur as well as Persian translations of Syrian versions of Plato and Aristotle.

At Jundi-Shapur Hindu, Persian, Syrian and Greek works began to be translated into Arabic. These works later became available to Western schoolmen through Latin and Hebrew translations. Classical works were translated into Arabic at Jundi-Shapur, until 754-755. During this long period devoted to translation, Muslim science, especially medicine, became based on Greek science and Persian and Indian thought and experience. The works of this period were noted for their scholarship, but lacked originality. Original thought flowered in the twelfth century when the sciences, particularly medicine, passed rapidly from the hands of the Christians and Sabians into the hands of the Muslim scholars, who were mostly Persians.

An important educational center of its day, European medieval education owes a great debt to Jundi-Shapur as the first important channel of preservation and eventual transmission of Hellenistic, Hindu, and Persian learning to the Western world.

The academy of Jundi-Shapur was located near Dizful in the southern part of Iran in Khosestan Province. The Arabs later called it Jundi-Shabur, or Jundaysabur, Arabized.

The city was founded by Shapur I (241-271). He used Roman prisoners to lay the foundation of the city. He also ordered the collections of Greek scientific-philosophic works and their translations into Pahlavi to be placed in the library of Jundi-Shapur, making the city a center of Hellenistic medical science.

The city became the headquarters of Shapur II in 310-397. During his reign the city was invaded several times. However, the academy reached its peak in 531 to 579 under the reign of Anushirwan-i-Adel

(the Just), becoming a place where Hindu, Greek, Judaic, Suriac, Christian and Persian learning were brought together. It then became an important medical center, and a model for many medical colleges built centuries after in the cultural empire of Islam. From the last half of the eighth century it exerted influence upon the science of medicine, and it survived until the end of the tenth century. A brilliant medical tradition was established in Baghdad by Jurjis ibn Bakhushur who was Dean of the Jundi-Shapur hospital.

In 636 the city was surrendered to Islamic forces, but the academy remained safe and continued to be a center of learning. In the ninth century the first regular astronomical observations (rasd) with fairly accurate instruments were made at the institute of Jundi-Shapur. Also Jundi-Shapur was noted for its academy of medicine and philosophy which was founded 555 by King Anushirwan-i-Adel (the Just).

According to Nakhostin, Buzurijmiher, who was a physician to Anushirwan (the Just), as well as tutor to his son, Hormuz, (known to western writers as Perzoes), was also one of the significant contributors to the medical school of Jundi-Shapur. In 765 the first recorded instance of surgery was done at Jundi-Shapur, of which Hitti remarked:

> In 765 the Caliph al-Monsur, afflicted with a stomach disease which had baffled his physicians, summoned from Jundi-Shapur.[1]

On the order of Shah Anushirwan (the Just), Buzurijmiher left Iran to go to India to secure books and other scientific publications. The Jundi-Shapur library became a nerve center of educational creativity for intellectuals during the medieval period. Many books were translated

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[1]Philip K. Hitti. History of the Arabs: From the Earliest Times to the Present. (London, Macmillan, 1956), p. 309.

into Hebrew and Latin and other languages. Fortunately, many of the basic works of the Persian scholars, such as Aviecenna, Rhazes, Hafiz, Sa'di, Firdawsi, Omar Khayyam, Shahryar, Al-Farabi, Al-Nadans, and others survived the wartime destruction of libraries. Also during this period new universities were being developed in Western Europe, especially in Italy, Germany, France, and England. Unlike the Islamic denominational schools, Western universities were striving to preserve the best intellectual elements that Islamic research and scholarship had developed during the ninth to the twelfth centuries.

Many Western univeristies were enlarged and enriched by the works of hundreds of Islamic translators in addition to the translations done during the Western Renaissance of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Revival of secular interest and research in the West was one reason for this. It was curtailed by religious passion until the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, after that it was relatively free to discover new knowledge and usher in the new world.

It was sometime after the Arab invasion of Iran and the opening of other institutions of learning, like the military school of Baghdad (Nazamieh Baghdad) and other military colleges, the Jundi-Shapur lost its academic prestige. So the academy of Jundi-Shapur ceased to be a center of intellectual influence in the late 880's. According to the Iranian Government, Iran was the founder of the military school. The Baghdad Military School was established by Nazam Al-Malk in 1041. Nizam Al-Mulk (d. 1092-485 A.H.), the founder and popularizer of these madrasahs (school of public instruction), also he was a famous Vizier (Prime Minister) in the administration of the Seljuq sultans in the

eleventh century. Then other schools came into existence, such as Nazamieh Naishapur, Nazamieh Ray, Nazamieh Bassreh, Nazamieh Isfahan, Nazamieh Blakh, Nazamieh Harat, Nazamieh Moslil, and Nazamieh Khargard.[1]

The following Table gives examples of some of the more important denominational colleges flourishing during this period in Eastern Islam, and is based on those mentioned by Safa, whose main source appears to be a twelfth century work in Arabic entitled Kitab-al-Naght (Ba'dh Mathalit-ul-Nawasib fi Naghah Ba'dh Fadha' ih-al-Rawafidh).[2]

TABLE 3
SHI'ITE AND SUNNITE MADHHABI (DENOMINATIONAL) COLLEGES IN EASTERN ISLAM

(In vogue around 1050 to 1250 A.D.)

Name of College	Denomination	Location
Shams-al-Islam Hahsa (Hasan) Babuya Imamiyyah	Shi'ite	Rayy
Sadat Gilaki	"	"
Abu al-Futuh	"	"
Faqih Ali Jasti	"	"
Khawja Abd-al-Jabbar Mufid	"	"
Kooy Firuzeh	"	"
Khawja Imam Rashid Razi	"	"
Sa'd Selt	Shi'ite	Qum
Athir-al Mulk	"	"
Saiyyid Aziz-al-Din Murtadha	"	"
Imam Zain-al-Din Amirah Sharaf Shah al-Husaini	"	"
Dhahir-al-din Abd-al-Aziz	"	"
Ustad Abu al-Hasan Kumaij	"	"
Shams-al-Din Murtadha	"	"
Saiyyid Murtadha Kabir Sharaf-al-Din	"	"
Sufiyyieh	"	Kasham
Madjdiyyieh	"	"
Sharfiyyieh	"	"

[1]Ministry of Education. Universities and Institutions of Higher Education in Iran. (Iranian Government: Bureau of Statistics, Department of Planning and Studies, 1971), Publication No. 1, p. 7-14. (Farsi).

[2]Nakosteen. History of Islamic Origins of Western Education, p. 23.

Name of College	Denomination	Location
Azizyyiah	Shi'ite	Kasham
Ezzol Mulki	"	Aveh
Arab Shahi	"	"
Radhawiyyieh	"	Varamin
Fathiyyieh	"	"
Nidhamiyya	Sunnite (Shafi'te)	Baghdad
Tayiyyah	"	"
Nidhamiyya at Nishapur	"	Nishapur
Nidhamiyya at Basra	"	Basra
Nidhamiyya at Isfahan (Sadryya)	"	Isfahan

Doctor Thabib Allah Safa states in his Tarikh Adabyyat Iran (A Literary History of Iran) Vol-me II, that these denominational colleges were scattered all over Eastern Islam from Egypt to Transoxiana, most of them being in the major cities of Nishapur, Isfahan, Yezd, Marv, Kashan, Kirmanshah, Baghdad, Rayy, Qum, Basra, Balkh, Herat, Gorgan, Hamadan, Mosul and Varamin. Despite the weakness of these colleges, they did flourish in large numbers over Eastern Islam, which would indicate the coexistence of sufficient elementary and secondary schools from which they drew their enrollments.

A sectarian system of public education politically motivated with secular emphasis, was founded by Nizam-Al Mulk, who established an institution for governmental instruction and indoctrination. Many madrasahs became standardized, modeled after the one in Baghdad. They were built by Nizam-Al-Mulk and named Nizamyyah in his honor.

This new, sectarian system of public schools offered general education, particular (vocational) training, and religious indoctrination of the Turkish-Persian style. Standardized madrasahas were established in all large cities within Islam, except in Spain and Sicily. They were institutionalized under state control and support. Nizamyyah

in Baghdad was the greatest of these academies.

Throughout Islam, Nizam-Al-Mulk's greatest contribution to education was his founding of this almost universal system of schools. He was one of the most learned men of his time, versed in Muslim hadith and tradition, and a great political theorist of Islam. He founded libraries, and engaged the best professors available. He also established a scholarship system to aid his students.

Some historians say that these schools were established mainly for the purpose of protecting Iran from foreign invasion by educating the citizens. Others believe that Nazam-Al-Mulk's main goal was to build schools, churches, libraries, and other government institutions for the improvement and modernization of his country. In any case, Jundi-Shapur School was long a center for Asiatic and European intellectuals. It was a political and educational institution which became a religious school as well. The Jundi-Shapur graduated highly trained students in the fields of science, literature, and medicine. Taher-Al Din Farabi, Abohamed-Modamed-Gazali, Sadi, Abonasr-Sabagh, Anvary, Abudul-Rahaman-Jami, Rashidaldin-Mohamadebneh, Abdul-Jalau Balghy, (known as Rashid and Tavat), were a few of its noted graduates.[1]

Persia's tie with Europe was re-established in the time of Shah Abbas the Great (ruled 1588-1629), with the coming of the Shirley Brothers[2]

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[1]Ministry of Education. Universities and Institutions of Higher Education in Iran, p. 10.

[2]Anthony Shirley in 1599 set out for Persia falsely representing himself as an English envoy; Shirley gained some trade concessions and returned to Europe as the shah's envoy in 1600. His account of his Persian travels was later published in London in 1613 in The Three Brothers, a record of his travels and his brothers.

GREEK LEARNING[1]

To India by way of sea

Hellenic Learning and Education
School of Alexandria

To India by way of Land (Alexander)

to Persia

Sassanian Hellenism

India

India

Zoroasterian Learning
University of
Jundi-Shapur

Syriac (Nestorian)

The School of Harran

Schools of Baghdad
Great Translators

MUSLIM LEARNING

POINT OF FUSION OF ARABIC AND PERSIAN, AND ITS DEVELOPMENT WITH MODERN PERSIAN

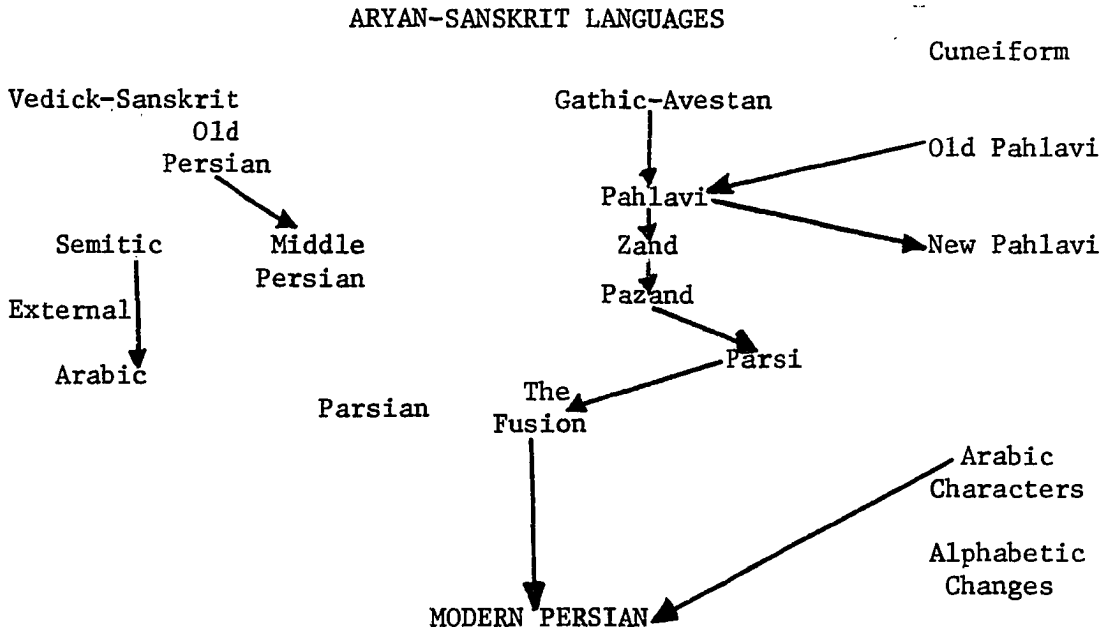

FIGURE 3

[1]Nakosteen. History of Islamic Origins of Western Education, p. 22.

to Iran. Contact between Persia and Europe was intermittent from this time until the reign of Fath' Ali Shah when in 1800 Sir John Malcolm came to Iran on behalf of the British Government in India; Gardanne arrived as an envoy of Napolean Bonaparte.[1] Iran was under constant pressure from Britain, France, and Russia. The Russo-Persian War, which was fought between two unequal powers, caused physical and emotional shock to Iranians. According to Mohammad 'ali Eslami-Nodushan:

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

When it became evident that Nasser ed Din Shah was in favor of modern ideas:

> Tehran became a meeting place for concession hunters of European nations. Many were adventurers and crooks.[3]

This behavior created feelings of hatred and distrust among Iranians toward Europeans and European civilization. The Shah's original, favorable, attitude toward modern, western civilization changed to one of frustration and resentment. He once exclaimed:

> I wish that never a European had set his foot on my country's soil; for then we would have been spared all these tribulations. But since the foreigners have unfortunately penetrated into our country, we shall at least make the best possible use of them.[4]

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[1]Mohammad 'Ali Eslami-Nodushan. "The Influence of Europe on Literary Modernization in Iran," Middle East Journal. Vol. 23, (Autumn 1969), p. 526-34.

[2]Ibid., p. 526-7.

[3]William Haas. Iran. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1946), p. 162.

[4]Ibid.

Some historians consider European influence as the step toward modernization. Thereafter, Iranian youths were sent to Europe to receive training for administrative posts, so that when they returned they could assume leadership and responsibility in the government.

The first students to be European trained were sent by Crown Prince Abbas Mirza in 1810 to study medicine in England. The second group of five students were sent to England in 1818 to study science. A third group of five were sent to France in 1844. A fourth group, consisting of forty-two graduates of Dar-Al Funun, were sent to France in 1861.[1]

The objective of this plan was to create capable administrators in various fields. Upon their return influential positions were created for them, for example the Ministry of Art and Science, which was headed by Itizad Al-Saltane. Some of these students became Cabinet Ministers. In 1911 thirty more students were sent to Europe to study military science, social sciences, and agriculture.[2]

Abbas Mirza the Crown Prince was considered to be a man with progressive ideas. In 1818, the first printing press was brought to Iran. A few years later, according to Eslami-Nodusham:

> Another sign of the influence of European civilization was the publication of the newspaper, Vaqaye-e-Ettefaqiyeh (Current Events) which was started in 1851 under the editorship of Amir-e-Kabir.[3]

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[1]R. Arasteh, "The Education of Iranian Leaders in Europe and America," International Review of Education, (1963), p. 445.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Nodusham. "The Influence of Europe on Literary Modernization in Iran," p. 530.

Missionary schools also played a part in the development of education in Iran. In 1899, in Razaieh (a city in the north of Iran) an American minister named Perkins opened a school in which he taught mathematics, geometry, history, geography, carpet weaving and metal work. Then, a second missionary school was established in Tabriz in 1839 by a French minister, Eugene Bure. King Mohammad Shah sent his son, Nasser Aldin Mirza to this school to learn French.[1]

The first Iranian polytechnic school, Dar-Ol-Fonun, was established by the Persian Prime Minister Amir Kabir under Nasser-Adin-Shah in 1851 in Tehran.

> The college whose idea was inspired by the great French military schools, such as Saint Cyr, was created as a training school for future officers. The main subjects taught were infantry, artillery, and cavalry tactics, with military engineering, higher mathematics, and foreign languages (English, French, and Russian).[2]

According to historians, Amir Kabir became inspired with the idea of establishing a university while on his trip through Russia, Turkey, and other European countries. In 1861, Nasser-Al-Din Shah sent John David, a translator for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, as Ambassador to Austria. In Vienna, John David hired seven instructors to come to Tehran and teach in Daral-Al-Fonun University. These instructors were:

Dr. Polack	For teaching Medicine
Dr. Focchette	For teaching Natural Science and Pharmacy
Mr. Charnota	For teaching Soil Conservation
Mr. Zatti	For teaching Mathematic and Engineering
Mr. Krziz	For teaching Artillery
Mr. Gumoens	For teaching Infantry
Mr. Nemiro	For teaching Cavalry[3]

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[1]Ministry of Education. Universities and Institutions of Higher Education in Iran., p. 10.

[2]Haas. Iran, p. 162.

[3]Ibid., p. 11-12.

John David arrived in Tehran with these teachers two days after the impeachment of Amir Kabir as Prime Minister. The Dar-Ol-Fonun University at the time of its founding in 1851, had an enrollment of thirty students. During the first year of its existence enrollment rose to one-hundred-and five students. These students were enrolled in the following fields:[1]

Artillery, Infantry, and Cavalry	61	
Engineering and Mining	12	
Medicine	20	
Chemistry and Pharmacy	7	
Minerology	5	
	105	Total

Lectures at the school were given in French, English, Russian and Turkish. The students at Dar-Ol-Fonun were the sons of the King, Ministers, and other influential people.[2] The seven fields of study presided over by these foreign professors were organized into departments of study. The students of each department had a special uniform with different colors to distinguish their colleges.

Initially, Dar-Ol-Fonun had a seven year course of study, which was reduced to five years, and finally to four. There were six official "faculties" within the institution:[3]

Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy
Faculty of Mathematics and Engineering
Faculty of Field Conservation
Faculty of Military and Music (Artillery, Infantry, Cavalry)
Faculty of Literature
Faculty of Modern Art and Drawing

In 1873 Shah sent a group of young Persians to France in order to receive military training in Saint Cyr, study engineering at Ecole

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[1]Arasten. "The Growth of Higher Institutions in Iran," p. 328.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 12-13.

Polythechnique, and become acquainted with law, medicine, and modern art. Also the Shah, Nasser-Al-Din was the first Iranian head of state to travel to European countries, except as a conqueror or in exile. During his trip he studied Western educational and political institutions, with a mind to initiating modern reforms back in Iran.

In 1880, the Faculty of Medicine of Dar-Ol-Fonun University became a separate institution, and in 1884 it was moved to another location (Amarateh-Amirieh). In the course of time Dar-Ol-Fonun University evolved into the equivalent of a modern high school. During the years from the establishment of Dar-Ol-Fonun to the founding of the University of Tehran, other institutions of higher education were established in Tehran and Taberize.[1]

School of Political Science	1861
School of Agriculture	1863
School of Iran German Industrial,	1852
American Missionary School of Nursing in Tabrize	1873
Central Teachers Training School	1880
School of Law	1882
Agricultural School	1884
School of Business	1888
Foundation of the High Teachers School	1891
Veterinarian School	1894

The publication of newspapers, the creation of a telegraph system, the founding of colleges and faculty-student exchanges with Europe, all contributed to the westernizing influence in Iran. Arasteh said:

> In 1864 one of the teachers with the help of a student set up the first telegraph wire in Iran. It ran from the central office of the school to the main garden in the middle of the city (Bagh-e Lolezar). The following year a graduate

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[1]Haas. Iran, p. 34.

> of the college was put in charge of extending the telegraph line from Tehran to the west of Iran and also toward the Caspian Sea.[1]

Toward the end of the nineteenth century, military schools were established in Tabrize (1884) and Isfahan (1886).[2]

In the late nineteenth century translations of foreign writings on such new and controversial issues as freedom and equality became available in Persian. Sayyid Jamal-e Asadisbadi (also called Jamal Ad-din Afghani, d. 1897), as well known politician in Iran and the East, published a newspaper entitled Urwat Al-Wathaa, and Mirza Makkham (also called Malkon Khan, d. 1908) published the newspaper Qanun (Law). Both these newspapers were an important influence on the modernization of Iran.[3] Malkan, in his newspaper carried on the first debates in Iran of the ideas of such revolutionary thinkers as Voltaire, Rousseau, and Montesquieu.[4] According to E. G. Brown, the year 1907 eighty four newspapers were being published in Iran.[5] During this ear of enlightenment Iranian prose and poetry became infused with modern ideas. Liberal poets of this period, as Nodushan pointed out:

> Were faced with new questions in political and social life, and were forced to find a style to express these questions. The uprising to obtain freedom, the struggle with the agents of autocracy, the victories and defeats which followed one after another in this field, were a most thrilling subject for poetry.[6]

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[1]Nodushan. "The Influence of Europe on Literary Modernization in Iran," p. 530.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid., p. 531.

Educational institutions both influence and are influenced by the societies in which they exist. In Iran, this process can be exemplified by Dar-Ol-Fonun. After becoming acquainted with Western ideas and political events its graduates became dissatisfied. They began to publish their own newspapers, and to form and join plitical movements. But, mostly they argued the theoretical aspects of social problems more than they participated in making changes.

The desire for governmental change grew among urban groups like the liberal Mojtahids (Highest clergy), merchants, intellectuals, and heads of guilds. The corruption in the administration was their main concern, along with the interference of foreign powers in the economic, political, and social life of the country. This protest movement ended in the Revolution of 1906. It replaced an absolute monarchy with a constitutional monarchy. Statesmen, and government officials of a high order of excellence now needed to conduct the affairs of the nation. The top posts were filled by many graduates of Dar-al Funun.

The movement for freedom was the most significant and important influence on and inspiration of modern Iranian poetry. Poetry became a part of rhetoric, as politicians and reformers quoted it in their speeches. The poetry of Eshai dealt with new subjects--the revival of the east, the awakening of Asia, and for women.

> If the east were not asleep, how could the sun
> rise in the west? Only when
> Only when the men of the east fell asleep did the
> west awake.
> It is my hope that, if some day the men of the east
> regain power, then that power will be used for the
> tranquility of mankind.[1]

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[1] Ibid., p. 531.

Since the mid-nineteenth century Persia had been experiencing resurgence of interest in educational theory and practice. As has been exemplified in the previous discussion of the founding of Dar-Ol Fonun in 1851. S. G. Wilson, during his stay in Persia in 1880-1895, described the royal college, Dar-al Fonun as follows:

> The first room we entered was the French classroom, where, under a Persian teacher, a large class was reciting and taking hold of the language. The walls of the room were covered with very fair pencil-sketches and oil paintings, the work of the pupils. In the English room Professor Tyler showed us a class of bright boys translating our mother-tongue, which is making much advance in Persia. These, with Russian, Arabic and Turkish, are the foreign languages taught. Had we come in the morning the sciences would have been on the programme. There was some scientific apparatus and a small library representing many languages. then we looked in at the photography gallery, where every scholar has a chance to learn photography in the regular curriculum.
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> The extent of the curriculum the drill, and the evident success of the instruction in the Shah's college were a great surprise to us. The number in attendance was two hundred and fifty, composed of Persians and Armenians, with a few Hindus. All the native races and religions are admitted. Christians are allowed to stay away on Sunday if they desire to. Tuition is free. Not only so, but all are in some degree supported. Some are given only a few tomans, while others have full support, the morning and evening meals being provided at the college. The Shah furnishes the funds, and the running expenses are said to be sixty thousand dollars a year. His Majesty's object in maintaining the college is to prepare educated officers for the army and the civil service.[1]

And, of course, some students were sent to European schools for their training so that after they returned they could help to modernize the government services, medicine, and science.

Various ministries devoted their efforts toward educational goals. For example:

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[1]S. G. Wilson. Persian Life and Customs. (New York: F. H. Revell Company, 1895), pp. 151-2.

> The Ministry of Foreign Affairs opened its school of political science in 1901; the Ministry of Economy opened its college of agriculture in 1902; the Ministry of Education opened its school of Fine Arts in 1911 and its Boy's Normal School in 1918; and the Ministry of Justice opened its School of Law in 1921.[1]

Religious missions from foreign countries had operated schools in Iran since the middle of the century, for example the American Presbyterian Mission in the north, and the British Church Missionary Society in the south. According to the Phi Delta Kappan:

> Up to 1940 the American Presbyterian Mission in Iran had an extensive system of schools in Northern Iran headed up by Sage College for Women and Alborz College for men both in Tehran.[2]

For the sake of progressive education and quality education, various ministries within the Iranian government began to send students to European countries. This program began in 1810 when Crown Prince Abbas Mieza sent groups of students to England to study medicine. One report indicated the following:

> In 1918 there was a total of 500 Iranian students studying in Europe, of whom 200 were in France, 34 in England, 9 in Germany and the rest were in Switzerland and other countries.[3]

During the Reza Shah regime in 1925, educational reform was considered the key to the success of the country. A law passed in 1928 set up a program under which 100 students were sent each year to various European countries for a five-year course of study in the various fields of education

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[1]Area Handbook for Iran, p. 166.

[2]Arthur Clifton Boyce. "Teaching in Iran," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 28 (October 1946), p. 69.

[3]Arasteh. "The Education of Iranian Leaders in Europe and America," p. 444-450.

The History of Missionary Schools in Iran

During the early centuries of the Christian movement, a number of eminent Persian scholars became converts. Some of them held high ecclesiastical positions within the Christian church in Persia. These Persian Christian converts wrote interpretive works in Syrian for King Khosru Anushiravan.

Nestorians gained strength within the Persian empire, and the famous cities like Harat, Marv, and Samargand were under religious and educational influences; but the main center was Jundi-Shapur.

In succeeding centuries the Nestorians sent their missionaries to Iran and other countries. During the Sassanian Empire (226-642), the influence of Christianity became predominant in Iran.

From the seventh century on, as a result of Islamic influence, the country became a Moslem state, and as a result the Christians came to number only a few hundred thousand. As Wilber pointed out:

> The American schools conducted by the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions have brought to thousands of Persians sound training in cooperation, unselfish service, and good character.[1]

The history of Protestant Missions in Iran dates from 1811 when Henry Martyn, an English Evangelist, translated the New Testament into Persian.[2] During the same era the Gospels were translated into Persian by Carmelite fathers who were the Ambassadors of the Pope to Iran. Since Martyn's time, a principal purpose of Protestant missionary effort has been the zealous translating of the Scriptures into Persian and the various subsidiary languages spoken by the different tribes.

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[1] Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 15

[2] Groseclose. Introduction to Iran, p. 112-113.

In 1829, the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions began working in Urmiah (New Rizayeh). They sent out Messers, Dwight and Smith, who were followed shortly by the Reverend Justin Perkins. Groseclose stated:

> In 1871 their activities were extended to Tehran, in 1873 to Tabrize, to Hamadan in 1881, to Rasht in 1883...in 1911 a missionary school was opened in Mashad.[1]

Wilber believes that the first mission school in Iran was opened in 1836 in Razaieh. By the early twentieth century there were American, British, German, French, and Russian schools in various parts of the country.[2]

The first missionary to Iran, the Rev. Justin Perkins, was an educator from America. He accepted this position in 1833, upon resigning his position at Amherst College. Perkins' goal was the regeneration of Asia through Jesus Christ. Within the church in Persia at that time scarcely a handful of men and only one woman could read, plus printed books were unknown. Also the spoken tongue had never been reduced to writing, therefore, Perkins began to reduce the modern Syriac to writing and to translate the scriptures into that language. He taught the priests and bishops of the Church how to read the Scriptures, and to teach Persian people to use the literature.

Less than two months after Perkins arrived, he converted a room in the basement of his house into a seminary where boys could receive religious instruction. On the first day of January, 1836, seven boys

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[1]Groseclose. Introduction to Iran, p. 112-113.

[2]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 166.

were enrolled. However, there were no books, no paper, no pencils, and not even a slate. Perkins met the need with manuscript cards which he had prepared himself for use until books became translated into modern Syriac. Arithmetic work was done in a sandbox, using fingers for pencils. At the end of three months there were thirty Nestorian students, including three deacons and a priest of the school. The entire board was paid by the mission.

In May, 1846, Perkins' school moved to its new quarters at Seir and became a boarding school. There developed an intimate relationship between teacher and students. Therefore, it was not surprising that by 1865 ninety-nine students graduating from the school had become converts. Pupils then began coming to the school from the mountain regions of Turkish Kurdistan. When these students returned home, they carried back the influence of their seminary training.

When the mission at Seir was first opened, it was considered a disgrace for a girl to study there, although a few girls had ignored this barrier and entered the school. Later, Dr. Perkins accompanied by the Nestorian Bishop, Mar Youhannan, visited Mt. Holyoke Seminary, a girls college, on his first furlough. This visit, and the appearance of Perkins' first book, Residence in Persia, aroused the interest of Fidelia Fishe, and on Dr. Perkins second visit, she volunteered to go to Persia. Some months later Miss Fishe assumed her duties as principal of the newly created Female Seminary, with the idea of converting it into a boarding school. Fellow missionaries approved the plans, but they did not believe parents would send their daughters. However, by spring six girls had been enrolled in the school.

The boarding school for these six girls had space for thirty-three students. The floors were made of mud, and windows were glazed with oil paper. A stove was built out of bricks and the furniture consisted of a few benches. By the year 1852-53 enrollment at the school had grown to fifty. Miss Fishe believed that it was important for girls to learn household arts as well as sciences, and this was put into strong practice.

Miss Fishe returned to America after fifteen years of services in Persia. Miss Susan Rice, who had been associated with Miss Fishe at the Female Seminary took up her principalship. She resigned in 1868, after twenty-one years of service. Miss Nancy Jean Dean succeeded her. It was Miss Dean who gave the institution its new name, Fishe Seminary. Eighty girls had graduated between 1850 and 1868. According to Wilbur:

> After the first school opened at Rezaieh (was called Urniya) in 1836, others, attended largely by Assyrians and Americans, were organized in the vicinity.[1]

In 1836, the year Perkins opened the Male Seminary, village schools were established by Protestant missionaries. Three such schools were established in Ada, north of Urumia; in Ardeshai, south of Urumia; in Geogtape, six miles from Urumia. These three villages were important centers throughout the history of the mission movement. By 1849 there were over seventy schools in operation. The Protestant movement aroused the jealousy of the Nestorian Patriarch. In 1848, he made a direct attack against the village schools. These schools were too well established, and his orders to close the schools were not heeded. In 1851, fifty-eight village schools were reported in existence, with an enrollment of 1,023. Ten years later the mission wanted to give the support

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[1]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 170.

of the schools on the plain to the people. Then the following year, the government ordered that the number of schools was not to exceed thirty. These two restrictions caused the number of village schools to be reduced to twenty-three with a total enrollment of 333 boys and 124 girls. Then in 1861, $500 was contributed by the villages for the support of mission schools. An evening school was started in one village, and three years later Dr. Perkins reported that the school in Geogtapa was supported by the people themselves.

These schools offered instruction to Armenians as well as Nestorians. The school system later included several schools in the Suldez Plain south of Urumia. According to the historical papers prepared for the Centennial of the Tehran Mission, 1834-1934:

> In the early days of the Mission Mr. Stodking obtained a permit from the Shah authorizing the establishment of an agricultural or manual labor school at Gavilan. There is, however, no evidence that such a school was actually established.[1]

1844-45 was a year of trial for the mission schools. Trouble was first brought on by representatives of the Roman Catholic Church, and later by authorities of the Old Nestorian Church. The process of disunion had culminated since 1868. With the return of Dr. and Mrs. Perkins on the last day of the year 1868, then the death of Dr. Perkins on the last day of the year in 1869, the first period of the American Church's contribution to Persian education came to a close.

In the missions outside the region of the Nestorians, the first educational work began in a school in Hamadan, which was established by

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[1]Historical papers prepared for Centennial of Tehran Mission 1834-1934.

Armenian boys in 1870, and a school for girls was established twelve years later.[1] These boys had been educated at the Male Seminary at Sier for three years. One of these boys was Michail of Hamadan and the other was Hohanness of the village of Shavarin.

The school Michail began in Hamadan succeeded until he was forced to flee to Tehran, because of the persecutions incited by the authorities of the Old Armenian Church. Muza Abrokam, an Armenian who had received all his formal education in Hamadan, took charge of the school until his death. In 1880, the school had an enrollment of thirty-one boys and girls. Later, in 1881 the Rev. James P. Hawkes arrived in Hamadan and opened a Jewish school for Jews upon the request of the community. In 1882, this school and the Armenian school were united. Then, in 1886, Mullah Skimuel's private school of sixty boys became affiliated with the Mission School. In 1901, Rev. N. L. Euner entered the work of the school, became principal, and moved the school to a new building which was its home for twenty-five years.

The early educational efforts in Hamadan were primarily directed at minority groups, Armenians and Jews. From time to time the work of the school was dissrupted by opposition from conservative elements in each of these groups. However, the missions persisted in their educational program, and towards the end of this period Moslem children began enrolling in the school. Thus, before the outbreak of World War I, it had become a school for all classes.

As in Urumia, educational opportunities for girls in Hamadan began in the school for boys. Under the leadership of Mr. Hawkes, the

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[1]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 170.

school enrolled a few girls. However, a separate school for girls was created by Miss Anne Montgomery, who arrived in Iran, October 25, 1832. During the first year, forty-one students were enrolled at her school.

Under the leadership of Miss Faith Hubbard, of the Women's Board of New York, and the Reverend Hawkes' mother, Mrs. Sherwood, a permanent building to house the girls' school was erected in 1895. This building was named the Faith Hubbard School. In the 1890's girls from Moslem homes began to enroll. The first class was graduated in 1894, and by 1907 twenty-four diplomas had been granted.

In 1870 Hohanness founded a school for Armenian children at the village of Shavarin. However, the local Armenian priest was so hostile that he had the Protestant teacher expelled from the village. Hohannes then served in Tehemoklehe in the mountains of Karaghan. In 1877, he reestablished his school at Shavarin. The school enrolled 150 boys and girls, including Moslem children and Armenians. During World War I, enrollment dropped to forty because of famine and poverty. Christian refugees settled there and sent their children to the school, but the school ceased to exist after the war.

In 1870, the population of Tehran, the capital city, was 60,000. Of this population, 110 families were Armenian, 300 families were Jewish and 100 were European; 150 residents of Tehran were Guebers, and the rest were Mohammedans. The Armenians had a school near Kazvin Gate, but all pupils had to pay tuition, and the poor were excluded altogether. The ten synagogries in Tehran all maintained schools, which taught the reading and writing of Hebrew, and Judaic history and tradition. The Guebers, a minority group, were considered to have the best school in Tehran. It

was a coeducational school, managed and supported by Parsecs from Bombay, India.

In 1887, Reverend Samuel Lawrence became principal of the Armenian school near the Kazvin Gate. The first Persian teacher was a Zoroastrian who had become a Mohammedan covert. Carape Hagopean, a student from Robert College, became the head teacher. Soon after its opening a Mohammedan boy applied to the school, but he was required to submit a formal letter requesting acceptance. The Prime Minister of Iran wrote a letter on his behalf. Later on, twenty Mohammedan children submitted letters of application, so the school was opened to Mohammedans. In 1893, an unsuccessful attempt was made to begin a Theological Training Class. The enrollment of the school continued to grow and by 1896-97 it was 134, of whom half were Mohammedans. According to Wilber:

> The development of this institution was the life work of Samuel Martin Jordan, principal of the School from 1899 and president from the time it became a college until his retirement in 1940.[1]

Dr. and Mrs. Jordan visited colleges and schools in Turkey, Syria, and Egypt to gather ideas for founding a college in Iran. Jordan worked to promote the expansion of the school into a full college program. Lafayette College in America put on a special campaign to raise money. Mr. Arthur C. Boyce, a Lafayette graduate of 1907, taught at the school briefly. The Reverend Frank M. Moore also came from Lafayette as a permanent member of the staff. Later, in 1894, the boarding department of the school was discontinued, but it resumed in 1910 on a self-supporting basis which proved to be a success. Tuition was sufficiently high so that one student out of every ten attended on a scholarship basis.

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[1]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 208.

April 24, 1874 saw the beginning of a day school for girls in Tehran. The school had twelve pupils. February 8, 1875, it moved from Anna Khanums' house and became a boarding school with nine pupils in a palace near the King's Garden. Three years later land was purchased for the school. Miss Ann Schench, who had taught at the school for ten years, became principal in 1887.

In 1882, a plan was instituted to take girls by contract. Parents were to agree to let the girls stay there for a certain period of years. Total enrollment for the first ten years was 120. All students except two, one Jew and one Moslem, were Armenians. Girls were given tuition, board, books, clothing, all free.

The girls school later became known as the Industrial School. Later in 1886, the school for girls, was named Iran Bethel and was moved to a new building in the Mission on Ghavam-es-street in Tehran, and there it stayed. Determined efforts were made towards self support. Ten Krars was required for each new contract. A partially successful attempt was made to have parents provide clothing. Nasser-ed-Din Shah showed his favor to the school by promising 100 tomans a year, but only a few payments were made. In 1888 Jews and Norestorians began to apply for admission; Moslem girls did not enter the school until much later. In 1896 eighteen Moslem girls applied, but not all were accepted.

Mozaffar-ed-Din Shah in 1903 issued an order to the effect that parents must withdraw their daughters, from the foreign school "where they were being taught to wear high shoes and long skirts."[1] On issue of the order all parents withdrew their daughters, but they soon returned. In

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[1]Centennial of Tehran Mission, p. 13.

1905, out of an enrollment of ninety-five, twenty-four were Moslems; eight years later 345 girls were enrolled 154 of whom were Moslems.

In 1873 missionary schools were opened in Tabriz and Rasht. In 1907 each of these schools split into a separate school for boys and girls. The school in Tabriz for Armenian girls was under the direction of Miss Mary Jewett. These schools struggled along as separate entities for six years, and then, in 1879, were merged to form the "Boarding and Day School for Armenian and Moslem Girls." At first parents were reluctant to allow their daughters to board in the mission school, but this was overcome.

Large grounds were purchased and a new building erected near Kalla in 1882 through the help of the Second Presbyterian Church of Chicago. The following year a kindergarten was added, and it became a very important part of the school. For about twelve years no Moslems were enrolled as regular students. In the first decade of the twentieth century, Persian girls came in large numbers. In 1910 separate Persian department was opened. During the last decade the department enrolled thirty-three girls, twenty-two of whom were boarders. During these forty years the Bible and Christian instruction held an honored place in the curriculum.

The school for boys in Tabriz was not started until February, 1880, when a day school of thirty-five boys opened successfully. That same year Rev. S. G. Wilson arrived for the purpose of developing Christian education at the school. This he did despite constant opposition from the Moslems, the Armenian Bishop, and the throne. In 1892 the Shah ordered the school closed, but ten days later he reopened it. Growth in enrollment was slow. By 1895 the student body consisted of 140 boys, but Moslem boys were kept away by persecution from Moslems. The school was known as the "Normal and Training Class for Armenians of West Persia."

The schools' first home, a two-room building was erected in the Armenian quarter of Leilawa. However, philanthropy made it possible to expand the school into a central compound between the Armenian and Moslem sections of the city. In September, 1891, the newly expanded Normal Training and Theological School for Boys was ready. There were seven students in the first graduating class. Astronomy, geology, chemistry, Christian doctrine, the Bible and four foreign languages were taught. There was now a demand for English, and English textbooks were used in upper classes. Moslems began to realize the advantages of education, and enrolled in increasing numbers. In 1910, 313 students were enrolled, half of whom were Moslems. The curriculum was enriched the following year by adding Persian and Russian.

World War I was a difficult period for the school. There was considerable racial animosity. The city was occupied twice by Turks, who wreaked considerable damage to the school grounds and buildings. During the war years attendance at the school varied from 75 to 120 of whom were Moslems. In the fall of 1919, 400 students were enrolled. The school actively promoted good will and understanding between the races.

Iran had six village schools during the period 1862 to 1892. They were in Khoi, Salmas, and Maftdewan, in the western area of Ilkachee. The school was presided over by a Christian convert, Ali Agha, a member of the ruling family. The school was for Moslem boys about eighteen years of age.

Refugee schools were established for periods of time, varying with the refugee population. According to documents:

> In 1922, there were ten in the Tabriz area and three with 540 students in Maragha while two refugee schools in the city of Tabriz had over 400 students. Four schools were conducted in the Garadagh region until 1927 when regulations of the Ministry of Education made it necessary to close them. One school was conducted in Maragha during the post war period for several years and was effective as an evangelistic center as well as being a great aid educationally. Since 1927 no village schools have been in operation.[1]

Among the Persians themselves the necessity of taking the initiative became recognized. The government decided in 1901 to reorganize public instruction according to the French model.[2] Later, elementary and secondary schools were founded where Persian and Arabic were taught together with French and Russian.[3]

An evangelist, Kasha Ruel Davajan (also Kasha Ruben), from Urumia, who was employed by Tehran Station pastor, directed a school in Resht. The school was later managed by Baron Marker Jatzagurtzian, a Turkish Armenian. He was later expelled from the mission service, and the school was closed and remained so until September 15, 1903. Then Rev. Harry C. Schiler and his wife organized a school in Resht. They employed Baron Manuel Yeghyzian, a Protestant Armenian, who had graduated from the Hamadan Boys School, to teach Armenian. Musa Kazvin was employed to teach Persian. Six Moslem pupils were added to the six Armenians. In the following years a few girls were taken into the school and soon it was recognized as a coeducational school. In 1906-07 a Mohammedan girl enrolled in the school. That same year a tuition fee was established. The class of 1913 consisted for four Armenians who had completed the nine year course.

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[1] Centenial of Tehran Mission, p. 17.

[2] Haas. Iran, p. 162-3.

[3] Ibid., p. 63.

The farthest geographical point the Mission educational work reached was Meshed, where there was a school for boys. Opening a missionary school in the Moslem city of Meshed was not an easy task. Groseclose stated:

> It became possible to establish work in such a center of Moslem fantacism as the Shrine city of Meshed.[1]

It is said that as late as the 1890's an evangelist from Urumia, Rabi Pera Amrikhas who was employed by the Tehran Station, lived and worked in Meshed.

From 1871, the Male Seminary at Seir passed through several years of disorganization. Then in 1875, the school was closed and Reverend Jeremiah Oldfather began conducting some classes in the city. However, in 1878 the Mission was able to purchase a large garden in which they founded a College and Boarding School of which Reverend J. H. Shedd was the principal. The curriculum included an academic, industrial, theological, and medical department. The College developed rapidly. During its first thirty-five years the school graduated 110, of whom forty-four completed the theological course and twelve in the medical course.

In 1904, a Moslem Boys School called "Maufat" was founded under Reverend William Shedd, and it was successful from the start. He had the assistance of Reverend Jacob David, an Assyrian from Urumia who was a graduate of Brown University. In 1911, Maufat and the College united as the "American School for Boys" under Dr. Shedd. The next year "Shardari" (a municipal building) was purchased for the day school department. In 1911-12 enrollment reached its highest point, 301 students, including the

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[1]Groseclose. Introduction to Iran, p. 113.

governor's two sons and nephews and sons of other important families. In 1915 the school had to close because of hostile Turks and Russian armies.

The Fishe Seminary graduates continued to return home to their villages and become teachers, ministers' wives, mothers, and homemakers. Frequent efforts were made to extend education to Mohammadan and Jewish girls. In 1871-78, Miss Mary Jewett began a school for intelligent Moslem girls in Khoi. She taught arithmetic, geography, sewing, housework, and hygiene. The school was later moved to Seir. In 1879 there were eight Mohammedan girls in the school, in 1880 fourteen, but in 1882 only two. This effort to educate Mohammedan girls continued for twenty years, despite opposition from Moslems. Again in 1906 another Moslem school was started for girls, and it later became a department of Fishe Seminary. Twenty Moslem girls graduated from this school prior to World War I. The Board of Churches was responsible for the village schools that were now organized as Khusha. The Education Board appointed teachers, determined salaries, selected locations for schools, and decided what amount the community would contribute. It operated through the superintendent of schools who visited them frequently. Along with the elementary schools, there were a few higher grades. The higher grades had six classes, instead of three or five, and they were boarding schools. Each grade lasted nine to ten months. These schools were discontinued in 1889, but resumed in 1900 for about eight years. Mr. John Mooshie, an Assyrian from Urumia who had an A.B. degree from Colgate College, was superintendent of all the village schools for fiteen years. He brought the parochial school system of 60 to 70 schools to their highest point.

The Nestorians, living across the Turkish border in Kurdistan, had scarcely felt the impact of Christian education when the College opened in 1879. Word of Mission schools spread to Kurdish neighbors and they began to respect the education and higher standards of living in communities which had schools. Steadily, goodwill grew between Christians and Kurds. Fifty-eight mountain villages gained permanent schools, others had some ephemeral ones. These fifty-eight village schools were later supplemented by nine higher schools.

Schools were begun with a minimum missionary supervision. The students who returned from Urumia inspired in others a desire for education. In most schools classes were held during only four winter months. More and more the village school master grew in importance and the hopeful elements of the community came to the schools. Sabbath Schools were also started.

> Schools of higher grade for both boys and girls were gradually established by the Americans in other cities, and were attended by an increasingly larger proportion of Persians.[1]

In the early 1890's two boarding schools were established by the missionaries in Mosul for Assyrians. One was for boys and the other one for girls. The two schools were conducted by teachers from Urumia. The curriculum was mostly Biblical. There was also a higher school in Baz which was under Kasha Daniel's control. His school was openend before World War I. If the operation of the school had not been interruped by the way, many Kurdish boys would have attended in Baz. Another higher school was located in Jezireh Ibn Omar. This school did not have the highly qualified leadership of the school in Baz. Another boy from this

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[1]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 170.

area had graduated from Urumia, and had returned and established a school in Gereh d'Attil for selected boys from the village. The school was self-supporting. When the World War I started, Christians were ordered killed, but the Agha, a strong supporter of the schools, ordered the Christians to flee. Also, according to Groseclose:

> At one time the Kurds broke into the American Lutheran mission, murdered the principal missionary, Mr. Bachimont, and captured the three women missionaries. Fortunately, Simitko recognized one of the women as a missionary nurse whom he had once invited to teach his people. Therefore he set her to help the wounded men. A week later he released the three women to go to Tabriz (in northwestern Iran).[1]

There was an interest in educational reform in Iran in the twentieth century. Mosque schools and private schools were widely criticized, especially for their methods and curricula. Attempts were made to update the curricula by introducing such subjects as science and geography, but these efforts were frustrated by the ecclesiastics.[2] Persians were confused about which direction to take in educational reform, and came to rely increasingly on the mission schools. Moslem parents sent their children to these schools not for the Christian instruction, but they would learn science and scientific methods. The religious instruction at the schools was accepted as a necessity rather than an advantage.

When war broke out in Europe, the effects of the war disrupted the border schools. Whole populations moved toward the interior; missionaries followed them with schools and education. The shools now found themselves in new Persia. A new ambition was flowing through the

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[1]Augusta Gudhart. "My Blood of the Martyrs," Atlantic Monthly (July 1922), p. 115.

[2]Centenial of Tehran Mission, p. 23.

veins of Persians, a desire to gain self-respect and the respect of other nations. Reza Shah Pahlavi became the leader of this nationalist movement. Christian education had to adjust to the time by "Persianizing" Christian education. The Mission Board authorized the improvement of many of its schools, utilizing the advice and help of the American staff of the College. All the existing Middle Schools of the Mission Board were given official recognition by the Iranian Ministry of Education as is also Alborz College.

The Malajer School is no longer in existence, but it was a success for a long time. Inspired by what they saw in Hamadan, two Mohammedans of Malajir asked the Mission Board to open a school. They contributed $750 for this purpose the school was organized in 1911. Mohammedans made up most the enrollment. The first graduation class, in 1923, granted three diplomas. This school was in operation until 1929, when a free government school was established.

The Mission Board sought to put their schools on a self-supporting basis, through more adequate tuition. This was accomplished despite the large number of new government schools which were opening. The mission schools enjoyed a high esteem and there was a great demand for education. Mission schools in Tehran gained a high degree of respect. In 1931-32, $15,000 was collected by the College and Boys School from 800 students for the self-supporting Boarding Department.

After the war, two scores of schools in Urumia sector were opened again because clientel had scattered. According to Arfa's statement:

> Foreign missionary schools and proselytism were first discouraged and later prohibited, in the case of schools not prepared to submit to the Education Ministry's program.[1]

The Ministry of Education prescribed the Persian language as the medium for teaching, and instruction of foreign language. The Ministry also prescribed "Islamic religious teaching for the Moslem children."[2] Only those foreign schools which would accept government regulation were allowed to stay open. The government ordered the reopened schools on the Persian Plain of Urumia closed in 1928. All educational work of the Mission Board ceased in this area. It was reported by a native evangelist that at this time, the government supported village schools were staffed largely by teachers who had graduated from Fishe Seminary and the American School for Boys. The following schools were in operation as the mission steps out of the first century.[2]

TABLE 4

City			Enrollment Mind.	Mid.	College
Hamadan	Mshatti (Girls	Miss Lucille Gweesy	45		
	Avicenna (Boys	Mr. Commodore Fisher Rev. B.M. Wright (acting	190		
Tehran	Nurbakhsh (Girls	Miss Jane Doolittle	287		23
	Alborz (Boys	Rev. S.M. Jordan	397		15
Tabriz	Parveen (Girls	Miss Mary Johnson 48*	60		
	Avicenna (Boys	Rev. B.S. Glifford	60		
Resht	Mahsati (Girls	Miss Marie Gillespie	60		

[1] Centenial of Tehran Mission, p. 27.

[2] Ibid., p. 27. The Kindergarten Department of the Tabriz Grils School was reopened in the autum of 1935 with the approval (more accurately, at the suggestion) of the Minister of Education. There are also some indications that the government may revise its attitude toward mission elementary schools.

The Mission schools valued the respect and goodwill of Persians. The Persian government recognized that these American educators were serving in Iran with no ulterior motives. Commercial organizations employed many graduates of mission schools because of their ability and character. Dr. Jordan's statement about the graduates of the College is true in a lesser degree, of the graduates of all the mission schools of the provincial cities:

> The steadily increasing contribution of the alumni of the College to the development of the new national life of Iran (Persia) becomes more impressive year by year. One alumnus (the only man who has been a member of every Jajless since the inception of constitutional government in 1907) continues to be outstanding in the political and economic life of the country; another for the past five years has been the youngest member of Jajless, thought not the least influential. The Minister of Education, the working head of the Medical School, Minister of Education, the working head of the Medical School, the legal advisor of the Ministry, the Governor and the Chief of Police of the wealthiest province, the Assistant Minister of the Interior, the controller of the Government Opium Monopoly, the Director for the Mint, the financial controller of new railroads, the superintendent of the rolling stock of the same, and hundreds of others, as governmental officials and in every walk of life, are rendering notably faithful and efficient services to the country, as physicians, lawyers, teachers, army officers, merchants, manufacturers, bankers.[1]

Mission schools are a thing of the past in Iran, but they left a definite impression on Persian education. Fisher, the Principal of the community school in Tehran stated:

> Revolts, intrigue, international rivalry, despots and oil make the big headlines about Iran. But here as in America, there are other forces at work, less sensational yet more important of which we hear but little.[2]

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[1] Centenial of Tehran Mission, p. 27-28.

[2] C.B. Fisher, "Uniting Nations in Iran," The Journal of Education, pp. 18-19, Vol. 13, January 1948.

Modern Foreign School Development

An official letter was sent to the Secretary of State in Washington by Villard, American Vice Consul in Tehran, on the subject of of "Education in Persia." In the letter it stated, according to figures published by the Ministry of Education, on June 2, 1928, the latest data available on education in Persia was as follows:

> Tehran and suburbs: Boys, 18,918; Girls, 9,365; Religious students, 365; Total 22,648. Provincial Schools: Boys, 92,731; Girls, 22,904; Religious students, 5,925; Total 121,560. Persian students studying in Near East number 653.[1]

It also stated that:

> The total of 150,811 pupils registered in 1928 showed an increase of 54.3 per cent over the total recorded five years previously.[2]

The distribution of schools in operation were estimated as follows:

> Government schools 621; National schools 270; Private schools 103; Foreign schools 61; Preparatory old-fashioned school (Maktals), 2,137. In Korassian, one of the religious cities, the number of pupils attending school during 1928 was: Boys 11,255; girls 3,155; religious students 1990; total 16,400.[3]

On behalf of the School of Law and Political Sciences as well as the Normal school in Tehran 12,000 books were ordered from Paris.[4]

> It was reported that an accord had been reached whereby diplomas by Persian secondary schools would carry the same weight as similar diplomas in French schools, and allow Persian students thus equipped to enter high schools in

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[1] Henry S. Villard, American Vice-Consul, Tehran, Iran. "Education in Persia," School Life, Vol. XVI, No. 2, p. 34.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

> France. A campaign was begun by the newspaper "Koushesh" and other sources for improvement of schools.[1]

Foreign-owned and operated schools have done a tremendous service in establishing institutions of learning for the Iranian people. Until the beginning of this century, education in Iran was almost solely in the hands of foreigners. The first French school was established in 1839 in Tabriz with ten students. This school was founded by the Lazarite Mission, who, with Les Filles de La Charite, ultimately established 76 schools throughout the country.[2] According to Haas:

> The American Presbyterian Mission founded a school for boys in Tehran in 1872 and another for girls in 1896. The British Church Missionary Society founded in 1904 the Stuart Memorial College in Isfahan.[3]

Of the schools which Haas classified as "Nonmissionary Foreign Schools," the Alliance Francaise and the Alliance Israelite Universelle are the most important. In the northern province of Tehran included Tabriz, the Russians, in 1911, founded a commercial school.[4] The first independent Polytechnical school in Iran was founded in Tehran in 1922 by a group of German technicians.[5]

In 1933, 1,708 boys and 1,346 girls were being educated in American schools. Alborz College at Tehran, the outgrowth of the American High School for boys, in 1928 received a temporary charter

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 207.

[3] Haas. Iran, p. 162.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Banani. The Modernization of Iran 1921-1941, p. 97.

from the Board of Regents of the State University of New York, and in 1932 this charter became permanent. The Sage College for women was developed as a continuation of the Nurbakhash School for Girls, and was operated in conjunction with Alborz College in 1928 in Tehran.[1]

In addition to these American schools, there were British, German, French, and Russian schools in operation in various parts of the country.[2] In 1940 all the foreign schools in Iran were taken over by the government of Persia.[3] Wilber stated:

> A private explanation of this action was that it was taken to halt the spread of Soviet propaganda through the media of the Russian schools.[4]

According to Haas' point of view:

> More than the countries of the Near East Iran was, in the educational sphere, under the crossfire of various and competing foreign influences.[5]

Haas pointed out that in Turkey and in Syria, American schools vied with the French for influence; and in Egypt the French contended with the English; but in Iran, French, American, and German institutions coexisted and Russian schools were later founded there by the Bolshevik government.[6] Haas believes that the unification of the school system in Iran was achieved on the basis of all these foreign influences, as well as on the logical desires of the Iranian people. He also believes that foreign owned and

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[1]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 207-208.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Richard B. Frye. Iran. (New York: Henry Holt, 1953), p. 87.

[4]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 208.

[5]Haas. Iran, p. 175.

[6]Ibid.

operated schools in Iran should be discontinued, although perhaps they have not yet outlived their usefulness.

Toward the United States and Americans, Reza Shah showed a fairly consistent coolness. At one time, he angrily recalled his Minister at Washington because:

> In March 1936, the Shah's Minister in Washington, Ghaffar Jalal, while driving his car, was taken into custody by a Maryland police officer for violating the speed regulations. He was promptly released, under his deplomatic immunities, with appropriate apologies.[1]

The Shah became angry and chose to regard the incident as an affront to the National dignity, and withdrew his Minister. This was the beginning of Reza Shah's dislike of foreigners, and he broke diplomatic relations with the United States. It was not until 1939, with the outbreak of World War II, that he resumed normal relations with the United States. From 1927 on, the activities of missionary schools in Iran had been gradually declining, through the closing of these schools, and through the workings of police regulations which placed restrictions upon missionary movements and preaching.[2] The Persian government purchased the American schools and colleges which had been founded and conducted by Presbyterian missionaries.[3] "Thus education received the Shah's patronage, and to young Persians seemed the golden key to a golden world."[4]

Before the 1930's when government restrictions were placed on missionary activities, there had been more than one hundred Presbyterian

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[1] Groseclose. Introduction to Iran, p. 28.

[2] Ibid., p. 144-5.

[3] Millspaugh.

[4] Ibid.

Missionaries in Iran, and their work included operating six hospitals, two colleges, and numerous secondary and primary schools.[1]

> Missionary work by the church missionary society of the English Church was begun in Isfaha, and in 1935 engaged some sixty missionaries.[2]

Foreign owned and operated hospitals have done a tremendous service for Iran. The Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions built and ran hospitals in the North of Iran for many years. At these hospitals nurses and doctors were trained.[3] The missionary hospitals then were asked by the Iranian government to establish the first state sponsored and state-supported schools for nurses. At the present time missionary hospitals are in operation in various cities, Kermanshah, Mashhad, Hamadan, and Tabriz. The missionary hospital in Tehran, which was the largest, was closed due to lack of personnel.[4] The church of England conducts a hospital at Isfahan and carries on medical work at Shiraz and Kerman. Also, at the present, Russia operates a small hospital at Tabriz and a larger one at Tehran.[5]

Official Attitudes and Restrictions on Missionary Activities

The official attitude of the government of Iran has been one of tolerance towards missionary work. Missionary activities historically

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Groseclose. Introduction to Iran, p. 113.

[3] Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 211.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid.

in Iran have been much freer from restraint that it has been in Turkey or Iraq. According to Sades, in 1929 there were fifty foreign schools in Iran of which twenty-five were American:

> For this reason the ordinance of September 5, 1928, issued by the Ministry of Education to regulate the status of the American schools is considered as a general document for all foreign schools.[1]

The ordinance contains three parts:

I. The American schools shall carry out the official course of study of the first four elementary grades in using only Persian as the medium of teaching; also from the beginning of the fifth grade, the Persian language, Arabic, and the history and geography of Iran shall be taught according to the official curriculum; that the Bible shall not be taught as such to the Moslem pupils, that selected words of great prophets and philosophers may be taught.[2]

II. If American schools desire the privileges accorded to Iranian schools of the same level, they must use the official course of study as a whole, as well as prepare their students for state examinations.[3]

III. In the third part of the Ordinance certain privileges were extended to the American schools, such as the appointment of some of their educational staff as members of the Iranian boards of examination,

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[1] Issa Sadiq. History of Education in Iran (Persia) From The Earliest Times to the Present Day. (Tehran: University of Tehran Press, 1969). Fourth Ed., p. 53. (Farsi).

[2] Ibid., p. 63.

[3] Ibid.

and the acceptance of the English language as the medium of examination for those subjects which are taught in English.[1]

The restriction of Missionary activities began in 1926 during the reign of Reza Shah Palavi (father of the present King). In 1928, partly through the influence of the Moslem clergy, and partly, perhaps, in imitation of the trend toward secularized education in the West, the teaching of religion in schools was prohibited. In 1933, possibly in order to bring missionary schools under greater control, especially in northwest Iran, the Urmiah (Rezaieh) district was declared a military zone and the missionaries were directed to leave. This ended a missionary work that had existed in the district for over a hundred years.[2]

> Beginning in 1935, all foreign schools were closed by the process of forbidding their attendance by Iranians, and in 1938 the properties of the two Presbyterian Colleges at Tehran were appropriated by the government.[3]

The closing of the missionary schools restricted the missionaries to focusing only on their main task, that is, "preaching the Gospal, rather than disseminating the knowledge and the material of science of the West." Later, restrictions were put on their preaching as well. However, after the abdication of Reza Shah in 1941 missionaries regained some of their freedom which was guaranteed under the Iranian constitution.[4]

The year 1920, during the Reza Shah regime, was considered the beginning of many new developments for Iran and Iranians. As Arfa put it:

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Groseclose. Introduction to Iran, p. 4-5.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

> Reza Shah was a genius of a man who undercook the gigantic work of changing a medieval, feudalistic, anachronistic country into a modern state, having, it is true, many shortcomings, but still modern, and capable of improvement.[1]

Reza Shah did not try to suppress religion, but succeeded in educating the Mullas (Islamic religious teachers) as well as preventing them from interfering with or opposing reforms. Also, in order to raise their standards, Reza Shah ordered the Mullas to pass the examination authorized to wear the Moslem religious costume which consisted of a long robe and a white or black turban. The Mullas were attached to the Mosques and religious institutions.[2]

In addition to the growing number of state schools, there also were some private schools in Iran, which, as has been pointed out before, were operated by missionaries or by native religious minorities such as the Baha'i, Zoroastrians, or Jews. These schools, because of their contact with and aid from co-religionists abroad, were in the vanguard of reform and Westernization.[3] According to Banani, prestige was attached to attending these schools:

> In fact a large number of the open-minded and influential families of Tehran enrolled their children in these schools. (Reza Shah's eldest daughters, and his eldest son (who is the present Shah of Iran) themselves received their early elementary schooling in the Tehran Baha'i schools.[4]

In 1940 the nationalistic policy of the Ministry of Education became so intense that most foreign missionary educators were asked to

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[1] Arfa. Under Five Shahs, p. 293.

[2] Ibid., p. 292.

[3] Banani. The Modernization of Iran, p. 93.

[4] Ibid., p. 96.

leave the country, and their schools were transformed into public schools. The schools that would cooperate with this government policy were allowed to remain open. In October, 1934, all Baha'i schools were closed because they observed a religious holiday which was not recognized by the Ministry of Education. Armenian schools were closed in 1939 as a part of an effort toward national assimilation of this minority group.[1]

Several of the private schools still in operation in 1970 are French. Most of them are operated by French Catholic teaching orders. They include the College Saint Louis de Tehran, under the direction of the Lazarite Fathers, the Ecole Jean D'Arc, and the Institute Marian, all of which are located in Tehran. The best known French secular private institution is the Lycee Franco-Iranian Razi, also located in the capital city. Ten French primary and secondary schools are located in the various provinces of Iran.[2]

> Religious schools are often associated with mosques which follow the traditional curriculum. These institutions usually are supported by charitable donations, bequests, and alms.[3]

The chief centers of study for the Imans[4] are at Najaf in Iraq and at the city of Qom south of Tehran. Other important centers are

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[1] Ibid., p. 67.

[2] Area Handbook for Iran, p. 170.

[3] Ibid., p. 277.

[4] Iman. In Islam is a recognized leader, or a Mohammedan priest. Among the Moslems, any of various persons called by this name (which capitalized when used as or in a title) as: a spiritual and temporal head of Islam. Any person who is followed as an authority in theology and law.

located at Mashhad, Tehran, Tabriz, Zanjan (180 miles northwest of Tehran), Isfahan, and Shiraz. The Tehran University Faculty of Theology helps train teachers in religious instruction, which forms part of the elementary and secondary school curriculum.

TABLE 5

A FEW FACTS IN THE HISTORY OF IRAN BETHEL

Years	Events
1874	Apr. 4, Girls School opened by Quzvin (near Ethnological Museum) with Armenian woman in charge of 12 girls
1875	Feb. 8, Moved to lower Laiezar, missionaries Bassett in charge of dormitory of 9 girls.
1887	Nov. 17, Re-opened at Qavame Saltaneh with 36 boarders.
1889	Nov., Name "Iran Bethel" approved by the station.
1890	Nov. 4, Nasser el din Shah visited to see if any Moselm students.
1891	Crimson chosen as school color, and motto: "That thy daughters may be as cornerstones, hewn after the fashion of a palace" chosen.
	April, First graduates--2 Armenians.
1896	Eighteen Persian girls applied.
1915	Alumnae Association organized.
1919	Sage Legacy Committee granted $200,000 for the development of a Woman's College in Iran.
1920	First Women's Magazine, Alane Nesvan, published by Alumnae.
1922	Girls' Camp of 25 held in Dezashib for a month--walked there.
1928	College property on Yusefavad bought ($25,000) (Rudaki Hall).
1929	Sage College Classes started with 10 girls--after school hours.
	Iran Bethel started participating in examination of Ministry of Education, sending for 6th, 9th and 11th classes; all passed.
1931	First Junior College graduate.
	Dewey Decimal system organized in library.
1934	Name changed to "Nurbakhsh."
1936	Jan. 8, Graduates received diplomas from the Queen at Teachers' Training College, Roosevelt Avenue. Unveiling compulsory.
1937	Sept., Sage Classes completely separated from Nurbakhsh.
1940	June, Three women received B.A. from Sage (New York State Board of Regents)
	August, All our educational work turned over to the Ministry of Education.
	Sept., Classes in my home, moving up and down Laiezar for five years. Work among poor begun.
1945	Name of "Iran Bethel" given our classes.
	Shah Mohamad Reza gave Rials 30,000 for work among poor.
1948	Nov., brought 27 Diba with Sage money.

TABLE 5--Continued

Years	Events
1949	Feb. 25, Dedicated new building.
	Oct., Clinic opened.
1951	Recent Iran Bethel graduates accepted into Alumnae Association.
1954	Assembly room enlarged to care for student body.
1955	Continual re-evaluation; only 9th class certificates accepted.
1956	Alumnae joined High Council of Women.
1960	New gate house, and rooms built on roof.
1966	Clinic closed in May and re-opened in August on present site.

The Education of Iranian Leaders

Towards the end of the nineteenth century Iran became involved with neighboring countries which were more powerful than herself, such as Russia and England, both of which had territories near Iran's borders. Iran's main foreign policy problem became to find allies to support her in possible conflicts with her large and more powerful neighbors. To this end, the training of professional politicians and diplomats became a primary educational goal.

In 1910 Mirza Hasan Khan Mushir Al-Dawleh[1] returned to Iran from studying political science at the University of Moscow. With the help of his father he drew up plans for the establishment of a school of political science. The Shah accepted his proposals and approved a budget of 5,000 rials ($1 = 75 rials) for the first year of the school.[2]

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[1]Mirza Hasan Khan Mushir Al-Dawleh was one of the sons of Mirza Naser Allah Mushir Al-Dawleh, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Iran.

[2]R. Arasteh. International Review of Education. No. 7, Vol. 3 (1961), p. 330.

The objective of the curriculum developed by Mushir Al-Dawleh was to prepare students to hold government posts as well as to give them a liberal education:

> The three year program included such subjects as Islamic jurisprudence, history, geography, astronomy, international law and French. The last two years were spend in specialized field such as international, administrative, or commercial law, principles of judicial trials, the science of taxation, or jurisprudence and logic. . . . Following this period, the graduates were expected to work for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for three years without pay.[1]

Through the influence of English educators, the twin ideals of nationalism and democracy had been introduced into Iran. Both these concepts were born in Europe where they were very much in fashion in the nineteenth century. Whereas is opposed the old idea of the King himself determining:

> What the curriculum would be, what qualities the teachers would possess, and in what locations the classes would be held. The students were expected to perform certain duties without question for the King in gratitude for the years spent in educating them.[2]

Higher education did not develop in a vacuum. Rather there were certain feelings about the educating administrative personnel as it was proposed and begun in mid-eighteenth century, and it developed an image. From its beginning the educating of administrative personnel set an enlightened image of educational interaction with foreign countries and doing good.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Franklin T. Burroughs, "Cultural Factors in the Education of Ancient Iran," Journal of Education Sociology, XXXVI (January, 1963), p. 239.

By the educational law of May, 1928, the Ministry of Education was authorized to send 100 students to foreign countries to study in different fields each year for five years. Because of the teacher shortage, the Higher Council of Education of the Ministry of Education decreed in 1929 that 35% of these students must study to become teachers in higher education, and the 65% remaining should be divided in the following fields of professions:[1]

TABLE 6

Profession	Per Cent
General Medicine	8
Ophthalmology	4
Surgery	4
Veterinary Medicine	5
Dentistry	3
Agriculture	4
Forestry	2
Mechanical Engineering	3
Electrical Engineering	5
Mining Engineering	5
Civil Engineering	8
Naval Engineering	4
Chemistry	3
Law	3
Finance	3
Total	65

As Arasteh points out, in addition to Government-sponsored students studying abroad, there are those who are financed privately and those who are supported by different ministries. A report by the Ministry of Education indicates that in 1935 there were 1,175 students

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[1] Issac Sadiq. Modern Persia and Her Education System. (Columbia University Press, 1931), p. 78. Quoted by R. Arasteh, "The Education of Iranian Leaders in Europe and America," p. 445.

studying abroad, of whom 640 were supported by the Ministry of Education, 131 by other ministries, and 400 were sponsored privately.

The following tables give the geographical distribution of the 1,175 students who were studying abroad, the field of their study, and the sponsorship of various government agencies.[1]

TABLE 7

DISTRIBUTION OF IRANIAN STUDENTS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES DURING THE YEAR 1935

Country	Number of Students
France	481
England	74
Germany	39
Belgium	21
Switzerland	9
United States	16
Total	640

TABLE 8

STUDENTS SENT ABROAD BY SPECIAL AGENCIES, 1935[2]

Agency	Number of Students
Ministry of Roads	74
Ministry of Finance	16
Ministry of Post and Telegraph	1
Office of Industry and Mines	2
Anglo-Iranian Oil Company	37
Municipality	1
Total	131

[1]Robert King Hall, N. Hans, and J. A. Laverys. "Iran," Yearbook of the Ministry of Education, 1935, pp. 116-7.

[2]Yearbook of the Ministry of Education, 1935, Section II, pp. 116-117. Quoted by R. Arasteh, "The Education of Iranian Leaders in Europe and America," International Review of Education (1963), p. 445.

TABLE 9

FIELDS OF STUDY OF IRANIAN STUDENTS ABROAD DURING THE YEAR 1935[1]

Field of Study	Number of Students
Education and Teaching Sciences	143
Medicine	96
Law	43
Electrical Engineering	29
Agriculture	29
Finance	27
Mining	25
Mechanical Engineering	21
Road Construction	20
Political Science	16
Surgery	15
Chemical Engineering	14
Veterinary Surgery	13
Optometry	11
Architecture	10
Forestry	10
Unknown	7
Sugar Industry	6
Bridge Construction	5
Dentistry	4
Fine Arts	4
Railroad Construction	3
Entymology	3
Pharmacy	3
Teinturerie	2
Pisciculture	2
Radiology	2
Handicrafts	2
Archaeology	2
Metallurgy	1
Pre-Islamic Iranian Language	1
Failures	71
Total	640

[1] Ibid.

By 1939, 452 students had returned from foreign countries. The following table shows their fields of study:[1]

TABLE 10

THE EDUCATION OF IRANIAN LEADERS
Fields of Specialization of Students Returning to Iran in 1939

Field of Specialization	Number of Students
Medicine	77
Law and Administration	55
Teaching of Mathematics	37
Teaching of Chemical Engineering	35
Teaching of Electrical Engineering	28
Agriculture	26
Construction Engineering	25
Minerology	22
Natural Sciences	21
Languages and Literature	20
Mechanical Engineering	20
Physics	20
Veterinary Medicine	13
History and Geography	12
Forestry and Water Resources	10
Business	9
Arts and Crafts	9
Archaeology	4
Dentistry	3
Pharmacy	2
Fine Arts	2
Pisciculture	1
Fort Engineering	1
Total	452

Those students who were not fortunate to go to universities abroad were able to attend institutions of higher education in Iran. The number of applicants for these instituions exceeded the number of places available. Therefore, students were admitted on the basis of competitive entrance

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[1] Annual Statistical Yearbook of the Ministry of Education, 1939. Quoted by R. Arasteh, "The Education of Iranian Leaders in Europe and America," p. 446.

examination. In his autobiography one student described the entrance examination:

> The teacher sat on a chair. At first the Koran was opened and a passage read by the examiner. I recited the rest and interpreted it in Persian. Then I explained its significance and also gave authoritative references for it. Next I went to another examiner who asked me about history. This was followed by dictation, composition and basic mathematics. In two weeks a dozen students received acceptances.[1]

The Political Science Institution finally opened in the fall of 1901. The students ranged in age 16-22. It was customary for brighter students to tutor others. At the end of the first year, 14 students took the entrance examination and 11 of them passed. By 1904 seven of this group of 11 students completed the course requirements, and upon their graduation received appointments in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.[2]

A second goal of Iran's foreign policy, which was reflected in the effort to educate political scientists, was to promote mutual understanding between Iran and other countries. To this end. a variety of educational institutions were established by the different ministries of the Iranian government. The author has listed in chronological order each institution which was developed by the ministries. These institutions were established before the founding of the University of Tehran, and some of them later merged with Tehran University.

> The Ministry of Foreign Affairs opened its school of Political Science in 1901; the Ministry of Economy, its

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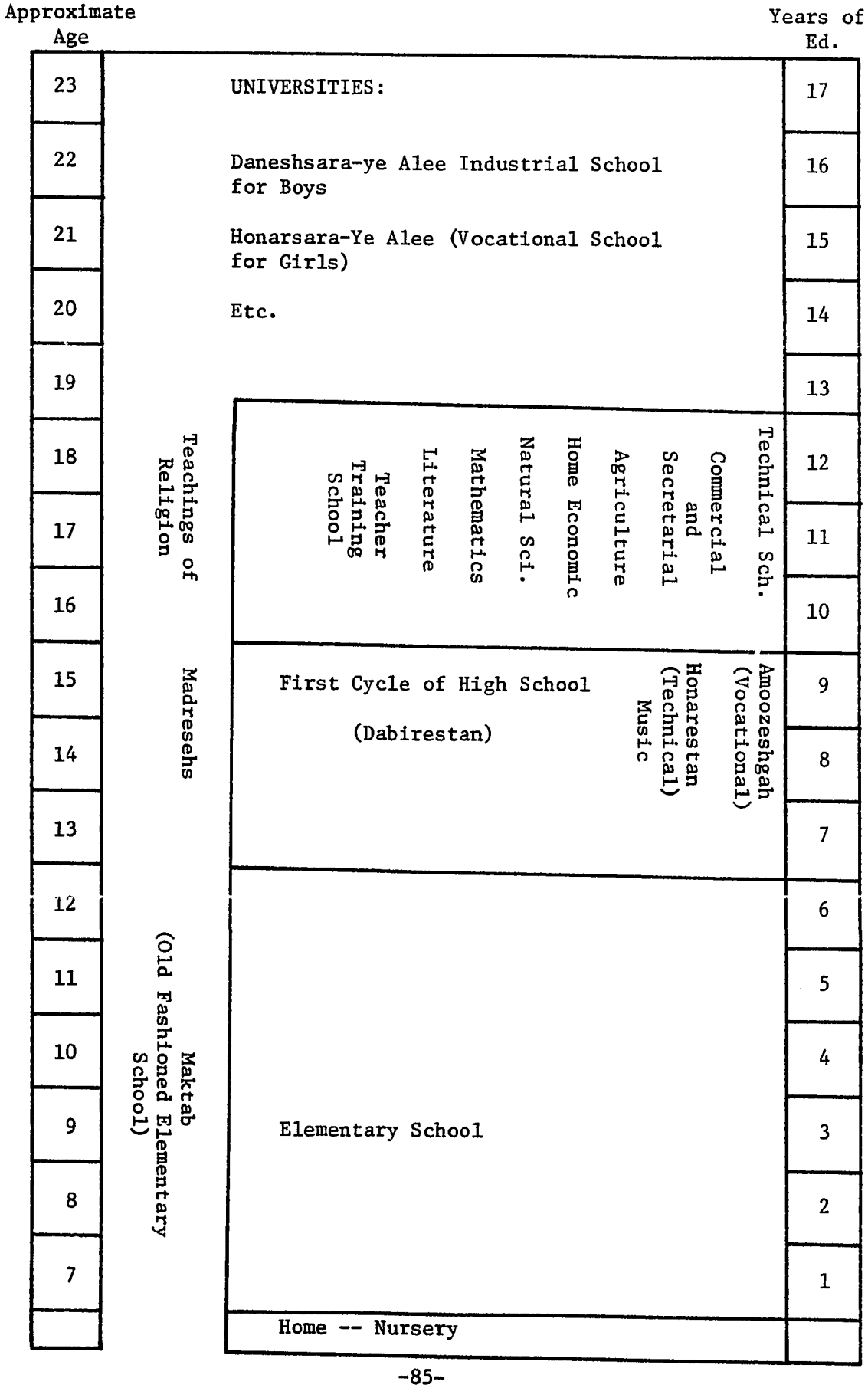
[1] Mustawfi 'Abd Allah, Sharh-i-Zandagani-yi-Man (My Life History). Tehran: Kitab Forushi "Almi," 1947, p. 1100. Quoted by R. Arasteh, "The Growth of Higher Institutions in Iran," International Review of Education, 1963, p. 331.

[2] Ibid.

FIGURE 4

DIAGRAM OF IRANIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM



CHAPTER III

THE FOUNDATION OF TEHRAN UNIVERSITY

Tehran University was established through the unification of existing institutions of higher learning: the Teachers' College, the Medical School, the School of Law and Political Science, and the Technical School. These schools now constitute the corresponding faculties of the university supplemented by a theological faculty, which is connected with the beautiful Speh Salar Mosque.[1] According to Haas:

> In 1941 all schools erected by foreigners were taken over by the government, a sign that the Iranian educational system was considered sufficiently advanced to rely on its own resources.[2]

Higher Schools

The higher schools of Iran can be divided into three categories. First, schools which were established by the government and are financed by the government whose employees are under government jurisdiction. In this group of schools one could mention the University of Tehran, Tabrize, Mashhad, Isfahan, and Goundi-Shapur, the Teacher Training College, Tehran Polytechnic, College of Commerce, nursing Colleges in

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[1]Haas. Iran, p. 164.

[2]Ibid.

Tehran and other provinces, the Civil Aviation Training Institute, Post, Telegraph and Telephone, Forestry and Pasturage, and Topography.

The second category of institutions of higher education is approved by the Council of Higher Education. These schools are: National University, Arya Mehr University, Pahlavi University, Girls College, Abadan Institute of Technology, National Oil Company, School of Accounting, School of Social Services, and Farci Institute of Higher Education.[1]

In the third category are private schools of higher education: College of Literature and Foreign Languages, College of Public Relations, and the Banking College. (For references refer to Table 4 in Appendix.)

Central Council for Universities

This office was organized in 1961 to regulate inter-university relations as well as to supervise universities and other institutions of higher education. This office appoints university presidents, regulates entrance requirements to universities and colleges, and evaluates the credentials of university faculties.[2]

The stated purpose of the Central Council of Iranian Universities is:

> To carry out research into regulations and standards for the administration and development of Faculties and universities, both those already in existence and those to be established subsequently, so that social, economic and scientific problems affecting the development of the country's universities could be solved systematically and in line with modern

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[1]Issa Sadiq. History of Education in Iran (Persia) from the Earliest Times to Present Day. (Tehran: University of Tehran Press, 1969), Fourth Ed., p. 449. (Farsi)

[2]Ibid.

> techniques, and that higher education in Iran could be guided confidently towards well-defined goals under the supervision of the Council.[1]

According to the Third Development Plan, a formal document stating the goals and activities of the Council, the Council must:

> Co-ordinate the allocation of credits to universities and supervise the teaching programs whether government, semi-independent, or private.[2]

The Central Council for Universities is made up of fifteen members, ten of whom must have had at least ten years experience in teaching in a university or other institution of higher education. The other five members must be people who are highly educated and have achieved distinction in their fields. Each prospective member of the committee is nominated by the Minister of Higher Education and is then appointed by the King. The president of the University of Tehran is one of the permanent members of his community, and he is the successor to the Minister of Education if he should die. The term of the president's office is three years and he could be reappointed again. University presidents attend meetings of the Central Council every two months, and deans of colleges are invited to the meetings once a year in order to voice their views.[3]

Board of Trustees of the University of Tehran

This board was established in 1968 to facilitate finance, employment, and administration of Tehran University. Members of this

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[1]Bureau of Information and Reports. Education in the Third Development Plan. Plan Organization of Iran, February 1968. p. 44-49.

[2]Ibid., p. 49.

[3]Sadiq, op. cit., p. 499.

board fall into two categories. The first category consists of people who are automatically members of the Board of Trustees by virtue of their high position in the government of Iran. For example, the Prime Minister, the Minister of the Imperial Court, the Minister of Science and Higher Education, the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Iranian National Oil, the President of the University of Tehran, the head of the Plan Organization of Iran, and the Chief Secretary of the Recruitment Organization are members of the Board of Trustees.

The second category of members of the Board of Trustees are leading educators who are nominated for the position by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. They are appointed by the Shah, and serve terms of five years.[1] Seven members of the Board fall into this category.

The Board of Trustees is responsible for nominating a candidate to become president of the University, whenever that office falls vacant. Candidates are officially appointed to the position by the Shah. Vice presidents and deans of the various colleges are nominated by the trustees, and then appointed by decision of the President of the University. The Board is also responsible for outlining the needs of the country for graduates in the various fields of study. The following are approved by the University President: budget, scientific, technical, and organizational structure of the University. Also the President of the University hires the teaching staff with attention that their retirement must be approved by the government. The Assistant to Financial and University Administration acts as an advisor to the Board

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[1] Ibid.

of Trustees.

Boards of Trustees for Other Institutions of Higher Education

According to Article 9 of the Constitution of Iran, each university is allowed to form its own Board of Trustees with the approval of the House of Parliament. Therefore, some universities and higher schools, like the University of Tabriz, Isfahan, Mashhad, and Goundi-Shapur, have organized a Board of Trustees along the same lines as that of the University of Tehran. Each of these Boards of Trustees differ from that of the University of Tehran in that the Prime Minister and Ministers of the Imperial Court are not members. Members of these other Boards of Trustees, who correspond to category one, of the University of Tehran's Board, are allowed to send substitutes to take their places on the Boards.[1]

University of Tehran and Its Faculties (Danishgahe Tehran)

The high point in the development of higher education in Iran could be considered the establishment of the University of Tehran in 1934. The establishment of this University brought higher education out of a transitional phase into its modern period. In 1934 the University was made up of seven faculties.

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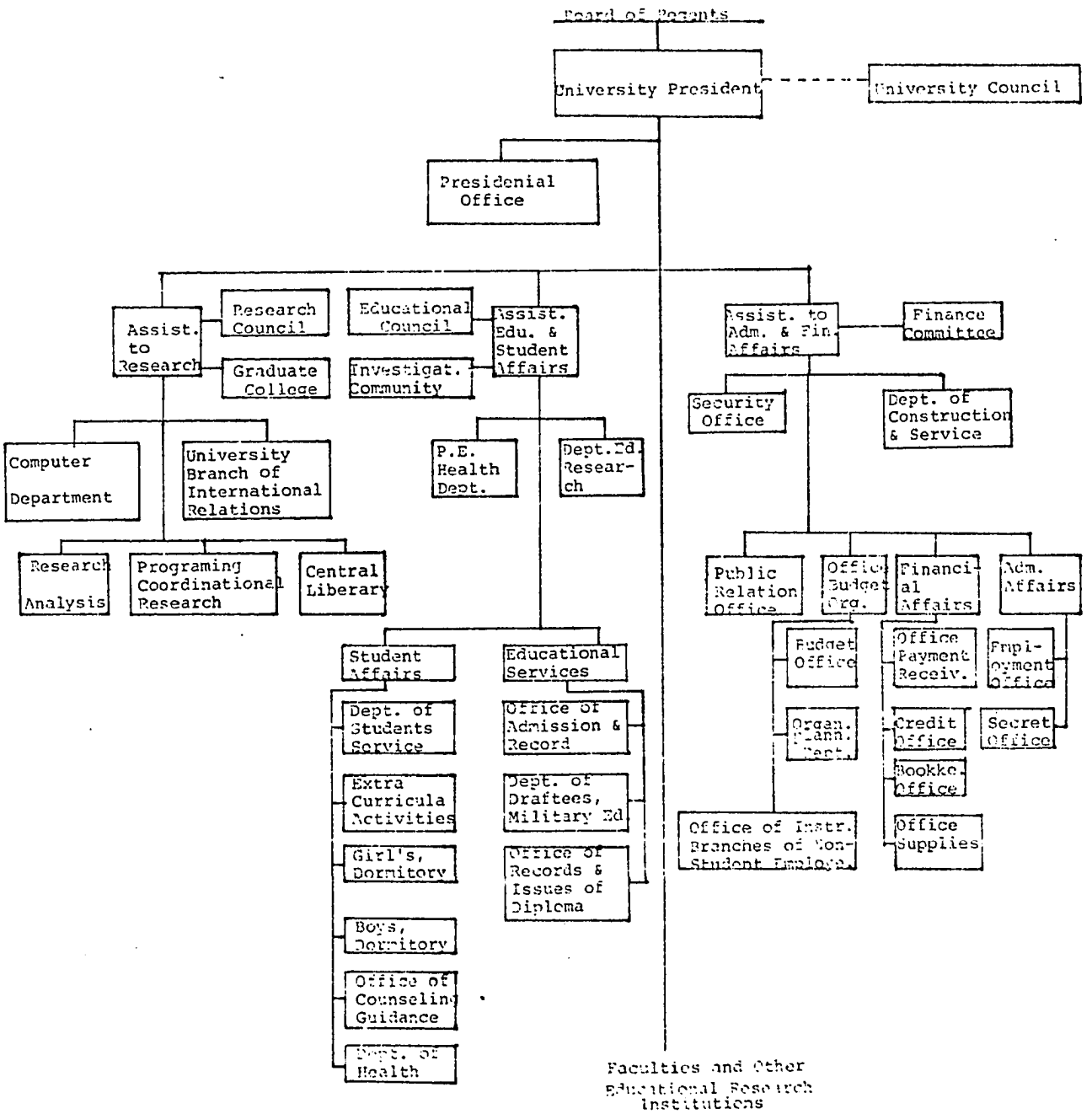
[1]Sadiq. History of Education in Iran (Persia) from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. (Farci), p. 499. Issa Sadiq is an Iranian educationalist, born 1894 in Tehran, graduate of the Teacher Training College of Versailles (1941) Licencie es Sciences (Math), University of Paris (1918) Ph.D., Columbia University, New York (1931) Professor of Education, University of Tehran. Director of various departments of the Ministry of Education, 19-30; member of National Constituent Assembly 25, 49, 67. He has published The Principles of Education, New Method in Education, History of Education in Europe, History of Education in Persia from Earliest Time Till Today, Memoirs (Autobiography), eleven essays.

FIGURE 5

CENTRAL ORGANIZATION CHART UNIVERSITY OF TEHRAN



The schools which became unified in the University of Tehran were: the Teachers' College, the School of Law and Political Science, and the Technical School, supplemented by a Theological faculty, the Medical School, the Ministry of War, Agriculture, and Veterinary Medicine.[1]

In 1972 there are sixteen faculties existent within Tehran University.[2] These are Faculty of Agriculture, Dentistry, Education, Engineering, Fine Arts, Forestry, Law, Literature and Humanities, Medicine, Pharmacy, Public and Business Administration, Public Health, Science, Theology and Islamic Studies, Veterinary Science, and Economics. (Also see Table 5 in Appendix.)

Orders of University Service

The following titles: assistant (found in the Faculties of Medicine, Dentistry, Veterinary, Pharmacology), assistant professor, associate professor, and professor is how employees of the Iranian University who render educational services are ranked.[3] In order to be ranked as assistant professor it is necessary to hold a Ph.D. degree or its equivalent.

Stages of Higher Education.

1. Post-Graduate Diploma: Which is given upon the completion of a two-year course after obtaining high school diploma, e.g., courses leading to Assistant Laboratory, Translation, etc.

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[1]Ministry of Education. Universities and Institutions of Higher Education in Iran. Iranian Government: Bureau of Statistics, Department of Planning and Studies, 1971. Publication No. 1, p. 60.

[2]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70. (Tehran: Tehran University Press, 1969), p. 28.

[3]Iran Almanac and Book of Facts. Published by Echol of Iran, Echo Printing. Tehran, Iran. 1970. p. 513.

2. B.A. or B.Sc. Degree: which is given for completing a full university course, the period of which being four years.

3. M.A. or H.Sc.: which is given for carrying out two years of study and research work, after obtaining B.A. or B.Sc. Certificate.

4. Engineering Degree: which is equivalent to B.Sc. or M.Sc. and obtained in agricultural and technical branches of studies.

5. Ph.D.: which is divided into two groups, medical and non-medical and it is the highest university degree.[1]

According to statistics given in 1969-70 in academic year 1968-69:

> During the academic year 1968-69, some 49,611 students have been attending from B.A., B.Sc., M.A., M.Sc. and Ph.D. courses at 44 Iranian Universities and institutes of higher education and 88,909 students have been attending Post Graduate-Diploma Courses. Adding to this figure, the 26,500 Iranian students, studying abroad, the total number of students, receiving education at high level reaches 85,000....Most of the Iranian institutes of higher education have been situated in Tehran and one-third of university undergraduate, study at Tehran University.[2]

Faculty of Agriculture

The School of Agriculture was established in 1900, in Tehran, and became an institution of higher education in 1930. It was merged with the University of Tehran on March 16, 1946.[3]

This college offers a Bachelor's Degree, a Master's Degree, and a Doctoral Degree. The College is made up of eleven departments: The department of Irrigation and Reclamation, Agricultural, Economics, Agronomy, Horticulture, Biology, Plant Protection, Soil Science, Animal Husbandry,

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[1] Ibid., p. 513.

[2] Ibid., p. 514.

[3] Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 44.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE

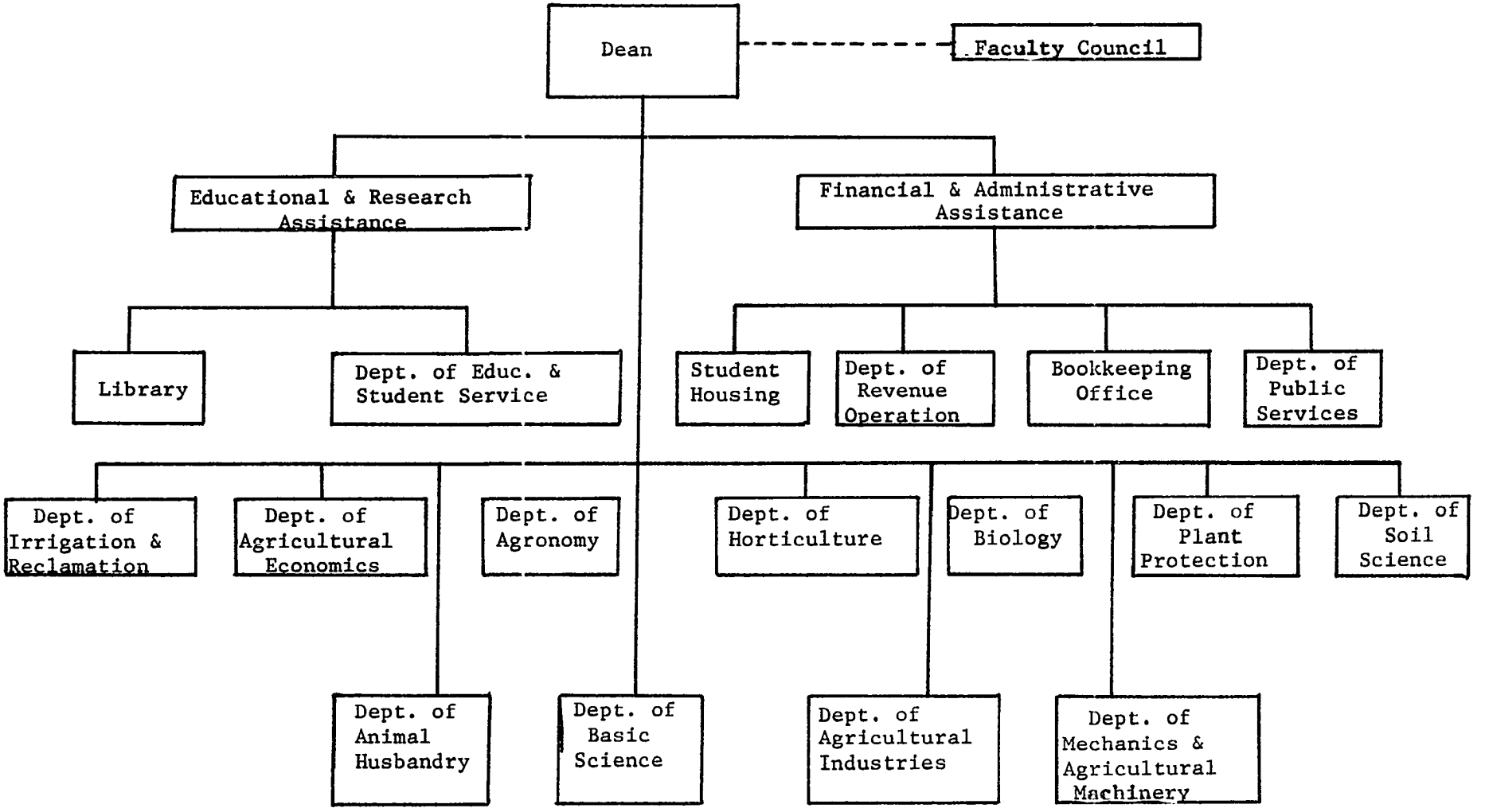


FIGURE 6

Basic Sciences, Agricultural Industries, Mechanics and Agricultural Machinery.[1] Table below illustrates the academic year 1969-70.

TABLE 11

STATISTICS ON THE FACULTY OF DENTISTRY
ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-1970

Classification	No. of Students			No. of Full Time Teaching Staff
	Male	Female	Total	
Undergraduate	551	80	631	Faculty teaches both
Graduate	97	6	103	undergraduate and
Total	648	86	734	graduates.

In the academic year 1968-69, from a graduating class of fifty students, there was only one girl.[2]

Faculty of Dentistry

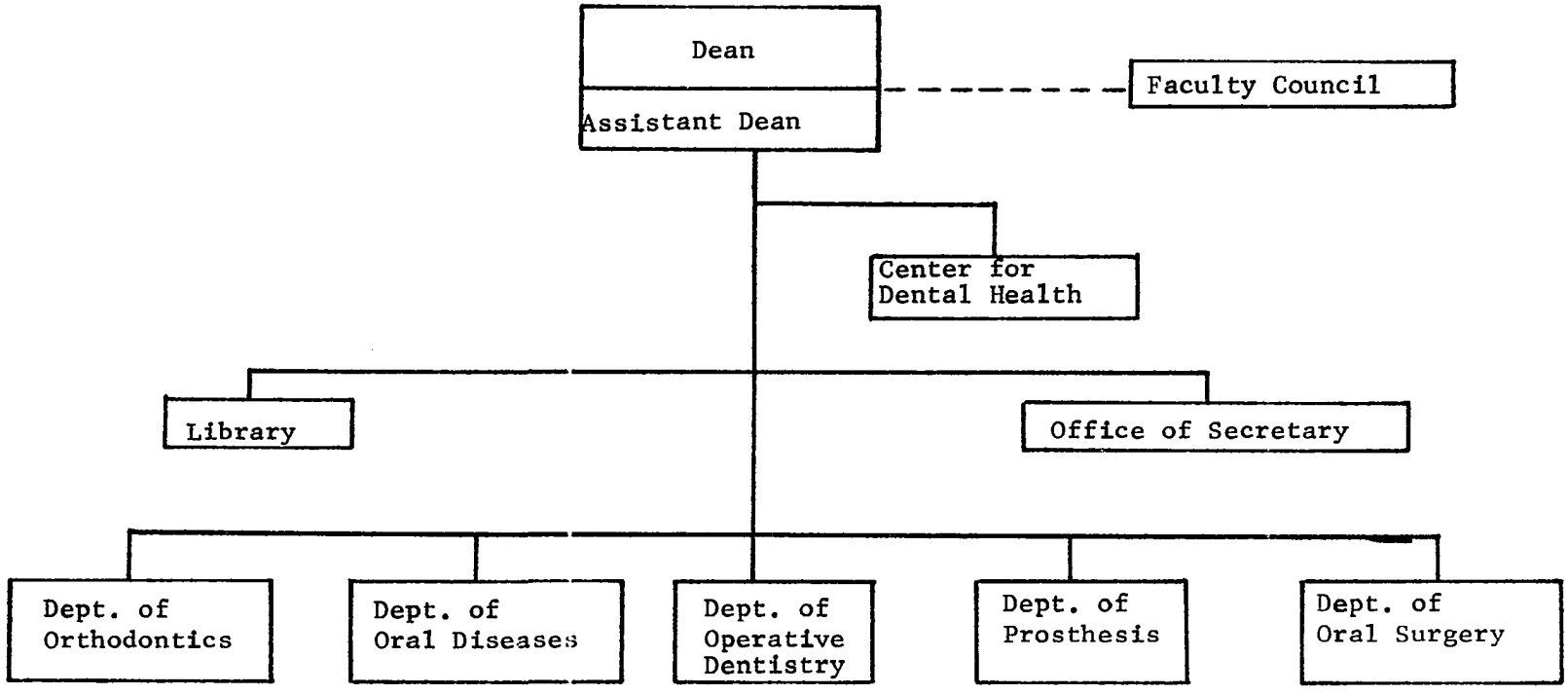
This school was established in 1938 as a department within the School of Medicine. Students with a ninth grade education were eligible for this program. But, in the year 1939, the Faculty of dentistry began accepting only those students with a high school diploma. In 1957 it became independent of the School of Medicine.

The Faculty of Dentistry, which offers a curriculum leading to the Doctoral Degree in Dentistry, is made up of five departments: Orthodontics, Oral Diseases, Operative Dentistry, Prosthesis, and Oral Surgery. The term of study is six years. In the academic year 1968-69, in a grad-

[1]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 29.

[2]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 45.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF DENTISTRY



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72. University Publication, 1971, page 31. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 7

TABLE 12

STATISTICS ON THE FACULTY OF DENTISTRY[1]
ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-1970

Classification	No. of Students			No. of Full Time Teaching Staff		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Faculty of Dentistry	251	109	360	28	4	32
Related Faculties	--	45	45	--	--	--
Total	251	154	405	28	4	32

uating class of 107 students, there were 54 women students and 53 men.[2]

Faculty of Economics

This faculty which had been a department of the Faculty of Law in 1966-67. The college offers undergraduate and graduate courses leading to the Bachelor's and Master's Degrees (at present this faculty does not accept doctoral students. Since 1966, 728 students have graduated from the Faculty of Economics, the majority of whom went into government posts. The following table gives the classification and number of students in the Faculty of Economics for 1969-70.[4]

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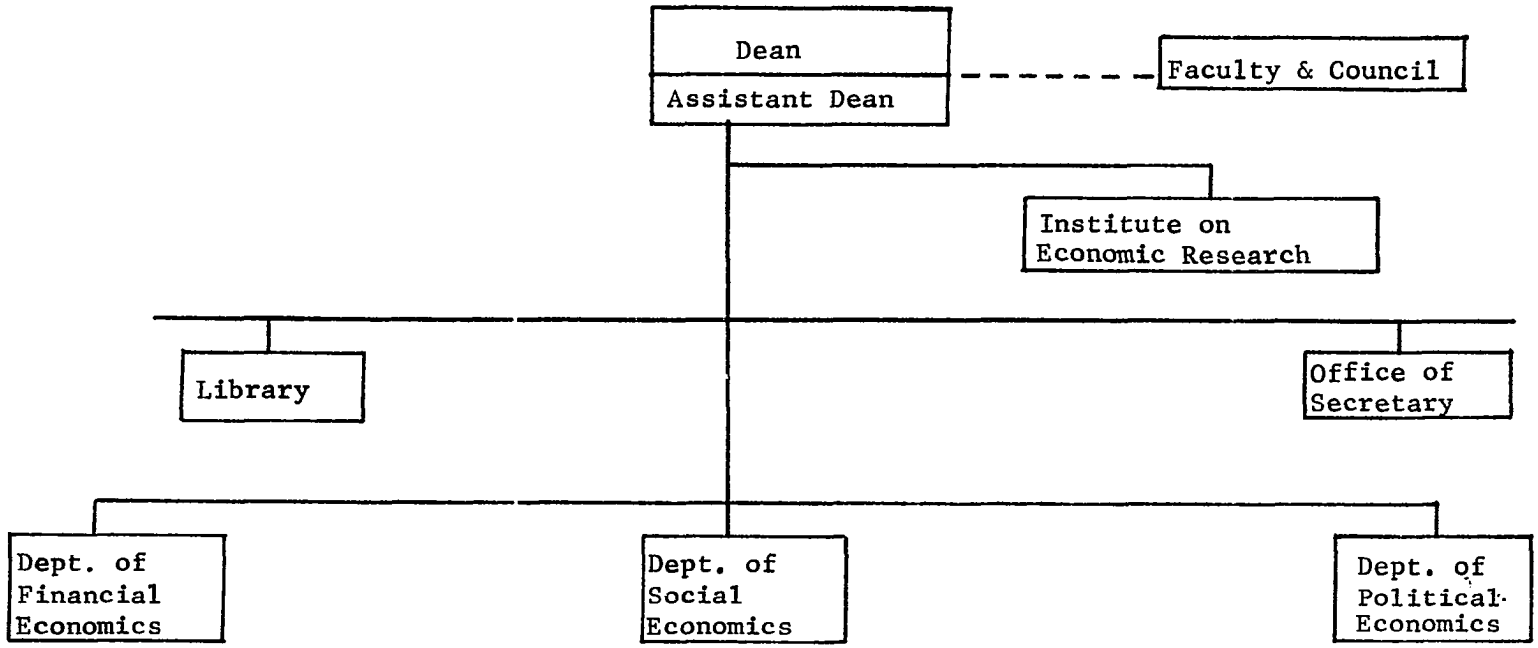
[1]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 38.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 25.

[4]Ibid., p. 26.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART — FACULTY OF ECONOMICS



Bureau of Educational Services, Guide to Tehran University 1971-72. University Publication, 1971, page 21. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 8

TABLE 13

STATISTICS ON THE FACULTY OF ECONOMICS - 1969-1970

Students	Male	Female	Total
Undergraduate	926	112	1,041
Master	118	19	37
Doctoral	29	1	30
Total	1,076	132	1,208

The table below shows the number of fulltime teachers in the Faculty of Economics for 1969-70.

TABLE 14

Number of Fulltime Teaching Staff		
Male	Female	Total
131	--	131

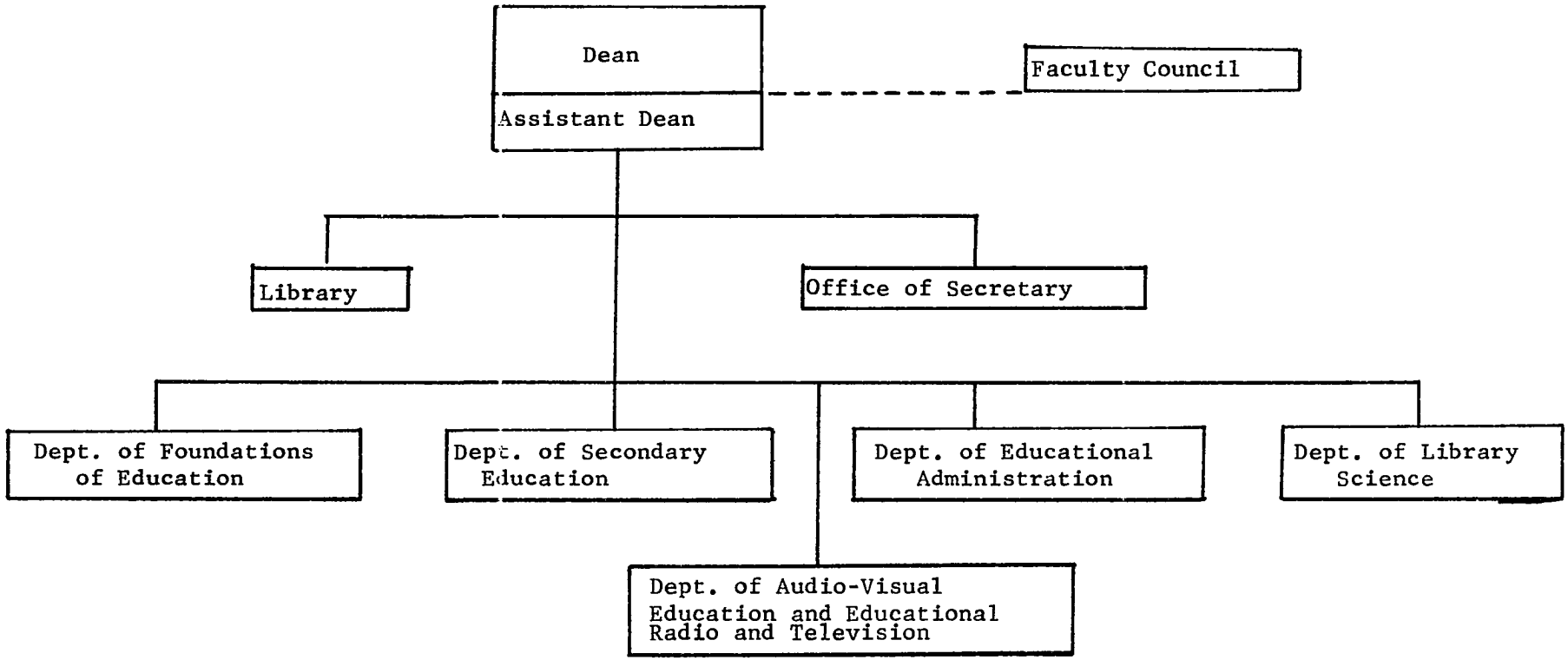
In the academic year 1968-69, from a graduating class of eighty-nine there were sixteen female students and eighty-five male students.[1]

Faculty of Education

This institution is a new addition to Tehran University, but its history dates back to 1880 when it was called the Central Teachers Training School. The Central Teachers Training School was one of the causes for the establishment of Tehran University. In 1956, the institution of higher education became independent, and the Faculty of Literature and

[1] Ibid.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF EDUCATION



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72, University Publication, 1971, page 34. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 9

Humanities became a separate institution. In 1963 it was dissolved and replaced by the Institution for Teacher Training and Educational Research. Finally, in 1965, the Faculty of Education, as it now exists, was approved by the Higher Council of Education. The College of Education officially opened in 1967 and started its undergraduate and graduate program. Prior to this date, courses on education had been offered by the Department of Psychology of the Faculty of Literature and Humanities.[1] The Faculty of Education has ten departments: Foundations of Education, Secondary Education, Educational Administration, Library Science, Audio-Visual Education, Music Education, Home Economics, Health and Physical Education. Statistics of the Faculty of Education for 1969-70 indicate:[2]

TABLE 15

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF EDUCATION FOR ACADEMIC 1969-70

Classification	No. of Students			No. of Full Time Teaching Staff		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Undergraduate	290	232	522	Faculty teaches both graduates and undergraduates.		
Graduate	122	102	224			
Total	412	334	746	12	3	15

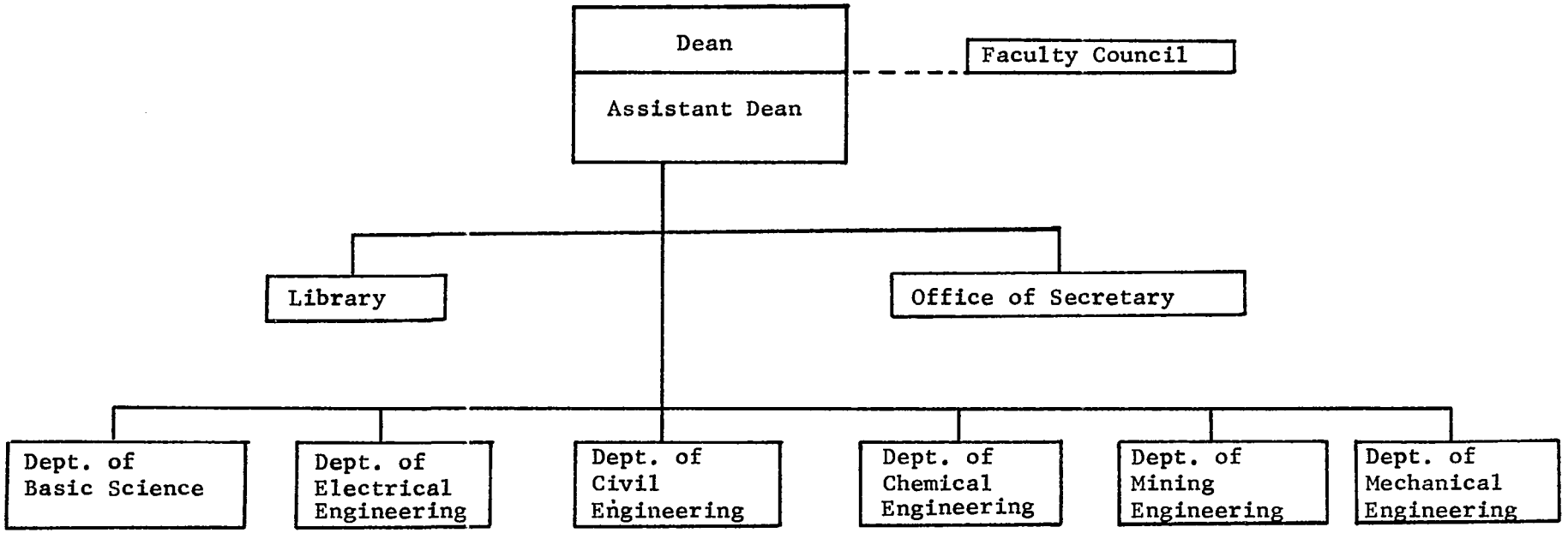
Faculty of Engineering

This institution was established in 1934 and was originally part of Daral-ol-Funun Institution. In 1942 it became part of the University

[1]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 41.

[2]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 57.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF ENGINEERING



Bureau of Educational Services, Guide to Tehran University 1971-72, University Publication, 1971, page 37. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 10

of Tehran. The Faculty of Engineering includes six departments: Basic Science, Electrical Engineering, Civil Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Mining and Mechanical Engineering. A bachelors' degree, a Masters' Degree, and Doctoral Degree are offered.[1]

TABLE 16

STATISTICS ON THE FACULTY OF ENGINEERING FOR 1969-70

No. of Students			No. of Full Time Teaching Staff		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
161	36	197	71	---	71

In the academic year 1968-69, a graduating class of 171, there were 169 male and two female students.[2]

Faculty of Fine Arts

This institution, originally called the Industrial School of Art, was founded in 1941. The name was changed to the School of Fine Arts in 1949.[3]

The Faculty includes seven departments: Agriculture, Painting, Sculpture, Theater, Music, Urbanism, Artistic Culture. The Departments of Painting, Sculpture, Music, and Artistic Culture. The Department of Urbanism offers only graduate courses leading to the Doctoral Degree in Urbanism.[3]

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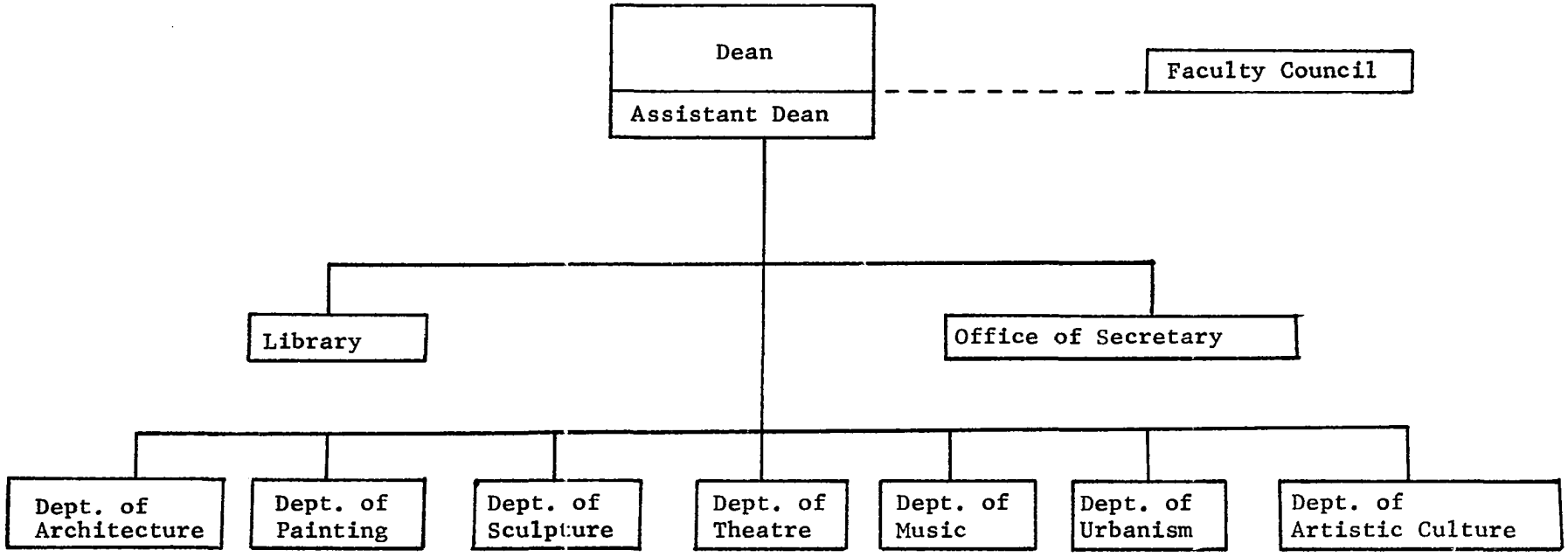
[1]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 44.

[2]Ibid., p. 45.

[3]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 85.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF FINE ARTS



Bureau of Educational Services, Guide to Tehran University 1971-72, University Publication, 1971, page 40. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 11

The Faculty has a full-time teaching staff of seventeen, and, in the academic year 1969-70, the graduating class of 101 students included nine female students and ninety-two male students.[1] The following table shows the number of students and teachers in the Faculty of Engineering.

TABLE 17

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN FACULTY OF FINE ARTS
IN ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

Classification	Number of Students		
	Male	Female	Total
Undergraduate	272	155	427
Graduate	501	86	587
Doctoral Cand.	26	2	28
Total	799	243	1,042

Faculty of Forestry

The Faculty of Forestry was founded in 1940 by Karim Saie. Until 1967, the Forestry School was part of the Faculty of Agriculture. In January 1967, plans were approved to establish the Faculty of Forestry as a result of the government nationalizing all Iranian forests.[2] The Faculty of Forestry was upgraded into an independent Faculty.

The Faculty at present offers a bachelor's and master's as well as a doctoral degree in its field. The faculty includes three departments:

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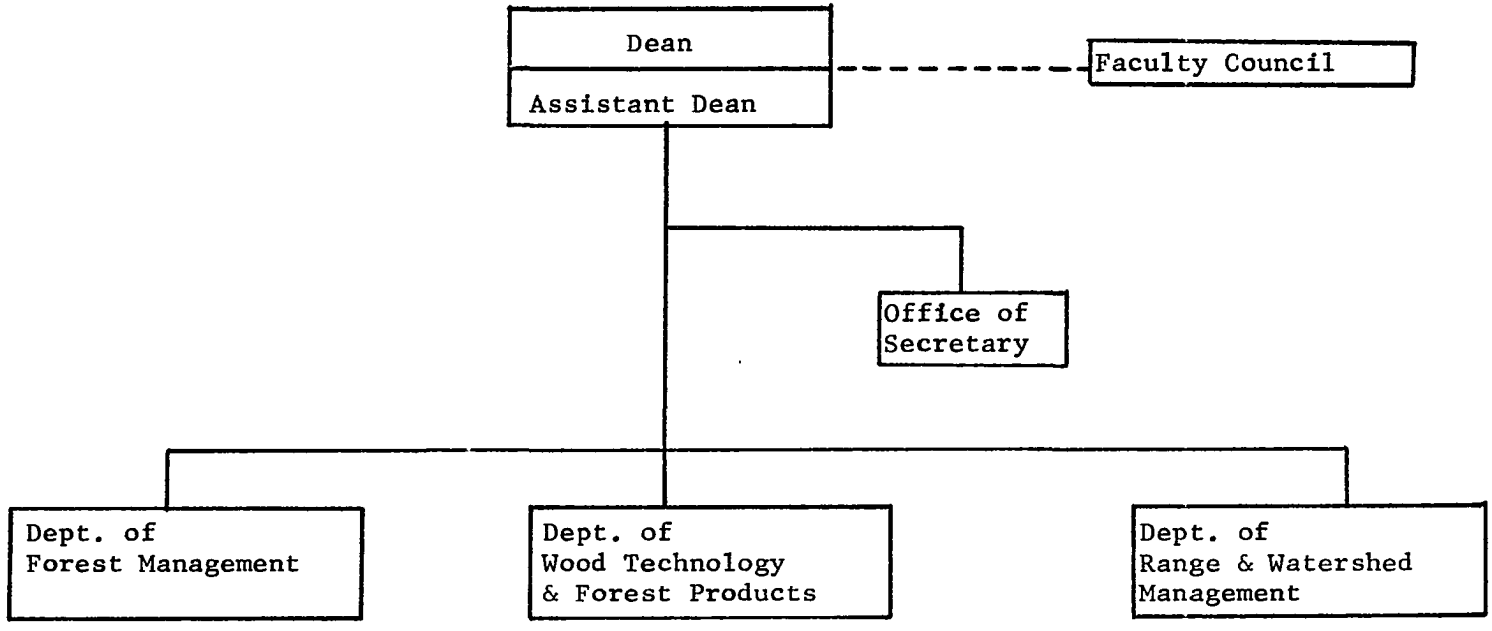
[1] Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 47.

[2] A Guide for Higher Education in Iran. Tehran: Regional Cultural Institute (R.C.D.), (September 1969), p. 80.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF FORESTRY



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72, University Publication, 1971, page 25. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 12

Forest Management, Wood Technology and Forest Products, Range and Watershed Management.[1] The following table outlines the academic year 1969-70 of the Faculty of Forestry.[2]

TABLE 18

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF FORESTRY
ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

No. of Students			No. of Full Time Teaching Staff		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
129	8	137	6	1	7

Faculty of Law

The Faculty of Law is one of the oldest institutions of higher education in Iran. It became part of Tehran University in 1934.[3] This faculty offers courses leading to a bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degree. The faculty includes nine departments: Private Law, Islamic Law, Political Science, Social Economics, Comparative Law, Financial Economics, Political Economics, Penal Economics, Public Economics. The table below indicates the number of students in the academic year 1969-70.[4]

[1]Tehran University Bulletin 1969-70, p. 99.

[2]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 34.

[3]Ibid., p. 34.

[4]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 107.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF LAW

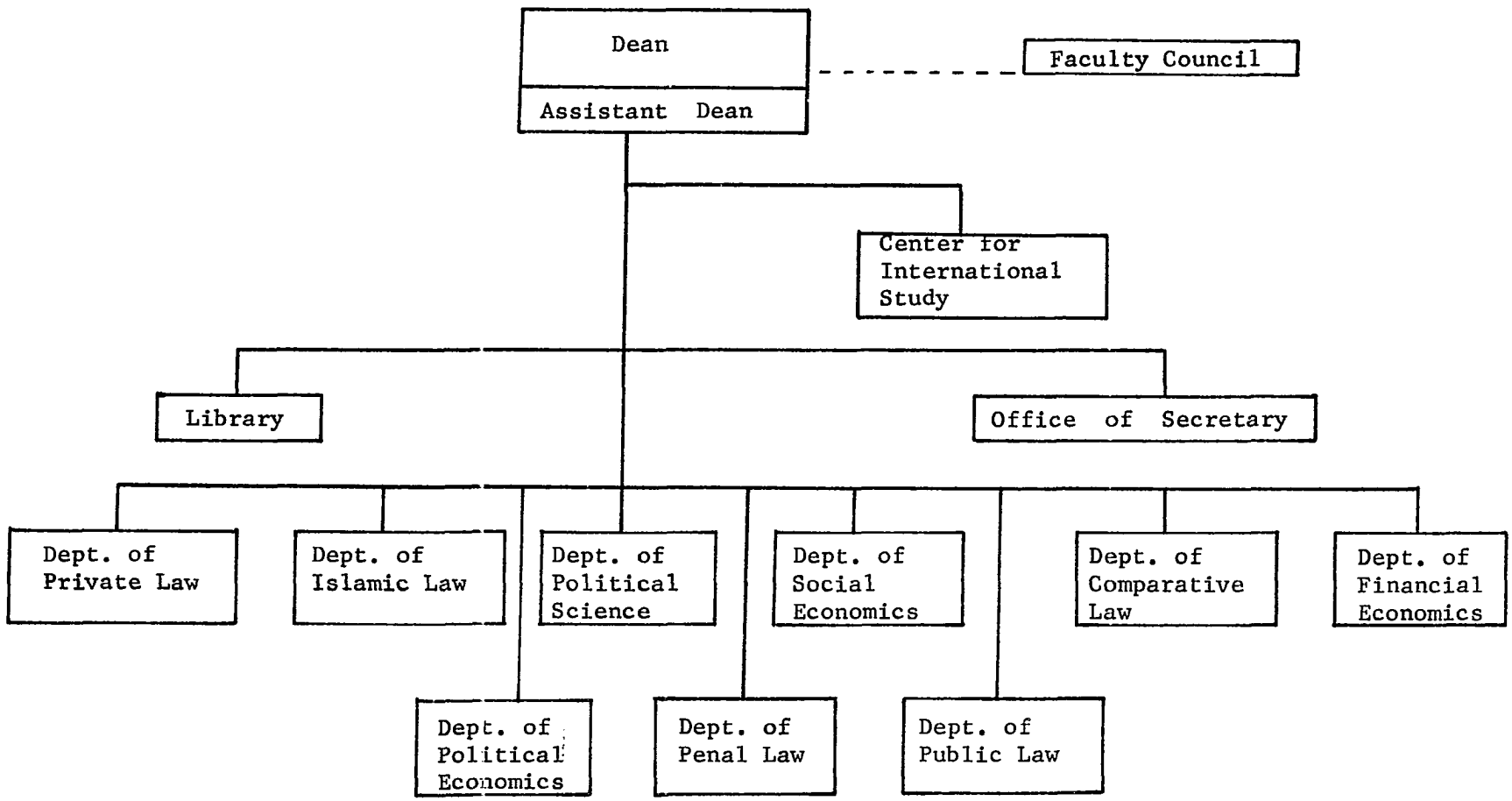


FIGURE 13

TABLE 19

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF LAW ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

Classification	Number of Students		
	Male	Female	Total
Undergraduate	1,457	343	1,800
Graduate	79	9	88
Doctoral Cand.	4		4
Total	1,540	352	1,892

In the academic year 1968-69, from a graduating class of 143, there were twenty-five female students and 118 male students.[1]

Faculty of Literature and Humanities

The faculty of Literature and Humanities became part of the University of Tehran in 1934. This faculty offers undergraduate and graduate courses leading to the bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees. The faculty includes nine departments: Persian Language and Literature, General Linguistics, and Ancient Languages, Archaeology and Art History, Philosophy, Psychology, Social Sciences, Geography, History, Foreign Languages (English, French, German, Russian, Arabic).[2]

During the academic year 1969-70, from a graduating class of 925 students, there were 343 Female and 582 male students. The table shows the number of teachers, students, and student classification for 1969-70.[3]

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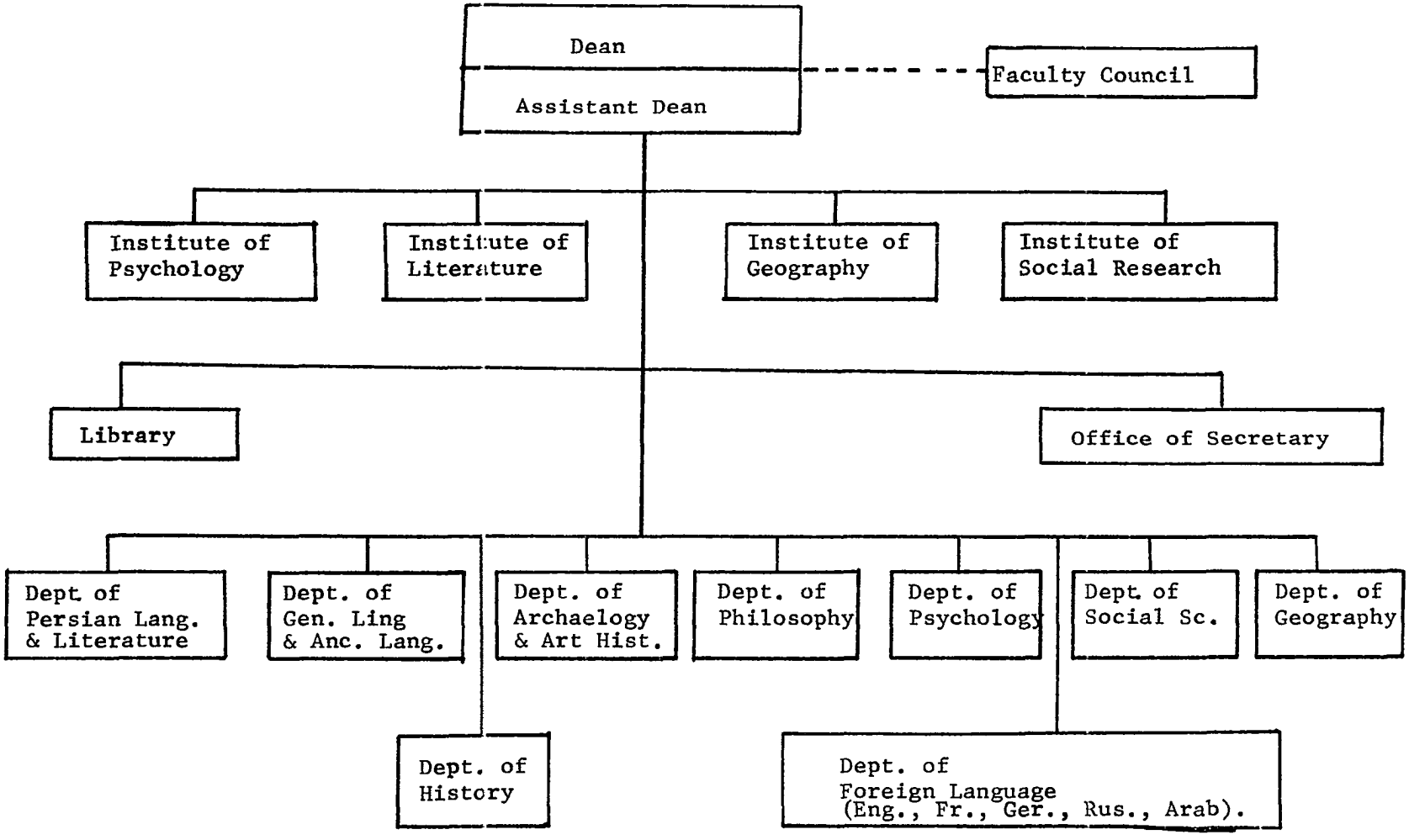
[1]Ministry of Education, p. 35.

[2]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 121.

[3]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 24.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF LITERATURE AND HUMANITIES



Bureau of Educational Services, Guide to Tehran University 1971-72. University Publication, 1971, page 18. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 14

TABLE 20

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF LITERATURE AND HUMANITIES
FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

Students	Boys	Girls	Total
Undergraduate	1,900	1,140	3,040
Graduate	205	77	282
Doctoral	14	6	20
Total	2,119	1,223	3,342
Other Including Department	343	582	925
Total No. of Students in Literature	2,462	1,805	4,268

No. of Full Time Teaching Staff			Administrators		
Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
72	9	81	17	9	26

In the academic year 1969-70 from a graduating class of 472, 307 were female students and 165 were male.

Faculty of Medicine

Medical education is one of the oldest forms of education in Iran. It formed a part of the curriculum at the Academy of Jundi-Shapur in 555 A.D. The standards and traditions of this school were further developed by many of the teacher-physicians from Jundi-Shapur, mostly Nestorian Christians and Jews who carried the traditions to the Muslim

hospitals in Bagdad, where the foundations of Muslim medical education were laid.[1]

Students learned medical theory and practiced interdependently under a senior practitioner. In addition to observation and internship, students questioned their masters on minute medical and surgical points with complete freedom, even to pointing out any fallacies in the masters' theory.

The history of medical education in Iran can also be traced back to the founding of Dar-Ol-Funun in 1849, which has been discussed in previous chapters. Todays' Faculty of Medicine dates back to 1934, the year of the founding of Tehran University.[2] This faculty offers a seven year course in general medicine leading to the M.D. Degree. The first three years consists of general science courses, the fourth, fifth, sixth years are devoted to clinical training and clerkship, and the seventh year is devoted to internship. Only those students who have passed all the examinations set for the courses in the previous year, are allowed to proceed on to further training.[3]

In addition to the course of study in general medicine, the Faculty requires that each student take one of a specialized medical field. After they have passed the examinations and requirements in one of those fields, the candidates are awarded diploma of specialization.

Ophthalmology, Radiology, Dermatology, and Venerology, and Psychiatry: each of these departments include three general courses for

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[1]Nakosteen. History of Islamic Origins of Western Education, A.D. 800-1350. p. 55.

[2]A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 77.

[3]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 192.

M.D. candidates. General Surgery, Gynecology and Obstetrics are a four year course for M.D. candidates.

The Faculty of Medicine has established special courses for training of technicians in the following fields: Laboratory Assistants, Radiology and Radiotherapy, and Pharmaceutical Assistants. These courses extend over two years, and candidates with a secondary school certificate in natural science or mathematics may register for them. Also, the medical school offers a three-year course in training the physiotherapist. The Ashraf Pahlavi School of Nursing, and the School of Midwifery are affiliated with the Faculty of Medicine. Ashraf Pahlavi School of Nursing offers a nursing certificate after completion of three years of course work. This degree is considered equivalent to a Bachelor's Degree. The School of Midwifery offers a one-year course and candidates for entry must be graduates of the Ashraf Pahlavi School of Nursing or a similar school. Graduates are awarded a Certificate in Midwifery, which is equivalent to a Bachelor's Degree.[1]

The Faculty of Medicine also includes a school for training nurses aides. This school offers a two-year course, and candidates with the certificate of the first cycle of secondary school may register for it.[2]

The faculty of Medicine is made up of nineteen departments.[3]

In the academic year of 1969-70 a total of 1,579 students were enrolled in the field of Medicine, 1,282 male students and 297 females. The graduating class of 1968-1969 was made up of 283 students, forty-five females and 238 males. One hundred six teachers made up the full-time teach-

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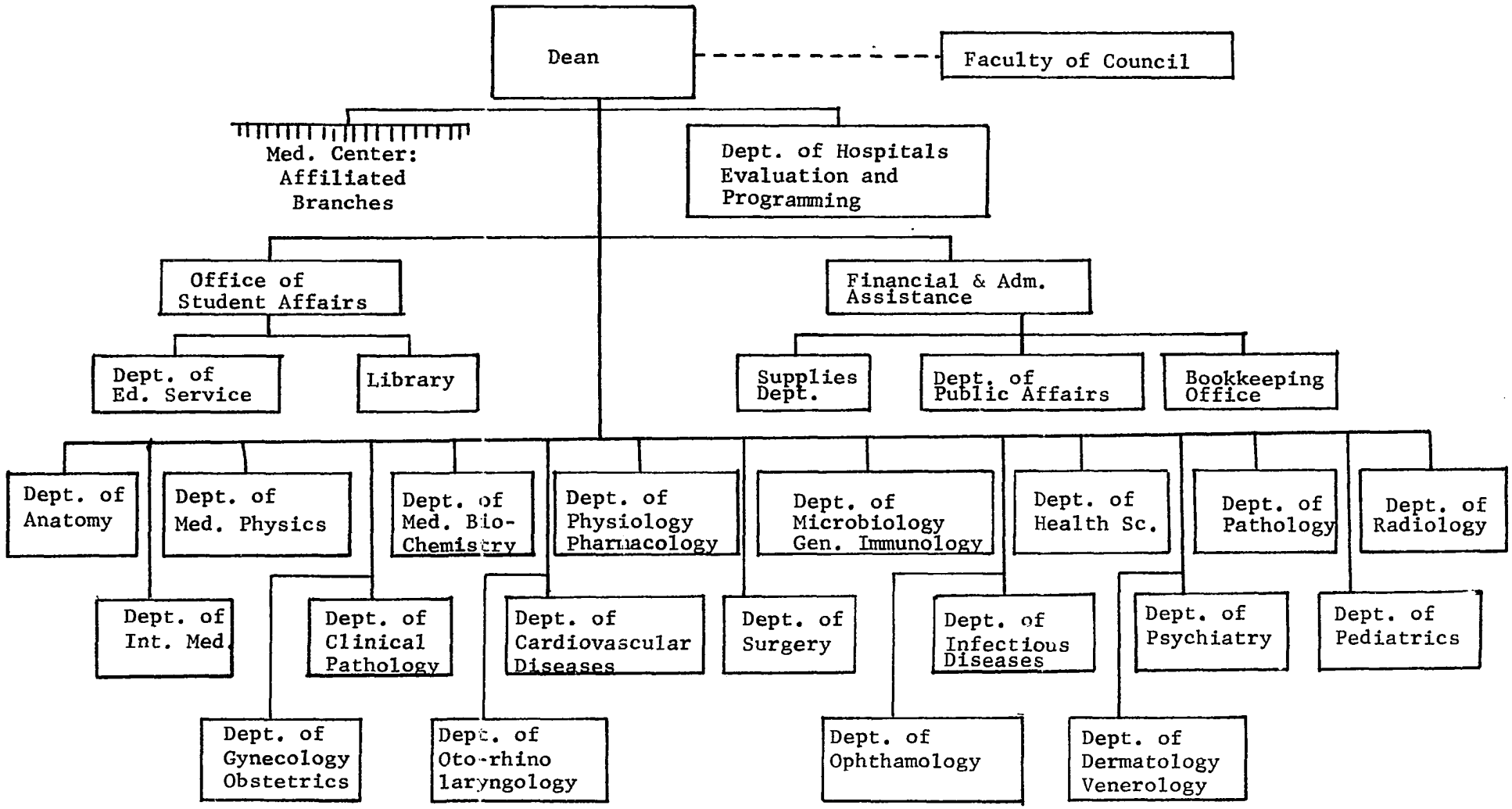
[1]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 32. [2]Ibid.

[3]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 193.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF MEDICINE



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72. University Publication, 1971, page 23. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 15

ing staff in 1969-70, 104 male teachers and two females. Also, the Faculty of Medicine has sixty-six administrators, fifty males and sixteen females. In the academic year 1969-70, 678 students (138 male 540 female) were enrolled in schools affiliated with the Faculty of Medicine. The following table shows the number of students and fulltime staff personnel for 1969-70.[1]

TABLE 21
STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF MEDICINE FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

Classification	No. of Students			No. Fulltime Teach. Staff			Graduating Class 1969-70		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Faculty of Medicine	1282	298	1579	104	2	106	222	45	267
Dependent Schools	138	540	678	-	-	-	24	378	402
Total of Med. School &Dept. School.	1420	837	2257	104	2	106	246	423	669

Faculty of Public Health

The Faculty of Public Health of the University of Tehran was established on August 10, 1967. It includes the School of Hospital Administration. This institution offers undergraduate as well as graduate courses leading to the bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees. The Faculty includes six departments: Biostatistics, Epidemiology, Pathology and Ecology, Environmental Health, Public Health Theory and Practice, and Occupational

[1]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 33.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF PUBLIC HEALTH

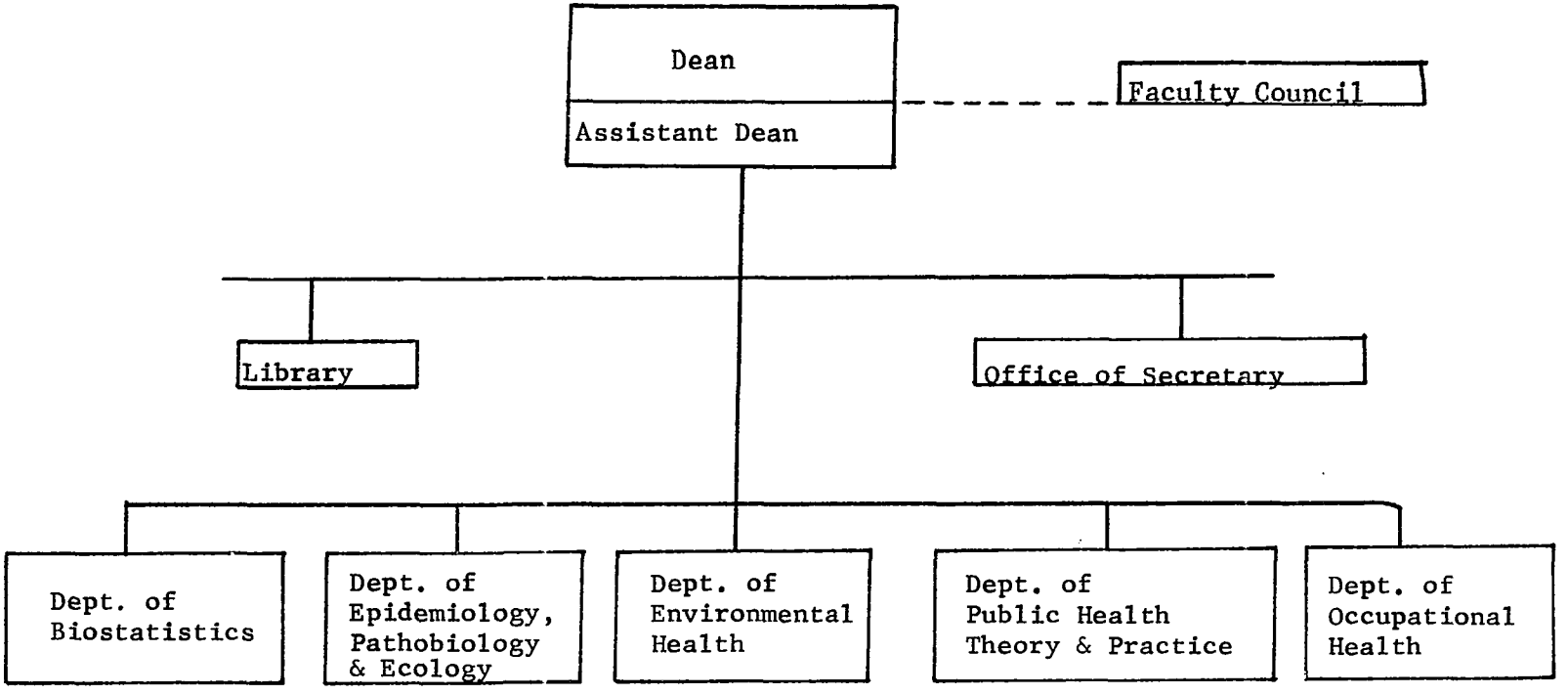


FIGURE 16

Health. In the academic year 1969-70 there were 124 graduate students enrolled in this institution, twenty-six females and ninety-eight males. In 1968-69, the graduating class consisted of only twenty-eight students.[1]

Faculty of Science

The teaching of science began in Dar-ol-Funun in 1849 as a part of the study of medicine. The Faculty of Science and Literature was established as a part of the University of Tehran in 1934. In 1943, the two faculties became separate institutions.[2] The Faculty of Science offers both undergraduate courses leading to the B.Sc. degree and graduate courses leading to the masters of science degree. This faculty is made up of five departments: Chemistry, Mathematics, Geology, Biology, and Physics. The statistics on the Faculty of Science in 1969-70 are as follows;[3]

TABLE 22

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF SCIENCE FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

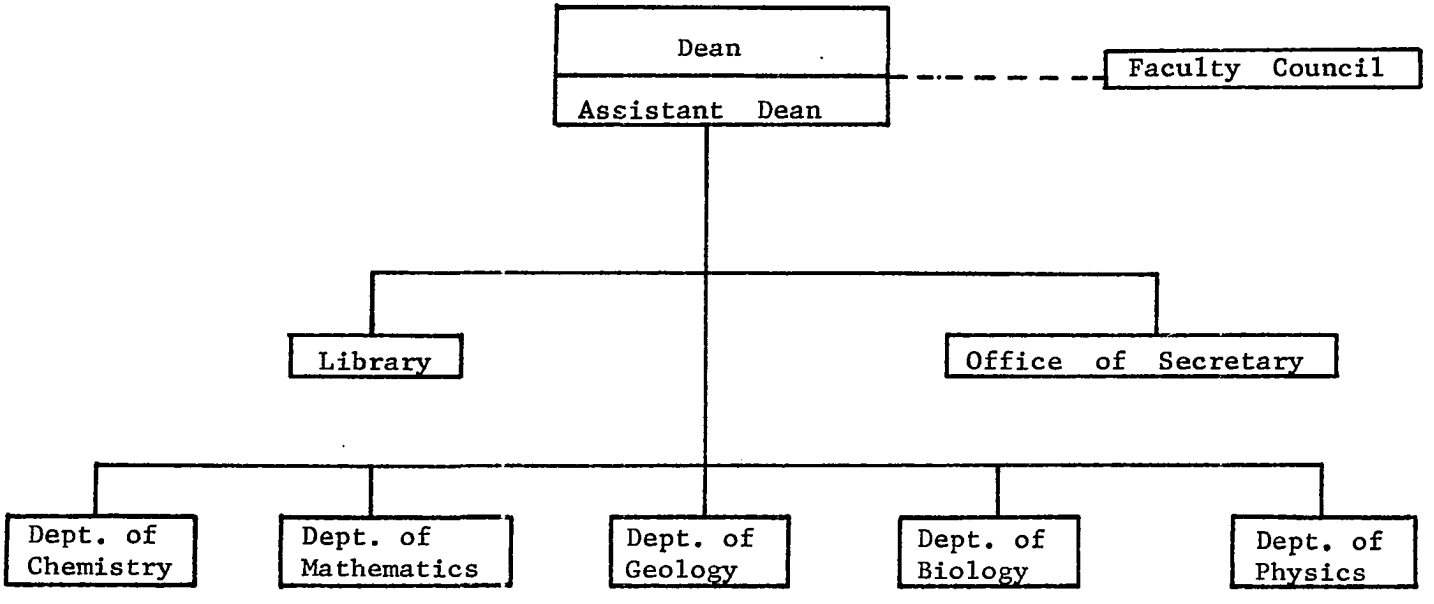
Classification	No. of Students			No. of Full Time Teaching Staff		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Bachelor of Science	832	414	1246	Faculty teaches both undergraduates and graduates.		
Master's of Science	113	24	137			
Total	945	438	1383	12	3	15

[1] Ibid., p. 27.

[2] A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p.

[3] Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 39.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF SCIENCE



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72. University Publication, 1971. page 33. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 17

In the graduating class of 1968-69 there were a total of 215 students, seventy-one females 144 males.[1]

Faculty of Theology and Islamic Studies

This faculty began in 1834. It offers undergraduate courses leading to the bachelor of art degree and graduate courses leading to the master's and doctoral degrees.[2] This faculty includes seven departments: Islamic Culture, Religions and Sects, Koran Translations, Arabic Language and Literature, Sufism, Mysticism, and Islamic Philosophy.[3]

The following table gives the statistics on the Faculty of Theology and Islamic Studies for 1969-70:[4]

TABLE 23

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF THEOLOGY AND ISLAMIC STUDIES FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

Classification	Number of Students		
	M	F	Total
Undergraduate	680	-	680
Graduate	92	-	92
Total	772	-	772

The graduating class of this faculty in 1968-69 was made up of seventy male students.[5]

[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 40.

[3] Tehran University Bulletin, p. 287.

[4] Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 26.

[5] Ibid., p. 27.

Faculty of Veterinary Science

The faculty was established in 1932. The course of study in the Faculty of Veterinary Science extends over six years. The first four years are devoted to basic science courses, and the last two years to specialized courses in veterinary science. Students who complete all requirements, including the presentation of a thesis in original research, are awarded the Doctoral Degree in Veterinary Science.[1]

The faculty is made up of fifteen departments.[2]

Since 1968 the Faculty of Veterinary Science of Tehran University has carried on an exchange program, involving both instructors and graduate students, with the Faculty of Veterinary Science of Lion of France. The table below gives the statistics of the Faculty of Veterinary Science:[3]

TABLE 24

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF VETERINARY SCIENCE
FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

No. of Students			No. of Fulltime Teaching Staff		
M	F	Total	M	F	Total
183	63	246	30	6	41

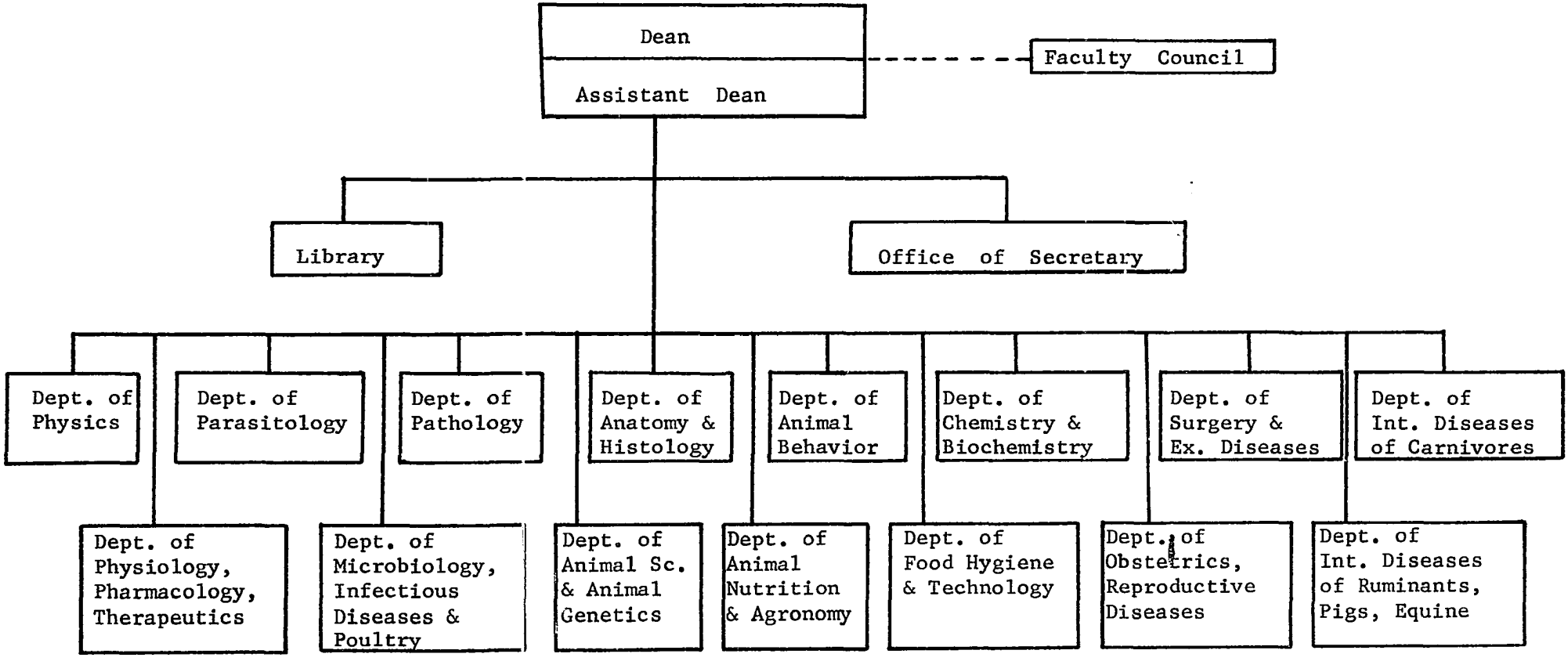
In the academic year of 1968-69, the graduating class of forty-eight

[1]A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 83.

[2]Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 309.

[3]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 37.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF VETERINARY SCIENCE



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72. University Publication, 1971. page 28. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 18

students included ten females and thirty-eight males.[1]

Faculty of Pharmacy

The Faculty of Pharmacy traces its history back to Daral Funun University in 1849. In 1922 the School of Pharmacy and Dentistry existed as a branch of the School of Medicine in Tehran. In 1934, when Tehran University was established, these schools became independent faculties affiliated under the university.[2]

At first the Faculty of Pharmacy offered a four-year course, then changed to five years of courses leading to the Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy. In 1957, this faculty became independent of the Faculty of Medicine. At present, the Faculty of Pharmacy offers two successive courses: a five year course leading to the Degree of Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy, and an additional course leading to a Doctoral Degree in Pharmacy. There are six departments in this Faculty: Chemistry, Physics and Physical Chemistry, Pharmacodynamics, Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Bromatology and Toxicology, and Biochemistry.[3]

In the academic year 1969-70 the name Faculty of Pharmacy was changed to Faculty of Science and Pharmacy. The following table shows the number of students in relation to the number of full-time teaching staff for 1969-70:[4]

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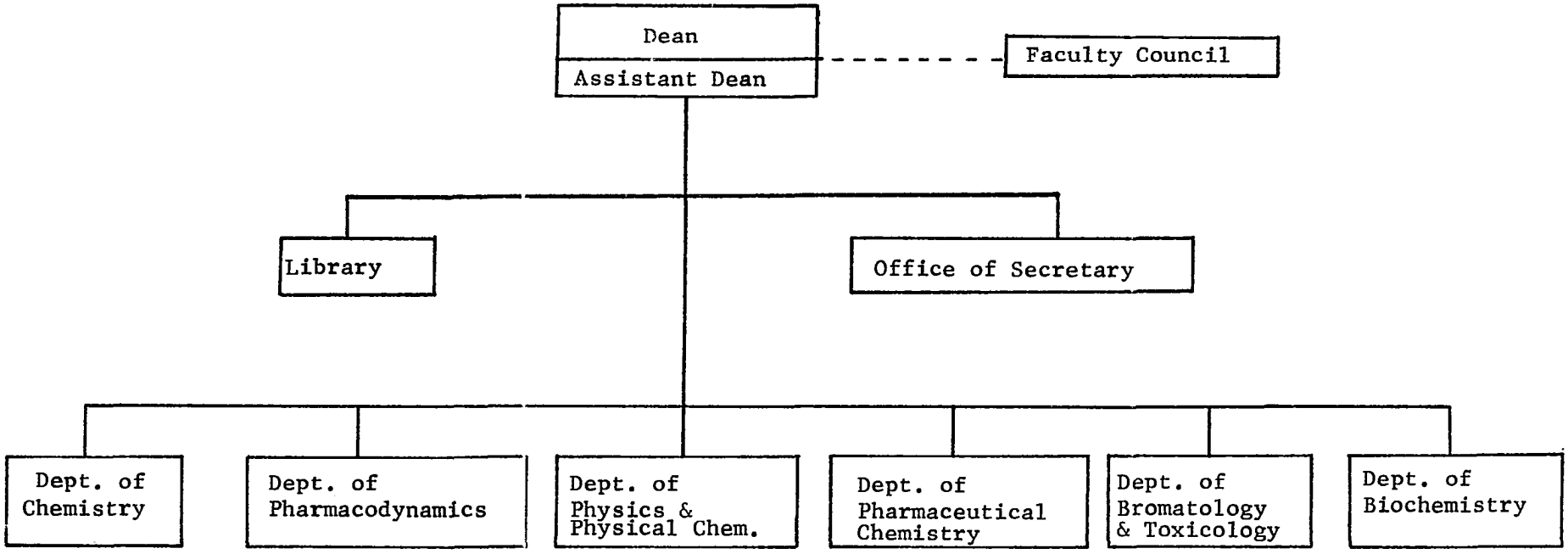
[1] Ibid.

[2] A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 82.

[3] Tehran University Bulletin, p. 212.

[4] Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 36.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF PHARMACY



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72, University Publication, 1971, page 29. (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 19

TABLE 25

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF PHARMACY FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

No. of Students			No. of Full-Time Teaching Staff		
M	F	Total	M	F	Total
188	155	343	37	8	45

The graduating class of 1968-69 had eighty-nine students which included fifty-one male students and thirty-eight female students.[1]

Faculty of Public Business Administration

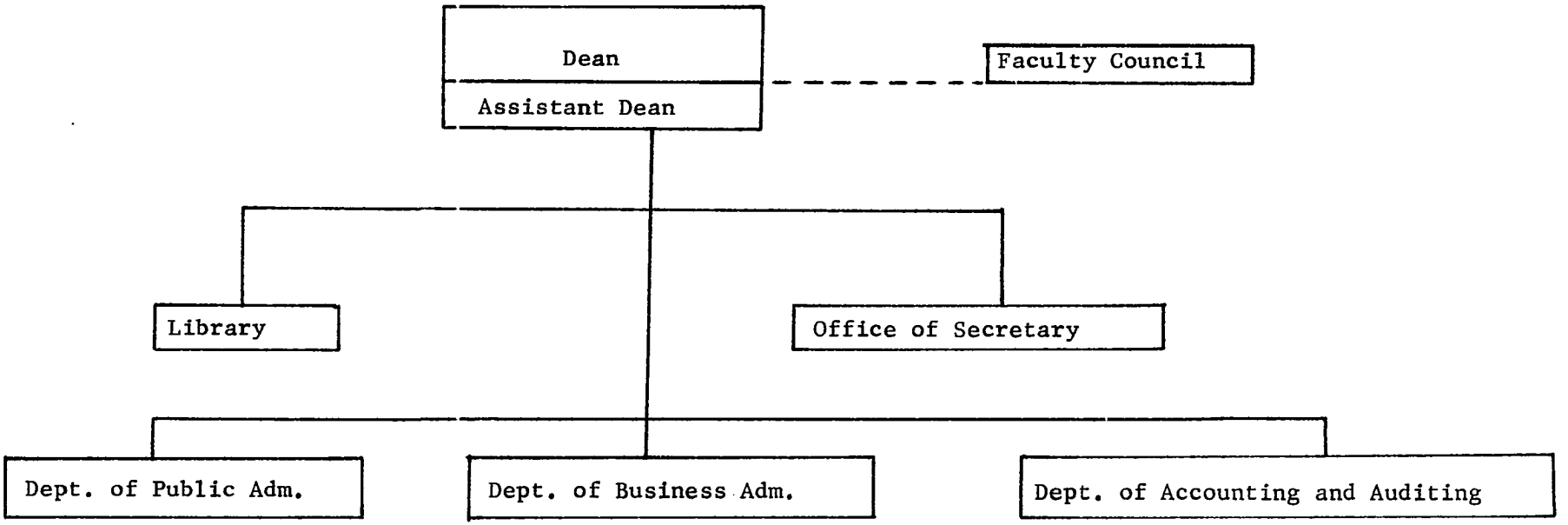
This faculty was established as an independent affiliate of the University of Tehran in 1955. An agreement between the Faculty of Law of the University of Tehran and the University of Southern California made this Faculty of Public Business Administration possible. Before 1955, the faculty had been part of the Faculty of Law. The Faculty of Public Business Administration offers both undergraduate and graduate courses leading to a bachelor of arts and a master's degree. At the present, this faculty includes three departments: Public Administration, Business Administration, and Accounting and Auditing.[2] The table below gives the number of students in respect to the number of full-time teachers for 1969-70:[3]

[1] Ibid.

[2] Tehran University Bulletin, 1969-70, p. 227.

[3] Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 41.

ORGANIZATION CHART — FACULTY OF PUBLIC AND BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION



Bureau of Educational Services. Guide to Tehran University 1971-72, University Publication, 1971. page 35. (Translated in Farci).

FIGURE 20

TABLE 26

STATISTICS ON FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

Classification	No. of Students			No. of Full Time Teaching Staff		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Undergraduate	758	147	905	Faculty teaches both undergradu-		
Graduate	141	16	157	ates and graduates.		
Total	899	163	1062	14	-	14

In the academic year 1969-70, in the graduating class of 148, there were thirty-two female students and 116 male students.[1]

Pahlavi University Shiraz Iran (Danishgahe Pahlavi)

Pahlavi University is located in Shiraz, the capital of Fars Province. It is one of the largest cities in Iran, with a population of more than 269,000, and it is one of the important cities in the South. Shiraz is known as "the city of poets and nightingales," and was the home of two of Iran's greatest poets, Saadi and Hafez.[2] Shiraz is in the middle of an area which abounds in relics of Iran's ancient past. Most prominent of these is the stately Persepolis, where the great Achaeminian Kings, Darious and Xerus, held their courts.[3]

Forty years ago Shiraz had only one modern school, the Madraseh

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Richard Frye. Iran. (New York: Henry Holt Company, 1953), p. 56.

[3]Facts and Figures About Iran. (Tehran: Offset Press Inc., 1969), p. 17.

Shaphur, but during Reza Shah's regime there was a major increase in education facilities. Now there are over one hundred schools in Shiraz, including secondary, elementary, industrial and agricultural schools, kindergartens, two training colleges, a technical college, and the new Pahlavi University. There are English classes for adults provided by the British Council and the Iranian American Society. During 1956, 40,000, one-fifth of the total population of Shiraz, were enrolled in schools.

The oldest institutions of higher education in Shiraz are: The Public Health Institution, established in 1946; the Faculty of Medicine, December, 1948; the Faculty of Literature and Agriculture, 1955; and the Faculty of Arts and Sciences established in 1962 through a merger of the College of Science and Literature. In June 30, 1962 by the order of Mohamad Reza Shah, Pahlavi University officially succeeded the University of Shiraz founded in .[1]

> Absorbing all buildings, assets, liabilities, students and faculty in accordance with the constitution approved by joint committee of Majlis and the Senate on 6th of Khordad 1343 (June, 1946).[2]

In accordance with the law Pahlavi University was placed under the supervision of a board of trustees. It is modeled on an American university with most of the courses being taught in English by Americans, Europeans, Asiatics, and Iranians who have been educated in Iran or other foreign countries. American and European experts have been called to set up a modern library for Pahlavi University.

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[1]Ministry of Education. Universities and Higher Education in Iran. (Translated) No. 1, p. 83.

[2]Pahlavi University Bulletin, 1968. (Shiraz: Pahlavi University Press, 1968), p. 11.

According to the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare:

> In 1962, with the assistance of US/AID, the University of Shiraz (renamed Pahlavi University) was reorganized as an American style university in a manner recommended by a group of experts from the University of Pennsylvania, with which it maintains a special relationship.[1]

Pahlavi University includes a College of Literature, College of Science, College of Medicine, College of Agriculture, and College of Engineering. There is also an institute of Nursing. Each college is made up of many departments. For example, the college of Art and Science includes Departments of Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geology, Persian Language and Literature, English Language and Literature, Education and Psychology, Modern Language, History, Economics and Business Administration, Mathematics, and a National Development Program. Pahlavi University also offers courses in Social Sciences, Teacher's Training, Physical Education, and Music.[2] According to the Ministry of Information:

> In 1967 the enrollment of new students was 700, in 1968 it rose to 1,000...A large campus is being built for the University which will ultimately provide a very impressive scholarly community for some 8,000 students.[3]

<u>According to Iran Almanac and Book of Facts</u>:

> On November, 1969, an agreement was signed between Pahlavi University of Shiraz and Kent State University (U.S.A.), according to which certificates of the two universities were announced equal, and regarding exchange of students and professors between the two universities an agreement was reached.[4]

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[1]U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. <u>The Educational System of Iran</u>, p. 7.

[2]<u>Pahlavi University Bulletin, 1968</u>, p. 12.

[3]Ministry of Information, p. 171.

[4]<u>Iran Almanac and Book of Facts</u>. Ninth Ed. (Tehran: Echo of Iran, 1970), p. 516.

Pahlavi University offers graduate programs in the fields of Mathematics, Physics, and Chemistry. Chart 6 in appendix shows the number of full-time teaching staff as well as administrative personnel of the Pahlavi University for the academic year 1969-70.[1]

National University (Daneshgahe Mali)

The National University is a private institution founded in 1960. It includes a College of Architecture, a College of Political and Economic Sciences, a College of Medicine, a College of Literature and Humanities, a College of Dentistry, and a College of Science. It is a modern university with modern buildings, and has an enrollment of about 6,000 students.[2]

The duration of study at the Medical School is seven years, Dentistry six years, Veterinary Science, five years. The other faculties require a four-year course for a bachelor's degree, one year for a master's degree, and two years above a master's degree to obtain a doctoral degree.[3] This institution is financed by tuition and some governmental grants.[4] The following tables give statistical data on the National University.

Tabriz University (Danishgahe Tabriz)

The city of Tabriz is the capital of the province of Azerbaigan in the northwestern part of Iran; with a population of more than 400,000

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[1]Ministry of Education. Universities and Institutions of Higher Education in Iran, p. 88-90.

[2]Ministry of Information, p. 171.

[3]Sadiq. History of Education in Iran (Persia) from the Earliest Times to the Present Day, p. 504.

[4]A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 92.

it is the second largest city in the country. According to the Area Handbook for Iran:

> Its importance and the admixture of its people derive from its proximity to Turkey, 100 miles to the West, and the Soviet Union, 60 miles to North.[1]

Invasions and commerce have brought to this province both asiatic and western influences. The city has been a center for trade between east and west.[2]

The University of Tabriz was founded in 1946 by combining two existing schools; the Faculty of Medicine, and the Faculty of Letters. It was the second major university to be founded in Iran. At the time of its inception, the student body totaled approximately 200 pupils. During the last two decades, the University has grown considerably.[3] There are now over 5,000 students enrolled in seven faculties, two research institutes, two Junior Colleges, and a school of nursing. The university also includes a polytechnic school which offers a new course of study in electro-mechanics and astro-physics. In addition to the institute of nursing, there are an Obstetrics Institute, a Health and Nutrition Institute, and an Animal Husbandry Institute.[4] (See Tables 7 and 8 in Appendix.)

The campus of the University of Tabriz includes an area of 300 acres.[5] The University has eleven dormitories, eight for men and three

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[1]Area Handbook for Iran, p. 28.

[2]Ibid.

[3]University of Tabriz Handbook. (Tabriz: Dept. of University Relations, 1970), p. 3.

[4]Ministry of Information. Iran, p. 171.

[5]A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 132.

for women, in which 2,000 students are accommodated free of charge. The University cafeteria serves 2,500 lunches and 1,200 evening meals during the academic year. The housing complex for teachers provides accommodations for thirty-nine university teachers.[1]

> The university library contains about 70,000 titles. . . most of these books are in Persian and English, although there are books in Arabic, French, German, Russian, and Turkish. In addition to the central library there are faculty collections, and periodicals kept in the faculty reading rooms.[2]

University of Mashhad (Danishgahe Mashhad)

The city of Mashhad is the capital of Khorasan Province. It has a population of 409,616 and it is the principal city of northeastern Iran. Being the burial place of Imam Reza (one of the Moslem Prophets), it is the holiest city for Shiite Muslims.

The name Mashhad means, "the burial place of Marty" as Wilber puts it, Mashhad:

> Owes its chief fame to being the site of the burial shrine of Ali Reza, eighth Imam of the Shiite line. The Imam Reza was poisoned in the ninth century.[3]

The first school founded in Mashhad was the Faculty of Medicine in 1934. The High Institute of Health was established in 1939. In 1947 the High Institute of Health merged with the School of Medicine. Also in 1947 a governmental agreement was reached which facilitated the founding of the University of Mashhad.[4] The University of Mashhad is made

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[1]University of Tabriz Handbook, 1970-71, p. 4-5.

[2]Ibid., p. 5.

[3]Wilber, Iran Past and Present, p. 197.

[4]A Guide to University of Mashhad 1970-71. (Mashhad: University Publication No. 5), p. 1-21.

up of the Faculties of Medicine, Literature, and Traditional and Contemplative Science. The Faculty of Medicine was formally opened in September, 1949.[1]

The High Institute of Health was dissolved with the formal inauguration of the Faculty of Medicine in 1949, and the Faculty of Dentistry and Faculty of Literature in 1955. The Faculty of Traditional and Contemplative Science was established in 1958, and one year later Islamic preaching and Propagational Department. In 1961 the Faculty of Agriculture was created. In 1962-63 it was replaced by the Faculty of Sciences.[2] (See Table 9 in Appendix.)

Arya Mehr (University of Technology)

Arya Mehr University was established in 1965 in the capital city of Tehran. It is a public institution which is financed by the Iranian government. The campus spreads over an area of about 100,000 square meters.[3] Enrollment for the academic year 1970-71 was 1,899 students (see Table 10 in Appendix).

This university is made up of the following faculties: Industrial Engineering, Mathematics, Chemistry, Physics, Electrical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Metallurgy, Mechanical Engineering, Foreign Languages.[4]

The formal objective of Arya Mehr University is to train students for the future industrial needs of the country; the programs presented

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[1] Ibid.

[2] A Guide to University of Mashhad 1970-71, p. 1-2.

[3] A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 91 (Trans.).

[4] Ministry of Education, p. 11.

in this institution are based on modern technology, and the projected industrial, technological growth of Iran.[1] According to Mohamad Reza Shah:

> The academic staff of this university will be chosen from those Iranians who have studied in a creditable institution abroad and distinguished themselves academically, in addition to competent available personnel in Iran.[2]

University of Isfahan (Danishgahe Isfahan)

Isfahan University was established in the city of Isfahan in 1950. The Isfahan Province has a population of 1,704,726 people.[3] Isfahan's recorded history dated back more than 2,000 years.[4] According to the Area Handbook for Iran:

> It became the capital of Persia in A.D. 1036 but owes its grandeur to Shah Abbas, who ruled from 1587 to 1629...his imperial city, lying between the old town and the river, flashes with brilliant aquamarine tile domes, lofty minarets and examples of the world's finest architecture.[5]

The University of Isfahan covers an area of 3,023,000 square meters,[6] and is made up of the following faculties: Literature and Humanities, Medicine, Pharmacy, Science, and Teachers Training College. It

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[1]Arya Mehr University of Technology. (Tehran: University Publication for Academic Year 1970-71) p. 1.

[2]Mohamad Reza Shah also called Shahanshah Arya Mehr. Quoted by Arya Mehr University Public, 1970-71, p. 1.

[3]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 65.

[4]Ministry of Information, p. 38.

[5]Area Handbook for Iran, p. 28-9.

[6]A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 62.

has evening classes for Science and Letters.[1] (See Table 11 in Appendix.) According to the Ministry of Information:

> A University with five colleges, it long faced a shortage of professors and funds, but is currently in the process of building a new university town. The university will be completed in the course of the 4th plan for 3,000 students.[2]

The Gondi-Shapur University of Ahwaz (Danishgahe Ahwaz)

The city of Ahwaz, which is situated on the west bank of the Karun River, is one of the oldest cities of Iran. Ahwaz has a population of 207,000 people; it is the political and commercial center of southwestern Iran.

In 1955 the Provincial University of Ahwaz (generally referred to as the University of Gondi-Shahpur) was established.[3] According to the Regional Cultural Institute, Gondi-Shapur dates back to 1949.

The University initially had two colleges: the Faculty of Agriculture, which was created in 1955, and Faculty of Medicine which was established in 1957.[4] It now includes a Teacher's Training College, a Girls' College, an Arts and Science College. According to the Ministry of Information, Gondi-Shapur plans to expand to include Colleges of engineering, literature, and dentistry.[5] (See Table 12 in Appendix.)

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[1]Ministry of Science and Higher Education, Institute for Research and Planning in Education and Science. Higher Education Statistics in Iran School Year 1969-70. Tehran, pp. 5-6.

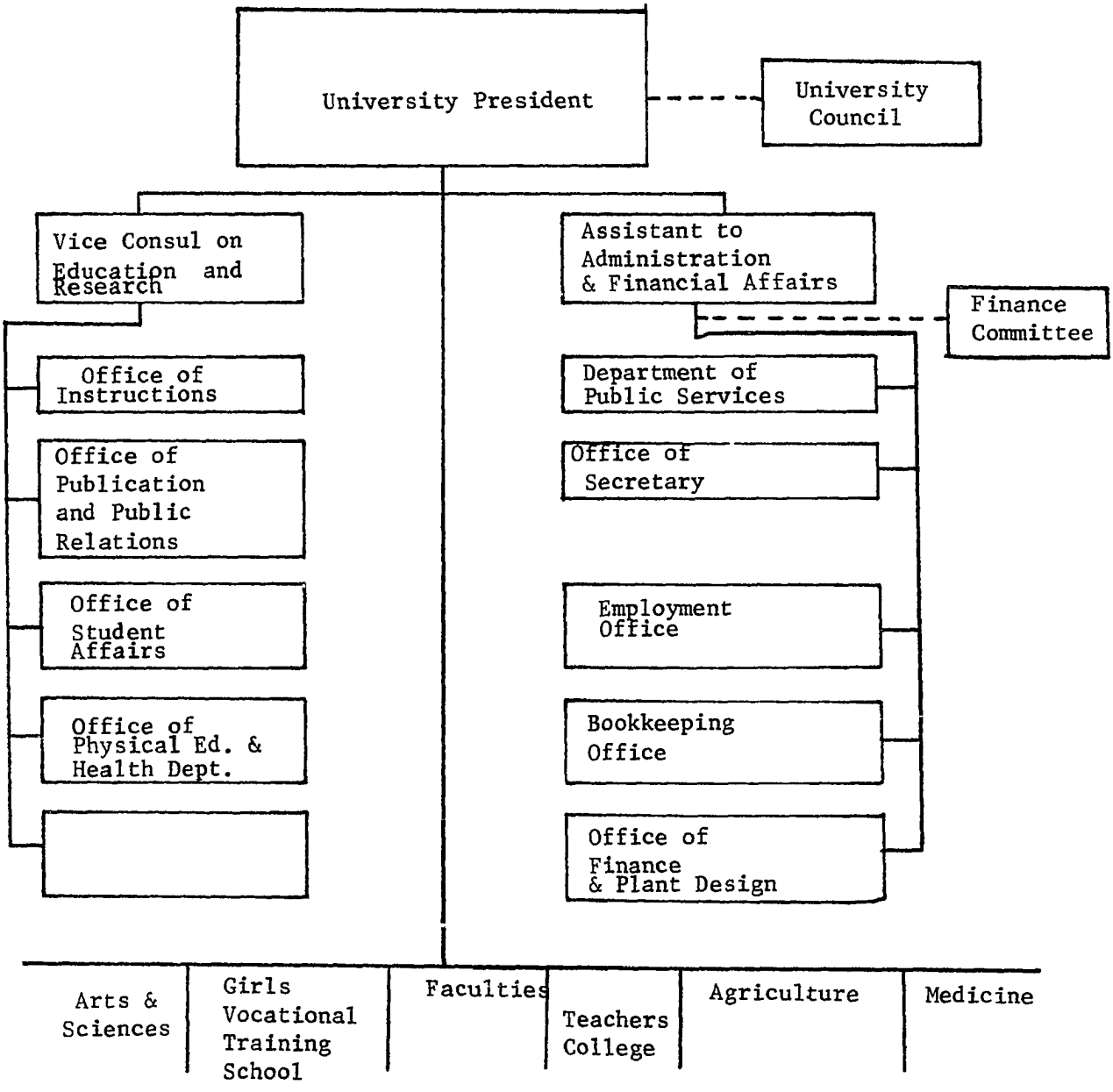
[2]Ministry of Information, p. 174.

[3]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 8 (1963).

[4]A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, p. 158.

[5]Ministry of Information. Iran, p. 174.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART — OF CENTRAL BUREAU OF GONDISHAPUR UNIVERSITY



Gondishapur University Publication, 1970. p.2. (Farci)

FIGURE 21

CHAPTER IV

CONTEMPORARY EDUCATIONAL REFORMS

> Economic development can in many cases be accelerated by technical assistance and capital advances from the more advanced countries. But the main source of economic progress must be the peoples of these lands. They must open their minds and accept change. They must work, in new ways and perhaps harder. The inhabitants of a backward country must be prepared to pay the price if they really want economic development.[1]

The importance of Emke's statement lies in the emphasis it places on human relations. Successful leaders realize that they accomplish their goals through the cooperation of other people, and, therefore, try to develop social understanding and appropriate skills. They approach problems in terms of the people involved: hence, they develop a healthy respect for people.

The greatest problem facing underdeveloped countries is the resistance to change which exists. The people do not desire progress, but rather, cling to ancient traditions and customs. Economic development entails not only changes in a nation's physical environment, but also drastic changes in ways people think, behave, and relate to one another. Economic growth depends upon....

What individuals and social groups want, and whether they

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[1]Stephen Emke. Economics for Development. (Englewood, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 15.

> want it badly enough to change their old ways of doing things and to work hard at installing the new.[1]

The people of a country must be motivated to desire change. The government is in a key position to deal with social and traditional obstacles impeding economic growth. By encouraging cultural changes which are in the direction of progress, improving agriculture through modern farming techniques, and educating the young to accept new and enlightened ideas and practices, government can break down cultural barriers to economic progress. As Malenbaum said:

> In most developing countries, there has been marked and fairly straight-forward progress in the modern sector, but there has been only limited progress toward self-sustaining growth in overall economy because the tradition sector has lagged behind.[2]

The present educational system of Iran has been developing and evolving for more than 80 years. It is based on the educational systems of Western countries, especially France, and on the traditions, culture, and customs of the Iranian people. The most rapid and dramatic changes in Iranian education came about during the reign of the late Reza Shah, as part of a period of general economic, political, and social upheaval in Iran. As pointed out by the Ministry of Education:

> Owing to the introduction of modern administrative reform, right after the creation of constitutional government, training of administrative personnel became the main goal and policy of educational system and its authorities.[3]

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[1]Campbell R. McConnell. Economics. (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1966), p. 745.

[2]Wilfred Malenbaum. "Government, Entrepreneurship, and Economic Growth in Poor Lands," World Politics, Vol. XVIV, (October 1966), p. 53.

[3]Ministry of Education. Educational Aims and the New System of Education in Iran. (Tehran, Iran: Department of Planning and Research Publication No. 57, May 1968) p. 1.

At the beginning of Reza Shah's regime, the country's economy was primarily based on agriculture, because industry had not been yet developed. The country's need for engineers, technicians, and industrial workers had not yet been clearly realized, primary emphasis was placed on the need to train white-collar personnel for office positions in the newly established ministries and institutions.[1]

After the succession of Mohammad Reza Shah in 1941 the implementation of two seven-year developmental plans led to rapid economic growth. But, according to the Ministry of Education:

> Despite the rapid economic progress, the social structure kept its static and inflexible shape. Economy and politics were still based upon unjust landlord and peasant relationships, and the inequality of social and political rights between citizens and villagers, men and women, and employers and employees.[2]

The White Revolution of January 26, 1962, was initiated and introduced by the King. Its main goal was to set up a new social structure which would eradicate illiteracy, ignorance, and prejudice, and create opportunities for initiative and creativity. The formal objective of this reform movement was to train and educate members of the new generation in such a way that they would welcome the ideas and practices of the modern world.

The old educational system and the contents of the curricula at elementary and secondary schools had failed to train students to be able to lead a successful and productive life. Every year thousands of high school graduates who could not enter universities because of failure to

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Ministry of Education. Educational Aims and the New System of Education in Iran, p. 1.

pass the competitive examinations or for economic reasons entered society very inadequately prepared for life. This was also true for rural pupils as compared to graduates of city high schools. The first step which was taken toward rapid expansion of education in rural areas was the establishment of the Education Corps Programs (E.C.P.), and later, the Health Corps and Extension Services Corps, to implement economic and social development as well as to teach new techniques in agriculture.[1]

Another main objective of the reform movement of January, 1962 was to train man-power to cope with the industrial development of Iran. As stated by the Ministry of Education:

> Owing to the rapid industrial development, particularly, during the last decade, the need for skilled man-power was obviously felt. Many new technical and vocational schools were, therefore, established to meet the new need which is fundamental for the preserverance and development of industry.[2]

American and European aid provided a long needed shot-in-the-arm to Iranian development. More aid in any form is constantly required to bring underdeveloped countries to a point where they can contribute to world progress. Ward has pointed out the need for democratic countries to display great imagination and willingness in helping poorer nations, in order to give them a viable alternative to communism and, indeed, to help them maintain civilization in a world of strong and swiftly moving revolutions of ideas and events.[3]

Junior College Movement

The junior college movement in Iran was adopted from European

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[1]Ibid., p. 2.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Barbara Ward. The Rich Nations and the Poor Nations. (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1962), p. 67.

countries and especially from the United States. Usually in Iran junior colleges are technical institutions of some sort, such as the Forestry and Mechanical colleges of Tehran or other institutions in the different parts of the country. The Ministry of Health Technical School, in which the objective is in training of administrative personnel, assistant nurses, nurses, and sanitary engineering assistants.

Trends in the curricula of the junior colleges are designed to meet the special needs of their clientele. Courses are offered in ceramics, industrial designs, television, dramatics, nursing, pre-nursing, commercial courses, basic college work, legal secretary preparation, adult basic education, and other vocational-technical courses. Table 148 in Appendix illustrates the existing schools and their objectives in Iran.

According to educational statistics, in Iran during 1969-70 there were fifty-three vocationa., seventy-nine technical, eleven commercial, one agricultural, sixteen secretarial, and four industrial chemistry schools in operation under the supervision of the Ministry of Education with a total enrollment of 23,335 students (18,822 males and 4,513 females). Only twenty of these schools are private institutions.[1]

In vocational schools for girls some short-term courses are offered, but in technical fields three year courses are usually required. For example, 4,513 female students in 1969-70 were receiving instruction in dress-making, hair-dressing, design and decoration, child-care, and cooking.[2]

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[1]Department of Planning and Studies. Educational Statistics in Iran. Prepared by Bureau of Statistics; Ministry of Education. Tehran, Iran, 1971, p. 12.

[2]Ibid., p. 12-13.

In technical and vocational schools for boys, 18,822 students were enrolled in the following fields of interest: five per cent of the total enrollment were in general fields, twenty-four per cent in electricity, sixteen per cent in auto-mechanics, ten per cent in carpentry, nine per cent in plumbing and construction, seven per cent in commercial, and the remainder in miscellaneous vocational and technological fields.[1]

The number of permanent and contract instructional staff was 1,690 (1,415 male and 275 female), and the number of temporary staff was 186 (seventy-two men and fourteen women). Some general secondary school teachers were employed on a part-time basis to teach theoretical studies in these institutes. The attendance at these schools under the supervision of the Ministry of Education was 0.5 per cent of the total enrollment at kindergarten, elementary, and secondary schools as well as universities, and 2.6 per cent of the enrollment at general secondary schools.[2] The Fourth National Development Plan has outlined methods for improving these institutions of higher education and made specific recommendations.[3] One of the recommendations is:

> To exchange professors and students with outstanding foreign universities and to insure the participation of Iranian researchers in international research activities....[4]

In 1968 a group of 3,000 students and teachers and 405 university professors from other countries visited Iran. The Ministry of Education provided

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[1]Ibid., p. 13.

[2]Department of Planning and Studies. Educational Statistics in Iran, p. 13.

[3]For details refer to the Fourth National Development Plan. (Part 4) Social Services and Welfare, Chapter 17, pp. 259-281.

[4]The Imperial Government of Iran, p. 280.

accomodations and guides for their visits to schools, art galleries, museums, industrial centers, and places of historical interest.[1]

What will be the future of the junior college in Iran? This question is debated by many educators. There is opposition to the junior college movement, but, the mere fact that junior colleges have penetrated all sections of the country indicates their success. Although the junior college has a relatively long history, junior colleges are essentially the product of the vast social changes of the twentieth century in Iran. These social forces which created the junior colleges will still be operating in the future. No one expects a lessening of technology, or a simplification of the social, economic, and political complexities of life.[2] There is also reason to believe that an increasing number of people will be seeking higher education in the future. The future of the junior college seems assured. As Dr. James Wattenburg states:

> The whole face of higher education has changed because of the junior college movement. The university can concentrate their energies on things they like to do more and do a better job. The Junior colleges can provide the basic education need and train adults. They can help in absorbing tremendous increase in students.[3]

For all these reasons the junior college has made a significant and vital contribution to higher education in Iran.

Manpower and Education

According to Baldwin's study, in his book Planning and Development

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[1]International Year Book of Education. Vol. XXX-1968 UNESCO. International Bureau of Education, Geneva 1969, p. 237.

[2]Reynolds. The Junior College, p. 297.

[3]Newsbook, Maryland: The National Observer, 1966, p. 128.

in Iran:

> In 1956, just as manpower planning was becoming fashionable around the world, the managing Director of Plan Organization set up a Manpower Development Division and employed three or four foreign advisers to help in its work.[1]

He continues by stating that the Manpower Division did some useful work in its four year of life in Iran, but, the Iranian manpower efforts did not, by and large, achieve great things. He believes that most skills will take care of themselves without government intervention. Manpower planning should be concerned with the minority of skills that (1) are strategically far more important to economic growth than others and (2) whose creation is especially dependent on government policies and programs. The most difficult intellectual and practical problem of manpower programming is to decide what specific occupations do in fact depend upon formal study.

All through 1950, without any designed plan, Iran's education and training institutions expanded rapidly. A review of this growth is worthwhile. In 1948, despite the educational reforms of Reza Shah, Iran was still ninety-five per cent illiterate.[2] However, in the next fifteen years education became one of the fastest growing sectors of the economy. An educational enrollment table is shown below:[3]

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[1]George Baldwin. Planning and Development in Iran. (Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1967), p. 139.

[2]Baldwin. Planning and Development in Iran, p. 144.

[3]Ibid.

TABLE 27

STATISTICS ON EDUCATIONAL ENROLLMENT 1945-46 AND 1959-60

Level	1945-46	Per Cent	1959-60	Per Cent	Increase
Primary	288,000	89	1,327,000	82	360
Secondary	29,000	9	253,000	16	770
University	6,000	2	30,000	2	400
Total	323,000	100	1,610,000	100	400

University enrollment grew significantly. In 1945 there was only one university, in Tehran. By 1955 there were five provincial universities with about 4,000 students, in comparison with Tehran's 13,000. Also there was a great increase in the number of university students studying abroad. In 1945-46, 25-30 per cent of all university students studied abroad; by 1960 this figure had increased to 45-50 per cent. In the 1960's the annual cost of foreign students abroad was about $30 million dollars, approximately a third of the total export earnings, excluding oil exports. After completing their education abroad many Iranian students have not returned to Iran or have returned with skills not geared to Iran's national needs. This has posed a manpower problem.

Distribution of Iranian Students in Foreign Countries

According to statistics received from the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, based on information received from thirty-six different Iranian Embassies in foreign countries, the academic year 1969-70, 20,317 students were studying in foreign countries,[1] 2,500 of whom were studying

[1]This figure includes only those who have Iranian student passports and who have registered with their embassies. There are large groups of students in foreign countries that have only visitors passports and who are

TABLE 28

Statistics relating to Iranian University and Secondary School Students Resident in Foreign Countries in the 1965-66 Academic Year

No.	Name of Country	Arts			Education			Fine Arts			Social Sciences			Science			Engineering			Agriculture			Medicine			Miscellaneous			Total All Students
		Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	Male	Female	undeclared	
1	U.S.A.	—	—	264	—	—	142	—	—	261	—	—	554	—	—	661	—	—	2600	—	—	301	—	—	1220	—	—	382	6385
2	England	—	—	47	—	—	13	—	—	26	—	—	131	—	—	93	—	—	508	—	—	23	—	—	290	—	—	2023	3154
3	France	100	28	—	—	—	17	50	18	—	71	7	—	72	12	59	11	—	68	—	—	132	250	39	11	—	—	385	1330
4	Austria	—	—	14	—	—	9	—	—	163	—	—	48	—	—	138	—	—	282	—	—	1	—	—	482	—	—	103	1220
5	Germany	—	—	40	—	—	15	—	—	356	—	—	208	—	—	404	—	—	942	—	—	630	—	—	1917	—	—	451	4963
6	Switzerland	6	9	—	1	7	1	13	1	21	46	10	14	20	20	—	32	—	4	5	—	—	111	13	7	21	4	34	400
7	Italy	4	13	3	—	—	—	189	21	—	15	1	7	10	2	—	29	—	60	7	—	—	31	6	—	16	20	5	439
8	Belgium	1	1	—	3	—	—	1	1	5	12	1	—	9	2	—	7	—	2	—	—	7	22	1	—	—	—	24	99
9	Holland	1	—	—	—	—	—	12	1	—	4	—	3	9	—	—	2	—	10	2	—	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	52
10	Turkey	—	—	19	—	—	1	—	—	6	—	—	12	—	—	27	—	—	72	—	—	85	—	—	168	—	—	116	506
11	Lebanon	6	3	7	5	8	12	—	—	1	1	1	10	7	5	—	30	—	18	11	—	35	8	2	5	9	3	—	189
12	Japan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	3	—	—	2	2	5	1	3	—	—	—	1	—	3	—	—	2	23
13	Afghanistan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	1	4
14	Iraq	9	7	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	11	2	—	16	3	—	11	—	—	2	—	—	15	1	—	—	—	76	154
15	India	—	—	4	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	11	26
16	Pakistan	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	1	—	8	—	—	14	—	—	—	—	—	10	1	—	12	3	—	59
17	Other Countries	3	3	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	5	—	20	12	1	24	13	—	22	6	—	17	—	—	73	—	—	154	356
	Total	134	65	398	9	15	211	269	42	839	171	27	1007	163	47	1414	154	1	4593	33	—	1231	458	63	4158	58	32	3767	19359

Source: Statistics of Education in Iran - Department-General of Studies and planning, January, 1967.

The above statistics have been prepared with the co-operation of the Department-General of Overseas Studies as well as students supervisory offices. abroad. The statistics only include students who are in touch with these offices.

Chart — Iranian students on Government scholarship, in foreign countries, and their fields of study: Academic year 1970

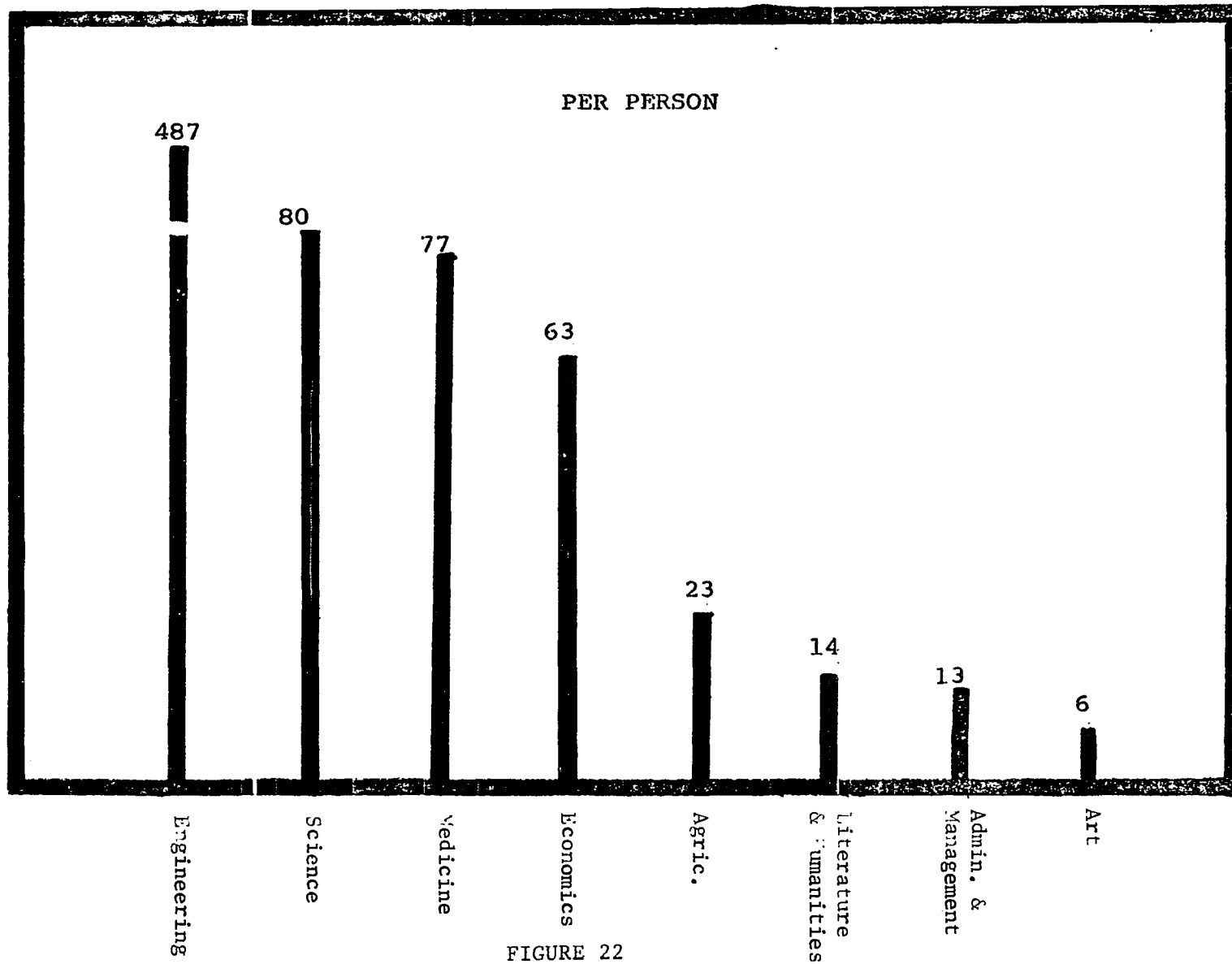
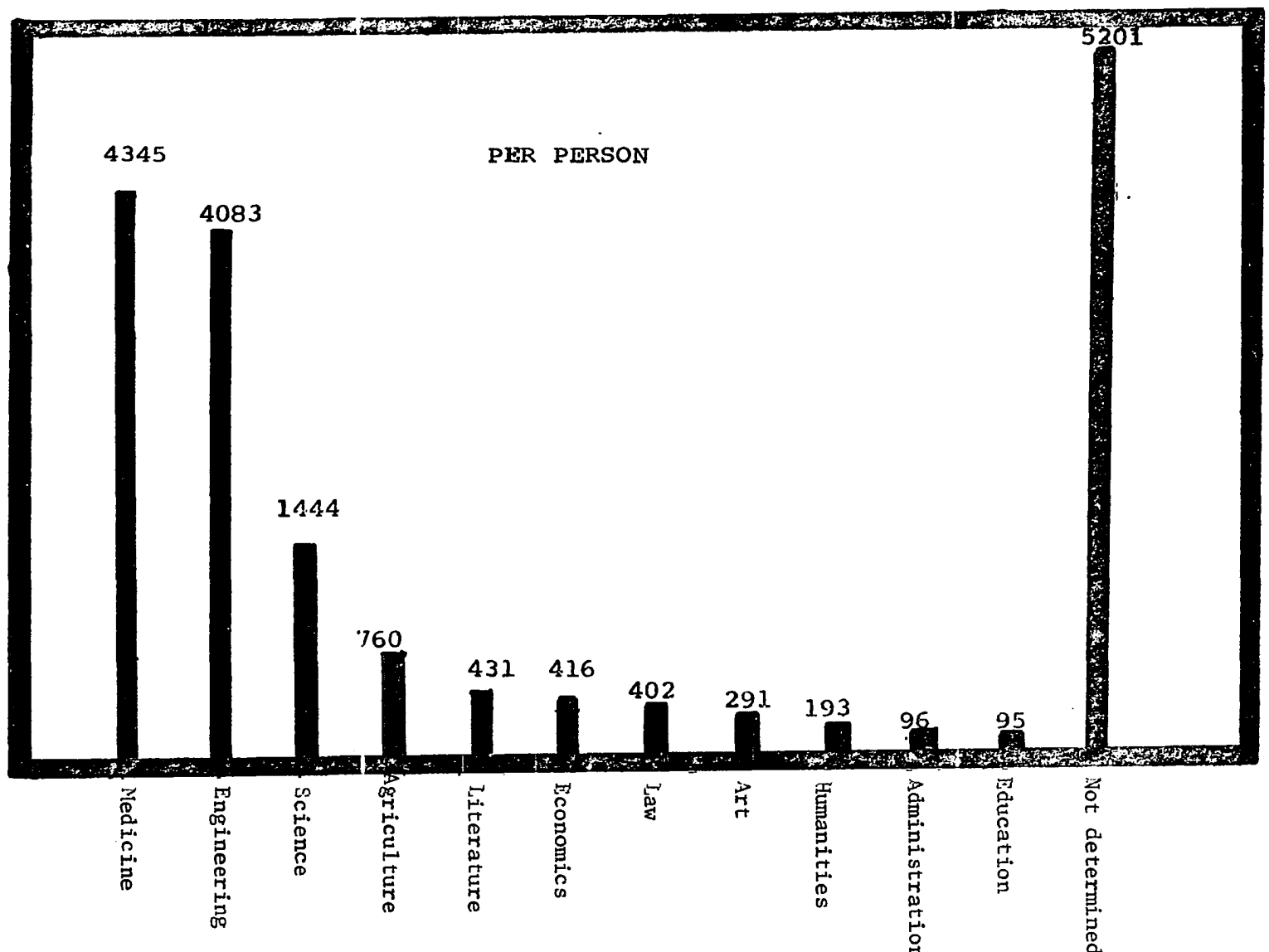


FIGURE 22

Ministry of Science and Higher Education: Statistics on Iranian Students in the Country and in Foreign Countries: Academic Year 1969-1970: Prepared by Bureau of Statistics & Research: Office of Students Affair: Aban 1348: (Nov. 4, 1970), Tehran, Iran., p. 70, (Farci).

Chart — Iranian students studying in foreign countries and their fields of study, for academic year: 1970-1971.



Ministry of Science & Higher Education: Statistics on Iranian Students in the Country & in Foreign Countries: Academic year 1969-1970: Prepared by Bureau of Statistics & Research: Office of Student Affair: Aban 1349: (Nov. 4, 1970). Tehran, Iran, p.95 (Farci).

FIGURE 23

in England. This country ranks next below the United States, which has forty-one per cent of all Iranians studying abroad, Austria has eight per cent, France seven per cent, and Turkey six per cent. (For more detail see Table 16 in Appendix.)

Age Group

The average age of all students above high school level is 23.9 years of age or less, and the other half are 23.9 years old or more.[1] There was a total of 50,319 male students enrolled in the universities and other institutions of higher education for the first half of the academic year 1970-71.

TABLE 29

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT AGE GROUPS BY PERCENTAGE AND BY SEX. ACADEMIC YEAR 1970-71.[2]

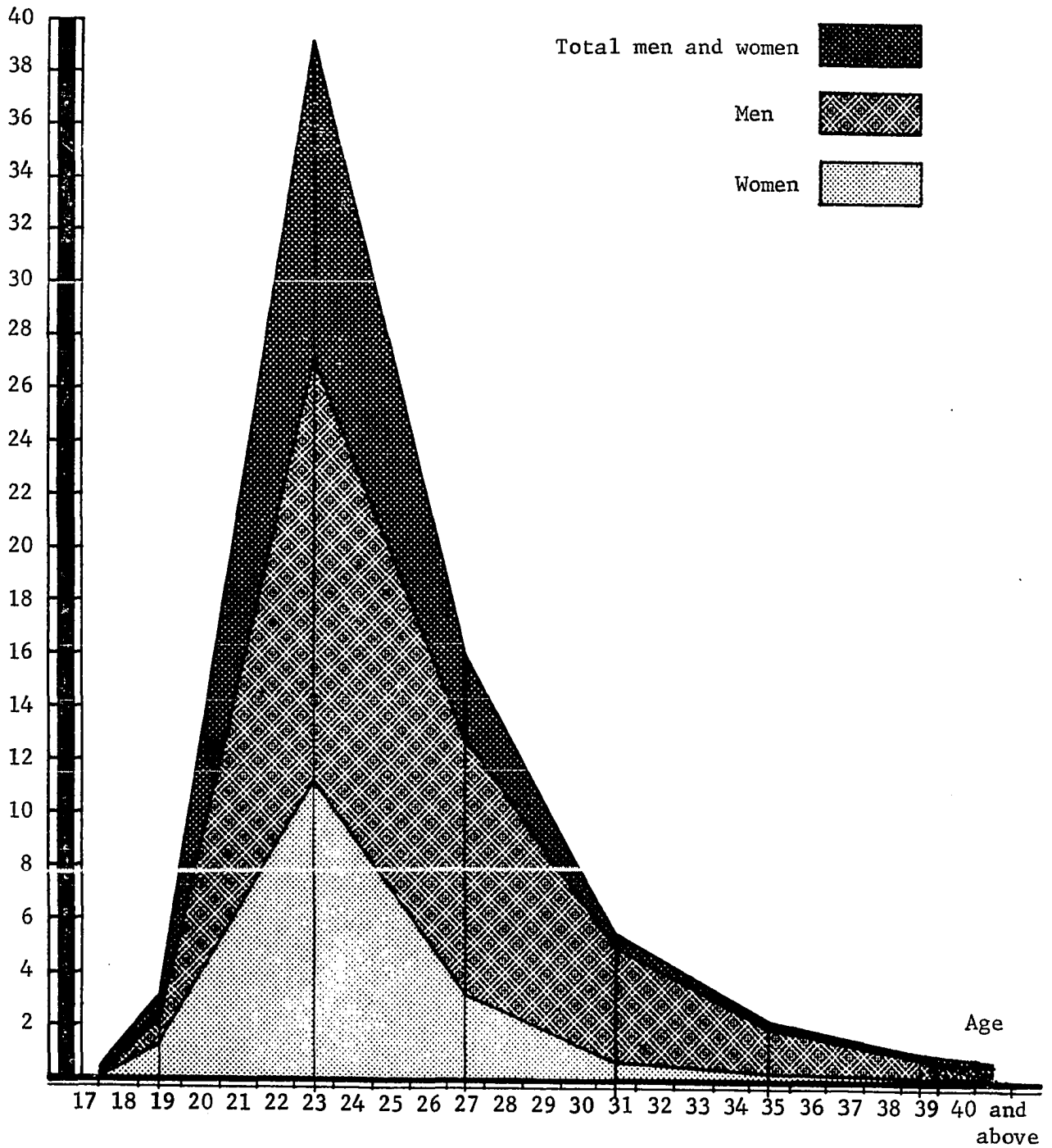
	MALE		FEMALE	
AGE GROUP	NUMBER	PER CENT	NUMBER	PER CENT
19 years of age and above	1,862	4	1,160	6
20-24	27,524	55	11,559	68
25-29	12,932	26	3,078	19
30-34	5,032	10	686	4
35-39	2,013	4	274	2
40-above	956	1	187	1
TOTAL	50,319	100	16,949	100

going to school without being registered with the Iranian Embassies.

Some students fields of study were not determined in the Table. They are grouped under the heading miscellaneous field. The uncertainty of 4,680 Iranian students in the United States who do not indicate a field of study are not reflected in Table.

[1]Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education. Tehran: Ministry of Science and Higher Education Publication #13, Review of Students Enrolled in Universities and Institutes of Higher Education: Academic Year 1970-71. Bureau of Statistics and Information, Tehran, March 1971, pp. 11-14. [2]Ibid., p. 11.

Chart —Distribution of students in different age groups for the academic year 1970-71.



Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education. Tehran: Ministry of Science and Higher Education: Publication #13, Review of Students Enrolled in Universities and Institute of Higher Education: Academic year 1970-71. Bureau of Statistics and Information, Tehran, March 1971, p. 13.(Farci).

FIGURE 24

Nearly ninety-five per cent of the women students are thirty years of age or less. The majority (sixty-eight per cent) are in the age bracket of twenty to twenty-four years of age. Nearly eighty per cent of the females as compared to male students are in an age group of less than thirty years of age. The largest age group for both male and female students is between twenty to twenty-four years of age.

12.4 per cent of the male and female students are twenty-one years of age. The female age group of forty and above has only eight per cent of the total female students. Male students of the age forty and above includes thirty-three per cent of the total male students.[1] Half of the total male students average 24.2 years of age or above, and female students 23.2 of age.

Technical Assistants in Higher Education

To promote the rapid growth of industry in Iran, foreign countries, mostly Europe and the United States, were giving technical assistance in higher education. According to Storm and Gable, in 1954:

> A technical assistance contract was made by the United States Government, the University of Southern California, and the Government of Iran. By this contract the University of Southern California agreed to provide a team of American professors to initiate the program in Los Angeles to qualified Iranian scholars to become the professors of the institute.[2]

The University of Southern California was requested to undertake this venture because of its long and successful experience in training administrators. This was a successful project to which can be attributed

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[1] Ibid., p. 12.

[2] William B. Storm and Richard W. Gable. "Technical Assistant in Higher Education, An Iranian Illustration." Educational Record, Vol. 41 (April 1960), pp. 175-82, p. 175.

specific accomplishments in Iranian higher education.[1] According to Storm and Gable:

> Thirty Iranian scholars have been educated in the United States, in a culture foreign to them, to prepare them to teach in their own culture; a subject which was virtually unknown.[2]

William Warne, United States technical assistance director in Iran, described the communication problem he encountered while negotiating the contract in Tehran University:

> They had no words to express 'public administration'. We spent fully three hours with the principal member of the faculty of the university trying to devise a phrase that would express in Farsi the idea that we were trying to convey by 'public administration.'[3]

The training which these scholars received in the United States was directed to the specific aim that they would become leaders of a movement for administrative reform throughout Iran. At the present, most of them hold high level positions in the Institute for Administrative Affairs for the Government of Iran. The full time Iranian faculty members of the institute are carrying on the work which was begun by the American faculty advisers. Gable said:

> The Iranian scholars trained to become the permanent faculty of the institute are doing an admirable teaching job in the institute and have distinguished themselves as alumni of the school of public administration in a variety of ways... The institute has attained a place of permanence within the system of higher education in Iran.[4]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid., p. 175.

[3] Public Management Research Institute, San Francisco, California, Reflections on Successful Technical Assistance Abroad. (Washington: Public Administration Division, International Cooperation Administration, 1957), p. 29. Quoted by Storm & Gable.

[4] Storm and Gable. "Technical Assistant in Higher Education, An Iranian Illustration," p. 178.

The educational growth of the 1950's was marked by experimentation and differentiation. The main source of inovation was perhaps the large numbers of foreign advisors in various branches of education. Quantitative expansion was stressed by foreigners, especially the Americans. According to Baldwin:

> The largest, most pervasive source of technical assistance on manpower problems was the U.S. foreign aid program, both civilian and military. There was hardly an agency or program of the Iranian Government concerned with training or education that did not have its Point IV experts of U.S. contract group. There were U.S. advisors in all ministries active in education and training most importantly in the Ministries of Education and Labor.[1]

Next to the United States, the United Nation's agencies sent the largest numbers of advisors to Iran. UNESCO, WHO, the ILO, and the ICAB, and others were involved in manpower and education projects and training of ground personnel for civil aviation. Private organizations also sent advisors. For example, the Near East Foundation, a leader in vocationally oriented rural education, and the Ford Foundation, which sponsored a demonstration vocational school in Shiraz and a major experiment in community development in the Gorgan district. Also, the Organization for Rehabilitation through Training (ORT), a Swiss-based agency, ran a tuition-supported vocational school in Tehran, probably the best one in Iran.[2] The German Government supplied instructors for one or two vocational schools.

There remains only the oil industry which in 1959 established in Abadan a trade school which had been recognized as one of the best in

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[1]Baldwin. Planning and Development in Iran, p. 145.

[2]Baldwin. Planning and Development in Iran, p. 145-46.

Iran. The Abadan Institute of Technology was run by the National Iranian Oil Company. In 1950 there was an unsuccessful attempt to upgrade the once British run technical College in Abadan into an engineering college granting a degree along American lines.

The development of human resources received much attention during the 1950's, as evidenced by the amount of technical assistance going into education. The system grew with no government agency assigned to the overall task of studying the country's needs and seeing that these needs were met. The Manpower Development Division, discussed earlier in this chapter, was developed by the Plan Organization in 1956. It is interesting to note that over half the total supply of high level manpower consisted of teachers, mainly elementary teachers. A preponderance of elementary school teachers in the high level labor force is characteristic of many countries during the long early years of educational "catching up." Another outstanding fact about Iran's high level manpower was that eighty-five per cent of the trained students were employed by the central government. In many fields this figure rose to ninety to ninety-five per cent. During 1960's the university graduates depended almost entirely on government programs to provide employment opportunities.

Other characteristics of these four main classes of high level manpower were as follows:

Physical sciences and related fields. Engineers accounted for three-quarters of this group of sixteen occupations. With engineers civil, mechanical, and electrical making up the sixty per cent of that total. Engineering education held a high priority in the early stages of university development.

Biological and agricultural sciences. This branch was the smallest of the four major fields. Agronomists, university trained specialists on field crops, dominated this class.

Medical and Health Sciences. This category was dominated by people from the following four fields: midwives and non-professional nurses, technicians, physicians, and pharmacists. Of these four, only physicians and pharmacists were required to have university training. Expansion of training for professional nurses became a priority in the medical field under the Third Plan.

Social Sciences. Of the four high level groups this was by far the largest. Teachers accounted for five-sixths, and about seventy-five per cent of these were primary teachers who had secondary school degrees in teacher-training, but no university degree. The jurists, lawyers, and physicians were the other main constituents of this category. There was a severe shortage of accountants, and two special training programs were started in 1957 to alleviate that need.

According to Baldwin in 1957 there was a distinction made between these high level occupations requiring university training, which included thirty per cent of the 75,000 high level workers, and those normally requiring only secondary schooling with or without some specialized vocational training, such as professional nursing, pedagogical methods, surveying, drafting, and medical technicians.[1] Non-university groups accounted for about seventy per cent of the high-level total.[2]

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[1]Baldwin. Planning and Development in Iran, p. 153.

[2]Ibid.

All high level occupations mentioned so far have been "white collar." Usually manual workers are not classified as high-level manpower. Iran, like most other countries, has a system of vocational education that takes students up through the secondary level. The graduates could be classified as high-level manpower. However, a large number of people working into these fields for which vocational schools exists, never attend such schools. They learn their skills by experience. To become a skilled member of an occupation it is not always necessary to go to school.

The first comprehensive statement of the country's educational goals, with recommendations for fulfilling them, was given in the Third Plan. According to Baldwin the main weakness in the education structure of Iran lay in the area of educational philosophy. Philosophy had its origin in the old French system, which had long since been abandoned in France. This philosophy was based on a highly centralized educational administration and authoritarian teaching methods, with primary reliance on rote-memorization and unquestioning acceptance of the teachers' ideas. This system was extremely one-sided--designed for, and benefiting only the small percentage of students who would go on to the university. In recent years, with the development of many new kinds of schools, inroads have been made on this old, authoritarian, philosophy of education. It still exercises a great influence on educational policy, the content of curricula, the organization of university life, and administrative framework. Iran is presently involved in adopting her educational system to serve greater numbers than it originally was intended to reach, in order to enhance the production of skills and attitudes required for the

national development effort. To meet these objectives changes must be made in both the quality and in the scale of the nation's educational effort. Efforts are being made to attract more people into the teaching profession, to expand physical facilities, to make basic changes in curricula and in teaching-materials used, and to gain more financial support. The Third Plan is only in the first stage in a twenty year process of bringing Iranian education to a point where it can well serve the country's needs.

The country's greatest manpower shortage is in the field of teaching. In 1962 and 1967 of the 137,000 skilled persons needed, about 50,000 or one-third of the total were teaching positions to be filled. Two-thirds of the teachers needed were for primary schools. Therefore, more than one out of every skilled person needed was a primary school teacher.

Throughout this last decade of rapid educational expansion, Iran has wrestled with the problem of recruiting teachers, with the inevitable result that standards have fallen. In 1960, forty-five per cent of the priamry and fifty-five per cent of the secondary teachers did not meet the standards set by the Ministry of Education and were teaching under an emergency ruling.[1] Therefore, the Third Plan is as concerned with in-service training for existing teachers, as with recruiting more.

According to a report made by the Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education, in Tehran the objectives in educational development and expansion in the last decade, 1960-1970, were outlined in

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[1]Baldwin. Planning and Development in Iran, p. 158.

formal five year plans. The "Third Development Plan" was carried out from 1963- to 1968. The current "Fourth Development Plan," extending from 1968 to 1972, was drawn up with the co-operation of international experts in education.[1] At conferences held in New Delhi in 1959 and in Bangkok in 1962.

Both of these development plans mentioned above were part of a twenty-year education plan for Iran drawn up with the help of United Nations experts to cover the period from 1960 to 1980. Although this plan needs some updating in regard to population forecasts, it does to some extent define the broad guidelines for the future development of education in Iran. The objectives of this long term plan, are as follows:[2]

1. To provide educational facilities for sixty per cent of the children in the primary school age bracket (7-12 years).

2. To increase secondary educational facilities on the basis of a forecast that the total number of pupils at the secondary level would reach 400,000 by the end of the third phase of the plan.

3. To reduce the illiteracy rate in the over 10 age group from eighty-five per cent (according to the 1956 census) to sixty per cent by the end of the third plan.

4. To give priority to qualitative improvements over quantitative expansion in higher education. To achieve this objective, educational funds, totaling about 17,600 million rials were approved (at the present rate, $1 = .75 rials) of which more than 17,300 million rials had been disbursed by the end of the third plan, as the Table shows.

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[1]Nasser Rahimi and Suzan Habibzadeh: Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Tehran: Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-1970. March 1971, p. 1.

[2]Plan Organization Iran: Third Development Plan Final Report: 1341-1346: December 1970, p. 119-20.

TABLE 30

CREDITS APPROVED AND AMOUNTS DISBURSED FOR EDUCATION UNDER THIRD PLAN[1]

Item	Title	Approved* Credits	Disbursements
1.	Primary education	11,091	11,053
2.	Literacy campaign	348	347
3.	Secondary education	1,357	1,337
4.	Teacher training	358	358
5.	University research	3,584	3,424
6.	Physical education and scouting	433	406
7.	Assistance to private educational organizations	85	82
8.	Books and Libraries	313	311
	TOTALS	17,566	17,318

*Millions of Rials

National and Technical Education

At the Delhi and Bangkok conferences, technical and vocational training were given priority because of the intense emphasis on industrial development and the need for trained man-power in technical and vocational fields. A goal was set: to increase enrollments in technical and vocational schools to 50,000 by 1972.[2] This figure has been surpassed.

Although technical education had existed in Iran before the 1950's no serious attention was given to this form of education until the third development plan. In spite of the efforts made in this field during this period, vocational and technical education was not sufficiently developed. Perhaps this is partly due to the fact that several

[1]Ibid., p. 120.

[2]Rahimi and Habilzadeh. Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-1970, p. 1.

new technical colleges for girls and evening vocational institutes failed to open. Also, there was a high percentage of high school drop-outs. However, since the implementation of the Fourth development plan impressive achievements have been made. Some 19,059 students were enrolled in technical schools in 1968, and 50,464 by 1970-71.[1] (See Table 17 in Appendix.)

Teacher Training

In respect to teachers, the aim was both to recruit more teachers and to improve the quality of teacher training. The third plan was concerned with three types of teacher training. First, the regular program for the training of primary, secondary, and vocational school teachers; second, a short-term and long-term program to train university graduates for the teaching profession. Third, the implementation of special program to train principals for primary and secondary schools. In 1964 the Tehran Teacher Training College was dissolved and replaced by The Organization for Teacher Training and Educational Research, which trained secondary school teachers for the first and second cycle of secondary education, school principals, educational advisors, and literacy corps supervisors. Also in 1964, centers for the training of secondary school teachers were established in provincial universities.[2]

In addition, the growing requirements of primary and secondary school teaching were met by establishing four month courses to train

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[1]Rahimi and Habilzadeh. Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-1970, p. 3.

[2]The Imperial Government of Iran: Fourth National Development 1968-1972, Plan Organization, Tehran, Iran, 1968, p. 261.

literacy corpsmen (see definition of variable, p. 33) for service in rural areas, a one-year course for the training of teachers in girls' schools, courses to prepare teachers for tribal schools in Fars, and, in some cases by employing supply teachers and untrained university graduates.[1]

TABLE 31

TEACHER TRAINING IN THE THIRD PLAN, PROJECT AND ACTUAL ACHIEVEMENT

Item	Type of Teacher Training	Projected No. of Teachers Trained	Actual No. Trained
1	Primary School*	38,698	20,000
2	Secondary School	8,450	3,300
3	Vocational School	700	888

During the Third Plan Period, 43,000 Literacy Corpsmen have been trained, 38,000 of whom have been posted to rural areas.

The rapidly increasing number of pupils naturally requires a corresponding increase in the number of primary school teachers. It was emphasized that during the Third Plan Period it would be necessary to recruit 23,698 new teachers, one for each thirty students. However, the actual number of new teachers recruited by the end of the Third Plan was approximately 36,300. One-year teacher training courses and regular teacher training colleges are producing an average of about 4,000 new teachers a

[1]Plan Organization Iran: 3rd Development Plan: 1341-1346, Final Report, December 1970, p. 126.

*Excludes a total of about 12,300 literacy corpsmen who served as teachers after completion of a four month basic teacher training course.

year.[1]

During the Third Plan Period a total of 582 primary schools were built from development credits for education, while an additional 675 schools were completed or equipped. The following Table shows the geographic distribution of these schools.[2] (Also see Table 18 in Appendix.)

TABLE 32

GEOGRAPHIC DITRIBUTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS BUILT OR COMPLETED DURING THE THIRD PLAN

Item	Area	Number of Schools built	Number of Schools completed
1	Central (Tehran) province	44	83
2	Gilan	26	24
3	Mazandaran	24	63
4	East Azarbaijan	21	49
5	West Azarbaijan	19	20
6	Kermanshah	18	10
7	Khuzestan	75	78
8	Fars	14	69
9	Kerman	20	99
10	Khorasan	24	72
11	Esfahan	25	37
12	Sistan and Baluchestan	14	24
13	Kordestan	28	4
14	Lorestan	9	4
15	Semnan	8	15
16	Hamadan	14	8
17	Chadar Mahal Bakhtiari	8	3
18	Bakhtiari Tribal areas	-	30
19	Persian Gulf islands and southernborder regions	162	13
	TOTAL	582	676

[1]Plan Organization Iran: Third Development Plan, Final Report. op. cit., p. 121.

[2]Ibid., p. 121-122.

In the academic year 1970-71, 11,770 students graduated from institutions of higher education. These graduating classes included: twenty-seven per cent social sciences, twenty-three per cent humanities, thirteen per cent engineering, thirteen per cent natural science, eleven per cent medicine, and thirteen per cent miscellaneous fields of study. Of the total graduating class of 1970-71, approximately forty-seven per cent were boys and fifty-three per cent girls. Most of the girls graduated in the fields of humanities and social science. As of the academic year 1970-71, 15 per cent of Iranian students were high school graduates, seventy per cent college students, seven per cent in graduate colleges, and eight per cent had completed doctoral programs.[1] The following table will show the graduating class in the different fields of higher education in Iran for the academic year 1970-71.

TABLE 33

DISTRIBUTION AND PERCENTAGE OF GRADUATING STUDENTS FROM THE FOLLOWING FIELDS FOR 1970-71[2]

Groups	Number of Graduating Students			Per Cent
	Girls	Boys	Total	%
Total	3051	8718	11769	100
Social Sciences	741	2492	3233	27
Humanities	1198	1469	2667	23
Engineering	26	1443	1469	13
Medicine	438	817	1255	11
Science	368	1205	1573	13
Agriculture	50	638	688	6
Fine Arts	71	221	292	2
Education	159	433	592	5

[1]Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education, Statistics on Higher Education in Iran: Academic Year 1970-71. Tehran, Iran. April 1971, p. 63. (Farci)

[2]Ibid.

Higher Education

According to a report made by the Research Institute:

> Iran has achieved much in the quantitative expansion of her educational system during the decade of 1960-1970...with an average annual growth rate of 9.8 per cent, Iran has far surpassed this expectation.[1]

Also, another source indicated that, in the 1969-70 academic year 897,443 students were attending secondary schools, a rise of 15.9 per cent from the year before. Almost ninety per cent of this total were attending schools in the cities. 59,143 students were enrolled in classes in higher education in the year 1968-69. In addition, 22,000 Iranians were pursuing higher studies abroad. The following table gives the number of students and teachers in Iran in the years between 1962-70.[2]

TABLE 34

NUMBER OF STUDENTS, GRADUATES, AND UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE PROFESSORS

	Academic year 1962-63	Academic year 1963-64	Academic year 1964-65	Academic year 1965-66	Academic year 1966-67	Academic year 1967-68	Academic year 1968-69
Students	24,456	24,885	24,562	28,982	36,742	46,947	59.443
Professors and teachers	1,572	1,658	1,814	2,412	2,772	3,382	3,432
Graduates	4,302	5,711	5,033	5,272	4,330	5,086	6,271
Ratio of professors and teachers to students (per cent)	6.4	6.7	7.4	8.3	7.5	7.4	5.8
Ratio of graduates to students (per cent)	17.6	22.9	20.5	18.2	11.8	11.1	4.0

[1]Rahimi & Habibsadeh. op. cit., p. 3.

[2]Ministry of Information. op. cit., p. 168.

TABLE 35

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND PUPILS IN IRAN[1]

	Academic year 1962-63	Academic year 1963-64	Academic year 1964-65	Academic year 1965-66	Academic year 1966-67	Academic year 1967-68	Academic year 1968-69	Academic year 1969-70
Schools:								
Primary (1)	12,451	13,302	15,657	15,135	14,740	15,429	15,556	15,776
Secondary	1,207	1,269	1,402	1,554	1,683	1,867	2,067	2,298
Technical and vocational	86	96	103	105	118	138	154	164
Teachers' training	87	57	50	52	64	93	111	123
Literacy Corps	2,346	2,907	6,799	11,133	11,726	7,901	8,873	10,050
Pupils (persons): (2)								
Primary schools	1,719,353	1,841,206	2,030,733	2,181,633	2,378,082	2,575,667	2,753,132	2,916,266
Secondary schools	326,856	369,089	426,402	493,735	579,716	674,058	781,507	897,443
Technical and vocational schools	9,398	10,467	12,681	14,632	15,956	16,273	19,059	23,335
Teachers' training schools and colleges	2,422	713	736	1,661	5,692	6,693	6,059	9,275
Literacy Corps primary schools	82,791	106,000	228,500	365,813	438,804	269,437	292,970	321,239

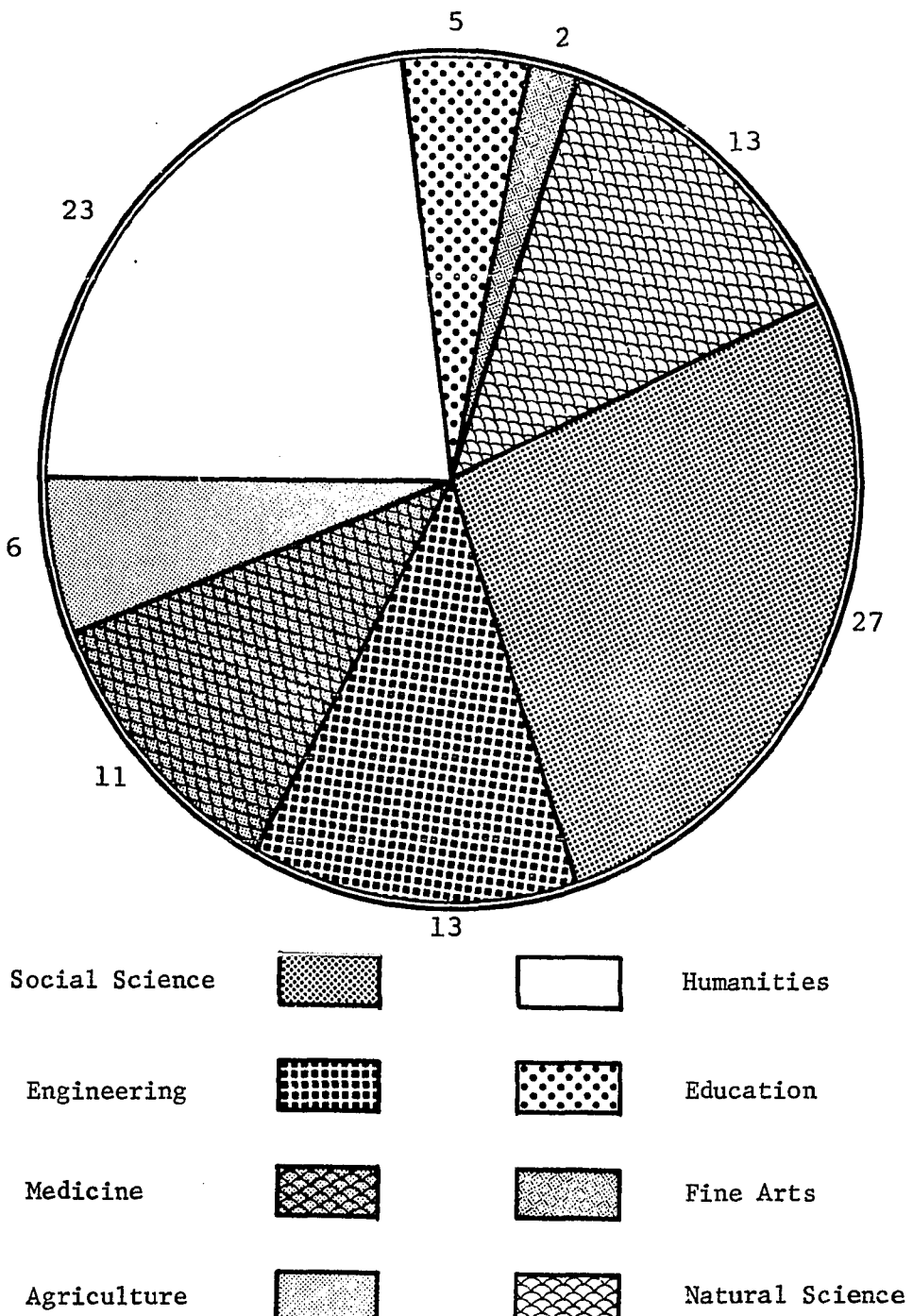
Source: Ministry of Education

(1) The decrease in the number of primary schools during the academic years 1965-66 and 1966-67 was the result of the conversion of a number of ordinary schools to Literacy Corps schools.

(2) The decrease in the number of Literacy Corps schools and pupils during the academic years 1967-68, 1968-69 and 1969-70 was due to the fact that a large number of the Corpsmen in each academic year was still in the villages, completing their 18-month services.

[1]Ministry of Information, op. cit., p. 168.

Chart — Percent of graduating students from universities and institutions of higher education, in groups for dominent fields of studies for the academic year 1970-71.



Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Statistics on Higher Education in Iran: Academic Year 1970-1971: Tehran, April, 1971, p. 64. (Farci).

FIGURE 25

In 1968, the Shah of Iran officially discussed the aims and aspirations of higher education in the Ramsar Educational Revolution Charter.[1] Some of the goals he stressed were: improvement of the quality of higher education, addition of new fields of study, and increases in student enrollments. According to Rahimi this document also:

> ....placed great stress on scientific and technological subjects so that the distribution of university students would be such that fifty-five per cent receive education in scientific, technological and industrial fields and the remaining forty-five per cent in other fields of study by 1972.[2]

Thus, in the field of higher education, the goal has been to provide more education, and education of a higher quality. The quality of higher education has been greatly improved through the upgrading of teaching personnel, the reorganization of universities, expansion in scientific and technical fields, the gradual co-ordination of universities through the Central Council of Universities, the strengthening of university research units, the establishment of new laboratories and scientific research centers, and the improvement and expansion of university libraries.[3] Because of these new developments, the number of university students has increased considerably; 24,456 students were enrolled in 1962-63, and 67,268 students in 1969-70.[4] (See the following Table 36).

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[1]This was discussed in previous chapter by author. However for full details of the resolution refer to Chapter of the Educational Revolution. 7th August 1968, p. 14, is in English.

[2]Rahimi and Habibzadeh. Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Tehran: Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-70, p. 1.

[3]Imperial Government of Iran. 4th Development Plan 1968-72, p. 261.

[4]Rahimi and Habibzadeh. Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-70, p. 3.

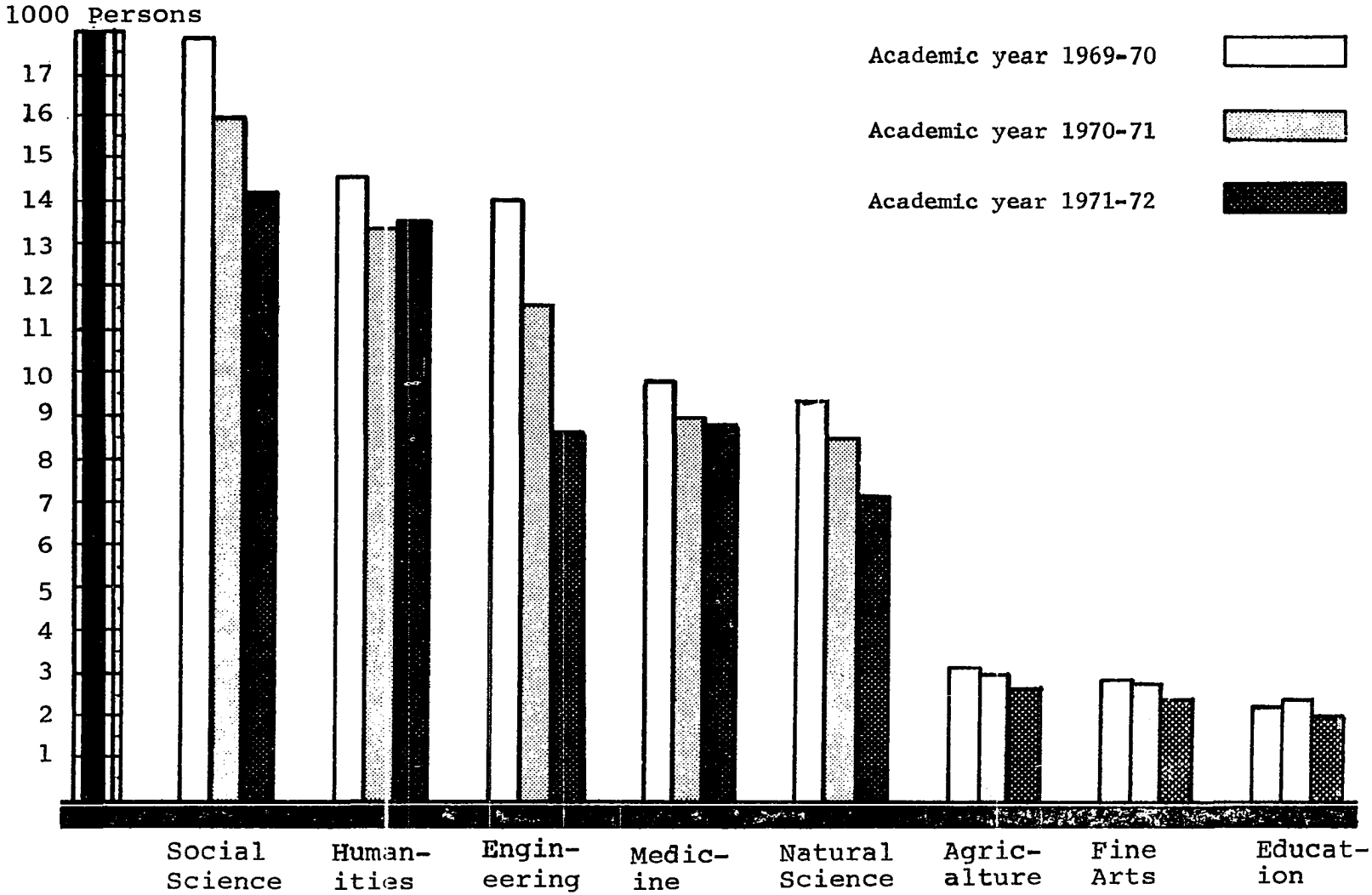
TABLE 36

NUMBER OF STUDENTS BY SEX IN INSTITUTES OF HIGHER EDUCATION, 1961-1969[1]

ACADEMIC YEAR	WOMEN		MEN		AGGREGATE TOTAL	
	NUMBER	GROWTH[2] INDEX	NUMBER	GROWTH[2] INDEX	NUMBER	GROWTH[2] INDEX
1962-63	4183	1.00	20161	1.00	24456	1.00
1963-64	4438	1.06	20447	1.07	24885	1.01
1964-65	5007	1.20	20424	1.07	25431	1.03
1965-66	7039	1.68	22644	1.12	29683	1.21
1966-67	8841	2.11	27901	1.38	36742	1.50
1967-68	12132	2.90	34855	1.73	46987	1.92
1968-69	15064	3.60	44078	2.18	59142	2.42
1969-70	16949	4.05	50319	2.50	67268	2.75
AVERAGE ANNUAL RATE OF GROWTH[2]	22.72%		14.42%		18.57%	

[1]Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics in Iran, 1970.
[2]Computation by the Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education, (Economics and Manpower Planning Unit).

Chart — Students of universities and other Institutions of Higher Education; with respect to their fields of study Academic year 1970-1971.



Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Statistics on Higher Education in Iran: Academic Year 1970-1971; Tehran, April, 1971, p. 40, (Translated from Farci).

FIGURE 26

The number of women enrolled at institutions of higher learning has also increased considerably. Some 4,183 female students were enrolled in 1962-63 and 16,949 in 1969-70. Since the number of male students increased by 22½ times, the growth rate of female students was indisputably higher.[1]

According to information made available by the Plan Organization, the Third Plan aimed at improving university organization rather than increasing the number of faculties. Hence, no provision was made for establishment of another university. However, new schools were established by the government of Iran, and independent colleges and schools by the private sector. New specialized branches were created in existing universities. Higher education has expanded quantitatively so much that it is anticipated that by the end of the Third Plan it will be possible to increase student enrollments in Iranian universities to 33,000.[2]

The Karachi Plan proposed an average annual growth rate of 7.3% for the Third level of education. Iran, at present, has an average annual growth rate of approximately 19.0%, a substantial increase over the estimated model. This Plan suggested that the distribution by branch of study would be, in science, technology, and education 54% and arts, humanities and other non-scientific education 16%. The following Table gives the percentages of distribution between science and non-science

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Bureau of Information and Report. Education. In the Third Development Plan: Plan Organization of Iran. February, 1968, p. 7.

students for the years 1964-70. This percentage has already come close to the target and should be achieved by 1972.[1]

TABLE 37

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY CHIEF BRANCHES OF STUDY
IN THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1962-63

Branch	No of Students	Percentage of Total	No. of Female Students	No. of Male Students	Percentage of Female Students	Percentage of Male Students
Literature and Arts	7,322	34	2,147	3,175	29	71
Medicine	4,181	19	475	3,766	11	89
Pharmacy	675	3	140	535	21	79
Dentistry	344	1.6	75	269	22	78
Law and Economics	2,140	10	165	1,975	8	92
Veterinary Sciences	243	1.1	27	216	11	89
Science	1,499	7	284	1,215	19	81
Engineering & Technology	2,366	11	89	2,277	4	96
Agriculture	887	4.3	41	846	5	95
Theology	948	4	0	948	0	100
Fine Arts	980	5	88	892	9	19

Distribution of Students by Branches of Study: Iranian students show a greater propensity toward non-technical rather than technical studies. Therefore, in spite of the country's need for specialized and technical personnel, the number of non-technical students has always exceeded those enrolled in technical fields. For example, in 1962-63, 37% of all students were enrolled in arts and literature. For more details see Tables 38 and 39.

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[1]Rahimi and Habizadeh. Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-70. p. 3.

TABLE 38

THE PERCENTAGE BETWEEN SCIENCE STUDENTS AND NON-SCIENCE STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION. ACADEMIC YEAR 1964-1969

YEAR	TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS	SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL FIELDS		LITERARY AND THEORETICAL FIELDS	
		NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PERCENTAGE	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PERCENTAGE
1964-65[1]	25431	13466	52.9	11965	47.1
1965-66[1]	29643	14492	48.9	15151	51.1
1966-67[1]	36742	16648	45.3	20094	54.7
1967-68[1]	47017	20936	44.5	26081	55.5
1968-69[2]	59142	29647	50.1	29495	49.9
1969-70[2]	67268	35822	53.3	31446	46.7

[1]Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics of Iran, 1968.
[2]Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education, Statistical Units, 1969.

In August, 1969, 47,875 would-be students took the entrance examinations for government-owned colleges and universities, 50,000 aspirants took competetive entrance examinations for other private universities and colleges in Iran. But the maximum capacity for these twelve universities and state-owned colleges involved was 8,325 students. Tehran University, one of the largest in the country, could not accept more than 3.055 students.[1] The following Table shows the final examination results in 1968-69 for some of the schools in Iran.

TABLE 39

FINAL EXAMINATION RESULTS IN 1968-69[1]

TYPE OF EDUCATION	DURATION IN YEARS	NO. OF PARTICIPANTS		NO. OF PARTICIPANTS	
		M & F	F	M & F	F
VOCATIONAL (Full-time Students)					
Amoozashgah (Vocational)	9	1236	310	1090	224
Honarestan (Technical)	12	2199	77	1958	77
Commercial & Secretarial	12	476	268	447	258
Agriculture	12	351	---	351	---
TOTAL		4262	655	3846	559
TEACHER TRAINING (Full-time Students)					
Norman School	11	1488	1426	1414	1356
Tribal Normal School	7	244	63	244	63
Rural Teacher Training	8-10	162	162	160	160
1-Year Teacher Training	13	1698	1698	1679	1679
TOTAL		3592	3349	3497	3258

[1]Educational Statistics in Iran. op cit. p. 20.

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[1]Iran Almanac 1970 and Book of Facts. op. cit. p. 515.

As it was pointed out before, schools did not pay enough to the distribution of students by field of study. Plan Organization describes the situation as follows:

1. Failure to consider the country's manpower needs and to see that they conformed with the branches of study required.

2. Lack of preparedness on the part of young people for learning scientific and technical subjects, for which the tuition methods and curricula of secondary schools can be balanced.

3. A growing desire among students to study in higher educational establishments coupled with the lack of university places and the resulting pressure of the universities to accept more students than they can properly handle.

4. Since students in arts do not require technical equipment, laboratories, and similar facilities, more students can be accepted in such fields than in technical fields.[1]

For more details see the following Tables.

TABLE 40

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY SEX IN 1966-67[1]

	Male	Female	Male Student as Percentage of Whole	Female Student as Percentage of Whole	Total
a. Government universities & faculties	17,784	4360	80	20	22,144
b. Non-government universities and independent institutions	5,589	2866	66	34	8,455
c. Institutes of higher education affiliated with the Ministry of Education	3,0 4	380	89	11	3,384
d. Institutes of higher education affiliated with other Ministries	2,848	1265	69	31	113
Total for universities, faculties, and institutes	29,225	8871	77	23	38,096

[1] Educational Statistics in Iran. op. cit. p. 20.

[2] Ibid. p. 64.

Chart — Students of universities and other Institutions of Higher Education; with respect to their fields of study. Academic year 1970-1971.

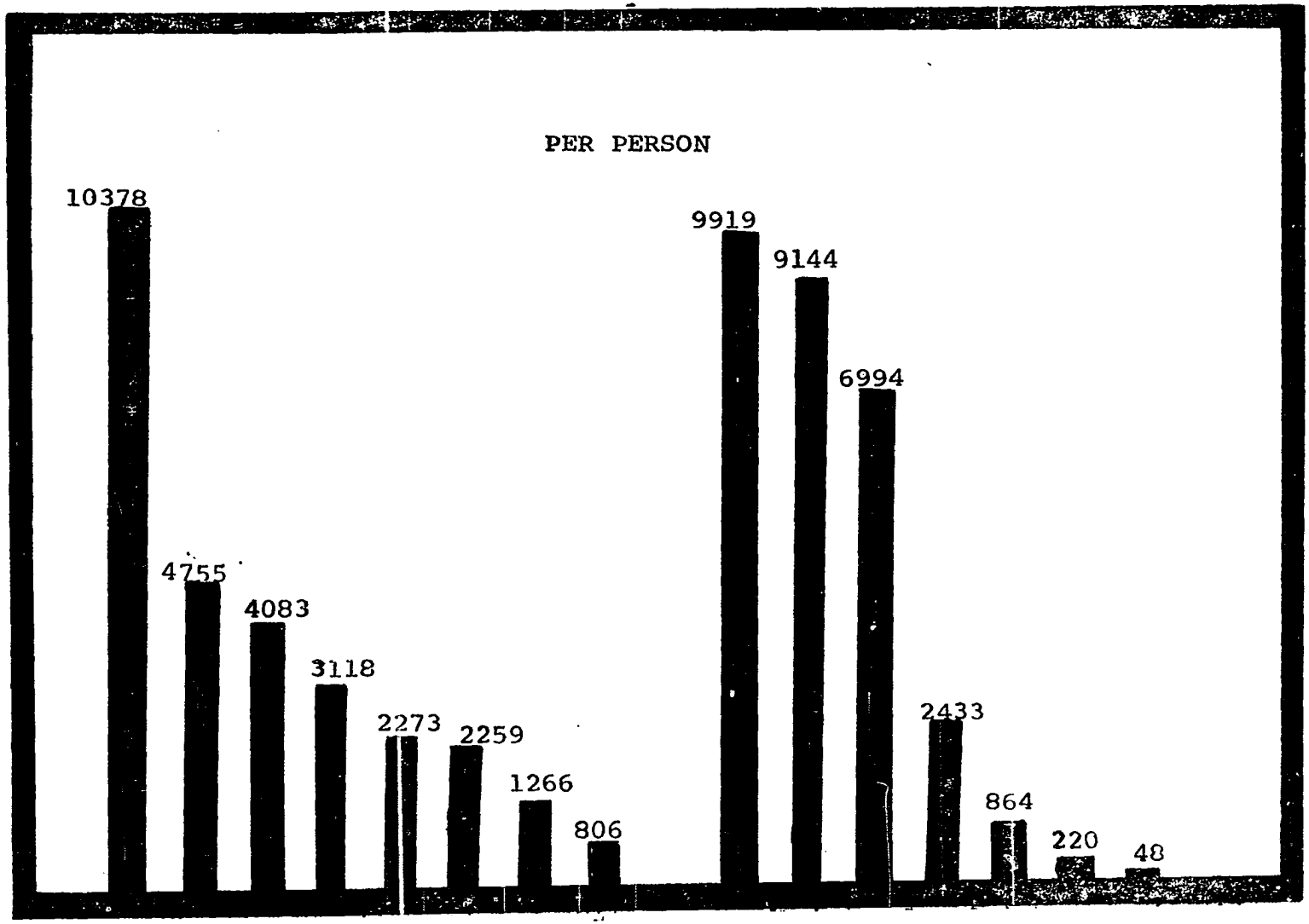

FIGURE 27

Ministry of Science, Higher Education: Statistics of Iranian Students in the Countries in Foreign Countries: Academic Year 1969 1970: Prepared by Bureau of Statistics & Research: Office of Students Affair: Aban 1348: (Nov. 4, 1970). Tehran, Iran., p. 112, (Farci).

TABLE 41

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN DIFFERENT FIELDS OF STUDIES IN THE ACADEMIC YEARS 1970-71 AND 1971-72[1]

Groups	Academic Year 1970-71		Academic Year 1971-72	
	Numbers	Percentage	Numbers	Percentage
Sociology	15,991	24	18,163	24
Humanities	13,205	20	14,704	20
Engineering	11,703	17	14,008	19
Medicine	9,370	14	10,000	13
Science	8,964	13	9,987	13
Agriculture	2,972	5	3,162	4
Fine Arts	2,809	4	2,844	4
Education	2,150	3	1,951	3
TOTALS	67,267	100	74,708	100

[1]Institute for Research in Science and Education, op. cit., p. 27.

Education Corps Program: A campaign against illiteracy was the next objective of the Plan Organization, specifically, to increase the literacy rate among the 10-45 age group from approximately 15% to 35% by 1968, the final year of the Third Plan, and then to 50% by 1972, the last year of the Fourth Plan. Statistics up to 1972 show that this age group included approximately 15,173,600 people, 9,075,900 of whom were literate.[1] The Literacy Corps was made up of high school graduates. It is an educational innovation: the formation of a special army corps of teachers to spread literacy in rural areas, using the principle of the "community

[1]Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education. p. 2.

school." The Literacy Corps was modeled on a similar program which had been organized in the Philippines by the University of Michigan.[1]

The Educational Corps (Sepaheh Danesh), as this body of teachers is called, is a multi-purpose instrument.[2] It is designed to make an effective contribution to the overcoming of rural poverty.

The government of Iran proposed to UNESCO the holding of a world congress on the eradication of illiteracy. This was held in Tehran in 1966. According to the Ministry of Information, the Shah of Iran proposed that all nations devote a part of their military budgets to this cause. Iran contributed $750,000 to UNESCO for the battle against illiteracy, and several other countries also responded.[3]

At the time of the establishment of the National Literacy Campaign Committee, UNESCO decided to implement a literacy program in three countries for the purpose of aiding social and economic growth. Iran was chosen as one of the three countries. A study group from the United Nations selected Isfahan, an industrial region, and the Dez Region, an agricultural area, for the implementation of the project.[4]

According to a report made by Plan Organization, an agreement was reached between representatives of the Iranian government and the

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[1]Storm and Gable. "Technical Assistant in Higher Education, An Iranian Illustration," p. 175.

[2]Richard Blandy and Mahyar Nasht. "Education Corps in Iran: Survey of Its Social and Economical Aspects," International Labour Review. Vol. 93, No. 5 (May, 1966), pp. 523-524.

[3]Ministry of Information. Iran. p. 176.

[4]Plan Organization Iran. Third Development Plan. p. 124.

United Nations Special Fund by which the sum of $1,382,600 (103,695,000 rials) was invested by the United Nations and the government of Iran for the execution of the project, of which about 92,535,000 rials were loaned to the government of Iran by the United Nations Special Fund for payment of salaries to foreign experts.[1] The remaining 11,160,000 rials were to be paid over a four year period by the Iranian Government in the form of 15% contribution to the experts' salaries and the salaries and allowances of Iranian experts, employees, and teachers.[2] According to the Area Handbook for Iran:

> The Literacy Corps, established in 1962, became effective in 1963, when, after the first draft lottery, two-fifths of the high school graduates were allocated to the corps.[3]

They were given a four months' military and scholastic training course. The scholastic training included agriculture, psychology, educational science, rural health and first aid, rural development, and religion. The rank of sergeant was given to graduates of the program, who were then required to fulfill a two-year tour of duty. Those who completed the training were, when possible, sent to villages in which they would be familiar with the dialects and customs. According to Iran Review, May, 1963:

> Literacy corps graduates are given 1st, 2nd and 3rd class sergeant classifications. Salaries range between 2,400 and 3,600 rials ($30 to $40) per month, according to rank. Those

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Third Development Plan. p. 124.

[3] Area Handbook for Iran.

> who distinguish themselves in the field will be invited to join the corps as career officers.[1]

The Education Corps was formed to promote the social and economic aspects of village life. High school graduates, who had been conscripted for military service, were used as multi-purpose, technical assistance workers in the villages, with a high priority given to educational activities. According to a Tehran newspaper (Ettelaat) of January, 1965, there were no exceptions or provisions giving exemption from the draft for these young, educated people. Detailed educational, economic, social, and political objectives of the Educational Corps are stated by Brijandi.[2] Iran Review reported:

> On April 23, His Majesty ordered the Ministry of War to begin recruitment of all men who were born in 1943 and are eligible for compulsory military training and Literacy Corps work. The age for military service in Iran is 21, but the corps permits all 18 year old high school graduates to join for the eighteen month compulsory teaching service.[3]

A primary goal of the corps was to bring children between the ages of six and twelve, who had had no previous schooling, to second-grade level. Members of the corps also taught adult literacy classes in the evenings, created small village libraries with books provided by

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[1] Iran Review: Vol. VII, No. 3 (May, 1963). Office of Press and Information Imperial Embassy of Iran, 3005 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., p. 4.

[2] For more details, refer to Amir Birjandi. The Education Corps Project in Iran--Work Plan for Rural Development. Tehran, Ministry of Education (March, 1964), p. 17.

[3] Iran Review, p. 4.

the Ministry of Education, and provided recreation for youth groups.[1] At present, the Ministry of Education recruits many of its regular teachers in urban schools, ex-corpsmen must serve an additional three years in rural villages. According to Blandy and Nashat:

> Almost all who have been accepted for regular teaching positions have asked to be retained in villages where they have already been teaching. They are given an extra four-and-a-half months training before their return.[2]

The success of the Literacy Corps, which was organized in 1963, inspired the creation of the Health Corps; the Equity Corps, for legal assistance; and the Development and Agricultural Extension Corps, concerned with agricultural improvement in local areas. These Corps were formed between 1963 and late 1968.[3]

In 1970 some 7,900 members of the Literacy Corps taught in the primary grades in village schools. This not only helped alleviate the teacher shortage in rural areas, but also contributed toward upgrading the teaching profession, since all Literacy Corps members had to be secondary school graduates. In 1967 about 16% of all primary students attended schools built and staffed by the Literacy Corps.[4] (See Table 19 in the Appendix.)

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[1] Blandy and Nashat. "Education Corps in Iran: Survey of Its Social and Economical Aspects," pp. 523-524.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Area Handbook for Iran. p. 264.

[4] Ibid. pp. 171-74. For more detail on the purposes and the operation of Educational Corps, refer to the article written by R. Blandy and M. Nashat. "Education Corps in Iran: Survey of Its Social and Economical Aspects," p. 523.

The corps recruits secondary school graduates of conscript age, who may join it and still receive their four month training courses at one of twenty-eight provincial centers. Approximately half of the training period is devoted to military subjects, such as weapon maintenance, tactical drills, and map reading, and the rest of the course to instruction in Persian language and grammar, arithmetic, science, teaching methods, and educational psychology. Courses in health education, sanitation, agronomy, rural development and sociology are also given. At the end of the course the trainees take a competetive examination and, on the basis of their performance, are given the rank of sergeant--first, second, or third class. Thereafter they are assigned by the Ministry of Education to villages, located whenever possible in their native district, to serve for a period of twenty months.[1] According to official reports, about 80 percent of the corps members remain in the employment of the Ministry of Education as teachers after completion of their service. The Area Handbook for Iran states:

> Between 1962 and 1966 some 38,000 corps members worked in various rural areas imparting literacy to more than 900,000 children and adults.[2]

In order to expand the scope of the program, the Women's Literacy Corps was initiated in 1968 for female secondary school and university graduates. In 1970 the estimated number of active and former Literacy Corps members totaled about 60,000 including 4,300 women. (See Table 20 in the Appendix.)

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[1] Area Handbook for Iran. p. 167.

[2] Ibid., p. 168.

TABLE 42

PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS BY SEX TAUGHT BY EDUCATIONAL CORPSMEN 1964-69[1]

Year	Number of Girls	Number of Boys	Total
1964-65	45,768	182,729	228,497
1965-66	68,399	197,414	265,813
1966-67	43,190	209,448	252,638
1967-68	41,598	227,839	269,470
1968-69	47,201	245,769	292,970
1969-70	93,084	263,981	386,765

[1]Educational Statistics in Iran, Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, 1970. (Farsi.) Quoted by Nasser Rahimi and Suzan Habibzadeh. Report on Educational Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-70. p. 11.

During the 1960's there was a definite increase in the rate of literacy. In 1967 there were 700,000 new literates. In order to facilitate the spread of literacy, a special campaign was launched in 1968 under the auspices of the National Committee for the Campaign against Illitaracy. In March of the same year 500,000 adults were enrolled in six months training course organized by the campaign.[1] The Area Handbook for Iran states:

> A special bill was submitted to Parliament by the minister of education enjoining every parson to participate in the campaign by teaching at least one person to read and write; it also provided that students going abroad for higher education be required before their departure to submit proof that they have given literacy instruction to at least one person. The bill

[1]Area Handbook for Iran. p. 168.

> also proposed that persons who fail to take part in the campaign's teaching activities be required to finance the training of twenty-five illiterates.[1]

In the academic year 1969-70, there were over 8,695 education corpsmen of the thirteenth and fourteenth groups and 1,355 education corpswomen of the first and second groups teaching in 1,847 education corps schools, including 518 regular classes and 9,532 multi-graded classes. The enrollment totaled 32,239 of whom 20% were girls. Distribution of student-grade-classification was as follows:

> First grade 38%, second grade 21%, third grade 15%, fourth grade 12%, fifth grade 9%, and sixth grade 5%. The pupil-teacher ratio was 32 to 1. In addition to school children, 72,411 adults were attending classes conducted by these corpsmen, 27% of whom were women.[2]

Furthermore, in 1969-70, there were 1,716 education corps members (522 men and 1,184 women in rural areas and regular public schools not built by the Corps). The total enrollment was 57,393 students. In the cities, there were 176 educational corpswomen teaching 8,133 pupils (2,501 boys and 5,632 girls) in 175 regular classes and one multi-grade class. Therefore, according to the Area Handbook of Iran:

> It follows that in the academic year of 1969-70 there were altogether 11,942 (9,227 men and 2,715 women) education corps members teaching in both ordinary and education corps schools throughout the country.[3]

See Table 20 in apendix.

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[1] Ibid.

Bureau of Statistics. Educational Statistics in Iran. (Tehran: Ministry of Education, Department of Planning and Studies, 1971) pp. 3-4.

[3] Ibid., p. 4.

According to questionnaires sent to the first group of 2,460 "soldiers", who had completed their service in June, 1964, more than 80% wished to make a career of teaching. Of those, 90% asked to stay on in villages in which they had been stationed during their period of service. To enhance their knowledge of teaching methods, former members of the corps who stay in teaching take a four-month refresher course in pedagogy. Then they are officially enrolled in the country's educational system.[1] As Blandy and Nashat pointed out:

> In conclusion, it seems that, if the present success continues, the educational corps may play an important part in dealing with the country's urgent problems and may provide useful experience for the establishment of the permanent institutions needed for the development of rural areas.[2]

The number of teachers employed at all levels of education has increased (see Table 21 in the Appendix). The number of primary and secondary teachers expanded slightly over two times, whereas teaching personnel in higher education grew by almost four times. Diligent attempts have been made to satisfy the shortage of teachers. In 1963, the Organization for Teacher Training and Educational Research was established for the purpose of training secondary school teachers and establishing teachers' training schools in provincial universities.

With the growth and expansion of the country's educational system and the rapid increase in enrollments, the number of new school

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[1]Sita Bella. "Iran's Education Corps and Illiteracy," Courtesy of UNESCO Features, Press Division, UNESCO, Paris. Social and Society. March 6, 1969. p. 157.

[2]Blandy and Nashat. "Education Corps in Iran: Survey of Its Social and Economical Aspects. p. 529.

buildings increased by more than 50% for primary education, and 100% for secondary education, between 1961-69. Buildings for institutions of higher education increased by more than 75%, that is from 7 units in 1962 to 60 units in 1969.[1] (See Table 22 in the Appendix.)

Government expenditures on education have increased by more than 240% from 1964 to 1971. This is solid evidence that the government of Iran regards education as a primary tool in the social and economic advancement of the country. There was a 647% increase in expenditure for vocational and technical training between 1961-71. Government spending for higher education (which includes science and technology) has increased by more than 452%.[2] (See Table 23 and Table 270 on government expenditures in the Appendix.)

Curriculum Development: The so-called "new system" of Iranian education is now being implemented. Instead of a school cycle comprised of two 6-year periods (primary 6-11 years, secondary 12-17 years), there will be a 3-year academic-guidance period (11-14 years), and a four-year secondary period (15-18 years). This new system should be fully implemented by the end of 1972.[3]

The first two cycles, which last eight years, are devoted to general education. In both rural and urban areas the first cycle

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[1] Institute for Research and Planning in Education and Science. "Higher Education Statistics in Iran School Year 1969-70." Tehran: Ministry of Science and Higher Education (November, 1970), p. 4.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Institute for Research and Planning in Education and Science. "Higher Education Statistics in Iran School Year 1969-70." p. 4.

(grades 1-5) is compulsory. The second cycle will be made compulsory as soon as all primary school-age children are enrolled in schools and the country is capable of providing sufficient funds for eight years of compulsory education.

Secondary education can be divided into two main branches: academic and technical/vocational. Students are directed to different types of schools according to their interests and abilities, which are explored during the second or academic-guidance cycle of education. The duration of study at vocational and technical schools varies from two to four years, according to the type of study and the required level of specialization. Purely academic (non-vocational/technical) secondary education lasts four years. Under certain conditions, transfer from the academic branch to the technical and vocational, or vice versa, is possible. A more complete picture of this new educational system will be found in the following diagram.

Primary education is free for all children in both rural and urban areas, and attendance in grades one through five is compulsory. The curricula are aimed primarily at teaching reading, writing, and calculation, and at preparing children to adjust themselves to their environments. New teaching methods and audio-visual aids are employed. Special attention is paid to developing children's abilities for listening, speaking, reading, writing, counting, observation, measurement, and construction. The Persian language, religion and morals, arithmetic and geometry, social studies, experimental science, health education, arts and manual works, physical education, and music are all included in the curriculum.

Diagram of New School Organization
Of Iran

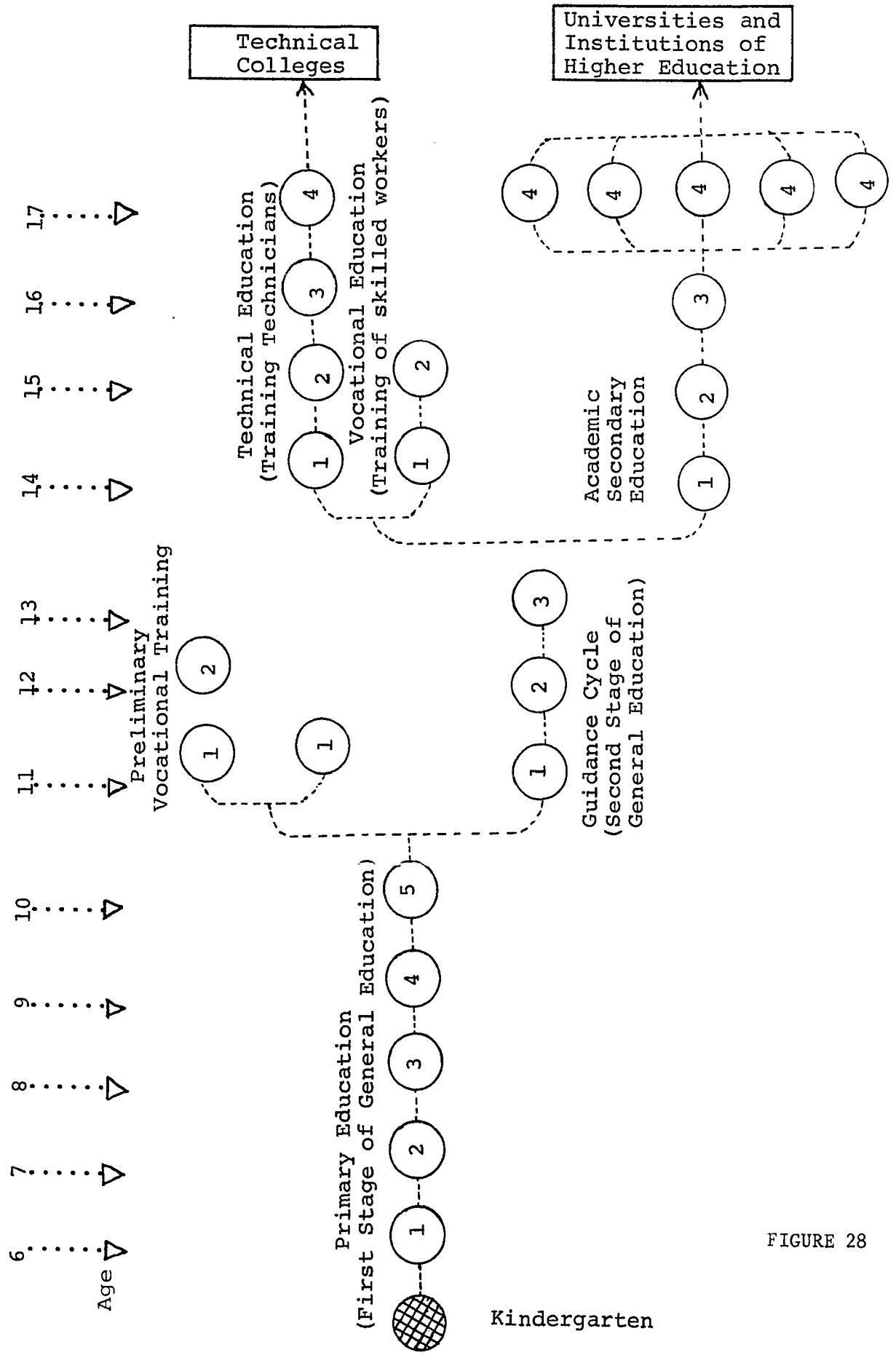

FIGURE 28

The guidance cycle is a three-year course aimed at increasing the general knowledge of the students, developing moral and spiritual values, and discovering students' special talents and abilities in academic, technical, and vocational areas. Taking into accound individual abilities and interests, and the future needs of the country, students will be directed to follow their studies in various kinds of secondary schools.

The syllabi of the guidance cycle consists of academic courses as well as simple technical and vocational subjects. The curriculum of this cycle is comprised of the Persian language, religious instruction, morals, mathematics, experimental science (physics, chemistry, natural science, and health education), social sciences (history, geography, and civics), foreign languages, preliminary practical knowledge of technical and vocational subjects (working in a workshop or on the farm is required), art (calligraphy, painting, statuary, and music), physical education, and safety instruction. The fundamental objective of this cycle is educational and vocational guidance.

Students participate in a second official examination at the end of the guidance cycle, under the direction of the provincial educational authorities. Those who do well in the examination are qualified to continue their studies in either academic or vocational and technical secondary schools. If a student does not wish to follow the course of study selected for him, he has the option of participating in a special entrance examination for the school of his choice.

Secondary education begins after the three-year guidance cycle and covers academic, technical, and vocational education. The main

objectives of secondary education are further acquaintance with Iranian culture, literature, and principles of science, and the arts; cultivation of moral and spiritual values; preparation for further study at a technical/vocational college or a university; and the teaching of marketable skills.

Academic secondary education is divided into two stages of three years and one year respectively. The first stage is the same for all students, and consists of a curriculum made up of Persian language and literature, religion, morals, mathematics (algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and drawing), physics, chemistry, biology (zoology and botany), health education, geology, geography, history, history of Iranian civilization and culture, world civilization, foreign languages, civics and international organizations, art and aesthetics, physical education, and safety instruction. The second stage of academic secondary education, which lasts for one year, is concerned with natural science, physics and mathematics, social science and economics, literature and arts. According to the type of study the student wishes to follow, and according to his individual abilities, a student who completes the first stage of secondary education is guided to enroll in one branch of the second stage. In each branch, required courses compose 80 per cent of the syllabi, and elective courses 20 per cent. The last year of academic secondary is considered a basis for university studies. At the end of each stage official national examinations are given by the Ministry of Education.

Technical and vocational education at the secondary level is also divided into two branches. The first branch, which lasts two

years, is aimed at training skilled workers and farmers. The second one is the technical branch which covers a four-year period. The main objective of this cycle is to train second class technicians, foremen for industry and agriculture, and personnel for commercial, industrial, and other administrative activities. Those entering the technical branch must have higher qualifications than those going into the two-year course of the vocational branch.

Technical and vocational school courses are arranged in such a way that students can transfer from one branch to another according to the needs of the open market. In the actual making of the curricula for technical and vocational schools, local needs and employment opportunities are always taken into consideration. Technical and vocational schools are geared to the needs of the country. Commercial, industrial, and social organizations are encouraged to cooperate actively in the establishment of technical and vocational secondary schools.

Recently, in each institution of higher education, a center has been created to deal with the problems of curriculum development, and to seek guidance for these institutions for planning and research in science and education. The Ministry of Education has established a center for research on curriculum for primary and secondary education.[1]

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[1]Institute of Research and Planning. p. 5. Full details of the resolution called "Charter of Educational Revolution." Ramsar--7th August 1968; from Ministry of Information Tehran, Iran.

Charter of Educational Revolution: The concept of Educationa Revolution is an important phenomenon in Iran.

> Universities, institutions of higher education and the Ministry of Science and Higher Education must be the pioneers in the educational revolution of Iran and they must therefore bring their activities and organizations into line with the aims of the revolution.[1]

The Ministry of Science and Higher Education was created by legislation, and its purpose is briefly as follows:

I. The Ministry of Science and Higher Education was established to carry out these requirements. The Ministry came into existence by legislation, and its purpose is briefly as follows:
   1. Target setting for scientific education and research activities throughout the whole country.
   2. Projection, planning, and policy for national education.
   3. Evaluation and guidance of universities and higher educational institutions.

II. The establishment of the Institute of Planning and Research for Science and Education. Its existence was authorized by legislation, and it is affiliated with the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. This Institute consists of 3 centers:
   1. The Center for Planning and Research for Science and Education.
   2. The Documentation Center; and
   3. The Book Processing and Publishing Center.

III. The Institute's main functions are
   1. Research and studies in planning for science and education.
   2. Collection and analysis of statistical data on science and education.
   3. Short-term and long-term planning for science, education, and research.
   4. Policy-making for scientific education.
   5. Training the necessary manpower for research and planning in science and education.
   6. Publishing the results of research projects and surveys for the purpose of facilitating and accelerating scientific and technological progress in the country.

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[1] "Charter of the Educational Revolution." Ramsar, August 7, 1968, Point 5, p. 3.

7. Disseminating scientific knowledge throughout the country.
8. Expansion of the library for science and provision of library services to scientific and research centers.

IV. The establishment of various National Councils of Education in order to ensure vertical integration in the form of smooth coordination between the different levels of education is an important function. The National Council for Education; the National Council for Rural Education; the National Council for Coordination between Universities and Higher Educational Institutions; and the National Council for the Expansion of Higher Educational Institutions are examples.[1]

The Ministry of Science and Higher Education established centers for training secondary school teachers. In addition, a Teacher Training College for the training of educational corpsmen was created. Wages, housing, and health and welfare benefits for teachers were improved in order to attract and motivate more qualified teachers. Other measures were undertaken to improve the quality of instruction, mainly special pre-service and in-service training. For pre-service training, Tehran University has recently begun a one-year post-graduate teaching course. This course is also open to graduates of the secondary-level education. Newly qualified teachers from Tehran Teachers College are offered a field course of varying duration before undertaking permanent employment, although this is not compulsory.

For in-service training, summer courses are organized by the Ministry of Education and held at teacher training colleges or at various locations chosen at the Ministry's discretion. Also, evening classes are held for teachers who want to attend, or for those students sent by authorities. According to the Research Institute;

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[1]Rahimi and Habibzadeh. Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-70. p. 6.

> In order for teachers to get acquainted with the new system of education that is now being introduced, a one-year course is held for elementary and secondary level school teachers selected from urban and provincial areas. These courses are mainly for the purpose of consultation and guidance.[1]

In regard to educational administration and management, attempts have been made to improve and to decentralize administrative activities of the Ministry of Education. The Institute for Educational Planning and Administration was established and planning units were created in all universities and other institutes of higher education.

Much attention has been given to improving the field of educational research. The Institute of Planning and Research for Science and Education, an affiliate of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, was created for this purpose. In addition, centers for research in education, affiliated with Tehran University, have been established. The Institution for Educational and Pedagogical Studies, affiliated with Tehran Teachers Training College, and the Institute for Studies in Literacy Methods, were organized.[2]

The Research Institute in Science and Education appraises educational development as follows:

> In appraising the past performance of educational development in Iran during the last ten years, 1960-70, it appears that the quantitative expansion has indeed been impressive. Because of this bias, improvement in quality has not materialized sufficiently and for those aspects that have, progress has still been rather sluggish.[3]

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[1] Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education. "Higher Education Statistics in Iran School Year 1969-70. p. 7.

[2] Rahimi and Habibzadeh. Report on Education Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-70. p. 7-8.

[3] Ibid., p. 8.

The Research Institute's appraisal goes on to state that only very recently (the last two years of the decade) have very intensive efforts been made to this end. It is too soon to assess the results of these new efforts. Despite areas of weakness, however, higher education, in quantity and quality, has made great progress. (See Tables 21 and 22 in the Appendix.)

During the first half of the decade there was a lack of coordination among various educational institutions--in terms of regulations; organization; educational methods; administrative, financial, and personnel standards. Scientific research has been inadequate, partly through lack of coordination between the scientific-technical fields and other fields. Since 1968 this has been remedied by the imposition of various measures, such as the decentralization of administration of the Ministry of Education, the creation of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, and the establishment of the Institute of Research and Planning in Science and Education.[1]

Books and Libraries: During the Third Plan Period in Iran, particular attention was given to improvement of textbooks for primary, secondary, and higher education. Many foreign textbooks were translated into the Persian language. These included literature dealing with biology, medicine, public health, engineering, economics, and the numanities. For the Faculty of Theology a number of works on religious-prudence and philosophy were purchased.

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[1] Ibid., p. 8.

Also, through the development of special funds, an encyclopedia entitled Iran Shahr was published in order to promote a broad understanding of Iran's culture and civilization. It contains articles on the country's history, economy, politics, and social affairs.

Many libraries have been built throughout the country with the help of foreign aid. The need for and establishment of these new libraries was based on the findings in 1958 of a survey team of educators from the University of Southern California.[1] Thirty Americans participated as advisors at these institutes for five years, and acted in a capacity which aided the development of Tehran University itself. According to Storm and Gable, in the Educational Record for April, 1960, the American librarians on the institute staff worked closely with the librarians of Tehran University for the improvement of their libraries. A separate library is located in each Faculty of the University.

The administration of Tehran University improved markedly during those years. The system of student record keeping was revised, development of a central library was undertaken, the position of Dean of Students was created, and a system for transferring credits among the several schools of the university was tentatively introduced.[2] On April 6, 1966, Iran's first central library for undergraduate students was inaugurated during the Shah's visit to Pahlavi University in Shiraz. H. Vail Deale, former director of libraries at Beloit (Wisconsin)

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[1]Storm and Gable. "Technical Assistance in Higher Education." An Iranian Illustration. p. 181.

[2]Ibid.

College, became director of libraries at Pahlavi University. According to the Library Journal of June 1, 1966, this association began in 1960 when

> A group of educators headed by University of Pennsylvania President Gaylord Harmurel visited Iran at the request of the Shah, and prepared a report entitled, "A Pattern for a New University in Iran." Faculty from a number of U.S. institutions have been recruited through the University of Pennsylvania to assist in the Pahlavi program.[1]

Deale went to Pahlavi University in September, 1965, under a Fulbright award, to serve as acting Director of Libraries and consultant in the field of library science.

At the time, Deale had a staff of four foreign librarians and some twenty Iranians. His major responsibilities were

1. Book selection for a basic undergraduate library collection;
2. Training of Iranian personnel;
3. Planning of the temporary undergraduate library building;
4. Proposals for a four-year and five-year program of library education, leading to the establishment of a professional library school.[2]

The Third Plan Organization outlined a plan for progress in higher education. Steps taken toward better supervision of higher education in Iran within recent years include:

1. The establishment of university central councils, in 1965, under the chairmanship of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. The coordination of university activity in view of the problems facing higher education.

2. The introduction of a law concerning full-time employment of university teaching staff, as a result of which

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[1] Library Journal. "Pahlavi University in Iran Opens Undergraduate Library." Vol. 91 (June 1, 1965), p. 2792.

[2] Ibid.

considerable advances were achieved in teaching standards and scientific research at Tehran University.

3. Coordination of scientific research. The introduction of a law concerning full-time employment of university teaching staff laid the groundwork for improved scientific research, since, at this time, there was not research coordination among universities. Tehran University introduced a law to convert the present basis for employing faculty members from part-time to full-time. Also a Council for Scientific Research was established at this university in order to coordinate research work and determine priorities.

4. The establishment of independent departments, and the centralizing of the lectures of every department in accordance with Article 21 of the law concerning full-time employment of University teaching staff. This led to the former "chair" system being abolished, preventing duplication of lectures in different faculties, and resulted in greater cooperation in scientific research and higher standards of lectures.[1]

The Iranian universities', and other institutes of higher education pertinent to the public sector act under the direction of Boards of Trustees, budgets are paid by the government in the form of an "aid." Other free universities and institutes of higher education, in addition to special grants from the government and the NIOC (National Iranian Oil Company), receive financial aid from private sources and are governed by their Boards of Trustees. Their staffs do not consist of official government employees. A third category of institutions of higher learning are completely private and self-supporting.[2]

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[1] Plan Organization Iran. Third Development Plan 1341-1345; Final Report December 1970. p. 128.

[2] Iran Almanac and Book of Facts, 1970. p. 514.

CHAPTER V

CONTEMPORARY ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

The historical emergence of Iranian education is founded on precedents associated with the nationalistic traditions of European countries and the United States. Of particular importance is the influence of French, British, and American traditions of Iran's administrative structure in higher education both before and since 1900. Some traditions emphasize the influence of the British formal school, where significantly autocratic structures prevail. In other instances, more modern, democratic structures have prevailed.

The contemporary administrative structure reflects the historical traditions traced in the earlier chapters in this study. In an effort to make the historical analysis complete and current the author travelled to Iran and spent four months gathering current empirical data. These data supplied the final information and completed the historical analysis.

Administrative structure, as a concept studied in this investigation, will be referred to as democratic, authoritarian, or lassez-faire, because of the semantical consistency with the nationalistic influences of European countries and the United States. The following investigation should clarify present conditions relevant to administrative structure in 1971.

Data Sources

For the purpose of this investigation, eight universities were selected, including the largest institutions of higher education in Iran. Tehran University consists of nineteen faculties; Arya-Meher consists of eight faculties; National University has nine faculties; Pahlavi University (Shiraz) has five faculties; Mashhad University and Isfahan Universith each have six faculties; Tabriz University has eight faculties; and Ahwaz University has four faculties.

Instruments Used In Data Collection

Materials for the questionnaire were sought in authoritative books and reports. Some of the questions had been used by the Ohio State University leadership studies and were modified to some extent for use in this study. At first the questionnaire consisted of thirty-four questions. During a pilot study by three faculty members of Oklahoma University, the thirty-four questions were reduced to twenty-three significant questions.

The questionnaire was the basic data-collection instrument for this study. It was designed to describe the two structural dimensions, autocratic, and democratic, which were postulated as the predominant contemporary structural characteristics.

Each administrator was requested to rate the frequency with which each item occurs in his institution. This was done by circling one of four numbers (1,2,3,4). Each of these numbers represented an adverb expressing the frequency of the item. The choice of adverbs was as follows: 1. Rarely occurs, 2. Sometimes occurs, 3. Often occurs, 4. Very frequently occurs. In tallying the responses, the frequency of selection of each number was recorded. The data thus obtained is contained in Table 43.

TABLE 43

TOTAL NUMBER OF QUESTIONS BEFORE CODING INTO A,B,C,D

NUMBER OF QUESTIONS	CHOICE ONE	CHOICE TWO	CHOICE THREE	CHOICE FOUR	TOTAL OF CHOICES
1	6	6	17	11	40
2	1	11	15	11	40
3	7	10	10	10	40
4	3	13	14	13	40
5	9	10	11	10	40
6	5	9	16	10	40
7	6	13	14	7	40
8	7	11	17	5	40
9	5	7	12	16	40
10	7	14	12	7	40
11	4	10	17	9	40
12	7	4	14	15	40
13	11	5	16	8	40
14	11	14	9	6	40
15	10	11	13	6	40
16	11	10	17	2	40
17	9	10	15	6	40
18	2	9	17	12	40
19	0	16	13	11	40
20	16	13	7	4	40
21	2	15	10	13	40
22	5	16	11	8	40
23	5	15	14	6	40
TOTAL	149	252	311	208	920

Procedure for Collecting Data

Originally, the questionnarie was to be administered in personal interviews at the eight major universities mentioned. Three of these eight universities are located in the city of Tehran: Tehran University, Arya Mehr Technology, and National University. The other five are located in different provinces of Iran. Because of extenuating circulstances, it became impossible to visit the universities outside of Tehran. Therefore,

the list of faculties of each of these universities was secured through their main offices, all of which were located in Tehran. Questionnaires were mailed to each of the five universities outside of Tehran. Each questionnaire included a copy of the personal sheet, (see Appendix), and a letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire and the study. These questionnaires were to be answered only by the university president, university vice president, and dean of each faculty of the university.

Collection of the Data

Questionnaires were sent to the administrators of the major faculties, and to the president and vice president of each school. One questionnaire was given to the president of the Missionary College. The following table gives the number of questionnaires sent to each of the eight schools and the number of questionnaires returned by each school.

TABLE 44

QUESTIONNAIRES SENT TO EACH UNIVERSITY AND THE NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRS RETURENED

Number and name of Universities	Number of questionnaires given or sent to	Number of questionnaires received
1 TEHRAN UNIVERSITY	19	14
2 NATIONAL UNIVERSITY	8	7
3 ARYA MEHR UNIVERSITY	9	7
4 MASHAD UNIVERSITY	7	4
5 TABRIZ UNIVERSITY	7	3
6 ISFAHAN UNIVERSITY	7	3
7 PAHLAVI UNIVERSITY	6	4
8 AHVAZ UNIVERSITY*	4	0
9 MISSIONARY COLLEGE*	1	1
TOTAL	68	43

*University of Ahvaz and Missionary College were not used. See page 202 Analysis of Data.

The total percentage of returned questionnaires was 63.2 per cent. Due to the complete lack of response from Ahwaz University, this school was eliminated from the study. Thus, a total of seven institutions were included in the study, and a response rate of 67.2 per cent to the questionnaires was obtained.

A personal interview was held with each faculty dean of Tehran University, Arya-Mehr, and National University, and the questionnaire for each was completed during the interview. A similar procedure was conducted with the president of the Missionary College. All other questionnaires were sent and returned through the mail. All questionnaires which were returned by mail were received by the researcher at his address in Tehran.

Of the forty-three questionnaires returned, three had to be discarded. Two questionnaires were not completely answered, and the questionnaire received from the president of the Missionary College was not included because, during the personal interview, he stated that he did not feel qualified to respond on the major administrative aspects of his school. Thus, a total of forty questionnaires were used.

Analysis of Data

Since there were twenty-three questions on each of the forty questionnaires, a total of 920 responses were obtained. On seventeen of the twenty-three questions a response of 1 or 2 indicated an autocratic response. On the remaining six questions, such a response indicated a democratic attitude. Similarly, on the same seventeen questions, a response of three or four indicated a democratic response, but on the remaining six such a choice indicated an autocratic response. Therefore, it was necessary to code the data in Table 40 in order to obtain the total number

of autocratic and democratic responses on the twenty-three questions. The coding used is: A = strong autocratic; B = autocratic; C = democratic; D = strong democratic.

The author anticipated that a respondent would tend to establish a democratic or autocratic pattern in his responses, and he considered it advantageous to modify the numbered response in a selected number of questions in an attempt to interrupt such a uniform pattern of choice. The following table illustrates the coding system employed:

TABLE 45

	Questions 2,4,7,10,13,17	All Other Questions
Strong Autocratic, A	4	1
Autocratic, B	3	2
Democratic, C	2	3
Strong Democratic, D	1	4

Questions #2,4,7,10,13,17: Response of 1 or 2 is interpreted as a democratic response; response of 3 or 4 is interpreted as an autocratic response. All other questions: 1 or 2 is interpreted as autocratic; 3 or 4 is interpreted as democratic.

After coding the data in the above manner, the figures obtained were tabulated in Table 46.

TABLE 46

Item	A	B	C	D	TOTAL
Observed Count	163	272	291	194	920

Two Chi-Square tests were employed with the data in this investigation. The first test involves specifying numerical values for each cell; in particular, equal numerical values will be specified. The formula to be used is:

$$X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(n_i - E(n_i))^2}{E(n_i)}$$

Where: n_i = the number of responses occurring in the ith cell.

$E(n_i)$ = the number of responses expected to occur in the ith cell.

K = the number of cells.

The number of degrees of freedom for this chi-square test is one less than the total number of cells (k-1). The second use of the chi-square test is to test for the independence of two methods of classification of observed events. The same formula is employed here as was above, but the number of responses expected occur in the cell of row i and column j is found by multiplying the ith row total by the jth column total and dividing by the total number of responses. The number of degrees of freedom associated with a contingency table possessing r rows and c columns is (r-1)(c-1).

Hypotheses

In order to facilitate an analysis of the data for constellations of empirical evidence, the following hypotheses were tested by means of the Chi-square statistics.

Hypothesis 1

There is no preference for one type of response (A,B,C,D) over the others.

Hypothesis 2

There is no preference for a democratic response over an autocratic response.

Hypothesis 3

There is no difference in the responses obtained from Tehran University as compared to the other six institutions.

Hypothesis 4

There is no difference in the responses obtained from the three schools in the city of Tehran as compared to the four shcools in the provinces.

Test of the Hypotheses

To test hypothesis one, the first form of the Chi-square test statistic was employed. The number of observations for each coded response was determined (see Table 47), and the number of responses expected to occur for each coded value is 230 (one-fourth of 920). The following Table and bar histogram are obtained:

TABLE 47

Item	A	B	C	D	Total
Observed Count	163	272	291	194	920
Expected Count	230	230	230	230	920

The chi-square statistic was computed and found to be 49.0, which is significant at the .005 level. Hence, we may reject H_1 at 5 per cent

Comparison of the Number of Each of the Four Choices Employed

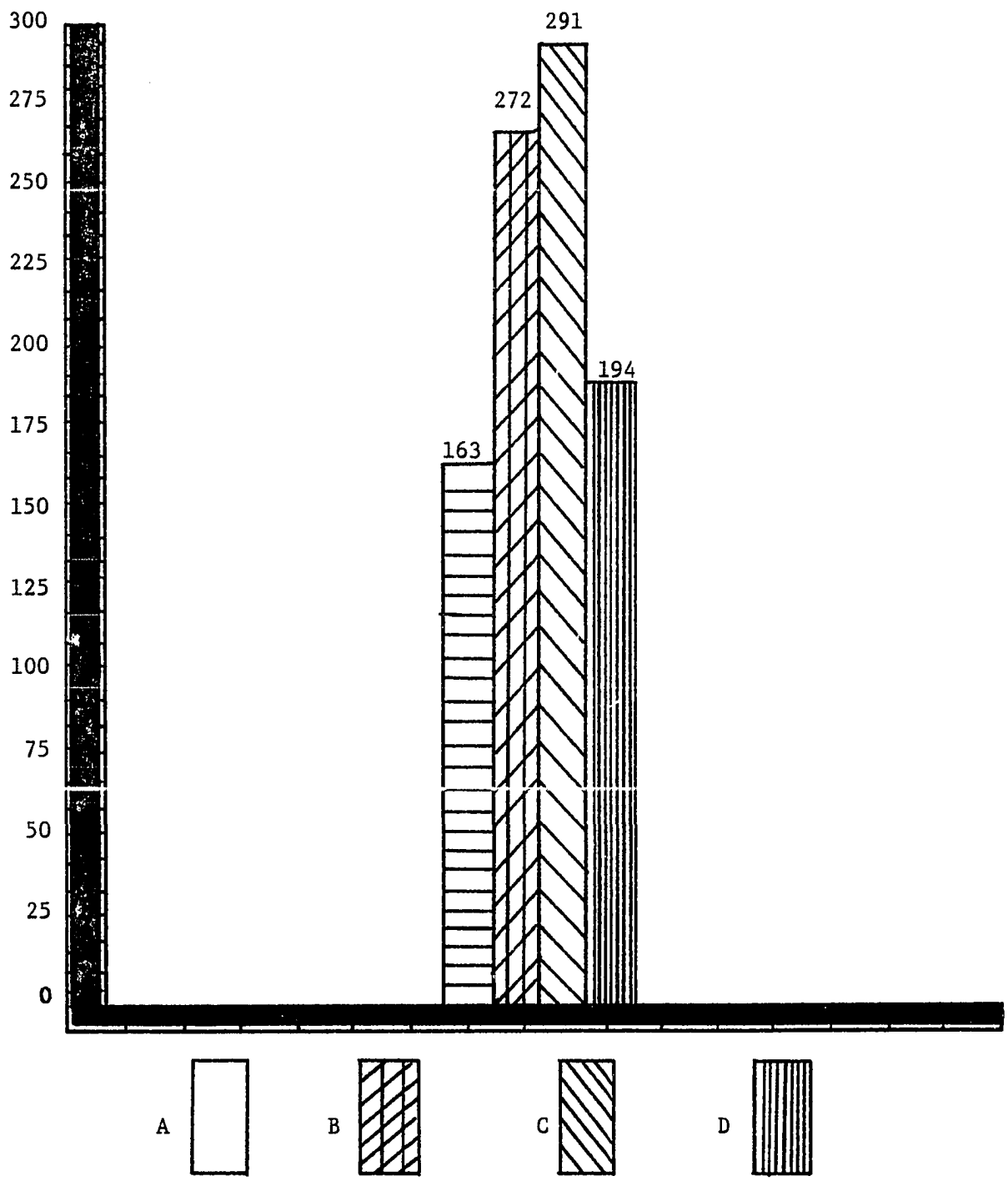

FIGURE 29

level of significance and conclude that the data present sufficient evidence to indicate that some response was preferred over the others.

Since we are concerned with responses as they fall into the autocratic or democratic categories, we combine the data in order to test hypothesis two. We combine the responses to codes A and B, thus obtaining the autocratic category. The responses to codes C and D, are combined thus obtaining the democratic category. The following table and histogram are obtained:

TABLE 48

Item	Autocratic	Democratic	Total
Observed Count	435	485	920
Expected Count	460	460	920

The chi-square statistic was computed and found to be 2.72, the critical chi-square value is 2.71 at the 10 per cent level of significance. The computed chi-square statistic is so close to the critical value, it is best to take a statistically conservative course of action and not reject H_2 at the 10 per cent level of significance. However, the raw figures in Table 43 (page 200) do indicate a preference for democratic responses.

To test hypothesis three, the second form of the chi-square test statistic was employed on the data in Table 46

Comparison of the Number of Responses to the combined Autocratic and combined Democratic choices.

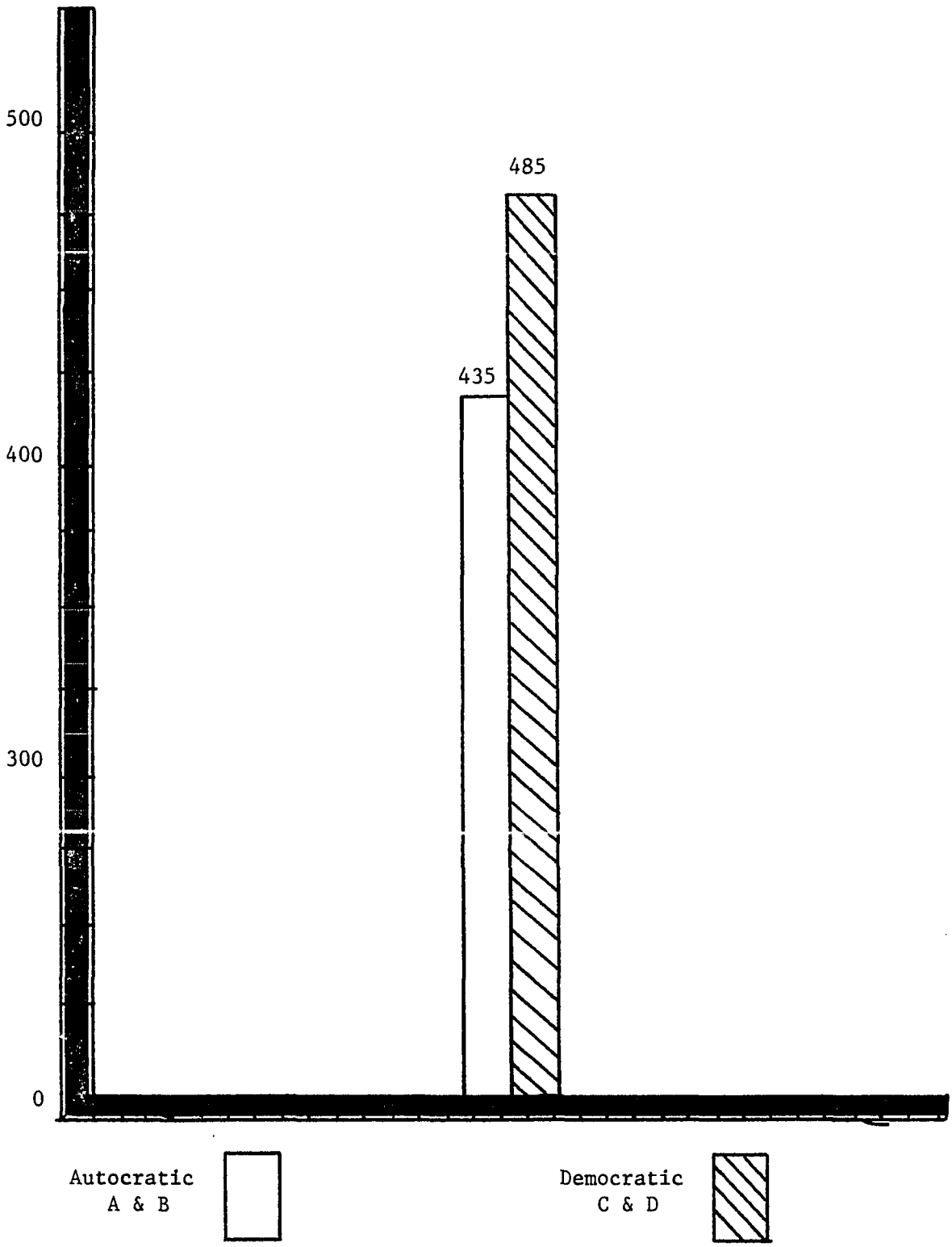

FIGURE 30

TABLE 49

	Autocratic	Democratic	Total
Tehran University	158	141	299
Other Universities	277	344	621
Total	435	485	920

A histogram for this data is contained in Figure 31 (page 210).

The chi-square statistic was computed and found to be 5.4946, which is significant at the .025 level. Hence we may reject H_3 at the 2.5 per cent level of significance and conclude that the responses are not independent of this classification of the seven schools. That is, a response from Tehran University had a significantly greater probability of being autocratic, while a response from any of the other six institutions had a significantly greater probability of being classified as democratic. We may therefore conclude that Tehran University is more autocratic than the other institutions combined.

Hypothesis 4 was also tested by means of the second form of the chi-square statistic. The data for this hypothesis are presented in Table 50, and the histogram for this data is contained in Figure 32.

TABLE 50

	Autocratic	Democratic	Total
Tehran City	298	323	621
Provinces	137	162	299
Total	435	485	920

Comparison of the Number of responses to the combined Autocratic and combined Democratic choices between Tehran University and all other Institutions.

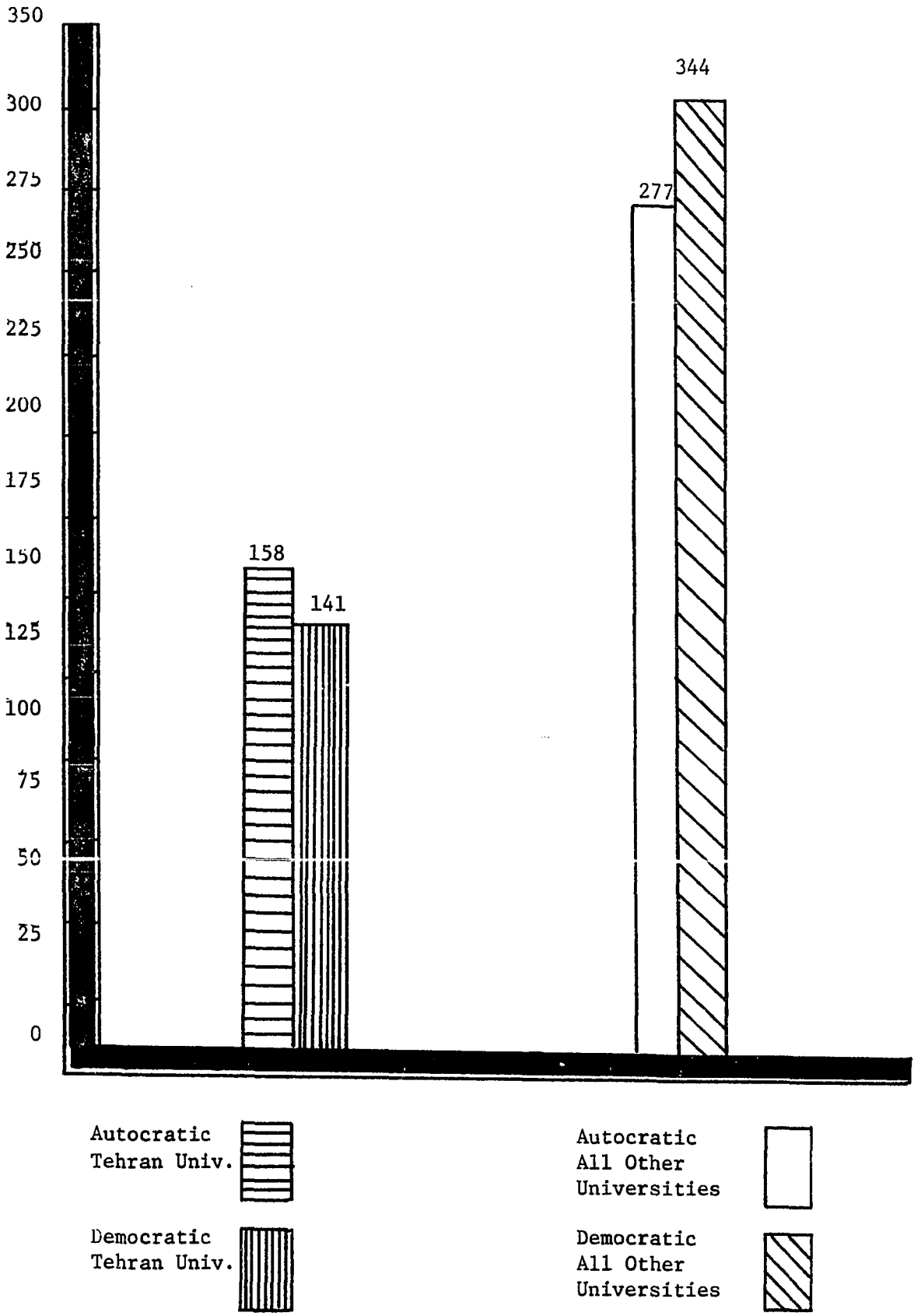

FIGURE 31

Comparison of the Number of responses to the combined Autocratic and combined Democratic choices between the Institutions located in the city of Tehran and the Universities located in other Provinces.

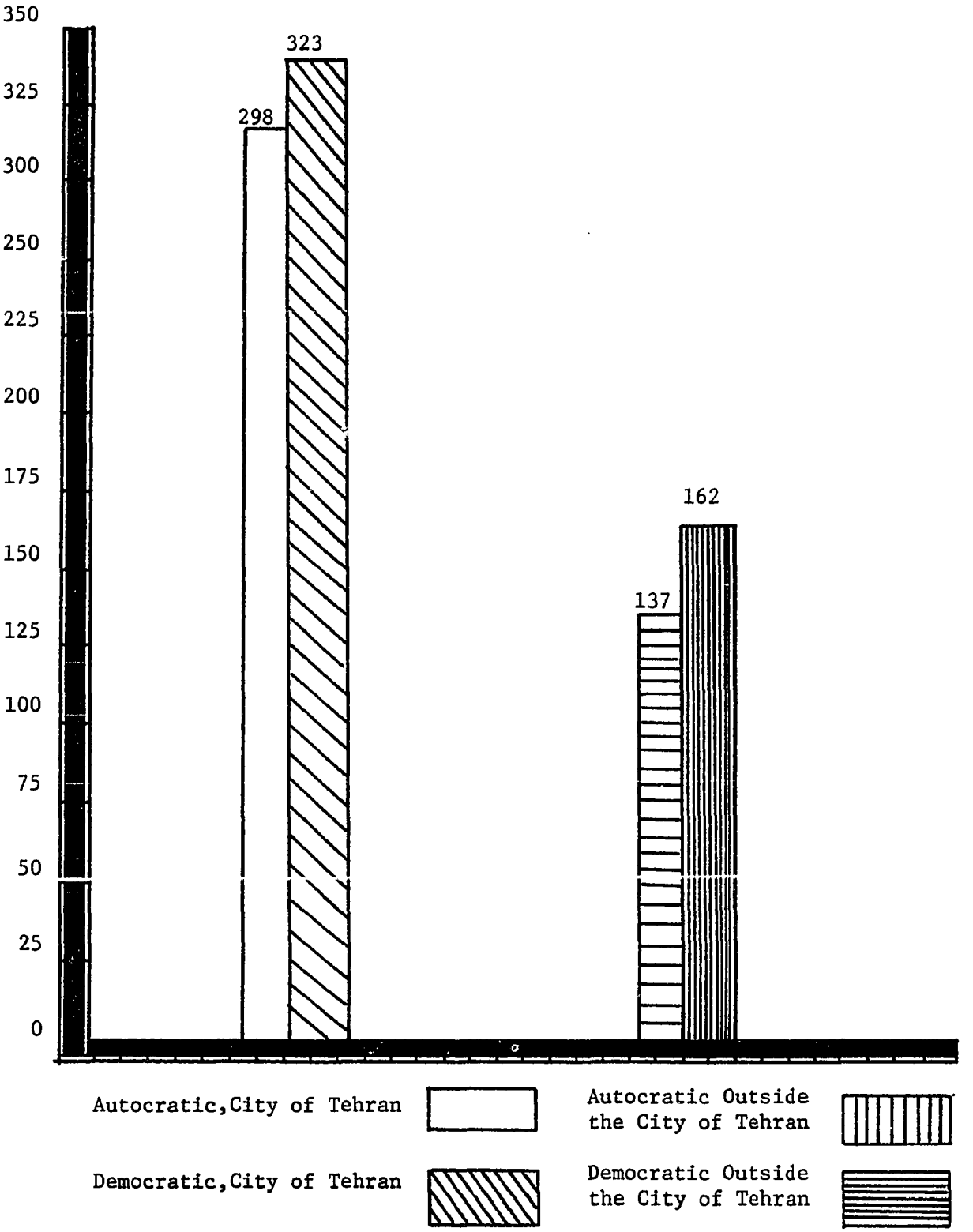

FIGURE 32

The chi-square statistic was computed and found to be 0.38045, which is not significant. Hence we may not reject H_4. We may not conclude that the responses are dependent upon this classification of the seven institutions.

Summary

On the basis of the statistical investigation of the four hypotheses, we may conclude that there is an overall trend toward democratic responses among the major administrative personnel at these seven institutions of higher education in Iran. It appears that this trend is most conspicuous in all but the largest institution (Tehran University) in this sample. That is, an administrator at Tehran University has a greater chance of responding in an autocratic manner than an administrator at one of the other six institutions. Tehran University, being the oldest school included in this study, and in view of its aristocratic formation, can be expected to have autocratic characteristics prevailing. The data supports this contention when Tehran University is compared to the other six institutions in the sample.

It became evident through the personal interviews held in the city of Tehran, that many administrators placed great emphasis in their hiring practices upon the prestige of an individual's degree. Prestige is attached to those who have obtained their degree(s) in Europe or the United States. This has contributed to some friction among the personnel of those institutions, particularly among those who have been educated in Iran. There is a tendency for administrators to favor those who are oriented toward Anglo-American culture. This favoritism has resulted in conflicts in various areas of education and in government ministries.

The author noted the following statements given by a majority of administrators: (1) Most administrators have a fear of telling the truth; (2) There is a rapid rate of turnover for administrative personnel, which results in insecurity. (3) university faculty planning is difficult because of the high mobility of university presidents. (4) The university president has limited authority in goal achievement and decision making.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Historical Background

Higher education has a long history in Iran. Medical science and veterinary medicine were the first subjects studied in formal institutions of higher learning. There are laws and regulations in the Avesta concerning these two branches of study, a summary of which is available in the Pahlavi language in Dinkard.[1] Later, more attention was paid to Law as a branch of study. This is revealed by an inscription dating from the Achaeminian Dynasty. Dar-ol-Fonun, founded in the middle of the nineteenth century, was the first European style Iranian higher education.

Education in Iran can be divided into five periods:

1. Pre-Islamic Period

In Achaemenid's time, young men were taught not only to ride and to shoot, but to know the value of truth and to distinguish between good and evil.[2] It is recorded that there was a research center in Gondishapur, Khuzistan, founded by nestorians who had fled from Byzantine persecution

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[1]Regional Cultural Institute. A Guide for Higher Education in Iran, Tehran, September, 1969, p. 1.

[2]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 202.

at the end of the Fifth century. They were permitted to set up a medical school in Persia. Gondishapur developed into a complete academic center during the Sassanian period. History, literature, philosophy, astronomy, geometry, and military science were the major courses introduced.[1]

2. Islamic Period

During this period (seventh century A.D. onwards), learned Iranian men played an important part in strengthening and developing Islamic theories. As part of this effort, they established "Baqdad, Dar-ol-Hakameth" institute, a school based on the Gondishapur University system, during the Abbassi Period, and "Baqdad Nezamiyeh School." The following subjects were taught in the latter school: arithmetic and geometry, trigonometry, physics, cosmology, biology, surgery, philosophy, logic and Islamic theories.

After the Arab conquest, education came to be the monopoly of priest and clergymen. It was based on the Koran. The school, in its institutional sense, did not exist during this period. Elementary education was confined to the Maktab, a single classroom supervised by a clergyman, receiving a small sum of money from parents. The curriculum consisted of the Koran by chanting its verses in unison, and reading and writing. Some simple arithmetic was also taught. The Madreseh was regarded as a kind of religious college, similar to a theological seminary.[2] There was no final examination nor any place for girls in this kind of school.

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[1]Ramesh Saghavi, German Cliford and Missen Davi. The Revolution of Shah and The People. (London: Transorient, 1967), p. 2.

[2]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 210.

Later, in the eleventh century, Nizam-ol-Mulk established higher educational and academic centers of a partly secular nature.[1] By 1962 there were 232 higher religious schools with an enrollment of 13,000 and 522 teachers.[2]

3. Constitutional Period

Article 19 of the Supplementary Fundamental Law provides for the establishment of schools at the expense of the state. It states:

> The institution of schools at the expense of the state and compulsory education shall take place according to the law relating to the Ministry of Education. All primary and higher schools are placed under the supreme direction and supervision of the Ministry of Education.[3]

The Ministry of Education, in its modern form, was set up in 1920, and later Parliament passed a law to organize a system of education. In 1922 there were only 440 primary schools with a total of 43,000 pupils, 46 secondary schools with 9,3000 students, and one college with 91 students. In 1924 there were about 50 foreign schools in Iran, 25 per cent of which were American missionary schools.

4. Reza Shah Period

In 1952 Reza Shah became Iran's ruler. By 1942, year of his reign, Iran had emerged from its medieval period and education had expanded rapidly. Reza Shah was greatly concerned with the need for extension and secularization of education. He also believed that women should share in its benefits. He established the first school for girls and the first teacher's

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[1]Saghavi. The Revolution of Shah and The People, p. 3.

[2]Wilber. Iran Past and Present, p. 211.

[3]Ministry of Information. Iran, p. 63.

college. In 1935 the first Iranian university, which is still in existence, the University of Tehran; the Shah stipulated that girls were to be admitted. By 1942, the year Reza Shah abdicated, the number of schools had increased 600 per cent from the 1924 figure. The number of institutes of higher education had increased from one to twelve.[1]

5. Mohamad Reza Shah Period

This period consists of contemporary educational system of Iran under present Shah, which is analysis as progressivism in educational reforms. It is analyzed in detail in Chapter IV of this text.

Iran is a country with many cultural traditions which have influenced its present educational system. However, the greatest force in shaping its educational system in modern times has been the impact of westernization and modernization. The ideas and attitudes of the Renaissance and the Reformation did not reach Iran until the beginning of the nineteenth century, when contact between Iran and the West became firmly established. The modern era began at this time with the establishment of Christian missionary schools in the 1830's. These schools introduced new European ideas and attitudes into Iran.

In 1851 Dar-ol-Fonun College was established in Tehran, the first modern educational institution. A new Iranian elite was created by the graduates of Dar-ol-Fonun College, private modern schools, and foreign missionary schools. In 1906, an Iranian parliament and a constitution were created. In 1911, the parliament ratified the Fundamental Law of Education and established a Ministry of Education to enforce it. Four

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[1]Saghavi. The Revolution of Shah and The People, p. 4.

principles for modern education were established:

1. The state would assume responsibility for and control of education.
2. The Ministry of Education would establish schools, control hiring, and approve curricula.
3. Education would be secular.
4. Primary education would be compulsory and free for all Iranians.

High Council of Education

The first High Council of Education was created in 1922, by an act of parliament, to advise the minister of education and make decisions on educational matters.

Ministry of Science and Higher Education

The Ministry of Science and Higher Education, established in 1968, has various responsibilities, which were formerly held by the Central Council of Universities. This ministry:

1. Handles educational planning.
2. Determines scientific, educationa, and research aims.
3. Develops a program of scientific research and higher education.
4. Determines the educational policy of the whole country.
5. Coordinates basic educational projects at all levels.
6. Supervises all universities, colleges, and other centers of higher education.
7. Establishes, equips, expands, and supervises the nation's scientific and research centers.

Budgets and Financing

Iranian education is financed from public funds--the central government's treasury, and the Plan Organization.

Expansion

Schools have always been a vehicle of social mobility in Iran. As a result, a school population explosion, in elementary, secondary, and higher levels, has been a serious problem. There are, in particular, too few technical schools. A deterioration in the quality of teaching in public schools, and a growth of private schools for the well-to-do has resulted.

Each year close to 40,000 students apply to institutions of higher education, but only about 10,000 obtain admission to the freshman class. Continuing official criticism of the educational system charges that, because Iranian secondary schools are mostly academic, because there are far too few technical schools, and because there is little inclination on the part of students to go to technical schools, the existing academic schools are very crowded, the standards are low, and too much pressure is being placed on the universities for admission.

At the apex of Iran's system of higher education stands the University of Tehran, which was founded in 1935 by incorporating into one body the existing colleges and other institutions of higher learning. This institution is an autonomous body governed by a board of trustees. The university has 16 faculties and several research institutes. A number of schools and institutes of higher learning are attached to Tehran University. They offer courses in numerous fields, such as medicine, engineering, agriculture, economics, political and social science, law, theology, psychology, philosophy, literature and arts. Admission is by entrance examination, in two stages, and a tuition fee ranging from $60 to $120 per academic year.

Three degrees are awarded in Iran's institutions of higher

education:

1. The licentiate (4 years of study).
2. The above-licentiate degree (one or two years beyond the licentiate).
3. The doctoral degree (two years of study beyond the above-licentiate, and a dissertation).

Doctoral degrees in field other than medicine, pharmacy, and dentistry, are available only at the University of Tehran.

Several public and private universities were founded after World War II:

University of Tabriz (1947)

University of Meshhad (1949)

University of Isfahan (1949)

University of Gondi-Shapour (1955)

Private

Pahlavi University (1960)

National University of Iran (1961)

Technical University of Arya Mehr (1965)

The Central Council of Universities has limited control over these universities. In addition to the universities, there are colleges, higher schools, and institutes.

Vocational and Technical Education

The three levels of technical education in Iran are:

1. Postprimary trade school program.
2. The second cycle of the technical and vocational secondary schools

3. The technical college, which admits students who have completed the academic secondary school program or who have graduated from technical secondary schools.

Teacher-Training Programs

Iranian law requires that elementary school teachers have a secondary school education and that secondary school teachers be graduates of a teachers college of university. A program of teacher training begun in 1934 was dissolved in 1962, since normal schools were unable to keep up with the demand for adequately trained teachers, and was replaced by centers where secondary school graduates could be ceritifed as primary school teachers in a one-year program. The National Teachers College was replaced by the Organization for the Training of Teachers and Educational Research, which was abandoned in 1967, and replaced by another national teachers college. This national teachers college dissolved in 1962, when the University of Tehran established the faculty of education, and completely reorganized teacher training.

Guiding and Actual Philosophy

Education in Iran is officially defined as a social institution in charge of training effective and good citizens. However, the high rate of illiteracy, and the continued growth of the middle class, have had a decisive effect on the actual role played by education institutions. More and more, schools and universities are regarded as springboards to social and economic success, rather than establishments responsible for character training.

Vocational Schools

There are two kinds of vocational schools.

1. The Amoozeshgah, designed to produce trained labor.
2. The Honarestan, for training foremen and specialized personnel.

The number of students attending these technical schools was 15,840 in the 1966-67 academic year. There are separate technical schools for boys and girls. In boys' technical schools, courses in welding, auto-mechanics, casting, construction, electricity, and metal work are offered. In girls' technical schools home economics, secretarial work, decoration, dyeing, nursing, and dressmaking are emphasized.

Educational Revolution

The twelfth point of Iran's White Revolution, a program of far-reaching social change, is concerned with the activities of higher education. This part of the Revolution was announced in 1968, and the High Conference of Ramsar was held in the presence of the Mohamad Reza Shah. At this conference the Charter of Iran's Educational Revolution at the Higher Level was compiled and issued.

The Charter pays special attention to the welfare of students and the growth of their individual talents and skills, in order to enable them to render more efficient services towards the development and progress of the country. At the same time, the Charter ensures coordination of primary and secondary education with higher education, and emphasizes the importance of basic research, as the ground work of all education and knowledge.

The Education Corps

The Education Corps was created for the purpose of realizing a part of Iran's national ideals. Financially supported by the Iranian government and supervised by the Ministry of Education, the program has done much to reduce illiteracy in Iran. However, despite the substantial efforts since the end of World War II, illiteracy continues to be a serious problem, estimated at 85 per cent in 1956, and 80 per cent in 1963. To improve literacy rates, the central government organized the Education Corps in 1962, whose philosophy and goals were endorsed by UNESCO and other international organizations.

Under this program, young male high school graduates who are twenty years old go into the army for four and one-half months of military training. They are then assigned to rural areas to provide literacy training. Thus the rise in literacy from 17 to 36 per cent among the 10-45 age group can be regarded as the result of co-operation between the people and their government.[1]

It is worthy of note that, in 1965, following the World Congress for the Campaign against Illiteracy, held in Tehran, Iran contributed $700,000 for the fight against illiteracy, a condition which affects some 700 million people in the world.

It was noted that due to the country's geographical setting, and due to the frequency and cultural diversity of both welcome and unwelcomed foreign invaders, Iran has been largely shaped by accidental confluence. Social interdependence with other nations has been essential to Iranian security.

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[1]Vali Okhowat. Education for Development Arya. An official publication issued by Iranian Students Society, Univeristy of Oklahoma, Fall 1968, p. 10.

While geography, culture, and historical trends were shaping the country's character, similar forces were operating to forge an educational system based on precedents set by European and Asiatic countries, and the United States. The impact of these influences has had decisive effect upon the success of higher education in meeting the needs of a developing country for reform, adequately trained manpower, industrial growth, and economic and administrative advancement.

In the past, Iran's large, bureaucratic, and autocratic government has required a considerable number of educated and trustworthy personnel, many of whom, through necessity, were imported from foreign countries to improve the existing schools and to establish institutions of higher learning for the training of the Iranian elite.

Since the 1906 Revolution, the Iranian people have officially committed themselves to a constitutionalized and democratic type of government. The social forces which led to this change were also active in the support of education, including the establishment of the University of Tehran.

The university movement, which began in the nineteenth century, has, for a large part of its history, been closely affiliated with religious institutions. Control of educational matters, which heretofore had been almost exclusively the responsibility of foreign missionaries and Moslem clergymen of the Madreseh, passed into secular hands.

Iran has had limited experience in democratic living, and this experience has been confined primarily to the political area of national life. Democracy requires educated citizens capable of the critical thinking which enables them to resolve controversies and conflicts through

mutual cooperation rather than through suppression of opposing views. This democratic end cannot be achieved through authoritarian means. The development of Iran's modern democratic structure can be traced to the social unrest and turmoil of the nineteenth century. The democratic movement came to a culmination in 1925, when Reza Shah Pahlavi was crowned. An essential of modern democratic organization is the maintenance of satisfactory human relations while coordinating the efforts of many persons engaged in a common task. The administrator needs to be familiar with the types of organization and with available resources for the improvement of education. Democratic administration will not be successful unless democratic attitudes and values underlie the processes of its operation. Democratic administration takes place when good human relations and effective group processes are successfully achieved.

It is evident that education is an invaluable part of the welfare and security of a society. Effective educational administration and financing arrangements are vital. Education shapes the capabilities and potentialities of the economic and political community, and the economic and political powers influence the qualtiy and character of education.

The growth of democracy in Iran or in any nation depends to a large degree on the education of its people. Therefore, education in Iran must be available to all, and must be of the highest quality possible.

The quality of education is dependent upon the quality of the teaching personnel. Formal education is the most fundamental method of social progress and reform. Hence, the teacher should be engaged in education rather than training.

In conclusion, no institution has a meaning or an existence in

isolation, but only in constant interaction with other institutions. The philosophy of education is complex, and, in its totality, extends well beyond the scope of this dissertation. However, as Theodore Brameld said:

> We all philosophize whenever we try to express the things we believe about our lives and about our relations to the rest of the world. Since all of us philosophize about education anyway, we should try to do as good job as we can.[1]

Recommendations or Proposals

1. Administrative control of higher education should be exercised at the provincial level through laws enacted by the Federal Legislature. The policies adopted by th provincial board of trustees and the fulfillment of administrative responsibilities at each institution of higher education should be more provincial.

2. To reduce inbreeding of policies and administrative personnel, each institution must be independent of Tehran University.

3. Provincial boards of trustees should be made up of those who are best qualified, without regard to the country in which they were educated or their place of residence.

4. The members of the Boards of trustees of all colleges and universities should be selected by popular vote.

5. Boards of Trustees should not invade the administrative responsibilities of the University Chancellor.

6. The University president should be responsible for co-ordinating all activities carried on by members of the professional staff.

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[1]Brameld. Patterns of Educational Philosophy, p. 43.

7. Each Faculty should develop its own written policies.

8. Each Faculty should be free to develop its own philosophy, as long as it is consistent with the principles of the Ministries of Education.

9. Curriculum should be developed which provide opportunities for the active participation of administrators, teachers, lay people, and students.

10. Teacher education programs should be expanded in order to meet the needs of teacher supply and demand.

11. The Ministry of Education should elevate normal schools from the secondary level to the college level.

12. Administrative structure must be decentralized so that each faculty and instructor can be given more freedom of action.

13. Teacher training colleges should be established in every province, to improve the quality and quantity of teachers.

14. The above proposals should be carried out in a manner consistent with democratic principles.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

استاد محتـــرم جنـــاب آقای

اینجانب غفور صادقی دانشجوی دانشگاه اوکلاهما که برای تکمیل مطالعات و اتمام رساله دکترای خود که در رشته ADMINISTRATION میباشد شخصـا به تهران آمده ام در فرصت بسیار مختصر و کوتاهی که دارم احتیاج به اطلاعات مندرج در پرسشنامه تقدیمی دارد از آنمقام استدعا دارد پس از تکمیل برگه مزبور را در پاکتی که به پیوست تقدیم است مرجوع فرمائید . قبلا از همکاری آنجناب سپاسگـــزاری مینماید .

باتقدیم احترامات فائقه

غفور صادقی

1350/5/22

_____
_____
_____

Dear Dr._____;

I am a graduate student in the University of Oklahoma in Norman, Oklahoma. I have come to Tehran to conduct a research for my doctoral dissertation, which is in the field of educational administration.

During the limited time which I will be in Iran, I need to obtain from you the information to complete the enclosed questionnaire.

I would appreciate it if you would complete the following pages and send them to me in the self-addressed and stamped envelope which I have provided.

I am deeply grateful to you for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Ghafur Sadeghy

Dear Colleague:

The items in this questionaire describe typical behaviours or conditions that occur within an institution. Please indicate to what extent each of these descriptions characterizes your institution. Please do not evaluate the items in terms of " good" or " bad" behavior , but read each item carefully and respond in terms of how well the statement describes your institution.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to secure a description of the different ways in which administrators perceive the conditions under which they work. The questionnaire will be examined to identify the conditions that have been described as typical by the majority of the administrators contacted. From this examination, there will be a determination of the nature of the administrative structure in higher education.

Thank you,

Kafur Sadeghy

همکار عزیز:

سئوالات این پرسشنامه نحوه اجرای امور اداری و اتخاذ تصمیم در مؤسسه را نوعا نشان میدهد . خواهشمند است مشخص بفرمائید تا چه اندازه کار مؤسسه شما با این فرم مطابقت دارد و دقت فرمائید که اغلام این پرسشنامه را از نظر خوب یا بد بودن طرز رفتار ارزیابی نفرمائید بلکه پس از مطالعه دقیق پرسشها کدام شق آنها بهتر مؤسسه شمارا توجیه میکنند .

منظور از این پرسشنامه اکتساب اطلاعاتیست برای نشان دادن شرائطی که بنظر اکثر مسئولین امور اداری برای ادارهٔ مؤسسه مناسب تشخیص داده شده از این بررسی ، ماهیت بنیاد اداری اخذ تصمیم در تعلیمات عالیه تعیین خواهد شد .

MARKING INSTRUCTIONS

Printed below is an example of a typical item:

۱ــ بندرت اتفاق میافتد	1. Rarely occurs
۲ــ بعضی وقتها اتفاق میافتد	2. Sometimes occurs
۳ــ اغلب اتفاق میافتـد	3. Often occurs
٤ــ خیلی زود بزود اتفاق می افتد	4. Very frequently occurs

SAMPLE:

Administrators make all decisions. 1 2 (3) 4

In this example the respondent circled alternative 3 to show that the condition described by this item " often occurs" at his institution. Of course, any of the other alternatives could be selected, depending upon how often the condition described by the item does, indeed, occur in your institution.

Please mark your responses clearly, as in the example. PLEASE BE SURE THAT YOU MARK EVERY ITEM. CIRCLE the numeral which most nearly approximates the frequency of the condition described. Do give the most accurate response that you can... Either a pencil or a pen may be used.

چطور علامت بگذارید

قسمت زیر : برای مثال استفاده خواهد شد .

۱ــ بندرت اتفاق میافتـــد
۲ــ بعضی وقتها اتفاق میافتـد
۳ــ اغلب اتفاق میافتـــد
٤ــ خیلی زود بزود اتفاق میافتد

مثال : تمام تصمیمات را رؤسای دانشگاه یا دانشکده میگیرند ٤ (۳) ۲ ۱

در مثال بالا همانطوریکه متوجه هستید خواننده برای جواب دورنمره ۳ را دایره کشیده است که میشود (اغلب اتفاق می افتد) البته جوابی که شما میدهید بستگی دارد که بنظر شما درموسسه شما کدام یك از حالات ٤ گانه فوق حقیقت دارد

خواهشمند است جواب را مانند مثال فوق بطور واضح مشخص فرمائید و دور یکی از چهارنمره کـــه روبروی هر سئوال نوشته شده است دایره بکشید تمنا میشود سعی بفرمائید که جواب شما هرچه میکنست صحیح تر باشد میتوانید از مداد یا خودنویس استفاده بفرمائیـد .

۱ــ بندرت اتفاق میافتـــد
۲ــ بعضی وقتها اتفاق میافتـد
۳ــ اغلب اتفاق میافتـــــد
٤ــ خیلی زود بزود اتفاق می افتـد

1. RARELY OCCURS
2. sometimes occurs
3. often occurs
4. very frequently occurs

1. Has the administration in your institution been such as to promote professional group spirit of lay and professional groups working on educational matters.

1 2 3 4

۱ــ آیا امور اداری موٴسسه تعلیماتی شما طوری هست که روحیه همکاری دستجمعی و اتکاء بر کار گروههارا برای پیش بردن هدفهای آن تشـویق نمـاید ؟

2. Has the administration created a working program and policies for the institution?

1 2 3 4

۲ــ آیـا موٴسســه شما برنامه کار و سیاست اجـرائی برای خود بوجود آورده است؟

3. Does the administration in your institution encourage teachers to offer freely their interpretation of wants and needs of all groups?

1 2 3 4

۳ــ آیا امور اداری موٴسسه شما استادان را تشویق به اینکه آزادانه عقاید خودرا در مورد خواسته ها و نیازهای اجتماعات مختلف بدهند مینماید ؟

4. Does the administrator always designate who should do what jobs within the institution?

1 2 3 4

٤ــ آیا در موٴسسه شما همیشه مدیر تعیین میکند که هر کس چه کاری را باید انجام دهد ؟

5. Does each member participate in group planning?

1 2 3 4

٥ــ آیـا هر عضوی در برنامه ریزی دستـه جمعی شرکت میکند ؟

۱ــ بندرت اتفاق میافتـــد	1. RARELY OCCURS
۲ــ بعضی وقتها اتفاق میافتد	2. sometimes occurs
۳ــ اغلب اتفاق میـافتـــد	3. often occurs
٤ــ خیلی زود بزود اتفاق میافتد	4. very frequently occurs

6. Are teachers encouraged to experiment with ideas and methods?
1 2 3 4

٦ــ آیا استادان تشویق میشوند که عقاید و متد های مختلف را آزمایش کنند ؟

7. Do administrators set down step by step procedures that the staff must follow?
1 2 3 4

۷ــ آیا مدیران موٴسسه شما برنامه مرحله بمرحلهای را پیش پای کارمندان میگذارند کـه از آن بایستی تبعیت شـود ؟

8. Do administrators allow for group evaluation of policies and programs within the school?
1 2 3 4

۸ــ آیا مـدیران اجازه سنجش دستجمعی و گروهی سیاست ها و برنامه های موٴسسه را میـــدهند ؟

9. Is the institutional setting structures so that faculty and students may freely and openly discuss with the administrators their wants and needs?
1 2 3 4

۹ــ آیا موٴسسه شما بنحوی هست که استادان و دانشجویان آزادانه و بطور صـــریح قـادر باشند در باره درخواست ها و نیازهای خود با امور اداری دانشگاه صحبت نماینـــد ؟

10. As an administrator do you solve all the problems related to the wants and nees within the institution?
1 2 3 4

۱۰ــ شما که متصدی امور این موٴسسه هستید آیا تمام مسائل و مشکلات مربوط بـــه درخواستها و نیازهای موٴسسه را خودتان بتنهائی حل میکنید ؟

۱ــ بندرت اتفاق می افتـد	1. RARELY OCCURS
۲ــ بعضی وقتها اتفاق میافتد	2. sometimes occurs
۳ــ اغلب اتفاق میافتـــد	3. often occurs
٤ــ خیلی زود بزود اتفاق می افتـد	4. very frequently occurs

11. Are problems within your school being approached through group action following group identified problems?
1 2 3 4

۱۱ــ وقتی در موسسه شما مشکلاتی پیش میآید آیا شما شخصا آنهارا حل میکنیـد یا از دیگر همکارانتان نیز کمك میگیـــرید ؟

12. Does planning in your institution reslut from group consideration of problems?
1 2 3 4

۱۲ــ آیا برنامه ریزی برای موسسه شما نتیجه ملاحظات دستجمعی افراد شما است؟

13. Are disciplinary measures standardized to fit situations?
1 2 3 4

۱۳ــ آیا مقررات انضباطی در سازمان شما استانداردی است که قابلیت انطباق با مقتضیات متفاوت را دارد ؟

14. is the community informed of present educational problems and needs?
1 2 3 4

۱٤ــ آیا جامعه در باره مسائل فرهنگی و نیازهای اجتماع امـروز آگاهی دارد ؟

15. Are teachers allowed freedom in individual decisions in the educational setting?
1 2 3 4

۱۵ــ آیا به معلمین اجازه داده میشود که شخصا در باره امور تعلیماتی موسســـه تصمیماتی بگیـرند ؟

۱ــ بندرت اتفاق میافتـــد	1. RARELY OCCURS
۲ــ بعضی وقتها اتفاق میافتد	2. sometimes occurs
۳ــ اغلب اتفاق میافتـــد	3. often occurs
٤ــ خیلی زود بزود اتفاق میافتـد	4. very frequently occurs

16. Do students, teachers, and administration work together in decision -making?

1 2 3 4

۱٦ــ آیا معلمین و دانشجویان و مقامات دانشگاهی در اتخاذ تصمیمات دانشگاهـی با یکدیگر همکاری میکنند ؟

17. Do administrators prefer to be in complete control of the institution setting?

1 2 3 4

۱۷ــ آیا در موٴسسه روئسا ترجیح میدهند شخصا تمام امور موٴسسه را کنترل نمایند ؟

18. Does group concensus have an impact on your administrative decisions?

1 2 3 4

۱۸ــ آیا نظر اکثریت در تصمیماتی که روئسای موٴسسه باید بگیرند موٴثر است ؟

19. Is there consistent uniformity and structure in the program in your institution?

1 2 3 4

۱۹ــ آیا برنامه‌ای که در موٴسسه شما اجرا میشود دارای بنیاد و هماهنگی اجزاء سازنده آن است ؟

20. Does the teaching staff exemplify a working philosophy portraying a basic British tradition?

1 2 3 4

آیا طرز کار و فلسفهٔ استادانه موٴسسه شما مانند طرز کار و عقاید استادان انگلیسی است؟

۱ــ بندرت اتفاق میافتـــد	1. RARELY OCCURS
۲ــ بعضی وقتها اتفاق میافتـد	2. sometimes occurs
۳ــ اغلب اتفاق میافتـــد	3. often occurs
٤ــ خیلی زود بزود اتفاق می افتـد	4. very frequently occurs

21. Does the teaching staff exemplify a working philosophy portraying a basic American tradition?

1 2 3 4

۲۱ــ آیا طرز کار و فلسفه استادان موٴسسه شما مانند طرز کار و عقاید استادان آمریکائی است؟

22. Would administrators be willing to accept a decision of a group and present it to a higher official, even if you did not totally agree with the proposed plan?

1 2 3 4

۲۲ــ آیا ممکن است که روئسا تصمیمات و عقاید ی را که از طرف گروه های تحت نظر آنهـا بآنها پیشنهاد شده قبول کنند و بمقامات عالیتر موٴسسه راهم از آنها آگاه سـازند باوجود اینکه با برنامه پیشنهاد شده از طرف گروه شخصا موافق نباشند ؟

23. Are your institutional objectives subject to continual change?

1 2 3 4

۲۳ــ آیـا هدفهای موٴسسه شما در معرض تغییر قـرار میگیـرند ؟

APPENDIX B

TABLE 4

ENROLLMENTS BY SEX, FACULTY AND INSTITUTION IN IRAN: 1969-1970

FACULTY COLLEGE		FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
A.	PUBLIC COLLEGES			
1.	TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGE	961	2136	3097
2.	TEHRAN POLYTECHNIC	14	798	812
3.	TECHNICAL TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGE (Narmak)	212	3201	3413
4.	COLLEGE OF COMMERCE	284	1067	1351
5.	REZAIEH AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE	16	150	166
6.	TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGE (LITERACY CORPS)	107	350	457
7.	BOYS TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	-	207	207
8.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES	97	146	243
9.	VANAK TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	60	336	396
10.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE FOR CHEMICAL INDUSTRIES	24	154	178
11.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE FOR AIR CONDITIONING AND COMPUTER PROGRAMMING	23	365	388
12.	TEXTILE TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	-	129	129
13.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE FOR DRAWING AND DRAFTING	-	37	37
14.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE FOR AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY, TABRIZ	-	61	61
15.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE FOR AGRICULTURE MACHINERY RASHT.	2	48	50
16.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE FOR AGRICULTURE MACHINERY AHVAZ.	6	94	100
17.	BOBOL TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	27	232	259
18.	TABRIZ TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	9	175	184
19.	KERMANSHAH TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	10	64	74
20.	AHVAZ TECHNICAL INSTITUTE.	5	128	133
21.	SHIRAZ TECHNICAL INSTITUTE.	11	216	227

SOURCE: Ministry of Science and Higher Education: Institute for Research and Planning in Education and Science: Higher Education Statistics in Iran School year 1969-70: Statistics & Information Unit Nov. 1970, Tehran pp. 19-14.

TABLE 4 - continued

FACULTY	COLLEGE	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
22.	MASHHAD TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	37	441	478
23.	ISFAHAN TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	12	354	366
24.	KERMAN TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	18	162	180
25.	TABRIZ COMMERCIAL INSTITUTE	10	109	119
26.	COLLEGE OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT	27	46	73
27.	BEHBAHANI TECHNICAL INSTITUTE	-	80	80
28.	ARTS TEACHER TRAINING INST.	10	59	69
29.	INSTITUTE OF DIETETICS	93	98	191
30.	COLLEGE OF TOPOGRAPHY	18	108	126
31.	COLLEGE OF TELEVISION AND CINEMA	20	116	136
32.	HIDRO-SCIENCE INSTITUTE	2	111	113
33.	INSTITUTE OF STATISTIC	35	224	259
34.	TEACHERS TRAINING CENTER FOR GIRLS	95	-	95
35.	MUSIC SCHOOL	9	20	29
36.	COLLEGE OF DRAMATIC ARTS	60	193	223
37.	COLLEGE OF DECORATIVE ARTS	93	157	250
38.	ABADAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, NATIONAL OIL COMPANY.	8	85	93
39.	SCHOOL OF ACCOUNTING, NATIONAL OIL COMPANY.	67	937	704
40.	NURSING COLLEGE, NATIONAL OIL COMPANY.	114	-	114
41.	REZASHAH KABIR NURSING COLLEGE	144	-	114
42.	JORJANY NURSIN COLLEGE MASHHAD	82	5	87
43.	MEHR AIN NURSING COLLEGE ISFAHAN	82 40	-	40
44.	TWENTY-FIVE SHAHRIVAR NURSING COLLEGE RASHT	86	-	86
45.	RAZI NURSING COLLEGE KERMAN	70	-	70
46.	TWENTY-FIVE SHAHRIVAR NURSING COLLEGE, KERMANSHAH	86	-	86
47.	FIROOZGAR NURSING COLLEGE	109	-	109
48.	SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICES	106	126	232
49.	CIVIL AVIATION TRAINING INSTITUTE.	-	37	37
50.	COLLEGE OF POST, TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE.	2	75	77
51.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE, NATIONAL IRANIAN RAILWAYS	-	100	100

TABLE 4 - continued

FACULTY	COLLEGE	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
52.	TECHNICAL INSTITUTE, MINISTRY OF ROADS	-	152	152
53.	COLLEGE OF HEALTH TECHNICIANS, (VARAMIN)	-	30	30
54.	COLLEGE OF LABORATORY TECHNICIANS, MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH: TEHRAN	39	103	142
55.	COLLEGE OF LABORATORY TECHNICIANS, MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH, BOBOL	9	18	27
56.	COLLEGE OF LABORATORY TECHNICIANS, MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH, ISFAHAN	3	19	22
57.	COLLEGE OF LABORATORY TECHNICIANS, MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH, TABRIZ.	3	17	20
58.	COLLEGE OF LABORATORY TECHNICAINS, MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH, SHIRAZ.	8	16	24
59.	COLLEGE OF FORESTRY AND PASTURAGE, GORGAN.	-	337	337
60.	COLLEGE OF FISHERIES.	-	46	46
	TOTAL	3384	14145	17529

B. PRIVATE COLLEGES:

1.	COLLEGE OF LITERATURE AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE	378	386	964
2.	ACCOUNTING COLLEGE	320	1731	2051
3.	GIRLS COLLEGE	2551	-	2551
4.	TRANSLATION COLLEGE	605	842	1447
5.	DEMAVAND COLLEGE	264	-	264
6.	IRANZAMIN COLLEGE	51	24	75
7.	PARS COLLEGE	500	539	1039
8.	COLLEGE OF PUBLIC RELATIONS	348	706	1054
9.	BANKING COLLEGE	49	419	468
10.	AMERICAN COLLEGE FOR NURSING (TABRIZ)	40	-	40
11.	COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE HAMEDAN	15	190	205
12.	ART TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR BOYS	-	84	84

TABLE 4 - continued

FACULTY	COLLEGE	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL
13.	ART TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.	53	-	53
	TOTAL	5174	5174	10295
	SUB-TOTAL (A + B) = TO	8558	19266	27824

TABLE 5

ENROLLMENTS BY SEX AND FACULTIES OF TEHRAN UNIVERSITY IN IRAN: 1969-70[1]

FACULTY/COLLEGE	ENROLLMENTS F	M	T
UNIVERSITY OF TEHRAN TOTAL	4203	12876	17079
1. FACULTY OF LITERATURE AND HUMANITIES	1078	1833	2911
2. FACULTY OF ECONOMICS	143	914	1057
3. FACULTY OF THEOLOGY	---	620	620
4. FACULTY OF SANITATION	22	97	119
5. FACULTY OF MEDICINE AND RELATED INSTITUTIONS	794	1739	2533
6. FACULTY OF FORESTRY	11	157	168
7. FACULTY OF LAW AND POLITICAL SCIENCE	281	1517	1798
8. FACULTY OF PHARMACY	162	182	344
9. FACULTY OF VETERINARY MEDICINE	73	192	265
10. FACULTY OF DENTISTRY & RELATED INSTITUTIONS	146	238	384
11. FACULTY OF SCIENCE	370	753	1123
12. FACULTY OF PUBLIC & BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION	159	826	985
13. FACULTY OF EDUCATION	357	564	921
14. ENGINEERING FACULTY	44	1071	1115
15. FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE	75	556	631
16. FACULTY OF FINE ARTS	257	795	1052
17. EVENING CLASSES	174	590	764
18. INSTITUTE FOR TRAINING AND RESEARCH IN COOPERATIVES	48	181	229
19. CENTER FOR ADVANCED INTERNATIONAL STUDIES	9	51	60

[1]Ministry of Science and Higher Education, p. 10.

TABLE 6

STATISTICS ON PAHLAVI UNIVERSITY (SHIRAZ)

PAHLAVI UNIVERSITY	PROFESSORS	LECTURERS	ASSISTANT PROFESSORS	TEACHERS & TEACHER'S AID	NURSES AND NURSES' AID MEDICAL AID AND L.P.N.	DOCTORS	TECHNICIANS	ADMINISTRATORS	FULL TIME EMPLOYEES	TOTAL	STUDENT
FACULTY OF MED. AND RELATED INSTITUTIONS	13	24	54	21	-	-	69	35	57	273	229
NAZAMI HIGHER VOCATIONAL SCHOOL OF NURSING	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	6	12	28	87
SADI HOSPITAL	-	-	-	-	197	3	46	58	145	449	-
NAZAMI HOSPITAL	-	-	-	-	110	24	114	73	161	482	-
KHALILY HOSPITAL	-	-	-	-	11	7	3	10	27	58	-
HEALTH CLINIC	-	-	-	1	3	3	-	4	4	15	-
FACULTY OF LITERATURE & SCIENCE	8	27	31	74	-	-	47	73	44	304	1703
FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE	1	8	22	36	-	-	32	19	37	155	73
FACULTY OF ENGINEERING	-	9	16	17	-	-	24	29	24	119	178
STUDENT SERVICES	-	-	-	18	-	25	38	-	145	226	-
OFFICE OF FINANCE AND ADMINISTRATION	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	87	76	177	-
CENTRAL ORGANIZATION	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	48	14	68	-
TOTAL	22	68	123	174	323	62	394	442	746	2354	2270

*Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 90 (Farsi).

TABLE 7

THE CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FACULTY OF TABRIZ UNIVERSITY

	Year of Establishment	
	Iranian Calendar	Gregorian Calendar
Faculty of Medicine	1326	1947
Faculty of Letters & Humanities	1326	1947
(*) School of Midwifery	1327	1948
Faculty of Education	1329	1950
Faculty of Pharmacy and Medical Tech.	1329	1950
Faculty of Agriculture	1334	1955
Faculty of Engineering	1337	1958
School of Nursing	1339	1960
Faculty of Science	1342	1963
Research Institute of History and Culture of Iran (Attached to the Faculty of Letters & Humanities)	1343	1964
Research Institute of Social Sciences and the Humanities (Attached to the Faculty of Letters & Humanities)	1344	1965
Junior College of Technology	1347	1968
Junior College of Agriculture	1348	1969

*Now incorporated into the School of Nursing.

[1]Tabriz University Publication of 1970, p. 5

TABLE 8

UNIVERSITY OF TABRIZ: ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-1970

COLLEGES AND RELATED SCHOOLS	PROFESSORS	LECTURERS	ASSISTANT PROFESSORS	TEACHERS & TEACHER'S AID	ASSISTANTS	DOCTORS	NURSES MEDICAL'S AID AND L.P.N.	TECHNICIANS	ADMINISTRATORS	CUSTODIANS	TOTAL	STUDENTS
FACULTY OF MEDICINE	29	8	-	36	5	18	20	6		72	213	852
PAHLAVI HOSPITAL	1	13	-	-	18	62	6	10	4	227	341	-
SHAHPOUR HOSPITAL	-	2	4	-	7	18	2	2	4	113	152	-
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND HUMANITIES	9	5	-	25	-	-	-	6	6	36	87	1140
JUNIOR COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	3	247
FACULTY OF SCIENCE AND PHARMACY	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	78	-	80	264
FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE	5	4	2	20	-	1	1	4	6	51	94	329
FACULTY OF SCIENCE	-	2	-	21	-	-	-	1	12	5	41	336
FACULTY OF ENGINEERING	-	-	-	22	-	-	-	11	9	37	79	263
CENTRAL ORGANIZATION	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	245	32	277	-
TOTAL	44	34	6	128	30	29	99	41	383	573	1367	3431

[1]Ministry of Education No. 1, p. 63 (Farci).

TABLE 9

UNIVERSITY OF MASHHAD: ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-1970

COLLEGES AND RELATED SCHOOLS	PROFESSORS	LECTURERS	ASSISTANT PROFESSORS	TEACHERS & TEACHER'S AIDS	ASSISTANTS	NURSES MEDICAL'S AID AND L.P.N.'S	TECHNICIANS	ADMINISTRATION	CUSTODIANS	TOTAL	STUDENTS
FACULTY OF MEDICINE	27	14	46	24	36	42	3	24	115	331	578
FACULTY OF DENTISTRY	-	-	7	10	18	6	5	10	8	64	117
COLLEGE OF LETTERS AND HUMANITIES	9	1	22	8	-	-	-	31	19	90	876
FACULTY OF POLITICAL SCIENCE	5	-	3	1	-	-	-	6	7	22	220
FACULTY OF SCIENCE	-	-	10	52	-	-	-	17	20	105	836
CENTRAL ORGANIZATION	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50	40	90	-
TOTAL	41	15	88	69	54	48	14	138	209	702	2627

[1]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 78.

TABLE 10

STATISTICS ON STUDENTS OF ARYA-MEHR: ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

FACULTIES	STUDENTS			ACCEPTED STUDENTS FOR ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70		
	GIRLS	BOYS	TOTAL	GIRLS	BOYS	TOTAL**
FACULTY OF INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING	10	80	90	4	46	50
FACULTY OF MATHEMATICS	5	83	88	1	38	39
FACULTY OF CHEMISTRY	12	56	68	4	32	36
FACULTY OF PHYSICS	4	92	96	2	35	37
FACULTY OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING	11	407	418	-	65	65
FACULTY OF METALLURGICAL ENGINEERING	3	153	156	1	32	33
FACULTY OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING	1	411	412	-	73	73
FACULTY OF CHEMICAL ENGINEERING	13	189	202	3	33	36

TABLE 11

UNIVERSITY OF ISFAHAN: ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-1970

COLLEGES AND RELATED FIELDS	PROFESSORS	LECTURERS	ASSISTANT PROFESSORS	TEACHERS & TEACHER'S AID	ASSISTANT	NURSES MEDICAL'S AIDS. L.P.N.	TECHNICIANS	ADMINISTRATORS	CUSTODIANS	TOTAL	STUDENTS
FACULTY OF MEDICINE	6	7	12	35	10	-	11	17	54	152	587
SCIENCE AND RELATED MEDICAL FIELDS	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	11	5	21	81
KHORSHIDY HOSPITAL	7	5	12	-	6	78	10	8	117	243	-
SORIA HOSPITAL	9	16	9	-	10	102	10	9	140	305	-
SCHOOL OF NURSING	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	10	26	30
SCHOOL OF L.P.N.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	9	17	53
FACULTY OF PHARMACY	1	5	10	7	10	-	-	12	8	59	146
FACULTY OF LITERATURE	2	3	19	8	5	-	6	10	50	97	1446
FACULTY OF SCIENCE	1	8	19	44	6	-	-	16	43	137	671
FACULTY OF FINE ART	-	-	5	5	-	-	-	7	5	22	177
TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOL	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	7	6	17	240
CENTRAL ORGANIZATION	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	75	87	162	-
TOTAL	26	44	95	116	47	180	37	179	534	1285	3431

[1]Ministry of Education, No. 1, p. 71 (Farci).

TABLE 12

UNIVERSITY OF GUNDI-SHAPOUR: ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

FACULTIES AND RELATED FIELDS	PROFESSORS	LECTURERS	ASSISTANT PROFESSORS	TEACHING STAFF & THEIR AIDS	DOCTORS NURSES MEDICAL AIDS AND L.P.N.'S	TECHNICIANS	ADMINISTRATORS	CUSTODIANS	TOTAL	STUDENTS
FACULTY OF MEDICINE AND RELATED FIELDS	4	3	143	13	1	26	21	63	274	401
GUNDI-SHAPOUR HOSPITAL	-	-	-	-	170	2	51	128	351	-
NEW HOSPITAL	-	-	-	-	173	-	28	107	308	-
NURSING SCHOOL	-	-	-	13	-	-	11	22	46	21
FIRST YEAR UNIVERSITY COLLEGE	1	-	-	23	-	21	23	39	107	320
FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE	1	3	3	42	3	24	23	221	320	219
HIGHER TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOL	-	-	-	23	-	-	9	9	41	87
CENTRAL ORGANIZATION	3	-	-	6	-	-	48	80	137	-
TOTAL	9	6	146	121	346	73	214	669	1584	1048

[1]Ministry of Education publication No. 1, p. 81 (Farci).

TABLE 13

CONDITION OF UNIVERSITIES AND INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN IRAN IN RESPECT TO THEIR NUMBER OF STUDENTS DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1968-69

NAME OF UNIVERSITIES OR INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN IRAN	YEAR IN WHICH FOUNDED	NUMBER OF STUDENT
1. Tehran University	1934	13,100
2. Tehran Teachers Training College	1928	1,845
3. P.T.T. Technical College	1939	83
4. Abadan Faculty of Oil	1939	158
5. Tabriz University	1947	3,428
6. Mashad University	1948	2,615
7. Isfahan University	1950	3,400
8. Jondi-Shapur University (Ahvaz)	1955	1,099
9. Tehran Polytechnic	1958	912
10. Tehran School of Commerce	1958	1,108
11. National University (Tehran)	1960	5,103
12. Narmak Technical College (Tehran)	1962	2,393
13. Pahlavi University	1963	2,282
14. Literacy Corps	1964	535
15. Arya Mehr University of Technology	1966	1,173
TOTAL		44,337
Other Colleges of Higher Education		5,274
Grand Total		49,611

Of the above 49,611 students, 14,861 were female, and of the 8,808 students who were undertaking Post-Graduate-Diploma courses, 769 were studying Medical Assistance, 4,217 Industrial Engineering Assistance, 448 Agricultural Engineering Assistance, 2,635 Educational Training and Literature and 840 other branches of study.[2]

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[1] Iran Almanac 1970 and Book of Facts 9th Edition, Published by the Echo of Iran, Echoprint, Tehran, Iran 1970, pp. 514-515.

[2] Ibid.

TABLE 14

A BRIEF INFORMATION ABOUT THE UNIVERSITIES IN IRAN IN THE ACADEMIC YEAR OF 1969-70

Description	Number of Students			Number of Professors & Teachers			Number of Administrative Personnel			Number of the Graduates (1968-69)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
University of Tehran	12876	4203	17079	622	94	716	...	...	...	...	...	3194
Arya Mehr Industrial University	1471	59	1530	150	7	157	...	...	...	-	-	-
Technical Colleges of Tehran	6284	618	6902	175	6	181	...	...	...	822	105	927
Commercial Colleges of Tehran	4920	1360	6280	31	4	35	...	...	...	560	88	648
Teacher Training College	2486	1068	3554	77	14	91	...	...	...	353	54	407
Other Colleges and Institutes of Higher Edu.	2529	4689	7218	77	63	140	...	...	...	413	991	1404
National University of Tehran	455	1399	5554	135	49	184	...	...	...	953	147	400
Total of Universities & Colleges of Tehran	34721	13396	48117	1267	237	1504	...	...	...	...	...	6980
University of Tabriz	3545	781	4326	295	24	319	...	...	...	344	52	396
Agricultural College of Rezaeiih	150	16	166	15	2	17	...	...	...	-	-	-
University of Ahwaz	964	286	1250	77	5	82	...	...	...	107	9	116
University of Meshed	2522	473	2995	146	18	164	...	...	...	262	61	323
University of Isfahan	2890	704	3594	174	16	190	...	...	...	487	116	603
Pahlavy University	2630	486	3116	282	22	304	...	...	...	160	18	178

TABLE 14 continued

Description	Number of Students			Number of Professors & Teachers			Number of Administrative Personnel			Number of the Graduates (1968-69)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Other Colleges and Institutes of Higher Education in the Provincial Cities	842	575	1417	69	50	119	...	...	...	124	138	262
Institutes of Technology in the Provincial Cities	1975	137	2112	40	-	40	...	...	...	256	-	256
Grand Total	50239	16854	67093	2365	374	2739	...	...	...	...	...	9114
Public	36762	9736	46598	1722	237	1959	...	...	...	...	...	6959
Private	13379	7118	20495	463	137	780	...	...	...	...	...	2155

TABLE 15

EXISTING VOCATIONAL TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS

RESPONSIBLE AGENCY	NAME OF CENTER	OBJECTIVE	TRAINING PERIOD
Ministry of Economy	Esfahan Textile center	Training of textile technicians.	3 years
	Standards Institute	Pre-service industrial mining and chemical training	3, 6 and 12 months
Ministry of Health	Ministry of Health technical school	Training of administrative personnel, assistant nurses, nurses, sanitary engineering assistants, laboratory technician assistants, specialized health technicians (vaccinators, etc.)	1-2 years
	Food and Nutrition Institute	Training of nutritionists	3-4 years
Ministry of P.T.T.	P.T.T. Technical School	Training of Technicans, assistant engineers and engineers.	1- and 2-years
Ministry of Finance	Institute of finance	Training of Ministry of finance staff.	2- years
Ministry of Water and Power	-	Training of water and power technicians	-
Ministry of Agriculture	Institute of Forestry	Training of forestry and pasture technicians at post secondary school level	2 years

Fourth Development Plan, op. cit., p. 277-279.

TABLE 15 continued

RESPONSIBLE AGENCY	NAME OF CENTER	OBJECTIVE	TRAINING PERIOD
Ports and Navigation Organization	Training Department of ports and Navigation Organization	Pre-service training of merchant marine personnel training of electrical, engine-room and communication technicians and cargo handling specialists	9 to 12 months
Iranian State Railways	Railway Technical School	Training of Technicians REQUIRED FOR LOCOMOTIVE OPERATION, COMMUNICATIONS AND ACCOUNTING	6 months to 2 years
Ministry of Roads (Civil Aviation Department)	Institute of Civil Aviation	Training of Engineering, Radio engineering and communication engineering and flight control specialists	2 years
Civil Aviation Club	Special Courses		
Imperial Organization for Special Services	School for the Blind (work and training institute)	Training & vocational rehabilitation of the Blind	3 years
Red Lion and Sun Society	Children's homes, Vocational school nursing and assistant nursing schools	Training of nurses and assistant nurses and technicians in the fields of mechanics, electricity machine work and welding	1 to 3 years
Tobacco Monopoly	Tobacco Institute	Training of tobacco cultivation experts	2 years
Imperial Iranian Armed Forces (Air Forces)	Special School		
Imperial Iranian Armed Forces (Naval Forces)	Non-commissioned Officers School	Training of specialized personnel in the fields of engine work, rudder electricians, and artillery	2 years

TABLE 15 continued

RESPONSIBLE AGENCY	NAME OF CENTER	OBJECTIVE	TRAINING PERIOD
Banking Institution	Institute of Banking		
Iranian National Tourist Organization	Tourism Training Center	Training of administrators and tourist guides	4 months to 1 yr.
Plan Organization	Advanced School of Cartography	Training of draftsmen and cartographers	2 years
The Cartographic Organization	Cartographic School	-	-
Department General of Meteorology	Meterological School	Training of Meteorologists and draftsmen	1 year & 2 years
	Institute of Animal Husbandry & Veterinary Science	Training of Animal husbandry technicians at post secondary school level	2 years
The Imperial Armed Forces (Ground Force)	Army Vocational School	Vocational training of soldiers and specific training in the fields of mechanics, electricity, bricklaying, carpentry, metalwork, shoemaking, tailoring, plumbing, welding	3 months
	Military Industries Organization	Explosive manufacturing plant project	
National Iranian Oil Company	Abadan Institute of Technology	Training of specialized accountants	-
	Vocational Schools	Training of nurses, petroleum technicians	-

TABLE 15 continued

RESPONSIBLE AGENCY	NAME OF CENTER	OBJECTIVE	TRAINING PERIOD
Ministry of Interior	Garmsar Community Development School	Training of village community workers	4 1/2 and 6 months
The Society for protection of Mother and Child	Nursing Assistant School	Training of Instructors for Kindergartens and nurseries	2 years
Tehran Municipality	Tehran Training Organization	Training of carpenters, tailors, and shoemakers.	short periods
School of Social Services	Institute of Social Services	Training of social workers and assistant social workers	
Game Council of Iran	Mobile training units	Orientation and training of game wardens and hunters	3 months
Iranian Cotton Organization	Courses for cotton specialists	Training of cotton specialists for cotton mills and laboratories	2 years
Gazvine Development Organization	-	Training of extension workers in home economics	-
Fisheries Organization	Ichthyological Institute	Training of ichthyologists and laboratory workers, as well as provision of technical personnel required by the Fisheries Organization	-
Iran Statistical Center	Special courses	Training of Statisticians for Government and non-Government organizations	-
Customs Administration	Courses for employees		

TABLE 16

STATISTICS RELATING TO IRANIAN STUDENTS,,AND THEIR FIELDS OF STUDY, RESIDENT IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN 1969-1970

(CONTINUE NEXT P.)

NO	FIELS OF STUDY / NAME OF COUNTRY	TOTAL F.	TOTAL MALE	TOTAL TOTAL	% OF THE GROUPS	ENGINEERING F.	ENGINEERING M.	MEDICINE F.	MEDICINE M.	LETERATURE F.	LETERATURE M.	SCIENCE F.	SCIENCE M.	ECONOMICS F.	ECONOMICS M.
	PER CENTAGE P	8.31	91.69	100		0.04	22.38	2.29	22.01	0.83	1.59	0.89	7.22	0.21	2.12
	TOTAL	1480	16337	17817*	100	95	3988	408	3937	148	283	185	1286	38	378
1	UNITED STATES	560	6676	7236	40.61	21	998	45	570	33	14	42	356	16	132
2	GERMANY	257	4770	5027	28.22	3	1605	202	2013	1	48	30	70	1	102
3	AUSTRIA	112	1248	1360	7.63	7	523	52	365			11	79	4	25
4	ITALY	52	460	512	2.87	10	281	6	55	15	21	3	34	1	7
5	FRANCE	198	968	1166	6.55	-	38	33	238	44	103	43	308	5	29
6	SWITZERLAND	96	327	423	2.38	9	57	17	116	28	8	20	42	4	17
7	BELGIUM	21	120	141	0.80	4	35	3	26	3	4	1	18	3	7
8	SWEDEN	-	45	45	0.25	-	6	-	6	-	1	-	14	-	4
9	HOLLAND	2	39	41	0.23	1	13	1	14	-	2	-	2	-	1
10	DENMARK	-	13	13	0.07	-	8	-	1	-	1	-	1		
11	TURKY	89	999	1088	6.11	38	276	28	344	4	16	1	3	-	8
12	INDIA	8	79		0.49	-	25	3	4	2	12	3	22	-	14
13	PAKISTAN	10	74	84	0.47	1	6	6	39	-	5	-	7	1	6
14	IRAQ	21	104	125	0.70	-	22	-	21	11	33	-	5	1	10
15	LEBANON	28	96	124	0.69	-	10	4	4	3	2				
16	JAPAN	4	9	13	0.07	1	6	1	3			1	-		
17	CANADA	12	234	246	1.38	-	63	5	104	-	2	3	21	-	7
18	BRAZIL	-	5	5	0.03	-	4					-	, 1		
19	AUSTRALIA	-	4	4	0.02	-	4								
20	POLAND	-	7	7	0.04	-	2	-	4					-	1
21	YUGOSLAVI	1	4	5	0.03	-	3			1	-				
22	GREECE	-	2	2	0.01	-	1								
23	SYRIA	7	24	31	0.17	-	1	2	6	3	3	-	1	2	7
24	FINLAND	-	3	3	0.02	-		-	1			-	2		
25	AFGHANISTAN	-	3	3	0.02	-		-	1						1
26	PHILIPPINES	-	2	2	0.01	-	1	-	1					-	
27	CHINA	-	4	4	0.02	-		-	1	-	3				
28	ARABIA	-	5	5	0.03	-				-	5				
29	NORWAY	2	2	4	0.02	-									
30	U.S.S.R.	-	11	11	0.06	-									

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Ministry of Science and Higher Education; Statistics on Iranian Students in Iran and Foreign Countries Academic year 1969-1970: Bureau of Statistic and Investigation: Office of Students Affairs, Tehran, November 1970 PP.73-76 (FARCY)

TABLE16 CONTINUED.

FIELDS OF STUDY / SEX	LAW F	LAW M	AGRICULTURE F	AGRICULTURE M	MUMANITIES F	MUMANITIES M	ART F	ART M	EDUCATION F	EDUCATION M	ADMINISTRATIO AND MANAGMENT F	ADMINISTRATIO AND MANAGMENT M	MISCELLANEOUS F	MISCELLANEOUS M
PER CENTAGE	0.26	2.00	0.02	4.24	0.21	0.88	0.52	1.12	0.19	0.16	0.09	0.46	2.27	27.30
TOTAL	47	355	4	756	37	156	92	199	33	62	15	81	450	4856
1- UNITED STATES	2	46	1	65	23	51	11	25	21	23	8	49	337	434
2- GERMANY	2	7	1	432	3	54	2	23	1	5	5	19	6	87
3- AUSTRIA	10	131	-	38			23	32					5	55
4- ITALY	1	3	-	11	-	3	16	42					-	3
5- FRANCE	12	79	-	21	1	12	36	66	7	9			17	65
6- SWITZERLAND	15	52	-	4	1	7			2	22			-	3
7- BELGIUM	3	8	-	3	1	3	3	7						
8- SWEDEN	-	1	-	1	-		-	1					-	4
9- HOLLAND			-	1	-		-	1						2
10- DENMARK			-	2										
11- TURKY	-	11	2	133			1	-			2	8	13	200
12- INDIA	-	1	-	1										
13- PAKESTAN	1	1	-	10	1	-								
14- IRAQ	-	4			7	6	-	1	2	2				
15- LEBANON			-	21									21	89
16- JAPAN	1	-												
17- CANADA	-	4	-	7	-	2			-	1	-	5	4	18
18- BRAZIL														
19- AUSTRALIA														
20- POLAND	-													
21- YUGOSLAVIA		1												
22- GREECE														
23- SYRIA		5												
24- FINLAND	-	1					-	1						
25- AFGHANISTAN	-		-											
26- PHILPPIN S				1										
27- CHINA														
28- ARABIA														
29- NORWAY													2	2
30- U.S.S.R.													-	11

* Ibd.

TABLE 17

TOTAL OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOL ENROLLMENT BY SEX AND REGION FOR THE PERIOD 1960-61 TO 1970-71[1]

SEX / YEAR	VOCATIONAL & TECHNICAL BOYS	VOCATIONAL & TECHNICAL GIRLS	VOCATIONAL & TECHNICAL TOTAL	TOTAL BOYS	TOTAL GIRLS	TOTAL TOTAL	PERCENTAGE V. & T. SEC. EDUCATION TO TOTAL SEC. EDUCATION
1960-61	8.598	750	9.348	208.195	83.081	219.276	3.4%
1961-62	8.213	904	9.117	214.405	95.567	309.972	2.9%
1962-63	8.434	764	9.198	236.907	99.147	336.054	2.7%
1963-64	8.927	1540	10.467	264.783	114.753	369.536	2.8%
1964-65	10.597	2297	12.894	303.326	135.970	439.296	2.9%
1965-66	12.643	2581	15.224	350.189	158.770	508.950	2.9%
1966-67	13.271	2685	15.956	407.696	187.976	595.672	2.6%
1967-68	13.265	3008	16.273	469.350	220.981	690.331	2.3%
1968-69	15.358	3701	19.059 (1)	542.917	257.649	800.566	2.3%
1969-70	(2)	(2)	32.552 (1)	(2)	(2)	920.778 (3)	3.5%
1970-71	(2)	(2)	50.464 (1)	(2)	(2)	1.054.291 (3)	4.7%

NOTES:
(1) Includes Technological Institutes.
(2) Figures not available.
(3) Figure projected by 14.5% (See Table) growth rate.
Reference: (a) Educational Statistics in Iran, Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, 1970 (Farsi).
(b) Education in Future in Iran Shahpur Rassekh (Farsi).

[1] Rahimi & Habibzadeh, op. cit., p. 7.

TABLE 18

SCHOOLS IN DIFFERENT PROVINCES IN IRAN FOR THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1969-70

Name of Profince	1.2 Year Teacher Training Course			Normal School			Rural Teacher Training			Tribal Normal School			Grand Total
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	
Central Ostan	188	684	872	74	500	574	-	100	100	-	-	-	1546
Gilan "	152	152	304	45	133	178	-	-	-	-	-	-	482
Mazanderan "	87	112	199	60	129	189	-	-	-	-	-	-	388
East Azarbayejan "	183	98	281	-	251	251	-	-	-	-	-	-	532
West Azarbayejan "	-	66	66	30	159	189	-	88	88	-	-	-	343
Kermanshahan "	98	47	145	-	97	97	-	60	60	-	-	-	302
Khoozestan "	163	201	364	-	287	287	-	60	60	-	32	32	743
Fars "	199	157	356	30	311	341	-	-	-	202	29	231	928
Kerman "	91	46	137	-	307	307	-	-	-	-	-	-	444
Khorasan "	249	257	506	30	421	451	-	-	-	-	-	-	957
Esfahan "	245	168	413	-	167	167	-	60	60	-	-	-	640
Sistan "	-	30	30	144	102	246	-	58	58	-	-	-	334
Kordestan "	-	-	-	-	71	71	-	156	156	-	-	-	227
F.K. of Semnan	-	-	-	30	99	129	-	-	-	-	-	-	129
F.K. of Hamadan	116	64	180	30	51	81	-	-	-	-	-	-	261
F.K. of Lorestan	-	42	42	30	141	171	-	28	28	-	-	-	241
F.K. of Khalij Fars	-	-	-	68	-	68	-	48	48	-	-	-	116
F.K. of Bahr Omman	-	18	18	103	117	220	27	33	60	-	-	-	298
F.K. of Bakhtiary	-	-	-	30	70	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	100
F.K. of Yazd	-	-	-	-	83	83	-	30	30	-	-	-	113
F.K. of Ilam	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59	59	-	-	-	59
F.K. of Kohkilooyeh	-	-	-	-	54	54	-	-	-	-	-	-	54
F.K. of Zandjan	-	-	-	34	-	34	-	-	-	-	-	-	34
Total	1771	2142	3913	738	3550	4288	27	780	807	202	61	263	9271
Urban	1771	2142	3913	570	3550	4120	27	711	738	202	61	263	9034
Rural	-	-	-	168	-	168	-	69	69	-	-	-	237

A total of 4 students in Yashiva Teacher Training Center (non-governmental) in Fars Ostan and 205 boys in Three Islamic schools in West Azarbayejan, Sistan and Kordestan Ostan are not included in the above mentioned list. Educational Statistics, p. 43, 1971.

TABLE 19

GROWTH OF PRIMARY EDUCATION BY SEX AND REGION, 1961-70 (1)**

ENROLLMENTS & INDICES	BOYS		GIRLS		URBAN		RURAL		TOTAL	
YEAR	AGGREGATE ENROLLMENT	GROWTH INDEX	AGGREGATE ENROLLMENT	GROWTH INDEX	AGGREGATE ENROLLMENT	GROWTH INDEX	AGGREGATE ENROLLMENT	GROWTH INDEX	AGGREGATE ENROLLMENT	GROWTH INDEX
1961-62	1 054 875	1.00	521 821	1.00	962 890	1.00	604 806	1.00	1 567 696	1.00
1962-63	1 239 051	1.17	578 251	1.13	1 054 135	1.09	763 167	1.26	1 917 302	1.16
1963-64	1 333 778	1.26	626 714	1.22	1 123 896	1.17	836 596	1.38	1 960 492	1.25
1964-65	1 555 292	1.47	717 558	1.40	1 202 723	1.25	1 070 127	1.77	2 272 850	1.45
1965-66	1 664 650	1.58	794 966	1.55	1 316 529	1.37	1 143 087	1.89	2 459 616	1.57
1966-67	1 770 891	1.68	874 514	1.71	1 449 567	1.51	1 195 838	1.98	2 645 405	1.69
1967-68	1 905 406	1.81	954 906	1.86	1 556 826	1.62	1 303 486	2.16	2 860 312	1.82
1968-69	2 016 882	1.91	1 048 682	2.04	1 668 109	1.73	1 387 455	2.31	3 065 564	1.96
1969-70	2 151 582	2.04	1 171 663	2.28	1 775 779	1.84	1 547 466	2.56	3 323 245	2.12
Average Annual Rate of Growth	9.3%		10.9%		8.0%		12.5%		9.8%	

NOTES. (1) Aggregates include enrollments in pre-primary schools and all pupils in Education Corps Programme.

SOURCE: Educational Statistics in Iran, Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, 1970. (Farsi)

**Nasser Rahimi and Suzan Habibzadeh. Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Tehran. Report on Educational Development in Iran During the Decade of 1960-70, Tehran, Iran, p. 12.

TABLE 20

Statistics Concerning the Activities of Literacy Corps in the Rural Areas in the Academic Year of 1969-70.

Part(A)

Description	Number of Schools	Number of Class-rooms with			Number of Students in the Age Group 6-15														Number of Adult Classes	Number of Adult Students			Number of Literacy Corps		
					Boys							Girls							Grand Total						
		1 grade	Combined grade	Total	1st grade	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	Total	1st grade	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	Total			Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
13-14 Groups (men) and 1-2 Groups (women)	8147	518	9532	10050	89123	53156	40571	32348	26493	14483	256174	31961	13703	8330	5412	4105	1554	65065	321239	3375	52854	19557	72411	9695	1355	10050

Part(B) Statistics Concerning the Activities of Literacy Corps and Ordinary Schools in the Urban and Rural in the Academic Year of 1969-70

13th Groups (men)	3799	42	4600	4642	39398	24330	19877	16412	13799	7248	121064	10733	4653	3049	2220	1652	446	22753	143817	1422	24913	3133	28046	4642	-	4642
14th Groups (men)	3644	120	4465	4585	46869	27739	20086	15483	12170	6513	128860	10980	4828	2954	1820	1262	418	22262	151122	1257	24387	2312	26699	4585	-	4585
1st Group (women)	483	831	1064	1895	12077	7893	4580	3017	1676	1099	30342	16321	8108	4339	2773	1635	1010	34184	64526	515	2697	10682	13379	-	1895	1895
2nd Groups (women)	221	411	409	820	5115	3201	2206	1327	958	608	13415	6571	2815	1901	1339	833	426	13885	27300	181	857	3549	4406	-	820	820
Grand Total	8147	1404	10538	11942	103459	63163	46749	36239	28603	15468	293681	44605	20404	12243	8152	5380	2300	93084	386765	3375	52854	19676	72530	9227	2715	11942

Explanation:

1 - The statistics mentioned in part (A) is inclusively concerned with the rural areas in which there are Education Corps Schools.

2 - The statistics mentioned in part (B) is concerned with the educational activities of the Literacy Corps in the villages and main townships-out of the above mentioned figures 8133 pupils have been studying in the main townships under the responsibility of 176 girl literacy corps teachers.

3 - The educational statistics concerning the activities of the literacy corps in the ordinary schools (urban & rural) is included in the statistic of the ordinary schools.

[1] Educational Statistics. op. cit. p. 25.

TABLE 21

NUMBER OF TEACHERS[2] BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION 1961-1970**

YEAR	PRIMARY		SECONDARY		VOCATIONAL		UNIVERSITIES
	NUMBER	GROWTH INDEX	NUMBER	GROWTH INDEX	NUMBER	GROWTH INDEX	NUMBER
1961-62	45995	1.00	12950	1.00	(1)		(1)
1962-63	52888	1.15	14538	1.12	(1)		1572
1963-64	54289	1.18	15925	1.23	(1)		1655
1964-65	56683	1.23	17255	1.33	(1)		1814
1965-66	55563	1.21	18282	1.47	(1)		2486
1966-67	71281	1.55	18924	1.46	(1)		2772
1967-68	81796	1.78	22534	1.74	1982	1.00	3388
1968-69	91741	1.99	27258	2.10	2333	1.18	3360
1969-70	96244	2.09	28864	2.23	2380	1.20	6103

NOTE: (1) Figures not available
(2) Part-Time and hourly-paid teachers not included.

Source: Educational Statistics in Iran, Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, 1970. (Farsi)

**Nasser Rahimi and Suzan Habibzadeh: Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Tehran: Report on Educational Development in Iran during the Decade of 1960-1970. March, 1971, page 7.

TABLE 22

NUMBER OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION: 1961-69

YEAR	PRIMARY SCHOOL		SECONDARY SCHOOL		VOCATIONAL		UNIVERSITY	
	NUMBER	GROWTH(1) INDEX	NUMBER	GROWTH(1) INDEX	NUMBER	GROWTH(1) INDEX	NUMBER	GROWTH(1) INDEX
1961-62	11106	1.00	1184	1.00	165	1.00	7	1.00
1962-63	12696	1.14	1207	1.02	173	1.05	7	1.00
1963-64	13564	1.22	1269	1.07	153	0.93	7	1.00
1964-65	15937	1.44	1402	1.18	153	0.93	22	3.14
1965-66	15392	1.39	1554	1.31	167	1.01	29	4.14
1966-67	15000	1.35	1682	1.42	184	1.12	47	6.71
1967-68	15696	1.41	1867	1.58	233	1.41	57	8.14
1968-69	15893	1.43	2068	1.75	268	1.62	57	8.14
1969-70	16152	1.45	2298	1.94	200	1.21	60	8.57

*Educational Statistics in Iran, Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, 1970. Note. Computation by Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education, Economics and Manpower Planning Unit. Quoted from Nasser Rahimi and Suzan Habibzadeh, op. cit., p. 8.

TABLE 23

EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BY LEVEL AND TYPES: 1964-1971. (1)

DESCRIPTION	1964 (2)		1965		1966		1967		1968	
	ABSOLUTE	%	1965 ABSOLUTE	%	ABSOLUTE	%	ABSOLUTE	%	ABSOLUTE	%
PRIMARY EDUCATION	7.536.445	10	8.135.102	107	7.901.204	104	8.568.441	113	9.850.625	130
SECONDARY EDUCATION	1.816.111	100	2.270.692	141	2.626.218	144	2.498.400	162	3.143.271	173
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	455.590	100	859.171	188	757.299	166	729.628	160	831.478	182
HIGHER EDUCATION	1.158.671	100	1.634.015	141	2.194.785	189	1.515.103	217	3.988.290	344
ART EDUCATION	75.247	100	76.528	102	40.072	53	76.226	101	80.420	106
TEACHER TRAINING	201.728	100	362.562	180	186.717	93	245.509	121	287.076	142
MISCELLANEOUS	35.293	100	19.121	40	110.674	314	114.597	325	67.122	190
RESEARCH	110.299	100	127.948	116	134.040	122	147.416	134	142.617	124
GENERAL SERVICES	1.212.734	100	1.166.017	96	1.649.591	136	1.682.077	139	1.834.111	151
TOTAL	12.602.118	100	14.951.156	119	15.600.600	124	17.027.397	135	20.225.070	160

(1) All Figures are actual expenditures except for 1970-1971 where budget allocations are utilized.

(2) In this year the special budget is not included.

SOURCE: (1) National Budget of Iran, 1964-1971. Plan Organization.
(2) The Financing of Development Project during Third and Fourth Development Plans, Financial Bulletin Plan Organization, March 1966-1970.

**Nasser R ıimi and Suzan Habibzadeh: Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Tehran: Report on Educational Development in Iran during the Decade of 1960-1970. March 1971, pp. 9,10.

TABLE 23 continued
(in thousands rials)

DESCRIPTION	1969	1970		1971		AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH
	ABSOLUTE	ABSOLUTE	%	ABSOLUTE	%	RATE %
PRIMARY EDUCATION	10.334.143	11.593.883	153	12.361.630	164	9.8
SECONDARY	3.302.119	4.166.852	229	4.983.093	274	14.8
VOCATIONAL	1.362.330	1.931.997	424	2.951.676	647	
HIGHER	3.778.921	4.404.865	380	5.240.205	452	21.0
ART	89.853	98.286	130	103.402	137	46.0
TEACHER TRAINING	386.359	536.169	266	862.965	428	
MISCELLANEOUS	223.756	328.223	930	432.479	125	
RESEARCH	266.838	298.884	271	653.329	592	13.1
GENERAL SERVICES	1.262.594	1.311.743	191	2.595.327	214	7.1
TOTAL	22.006.913	25.670.906	204	30.183.806	240	13.0

**Nasser Rahimi and Suzan Habibzadeh, op. cit., p. 10.

TABLE 24

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON GENERAL EDUCATION AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN RELATION** TO TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES AND GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT: 1966-1970

	DESCRIPTION	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	ANNUAL GROWTH RATE
1	GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (1)	489,1	553,9	602,7	690	722	-
2	TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE (2)	114,6	140,9	187,7	217,6	271,2	27%
3	TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION (3)	15,6	17	20,3	21,9	25,5	13%
4	HIGHER EDUCATION EXPENDITURE	2,6	3	4,6	5,2	5,5	21%
5	3 as per centage of 1	3.2	3.1	3.4	3.2	3.3	-
6	4 as per centage of 1	0.53	0.54	0.76	0.75	0.72	-
7	3 as per centage of 2	13.6	12.1	10.8	10.1	9.4	-
8	4 as per centage of 2	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.1	-

(1) Gross national product for 1970 has been calculated on the basis of 11% annual growth rate.
(2) All figures are actual expenditures except for 1970, where budget allocations are utilized. Government expenditures do not include the expenditure of profit-making institutions, commercial firms, and charity organizations affiliated with government.
(3) In this calculation, expenditures on general and higher education from private sources have been mentioned, but, investment by the private sector has not been included in the above-mentioned total expenditures.

SOURCES: Annual Report and Balance-Sheet 1969, Central Bank of Iran National Budget. 1966, 1967, and 1968,1969, Tehran The financing of development projects during the 3rd and 4th development plans, financial bulletin of the Plan Organization from March 1966 to March 1970.

**Nasser Rahimi and Suzan Habibzadeh: Institute for Research and Planning in Science and Education Tehran: Report on Educational Development in Iran during the Decade of 1960-1970. March 1971, p. 14.