AN ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION CONDUCTED IN IRAN BY THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES FROM 1952 TO 1962

by

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

One of the major problems involved in the evaluation of a program of technical assistance to education, in a developing country, is the discovery and identification of the cause-effect relationships which determined, or seem to have had a significant influence on, the relative degree of success in a specific technical assistance program. The knowledge of these identified relationships is basic for realistic planning in extension of present education programs, or for the development of new programs.

It is commonly accepted that assistance to a program of education in a developing country must, of necessity, be beneficial to the recipient country and must, somehow, inevitably lead to higher economic development, cultural advancement, and to a higher standard of living. This may generally be true. However, a program of technical assistance to education in a developing country, launched on this premise alone, may be doomed to partial or complete failure in achieving its goals and objectives.

Millions of dollars, spent with the very best of intention, may succeed only in creating an appetite for more money in the recipient. When such a program of assistance reaches the point of logical reduction of supplied funds,

resentment may occur creating attitudes far different from those originally envisioned by the planners. In fact they may be in drastic variance to the attitudes hoped for. Sincere, dedicated technicians may find after several years of patient, well-meant work that they have seemed to achieve very little in tangible results, with reference to developing skilled self-sufficient co-workers who can continue to carry on and develop programs on their own unguided initiative.

On the surface the apparent answer may seem to lie in better over-all planning per se. But the roots of the real difficulty lie deeply hidden in a tangled morass of misconceptions, misunderstandings and, in many instances, plain ignorance of vital knowledge on the part of the representatives of the American agency.

In the exigencies of planning, preparing, and implementing a program of technical assistance to education in a developing country, the tendency is to move as quickly as possible to meet what appears to be immediate and urgent needs. These needs may appear to be fairly obvious to the American planners, and may appear to have the full support of the local government authorities. However, in reality, program implementation may move slowly. Support from the local officials may seem to dwindle and, in spite of all efforts, the program may begin to appear as a useless venture. The American technician has thrown himself into

his assignment, trying to achieve the goals and objectives set out for him, presumably by joint concurrence of both the American and the local planners. He may have the not unusual experience of seeing all of his work apparently unused and seemingly wasted. On the other hand, some programs seem to inexplicably move and develop momentum, and to achieve obvious and concrete gains, sometimes in excess of those anticipated by the planners. In both of these instances it may be supposed that certain factors operated in such a way as to cause it to proceed more rapidly and successfully than the planners envisioned.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. The purpose of this study was (1) to review the technical assistance given by the United States to the education program of Iran from 1952 through 1962; (2) to determine the successful attainment of stated objectives of each education project; (3) to identify factors which seemed to have had a consistent and significant influence on the degree of successful attainment of the stated objectives.

The subproblems. At the outset of the study certain subproblems developed for which answers had to be found in order to proceed with the study. (1) A brief review of the history of the total technical assistance program, including

its concepts, objectives, and organization seemed necessary in order that the research of assistance to education might be done within the context of knowledge of the overall program of assistance to this specific country; (2) knowledge was necessary of the type, scope, and historical development of the Iranian educational program at the outset of American assistance to form a base from which to measure change as indicated by the stated objectives; and (3) an examination was necessary of the individual projects including the stated objectives and methods proposed to attain these objectives, and including the possibility of broader objectives of the Government of the United States.

The background of the problem. The opening statement of the introduction stated that determining the cause-effect relationships which seem to effect program implementation and goal achievement was a major problem. It was further stated that knowledge of these relationships was basic to realistic planning. The Agency for International Development, a semi-autonomous agency within the Department of State of the Government of the United States, faces this problem constantly in its efforts to bring technical assistance, in selected activities, to developing countries. This agency has been engaged in supplying technical assistance to the education program in Iran since 1951. From records and reports there is an indication that technical assistance

to the education program in Iran has achieved, in greater or lesser degree, the goals and objectives established by the planners.

The hard facts of reality force the unbiased observer to note that, while the results of the program achievement may have been catalogued in reports, there was still no valid appraisal of how or why certain goals were fully or partially attained.

Since all of the educational planning was undoubtedly done on the same high, professional plane, by competent planners, a disturbing query thrusts itself into the planner's awareness. He must know why some programs of technical assistance seem to have been successful while others, with the same preparation, did not succeed as well.

The logical explanation seemed to be that certain consistent factors must have been present in the successful programs. By the same reasoning, there must have been certain consistent factors evident in the less successful programs. It would follow that, if these factors were isolated and identified, with reference to their contributions to the relative degree of successful achievement, they might form the basis of criteria for evaluating the probable success of future technical assistance programs. These factors might also be a fundamental consideration in any review for the purpose of extending or reshaping a program of assistance to education.

There does not now exist any study which has been made with the specific purpose of identifying these possible factors, and of organizing them into evaluative criteria for future programs. Therefore, this study was undertaken to try to determine if such factors exist, and to identify them in anticipation of the possibility of contributing to future programming success of technical assistance to programs of education in developing countries.

Delimitations of the problem. This study was limited to the program of technical assistance given by the Government of the United States, to the program of education in Iran, through a single agency. The period of time covered in this study was from 1952 through 1962. The single agency is now called Agency for International Development. In 1951 it was known as Technical Cooperation Administration. Later, through an executive order, this agency became the Foreign Operations Administration. The name of the agency was changed, with the passage of time, to International Cooperation Administration and, finally, to its present title.

This study has evaluated only the results of the technical assistance to Iran's program of education as rendered by this latter agency and its related predecessors. This study did not evaluate, or attempt to evaluate, the possible effects of any assistance rendered to Iran's program of education by other American agencies, groups, or

foundations. No attempt was made to evaluate the possible effects of any technical assistance offered by other foreign governments.

While this study did not attempt to identify any concomitant benefits which may have resulted from technical assistance to Iran's program of education, nevertheless, some valid and identifiable benefits may have resulted.

This study was limited to consideration of all levels and areas of education, including teacher training colleges insofar as these levels and areas were included in the American technical assistance to education in Iran. The universities of Iran were not made a part of this study as they were not included in the technical assistance program during the period under study. Whenever the universities were included it was for the purpose of information and discussion as integral institutions in Iran's pattern of education.

The hypotheses. This study was predicated upon the hypothesis that certain factors tend to be in evidence at the successful implementation of any education project supported by technical assistance. By the same reasoning, it was hypothesized that certain factors tend to be in evidence in any program of education supported by technical assistance, which had faltered, or in some way failed to achieve the ultimate objectives envisioned by the planners.

It was further hypothesized that these factors could be identified and classified so as to form a base and a pattern for the organization of other programs of education with some assurance of predictable success.

II. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Advisory services. This term shall mean all services rendered to the host country's program of education excluding participation in or control of funding.

Agency. This term shall mean the agency of the Government of the United States which had the responsibility for administering technical assistance to Iran's program of education. This agency had four titles during the period under consideration in this study. These were (1) Technical Cooperation Administration; (2) Foreign Operations Administration; (3) International Cooperation Administration; and (4) Agency for International Development.

Factors. This term shall mean any elements, actions, or socio-cultural aspects, which influenced the implementation of the program.

Joint service. This term shall mean that the host country shares equally in the program costs, planning, and program direction with the Government of the United States.

Operations. This term shall mean the administrative

arrangement under which the American education advisors had not only an advisory responsibility but also the responsibility for directing activities and in determining the areas of the education program to be financially assisted.

Program implementation. This term shall mean the giving of practical effect to a planned program and insuring, by concrete measures, its movement toward a defined goal.

Review of a program. This term shall mean a careful study of each program in every phase of its planning, implementation, and progress.

Successful attainment. This term shall mean any positive advance made toward the stated objectives of the program from the official data of implementation of the program.

Teacher training. This term was used generally by American technicians to indicate teacher education in the early period of technical assistance to education in Iran.

Technical assistance. This term shall mean such funds, equipment, supplies, and advisory services, as were rendered to Iran by the Government of the United States, for the improvement and development of Iran's program of education.

Technician. This term shall mean any American

education advisor sent to a foreign country to assist that country in the improvement of its program of education.

III. SURVEY OF RELATED LITERATURE

There is, and has been, a growing concern in the Agency for International Development, of the State Department of the Government of the United States, for an evaluation of technical assistance to foreign countries. The feeling is that, while there seems to be a general agreement that technical assistance in the Near East-South Asia region has been successful, no evaluation reports exist, as such, to substantiate this supposition.[1]

In December 1962, Dr. David Mayer, Chief of the Evaluation Division of the Research, Evaluation, and Planning Assistance Staff, said that the Agency for International Development lacked adequate information on activities in technical assistance. He was particularly concerned because there was inadequate information on the cause-effect relationships which determine the relative success or failure of technical assistance projects.[2]

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[1]Near East-South Asia Regional Conference on Technical Assistance, Ankara, Turkey, "Report of the Near East-South Asia Conference on Technical Assistance, Ankara, Turkey" (Washington: Agency for International Development, 1962). (Mimeographed.)

[2]David Mayer and Herbert Turner, "A Program of Evaluative Activities for Improving the Effectiveness of AID Development Assistance" (Washington: Agency for International Development, December, 1962). (Mimeographed.)

Neff, in his report "A.I.D. Assistance to Human Resource Development Planning," compiled a thoughtful presentation of problems to be considered in human resource development planning. He pointed out that all planning must be based upon an awareness of approaches that have already been tried and upon the evaluation of data gathered on previous projects.[3]

As a further indication of the interest of the Agency for International Development in recognizing the necessity for evaluation of program success to determine cause-effect relationships, Ohly constructed an outline for the study of technical assistance to developing countries. His approach was on a world-wide basis in discussing ways of evaluating technical assistance. While Ohly's work only raised the questions which must be answered, it was clear that evaluations must be made of previous programs to establish factors of success as a basis for new programs.[4]

The Plan Organization of Iran was the central agency responsible for the national planning of Iran's total economic and educational development. American advisors were an integral part of this planning body. Plan

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[3]Kenneth L. Neff, "A.I.D. Assistance to Human Resource Development Planning" (Washington: Agency for International Development, 1962). (Mimeographed.)

[4]John Ohly, A Proposed Outline for the Study of Technical Assistance to Less Developed Countries (Washington: Agency for International Development, 1962).

Organization developed an Outline of the Third Plan. This outline of the third five-year plan was a complete study of the total economy. The plan recognized the necessity for review and evaluation of program goals and objectives in order to establish criteria for further planning.[5]

The Government Affairs Institute, a joint enterprise between the Government of the United States and the Government of Iran, developed a comprehensive study, High-Level Manpower Development in Iran. This work was particularly valuable because of the data amassed through surveys. It stressed the importance of program evaluation.[6]

The United States Technical Cooperation Mission to India made a report, Education Division Project Activities 1952-1961. This was a factual, statistical listing of all Department of Education projects in India, from 1952 to 1961, in which American technicians and funds were involved. The report listed data on personnel, budgets, and participants, but made no attempt to analyze or evaluate the projects beyond the presenting of facts relevant to the project organization.

A section of the report discussed the importance of education, per se, and pointed out the importance to India

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[5]Division of Economic Affairs, Outline of the Third Plan (Teheran: Plan Organization of Iran, 1961).

[6]T. Hilliard Cox (ed.), High-Level Manpower Development in Iran (Teheran: Government Affairs Institute, 1960).

of sound education planning.[7]

The United States Agency for International Development, Mission to India, prepared a report, Education Division Activities 1952-1963, which was a factual, statistical listing of all education projects in India during those years. This report included a section describing the importance of planning to education in India and made recommendations concerning certain areas of the program of education in India which needed strengthening. The report listed personnel and budget costs. Participants who had been sent to the United States were listed.

No attempt was made to analyze or evaluate the projects beyond the presentation of facts relevant to the project organization.[8]

A report titled The Sixth Milestone and Education in the Philippines was a factual chronological report which discussed the application of American technical assistance to the education program of the Philippines in the period from 1952 through 1957. This report indicated the task attempted in each area of education, then described the

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[7] United States Technical Cooperation Mission to India, Education Division, Education Division Project Activities 1952-1961 (New Delhi: United States Technical Cooperation, Communications Media Division, 1961).

[8] United States Agency for International Development, Education Division, Education Division Activities 1952-1963 (New Delhi: United States Agency for International Development, Communications Media Division, 1963).

manner in which the American technicians and their local counterparts attempted to use the advantages of technical assistance to bring about goal achievement.

In each of these areas specific numerical gains were recounted. No attempt was made to make any type of factor analysis to determine the causes of relative success or to relate the achievements to the stated goals.[9]

IV. THE DATA AND THE TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The sources of the data. The data for this study were drawn from two general classifications of information. The data considered as primary included any official documents and reports, such as country-to-country agreements, program books, reports of technicians, conference reports, survey and field-study reports, policy directives, reports of congressional hearings, research and evaluation reports, planning books and reports of the Iranian government, reports of the United Nations, and personal interviews.

The data considered as secondary included information published in journals, newspapers, and books dealing with the history, economics, politics, and education of Iran.

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[9] United States Operations to the Philippines, Education Division, The Sixth Milestone and Education in the Philippines (Manila: United States Agency for International Cooperation Administration, Communications Media Division, 1958).

Criteria for admissibility of data. Certain criteria were established to determine the authenticity and relevance of the primary data used in this study. Only documents which were official in content were consulted. The official classification was determined by the use of official government stationery and document forms as well as by the signatures of government officials, who by virtue of their authority and positions were required to sign documents for clearance and release. The authenticated date that each document was written, received and filed was of prime importance.

Only those Americans were interviewed who were employed by the Agency, and who had specific knowledge based on experience pertinent to this study. Officials of the Iranian government interviewed were those who had specific knowledge of the program of technical assistance to education in Iran.

The research methodology. Each education project in Iran which had received technical assistance during the period 1952-1962 was reviewed in its entirety. The reviewing process consisted of studying the documentation on each project to determine the date of its origin, the purpose, stated goals, and objectives of the project.

The research period extended from 1952 through 1962, in the course of which the administration of technical assistance to education in Iran was under four different

American agencies. Therefore an appraisal was made of the varying approaches to project implementation to further evaluate stated project goal achievement.

All obtainable reports of technicians and other official reports and documents were studied to draw forth all evidence of any achievement of stated project goals and objectives. Descriptive-survey-status research methodology[10] was used to ascertain the status of the program of education in Iran in 1952, again in 1962, and to survey the intervening period.

An examination was made of the data of the study to identify the aspects which seemed to have had some influence on achievement of project agreement goals and objectives. The aspects were arranged in categories and a factor analysis was made from the aspects.

Conclusions were drawn on the possible use of the factors identified in the research as a basis for planning and implementation of other programs of technical assistance to education.

V. THE PROBABLE VALUE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The value of the results of this study may be

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[10] Carter V. Good and Douglas E. Scates, Methods of Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954), pp. 550-553.

important in making a final determination of the effectiveness of technical assistance to the program of education in Iran during the period from 1952 through 1962. The study may also be important in that a factor analysis of a technical assistance program, to education in a developing country, may identify certain factors which must be present to ensure a reasonable possibility of success in planning and implementing programs of technical assistance in other countries in the Near East-South Asia area.

In the event that the results of the study justified the assumption that the program of technical assistance to education in Iran had been successful, these results may be of value in congressional and other public hearings to support the philosophy of foreign aid.

It is possible that the factor analysis may have disclosed certain concepts and understandings which might be of value in the study of comparative education.

VI. ORGANIZATION OF THE REMAINDER OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter II. In the second chapter the author examines the technical assistance program with reference to its philosophy, intent, history of organization, and the stated objectives of the American government.

The political, social, and economic situation at this period in Iran is reviewed to indicate the necessity and

practicability of technical assistance to Iran, from a humanitarian viewpoint, and from the international political and economic viewpoint.

The intent of this chapter is to establish a broad backdrop and framework of reference within which technical assistance to the education program in Iran was conceived and implemented.

Chapter III. In Chapter III the author reviews the state of the program of education in Iran and its development prior to the advent of American technical assistance to education in 1952. The various facets of the program of education reviewed in this chapter include (1) the early development of education and the influence of religion upon education; (2) the appearance of government and private schools; (3) the operational organization of the Ministry of Education; (4) a review of the in-school program in Iran in 1952; and (5) the available school statistics in 1952.

Chapter IV. The fourth chapter is concerned with the actual implementation of technical assistance to the education program in Iran, and covered the period of 1952 to 1953. American technical assistance during this period was under the administration of the Technical Cooperation Administration.

Chapter V. In this chapter is covered the continuing implementation in the period from 1953 to 1955 when American

technical assistance was administered by the Foreign Operations Administration.

Chapter VI. Chapter VI reviews the period from 1955 to 1961. During this period technical assistance to the program of education in Iran was under the International Cooperation Administration.

Chapter VII. In Chapter VII the period of time from 1961 through 1962 is considered, marking the termination date of this study. This period of technical assistance was administered by the Agency for International Development.

Chapters IV, V, VI and VII. Each of these chapters reviews the chronological progression of the program of technical assistance to education in Iran. The philosophy, aims, objectives, and principles of implementation of technical assistance to education during each of these periods are considered as they relate to each new administering agency.

Each individual project is examined throughout these periods as to its organization, purpose, and stated goals. The problems and achievements of each period are examined.

Chapter VIII. In Chapter VIII all of the data gathered in the previous chapters are summarized. An attempt is made to bring into an orderly arrangement all of the factors which seem to have had some influence on the

successful achievement of the goals established by the project agreements.

Some conclusions are drawn, based upon the factors identified, as to the influence they seem to have had on the total effectiveness of technical assistance to the program of education in Iran.

Some recommendations are made to direct attention to the possible use of the conclusions in the future planning and implementation of technical assistance to programs of education in emerging or developing countries.

Following the recommendations, a brief statement is made concerning possible questions for further exploration and study.

CHAPTER II

AN OVERVIEW OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE AND ITS INTRODUCTION TO IRAN

In order to more fully comprehend and appreciate the type, scope, and intent of technical assistance offered to education in Iran, it was necessary to review the overall technical assistance program offered to the Government of Iran by the Government of the United States. In order to understand the intent and nature of this assistance, it was also necessary to review the political, social, and economic conditions of Iran at this point in its history. Further, it was necessary to review the situation in Iran with reference to its implication to the United States, and to the balance of the free-world nations.

The foreign policy of the United States was examined in regard to its approach to technical assistance (1) to identify concepts which determined the implementation of foreign aid; (2) to consider the organization and identification of agencies which had been charged with carrying out the purposes expressed in foreign policy in regard to technical assistance; (3) to set the technical assistance program to the Government of Iran in proper perspective by looking into the political, social, and economic conditions in Iran at the beginning of technical assistance, and to

draw a composite picture of the national internal situation; and (4) to bring into focus the introduction of technical assistance to the program of education in Iran.

An overview of technical assistance and the circumstances of its introduction to Iran was undertaken to establish a backdrop of circumstances and national exigencies, with their concomitant international implications, and also to structure a framework of reference within which the technical assistance program was designed and implemented to assist the program of education in Iran. The framework of reference included a recognition of the philosophy of the American people and their government, with reference to human and social development. It was in the context of such a philosophy that the basic premise for technical assistance to education in Iran was established.[1]

I. THE UNITED STATES FOREIGN POLICY AND ITS CONCEPT OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

A study of the national objectives of the Government of the United States with reference to technical assistance indicated that technical assistance did not develop over night as a functional philosophy or institution. Rather, the realization of need grew out of the basic American

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[1]Agency for International Development, The Role of Technical Assistance in Foreign Aid (Washington: Agency for International Development, Department of State, 1963), p. 2.

concern for the development of human resources, and the recognition of the need for a regularly established institution to implement the tenets of a basic philosophy of concern for the development of human resources. A deep abiding faith in the American way of life, and the intent to protect this way of life for the United States, for the free peoples of the world, and for those who would be free, created a sympathetic understanding and a recognition of the need for technical assistance. Out of recognition of need grew the establishment of legal procedures, guide lines, and controlling mechanisms implementing the "Point Four" program.[2]

Harry Truman, in his inaugural address in January, 1949, had made four points. The fourth point formed the basis for the great "Point Four" program of technical assistance around the world. In this famous statement President Truman said:

> The United States is preeminent among nations in the development of industrial and scientific techniques. The material resources which we can afford to use for the assistance of other people are limited. But our own imponderable resources in technical knowledge are constantly growing, and are inexhaustible.
>
> I believe that we should make available to peace loving peoples the benefits of our technical knowledge in order to help them realize their aspirations for a better life.[3]

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[2]Mutual Security Agency, "Summary of Educational Policy" (Mutual Security Agency airgram MUSTO-circular FA 230, Washington, 1953), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[3]Committee on Government Operations, Government Programs in International Education, Forty-second Report, House Report Number 2712 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1959), p. 38.

The policy statement of the Foreign Operations Administration embodied these principles in saying that technical cooperation with the less well-developed nations of the world was a major phase of the United States foreign policy, not only as an expression of the humanitarian interest and goodwill of the American people, but because the ultimate benefits to this country justified American assistance on the basis of its contribution to our national interest and safety. The policy statement said further that the fundamental objectives were to develop and maintain the defensive strength, political stability, economic growth, and social development necessary for the stability and security of the free world.[4]

The Act for International Development (Title IV of Public Law 535, 81st Congress, 2d Session), passed on June 5, 1950, embodied the principle of promotion of social as well as economic development. In the first chapter of that Act, it was stated that the policy of the United States would be to continue to make available to other free countries, upon request, assistance in kind and amount that the United States deemed advisable, and which might be effectively used by free countries and peoples to help them maintain their freedom. This assistance must be based upon sound planning

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[4]Foreign Operations Administration, "Policy Statement, Foreign Operations Administration Educational Policy" (Bulletin, Foreign Operations Administration, Washington, 1954), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

and directed toward the social as well as the economic aspects of economic development. Assistance must be directed toward the development of the self-help concept.[5]

The President, under a further act, was authorized to furnish assistance, on terms and conditions he thought necessary to promote economic development of less developed and friendly countries, with particular emphasis on the development of human resources.[6]

The foreign policies of the United States are directed toward the building of a certain kind of world. In a report of the Department of State, Secretary Dean Rusk stated that the kind of world that the United States wanted was one free from aggression, with independent nations having their own institutions, but cooperating with each other to their mutual advantage. Secretary Rusk also said in his report that a desirable world was one in which disputes between nations were settled lawfully and peacefully, where continuous progress was made in social and economic justice for everyone, where governments derived their powers from the consent of the governed, and where personal freedoms essential to the dignity of man were secure.

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[5]Harry Bayard Price, The Marshall Plan and Its Meaning (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1955), p. 135.

[6]Kenneth L. Neff, National Development Through Social Progress, Bureau of International Education, United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Bulletin 8 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 1.

Secretary Rusk further stated that world communism opposed these aims, that Communist doctrine asserted that the eventual triumph of communism throughout the world is inevitable. Rusk said:

> We are meeting the attack on all these fronts and with every confidence that the purposes of freedom and not communism will prevail. History shows that man's constant aspiration has been for liberty and individual dignity--the very opposite of communism. The world we seek to help build is the kind of world that satisfies the deepest needs and hopes of men everywhere.
>
> In this firm conviction the U.S. Government is pursuing an active foreign policy designed to protect and promote American interests of all free men. In this global struggle we mean to win, and the victory we seek is not one of one nation over another but a worldwide victory of freedom.[7]

An American technician in the field, representing the viewpoint of an informed American, said that the future economic health and long term financial stability of the United States is inseparable from that of other free and non-communistic nations. Future peace can best be realized through a coordination of military strength, economic health, social progress, and political wisdom among the free nations of the world. A sound economic basis, with expanding production, increased trade, financial stability, and able political leadership is essential to both the social progress

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[7]U.S., Department of State, Our Foreign Policy (General Policy Series 188, Publication 7542; Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), pp. 1-2.

and long term maintenance to military strength.[8]

In reviewing the statements on foreign policy, and aims and objectives of technical assistance, it was apparent that a unifying humanistic philosophy was included in every policy goal and objective. Even when it was stated clearly that it was in the interest of the United States to assist other countries to achieve economic progress and political independence, the emphasis was upon the development of human resources. This seemed to be true whether or not there was present a threat of Communist aggression. The efforts of the United States to achieve a free, independent world issued from not just the national interest but from a proud humanitarian tradition. There had always been a willingness in the United States to share the abundance of the country, and the skills and knowledge of her people, with less fortunate countries and peoples.[9]

II. THE OFFICIAL EMERGENCE OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

In the United States a feeling had been growing that technical assistance to developing countries was necessary

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[8]Ralph E. Jones, "Completion of Tour Report, Teheran, Iran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-755, Washington, 1956), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[9]William Haas, Foreign Aid in Perspective (Washington: Agency for International Development, Department of State, 1963), pp. 1-2.

and wise. This was not a new thought at this time, but it was beginning to receive more national attention and appreciation.

As far back as August 16, 1940, the President had approved an order of the Council of National Defense establishing an Office for Coordination of Commercial and Cultural Relations between the American Republics. This office was succeeded by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, in July 1941, which served as a coordinating center for cultural and commercial relations with the other American republics.

Later this organization was re-named Office of Inter-American Affairs. The change took place March 23, 1945. The Office of Inter-American Affairs was terminated April 10, 1946, and its functions were transferred to the Department of State. On May 20, 1946, this organization within the Department of State was re-named the Institute of Inter-American Affairs. The Act for International Development was passed June 5, 1950. Immediately thereafter an organization known as the Technical Cooperation Administration was set up in the Department of State.[10]

The Mutual Security Acts of 1951 and 1952 established

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[10] Wayne C. Trover (ed.), United States Government Organization Manual, Office of the Federal Register, National Archives and Record Service, General Services Administration (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 647.

the Mutual Security Agency. Its specific responsibilities were to maintain security, to promote foreign policy, and to provide for the general welfare of the United States by furnishing military, economic, and technical assistance to friendly nations in the interest of international peace and security.[11]

On August 1, 1953, the Institute for Inter-American Affairs was transferred to the Foreign Operations Administration by Reorganization Plan 7.

The Mutual Security Agency, and the office of the Director for Mutual Security, were abolished by Reorganization Plan 7, effective August 1, 1953. Their functions were transferred to the Foreign Operations Administration which had been established by the same document.

When the Foreign Operations Administration was established on August 1, 1953, it absorbed the functions of the Technical Cooperation Administration.[12]

Each of these agencies had had its own methods and procedures established to achieve the national objectives set for it. The purpose of these changes was to centralize operations, control, and direction of all foreign economic and technical assistance programs in a unified agency, and

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[11] Ibid.

[12] Ibid., pp. 638-641.

to coordinate in that agency all other mutual security activities.[13]

III. THE POLITICAL, SOCIAL, AND ECONOMIC SITUATION IN IRAN AT THE ADVENT OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

It was deemed necessary to examine the political, social, and economic situation in Iran immediately prior to and during the beginning of technical assistance to Iran. The reason for the examination was to set the stage, and to provide an opportunity to more fully understand the approach which was taken in designing and implementing a program of technical assistance at that particular time in Iran's evolution.

Influences and circumstances had already begun to exert pressures on Iran at the outbreak of World War II which eventually brought a request for American assistance. Iran attempted to maintain her neutrality and to continue her trade with all of the powers, although Reza Shah hated communism and without doubt favored Germany. When Germany

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[13]During the chronological process of this research, each agency was identified by the time of its advent, and its philosophy of goal attainment was identified and considered. The discussion at this point concerning these agencies seems to have moved in advance of the normal procedure of chronological progression. However, a brief discussion was presented at this time only to indicate the vital interest, the sense of urgency, and the struggle to find an adequate method of reconciling mutual security with the humanitarian goals which appear to have existed at that time.

declared war on Russia in 1941, Iran's position became untenable from the viewpoint of Great Britain, who was newly allied with Russia against Germany. Germany could strike at Russia by way of the Caucasus, and German agents were active in Iran.[14]

Reza Shah was obdurate in his position, and on August 26, 1941, Russian forces entered Iran from the Northwest, and British troops arrived at the head of the Persian Gulf by way of Iraq. British ships sank the Iranian naval force at Khorammshahr with great loss of life. The Iranian army put up a token resistance which lasted for three days. It was at this point that Reza Shah abdicated, and his young son, Mohammed Reza, succeeded him on the throne of Iran.[15]

Immediately, the Allies constructed highways and a trans-Iranian railway to transport materials of war from the Persian Gulf to the Russian border. The impact of the war on Iran was severe. Food was short, and goods of every kind were scarce. Inflation sent prices soaring. The large amounts of currency needed to meet Allied expenditures added to the inflationary spiral.

Iran had finally taken a strong and active part in the war. She had declared war on Nazi Germany and had

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[14]Donald N. Wilber, Iran Past and Present (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1955), p. 103.

[15]Mohammed Reza Shah Pahlavi, Mission for My Country (London: Hutchinson and Company, 1960), pp. 70-74.

cooperated with the Allies in expediting the flow of military goods from the Persian Gulf to Russia. Iran's oil and refineries were vitally important to the war effort of the Allies.[16]

Iran found herself beset by Communist infiltration, a staggering economy, a weakened army, a spiraling cost-of-living, and a restless political situation. The Tudeh party, a Communist organization, was increasing in strength and purported to speak for the masses of the people against the government.

Dr. Mohammed Mossadegh, a member of Parliament, was growing in prestige and power. In his late sixties, Mossadegh was crafty, intelligent, and almost fanatically opposed to social changes. He was particularly bitter against foreign intervention in the internal affairs of Iran, and was determined that Iran alone should receive benefit from her oil resources. Mossadegh headed a political group known as the National Front. Their creed of nationalism was based on Mossadegh's philosophy.[17]

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[16] William L. Dawson, Chairman, "United States Agency for International Development Operations in Iran," First Report of the Committee on Government Operations, Union Calendar 6, House Report 10, 85th Cong., 2d Sess. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957), pp. 7-8.

[17] Carnahan, Debate on Report of Sub-Committee on International Operations of the Committee on Government Operations Dealing With Iran, House, Proceedings and Debates, 85th Cong., 1st Sess., Congressional Record, Vol. 103, part 2d, pp. 1928-31 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957).

In 1949, an attempt was made to assassinate the young Shah, Mohammed Reza Pahlavi, who had ascended to the throne when his father, Reza Shah, abdicated in 1941. This unsuccessful attempt at assassination rallied the people to the young Shah's side. The Tudeh party was outlawed, and the loyalty of the people permitted the Shah to strengthen his position.

In accordance with power established in the Constitution of 1906, the Senate was established in 1949 and the first meeting held in 1950.[18]

In 1949, the Shah journeyed to the United States to ask for economic and military aid for his country. He was treated royally but went home empty handed. The Shah said, "The Americans realized that we were not yet handling our internal affairs with necessary firmness."[19]

The Shah redoubled his efforts, immediately upon his return to Iran, to establish reforms. He dismissed government officials who were proven corrupt, and began a program of land reform breaking up many royal landholdings for distribution among the peasants.

The political and economic situation in Iran was rapidly worsening. General Razmara, early in 1950, had

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[18]Europa Publications Limited, The Middle East (London: Europa Publications Limited, 1959), p. 105.

[19]Pahlavi, op. cit., pp. 88-89.

established a strong central government as Prime Minister. For awhile it appeared that more stable conditions were returning. However, in the spring of 1951, General Razmara was assassinated and a group of extreme nationalists came into power. Dr. Hossein Ala, an experienced and respected diplomat, became Prime Minister. Dr. Ala was not a member of the extreme nationalist group.

On March 15, 1951, the Majlis passed a bill providing for the nationalization of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. On March 20, the Senate approved the nationalization bill. Demonstrations and rioting broke out, with the Communist Tudeh party rising to demand immediate seizure of the oil installations. Dr. Mossadegh was behind the bill for the nationalization of the oil industry and was strongly involved in its passage.

The National Front representatives came to Prime Minister Ala and demanded that he take some positive action to implement the nationalization bill. Dr. Ala's position was untenable and he resigned. Mossadegh became Prime Minister.[20]

One of Mossadegh's first acts as Prime Minister was to nationalize the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company at Abadan on the Persian Gulf. The export of oil came to a halt. Since the government was dependent to a large extent upon oil

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[20]Wilber, op. cit., pp. 113-114.

revenues to pay government salaries, and to meet other expenses, the absence of oil revenues had an immediate and serious effect upon the financial and economic condition of the country.

The impact of this loss was felt especially by government workers and city dwellers, representing about 20 per cent of the population. The impact was not of similar significance to the other 80 per cent as most of the latter were engaged in some phase of subsistence-level agriculture, and existed outside of the monetary sector of the economy.[21]

In addition to the disturbed local economy, there was also the adverse implication of a disturbed international oil economy. England in particular, and the United States and other international powers, had come to depend upon Iranian oil.[22]

The nationalizing of the oil industry in Iran had grown out of an old quarrel between Iran and England; Iran felt that England was taking a disproportionate share of the income. England's position was clear. In 1901 a British subject, under exploration and exploitation rights granted by the Government of Iran, had begun to develop the oil industry in Iran. He was granted exclusive rights for sixty years. In 1909, the Anglo-Persian Oil Company was formed

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[21]Dawson, op. cit., pp. 11-12.

[22]Wilber, op. cit., pp. 115-120.

in London. In 1912, the Government of England made its first contribution to the financing of the company and took over 52 per cent of the stock.

The Anglo-Iranian Oil Company developed the oil fields, laid pipelines, and built the largest oil refinery in the world at Abadan on the Persian Gulf. English management, technicians, engineers, and marketing experts controlled and operated the oil industry in Iran.

In 1937, thirty-six years after granting a sixty year monopoly to a British subject, the Iranian government granted American oil companies concessions in Iran. Russia became interested in the great oil resources on her border and made overtures to Iran for concessions. During World War II, Soviet occupation forces operated drilling rigs east of Teheran and along the Caspian Sea. In spite of the newer arrivals, the British had continued to be responsible for the refining and marketing of the oil.[23]

Two factors plunged Iran's oil economy into a disastrous condition. In the first place Iran had neither the skilled technicians to continue to operate the production and refining of the oil after nationalization, nor even a semblance of an international marketing organization. In the second place, the nations who had been purchasing Iran's oil fell back upon their own, and other resources, when the

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[23] Ibid., pp. 134-136.

flow of Iranian oil ceased with the collapse of the oil industry, and Iran's largest source of revenue ceased.[24]

Some way had to be found to revive the oil industry, or to replace the lost revenue from other sources, to prevent the bankruptcy of the Iranian government. Without outside assistance the economy would have become increasingly chaotic, and Iran would have had increasing difficulty in maintaining its independence in the face of increased Communist pressure from its gigantic neighbor in the north. Therefore, in keeping with an avowed policy of assistance to needy and worthy countries, and with a responsibility for mutual security, the United States offered Iran aid to the amount of 23.4 million dollars.[25]

In spite of her former great oil industry and its revenue, Iran was still an underdeveloped country. Per capita income was approximately sixty-six dollars per year. Food production was low. Farming methods and tools were primitive. Educational opportunities were limited. The government, centered in the capital city of Teheran, was not organized in any way to accomplish the economic development of the country. Land tenure, an outgrowth of the political and social tradition of the country, permitted 3 per cent of the people to own and control 90 per cent of the land. The

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[24]Dawson, op. cit., pp. 11-12.

[25]Pahlavi, op. cit., p. 98.

Iranian culture, which was highly individualistic and did not lend itself to cooperative or corporate action, presented a real obstacle to organizing such productive potential as the land may have possessed.[26]

During this period a bitter struggle was increasing in intensity between the forces of freedom and international Communism in Iran. It would have been completely contrary to the interests of Iran, and of the free world, to permit Iran to fall under the domination of the Communists, to lose her great oilfield, and for the Persian Gulf to become a warm water port for the Communist world.[27]

For more than 1,400 miles, Iran shared a common border with the Soviet Union. This fact gave the Soviets the advantage of proximity. Day and night their radios blared hatred and defiance of the Americans into Iranian radios. The Tudeh party fomented distrust and fear of Americans, and issued ominous warnings of American imperialism.[28]

A bankrupt economy had opened the gates to the Communists. The threat of the Soviet was very real. Disciplined Communist fifth columnists terrorized the population. Communists had even gained access to Parliament.

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[26] H. Arsenjani, Implementation of Iran's Land Reform Program (Teheran: Offset Press Inc., 1962), p. 9.

[27] Carnahan, op. cit., pp. 1928-1931.

[28] Pahlavi, op. cit., p. 123.

It was in this context of fury, fear, frustration, political chaos, failing economy, and the overriding Communist presence that American foreign aid was brought into Iran to attempt to avert total collapse.[29]

IV. THE INTRODUCTION OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO IRAN

By this time it seemed evident that the Shah of Iran, in spite of internal problems, was moving as rapidly as possible to bring order to his strife-torn, Communist-ridden country. From a sense of world security, a desire for peace, and a sincere interest in helping less fortunate people, aid was proffered to Iran by the United States. On October 19, 1950, a Memorandum of Understanding was signed by the American Ambassador, Henry F. Grady, and General Ali Razmara, Prime Minister of Iran, in the Abayaz Palace in Teheran.[30]

This important document was only two pages long, but it set out the mutual understanding of how technical assistance was intended to function in Iran. The two men met at the Palace with translators and secretaries. The

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[29] Reece, Debate on Report of Sub-Committee on International Operations of the Committee on Government Operations Dealing With Iran, House, Proceedings and Debates, 85th Cong., 1st Sess., Congressional Record, Vol. 103, part 2d, pp. 1485-1487 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957).

[30] William E. Warne, Mission for Peace (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1956), p. 18.

document was read slowly to the Prime Minister. The English version was translated into Farsi, the official language of Iran. Copies were made in English and in Farsi. The Ambassador and the Prime Minister signed copies of the document in both languages.[31]

The Memorandum of Understanding established the first Technical Cooperation Administration program in Iran, and was the forerunner of all subsequent programs of technical assistance in Iran. The document, authorized under Public Law 535, the Eighty-first Congress, permitted the United States to answer Iran's plea for assistance. In essence, the document stated that the primary objective of the cooperative program would be an improvement in the living conditions and productivity of the rural areas. To achieve this, there was to be a coordinated approach at the village level between education, health, and agriculture. The proposed program was to be based upon a series of demonstration and training centers which were to be established throughout Iran at points near principal population centers. It was further proposed that, as fast as they could be trained, competent Iranians would be given the assignment of extending the results of these centers to other areas of Iran.[32]

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[31] Ibid., p. 19.

[32] Henry F. Grady, "Memorandum of Understanding for Technical Cooperation on Rural Improvement Between the United States and Iran" (Legal Document, Technical Cooperation Administration, Washington, 1954), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

Under the Memorandum of Understanding, Iran accepted as her obligation the providing of Iranian personnel, such as rural school teachers, agricultural extension experts, health experts, and such land, buildings, and equipment, from local sources, as would be required by the centers. Iran, under this agreement, also undertook to provide the program with not less than 3,200,000 Reals to be used for operating costs. According to the rate of exchange at that time, this amount was approximately 42,667 dollars.

The United States promised to provide the services of American technicians in the fields of education, health, and agriculture. The United States also promised to supply technical and administrative direction to the centers and to furnish the equipment and apparatus necessary to operate the centers. This equipment and apparatus would include all necessary items not produced in Iran.

In order to provide joint supervision over the cooperative aspects of the Program for Rural Improvement, and to furnish a means of communication between the two governments, an Iran-United States Joint Commission for Rural Improvement was established. There were four Iranians and three Americans on the commission. An Iranian was chairman. The commission's first responsibility was to select a technical director to carry out its policies.

In general, the duties of the commission were to establish policies and procedures for the operation of the

centers, and to approve sites for prospective centers. They also were to make recommendations to the two governments on land, buildings, equipment, supplies, and personnel needs.

The Memorandum of Understanding also declared that all equipment and supplies brought into Iran for this program would be duty free as would be the goods and effects of all personnel brought in for the program. The Memorandum concluded with the statement that this agreement would remain in effect until terminated by either government upon ninety days' written notice.[33]

In 1951, the Joint Commission for Rural Improvement was established. A survey team of three members was sent to Iran from Washington in May, 1951, to study the situation, identify needs, determine priorities, and make recommendations for a plan of action. Health, education, and agriculture were represented on the team.[34]

William E. Warne arrived in Iran in November, 1951, to assume his duties as Director of the Technical Cooperation Administration in Iran. His first official assignment was to negotiate a country-to-country agreement upon which an expanded program of technical assistance could be made available to Iran.

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[33] Ibid.

[34] United States Foreign Operations Administration Mission to Iran, "Teheran Mission History of Operations," Vol. One, Sections 1-8 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1957), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

Warne had several meetings with Dr. Mossadegh, the Iranian Prime Minister. Finally, Dr. Mossadegh appointed a committee of Iranians to work with the American staff and a draft of the project agreement was made. The agreement was sent to Washington for discussion and approval. In March, 1952, the Technical Cooperation Administration in Washington sent to Iran the texts of program agreements to be executed in health, education, and agriculture.

These projects were drawn primarily in terms of grants of funds to the Government of Iran. These fund grants were for materials, supplies, and equipment. According to the Mission Report, the terms were sketchy in detail as the technicians and administrative staff had been in Iran only for a short while and had not had time to prepare work plans in exhaustive detail.[35]

Procedural guidelines had not been drawn for the mission in Iran and it fell to the mission director to develop such procedures as he felt necessary. The Committee on Government Operations said:

> When Mr. Warne arrived in Iran, he found little or no provision for administrative and operating personnel to develop the manifold activities outlined in Washington. Actually, upon his arrivel he found only a fragmentary staff of about 40 people--most of them technicians--comprising the mission organization that had been geared to the modest 2 million-dollar technical cooperation program of fiscal year 1951. There was no legal officer, no controller, and no program officer. For administrative support

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[35] Ibid., p. 2.

> the mission was dependent upon the facilities of the American Embassy in Teheran although the Embassy was not equipped, organizationally, to support a program of the magnitude of the one planned in Iran. The urging of the Director for a separate staff to meet the needs of his program were met by delays and indecisions in the agency's Washington office so that the mission's program requirements continued to outrun its personnel and management capacities.[36]

On January 19, 1952, Mr. Warne wrote to Dr. Mossadegh. In this letter he discussed the program of Technical Cooperation for Economic Development of Iran, the individual efforts of Iran, and the joint efforts of the United States and the Government of Iran. Mr. Warne said that the United States was prepared to make a maximum of 23 million dollars available during the current fiscal year which ended June 30, 1952. This would be for the technical assistance requested by Iran and agreed to by the United States. Iran was to supply, within the limits of her ability, her fair share of the cost of these programs.

A further stipulation was that any agreements for projects arising out of the agreement under discussion would have to be done in joint cooperation with Iranians and Americans. Each proposed project agreement would have to spell out descriptions of its scope, objectives, duration, method of operation, means of financing, and the respective contributions to be made by both governments.

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[36] Dawson, op. cit., p. 16.

Iran was to agree to receive a special Technical Cooperation Mission, and accord it diplomatic status. Iran was to guarantee that all funds coming into the country under this program were to be protected from garnishment, attachment, or seizure. Any item of equipment, materials, or supplies brought into Iran under this program was to be free of customs tax. The personal effects of American technicians were to be tax free. It was further stated that both governments would give full publicity to the program and written reports would be made to both countries on the expenditure of funds, materials, equipment, and services.

The program would last for three months after a termination notice, in writing, had been given by either government. In conclusion, Warne's letter stated, the proposed program would go into effect as soon as the Government of Iran concurred.[37]

On January 20, 1952, Prime Minister Mossadegh replied to Mr. Warne's letter. He stated that the Council of Ministers had agreed to the American proposal and that he had appointed the Ministers of Health, Education, and Agriculture, and the Managing Director of Plan Organization as a committee to implement the agreement. The Minister of

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[37] United States Foreign Operations Administration, "History of Operations," op. cit., pp. 47-48.

Health was to act as chairman.[38]

The immediate acceptance of Mr. Warne's terms by Prime Minister Mossadegh exemplified the vital urgency of Iran's political and economic needs, particularly in view of Dr. Mossadegh's antipathy toward foreign intervention in Iran's internal affairs. Mr. Warne's letter to Dr. Mossadegh established the basic pattern for construction of program and project agreements.

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[38] William E. Warne, "Proposed Program and Method of Operation of Technical Cooperation to Iran" (Washington: Technical Cooperation Administration, 1952), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION IN IRAN PRIOR TO AND AT THE ADVENT OF AMERICAN TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION

The program of education in Iran was reviewed to create a backdrop against which to measure and evaluate stated goal achievements of the technical assistance program to education. Before a study could be made of the program of technical assistance to education, it was believed to be necessary to review the background and the state of education in Iran at the time American technical assistance was offered.

I. EARLY EDUCATION AND RELIGIOUS INFLUENCE

Education in Iran had always been inextricably interwoven with religion. The Shah of Iran said that:

> In ancient Iran, the priestly vocation was held in highest esteem, and the profession of soldiering came next. We were first and foremost a nation of warriors, but our martial spirit was tempered by our Zoroastrian religion. Military instruction was naturally conducted by soldiers; but the Zorastrian priests had charge of all other education as well as purely religious matters.[1]

Religion had always dictated the pattern of Iranian education. Issa Khan Sadiq said, "For about thirteen

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[1]Mohammed Reza Shah Pahlavi, Mission For My Country (London: Hutchinson and Company, 1960), pp. 238-240.

centuries the Zoroastrian religion was the nucleus of education."[2]

When Persia was conquered by the Arabs in the middle of the seventh century, the religion of a great part of the people changed, but the tradition of a religion-based education was stronger than ever. Now the language of God was Arabic and only those who had mastered the theology of Islam could do the teaching. From the beginning of Moslem domination in Persia, Sadiq relates, education was given in the mosque to a selected few and was considered a monopoly of the Moslem clergy.[3]

Before 1885, the government had practically no interest in education. Rich noblemen and wealthy merchants had constructed mosques and colleges for the education of the mullahs, and had given money for the upkeep of the mosques and schools. These gifts and endowments were based on religion and philanthropy. There was usually an elementary school in connection with the mosque. These schools, Wilber says, were called maktabs and were taught by the clergymen.[4]

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[2]Issa Khan Sadiq, Modern Persia and Her Educational System (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931), p. 32.

Issa Khan Sadiq, Doctor of Philosophy, Columbia University, 1931, was twice Minister of Education in Iran. Currently Dr. Sadiq holds a professorship at Teheran University in Iran.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Donald N. Wilber, Iran Past and Present (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1948), pp. 188-189.

Issa Khan Sadiq spoke of the tradition of harsh discipline in the religion-based schools of his country. "The good and efficient school was one in which there was a great deal of corporal punishment." Sadiq also spoke of the schools as they were in 1931.

> Even now a good school is considered to be one in which discipline is rigid, the one in which no voice is heard save that of the teacher, the one in which the pupils do not run or jump or cry during the recess period, but walk silently and gravely with dignity in the courtyard of the school![5]

Education in the nineteenth century did not reflect the dynamic era of the flourishing Islamic civilization. During the exciting days of Islamic domination, intellectual and scientific curiosity and research had been paramount. But in the nineteenth century this eager spirit had died out in Persia. Banani says of the nineteenth century, "All of the vigor had gone out of the educational values and processes."[6]

Education came to be the monopoly of a narrow-minded parasitical clergy. The school in its institutional sense did not exist. The clergymen-teachers were totally free of any governmental or professional control. No professional

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[5] Ibid., p. 37.

[6] Amin Banani, The Modernization of Iran (Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 1961), pp. 85-86.
Dr. Banani received his early education in Iran and is currently in the United States where he holds the position of Assistant Professor of History and Humanities at Reed College in Oregon.

requirements were necessary other than to be a professed clergyman.[7]

In Stainton's report he commented that:

> In the native schools themselves (the madrasa or college, and the maktab or primary school) the training has little or no good effect upon the character, and exercises no influence to counteract the prevailing low moral tone. There is no supervision, the teachers are inefficient, the pupils are often improperly treated, and the schoolrooms themselves are highly unsanitary. Moreover, the curriculum is not calculated to secure a well-ordered and well balanced development of the mental faculties. Their method of teaching aims at producing a parrot-like memory with a retentiveness of detail. The boy is not taught how to spell words, but is simply told them and expected to repeat them from memory.[8]

The maktabs were supported by tuition charges. The charges were not uniform and rates were arranged between the teacher and the parent. The wealthier parents were expected to pay more than the poorer parents. In a few cases bright children were admitted free when the parents were unable to pay.

Ability also entered into the admittance of a student to the maktab. In the Islamic traditional culture it was assumed that some persons were born gifted, and that it was useless to attempt to educate the unfit. Girls were also excluded from the opportunity to learn. This process of

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[7] Ibid., pp. 86-87.

[8] B. W. Stainton, "The Education Position in Persia," Proceedings of the Central Asian Society (London: Central Asian Society, 1912), pp. 11-12.

selection gave educational opportunities to only a few. Banani expressed his opinion saying, "These circumstances--educational discrimination against the poor, the less able, and girls--were responsible for an extremely high rate of illiteracy."[9]

The actual subjects taught in the maktab indicate the static nature of culture and society in nineteenth century Persia. The ability to read and write, with great emphasis on excellent penmanship, was the hallmark of a scholar. Particular emphasis was placed on memorization. The recitation of the entire Koran from memory was considered the height of scholastic achievement.

There were no facilities beyond the maktab for secondary education except on a private tutorial basis.[10]

II. APPEARANCE OF GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

In the middle of the nineteenth century the Iranian government opened the Royal College, patterned after the French curriculum. Sykes referred to the new college saying, "Nasir-u-Din founded the Dar-ul-Fanun, a college on more or less modern lines for young Persians of the upper classes,

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[9] Banani, op. cit., pp. 85-86.

[10] Ibid., p. 88.

who were taught by Europeans of various nationalities."[11]

The Shah of Iran reviewed the development of the Royal College and said, "In the college's first few years all teaching was in the hands of European instructors; and French officers who had been sent to reorganize our army were among the first instructors to be engaged."[12]

Several private secondary schools were opened in the middle of the nineteenth century for the children of rich families. However, some of the rich families sent their children to France and a few went to England and to Germany. A group of forty-two went to France in 1858. Their major fields of study were medicine, engineering, political science, and astronomy.[13]

In 1898 the government established elementary schools which in effect competed with the maktabs. The curriculum was organized along the same lines as the maktab curriculum with an emphasis on calligraphy, the study of the Koran, and the history of Iran.

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[11]Sir Percy Sykes, A History of Persia (3rd ed., with supplementary essays; London: Macmillan Co., Limited, 1930), Vol. II, p. 394; and Reed H. Bradford, "Terminal Report" (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1954), p. 17. (Mimeographed.)

[12]Pahlavi, op. cit., p. 241.

[13]Habib Naficy, "Education in Iran" (address given to Peace Corps Trainees at Georgetown University, Washington, August 30, 1963).

Habib Naficy, former Under-Secretary for Vocational Education, Ministry of Education, Iran, is currently Minister of Cultural Affairs and National Advisor of Student Affairs, Embassy of Iran, Washington.

A constitution had been created out of the revolution of 1906. Sykes referred to the constitution as the Magna Charta of Iran.[14] The constitution included provisions for the regulation of education and indicated the continued emphasis on religion in education. Article XVIII, according to Arasteh, in a translation of a group of education-concerned sections of the constitution, stated that: "All individuals are eligible to pursue the study of science, arts and crafts, except as limited by religious law."[15]

The Fundamental Law of 1911 which was concerned with education and was passed under the constitution contained Article XIV, and was described by Sadiq as saying that the Ministry of Education shall forbid the use of any textbook which would be prejudicial to the morals or religion of the students.[16]

The Education Laws of the Ministry of Education stated that, "The course of compulsory education is six years," and that, "Education in all government primary schools is free from charge, and no fund should under any title be received from the pupils. Free textbook shall be

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[14] Sykes, op. cit., pp. 403-405.

[15] Reza Arasteh, Education and Social Awakening in Iran (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1962), p. 135.

[16] Sadiq, op. cit., pp. 33-35.

given to poor pupils."[17]

Arabic was taught in all secondary schools of Iran to provide the skill and ability to read the Koran, and as a recognized mark of an educated person. Islamic tradition discouraged singing and the playing of musical instruments. Its influence was seen in the neglect of music in the curriculum.[18]

In 1918 a teachers' college, with separate divisions for men and women, had been established in Teheran. This school followed the French pattern of the L'Ecole Normale, and French instructors were brought to supervise it. In 1921 the Ministry of Education drew up the first full program for elementary and secondary education to exist in Iran. It covered a twelve-year period, six years of elementary education and six years of secondary education. Uniform examinations were administered by the Ministry to students of all the schools, state and private alike. These examinations were given at grade 6, 9, and 12 levels, and official certificates were issued to those who passed the examinations.

An independent polytechnic school was founded by the German government in 1922, in Teheran. The Iranian government

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[17] M. Attabahi (trans.), "Abridged Collection of Educational Laws" (Teheran: Ministry of Education, 1961), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[18] Sadiq, loc. cit.

subsidized the German technicians and the operating cost of the school.[19]

When Reza Pahlavi appeared on the scene on April 25, 1925, as the new Shah of Persia, there were no more than ten thousand students enrolled in national and private non-religious schools throughout the nation.[20]

In 1934 the Teachers College of Teheran, established in 1918, was given by law the official status of a university. It was officially opened as the University of Teheran by Reza Shah on February 5, 1935.[21] In rapid succession a program of adult education was begun, an Academy of Fine Arts, and an Academy of Music, were established. The Academy of Fine Arts was intended to revive and develop the Iranian arts of carpet-making, miniaturization, book illumination, enamel and inlay work, and pottery. The Academy of Music became a channel for the rapid dissemination of Western culture.[22]

Physical education and sports, as organized activities, were developed. The Boy Scout movement was organized. The number of students sent abroad to study in foreign lands

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[19] Stainton, op. cit., p. 4.

[20] Banani, op. cit., pp. 88-91.

[21] Reza Arasteh, op. cit., p. 25.

[22] Banani, op. cit., pp. 93-109.

was increased.[23] The purpose of the program of students studying abroad was to train the young people in new knowledge and techniques and then return them to Iran to become leaders in their country.[24]

During his reign Reza Shah was active in the development of his country. He had come to power in a military coup. His regime was based on revolutionary ideas. Although an unlettered man himself, Reza Shah was keenly aware of the weaknesses in the social, cultural, and economic life of his country. He brought in engineers, craftsmen, and scientists from the western world in order to take advantage of their skill and knowledge in the modernizing of his country. He was particularly impressed by German technology.[25]

Reza Shah drove the people to do the things he felt were good for them. Schools were built, roads and dams constructed, and Iran began to stir uneasily in a slow awakening. The control of the clergyman over education was broken although this brought great resentment from the religious powers. Soon after Reza Shah's abdication most

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[23] Hoyt B. Turner, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1665, Washington, 1957), p. 13. (Mimeographed.)

[24] Turan Etashami, "A New Ministry in a New World With Regard to Iranian Students Studying Abroad" (Teheran: Ministry of Education, 1963), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[25] Naficy, loc. cit.

of the lost power was regained by the clergy.[26]

When the dynamic force of Reza Shah was removed from the scene due to exigencies of World War II, the turbulence caused by the forward march of progress came to a halt.[27] The war absorbed everyone's attention and concern. Education settled back into the earlier dull, unimaginative, repetitious pattern of lecture, memorization, and sitting for examinations.[28]

The chaotic, distressed political and economic situation in Iran had created an unhealthy atmosphere of fear, distrust, and acute skepticism in the Iranian people.[29] When Education Program Agreement Number Four, the first official document of American technical assistance to education in Iran, was signed in April, 1952, inflation had set in to aggravate the situation. Unemployment was high, and most government workers, including teachers, had not received their salaries.[30]

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[26]Wilber, op. cit., pp. 100-101.

[27]Pahlavi, op. cit., p. 71.

[28]Shiraz Provincial Director, "Summary Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 19h to 21, Vol. 5 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1958), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

[29]Ralph E. Jones, "Completion of Tour Report, Teheran, Iran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-755, Washington, 1956), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

[30]William E. Warne, Mission for Peace (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1956), pp. 88-94.

III. THE OPERATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Although the Ministry of Education had been in existence since the middle of the nineteenth century, it was not until 1910 that it was legally organized and its powers and duties defined. These duties and the distribution of responsibilities were further stated in a law passed in 1910.[31]

Briefly, according to these laws the Minister of Education was to have a Private Secretary and an Under-Secretary of State for Education. The work of the Ministry was distributed among six departments, namely: Public Education, Higher Education, Religious Endowments, the Audit Division for Religious Endowments, Inspection and Supervision, and Business Administration. Later a Personnel Department and a Division for Supplies, Equipment, and Buildings were added.

The full title of the Minister was Minister of Sciences, Religious Endowments, and Fine Arts. He sat in the Cabinet of Ministers and was responsible only to the Prime Minister and Parliament.[32]

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[31] Arasteh, op. cit., pp. 52-53.

[32] Sadiq, op. cit., pp. 44-45; Charles J. Dove, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1992, Washington, 1963), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

At the advent of technical assistance to education in Iran, the Minister of Education wielded autocratic control over the national program of education. It was a highly centralized system, with reference to direction, control, and guidance. Decisions as to budget allocations, building and equipment fund, and supplies were often made on the basis of personal intervention or political expediency.[33]

The nation of Iran was divided into ten political subdivisions, called provinces or ostans. These were comparable to the states in the United States. Continuing the analogy, each ostan was divided into a number of counties, called shahrestans. Each shahrestan was divided into bakhsh, or districts. Each of these subdivisions had its own Chief of Education and his staff.[34]

In ascending order the education office of the bakhsh was completely dependent upon the Chief of Education of the shahrestan and his staff. They, in turn, were accountable to the chief of the ostan and his staff. The Chief of Education of the ostan and his staff were responsible to the Minister of Education in Teheran.[35]

The Minister of Education wielded complete autocratic

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[33] Joseph J. Flynn, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2638, Washington, 1958), pp. 3-5. (Mimeographed.)

[34] Arasteh, op. cit., pp. 137-138.

[35] Flynn, op. cit., p. 2.

power over the entire national system of education. He personally attended to petty detail as well as to major problems. The administrative system had created a ponderous, unwieldy organization with everyone waiting for word from above, in writing, to implement even the smallest action. To further complicate the situation, neither the Minister nor his provincial chiefs ever hesitated to make personal arrangements affecting the education program, outside of regular administrative channels.[36]

Budget making in the local areas had to wait until the Ministry of Education informed the local authorities what funds they were to receive. Then the budget could be made on a funds available basis.[37] Budget planning with program needs as a base was unthought of. Another complicating factor in this arrangement was the fact that any funds remaining in any budget at the end of the fiscal year had to be returned to the Ministry of Education. However, each Chief of Education, from the bakhsh chief to the Minister himself, was eligible for a percentage of the unexpended money. This constituted a yearly bonus. There was a tendency to reduce program expansion to save funds and

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[36] Pahlavi, op. cit., pp. 175-177.

[37] Kermanshah Provincial Director, "Summary Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 15-19, Vol. 4 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1957), p. 134. (Mimeographed.)

thus assure the augmentation of personal incomes.[38]

Several basic internal problems interfered with stability, continuity of program, and development of qualified personnel in the Ministry of Education. One problem centered around the brief tenure of officials charged with carrying out a program of education in Iran.[39] From 1907 to 1952, the office of the Minister of Education had been filled eighty-seven times. Another basic problem was that inevitably most of the top members of the Ministry were removed with the Minister. This constant change kept the Ministry in a perpetual state of ferment and militated against coherent, long-range planning.[40] Because of this rapid turnover, uncertainty of tenure, and the paucity of the supply of trained people for these positions, most of the incumbents were relatively poorly equipped for an assignment of such magnitude.[41]

In 1952, strong measures were taken by the Minister of Education to curtail the power of the clergy which had arisen once again. The Minister dismissed hundreds of old

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[38]The author personally encountered this situation in the administrative process of program development.

[39]Herman Hendricks, "Agriculture, 1961 Annual Report" (Teheran: Communications Resource Division, 1962), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[40]Flynn, op. cit., pp. 3-5.

[41]Harry D. Craig, General Education Activities Report (Teheran: Communication Media Resources Division, 1957), pp. 145-148.

fashioned, ecclesiastical teachers, and had begun to replace them with younger, more progressive teachers. This aroused the resentment of the strong and well organized religious group. The situation was particularly aggravated by the fact that a teacher on civil service might be removed from a post of assignment, but remain permanently on the payroll. Disgruntled ex-teachers created a poor morale factor in the country.[42]

In 1952 very few of the Ministry of Education officials in Teheran had been very far out of the capital city. Very few had ever visited remote areas of the country to study and evaluate problems involved in carrying out local programs.[43] This lack of awareness of the immensity of the problems outside Teheran had caused an imbalance in the national problem-solving approach, and had caused an unreasonable concentration on Teheran and its problems of education.[44]

Some efforts had been made to gather statistics but the information gathered was inadequate and inaccurate. The information had been improperly filed and had not been used

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[42]Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 1.

[43]J. Glenn Morrill, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 566, Washington, 1954), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[44]Stewart B. Hamblen, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2298, Washington, 1955), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

as a factor in program planning. In most instances the ostan chiefs of education had no reliable statistics upon which to base sound planning. Most of the statistical information appeared to be speculative.[45]

Iran's failure to develop a program of statistical research and evaluation was due, in part, to a lack of appreciation and understanding of the value of statistics in planning and policy determination.[46]

The first American minister to Iran encountered difficulties in obtaining statistics. Benjamin said in speaking of "traceable" figures he had obtained: "I say traceable, for it is hard to realize with what difficulty one obtains precise information in Persia. Not only are attempts made at historic records comparatively rare, but those which do exist are vague, imaginative, florid in style, and perplexing."[47]

One of the first studies made by the Foreign Operations Administration in Iran was a review of the organization and operation of the Ministry of Education. This review was

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[45] John E. Bean, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-445, Washington, 1955), pp. 2-3. (Mimeographed.)

[46] B. A. Schiro, "Case History: Financial and Economic Statistics Project 256-Q-78-AA (previously 265-78-131)" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1870, Washington, 1963), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

[47] S. G. W. Benjamin, Persia and The Persians (Boston: Tichnor and Company, 1887), pp. 328 and 432.

made, not by the Division of Education, but by an American advisor in the Division of Public Administration. Ten major problems as stated in this study were:

1. There was no codification of statutes, decrees, and directives. There was a patchwork quilt of overlapping as the Ministry of Education had expanded.
2. There was no expressed philosophy of education, or any concrete design to improve operations.
3. There were no data to define the scope of the education problems in Iran. There were no definitive objectives or plans either long-range or short range. There were no evidences of time phasing. There was no budgetary planning to support a program of education.
4. There was a complete lack of specific functional assignments to organizational components.
5. No method existed, nor was intent obvious, to delegate responsibilities to individuals, and to appraise their stewardship.
6. Over-centralization of authority was evident in every department of the Ministry of Education on a national and local level.
7. The reporting system to provide timely and accurate data was inadequate and ineffective.
8. There was a lack of trained personnel to perform managerial tasks.
9. There was a lack of managerial control to assure accomplishment of required and assigned tasks.
10. There was a poor groupment of kindred-interest activities organizationally.[48]

The American technician quoted above suggested that the most important problem faced by the Ministry of Education was that of defining the qualitative and quantitative objectives of the substantive tasks of the Ministry.

At the beginning of technical assistance to Iran the national program of education in Iran did not have clearly defined objectives nor did it have any clearly defined

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[48] Flynn, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

policies, plans, or procedures designed to attain objectives. No attainable and equitable standards of performance existed, and there were no effective appraisal techniques.[49]

IV. AN OVERVIEW OF THE IN-SCHOOL PROGRAM IN IRAN IN 1952

The lack of a defined, organized philosophy of education in the Ministry of Education was reflected in the entire system of education. The selection and identification of desirable attitudes upon which to predicate teaching and learning materials had not been done. There seemed to be little interest in or understanding of attitudinal changes through education planning.[50]

At this time Iran was primarily an agricultural country. Better than 80 per cent of the total population were engaged in agricultural activity. Most of those people lived in approximately 48,000 villages of Iran. More than 90 per cent of the total population was illiterate. Three per cent of the population owned more than 90 per cent of the land.[51]

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[49] Ibid., pp. 5-6.

[50] W. Bruce Welch, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-581, Washington, 1956), p. 5. (Mimeographed.); Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 13; and Bradford, op. cit., pp. 4-11.

[51] H. Arsanjani, Implementation of Iran's Land Program (Teheran: Offset Press, Inc., 1962), p. 9.

The landlords, who were more often than not absentee landlords, owned the villages and, in effect, the villagers themselves. Few villages were provided with schools. In the villages where schools existed they were usually small, dark, unventilated, unheated rooms. The teacher was either a mullah teaching for his sustenance, or a poorly trained teacher who had been sent to the village by the Ministry of Education.[52] Most of the village schools offered no classes beyond grades 3 or 4. A few of the larger villages were found to offer schooling through grade 6. A few village schools permitted girls to attend up to grade 4. There was no co-education after this point. Most girls and women were illiterate.[53]

There were in Iran at this time a few schools which were in somewhat better condition than the ones which will be described. However, these were very few in number and their standards were far below those which could be considered adequate.[54]

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[52]Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., Section 11, Vol. 5, p. 1.

[53]William Neufeld, "Report on Youth Activities in Iran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-228, Washington, 1955), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[54]Hoyt B. Turner, "Questionnaire of Technical Cooperation in Education" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFA 1251, Washington, 1955), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

The curriculum. The curricula of both the elementary and secondary schools in Iran were stiff, sterile, non-functional, and had little or no relationship to real life.[55]

In "Survey of Education in Iran" was found the statement that "in the formal school system there exists a rigid, non-flexible curriculum which stresses rote memorization of a mass of apparently unrelated factual data designed to prepare students for college or university entrance."[56]

In discussing the secondary school curriculum Turner stated:

> The curriculum is a series of academic type subjects which are required to be taught a given number of hours each week by Ministry regulations. Life with its needs and activities is one thing. Education or schooling is another. The curriculum stresses memory of facts, theorums, formulas, equasions, poems, and so forth, which are all committee to memory. School programs have not been set up in terms of life.[57]

The elementary curriculum was limited and determined by the use of only one textbook for each grade. The Publication Department of the Ministry of Education prepared the texts. The contents of the Farsi texts were a smattering of information on all subjects and this the students were

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[55] Turner, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 8.

[56] Education Division, "Survey of Education in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1958), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[57] Education Division, "Secondary Education Under USOM Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1954), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

required to memorize. The textbooks ignored the social and economic aspects of society.[58] The information was unrelated and disjointed with no concern for developmental learning. However, Hamblen stated that elementary teachers who had become accustomed to the one-book curriculum resented suggestions of change.[59]

In the secondary schools the curriculum was non-elective with heavy emphasis on mathematics and science in the purely theoretical sense with no laboratory or practical application.[60] History was studied only as it concerned the sequence of Persian dynasties. Literature consisted of ancient Persian poetry and drama.[61] Since this curriculum was unsuited to a great number of students, the number of

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[58]Committee on Government Operations, Government Programs in International Education, Forty-second Report, House Report Number 2712 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1959), p. 35; and Elhura Barganier, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1242, Washington, 1956), pp. 4-5. (Mimeographed.)

[59]Stewart B. Hamblen, "Education Division Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 9-11a, Vol. 2 (Washington: United States Operations Mission, 1957), pp. 5-6. (Mimeographed.)

[60]Education Division, "Secondary Education," loc. cit.

[61]The author noted, in attending school programs, that even the smallest children repeated the old stories of the traditional historic drama in lengthy dramatic speeches. Dancing of traditional dances in costumes of the past, and the recitation of lengthy selections of the old poetry relating the romance and glory of ancient Persia completed the programs.

student drop-outs was high. The secondary students were forced to take eighteen subjects a week in a regular academic program, with no regard for student ability or interest. If one course were failed, the student was considered as having failed the series of courses for that year. To remain in school he was forced to repeat the entire school year.[62]

The students depended upon their ability to memorize lectures delivered by the instructor, and gave back this information on examinations. The teacher came, lectured, and departed. It was up to the student to learn. Since examinations were given but once a year, the students developed much emotional strain during the examination period.[63]

All students, upon entering the first grade, had as a goal entrance to the University. To accomplish this goal they were required to complete six years of elementary school and pass a rigid national examination. The successful graduates then attended the first cycle of secondary school.[64] The first cycle consisted of grades 7, 8, and 9. Again, they were required to sit for a rigid, harsh, national examination.

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[62]Bean, loc. cit.

[63]Obed Williamson, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2501, Washington, 1958), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[64]Harold Winer, "End of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2360, Washington, 1955), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

The successful candidates then moved on to the second cycle of the secondary schools. At the end of the grade 11 the students sat for a highly competitive national examination. The successful students then selected a major in mathematics, literature, or science for their grade 12 major.[65]

Upon graduation from secondary school the students sat for an examination to qualify for entrance to the University. Each year as the number of candidates increased, an increasing number of secondary graduates failed the entrance examinations and wandered the streets, disillusioned, unhappy, and untrained to accept employment. A few of these students were sent abroad to study if the families were financially able. The greater number stayed, in resentful apathy, in Iran.[66]

The teacher. Most of the teachers in Iran in 1952 had received inadequate teacher education. Many teachers had actually received inadequate formal education. The statistics in Table I, page 92 , indicate that 75 per cent of the teachers in Iran in 1952 had received no teacher training, that 50 per cent of the teachers had less than grade 9 achievement, while 10 per cent of the teachers had

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[65] Abul H. K. Sassani, Education in Iran (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 11.

[66] Naficy, op. cit.

less than grade 6 achievement.[67]

There was no department of elementary teacher training in the Teachers College at the University of Teheran. The future teachers of the elementary schools were graduated from the Normal schools at the end of grade 11 as compared to the secondary school graduates at grade 12.[68] The education of the Normal school graduates was primarily based upon subject matter. Little attention was given to principles of learning or methods of teaching.[69] Extra-curricular activities were practically unknown in most schools. Little attention was given to physical education or sports activities.[70]

In many of the smaller towns and villages, youths were employed as teachers in order to meet the teacher shortage.[71] A grade 6 graduate could teach up through grade 5. A grade 9 graduate was allowed to teach through grade 8.[72]

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[67] John A. Clarke, "Significant Changes in Iranian Education 1953-1963" (Teheran: Education Division, February 4, 1964), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[68] Grace Scott, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-935, Washington, 1958), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

[69] Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 5.

[70] Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 42.

[71] Education Division, "Special Report, November, 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1383, Washington, 1959), pp. 13-14. (Mimeographed.)

[72] Scott, loc. cit.

No rapport was established as such between the school, the community and the home. No organization or activity existed to bridge the gap between these institutions. The teacher was sole arbiter of education in his classroom, and in the case of small schools, in his area. In spite of his poor training and uncertainly paid salary, the teacher was accorded a great deal of respect.[73]

More than one tale was related concerning a village elementary school where the students reported faithfully every day but no teacher ever appeared. A village elder reported that the teacher had not appeared in class in his village for three years. The teacher had turned in his reports regularly, collected his salary, and had never reported to the school. In another tale, the elementary school teacher appeared only nine days of the school year.[74]

The secondary school students came to school in the morning and reported to an assigned room where they stayed all day. The teachers for the various subjects came and went. The teacher often arrived late and lectured the students on a subject which may have had little relationship to previous lectures. In many cases the teacher left the class early. The teacher felt no obligation to know his students as persons, or to counsel with them on their

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[73] Ibid., pp. 4-7.

[74] Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 6.

problems.[75] Class discussions were not permitted. A student who asked a question was considered guilty of disrespect to the teacher.[76] The teacher actually placed himself in competition with the students in his class. The tests were not designed to determine the effectiveness of the teaching, or the kind and amount of learning. In many cases the failure of a large number of the students was thought to demonstrate the superior intellectual ability of the teacher in contrast to his students.[77] This viewpoint was not confined to Iran but occurred in other parts of the Middle East.[78]

In the larger towns and cities, many teachers taught in several schools during the day. It was not unusual for a teacher to have classes in from three to five schools in one day. The travelling teacher did not belong to a specific school faculty and felt no responsibility to any school or

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[75] Turner, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., pp. 7-8.

[76] Pahlavi, op. cit., p. 258.

[77] The author encountered this situation while working in Isfahan as an education advisor. The teachers boasted of the number of students who failed due to their inability to reach the intellectual level of the teacher.

[78] Agency for International Development, Office of Planning and Research, "Turkish Education Goals and the Present System" (Washington: Agency for International Development, 1963), pp. 6-9. (Mimeographed.)

to any group of students.[79]

The travelling teacher was not only meeting the problem of teacher shortage, but was adding to his small income by teaching classes in excess of the minimum demanded of him by his contract with the Ministry of Education. Since most of these teachers were prepared to teach only one subject, this was a convenient method to assist the schools to meet their curricular obligations.[80] The teachers, as a group, supported this situation by refusing to teach any subject aside from their major however closely related it might be. This created an administrative problem.[81]

The secondary school teachers who were obtained from the Teachers College specialized primarily in subject matter. Very little attention was given to the learning process, teaching methods, concern for the individual, preparation of learning material, construction of tests, the evolving of a philosophy of education, or to guidance and counselling.[82]

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[79] A. Glenn Wahlquist, "Terminal Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 186, Washington, 1954), p. 15. (Mimeographed.)

[80] Bean, loc. cit.

[81] William B. Warne, "Fiftieth Weekly Report for July 4 through July 9, 1953" (Technical Cooperation Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC 5, Washington, July 9, 1953), pp. 9, 31, 40. (Mimeographed.)

[82] Regina M. Goff, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-396, Washington, 1956), pp. 2-8. (Mimeographed.)

No summer session training courses, or in-service teacher training for either elementary or secondary teachers were in existence in Iran in 1952. Teachers continued listlessly to teach as they had been taught, with little imagination or initiative in evidence. Discipline was rigid and severe.[83]

The school plant. There was a severe shortage of school buildings in Iran in 1952. Most of the villages had no schools.[84] In an effort to minimize the lack of buildings, the Ministry of Education had used government and military installations and had rented private buildings and homes for use as schools. Many school buildings had been started but were uncompleted.

Building contracts were personally negotiated. They were not binding agreements or legal documents. An example of the result of this state of affairs and the inexperience of the planners was the vocational-agricultural school in Kerman, in south-eastern Iran. When the building was completed it was discovered that water and electrical distribution systems had not been included in the building. Therefore, they had to be negotiated separately at extra cost.[85]

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[83] F. M. Esfandiary, "Middle East Paradox--The Beggar Rich," The New York Times Magazine, November 3, 1963, pp. 83-85.

[84] Williamson, loc. cit.; and Education Division, "Education Report July 1952" (Teheran: United States Technical Cooperation for Iran, 1953), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

[85] Education Division, "Special Report, November," op. cit., p. 5.

The classrooms in most of the schools were dark, dirty, poorly ventilated, and bare. School maintenance was negligible. Most of the classrooms were overcrowded.[86] The students sat jammed shoulder to shoulder on narrow wooden benches to listen to the lecture, or to wait for a teacher to appear. If a blackboard existed it was of poor quality and usually only the students in the first row had any idea what was on the board. Sanitary facilities were almost non-existent.[87] Most of the school grounds were small in area and bare of any type of playground equipment.[88]

The school library. In the few schools where a handful of books existed, the students were not allowed access to them. The cases were locked and an attendant kept the key in his pocket. The attendant was personally responsible for the books and had no intention of losing them. Further, the more books in his custody, the more important his apparent responsibility. His prestige and pocketbook were important to him.[89]

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[86] Shiraz Provincial Director, loc. cit.

[87] Thomas J. Edwards, What Is Fundamental Education in Iran? (Teheran: Communications Resource Division, 1961), p. 2.

[88] William B. Warne, "Twenty-seventh Weekly Report for February 9 through February 14, 1953" (Technical Cooperation Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC 40, Washington, February 15, 1953), pp. 2-8. (Mimeographed.)

[89] Barganier, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

In some schools the teacher owned the only text book and consequently had been the only one to see it. The teacher took the book home with him after school.[90]

School administration. School administration was extremely weak.[91] School administration and supervision were not included as subjects in the teacher training classes. In most schools the principal was elected by the school faculty from among their own number. He owed allegiance to this group, and outside of checking attendance, writing reports to the Minister of Education, and trying to increase the school budget he had little responsibility for the school. Each teacher managed his own affairs.[92] Since a student passed or failed on one final examination it had not been considered necessary to keep any records on the students or their progress except that of the final grade. Report cards were not made either for permenent record or for reporting to the home. It was considered as being

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[90] Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 6; and Edward Overend, "Syracuse University Team Monthly Report for December 1956" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1725, Washington, January 1957), pp. 16-18. (Mimeographed.)

[91] R. Cohen, "Development Grant Program Evaluation Case History" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1992, Washington, 1963), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[92] Education Division, "Special Report for August, 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-728, Washington, September 1958), pp. 3-5. (Mimeographed.)

shameful to the father and deleterious to his prestige in the community if a poor report should be sent home.[93]

Authority was highly centralized in the Ministry of Education at the national level, creating a lack of initiative on the part of lesser officials.[94] No action was taken on any matter unless a directive, in writing, was received from the Minister's office.[95] The time loss involved in this process was great.

Another administrative problem was the disruptive activity of rival groups striving for power within the Ministry organization.[96]

School supervision. As an activity, supervision existed under the title of inspection. No element of desirable school supervision was included in the program of inspection. It was primarily a critical, complaining analysis of the teacher. It was negativism at its worst.[97] Effectiveness of teaching was often tested by questioning

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[93]Craig, op. cit., p. 21.

[94]Herbert G. Espy, "Strengthening the Ministry of Education for Leadership" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1962), p. 29. (Mimeographed.)

[95]Touran Aalam and Thomas J. Edwards (eds.), Report of the Fall Education Conference of the Iranian Ministry of Education and the United States Operations Mission to Iran (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1961), p. 26.

[96]Bradford, op. cit., pp. 11-12.

[97]Turner, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 11.

a few children in a classroom to see how thoroughly they had memorized the material from the text.[98] This usually led to antagonism and humiliation on the part of the teacher.[99]

To further aggravate the situation there were few transportation facilities available to encourage or permit the inspectors to travel. Many of Iran's thousands of villages had never seen an inspector.[100]

Education for girls. Educational opportunities for girls were scanty. In the rural areas girls seldom had an opportunity to attend any sort of school and then never above the fourth grade. Thus, among the girls and women, there was a high degree of illiteracy.[101]

The few secondary schools available to girls in the cities offered, in general, the same rigid college-preparatory curricula as did the boys' secondary schools. Some work was done in the field of art. No effort was made in practical arts or vocational training. While the girls might make artificial flowers or doll dresses, the idea of making their own cloting was distasteful to them.[102]

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[98] Ibid., pp. 11-12.

[99] Harry W. Kerwin, Nathan Pitts, and John David Laird, A Handbook on Educational Supervision and Administration for American Technicians in Iran (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1960), p. 63.

[100] Turner, "Completion of Tour Report," loc. cit.

[101] Bradford, op. cit., pp. 19-20.

[102] R. B. Farnsworth, "Report on Survey, University of

Practical sewing was considered the job of a hired seamstress.[103]

One prominent Ministry of Education official expressed his opinion during a national education conference saying that it was not necessary for girls to learn to cook, sew, and care for babies, as they would all have servants to do this for them.[104]

In 1952, in all of Iran there were only 750 girls in classes above grade 6. There were only 1,200 girls in all of the lower classes.[105]

General education. The Ministry of Education at this time had separated its educational offerings into two major divisions. The larger of these two divisions was general education. The other division concerned itself with vocational and technical training. Each of these divisions was headed by a Ministry official who was directly responsible to the Minister of Education. These departments were as

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Teheran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram ICATO-868, Washington, December 1958), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[103] Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 73-75, and 110.

[104] This statement was made by Dr. Banani in the presence of the author during a conference on Rural Education in Iran, March 13, 1961.

[105] Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 68.

completely separated from each other as though they belonged to separate ministries.

General education included no industrial arts, exploratory agriculture, or any type of vocational or technical training. This program excluded nearly every form of educational activity except a rigid, college preparatory group of courses and a small sample of art.[106]

No handicraft was included in any general education curricula. The use of ordinary hand tools was considered vocational in nature and interest, and therefore had no place in an academic situation. Painting and some sculpturing were permitted.[107]

The General Education section of the Ministry of Education also included, besides elementary and secondary education, teacher training, museums and archeology, and the publications department. The adult education program had never developed to more than an approach to a literacy training program and even this had disappeared.[108]

Physical education and sports activities in the schools had never become a reality even under the impetus

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[106] Avis L. Chase, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2338, Washington, 1957), pp. 2-3. (Mimeographed.)

[107] J. D. Hampton, "End of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-831, Washington, 1961), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[108] Ibid., p. 8.

given them by Reza Shah. Sports clubs, outside of school, had developed to some extent. In most cases these clubs were in the larger cities and were available only to a few.[109]

A diploma from a general secondary school, with its emphasis on academic education, was of great importance in securing a position in a business firm as well as for entrance to the university.[110]

Vocational education. The second major division in the Ministry of Education, vocational education, had a complex program in 1952. Its objectives were not clear and the organizational methods used to achieve its understood objectives were uncertain and confused. Specifically, vocational education included vocational agriculture education, trade-training, and business education. This latter activity existed in intent only. There were no business education classes actually being conducted in the public schools at this time.[111] The little training available was done in a few poorly conducted private classes.[112]

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[109] Neufeld, op. cit., p. 1.

[110] Overseas Consultants Incorporated, Report on Education in Iran (Teheran: Plan Organization, 1949), pp. 30-31.

[111] Bruce D. Blackstone, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-459, Washington, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[112] Ibid.

No adult classes, either day or evening, were being conducted in trades or agriculture.

In 1952, the rural elementary schools seldom offered educational opportunities beyond grade 4. When a rural boy had completed these grades he could enroll in one of the twenty-three rural agricultural schools.[113] These schools included grades 5 through 7. This period of study was not recognized by the Ministry of Education as being comparable to grades 5 through 7 in the regular school pattern. If a boy wished to continue his studies past the rural agricultural school, he was required to repeat grades 5 and 6 in an urban elementary school. When he had received his certificate from the urban elementary school he could enroll in the first cycle of the secondary school, grades 7 through 9. From this point the student could progress to a secondary vocational agricultural school ending with grade 11. If he wished to enter the Karadj College of Agriculture, the student was required to enter and complete grade 12 in an urban secondary school.[114]

Under the entrance requirements of Karadj College of Agriculture, rural boys had very little opportunity to enter. Since most boys were unwilling or unable to spend

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[113] Winer, loc. cit.

[114] Marvin Cernik, "A Study of the Agricultural High School Program in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1962), pp. 9-14. (Mimeographed.)

these extra years in preparation, the students in the agricultural college were principally boys from the larger cities. These students did not have the rural or village background necessary to develop the needed rural leadership.[115]

Only the boys who had completed grade 6 of urban elementary school were eligible for entrance to a vocational industrial school, and there were only five such schools in the entire nation of Iran.[116]

Instruction in the vocational industrial and agricultural institutions was almost entirely by the lecture method. Textbooks were scarce. Very little practical work was done. Instructional facilities were inadequate and the quality of teaching was very poor.

An American technician in a provincial area said, "One of the handicaps which is slowly being overcome is the lack of professional ability of the teachers. As craftsmen, which most of them are, they do a creditable job, but some of them do not know how to read or write."[117]

In the vocational industrial schools only two trades were taught regardless of the needs of the local area.

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[115] Turner, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 18.

[116] Sassani, op. cit., p. 15.

[117] Stanley J. Reeves, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-267, Washington, 1958), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

These trades were carpentry, and metal work on a limited basis.

In the agricultural schools emphasis was placed on memorization of long lists of scientific names of plants and insects. No practical farm work was offered. The ultimate aim of a student entering the village school was to move through the schools to Karadj College. From there he could hope to secure a desk job in the Ministry of Agriculture.[118]

In a very few agricultural schools some attempt had been made to establish school gardens. Laborers were hired to do the work while the teacher and students observed.[119]

Many who enrolled in vocational schools were not interested in learning a trade, but were interested in adding to their total of years in school in order to earn a commission in the army or police. About 10 per cent of those entering a vocational school completed grade 12.[120]

The emphasis placed upon the type of school certificate or diploma obtained had been based upon an economic necessity. A diploma from an urban secondary school had not only permitted the student to take the entrance examination to the University, it had also given him a favorable place on the salary schedule on any government payroll. Only the

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[118]Winer, op. cit., p. 6.

[119]Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 75.

[120]Winer, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

holders of urban elementary school diplomas had been accorded advantages in regard to salary schedules.

The certificate issued by the agricultural schools or the vocational trade schools did not have this advantage.[121] However these certificates had been accorded some recognition by the army and the police.[122]

In view of these points it was difficult to determine why any student would enter any but the classical elementary or secondary school. A review of the curricula in use at the beginning of this research disclosed that trade schools and agriculture schools carried in reality two curricula in one, i.e., a college preparatory course and a vocational training course, a system requiring a forty-eight hour week and twenty-eight separate subjects per week. This was not an attempt at a comprehensive type of school. It was an attempt to guarantee all students an opportunity to learn a trade and at the same time acquire sufficient academic skill to challenge the twelfth year examination of the regular classic academic secondary school. All students entering the vocational school were required to take the full offering. No attempt was made at counselling or guidance.[123]

This had created a very difficult situation in the

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[121] Overseas Consultants Incorporated, loc. cit.

[122] Winer, loc. cit.

[123] Overseas Consultants Incorporated, op. cit., pp. 49-50.

vocational school. The student who may have been sincerely concerned with learning a trade may not have been academically capable of carrying the school load. In addition there appeared to have been many students who were entering the trade schools because these were the only secondary schools in the area. Many a student attended school, if one were available, on the theory that any school was better than no school at all.[124]

Practically no teacher training was done in vocational education. Graduates from the trade schools became teachers in other trade schools.[125] They had not received any methods instruction of any kind and knew nothing about lesson plans, job sheets, or trade objectives. In most cases they had developed very little skill in a trade but had acquired a memorized knowledge of mathematics, science, physics, and drawing. In a number of the trade schools local craftsmen were hired to do the actual bench work in the school shop while the young teacher stood by in aloof dignity.[126]

In trying to develop an interest in agriculture, the Minister of Education had instituted a few Agricultural

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[124] Aalam and Edwards, op. cit., pp. 1-3.

[125] Winer, op. cit., p. 7.

[126] Clarence Hendershot, Paul Luebke, and Kenneth Bailey, "Case History, Project 265-AC-61-AG-5 Vocational Education" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1692, Washington, March 30, 1963), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

Normal Schools. The intent was to train elementary school teachers, with a bias in agriculture, who would teach in rural and village schools.[127]

The Ministry secured as faculty for their Agricultural Normal Schools graduates from Karadj Agricultural College. These young graduates, who only knew theoretical agriculture, and nothing about elementary education, and still less about teaching, prepared teachers for Iran's rural and village elementary schools.[128]

Tribal education. The nomadic tribal groups of Iran numbered approximately two million people in 1952, and represented a political and social problem of long standing to the central government.[129] The nomadic tribes were the most picturesque people in Iran. They had furnished the backbone of the Iranian army and several ruling dynasties had sprung from the tribes. These nomadic peoples controlled wealth in money as well as in livestock and land.[130]

Immediately after World War I the tribes rebelled and the central government was unable to control them. Banditry

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[127] Wahlquist, loc. cit.

[128] Samuel E. Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-135, Washington, 1957), pp. 5-7. (Mimeographed.)

[129] Banani, op. cit., p. 27.

[130] Wilber, op. cit., p. 207.

and looting went on constantly.[131] Whole towns were looted and internal security for the nation was non-existent.[132]

Reza Shah brought the tribal groups together by force and imprisoned the leaders in Teheran. Entire families accompanied the prisoners to the capital. The children attended school in Teheran.[133]

The army and the gendarmerie were brutal in their control of the tribes. Money was extracted from tribesmen and they were held in virtual slavery. When Reza Shah abdicated in 1941, the tribal chiefs were freed from prison and returned to their people to again lead uprisings against the government, engaging in fratricidal warfare with the government troops.[134]

In 1946 an arrangement was made with the tribal chiefs to turn their arms over to the government. In turn they were to have representation in Parliament, and were to receive health and education facilities.[135]

The representation in Parliament became a fact. The facilities in education and health seemed to have lagged in implementation. Although by 1952 some of the Khans, or

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[131]Banani, op. cit., p. 37.

[132]Ibid., p. 35.

[133]Pahlavi, op. cit., p. 220.

[134]Banani, op. cit., p. 218.

[135]Wilber, op. cit., p. 108.

tribal leaders, had been educated either in the schools of Teheran or in Europe.[136]

In 1952 the tribes were restive under the changing and unsettled national situation.[137] Tribesmen had expressed a strong interest in an education program for their children, but at this time there was no evidence of any attempt to organize a tribal education program.[138]

Textbooks and teaching aids. In 1952 the writing of textbooks was a virtual monopoly of a few people. Only one textbook had been prepared for each school grade. This book had been used in the same grade throughout Iran. No effort had been made to adapt texts to current or changing times, or to make the material meaningful to the student. The textbooks were poorly written and poorly illustrated. No competition had existed in the textbook field. The individuals who had written the texts and who had been receiving royalties on the out-dated material had not investigated new methods or principles of textbook preparation.[139]

No particular philosophy of education had been used

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[136] Ibid., p. 207.

[137] William O. Douglas, Strange Lands and Friendly People (New York: Harper Brothers, 1951), p. 79.

[138] Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 1.

[139] Barganier, op. cit., pp. 4-6.

as a basis for these textbooks.[140] No basic objectives had been identified.[141] The content of the books had been made up of a smattering of information on all subjects and were to be memorized by the students. The material was unrelated, disjointed, and evidenced no concern for developmental learning. The social and economic aspects of society had not been considered in these textbooks. In fact many pages had been translated from American texts in a seeming random selection.[142]

In a very few of the larger city schools a few teaching aids were in evidence. In most cases the teaching aids in use consisted of a few pictures hung high on the walls. The position, well above eye level, was a safety measure to prevent the pictures from being removed by the students.[143]

V. AVAILABLE SCHOOL STATISTICS IN 1952

The statistical information in Table I was accumulated through a study of the reports of American technicians. The

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[140] Ibid.

[141] Education Division, "Monthly Report for September 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1125, Washington, November 28, 1958), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[142] Turner, "Questionnaire," op. cit., p. 8.

[143] Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 6.

technicians had obtained their information from field trips, discussions with Iranian counterparts, conferences with Ministry of Education officials, and from certified copies of translations of Ministry records. The lack of reliable statistics presented a problem to the American technicians and was mentioned repeatedly in their reports.[144]

TABLE I

AVAILABLE SCHOOL STATISTICS IN 1952*

Total population in Iran	16,549,000
Number of children of school age	2,482,000
Number of children in school	851,473
Number of elementary school students	746,473
Number of secondary school students	105,000
Total number of school teachers	25,000
Number of elementary schools	3,573
Number of secondary schools	576
Number of regular normal schools	18
Number of agricultural normal schools	7
Number of teacher training institutions	1
Number of vocational trade training schools	5
Number of agricultural elementary schools	23

[144]Schiro, op. cit., pp. 1-10; Cohen, op. cit., pp. 2-7; Craig, op. cit., pp. 20-21; Bean, op. cit., pp. 2-5; Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 69-71; and Flynn, op. cit., pp. 4-7.

TABLE I (continued)

Number of vocational teacher training institutions	0
Number of agricultural secondary schools	0
Number of tribal teacher training schools	0
Number of tribal schools	0
Number of students in vocational training schools	792
Number of students in agricultural normal schools	207
Total number of girls in elementary grades	1,200
Total number of girls in secondary grades	750
Number of in-service courses for teachers	0
Number of full time members of teachers college staff	0
Number of science laboratories in teachers college	0
Percentage of teachers without teacher training	75
Percentage of teachers under ninth grade achievement	50
Percentage of teachers under sixth grade achievement	10
Percentage of illiteracy in total population	95

*J. H. Lintner, "A Special Report on Education in Iran" (Teheran: Education Division, Agency for International Development, 1963), pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed.); Hoyt B. Turner, "Questionnaire on Technical Cooperation in Education" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1251, Washington, 1955), p. 5. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, USAID/IRAN, "Project Completion Report for Project 045" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1963), p. 1. (Mimeographed.); Harold Winer, "End of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2360, Washington, 1955), pp. 1-4. (Mimeographed.); Ahwaz Provincial Director, "Summary Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 15-19, Vol. 4 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1958), pp. 66-67. (Mimeographed.); Stewart B. Hamblen, "Education Division Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 9-11A, Vol. 2 (Washington: United

States Operations Mission, 1957), pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed.); Hoyt B. Turner, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1665, Washington, 1957), pp. 44-45. (Mimeographed.); Clark Gregory, "Education in Iran, Text of a Speech Delivered at Teheran Demonstration School" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1564, Washington, 1956), pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed.); United States Operations Mission to Iran, "Some ICA Accomplishments in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1958), pp. 33-37. (Mimeographed.); Grace Scott, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-935, Washington, 1958), pp. 3-6. (Mimeographed.); and Nathan A. Pitts, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-371, Washington, 1959), pp. 4-5. (Mimeographed.)

CHAPTER IV

THE PROGRAM OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION UNDER THE TECHNICAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION

The American Country Director for Technical Cooperation arrived in Iran in November 1951.[1] His first assignment was to negotiate a country-to-country agreement between the Government of the United States and the Government of Iran. The intent was to provide a base upon which an expanded program of technical assistance to agriculture, health, and education could be made available to Iran.

While the Country Director and Dr. Mossadegh, Prime Minister of Iran, were working out the details of a draft of an agreement, the internal situation in Iran was rapidly worsening. The economy was reaching a new low. The cost of living was climbing and unemployment was growing. At the same time the political situation was tense as the Communist controlled Tudeh party grew bolder in fomenting riots, strikes, and other civil disturbances. A growing panic was sweeping the nation as a total national collapse seemed imminent.[2]

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[1]William E. Warne, Mission for Peace (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1956), p. 30.

[3]Carnahan, Debate on Report of Sub-Committee on International Operations of the Committee on Government Operations Dealing With Iran, House, Proceedings and Debates, 85th Cong., 1st Sess., Congressional Record, Vol. 103, part 2d, pp. 1928-1931 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957);

The Country Director was under pressure to bring a program of direct technical assistance into operation as soon as possible.[3] Program agreements, within the country-to-country agreement, in agriculture, education, and health were being designed. A draft of a program agreement in education was completed and sent to Washington for discussion and approval. In March 1952, the Technical Cooperation Administration in Washington returned the text of the program agreement to Iran to be executed.[4]

I. EDUCATION AGREEMENTS ESTABLISHED UNDER TECHNICAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION

Program Agreement Number Four. Program Agreement Number Four, the first agreement on education in Iran, was

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Reece, Debate on Report of Sub-Committee on International Operations of the Committee on Government Operations Dealing With Iran, House, Proceedings and Debates, 85th Cong., 1st Sess., Congressional Record, Vol. 103, part 2d, pp. 1485-1487 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957).

[3]Warne, op. cit., pp. 46, 58, 63-64; Mission Report Office, "Status of the Education Program," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 1-8, Vol. 1 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1957), pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed.); Staff Survey Team of the Subcommittee on the Review of the Mutual Security Program, Report of Economic Assistance to Korea, Thailand and Iran with Subcommittee Recommendations (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1960), p. 18; William L. Dawson, Chairman, "United States Agency for International Development Operations in Iran," First Report of the Committee on Government Operations, Union Calendar 6, House Report 10, 85th Cong., 2d Sess. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957), pp. 10-11.

[4]Dawson, op. cit., p. 15.

signed April 1, 1952.[5] It called for a cooperative program of education to be initiated in Iran with all of its included activities governed by the terms and conditions of the exchange of notes of January 19 and 20, 1952.[6]

The stated objectives of the program agreement were (1) to facilitate the development of education and related fields in Iran through cooperative action on the part of the Technical Cooperation Administration and the Ministry of Education; (2) to stimulate and increase the interchange between the two countries of knowledge, skills, and techniques in the field of education; and (3) to further otherwise the overall economic development of Iran.[7]

Further, the agreement stated that the Technical Cooperation Administration would furnish education specialists to collaborate in carrying out activities such as (1) developing, enlarging, or improving rural training institutions; (2) training rural teachers; (3) providing essential materials and textbooks; (4) establishing demonstration schools for

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[5]J. H. Lintner, "A Special Report on Education in Iran" (Teheran: Education Division, Agency for International Development, 1963), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[6]William E. Warne, "Program Agreement Number Four and Subsequent Amendments Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Technical Cooperation Administration, Washington, April 1952), Amended May, 1952; Amended June, 1952; Amended June, 1953; Amended September, 1953; Amended November, 1954; Amended June, 1955, pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

[7]<u>Ibid</u>.

student and teacher observation and practice; (5) improving rural education facilities by renovating and remodelling existing school buildings; (6) completing unfinished school buildings; (7) constructing new school buildings; and (8) any other education projects which might be agreed upon later.[8]

The Technical Cooperation Administration was to pay all American salaries and all administrative costs of the program. The Ministry of Education was to contribute "as much as possible" toward the costs of any project. The Iranian contribution was to be primarily in kind.[9]

Program Agreement Number Four was scheduled to be viable through June 30, 1957. This agreement was amended three times to provide more funds, and was extended three times. The last extension carried the agreement through June 30, 1960.[10] The first extension of Program Agreement Number Four, signed in March 1953, established the Iran-American Joint Fund for Education. This title was changed to Master Joint Fund in 1954.[11]

Project Agreement Number Five.[12] Project Agreement

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[8] Ibid. [9] Ibid.

[10] Ibid., pp. 5, 7, 12, 18, 19, 16.

[11] Ibid., pp. 1-2.

[12] It should be noted that a Program Agreement is a broadly drawn document which encompasses all anticipated activities in a total field. A Project Agreement describes individual and specific activities within and under the broader agreement.

Number Five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, was developed in June 1952 as a student assistance program to meet the expenses of the approximately eight hundred Iranian students already studying in the United States.[13] The American Education Division of the Technical Cooperation Administration in Iran negotiated the agreement and the Near East Foundation, a private philanthropic organization, was employed on a contract basis to administer the student assistance fund in cooperation with the Iranian Ministry of Education. One million dollars was allotted for the costs of the initial year, with a total of 4.7 million dollars allotted by the United States Government for the life of the program which was to terminate in 1956.[14]

Living costs in the United States up to the amount of 160 dollars per month were allowed, as were tuition fees, other educational expenses, travel within the United States, and transportation costs to return to Iran.[15]

The stated purpose of the student assistance program was to assist qualified Iranian students to complete their

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[13] Lintner, op. cit., p. 6; and Mission Reports Office, op. cit., p. 128.

[14] Lintner, op. cit., p. 7.

[15] William E. Warne, "Project Agreement Number Five Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 29, 1952), pp. 1-16. (Mimeographed.)

training in the United States and return to Iran to assist in carrying out the objectives of the United States technical assistance program in education.[16]

Project Agreement Number Twelve. Project Agreement Number Twelve, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, was signed on June 23, 1952,[17] and terminated March 31, 1953. It included ten sub-projects:[18]

1. Building, equipping and supplying a demonstration elementary school and a junior high school in Teheran to demonstrate modern teaching methods, the use of new equipment and materials, to train a nucleus of Iranian teachers, to provide for student teaching, and to stimulate interest in education.[19]

2. To assist in setting up and equipping two demonstration play grounds in Teheran to encourage the use of school and public play grounds in Iran.

3. To complete nineteen unfinished elementary schools in nineteen Isfahan villages.[20]

4. To develop courses in blacksmithing and simple farm machinery in the agricultural school at Shiraz. Equipment and supplies for these courses were included.[21]

5. The installation of rural teacher training activities in all ten ostans and to provide for bringing

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[16] Ibid.

[17] William E. Warne and Mahmoud Hesabe, "Project Agreement Number Twelve Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Technical Cooperation Administration, Washington, June 23, 1952), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[18] Ibid., pp. 18-16.

[19] Ibid., p. 3.

[20] Ibid., p. 8.

[21] Ibid., p. 14.

thirty-five selected teacher trainers to Teheran for training. These trainers were to return to their own areas and between them to train seven hundred other rural teachers.[22]

6. To complete or to build one agricultural training school in each ostan. Each school to be equipped and furnished with textbooks, materials and supplies, with the intent of improving agricultural education through the use of better methods, teaching, and equipment. Classes for young adult farmers were to be provided.[23]

7. To build and equip thirty-one rural elementary schools in cooperation with the villagers who were to supply the land and manual labor.

8. To establish a demonstration elementary school in each ostan with intent to demonstrate modern teaching methods, use of school equipment, and to provide in-service and practice training for rural teachers.[24]

9. Two pilot combination elementary-vocational schools were to be built and equipped in northern Iran.[25]

10. To print and distribute maps, teaching materials, elementary school textbooks, and supplementary readers.[26]

Project Agreement Number Sixty-six. Project Agreement Number Sixty-six, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, developing a literacy training program for the Gendarmerie, was signed June 24, 1952.[27] The agreement stated that among

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[22] Ibid., p. 23.

[23] Ibid., p. 27.

[24] Ibid., pp. 28-29.

[25] Ibid., p. 31.

[26] Ibid., p. 32.

[27] William E. Warne, Mehdi Azar, and Gholam Hossein Sadighi, "Project Agreement Number Sixty-six Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, June 24, 1952), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

the total number of 20,000 Gendarmes scattered throughout Iran in fifteen hundred posts, 12,000 were illiterate and 5,000 others had a very low level of literacy. Since the Gendarmes performed the duties of rural police in the smaller villages, the agreement stated further, it was deemed essential that these men be able to read and write Farsi well enough to perform their duties acceptably.[28] It was expected that the interest of the villagers would be increased in literacy and education. The agreement also stated that it was hoped that the experience gained in carrying out the Gendarme literacy training program would provide extremely valuable information for planning the proposed nation-wide literacy training program at a later date.[29]

Project Agreement Number Sixty-six further stated that the first Gendarme literacy training program was to be installed in the Qum and Arak areas of Iran, where there were sixty posts and eight hundred Gendarmes. Classes were to be started at each post and post commanders were to be given training in teaching reading and writing to illiterates. As soon as classes were started satisfactorily in one area a field team was to move to another area and repeat the operation.[30]

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[28] Ibid., p. 1.

[29] Ibid.

[30] Ibid.

Materials were to be supplied to the students. About three months after starting the classes a pamphlet was to be issued in anticipation of the Gendarmes' developed ability to read. The pamphlets were to deal with official duties and community interests including agriculture and health.[31]

Classes were to be held at Gendarmerie schools to teach English to specially selected officers and men. These men were, at the same time, to attend classes in medicine, transportation, and communications.[32]

Project Agreement Number Forty-six. Signed on March 19, 1953, and pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, Project Agreement Number Forty-six was to provide buildings and facilities for improving the system of education in Iran.[33]

This agreement stated that in order to relate the project directly to technical assistance the following essentials were stressed: (1) knowledge of the availability and use of local building materials; (2) types of buildings necessary for particular needs; and (3) the need for understanding the place of cooperation among landlords, peasants, government officials, and other pertinent agencies. Special

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[31] Ibid., p. 2. [32] Ibid.

[33] William E. Warne and Mehdi Azar, "Project Agreement Number Forty-six Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 19, 1953), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

emphasis was to be put on the part that parents and community must play in the establishment of schools for their children.[34]

Project Agreement Number Forty-six was divided into seven sub-activities:

1. Agricultural schools were to be built, or adapted, and equipped to train teachers in agricultural practices. Some teachers were to be trained to teach in vocational agriculture schools, and others in elementary schools. Facilities were to be provided for demonstration and research in the problems of improving seed, livestock, fruits and vegetables, soil, irrigation, and in the use of all types of farm implements and machinery. All of the above activities were to be confined to one demonstration agriculture school in each ostan. In the Teheran region this activity was to be carried out in the Varamin area by contract with the Near East Foundation. This project was to be carried out by the cooperation of American and Iranian technicians from January 1, to June 30, 1953.[35]

2. Six existing vocational industrial schools were being equipped. These schools were in Teheran, Tabriz, Yazd, Fars, Isfahan, and Meshed.[36] The curriculum was to be revised so that the six-year course could be reduced to a three-year course. Special teacher training courses were to be set up in the Teheran school. This project was to be carried out by American and Iranian technicians from February 1, to June 30, 1953.[37]

3. This activity dealt with the adapting and equipping of homemaking schools.[38] A demonstration homemaking school was to be established in each ostan to demonstrate training in homemaking

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[34] Ibid., p. 2.

[35] Ibid., p. 3.

[36] Ibid.

[37] Ibid.

[38] Ibid.

practices to girls and to adult women. Fifty homemaking teacher trainees, five from each ostan, were to be trained in summer classes in Teheran. This sub-project was to be carried out by Iranian and American technicians from February 1, to June 30, 1953.[39]

4. Sub-activity four concerned the building, adapting and equipping of rural schools.[40] Emphasis was to be placed on the school as a community center. Facilities were to be supplied to carry on community activities. This activity was to be carried out by Iranian and American technicians from January 15, to June 30, 1953.[41]

5. Normal schools were to be adapted and equipped in each ostan with the intention of strengthening the teacher training program through better facilities. A revised curriculum was also planned.[42]

   Assistance was to be given to the Ministry of Education in improving facilities in twenty normal schools throughout the country. Teaching supplies such as reading materials, visual aids, textbooks and other technical materials were to be provided.[43]

6. Playgrounds were to be adapted and equipped in all ostans. It was intended that these playgrounds would encourage good school physical education programs and solve the problem of the leisure time needs of Iranian youth.[44] The physicial education program planned for Teheran in 1952 was to be used as a training center. These facilities were to be expanded to demonstration facilities in the other nine ostans. In each of these centers instructors were to be trained to carry out the program. This sub-activity was to be carried on by Iranian and American technicians from March 1, to June 30, 1953.[45]

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[39] Ibid., p. 4.

[40] Ibid.

[41] Ibid.

[42] Ibid., p. 5.

[43] Ibid.

[44] Ibid.

[45] Ibid., p. 6.

7. Secondary demonstration schools were to be adapted and equipped in all ostans. The agreement states that because the secondary schools were inadequate for any other type of school program than the sterile traditional memorization of facts, it was intended to adapt and equip one secondary demonstration school in each ostan. This sub-activity was to be carried out by Iranian and American technicians from February 1, to June 30, 1953.[46]

Project Agreement Number Forty-five. March 30, 1953, Project Agreement Number Forty-five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, was signed and entered into force on that date. It was to remain in force until the provided funds were spent.[47]

Under a title Training Iranian Nationals,[48] the activities of this project were to be carried out in regular schools, in special courses during the school year, or in summer sessions.

This project absorbed all of the ten sub-activities carried on under Project Agreement Number Twelve.[49]

Project Agreement Number Forty-five was divided into nine sub-activities:[50]

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[46] Ibid.

[47] William E. Warne and Mehdi Azar, "Project Agreement Number Forty-five Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 30, 1953), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

[48] Ibid., p. 1.

[49] Ibid.

[50] Ibid., p. 2.

1. The training of teacher trainers. A staff of Iranians were to be trained in Teheran to be the instructors in a full scale teacher training program to be conducted during the next summer on a national basis. American educators and the newly trained Iranians were to teach courses of six to eight weeks in duration.[51]

2. The training of demonstration school faculties for all ten ostans.[52]

3. The training of classroom teachers was to be carried on in each of the ten ostans as an in-service program to improve the skills of elementary school teachers. A minimum of 2,500 rural elementary teachers from every ostan were to be taught by the trained Iranian staff in modern methods and techniques. They were to be assisted in revising the elementary curriculum to gear it more closely to the needs of rural children in Iran. Each of the newly oriented teachers was to receive a minimum supply of teaching aids to enable him to put into practice the new techniques. The training was to be carried out in six-week courses from July 1, to August 31, 1953.[53]

4. Training was to be offered to school administrators and supervisors. This training was to take place in all ostans with the exception of Khorassan and Kerman. Fifty selected administrators and supervisors were to be trained in the modern techniques of supervision. The training was to be done in six-week courses from January through May 1953. Each newly trained supervisor was to be provided with transportation in order to carry out his supervisory functions.[54]

5. The training of Iranian nations in the English language was to be carried on in all ostans. It was to be available to all Iranians. There were to be ten American instructors, one in each ostan to supervise and direct the English language courses. The American instructors were to train Iranians to teach the beginning classes. The

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[51] Ibid.

[52] Ibid.

[53] Ibid.

[54] Ibid., p. 3.

Americans were to teach the advanced classes. Materials were to be provided by the Technical Cooperation Administration and by the Iran-American Society. This sub-activity also stated that the courses were to be offered only to the employees of the various Ministries with which the Technical Cooperation Administration was to work. It was estimated that there would be ten thousand of these employees to receive instruction.[55]

6. The training of normal-school students in audio-visual methods was to be done in twenty normal schools throughout the country.[56]

7. Ten agricultural school directors and fifty instructors from the ten schools were to be trained in modern teaching methods in agriculture. These schools were to be given sufficient equipment to carry out the newly learned techniques. The Agreement states that at the time this document was being signed the ten directors were in a special nine-weeks training course.[57]

8. Six directors and thirty instructors from six industrial schools in major ostans were to be given special training before the fall opening of school. This training was to be done under the supervision of American technicians in six-week courses from mid-June through August. Shop equipment was to be purchased for this training.[58]

9. The director and four staff members of a selected girl's school in Teheran were to be trained to organize a homemaking teacher training institution. This institution was to train the homemaking staff of one institution in each of the ten ostans. This training course was to be carried out from mid-June through August by the Iranian staff trained by the American technicians.[59]

10. Twenty physical education instructors were to be trained in Teheran in organized play, competitive sports, and in the use of better equipment to

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[55] Ibid.

[56] Ibid.

[57] Ibid., p. 4.

[58] Ibid.

[59] Ibid., pp. 4-5.

> develop physical education. The training was to be done during July and August. Emphasis was to be on intramural sports as a departure from the individual type sports carried on in Iran.[60]

Project Agreement Number Forty-seven. Project Agreement Number Forty-seven, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, was signed March 30, 1953. It was to continue from the date of signing until the funds were expended.[61]

Under this project sixteen demonstration schools were to be established from January through June 1953. The purpose of these schools was to demonstrate modern teaching techniques and the use of materials, equipment, and textbooks.[62]

Project Agreement Number Forty-eight. Agreement Forty-eight established a program of administration. Pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, it was signed on March 30, 1953.[63]

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[60] Ibid., p. 5.

[61] William E. Warne and Mehdi Azar, "Project Agreement Number Forty-seven Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 30, 1953), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[62] Ibid.

[63] William E. Warne, "Project Agreement Number Forty-eight Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Foreign Technical Cooperation Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 30, 1953), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

Article II of this agreement also stated:

> This project is designed to insure the achievement of the goals set forth in the accepted objectives of equipping, building, and staffing of schools and the construction and implementation of the curriculum. The program will be carried out by Iranian and American technicians from January 1 to June 30, 1953, in all ostans.
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> Each ostan is to be divided into five supervisory areas with Iranian supervisors to be placed in charge of each area. Those supervisors will have responsibility for the follow-up of the entire program.[64]

Project Agreement Number Forty-nine. Agreement Forty-nine was signed March 30, 1953, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four,[65] providing for books, pamphlets, teacher's manuals, educational magazines, health readers, arithmetic texts, and audio-visual aids to be designed for distribution specifically to rural school teachers and rural school children.[66]

Project Agreement Number Seventy-six. Agreement Seventy-six, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, was signed November 11, 1953. This agreement was to establish

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[64] Ibid., p. 1.

[65] William E. Warne and Mehdi Azar, "Project Agreement Number Forty-nine Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 30, 1953), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[66] Ibid.

an audio-visual service within the Ministry of Education.[67] Its activities were to be carried on in Teheran, in the National Teachers College of the University of Teheran, as the Fine Arts Department[68] of the Ministry of Education.[69]

The specific objectives were to train one hundred Iranian teachers and technicians in the utilization and distribution of audio-visual materials in two six-week courses, and to develop instructional materials. Up to fifty dollars per trainee was allowed to permit the trainee to make up an instructional kit to take with him at the completion of the course.

Courses were also to be established in the Teachers College for audio-visual administrators. Ten to fifteen Iranian coordinators and researchers were to be trained. Thirty Iranians were to be trained in production methods of films and motion pictures. An additional goal was to produce twenty reels of motion pictures and ten film strips.[70]

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[67] William E. Warne and Reza Djaffari, "Project Agreement Number Seventy-six Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Foreign Operations Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, November 1953), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[68] Lintner, op. cit., p. 2.

[69] Warne and Djaffari, op. cit., p. 2.

[70] Ibid.; and Kermanshah Provincial Director, "Summary Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 15-19, Vol. 4 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1958), p. 37. (Mimeographed.)

II. IMPLEMENTATION OF AGREEMENTS

In 1952 there were eight American technicians and a Chief Education Advisor forming the education division in Teheran.[71] A program of staff organization and education problem review was established.[72]

A team of American technicians was to remain in the headquarters office in Teheran. These advisors were to backstop the technicians assigned to work in the ostans. The Chief Education Advisor was to work directly with the Minister of Education.

Field trips were made to study the situation and to gain an accurate impression of the basic problems.[73] It was decided that the education problems of Iran fell into four broad categories: (1) a lack of sufficiently trained teachers and administrators; (2) a shortage of facilities; (3) an out-moded system of education; and (4) limited finances. The American Education Division in Teheran decided, as a

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[71]Education Division, "Project Completion Report, Project Forty-five" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1963), pp. 6-7. (Mimeographed.)

[72]Agency for International Development, Evaluation Division of the Research, Evaluation and Planning Assistance Staff, "A Program of Evaluative Activities for Improving the Effectiveness of AID Development Assistance" (Washington: Agency for International Development, 1962), pp. 5-6. (Mimeographed.)

[73]J. Glenn Morrill, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 566, Washington, 1954), p. 4. (Mimeographed.); and Stewart B. Hamblen, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2298, Washington, 1955), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

national policy, to make these four areas the target of their efforts.[74]

It was decided that the emphasis was to be on assistance and cooperation, not upon exploitation or coercion. Assistance was to be given only after it had been determined that the projects could be carried out cooperatively.[75] With this goal in mind the aim of the technical assistance program was to have the American technician train a certain number of local people in his area of specialty. These trainees would carry on the program after the American had finished his task.[76]

The Technical Cooperation Administration Mission to Iran was establishing, at this time, a sub-office in each of the capital cities of the ostans, ten in all.[77] The education division planned to place an advisor for general education and an advisor for vocational education in each of the ostan teams, which were under the supervision of an American Provincial Director in each ostan.[78] These

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[74]Stewart B. Hamblen, "Education Division Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 9-11A, Vol. 2 (Washington: United States Operations Mission, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[75]Frank E. Sorenson, Suggested Education Program and Staff to Assist the Underdeveloped Countries (Lincoln: University of Nebraska, 1953), p. 3.

[76]Ibid., pp. 2-5.

[77]Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 52.

[78]Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 1.

technicians were to work directly with and through the Iranian Ostan Chief of Education, in conformance with the established policies of the American education division.[79]

III. SITUATIONS AND INFLUENCES AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION

During the first personal contacts and official discussions between the American technicians and the Iranian educators it was obvious that there were divided opinions and mixed emotions concerning technical assistance.[80] While most of the local officials were very friendly, and seemed interested and enthusiastic about the improvement of their system of education through foreign assistance, many were frankly skeptical and suspicious.[81] Many of the local educators told the American technicians that the Iranians knew what to do. They frankly said that if the Americans would

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[79] Ibid., p. 16.

[80] Harry D. Craig, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1886, Washington, 1955), pp. 1-4. (Mimeographed.)

[81] Ralph E. Jones, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-755, Washington, 1956), p. 3. (Mimeographed.); Shiraz Provincial Director, "Summary Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 19h to 21, Vol. 5 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1958), pp. 2-5. (Mimeographed.); Horace F. Byrne, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2134, Washington, 1956), p. 3. (Mimeographed.); and R. Cohen, "Development Grant Program Evaluation Case History" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1992, Washington, 1963), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

give them the money and go home, the Iranians would take care of their education.[82] Many of the local educators seemed satisfied with the education situation as it was and resented and resisted suggested changes.[83] Ideas on how a society wishes to train its young are deeply rooted and not easily changed.[84]

A materialistic concern on the part of the Iranians for money per se was a continual problem to the more idealistically oriented American advisors.[85] An American technician in Isfahan discovered that most of the people knew very little about their own educational system. She found that most of the people were much more interested in commercial enterprises and money-making than in new methods of education.[86] She also thought that the Communists were strong opponents of her work. She stated that when she began to organize a summer session class for teachers the local Communist newspaper, Ayandeh Shokufan, published articles

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[82]Rolla M. Almsbury, "Completion Report on Tour of Duty in Iran" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1797, Washington, 1955), pp. 2-4. (Mimeographed.); and Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 4.

[83]Cohen, op. cit., p. 7.

[84]Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 10-12.

[85]F. M. Esfandiary, "Middle East Paradox, The Beggar Rich," The New York Times Magazine, November 3, 1963, pp. 22, 83-86.

[86]Anna K. Garretson, "Completion Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-295, Washington, August 1955), p. 9. (Mimeographed.)

warning the local people of the classes. One article said, "This class is to be held for paid agents and spies from the Ministry of Education to train them to make foul propaganda. No honorable member of the Education Department will take part in the espionage class."[87]

Anti-American feelings in Iran were being cultivated by the Communists and "Yankee go home" signs were scrawled on buildings and walls. Ironically, a few months later an Iranian official stated that the new slogan was "Yankee go home and take me with you."[88]

Administrative and personal problems were a matter of concern to the American technicians. The first American technicians to report to Iran under the Technical Cooperation Administration did not know exactly what their assignments were to be until they arrived in Teheran. Here they were met by the Director of the agency and given their briefing.[89]

The American technicians encountered difficulty in finding suitable housing. This was particularly true in the provinces. At least one American technician was told by the

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[87] Ibid.

[88] William E. Warne, "Presentation on USOM/Iran Program" (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, February 1954), p. 7. (Mimeographed.); and William E. Warne, "Forty-fifth Weekly Report for June 6 through June 14, 1953" (Technical Cooperation Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC-83, Washington, June 14, 1953), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

[89] Mission Reports Office, op. cit., p. 171.

American Consulate that he must fend for himself as the Consulate had no responsibility for him in any way.[90]

In addition to teaching classes, designing school buildings, ordering equipment including the writing of specifications and installing the equipment upon its arrival, the American technician, in the demonstration phase of the technical assistance program, was involved in ordering, accounting for, and distributing materials and supplies. This involved requesting, spending, and accounting for funds. The technician often could not get timely information on the state of his project funds. Funds to finance projects were often late in arriving. Uncertainty of financial status caused delay in project implementation.[91] Commodity procurement was extremely slow.[92]

Program control was centered in Washington. This made for interminable delays. Project implementation was delayed.[93]

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[90] Education Division, "Monthly Report for December 1957" (Teheran: Education Division, December 1957), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[91] Mission Reports Office, op. cit., pp. 172-183; Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 10-12; Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 10-16; and John W. Limbert, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1969, Report Control U 513, Washington, May 1963), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[92] Warne, "Presentation on USOM/Iran Program," op. cit., p. 8.

[93] Mission Reports Office, op. cit., pp. 157-159.

Project implementation often lagged when American technicians were not recruited in time to be effective, or were processed too slowly to arrive on the project in time to be effective. In some cases the technicians were as much as two years late in arriving to fill a vacancy.[94]

At the beginning of technical assistance to education in Iran, the American advisors were forced to play operational roles, although the guiding theme of technical assistance during the years 1952 and 1953 was demonstration. Since few, if any, qualified Iranians were available to work with the American technician, the American was forced to take the lead and direct operations.[95]

The absence of a middle class with which the Americans could identify created problems in communication of ideas and intent. The peasant class in Iran was fearful, at the outset, of the foreign Americans who seemed to be on good terms with the peasant's natural enemy, the ruling class. The peasants were suspicious and cynical. They suspected hidden motives under American efforts.[96] There were reported instances when, upon the arrival of an American technician, the villagers hid. The strangers they were accustomed to

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[94] Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 91.

[95] Mission Reports Office, op. cit., p. 171.

[96] Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 10-14.

seeing were tax collectors or army recruiters![97]

American technicians were faced with the task of attempting to make plans to fit the consumer needs at the bottom of the social ladder and, at the same time, please the ruling class at the top of this ladder.[98]

The American technicians found it difficult to involve the local people in cooperative enterprises. Individually they worked well.[99] This preference for individual activity was indicated by the wish of the Ministry of Education officials to build separate schools for individual activities. They would have preferred a carpentry school, a school for auto mechanics, etc.[100]

Many American technicians thought that in the beginning of their services, the educational background and experience of the people with whom they were to work had not been conducive to independent or creative thinking.[101] The American technicians thought that there was a need to create a desire on the part of the villagers and on the part of the

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[97] Ibid.

[98] Ibid.

[99] James A. Colman, "End of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-152, Washington, 1961), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[100] Ibid.

[101] Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 10-16.

ruling class for a change in attitudes and for improved conditions.[102] Time was needed to assist the people to develop understanding and comprehension.[103]

A major problem pointed out by American technicians was that of bringing their Iranian co-workers to realize that a problem existed, and then to bring them to comprehend its dimensions.[104] A further problem was involved in getting the Iranian officials to take action when the need was made clear to them. The establishing of values and standards of excellence in problem solving was difficult.[105] The Iranians were impatient with planned implementation and wanted to arrive at an advanced condition immediately. The Director of the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission in Iran warned a group of Iranian officials that, "Iran cannot expect to jump from an ancient culture and civilization to a modern civilization overnight." This statement dismayed the Iranians and made them angry.[106]

Impatience on the part of the American technicians with what they considered the Iranians' dilatory tactics

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[102]Limbert, op. cit., p. 18.

[103]Morrill, op. cit., p. 6.

[104]Shiraz Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 14-16.

[105]Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 10-16.

[106]Warne, Mission for Peace, op. cit., p. 233.

often made the Americans critical of their Iranian co-workers, and this impatience tended to have an adverse effect on their effectiveness as advisors.[107] In order to be effective in his work, the American technician was forced to learn to become patient and to adapt to the people, their culture, the climate, and the environment. It was necessary for him to understand that there were reasons, however obscure, for everything that took place.[108]

Iran, in the summer of 1953, was in an economic and political chaos. The Prime Minister, Mossadegh, was using Communist mobs as political weapons and they were rapidly gaining control.[109] There were rumors that Mossadegh's cabinet would fall and would be replaced by a pro-soviet cabinet. In early July Mossadegh demanded full totalitarian powers. These were refused. Mossadegh resigned.[110]

A new Prime Minister was appointed by the Shah. Mossadegh's supporters filled the streets of Teheran. Rioting increased. Iranian army tanks were brought in. At

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[107] Harold Winer, Statement made in a conversation confirmed by a written statement to the author, Washington, September 4, 1963, p. 2; and W. Bruce Welch, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-581, Washington, 1956), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[108] Byrnes, op. cit., p. 4; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for December 1957," op. cit., pp. 2-3.

[109] Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 45.

[110] Mission Reports Office, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

least three hundred persons were killed. The Shah withdrew the tanks. He said that he could not kill his own people.[111] The police defected to the rioters. For thirty-six hours there was complete anarchy. Mobs stormed the streets. The office of the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission to Iran was damaged and equipment was destroyed.[112]

American personnel remained indoors. Mission activities came to a halt with the exception of staff meetings held daily in the home of the Director. The American dependents were alerted to be prepared to leave. Evacuation plans were made. American lives were in danger.[113]

Prime Minister Mossadegh was returned to office with almost complete totalitarian powers. Business stagnated. Beggars crowded the streets of Teheran, and the bodies of those who died from starvation were not unusual sights on the streets of Teheran.[114]

In Shiraz, when Communist mobs threatened violence to the American staff and their families, the Gashghai Tribe took all of the Americans into their area, put them under

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[111] Ibid., p. 3.

[112] Ibid.

[113] Ibid.

[114] Ibid.; William E. Warne, "Thirtieth Weekly Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC-46, Washington, March 7, 1953), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

the protection of the Tribe and defied the Communists. No American was harmed.[115]

During the past two years the Minister of Education had dismissed hundreds of old-fashioned ecclesiastical teachers and replaced them with younger, more progressive teachers. Later developments proved that many of these young teachers were members of the Communist Tudeh party.[116] These teachers were discharged as soon as they were proven to be Communists.[117]

IV. PROGRESS OF THE PROGRAM TOWARD MEETING ITS OBJECTIVES

The demonstration phase of the program of technical assistance to education was put into effect immediately after the signing of the first agreements.[118]

The Minister of Education, through constant consultation with the American advisors, accepted the concept of

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[115]Warne, Mission for Peace, op. cit., pp. 128-134.

[116]The source of this information is a document issued in September 1957 by the Department of State. No citation can be given here, however, because the document is classified for restricted distribution. Nevertheless the information given above is not of a restricted nature as it may be found piecemeal in other publications freely available to the general public.

[117]Warne, Mission for Peace, op. cit., p. 222.

[118]Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 4; and Arthur W. Danielson, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1872, Washington, 1955), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

in-service teacher training. Forty-five selected teachers from all parts of Iran were brought to Teheran for an intensive course in teacher training methods. American technicians taught the courses.[119] The Minister of Education apparently was convinced by the Americans that lack of adequately trained teachers was a greater obstacle to educational improvement in Iran than was the lack of adequate facilities.[120]

The Minister of Education agreed to the conducting of summer session classes as a concept of in-service teacher education. An American advisor and his Iranian counterpart conducted classes for two hundred teachers.[121]

Reports indicate that the first forty-five Teheran-trained teacher-trainers returned to their respective ostans and set up classes for the rest of the teachers. A total of 750 teachers were trained in new education methods in the next few weeks, in the Borujerd area.[122] In the Tabriz area 240 teachers were trained, and 500 teachers were trained in

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[119] Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 5.

[120] Obed Williamson, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2501, Washington, June 1958), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[121] Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 3.

[122] Craig, "Completion Report," op. cit., p. 5.

the Kermanshah-Sanandaj area.[123] An Iranian education official stated that over 1,200 rural elementary teachers had received training in the new methods in 1952.[124]

A joint committee of Iranian and American educators was selected to begin a study of the elementary school curriculum. An American technician was assigned to assist in developing some elementary school texts as a demonstration. Three thousand copies of an arithmetic text for the first four elementary school grades were published and distributed. The Ministry of Education requested one hundred thousand additional copies.[125]

A professional education library in the English language was set up in the Ministry of Education. This library served as a base to train librarians and as reference material to begin the development of learning materials.[126] Seventy-five teachers were trained in library science.

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[123] Garretson, op. cit., p. 9.

[124] William E. Warne, "Thirty-fourth Weekly Report for February 26 to March 4, 1953" (Technical Cooperation Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC-62, Washington, March 4, 1953), p. 26. (Mimeographed.); and Clark Gregory, "Education in Iran, Text of a Speech Delivered at Teheran Demonstration School" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1564, Washington, 1956), pp. 2-3. (Mimeographed.)

[125] Hamblen, "Education Division Report, op. cit., p. 10.

[126] Elhura Barganier, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1242, Washington, 1956), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

Twenty schools were helped to start individual libraries. Eleven ostan offices were helped to set up English language libraries for the use of the American and Iranian technicians. Eight thousand professional books were distributed in Iran. The American library technician and her staff were requested by the Minister of Education to evaluate the elementary textbooks then in use.[127]

The American field technicians helped in the Ostan Agriculture and Industrial schools improving teaching, in the development of teaching materials, and in the securing of equipment. They went into the field, the workshops, and the classrooms to demonstrate the New Education.[128]

Two secondary agricultural demonstration schools and eleven vocational-elementary demonstration schools were built and equipped.[129] The American technicians established committees to study the problem of vocational agriculture and trade training. Iranian education officials and citizens served on these committees.[130]

An Agricultural Education Department was opened in

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[127] Ibid., p. 3.

[128] Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 17.

[129] Samuel E. Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1697, Washington, March 1955), pp. 4-7. (Mimeographed.)

[130] Harry D. Craig, General Education Activities Report (Teheran: Communications Media Resources Department, 1957), p. 7.

Karadj College of Agriculture.[131] The Ministry of Education requested a secondary demonstration school. This school was established in Teheran with a curriculum based more nearly on the New Education. Teachers were brought in from other schools to observe.[132]

In response to the concern expressed by the Minister of Education over the high rate of illiteracy in Iran, an American advisor was assigned, early in 1953, to begin formulating a program. Nine months were spent in preparing a program of Fundamental Education which would include literacy training.[133]

An agricultural demonstration school was built in Meshed. It was designed to train agriculture teachers and also to be a practical farm demonstration center.[134]

In the late summer of 1953 several American technicians began an activity similar to the Chatauqua movement in the United States. The purpose was to develop a cooperative project and to demonstrate a team approach. American technicians in the fields of health, education, and agriculture

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[131]Samuel E. Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-135, Washington, 1957), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[132]Hamblen, "Education Division Report," op. cit., p. 5.

[133]Luanna J. Bowles, The Story of Fundamental Education in Iran (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1958), p. 5.

[134]Richard V. Bernhart, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2, Washington, July 1954), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

with their Iranian counterparts formed a team under the leadership of an education advisor. This team took films and other demonstration materials to the villages. Following a tight schedule regardless of weather or road conditions the team contacted over 60,000 people in sixteen villages and small towns.[135]

In February 1953 the American advisors and 102 representatives of the provincial offices of the Ministry of Education held an education conference. This was the first education conference to be held in Iran. Meeting in Teheran the discussion centered on cooperative programs in textbook development and production, training programs, and demonstration schools. The Minister of Education was pleased with the progress.

The Director of the Technical Cooperation Administration at this conference stated that an Iranian magazine, Khandaniha, had discussed an article from a London magazine called Truth. The article from Truth was quoted as stating that the American technical assistance program had prevented the collapse of Iran's economy and had preserved the Government.[136]

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[135] Ibid., pp. 2-10.

[136] William E. Warne, "Twenty-eighth Weekly Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC-42, Washington, February 21, 1953), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

Prime Minister Mossadegh wrote a letter on June 28, 1953, to the Director of the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission to Iran, which he released to the radio and press for distribution. In this letter Dr. Mossadegh thanked the United States for its consistent and continuous efforts to help Iran.[137]

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[137] William E. Warne, "Forty-ninth Weekly Report" (Technical Cooperation Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC-84, Washington, July 3, 1953), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

CHAPTER V

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION IN IRAN UNDER THE FOREIGN OPERATIONS ADMINISTRATION

On August 1, 1953, under Reorganization Plan 7, the Technical Cooperation Administration functions were transferred to the newly created agency, the Foreign Operations Administration, which had been created under the new plan.[1] Technical assistance in Iran was continued much the same as before although under the new agency the focal point of emphasis in education was changed.

Under the Technical Cooperation Administration technical assistance to education had been on a demonstration basis with the American technicians taking the lead. Under the newly established agency the emphasis was focused upon joint operation.[2] By interpretation this meant that the American technicians were to make certain that Iranians actively participated in every phase of education planning and implementation.[3]

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[1]Wayne C. Grover (ed.), United States Government Organization Manual, Office of the Federal Register, National Archives and Record Service, General Services Administration (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 641.

[2]Harry D. Craig, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-31, Washington, 1959), pp. 2-3. (Mimeographed.)

[3]Ibid., p. 3.

The Foreign Operations Administration was specific in its policy statement on education with reference to program emphasis. It stated that major emphasis was to be placed upon vocational education, technical training, and on fundamental education as a prerequisite to economic progress.[4]

I. EDUCATION PROJECT AGREEMENTS CONTINUED AND NEW PROJECT AGREEMENTS ESTABLISHED UNDER THE FOREIGN OPERATIONS ADMINISTRATION

Program Agreement Number Four and the related Project Agreements Numbers Five, Sixty-six, Forty-six, Forty-five, Forty-eight, Seventy-six, and Fifty-seven. These Agreements, established under the Technical Cooperation Administration, remained in force through the period of Foreign Operations Administration.

Project Agreements Numbers Forty-seven and Forty-nine. These Agreements were also established under the Technical Cooperation Administration but Agreement Forty-seven was phased into Project Agreement Number Forty-six in 1954. Project Agreement Number Forty-nine was phased into Project

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[4]Foreign Operations Administration, "Policy Statement, Foreign Operations Administration Educational Policy" (Bulletin, Foreign Operations Administration, Washington, 1954), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

Agreement Number Forty-five in 1955.[5]

Project Proposal Number Sixty-five. Project Proposal Number Sixty-Five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four, was signed in 1954 under the Foreign Operations Administration. Under this agreement a team of instructors was to be brought from Brigham Young University to staff the demonstration schools as they were developed. This Project terminated in 1955.[6]

II. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROJECT AGREEMENTS

The Fiscal Year Program for 1954 which began July 1, 1953, set forth the objectives of the total technical assistance program for the year. It stated that:

> Material and widely recognized gains of economic development accomplishments will come into being with the progress of the proposed FY1954 Point Four Program[7] in Iran. There will be in progress (1) increasing wide spread and effective knowledge and understanding among officials, technicians, and the

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[5]Rolla M. Almsbury, "Completion Report on Tour of Duty in Iran" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1797, Washington, 1955), p. 13. (Mimeographed.)

[6]Clark S. Gregory, "Project Proposal and Approval Summary for Secondary Education Support" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1290, Washington, September 1954), p. 1. (Mimeographed.); and J. H. Lintner, "A Special Report on Education in Iran" (Teheran: Education Division, Agency for International Development, 1963), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

[7]This title became synonymous with technical assistance and refers to President Truman's fourth point in his inaugural address in 1949.

general population of the possibilities and great potential of the knowledgeable and efficient utilization of existing human and other local resources by application of initiative, ingenuity, and available technical information; and (2) the developing of more technical and administrative competence among officials and technicians for the delineation and accomplishment of economic development program activities on the large scale planned by the GOI[8] for execution as investment funds are available. The achievement of the U.S. technicians in assisting, training, and providing demonstrations for Iranian officials, technicians, and people in general will be reflected during FY 1954 in economic and social gains.[9]

With specific reference to education to indicate education's place in overall planning the Fiscal Year Program stated:

> The functioning of better trained teachers with curricula designed to meet the practical economic and social needs of the people, in adequate facilities, will be extended to serve a greater percentage of the school age population than now being served.[10]

In summary the Fiscal Year Program said that:

> The objectives of the Point Four program in Iran in 1954 will be the consolidation and extension of the social and economic gains in progress, including progressive adaptation of the Point Four technical assistance, training and demonstration activities to experiences gained, current conditions and the momentum established among Iranian people and agencies.[11]

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[8]The Government of Iran is referred to as GOI.

[9]Mission Reports Office, "Status of the Education Program," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 1-8, Vol. I (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1957), p. 130. (Mimeographed.)

[10]Ibid., p. 132.

[11]Ibid., pp. 132-133; and William E. Warne, "Presentation on USOM/Iran Program" (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, February 1954), pp. 1-6. (Mimeographed.)

Seventeen American education technicians, including a chief and a deputy chief advisor, were in Iran during the period of 1953 to 1955. Provincial offices were opened in 1953 in Ahwaz and Resht completing the organization of an office in each ostan. Sub-provincial offices were opened in Yazd, Bandar-Abbas, Zahedan, Hamadan, Sanandaj, Bushir, and Rezaieh.[12]

The program of technical assistance to education was re-examined at the inception of the Foreign Operations Administration. The new philosophy was directed to the development of a better understanding among the Iranians of the nature and extent of their problems in education. In addition, a deliberate plan of action was set in motion to revise the national school curricula with the purpose of making them more practical and more functional.[13]

A contract was issued to Syracuse University to send a team to Iran to assist in establishing an Audio-visual and Materials Development Center in Teheran. It was decided to establish this center in the Ministry of Fine Arts. The center was to serve the needs of all government agencies under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and was

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[12]Kermanshah Provincial Director, "Summary Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 15-19, Vol. 4 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1958), p. 52. (Mimeographed.)

[13]Education Division, Iran (ed.), "Near East and South Asia Information" (Washington: International Cooperation Administration, 1955), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

to be financed by the United States.[14]

Members of the Brigham Young University team were assigned as staff members in the demonstration schools.[15]

III. SITUATIONS AND INFLUENCES AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION

August 17, 1953, the Communists apparently controlled the streets of the city of Teheran. Mobs rioted in the streets and toppled statues of the Shah. The Americans in Teheran were cautioned to stay in their homes, away from their offices and off the streets. Tanks sat at the head of principal streets with guns trained down the thoroughfares.[16]

However, standing apart from this violence were the common people, the peasants, shopkeepers, laborers and clerks. Also in the background and comparatively silent were hundreds of young Iranians who had been educated in the West or in Western-operated schools in Iran, and who had no illusions about the Communists.[17]

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[14]Co-directors of the Iran-American Audio Visual Services, "Outline of a Proposed Extension of the Syracuse Contract S.C.C. 21507" (Washington: Technical Cooperation Administration, 1953), pp. 1-4. (Mimeographed.)

[15]Stewart B. Hamblen, "Education Division Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 9-11a, Vol. 2 (Washington: United States Operations Mission, 1957), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[16]William E. Warne, Mission for Peace (Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1956), pp. 246-247.

[17]Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 45.

Then, on the night of August 18, 1953, word went through the great Bazaar and through South Teheran, the slum area of the city. The word was, "It is our last chance."[18]

Early on the morning of August 19, 1953, a vast mob of men, women, children, soldiers and policemen, armed mostly with rocks, clubs, and knives, stormed out of South Teheran and launched a furious attack on the Communists.

The Communists after two days of rioting were over-confident and weary. By two o'clock that afternoon the citizens' mob controlled the city.[19] Word was sent to the Shah to return to his country.[20]

President Eisenhower announced, on September 6, 1953, that 45 million dollars would be sent to Iran "with no strings attached." This money was to help Iran pay over-due salaries to the civil service and armed forces, and to assist in taking care of Iran's national financial obligations.[21]

Despite the "no strings attached" direction, Iran asked the Operations Mission to Iran for advice and guidance to make the most efficient use of the funds. A special staff

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[18] Ibid., pp. 45-46.

[19] Ibid., p. 46.

[20] Mohammed Reza Shah Pahlavi, Mission For My Country (London: Hutchinson and Company, 1960), p. 105.

[21] Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 46; and Staff Survey Team of the Subcommittee for Review of the Mutual Security Programs, Report on Economic Assistance to Korea, Thailand, and Iran (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1960), pp. 23-24.

was set up in the Point Four Mission in Teheran to provide this assistance.[22]

A new faith was awakened in the people. They began to foresee a new future for their children. Immediately upon the return of the Shah and the resurgence of hope the work of technical assistance to education moved forward.[23]

During the period from 1953 to 1955 personnel recruitment, selection and processing had improved. Each American technician was carefully screened to secure the person best suited to the position in terms of character, personality, emotional balance, maturity, training, and interest in the type of activity offered. Efforts were made to set up special language training classes so that the technicians could acquire some understanding of the local language.[24]

Every effort was made to help the new technicians adjust to the local environment. Culture shock was minimized through recognition of the problem.[25]

The technicians who were assigned to field positions outside the capital city of Teheran carried a comprehensive

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[22]Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 46, 47.

[23]Ibid., p. 68.

[24]Mission Reports Office, op. cit., p. 161.

[25]Kalervo Oberg, "Culture Shock and the Problem of Adjustment to New Cultural Environments" (Washington: Training Division, Office of Personnel Administration, Agency for International Development, 1960), pp. 1-5. (Mimeographed.)

advisory load in all facets of the education program in their area, in spite of the fact that they may have been highly trained in only one specific field, i.e., agricultural education, elementary education, secondary education, etc.[26]

The American technicians were attempting to move too fast and were inclined to be too impatient in their desire to get something started and something accomplished. This anxiety often prevented the planning necessary between Iranian and American to establish mutually agreed upon aims and objectives.[27]

In an end-of-tour report an American technician said that the American technicians had made a distinct effort to be constantly friendly, non-critical, understanding, and patient. He warned that a technician must not expect overt appreciation of his efforts and that in most cases the technician's efforts would be accepted in silence. The local educator often felt that a request for assistance was an admission of failure on his part. This technician felt that the more problems which were ferreted out by the American advisor and handled unobtrusively the more effective the

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[26] W. Bruce Welch, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-581, Washington, 1956), pp. 2-4. (Mimeographed.); and Arthur W. Danielson, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1872, Washington, 1955), pp. 2-4. (Mimeographed.)

[27] Welch, loc. cit.

advisor became. He indicated that in his experience the local people wanted to accomplish things but often did not know what needed to be done.[28]

Many of the local people agreed that certain changes were necessary. They did not seem inclined to do the difficult work involved in effecting the changes.[29]

At this time the Iranian was not able to accept or understand the concept that the government was a servant of the people. The American advisors demonstrated this by uncounted hours of overtime.[30]

One of the major problems which the American advisor often created for himself was the inability to remember that the human mind absorbs only so much at any one time. The tendency of the technician was to crowd activity and information upon the Iranian educator in such quantity that the Iranian was completely unable to comprehend the suggestions or their purpose.[31] Training and the introduction of new ideas and methods were only successful as they were offered in proportion to the Iranian's ability to absorb them. It was unrealistic to expect untrained people to

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[28] Ibid., pp. 10-12.

[29] Ibid., p. 2.

[30] Reed H. Bradford, "Terminal Report" (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1954), p. 14. (Mimeographed.)

[31] Ibid., p. 64.

immediately absorb implications of an educational process that had been twenty years in development in the United States.[32]

The desires and attitudes leading to improvement were not yet present in sufficient strength in the local people to make it possible for them to identify problems and accept assistance.[33]

The lapse of time between planning and implementation involving the arrival of an American technician added to the Iranian's casual regard for time. The uncertainty of a technician's tenure on a project and the frequent instances of the abrupt withdrawal of a technician often destroyed the continuity of a program.[34]

IV. PROGRESS OF THE PROGRAM TOWARD MEETING ITS OBJECTIVES

The school plant.[35] More than nine hundred elementary

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[32]Silvino Da Silva, "Terminal Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 708, Washington, November 11, 1954), pp. 2-6. (Mimeographed.); and William E. Warne, "Thirtieth Weekly Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC-46, Washington, March 7, 1953), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[33]J. Glenn Morrill, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 566, Washington, 1954), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[34]Bradford, op. cit., p. 74.

[35]In assessing the progress made toward objective achievement the traditional divisions of education are used to designate the areas of activity for purposes of comparative evaluation.

and secondary schools had been built or repaired by 1955. This included the agricultural and trade schools. Also included in this number were some unfinished buildings which were completed and put to use, and some tent schools established in nomadic areas.[36] In addition twenty-two demonstration schools were completed, two in each ostan and four in Teheran.[37]

Curriculum. The national elementary school curriculum had been revised and accepted by the Ministry of Education in 1955.[38] The curriculum in the demonstration schools had created a new philosophy of education wherein the curriculum was child-centered, rather than subject-matter centered. Failing students sent from other schools achieved success in the demonstration schools under personalized teaching, remedial testing, new techniques, and the use of instructional materials. Observant school principals began to adopt the New Education in their schools.[39]

The new approach to teaching developed a program of home-school relations and promoted student-teacher relations

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[36]Hoyt B. Turner, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1665, Washington, 1957), pp. 54-58. (Mimeographed.); and Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., pp. 80-173.

[37]Almsberry, op. cit., pp. 5-6.

[38]Hamblen, op. cit., p. 5.

[39]Almsberry, loc. cit.

permitting classroom discussions. Pride in citizenship was furthered.[40]

The curricula for the agricultural schools, trade schools, girls' schools, and fundamental education centers had been revised to introduce and stress practical application of theories.[41]

Materials development. In 1953 a committee of thirty Iranian educators with the assistance of an American advisor developed an arithmetic textbook.[42] The committee spent two years in preparing texts in reading, social science, a science series, and a collection of Persian epics. The scope and sequence of the texts were based upon the growth and maturation of the child. The texts were intended to provide the child with worthwhile ideas, attitudes, and concepts. Table II contains statistics from the advisor's report of the progress of the committee.[43]

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[40]Harry D. Craig, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1886, Washington, 1955), pp. 8-9. (Mimeographed.)

[41]Hamblen, op. cit., pp. 6-7; Turner, op. cit., p. 8; Samuel E. Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1697, Washington, March 1955), p. 7. (Mimeographed.); and Craig, op. cit., pp. 7-10.

[42]Elhura Barganier, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1242, Washington, 1956), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[43]Ibid., p. 6; and William Neufeld, "Report on Youth Activities in Iran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-228, Washington, 1955), p. 16. (Mimeographed.)

TABLE II

TEXTBOOKS IN USE AND IN PUBLICATION*

Textbook	No. of Copies
Books developed and printed by 1955	
First Grade Arithmetic	40,000
Second Grade Arithmetic	40,000
Third Grade Arithmetic	10,000
Art Teaching Manuals	10,000
Books developed and under publication by 1955	
Fourth Grade Reader	5,000
Fifth Grade Reader	5,000
Sixth Grade Reader, Number one	5,000
Sixth Grade Reader, Number two	5,000
Stories from the Shahnameh	5,000
Earliest Persian Literature	5,000
Books developed and ready for publication by 1955	
Three readers	0
Science books for Grades 4, 5, and 6	0
Social-living books for Grades 4, 5, and 6	0

*Elhura Barganier, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1242, Washington, 1956), pp. 7-8. (Mimeographed.)

Administration and supervision. By 1955 the fifty-five school supervisors who had been trained in modern methods of school administration and supervision had supplied assistance to 34,500 teachers in their areas.

Two summer sessions had been held in Teheran for elementary school principals with an attendance of two hundred. Each of the other nine ostans held a summer session training course for principals of elementary schools and vocational schools, with an attendance of five hundred.[44]

Special emphasis was placed on school plant maintenance. Courses to train janitors were established and 1,100 received training in 1955. Each janitor was given a kit of tools at the completion of his course. A handbook for janitors was developed.[45]

The National Teachers College established a course to train school administrators. An American advisor assisted in this project.[46]

Fundamental education and literacy training. For the first time in Iran, in 1954, teachers from the ten ostans met in Teheran for a training course in Fundamental Education. One hundred seven teachers came for the eleven-week course.

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[44]Hamblen, op. cit., pp. 7-8.

[45]Ibid., p. 11.

[46]Education Division, "Project Completion Report, Project Forty-five" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1963), p. 13. (Mimeographed.)

American advisors conducted the course with Iranian counterparts assisting. Aspects of village life, health and sanitation, foods, child care, and skill in literacy training were stressed. These teachers returned to their own areas to work.[47]

Each ostan had at least three village programs in action by 1955. These programs involved 1,500 villagers. Pamphlets and reading material were developed as was a monthly magazine.[48]

Sixteen hundred gendarmerie post commanders were trained as teachers of literacy. They conducted classes at their respective posts. Fifteen thousand five hundred illiterate gendarmes acquired sufficient skill to make and to read reports. Many of them taught their own families to read and write.[49]

A school law in 1953 made courses in homemaking mandatory. Little was done in this area until the arrival of an American technician.[50] By 1955 classes had been

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[47]Luanna J. Bowles, "A Report on Fundamental Education Programs in Iran" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2039, Washington, May 10, 1955), pp. 2-3. (Mimeographed.)

[48]Ibid., p. 9.

[49]Luanna J. Bowles, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-673, Washington, October, 1957), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

[50]Avis L. Chase, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2338, Washington, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

established in 110 elementary and secondary schools. Over a thousand teachers had been trained.[51]

General education. The in-service teacher training course began in 1954. American advisors with Iranian counterparts designed the instructional material and taught the classes.[52]

In the Caspian area, 490 elementary teachers and 570 secondary teachers had been trained. Two hundred additional elementary teachers were in training.[53]

In Isfahan 3,500 teachers had received training. At the end of 1955 there were eight teacher training classes in operation in Isfahan Ostan, with two hundred fifty teachers in attendance. Ninety Isfahan teacher trainers took a special course in Teheran.[54]

In the Meshed area 250 rural elementary teachers were trained in 1954. In 1955, 450 more received training. One hundred seventy-four normal school graduates took student teaching. A special course was held in Teheran for

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[51] Ibid., pp. 3-5; and John E. Bean, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-445, Washington, 1955), pp. 6-7. (Mimeographed.)

[52] Hamblen, op. cit., p. 18.

[53] Ibid.

[54] Kermanshah Provincial Director, op. cit., p. 90; and Anna K. Garretson, "Completion Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-295, Washington, August 1955), p. 8. (Mimeographed.)

ninety-five Meshed teachers.[55]

Between the years 1953 and 1955 more than two thousand rural teachers received training in Iran in school health.[56]

In the summers of 1954 and 1955, ninety teachers from Tabriz came to Teheran for a special teacher training course.[57]

In the Burujerd area more than 750 teachers were taught by the Teheran-trained teacher trainers. In Shiraz, more than 3,700 teachers received this training.[58]

In spite of the fact that the Ministry of Education was no longer able to pay per diem for attendance, 184 training courses were held for rural teachers in 1955, and eight thousand two hundred attended.[59]

The National Teachers College abandoned precedent and established courses for elementary teachers.[60]

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[55]Richard V. Bernhart, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2, Washington, July 1954), pp. 10-11. (Mimeographed.)

[56]Public Health Division, "Health Division Activities," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 12-14, Vol. 3 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1957), p. 29.

[57]John A. Clarke, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-350, Washington, September 6, 1955), pp. 2-9. (Mimeographed.)

[58]Craig, op. cit., pp. 6-8.

[59]Education Division, Project Forty-five, loc. cit.

[60]Ibid.

The Teheran newspaper, Keyhan, reported on January 11, 1954, that Point Four had trained six thousand teachers for rural areas.[61]

There were over 3,500 persons in training in the English language courses in the Meshed and Gorgon area.[62]

The United States Commissioner of Education, on a visit to Iran, remarked on the down-to-earth approach of technical assistance to education in Iran.[63]

In order to combat Communistic influences in Iran's youth clubs,[64] and to develop a program of physical education among adults and in the Iranian schools, an American advisor was assigned, in 1953, to work with the Ministry of Education to develop a program. A steering committee was organized. Summer camps for boys and girls were established. The first camp was held in the summer of 1954 with an attendance of six hundred. The Shah and the Queen visited the camp. Twenty American parents assisted with the camping program.

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[61] William E. Warne, "Seventy-sixth Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOUSFOA 785, Washington, February 1, 1954), p. 8. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, 1955, op. cit., p. 7.

[62] Almsberry, op. cit., p. 2; and Frank J. Moore and James T. Hegland, The Turkoman and His Land (Teheran: Communications Media USOM/Iran, 1961), p. 3.

[63] William E. Warne, "Fiftieth Weekly Report for July 4 through July 9, 1953" (Technical Cooperation Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC 5, Washington, July 9, 1953), p. 8. (Mimeographed.)

[64] Neufeld, op. cit., p. 6.

Physical education programs were organized among workers' groups.

A Rural Youth Committee was appointed and thirty camping specialists were trained in 1954.[65] The Boy Scouts were re-activated. By 1955 many sports groups were in action. Table III gives enrollment figures for six groups.

TABLE III

ACTIVE PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORTS GROUPS*

Organization	No. of Members
Boy Scouts	1,642
Red Lion and Sun Society	5,000
Sports Clubs (52)	11,600
Social Democratic Workers of Iran	12,500
Youth Organization of Iran	165
Rural Youth of Iran	90
Total	30,997

*William Neufeld, "Report on Youth Activities in Iran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-228, Washington, 1955), p. 6. (Mimeographed.); and William E. Warne, "Twenty-seventh Weekly Report for February 9 through February 14, 1953" (Technical Cooperation Administration, Foreign Service Despatch TOTEC 40, Washington, February 15, 1953), pp. 2-8. (Mimeographed.)

[65] Ibid., pp. 10-15.

In the summer of 1955 a total of 1,600 boys and girls attended camps.[66]

Vocational education. Agricultural rural elementary schools were organized in 1953. In 1955 there were 286 of these schools with eight thousand five hundred students. Agricultural First Cycle schools were started in 1953 and there were 30 of these schools with an enrollment of one thousand two hundred in 1955.[67]

In Shiraz, five hundred boys attended agricultural demonstration classes in two secondary schools.[68] A series of six-week courses was conducted for agricultural teacher trainers. One hundred ten conferences were held for 300 by 1955. Some of the American technicians felt that they had accomplished much by face-to-face counselling and discussions.[69]

The Ministry of Education was often quick in accepting the recommendations of the American technicians for new projects before full understanding of program implication had been reached. The implications of the vocational

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[66]Turner, op. cit., p. 35.

[67]Marvin Cernik, "A Study of the Agricultural High School Program in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1962), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[68]Fuhr, op. cit., p. 4.

[69]Harold Winer, "End of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2360, Washington, 1955), p. 9. (Mimeographed.)

agricultural program had not been fully understood by the Ministry of Education and by the end of 1955 the program had begun to falter.[70] Five of these schools were built and equipped in Teheran in 1954. Before they could be occupied, the program was abolished by the Ministry of Education.[71]

In the Kermanshah-Sanandaj area, twenty-nine elementary schools had agricultural programs. Forty-four training courses were conducted for 73 teachers and 2,038 students.[72]

Two teacher-improvement summer session classes had been organized for all vocational agricultural teachers in Iran. Over a thousand of these teachers were in training at the end of 1955. Plans were being discussed for a national vocational agricultural demonstration center at Karadg.[73]

A one-year teacher training program was established in 1955 to prepare secondary trade school graduates as teachers. This was the first attempt at vocational teacher training in Iran. These graduates were hired as probationary teachers during their period of training.[74]

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[70] Ibid., p. 18.

[71] George D. Dorr, "Completion Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1977, Washington, April 26, 1955), pp. 2-4. (Mimeographed.)

[72] Claud E. Rhoad, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2214, Washington, May 7, 1958), pp. 8-10. (Mimeographed.)

[73] Samuel E. Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-135, Washington, 1957), pp. 11-12. (Mimeographed.)

[74] Hamblen, op. cit., p. 20.

In 1953, the Ministry of Education installed a program of industrial arts in grades 5 and 6 of the elementary schools. The program, through a misunderstanding of the basic concept of industrial arts, became vocationally oriented.[75]

Twenty-nine elementary school industrial arts classes were started in the Kermanshah-Sanandaj area.[76] Shiraz had eleven programs.[77] Thirteen programs were started near Teheran. In the Isfahan area over two hundred of these elementary programs were started. Each student received a kit of tools at the end of the course.[78] Twenty-nine programs of this type were started in northern Iran.[79]

Reports indicate that these programs were poorly managed. The teachers were not thoroughly trained. Funds were misspent and the tools purchased were inadequate and inferior in quality.[80]

The fact that, through the misunderstanding of the nature and intent of the program, children were forced to

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[75]Harold Winer, Statement made in a conversation with the author and confirmed by a written statement, Washington, September 4, 1963.

[76]Rhoad, op. cit., p. 7.

[77]Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 6.

[78]Winer, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 7.

[79]Winer, Conversation, op. cit., pp. 1-4.

[80]Ibid.

make a vocational choice so early, caused the parents to lose interest in the program.[81]

Short intensive courses were established for the regular secondary trade school teachers. In 1954 and 1955 more than one hundred teachers received training. The vocational curricula were revised to lessen the total number of subjects each student was expected to take in one week.[82]

The American technicians found most of the Iranian educators to be friendly and anxious to learn. This encouraged understanding cooperation.[83] Many of the American technicians were successful in bringing the Iranians to realize that they had the power within themselves to solve many of their problems by cooperative effort.[84]

There was a definite feeling among the American technicians in 1955 that most of the Iranian educators with whom they had worked were coming to realize that the proposed changes suggested by the Americans were based upon principles and practices which had achieved results. They had also come to realize that the techniques involved were based upon concepts of democracy which characterized the American

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[81] Craig, op. cit., p. 10.

[82] Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., pp. 8-9; and Winer, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., pp. 6-9.

[83] Craig, op. cit., pp. 3-8.

[84] Bradford, op. cit., p. 12.

system.[85]

Many Iranian educators associated with American technicians realized by 1955 that money alone was not the answer to their problems. Some of these educators had begun to see the basic importance of education to national economic development.[86]

By this time many of the Iranian educators associated with American technical assistance had come to regard the technical assistance program as the product of a sincere desire to help. The concept that technical assistance was designed only to give away money for suspect political motives was disappearing.[87]

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[85] Ibid., p. 4.

[86] Horace F. Byrne, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 2134, Washington, 1956), pp. 5-6. (Mimeographed.)

[87] Almsberry, op. cit., p. 3; and Education Division, Report of the Spring Conference on Rural Education in Iran (Teheran: Communications Media Division, March 1961), pp. 2-4.

CHAPTER VI

THE PROGRAM OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION UNDER THE INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION

The Foreign Operations Administration was abolished by Executive Order 10610, May 19, 1955, pursuant to authority of the Mutual Security Act of 1954. The functions and office of the Foreign Operations Administration were transferred to the Department of State under the International Cooperation Administration.[1]

With the change in agency there came a change in the philosophy of the administration of the technical assistance to education in Iran. While assistance to education continued, the emphasis was now placed upon the principle of integration.[2] Activities which under the Technical Cooperation Administration had been largely designed and led by American technicians, and under the Foreign Operations Administration had been jointly decided upon and administered by

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[1] Wayne C. Grover (ed.), United States Government Organization Manual, Office of the Federal Register, National Archives and Record Service, General Services Administration (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 638.

[2] Harry D. Craig, "Completion of Tour Report" (Foreign Operations Administration, Airgram TOUSFOA 1886, Washington, 1955), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

both Iranians and Americans, were now, under the International Cooperation Administration, to be phased more directly into the Iranian Ministry of Education's own program and responsibility.[3] The planners felt that the economy and the quality of leadership in Iran had developed to the point where the Iranians could assume a greater share of the responsibility for their own movements.[4]

I. EDUCATION AGREEMENTS CONTINUED AND NEW AGREEMENTS ESTABLISHED UNDER THE INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION

Program Agreement Number Four and the related Project Number Seventy-six. These Agreements, established under the Technical Cooperation Administration in 1952, continued in force under the International Cooperation Administration.[5]

Project Agreements Numbers Fifty-seven and Sixty-six.

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[3]William L. Dawson, Chairman, "United States Aid Operations in Iran," First Report of the Committee on Government Operations, Union Calendar 6, House Report 10, 85th Cong., 2d Sess. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1957), p. 32.

[4]Ibid.

[5]William E. Warne, "Project Agreement Number Five Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Technical Cooperation Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 29, 1952), p. 1. (Mimeographed.); and William E. Warne and Reza Djaffari, "Project Agreement Number Seventy-six Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Foreign Operations Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, November 1953), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

These Agreements were phased out in early 1956.[6]

Project Agreement Number Forty-eight. This Agreement was phased into Agreement Number Forty-five on October 11, 1956.[7]

Project Agreement Number Forty-five. This Agreement was established under the Technical Cooperation Administration. Under the International Cooperation Administration, and in agreement with the Iranian Ministry of Education, this Agreement was re-evaluated. Long-range goals were set to assist Iran to become a modern industrialized nation, and to strengthen its free and independent status, through an educated populace. A program was planned, to develop by 1980, (1) institutions, facilities, and learning materials for an estimated 8.1 million students; (2) to train 225,000 teachers with supporting supervisory and administrative personnel; and (3) to devise functional curricula to meet the nation's needs.[8]

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[6]Ahmad H. Adle, "The Joint Commission for Social and Economic Development in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, International Communications Administration, December 9, 1955), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

[7]William E. Warne, "Project Agreement Number Forty-eight Under Program Agreement Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the Foreign Technical Cooperation Administration Mission of the United States of America" (Legal Document, Washington, March 30, 1953), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[8]Education Division, "Project Work Plans and E-1's for Fiscal Year 1961" (Teheran: Communications Media Resources Division, 1951), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

Project Agreement Number Forty-five was directed toward four major points of emphasis in each of its six activities. These points were (1) the lack of qualified teachers; (2) the lack of a functional curriculum; (3) the lack of adequately qualified school administrators; and (4) the lack of adequate instructional material.[9]

The six major activities of Project Agreement Number Forty-five were:

1. Fundamental Education. The intent of this activity was to improve village life through education and self-help in health, sanitation, agriculture and industry, and to impress the villagers with the concept that they were not hopelessly committed to poverty, filth, disease and superstition.[10]

   It was planned to unite the forces of education, agriculture, health, and community development, through a Rural Education Committee, to meet the new objectives.[11]

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[9]Education Division, United States Operations Mission/Iran, "A List of Projects" (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1954), pp. 2-5. (Mimeographed.); Communications Media Division, "Joint Program for Development" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1961), p. 15. (Mimeographed.); United States Operations Mission to Iran, "United States Technical Assistance to Iran, Problem, Program, and Progress" (Teheran: Audio-visual Services, Fine Arts Administration, 1960), pp. 6-7. (Mimeographed.); and United States Operations Mission to Iran, "United States Technical Assistance to Iran, Problem, Program, and Progress" (Teheran: Audio-visual Services, Fine Arts Administration, 1958), pp. 5-7. (Mimeographed.)

[10]Luanna J. Bowles, The Story of Fundamental Education in Iran (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1958), pp. 3-5.

[11]Education Division, "Project Work Plans," loc. cit.; and Harry D. Craig, General Education Activities Report (Teheran: Communications Media Resources Division, 1957), pp. 7 and 38.

The specific goals to be achieved by the end of 1961 were (1) to train 557 teachers of Fundamental Education; (2) to give in-service training to 738 Provincial leaders; (3) to hold two annual ten-day training sessions to develop fourteen Provincial supervisors; (4) to expand the number of villages reached by Fundamental Education to 900; (5) to assist 300 villages to acquire schools through a self-help program; (6) to attempt to measure and evaluate social changes in villages under Fundamental Education; and (7) to include techniques of Fundamental Education in the pre-service training of teachers in the regular and agriculture normal schools.[12]

2. General Education. The purpose of this activity was to provide advisory services to the Ministry of Education in education methods, administration and organization of kindergarten, elementary schools, secondary schools, normal schools, and in the fields of curricula, school administration and supervision.[13]

   The specific goals were (1) the pre-service training of 40,000 elementary and secondary school teachers; (2) the in-service training of 780 elementary and secondary school supervisors; (4) the in-service training of 7,000 elementary and secondary school administrators; (5) continued curricula revision and the installation by 1961 of the new elementary school curriculum; (7) the development of economically produced visual aids; and (8) through advisory services to assist the Ministry of Education to produce 350,000 copies of existing texts.[14]

3. Home Economics Education. Home Economics must now be a required part of the curricula.[15]

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[12] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., pp. 13-14; and Harry A. Brenn (ed.), 1958 Program Planning for Iran (Washington: International Cooperation Administration, 1958), pp. 200-201.

[13] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 17.

[14] Ibid., pp. 17-18; Craig, op. cit., p. 38; and Brenn, op. cit., pp. 201-202.

[15] Avis L. Chase, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2338, Washington, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 21.

Specific goals in Home Economics Education were (1) pre-service education of 350 secondary school home economics teachers; (2) pre-service education of 300 junior high school teachers; (3) in-service education of 150 ostan supervisors; (4) in-service training of 150 administrators; (5) in-service training for 150 Provincial education leaders in the philosophy and concept of home economics; (6) curriculum development; (7) development of instructional materials; and (8) development of home and school related activities.[16]

4. Physical Education and Youth Activities. The purpose of this activity was to provide advisory assistance to the Ministry of Education in intellectual and ethical growth for the children and youth of Iran through the media of motor activities and the optimum adjustment of all Iranian youth as worthy participants in national and community life.[17]

The specific objectives were (1) to increase the physical efficiency of all Iranian children; (2) to develop a healthy interest in and a concept of competitive sports and good sportsmanship; and (3) to combat juvenile delinquency.[18]

Specific goals stated were (1) the pre-service training of 4,417 physical education leaders and teachers; (2) in-service education for 14,500 teachers and leaders; (3) pre-service education for 100 supervisors; (4) in-service education for 100 supervisors; (5) pre-service training in physical education administration for 300 selected secondary school graduates and sixty Boy Scout administrative leaders; (6) in-service training for 300 school administrators in the concepts of physical education; (7) the revision and development of the physical education curricula; (10) expansion of the camping program; and (11) the establishment of youth centers in each ostan.[19]

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[16] Ibid., pp. 21-22; and Brenn, op. cit., p. 192.

[17] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 25.

[18] Ibid.

[19] Ibid., pp. 26-27.

5. Vocational Agricultural Education. The intent of this program was through Iran's agricultural schools and adult programs to meet training needs in agricultural fields and to raise the standards of living by improved agricultural education methods.[20]

   Long range goals were (1) to develop an interest in and an awareness of agriculture through exploratory programs in 770 elementary and secondary schools; (2) to establish and develop seven vocational secondary schools of agriculture; (3) to establish and develop practical farm schools; (4) to develop on-the-job agricultural training programs; (5) to develop agricultural teacher training programs; (6) to develop instructional material; (7) to train 5,775 teachers in vocational agriculture; (8) to train 100 supervisors in agricultural education; and (9) to develop a model school of agriculture in each ostan.[21]

6. Vocational Industrial Education. The purpose of this activity was to assist Iran by providing opportunities for technical and skill development through an in-school and an adult program.[22]

   Specific goals of this activity were (1) to increase the training of trade teachers to fifty by 1960, to 100 by 1961, and to 150 by 1962; (2) to give in-service training to 5,240 trade teachers in Teheran, Shiraz, Tabriz, and Karadj; (3) to develop pre-service education programs for 100 supervisors by 1964; (4) to give in-service training in industrial education to thirty supervisors; (5) to give pre-service training in industrial education administration to fifty administrators; (7) to revise, by 1964, the elementary and secondary school curricula to include the concept of integration of shop and hand work with the academic program; (8) to develop, by 1962, instructional materials including nine text books and

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[20] Ibid., p. 33; and Stewart B. Hamblen, "Education Division Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 9-11a, Vol. 2 (Washington: United States Operations Mission, 1957), p. 19. (Mimeographed.)

[21] Brenn, op. cit., p. 190.

[22] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 36.

forty-two pamphlets for use in industrial education with a distribution of 100,000 copies;[23] and (9) to establish 729 elementary departments of industrial education, nineteen first-cycle trade schools, and ten second-cycle trade schools.[24]

Project Agreement Number One Hundred Fifteen. This Agreement was signed on March 14, 1956, as a sub-project under Agreement Number Forty-five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four signed in 1952, and was titled, Improving Teacher Education Through the National Teachers College.[25] This Agreement terminated May 9, 1962.[26]

The intent of this sub-project was to assist the Ministry of Education, through the National Teachers College,[27] (1) to provide better teachers for all levels of schools; (2) to develop a model teacher training institution with a modern curriculum; (3) to develop a pattern of functional education and increase the depth of knowledge of the teachers to be trained; (4) to develop a department of

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[23] Ibid., pp. 37-38; and Brenn, op. cit., p. 191.

[24] Hamblen, op. cit., p. 18.

[25] Education Division, "Report on Education Project Agreements" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1962), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); and Don Stoops, Project Agreement #65-66-115 Under Program Agreement Between Ministry of Education of Iran and the Foreign Operations Administration Mission of the United States of America (Legal Document, Washington, March 31, 1956), pp. 1-8. (Mimeographed.)

[26] Education Division, "Report on Project," op. cit., p. 6.

[27] Golden Woolf, "Terminal Report" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1961), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

elementary education; and (5) to introduce physical education into the curricula of Iran's schools through teacher training.[28]

Specific goals were (1) to improve the organization, administration, program of study, and curriculum content in the National Teachers College; (2) to develop an enrollment of 1,480 by 1960; (3) to develop a full-time faculty; (4) to develop a graduate division;[29] and (5) to train the college staff on an on-the-job basis by American advisors carrying teaching assignments.[30]

Project Agreement AG-Five. Agreement Five was signed on March 17, 1956, as a sub-project under Agreement Number Forty-five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four signed in 1952, and was titled, Teheran Institute of Technology.[31]

The intent of this sub-project was (1) to train teachers for trade and industrial schools; (2) to provide

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[28] Golden L. Woolf (ed.), "Evaluation and Recommendations for the National Teachers College of Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1961), pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed.)

[29] Woolf, "Terminal Report," op. cit., pp. 1-4.

[30] Golden L. Woolf, "Sixth Quarterly Performance Report, Project Number 115" (Teheran: National Teachers College, March 5, 1959), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[31] Clarence Hendershot, Paul Luebke, and Kenneth Bailey, "Case History, Project 265-AC-61-AG-5 Vocational Education" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1692, Washington, March 30, 1963), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

facilities for industrial research; (3) to develop curricula, instructional materials and teaching methods; (4) to train technicians for industry; (5) to conduct in-service courses for teachers of existing vocational and technical schools; and (6) to provide evening and part-time classes for apprentices and workers.[32]

Training was to be provided in Machine Shop Practice and Tool Making, Technical Drawing, Foundry and Pattern Making, Sheet Metal Work, Arc and Acetylene Welding, Automotive Work, Carpentry and Joining, Electrical Technology, Textile and Dyeing, Building Construction, Plumbing, Heating and Air Conditioning, and Industrial Management.[33]

Long-range objectives determined (1) to develop an educational policy which would demand specific pedagogical training for vocational teachers; (2) to develop a philosophy of respect for the dignity of labor and for the importance of both the skilled mechanic and the traditional educated man to modern civilization; and (3) to gain acceptance of the concept that a vocational teacher must do as well as tell.[34]

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[32]Education Division, Agency for International Development, "Teheran Institute of Technology" (Teheran: Agency for International Development, November 1, 1962), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[33]Ibid.

[34]Clarence Hendershot, "Case History of Project 265-AC-61-AG5, Vocational Education, Teheran Institute of Technology" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1692, Washington, March 30, 1963), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

Specific goals were (1) to build the school and have it in full operation by 1958;[35] and (2) to train one hundred vocational teachers a year as well as develop skilled craftsmen.[36]

Project Agreement Number One Hundred Twenty-six. This Project was signed on June 26, 1957, as a sub-project under Agreement Number Forty-five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four signed in 1952, and was titled, Demonstration Vocational Facilities. Project Agreement Revision Number Six, signed September 11, 1961, extended this sub-project to June 19, 1963.[37]

Sub-project One Hundred Twenty-six was an agreement for the development of demonstration facilities to assist the Ministry of Education in providing trained manpower for Iran in the fields of industry and agriculture. The facilities were to consist of two centers, a Vocational Agricultural

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[35]Education Division, "Technical Institute," loc. cit.

[36]Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 30.

[37]Education Division, "The Education Program in Iran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-846, Washington, 1955), pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed.); Department of State, Highlights of President Kennedy's New Act for International Development, Department of State Publication 7211, General Foreign Policy Series 170 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1961), p. 2; and Harry A. Brenn and Mahmoud Mehran, "Project Agreement Number One Hundred and Twenty-six Between the Ministry of Education of Iran and the International Cooperation Administration of the United States of America" (Legal Document, International Cooperation Administration, Washington, June 26, 1957), pp. 1-18. (Mimeographed.)

Education Center at Karadj, and a Vocational Industrial Education Center at Narmak.[38]

The components of the Agricultural Center were to be (1) an elementary agricultural demonstration school containing only grades 5 and 6 for 180 students; (2) a first cycle practical farm school for grades 7, 8, and 9 with ninety students; (3) a second cycle school unit for agricultural teacher training for grades 10 and 11, and a college preparatory section for grade 12 with 180 students; (4) an adult educational unit with fifty students; and (5) a teaching materials development and production unit.[39]

This center was to serve as a pilot project for the improvement and expansion of the national program for agricultural education in Iran. It was to serve as a place where a unified program of agricultural education could be taught at all levels, and where teaching methods, philosophies, curricula, and materials could be developed on a trial and demonstration basis.[40]

The components of the Vocational Industrial Education Center were to be (1) a first cycle, grades 7 and 8 unit for exploratory industrial arts; (2) a trade training unit for grades 9 through 12; (3) two special units, grades 11 and 12,

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[38]Brenn and Mehran, op. cit., p. 8.

[39]Ibid., p. 9.

[40]Ibid., pp. 9-10.

for qualified students interested in engineering and in vocational teacher training.[41]

Specific goals of the Industrial Center were (1) to train up to five hundred students each year between the ages of 12 and 18 to be skilled workers; (2) to train up to fifty students each year as skilled workers in special fields; (3) to train fifty students each year at grade 12 level in pre-engineering and in teacher training; (4) to train up to one thousand adult workers and craftsmen each year in evening courses; (5) to make the Center a demonstration unit to industry for shop organization, use of modern equipment, instruction methods, tool control and material management; and (6) to establish the center as a model for other vocational schools in Iran.[42]

Sub-project for the Demonstration School of Business. The sub-project for the Demonstration School of Business was developed under Project Agreement Number Forty-five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four signed in 1952, and was signed in August 1957.[43] The sub-project was intended to assist the Ministry of Education (1) to develop a program

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[41] Ibid., pp. 12-13.

[42] Ibid.

[43] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 8; and Education Division, "Project Completion Report for Project Forty-five" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1963), p. 30. (Mimeographed.)

of general and vocational business education in the secondary schools of Iran; (2) to develop short-term specialized courses for employed workers; (3) to develop a program of general and vocational business education on the college and graduate level; (4) to establish the Demonstration School of Business as a pilot project for schools, industry and business; and (5) to develop a teacher and administrator training program to support these activities.[44]

The School of Business was to be organized into a Day School of Business, a Night School of Business, and later a Materials and Planning Division and an Ostan Development Division were added.[45]

Specific goals for the Demonstration School of Business were (1) to develop and establish a School of Business in each of the five major ostans; (2) to train 357 business education teachers; (3) to develop advisory committees; (4) to have four hundred students in a fully operating Night School of Business by the end of 1961; (5) to have two hundred students in the Day School of Business by 1962; (6) to develop seventeen textbooks by 1962; (7) to develop five textbooks for a secondary school

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[44] Education Division, "Project Completion Report," op. cit., p. 9; and Education Division, "Project Work Plans," loc. cit.

[45] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," loc. cit.

of business program; (8) to train 20 teachers in each summer session up to 1964; (9) to conduct summer session courses for sixteen supervisors each summer up to 1964; and (10) to establish in-service training courses for 100 teachers by 1962.[46]

Project Agreement Number One Hundred Thirty-two. Agreement Number One Hundred Thirty-two was signed on March 3, 1958, as a project under Project Agreement Number Forty-five, pursuant to Program Agreement Number Four signed in 1952, and was titled, Technical Assistance to Teheran University.

The agreement provided for a team from the University of Southern California to make a survey of the entire program and facilities of the Teheran University. At the conclusion of the study conclusions and recommendations were to be presented in a report.[47] The agreement was terminated October 10, 1958.[48]

Project Agreement Number Two Hundred Twenty-three. Agreement Number Two Hundred Twenty-three was a special project signed on May 31, 1961, by the Ministry of War of

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[46] Ibid., pp. 10-11.

[47] Tracey E. Strevey, et al., Report of a Survey of the University of Teheran (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, June 1958), pp. 1-7.

[48] Education Division, "Report on Education Projects," op. cit., p. 13.

Iran and the International Cooperation Administration, to be administered by the Education Division of the International Cooperation Administration in Iran.[49]

The agreement was designed to furnish vocational trade training to Iranian army conscriptees six months prior to their completing their army duty. The training was intended to make it possible for the trained conscriptees to return to their rural areas and engage in industrial jobs or enterprises.[50]

The specific goals of the project were (1) to establish a center in Teheran to train shop teachers for the proposed Provincial Conscript Training Centers; (2) to develop special curricula and teaching materials; (3) to recruit twenty-four Iranian non-commissioned officers as faculty for the Teheran Center and to train them prior to the opening of the center; (4) to select 7,200 conscriptees each year for the six months training; (5) to select fifty-six non-commissioned officers for teacher training to staff the Conscript Training Centers; and (6) to establish at least six but not more than twelve of these Centers in the field.[51]

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[49]Education Division, Iran, "Technical Assistance Project Case History" (Washington: Agency for International Development, June 25, 1963), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[50]Ibid., p. 1; and Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 43.

[51]Education Division, "Case History," op. cit., p. 6.

II. IMPLEMENTATION OF PROJECT AGREEMENTS

The Education Division continued to focus its attention on four major aspects of the areas established under the Project Agreements. These were (1) teacher training; (2) administrative and supervisory training; (3) curriculum revision; and (4) development of instructional materials.[52]

A total of thirty-four direct hire American technicians including a Chief and a Deputy Chief Advisor, and twelve contract-hire American technicians, served varying length tours of duty during the period 1956-1961.[53]

A national conference was held immediately after the transition to the new agency to brief American technicians on the new philosophy of operation of the technical assistance program.[54]

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[52]Education Division, "Monthly Report for September 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1125, Washington, November 28, 1958), p. 3. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, "Quarterly Report for July Through September 30, 1959" (International Cooperation Administration Airgram TOICA A-747, Washington, October 1959), p. 4. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Monthly Report for November 1958" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, International Cooperation Administration, November 1958), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.)

[53]Education Division, "Completion Report," op. cit., p. 7.

[54]Kenneth L. Neff, National Development Through Social Progress, Bulletin 1963 No. 8 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 1; Kenneth L. Neff, "Recommendations for AID Assistance to Human Resource Development Planning" (Washington: Bureau of International Education, United States Office of Education, 1962), pp. 2-6. (Mimeographed.);

Regular luncheon meetings were established with representatives of all other agencies offering technical assistance to education in Iran to discuss programs in order to prevent duplication of effort.[55]

The Fundamental Education advisor and her counterparts used village schools as community centers to develop the concept of community schools and to include all facets of village life in training programs. The Fundamental Education program was carried out with the Ministry of Education officials at the national, ostan, shahrestan and village levels. This program was continuously coordinated with other rural service agencies at all levels.[56]

Jeep transportation was furnished to Fundamental Education leaders. Five mobile audio-visual units, completely equipped, were furnished by the United States and sent to the five major ostans. Drivers were trained as driver-projectionists. The Iranian government was

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Education Division, "Special Report for November 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1383, Washington, January 6, 1959), p. 4. (Mimeographed.); and Betty Williams, Iran Post Report (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1960), p. 4.

[55]Education Division, "Quarterly Report for January 1 to March 30, 1962" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1326, Washington, May 15, 1962), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

[56]Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., pp. 12-13.

encouraged to pay overtime to adult evening school teachers.[57] Houses for teachers and leaders were under construction to facilitate the bringing of trained persons into remote areas.[58]

A public relations program was begun on the radio and in local newspapers to make the public aware of Fundamental Education and its activities and goals.[59]

Iranian and American technicians emphasized the in-service training program for teacher trainers to achieve a multiplier effect. American technicians in the field assumed responsibility for all phases of the education program in assisting the Iranians to develop their plan of education.[60]

Semi-annual national conferences were conducted regularly during 1956-1961. These were jointly planned and conducted by Iranian and American educators.[61]

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[57]Craig, "Education Report for 1957," op. cit., pp. 7-12; and Evelyn W. Sharp, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1203, Washington, 1962), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[58]Kenneth Harris, "End of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2791, Washington, June 10, 1957), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[59]Luanna J. Bowles, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-673, Washington, October 1957), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

[60]Regina M. Goff, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-396, Washington, 1956), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[61]Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-620, Washington, September 16, 1958), p. 5. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, "Monthly Report for March 1959" (Inter-

In order to implement the request of the Ministry of Education that an emergency approach be made to temporarily solving the teacher shortage a new plan was proposed. It was suggested that, since approximately five thousand high school graduates were out of school and unable to enter any institution of higher learning, that they be given a thirteenth year of elementary teacher training.[62] The thirteenth year was provided.[63]

American advisors and their Iranian counterparts developed a Dictionary of Education Terms in English and Farsi. This was intended to assist in developing a common

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national Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2421, Washington, June 6, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, "Monthly Report for September, 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1045, Washington, December 5, 1959), pp. 2-4. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, International Cooperation Administration, Report of the Spring Conference on Rural Education in Iran (Teheran: Communications Media Division, March 1961), p. 2; and Clarence Hendershot, "Report on Summer Conference on Program Development" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1961), pp. 2-6. (Mimeographed.)

[62]Habib Naficy, Minister of Cultural Affairs and National Advisor of Student Affairs, Embassy of Iran, Washington, and former Under-Secretary for Vocational Education, Ministry of Education, Iran. The problem of lack of further educational facilities for high school graduates was discussed by Mr. Naficy in an address given to Peace Corps trainees at Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., August 30, 1963.

[63]Department of Elementary Education of Iran, Educational Conference for Rural Areas (Teheran: Ministry of Education of Iran, May 1959), p. 9; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2088, Washington, April 15, 1961), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

understanding of professional terms.[64]

A Handbook of Administration and Supervision was prepared by a committee of American advisors. The book was intended to introduce a common factor of understanding among the American technicians and to suggest methods and procedures in the areas of administration and supervision which might result in a more uniform approach in instruction given by the American advisors.[65]

A contract team of five members was recruited from Brigham Young University and installed in the National Teachers College in Teheran. These educators taught classes and trained Iranians in their particular education specialities. The first group finished a two-year tour and a larger group of seven educators replaced them.

A contract was let for architectural and engineering services for Project One Hundred Twenty-six. The Ministry of Education let a contract to begin construction on the Teheran Institute of Technology.[66]

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[64]Education Division, "Quarterly Report for October 1 to December 30, 1961" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-713, Washington, February 19, 1962), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[65]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, April 1 through June 30, 1960" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-228, Washington, July 1960), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

[66]Woolf, "Terminal Report," op. cit., pp. 1-4; and Program Office, United States Agency for International Development, "Educational Development Project 265-65-045.E1" (Teheran: Agency for International Development Mission to Iran, August 15, 1960), pp. 18 and 33. (Mimeographed.)

III. SITUATIONS AND INFLUENCES AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION

Technical assistance to education in Iran became more effective as the Iranians understood better the efforts of the American advisors and better understood the basic concepts involved in suggested changes.[67]

The often excessive lapsed time between the planned advent and the actual arrival date of American technicians negated having the planned number of American technicians on-board to implement programs.[68] This lack of on-board strength not only delayed achievement but often caused an American technician in the field through necessity to assume responsibility for all phases of the education program even though he may have been specialized in one major area.[69]

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[67]William Arthur Cram, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1331, Washington, January 1955), p. 6. (Mimeographed.); Goff, op. cit., p. 3; and Stewart B. Hamblen, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1918, Washington, March 19, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[68]Nathan A. Pitts, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-371, Washington, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1162, Washington, January 1959), pp. 2-4. (Mimeographed.)

[69]Samuel E. Fuhr, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-135, Washington, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); Stanley J. Reeves, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-267, Washington, 1958), p. 7. (Mimeographed.); and Goff, op. cit., p. 9.

With the frequent turnover of American technicians magnified by the lapsed time in replacement and the urgent need to move a newly arrived technician to his post as soon as possible, ineffective orientation often resulted. In spite of the number of years the program of technical assistance had been in existence, newly arrived technicians were constantly faced with learning for themselves an understanding of a new culture, an awareness of local customs and mores, and how to work with people of different philosophies and beliefs.[70]

From 1956 through 1961 United States Congressional committees were investigating the total technical assistance program in Iran. The investigators were highly critical of some aspects of funding, management, and implementation.[71] Involvement in investigation procedures required much time on the part of the American staff in Iran in the preparation of reports, statistics, program justification, and project explanation.[72]

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[70]Education Division, "Monthly Report for December 1957" (Teheran: International Cooperation Administration, January 1958), pp. 1-6. (Mimeographed.); and Cram, op. cit., pp. 10-12.

[71]Staff Survey Team of the Subcommittee for Review of the Mutual Security Programs, Report on Economic Assistance to Korea, Thailand, and Iran (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1960), pp. 17-24; and Dawson, op. cit., pp. 1-61.

[72]The author was deeply involved in this exercise of preparation of material.

The Comptroller General's report stated that the International Cooperation Administration Mission to Iran had corrected and strengthened its organization, administration and program implementation. It also stated that the Government of Iran was taking an increasingly greater share of costs and responsibilities.[73]

The Ministry of Education continued to find budgetary practices a problem.[74] The concept of budget planning based on program needs grew slowly.[75] The Ministry of Education officials tended to wait until after schools were open to determine enrollment. Supplies and equipment could then be ordered.[76]

The Plan Organization, a national planning body with some fund control, often made plans for a country-wide

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[73]Comptroller General of the United States, Report to the Congress of the United States. Examination of Economic and Technical Assistance Program for Iran, International Cooperation Administration, Department of State, for Fiscal Years 1956-1960 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1961), p. 8.

[74]Education Division, "Monthly Report for March, 1957" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2334, Washington, April 16, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed); and Education Division, "Monthly Report for May 1960" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-288-18, Washington, August 13, 1960), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

[75]Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2528, Washington, June 23, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[76]Education Division, "Monthly Report October 1958," op. cit., p. 3.

education program without full consultation with the Ministry of Education officials and certainly without consultation with American advisors. This practice created resentment and great confusion.[77]

The Ministry of Education began to place emphasis upon school buildings. This action withdrew funds from program implementation and caused a severe delay in the in-service teacher training program.[78]

The Project for the Demonstration Vocational Facilities was hampered at its inception by a difficulty in securing legal ownership to the designated Ministry of Education building site at Narmak. A squatter had moved in, divided the land into building sites and sold them. Buyers had moved onto the land to protect their interest. Gendarmes were called to remove them. After several battles the people were removed, their money returned and the original squatter jailed. Title was secured after months of delay.[79]

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[77] Education Division, "Monthly Report for May 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-204, Washington, July 31, 1959), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[78] Education Division, "Quarterly Report for July 1 to September 30, 1961" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-127, Washington, October 15, 1961), p. 3. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Monthly Report September 1958," op. cit., p. 5.

[79] Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1374, Washington, February 3, 1960), pp. 2-3. (Mimeographed.)

The Teheran Institute of Technology was badly hampered during its early days of development. The Technical Undersecretary to the Minister of Education decided to force engineering into the Institute instead of the planned vocational teacher training program. Students were disturbed and unhappy over the uncertain situation. Many months were lost during the misunderstandings.[80]

The Technical Undersecretary suddenly decided to make building changes after the completed plans were accepted and construction begun. Time was lost in this difficulty.[81]

The Minister of Education took a firm stand and reaffirmed the Ministry's intent to abide by the Project Agreement. He stated that the intent of the Teheran Institute of Technology was to train vocational teachers. In the meantime several years efforts toward goal achievement were only partially effective.[82]

In the latter period of technical assistance under

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[80] Ibid., p. 4; Hendershot, "Technical Institute," op. cit., pp. 14-15; and Harry W. Kerwin, "End of Tour Report" (Teheran: Communications Media, International Cooperation Administration, February 24, 1960), pp. 15-17. (Mimeographed.)

[81] Education Division, "Monthly Report for June 1960" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-589, Washington, July 1960), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[82] Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1952, Washington, March 28, 1959), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

the International Cooperation Administration a series of student strikes against the Government of Iran and against the Ministry of Education took place. At one time during this period the teachers also went on strike for better salaries and working conditions.[83]

One teacher was killed during a demonstration. The Government Cabinet of Ministers fell and the leader of the teachers' strike was appointed as the new Minister of Education. In rapid succession three Ministers of Education were appointed and withdrawn. As each Minister was appointed he invariably removed a number of officials and replaced them with people of his own choosing. Since the country of Iran could not continue indefinitely supplying well trained personnel for these positions, it followed that some of the new incumbents were less than adequate. Further delay in implementation took place until the American technicians could establish rapport and make the new officials aware of the program of technical assistance to Education. Most of the schools were closed for months during this unsettled period.[84]

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[83] Education Division, "Quarterly Report for April 1 through June 30, 1961" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-299, Washington, July 1961), pp. 1-3. (Mimeographed.); and Charles J. Dove, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1992, Washington, 1963), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

[84] Education Division, "Quarterly Report May, 1962," op. cit., pp. 1-2; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report April, 1961," op. cit., pp. 1-3.

Each new regime attempted to reorganize and to cut expenses. Funds were withdrawn from many of the projects precedent to further study.[85]

Teachers' salaries were raised and morale improved.[86] American technicians were requested by the new Minister of Education to assist in drafting a more functional organization pattern for the Ministry of Education. Specific assistance was requested, for the first time, in developing techniques for budget construction based on program needs.[87]

Iranian officials with limited knowledge of their own country began to travel with American advisors on field trips.[88]

IV. PROGRESS OF THE PROGRAM TOWARD MEETING ITS OBJECTIVES

Audio-visual education. A complete audio-visual department was established and equipped in the Fine Arts

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[85]Clarence Hendershot, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-151, Washington, 1961), pp. 1-3. (Mimeographed.)

[86]Education Division, "Teachers Salaries in Iran" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-326, Washington, December 1961), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[87]Cram, op. cit., p. 22; and Education Division, "Special Report for November, 1958," op. cit., p. 8.

[88]Education Division, "Monthly Report for May, 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2670, Washington, June 24, 1958), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

Administration building of the Ministry of Education, and Departments of Audio-visual Education were established in each ostan through American technical assistance.[89]

The Fine Arts Administration kept the equipment in repair, trained operators and maintenance men, and trained 1,300 teachers in audio-visual techniques under the guidance and instruction of American advisors.[90]

Five elementary schools were selected in Teheran to train master teachers in audio-visual techniques for elementary schools throughout Iran.[91] Sixty teachers were trained as teacher-trainers in Arts and Crafts.[92]

An audio-visual center and laboratory was established at the National Teachers College by American technical assistance. An Iranian director of audio-visual education was appointed at the college. An audio-visual center was also established in the Teheran Normal School.[93]

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[89] Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," op. cit., p. 2.

[90] Ibid., p. 9; and Syracuse University Team, "Monthly Report for December 1956" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1725, Washington, January 1958), p. 16. (Mimeographed.)

[91] Syracuse University Team, op. cit., p. 17.

[92] Stewart B. Hamblen, "Semi-Annual Report of the Education Division for July 1 to December 31, 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1649, Washington, January 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[93] Woolf, "Evaluation Report," op. cit., pp. 75-87.

The Syracuse University contract team and the Communications Media Division of the technical assistance mission[94] worked together with the Iranian Fine Arts Administration to produce many motion picture films and film strips.[95]

The Communications Media Division assisted the Education Division and the Ministry of Education in developing a pilot project in a television program to teach science. While the project was successful, lack of Ministry funds prevented further implementation.[96]

Fundamental Education and literacy training. During the period from 1956 to 1961 the Fundamental Education Division of the Ministry of Education trained 23,350 Fundamental Education teachers in an in-service training program.[97] Pre-service training was given to 17,625 teachers.[98]

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[94]Kermanshah Provincial Director, "Summary Report," Teheran Mission History of Operations, Sections 15-19, Vol. 14 (Washington: Foreign Operations Administration, 1957), p. 37. (Mimeographed.)

[95]The author, in investigating film resources available, in 1961 discovered Fine Arts Administration had a stock of five hundred titles in motion picture films and film strips, the most of which had Farsi sound tracks.

[96]Education Division, "Quarterly Report March 1962," op. cit., p. 3.

[97]Education Division, "Monthly Report for October, 1958," op. cit., p. 8; Education Division, "Monthly Report for July, 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-380, Washington, August 18, 1958), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); Sharp, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 4; Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 15; and Education Division, "Monthly Repofr for April 1959," op. cit., p. 8.

[98]Thomas J. Edwards, What Is Fundamental Education in Iran? (Teheran: Communications Resources Division, 1961), p. 2.

Literacy classes were conducted for 69,853 persons whose ages ranged from seven years to seventy. The average attendance in these classes was approximately 95 per cent.[99] Three courses were held for a group of one hundred mid-wives.[100] The expenses of these mid-wives were met by the village councils.[101]

There were established by the end of this period 421 main Fundamental Education Centers and 748 village sub-centers in 962 villages. Through the self-help plan 475 village cluster units and 259 houses had been built for village leaders.[102] Seventy-five leaders and ostan supervisors had been trained.[103]

The concept of national conferences was developed. A program for publicity and public relations was organized.

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[99]Sharp, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 7; Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," loc. cit.; and Craig, "Activities Report," op. cit., p. 151.

[100]Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1959," op. cit., p. 6.

[101]Education Division, "Monthly Report for February 1957" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2237, Washington, April 3, 1957), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[102]Sharp, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 4; Evelyn Sharp, "Adult Education and the Ministry of Education in Iran" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-911, Washington, 1962), p. 4. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," op. cit., p. 9.

[103]Sharp, "End of Tour Report," loc. cit.; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," loc. cit.

Radio broadcasts, newspapers and pamphlets carried the message of Fundamental Education.[104]

Fundamental Education courses were installed in the curricula of all rural and tribal elementary schools.[105]

Fundamental Education extended its materials development service to reach sixteen thousand villages.[106] A total of 1,168,300 books and pamphlets for use as reading material were produced.[107]

The Ministry of Education bought thirteen Jeeps for the ostan leaders and supervisors to enable them to travel to all parts of their areas.[108]

A pilot library was established in a village in the Varamin area.[109]

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[104]Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1958," op. cit., p. 8; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1957" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1891, Washington, February 12, 1957), p. 23. (Mimeographed.)

[105]Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," op. cit., p. 10; and Sharp, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 8.

[106]Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1958," op. cit., p. 2.

[107]Sharp, "Adult Education Report," op. cit., p. 22; Education Division, "Quarterly Report, July 1960," op. cit., p. 7; and Sharp, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 7.

[108]Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1959," op. cit., p. 6.

[109]Education Division, "Monthly Report for May, 1960" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2167, Washington, June 9, 1960), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

For the first time in the program and immediately prior to 1961, the Fundamental Education Department of the Ministry of Education began to gather, arrange, and evaluate statistics on their program.[110]

The American and Iranian technicians stated that they saw, by 1961, great changes in the villager's attitude toward sanitation, self-help, interest in life, and willingness to work.[111]

In May 1961, the Ministry of Education created a new department, the Department of Rural Education, and arbitrarily discontinued the program of Fundamental Education, phasing its activities into the new department.[112]

General Education. In-service training classes were conducted for 363 secondary school teachers, 46,973 elementary teachers, and 22 kindergarten teachers.[113] In an effort

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[110]Sharp, "End of Tour Report," loc. cit.

[111]Bowles, "Story of Fundamental Education," op. cit., pp. 3-5; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1958," op. cit., p. 5.

[112]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1961," op. cit., p. 2.

[113]Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 5; Education Division, "Quarterly Report for April 1 to June 30, 1962" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-330, Washington, August 15, 1962), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); Brenn, "Program Planning," op. cit., p. 194; Craig, "General Education Activities Report," op. cit., p. 38; Kenneth L. Eisaman, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-376, Washington, August 27, 1957), p. 4. (Mimeographed.); Hamblen, "Semi-annual Report of the

to place trained personnel in village schools, young villagers were selected to be trained in Teheran as village teachers.[114] More than three hundred young tribesmen were trained to work in the tribal tent schools.[115]

In-service training classes were held for 5,150 school administrators and supervisors.[116]

A pilot program in adult evening classes was held in Isfahan in 1961 to give up-grading courses to teachers for credit toward college degrees and classified teaching certificates. There were 920 teachers in attendance at

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Education Division, December 1958," op. cit., p. 1; Education Division, "Quarterly Report, July 1960," op. cit., p. 7; Education Division, "Quarterly Report for April 1 through June 30, 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-228, Washington, July 30, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); Edwin L. Williams, "End of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-285, Washington, 1961), pp. 1-2. (Mimeographed.); and "Kerman Monthly Report" (Kerman: Education Provincial Office, International Cooperation Administration, July 21, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[114]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, March 1963," op. cit., p. 1; and Agency for International Development, Department of State, The Role of Technical Assistance in Foreign Aid (Washington: Agency for International Development, Department of State, 1963), p. 2.

[115]Craig, "General Education Activities Report," op. cit., p. 154; Education Division, "Monthly Report for November 1958," op. cit., p. 11; and James A. Colman, "End of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-152, Washington, 1961), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

[116]Hamblen, "Semi-annual Report of the Education Division, December 1958," op. cit., p. 1; Anna K. Garrettson, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1323, Washington, December 31, 1957), p. 9. (Mimeographed.); and Colman, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 4.

these classes.[117]

A series of three national conferences was held by the Ministry of Education for secondary school teachers and administrators. In each conference there were approximately 1,500 persons in attendance.[118]

Iranian and American education technicians stated that because of these conferences there were definite signs of improvement in teaching methods, class discussions, testing, concern for the student as a person, administration, and the beginnings of a concept of guidance and counselling. As a result of these conferences sixty teachers were given experience in Counselling and Guidance workshops.

Four in-service training classes were held for all Ostan Chiefs of Education. An average of twelve persons attended each class.[119]

The Ministry of Education held national conferences for teacher-trainers. All ostans were represented. The

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[117]Colman, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 3.

[118]Education Division, "Monthly Repoft for September 1958," op. cit., p. 13; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 5.

[119]Hamblen, "Completion of Tour Report," 1959, op. cit., p. 2; Obed Williamson, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2501, Washington, 1958), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); Grace Scott, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-935, Washington, 1958), p. 6. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, "Monthly Report for June 1958," op. cit., p. 3; and Craig, "Completion of Tour Report," 1955, op. cit., p. 2.

teacher-trainers returned to their respective areas and conducted in-service classes for the teachers. An average of 175 trainers were in attendance at each conference. The Ministry of Education, by 1961, had assumed full responsibility for this activity.[120]

During this period the American Education Division held ten semi-annual conferences for American technicians and Iranian Ministry of Education officials. Iranian educators helped organize and conduct these conferences.[121]

A pilot program was conducted in Tabriz, in 1958, by an American technician for twenty-six emergency teachers. Thousands of secondary school graduates in Iran had no occupation or opportunity for further education. The pilot program was an attempt to allow these unemployed students to fill the need for elementary school teachers. Their success was so marked that the Minister of Education made it a nation-wide program, and 4,225 secondary school graduates were trained as elementary school teachers.[122]

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[120]Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1957," op. cit., p. 22; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1961," op. cit., p. 3.

[121]Education Division, ICA/Iran, Spring Education Conference of March 13 to 18, 1961 (Teheran: Communications Media Resources Division, March 1961), pp. 2-6; Education Division, "Monthly Report for March 1959," op. cit., p. 2; and Education Division, "Report of Spring Conference," op. cit., pp. 1-3.

[122]Department of Elementary Education of Iran, "Education Conference," op. cit., p. 3; Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1959" (International Cooperation

American technicians in cooperation with their Iranian counterparts developed three arithmetic texts, for grades 5 and 6, and accompanying teachers guides.[123] Also developed were teachers' guides for social studies in elementary schools and kindergartens.[124]

An American technician developed courses in Psychology of Language Development, Readiness for Reading Persian, and Techniques in Sight Reading. These were translated into Farsi and adopted by the Ministry of Education.[125]

An American advisor was privileged to be the only foreign advisor on a Ministry of Education committee to draft a plan of national education objectives and to attempt to determine desirable and needed attitudinal changes.[126]

Administration, Airgram TOICA A-572, Washington, September 29, 1959), p. 10. (Mimeographed.); Pitts, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 5; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, October 1 through December 31, 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1476, Washington, January 1960), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[123]Colman, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 3.

[124]Education Division, "Monthly Report for June 1960," op. cit., p. 5; and Clark Gregory, "Education in Iran, Text of a Speech Delivered at Teheran Demonstration School" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1564, Washington, 1956), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[125]Education Division, "Monthly Report for June 1960," loc. cit.

[126]Harry W. Kerwin, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1369, Washington, 1962), p. 6. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, "Monthly Report for February 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2046, Washington, April 19, 1959), p. 2. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, March 1962," op. cit., p. 1.

The Minister of Education organized a permanent curriculum study team which met three times a week in two-hour sessions.[127] One hundred ostan teachers were brought into Teheran by the Ministry to study techniques of curriculum study.[128]

The curricula of the elementary schools, tribal schools, and normal schools were completely revised. In 1961, these curricula were presented to the High Council of Education for approval.[129] For the first time in the history of the normal schools, courses in Child Growth and Development, How Children Learn, School Health, Methods of Teaching, School Administration and Supervision, and Student Teaching were included in these teacher training institutions.[130]

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[127] Craig, "General Education Activities Report," op. cit., p. 7; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for November 1958," op. cit., p. 11.

[128] Hamblen, "Semi-annual Report of the Education Division, December 1958," op. cit., p. 2.

[129] Scott, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 7; Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1958," op. cit., p. 4; Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1957," op. cit., p. 25; Education Division, "A Report on the Ministry of Education in Iran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA -285, Washington, September 14, 1957), p. 5. (Mimeographed.); and Joseph M. Donahoe, "End of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-2566, Washington, June 8, 1961), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[130] Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1958," op. cit., p. 8.

The Ministry of Education recognized that the revision of the secondary school curricula was a slow and difficult task.[131] However, the Minister of Education who had acquired a more comprehensive knowledge of curricula, teaching methods and educational concepts announced in the conferences and in the local press that Iran's secondary education program must be re-evaluated to make it functional and consistent with Iran's needs.[132] He stressed the fact that teachers must take the initiative in education, that they must take a more personal responsibility for the education program and emphasize the practical aspects of education. The Minister stressed the comprehensive school approach.[133]

In 1958 the Ministry of Education established incentive pay for outstanding teachers. The Minister approved the recommendations of the American advisors that teachers be promoted after they had taken a required number of in-service courses.[134]

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[131] Donahoe, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 6.

[132] Ibid., pp. 5-6.

[133] Education Division, "Quarterly Report, July 1961," op. cit., p. 23; Education Division, "Spring Conference 1961," loc. cit.; Hendershot, "Report of Summer Conference, 1961," op. cit., p. 1; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for December 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1661, Washington, March 10, 1960), p. 9. (Mimeographed.)

[134] Education Division, "Monthly Report for June 1958," op. cit., p. 3.

The Minister of Education established an office of Guidance and Counselling and requested an American advisor to assist with the new office. He also requested, for the first time, to be given assistance in budget construction, reorganization of the Ministry of Education, including a personnel administration system for its one hundred thousand employees.[135]

The Ministry of Education produced 369,350 textbooks and pamphlets in 1960. The Minister announced, through the pamphlets, great improvement in de-centralization of school authority, improved administration and better budget practices. He pointed out the necessity for continuing the improvement of these practices.[136]

Although 40 per cent of Iran's elementary schools remained in rented buildings in 1961,[137] a total of 1,913 elementary and secondary schools had been built since 1956. An additional 3 elementary and secondary demonstration schools and 296 tribal tent schools had also been built.[138]

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[135]Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," 1962, op. cit., pp. 6-7.

[136]Stewart B. Hamblen, "End of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1384, Washington, 1961), p. 9. (Mimeographed.)

[137]Education Division, "Quarterly Report for July 1 to September 30, 1962" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-795, Washington, October 15, 1962), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

[138]Eisaman, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 2; Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1962," op. cit., p. 1; Brenn, "Program Planning," op. cit., p. 197;

The American technicians and their Iranian counterparts were optimistic about changes which had taken place and the solid gains which appeared to have been made.[139] There was a clearly perceptible change in attitude toward seeking and using advice. School administration had become more effective, teaching methods were improved, classroom discussions were in evidence, and students' projects were on display rather than those of the teachers.[140]

The University of Southern California survey team made the comment in their report that great gains had been made in the education program.[141]

In the Kurdistan area an American technician encouraged the Ministry of Education to accept the suggestion of adding subject matter and teacher education subjects to the mullah training program. This was done and 104 schools were built in remote areas by self-help, and received teachers. An actual count revealed 150 schools since the program had

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and Ralph E. Folks, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-995, Washington, 1962), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

[139] Scott, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 6; and Williamson, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 2.

[140] Education Division, "Monthly Report for December 1959," op. cit., pp. 1-4; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report for October 1 through December 31, 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1476, Washington, February 14, 1960), pp. 1-4. (Mimeographed.)

[141] Strevey, "University of Southern California Report," op. cit., pp. 1-5.

mushroomed beyond expectation.[142]

As evidence of changes of attitude a new school in this area was named for a teacher who had been killed in 1916 in punishment for his deviation from the teaching of religion. Now he was commemorated for his new approach to education.[143]

Home Economics Education. In-service training classes were held for 1,226 teachers of homemaking during this period.[144] Demonstration laboratories were established in six secondary schools. As a result of the advice of the American technician a national supervisor for Home Economics was appointed in the Ministry of Education.[145] In 1961 there were 67,000 girls in homemaking courses in three hundred nine schools.[146]

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[142]Charles Dove, "Mullah-Teachers in Rural Kurdistan" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1962), pp. 13-15. (Mimeographed.)

[143]Dove, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 2.

[144]Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," op. cit., p. 7; Education Division, "Monthly Report for December 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1650, Washington, January 14, 1957), p. 9. (Mimeographed.); Craig, "General Education Activities Report," op. cit., p. 38; Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1957," op. cit., p. 21; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1959," op. cit., p. 5.

[145]Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1958," op. cit., p. 13.

[146]International Cooperation Administration Mission to Iran, Problems and Progress (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1960), p. 7.

The American advisor succeeded in establishing the concept of planning and continuity in training courses. Sudden decisions had been made too often without sufficient planning.[147]

The Home Economics Division of the Ministry of Education had published 1,500 copies of the Home Economics Teacher's Guide, and 1,000 copies each of the six editions of their monthly magazine.[148]

Physical Education and youth activity. The Ministry of Education removed the school physical education program from the supervision and control of the adult National Sports Club.[149]

A total of 134,500 boys and girls took part in national sports clinics.[150]

Two Physical Education supervisors returned from their studies in the United States and resumed their work in Physical Education and Recreation in the Ministry of

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[147] Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," loc. cit.

[148] Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1959," op. cit., p. 4; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1960," op. cit., p. 7.

[149] Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1957," op. cit., p. 24.

[150] Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 11; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," op. cit., p. 9.

Education.[151] These two returned participants assisted with the establishment of in-service training classes for 4,358 teachers and 471 leaders.[152]

A camping program was held for 1,244 boys, two hundred teachers, and 250 outstanding secondary school students.[153]

An International Boy Scout Jamboree was held in Iran in 1961. Ten countries including the United States sent 3,228 Scouts.[154]

A Family Camp was held for 350 families and one hundred thirty-five girls from an orphanage.[155]

In 1961 in Iran there were eight thousand youth leaders, 13,000 Boy Scouts, and 125,000 boys and girls in school physical education and recreational activities.[156]

A physical education magazine was developed for

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[151]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, July 1 through September 30, 1960" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-944, Washington, October 1960), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

[152]Craig, "General Education Activities Report," op. cit., p. 151; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1960," loc. cit.

[153]Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1959," op. cit., p. 10; Education Division, "Monthly Report for September 1958," op. cit., p. 11; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 3.

[154]Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 3.

[155]Ibid., p. 14.

[156]International Cooperation Administration, "United States Technical Assistance to Iran," op. cit., p. 7.

elementary schools and a similar magazine for secondary schools.[157]

In 1958 the Ministry of Education began a program of sending twenty participants each year to the United States to earn degrees in Physical Education and Recreation.[158]

Vocational Agricultural Education. The agricultural rural elementary schools, which had been organized in 1953, were reorganized in 1957 to abandon the agricultural training phase of their program.[159]

There were thirty-four agricultural first-cycle schools in 1957 which had also been organized in 1953. These schools were completely transformed into academic schools between 1957 and 1961.[160]

In 1959 the thirteen agricultural normal schools which prepared teachers for rural elementary schools were changed to Agricultural Training Centers. They were still preparing elementary teachers in 1961. In addition these Centers now trained agriculture extension agents for the Ministry of Agriculture, and village leaders for the

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[157]Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1957," op. cit., p. 22.

[158]Williamson, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 3.

[159]Marvin Cernik, "A Study of the Agricultural High School Program in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1962), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[160]Ibid.

Community Development program. A total of 3,941 students had been graduated from these schools between 1956 and 1962. More than three thousand graduates were teaching in rural elementary schools.[161]

Second-cycle agricultural high schools were started in 1956 to train agriculture specialists. There were twelve of these schools in Iran in 1961.[162] The High Council of Education approved the one-year agricultural schools for adults in 1958. However, these schools were not utilized sufficiently and were discontinued.[163]

Training courses were given to 5,924 rural elementary teachers and ninety-six administrators and supervisors. Courses were held for two thousand adult farmers.[164]

The vocational agricultural department of the Ministry of Education prepared twenty thousand copies of agricultural textbooks for grades 5 and 6, and also twelve agricultural

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[161] Ibid., pp. 5-6.

[162] Ibid.; and Kerwin, "Briefing Report," op. cit., p. 6.

[163] Cernik, "Study of the Agricultural High School," loc. cit.; and Eisaman, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 11.

[164] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 35; Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1960," op. cit., p. 2; Education Division, "Monthly Report, July 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-280, Washington, August 18, 1958), p. 9. (Mimeographed.); Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 5; Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1959," op. cit,, p. 4; Craig, "General Education Activities Report," op. cit., p. 194.

education textbooks for the secondary level.[165]

The curricula of the agricultural normal schools did not provide for any teacher training and very little in professional course work, even though these schools trained teachers for rural elementary schools. A new curriculum was prepared in 1961 to overcome these deficiencies. The High Council of Education refused to accept the new curriculum on the grounds that only the regular academic normal schools could do teacher training.[166]

The American technicians and their counterparts saw sharp gains in 1961 over the previous years in acceptance by the Iranians of the "learning by doing" concept and in the ability and willingness to transfer theory to practice. Real gain was observed in the Iranian ability to plan, the willingness to implement planning, and the acceptance of new ideas.[167]

Vocational Industrial Education. A total of fifteen thousand trade and industrial teachers and 105 supervisors

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[165] Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 34; and Brenn, "Program Planning," op. cit., p. 194.

[166] Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1959," op. cit., p. 2.

[167] Marvin Cernik, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1082, Washington, 1962), pp. 4-8. (Mimeographed.); and Folks, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 2.

received in-service training.[168] The Isfahan trade school gave a special part-time training course to 150 economically deprived boys. These boys all secured positions.[169]

The High Council visited trade schools in the Teheran area to observe the new teaching methods suggested by the American advisors. The Council was impressed and expressed an intent to follow these methods.[170]

On the advice of the American advisor the Minister of Education appointed a national supervisor of trade and industrial education and a special committee of Iranian and American educators to study the proposed industrial arts program.[171]

A national conference was held for all vocational administrators in Iran. The vocational curricula of twenty-six subjects per week and the 48 hours week were discussed. It was decided that it was not possible to continue to expect a student to carry a full college preparatory program

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[168]Brenn, "Program Planning," loc. cit.; Craig, "General Education Activities Report," op. cit., p. 38; Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1960," op. cit., p. 3; Hamblen, "Semi-annual Report of the Education Division, December 1958," op. cit., p. 19; Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 38; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 5.

[169]Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1958," op. cit., p. 5.

[170]Education Division, "Monthly Report for April 1957," op. cit., p. 2.

[171]Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1958," op. cit., p. 14; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for September 1958," op. cit., p. 3.

and a full trade training program at the same time.[172]

The forty-hour week was maintained on the basis that all studying had to be done at the schools because of lack of home facilities. The twenty-six courses were combined into a more realistic pattern of eighteen courses per week.[173]

The Iranian educators held fast to the philosophy that no education program should be designed to prevent a student from qualifying for entrance to the University. It was finally decided that evening make-up courses could be provided to permit otherwise qualified students to prepare for university entrance examinations.[174]

In 1961 a curriculum committee was organized to study ways and means to reduce the eighteen courses to six subject areas.[175]

The Minister of Education asked the American technicians to assist him in developing a national unified comprehensive plan of vocational education.[176]

In 1961 there were over six hundred elementary, secondary, and trade schools offering some form of vocational

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[172]Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 16.

[173]Ibid., pp. 16-17.

[174]Ibid.

[175]Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1957," op. cit., p. 25.

[176]Education Division, "Monthly Report for October 1958," op. cit., p. 5.

training to boys and girls.[177]

The Ministry of Education published 20,000 textbooks in industrial arts for elementary grades 5 and 6, and 1,000 textbooks in industrial education.[178]

National Teachers College. The college was separated from Teheran University and established as an autonomous unit in December 1959.[179] It received its first budget in 1959,[180] and moved from a series of scattered buildings into a single unit in 1960.[181]

In 1961 the cumulative enrollment of the college was 2,100. This included the Evening College program for teachers.[182]

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[177] International Cooperation Administration, "United States Technical Assistance," op. cit., p. 2; Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1959" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-824, Washington, October 31, 1959), p. 5. (Mimeographed.); Harris, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., pp. 2-6; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for September 1958," op. cit., p. 11.

[178] Brenn, "Program Planning," op. cit., p. 194.

[179] Woolf, "Evaluation Report," op. cit., p. 5.

[180] Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1960," op. cit., p. 7.

[181] Education Division, "Quarterly Report for January 1 through March 31, 1960" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-1948, Washington, May 5, 1960), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[182] Woolf, "Terminal Report," op. cit., p. 2; and Hamblen, "Semi-annual Report of the Education Division, December 1958," op. cit., p. 2.

On August 19, 1958, the Ministry of Education approved the establishment of a full-time faculty at Teachers College.[183] Seven professors were placed on the staff in this status. In 1961 there were thirty full-time faculty members.[184]

Departments of Physical Education, Health and Recreation, Elementary Education, and Audio-visual Education were established in the college. The library and library services had been modernized and developed with the assistance of the American advisors.[185]

The semester system was installed. Regular summer session programs were initiated and a graduate program was organized in educational administration, audio-visual services, and library science.[186]

Sixty students were graduated from National Teachers College with bachelors degrees in Elementary Education in 1961. These were the first graduates to be accorded with this academic rating in Elementary Education.[187]

New laboratory facilities were developed for the physics, chemistry, and biology classes.[188]

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[184] Woolf, "Evaluation Report," loc. cit.

[185] Ibid.

[186] Ibid.

[187] Ibid.

[188] Hamblen, "Semi-annual Report of the Education Division, December 1958," op. cit., pp. 2-3.

The National Teachers College arranged a program to train teachers of Psychology and Education for the Normal Schools, and to train teacher-trainers, supervisors, and teachers of science.[189]

Teheran Institute of Technology. Three American advisors assigned to the Institute arrived in 1958 to officially put the Institute under American technical assistance.[190] By the end of 1958, three of the projected nine buildings were completed. Three more buildings were completed in 1960. By 1961 all of the equipment which had been ordered from the United States had been received and installed for classes in automotive shop, building construction, drafting, electricity, machine shop, refrigeration and air conditioning, foundry and welding.[191]

One hundred students were entered as first-year students in the vocational teacher-training program. Over 960 students had applied for the entrance examination.[192]

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[189] Education Division, "Monthly Report for March 1959," op. cit., p. 5; and Hamblen, "Semi-annual Report of the Education Division, December 1958," loc. cit.

[190] Hendershot, "Case History," op. cit., p. 3.

[191] Ibid., p. 4; and Education Division, "Project Completion Report," op. cit., p. 20.

[192] Bruce D. Blackstone, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-459, Washington, 1959), p. 1. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1960," op. cit., p. 4.

Summer session programs and in-service programs were set up by the American advisors to train the Iranian teaching staff at the Institute. Special make-up courses were developed and initiated at the Institute to permit graduates from local trade schools to meet entrance requirements.[193]

Twenty-five trade school graduates were selected and enrolled in the Institute. They were given a one-year training program and sent out to teach in the trade schools.

Two 6-week courses were held for 208 industrial shop teachers of Iran.[194]

Summer work-experience programs were arranged for all of the vocational teacher-trainees. Their skill and ability caused employers to hire a number of them as craftsmen-supervisors at much higher salaries than they could expect as teachers.[195]

To clarify the objectives of the program at the Institute, the Minister of Education reaffirmed, in writing, the fact that the Institute program was to continue to be

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[193]Education Division, "Project Completion Report," loc. cit.; Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1958" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-620, Washington, September 19, 1958), pp. 2-4; and Education Division, "Report on the Ministry of Education," op. cit., p. 2.

[194]Education Division, "Special Monthly Report for November 1958," op. cit., p. 12; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1960," op. cit., pp. 4-5.

[195]Education Division, "Monthly Report for June 1960," op. cit., p. 17.

devoted to vocational teacher training. The High Council of Education approved the constitution of the Institute on October 25, 1959.[196]

On February 11, 1960, His Imperial Majesty, the Shah of Iran officially opened the Institute as a vocational teacher training institution. The Shah met and shook hands with all of the American staff at the Institute. The visit of the Shah, his proclamation and obvious friendliness to the Americans, gave prestige in the eyes of the Iranians to all concerned with the Institute of Technology.[197]

The American technicians, in cooperation with their Iranian counterparts, developed course outlines, lesson plans, projects, teaching materials, textbooks, and teaching methods. The American staff taught classes as an on-the-job instruction method. Much of this instructional material was taken by the newly established Polytechnic Engineering program.[198]

The teacher-trainees at the Institute built three hundred sunlight projectors, as a practical exercise, for

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[196]Education Division, "Monthly Report for January 1959," op. cit., p. 3; and Hendershot, "Case History," op. cit., p. 5.

[197]Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," 1960, op. cit., pp. 11-12; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, May 1960," op. cit., p. 3.

[198]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1960," op. cit., p. 7; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for May 1959," op. cit., p. 4.

use in the Rural Education program.[199]

The American technicians at the Institute were invited to meet with the National Manpower Study Committee and the Industrial Advisory Committees. This was the first time such an invitation had been extended. American technicians saw gains in new attitudes toward new ideas, acceptance of advice and the willingness to change.[200]

In 1961 there were seven hundred students enrolled in day and evening classes in the Institute. A new curriculum had been established and a revised constitution for the Institute had been accepted by the High Council of Education. Teaching materials had been developed in the Institute for use in the nation's trade schools, and 16,400 textbooks covering all industrial offerings at the Institute were published.[201]

A staff of twenty instructors was in training at the Institute to become the faculty of the developing Demonstration

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[199] Education Division, "Monthly Report for December 1959," op. cit., p. 8.

[200] Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," 1960, op. cit., pp. 2-4; J. Clark Ballard, "Progress Report of the Utah State University Team" (Teheran: Communications Resources Division, December 31, 1961), p. 69. (Mimeographed.); and John Shearman, The Land and People of Iran (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1962), p. 85.

[201] Education Division, "Project Completion Report," op. cit., pp. 20-21; Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., pp. 24-25; and Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," 1960, op. cit., pp. 9-12.

Vocational Facilities at Narmak.[202]

There were fourteen students in the first graduating class of the Institute in 1961.[203]

Demonstration Vocational Facilities. An advisory council was established to furnish guidance to the development of an agricultural education program at Karadj, and an industrial education program at Narmak.[204]

By 1961 the Karadj project was 85 per cent completed and the Narmak project was 75 per cent completed. Deep wells had been dug and pumps installed at both sites. All of the equipment had been ordered from the United States and 95 per cent had arrived in Iran. Courses of study had been developed for both projects.[205] The American advisors felt that a gain had been made when the Ministry of Education agreed to not put a high wall around the approximately seventy acre campus at Narmak, but instead to use the funds for supplies for the industrial education program.[206]

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[202]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1962," op. cit., p. 7.

[203]Ibid.

[204]Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 36.

[205]Program Office, "Educational Development Project," op. cit., pp. 17-18; Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., pp. 12-14; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1961," op. cit., p. 3.

[206]Education Division, "Monthly Report for May, 1960," op. cit., pp. 2-6.

Demonstration School of Business. The program of the Demonstration School of Business had begun as a limited demonstration program in business education and as a means to train teachers of business education. By 1961 an operational organization of business education had been set up in the Ministry of Education.[207] The American advisors to the School of Business gave on-the-job training to the faculty. Classrooms were equipped, the curriculum planned, courses of study completed and a new constitution had been presented to the Ministry of Education changing the Demonstration School of Business to a degree granting four-year institution to be known as the Teachers College for Business Education.[208]

The Day School of Business, under this program, opened with a limited and selected enrollment of eighty-six students. Later the National Teachers College sent ninety-five teacher-trainees to the School of Business. These teacher-trainees were given a one-year course which was completed in 1961.[209]

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[207]Education Division, "Project Work Plans," op. cit., p. 10.

[208]Ibid.; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1960," op. cit., p. 45.

[209]Harry W. Kerwin, "Report on Education in Iran in 1962" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, February 26, 1962), p. 6. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Monthly Report for November 1958," op. cit., p. 7.

The Kurdistan Development Service sent 50 trainees to be given a one-year course at the School of Business. This group also finished in 1961.[210]

A Night School of Business had been opened under the Demonstration School of Business for an intended enrollment of one hundred. On the first day 190 students enrolled and remained in the classes. In November 1958 this enrollment had increased to 251. These classes met forty-six hours per week.[211]

Business Schools were established in the five major ostans. A complete secondary school curriculum in business education was completed and presented to the Ministry of Education.[212]

In Tabriz the Bazaar Merchants group underwrote the cost of the School of Business in their area in order to secure the trained graduates as employees.[213] Summer classes in business education were established for ostan teachers and eighty-seven came to the 1960 session.[214]

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[210]Education Division, "Monthly Report for August 1958," op. cit., p. 2.

[211]Education Division, "Monthly Report for November 1958," op. cit., p. 9; and Kerwin, "Report on Education in Iran in 1962," loc. cit.

[212]Blackstone, "Completion of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 6.

[213]Education Division, "Monthly Report for May 1959," op. cit., p. 2.

[214]Blackstone, "Completion of Tour Report," loc. cit.,

The American advisors and the Iranian staff developed courses of study for secretarial training. These courses were established in two vocational schools for girls in Teheran and one girls' vocational school in Isfahan, under the supervision of the School of Business staff.[215]

One of the American advisors to the School of Business, on her return to the United States, purchased a large number of needed textbooks, typing manuals and instruction books, at her own expense, and had them sent to Teheran.[216]

In 1961 there were approximately 1,160 students enrolled in the School of Business in Teheran.[217]

Survey of the University of Teheran. The survey team from the University of Southern California stated that their study revealed a great deal of improvement made in the elementary and secondary school curricula, in teaching methods, and in discipline and social changes throughout

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[215] Kerwin, "Report on Education in Iran in 1962," op. cit., p. 4; and Education Division, "Special Report for November 1958," op. cit., p. 10.

[216] Lucille Chaffin, "Completion of Tour Report" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram TOICA A-972, Washington, November 13, 1957), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

[217] Marsdon A. Sherman, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-192, Washington, 1962), p. 3; and Education Division, "Monthly Report for July 1959," op. cit., p. 7.

Iran.[218]

A recommendation of the team was that the Teachers College be retained in the University of Teheran. They also recommended that the concept of a full time staff for the University should be established, adequate library resources developed, over-lapping in the fields of instruction be eliminated, and the curricula be revised to meet the needs of Iran.[219]

The survey team stated that the University was a loose federation of highly autonomous faculties with little coordination or cooperation based upon overall university objectives. The report of the team contained specific recommendations of procedures to obviate these inadequacies.[220]

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[218] Strevey, "University of Southern California Report," op. cit., pp. 1-10.

[219] R. B. Farnsworth, "Report on Survey, University of Teheran" (International Cooperation Administration, Airgram ICATO-868, Washington, December 30, 1958), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[220] Brenn, "Program Planning," op. cit., p. 213.

CHAPTER VII

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION IN IRAN UNDER THE AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The International Cooperation Administration ceased to exist on November 3, 1961. The Agency for International Development was created by State Department Delegation of Authority 104 of November 3, 1961, as an agency within the Department of State.[1]

The Agency for International Development reviewed the progress of the technical assistance program to education in Iran. Based upon earlier study, begun in Iran in late 1961, and called Operation Turn-around, the Agency revised its approach to technical assistance to education from that of its predecessors.[2]

Project Agreement activities were reviewed and several closely associated activities were combined.[3] Under the new

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[1]Wayne C. Grover (ed.), United States Government Organization Manual, Office of the Federal Register, National Archives and Record Service, General Services Administration (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 85.

[2]Program Office, Iran, "Evaluation of Functional Progress" (Washington: International Cooperation Administration, July 1961), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[3]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, October 1961-December, 1961" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-713, Washington, Communications Media Division, December 1961), pp. 1-3. (Mimeographed.)

agency the American technicians assumed a completely advisory role. The planners agreed that by 1962 the Iranian Ministry of Education officials were capable of assuming more nearly complete responsibility for the initiation of plans and the implementation of educational activities.[4]

This approach was consonant with the Act for International Development of 1961 in which it was stated that major goals were (1) to help the recipient countries to mobilize their own resources and to help themselves; and (2) to be cognizant of the external and internal pressures which hampered growth.[5]

I. EDUCATION PROJECT AGREEMENTS CONTINUED AND NEW PROJECT AGREEMENTS ESTABLISHED UNDER THE AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Project Agreement Number Two Hundred Twenty-three. This Project Agreement, signed May 31, 1961, between the Ministry of War and the International Cooperation

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[4]J. H. Lintner, "A Special Report on Education in Iran" (Teheran: Education Division, Agency for International Development, 1963), pp. 8-9. (Mimeographed.)

[5]Kenneth L. Neff, National Development Through Social Progress, Bulletin 1963 No. 8 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 1; Kenneth L. Neff, "Recommendations for AID Assistance to Human Resource Development Planning" (Washington: Bureau of International Education, United States Office of Education, 1962), pp. 2-6. (Mimeographed.); and Department of State, Highlights of President Kennedy's New Act for International Development, Department of State Publication 7211, General Foreign Policy Series 170 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1961), pp. 1-4.

Administration, remained in force under a new project number, 265-AC-61-AF-5, Armed Forces Vocational Training.[6]

Project Agreement Number Seventy-six. This Project Agreement, providing assistance to the development of communications media resources, phased out in 1962.[7]

Project Agreement Number Two Hundred Thirty-five. This Project Agreement was developed in 1962.[8] It was intended to assist the Minister of Education to develop a Department of Educational Planning, Research and Evaluation.[9]

Project Agreement Number Forty-five. As a result of the new approach to technical assistance in Iran, all of the activities of education under this Project Agreement, including the sub-projects, were combined into two Agreements. Project Agreement Number 265-N-65-FC included all remaining non-vocational activities. Project Number 265-N-61-FB included all vocational activities of the Ministry of Education including the former sub-projects Demonstration

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[6]Education Division, Iran, "Technical Assistance Project Case History" (Washington: Agency for International Development, June 25, 1963), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[7]The author was unable, because of incomplete records, to locate an exact data of the phase-out. However, he knows from personal knowledge that it phased out before June 1962.

[8]Harry W. Kerwin, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1369, Washington, 1962), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[9]Lintner, "A Special Report," op. cit., p. 20.

Vocational Facilities, Teachers College for Business Education, and Teheran Institute of Technology. Project Agreements 265-N-65-FC and 265-N-61-FB continued in force through 1962.[10]

II. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROJECT AGREEMENTS

A total of seventeen direct-hire advisors including a chief and a deputy chief advisor were on duty during 1962.[11]

Two mission-implemented contracts were established in 1962. In order to provide the Ministry of Education with the requested assistance in assessing the problems inherent in an out-grown, out-moded system of personnel administration, and to further develop the concept of an Educational Planning, Research, and Evaluation office, a consultant was recruited from the office of Education in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare of the United States, for a six-month period. The consultant made specific recommendations in his report as to procedures to be followed.[12]

A mission-implemented contract brought a five-man survey team from the School of Education in New York University to Iran to make a comprehensive study of teacher-

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[10]Education Division, "Project Completion Report for Project Forty-five" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1963), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[11]*Ibid.*, pp. 6-7.

[12]Herbert G. Espy, "Strengthening the Ministry of Education for Leadership" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1962), pp. 1-65. (Mimeographed.)

education needs in Iran. The results of their study are contained in their report, "Teacher Education Needs in Iran."[13]

A committee, composed of representatives of all agencies offering technical assistance to education in Iran, was organized by an American advisor to study and prepare a plan for an administrative reorganization of the Ministry of Education.[14] A basic plan was prepared by the American advisors and after a number of conferences it was approved by the committee and presented to the Ministry of Education.[15]

In order to demonstrate to the Minister of Education and his staff the feasibility and practicality of reorganization it was decided to present a detailed reorganization plan for one major division of the Ministry. The American advisors drew a plan for a functional reorganization of the Division of Technical and Vocational Education of the Ministry of Education and presented the plan to the Minister. A committee of three American advisors was assigned to the task, with the American consultant, of developing an office of Educational Planning, Research, and Evaluation in the

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[13] John C. Payne and Walter A. Anderson, "Teacher Education Needs in Iran" (New York: New York University, School of Education, 1962), pp. 1-95. (Mimeographed.)

[14] Education Division, "Quarterly Report for July 1 to September 30, 1961" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-127, Washington, October 15, 1961), pp. 1-4. (Mimeographed.)

[15] Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," loc. cit.

Ministry of Education.[16]

National conferences continued to be held semi-annually. These conferences included all of the American advisors and the Ministry of Education officials. At each conference an evaluation was made of the work of the past six-month period and an effort was made to discover solutions to the operational problems identified.[17]

A participant training program had been in progress, organized through the Project Agreements but administered by the Mission Training Office, to send Ministry of Education officials to the United States for study. This program included, at its inception, travel expenses as well as school tuition and living costs. By 1962 the Ministry of Education was paying all travel costs. The total number of Ministry of Education officials who received training under this program from 1952 through 1962 was one hundred forty-six.[18]

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[16]Education Division, "A Proposed Plan for a Functional Technical and Vocational Organization in the Ministry of Education" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, December 20, 1961), pp. 1-4. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, December 1961," op. cit., p. 4.

[17]Clarence Hendershot, "Report on Summer Conference on Program Development" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1961), pp. 1-23. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, International Cooperation Administration, "Report on the Spring Conference on Rural Education in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, March 1961), pp. 1-33. (Mimeographed.)

[18]George Bryson (ed.), Report on Iranian Participants in the United States (Washington: Agency for International Development, 1962), pp. 1-59.

The Education Division felt that the withdrawing of advisors from the field posts, in accordance with the new approach to technical assistance, was poorly timed. Officials of the Ministry of Education stated that this action restricted implementation of project activities.[19]

In 1962 the budget for the Ministry of Education and its activities had increased to approximately 23 per cent of Iran's national budget.[20]

Because of the built-in security of the Iranian Social Security system, no person was removed from the payroll even though he had been removed from his job to walk in the street.[21] After a new Minister of Education had become acquainted with this situation he ordered many of these inactive, former Ministry of Education personnel to accept teaching assignments, thus reducing expense and relieving the teacher shortage. By this action, although the services of a trained administrator might be lost, the

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[19]Education Division, "Quarterly Report for January 1 to March 30, 1962" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1326, Washington, May 15, 1962), p. 7. (Mimeographed.); and Education Division, "Quarterly Report for April 1 to June 30, 1962" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-330, Washington, August 15, 1962), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[20]Habib Naficy, "Education in Iran," Address given to Peace Corps trainees at Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., August 30, 1963, p. 5.

[21]"To walk in the street" was an expression used in Iran to indicate that a person had been removed from office. The use of the expression connoted disgrace.

schools benefitted from the service of these better than average trained persons.[22]

III. SITUATIONS AND INFLUENCES AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION

The situation with reference to technical assistance just after the inception of the newly created Agency for International Development was uncertain in direction and tense with local political crises. A new Minister of Education was appointed with the concomitant replacements in staff. Where the immediate predecessor had been dynamic, forceful and anxious to make the rapid changes his American education convinced him were necessary, the new Minister was timid, fearful, and relatively untrained.[23]

Several months elapsed before the American chief advisor could arrange for a meeting with the Minister. The reluctance of the new Minister was overcome and real interest was evinced in developing a new approach to Ministry of Education program planning and implementation.[24]

A committee of American advisors and Iranian educators was organized to make a study on attitudinal development, and

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[22]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1961," op. cit., p. 6; and Communications Media Division, "Joint Program for Development" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1961), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

[23]Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," 1962, op. cit., pp. 4-5.

[24]Ibid., p. 6.

to assist the Ministry in making a discrete analysis and delimitation of national education objectives.[25]

The effectiveness of the committee was increased by the many Iranian educators who had studied in the United States under participant grants. Consequently a more unified professional approach could be taken in problem solving.[26]

A new American chief education advisor arrived on a mid-tour transfer to replace the former chief advisor on his departure. After six months the new advisor returned to the United States for home leave before taking up his duties for a two-year tour. A certain amount of delay resulted from time used in orientation, program study, and the examination of the technical assistance program of education in Iran.[27]

Many American advisors in the Education Division thought that the reduction of field personnel which took place during 1961 and 1962 had come at a most inopportune time. Ministry of Education officials had planned an ambitious expansion of their program, dependent in large part upon the services of the American field advisors for

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[25] Ibid.

[26] Clarence Hendershot, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-151, Washington, 1961), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

[27] Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," 1962, op. cit., pp. 1-3.

guidance in implementation. The removal of the American advisors, according to the Iranians, was a severe detriment.[28]

In discussions with an American advisor, Iranian officials expressed the opinion that American advisors should stay longer on projects. They believed that the turnover in American personnel hampered project development.[29]

A series of student strikes took place in Iran. Schools were closed through most of the period from January to March 31, 1962. Considerable delay occurred in project activities of the Agency for International Development.[30]

Improved relations had developed in the divisive attitudes of the Department of Technical and Vocational Education, and the Department of General Education of the Ministry of Education. American advisors had realized early in the technical assistance program that this dichotomy of education offerings was deleterious to the nation's education

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[28] Education Division, "Quarterly Report, December 1961," op. cit., pp. 2-4.

[29] Charles Dove, "An Educator in Iran" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, 1963), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)

[30] Education Division, "Quarterly Report, March 31, 1962," op. cit., p. 1; and Arthur J. Goss, Jr., "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1970, Reports Control U-513, Washington, May 1963), p. 9. (Mimeographed.)

and had so advised the Minister.[31]

Former experienced Ostan Chiefs of Education, several of whom had been given training in education administration in the United States, were re-instated in their positions in the change of Ministers.[32]

Teymour Aghakhani stated that he was impressed with the improvement in teaching methods in the schools of Iran which now encouraged students to develop their curiosity and learning through the asking of questions and through discussion. Mr. Aghakhani said that he had observed that students in vocational schools influenced by American methods and teaching materials learned more in a shorter time and at a higher level than students in any other vocational school in Iran.[33]

His Excellency, Mr. M. Darakshesh, stated that Iran's educational system had improved greatly in the past ten years. He gave credit to American technical assistance for

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[31]Education Division, "Quarterly Report for July 1 to September 30, 1962" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-795, Washington, October 15, 1962), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[32]Ibid., p. 2; and Paul C. Regan, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-27, Washington, 1962), pp. 1-4. (Mimeographed.)

[33]Teymour Aghakhani, Director of the Vocational Industrial Division, National Vocational Demonstration Organization at Narmak, made these observations to the author in Mr. Aghakhani's office at Narmak, Teheran, Iran, on January 12, 1964. The statements were recorded by the author at that time.

the better trained teachers and the curricula which, he said, now were functional and met the needs of Iran.[34]

Mr. M. Kalentary commented that Americans seemed to have learned to be more patient and seemed to have a better understanding of the Iranian personality and of Iranian problems. He praised the American staff members for their evident sincerity, willingness to work, and their dedication to assignments. Mr. Kalentary said that it was most unfortunate that many times, just as an American advisor was becoming fully acquainted with the Iranians and their ways, he was transferred.[35]

An American advisor stated strongly that many activities, which had been carefully planned by cooperative action of Iranians and Americans, were arbitrarily stopped by the Ministry of Education for no apparent reason except for what appeared to be a personal whim on the part of an official. This action had occurred in instances where the activity was advised and also financed by the Americans.[36]

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[34]M. Darakhshesh, Minister of Education, made these statements to the author at a luncheon at the Lanterne Hotel in Teheran on May 29, 1962, in the presence of Dr. Robert Macy, Iran Country Director, Agency for International Development. These statements were recorded by the author on that day.

[35]M. Kalentary, Director General of Technical Vocational Education, Ministry of Education, made these comments to the author in Mr. Kalentary's office in Teheran, January 13, 1964. The author recorded the statements on that date.

[36]Thomas J. Edwards, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-180, Reports Control U-513, Washington, July 1963), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

The American advisor quoted the program of Fundamental Education as an example of an apparently capricious termination of a successful and sorely needed project.[37] He stated that the Agency for International Development should have maintained control over projects in which it had invested money and the service of advisors.[38] He also wrote that some Iranian educators had told him that, even though they saw the advantage and necessity of cooperative group effort, they thought that Iran as a nation was not prepared to accept this concept. Iranian educators indicated that, as a group, Iranians were fearful of losing individual identity or relinquishing individual authority.[39]

When an American advisor attempted to have the staff at the Teheran Institute of Technology develop course outlines and lesson plans, the Iranian instructors were fearful that if they put their knowledge on paper for the students they would lose their position of superior knowledge.[40]

American advisors agreed that to be most effective in technical assistance the advisors must be aware of the social and cultural involvement concerned with change. The advisors must be aware of the necessity to encourage and

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[37] Ibid.

[38] Ibid., pp. 3-4.

[39] Ibid., pp. 4-5.

[40] Goss, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 4.

develop initiative and self-reliance in their Iranian co-workers.[41]

The students struck again throughout May and June of 1962, in protest over examinations, delaying progress of project activities.[42]

An American advisor, who had been in Iran on a tour of duty in 1953, and had returned for another tour of duty in 1963, stated that he saw significant changes in the attitude of Iranian educators:

> Attitudes toward change--Ten years ago school people were satisfied with their schools. Any suggestion for change was met by defensive argument. In the last two years I have talked with thousands of teachers and administrators. Almost without exception they are eager for new ideas in education theory and practice.[43]

IV. PROGRESS OF THE PROGRAM TOWARD MEETING ITS OBJECTIVES

General Education. The American advisors in Physical Education and Recreation, Homemaking, and Elementary Education left the Mission to Iran in the latter part of 1961 and

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[41]Regan, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 8; and John W. Limbert, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1969, Reports Control U-513, Washington, May 1963), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

[42]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1962," op. cit., p. 3.

[43]John A. Clarke, "Significant Changes in Iranian Education, 1953-1963" (Teheran: Education Division, February 4, 1964), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

the early part of 1962.[44] Due to the reduction in staff, because of American budgetary limitations, these positions were cancelled.[45]

The second class of sixty selected elementary teachers, who had received one-year training at the National Teachers College, were assigned as school principals and master teachers.[46] The shortage of elementary teachers was alleviated in a small way when 1,600 selected young villagers completed an eight-month course in teacher education in Teheran and returned to their villages as elementary teachers.[47]

In 1962, following the suggestions of the American advisors, the Minister of Education organized a single department, called the Department of Instruction, incorporating all of the activities of General Education and Vocational Education.[48]

The former Normal School program wherein the students graduated at the eleventh grade to become elementary

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[44]Education Division, "Project Completion Report," op. cit., p. 6.

[45]Lintner, "Special Report on Education in Iran," op. cit., p. 4.

[46]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, June 1962," op. cit., pp. 1-2.

[47]Ibid.

[48]Harry W. Kerwin, "Report on Education in Iran in 1962" (Teheran: Communications Media Division, February 26, 1962), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

teachers, was changed to a thirteenth year program. This was a first step toward establishing a fourteenth year program and in providing more mature, better educated teachers for the nation's schools.[49]

Fifteen hundred copies of the new elementary school curriculum were sent to the different areas of Iran for a three-year trial.[50]

An American advisor stated that no program suggestions ever die, they merely become dormant until aroused by felt needs of the local people. He also stated that all progress in achieving project objectives was based, in large part, on work done by previous technicians. The advisor felt that there was present a cumulative effect, and that all previous work and experiences of earlier advisors should be evaluated in program planning.[51]

An American advisor who had served a previous ten years before in Iran, stated that he saw significant changes in the fact that in 1962 in most of Iran, high school graduation was the lowest acceptable preparation for village teachers rather than the former sixth grade or less requirement, and that secondary teachers now were graduates of the Teachers College with an additional year of teacher prepara-

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[49] Ibid.

[50] Ibid.

[51] Ibid.

tion.[52]

This American advisor further stated that while memorization of text or teachers' lectures was still largely the norm, laboratories were beginning to be used and embryonic libraries had been established in the high schools.[53]

Higher education had been improved and many of the changes recommended by the University of Southern California survey team were being implemented.[54] The Ostan Chiefs of Education were taking more initiative and local citizens's committees existed in many centers to advise on the needs of education.

The returned advisor stated that he had found that Iranian personnel trained by American technicians in the early days of technical assistance, were in positions of leadership throughout Iran.[55]

Dr. Abul H. K. Sassani, Specialist in Comparative Education for Near East and North Africa, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, said, "In the past ten years the philosophy of education in Iran has changed as the process of Westernization has been encouraged."

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[52]Clarke, "Significant Changes in Iranian Education," loc. cit.

[53]Ibid., p. 2.

[54]Tracey E. Strevey, et al., Report of a Survey of the University of Teheran (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, June 1958), pp. 1-85.

[55]Clarke, "Significant Changes in Iranian Education," op. cit., p. 3.

Dr. Sassani also said that the foreign assistance mission in Iran, while concerned with economic, vocational, and technical development, also influenced ways of thinking. He said that the change in the philosophy of education was evident in teacher education, teaching methods, curriculum, and examinations.[56]

American advisors in General Education produced the following books: A Proposal on Coordinated Learning Materials, The Community School, Statement on Literacy, A Plan to Incorporate Principles of Fundamental Education into Elementary Education, and A Summary of the Proposed Revision of the Elementary School Curriculum.[57]

An American advisor reported that not only were library facilities increased in schools across Iran, but that students now had access to the books. He stated that library assignments were now given to the students. He also reported that approximately 500,000 persons were in Literacy Training classes, and of that number nearly one-half were school-deprived children.[58]

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[56] Abul H. K. Sassani, Education in Iran (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 9.

[57] Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1961," op. cit., p. 7.

[58] Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1962," op. cit., p. 4.

Vocational Education. In the program of Vocational Agricultural Education two Practical Farm Schools had been established, and in 1962 had begun operation. The concept of learning by doing had been implemented successfully.[59]

An American advisor, in his report as the national advisor in Vocational Agricultural Education spoke highly of the friendly Iranians and their willingness and eagerness to learn new ideas and to put into practice new techniques.[60]

The American advisor developed the first tractor maintenance course in the Ministry of Education and, with his counterpart, produced a text in this field.[61]

The Demonstration Vocational Facilities at Narmak and Karadj were 98 per cent completed by 1962. All of the requested equipment was in Teheran. Some equipment had been delivered to the site and installed.[62]

The Teachers College for Business Education, in 1962, was staffed with four full-time teachers and a varying number of business executives and government officials who taught part time. One of the full-time staff members acted as director of the school. Two psychologists were on loan

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[59] Marvin Cernik, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1082, Washington, 1962), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

[60] Ibid. [61] Ibid.

[62] Kerwin, "Report on Education in Iran in 1962," op. cit., p. 2.

to the Business College from the National Teachers College to conduct the professional courses in the teacher education program.[63]

There were 1,500 students enrolled in the Night School of Business, and 500 students enrolled in the day school program.[64]

The Teheran Institute of Technology graduated its second class of thirteen vocational teachers in 1962.[65] Trade school graduates now received preference as entrants to the Institute in reverse of the earlier custom requiring applicants to pass a highly academic entrance examination.[66]

It was officially decided, immediately prior to June 1962, to move the Institute of Technology to the Vocational Demonstration Facilities at Narmak. This move was intended to end the debilitating struggle between the Polytechnic Engineering program which had installed itself on the Institute campus and was seeking to absorb the vocational teacher training program. The move also would provide

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[63]Marsdon A. Sherman, "End of Tour Report" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-192, Washington, 1962), p. 13. (Mimeographed.)

[64]Ibid., p. 3.

[65]Education Division, Agency for International Development, "Teheran Institute of Technology" (Teheran: Agency for International Development, November 1, 1962), p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

[66]Goss, "End of Tour Report," op. cit., p. 6.

student teaching opportunities for the vocational teacher trainees.[67]

Teaching materials and teaching aids were developed in the Institute, published and distributed nationally. Publications included 14,500 copies of eleven texts. Seventeen instruction handbooks in ten different shop activities were developed, published and distributed.[68]

Armed Forces Vocational Training. By 1962 a site for the Conscriptee Teacher Training Center had been developed at the Iranian Army military site at Sultanatabad near Teheran. Classes had started to train the faculty for the Teacher Training Center. Two American advisors were assigned to this project. American advisors developed teaching materials and taught these classes through interpreters.[69]

Budget notes. In 1962 the annual budget of the Iranian Ministry of Education reached 102 million dollars.[70]

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[67]Clarence Hendershot, "Case History of Project 265-AC-61-AG5, Vocational Education, Teheran Institute of Technology" (Agency for International Development, Airgram TOAID A-1692, Washington, March 30, 1963), p. 6. (Mimeographed.); and Goss, "End of Tour Report," loc. cit.

[68]Education Division, "Project Completion Report," op. cit., pp. 20-21.

[69]Kerwin, "End of Tour Report," 1962, op. cit., p. 9.

[70]Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1962," op. cit., p. 9.

The total expenditure of the United States in technical assistance to education in Iran as of 1962 was 9,329,000 dollars.[71]

The following statistics for 1961 were taken from the Report on Education Statistics in Iran, published in 1962 by the Ministry of Education. These figures were included in the reports of American advisors.

TABLE IV

SCHOOL STATISTICS IN 1961*

Number of students in Elementary School	1,458,175
Number of teachers in Elementary School	42,541
Number of students in High School	291,276
Number of teachers in High School	11,747
Number of Elementary Schools	9,809
Number of Academic Secondary Schools	1,183
Number of Agricultural High Schools	12
Number of Vocational Industrial High Schools	71
Number of Normal Schools	30
Tribal Normal Schools	6
Agricultural Normal Schools	13

*Clarke, "Significant Changes in Iranian Education," op. cit., p. 3; and Education Division, "Quarterly Report, September 1962," loc. cit.

[71]Edith Verry and Ferydoun Saleh, "United States Assistance in Education in Iran" (Teheran: Education Division, Agency for International Development, December 28, 1963), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY OF THE DATA, IDENTIFICATION OF FACTORS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

When the political and economic situation in Iran had worsened to the point of imminent national bankruptcy and Communist domination seemed inevitable, Iran asked the United States for assistance. At the time of Iran's request the concept of technical assistance, based upon humanitarianism and the importance to the United States of a free and self-supporting world, was firmly established in the United States. A national program of technical assistance was offered to Iran. Within the context of a larger program which included the areas of health and agriculture, technical assistance was offered to Iran's program of education.

American educators arrived in Iran to plan, through their knowledge and experience, the approach needed to adapt the concepts and methods of western education to meet the needs of Iran. American advisors were brought to Iran to work in cooperation with the Iranian educators to implement the plans for technical assistance.

Upon their arrival in Iran in 1952, the American advisors found that education in Iran had been and was still to some extent religion dominated, and had been influenced by the French and German methods of education. The Ministry

of Education was ineffectively organized, inefficient in operation, and offered narrow, traditionalistic educational opportunities to less than 34 per cent of Iran's children.

Available statistics indicated a reasonable class load of thirty-four students per teacher. The need was apparent for additional facilities and teachers to accommodate the approximately 66 per cent of the children who were school-deprived. Statistics indicated that 75 per cent of the teachers had had no teacher training. Fifty per cent of the teachers had less than grade 9 achievement, and 10 per cent had less than grade 6 achievement.

American planners formulated a program of assistance to education based upon obvious needs and within the scope of the general objectives of the United States.

The general objectives of the United States stated that the intention was (1) to facilitate the development and improvement of education and related fields of Iran through cooperative effort on the part of the technical assistance agency and the Ministry of Education; (2) to stimulate and increase the interchange between the two countries in knowledge, skills, and techniques in the field of education; (3) to assist Iranians to mobilize their own resources; (4) to assist Iran to become a modernized industrial nation; and (5) to strengthen Iran's free and independent status through an educated populace.

Technical assistance to Iran was administered under

four different agencies of the United States. The first agency stressed demonstration and operational techniques. The second agency stressed the joint service concept of technical assistance. The third agency emphasized an integration approach, while the fourth agency operated under the philosophy of offering advisory service only.

Within each agency technical assistance was rendered to Iran's program of education through a series of intergovernment project agreements which identified the areas to be assisted based upon the assumption that strengthening these areas would make the most effective long-term contribution to the development of an educational program which would meet Iran's needs.

I. SUMMARY OF THE DATA

Each project agreement between the two countries included stated objectives and the ways and means of accomplishing these objectives. Some of the stated objectives of the agreements were general in nature and permissive in intent. Other objectives were specifically identified, often numerically. Table V, page 240, included such specific objectives and the achievements toward their attainment as were feasible to organize for numerical presentation.

In certain areas of education numerically identified achievements were based upon general objectives stated in the project agreements while other achievements could not be

TABLE V

STATED NUMERICAL GOALS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF PROJECT AGREEMENTS

Project Goals	Number Proposed	Number Achieved
To construct, remodel, complete, equip and supply school buildings	154	1,913
Administrators and supervisors to receive in-service training	9,230	6,387
Teachers to receive teacher training	100,000	102,921
Gendarmes to receive literacy training	12,000	16,500
Gendarmes to receive training as instructors of literacy courses	800	1,600
Exploratory agricultural programs to be developed in elementary and secondary schools	770	401
Exploratory industrial arts programs to be developed in elementary schools	729	282
Trade and industrial teachers to be trained each year	100	(1961) 13 (1962) 14
Mid-wives to be trained	100	100
Business education programs to be developed in secondary schools	5	5
Enrollment in the Day School of Business	200	500
Enrollment in the Night School of Business	400	1,500
Enrollment in the National Teachers College	1,840	2,100
Motion pictures and film strips to be produced	30	500
Textbooks in vocational education to be developed and distributed	100,000	71,900
Villages to receive extended services of fundamental education	1,200	1,437
Number of teachers to receive courses in physical education and recreation	4,417	4,829
Janitors to receive training	1,100	1,100

identified in numerical terms.

Literacy training. An objective in the area of literacy training was to conduct adult evening classes. By 1961, literacy training had been received by 69,873 persons. Current enrollment in literacy classes had reached five hundred thousand in 1962.

Homemaking. As part of the objective in the area of homemaking, classes were to be developed for girls and women. In 1962 there were 67,000 girls and women enrolled in homemaking classes in three hundred nine schools.

Physical education. The stated objectives of the area of physical education were to increase the physical efficiency of Iranian children, to develop a healthy interest in competitive sports, to develop an appreciation for good sportsmanship, and to combat juvenile delinquency. The reported achievements indicate that a camping program was organized and 3,924 boys and girls had attended by 1961. Three hundred fifty families and 150 girls from orphanages had attended a family camp. In 1961 physical education classes in the schools had an attendance of 134,000 boys, girls, and youth leaders. Iran was host to the International Boy Scout Jamboree of 1961. There were 3,288 boys in attendance from ten countries. Six sports clubs and like organizations had a membership of 30,997.

Curriculum revision. Curriculum revision had been included in the stated objectives of all areas of education. Curricula in elementary education, the academic normal schools, the vocational agricultural schools, the industrial trade training schools, fundamental education, homemaking, physical education and recreation, business education, and the curriculum of the National Teachers College were revised and the revisions accepted by the Ministry of Education. The revised curricula for the secondary schools and for the agricultural normal schools were not accepted.

Materials development. The development of educational materials was stated as an objective in all areas of education in the program of technical assistance. A total of 1,168,000 readers, textbooks, teachers' guides, pamphlets, and educational magazines were produced within the program of American assistance.

Armed Forces Vocational Training Program for Conscriptees. The preliminary objectives for the program to train conscriptees included the development of a teacher education center in Teheran, and the training of a faculty for the center. The center was developed and the training of the faculty was underway in 1962.

Vocational education. The stated general objectives of vocational education included the development, equipping and staffing of a demonstration industrial training center

and a demonstration agricultural training center. These centers were intended to train skilled workers and technicians for industry and agriculture. Facilities at the demonstration centers were 97 per cent completed in 1962, and all of the equipment had arrived in Iran. Some of the equipment had been installed.

Terminating activities. When it was determined that project agreement objectives had been met in any particular area of education, that project was terminated and the American advisors withdrawn. Technical assistance in the areas of audio-visual education, materials development, physical education and recreation, homemaking, and elementary education was terminated and the American advisors withdrawn. Fundamental education was terminated as a project by the Ministry of Education and its activities phased into the Ministry of Education's rural school program. Since fundamental education was no longer a project of technical assistance to education, the American technician was withdrawn.

A summary of the total achievement of technical assistance to education in Iran indicated that the acceptance and adaptation of the Westernization of the philosophy of education by the Ministry of Education, is evidenced by the changes in curricula, the status of teacher education, the progress of materials development, and improvement of the

methods of teaching.

Iran's assumption of responsibility for funding and administering all project agreement activities, with the concomitant termination of American contributions, indicated the successful achievement of technical assistance goals and objectives insofar as they could be measured.

II. IDENTIFICATION OF FACTORS

The study of technical assistance rendered to the program of education in Iran from 1952 through 1962 was undertaken to identify factors which seemed to have had an influence on the achievement of the stated goals and objectives of project agreements.

Factors in the study were identified by listing all aspects which seemed to have had either positive or negative influence on the achievement of goals. As the aspects were listed it became apparent that they fell into certain categories. Some aspects re-occurred in several categories and a judgment was made as to their eventual location based upon what appeared to be their greatest significance in influencing achievement.

A factor analysis was made of the categorized aspects to form more manageable units. The factors have been grouped into five categories, ranging from personnel at the lower end of the rank order, through economic, political, and administrative, to socio-cultural at the top of the rank

order. The rank order of the categories was determined by the number of significant factors within each category. It cannot be inferred, however, that the category of personnel, at the lower end of the rank order, did not contain certain significant factors which in their own way were as important in influencing goal achievement as were some of the factors in the soci-cultural category at the top of the rank order.

Personnel Factors (negative)

1. The education division did not, at any time, have its full complement of technicians.

2. American technicians received inadequate orientation.

3. The delay in project implementation through the lag in recruitment, caused the Iranians to lose interest in the proposed projects.

4. The lag in recruitment impaired the effectiveness of the newly arrived technician through the shortening of orientation time at his post.

5. The newly arrived technician tended to initiate new approaches to program implementation, or to initiate activities in unplanned-for areas of education.

6. The uncertain tenure of a technician on a project prevented program continuity.

7. A lone technician in a provincial post was expected by the host country to speak with authority on all aspects of education.

Personnel Factors (positive)

1. The American technicians were carefully selected for foreign service.

2. The orientation procedures for new technicians improved.

3. The technicians received instruction in the local language.

Economic Factors (negative)

1. Iran was an underdeveloped country with most of its population in its 48,000 villages.

2. The economy of Iran was agricultural with 90 per cent of the land owned by 3 per cent of the population.

3. Ninety per cent of the population were illiterate.

4. Iranians resented foreign intervention in the oil industry.

5. The civil service system guaranteed a life-time income to government employees which included all Ministry of Education officials and teachers.

6. Each year several thousand secondary school graduates could neither continue on to higher education nor qualify for employment.

7. The budget management of the Ministry of Education was inefficient and unwise.

8. The system of education was non-functional and inadequate.

Economic Factors (positive)

1. The United States gave technical assistance to Iran in terms of cash, equipment, and technical services.

2. Technical assistance was rendered to the program of education in Iran.

3. The stated objectives of technical assistance were to help Iran develop her resources and to develop the concept of self-help.

4. Ministry of Education officials came to the realization that money alone was not enough to develop Iran's economy but that a good system of education was basic to economic development.

5. The Minister of Education ordered inactive Ministry officials, who were permanently fixed on the payroll, to assume active responsibilities.

6. A special program of teacher education was established to utilize idle secondary school graduates.

7. The demonstrated ability of vocational student-teachers on summer-work jobs caused many students to be employed in the technician-starved industries.

8. The budget of the Ministry of Education had increased to 23 per cent of the national budget.

9. The economy of Iran had improved through increased agricultural and industrial development including the stabilization of the oil industry.

Political Factors (negative)

1. Iran attempted to remain neutral in World War II.

2. Iran was invaded by foreign powers.

3. The Shah's first request to the United States for assistance was refused.

4. The Communists infiltrated Iran.

5. Iran's economy collapsed at the nationalization of the oil industry.

6. The American director of technical assistance in Iran was under pressure from both the American and Iranian governments to accelerate the implementation of the program in Iran.

Political Factors (positive)

1. The United States, in the interest of humanitarianism and in the interest of the free world, brought technical assistance to Iran.

2. The United States gave funds with "no strings attached."

3. The Ministry of Education requested that particular emphasis be placed upon technical assistance to a national physical education program, to combat Communist influence among the youth of Iran.

4. A special program of teacher education was designed to utilize the services of several thousand secondary school graduates.

5. The political situation in Iran was stabilized as the threat of Communist domination was removed.

Administrative Factors (negative)

1. The Ministry of Education was highly centralized and autocratic in authority.

2. The Ministry of Education was ineffectively organized and was inefficient in operation.

3. Ministry of Education decisions were often made on a basis of personal influences.

4. There were frequent changes in personnel in the Ministry of Education.

5. Many Ministry of Education officials were inadequately prepared for their assignments.

6. The Ministry of Education budget was incompetently prepared and unwisely implemented.

7. The Ministry of Education had no defined objectives of education, or standards by which to measure performance.

8. School administrators were fearful of assuming responsibility or taking initiative.

9. The dichotomy of the Ministry of Education created an inter-departmental struggle for power.

10. National planning for education was not coordinated among Government of Iran agencies.

11. The personal characteristics of each Minister of Education determined facets of administration within the

Ministry.

12. There was present a tendency of the Iranian administrators in education to implement suggestions before full comprehension of objectives was reached.

13. The early project agreements were expressed in general rather than specific terms.

14. At the outset of technical assistance to Iran the American mission was inefficiently organized, and inadequately staffed.

15. Program control was centered in Washington at the inception of technical assistance to Iran.

16. Funds, commodities, and support personnel were slow to arrive from Washington.

17. A decision was made to reduce the American staff in Iran at a critical time in the program.

18. American administrators in technical assistance to education re-directed emphasis on project goals and implementation disregarding established project agreements.

Administrative Factors (positive)

1. Program and project agreements, based on the needs of Iran, were drafted without delay.

2. Cooperative planning and implementation was stressed in program and project agreements.

3. Project agreements were revised in terms of Iran's changing needs in education.

4. American technicians were assigned to work with the Ministry of Education officials in the national capital, and in the capital cities of the provinces.

5. The Ministry of Education consistently assumed more responsibility for technically assisted projects.

6. The Minister of Education requested assistance in reorganizing the Ministry of Education and began implementation of the suggestions of American advisors.

7. Ministry of Education officials, who had received training in the United States, were utilized by the Minister of Education upon their return to Iran.

8. The Minister of Education reinstated previously deposed United States trained ostan chiefs of education.

9. University contract teams were brought to Iran to augment the work of direct-hire advisors in assisting the Ministry of Education to improve the program of education.

10. National education conferences were held.

11. The budget of the Ministry of Education had increased to 23 per cent of the national budget in 1962.

Socio-cultural Factors (negative)

1. There was observed in the Iranians a deeply-rooted traditionalism.

2. Iranians feared and distrusted foreigners and were skeptical of the motives of foreigners.

3. Iranian educators were resistant to change in the program of education.

4. Iranians betrayed apathy, inertia, lack of initiative, and a fear of punishment.

5. It was difficult for the Iranians to admit the existence and the dimensions of problems.

6. It was difficult for the Iranians to request advice or assistance.

7. There was no established and defined philosophy of education in the Ministry of Education.

8. The Iranians tended to be materialistic, primarily interested in their own concern, and dependent upon personal influences.

9. The Iranians demonstrated a casual regard for time.

10. A strong feeling for prestige dictated the value judgments of the Iranians.

11. The social structure of Iran did not include a middle class.

12. The background of the Iranians' experience had not been conducive to creative planning.

13. It was difficult for the Iranians to develop a concept of standards of excellency.

14. The anxiety of the Iranians to achieve immediately an advanced developmental status led them to implement suggested projects without consideration of objectives.

15. The Iranians tended to recognize a problem, to agree to a proposed solution, and to be reluctant to

implement the proposal.

16. The Ministry of Education, in a desire to indicate visible progress, built school buildings with funds allocated to other projects.

17. The built-in securityof a guaranteed lifetime income under civil service had been accepted.

18. Iranians feared loss of superiority of position if they shared their knowledge.

19. The Iranians' traditional oral-aural methods of learning and dependence upon memorization nullified interest in written records and reports.

20. The American advisors were not well versed in Iranian culture.

21. The Americans did not realize that there may have been social and cultural reasons, no matter how obscure, governing the actions of the Iranians.

22. The American advisors failed to appreciate or to guage the absorptive capacity of the Iranians with reference to new concepts.

23. The Americans tended to be aggressive and impatient in their zeal for accomplishment.

24. The American advisors learned through trial and error to understand and adapt to the Iranian people and the demands of Iranian culture.

Socio-cultural Factors (positive)

1. The American technicians' approach was based upon

humanitarianism.

2. American technicians demonstrated an obvious dedication to their assignments and a willingness to work.

3. American advisors found that implanted ideas do not die but may become dormant until gestation occurs through belated understanding or sufficient motivation to develop action.

4. The actions and demonstrated philosophy of the American advisors influenced the Iranians.

5. The Iranians found that American technical assistance to education had no ulterior political motive, but that technical assistance to education was directed toward the welfare of Iran.

6. The Iranians found that American technical assistance and advice was based upon proven democratic principles and procedures.

7. The Iranians became willing to request advice and assistance, and to implement the suggestions of American advisors.

8. The concept of the possibility of a higher standard of living, dependent upon their own initiative was accepted by the Iranians.

9. Acceptance of responsibility and the development of initiative were evident in the attitudes of the Iranians.

10. A feeling of appreciation and respect for productive labor had become apparent in the Iranian people.

11. A middle class was emerging in Iran.

12. A Western philosophy of education, adapted to the needs of Iran, had been accepted.

III. CONCLUSIONS

It may be concluded from a study of the project agreement goals and objectives, and of the achievements made toward attaining those goals and objectives, that the technical assistance rendered to the program of education in Iran was successful. It must be noted that the program of technical assistance to education in Iran was still in effect at the conclusion of this study, and that it is possible that total realization of the stated goals may be achieved before the final phasing out of the program of technical assistance to education is concluded.

Certain factors have been identified as contributing to or impeding the successful achievement of the objectives of the project agreements. A mere statement of the identified factors would have had little value. An effort has been made to draw inferences from the listed factors in order to gain an insight into their significance.

An inference can safely be drawn that, of the factors identified, the factors included in the socio-cultural category had the most significant influence upon the achievement of project goals and objectives. It was obvious that, in the bringing about of improvement, and in the modernization

of the Iranian system of education, there had been certain conceptual and attitudinal changes in the people of the host country, involving deeply rooted socio-cultural patterns of behavior.

Effectuation of the changes in concepts and attitudes was complicated by the difficulties encountered by the American advisors and their Iranian counterparts striving to cooperate in achieving mutually desired goals with little or no comprehension by either group of the basic cultural differences involved. The achievement of project goals and objectives seems to have been attained in almost direct proportion to the development of good inter-personal relationships and the appreciation of cultural differences.

The factor analysis in the category of personnel led to the inference that a full complement of education advisors as decided upon by the planners, was necessary if the total objectives were to be achieved without delays and misunderstandings. Since the education division was continuously understaffed it must be concluded that, while successful achievements were noted in attaining goals, it was inevitable that unnecessary difficulties and unconscionable delays were involved. The delays had a detrimental effect on project goal implementation and achievement, and added to the amount of time involved in goal achievement.

It is inferred that the improvement in Iran's system of education, at the operational level, was due in large

part to the improved administrative organization of the Ministry of Education. It can be concluded that without an improved administrative organization in the Ministry of Education, with concomitantly improved administrative practices, Iran's system of education would not have registered the accomplishments observed in the study.

Conclusions can be drawn from the factor analysis in the areas of politics and economics, that the United States objectives were achieved in assisting Iran to stabilize and strengthen her political and economic situation and to achieve freedom from Communist domination.

It can be concluded from the factor analysis that the American advisors in education contributed to the achievement of the encompassing goals of the United States through the media of project goal achievements.

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS

The study did not presume to pose as a final authority on problems involved in technical assistance to programs of education in emerging and developing countries. Rather it was anticipated that a study of one of the larger programs of United States technical assistance to a program of education in a developing country might reveal certain basic factors which would aid in anticipating similar problems in other country programs and in designing solutions before the problems became a serious impediment to progress. It is

possible that this study has formed a base from which to launch investigations of other significant aspects of technical assistance to education.

Recommendations with Reference to the implementing of a program of technical assistance to education in a developing country

It is recommended that a study of socio-cultural relationships be made an integral part of the orientation courses of the foreign service advisor. Both the significance of socio-cultural relationships and their implications in the area to which he is assigned should be studied in depth by each advisor.

In the area of administration it is recommended that a major emphasis be placed upon the improvement of the organization and administrative functions of the Ministry of Education as a prerequisite for strengthening the program of education at the operational level in an emerging country.

The analysis of factors effecting implementation indicated that tenure of an advisor influenced progress of project goal achievement. The recommendation is made for the establishment of a permissive regulation allowing an advisor to remain on a project for as long as the administration deems feasible.

Recommendations for Further Study

It is recommended that a study be made to devise more complete orientation courses in socio-cultural relationships

both from the conceptual implications and from the application to a specific culture. Included in the study may be a consideration of the importance of mastery of the language of the area of concern.

A recommended study is the determination of the values, concepts, and attitudes which are associated with a nation's development, and a determination of the factors involved in their inculcation into the social structure.

An American education advisor, accustomed to the use of complicated and advanced instructional devices, is often at a loss for exact methods to offer in situations which must, owing to their geographic location and economic status, remain primitive for some time to come. Of value would be a study to determine possible techniques of teaching to be offered to teachers in primitive situations.

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