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ABSTRACT

This study is devoted to a comparative analysis of the financing and unit costs of three types of first-level schools in Iran, i.e., ordinary public schools, Education Corps schools, and private schools. The study was undertaken to ascertain the comparative position of the relatively new schools of the Education Corps, from the standpoint of their financing; and from the level of unit costs and efficiency, in relation to their longer established public and private counterparts. The study concludes that the Education Corps, which requires young people in the military with second-level education certificates to teach their juniors and even their elders for a limited time, has been able to provide schooling in inaccessible rural areas under more satisfactory cost conditions than those of ordinary schools. The appendixes contain useful statistical data on schools and their financing in Iran.
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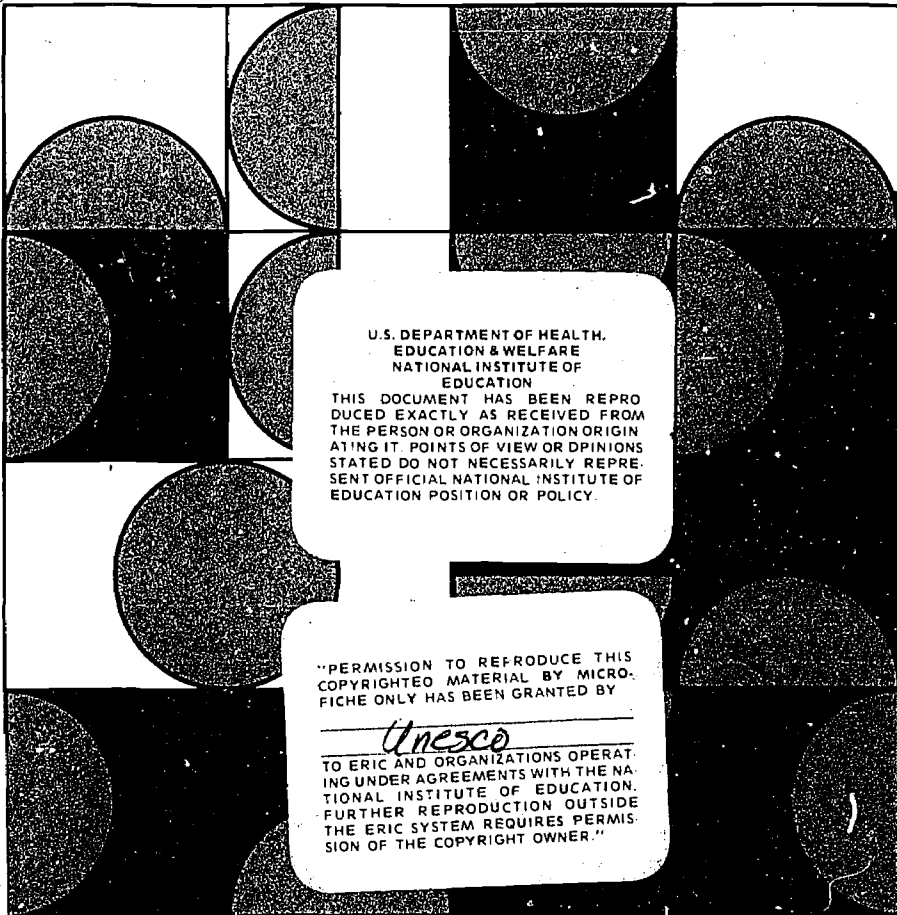
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Financing educational systems: specific case studies 1

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The financial aspects of first-level education in Iran

J. Hallak, M. Cheikhestani and H. Varlet



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Aims and methodology of the IIEP research project on financing educational systems

This research project, launched by the International Institute for Educational Planning early in 1970, originated in an enquiry as to the real possibility of the developing countries financing their educational objectives in the course of the United Nations Second Development Decade, bearing in mind the high level of expenditure that has already been reached in most cases, the constant rise in unit costs, and the increasing competition within the state budgets themselves that education will probably encounter in the future from the financing of productive investments, debt servicing, and other predictable expenditures.

Viewed in this light, therefore, the research is not strictly limited to the study of financing techniques, but has wider aims:

1. To explore the real weight of probable financial constraints on the development of educational systems up to 1980.
2. To study the various financing methods likely to augment resources, and to define a strategy of educational financing more closely adapted to social and economic realities.
3. To analyse certain alternative solutions (new structures, new technologies, etc.) capable, by reducing costs or improving the efficiency of the teaching process, of leading to a better balance between educational targets and the resources available for them.

In addition to these extremely concrete objectives, concerned with the real problems facing educational planners in all countries, the collation of the essential data should provide the basis for the answers to more theoretical questions, affecting, for example, the type of correlation between educational expenditure and the level of development, between the level of expenditure and the method of financing, between the level of unit costs and the development of the educational system, etc.

With these aims in mind, two types of study are being undertaken:

1. *National case studies* for the *retrospective* (1961-70) and *prospective* (1980 or beyond) analysis of the expenditure, financing and costs of educational systems in the widest and most representative possible sample of countries—at least fifteen; these studies should, as already stated, reveal both the magnitude and the nature of the financial constraints to be expected in the general framework

Aims and methodology

of the development of the economy and of the finances of the state, and the level and various alternative forms for the possible development of educational systems. These studies will thus cover the whole field of educational financing, costs, and policies in each country concerned.

2. *Specific case studies* covering, first, the different possible methods of financing (centralised, decentralised, public, private, etc.) and, especially, original ways of raising supplementary resources, and, secondly, the study of new educational solutions calculated to reduce costs.

These studies are being carried out in Member States by the IIEP in close collaboration with national specialists, either from government departments or from universities; in many cases the research is a concerted effort by the IIEP and the country concerned, for the common benefit of both parties and of the international community as a whole.

This project will continue until 1973, and will culminate in a synthesis report summing up the findings relating to all the problems posed. A number of the studies have already been completed, however, and instead of presenting them in a single volume it has been decided to publish them as single monographs in a new collection, *Financing educational systems*, comprising two series, one of country case studies and one of specific case studies. The synthesis report will be published early in 1974.

The financial outlay for the implementation of this ambitious project could not be provided from Unesco's basic grant to the Institute. The IIEP is deeply grateful to the Member States and various organisations who, by their voluntary contributions, have enabled it to launch and pursue this research: in particular to SIDA (Swedish International Development Authority), NORAD (Norwegian Agency for International Development), DANIDA (Danish International Development Agency), CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency), the Republic of Ireland, and the Ford Foundation. The Institute is also deeply indebted to the Member States and national specialists in various parts of the world who have agreed to co-operate with the IIEP in carrying out these studies. The publication by the IIEP of certain studies by outside consultants does not necessarily imply, however, the Institute's agreement with all the opinions expressed in them.

Preface

This study by J. Hallak, N. Cheikhestani and H. Varlet is devoted to the comparative analysis of the financing and unit costs of three types of first-level schools in Iran, namely ordinary public schools, Education Corps schools and private schools.

The ordinary public schools form the vast majority (in 1969-70 they accounted for about 85 per cent of total enrolments at this level); the real importance of the two other types of school can only be appreciated in the light of their geographical distribution. Private school enrolments, mainly in the towns, accounted for less than 10 per cent of urban enrolments and Education Corps schools for 24 per cent of rural enrolments (compared with about 10 per cent in 1963).

The analysis of the financing and level of unit costs in each of the three components of first-level schooling in Iran was worth undertaking for its own sake, since little information on the subject has so far been available in Iran; the authors, moreover, do not claim to have exhausted the subject. But the original character, and indeed the main purpose, of this IIEP study, undertaken under the direction of Mr. Jacques Hallak, was to ascertain the comparative position of the relatively new schools of the Education Corps, from the point of view of their financing, level of unit costs and efficiency, in relation to their longer-established public and private counterparts.

The employment of second-level school certificate holders and university graduates for educational purposes during their period of compulsory military service, especially for staffing first-level schools in less favoured rural areas and for adult literacy, is nothing new in the world of ideas. But its realisation is another matter, and practical examples are not abundant. In this connection the Education Corps created by Royal Decree of 13 October 1962 represents an experiment of particular interest, which has been conducted on a large enough scale to merit, even at the present stage, examination in depth.

In the general context of the research conducted by the IIEP into the financing of educational systems, whose aims and methods have been described above, the Education Corps is an excellent example of a new solution to the problem of extending first-level schooling in the countryside, which would well repay investigation.

Preface

There were great difficulties in the way of such an undertaking, the most obvious being the lack of information; thanks to the constant and effective support of the Iranian authorities it was possible to arrange a special inquiry covering a representative sample of Education Corps schools, and thus obtain the necessary basic data. From this inquiry and other existing sources of information (as detailed in Appendix A) the authors were able to calculate the level of unit costs (both recurrent and capital expenditure) for the Education Corps schools as well as for the other public and private schools. The comparison shows that the costs of the Education Corps schools are well below those of their counterparts, the ordinary rural first-level schools. In spite of a lower pupil-teacher ratio ¹, the reason is the difference between the relatively low pay of the *sipahi*-teachers and the pay of ordinary teachers. But, having established this, the authors could hardly draw any conclusion without also trying to compare the relative efficiency of the two systems.

In the absence of other data, they have compared, on the basis of available statistics, the apparent retention rates in the two types of school, calculated on complete first-level schooling of six years; it would appear that the ordinary rural schools are more efficient, but the authors have refrained from making any adverse comparison of the Education Corps schools for a number of reasons:

1. Owing to the relatively recent establishment of the Education Corps schools, the comparison of evolution of cohorts of pupils had to be based on the first intake into these schools in 1962/63; it is highly probable that, as the system has been progressively implemented, the behaviour of later intakes has improved.
2. The Education Corps schools were originally planned to take the first two first-level classes only, and only later were they extended, in the light of experience, to the full six years of the first cycle; a certainly appreciable proportion of the first intakes had therefore to continue their studies in the ordinary schools, thus precluding any over-strict comparison between the retention rates of the two systems.
3. Finally—and this is their whole *raison d'être*—the Education Corps schools have been established in the rural regions where schooling is most difficult, both economically and socially; it is therefore not unnatural—indeed, it is the contrary which would have been surprising—that their apparent efficiency, measured by retention rate alone, should be less good than that of schools located in zones more favourable to schooling.

Taking all these factors into account, the study concludes that from the only point of view studied, namely the provision of schooling in the most inaccessible and least favoured rural zones, the Education Corps has achieved to a very acceptable degree the aims set when it was originally created, and that it has done this under more satisfactory cost conditions than the ordinary schools. The authors further mention, in addition to the educational, social, cultural and economic activity of the Education Corps teachers for the benefit of the whole population,

1. Explained by the establishment of Education Corps schools in very small centres of population.

the advantages for the ordinary first-level school itself; particularly in retaining more than 20,000 former *sipahi* as permanent teachers in the rural zones on the completion of their military service.

In the minds of its promoters, this experiment was to be purely temporary in character. In fact, the period of application of the 1962 Decree is far from expired, since the Iranian planners envisage the generalization of first-level schooling from the beginning of 1980s, with even greater support from the Education Corps schools in the rural areas, this extension being further helped by the co-operation of young girls from the Women's Social Service as teachers in these schools.

Furthermore, while there is nothing original about the quasi-centralized financing (national budget) of the recurrent expenditure of the Education Corps schools, the financing of their capital expenditure, provided mainly from the initiative of local communities and from private donations, constitutes an innovation compared with other types of public school. It is perhaps regrettable that in this respect the Education Corps schools are destined for the same fate as the others, as the authors indicate by reference to the proposals of the Iranian planners.

In conclusion, the three authors of this study rightly call the attention of all countries which are themselves faced with financial or other difficulties in extending first-level schooling in rural areas, to the value of the Iranian solution of requiring young people with second-level school certificates to participate for a limited period in the teaching of their juniors, and even of their elders. The military nature of the Iranian Education Corps has solved the problem of the principle of compulsion¹, without excluding the necessary pedagogical co-operation with the services of the national Ministry of education. But while this formula is valid in the general context of Iran, it is no less evident that other legal forms could equally well be used; the essential thing is that they should be thoroughly well adapted to the fundamental realities of each country.

To sum up, the present study demonstrates the possibility of applying comparatively new formulas to overcome difficulties to which no solution had previously been found. The merit of the Iranian authorities in this undertaking lies not so much in the original conception as in its actual patient implementation. The financial aspects of the Education Corps scheme are only one of the interesting elements of the experiment which the International Institute introduces to the reader in these pages; as the three authors suggest in their conclusion, the study of other aspects of this experiment would also be rewarding.

RAYMOND POIGNANT
Director, IIEP

1. It certainly also has many other advantages with regard to the setting-up and organization of the service, but this comment may perhaps be valid only in the special context of Iran.

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This report is one of a series of studies on the strategy of financing education in the coming decade.

The authors of the report are Henri Varlet (Unesco expert in Iran), Mohamed Sadegh Cheikhestani (Head of the Bureau of statistics of the Ministry of education when the study was made) and Jacques Hallak of the IIEP staff.

The authors wish to express their thanks to the Iranian authorities who have been kind enough to provide the necessary information and assistance in the preparation of this report, especially the Bureau of statistics (Ministry of education), the Education Corps (Ministry of education), the Plan organization and the Ministry of science and higher education.

Introduction

In general, school enrolments obviously develop very much faster in urban areas than in rural areas. The result is that countries with a still under-developed school system experience a particularly marked inequality between the poor and illiterate rural masses and the economically better-off and culturally less deprived majority of town dwellers.

This general experience is particularly well illustrated by the history of school enrolment in Iran. In 1961/62, the enrolment ratio in towns was 79 per cent (950,000 pupils) compared with less than 24 per cent in rural areas (604,000 pupils). This lag in enrolments in rural areas is mainly due to the dispersion of the rural population in nearly 50,000 inaccessible villages, a great many of which have a population of less than a hundred. The very few qualified teachers are not particularly attracted by living conditions in the villages and prefer to stay in the towns where there are still ample possibilities of employment. A post allowance for remote areas, introduced by the government to encourage teachers to leave the towns has not greatly improved the situation; only a very small number of qualified teachers have been added to the mass of very poorly qualified rural teachers. The budget restraints which led to priority in the allocation of resources being given to 'expenditure commitments' at the cost of 'programme authorizations' has not greatly helped matters, since the school building effort in the rural areas was still very slight, in fact almost negligible. The act requiring towns to assign not less than 5 per cent of their resources to education obviously did nothing to stimulate school building in the particularly impoverished rural areas and therefore hardly encouraged the expansion of rural schooling.

In the last analysis, for a number of economic and social reasons, the cultural lag of the rural areas behind the towns continued to widen steadily. Recognizing this problem, and desiring to remedy it, the Iranian authorities, by Royal decree of 13 October 1962, created the Education Corps.

This decree stipulated that all second-level school certificate holders, during their period of military service, should have the option of acting as *sipahi*-teachers¹ after special training to equip them for various duties in this capacity,

1. Persian, *sipahi* = soldier (cf. *spahi*, *sepoy*).

The financial aspects of first-level education in Iran

such as first-level education, adult education, health advisers, agricultural advisers, etc. The *sipahi* assigned to the least favoured regions of the country are paid a standard allowance during their military service sufficient to meet their needs, but less than the pay of a rural teacher. If a commune is to be assigned a *sipahi* it must make an application and must participate by providing at least a lodging for the *sipahi* and a classroom and meeting room. In this way the Education Corps was designed, at little cost, to encourage the development of schooling in particularly isolated rural areas and to overcome the social and economic difficulties of assigning qualified teachers to these regions.

After eight years experience of the Education Corps, it is now possible to assess the results. But to make a genuine assessment, it would be necessary to inquire into the extent to which the main purpose of the Education Corps is being achieved, namely to promote the development of the rural areas and their integration in modern life by the expansion of first-level schooling, adult literacy, infrastructure works, improved farming techniques, etc. Interesting as it would be, a progress report covering all these aspects would go far beyond the scope of the present study.

This report is in fact limited merely to the financial aspects of the experience in Iran. Its main object is to answer the three following questions:

1. How far has the Education Corps effectively encouraged rural schooling and what are the comparative performances of the ordinary system and the system of the Education Corps? This is the subject of section I.
2. How far has the Education Corps brought about savings in cost? This is the subject of section II, which is devoted to a comparative analysis of unit costs under the ordinary system and in Education Corps establishments.
3. How far has the Education Corps tapped new sources of finance for first-level education in Iran? This is the subject of section III which describes the financing methods of public, private and Education Corps first-level schools.

Finally, by way of conclusion, we shall briefly examine the possibilities of applying an experiment of this kind in other developing countries.

I The contribution of the Education Corps to first-level education in Iran

We shall analyse first the trend of enrolments and then the comparative performances of the ordinary system and of the Education Corps.

The trend of enrolments

After a relatively rapid start, the rate of enrolments in the Education Corps establishments levelled off in 1967 and 1968, since when it has again increased. This is shown in table 1, which sets out the trend of enrolments, schools, classes and *sipahi* since 1963/64. Budget difficulties seem to have been the origin of the levelling off of numbers in 1967/68, but the subsequent recovery has been very appreciable and the index of enrolments, base year 1962 = 100, was 470 in 1970.

Table 2 shows the trend of first-level enrolments in Iran, by region, since 1962. The driving force of the Education Corps in rural schooling is quite evident. Whereas in 1962/63 pupils living outside the towns amounted to nearly 42 per cent of enrolments, the share of rural schooling in 1969/70 is more than 47 per cent, or about 1.5 million pupils. Of this total 321,239, or 21.6 per cent, attended Education Corps schools and the rest ordinary schools. To this figure must be added the 57,393 pupils enrolled in ordinary schools in rural regions and taught by *sipahi*, and the 8,133 enrolled in ordinary schools in the urban regions, also taught by *sipahi* (a total of 386,765 pupils).

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

In this connexion some modifications have been introduced since the start of the experiment to take into account the trend of the situation from the point of view, both of the demand for education in the rural areas and of the training of the *sipahi*.

At the outset the execution of the project was assigned to a body created

TABLE 1. Time series of Education Corps statistics

School year	No. of schools	No. of classes	Sipahi	Children			Adults	
				Boys	Girls	Total	Male	Female
1963/64	2 972	3 426	3 016	87 600	18 395	105 995	—	—
1964/65	6 769	6 695	6 930	182 729	45 768	228 497	107 496	3 446
1965/66	11 133	11 769	11 795	297 414	68 399	365 813	133 799	7 566
1966/67	7 008	7 948	7 974	209 448	43 190	252 638	61 732	4 152
1967/68	6 948	7 890	7 901	227 839	41 598	269 437	59 255	4 165
1968/69	7 541	8 873	8 873	245 769	47 201	292 970	91 554	8 137
1969/70	8 147	11 942	11 942 ¹	293 681	93 084	386 765	52 854	19 676

1. Of whom 2,715 women.

TABLE 2. Trend of first-level enrolments in Iran, 1962/63 to 1969/70

Year	Ordinary first-level system									
	Urban area		Rural zones		Total ordinary		Education corps		Grand total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1962/63	595 404	446 370	565 847	111 732	1 161 251	558 102	—	—	—	—
	1 041 774		677 579		1 719 353		82 791		1 802 144	
1963/64	631 219	479 991	607 587	122 404	1 238 806	602 395	87 600	18 395	1 326 406	620 790
	1 111 210		729 991		1 841 201		105 995		1 947 196	
1964/65	674 953	514 778	690 175	150 827	1 365 128	665 605	182 729	45 768	1 547 857	711 373
	1 189 731		841 002		2 030 733		228 515		2 259 248	
1965/66	734 201	569 247	707 804	170 381	1 442 005	739 628	297 414	68 399	1 739 419	808 027
	1 303 448		878 185		2 181 633		365 813		2 547 446	
1966/67	804 733	630 689	748 813	193 847	1 553 546	824 536	209 448	43 190	1 762 994	867 726
	1 435 422		942 660		2 378 082		252 638		2 630 720	
1967/68	858 595	683 487	810 770	222 815	1 669 365	906 302	227 839	41 598	1 897 204	947 900
	1 542 082		1 033 585		2 575 667		269 437		2 845 104	
1968/69	910 986	738 565	849 507	254 134	1 760 433	992 699	245 769	47 201	2 006 202	1 039 900
	1 649 551		1 103 641		2 753 192		292 970		3 046 162	
1969/70	964 839	791 473	882 096	277 858	1 846 935	1 069 331	293 681	93 084	2 140 616	1 162 415
	1 756 312		1 159 954		2 916 265		386 765		3 303 031	

The financial aspects of first-level education in Iran

within the Ministry of Education and placed under a Director-general.¹ As the role of the Education Corps developed, the responsibilities of this body were extended to the whole system of rural education (Education Corps and ordinary system). At the level of the 'school departments' in the provinces and *sharestans* (school districts) ² there are offices which administer the Education Corps schools and the ordinary schools. The educational advisers, in particular, are attached to these offices.

In 1962, when the project was first launched, prospective *sipahi* were given military and teacher training for four months, and were then posted for 14 months to the villages to teach the equivalent of 'two annual programmes' and carry out various social welfare activities. But the rate of training the *sipahi* and their period of service did not coincide with the school periods of the ordinary system, thus creating a certain number of problems, especially in arranging the turnover of teaching staff and also in the case of Education Corps pupils who wanted to continue their studies in an ordinary school. In addition, a substantial need for inspectors made itself felt with the development of a network of Education Corps establishments. For these reasons the period of training of *sipahi* was extended to six months, and their length of service in the villages from fourteen to eighteen months.³ Additionally, young university graduates serving in the Education Corps during their military service acted as supervisors. Finally, an act of July, 1969, authorized the recruitment of girls with second-level school leaving certificates or university degrees for a twenty-four month period, of which six months is spent in training. It is true that the girls can work as teachers in the towns but it was hoped that, thanks to the salary advantages accorded to them, the majority of them would choose to serve in the villages. Encouraging girls to teach in rural areas was a way of meeting the urgent need for the schooling of young village girls, whose parents hesitated to send them to school, for social or religious reasons. The existence of schoolmistresses may help to overcome these obstacles and to develop the education of women. In practice, while 35 per cent of all enrolments in the public first-level schools are girls, the proportion of girls enrolled in the Education Corps schools is little more than 20 per cent for 1969/70.

The original aim of the Education Corps was to provide children in rural areas with a minimum education covering the first two years of the first level and to spread literacy among adult peasants. But under pressure of the demand for rural schooling, the Education Corps schools have progressively added the other years of the full cycle of first-level schooling to the first two years. A certain number of Education Corps schools now provide the full cycle of six years' first-

1. This body enjoys a certain autonomy and has various branches, such as personnel, accounts, public relations, etc.
2. *Sharestan*. Iran is divided into *ostans* or provinces, which are in turn divided into *sharestans* or districts, each with a capital town.
3. This has helped to rationalize the recruitment system. Along these lines it may be expected that the Education Corps organization will shortly introduce a single intake once a year, so as to simplify the administration of establishments and make them more efficient.

level schooling. This is clearly brought out by the official statistics of the Ministry of Education; out of a hundred pupils at present attending Education Corps establishments, nearly thirty-eight are enrolled in the first year, twenty-one in the second year, fifteen in the third year, twelve in the fourth year and the rest in the fifth and sixth years (see table 3).

TABLE 3. School year 1969/70; Education Corps school enrolments (rural areas)

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Total
Boys	89 123	53 156	40 571	32 348	26 493	14 483	256 174
Girls	31 961	13 703	8 330	5 412	4 105	1 554	65 065
Total enrolments	121 084	66 859	48 901	37 760	30 598	16 037	321 239
Percentage	37.7	20.8	15.2	11.8	9.5	5.0	100

This extension of the services provided by the Education Corps has been accompanied by exchanges of teaching staff with the ordinary system. Experienced teachers are seconded to teach the last years of the first-level cycle in Education Corps establishments and *sipahi* are posted to the ordinary schools to replace them and to bring the establishment of these schools up to full strength.

Table 4 shows the situation in 1969/70; nearly 15 per cent of *sipahi* were teaching outside Education Corps schools, but the proportion of women in this percentage is high, being 11.4 per cent.

The distribution of schoolmistresses between towns and villages shows that the immense majority of girls (93.5 per cent) have chosen to teach in the rural areas. This is partly explained by the attraction of better pay conditions, but it should also be noted that in practice these young girls do not like to be too far away from their families.

To sum up, the Education Corps seems to have succeeded in establishing itself in the villages, adapting itself to the needs by integrating itself as much as possible with the ordinary system and speeding up rural schooling. But how far do the pupils who attend Education Corps establishments receive an education equivalent to that provided by the ordinary schools? In other words, how far is schooling under the Education Corps system comparable to schooling under the ordinary system? This is what we shall now summarily assess by comparing school performance under the two systems.

TABLE 4. Statistics for the Education Corps, 1969/70

Type of education	Children			Adults			Number of sipahi		
	Number of schools	Number of classes	No. of pupils		Total	No. of pupils		Total	Women
			Total	Girls		Total	Women		
Education Corps schools (rural areas)	8 147	10 050	321 239	65 065	3 370	72 411	19 749	10 060	1 355
<i>Sipahi</i> in ordinary schools (rural areas)	—	1 716	57 393	22 387	1	23	23	1 716	1 184
<i>Sipahi</i> in ordinary schools (urban areas)	—	176	8 133	5 632	2	96	96	176	176
TOTAL	8 147	11 942	386 765	93 084	3 373	72 530	19 676	11 942	2 715

SOURCE Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education.

The comparative performance of ordinary schools and the Education Corps schools¹

The most obvious method is to take two cohorts of pupils, one chosen from the stream of Education Corps schools, the other from the ordinary schools, and study the trend of each cohort separately in order to assess performance. In fact, however, the results yielded by such a method would not be likely to be very significant, since, as already pointed out, many pupils transfer from the Education Corps schools to the ordinary system, and vice versa. School-teachers and *sipahi* are also becoming more and more distributed between the two systems, since a certain number of *sipahi* replace their colleagues from the ordinary schools, seconded to Education Corps establishments. In consequence, the Education Corps system is too closely involved with the ordinary rural first-level schooling to be studied independently; in particular, it stimulates the growth of the whole education system after the first level by the transfer of pupils who have taken the first-level classes in the Education Corps schools. The assessment of performance would be significant if account could be taken of the secondary effects of the Education Corps on the ordinary system.

Owing to these difficulties, it has been necessary to follow a different method by studying an overall cohort of 1,000 pupils, divided at the outset between the Education Corps establishments (369 pupils) and the ordinary schools (631 pupils).² The results are very striking (see table 5).

For the ordinary system and the Education Corps combined, out of a cohort of 1,000 pupils, nearly a quarter never reach the second year and rather more than 40 per cent drop out before completing the third grade. It is generally ac-

TABLE 5. Retention rates by grade of the ordinary first-level system¹ and the Education Corps

	Grade						Certificates
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Ordinary first-level system	1 000	866	784	663	569	515	369
Education Corps	1 000	650	545	405	320	258	184
Both systems combined	1 000	786	696	569	486	420	301

1. This table is based upon the sample of 1,000 students referred to in the text and does not reflect the experience of the school system.
 SOURCE Study No. 2, of the Bureau of statistics, op. cit.

1. See Study No. 2, *School wastage between 1962/63 and 1966/67*, Teheran, Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education, 1969.
2. To be more precise, a selection should have been made of a cohort of pupils attending only rural schools since the Education Corps influences the rural sector only.

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cepted that at least three years first-level schooling is necessary in order to avoid lapsing back into illiteracy. Thus, approximately two out of five children attending first-level school go to swell the throngs of the illiterate. Since the over-all enrolment ratio for Iran is 58 per cent, only about thirty-five out of every hundred Iranian children can be regarded as becoming literate at school. This problem of drop-out is disturbing in many developing countries. For later grades the drop-out is much less; 42 per cent reach the sixth grade and 30 per cent leave with final certificates.

If we confine ourselves to pupils attending the ordinary system¹ the drop-out rate is much lower; less than 14 per cent between the first and second grade; 78.4 per cent reach the third grade; more than half complete the full cycle and nearly 37 per cent gain certificates.

It is therefore clear from these results that it is the Education Corps system which is responsible for the enormous wastage among first year enrolments. The figures in fact show that 35 per cent of enrolled pupils leave the Education Corps establishments after the first year. For the other years, too, the promotion rate is systematically lower in the Education Corps schools. In the last analysis, out of 369 Education Corps pupils included in the cohort, eighty-five complete the six years first-level schooling and sixty-eight are certificated. The performance rate is of the order of 26 per cent at sixth-grade level and 18.5 per cent for certificate-holders, compared with 51.5 per cent and 37 per cent respectively for the ordinary system. The gaps seem considerable.

In fact, the interpretation of these results must be qualified, for two reasons. In the first place, the estimating method is not entirely satisfactory in so far as it tends to over-estimate the performance of the ordinary system, to the detriment of the Education Corps. The method in fact implies a certain 'balanced exchange' of pupils between the two systems. But it is probable that the number of pupils who leave an Education Corps establishment for an ordinary school is higher than those who do the reverse. Furthermore, the apparently poor performance of the Education Corps (18.5 per cent) is explained by the fact already referred to that the Education Corps was not organized to provide full first-level schooling for children in rural areas. The school year in the Education Corps schools has only been the same as the school year in the ordinary first-level schools for the past twelve months. On the other hand, it seems more significant to confine ourselves to the performance rate calculated on the first two years of first-level schooling. The performance on a two-year basis is 54.5 per cent in the Education Corps establishment, a much lower rate than in the ordinary schools (78.4 per cent) but relatively satisfactory in the light of the initial working conditions of the Education Corps establishments, since it must be remembered that the study relates only to the first generation of Education Corps pupils.

Before closing this section a word should be said on the precautions to be taken in interpreting the assessment of performance.

1. Disregarding the flow of enrolled pupils between the two systems, i.e. without reference to the pupils' origin.

The contribution of the Education Corps

In general, performance rates calculated on the flow of pupils are only a very imperfect indicator of the efficiency of the school system under review. Studies made in different countries have in fact shown that the movements of pupils are more closely related to factors external to the school system than to the quality of teaching; drop-out seems to be related to social and economic origin, and promotion to legislation, habit and the size of classes! Thus, in certain countries, there is automatic promotion while in others overcrowded classes lead teachers to be less severe in examinations; in the majority of countries anyway, higher executive's children overcome more easily the difficulties of examinations.

With specific reference to the Education Corps, an assessment of the performance of the *sipahi* purely by promotion rates disregards the many social welfare activities for which they are responsible; in particular, in 1969/70, the *sipahi* were responsible for the literacy of 72,530 adults (an activity which is not part of the responsibilities of their colleagues in the ordinary system). Furthermore, it is not evident that the average pupil, for example, in the third year of the Education Corps, is equivalent to his counterpart in the ordinary system.

To sum up, the figures given above should be interpreted with the utmost caution. They are only very rough indications of the relative performance of the establishments of the two school systems. They should in no case be taken as an index of the assessment of the activities of the Education Corps.

II Expenditure and unit costs

In analysing expenditure and costs, a distinction must be drawn between three systems of first-level education in Iran:

- (a) Ordinary public schooling, representing 83 per cent of total enrolments, with 2,685,783 pupils in 1969/70;
- (b) Public schooling by the Education Corps, representing 10 per cent of enrolments, with 321,239 pupils;
- (c) Private schooling, representing 7 per cent of first-level enrolments, with 230,491 pupils.

The cost of first-level education in 1969/70

The financing methods and costs of each system obviously differ. While the cost of public first-level schooling can be periodically, though imperfectly, checked, especially from the budget documents of the Ministry of education, any *reliable* estimate of costs in private schooling, Education Corps establishments and public schools would necessitate surveys in those fields. Even then, time series for the assessment of cost trends are hardly likely to be available. Furthermore, we have no information on the costs of the three systems for the same year; the survey of the cost of private schooling¹ dates from 1965 and 1966, that of public schooling from 1968 and the survey made for the purposes of the present study from 1970. We have therefore had to be satisfied with an approximation; the recurrent unit costs calculated during a given year have been arbitrarily readjusted to allow for price increases since the date of the survey; capital costs have been estimated on the basis of annual cost per place rented or constructed. The results are shown in tables 6 and 7.

It should be noted that the data in tables 6 and 7 are not strictly comparable. Whereas table 6 gives estimates of *actual expenditure* during the school year 1969/70 (a budget concept), table 7 gives particulars of the cost of utilizing the whole of the first-level schools, whether or not they belong to educational bodies

1. Conducted by the Bureau of statistics of the Ministry of education.

TABLE 6. Recurrent costs of first-level schooling in 1970 (millions of rials)¹

System	Salaries	Other recurrent costs	Total	Percentage
Ordinary public schooling	7 090	1 550	8 640	85.5
Education Corps	380	160	540	5.2
Private schooling	730	210	940	9.3
TOTAL	8 200	1 920	10 120	100.0

1. 75 rials = US \$1, 1970-71.

TABLE 7. Capital costs of private schooling in 1970 (millions of rials)

System	Capital costs ⁴	Number of schools	Number of classes
Ordinary public schooling	763	14 394 ¹	62 121 ¹
Education Corps	56	8 147 ²	10 050 ²
Private schooling	176	823 ³	5 559 ³
TOTAL	995	—	—

1. 1968.

2. 1970.

3. 1966.

4. Adjusted for 1970.

(an economic concept). In other words, the figure of 995 million rials does not correspond to the capital investment budget of first-level education, whereas the figure of 10,120 million rials is an estimate of expenditure during the current year, whatever the origin of the funds.

The share of public schooling is obviously predominant in total recurrent expenditure, namely 85 per cent, but what is striking is that costs in private schooling are 80 per cent higher than those in Education Corps establishments, whereas private enrolments are 30 per cent less than Education Corps enrolments. We shall see below that this state of affairs results from differences in unit costs.

Salary costs represent a very large proportion of recurrent costs whatever the system of education considered. This is common to all countries. Thus nearly 8,200 million rials were spent on salaries out of a current budget of about 10,120 million. It is therefore quite evident that, in so far as the state generally bears the salary costs not only in public schooling but also in private schooling, the state contribution to the financing of first-level schooling will be very substantial, whatever the education system, as we shall show in the next section.

As a first approximation, current expenditure may be equated with recurrent costs.¹ This being so, it is interesting to note from a comparison of the figures in tables 6 and 7 that capital costs represent a proportion of total costs which varies according to the system of education. In ordinary public schooling, capital costs represent only 8.1 per cent of total costs, and in Education Corps establishments 9 per cent, whereas in private establishments the proportion is of the order of 16 per cent. The fact nevertheless remains that, on the whole, capital costs represent a very modest fraction of the cost of education.

On analysing the figures in table 7, it is quite clear that there seems to be no correlation between the items in the different columns, or in other words, the amount of capital costs does not seem to depend closely either on the number of establishments or on the number of classes. In fact, this paradox is apparent only; the schools considered are not of the same nature in the different systems, and unit capital costs seem to vary very widely as between public, private and Education Corps establishments.

Unit costs per pupil and per place

Table 8 shows unit costs in the different systems of education. The first comment which emerges is the extremely wide variation of unit costs in the different systems considered (see the last three rows). Private schooling costs are the highest and the Education Corps costs are the lowest. The ratio between recurrent unit costs for the three systems taking the Education Corps as unity is 2.0 for public schooling and 2.5 for private schooling. A comparison of cost per place yields ratios of the same order of magnitude, but with even greater differences between the public system as a whole and the private system. It seems undeniable that private school pupils benefit from more costly, if not higher quality, establishments.

A decisive factor in the variation of costs seems to be the location of establishments. In practice, while the majority of private establishments are in urban areas and the majority of Education Corps establishments in rural areas, 43 per cent of ordinary public enrolments are in rural areas and 57 per cent in urban areas. If the costs for each region are compared separately, it is easy to see that,

TABLE 8. Unit costs in first-level schooling, 1969/70 (in rials)

System	Recurrent unit costs	Cost per place
Ordinary public, urban	3 515	358
Ordinary public, rural	2 790	184
Total ordinary public	3 215	284
Urban private schooling	4 100	764
Education Corps, rural	1 620	175

1. The loss of earnings of first-level pupils is deemed to be negligible.

to some extent, the differences between costs become narrower; thus, in urban areas, the unit cost per pupil enrolled appears to be 3,515 rials in a public establishment and 4,100 rials in a private establishment (17 per cent more); similarly, in rural areas, the unit capital cost is equivalent (plus 5 per cent) in an ordinary public establishment and in an Education Corps establishment.

Some major differences nevertheless still remain; thus, in rural areas, according to whether he attends an Education Corps establishment or an ordinary public establishment recurrent costs per pupil are 1,620 rials or 2,790 rials (or 72 per cent more); furthermore, the cost per place is higher (+ 113 per cent) in private schooling than in public schooling, even if one looks only at establishments in the urban areas.

We are therefore bound to recognize that other major factors must be sought to explain the differences in unit cost; in the matter of recurrent costs one naturally thinks of salaries and the pupil/teacher ratio, and in the matter of capital costs of the arrangements for the acquisition and use of premises.

Salaries and pupil/teacher ratio

The combined effect of these two factors must be analysed in order to explain the differences in unit costs.

In practice, in urban areas the pupil/teacher ratio is much lower in the private schools (23.4:1) than in the public schools (31.6:1), which helps to increase the costs by 35 per cent. On the other hand, the average salary per teacher is much lower in private schools than in public schools; teachers paid by the Ministry of education receive around 7,000 rials, whether they are assigned to public or private schools, but teachers recruited direct by private schools are paid only 4,000 to 4,500 rials. To sum up, the two variables, average salary and pupil/teacher ratio have effects which partially offset each other; the net result is a unit cost per pupil in private schooling of 4,100 rials compared with 3,515 rials, or 13 per cent less, in public schools.

In rural areas the average salary cost per pupil in Education Corps schools amounts to barely 1,200 rials, whereas it is in the neighbourhood of 2,110 rials (or 76 per cent more) in the ordinary public schools.

The Education Corps naturally has much lower salary costs than the ordinary system; this is one of the reasons for the existence of the Education Corps, since it enables the period of military service to be used to post *sipahi* to the rural areas on payment of a fixed allowance which is obviously less than the ordinary teacher's pay. On the current scales, 85 per cent of *sipahi* are paid 3,000 rials, 10 per cent are paid 3,750 rials and 5 per cent 4,500 rials, whereas in 1970 the average monthly salary of a country schoolmaster was between 6,000 and 6,500 rials.

But in so far as the pupil/teacher ratio is higher in ordinary rural schooling (38:1) than in Education Corps establishments (33:1)¹ the difference in unit

1. This is quite natural owing to the low population density in the areas served by the Education Corps.

costs between the two systems tends to diminish, since it is only 72 per cent, although average salaries are twice as high.

School premises

Any comparison of the cost of school premises comes up against a certain number of difficulties: type of building; arrangements for use; occupancy rate; region; nature of equipment; etc. The analysis of the capital cost of first-level education is obviously not free from these difficulties. In practice, methodological problems are complicated by statistical problems; no exhaustive inventory of scholastic capital assets is available, and there is no central file which can be consulted on the state of premises and their probable useful life; in addition, the great number and diversity of free gifts in the form of land, labour, material or equipment adds to the complications of estimating. We have had to draw upon the results of a number of surveys made by the Bureau of statistics of the Ministry of education in order to compile the data. In view of the lack of precision in the estimates, we have not troubled to apply cash flow discount rates to the calculations of depreciation; in other words, the only adjustments have been those relating to the useful life of equipment, the calculation of the rental value of premises belonging to the state and private institutions and the variation of prices. In consequence, the figures given for capital costs in tables 7 and 8 should be interpreted with extreme caution. We have, of course, tried to make them as homogeneous as possible, but they can be regarded only as orders of magnitude.

In this perspective, the difference in unit capital costs between private and public schools in urban areas is still very significant. The main reason — and here we are in the realm of hypothesis — is no doubt connected with the quality of premises and equipment; the unit cost of equipment is ninety-six rials in private schools, compared with seventy-five rials in public schools; the average size of class is forty in public schools compared with only twenty-nine in private schools. In addition, a very large proportion of private schools are rented (71 per cent of the cost of fixed assets); in the public schools only 45 per cent of pupils attend rented premises. In general, rents are higher than the cost of amortization.

Some statistical tables on school premises in Iran are given in appendix D, table 16.

Recurrent unit costs per certificate holder

The fact that the cost per enrolled pupil in Education Corps establishments is lower than in the ordinary system does not automatically mean that, from the economic point of view alone Education Corps establishments are preferable to the ordinary rural schools; the performance of the two systems must still be equivalent. We have seen that this is not the case. We must therefore reason in terms of 'end-product'. In the section on comparative performance above,

we have shown how difficult it is to compare the 'output' of Education Corps schools and ordinary schools after the second grade. We therefore stop at this level in comparing unit costs.

Table 9 shows the result of applying the recurrent costs per enrolled pupil to the performance rate in public schooling and the Education Corps.

TABLE 9. Recurrent costs in the first two years of ordinary and Education Corps schooling

	Ordinary public school (rials)	Education Corps (rials)
Cost per pupil completing first year	3 220	2 500
Cost per pupil completing second year	6 640	4 720

Thus, whereas the costs per pupil enrolled in the ordinary system were 72 per cent above the cost per pupil in the Education Corps (1,620 rials compared with 2,790 rials) the costs per pupil completing the first or second year are only about 40 per cent higher in one system than the other.¹ The Education Corps, therefore, has led to less saving in costs than might have been expected from an analysis limited to the cost per pupil enrolled. In this connexion, it would be extremely profitable to lessen the drop-out rate in Education Corps schools; for example, a more regular replacement of *sipahi*, at any rate in the large villages, would ensure greater continuity of schooling, and would help to increase the retention rates.

Be that as it may, the 40 per cent saving of cost permitted by the Education Corps is significant and must be taken into account in analysing the methods and sources of financing for the different first-level education systems in Iran. That is the subject of the following section.

1. 17 per cent and 23 per cent according to the table.

III Financing first-level schooling in Iran

This section starts by describing the arrangements for financing the different systems of first-level education in Iran, and then goes on to estimate the flow from the various sources.

Financing arrangements

First-level education in Iran is financed under very different arrangements according to the school system concerned and the location of the schools. In addition to the state (particularly the Ministry of education, the Planning organization and the Ministry of defence) others concerned include the school districts, the local authorities, enterprises and private individuals. It is obviously impossible to trace all the financial flows: some of them are of minor importance and it will be enough to consider the major flows in order to form a relatively precise estimate of the contributions of the different parties.

In public schooling the state (mainly the Ministry of education and the Planning organization) is virtually the sole source of finance. The state pays teachers' salaries and those of other personnel either directly or through the school districts. It also contributes to maintenance costs and the purchase of school supplies, and pays for equipment and most other capital expenditure.¹ Private individuals contribute to public education by the temporary or outright gift of land² or buildings³ and by financial contributions towards the acquisition of sites, building, equipment and even the salaries of personnel. By way of indication, out of nearly 2.4 million children in public first-level schools, nearly 550,000 attend school premises provided by private gifts. A distinction must obviously be drawn between

1. It should be noted that there are two main budgets, the operational budget and the development budget. The latter includes not only capital expenditure but also recurrent costs connected with the school plan.
2. In 1967-68, fifteen temporary sites and 271 permanent sites, with a total area of 823,949 m² had been given to public first-level education.
3. In 1967-68, thirty-three buildings had been temporarily given to the state, and 281 permanently, with a total of 1,332 rooms.

urban schools and rural schools; the private contribution is much greater in relative value in rural areas. Furthermore, under an act of 1955, municipalities must allocate not less than 5 per cent of their revenue to the construction and maintenance of school buildings, under the supervision of a special Commission; the proportion was reduced to 3 per cent by another act of 1966.

The state contribution to private schooling is very substantial and takes various forms. In the first place, the state seconded qualified teachers to private schools and continues to pay their salaries; the private schools continue to pay the teachers whom they recruit direct and the hourly tuition fees. To give some idea of the order of magnitude, 5,792 public school teachers were seconded to private schools in 1968/69. The state also makes other grants to private schools. Their other resources come from the school fees paid by the pupils, varying from 4,000 to 10,000 rials a year, according to the type of school. In some schools which provide a midday meal for the pupils, the fees are as much as 30,000 rials.

Through the Education Corps, the Ministry of defence also contributes to the cost of education. Recurrent costs (pay, running costs, administrative and inspection costs) are borne on the budget of the directorate of the Education Corps; in addition, each *sipahi* has an allowance of 500 rials as a government contribution to the upkeep of the village house used as a school. The Royal Social Service Organization, a semi-public charity, pays up to 30 per cent of the cost of school books. Some private organizations contribute by distributing food in the Education Corps schools. Finally, and this is the outstanding original feature of the Education Corps experiment, local authorities and private individuals were to make a massive contribution to the building of schools. Thus, to give some idea of the order of magnitude, a survey of sixteen education districts shows that in 1968, out of forty-nine schools built, forty-seven came from the contributions of local authorities or private individuals, and only two were provided by the state. In 1967, three schools were built by the state, compared with fifty-one by local authorities or private individuals.

From this point of view it is interesting to note the breakdown of new building by categories over these two years (table 10).

TABLE 10. Distribution of capital investment by type of building for 1967 and 1968

Type of building	Average life (years)	1967 (percentage)	1968 (percentage)
Metal frame with brickwork or of concrete blocks	about 20	7.9	35.7
Wooden frame with brickwork	about 12	6.2	10.8
Brick-faced cobwork	about 10	29.7	24.4
Cobwork	1 ¹	56.2	22.0
Unspecified local materials	0-5	—	7.1

1. Economic life assumed nil.

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It may be noted that, on the whole there has been a certain improvement in the quality of buildings as between the two years; more than 56 per cent of the premises were in cobwork in 1967, compared with about 22 per cent in 1968. This change no doubt reflects the determination to erect 'permanent' buildings and results partly from increased state contributions. In this connexion, financing methods are likely to change in future; the country's overall development plan in fact provides for school building in rural areas, but draws no distinction between Education Corps schools and ordinary first-level schools: the Fourth Five-year Plan (1968-73) further provides that 20 per cent of building costs shall be borne by local authorities.

To sum up, figure 1 shows the main flows of finance for first-level education in Iran, merely distinguishing three categories of expenditure and four sources of finance.

The flow of contributions in 1970

A theoretical distinction must be drawn between the budget concept and the economic concept. The budget concept relates to expenditure actually incurred in money or money's worth during 1970. Under the economic concept, this actual expenditure must be increased by the opportunity costs borne by the different parties, but which do not give rise to actual expenditure in 1970. To simplify the situation we have indicated the real contributions as far as current expenditure is concerned and estimated the imputed costs with regard to investment expenditure.

Recurrent expenditure by source of finance

Table 11 shows the breakdown of educational expenditure among the different sources of finance for the three systems under review.

It clearly appears, if one looks solely at recurrent expenditure (excluding capital expenditure) that the state and the local authorities constitute far and away the largest source of educational finance, whatever the system considered.

TABLE 11. Financing of recurrent expenditure (millions of rials)

	Public schools	Private schools	Education Corps	Total
State and local authorities	8 600	590	540	9 730
Private individuals	40	350	—	390
TOTAL	8 640	940	540	10 120

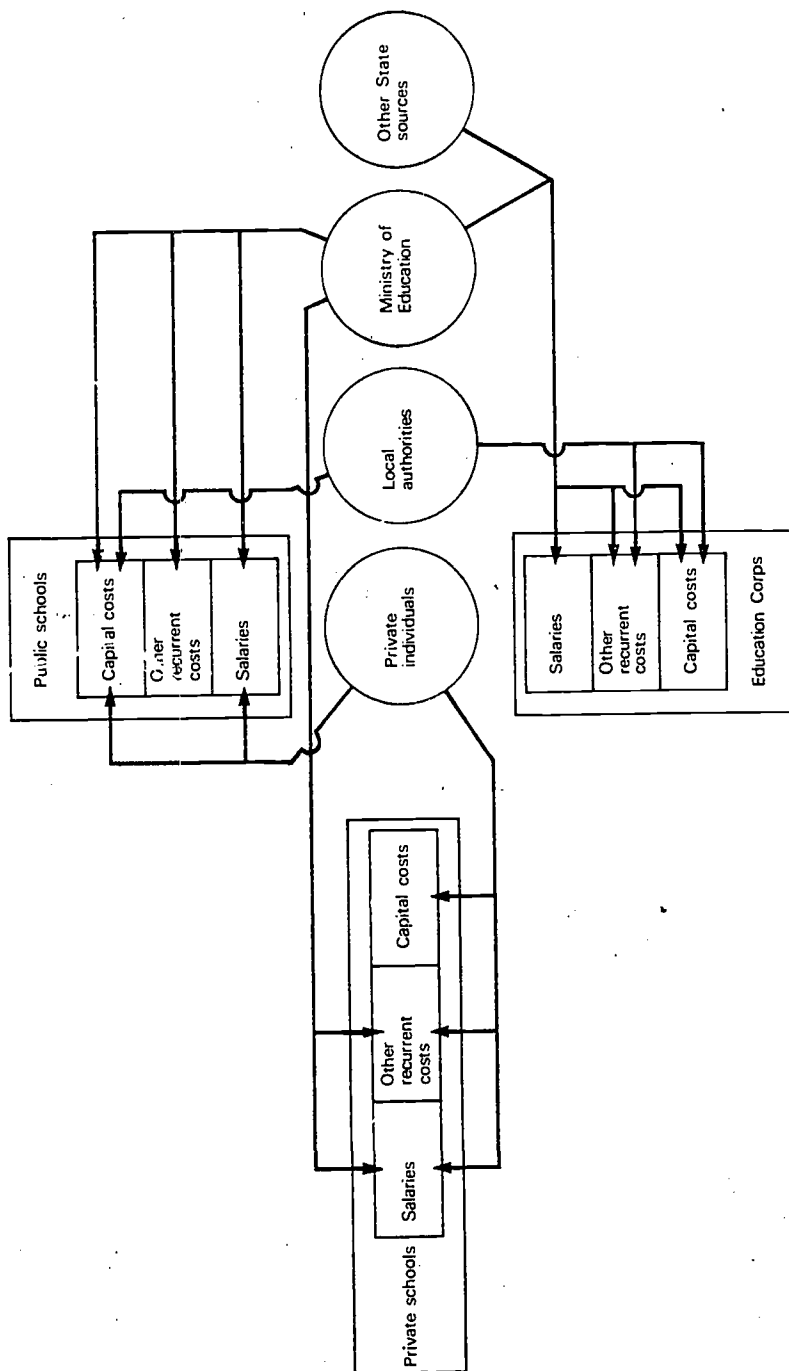


FIGURE 1. The flow of finance for first-level education in Iran

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Furthermore, the system which seems to make the largest call on extra-budgetary contributions¹ is the private system, with 37.4 per cent compared with barely 0.5 per cent for public schooling and a negligible amount for the Education Corps.

Capital costs by source of finance

As table 12 clearly shows, the public contribution is very substantial in the ordinary public schools (about 82.5 per cent); it takes second place to private contributions not only in the private schools but also in the Education Corps schools. In this connexion, it should be recalled that the state will increasingly bear a significant proportion of the cost of new building both under the ordinary system and for the Education Corps.

TABLE 12. Capital costs by sources of finance in 1970 (millions of rials)

	Public schools	Private schools	Education Corps	Total
State and local authorities	629	—	3	632
Private individuals	134	176 ¹	53 ²	363
TOTAL	763	176	56	995

1. By way of indication, the private sector spent 106,513,000 rials on capital costs in 1965/66, of which 13,343,000 rials on equipment, 59,060,000 rials on the rent of establishments and 34,110,000 on the amortization of buildings belonging to the private sector.

2. Most of this contribution comes through the local authorities but in the form of 'gifts for specific purposes'.

Total cost by source of finance

It is possible to summarize the contributions by source of finance in the different education systems as shown in table 13.

TABLE 13. Financing the cost of first-level education in Iran in 1970 (millions of rials)

	Public schools	Private schools	Education Corps	Total
State and local authorities	9 229	590	523	10 342
Private individuals	174	526	53	753
TOTAL	9 403	1 116	576	11 095

1. In the widest sense, including the budgets of the state and of local authorities.

In 1970 the cost of first-level education amounts to about 11.5 billion rials. Out of this total, the state and the local authorities have financed, in one form or another, 10.4 billion, or nearly 94 per cent of the total cost. These aggregate figures, however, mask very different situations in the different education systems. In practice, whereas in ordinary public schooling the private contribution barely reaches 2 per cent of the cost; in the private establishments it reaches 47 per cent; while in the Education Corps establishments it amounts to about 9 per cent of the total cost.

In reality, this comparison tends to over-estimate the importance of the private schools, in so far as it does not allow for the difference in unit costs between private and public schools. By way of indication, if the 230,491 private school pupils were all enrolled in urban public schools, their total cost would not have exceeded 892 million rials. Out of this amount the state contributes 590 million rials; the net contribution of private individuals represents, in terms of 'production costs', 302 million only. In consequence, the real contribution of private individuals to financing represents no more than 33.6 per cent of costs.

In addition, the comparison does not take into account the savings on costs made by the state thanks to the Education Corps schools. Had it included these establishments in the ordinary rural school category, the state would have had to support an additional cost of 370 million rials.¹ This is a very significant amount saved, in reality, at the expense of the *sipahi* and thus of the 'families' or 'couples' — to quote the terms used by the national accountants.

What conclusions can be drawn from these results? That is the subject of the last section of the present report.

1. This would be the product of the Education Corps schools arrived at from the difference in unit cost between ordinary rural schools and Education Corps schools.

Conclusions

The three systems of first-level schooling which co-exist in Iran each seem to meet special needs.

Ordinary public schooling, as indeed it does in all countries, meets the imperative need to provide first-level schooling for all children, wherever they live, and whatever their social and economic background and social status. The Education Corps was created with a view to meeting the educational needs of the poorest populations scattered in the country's least accessible regions. Private schools cater for town children, often better-off, and whose parents have the means to pay the sometimes high school fees. The proportion of pupils in rural areas to total enrolments is virtually zero for private schools, nearly 100 per cent for the Education Corps and 43 per cent for the ordinary public schools.

The appreciable differences found between unit costs in each of the three systems partly reflects differences in the 'quality' of the services rendered, measured in particular by the nature of school premises and equipment, the pupil/teacher ratio and the conditions of teachers' pay.

It is interesting to note in this connexion that, as a general rule, the differences depend more on the location of schools in urban or rural areas than on the type of school concerned (Education Corps, ordinary public or private). Subject to this reservation, the costs are highest in private schools and lowest in the Education Corps.

Out of a total cost of 11,095 million rials in 1970, it is obviously the state which bears by far greatest part. The analysis by system of education has shown that the private contribution, small in the aggregate, fairly substantial, as might be expected, in private schooling, is nevertheless far from negligible in the Education Corps and is even preponderant, particularly for certain capital costs.

The transference of pupils from one system to another does not allow a complete comparative study of the educational performance of each of the three systems. In the rural areas, where private schooling is practically non-existent, a comparison within the public system between ordinary schools and Education Corps schools shows that the performance of the latter is inferior to that of ordinary rural first-level schools.

With more special reference to the Education Corps, we know that it was

created in response to the imperative need to economize on costs, to tap new resources for first-level schooling in Iran and to recruit teachers for the less favoured rural areas in order to dispel the scourge of ignorance by effectively extending schooling to those regions. Inasmuch as 300,000 to 350,000 children and many tens of thousands of adults are now benefiting from the activities of the Education Corps, and inasmuch as the responsibilities of the Education Corps schools have been extended beyond the second year of first-level schooling up to the sixth year, it seems obvious that the organization of the Education Corps has been able to achieve its first aims. It has been possible to achieve these results without an exaggerated burden on the national education budget by increasing the direct or indirect participation of families and by economizing on costs in spite of the relatively poor performance. It should also be noted that since the creation of the Education Corps, 23,000 former *sipahi* have been recruited as schoolmasters in rural areas. On the other hand, certain difficulties seem to increase with the development of the Education Corps. Thus, the lag in the enrolment of girls in the rural areas made it necessary to create the Women's Social Service. The posting of young girls to poor and isolated districts, where living conditions are particularly hard, nevertheless seems to raise a certain number of problems, such as the remoteness of the girls from their family homes. In other respects, it may be thought that the growing needs of the Education Corps schools for permanent buildings and equipment can be met less and less by the participation of local authorities and families, and that if it is desired not only to speed up the development of rural schooling beyond its present threshold, but also to improve the quality of education, the tendency will be to increase the participation of the state.

To sum up, the experience of Iran seems to have demonstrated that the Education Corps, subject to its socio-political implications,

1. can be introduced in any country, provided that it has a law on military service or other forms of compulsory civilian service, by means of which a sufficient pool of teaching staff can be recruited;
2. stimulates, as a transitional measure, the development of schooling in rural areas by allowing appreciable economies of cost and facilitating the recruitment of teaching staff;
3. does not lead to a permanent and unlimited increase in the financial participation of families and local authorities;
4. to some extent encounters the same sociological obstacles to the development of schooling as the ordinary system.

In view of the limits set to this study, however, we have been unable to assess everything which the Education Corps can or cannot do. This was confirmed by our talks with the central officials and with the *sipahi* and the young girls of the Women's Social Service serving in the Education Corps schools. In this connexion, a number of studies might be envisaged on the different aspects of this experiment. We would cite only two, by way of example:

1. One would be a comparative study of the educational aspects of the Education Corps and the ordinary rural school (teacher training and qualifications,

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teaching methods, educational resources), bringing out the effective results of the teaching given from the point of view of adaptation to the conditions of a social and economic environment in the process of modernization;

2. The other might deal with an assessment of the social aspects of this experiment; the social activities of the *sipahi* and their degree of integration in the life of rural areas.

In conclusion, it seems to us that in countries with a low enrolment ratio and a large rural population scattered in small units, which have difficulties in financing educational development and in finding schoolteachers, an experiment modelled on the spirit, structure and working methods of the Iran Education Corps would probably open up encouraging prospects, and is therefore worth trying.

Appendixes

Appendixes

APPENDIX A

Statistical sources

The present report consolidates a number of surveys made by the Bureau of statistics of the Ministry of education in Iran which have appeared in the series of booklets published by the ministry. The following may be cited in particular: Study No. 3 of 1968 on the cost of private schooling; Study No. 17 of 1965 on Ministry of education aid to private schooling; Study No. 3 of 1969 on school wastage between 1962/63 and 1966/67; Booklet No. 6 of 1969 on private aid to public education and Booklet No. 2 of 1970 on costs in public education.

In addition, in connexion with the present study and at the request of the International Institute for Educational Planning, a specific inquiry was made among Education Corps establishments. The questionnaires for this inquiry are reproduced in appendix C. The main results are assembled in appendixes C and D. Appendix B contains statistical tables on public and private education, extracted from the ministry studies, and used as background material for the present report.

Adjustment of costs and performance

It will be easily seen that the statistics relate to different years and that a series of adjustments have had to be made to relate the data to the year 1970.

Arbitrary estimates have also had to be made for certain information which was not available.

Thus, the proportion of salary costs in recurrent costs has been deemed to be constant from 1966 to 1970 for private schooling and from 1968 to 1970 for public schooling.

The breakdown of performance and costs between urban and rural areas has been made by weighting enrolments 10/24 and 14/24. In this way it has been possible to calculate promotion rates by the use of coefficients proportionate to the cohorts of ordinary schools and Education Corps schools.

The analysis by source of finance has been based on the data provided by the ministry surveys, extrapolated to the year 1970. For Education Corps capital costs, reference has been made to the tables of school building drawn up by the sponsoring authorities in order to estimate the state share notionally at 6 per cent of the total. For the capital costs of the other systems, estimates are based on unit costs by source of finance.

Unit costs have been adjusted at the rate of 2 per cent per annum for recurrent costs and 3 per cent per annum for capital costs.

APPENDIX B

Statistical tables on ordinary public schooling
and private schooling

TABLE 1. General information — public first-level schools, 1967/68

Area	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of pupils	Teaching staff	Pupil/teacher ratio	Number of pupils per class
Urban and rural ¹	14 394	62 121	2 378 300	71 411	33:1	38
Rural	11 290	27 988	1 029 786	28 451	36:1	37

1. Available data do not permit a broader distinction between urban and rural schools.
SOURCE Booklet No. 2 of the Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education, 1970.

TABLE 2. Recurrent and capital expenditure in public first-level schools 1967/68 (millions of rials)

Nature of expenditure	Urban and rural areas	Rural areas
School staff salaries	5 734.0	2 089.2
Domestic staff salaries	302.7	82.3
Administration	950.7	429.2
Running expenditure	167.4	75.4
School books	186.5	80.7
Total recurrent expenditure	7 341.3	2 756.8
Equipment	166.5	72.1
Rent of premises	148.5	11.3
Rental value of premises other than rented premises	296.6	81.0
Capital expenditure on administration	25.4	12.0
Total capital expenditure	637.0	176.4
Total expenditure	7 978.3	2 933.2

NOTES

In Booklet No. 2, rent is classified as a recurrent expenditure under the country's budget system.
In the original tables in Booklet No. 2, the expenditure is in rials; the above table is in million rials.

SOURCE Booklet No. 2, op. cit.

TABLE 3. Private gifts and aid to public education, 1967/68 (values in thousands of rials)

	Land only			Land and buildings			Other financial participations (in thousands of rials)						
	Number of sites	Total Estimated area. (m ²)	Number of buildings	Area of school buildings site. (m ²)	Area of buildings (m ²)	Number of rooms	Estimated value	Land	Buildings	Equip-ment	Salaries	Misc.	Total
<i>Urban and rural</i>													
Temporary	15	17 100	2 097	33	14 166	6 017	132	10 065					
Permanent	271	806 849	67 593	281	255 698	68 222	1 198	50 802	1 064	13 863	5 365	9 558	3 415
<i>Rural</i>													
Temporary	8	5 400	137	31	10 551	3 387	109	2 855					
Permanent	189	525 802	14 189	263	213 775	58 017	999	27 793	1 064	7 103	3 239	7 613	2 554
													163 822.

SOURCE: Booklet No. 6 of the Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education, 1969.

TABLE 4. Unit cost per pupil in public first-level schools, 1967/68 (rials)

	Urban and rural areas	Rural areas
Average monthly salary of teachers	6 688	6 070
Cost per pupil of salary	2 411	2 029
Unit cost in recurrent expenditure	3 087	2 678
Unit cost in capital expenditure	267	170
Unit cost per pupil in capital and recurrent expenditure	3 354	2 848

SOURCE Booklet No. 2, op. cit.

TABLE 5. Breakdown of pupils in public first-level schools by nature of occupancy of school premises, 1967/68

Areas	State	Usufruct	Gift	Lease	Miscellaneous	Total number of pupils
<i>Urban and rural</i>						
Number	1 037 054	38 673	549 850	742 813	8 880	2 377 270
Percentage	43.7	1.6	23.1	31.2	0.4	100
<i>Rural</i>						
Number	422 705	22 374	451 080	136 654	2 884	1 035 697
Percentage	40.8	2.2	43.5	13.2	0.3	100

NOTE The difference between the number of pupils shown in table 1 and table 5 arises out of the fact that table 1 was drawn up from school district reports and table 5 from questionnaires filled in by the schools.

SOURCE Detailed statistics of primary education, school year 1968/69, Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education, unpublished document.

TABLE 6. General information; private first-level schools, 1965/66

Area	Number of schools	Number of classes	Number of pupils	Number of hourly tuition fees ¹	Salaries in tuition fees ² (thousands of rials)
Whole country	823	5 559	157 221	84 441	9 336.7

1. Hourly tuition fees (per week) paid by private schools.

2. Only the hourly fees are paid by the schools. The other teachers' salaries are paid by the government.

SOURCE Study No. 3, Estimate of the cost of private primary education, Teheran, Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education, 1968.

Appendixes

TABLE 7. Estimate of recurrent expenditure by the private sector for private first-level education, 1965/66 (thousands of rials)

	Recurrent expenditure (thousands of rials)
Maintenance	24 895
Running expenses, heating, etc.	34 411
Salaries of administrative and domestic staff	49 539
Estimate No. 1 of teachers' pay ¹	84 026
Estimate No. 2 of teachers' pay ¹	112 037
Total recurrent expenditure (estimate No. 1)	192 871
Total recurrent expenditure (estimate No. 2)	220 882

1. The first is an estimate of pay for nine months per school year, the second assumes twelve months' pay.
SOURCE Study No. 3, op. cit.

TABLE 8. Estimate of capital expenditure by the private sector for private first-level schools, 1965/66 (thousands of rials)

Annual amortization of premises other than leased premises	Rent of leased premises	Equipment	Total capital expenditure
34 110	59 060	13 343	106 513

SOURCE Study No. 3, op. cit.

TABLE 9. Contribution of private sector to unit cost per pupil in private first-level education, 1965/66 (rials)

Unit cost per pupil (estimate No. 1)	Unit cost per pupil (estimate No. 2)	Capital cost per pupil
1 964	2 082	678

SOURCE Study No. 3, op. cit.

TABLE 10. Contribution of Ministry of education to cost of private first-level education, 1964-65 (for whole country and in thousands of rials)

Staff of private schools paid by Ministry of Education						
Number of teachers seconded to private schools	Estimated salaries	Miscellaneous allowances	Ministry of education aid by direct payment (cash)	Total Ministry of education contribution to expenditure	Number of pupils	Ministry of education aid per pupil
3 539	332 591	4 825	21 944	359 360	145 626	2 467

SOURCE Study No. 17, *Ministry of education aid to private education*, Teheran, Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education, 1965.

TABLE 11. Revenue of municipalities allocated to education (thousands of rials)

Serial number of sources	Year	Share of education	Percentage received
1	School year 1966/67	172 342	95.0
2	1967	134 816	96.5
3	1968	135 955	99.0

SOURCE 1. Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Education, unpublished documents.
2. Study No. 67, Bureau of planning and evaluation, Ministry of education, 1969.
3. Bureau of planning and evaluation, Ministry of education, unpublished documents.

TABLE 12. Breakdown of financing of first-level education between the state and the private sector (annual unit cost per pupil)

Analysis of annual unit cost per pupil	Urban and rural			Rural		
	Cost (in rials)	State (percentage)	Private sector (percentage)	Cost (in rials)	State (percentage)	Private sector (percentage)
Public (1967/68) Running cost	3 087	100	—	2 678	100	—
Teachers	2 411	100	—	2 029		
Miscellaneous costs (heating, admin., etc.)	676	100	—			
Capital costs	267			170		
Renting costs	187	75	25	90	54	46
Sundries	80	—	—	80	100	—
Private (1965/66) Running costs	3 782	65	35
Capital costs	678	—	100

APPENDIX C

Survey of costs and financing methods of Education Corps schools

In order to evaluate the cost and financing of the 8,147 Education Corps schools in rural areas, a sample survey was made on the basis of a sample of ninety-one schools, or approximately 1 per cent.

The sample was drawn by systematic random sampling, stratified by region and by district. The sampling universe covered all provinces which had Education Corps schools. The following provinces were excluded, since they have no Education Corps schools, as a result of their special climatic and geographical situation and the very scattered populations: Sistan-Baluchistan, Khuzistan, Bander and Dgazayer Bahr Oman, Bander and Dgazayer Khalidg Fars.

The ninety-one schools of the sample come under the administrative authority of sixteen education districts, the centres of *shahrestans* chosen at random.

The survey is based on information from questionnaires specially prepared for the survey and filled in by those in charge of the establishments and by the statistical services of the education districts.

Costs have been calculated by combining the information given by the central offices and by the questionnaires on the sample establishments. In this connexion it should be noted that the estimates give indications which were valid at the time of the survey. The extrapolation of the estimates to the whole of the year 1970 implies, in all strictness, that the number of *sipahi* employed does not vary in the course of the year. This is quite obviously not the case since recruitment takes place twice a year, in November and April. Differences must therefore be expected between the estimates arrived at in connexion with this survey and the budget estimates of the Ministry of Education.

The unit cost per pupil is made up of the capital cost plus the operating cost.

1. The cost of premises and equipment represents the capital cost.
 - (a) In estimating the cost of equipment, the criteria of the Bureau of the budget of the Ministry of education have been used, as applied to ordinary schools, but reduced by 20 per cent to allow for the fact that the Education Corps schools are more modest buildings. The useful life of equipment is set at five years, or an average of 20 per cent per annum.
 - (b) For the purpose of estimating the cost of school premises and the mode of financing, a special survey was made, the results of which are set out in annotated tables.
2. Running costs (recurrent costs in Iran).
 - (a) Teacher costs; the teacher costs are made up of salary and rent, or the rental value of the housing, which is in most cases provided by the local authorities. Salary is calculated in accordance with the current regulations; 85 per cent of the *sipahi* (servicemen) are paid 3,000 rials, 10 per cent 3,750 rials and 5 per cent 4,500 rials. The *sipahi* carry out different activities in the rural areas: teaching country children, adult literacy and social welfare activities. The questionnaire made it possible to estimate the percentage of the time of *sipahi* devoted to extra-scholastic activities.
 - (b) A review of the operations of the Bureau of the budget of the Ministry of education and the accounts of the Education Corps Organization shows that 80 rials a month are allowed for the running of Education Corps classes, plus 750 rials a year for heating, representing a total of 1,710 rials a year per class.
 - (c) The cost of school books is calculated on the basis of the cost of a book fixed by the National School Books Organization and the number of copies distributed to

pupils and masters. Thirty per cent of this cost is borne by the Royal Social Services Organization (a semi-public, semi-private charity).

- (d) No scholarships or direct aid to pupils are provided for in the Education Corps budget.

There is probably some aid from certain semi-private organizations for the feeding of children, but no particulars can be given on this subject. In any event, this assistance is of little importance for this survey.

The health protection of the *sipahi* is ensured by an insurance scheme which does not encroach on the budget of the Ministry of education.

- (e) Administrative and inspection costs; this aggregate is made up from two sources; central costs and costs of the school district or *shahrestan*.

(i) Central costs; all central salary costs and allowances have been calculated, together with the administrative costs of the different central services, including the rent of central offices. The allowances of rural school advisers and senior officers of the *sipahi* of the Education Corps in rural schools are included in central expenditure; 5,000 rials for clothing, and 1,000 rials for the transport of *sipahi* to the villages are also included in this aggregate.

(ii) Costs of school districts or *shahrestan*: these costs include the salaries of officials responsible for Education Corps affairs in each district, the salaries of rural school advisers and the rent of administrative premises occupied by the Education Corps services.

All these aggregates represent recurrent expenditure for first-level schooling under the Education Corps system. The results are set out in tables 13 to 15.

Appendixes

Questionnaire No. 1 for Education Corps schools

This questionnaire should be completed according to the situation of the establishment in November 1970.¹

Name of school
Address: Name of village
..... Name of *ostan*
..... Name of capital of *sharestan*

1. Is the school for boys or girls ?
2. Is the school in category A , B or AB ?
(A = single level classes; B = multiple level classes)
3. Number of classes and pupils
 Number of boys
 Number of girls
 Number of boys and girls
 Number of half-time classes
 Number of full-time classes
 Total number of classes
Timetable of half-time classes per day (in hours)
Timetable of full-time classes per day (in hours)
4. Number of adults in literacy classes
 Number of men
 Number of women
 Number of men and women
 Number of classes
5. Number of classrooms or other rooms in the school
6. Where is the *sipahi* lodged ?
 In the school ? Elsewhere.
 If lodged in the school:
 (a) does he pay for his lodging ? Yes. No.
 (b) does the community pay for his lodging ? Yes. No.
 Please give the estimated rental value of the *sipahi*'s lodging in rials
7. Are there other non-*sipahi* teachers in the school ?
 Yes. No.
 If yes, how many pupils are taught by the non-*sipahi* master(s) ?
 If there are non-*sipahi* teachers in the school please state in the remarks column of question 8 whether they are paid by the state or by local authorities.

1. Date of the annual school census taken by the Ministry of education.

8. School teaching staff (*sipahi* and non-*sipahi*)

Serial No	Name	Number of call-up group	Salary	Allowances	Children			Number of classes		Remarks
					Half time	Full time	Number of classes	Weekly turn over	Adults Daily time table	
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Signature of headmaster: Signature of head of *sharestan* education department:

Signature of school educational adviser:

Appendixes

Questionnaire No. 2: Education Department

This Questionnaire should be completed according to the situation in November 1970.¹

Address: Name of *shahrestan* capital
..... Name of *ostan*:

1. Number of administrative staff of the department at the *shahrestan* centre:
 2. Number of administrative staff in Education Corps section:
 3. Number of administrative staff in the field:
 4. Number of rural educational advisers:
 5. Number of schools per adviser:
 6. Department premises: rented others
 7. If premises rented:
 - (a) Rental costs of department centre in rials:
 - (b) Rental costs of Education Corps section premises in the field, in rials:
 8. If premises not rented:
 - (a) Rental value of department centre in rials:
 - (b) Rental value of Education Corps section premises in the field, in rials:
 9. (a) Number of rooms in the *shahrestan* department centre:
 - (b) Number of rooms in section premises in the field:
 10. Number of rooms used for the Education Corps in the department:
 11. If the Education Corps section has the use of vehicles, please indicate model, type and number:
- (The assistance of senior officers should be called upon in answering questions 12 to 14)
12. Explain and list in concrete terms the social welfare activities of *sipahi* in the villages of the survey sample during 1969/70:
Name of village:
Name of village:
Name of village:
 13. How many days in the year have been spent on social welfare duties:

1. The Questionnaire can be checked from the general census.

14. What is the average daily time spent by each *sipahi* on the social and development activities listed above during the period indicated:

15. Numbers of non-teaching staff (personnel of Education Corps section, rural supervisors, domestic staff, at centre and in the field):

Serial No.	Name	Position	Salary Allowances	Remarks ¹

Name and signature of Head of *shahrestan* education department.....

1. Please show in this column the number of pupils in the schools inspected by each educational adviser.

TABLE 13. Information on the 91 sample schools of the Education Corps, coming under sixteen Education Departments in 1969/70

Name of <i>shahrestan</i> (town)	Chacht Roud	Lahid- gan	Astara	Esteh- banat	Kach- mar	Neyriz	Golpa- yegan	Aras- baran	Torbat- Hey- darieb	Ghaz- vine	Tafrach	Hama- dan	Kho- ram- Abad	Chah- savar	Baft	Nagh- deh	Total
<i>Number of pupils</i>																	
Boys and girls	161	271	31	24	79	28	61	282	533	800	109	662	291	239	26	93	3 690
Girls	18	83	16	7	—	10	10	—	26	256	7	20	51	94	2	8	608
<i>Number of classes</i>																	
Full-time (a)	5	5	1	1	3	1	2	9	15	24	3	21	10	5	1	5	111
Half time (b)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	3
Timetable of classes (a) ¹	148	196	28	28	84	28	56	264	420	672	84	404	280	140	28	140	3 000
Timetable of classes (b) ¹	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	96	—	—	—	—	96
Total timetable of classes (a + b) ¹	148	196	28	28	84	28	56	264	420	672	84	500	280	140	28	140	3 096
Percentage of time spent by <i>sipahi</i>	73	80	64	57	88	70	58	70	71	79	75	68	79	61	76	73	73

ADULTS:																								
Number of classes	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	3	3	11	1	14	1	6	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	51
Number of students	10	30	23	40	26	15	57	58	81	192	20	136	—	218	—	23	—	—	—	—	—	—	929	
Men and women	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	61	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	194	
Women	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Timetable of classes ¹	24	5	10	7.5	10	6	24	32	34	106	10	65.5	12	56.5	—	23	—	—	—	—	—	—	425.5	
Percentage of timetable spent on adult education	12	2	23	15	10	15	25	8	6	13	9	9	3	24	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	
Time spent on social welfare activities ¹	30	45	6	13.5	1.5	6	16	81	135	72	18	170	63	35	9	30	731	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Percentage of time spent on social welfare activities	15	18	13	28	2	15	17	22	23	8	16	23	18	15	24	15	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Number of sipahi	5	7	1	1	3	1	2	9	15	24	3	17	10	.5	1	5	109	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Cost of housing in thousands of rials	I	12.6	3.6	2.4	—	5.4	1.2	—	4.3	15.6	37.2	4.8	13.8	18.0	10.2	6.0	14.4	—	—	—	—	—	149.5	
	II	8.4	30.0	—	3.6	10.8	—	5.4	9.0	7.2	27.6	2.0	31.2	—	6.0	—	3.0	—	—	—	—	—	144.2	

1. The work done by sipahi, in hours per day or month etc., is converted into hours per week.
 I: Borne by state.
 II: Borne by local authorities.

TABLE 14. Information derived from survey for the calculation of administrative costs

Name of shahrestans (towns)	Number of rural pupils (ordinary schools)		No. of Education Corps pupils		Education Corps administrative personnel			Monthly rent or of rooms		Monthly rent or rental value		Monthly amortization (in rials)
			Rural	Urban	No. of office staff	No. of school advisers	Monthly salary and allowances (in rials)	No. of rooms	Amount (in rials)	No. of Education Corps rooms ¹	Amount (in rials)	
Arbabat	6 973	5 511	1 351		8	9	215 308	19	15 000	5	800	5 000
Heydarieh	2 589	1 816			10	2	114 337	11	6 500	2	4 000	5 000
Naghdéh	13 939	5 725	17		23	12	516 435	24	24 000	17	22 400	15 000
Khoram-Abad	20 035	15 140	3 393		22	18	441 242	14	1 500	4	11 366	5 000
Ghazvin	5 907	682	32		6	4	104 220	12	3 500	3	3 000	
Baft	850	270			1	1	31 570	11	15 000	1/2		
Estebanat	2 120	558	262		1	1	34 390	17	15 000	1		5 000
Astara	20 353	4 421			15	4	223 452	20	16 500	1	7 200	
Lahidgan	2 855	2 837			1	4	38 500	5	2 500	1/2		5 000
Hachtroud	6 929	1 057			8	2	143 534	10	3 000	1	3 000	
Golpayegan	1 734	391	23		5	1	69 717	14	7 800	1	1 800	
Neyriz	3 613	1 913			3	4	93 074	20	5 000	1		
Kachmar	7 002	3 617			6	7	177 000	10	8 000	1	2 000	5 000
Arasbaran	18 039	2 991	332		16	3	96 020	11	10 500	1	6 000	5 000

	7 439	1 379	—	9	4	190 990	12	6 000	1	9	2 400	—
Tafrach	21 327	13 439	2 889	33	9	147 065	25	30 000	3	18	13 900	10 000
Hamadan	141 704	61 747	8 299	167	85	2 636 854	235	169 800	23.3/4	103	77 866	60 000
TOTAL												
		Monthly rent or rental value (in rials) 2		Total rental value (in rials)		Total monthly administrative expenditure (in rials)		Total annual expenditure (in rials)		Unit administrative cost per pupil (in rials) 3		
Result of calculation for whole country	17 159	95 025	2 791 779	33 501 348	158							

1. Department situated in the country.

2. By deduction of the rental value of rooms of education departments assigned to Education Corps.

3. The same cost at the central level is estimated at 122 rials.

SOURCE: Bureau of statistics, Ministry of education.

TABLE 15. School year 1969-70: recurrent costs for Education Corps schooling

Number of sipahi	Total cost of teachers		Running cost of classes		Cost of school books		Administrative costs		Total costs			
	Housing allowance in rials	Percent-age	Rials	Percent-age	Rials	Percent-age	Rials	Percent-age	Rials	Percent-age		
109	4 120 200	293 720	4 413 920	73.7	194 940	3.2	354 240	5.9	1 033 200	17.2	5 996 300	100

APPENDIX D

Contribution of local authorities and private individuals to the construction of premises for the Education Corps

Consideration of the information in tables 16 and 17 shows that in the sixteen education departments in the sample, 3,344,000 rials were invested in 1968 for the construction of forty-nine schools, that is to say 1,308 rials per pupil/place at the rate of 1.5 m² per place. Enrolments in these schools were 1,950, or 3.8 per cent of the enrolments in all Education Corps schools in these departments.

In 1967 total investments were 4,183,000 rials for the construction of fifty-four schools or 1,266 rials per pupil at the rate of 1.5 m² per place. Enrolments in these schools (2,009) represented 4 per cent of total Education Corps enrolments in these sixteen districts.

The state contribution was 6 per cent of the total in 1968 and 19 per cent in 1967, which was solely in programmes for the construction of metal-frame with brick or concrete block buildings with an average life of twenty years. Local authorities and private individuals invested in building programmes of all kinds.

The information in tables 16 and 17 is adjusted to allow for the fact that the state invests solely in permanent buildings (concrete blocks or metal frame with brick-work); the other school buildings in state ownership are in the form of gifts.

TABLE 16. Contribution of local authorities or private individuals to the cost of school building in 1968

	Number of schools	Number of rooms	Number of pupils	Built-up area in m ²	Building costs (in rials)	Percentage of cost by category of buildings	Cost per m ² built (in rials)	Area of school site in m ²	Estimated site value (thousand rials)	Average cost per room (classroom or office) (in rials)
<i>Local authorities or private individuals</i>										
Metal frame with brickwork	2	11	141	400	810	25.8	2 025	2 800	427	73 636
Concrete blocks	4	11	147	270	310	9.9	1 149	4 726	315	28 200
Timber frame with brickwork	2	9	187	322	339	10.8	1 053	2 202	261	37 667
Brick-faced cobwork	17	43	587	1 311	767	24.4	585	9 707	358	17 841
Cobwork	19	50	615	1 162	692	22.0	1 211	8 877	342	13 840
Other	2	10	134	244	222	7.1	910	1 098	309	22 200
TOTAL	47	134	1 811	3 709	3 140 (94%)	100.0	847	29 410	2 012	23 433
<i>State</i>										
Concrete block	2	5	139	128	207 (6%)	100.0	1 617	5 528	333	41 400
GRAND TOTAL	49	139	1 950	3 837	3 344 (100%)			34 938	2 345	

TABLE 17. Contribution of local authorities or private individuals to the cost of school building in 1967

	Number of schools	Number of rooms	Number of pupils	Built-up area in m ²	Building costs (in rials)	Percentage of cost by category of buildings	Cost per m ² built school site (in rials)	Area of school site in m ²	Estimated site value (thousand rials)	Average cost per room (classroom or office) (in rials)
<i>Local authorities or private individuals</i>										
Concrete blocks	2	5	72	135	270		2 000	530	83	54 000
Timber frame brickwork	4	9	137	273	212		777	3 201	119	23 556
Brick-faced cobwork	13	41	482	1 301	1 011		777	6 961	753	24 659
Cobwork	32	101	1 109	2 744	1 906		695	14 211	600	18 871
TOTAL	51	156	1 800	4 453	3 399 (81%)		763	24 903	1 555	21 788
<i>State</i>										
Metal frame with brickwork	2	5	52	265	384		1 449	945	8	76 800
Concrete blocks	1	6	157	239	400		1 674	1 089	33	66 667
TOTAL	3	11	209	504	784 (19%)		1 556	2 034	41	71 273
GRAND TOTAL	54	167	2 009	4 957	4 183 (100%)			26 937	1 596	

IIEP book list

The following books, published by Unesco: IIEP, are obtainable from the Institute or from Unesco and its national distributors throughout the world:

- Educational cost: analysis in action: case studies for planners* (1972. Three volumes)
Educational development in Africa (1969. Three volumes, containing eleven African research monographs)
Educational planning: a bibliography (1964)
Educational planning: a directory of training and research institutions (1968)
Educational planning in the USSR (1963)
Financing educational systems (series of monographs: full list at front of this volume)
Fundamentals of educational planning (series of monographs: full list available on request)
Manpower aspects of educational planning (1968)
Methodologies of educational planning for developing countries by J.D. Chesswas (1968)
Monographies africaines (five titles, in French only: list available on request)
New educational media in action: case studies for planners (1967. Three vols.)
The new media: memo to educational planners by W. Schramm, P.H. Coorbert, J. Lyle (1967. A report including analytical conclusions based on the above of case studies)
Planning the development of universities — I (1971. Further volumes to appear)
Population growth and costs of education in developing countries by Ta Ngoc Chau (1972)
Qualitative aspects of educational planning (1969)
Research for educational planning: notes on emergent needs by William J. Platt (1970)
Systems approach to teacher training and curriculum development: the case of developing countries by Taher A. Razik (1972)

The following books, produced in but not published by the Institute, are obtainable through normal bookselling channels:

- Managing educational costs* by Philip H. Coombs and Jacques Hallak
Published by Oxford University Press, New York, London and Toronto, 1972
Quantitative methods of educational planning by Héctor Correa
Published by International Textbook Co., Scranton, Pa., 1969
The world educational crisis: a systems analysis by Philip H. Coombs
Published by Oxford University Press, New York, London and Toronto, 1968

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The book

An inquiry into the financial aspects of first-level education in Iran, with particular emphasis on the Iranian Education Corps—a project whereby qualified second-level school leavers may opt to become special rural teachers during their period of military service.

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