CHAPTER I

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

(1) A Study of Major Theories of Mass Communication

Educational Television functions as a medium of mass communication. Although it is more specific in content, it is instituted to affect the people’s behaviour into favourable attitude towards its messages. Therefore, the study of ETV will be related to the theories of mass communications. Such a knowledge clarifies the main points found in the study of mass communication in the past and designates the extent to which mass media can affect the individual’s behaviour. A reference to major theories become indispensable in order to clarify the concepts which make the scheme for our hypothesis. They give us a definition of what is to be observed in the process of our investigation. Moreover, as has been stated by R.K. Merton, the theory directs us to a set of hypotheses that can be empirically tested and it generates distinctive problem for sociological enquiry. The empirical research has also a role in the development of the social theory. Otherwise put, the relationship between theory and research is not a one-way relationship but they do interact.

The corpus of findings about mass communication bears the mark of an entirely practical concern with two objectives: The counting and description of audiences and the measurement of direct effects on those exposed to the media of communication. These two enterprises account for most of the research effort over a period of twenty or thirty years covering the 1930s, 1940s and much of 1950s. They can be understood as a response to several related pressures; the operating needs of the new media, the special interests of Governments, advertisers and would be propagandists; the natural public curiosity and the greater interests of those operating the mass media.

The main features of the empirical research tradition can be outlined into three sections - research concerned with the behaviour, interests and structure of the audience; research on the effectiveness or persuasive power of the media, and research concerned with general social effects of the mass media.

Audiences studies which have been mainly descriptive, have looked at the audience in its social setting and attempted to map out the salient features of audience behaviour, interests and opinions.

Two further kinds of research which fall within the category of audience study deserve to be mentioned here. The first consists of enquiries about the audience. The motives which underlie reading, listening or viewing are
examined as well as the satisfactions which people derive or seek to derive from their use of mass media. The strength of those so-called 'uses and gratification' studies lies in their greater potential for exploring mass media behaviour than is offered by the conventional survey of habits, preferences and attitudes. In so far as the whole audience research tradition is linked with the name of Paul Lazarsfeld, it is worth noting that he has consistently emphasized the need to accompany the collection of audience statistics with studies of underlying wants and needs which can make sense of the data.

Finally some attention has been paid in audience research to the structure of the audience and the setting of interpersonal relations in which mass communication are received. Merton's study (1957)\textsuperscript{1} of the patterns of influence in a small community was one of the first of a number of enquiries in which the flow of communication has been considered in relation to the existing structure of personal relationships. Lazarsfeld and Katz's\textsuperscript{2} study on personal influences, the part played by people in the flow of mass communication (1955) gave a new perspective on the process

\textsuperscript{1}R.K.Merton (1957), "Social Theory and Social Structure" "Patterns of Influence", pp. 387-420.

of mass communication and gave support to the hypothesis of "two-step flow" or "opinion-leader" hypothesis. These authors maintained that the media operate conservatively and follow public norms in such matters as tastes and values, rather than lead them to new form. Thus they said that the media reinforce the public norms rather than create new norms of significance or change deeply institutionalized patterns.

Their findings emphasize the effective and persuasive power of the mass media. Because of the variety and complexity of the effects of communications as stated by Berelson, this topic probably represents the most neglected area of communication research. The neglect of research on media effects has much to do with the complexity of the problems involved, since there are almost no fixed points of reference. In response to this problem, Berelson has suggested a framework for questions about mass communication effects which indicates at least five factors which must be taken into account: some kind of communication, on some kinds of issues, brought to the attention of some kinds of people under some kinds of conditions, have some kinds of effects. He notes many variations in the type and degree of effect


which can occur as a result of mass communication. There
can be effects on information levels, on behaviour and dif-
ferent kinds of effects on attitude and opinions. J.T.
Klapper gives a summary of the effects of mass communication
and denies that the media have much power to convert in well-
established behavioural areas. There is indeed overwhelm-
ing evidence that the measured net changes in attitude or
opinion as a result of persuasive material, presented on
radio, film, television or the press, are likely to be small.

Perhaps the most valuable longer-term contribution of
research on persuasive communication has been in locating
the conditions under which effects can occur and in specify-
ing the mediating factors which are involved. Some general
findings of sociological interest can be mentioned briefly.
First, there is agreement that effects, where they occur,
most frequently take the form of a reinforcement of existing
attitudes and opinions. According to Klapper (1960) persua-
sive mass communication is in general more likely to reinforce
the existing opinions of its audience than it is to change
opinion. This conclusion is consistent with and partly
follows from evidence showing that people tend to see and
hear communications that are favourable or congenial to their
predispositions and that people respond to persuasive com-
munication in line with their predispositions and change or

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1J.T.Klapper (1960, pp. 62-97), "The Effect of Mass
Communication", The Free Press of Glencoe, U.S.A.
resist change accordingly. Second, it is clear that effects vary according to the prestige or evaluations attaching to the communication source. Third, the more complete the monopoly of mass communication, the more likely it is that opinion change in the desired direction will be achieved.

Fourth, the salience to the audience of the issue or subject matter will affect the likelihood of influence; mass communication can be effective in producing a shift on unfamiliar lightly felt, peripheral issues - those that do not matter much or are noticed by audience predispositions. Fifth, the selection and interpretation of content by the audience is influenced by existing opinions and interests and by group norms. Finally, it has become clear that the structure of interpersonal relations in the audience mediates the flow of communication content and limits and determines whatever effects occur; ideas seem to flow from radio and print to opinion leaders and from them to the less active sections of the populations (Katz, Lazarsfeld, 1955). This essentially states the "two step flow hypothesis". It seems clear that the media do not change deeply institutionalized norms and thereby significantly alter conduct. Thus while the media continuously attempt to influence public in essentially trivial matters - to buy new products, wear new clothing styles - they generally avoid posing serious challenges to fundamental values or deeply established ways of doing things in the society. The media can undoubtedly activate a consi-
derable amount of behaviour, providing it is consistent with the needs of the individual and socially approved within the existing structure of cultural norm.

There are two other branches of study on media effectiveness - educational and informational power of the new media and the diffusion of innovations.

Research on film, radio and television as educational aids has flourished since Freeman's early study of film learning, and has been mainly concerned with the detailed evaluation by experiment of the relative effectiveness of different media. The ability of the media to communicate facts is, in any case, hardly surprising, since the media are known to be highly efficient in imparting knowledge and certain types of skills.

The Educational Television Organization has been instituted to meet the needs (or demands) of those who seek information, skills or factual knowledge on particular subjects. Educational Television Programmes share the same characteristics as other mass media so far as its effectiveness is concerned. Its specific characteristics lie in the fact that its audiences go purposefully towards it. Seeking the conditions under which such a purposeful activity arises and develops gives rise to our hypothesis presented in the next discussion.

(2) The Hypothesis of the Study

Educational Television was basically established in Iran as a supplement to school instruction. The Educational Television Organization intended to diffuse the factual knowledge of school lessons to a large number of students in all parts of the big city. It intended to give students access to a better instructional staff and a good presentation of the subjects. It was supposed that ETV programmes can attract the students who did not have access to qualified instructional staff or can motivate some groups of students (who were otherwise unwilling learners) towards an active participation in the school programmes. In general, it was thought that ETV can make up for the deficiencies of the school programmes and can activate the students towards better performance.

So far as the major theories of mass communication are concerned, the mass media do not have a direct impact on people at large. The structure of inter-personal relations in the audience mediates the flow of communication content and limits and determines its effects. As W. Schramme and his colleagues have emphasized, the viewer, listener or reader is not a passive entity, being acted upon by television or other mass media, but that he is an active agent, selecting from television material that which fits his interests and needs best. This freedom of choice exercised by the receiver as regards the content of television together with the
variables which mediate between the mass media and the audience determine the impact of the message.

Educational television which displays the informational power of the mass media, cannot have a direct impact on its audience without an active participation and a high level of motivation by the viewers. There is a general agreement that the motives which underlie reading, listening or viewing, as well as the satisfaction which the members derive or seek to derive from their use of mass media, affect the extent and kind of viewing.

It has been stated by Klapper (1960, p. 58) that when the topic of instruction concerns the factual knowledge or certain types of skills it may be received (like new issues) unhindered by the extra-communication mediating forces. One may add here that an individual's receptivity to new issues is conditioned by presence or absence of motivation, and it is evident that motivation for learning cannot be high unless it is strongly tied with the needs and demands of an individual. The origins of an individual's motivation for learning lies in the social situation which determines his needs and demands. Therefore, the same mediating forces which are supposed to modify, reinforce or hinder the effects of mass media message come into force between the student's needs and gratifications and his approach towards Educational Television. In this study we approach the students not
as discrete individuals who are ready to hear and accept
the factual knowledge or new types of skills broadcast
through ETV, but as individuals who are strongly tied to the
family-group first and then to other social organizations.
A child's motivation for learning stems out of his inter-
action inside the family and is modified, reinforced or
hindered by the family norms and values. Even more than
that, a child's motivation for learning is determined by the
position of his family in the given social structure.

Iran has seen a rapid change in various spheres during
the last few decades. One of the spheres affected by the
change is the system of stratification. New values and forces
have come to determine stratification. Education has become
an important factor affecting stratification. Education is
taken to be an important means of social mobility. Fully
conscious of the role of education in social mobility, people
encourage their children to have higher education and provide
them with more educational facilities. We hypothesize that
there is a close relationship between concern for social
mobility and receptivity to and demand for mass communication,
in this case Educational Television. More specifically,
those who are higher in the social hierarchy in terms of
education, as well as occupation demand Educational Tele-
vision more. In other words, the very nature of parents' 
position in the social hierarchy makes the children aspire
for higher status and social mobility through education.
Such a process affects the child's demand for getting help from educational aids.

Therefore, the aim of this study is to specify determinate relationships between the socio-economic positions of the individuals and their viewing of educational television. Otherwise put, it is to single out the particular variables which are most relevant to Educational Television viewing in the light of the theory in order to test the theory and also to understand the reality better by employing the theory.
(1) **Television in Iran**

Television was first established by the private sector in Iran on October 1958 (Mehr 1337).* It covered a radius of 120 kilometers. After one year in 1959, another station was started in Abadan, a city in the southern part of the country by the same organization. These two transmitters were broadcasting programmes for eight years. On March 1967 (Farvardin 1346) the Government brought them under its own ownership and television was formally inaugurated by His Imperial Majesty, Mohammed Reza Shah Pahlavi, the king of the country. Since then, it has been called "National Organization of Television in Iran". This organization developed the television network at a high speed to cover the whole country. The growth of television can be seen in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Produced</th>
<th>Relayed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Yearly Cultural Reports of Iran - 1972 (1351)*

* Dates inside brackets refer to the Iranian Calendar.
The population under coverage has been increasing at the same rate as the production and relay centres have been increasing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>25,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>1,20,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1,35,00,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The growth of television during the same period can be also assessed through the percentage of families who have acquired television in Tehran.

**Percentage of Families who have acquired Television in Tehran**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>KOTOB, M. 1967 (Refand, 1366)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>12.60</td>
<td>KOTOB, M. 1967 (Refand, 1366)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>VEZARAT ETTELAAT, Barrasi Bahman 1968 (1347)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>45.00</td>
<td>ASSADY, Ali, 1971 (Farvardin 1350)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the recent years after 1971 there are no published data, but the increase in the number of viewers can be assessed through the increase in production and relay centres of television as reported in Tamasha Magazine 1974 (No.191,1353).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Production</th>
<th>Relay</th>
<th>Receiving centres through Micro-wave system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1Issue No. 191 Nov. 1974. This Magazine is affiliated to National Organization of Television in Iran.
In order to get a better perspective about its position, television will be compared with the other media of communication in Iran. Then we will proceed on to explain the social conditions for the growth of television among the other media in the country.

(2) **Other Media Like Newspapers and Periodicals in Iran**

The number of newspapers published in Iran have not increased considerably during the last few decades. Even the increase in population and the literacy rate has not affected the rate of newspaper reading to any large extent. Data for the circulation of newspapers have not been published by any agent or organization. The publishers would not like to make it known, perhaps for the prestige of their newspapers; but some data in the Statistical Yearbook of UNESCO could be helpful for this purpose. The earliest data refer to the year 1959; this is one year after the advent of television, and the latest to 1970 as it is seen here:

**Number of Daily Newspapers in Iran**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Daily Newspapers (1)</th>
<th>Estimated total circulation in thousands</th>
<th>Per 1000 inhabitants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>222 (2)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) According to UNESCO explanation, a newspaper issued at least four times a week is considered to be a daily newspaper.

(2) This circulation figure refers to eighteen dailies only.
In order to gain a better perspective, the circulation of newspapers in Iran will be compared to that of other countries as reported in UNESCO Statistical Yearbook.

Number of Daily Newspapers in Some Other Countries compared with Iran

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of daily newspapers</th>
<th>Estimated total circulation in thousands</th>
<th>Per 100 inhabitants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>35033</td>
<td>511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>26100</td>
<td>479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>7687 (1)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Non-Daily Newspapers and Other Periodicals In Iran (2)

There are three different types of data for the year 1969, from different sources, which are not consistent with each other. They will be compared here in order to get the estimated average figure for that year. The circulation of non-daily newspapers and periodicals have not been mentioned in any of these sources.

(1) The circulation figure refers to 648 dailies only.

(2) According to UNESCO, the newspapers issued three times a week or less frequently are considered as non-daily newspapers.
The production of periodicals and non-daily newspapers, like daily newspapers, do not show any significant increase during the decade. The inconsistency in the number of non-daily newspapers and periodicals in the above table can be related to differing interpretations of the information given in the Government publications. The same data is also supported by a survey done by the National Organisation Television in Iran in 1971. The viewers were asked in which way they were informed about the news. Fifteen point two per cent answered from newspapers, 66.9 from television, 14.2 from radio and 2.6 per cent from other sources. This again reflects the low number of people who read newspapers.
(3) **Books in Iran**

There are different sources for the books published in Iran which are not consistent with each other.

**Number of Titles of Books Published in Iran**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of titles</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>581</td>
<td>Roushanian(^{(1)}) Karim 1961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1341</td>
<td>UNESCO Statistical Year Book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>3174</td>
<td>Yearly Cultural Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>ETTELAAT Newspaper(^{(2)}) 1354 Shahrivar 16th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen, the figures in the Cultural Report are not in keeping with the other sources. This is so because it includes all the Governmental pamphlets, bulletins and guide-books (which account for 1714 titles) and 362 titles which are student dissertations. The remainder is 1424 which seems very reasonable for comparison in the above table.

The number of readers can be estimated through the circulation of books. According to Keyhan\(^{(3)}\) newspaper, the average circulation of books in Iran is 2094. The yearly

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\(^{(1)}\) Roushanian, Karim 1961 (1340, Khordad)

\(^{(2)}\) ETTELAAT Newspaper 1975 (1354, 16th Shahrivar)

\(^{(3)}\) Keyhan Newspaper 1972 (1351, Khordad, 18th)
Cultural report in 1970 reports that 87.5 per cent of books published in Iran have a circulation below five thousand.

The maximum circulation, fifteen thousand, refers to religious books. In order to get a better perspective, book publication in Iran, will be compared with that of some other countries in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of titles published</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>31086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>79530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>14145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>1872</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


4) **Cinema in Iran**

The number of cinema houses has increased gradually year by year in Iran. Even television has not stopped this gradual increase. This is due to the advent of television before cinema houses had reached saturation point. This is clearly shown in the following table:
Number of cinema theatres in Tehran in comparison with Provinces

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Tehran</th>
<th>Provinces</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Tickets sold per year in Tehran in thousands</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>36.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>37.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>40.700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Yearly Cultural Report.

There is another report in the Keyhan Newspaper for March 10th, 1974 in which the total numbers of cinema houses in Tehran is reported as 137. In order to get a standard for comparison, we will refer to UNESCO Statistical Yearbook about the capacity of fixed cinemas per year.

Seating capacity of Movie Theatres in Iran and some other countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of fixed cinemas</th>
<th>Seating capacity per 1000 inhabitants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>376 (1)</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1529</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>14420</td>
<td>49.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>4255</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>3946</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


(1) This figure does not include summer cinemas with a seating capacity of 25,000.
The seating capacity per one thousand inhabitants does not seem very high in comparison with U.S.A. and United Kingdom. But if we take the seating capacity of only Tehran into consideration, the corresponding number, according to Yearly Cultural Reports will be 30 seats per thousand inhabitants. This figure is even higher than that in Japan and England. There is another study conducted by the Ministry of Information in 1971 that refers to the attraction of the cinema as well as television for the people at Tehran. In that survey it is stated that 56.1 per cent of Tehran population over fifteen years are movie-goers. The corresponding number for television viewers are 54.4 per cent. In another report in Keyhan Newspaper on March 10th 1974, it is said that 62 per cent of Tehran students prefer to spend their leisure time in viewing television and 45.9 per cent of them by going to movies. The above data shows clearly the appeal of movie and television in the urban areas of the country, especially Tehran. The reason for this attraction appears in the socio-economic conditions of the people in Tehran, the area in which data for this study has been collected.
CHAPTER III

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF TEHRAN CITY
AND CAUSES FOR THE GROWTH OF TELEVISION

Tehran's population in 1939 was 541,871. It increased to nearly three millions in 1971. There is an increase of eighty per cent between the two general censuses in one decade (1956 and 1966). According to the second general census in 1966, Tehran contributed to 26.25 per cent of the entire urban population of the country. This rapid growth of urbanization in Tehran is related to the concentration of economic activities, political power and administrative services in the capital. Migration from rural areas and small cities started when land productivity was low due to outmoded methods of cultivation, irrational relationship in the system of production and distribution and the high rate of illiteracy. Land owners found it more profitable to invest their capital in business transactions. Tehran as the centre for the collection and distribution of consumption commodities attracted well-to-do people of the provinces. Very soon it became the centre for the manufacture of those consumer goods which involved light industrial operations. It did not take long for commercial banks to start functioning.

1. Tehrani, M. 1963 (1342 Tir) "Jammeeyyat Iran" Ketabe Hafta (No. 82 Tir 1342) 1969.
2. Statistical Yearbook of Iran 1972 (1351).
in all parts of the city. Tehran as a capital and residence of higher authorities was paid much attention and very soon acquired the characteristics of a modernized city with all kinds of amenities. In the rush of modernization higher educational institutions, health facilities and recreational places as well as the administrative centres came to be concentrated in the capital. The growth of such a city is well described by Wilbert E. Moore\(^1\) (1965) when he says, "The movement to the cities is partly a response to the services and amenities that the cities offer as a result of economic modernization and partly as a quest for economic opportunities better than those in rural areas - even if those opportunities are not realistically available."

Urbanization and other forms of geographical mobility potentially bring together people of highly diverse backgrounds. The first general census in Iran in 1956 reveals that fifty-five per cent of the people in Tehran, over ten years of ages, were illiterate. This percentage constituted the labour force who had migrated into the city for some marginal services. The clustering of these people from different background led to the emergence of "quarters" or settlements populated by people from a particular district. They have continued to preserve their original dress, language and customs up to the present day.

\(^1\)"Impact of Industry" published by Prentice-Hall of India, New Delhi, 1965.
Resocialization of the migrants is required for adaptation to what is essentially a new way of life. It often happens that a migrant accepts the new pecuniary relationships prevalent in urban societies, but retains his original traditions and customs. This variation in the degrees of acceptability of urban practices causes conflicts and strains for the migrants. To get rid of such strains and conflicts they usually associate with former residents of their own origin in the particular district of the city. The people living in these districts have preserved their original languages and communicate in those languages with each other (e.g. Azarbeyejani, Gillaki, Kordi and so on).

Urbanization in Iran did not actually take place as a response to the industrial sector, as has happened in industrial countries. This is to be seen in the proportionately high levels of employment of urban population in the various services. The data reported in Bulletin No. 7 of the Management and Planning Institute¹ (Sheiknavandi, Davar 1348-1969) reveals that 34.4 per cent of the whole governmental personnel of Iran is concentrated in Tehran. This number accounts for a quarter of those who are employed in the city. This seems to be a dominant trend in most developing countries, and it is quite in contrast to the West, where the service

group came into force comparatively late in the urbanization process.

Educating children in order to extend their opportunities of engagement in services is prevalent in the process of modernization. This phenomenon is seen in the data published by educational statistics of Iran. The 98,856 students in the primary and secondary schools of Tehran constitute 73 per cent of the total number of students in urban areas. If we add the number of students in higher institutes the corresponding figure accounts for almost one third of the Tehran population. It is during the years of schooling that the values of the dominant culture are diffused into the sub-cultures of different communities. In higher levels of economic growth and civilization, the emphasis on education as a normal link between generational and career mobility increases.

There are several components in the social situations of the people in urban areas which create the conditions for the growth of mass media, most of all television, as explained by Baumann (1966). The great majority of urban residents are dependent on the market for acquiring their goods. They sell man-power in order to purchase consumer

1W.E. Moore (1965) "The Impact of Industry"

goods. They cannot acquire the products otherwise than through the intermediary of the market.

Another component of city life is that the people are dependent on the functionaries of organizations inside the society. In order to satisfy his needs, and to acquire indispensable goods, man must win a position in an organization. This becomes for everybody, whatever his or her profession, the supreme instrumental value. Organizations differ one from another, and so do the positions in the organizations, but the need for some position in some organizations is common to every one. In urban areas it is the position in the organization which is the fundamental determinant of all social situations and a social certificate of identity. In such societies the ways of winning a position are on the whole similar - an education appropriate for the position, a behaviour appropriate for the organizations' requirements. That is why aspiration for education is so high in urban areas.

Another component in the social situation of people in urban areas is their dependence on technology. More and more people satisfy their needs with the help of technology - a technology which they do not create themselves, the principle of whose function they do not understand, and are unable to master without the assistance of other people. Technology is a blessing, but it is a materialized and ever-present nightmare. Dependence on technology thus generates dis-
orientation and anxiety, if only of the kind which always goes together with uncertainty and incomplete knowledge. Everybody feels threatened.

Taking into account the various components in the social situation of the people in urban area, the causal factors for the diffusion of television or picture-houses can be assessed. That is, the effects of mass-media can only be assessed in the context of the socially determined needs of the audience. This view regards the content of mass media of communication as a cultural product in which the individuals find affirmation or negation which are related to their tensions and needs. They find affirmation for their doubts, alternative solutions for their problems and the opportunity to experience vicariously ways of behaviour which are beyond the horizon of their personal world. ¹

From the psychological point of view, as explained by Franklin Fearing, television assists the individual in structuring his world. And rightly or wrongly, effectively or ineffectively, all individuals must structure their world. This is not only an aesthetic but a psychological principle without which it is impossible to understand the nature and the results of the impact of films on human culture. It expresses the basic organic relationship between motion

picture and human life.

Melvin L. DeFlur says that mass media are linked inextricably to complex and changing cultural constraints. The idea that the media are independent forces, shaping and moulding the society as they wish, is simplistic and outmoded. The development of a given medium and what it presents to society are dependent not only upon the characteristics of the medium itself, but upon the salient norms and values of the socio-cultural system within which it operates.

The spread of mass media, as explained by Wilber Schramm, is highly correlated with several indices of development such as the literacy rate, urbanization, per capita income and industrialization. Since all of these conditions were not present in Iran, the growth of mass media did not follow the same trend as in industrial countries. The rapid growth of urbanization necessitated socialization of people from different sub-cultures as well as the exercise of social controls over the heterogenous mass of people. This function was given to Television which could be used more easily as a mover in the modernization process irrespective of educational level or diverse background of the viewers. Books and newspapers cannot infiltrate into the sub-cultures as quickly as television. Newspapers and books spread among those who have some level of education and the given values should have

---

been internalized in their childhood education. This is well supported by Elihu Katz and Micheel Gurvich (1973) when they say that in satisfying needs associated with the self, books are more helpful for the better educated, while television is more helpful for the lesser educated. Particularly in the area of self-gratification, books and television exchange places as educational level rises. The social situation of people in large cities is so ordered that a large majority are deprived of high material rewards, and so are unable to attain the goals which motivate economic activity. In such a situation the demand for entertainment programmes rises. Among several media, television is relatively a cheap means of providing entertainment at home.

The following table shows us the percentage of entertainment programmes compared with the educational programmes broadcast on general television of Iran, Paris, New York and Japan in one week.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>News</th>
<th>Educational</th>
<th>Entertainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan (Tokyo)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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1 E.Katz and Micheel Gurvich, American Sociological Review, Vol.38, No. 2 'On the use of the mass media for important things".
The percentage of entertainment programmes broadcast from New York and Iran networks are higher than those from Paris and Tokyo. This is so because in the United States and Iran separate channels have been allocated for educational television. The demands of the people in these different places is illustrated in the following table. The viewers were asked if they wished any change in the programmes of general television towards more entertainment.

**Viewers’ desire for a change towards more entertainment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The United States</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: M.E. Martines, 1969.
Source of Iran: Ali Assadi 1971 (Farvardin 1350).

The table indicates that the demand for a change towards more entertainment is prevailing. This relationship seems to be higher in countries where the television organization follows the market economy. This higher demand for entertainment can be justified if we agree that there is a high correlation between the socially determined needs of the residents and the content of television.

There have been some other factors working for the rapid growth of television in Iran. Iran during the last decade has made large investments to increase literacy and to expand television centres as part of the processes of economic development and political centralization. The diffusion of
the same information to different groups enforces social cohesion by creating common heroes and symbolic reference points. Wilber Schramm also refers to the role of television as an effective educational aid and in removing predisposition and traditional patterns of thought which are a hindrance to any social reform. Whether television in Iran has been able to perform these functions cannot be judged at present. Our study on Educational Television can shed light only on the potentialities of television when it is used for instructional purposes.
Educational television in Iran started functioning on March 1966 (Esfand 1345), that is eight years after the advent of general television. Educational television was established by the Ministry of Education through a grant of one million Tomans\(^1\) by the National Oil Company of Iran. The Ministry of Education purchased a small transmitter of eight hundred watt power with that grant. Due to its smallness, the transmitter could cover a radius of only thirty kilometers. Consequently, it was only the students of Tehran city who could view the programmes of that channel. The network was established exclusively for broadcasting the formal lessons of schools. They were not allowed to accept any commercial propaganda or be used for entertainment purposes. It was only at week-ends when cultural activities of schools or documentary films and sometimes long films from other countries were shown. It can be said that "Instructional Television" is a better title for the network than "Educational Television". But as they are used interchangeably, we may use the term educational television which is generally used for such a kind of network. This small transmitter continued

\(^1\)Seven Tomans are equivalent to one U.S. dollar according to the present currency rates.
broadcasting the formal lessons of a few grades for seven years. During this period the lessons of some other grades were gradually included. The total programmes in each year is shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total hours of programmes per year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>1280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>2160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>2516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>2028</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: "Yearly Cultural Reports"

About seventy per cent of the total number were formal school lessons and the rest were music, children's programmes and general information tests or some cultural programmes of schools.

On October 1973 (Mehr 1352) this channel was incorporated into the general television network which had been running under the Government since 1966. After this some basic changes were made in the content of programmes and broadcasting hours. The Ministry of Education was invited by the general television organization to participate in the production of the programmes. This cooperation is still going on. The new changes which occurred in its programming and the time of its broadcasting will be discussed here briefly.

The small transmitter had been putting out its programmes from five p.m. to eight p.m., after school hours. It had no
programming during the formal times of schools. Therefore, the students whose houses were equipped with television sets could potentially view the programmes. What was being broadcast was important school subjects such as science lessons, mathematics, and languages for high-school students, especially those in senior courses. The reason for this selection seems to be the high increase in the ratio of high-school students around the time when Educational Television was established. Educational statistics of Iran shows that the rate of increase in high-school students in 1966 was twice that of 1962. There was a 17.4 per cent increase over the previous year in 1966 as against an 8.6 per cent increase in 1962. An increase in the number of teachers in the same ratio was rather difficult to achieve especially in science lessons and mathematics for higher grades. Television as an instructional medium was welcomed as an aid to fill up the deficiency caused by the shortage of qualified teachers. As mentioned above, the students who had no television sets at home were deprived of this new medium of teaching. To remove this problem, the Ministry of Education had one school in every seventeen educational divisions in the city equipped with television sets. The directors of the given schools were told to leave the television hall open for students. This plan did not suffice to meet the needs of those students who were scattered in far-off areas especially where a single programme was not worth a long wait.
At that time, Educational Television was affiliated to the Ministry of Education. The director and all staff members were paid by the same Ministry. An interview with the director revealed that there was only a small budget allocated to that organization which was expected to cover all expenses. Due to this financial problem the organization was not able to improve its production and the power of the transmitter. Most of the students were unsatisfied with the weakness of the transmitter, especially when they compared it with the powerful net-work of general television. It can be said the initial achievements of the first organization were neither attractive nor prestigious. This will be better understood if we compare the position of Educational Television in Iran with that in Israel. In Israel Educational Television was introduced before general television. Therefore it became a supplement to ordinary classroom instruction. In Iran, on the other hand students had been previously exposed to the polished programmes of general television with which instructional programmes did not compare favourably. In Iran television was regarded as entertainment rather than anything else. Given these different standards of comparison, the same programme which might be interesting for Israel pupils might bore Iranian pupils.

The New Organisation was financially an independent unit. It undertook the preparation and transmission of educational programmes through the first channel and changed the timing and content of the programmes. The previous net-work
concentrated more on the teacher's explanations, but the new organisation laid emphasis on the illustration of the lessons through audio-visual facilities which are the main advantages of television production. Presenting school subjects in this method for all grades was not so easy. In the beginning the programmes for the first grade of the Guidance Cycle course were given by the new organization. The Guidance Cycle course, in the new educational system of Iran, is for three years. This course was substituted for the junior course of high schools in the previous system. The subjects in this course contain some basic knowledge in mathematics, science, language and some practical lessons needed for services. Programmes for the second grade was included in the following year.

The timing of the programmes was also changed from evening hours to day-time hours. General television had no programming during the day-time and this time was allocated for educational television. This period contained three hours in the morning from eight-thirty to eleven-thirty and two hours in the afternoon from two-thirty to four-thirty. This period was suitable for the formal hours of schools at large. Along with these changes, it became necessary for all the schools to be equipped with television sets in the classrooms. This was not such an easy task for all schools. In my initial survey it was found that only a small number of schools were equipped with television sets, and even they were
faced with the problem of adjusting their school time-table with that of television. That is, the television programme as an aid to students, should have been timed in such a way as to fit in with the programme of the relevant teacher. This was very hard job to do in practice. Consequently, the teachers' classes took priority in the arrangement of the school time-table.

In the initial survey of school schedules, it was found that there were eighty schools in Tehran whose schedules were such that students were able to view instructional television programmes optionally at home. This had happened due to the special arrangement of their schedules which will be explained here.

Due to the increasing number of students in lower grades as well as in the Guidance Cycle course in Tehran, some of the large schools shortened the breaks between lessons and the break for lunch, and also started school earlier in the morning, consequently they were able to utilize the afternoon time for other groups of students. Thus they could use the same building for two groups of students which were called morning students and afternoon students. There were many private schools too which had resorted to the same morning schedule without having any afternoon students. This removed some problems concerning the transportation and economizing the time of students and teachers who lived in far-off areas.

In our preliminary survey it was found out that the actual viewers of Educational Television could be found among these two groups of students in public and private schools.
Figure shows Tehran Educational Districts.
Dots show schools visited in each district.
CHAPTER V

METHOSES

The present study was conducted in the city of Tehran during the period beginning from February 1975 to May 1975. In our preliminary survey of schools it was disclosed that full-time schools (in Guidance Cycle Course) did not give the students any chance for viewing ETV programmes optionally at home. But it was found that there were eighty schools in the whole city that students were potentially able to view the programmes optionally at home. (The characteristics of these schools was explained in our discussion about historical background of ETV).

A representative number of such schools were selected which accounted for forty-five schools or 56.25 percent of the total number. The locations of these schools have been plotted on the map of Tehran.

Tehran city has been divided into seventeen educational districts and each one is governed by an educational office. Fifteen of these districts were visited according to the requirements of our sampling. Two educational districts, called 1 and 12 did not come under this study, because all schools (Guidance Cycle Course) in those districts were run on a full-day basis (morning and afternoon), and thus students were not in a position to view the ETV programmes optionally at home. There was of course, one school in district
which was not run on a full-time basis, but it was dropped out in the first stage of sampling.

After selecting the representative number of schools by the type of school (private and public) and sex (boys and girls), it was necessary to designate the number of students who should be interviewed in each school. The distribution of students by the type of schools and sex has been given in the following report of our sampling method.

Since ETV programmes were broadcast only for two grades of the Guidance Cycle Course at the time of the field-work, the selection of students was naturally confined to students in these two grades (including the first and second grades of Guidance Cycle Course).

Sampling Method

(1) Out of eighty schools, having their entire programme of working either in the morning or in the afternoon, forty-five have been selected as a first sample, so that the students are free at the time of broadcasting of ETV programmes. The percentage of schools selected in the sample is thus 56.25.

(2) These 80 schools, fall under the categories as shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of School</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Mixed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Public</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(3) The corresponding categories in the 45 schools selected for the study are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Mixed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-public</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4) The percentage of schools sampled under each category is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Mixed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>42.31</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>66.67</td>
<td>45.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-public</td>
<td>83.33</td>
<td>87.50</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>90.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>51.51</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>56.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) The percentages given above indicate that larger samples were taken from categories having small numbers of schools, and a smaller percentage from the categories having large number of schools, as is normally recommended to balance a proper representation.

(6) All the students have been selected from the schools falling in each category. The number of students in 40 schools are 39045 and the number of students in the selected 45 schools is 1100. The percentage of students in the sample is thus 2.82 per cent out of the entire student population.
(7) The distribution of students population of 3,90,45 according to sex and type of schools in 80 schools is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>18,693</td>
<td>15,773</td>
<td>34,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-public</td>
<td>1,940</td>
<td>2,629</td>
<td>4,579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20,633</td>
<td>18,412</td>
<td>39,045</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(8) The corresponding distribution of students in the selected 45 schools is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-public</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>1100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(9) The percentage of sampling from the students' population in each category are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-public</td>
<td>10.51</td>
<td>9.81</td>
<td>10.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(10) The students' population has also been sampled in such a way that a smaller percentage of those large in number.
and larger percentage of those small in number is included so as to get a representative sample.

**Collecting the Data**

The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part concerned the personal opinions and views of students on different subjects. The second part of the questionnaire concerned the family background of the students. This part had to be completed by interview.

The interview was basically arranged in order to elicit the proper answer to those questions which did not seem to be easy for students. For example, family income had to be estimated through questioning the students about parents' monthly income rent of their house or location of their residence and so on.

Parents' occupation in large cities is also so much diverse that it cannot be easily classified into a small number of job-categories without full information of the nature of jobs.

Students gave their opinions to the first part of the questionnaire without knowing that there is another part which will be completed through interview. This encouraged the students to give their ideas on specific social values frankly without thinking of their connection with their family background. Questioning the people when it concerns personal affairs, creates some psychological barriers to a free explanation of their ideas.
The second part of the questionnaire was completed by the interviewer. Interviewing the students and checking their responses took an average of 10 to 20 minutes per student. The students in higher socio-economic families could easily answer the questions and in a shorter time, while it was not so in the case of those from the lower class families.

It will be mentioned that cooperation of guide teachers and school authorities was greatly helpful in encouraging the students to give correct and frank answers to the questions. To avoid any distance between the interviewer and the girl-students from orthodox background, lady-interviewers were of great help.

**Chi-square as a Test of Significance**

It will be seen from the various parts of the study that tabulation and analysis of the data were done in accordance with the objectives of the research.

All the cross-tables have been subjected to chi-square analysis. The interpretation of the chi-square by referring to the table value has been given under each table.

If the chi-square is greater than the table value we say that the chi-square is significant, meaning thereby that the variables in analysis are dependent on each other.

If the table value is higher than that of the value of chi-square, the chi-square is not significant and the
variables are independent of each other.

Categorization of Father's Occupation

Socio-economic surveys of Tehran city show that most people in the city are either white-collar workers, businessmen or wage-earners. Therefore, it was found advisable to categorize occupations into these three groups. Since the categories, white-collar workers and businessmen cover a wide-range, it was found reasonable to subdivide each of them into two categories: high-rank white collars as against ordinary white-collars and also high rank businessmen as against ordinary businessmen.

(1) High-rank white collars concern those who are at the higher levels of the organizations and work as managers or directors in offices, banks, companies or educational institutes and those who are considered as high-rank professionals such as doctors, engineers, lawyers and so on. Army officers of colonel or higher grade were included in this category.

(2) Ordinary white-collar workers consist of those who have comparatively lower positions such as teachers, bank employees, clerical workers and so on.

(3) High-rank businessmen are those who are engaged in production activities or buying and selling commodities at a high level. They work as managers or stock-holders in big businesses, hotels, restaurants, big recreation places and so on. They may be managers of large workshops, factories,
general stores, big beauty saloons, large tailoring establishments or any other economic activities which are considered as big business in large cities.

(4) In the second category of businessmen are ordinary shop-keepers or those who have small businesses. The shop-keeper, himself is in-charge of his shop or may be a mediator dealer between shops and big distributors of commodities. They may have a few wage-earners as assistants, but their numbers are quite limited. They do not usually have a higher level of education.

Some types of skilled workers who work independently in workshops (e.g. car-mechanics, electrical servicemen) have been included in this category. Drivers who possess their own cars and could not be classified as wage-earners have been also included in this category.

(5) The last category of occupations refers to wage-earners. These are recognized by their very low levels of education, and the low position they held in offices, banks, companies, factories, hotels, restaurants, schools and other organizations. They receive low wages.

**Categorization of family income**

Income has been assessed through the salary or wages received on a monthly basis. Income could also be indirectly assessed from the amount of house-rent paid or in cases of house-ownership, from the expected rent should these houses be let.
Income has been categorized into four levels as the titles given to them show:

(1) The high-income category refers to those who have an average income of 3500 Tomans\(^1\) or more per month.

(2) The low-income category refers to an income of around 1000 Tomans per month or less.

(3) and (4). Refers to higher middle-income and lower middle-income families whose total income per month stands between the two extremes. Those who have an income close to the high income families are called "The higher-middle income category" (from 2000 Tomans up to 3500), and those who are close to low income families are categorized as the "lower-middle-income" category. (From 1000 up to 2000 Tomans).

**Categorization of Parents' Educational Attainment**

Educational attainments of parents have been categorized into four categories as follows:

(1) Those who were not able to read and write were categorized as illiterate.

(2) Those who were able to read or write were of two types. One type was those who had studied up to elementary school level. (The elementary course normally lasted six years in the old educational system).

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\(^1\)Seven Tomans are equivalent to one U.S. dollar according to the present currency rates.
The second type of parents were those who could write and read without having gone through formal schooling. Since the number of such parents were not statistically significant to make a separate category, they were included in the above category.

(3) The third category of education concerned those who had education at secondary school level. This course was normally for six years and could be considered as an intermediary course between elementary school and college.

(4) The fourth category of education is called "higher education". It consists of those who have finished any grades of college or have gone higher.

Categorization of Educational Television Viewers

Categorization of ETV viewers was done objectively by giving the students a list of programmes and asking them to mark those programmes which they had viewed within the last two weeks. If they marked any programmes, they were considered as ETV viewers.

There was another question following the above question. The students were given the list of programmes again and were

1 The number of fathers who could read and write without formal schooling were only 55 persons (as against 50 mothers). This accounts for .04 percent of the total number of fathers.

2 This course plus the final year of elementary school altogether have been divided into two independent courses called "Guidance Cycle Course" for three years and "High-School Course" for four years in the new educational system which started in 1972.
asked to mark those programmes they had followed, more or less continuously, for several times.

Those who marked any programmes in the list following the first question and left blank the list of programmes following the second question, were considered as occasional viewers of KTV. Those who marked any programmes both in the first and the second list were considered as regular viewers. Regular viewers were those who had viewed the programmes not only within the last two weeks, but also had followed some of them more or less continuously.

Those who had not watched any of the programmes were asked to leave blank the lists of programmes. In this way, they could be recognized as non-viewers.

**Categorization of Grand Average Mark**

Conventionally 'the Grand Average Mark' represents the school performance of a student and thus serves as a device of categorizing students into low, medium and advanced groups.

Evaluation of the school performance of students in Iran is made three times by the instructional staff in each academic year. The average mark of each term is computed at the end of that term. Then the average mark of the three terms is computed again at the end of the school year which is called 'Grand Average Mark'. It indicates the academic progress of each student in each full academic year.

The kind of classification of 'Grand Average Mark'
adopted needs to be introduced. As in any other field, it is, at least partly arbitrary. The system of marks in use in Iran, ranges from zero through twenty with a 'mean' or 'average' of 'ten' as 'a pass mark' and a minimum of twelve for the credits in the main field of study. We categorize the 'Grand Average Marks' of students under study into three groups as low (10-12.50), medium (12.51-14.50) and advanced or high (14.51-20).