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## The First Beginnings of the Movement of Scientific Missions in Iraq (1839-1922)

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### Abstract

*This research deals with the early beginnings of the movement of scientific missions witnessed by Iraq during the period (1839-1922), during which it was at times part of the Ottoman state, and at other times under direct British control and mandate authority (1914-1922), thus laying the foundations upon which scientific missions were later sent to various Arab and foreign countries.*

**Keywords:** *missions, students, Ottoman state, British occupation.*

### Introduction

This research aims to document, primarily, the early beginnings of the scientific missions movement in Iraq during the period (1839-1922), during which there was a wide-ranging scientific mission movement covering various fields of science and knowledge (military, medical, engineering, administrative), as a result of the state's need for specialized scientific cadres on one hand, and to fill the existing gaps in its circles on the other. Without knowledge of those beginnings, it is impossible to understand the mechanism and the way in which a qualitative scientific leap occurred in Iraq in subsequent eras, especially the royal era (1921-1958).

The nature of the research necessitated its division into an introduction, two main sections, and a conclusion. The introduction aimed to clarify the reasons that prompted the researchers to choose this topic. As for the first section, titled "The Beginnings of the Reform Movement in the Ottoman Empire and Its Impact on the Scientific Missions in Iraq 1839-1914," we addressed the influence of the Ottoman reform movement, which began during that period, on the scientific missions in Iraq. The second section, titled "The Scientific Missions in Iraq during the Period 1914-1922," focused on the significant issues that affected the course of the scientific missions in Iraq during the direct British occupation and the beginning of the formation of royal rule. The conclusion aimed to elucidate a number of conclusions reached by the researchers.

The research was conducted according to the analytical historical scientific research methodology, which is based on recounting historical events and then analyzing them to understand the causes and consequences that led to their occurrence. It relied on a number of

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reputable scientific sources, including academic theses and dissertations, especially the thesis titled "Educational Life in the Province of Baghdad 1869-1909" by researcher Abbas Badr Mustafa, and the thesis by researcher Mutab Khalaf Jaber Al-Jabri titled "The History of Health Development in Iraq for the Period from 1914-1932." It also relied on several reputable scientific books, including the book by Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali titled "The History of Education in Iraq during the Ottoman Era 1638-1917," the book by Ahmed Jouada titled "The History of Education in Iraq and Its Impact on the Political Aspect 1534-2011," and the book by Fadel Bayat titled "Educational Institutions in the Ottoman Arab East: A Historical and Statistical Study in Light of Ottoman Documents," in addition to other books and sources.

### **The First Topic: The Beginnings of the Reform Movement in the Ottoman Empire and its Impact on the Iraqi Scientific Missions (1839-1914)**

The Ottoman Empire witnessed a wide-ranging reform movement during the reign of Sultan Abdul Majid I (1839-1861)<sup>1</sup>, following the issuance of the (Shareef Gulhane)<sup>2</sup> on 3 November 1839, which was considered the first step towards reform. This reform movement intensified during the reign of Grand Vizier Mustafa Reshid Pasha<sup>3</sup>, who worked to take the necessary measures to reform the education system by benefiting from the modern systems used in Europe. The first step taken in this regard was to send a number of students to Europe, indicating that adopting a modern and advanced education system had become a historical necessity and a strategic decision for the Ottoman Empire<sup>4</sup>. The number of students sent to study in European schools, especially in France, reached fifty during the period 1848-1853. However, all reform plans for the Ottoman Empire were halted after the outbreak of the Crimean War (1853-1856)<sup>5</sup>. After the war, interest in reform was revived, leading to the issuance of another imperial decree called the Hatt-i Humayun on 2 February 1856<sup>6</sup>. As a result, the number of students sent to France increased to sixty-one, and a special office known as the "Ottoman Bureau" was established there in 1857 to supervise, monitor, and organize the education process for those students. Additionally, a school was opened in Istanbul in 1859 to train administrators, named "Administrators of the Future," to teach students public and international affairs, with the intention of later sending some of its students to Europe to continue studying modern sciences. Therefore, it can be said that the scientific mission movement during the reign of Sultan Abdul Majid I had a purely European influence<sup>7</sup>.

The reform process continued during the reign of Sultan Abdulaziz (1861-1876)<sup>8</sup>, and one of his most important reforms in the field of education was the establishment of major civil schools. In 1862, he established the School of Teachers, and in 1866, the Medical School was established. During this period, two projects were presented to the Sultan to reform the education system (establishing multiple schools and issuing the General Knowledge Law)<sup>9</sup>, which led to the reorganization of the Ottoman education system, adding a new level to the educational hierarchy, the Royal Preparatory Office<sup>10</sup>, also known as the Royal School<sup>11</sup>.

The Ottoman reform movement had little impact on Iraq except during the reign of the great reformer Midhat Pasha<sup>12</sup> when he was appointed as the governor of Baghdad during the period (1869-1872). He showed clear interest in the field of education by establishing a military preparatory<sup>13</sup> school in Baghdad, which was considered the first step towards spreading modern culture<sup>14</sup>. Despite the reluctance of parents to send their children to this school, the governor made further efforts to persuade them to enroll their children or relatives to study and graduate as officers in the Ottoman army<sup>15</sup>. This was especially true since most higher schools were located in the Ottoman capital, and most Iraqis, especially those from the poor and middle classes, were unable to send their children to study there due to the risks of travel,

high expenses, and distance. Therefore, families from those classes preferred to enroll their children in the military career as it was secure from those consequences, especially since the Ottoman state was responsible for sending the most capable students, at its expense, to attend the military college<sup>16</sup> in the capital, Istanbul, and also took care of them. This generated some psychological reassurance for the families, but it is noticeable that most of the students sent were from the affluent and privileged classes at the expense of the children of the poor and middle classes<sup>17</sup>.

In 1871, the Rushdi Preparatory Office was opened in Baghdad to prepare graduates to enter the military college in Istanbul. The number of students accepted was twenty-five, and it seems that sending students to Istanbul at the government's expense and enrolling them in higher education schools motivated many other students to desire to enter and study in those schools. It also encouraged their families to enroll them in Ottoman higher schools, especially after their graduation from military schools and at their own expense, although they formed a small percentage compared to the students from the poor class<sup>18</sup> who entered military schools.

After Sultan Abdul Hamid II (1876-1909)<sup>19</sup> assumed power, education witnessed significant developments during his reign<sup>20</sup>. The number of students sent from Iraq to study in the capital Istanbul to complete their higher education reached thirteen in 1881<sup>21</sup>. The process of sending students to study in the Ottoman capital increased after the Sultan opened the Tribal School there in 1892, which specialized in educating the sons of tribal leaders in the Iraqi provinces aged between 12-16 years, where they were placed in boarding schools, it is possible that the scholarship was part of the first beginnings of the scientific missions movement in Iraq, despite the fact that this school was considered a political tool to ensure the loyalty of tribal leaders to the Ottoman state. The number of students sent to it in 1892 reached twelve students, with four students from the state of Baghdad and eight others from the state of Basra. The curriculum of this school was special. In return, the tribal leaders secured the roads and did not expose themselves to the Ottoman army, thus ensuring that the Ottoman state included the tribal side from causing disturbances that could cause it concern<sup>22</sup>.

In 1896, the Ottoman government decided to increase the number of students sent from Iraq to the capital Istanbul to study in its military schools to fifty students<sup>23</sup>. During the period 1899-1902, interest in the educational aspect increased, as evidenced by the increase in the number of schools, which increased to fifty schools, including in the state of Baghdad and the same in the states of Basra and Mosul. During the period 1903-1907, six Iraqi students were sent to study at the American University in Beirut, specializing in the study of medicine and pharmacy. The wealthy residents also sent their children abroad at their own expense to complete their education<sup>24</sup>.

The Union and Progress Society coup d'état (1908-1914)<sup>25</sup> had an impact on the education movement, creating new and encouraging conditions for cultural activity, especially when the society published its political program in 1909, particularly the part related to education, when the state demanded the adoption of an educational policy aimed at the upbringing of the Ottoman youth, a unified education<sup>26</sup>, and the opening of schools that included different state elements for joint education to achieve that unified upbringing, this led to an increase in the percentage of students. There was a trend towards sending students outside of Iraq, especially to France, where five Iraqi students graduated from the University of Paris, two of whom specialized in medicine and the other three specialized in law<sup>27</sup>. By 1912, the number of Iraqi students sent to Istanbul to complete their studies there during the period from (1872-1912) reached 1400 students, most of whom were part of military missions, numbering 1200 students

who graduated from military colleges, in addition to scientific missions. Their studies were diverse and included various specialties. The last batch of graduates was delayed in traveling to Istanbul due to the outbreak of World War I in 1914<sup>28</sup>.

### **The Second Topic: The Movement of Scientific Missions in Iraq During the Period 1914-1922**

In 1914, World War I began and Iraq was occupied by British forces<sup>29</sup>. During these military operations, the disruption of official circles affected the sending of scientific missions. Therefore, scientific missions were limited to students who were previously sent during the Ottoman era. Despite this, the number of graduates from non-military Ottoman colleges until 1917 reached sixty, including twenty-seven in medicine, twenty-five in law, five in administration, and three in engineering<sup>30</sup>

During the direct British occupation period (1917-1920), the movement of sending students to study outside of Iraq declined due to the deterioration of the education system after many of those in charge, especially the Ottoman elements, fled. Britain attempted to reform the system and its institutions by relying on the expertise of some foreign specialists and employing a number of teaching staff from Egypt and Syria to fill the gap left by the fleeing Ottoman staff, especially after the increasing demands of the locals to reopen schools. These demands were met, and many schools were opened in 1919 and thereafter<sup>31</sup>.

The British government also decided to open a teachers' institute in Baghdad as a first step to train former teachers through intensive and rapid courses lasting three months, to be deployed to schools upon their opening<sup>32</sup>. When the occupying authority felt the need for specialized Iraqi employees in law and administration, it decided to reopen the Law School in Baghdad. The first batch graduated in 1920, and the graduates took up administrative and judicial positions, as well as some of them practicing law. It is worth noting that British advisors were appointed in each department<sup>33</sup>.

The education situation was disrupted during the 1920 revolution, especially in the central and southern regions of the country, leading to the absence of many teachers and school principals. Despite this, the revolution achieved many gains for Iraq, including the formation of a temporary Iraqi government<sup>34</sup> that included several ministries, including the Ministry of Education and Public Health<sup>35</sup>. Thus, the educational administration became more centralized, with the Minister of Education becoming the primary authority for its management, assisted by a British advisor<sup>36</sup>.

During this period, voices demanding attention to the educational movement, especially the scholarship of students to study outside Iraq, have risen. The local newspapers at that time played a prominent role in highlighting those voices and encouraging the movement of scientific missions. They addressed the issue by writing several articles, in which they called for the necessity of sending missions abroad and at the same time urged not to confine these missions to the children of the elites and the wealthy when they start. They also emphasized the important role of the Ministry of Education in reviving the Iraqi scientific missions, in order to fill the vacancies that the affiliated educational institutions suffered from, especially considering that it initially worked to fill those vacancies by bringing in a number of graduates from the American University in Beirut<sup>37</sup>.

The Ministry of Education undertook the task of sending students to study abroad and adopted some scientific criteria for that, including that those students should be intelligent and well-

mannered. The ministry made it clear that if the student neglected to complete his academic requirements for which he was sent, the financial aid provided to him would be cut off, and he would be required to refund half of the government's financial expenses spent on him. It sent a letter to the Prime Minister's Office with the number 155/1/3052 on 11th of July, 1921, requesting approval to provide assistance in sending a number of Iraqi students to study in Europe, Egypt, and Syria to obtain advanced sciences, using its general budget for this purpose<sup>38</sup>.

The Council of Ministers decided to approve the Ministry of Education's letter in its meeting held on July 15, 1921. It stipulated that a (guarantee) and a sponsor be provided for each student sent abroad for study at the government's expense. The student must commit to serving in government institutions as determined by the Ministry of Education. In the event of a breach of either of these two conditions, the student must reimburse all the financial expenses incurred by the government. In light of this, the Ministry of Education hastened to select students from various regions of Iraq who met the conditions for the purpose of sending them on the scientific mission planned for the academic year 1921-1922. It was planned that the number of students in that mission would be nine, with (five) from Baghdad, (two) from Mosul, (one) from Karbala, and the same from Basra. Four of them were sent to study at the American University in Beirut (two specializing in educational sciences, one in mathematics, and the other in science). Two of the students in that mission were sent to study at universities in the United States of America (one specializing in educational sciences and the other in agricultural sciences), while three of them were sent to study at British universities (two studying medicine and the other studying English language). At the same time, it was decided to send the sports and scouting inspector, Mr. Jameel Al-Rawi, to Britain to learn about scouting and sports activities there<sup>39</sup>.

The observation from that mission sent is that six of them were sent to serve the Ministry of Education, those who focused their studies on educational sciences and the English language, and two of them were sent to serve the Ministry of Health<sup>40</sup>, who specialized in medical studies, and one was sent to serve the Ministry of Agriculture, specializing in agricultural sciences.

After Prince Faisal bin Al-Hussein was crowned king of Iraq on 23/August/1921, in the days when the selected students were preparing to travel after the ministry published their names, a number of parents who failed to have their children included in that mission objected to the Royal Diwan presidency about the way some students were chosen at the expense of others, at the same time questioning the nationalities of the accepted students, whether they are Iraqi or not. This prompted the king to request the Royal Diwan presidency (Rustum Haidar)<sup>41</sup> to write to the Ministry of Education to inquire about the matter in its entirety. On 19/January/1922, the president of the Royal Diwan sent an inquiry letter numbered (8/2/276) specifically requesting the names of all the selected students, their addresses, nationalities, sects, places of study, the type of sciences they went to pursue, along with mentioning their allowances, as well as answering the following questions:-

1. Have they been selected after conducting a scientific competition for them according to the rules?
2. Are they Iraqis so that the government bears the expenses of their travel and studies?
3. Has it been verified that all those who were sent are those who cannot afford their own travel expenses?<sup>42</sup> This inquiry showed the ministry the extent of the king's interest in this mission and his desire to know the criteria by which its students were selected. Therefore, the ministry hastened to answer it in its letter numbered 1/155/389 on 21/1/1922, in which it clarified the answers to those questions, as well as attached a table containing all the required information about those students<sup>43</sup>.

Therefore, all that has been mentioned can be considered as the initial steps of the Iraqi scientific missions' movement, which gradually increased over time, as we will observe in the upcoming chapters of the message.

## **Conclusion**

- 1- The Iraqi scientific missions' movement was initially limited to military missions only, during the period when Iraq was part of the Ottoman Empire.
- 2- Sending those missions came as an urgent need imposed by the circumstances that the Ottoman Empire went through as a result of its retreat in various battlefields on one hand, and its need to keep up with scientific developments in general and military developments in particular witnessed by the European countries at that time, on the other hand.
- 3- Encouraged the sending of scientific missions Iraqi students to study in universities and schools in the Ottoman capital Istanbul a large number of wealthy Iraqis to send their children to study there, and this formed the beginning of what became known as studying at private expense.
- 4- The lack of specialized scientific cadres in the Iraqi state institutions after the year (1921) was the primary motive for sending scientific mission students abroad.
- 5- The Iraqi Ministry of Education, the official authority responsible for sponsoring students to study abroad, after establishing special criteria for selecting mission students during the period (1921-1922).
- 6- The Iraqi government, through the Ministry of Education, undertook the financial expenses for the scientific mission students throughout their study period, on the condition that the student achieves success. If that is not achieved, the student is punished by cutting off those financial expenses and demanding payment of half of the financial expenses that were previously spent on him.

## **The Footnotes**

1. Sultan Abdul Majid (1822-1861): He was the 31st Sultan of the Ottoman Empire who took power at the age of 17. He witnessed the London conference and signed the treaty of July 15, 1840 between Muhammad Ali Pasha and the European countries. Massacres broke out between Catholics, Maronites, and Druze in Lebanon during his reign, as well as the outbreak of the Crimean War in 1853. During his reign, the Ottoman Empire signed the Treaty of Paris regarding minority rights in 1856. For more information, see: - Farid Bek Al-Muhaimi, *History of the Ottoman Empire, Investigation*: Ehsan Haki, 6th ed., Beirut, Dar Al-Nafa'is, 1988, pp. 529, 455; Munir Hamdado and Al-Eid Rabi, *The Situation of the Ottoman State during the reign of Sultan Abdul Majid I, 1839-1861*, Master's thesis, University of Yahya Fares Al-Media, Algeria, 2019/2020, pp. 18-19; Abdul Wahab Al-Kiyali, *Political Encyclopedia, Part 3*, Dar Al-Huda for Publishing and Distribution, Beirut, n.d., p. 835.
2. Sharif Gulhane Decree: It was a reform decree issued during the reign of Sultan Abdul Majid I in 1839. This reform included various aspects, whether in governance, administration, education, and others, and focused primarily on the military, as the state's orientation was more military than intellectual. For more information, see: Muhammad Asfour Salman, *The Reform Movement in the Ottoman Empire and its Impact on the Arab Mashreq 1839-1908*, PhD thesis, College of Arts, University of Baghdad, 2005, pp. 31-34.
3. Mustafa Rashid (1802-1858): He is considered one of the prominent figures who called for reform and inspired the noble Khatt Sharif Koukhaneh, who came from a humble family.

He studied religious sciences at first and was appointed as a trustee in the High Gate, and rose through the ranks until he assumed the highest positions. He was appointed as an ambassador to Paris, and later to London, and then as the Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1837 until he ascended to the position of Grand Vizier in 1846, becoming one of the prominent figures in the High Gate at that time. For more information, refer to: - Ali Hamdach, *Ottoman State Reforms in the Field of Education and Educational Institutions (1789-1876)*, Master's Thesis, (Abu Al-Qasim Saadullah College of Humanities and Social Sciences, Department of History), University of Algiers, 2014-2015, p. 56.

4. Walid Al-Areed, *Reform of Education and its Philosophy in the Ottoman State in the Nineteenth Century: A Reading in the Laws of Organizations from the Era of Mahmud II to Abdul Hamid II, 1824-1876*, Journal of the Faculty of Education, Al-Azhar University, Issue 14, Vol. 2, November 2011, p. 430.
5. Crimean War (1853-1856): It is the war that took place between the Ottoman Empire and Russia. The Russian Tsar Nicholas believed that Britain would not stand in his way when he declared war against the Ottoman Empire, despite Britain's rejection of his proposals in 1853 regarding the division of the Ottoman Empire. He decided to implement his plan by sending a delegation led by Admiral Menshikov to the capital, Istanbul, to deliver a warning to the Ottoman government if it did not respond to the demands that he would present to the Ottoman Sultan. For more information, see: - Hamza Malghouth Fael Al-Badri, *European Diplomacy during the Crimean War 1853-1856*, a historical study, PhD thesis, College of Education for Humanities, Ibn Rushd University, Baghdad, 2014; Jawan Hussein Fayadh Allah, *The Crimean War 1853-1856 and Russo-Ottoman Relations*, Jihan-Erbil Scientific Journal, Vol. 1, No. 2, August 2017, p. 93.
6. Decree Humayun 1856: It is a royal decree issued by Sultan Abdulmejid I, calling for equality in rights and duties between all Muslim and non-Muslim subjects, and it reaffirmed the decree of the Gulhane 1839. For more information, see: Odile Moreau, *The Ottoman State in the Era of Reforms, "New Order" Military Men and Ideas 1826-1914*, translated by Carmen Jaber, Arab Center for Research and Policy Studies, Beirut, 2018, p. 37.
7. Mohammed Asfour Salman, the previous source, p. 40; and Ali Hamdash, the previous source, pp. 46-47; Ahmed Abdel Rahim Mustafa, in the origins of Ottoman history, vol. 2, Dar al-Shorouk, Beirut, 1986, p. 219; Naji Aloush and others, the Arab nationalist movement in a hundred years 1875-1982, Dar al-Shorouk, Palestine, 1997, p. 135; Jamal Sobhi Talib al-Zayna, the Ottoman military institution 1839-1909 (a historical study), a doctoral thesis, College of Education, Tikrit University, 2020, p. 93.
8. Sultan Abdul Aziz (1830-1876: born in Istanbul, took power after the death of his brother Abdul Majid I in 1861, and he was the 32nd Sultan. He pursued an active policy by developing internal and external relations. He visited Egypt in 1863. He also traveled to France at the invitation of Napoleon III, becoming the first Ottoman Sultan to travel abroad for diplomacy. He then visited London after being invited by the Queen of Britain. For more information, see: - Saleh Kulan, *Sultans of the Ottoman State*, translated by: Mona Jamal al-Din, Dar al-Nil for Printing and Publishing, Cairo, 2014, pp. 294-295.
9. Sahira Hussein Mahmoud Al-Samari, *The Situation of the Ottoman State in the Era of Sultan Abdul Aziz 1861-1876 (His Reforms and Developments in the Balkans)*, Master's Thesis, College of Arts, University of Basra, 2010, pp. 24-28.
10. The Royal (Sultan's) Office: It is the royal preparatory office, and its name was changed to the Sultan's Office in 1903. The lessons remained the same, with the difference being that the Sultan's Office divided its studies into two sections: elementary and high. For more information, see: Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, *History of Education in Iraq in the Ottoman Era*

- 1638-1917, Al-Tibaa Wal-Nashr Al-Ahliyya Company, Baghdad, 1959, pp. 157-158; Miad Sharaf Al-Din Al-Kailani, *Old Schools of Baghdad 1534-1917*, Dar Al-Kutub Al-Ilmiyya, Beirut, 1971, p. 75.
11. Ali Hamdashi, the previous source, pp. 49-50.
  12. Medhat Pasha (1822-1884): He is Ahmed Shafik, known as Medhat Pasha. He was born in Istanbul and memorized the Quran at an early age. His father introduced him to the Diwan of Hmayuni in 1834. He learned the Diwani script, and everyone who graduated from this Diwan was given a new name. He was called Medhat instead of Ahmed Shafik. He received his primary education in the offices of Istanbul and excelled in the Turkish language. He worked as an assistant in the Sham's reforms in 1842 and also worked as a clerk for the Diwan of Samah Pasha in the state of Konya in 1845. He became the head of the pen in 1850 in the High Gate. He became the governor of Nis in 1861, and after his governorship in the Balkans, he took over the governorate of Baghdad in 1869 and was removed in 1872. He became the governor of Syria in 1878-1880. For more information, see: Munira Hishr, *Iraq in the era of Medhat Pasha 1869-1872*, Master's thesis, College of Humanities and Social Sciences, Department of Humanities, University of Mohamed Khider Biskra, Algeria, 2019, pp. 24-39; Ezra Samuel Sassoon, *Medhat Pasha and the Union and Progress Society*, Georgi Azuzi Press, Alexandria, 1910.
  13. *The Military Rashidi School*: The Ottoman state paid attention to military education, as these military schools, alongside civil Rashidi schools, prepared their students to join military colleges. This school was established in Baghdad in 1870 during the reign of the governor Medhat Pasha, and the duration of study was 4 years. It is a boarding school where students are accepted at the government's expense. For more information, see: Abdulaziz Mohammed Shennawi, *The Ottoman State: An Islamic State Accused*, Vol. 3, Anglo-Egyptian Library, Cairo, n.d., p. 28; Yassin Abdul Karim Abdullah, *The Military Institution in the Ottoman Era: History of the Armed Forces*, Vol. 1, Ministry of Defense, Baghdad, 1986, p. 146; Muhammad Abdul Wahab Al-Qaisi, *The Reform Movement in the Ottoman State and Its Impact in Iraq 1839-1877*, *Journal of the College of Arts, Baghdad*, No. 34, January 1961, p. 124.
  14. Asan Osman Hussein Al-Tun, *The Emergence and Development of Education in Kirkuk 1869-1939*, Bayraq Publishing and Distribution House, Baghdad, 2023, p. 47; Harith Abdul Rahman Latif Al-Tikriti and Laith Mohammed Ibrahim Al-Janabi, *Rashidi Schools in Iraq 1869-1918*, *Spark of Thought Magazine*, College of Education for Human Sciences, University of Tikrit, March 2021, pp. 207-208.
  15. Ibrahim Khalil Ahmed, *The Education, Teaching, and Publishing Movement*, in the book *Elite of Iraqi Researchers, Civilization of Iraq*, Vol. 11, Baghdad, 1985, p. 296; *Encyclopedia of Karbala Civilization - Historical Axis - Modern and Contemporary History*, Vol. 5, *Intellectual Life - Government Education*, Karbala Center for Studies and Research, Iraq, 2020, p. 11.
  16. *The Military College*: This college was established in the capital Istanbul, where students would attend after being prepared and graduated from military schools, because the predominant feature of education in the Ottoman state is military education, as the state originated militarily. For more information, refer to: - Abdul Aziz Muhammad Al-Shanawi, the previous source, p. 28.
  17. Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, the previous source, pp. 155-165; Kamel Alawi Kazim and Hassan Latif Kazim, *The Political Economy of Education in Iraq (The Challenge of the Last Opportunity)*, Al-Rafidain Center for Dialogue, Lebanon, 2020, p. 41; Sahar Ahmed Naji, *Public and Foreign Education in Iraq during the Ottoman Era*, Department of History, College of Arts, University of Baghdad, 2019, p. 10.



18. Ahmed Jouada, *History of Education in Iraq and Its Impact on the Political Aspect 1534-2011*, Noor Baghdad Printing Company, Baghdad, 2012, pp. 45-47; Lamia Abdul Aziz Mustafa Abdul Karim, *Public Services in Iraq 1869-1918*, Ph.D. thesis, College of Arts, University of Mosul, 2003, pp. 67-71.
19. Sultan Abdul Hamid II (1842-1918): He was born in the "Gira Gan" palace, his mother died when he was (10) years old, his father entrusted him to his sterile wife, Bresto, he received special education and, in accordance with palace education, received his first education from specialized and famous teachers in their knowledge of state affairs and their extensive sciences, he was very intelligent and enjoyed engaging in manual activities, and he learned the Persian, Arabic, and French languages, as well as other sciences. He learned the piano and music from the Italians. He had a distinguished poetic side. He assumed power in 1876 and his rank among the Ottoman sultans was 36. His coronation ceremony took place in the (Dolmabahçe Palace). His era witnessed various developments, including the Young Turk Revolution. For more information, refer to: Saif Allah Arbaji, *Sultan Abdul Hamid AL-Thani: His Reform Projects and Civilizational Achievements*, Brouj, 2017, pp. 17-19; Muhammad Harb, *Sultan Abdul Hamid II: The Last of the Great Ottoman Sultans 1842-1918*, Dar Al-Qalam, Beirut, 1990; Orhan Muhammad Ali, *Sultan Abdul Hamid II: His Life and Reign Events*, Buyuk Jamlija, Istanbul, 2008, pp. 51-80.
20. Mehdi Muhammad Qadir, *Education in South Kurdistan in the Last Ottoman Era 1869-1918*, Salahaddin University, Erbil, Iraq, 2021, p. 119.
21. Fadel Bayat, *Educational Institutions in the Ottoman Arab East: A Historical and Statistical Study in Light of Ottoman Documents*, Center for Research on Islamic History, Arts, and Culture, Istanbul, 2013, p. 522; Ahmed Gouda, *Ibid*, p. 47.
22. Eugene Rogan, *The School of Clans in Istanbul*, trans. Nihar Muhammad Nuri, Dar Al-Waraq Publishing, Beirut, 2014, pp. 27-36.
23. Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, *Ibid*, p. 164."
24. Ibrahim Khalil Ahmed, the former source, pp. 32-34; Nameer Taha Yassin, *The Beginnings of Modernization in Iraq 1869-1914*, Master's Thesis, The Higher Institute for National and Socialist Studies, Al-Mustansiriya University, 1984, p. 249; Ibrahim Khalil Ahmed, *The Evolution of National Education in Iraq (1869-1914)*, Publications of the Arabian Gulf Center in Basra, Basra, 1982, p. 64; Aqeel Emad Hussein Abdous, *Raouf Al-Jadirji and His Political and Diplomatic Role in Iraq 1882-1959*, Introduction: Ikhlas Lutfah Hariz Al-Kaabi, Al-Rayahin Printing Press, Baghdad, 2022, p. 29; Miada Qais Ramadan Al-Nasiri, *Mohammed Raouf Taha Al-Shakli, His Biography and His Military and Cultural Activities (1882-1965) A Historical Study*, Master's Thesis, College of Arts, University of Basra, 2012, pp. 34-35.
25. I have been known by this name since 1889, and it is the executive body of the Young Turks party, which dates back to 1865. The majority of its members were initially students of the medical school in France. It operated in complete secrecy for fear of discovery by the Sultan, and received support from both Britain and France. Its first conference was held in 1902 when it adopted the slogan of freedom, fraternity, equality. Its organizations infiltrated the army in 1906. For further information, refer to: Yılmaz Öztuna, *History of the Ottoman State*, Vol. 2, translated by Adnan Mahmoud Salman, Faisal Finance Foundation, Istanbul, 1990, pp. 221-222; Nadia Yassin Abdul, *The Unionists: A Historical Study of Their Social Roots and Intellectual Propositions in the Late Nineteenth Century*, PhD thesis, College of Arts, University of Baghdad, 2006; Ahoud Mohammed Al-Kharsha, *The Union and Promotion Society and Its Impact on the Great Arab Revolution*, Master's thesis, Mu'tah University, 2004, pp. 45-55; Ismail Nouri Al-Douri, *Mahmoud Shoukat*

- Khudair, The Deception of the Union and Progress Society in the Deposition of Sultan Abdul Hamid II, Tikrit University Journal of Humanities, Vol. 16, No. 3, March 2009, pp. 342-345; Ruhi Al-Khaldi, The Ottoman Coup and Young Turkey, Hindawi Foundation for Education and Culture, Cairo, 2012, p. 50.
26. Ibrahim Khalil Ahmed, The Development of Educational Policy in Iraq between 1914-1932, Master's Thesis, College of Arts, University of Baghdad, 1979, pp. 34-35; Khaled Ahmed Al-Jawal, Encyclopedia of Prominent Figures of the Royal Politicians of Iraq (1920-1958), Vol. 1, General Cultural Affairs House, Baghdad, 2013, p. 76.
  27. Nimir Taha Yassin, *Ibid*, p. 249.
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34. The Iraqi government was formed on 25th October 1920 under the presidency of Abdul Rahman Al-Naqib, the Prime Minister. The cabinet consisted of (8) executive ministers and (12) ministers without portfolios. For further information, refer to: Adnan Harir Al-Shujairi, Basic Administrative Organizations during the Temporary Government of Iraq 1920-1921, Journal of the College of Basic Education, University of Babylon, Issue 9, September 2012, p. 166.
35. Ministry of Education and Public Health: The ministry has been formed, and it is formally led by an Iraqi minister and effectively advised by a British consultant, and this position has been assigned to Azat Pasha Al-Karkukli. For more information, refer to: Abdul Razzaq Al-Hassani, History of Iraqi Ministries, Vol. 1, Ed. 7, General Cultural Affairs House, Baghdad, 1988, pp. 19-21.
36. Alaa Khamees Alwan Al-Humairi, *Ibid*, p. 1134.
37. Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, History of Education in Iraq during the British Occupation 1921-1932, Reviewed by: Alia Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, Al-Rafidain, Beirut, 2017, pp. 263-264.
38. Alaa Khamees Alwan Al-Humairi, *Ibid*, p. 1136; Manar Abdul Majid Abdul Karim, The American University in Beirut and the Impact of its Iraqi Graduates on Political Thought in Royal Iraq, Tha'er Al-Asami Foundation, Baghdad, 2014, p. 75; Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, History of Education in Iraq during the British Occupation 1921-1932, *Ibid*, pp. 356, 261; Amal Hanna Frouha, Design of the Student Cost Accounting Information System for Iraqi Students Studying Abroad, Ph.D. Thesis, College of Administration and Economics, University of Baghdad, 1988, pp. 14-16.
39. Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, The History of Education in Iraq during the British Mandate 1921-1932, *Ibid*, pp. 356-357; Raheem Kazem Mohammed Al-Hashimi, Mohammed Fadel Al-Jamali and His Political Role and Educational Approach until 1958, Reviewed by: Kamal Mazhar Ahmed, Arab Institution for Studies and Publishing, Beirut, 2012, p. 26; Alaa Khamees Alwan Al-Humairi, *Ibid*, p. 1136; Salem Hashim Abbas Abu Dalla, Education and Knowledge in Iraq during the Time Period (1534-1933), Karbala Education Directorate, Ahl Al-Bayt (Peace Be Upon Them) Magazine, Issue 22, n.d., p. 285; Mohammed Fadel Al-Jamali, Iraq Between Yesterday and Today, General Cultural Affairs Department, Baghdad, 1954, p. 9. The names of the students and the countries to which they were sent will be addressed in the second chapter.
40. It was separated from the Ministry of Education during the establishment of national rule in Iraq, and became an independent ministry and developed and flourished. However, this development and prosperity did not continue, as the Ministry of Health was abolished on June 8, 1922 and transformed into the General Health Directorate, and was linked to the Ministry of Interior until 1939, and then attached to the Ministry of Social Affairs in 1939, remaining linked to this ministry until 1952, when the Ministry of Health was formed. For more information, see: Haider Hameed Rashid, Health Conditions in Iraq 1945-1958, a Historical Study, Master's Thesis, Ibn Rushd College of Education for Humanities, University of Baghdad, 2007, p. 77.
41. Mohammad Rustum Haydar (1889-1940): He was born in Baalbek to a well-known family. He studied in Damascus and then at the Royal Shahaniyah School in Istanbul, graduating in 1909. While a student in Istanbul, he founded a secret Arab society with his colleagues called "Al-Fatat." He then completed his higher education in France at the Sorbonne University and the School of Political Science, graduating in 1912. He wrote a book in French about "Muhammad Ali Pasha's great movement, reviving Egypt and the initiator of its Arab independence." He returned to Syria and was appointed as the director of the Sultan's school. He became a private secretary and advisor to Prince Faisal, the

commander-in-chief. When Faisal traveled to Europe to present the Arab cause, Rustum was the head of his council and accompanied him to Italy and Britain. He then returned to the Hejaz and accompanied Faisal to Iraq in 1921, where he was appointed as the head of the royal council. He held various positions until he was killed by the police commissioner, Hussein Fawzi. For more information, refer to: "The Memoirs of Rustum Haydar," edited by Najda Fathi Safwat, Arab Encyclopedia House, Beirut, 1988, pp. 52-9; Abbas Farhan Zaher, "Rustum Haydar and His Political Role," Master's thesis, Ibn Rushd College of Humanities, University of Baghdad, 1997.

42. Abdul Razzaq Al-Hilali, "Scientific Missions between 1922-1932," *Arab Horizons, "Journal,"* Baghdad, Issue 1, Year 4, March 1979, pp. 20-23.
43. The same source, pp. 23-24.

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- 7) Hassan Al-Dujaili, *Higher Education in Iraq*, Al-Rashad Press, Baghdad, 1963.
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- 11) Saif Allah Arbaji, *Sultan Abdul Hamid II, his reform projects and civilizational achievements*, Buruj, D.M., 2017.
- 12) Shakri Mahmoud, *The Iraqi Nadim in the era of Ottoman rule: the second phase 1908 to 1918*, D.T., Dar Dijlah, Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, 2008.
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