

OVERDUE FINES:

25¢ per day per item

RETURNING LIBRARY MATERIALS:

Place in book return to remove  
charge from circulation records

20 12 049  
~~20 12 049~~  
MAR 03 83 R  
77 061  
~~20 12 049~~  
MAR 03 83 R  
~~20 12 049~~  
MAR 03 83 R  
MAR 03 83 R

BASIC CONCEPTUAL PROCEDURE  
FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A HOLISTIC PLAN  
PROCESS FOR THE CASE OF IRAN

By

Iraj Eftekhari

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to  
Michigan State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

College of Social Science

1981

G115747

COPYRIGHT BY  
Iraj Eftekhari  
1981

## ABSTRACT

### BASIC CONCEPTUAL PROCEDURE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPREHENSIVE PLAN FOR THE IRANIAN ENVIRONMENT

By

Iraj Eftekhari

The normal environmental problems of a country are always exaggerated in a developing country such as Iran. The recent phenomena of urbanization, industrialization, and modernization have fortunately given rise to the new science of planning to combat the problems brought about by these same phenomena. Unfortunately planning in Iran has had a narrow focus. Planning has been based only on economical considerations and has caused problems in the social, political, and cultural aspects of the entire nation. Although planning started with physical and economic goals and objectives, the planning policy was not efficiently forecast or predicted to answer the people's physical needs. Also planning is difficult to deal with in a traditional country such as Iran where there is such a range of people and variety of geographical situations.

As a result Iran has experienced a plethora of problems which may be divided into social problems, political problems, psychological problems, economic problems, cultural problems, and technological problems.



The purposes of this study were:

- 1) To create and design a planning procedure to deal with the Iranian people's needs, desires, aspirations, and welfare which coordinates the national, provincial, and local levels of planning.
- 2) To provide a model of participatory planning based upon the holistic approach which will alleviate Iran's social, political, psychological, economical, cultural and technological problems.
- 3) To compare the holistic plan with the past Iranian Fifth National Plan.
- 4) To consider and clarify more relations between the holistic plan and national, provincial, and local planning levels which have been missing in previous National plans.
- 5) To examine the holistic model of planning based upon selected Iranian villagers' expressed needs.

The discussion of National Plans, conclusions and recommendations is based on the holistic approach method. The most important and most crucial points are raised.

To Fatemeh, Fariba, Farivar,  
whose encouragement and patience  
made this study possible.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The researcher extends his sincere appreciation to all individuals who helped make this study possible.

To Professor Myles Boylan, a sincere appreciation is expressed for his help and encouragement as guidance committee chairman and as dissertation co-director.

To Dr. Christopher Sower, Professor Sanford Farness and Dr. Robert H. McKinley who served as members of the guidance committee, and for always being available when needed.

## PREFACE

This thesis is the result of thirty years of hard work, study and experience with many different classes of people whom I love with all my heart. I was born in a small village called Khormabad in the western part of Iran in 1938. Coming from a simple, religious, middle-class family caused me to undergo lots of challenges and changes. I was faced with many problems in my early years which caused my thinking to become more humanistic and holistic. More thinking and researching about people strengthened my nationalist feeling. Therefore, I denoted all my intelligence and effort to the development of a realistic solution to people's problems. My desire is that these words will be a little help to the poor people who have always been a toy to the rich people.

As an Iranian young fellow, I had the dual responsibility of supporting my large family and studying hard to pass the competition to enter the University. Despite family opposition to continuing my education, I succeeded in receiving my Master of Architecture Degree in 1968.

Eight years of study in the School of Architecture had not only resulted in my success in this field, but it also gave me the chance to travel all around my country and study the relationship between architecture and people's values. At the same time, I was training and practicing architecture in different agencies. I spent five more years practicing architecture for the army, for the

government, and for myself in my own firm. These experiences brought me to the question of whether I should use my creativity to dictate to people or to advise them. In addition to this question, I felt that I did not have an adequate theoretical background to deal with decision making and problem solving in my environment. Therefore, I left all I had back in Iran and started a degree in urban planning at Michigan State University because I felt planning was an extension of architecture.

After two years I received my masters in urban planning in 1975. During that time I was exposed to sociology and anthropology which were areas that attracted my attention and were complementary to my knowledge. I arrived at a holistic approach at this stage and passed my comprehensive examinations.

I then decided to go back to Iran for more research and information. I spent three years in Iran (1975-1978) teaching architecture and the planning process at the National University. I also conducted a test of what I had learned. I concentrated on villages because villages are the major environment in Iran and I selected Ahmadabad as a case study. My experiences while teaching, learning, and traveling with my students in the villages caused me to deeply believe every word of this dissertation.

In order to gain more insight I decided to interview other people directly in their own languages. In addition to spending months in Iranian villages, I made several long trips to the Far East, Asia, the Philippines, Australia,

South America, and North Africa. These trips gave me the chance to compare Iranian villager problems with those of other nations. As a result, I concluded that a broad perspective view (holistic plan) is needed to face multiple problems.

This dissertation was started during the Shah Regime and all of the documents, information, and data were collected between 1975 and 1978, before the Iranian New Revolutionary Government. Basically this dissertation is not a prescription for a specific government, but it is a guideline for finding a better doctor to solve the problems of any environmental organization. It is a procedural planning process which concentrates on Iran. Finally, this thesis presents a formula for bringing a broad range of human values under one framework for better evaluation. The major goal of this attempt is to create future environments with more freedom, equality and justice.

Although this dissertation was begun in 1975 during the previous Shah Regime, its theory is still applicable to the new regime. This is especially true because of the latter's strong religious values. My hope is that this dissertation will be useful to my nation and to the new regime.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .	xvi
CHAPTER I	
Introduction . . . . .	1
Statement of Thesis. . . . .	4
Research Objectives. . . . .	4
Problem Statement. . . . .	5
Social Problems. . . . .	8
Political Problems . . . . .	9
Psychological Problems . . . . .	10
Economic Problems. . . . .	10
Cultural Problems. . . . .	11
Geographical & Physical Problems . . . . .	12
Technological Problems . . . . .	13
Limitations of the Study . . . . .	14
Assertions . . . . .	14
Research Design and Methodology. . . . .	15
Introduction . . . . .	15
Data Resources . . . . .	16
Zone I. . . . .	17
Zone II . . . . .	18
Zone III. . . . .	18
Zone IV . . . . .	20
Data Collection Procedures . . . . .	20
Analysis of the Data . . . . .	21
Summary. . . . .	22
CHAPTER II	
Iran - Baseline Information. . . . .	23
Geographic Characteristics . . . . .	24

	Page
Regional Zones. . . . .	27
Zone I - The Caspian Sea	
Coastal Region. . . . .	30
Social Factors. . . . .	33
Psychological Factors . . . . .	33
Economic Factors. . . . .	33
Zone II - The Mountain Region . . . . .	34
Social Factors. . . . .	34
Psychological Factors . . . . .	35
Zone III - The Desert and	
Semi-Arid Region. . . . .	35
Geographical Factors. . . . .	35
Social Factors. . . . .	35
Psychological Factors . . . . .	36
Economic Factors. . . . .	36
Cultural Factors. . . . .	37
Zone IV - The Southern Coast	
Region. . . . .	37
Social Factors. . . . .	37
Psychological Factors . . . . .	38
Economic Factors. . . . .	38
Summary. . . . .	38
Social Systems . . . . .	38
Levels of Governmental Units . . . . .	44
Demography, Definition of Cities,	
and Other Settlement Patterns. . . . .	44
Basic Structure of the Cities. . . . .	49
Functions of Cities. . . . .	50
Structure of Other Communities . . . . .	51
Summary. . . . .	53
Iranian Social Class Structure . . . . .	53
Introduction . . . . .	53
Iranian Social System Overview . . . . .	54
Upper Class of Elites. . . . .	54
Middle Class . . . . .	55
Lower Class. . . . .	56
Urban Lower Class . . . . .	56
Rural Lower Class . . . . .	57
Overview of General Social	
Structure . . . . .	57
Significant Rural Worker Groups . . . . .	58
Petty Landowners . . . . .	60
Rural Tribal Groups & Nomad Groups . . . . .	63
Summary. . . . .	65
The Political System . . . . .	65
Introduction . . . . .	65



	Page
National Level. . . . .	66
Province Level (Ostans); Local Levels . .	68
Summary . . . . .	69
The Economic System . . . . .	70
Introduction. . . . .	70
Economics-Definition. . . . .	70
Industrial vs. Agricultural . . . . .	72
Imports-Exports . . . . .	74
Agriculture . . . . .	74
Summary . . . . .	77
The Cultural System . . . . .	78
Introduction. . . . .	78
Culture - Definition. . . . .	78
Language as a Cultural Subsystem. . . . .	79
Religion as a Cultural Subsystem. . . . .	81
Kinship as a Cultural Subsystem . . . . .	81
Art, Architecture, and Planning as a Cultural Subsystem . . . . .	82
Summary . . . . .	85
Culture and the Holistic Approach to Planning . . . . .	85
The Psychological System. . . . .	86
Psychology - Definition . . . . .	86
Introduction. . . . .	86
The Technology System . . . . .	87
Introduction. . . . .	87
Iranian Technology System . . . . .	89
Summary . . . . .	92

### CHAPTER III

A Concise History of Iranian Reform Plans and a Listing of Problems Left Unsolved in the Iranian Environment. . . . .	93
Introduction - The Five National Plans. .	93
The First National Plan (September, 1948- September, 1955) . . . . .	94
Summary, Unsolved Problems. . . . .	99

	Page
The Second Seven Year Plan (September, 1955 - September 1962) . . . . .	100
Summary . . . . .	102
The Third Development Plan (September 1962 - March 1968) . . . . .	103
The White Revolution . . . . .	103
The Twelve Points of Reform . . . . .	105
Major Characteristics . . . . .	107
Summary, Unsolved Problems . . . . .	108
The Fourth National Plan for Iran (March, 1968 - March, 1973) . . . . .	109
Summary . . . . .	117
The Fifth National Development Plan (March, 1973 - March, 1978) . . . . .	119
Major Objectives of the Fifth Plan . . . . .	119
Summary, Unsolved Problems . . . . .	133

#### CHAPTER IV

Holistic Planning, Theory Development . . . . .	134
Introduction . . . . .	134
Assumptions . . . . .	135
The Holistic Method: Evolutionary Phases . . . . .	135
Introduction . . . . .	135
Phase One . . . . .	136
Phase Two . . . . .	136
Phase Three . . . . .	137
Phase Four . . . . .	139
Phase Five . . . . .	140
Summary . . . . .	142
Definitions of Significant Planning Terms . . . . .	143
Introduction . . . . .	143
Plan . . . . .	145
Planning . . . . .	146
Physical Planning . . . . .	148
Social Planning . . . . .	150
Systematic Planning . . . . .	152
Urban Planning . . . . .	153
Master Plan . . . . .	154
Holistic Planning . . . . .	155
Summary . . . . .	156

	Page
Principles of Holistic Planning. . . . .	156
Introduction . . . . .	156
Relationship of Whole to Part. . . . .	157
Procedural Planning Process. . . . .	158
Iran - A Whole to Part Example . . . . .	160
Principle of Systems and Levels. . . . .	163
Principle of Function to Form. . . . .	168
Principle of Time and Space. . . . .	170
Time . . . . .	170
Space. . . . .	174
Summary. . . . .	175
Principles of Systematic Planning. . . . .	176
Application of the Holistic Planning	
Process . . . . .	178
Summary. . . . .	185
 CHAPTER V	
Ahmadabad - A Descriptive Study. . . . .	187
Introduction . . . . .	187
Historical Background. . . . .	188
The Agrarian Village Physical Pattern. . . . .	190
Social Structure . . . . .	192
Population Features of Ahmadabad	
Residents . . . . .	194
Shahsavand Shepherds Pattern . . . . .	194
The Family Relation. . . . .	196
Emigration . . . . .	198
Housing as a Social Sub-System . . . . .	200
Economics of the Village . . . . .	202
Water. . . . .	204
Qanat System . . . . .	204
Social Collectivities and Structures . . . . .	206
System of Justice. . . . .	206
Researcher Observations. . . . .	210
Economic Limitations of the Village	
System. . . . .	211
Summary. . . . .	213
 CHAPTER VI	
Summary and Recommendations. . . . .	215
Summary. . . . .	215
Recommendations. . . . .	217
Economic System Recommendations. . . . .	219
Housing Recommendations. . . . .	221

	Page
Social System Recommendations . . . . .	222
Public Safety Components . . . . .	222
Government Management	
Recommendations . . . . .	223
Migration Control as	
Social Components . . . . .	224
Cultural System Recommendations . . . . .	225
Religion . . . . .	225
Language . . . . .	226
Mass Media . . . . .	226
Conservation and Preservation . . . . .	227
Political System Recommendations . . . . .	227
Recommendations for Human Values/	
Human Development . . . . .	227
Natural Resources Recommendations . . . . .	228
Physical Recommendations . . . . .	228
Recommendations for Further Research . . . . .	230
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	232

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. The Subsystems of An Environmental Supersystem. . .	25
2. Horizontal Hierarchy of Levels. . . . .	26
3. The Regional Zones of Iran. . . . .	32
4. Iranian Population Increase in Three Decades. . . .	39
5. Population Growth . . . . .	40
6. Regular Households and Population Indicators Urban and Rural 1976. . . . .	41
7. Estimated Urbanization Rate in Iran, 1949-1966. . .	48
8. Estimated Urbanization Rate in Iran 1967-1978 . . .	49
9. Allocation of Costs to Various Aspects of Development. . . . .	95
10. Revenue and Expenditure of F.S.Y.P. . . . .	97
11. Final Revenue and Expenditure under the F.S.Y.P. . . . .	98
12. Credit Allotments under the Second Seven Year Plan 1956-1962 . . . . .	100
13. Summary of Revised Credit Allotments under Second Seven Year Plan 1956-1962. . . . .	101
14. Total Approved Credits and Disbursements by Plan Chapters during the Third Plan Period. . . .	104
15. Income and Expenditure of the Fourth Development Plan. . . . .	111
16. Allocation of Plan Organization's Development Budget During the Fourth Plan . . . . .	112
17. Cost of Living Index 1338-1345. . . . .	115
18. Objectives of Major Economic Sectors Based on Production Values. . . . .	116
19. Fixed Investment in Rural Development During the Fifth Plan . . . . .	128

Table	Page
20. Fixed Investment in Urban Development During the Fifth Plan. . . . .	129
21. The Holistic Planning Information Matrix . . . . .	164
22. The Supersystem Systems, and Subsystems The Planners Guide for Planning. . . . .	183
23. Family Size - House Size Comparison. . . . .	195

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Map of Middle East. . . . .	28
2. Climatic Divisions of Iran. . . . .	29
3. The Geographical Zones Of Iran. . . . .	31
4. Circular Change and the Population. . . . .	42
5. State Divisions of Iran . . . . .	45
6. Major Cities of Iran. . . . .	46
7. Iranian Social Classification Pyramid . . . . .	54
8. Social Structure in the Rural Areas After the Land Reform. . . . .	61
9. Language in Relation to Holistic Plan Phenomena . . . . .	80
10. Culture - Industry - Technology . . . . .	89
11. Man and Nature. . . . .	137
12. The Tri-Dimensions of Human Life. . . . .	138
13. Four Dimensions of Man's Complex Life . . . . .	139
14. Six Interacting Dimensions of Human Life. . . . .	140
15. The Human Life Complex as Viewed from the Holistic Approach. . . . .	142
16. A Comparison of Social Planning and Physical Planning. . . . .	151
17. Circular Planning Process . . . . .	159
18. A Model of Governmental Levels in Iran Based on the Whole to Part Principle . . . . .	162
19. The Molecular System of Complex Human Life. . . . .	166
20. The Hexagonal Complex of System Balance . . . . .	168

Figure	Page
21. Time and the Human Complex. . . . .	172
22. Village and Regional Input-Output Components of the Circular Planning Process. . . . .	180
23. The Holistic Circular Planning Process Using Housing as an Example. . . . .	182
24. Holistic Planning Evaluation and Feedback Process . . . . .	185
25. Location of Ahmadabad. . . . .	187
26. A Typical Environmental Perspective of Ahmadabad. . . . .	189
27. Ahmadabad Site Plan . . . . .	191
28. Typical Family Household Diagram. . . . .	197
29. Responsibilities and Time Consumption of the Ahmadabad Villager by Sex . . . . .	199
30. Khoshneshin Extended Family House . . . . .	201
31. A Typical Plan. . . . .	201
32. Market Town and its Satellites. . . . .	203
33. Holistic Schematic Recommendation . . . . .	210
34. Process of Change from Migration. . . . .	213



## CHAPTER I

### Introduction

Modern man, no matter what his origin or nation, finds himself faced by an increasingly complex dilemma. Urbanization, industrialization and environmental deterioration have thrust man's life-cycle into another stage of evolution. Although reaping the benefits of technology, man is simultaneously confronted by its overwhelming drawbacks. Human societies in semi-industrialized countries and particularly those living in countries currently undergoing rapid development, find themselves unable to deal with these drawbacks. Technological advances seem to promise happiness, but man appears to be unable to control the massive negative effects of technology upon his life. This inability leads to social, political, economic, cultural, psychological and other human stresses or conflicts which hamper the citizens of any society in fulfilling their basic needs.

Historically, man's achievement of his basic needs shows the following:

1. As man has evolved, the tendency has been to move from the simple to the complex.
2. The "meaning" of man's being, which consists of human values and ascribed significance, has changed and is continually changing through the process of human evolution.

3. The artifacts which man creates are influenced by his changing meanings and values.

More than in any other century known to man, industrialization in this century has changed the values of man and thus changed the "meaning" of his being. In order to grasp the complex changes over time, man has divided his "meaning" into several different sciences or disciplines. The problem is that in the subdivisions there has been a lack of coordination and conscious interrelating between the component sciences and disciplines in spite of their overlap.

Environmental planning may be applied to achieve an overall design to combine human values and meaning within a broad perspective. Planning strives to meet the demands and needs of the people in one controllable framework. Planning is concerned with the future of a people; therefore, planning should include peoples' perceptions but should not formulate arbitrary schemes for them. Lewis Mumford has stated:

Civilizations have risen and fallen without apparently receiving the full import of their relations with the earth....All good planning must begin with a survey of actual resources: The landscape, the people, the work-a-day activities in a community; it begins with a knowledge of existing conditions and opportunities....To build intelligently today is to lay the foundations for a new civilization....The final test of an economic system is not the tons of iron, the tanks of oil or the miles of textiles it produces: the final test lies in its ultimate products--the sort of men and women it nurtures and the order and beauty and sanity of their communities.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Lewis Mumford, Faith for Living. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1940, p. 207.

In a country such as Iran, environmental planning is needed which takes into consideration the current rapid development of the country's human and material resources and the multiple societal impacts this development has on Iran's citizens.

These perceptions are based on the researcher's personal observations and assessment of past and current Iranian planning attempts at both the national and village level. It is a perception of man's complex and evolving creative process which influenced the development of the holistic planning approach which is the subject of this dissertation.

A holistic plan is defined as a plan which treats as a whole entity or super system relevant social, political, psychological, economic, cultural and technological system elements. The scope of this plan is discussed in detail in Chapter IV.

In selecting the topic of Iranian environmental planning, the author engaged in the following processes:

- 1) A review and analysis of selected literature on planning theory; national planning in Iran; Iranian culture and customs, economics, history, demography and census data, among others.
- 2) Identification, selection and organization of the researcher's professional and practical observations of Iranian environmental planning.
- 3) Several on-site visits to a variety of Iranian villages and towns to assess previous planning

results.

- 4) An analysis of the information collected, leading to the development of a holistic planning model for the Iranian environment.

### Statement of Thesis

Iran's problems seem to be the result of ineffective past national planning strategies, governmental organizations and institutions. In order to deal with them, Iran needs a new planning orientation and a participatory organization with enough political power to initiate and coordinate planning across national, provincial and local levels. An integration of levels of planning, both vertical and horizontal, is essential for effective implementation.

### Research Objectives

The philosophical framework as well as the purpose of this study have emerged as a result of the researcher's experiences. These have been evolutionary in nature. Educational and professional experiences in the fields of architecture, urban planning, anthropology, and sociology have led to the formulation of these purposes.

1. To design a planning procedure which takes into overall consideration Iranian social, political, psychological, economic, cultural, and technological phenomena, and coordinates them at the national, provincial, and local levels of planning.

2. To evaluate the five past Iranian National Plans and to contrast them with a holistic system of planning.
3. To examine some crucial relationships between holistic systems and the national, provincial, and local planning attempts which have been deficient under previous National Plans.
4. To provide a conceptual model of participatory planning based upon the holistic approach whereby a range of development problems in Iran may be alleviated.
5. To examine some of the basic features of the holistic planning model through a descriptive survey of selected Iranian villages.

#### Problem Statement

The normal environmental problems of a country are always greater in a country such as Iran which is developing rapidly because of new and increasing oil revenues. Additionally, there are the serious problems of Iran's natural environment. The variety of terrains and climates over a small area and the arid ambience will continue to exist. Contemporary phenomena of urbanization, industrialization, and modernization compound the natural problems. These are the problems that the new science of planning attempts to moderate. Planning is difficult in a traditional country such as Iran where there is such a variety of geographical situations and ethnic groups. To date, planning in Iran has

had too narrow a focus. National planning started on economic considerations which limited its focus to the economy and has caused problems in social, political, and cultural areas for the entire nation. Additionally, since the first National Plan in 1948, national planning has not adequately included the needs of municipal or regional levels in policy and programs planning decisions.

The neutral and geographical problems, much less the problems of development, cannot be solved by the Iranian planning programs currently being implemented. These plans and plans currently being contemplated do not consider the country's physical and social needs as a whole. When perceived as a whole, the most effective way to deal with Iran's problems will be to consider the relationships between the environment, basic social needs, values and whatever other factors are relevant. Only activities directed towards fulfilling the full range of human needs through coordination of programs in urban planning, social planning, economic planning, and the like will succeed, because the needs they address overlap and impact on each other. Confusion duplication and inefficiency result when national planning ignores the need for articulation and coordination of all the essential planning components. This happened with the five national plans previously implemented in Iran. Through a lack of coordination of planning for stipulated goals, each government ministry or department acted independently, with the result that none of their plans succeeded in fulfilling stated aims and

and objectives. Cole summarized the resolution of the problem in his discussion of integrated planning in Brazil, a third world nation evidencing environmental planning problems similar to those facing Iran.

At the national level of government, successive urban development plans should embody a measure of continuity sufficient to enable sub-national governments, including city or local governments as well as regional or provincial governments, to produce plans which are compatible with overall national objectives. At the same time, urban development plans at all levels should constantly be reviewed and amended in the light of current research into demographic, social, economic and technological changes in city life and growth. And while towns and cities should be willing to perform the economic and social roles which are considered necessary from the national and regional standpoints, they should be permitted to take part in the formulation of national and regional plans of direct concern to them, and be assisted administratively and financially to perform their allotted roles.

. . . .

It follows that policies and plans for urban development should be fully coordinated with policies and plans for national development; that physical planning (which in the past has tended to dominate the sphere of urban development) should be integrated with economic planning (which has tended to dominate the sphere of national development); and that, at all levels of government, development plans should be expressed geographically in terms of economic activities, and socially in terms of people and social infrastructure.<sup>2</sup>

These kinds of recommendations apply most relevantly

---

<sup>2</sup>Harry James Cole, "Integrated Metropolitan Development in Brazil," Urbanization in Developing Countries. The Hague, Netherlands: Martinus Nijhoff for the International Union of Local Authorities, 1968, pp. 166-167.

to processes needed for Iran. The previous national planning in Iran has lacked the kind of comprehensive and coordinated policies described in Cole's discussion. The negative features of Iranian national planning to date are numerous:

1. Lack of coordination and communication between planning agencies and other institutions for achieving national, provincial and local goals.
2. Competition between agencies conducting any planning.
3. Lack of adequate public participation in the planning process at every governmental level.
4. Lack of agency independence and authority to formulate and implement planning schemes.

The following is offered as a preliminary identification and assessment of the major shortcomings of Iran as related to the context of comprehensive planning and management. The points are listed according to the hierarchy of problems discussed in Chapter IV, "The Holistic Plan Theory."

#### Social Problems

1. Disparity between social classes in a nation of increasing population. There is little equality; a few are rich and the bulk of the population is very poor (see Figure 7 and detailed discussion in Chapter II).
2. Lack of adequate educational facilities. While physical educational facilities are growing, educational quality is not keeping up; both are needed.



3. Lack of effective population migration control.  
Many poor, uneducated villagers are moving to urban areas and creating ghettos of poverty. While, wealthy, educated citizens are leaving Iran.
4. Inadequate health services and facilities for preventive and clinical care of the massive population.
5. Lack of comprehensive planning for housing and urban development.
6. Inadequate opportunities for public recreation.  
There are insufficient municipal playgrounds and other recreation resources in high population concentration areas. Most parks and forests in the country were restricted to use by the royalty.
7. Insufficient consideration given to public safety such as traffic flow, fire protection and police protection.

### Political Problems

The 1963 "White Revolution" initiated significant Iranian political reform. As decreed by the monarchy, it created the one-party legislature. A parliament and senate were established as will be described in detail in Chapter II and called for land reform. Political problems include the following:

1. The judicial and executive systems have been

modeled after those of old France and are insufficient to meet contemporary needs. Both are overloaded with a backlog of work that is not being done.

2. Most of the economic and political power is concentrated in the hands of a few people.
3. The House of Justice, a new village judicial body, clashes with the traditional village judicial systems.

### Psychological Problems

As a result of all of the above stated problems, there appears to be some obvious attitudinal stresses. Some of the major emotional and behavioral problems are:

1. Lack of citizen trust in government.
2. Inadequate social and economic security for the majority of the people.
3. Lack of citizen participation in political and social activities due to the citizens fear of government repression.

### Economic Problems

Numerous economic problems exist in Iran because holistic planning is not practiced. Systems of economic distribution to date are woefully inadequate.

1. Inflation is rampant in Iran due primarily to an imbalance between the utilization of natural resources and manpower. Foremost, is a lack of long-range planning concerning the use of oil

revenue in ways that would best maximize the development of the nation.

2. There is a scarcity of goods and materials. In the beginning of the 1960's, grains and fruits were exported because there were surplus crops. In 1976, most had to be imported. Building and construction materials are scarce.
3. Scarcity of adequate housing; available housing is expensive. Seventy percent of Iranian dwellings are made of mud and straw and are of sub-standard quality.
4. Inequitable distribution of wealth. The majority of the population lives in poverty, especially in the urban ghettos and small villages.
5. A high rate of unemployment exists most of the year. In many regions work is only seasonal contributing to a migrant problem in Tehran.

### Cultural Problems

People's alienation from themselves and from their traditional cultural values are basic issues to be addressed in this dissertation. Cultural values, such as customs, mores, and traditional modes of behavior must be carefully considered in planning since culture infiltrates the total spectrum of lifestyles in Iran, and all the SP<sub>2</sub>ECT areas.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>3</sup>SP<sub>2</sub>ECT is used to designate the Social, Political, Psychological, Economic, Cultural and Technological system elements which make up the whole national entity, or super-system. From now on, SP<sub>2</sub>ECT will be replaced to holistic approach.

Cultural problems include:

1. Religious problems where new changes in governmental rules and laws conflict with traditional religious rules and laws. This has caused deep dissension and opposition to the new regulations among those affected.
2. Language barriers which make communication difficult between geographical areas with a variety of languages and dialects.
3. Mass media problems due to the fact that radio-television programs, newspapers, etc., have not been directed toward the majority of people's needs.
4. Rapid cultural changes which have affected customs, arts, folklores, kinship, family relations and rituals.
5. No adequate means or designs for preserving the historical environment and buildings in such old cities as Yazd, Kashan, Shush and other villages.

#### Geographical and Physical Problems

Iran's climate is variable and gives rise to a number of problematic physical conditions at the extremes of the weather spectrum. Some of these problems are:

1. Lack of sufficient water. Rain clouds are blocked from the desert area by the high mountains that surround the Iranian plateau.
2. Occurrence of natural disasters such as earthquakes and floods.

3. Lack of equality and balance between urban and rural development areas.
4. Inadequate knowledge of the frequent governmental criteria, standards, rules and regulations for physical development.
5. Insufficient technological machinery and programs for improvement in agricultural, administrative, industrial and other services.
6. Lack of adequate public facilities such as schools, hospitals, health clinics, libraries, recreation facilities, sanitary facilities, energy utilities, sewage, drainage and other such facilities.

#### Technological Problems

Rapid urbanization and industrialization have brought about problems in the cities such as:

1. Shortage of technicians.
2. Shortage of adequate engineers.
3. Shortage of skilled planners.
4. Shortage of technological instruments such as computers.
5. Lack of sufficient building materials (i.e. cement).
6. Lack of organized systems of purchase and delivery.

In the rural areas there are problems such as:

1. Lack of farm equipment (i.e. plows).
2. Lack of training in agri-business techniques.

3. Natural resources of small villages destroyed to provide for the needs of the urban areas.
4. No concentration on development in the small villages.

#### Limitations of the Study

This study does not deal with this full array of problems. Rather, it summarizes some of the dominant difficulties evident to a researcher and revealed in Iranian documents. This summary serves as the base for the planning procedure system described later in this dissertation.

#### Assertions

The main assertions of the researcher are:

1. Environmental planning should result in improvement in the lives of people and should not disrupt their lives.
2. Environmental planning in traditional or culture-bound countries should consider the multidimensional aspects of holistic planning and recognize that cultural traditions represent a potential impediment to progress in environmental planning.
3. Environmental planning should be responsive to social changes such as urbanization, industrialization and modernization. Goals and objectives should be flexible enough to respond to holistic approach change.
4. Environmental planning for Iran should evidence strong relationships between the dimension of

holistic plan.

5. Environmental planning for Iran should emphasize strengthening communication, coordination and integration between the national, provincial and local levels.
6. Participatory environmental planning, in which the public is encouraged to contribute and planning officials are responsive to public input, meets with greater public acceptance and has a higher probability of being implemented successfully.
7. Environmental planning has been more advantageous and available to urban area residents than to residents of rural areas.
8. Long-term and short-term environmental planning must be designed on a cyclical basis in a traditional society like Iran where urbanization, modernization and industrialization are prevalent components of change.
9. Holistic environmental planning is the most effective means of resolving Iran's multiple societal problems.

### Research Design and Methodology

#### Introduction

The descriptive, rather than a quantitative, method of inquiry was selected for this study since Iranian environmental planning is such a complex topic. The magnitude of

the entity, the Iranian environment and the breadth of planning eliminates all but the descriptive approach as the most productive method. This method best illustrates the inter-relatedness of the pertinent factors. The study commences with a summary of existing, primary and secondary information concerning Iran: its geography, its population and current national planning.

### Data Resources

Data concerns both the national and village levels. Secondary information was provided by an Iranian planning organization, universities, private agencies, census data and other secondary sources. Primary data, information from its original source, was collected for the village scale of social structure by interview, by personal observation, by student's reports and by recorded descriptions of Iranian villages.

Criteria for selecting these two scales for research survey purposes include the following:

1. Village proximity to Tehran. A radius of 150 kilometers was drawn around the Iranian capital city and the villages were then randomly selected from each zone.
2. The existence of observable unique handicrafts, industries, ancient architecture and city planning patterns with significant Iranian characteristics. Ahmabad was selected as a case study to show the impact of culture upon the nature of environmental planning needs.



3. Evidence of the impact of climate on the patterns of the community and the materials and design of the houses.

Iran is divided by the researcher into four distinct zones based upon geographical and cultural factors. (See Figure 3, page 31) This division is made because geography has a distinct impact upon the evolution of the unique cultures of each area. (This is discussed in detail in Chapter II.) The zones follow with particular cities and villages, representative of the area, noted. The villages were selected on the basis of conformity to selected standards in terms of population density, climate, location, economic status, social hierarchy and political involvement. Their zone location was one of the prime factors for selection. The main population surveyed was the 1,500 residents of Ahmadabad, a village 126 kilometers south of Tehran and 6 kilometers from Saveh.

Zone 1.--The Caspian Sea Coastal Region is characterized by a high degree of rainfall, forests, fertile soil, agricultural production: rice, tea, cotton, oranges; many cities and villages; high density population; recreation areas. Masaleh was selected as a representative village of Zone 1. The researcher spent five days there with thirty students. Over 600 man-hours of data were collected concerning the life-style of the inhabitants and the village plan for comparison purposes.

Zone II.--The Mountain Region is characterized by Mediterranean climate with four seasons; medium rain or snow fall; rocky ground with some good soil and contain animal husbandry, live stock areas; most of Iran's large cities such as Tehran; high density population; popular summer and winter recreation areas. Representative settlement units are:

1. Hamedan: The first visit was with 65 architecture-planning students for two days to research Hamedan and its Comprehensive Plan and to study Lalehjin, an old industrial village. Lalehjin is characteristic of a primitive industrial village due to geographical conditions. Each family specializes in the production of a product such as ceramics, carpets, and other small items.
2. Kolchjin, Khoramabad, Arak: Ten days were spent in these areas with thirty architecture-planning students examining the village and city patterns and the life-styles of the people.
3. Firoozabad: The researcher spent three days examining a relatively newly settled people in Firoozabad who were former nomads.

Zone III.--The Desert and Semi-desert Arid Region is characterized by slight differences between summer and winter temperatures as well as between day and night temperatures. Low rainfall; partially fertilized soil; an irrigation water system in Qanat; agricultural production and dry plants were

noted. Traditional or old villages and cities with low density population and no adequate recreation areas predominate. Cities and villages visited were the following:

1. Ahmadabad: This is the main subject or case to support the dissertation. The village is 126 kilometers south of Tehran and 6 kilometers east of Saveh on the edge of the desert. It was visited four times with thirty students over a four and a half month period. Thirty students worked on the project of surveying and studying the village; each student prepared a project report. Such reports served as an information resource and are so identified in the body of this research report.
2. Yazd: This city was visited for four days with thirty students. Photographs and interviews were collected during this period. Distinct centuries old urban development characteristics were evident in this city. Many characteristics of Iranian history and culture development were also evident in Yazd.
3. Abianeh and Zavareh: These two villages were visited for five days with twenty-six students. Both villages are distant from normally traveled roads. The ancient zoroasterian religious customs and beliefs in terms of dress, language and behavior may still be observed in this village.

Zone IV.--The Southern Coast Region is characterized by hot humid weather; oil wells, ports, rocky and muddy soil, low population density, low rainfall and inadequate recreation facilities. Settlement areas visited were Shush, Dezful, Kolenjar and several other villages. Shush and Dezful were major cities during the ancient royal dynasties of Iran. Five days were spent with thirty-six students gathering data.

#### Data Collection Procedures

Research information was gathered at the village level using the open-ended interview method. The rationale for using this process was the lack of reliable secondary data or adequate sources of information about the villagers and the concomitant lack of data concerning their needs. No census information was available. The open-ended dialogue method was adapted after it was determined that a questionnaire was not appropriate with the illiterate xenophobic villagers. Accordingly, the researcher could work only with those villagers who were willing to dialogue with him. There were a multitude of constraints to this approach. The villagers were reluctant to provide information that they felt could make them liable for more taxes. Thus, economic information is limited, especially that concerned with income. The data should be viewed only as the perceived responses of people bound by culture, limited knowledge and suspicious of strangers. Responses were manually noted and recorded. In addition to the interviews,

observation was a major resource for primary data. Observations were recorded through sketches of village house locations, public areas and house floor patterns. Photographs, slides and movies were taken in some of the villages. Lalehjin and Ahmadabad were emphasized in the filming process.

The data collection procedure was intended to receive and to collect villager perceptions of existing problems with as little interference from the researcher's perceptions as was possible.

Data for provincial and national levels were selected from existing secondary sources which included, among others, census data, ministry reports, journals and the Iran Almanac. Statistics on production, economics, population, income, et cetera, were compiled from the above sources.

### Analysis of the Data

After collecting the interview data and the secondary data, the information was tabulated and analyzed in terms of the various parameters of holistic planning. There was an attempt to retain the values of the villagers in impersonal datum. This analysis posed many difficulties because any value, behavior, action or reaction; any factor that helps determine the human environment differs from situation to situation and from time to time. Responses were compared and contrasted. Analysis was also accomplished through charts, tables, matrices and models. Chapters II, III and V consist of detailed presentations

of that information.

During the interviewing, it was found that the data available from the villagers was not responsive to the interviewers' questions. They simply could not respond to some questions. These contingencies made the results of the surveying impossible to quantify, but in compensation introduced many new aspects which might be considered in a broader perspective.

### Summary

Chapter I has provided an introduction to the problems in Iran and the rationale, assertions, design and methodology for a holistic approach to planning. Chapter II provides an overview of general secondary information which is important to a competent treatise on the environmental planning process for Iran. Relevant secondary information provides the basic foundation for the summaries of the past national plans which are described in Chapter III. The primary and secondary data provide the catalyst for the holistic planning theory described in Chapter IV and for the case study of Ahmadabad in Chapter V. Chapter VI provides the summary and recommendations of this study.

## CHAPTER II

### Iran - Baseline Information

Iran is a complex nation in its multiple dimensions. Its topography varies in altitude; its climate ranges from arid to high altitude frigid; its people vary from primitive nomads to international cosmopolites; its culture ranges from the maintenance of ancient customs and traditions to the practice of the most liberal contemporary mores and values. The holistic planning theory (described in detail in Chapter IV) is applicable to a nation like Iran because the theory attempts to perceive and deal with the integration of those multiple factors in environmental planning. In order to apply such a theory to the Iranian environment on a continuing basis, a national level institution is needed to establish and maintain a continuously revised information system.

The purpose of this dissertation is to develop the holistic planning theory. Chapter I provides a procedural overview of the dissertation. Chapter II provides selected basic information concerning Iran's geographical, demographic, political, economic, cultural, psychological and technological factors. It is presented to provide an overview of Iran and to serve as a foundation for the theory application in the case study presented in Chapter V.

In Chapter II national level information is presented first, followed by village level information. This conforms

to the holistic planning process of whole to part. Although it is described in detail in Chapter IV, the theory perceives data in matrix fashion. It is the author's assumption that the Iranian environment, the supersystem, may be analyzed by planners in terms of the following six systems. They are the social, political, psychological, economic, cultural, and technological systems; these are the subsystems of an environmental supersystem as shown in Table 1. The data which comprise the holistic theory can be presented in matrix fashion with the vertical elements of the matrix consisting of these six systems. These systems were considered by the author to embrace the entire spectrum of Iranian life and are, therefore, deemed entirely valid for analytical purposes. It must be pointed out that these are not discrete categories; each system is interrelated with each of the other systems. The horizontal data dimension examines information by level, i.e. whether it is national, regional, provincial, metropolitan, municipal (city) or village level data. These two dimensions -- horizontal and vertical -- make up a matrix for analyzing essential planning information. This is shown in Table 2. The information which follows will be presented within the realm of this conceptual framework.

#### Geographic Characteristics

Natural resources and demography influence every dimension of the supersystem, although they impact most the economic dimension. Therefore, geographic and demographic



**Table 1. The Subsystems of An Environmental Supersystem**

Super System					
Social System	Political System	Psychological	Economical System	Cultural System	Technological
1. Social Structure	1. Components of Sub-systems	1. Trust	1. Human energy	1. Race	1. Technical
2. Stratification	2. Monarchy	2. Cautious	2. Natural resources water in villages Forests, pastures	2. Religion	2. Instruments used in Villages
3. Education	3. Constitution	3. Belief	3. Industrial arrangement	3. Rituals	3. Industrial machinery
4. Health	4. Legal & Judicial System	4. Active	4. Land use, land control and land values	4. Language	4. Electric machinery
5. Income	5. Executive Institutional relation sources and location of power	5. Emotional	5. Coordination	5. Community	5. Household machinery and appliances
6. Population	6. Election	6. Critical Values	6. Foreign Trade & economic relation	6. Customs	6. Agricultural machinery
7. Employment	7. Political parties	7. High artistic Values	7. Agriculture Production and Prices Livestock Production	7. Arts and architecture	7. Energy and power
8. Public Safety	8. Public Information	9. Security	8. Exports and imports	8. Equipment and Tools	8. Fire prevention
9. Housing	9. Foreign relations	10. Unorganized	9. Manpower	9. Agriculture	9. Heat
10. Leisure and Recreation	10. Political values and attitudes	11. Calm	10. Expenditures	10. Knowledge	10. Light
11. Immigration	11. Revolution	12. Self-confidence	11. Aqueduct	11. Fine Arts	11. Power production
12. Social Organisation Status, Rule Bureaucracy	12. Legal Norms	13. Fear	12. Irrigation lineage	12. Mass Media	12. Mass Media
	13. Equity Houses	14. Bold	13. Economic Organizations Banks	13. Traditions	
		15. Pessimism		14. Superstitions,	
		16. Stability (consistency)		15. Folklore	
		17. Love			
		18. Rational			
		19. Artistic elements			

Table 2. Horizontal Hierarchy of Levels

LEVELS SYSTEM	NATION	PROVINCE	REGION	CITY	VILLAGE
Vertical	Social	Education Immigration Health	Branch of National Education	Specific Training	School University or Culture
	Political	Legislative Judicial Enactive	Province Limitation Election	Regional Law for Preservation	Municipality own Central Institution
	Psycholog- ical	Trust Motivation	Various to their Econ Condition	Various Zone	Cold Characterized to Zone Boundaries
	Economic	Income Man Power Energy	GPP	GRP Gross Regional Production	GCP Budget Expenditure
	Cultural	Religion Language Art	Beliefs Dialogue and Art are Limited	Various	Characterized from Region
	Technolog- ical	Tools Machines Industry	Industry Location	Agricultural Mechanized Industry Location	Urbanization Modernization Industrial- ization
SUPER SYSTEM					
					Elementary Educational co Health Corp
					Hse/Equity Political Structure
					Warm Limited Characterized
					GVP which is Moves to GNP
					Unique Culture
					Primitive Tools and Technique

This table shows the varieties of main factors in two orientations, horizontal and vertical.

information will be presented first. An attempt is made to show the relationship between factors and to analyze these relationships in order to clarify the planning requirements.

Iran, also called Persia, is a Middle Eastern country with 628,000 square miles of land, which is about one-sixth the size of the continental United States of America. It is bounded by the Caspian Sea and the Soviet Union on the north; it shares a 1,000 mile frontier with Iraq and Turkey on the west; it is bounded on the east by Afghanistan and Pakistan, and it is bounded on the south by the Persian Gulf, the Gulf of Oman, and the Arabian Sea.<sup>4</sup> (See Figure 1)

Iran varies radically in its geographic geological characteristics. It has a wide range of altitude and climate. The 1977 Iran Almanac describes the country as follows:

Iran is vast plateau with various geographical, geological composition and climate...<sup>5</sup>  
Iran has a wide variety of flora and fauna.  
The richest region is the Caspian littoral, although Iran has some of the most arid deserts in the world.<sup>6</sup>

Figure 2, a schematic of the "Climatic Division of Iran" shows the extreme ranges of the Iranian climatic environment.

#### Regional Zones

In order to show the disparity of geographic and climatic factors, as previously discussed, the author

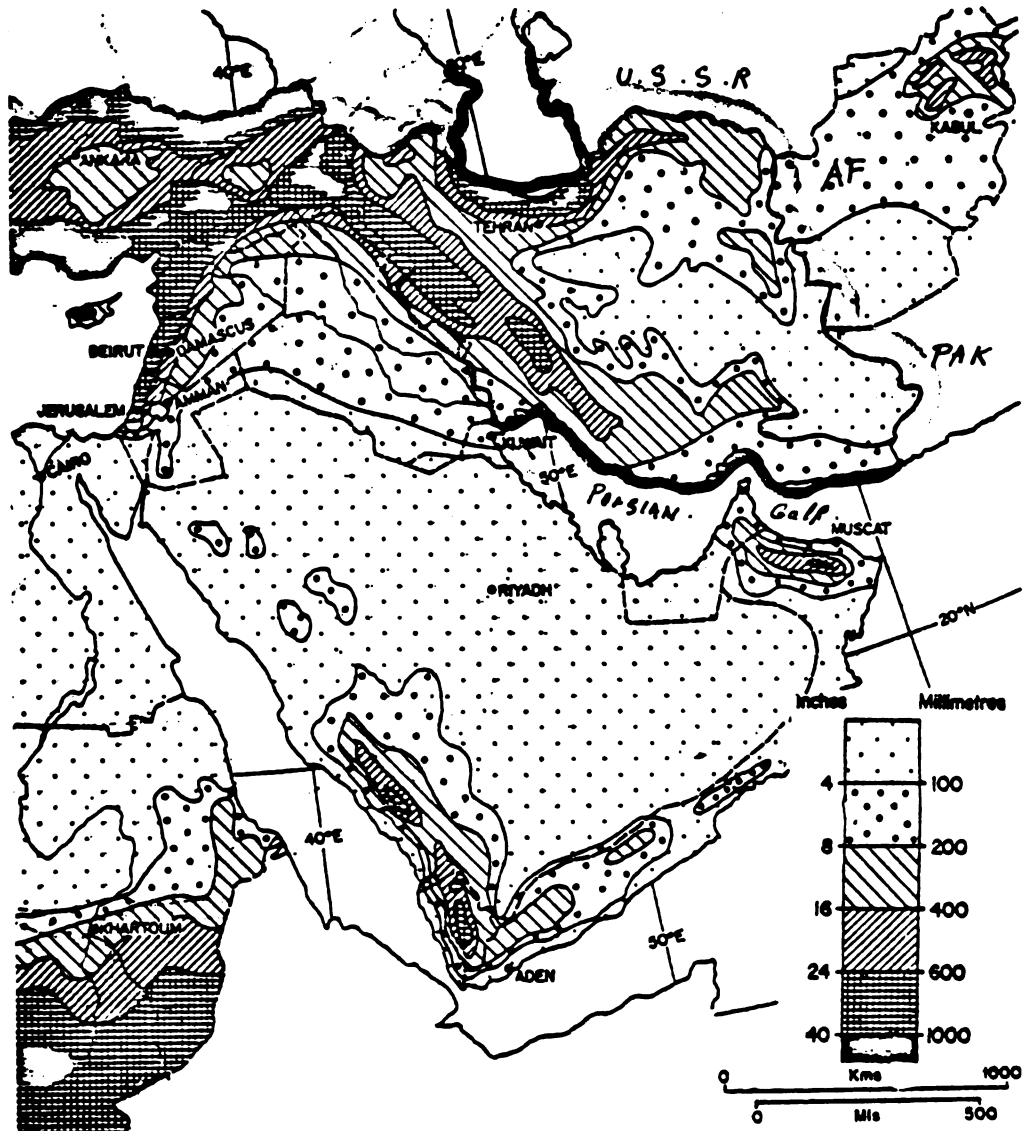
---

<sup>4</sup>Harvey H. Smith, Area Handbook for Iran, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Printing Office, 1971, p.

<sup>5</sup>Behruz, Jahangir, Director, Iran Almanac and Book of Facts, 1977, Tehran: Echo of Iran, 1977, p. 81.

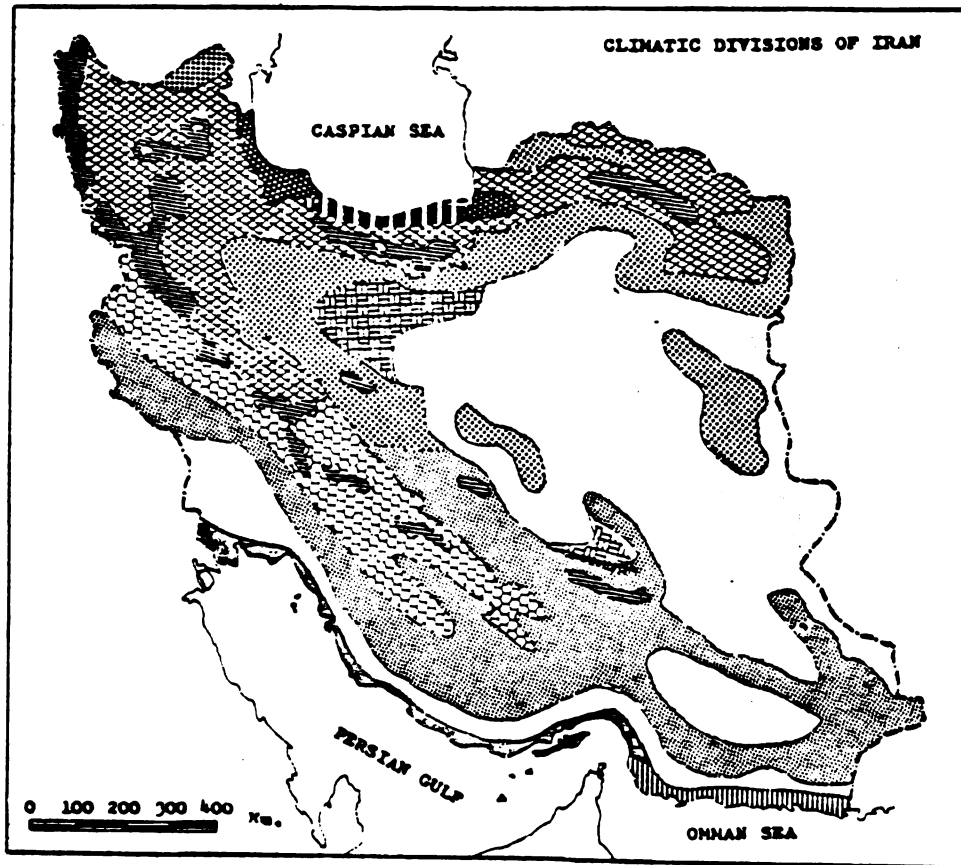
<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 83.

Figure 1  
Map of Middle East<sup>7</sup>



<sup>7</sup> Behruz, Jahangir, Director, Iran Almanac and Book of Facts, 1977, Tehran: Echo of Iran, 1977, p. 81.

Figure 2  
Climatic Divisions of Iran<sup>8</sup>















Climate of Iran

Different types of arid climate: 1,200,000 Sq.Km. (approx.)

Moderate climate: 400,000 Sq.Km. (approx.)

Cold mountainous climate: 40,000 Sq.Km. (approx.)

	Extra Cold Mountainous Climate		Cold Semi-Desert Climate
	Cold Mountainous Climate		Hot Semi-Desert Climate
	Wet Moderate Caspian Climate		Arid Desert Climate
	Caspian Moderate Climate		Arid Hot Desert Climate
	Mediterranean Climate With Spring Rainfall		Coastal Arid and Hot Climate
	Mediterranean Climate		Coastal Arid Climate

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 79.

divided the nation into four regions or zones based upon natural physical characteristics. (See Figure 3.) The four zones are referred to as The Caspian Sea Coastal Region (Zone I), The Mountain Region (Zone II), The Desert and Semi-Arid Region (Zone III), and The Southern Coast Region (Zone IV). The country is viewed from a regional perspective because the geography and climate have a distinct impact upon the social, psychological, economic, cultural and technological characteristics of the inhabitants of the different zones.

There are two major determinants which isolate the four zones from each other. They are the geographic or topographic characteristic and the climate. Both affect the economic productability of the population. Table 3 presents a brief description of the major differences of each zone.

#### Zone I - The Caspian Sea Coastal Region

This region represents approximately one-tenth of the Iranian land mass. It is bounded by the Caspian Sea and Russia on the north, by the Alborz Mountains on the south, by Mashad and Afghanistan on the east, and by the mountain region of Zone II on the west. The tolerable climate is humid due to a high average annual rainfall of fifty inches. The soil is fertile, the forests are verdant, and the agricultural production is good. Raw materials and minerals are abundant. There are many rivers in this region which flow into the Caspian Sea. The Caspian

Figure 3

## The Geographical Zones of Iran

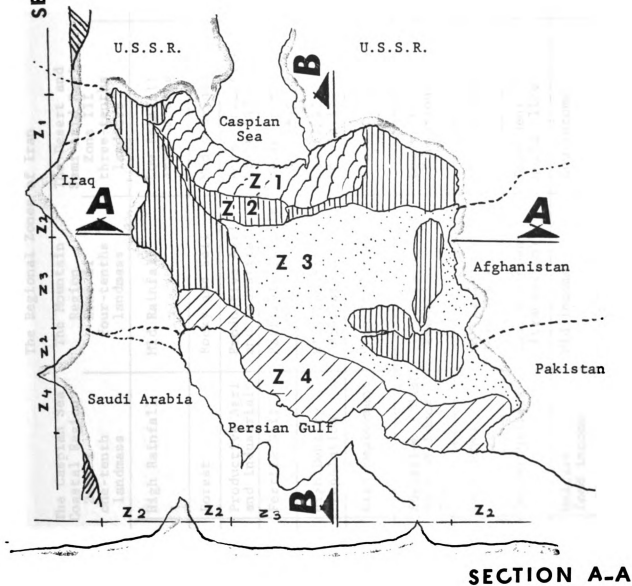


Table 3

## The Regional Zones of Iran

Regional	The Caspian Sea Coastal Region			The Mountain Region		The Desert and Semi-Arid Region		The Southern Coast Region	
	Zone I one-tenth landmass			Zone II four-tenths landmass		Zone III three-tenths landmass		Zone IV two-tenths landmass	
Main Geographical Factors	A	High Rainfall		Mid Rainfall		Low Rainfall		Low Rainfall and High Humidity	
	B	Forest		Rocky and Soil		Mod and Sand		Rocky and Soil	
	C	Productive Agri and industrial		Productive Agri and industrial		Poor productive Light industry		Poor productive More Dry Wheat	
	D	Fertile Soil		Partially Fertile		Varied place to place		Varied	
Social Factors	A	High Density Population		High Density Population		Low Density Population		Mid Density population	
	B	High Employment		High Employment		Migrant Seasonal Labor		Oil refineries Port Employee	
	C	Education - High Rate of Education		High Rate of Education		Low rate of Education		Mid rate of Education	
Psychological Factors	A	Confidence		Partially confidence		Unconfidence		Partially confidence	
	B	Individualized		Ind. dependent (transition)		Dependent to social life		Very dependent	
Economic Factors	A	Welfare - food income		Mid income		Low income		Mid-low income	
Technological Factors	A	High Urbanized		High Urbanized		High Rural area		Mostly Rural	
	B	High Recreation		Enough Recreation Nature		Lack of Recreation		Developing Recreation	



Sea provides for a good fishing industry, notably caviar.

Social Factors - There are general cities with high density population in this area. The people are primarily of the elite and middle class, although there is a support base of worker lower class. Their lifestyle is comfortable due to a high rate of employment in this agricultural and industrial region. There is a high rate of education across all social classes in this area. Although several dialects are spoken in this region, the similarity of the dialects permits adequate communication.

Psychological Factors - Since rich natural resources contribute to a relatively stable agricultural-economic base, the people tend to have a greater self-confidence. Their basic life needs, such as adequate shelter, food and health, are met. The people tend to be more stable and individualistic than, for example, those in Zone III, who live in the Semi-arid area. Their educational experiences have resulted in an attitude which accepts the change of urbanization, industrialization, and modernization.

Economic Factors - The rich natural resources of this region provide the best economic base when compared to the other Iranian zones. Agricultural production includes, among other products, rice, tea, cotton and oranges. The fishing industry and related

port activities provide employment for many people. This area provides transportation to Russia. The lumber industry is developing along with other natural resource related industries. Recreation and tourism are additional sources of income.

Mousaleh was selected as a representative village of Zone I.

#### Zone II - The Mountain Region

The Mountain Region represents nearly four-tenths or slightly less than half of Iran's land mass. It is predominantly a high altitude rocky terrain. In one area near the slope of the mountain range the soil is fertile. It has a four season climate. There is a mid-range rainfall and snowfall. Although there is a rocky terrain, there is some good productive soil in the region which supports some of Iran's most important crops.

Social Factors - Over half of the nation's population inhabits major urban areas, like Tehran, which is located in this region. Heavy industry and agriculture provide high employment. This zone absorbs the migrating villagers. There is a sharp contrast in the life-styles of the people. The social classes range from the unskilled migrant worker to the most sophisticated cosmopolite. The opportunity for higher education exists more in this region. Most of the nation's universities are located in this area.

Psychological Factors - This zone is the center of complex social, political and technological change. The people are under the stress of transition, and the resultant rapid change in their life-style. The intellectuals, since the turn of the century, have tried to introduce Western concepts into this zone. The results are the clash of modernism and traditionalism where people's value differences are immense.

Economic Factors - The nation's major industries and agricultural production are carried on in this zone. The capitol city of Tehran, located in this zone, is the center of the nation's finance, business and transportation.

### Zone III - The Desert and Semi-Arid Region

Geographical Factors - This region, nearly one-third of the nation's land area located in the center of the country, is characterized by vast sandy deserts and poor soil. The region is rimmed by three different mountain ranges. Hot temperatures, high winds, and the arid climate cause a scarcity of water and, therefore, sparse vegetation. The average rainfall is only five inches per year. The people use the Qanats, an ancient underground canal system of miles long, for bringing their water from the mountains to their villages.

Social Factors - Population of this region is sparse since there is very little water. Small villages are the predominant civil unit. Many of the

settlements are located near the mountains because this places them nearer to the sources of rainfall. Since there is virtually no modern industry to provide employment, the employable youth leave the villages to migrate to the cities for jobs. This results in the nation's largest migrant problem. Only the elderly and the children remain in the villages. The older population works on handcrafts and lies in the sun smoking, while the children attend school half day and help with the handcrafts during the balance of the day. The education is poor and the result is a low literacy level. There are many dialects in this area which complicates communication.

Psychological Factors - The hot arid climate has contributed to village decline and movement in order to find water. The water level of a spring is directly related to the location and longevity of a village. Villagers move their settlements each time a spring dries. This need for mobility contributes to the clannish dependency of the villagers. The climate seems to affect the attitude and nature of the people. The psychological solidarity of the people is represented by the design of their villages where the houses are attached to each other. This will be shown in the description of Ahmadabad in Chapter V.

Economic Factors - Economically the people of Zone III are relatively poor. The natural resources are gravely limited, the soil is not conducive to production,

and the manpower for development is mighty. Although the people grow dry wheat and pistachios, they mainly support themselves through their handicrafts. They weave carpets, make silk, and sew clothes.

Cultural Factors - The inhabitants of this region have retained some ancient social and religious traditions. The mosque serves as a social center for the villagers. The structures of their artifacts, the materials used in their creative designs, and the variety of their customs make their culture distinct in Iran.

The aridity of the climate and the poor conditions keep the people from attaining any political or economic importance in Iran.

#### Zone IV - The Southern Coast Region

This area is characterized by hot humid weather because it is located near the equator. It is bounded by mountains on the north, by the Persian Gulf on the south, by the desert and Pakistan to the east and by high mountains and Iraq in the west. The zone represents about one-fifth of the nation's land area. The soil varies from rocky and infertile in some areas to fertile and productive in other areas. The rainfall is relatively low in this region. The major resource is oil and oil related industries.

Social Factors - The region has a mid-density population. The people have a low to low-middle income which has improved with the expansion of oil refineries and

the development of ports located along the Persian Gulf. Ancient cities, port cities and villages are the civil units. Compared to Zone I and II the educational attainment of the population is low.

Psychological Factors - The people of this area are characterized as inter-dependent, warm, and friendly. The minority population is Arab and nomadic. They have had a strong psychological-cultural influence on the population.

Economic Factors - The area's major financial resource is oil with all of its attendant operational activities. In addition, there are some industries which provide employment for the region's manpower.

### Summary

The foregoing discussion of Iranian zones has provided a brief overview of the geography, climate, and related economic-social and psychological factors. In the holistic planning concept, (examined in detail in Chapter IV), the national level is an important facet of the information universe. It is referred to as the supersystem in the hierarchy of essential information. Geography and climate impact population distribution, as well as the availability of natural resources. This influences the system factors, that is, the social, political, psychological, economic, cultural and technological phenomena of a nation. The discussion of regions or zones requires an examination of the population and the civil units created for governmental purposes. A discussion of the

nation's population will be followed by a description of the civil units of Iran. In the holistic planning concept the former is referred to as the social system, and the latter is labelled the political system. An overview of the Iranian cultural system concludes the description of basic information about Iran.

### Social Systems

Population figures are essential information for planning and development projects. The Iranian national census has been taken twice during the Shah Regime, in 1956 and 1966. Tehran, the nation's capitol, has a population of 4,496,159. The nation's population is 33,591,875 million as of December, 1976. The number of people who live in urban areas is 15,715,338, and 17,876,537 people live in rural areas. Table 4 and Table 5 show the trend of Iranian population growth.

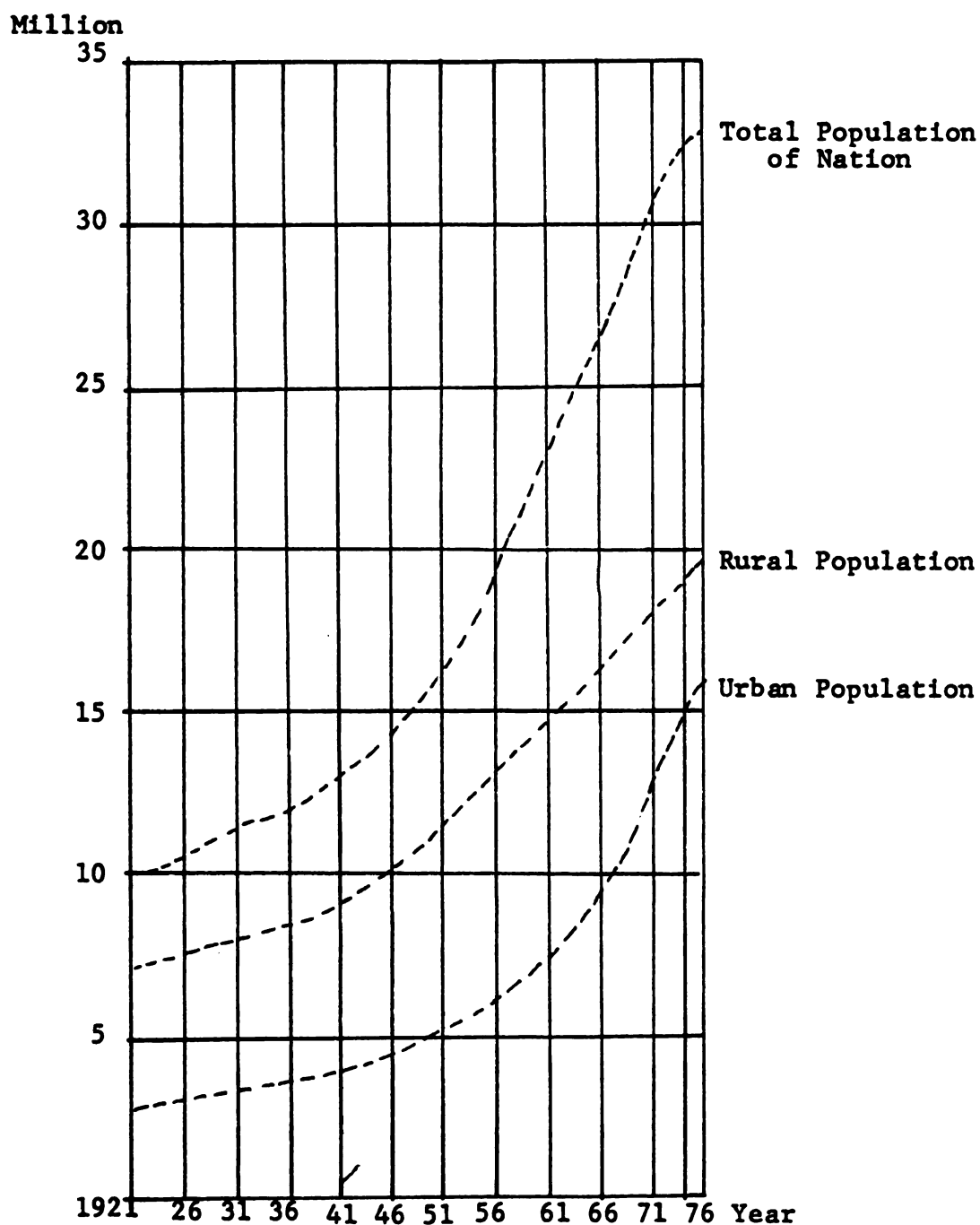
Table 4  
Iranian Population Increase In Three Decades<sup>9</sup>

Year	1956	1966	1976	%
Total	18,954,706	25,078,923	33,591,875	100
Male	---	12,981,665	17,277,656	51.43
Female	---	12,097,258	16,314,219	48.57
Urban	5,900,000	9,789,000	15,715,338	46.78
Rural	13,054,704	16,078,923	17,876,537	53.22

---

<sup>9</sup> Report of the Last Census Data 1976. Statistical Report No. 1, p. 5.

Table 5  
Population Growth<sup>10</sup>



<sup>10</sup>Statistical Census Data, Social, Economical Evolution of Iran, 1973. Translated from Farsi and drawn by I. Eftekhari, 1977.



Thirty-six and nine-tenths percent (36.9%) of the nation's population is literate. Males have a higher literacy rate of 47.9 in comparison with the female rate of 25.5 percent.<sup>11</sup> Table 6 indicates the following characteristics of Iranian population and households.

Table 6  
Regular Households and Population Indicators<sup>12</sup>  
Urban and Rural 1976

Region	Households	Total Population	Male	Female	Average Persons per Household
Urban	3,256,187	15,715,338	8,185,218	7,530,120	4.83
Rural	3,459,927	17,876,537	9,092,438	8,784,099	5.17
Total	6,714,114	33,591,875	17,277,656	16,314,219	5.00

The trends appear to be:

- 1) The national population is growing rapidly. The total population in 1966 was 25,078,923. In 1976 it was 33,591,875, an increase of 8,512,952 or over 25 percent;
- 2) The growth of population in urban areas is greater than that in rural areas; when male and female data are examined, they reveal that men are migrating to cities more than women;
- 3) The total national urban population in 1966 was

---

<sup>11</sup>Report of the Last Census Data 1976. Statistical Report No. 1, p. 5.

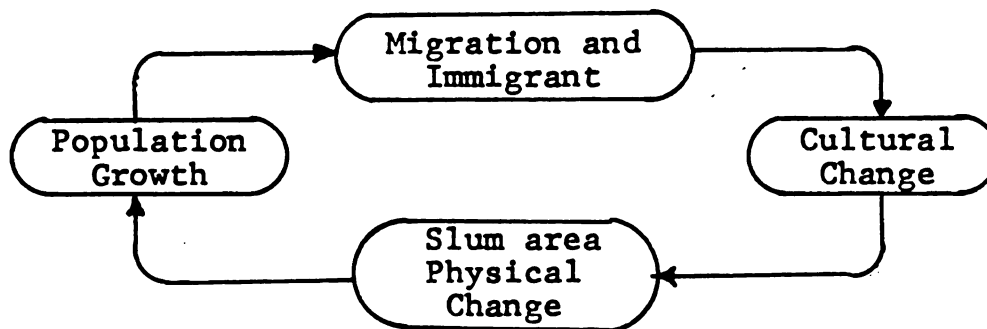
<sup>12</sup>Translated from Farsi, Statistical Census Reports, (S.C.R.), 1976.

about forty percent of the total, and became fifty percent in 1976. This indicates that urbanization is growing at an increasing rate, due mainly to immigration from rural areas.

An examination of Table 5, "Population Growth," shows that the population has increased far more rapidly during the 1970's than in the previous two decades. An analysis of the growth of cities shows that many villagers are migrating to the cities. These migrants generally live in slums at the edge of the cities. Most tend to be young men with the following characteristics: they provide manpower in the unskilled work force; they have little or no education; they leave their families and live among strangers; they experience cultural conflict alienation from the urban life patterns. Figure 4 shows the change cycle.

Figure 4

Circular Change and the Population



The reasons for migration are shown on page 41, Table 6.

The negative consequences or disadvantages of this substantial immigration include:

- 1) Inadequate urban infrastructure (overloading);
- 2) Insufficient housing - overcrowding;
- 3) Poor health care;
- 4) Increased city crime;
- 5) Traffic congestion;
- 6) Lack of balance between agricultural and industrial production as manpower resources;
- 7) Chaos in the social organization;
- 8) Change in peoples' attitudes and characters upon returning to their villages. They are psychologically distressed by the inherent value conflicts;
- 9) Imbalance in the numbers of each sex. The tables show that the number of women is less than the number of men. Therefore, sexual relations with the religious limitation has caused an increase in sexual assault;
- 10) Lack of vocational education of the worker. He has been left only to earn money by manual, unskilled labor.

The positive consequences or advantages of urban immigration could include:

- 1) Citizens may earn some money on transferring from the rural to the urban environment;
- 2) This money will be sent back to the family for support or it may be spent in the city.

### Levels of Governmental Units

The nation of Iran is divided into many governmental organization levels. Geographical factors seem to be one influence upon the Iranian civil divisions. The Country is divided into twenty-two states or provinces called "Ostans."<sup>13</sup> Ostans are the largest civil division in the nation. (See Figure 5 for a list of Ostans and a map of their locations.) The next governmental organizations in order of size are "Shahrestan," which constitutes large cities or towns. (Figure 6 shows the names and locations of Iran's major cities.<sup>14</sup>) Bakhshes are rural districts or townships. The smallest unit is the Dehestan, which constitutes a village. Iran's major concentration of population lies in cities, towns, and villages. The cities function as centers of finance, commerce, religion, and government.

### Demography, Definition of Cities, and Other Settlement Patterns

According to the description given in the census taken in 1956, all the areas which have more than 5,000 inhabitants are categorized as cities and communities. Those areas with less population are villages. In 1932, it was estimated that two-thirds or more of the total population consisted of villagers and nomadic tribes. According to the 1956 census, 31.4 percent of the population were urbanized, and 68.6 percent were rural inhabitants. In

---

<sup>13</sup> Ibid., pp. 96-97.

<sup>14</sup> Amirie, Abbas and Hamilton Twitchell, Iran in 1980. Tehran: Institute for Political and Economic Studies, 1978, p. 399.

Figu 3 5

## State Divisions of Iran



STATE DIVISION, January 1977

Ostan (Province)	No. of Shahrestans	No. of Bakhshs	No. of Dehestans	No. of Municipalities	Central of Ostan
1. Central (Tehran)	14	44	105	40	Tehran
2. Gilan	10	21	56	30	Rasht
3. Mazandaran	10	34	123	44	Sari
4. East Azarbaijan	10	33	86	39	Tabriz
5. West Azarbaijan	9	18	64	20	Rezaiyeh
6. Kermanshah	5	17	60	13	Kermanshah
7. Khuzistan	11	30	109	24	Ahwaz
8. Fars	11	31	112	28	Shiraz
9. Kerman	6	17	122	19	Kerman
10. Khorasan	15	52	210	44	Mashad
11. Esfahan	9	21	68	43	Esfahan
12. Sistan & Baluchistan	5	21	70	11	Zahedan
13. Kurdistan	6	16	49	8	Sanandaj
14. Hormozdagan (**)	5	23	77	19	Bandar-Abbas
15. Hamadan	4	11	34	11	Hamadan
16. Lorestan	3	17	63	10	Khorramabad
17. Chahmahal & Bakhtiary	2	8	23	6	Shahr Kord
18. Zanjan	3	7	22	5	Zanjan
19. Yazd	4	10	18	8	Yazd
20. Semnan	3	8	23	7	Semnan
21. Ilam	4	13	41	13	Ilam
22. Boveir-Ahmadi & Kuhgiluyeh	2	7	13	3	Yassuj
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>151</b>	<b>459</b>	<b>1,548</b>	<b>445</b>	<b>-</b>

\*) As of March 1975. \*\*) Old Coastal Province.

Figure 6  
Major Cities of Iran<sup>15</sup>



<sup>15</sup> Ibid.

1976, 48.6 percent were urbanized, and 51.4 percent were rural inhabitants.

The central provinces are the most urbanized in the nation. The rate of provincial urbanization includes Esfahan at 62.9% (Zone V), Yazd (Zone III) at 61.2%, and Khuzistan at 65.1% (Zone IV) urbanization. The least urbanized provinces are Kahkohue and Baluchistan.

A simple conclusion is that in all provinces the trend has been towards urbanization with gradual decrease in the rate of rural population. This trend is not always an indication of industrial growth, because in most undeveloped countries one or two huge cities absorb the largest proportion of the citizens who benefit from the services and comforts of city life. In 1956, Iran had 199 cities with a population of 5,996,000. In 1966, there were 249 cities with a population of 9,789,000. In 1976, there were 365 cities with an aggregate population of 15,715,338, plus 116 villages whose population approached 5,000 citizens. Tehran, the capitol of Iran, had about 13 percent of the total urban population and is increasing at 4.2 percent yearly. Esfahan, the nation's second major city, has a 4.7 percent yearly population increase. Mashhad, Tabriz and Shiraz are the other major cities.<sup>16</sup>

Like cities in other emergent or developing nations, the Iranian cities are in great transition. Births and

---

<sup>16</sup>Plan and Budget Organization Statistical Center of Iran. Statistical Yearbook of Iran, Tehran: Plan and Budget Organization, 1976, p. 75.

deaths are not the only variables affecting the demographic changes. Modernization, urbanization, industrialization and migration are significant variables, as is usually the case in most countries where there is dynamic population change. This centralization is an obstacle for the development and growth of smaller cities.

Amani, in his dissertation concerned with Iranian urban population growth, has examined the rate of growth and then estimated the future urbanization rate as displayed in the following tables:

Table 7

Estimated Urbanization Rate in Iran, 1949-1966<sup>17</sup>

<u>Year</u>		<u>Percentage of Population (Urban)</u>
1949-50	-----	20.0
1956	-----	31.4
1963	-----	33.5
1964	-----	36.0
1966	-----	39.1

Based on these figures, Amani estimated in Table 8, the percentage of increased urbanization rate has been estimated as follows:

---

<sup>17</sup>Amani, p. 30. Dissertation, 1975.



Table 8

Estimated Urbanization Rate in Iran 1967-1978<sup>18</sup>

<u>Year</u>		<u>Urbanization Rate</u>
1967	-----	40.3
1968	-----	41.3
1969	-----	42.1
1970	-----	42.9
1971	-----	43.8
1972	-----	44.8
1973	-----	45.7
1974	-----	46.7
1975	-----	47.6
1976	-----	48.6
1977	-----	49.7
1978	-----	50.7

This indicates an average increase of one percent per annum over the past ten years.

#### Basic Structure of the Cities

Some significant factors have played an important role in shaping the locational factors of the present cities. These can be grouped into five categories: 1. physical (geographical) characteristics, 2. economic structure (industrial suitability), 3. technology, 4. political power structure and strategic conditions, 5. cultural value system (religions). Among scholars over time there has been much debate over which factors provide the most significant influences on urban settlement, with most acknowledging a single factor, but disagreeing on which factor. Some suggest that economic structure caused the emergence of city life,

---

<sup>18</sup>Ibid.

but others believe that technology has played the prominent role. There are others who feel religion is the dominant force which determines a city's life. Despite the search for a single force to explain the locational factors of a city, this researcher believes that the factors are interdependent and that no single one offers sufficient explanation.

It should be pointed out here that in the planning process attempts should be made to assess nearly every shaping factor, including the functions and interactions of each factor.

### Functions of Cities

Physical environment has played a strong role in shaping cities and setting limits to urban locations in Iran. However, it has never been the major determinant.

The question of location of cities is interrelated with the functions. Thus, one cannot talk about location of an urban area unless he talks about the function as well. The key functions of cities and towns in Iran are economic, political, militaristic, religious, and educational. No city serves only one function to the exclusion of all others; rather, a city such as Tehran not only serves all the mentioned functions, but others as well, such as recreational, technological and medical. It also functions as the communications center of the country. Although Tehran serves many functions, its political and administrative structures seem to be the primary ones. Due to the nature

of the city's power elite, the citizens employed in those functions command the largest share of goods and services, both necessities and luxuries. Because of its power status, Tehran, as the capitol city, attracts the "best of everything"; it inevitably emerges as the nation's leading commercial center.

In classifying the cities as far as economic function, there are many small cities and towns which serve as transfer points of produce on its way into large cities. These centers are vital links between the peasantry in the villages and the people in the large cities.

In contrast, the small market towns are the commercial cities which serve as intermediaries in "International Commerce." Examples of such important centers are Bandar Pahlavi in the north and Khorramshahr in the south, two of the major ports of Iran.

### Structure of Other Communities

The cities are the habitat of traders, bureaucrats, and land owners. Each locality has a major economic source. Prior to industrialization, the cities were the centers for trade and craftsmanship. Today, the villages and towns have become the market towns or bazaar towns in Iran. The prevailing economy was based upon rural agricultural productivity. The bazaar is the core of economic exchange and also provides the center for social and cultural exchange. All sorts of sports events, marital arrangements and other social and political activities are performed in the bazaar.

Most towns in Iran are divided into many sections. In each section, the practicing craftsmen or guilds congregate in a "quarter." Each quarter has its unique inhabitants and characteristics. One quarter contains the mosque showing the predominant role of religion. This quarter is usually called the Mahaleh. Members of a given family usually live in a particular quarter. They are born in a house and die in the same place with even a particular cemetery for that quarter. Each part of the city or the community has all of its own facilities. The structure of one city is almost always similar to another. There is a small market (bazaar), a mosque, a hall (takieh), and a cemetery containing a special section for a few notable inhabitants whose names are associated with these quarters. In some towns, where the crafts are practiced as the major source of income, the quarters were named after the activity of the guilds. The inhabitants and the shops are usually at the same place and the professions are hereditary.

In Iran there are a few towns which are semi-industrial. Their major industrial characteristics are the productive activities of their population. Most of the population is engaged in light industries, exceeding the number of government agents (civil servants) in the towns. Carpet weaving is an example of such a light industry. In contemporary Iranian society some small towns are known as agricultural centers because thirty-five percent of their inhabitants are engaged in some kind of agricultural activity. In other words, the peasants exceed the industrial laborers

or the civil servants. These towns are usually divided into many quarters inhabited by particular groups.

Small villages in some parts of Iran are called Dehak. In some villages there are holy shrines of Emams, descendants. The atmosphere of these villages differs from the others. "Abadi" is referred to as a settlement where groups of people live on the sides of main roads and provide tea houses, shops, and inns (caravansaries). Their purpose is mainly to provide food and provisions for travellers.

### Summary

Population and population distribution and the communities organized by that population are important demographic factors for the holistic planner to consider. However, there are other population patterns the planner must observe. A centralized population usually creates a hierarchy of relationships referred to as social strata. The following discussion focuses on a brief overview of the Iranian urban and rural social class structure.

## Iranian Social Class Structure

### Introduction

In every society, regardless of the stage of economic development, there are social position strata. This is based upon some sociological determinant, such as job or profession, earnings, level of education, and political affiliation. Therefore, social class may be defined as a socio-psychological phenomenon.

## Iranian Social System Overview

An overview of the Iranian social system reveals an identifiable class structure which has undergone some change as a result of the White Revolution of 1963, a nationwide social-political reform attempt at land reform. This structure may be visualized as a pyramid of the upper class, or elites; the middle class; and the lower class. The size and relationship of these groups have undergone change as a result of the land reform and the industrialization policy which brought great transitions in the lives of the people. The White Revolution contributed to immigration, land speculation, and class transition. Figure 7 is a conceptualization of the Iranian social class structure before and after land reform and industrialization:

Figure 7

### Iranian Social Classification Pyramid

#### Before 1963

Elite	1%
Middle	10%
Lower	89%



Before  
1963

#### After 1963

Elite	1%
Upper Middle	10%
Lower Middle	10%
Upper Lower	20%
Middle Lower	29%
Lower Lower	40%



After  
1963

#### Upper Class of Elites

The upper class represents less than one percent of the total population. This group is traditionally comprised of the royal family, its relatives and associates. Despite

its smallness in size, this class has most of the economic, political, and social power in its control. Top levels of status, role, and position within the whole society are occupied by this group's members, according to their personality, education, wealth, and close relation to the royal family. The positions they hold may be classified as follows:

1. Political leaders and government administrators;
2. Military leaders;
3. Professional and high level technocrats;
4. Industrialists, merchants, and businessmen;
5. Farmer leader aristocrats;
6. Clergy and religious leaders (very few);
7. Tribal chiefs (very few).

This group experienced some change after the land reform of 1963, when the government paid them for their lands, which had been taken away for distribution to the peasants. They either invested their money in industry or took their money out of the country.

### Middle Class

The middle class in Iran is divided into upper and lower class strata as well as into modern and traditional groups. The modern middle class has a tendency to adopt and adapt to western materialistic culture values and patterns of lifestyle. The tradition-oriented middle class tends to retain the Shi'a religion, customs, and practices in the home. This double strata provides a link between the masses and the elite.

The members of the upper-middle-class stratum often hold the same occupations as the elite class, but they do not attain the political, economic or social standing of the elite. Although they may occupy the same positions as the elite class, they do not possess the same power and prestige. As a result of urban immigration, a new group within this class consists of those involved with the building trades, such as land speculators, builders, contractors and light industrial owners. This class also includes the growing university student population.

The lower middle class is made up of small retailers, craftsmen, low level government employees, and others. They are generally less well-educated and less well-paid than members of the upper middle class. They are involved in a variety of occupations and they may be divided according to other criteria into modern and traditional groups.

### Lower Class

The Iranian lower class may be divided into the urban and rural populations.

#### Urban Lower Class

The urban lower class may be distinguished by its distinctive linguistic usage, high rate of illiteracy, and performance of manual labor. The members of this class are generally uneducated and largely ignorant of the political process. Indeed, they are more similar to rural people, except that urban influences have disturbed their customary social, economic, and cultural values.



The occupational hierarchy within the lower class runs from the migrants and casual laborers at the bottom, to the regularly employed factory workers and those in government services, such as office boys, postal employees, and low-ranking members of the police force, at the top. In between, there are bazaar porters, street cleaners, car washers, mechanics, domestic servants, gardeners, beggars, newspaper boys, unskilled factory and service workers, farmers, and farm laborers and the jobless.

### Rural Lower Class

Overview of General Social Structure. The village social structure is less rigidly organized than that in the urban centers. About 65% of the country's inhabitants live in about 55,000 villages scattered around the nation. The villagers identify themselves strongly with their kin groups and local relationships. The vast majority in village societies are poor lower class workers who engage in agriculture, animal husbandry, craft work or public service. Many villagers have an increasing knowledge of life beyond the village, although they are isolated from the outside world.

Social organization of the villages when compared to the cities is traditionally less stratified and represents a more homogeneous unit of social, cultural and economic aspects. A vast majority of villagers are relatively poor. They tend to trust each other because of their small group size; there is not the broad social class range of lower-lower to elite as in the cities. Although they trust their

own, xenophobia is a problem. In rural areas the people are basically united.

Some sociologists have discussed the villager peasants in detail. Many of them believe that peasants are religious, traditional, individualistic, and conservative. The peasants are often perceived as dubious and pessimistic toward new phenomena and strangers. Because of their constant encounter with hard nature, they have a resigned attitude towards life. They are tolerant and patient when facing problems.

Although agrarian societies may appear to be homogeneous in their poverty, they are in fact quite complex in their community structure. In Iran, the peasants are divided into groups according to their relations with and possession of the land. If a family has a vast land area under cultivation, it enjoys better conditions and more respect. There is a relationship between the land-owning system and the lower-class social stratification.

Significant Rural Worker Groups. The rural inhabitants are not a homogeneous social class; they are divided into many groups and castes. The villagers differ according to their geographical location and reflect their unique lifestyles, cultural values, and economic conditions. The peasants, or Zareh, are basically comprised of land owners, or Nasaghdar, who hire farm workers, or Khosh Neshin, who do not own land, and petty landowners who are different from the Nasaghdar in that they own only enough land for their family to work.

The Zareh are the major group of the rural social structure who are engaged in agricultural activities. The laws and traditions, or Hasgh gave the Zareh the right to cultivate and irrigate the dry farming lands. The land reform laws granted the land to the Zareh by two methods, working the granted land for more than a year or inheriting the land.

The social structure in rural areas since land reform includes the following six significant worker groups:

1. The Khosh Neshins are the most prominent group in the villages. Khosh Neshins are primarily comprised of two groups: (See Figure 8)
  - a. Rural Traders (peddlers) is a large group who are powerful in regards to their wealth. Their major activities include trading, shopkeeping, purchasing and usury (loaning money).
  - b. Rural Laborers (proletaria) is a group which consists of all the day-laborers, including the agricultural workers, the coolies, the field watchers, and the carpet-weavers. Modern technology has added other groups to the laborers. They include the tractor drivers and the technicians who work on the modern equipment.
2. Petty Landowners consist of a group which may also include the village headman.
3. The unemployed includes tramps and minstrels.

4. Farmers, water distributors, planters make another group.
5. Bureaucrats consist of civil servants, health education corps members, teachers, and other governmental agents (gendarme). The gendarme is a governmental executive stationed in the larger villages.
6. The superintendent group includes tenants, headman, and business managers who oversee the land. Figure 8 shows the social structure in the rural areas after the land reform.

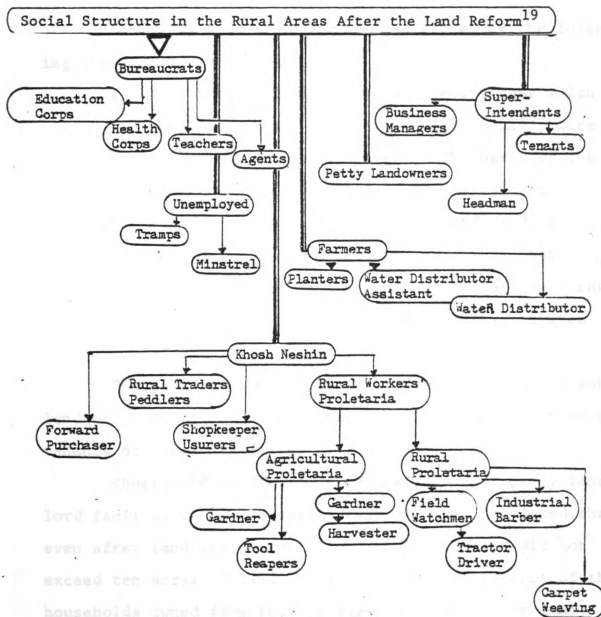
In the past, before the peasants were allocated land, they had an equal position of inferiority in regard to the landowners' power. A sense of sympathy existed among them until land reform distributed the land to the peasants (Nasaghdar). This caused the deterioration of the mutually supportive spirit and subjected the peasants to the jealousy or envy of the Khosh Neshin. It has also caused a sort of alienation among them in their community. Furthermore, they refuse to cooperate in any development programs.

#### Petty Landowners

Before the implementation of the land reform there was a group of landowners who owned one to 100 acres of land; they had peasants or farmers at their service and they were called petty landowners. They formed a powerful group. The petty landowners consisted of the following groups:

1. Landlords who had land and cultivated it by themselves;

Figure 8



<sup>19</sup>K. Khosravi. *A Research for Iranian Rural Society*.  
 Tehran: Piam, 1976, translated by Iraj Eftekhari, Tehran:  
 University of Tehran, p. 134.

2. Landlords who hired farmers to cultivate their lands;
3. Landlords who had peasants and contracted their farmlands to tenants.

Generally, petty landowners had either of the following characteristics in common:

- a. They had small plots of land in villages which they cultivated themselves. They usually were residents of their property. The basis of the production was domestic family exploitation.
- b. They were owners of small plots of land, but were not residents on their property. Not being of rural origin, these types of landlords were created because of the hereditary system of the landowning.

The other group of village landowners is the absentee landlord. He inherited his property and manages it through tenants or superintendents.

Khosrovi<sup>20</sup> studied four hundred and four petty landlord families in twelve rural areas of Iran. He found that even after land reform these landlord's holdings did not exceed ten acres of land. About sixty-three percent of the households owned from four to eight acre meters of land; twenty percent possessed three to four acres of land; and sixteen percent owned eight to ten acres. (An acre is equal to ten thousand square meters.) Khosrovi concludes that

---

<sup>20</sup>Ibid.

fundamental obstacles exist on the way to creating a class of well-off petty landowners.

In Ahmadabad, where the writer conducted his research, and other villages around the desert, poor water resources and barren soil make cultivation unprofitable; therefore, some of the rural population have resorted to handcrafting, such as carpet and tent (cloth) weaving. In Khorassan, a large province, thirty percent of the total population consists of Khosh Neshins. In Kerman, an ancient and famous city, carpet weaving is considered a major craft.

#### Rural Tribal Groups and Nomad Groups

Tribal groups and nomad groups are those Iranian people who move about the country or live around mountain cities. Their standards of living are below those of the lower-lower class. The tribes in Iran are not totally and completely nomadic. Some authorities maintain they are semi-nomadic. They speak their own dialects. They have played a strong role in Iranian politics. Adibi states:

The bulk of the tribes live in the western and southern Zagros regions, migrating according to the season from mountains to plain to mountains in search of pasturage for their flocks. Because the tribes are a great independent political force, they have always been forced either to move to some other region or to lose their power in order to obey the central government.<sup>21</sup>

Livestock breeding is the major economic activity of the tribes and nomads. They plant their seeds in a selected mountain place, wander about in a great circle, and return to

---

<sup>21</sup>Adibi, Hossein, An Analysis of the Social, Economic, and Physical Aspects of Urbanization in Iran. United States International University, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1972, p. 104.

the same place at harvest time.

The family has a special structure amongst the tribes. Immigration usually does not occur among these people because the family links are tight. Polygamy is still practiced among the tribes. In fact, it is quite natural for the first wife to arrange for the second marriage of her husband in order to lighten the burden of labor. Women and children are considered the free laborers for men. The women play a prominent role in the productivity of the tribes. The men hold the economic power, but the women help in milking the animals, weaving, and making handcrafts. Children are also active in the production process. Because of migratory lifestyles, the children are not sent to school, but they are taught to be bold and chivalrous and to acquire the spirit of bravery by studying about Iranian heroes. (By contrast, children in the rural communities are sent to Education Corps schools and as a result do not contribute as much to the family economy even though the family has a low standard. This has created discord between education and the families' economic needs.) Hunger and disease, hardship and dangers are facts of nomadic family life which contribute to a high mortality rate.

The central governmental political power has reduced the tribal powers and numbers of forcing them to settle in the rural villages. During the Qajar (1779-1925) dynasty, five million, or about fifty percent, of the Iranian population was nomadic.



The power of tribes was always an unpleasant thought for kings of recent dynasties, and the tribal discipline and independent organizations were considered as thorns in the flesh of central government during its efforts to unify the country. And then, too, forceful settlement of tribes, as was attributed to Reza Shah (1925-41), seemed necessary because the existence of tribes was considered to be the sign of backwardness, and Reza Shah found this incompatible with his "modernization" program.<sup>22</sup>

The forced settlement, different laws and regulations have eliminated essential pastoral lands for the nomadic livestock. The new pattern of settled life and technology absorbs more and more of these people into city and town life. This group is well-represented by the Shahsavans who settled in Ahmadabad and will be discussed in detail in Chapter V.

### Summary

The previous discussion focused on the primary subsystems of the Iranian social system. The civil units, the demography and settlement patterns, the community structures, and the social class structure were briefly described in order to provide an informational base for a description of the Iranian political system which follows.

## The Political System

### Introduction

The framework of all national activities, which is integrated with all other segments of the supersystem, is

---

<sup>22</sup>Adibi, p. 105.

the nation's political system. Iran has a rich international political history reaching into ancient times. The following brief discussion will describe the contemporary levels of Iranian government in order to provide a perceptual base essential for the holistic planning approach and for the case study in Chapter V.

### National Level

Iran's constitution of 1906 established the male hereditary monarchy and provided for the tripartite government composed of the executive, legislative and judicial branches. The Shahanshah is the powerful Chief of State. The Monarch, as Commander in Chief of the armed forces, confers military rank and may declare war or peace. The Monarch may appoint or discharge ministers as well as call Parliament into session or close it.

Executive power resides in the Cabinet headed by the Prime Minister, who is chosen by the Shahanshah and approved by the Houses of Parliament. Cabinet ministers are chosen by the Prime Minister and appointed by the Shahanshah. The Cabinet has experienced frequent expansion and reorganization. In addition to the Prime Minister, the Cabinet included: Economy and Finance; Foreign Affairs; Interior; Industry and Mines; Commerce; Energy; Labor and Social Services; War; Art and Culture; Roads and Transport; Justice; Housing and Town Planning; Education and Training; Information and Tourism; Science and Higher Education; Agriculture, Natural Resources; Cooperatives and Rural

Affairs; Post, Telegraph, and Telephone; Health and Social Welfare; Minister of State and Executive Deputy to Prime Minister in Administrative Affairs; Minister of State and Parliamentary Deputy to Prime Minister; Minister of State and Director of Planning and Budget Organization; Minister of State in Charge of Women Affairs; Minister of State and Secretary General of Rastakhiz Political Party; Minister of State in Charge of Economic Affairs, plus two other Ministers without portfolio.

Iran has two Houses of Legislature: the National Consultative Assembly, established shortly after the 1906 Constitutional Assembly, and the Senate, set up in 1950. The Constitution began an era of reform from ancient Islamic law and from entrenched traditions. The change in the system of government, both in organization and in the development of legal codes, was based on the French model of government blended with some aspects of old Islamic Religious Laws.<sup>23</sup> The legislative bodies consist of an elected lower house (Majlis) and a half-elected, half-royally-appointed Senate. These legislative bodies together form the Parliament, and their members serve for a term of four years. Prior to the 1963 White Revolution feudal landlords dominated the Majlis, while women did not have the right to vote and farmers and workers were seldom elected to the Parliament. After 1963 women received their franchise and by 1970, women, farmers, workers and the intelligensia were members of the Parliament, influencing the law and the financial bills.

---

<sup>23</sup>Smith, Harvey H. Area Handbook for Iran. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

The Judiciary function is to prevent crime and to encourage law-abiding citizens. The judiciary judges as well as other high government officials are appointed by royal decree. The Judiciary is currently engaged in a significant era of law reform in order to contend with the needs of Iranian modernization. The 1977 Iran Almanac states:

The laws which will come up for review... include legislation on the organizational structure of the judiciary, the public penal and civic codes and their procedures, public registration and notary public offices, employment affairs of judges and judicial employees, the House of Equity, the Public Coroner's Office, the official newspaper of the Government, bankruptcy regulations, judicial and public registration quality and expenses. Adjudication Councils and all legislation on the qualifications and workings of the members of the legal profession.<sup>24</sup>

#### Province Level (Ostans); Local Levels

Local administration is conducted through a system of twenty-two geographical provinces, ostans (as shown in Figure 5) and some governorates. They are further divided into sections corresponding to counties, towns, and then into districts and villages. At all levels below the national, all executive, judicial, and legislative officials, except in the small villages, were formerly centrally appointed, but now they are popularly elected.

Each Province is headed by a Governor General, who is nominated by the Ministry of Interior, approved by the

---

<sup>24</sup> Iran Almanac, p. 107.

Cabinet, and appointed by Imperial Decree. The Governor General is directly responsible to the Ministry of Interior in Tehran. An Ostan, or chief Gubernatorial is divided into many Shahrestans (cities or towns), each with its own Governor. The Shahrestan is divided into Bakshes (districts) and the districts are sub-divided into Dehestans (villages). The city or town Governors come under the jurisdiction of the appropriate Ostan Governor Generals. They are nominated by the relevant Governor General and approved by the Ministry of Interior.<sup>25</sup>

The villages have their own organization and Kadkhoda (headman). The villiage judicial system is the House of Equity (described in Chapter V). Most of the decision making in villages is done from the administrative center or capitol. This centralized political system has been established as a traditional and cultural pattern. The royally-appointed executive head is designated as a Governor rather than as a Governor General, as in the provinces. Any changes in administrative divisions are made from time to time by the central government in response to economic, social and other conditions. In other words, most of the power is centralized and the people have less power to participate in and affect national or local decisions.

### Summary

The preceding discussion provided information concerning the framework of the Iranian political system. It

---

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 65.

briefly described the constitutionally-based national government, the state government and local government. Since a nation's economic system is closely related to the political system, a description of Iran's economic system follows.

### The Economic System

#### Introduction

When viewed from the national perspective, the economic system is the most powerful phenomenon impacting the population and the civil structures. The following material focuses on the principal Iranian economic subsystems and examines the interrelations of those subsystems. This process is essential to the holistic planning approach.

#### Economics-Definition

Economics consists of many social institutions concerned quantitatively with the goal of a country's economic development. The Encyclopedia of Social Science explains these institutions as follows:

Examples of such institutions are private enterprises, public enterprises, markets, social insurance schemes, tax systems, monetary systems, and hierarchies of public authorities. Institutions in turn are characterized by certain rules of conduct or as instruments of the society's economic policy. Examples are tax rates and social insurance benefits. Apart from a static concept of an optimum order, there is a continual process of striving for and managing the optimal order, which we usually call economic policy.<sup>26</sup>

Economic system planning deals with the internal

---

<sup>26</sup>Encyclopedia of Social Science, "Economic Planning," p. 103.

relation of quantitative factors, such as gross national product, incomes, prices, expenditures, input and output.

Planning should be seen as a manifestation of the evergrowing tendency consciously to organize human activity. In this process there is a continuous search for efficiency in its broadest sense. In the particular case of economic planning this means on the one hand, that social or group needs are increasingly recognized as aims and, on the other hand, that no means, including planning, should be used where not positively contributing to these aims. ....Thus, town and country planning are now becoming<sup>27</sup> integrated into national economic planning.

The economic system may be viewed as a series of concentric circles, broadening in diameter to include larger geographical areas at each level of planning. It would be easy to consider economic planning at the village level a single phenomenon, but, indeed, it is not. It is a part of a whole national economic system and is, therefore, as complicated as other levels.

Village, city, region, and national economic planning encompass extremely widespread forces, internally and externally, which should be considered in one framework. Each of these planning levels shares the need to channel existing resources and infuse new ones to bring about desired results, which relate to the obligation and attention of governmental relations between levels and systems and the control over distribution of resources.

Since 1949 the national government has developed radical seven and five year plans for improving the economy

---

<sup>27</sup> Ibid.

of the nation through effective development of industry and utilization of natural resources. (These multi-year plans are described in Chapter III.) In spite of the planning attempts to invest public and private investments, the nation continues to be plagued with inflation, scarcities of products and services, and budgetary problems.

### Industrial vs. Agricultural

Previously, Iran's economy was agrarian-based, but it is becoming increasingly industrialized in urban areas and in regions with rich natural resources. The industrial base developed rapidly after 1968 as a result of national planning. Iran is now recognized as an emergent industrial nation. Industrial growth in recent years has been second only to rising oil revenues in contributions to the Gross National Product. As a result, agriculture, which had virtually been the only economic activity for thousands of years and which had been integral to the culture, has been relegated to a secondary role in the economy. Agriculture has been charged with providing foodstuffs for the rapidly increasing population and for providing important raw materials for the country's fast expanding industries. Although Iran has vast sources of wealth in oil, plus other mineral resources and agricultural productivity, the standard of living for a great majority of citizens is still quite low. The national average income, according to 1976 estimated data, is approximately \$1707 annually. This is insufficient in an economy experiencing rapid and increasing inflation in cost of all goods and services.



Iran must develop a new approach to development of industry for the following reasons: oil, the main current source of revenue, will eventually dry out; agricultural production is insufficient to supply the nation's needs; therefore, industry and mining will be the major source of national income.

The growing role of industry and the gradually diminishing importance of agriculture in a relative sense is, as mentioned, reflected in their respective contributions to the country's Gross National Product (GNP).<sup>28</sup> At the beginning of the 1960's, agriculture provided sustenance for about 60 percent of the economically active population and accounted for about 40 percent of the Gross National Product. Moreover, according to official preliminary figures for the fiscal year 1969-70, agriculture was still providing a living for about 46 percent of the labor force, but its contribution to the Gross National Product had fallen to 19 percent. On the other hand, industry, including oil, employed less than 10 percent of the labor force in 1969-70 and increased its contribution to the GNP during this period from about 25 percent to 43 percent.

Besides agriculture and industry, other sectors of the economy are contributing to the GNP are: public administration and defense, 11.8 percent; services, 11 percent; domestic trade (wholesale and retail), 8.5 percent; transportation, 6.8 percent; banking and insurance, 2.8 percent; and communication, 6 percent. (Official Iranian

---

<sup>28</sup>Harvey H. Smith, Area Handbook for Iran, 1971, Second Edition, The American University, Washington, D.C., pp. 35-372.

sources allow a 3.3 percent factor for statistical discrepancies.)

In the case of Iran, the per capital Gross National Product should not be taken as a reliable indicator of an improving economy because of the wide gap between the incomes of different classes, essentially the rural and urban inhabitants. The rural population, constituting about 62 percent of the total, contributed only about 30 percent to the Gross National Product through agricultural and home auxiliary industrial activities.

#### Imports-Exports

Iran imports many commodities; among them are sugar, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, iron and ironware, machinery, automotive vehicles, paper products, foods and fabrics. In 1972 total imports amounted to about 2.41 billion rials. The main exports of Iran are oil, raw cotton, wool and carpets. In 1972 total exports amounted to \$2.96 billion rials (United Nations estimation). The export of oil accounts for the difference between import and export amounts. The basic medium of exchange or currency in Iran is the "rial," a nonconvertible paper currency. One United States dollar was equal to 70.25 rials in 1977-1978.<sup>29</sup>

#### Agriculture

Agriculture is still the most important economic base in the country, but its relative importance has been gradually

---

<sup>29</sup>Bank of Iran Census Data, 1964.

decreasing as a result of industrialization. The agricultural production in 1970 was estimated at 19.9 percent of the Gross National Product (GNP). In 1974 the total was estimated at 9.4 percent of the GNP.<sup>30</sup> The decreased figure is an arithmetical reflection of increased industrial production, and of the shrinking relative importance of agricultural production.

Agricultural production is not entirely of a subsistence nature, and, with the exception of remote areas, it is an integral and important part of the national economy. In addition, most of the country's industry, such as the textile and carpet factories and sugar refineries, depends on the agricultural sector for its raw materials. Budget specialists have estimated that about half of the total government revenue, excluding revenue from the oil industry, is derived from direct and indirect taxation on agriculture.

Before the 1963 land reform, 65 percent of the total population, or about 15.5 million persons, inhabited 55,000 villages. According to 1962 agricultural statistics, the total tilled land amounted to 11.3 million acres which were cultivated by 2.4 million families,<sup>31</sup> a ratio that factors out to an average of about 417 acres per family. According to the 1977 Iran Almanac, agricultural activities resulted in 6.8 percent of the GNP.<sup>32</sup>

---

<sup>30</sup>Iran Almanac and Book of Facts, 1977, p. 200.

<sup>31</sup>Ministry of Agriculture Census Data, 1962.

<sup>32</sup>Bank of Iran Census Data, 1964.

During the several economic recessions of the last two decades, the characteristics of different social classes have been changed by reduction of income rates and by lowered living conditions which have in some cases deteriorated to an unimaginable degree. Even the "White Revolution" reform was basically ineffective. Although it advocated equalization and social welfare, the lack of coordination between the different institutions, the lack of data for decisions, the lack of clear goals, the lack of significant planning and, finally, the lack of a policy for national program implementation foiled the success of the Revolution's goals at most governmental levels.

In May, 1960, a land reform law provided for a limitation of large land holdings in order to eliminate excessive concentrations of land in the hands of a few families. Such families were required to sell part of their holdings to the government, which in turn was to distribute them to landless peasant families on easy terms. Opponents of land reform severely criticized the law on the grounds that, although it would affect only a few landlords under its provisions, it would fail to raise the standard of living of the large masses and would also disrupt the economy. Some religious leaders opposed it as contrary to Islamic Laws. In the face of opposition by landlords and Muslim religious leaders a revised but stricter land reform measure became law in January, 1962. It was approved by Majles in 1963. The revised law of 1962 changed the ownership limitation from a stated acreage to one village per

landlord. The precise determination of the amount of land a landlord might retain was left to local committees on land distribution. Land consisting of orchards, tea plantations and forests, as well as lands farmed by mechanized means without the labor of farmers, could also be retained by their landlord owners. Some landlords, in order to evade the reform edict, planted huge areas of crops or kept the land uncultivated to prevent seizure. The Cabinet decreed in late January 1963 that landlords were no longer allowed to retain even a single village or section of several villages totalling more than about 1,000 acres and were obliged to distribute all their land above a determined amount which varied, in the different parts of Iran.

Farmers may now own land, but these people were under intense social and economic pressures and struggle with natural problems, such as lack of water, seeds, loans, and dependable laborers. The government has tried to provide some roads and expand communication and other transportation, but today farmers still have no transport facilities to take their goods and products to central areas.

### Summary

The preceding information focused on Iran's dramatically changing economic system. It provided a definition of economics and an overview of the industrial and agricultural sub-systems in order to provide information which the holistic planner must take into consideration in environmental planning. The holistic planner perceives the fabric of a

nation as a tapestry of multiple threads. The following section is a description of the Iranian Cultural System:

1. Enlightenment and refinement of taste acquired by intellectual and aesthetic training.
2. A particular stage of advancement in civilization, or the characteristic features of such a stage.

### The Cultural System

#### Introduction

Culture is another major system of the supersystem. It is a characteristic of society which permeates and influences human activity. The holistic planner must consider the culture of a people as an essential component in the development of an environmental plan. The following discussion focuses first on a definition of culture then moves to an overview of the Iranian cultural system.

#### Culture - Definition

Culture consists of all learned forms of behavior which derive from social contact and are common to the activities of a given social group. Culture in this framework is the product of socialization, personality, environment, tradition, mores, beliefs, values and history.

Culture consists of many subsystems, which include, among others, language, religion, art, philosophy, customs, traditions, literature, folklore, and rituals. Culture is an attribute of humanity which impacts and influences social, political, economical, technological and psychological patterns of the individual, the community and the nation. It is the

umbrella over the entire human entity.

Culture was once considered an attribute of a particular area, such as the clan or the tribe, but now it is generalized to the local, state, national, or global level. Each level has its own characteristics with its special interrelations and correlations. Culture is multilinear.

Culture deals with past human advancement and with present human enlightenment. The progress of culture is additive and therefore accumulative. Culture is learned. It develops from the simple to the complex through differentiation and diffusion of knowledge.

#### Language as a Cultural Subsystem

Iran means "the land of the Aryans." The Aryan people were among the first migrants from somewhere in the Eurasian plains of Southern Russia who migrated to the plateau south of the Caspian Sea. They called the new region Iran. Persian was the name of one of the Aryan tribes which settled in the southern province of Fars and rose to greatness under Cyrus.

The main national language of modern Iran is Farsi, an Indo-European language. Other Iranian languages and dialects include Kurdish, Lurish, Turkish, Baluchi, Arabic, Assyrian, Armenian, and Hebrew. Culture has contributed to the variation in Iranian languages; in turn, language caused great differentiation throughout the country in the peoples' customs, behaviors, traditions, and culture. This variety of language has reduced communication, since each part of the country has a different language, values, art and

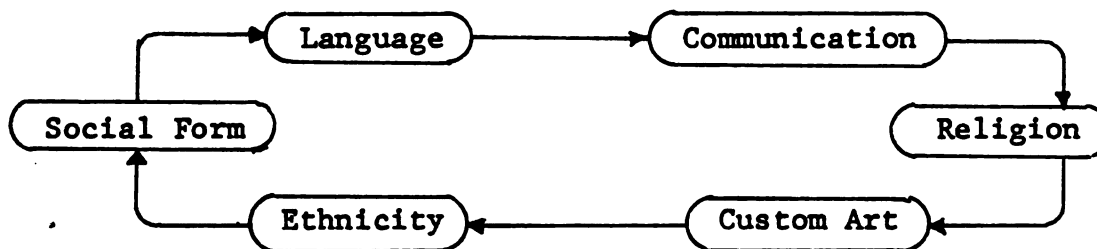
architecture. Sweet states:

The language has today, as compared to Persian, marked syntactical differences as well as many of vocabulary and phonetics, and speakers of the two languages cannot, or can barely, and, most imperfectly, understand each other. The Kurds as a people form an important group in western Asia; they have never at any time coalesced into a single united community, even though prolific, till the eighteen-sixties, in vigorous, short-lived local principalities.<sup>33</sup>

Language as the main tool for communication has an essential role in planning. Planning itself has different ways to express its objectives, but, for initiating and getting information, planners need to use language. Language has an effective relation with the planning process; information gathering, analysis, design and implementation may not be accurately accomplished if there is not effective communication with the people. From the holistic point of view, language interacts with all national phenomena and contributes to regional differences. A paradigm of these phenomena follows:

Figure 9

Language in Relation to Holistic Plan Phenomena



<sup>33</sup>Sweet, Louise, Peoples and Cultures of the Middle, Garden City: Natural History Press, 1970, p. 119.



Figure 9 is a conceptual description of how language affects communication, religion, custom, ethnicity, social form, and how, in turn, each of these impacts language. The holistic planner respects and communicates in the peoples' language in developing environmental plans for them.

### Religion as a Cultural Subsystem

The role of Islam is unusually unique in Iran. About ninety-eight percent of the Iranian people are Moslem. Ninety-three percent of these are Shi'a. Other religious groups include Nestorians, Christians, Bahai and Jews. In every part of the country the poorer people are more dependent upon religion than are the rich. Although similar rituals are practiced, there are different customs, traditions and artistic expression in each section of the country.

Islam has had a profound effect upon Iranian life. It has had a strong impact upon the language, the literature, the family structure, the psychological behavior, and other holistic approach phenomena. Over the past thirteen centuries Islam has succeeded in peacefully replacing the strong Zoroastarian religion. Religion is a profound facet of the peoples' lives and any effective planned change must consider religion.

### Kinship as a Cultural Subsystem

Kinship in Iran is defined as family relationships and is religiously based on Islamic Law. It is based on the patriarchial concept in which the dominance of the male family member is emphasized. Although there are different

aspects of kinship, it is remarkable how much similarity exists in the Iranian nations. The Persian kinship system is categorized under the Middle Eastern pattern of family relationships. These family relationships are important to the Iranian society and culture.<sup>34</sup> Despite the modernization of Iran, the society is still strongly broken into differentiation of sex and age, as it was in earlier culture.

Married men and women form two separate groups, and both outrank the children. The group of young married women outranks only the children, and the young married men outrank young married women and children. Within each group the one who is older than the others has the most status, but the older women do not often try to give orders to any men except the unmarried ones.

According to this system of kinship, each person has a position within his or her family and this position determines his or her social status. This becomes a crucial social problem when planning. Environmental management may not be effectively accomplished without including a consideration of Iranian family relationships. The holistic planner carefully includes these values in environmental designs.

#### Art, Architecture, and Planning as a Cultural Subsystem

The art, architecture and environmental planning of a people are created to meet the needs of the people. Generally

---

<sup>34</sup> Adibi, An Analysis of the Social, Economic, and Physical Aspects of Urbanization in Iran. New York: United States International University, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1972, pp. 108-111.

those creative processes were originally designed to be functional rather than aesthetic; however, over time and after cultural modifications, various standards or norms of beauty or form emerged with the function. In Iran the villagers created handcraft items to subsidize agricultural and husbandry income. The basic material was that which was immediately available in the area. Shepherds used wool to make carpets, fabric, and tents. Leather was used in different shapes and different functions.

The handcrafts in Iran have these characteristics:

1. They have a pastoral or primitive character.
2. They are scattered all around the country, i.e. each region has some form of expression.
3. They provide for domestic needs plus the international market and a portion of foreign exchange.
4. The factories are based in the locality of the villages and create forced capital for the national profitability and save the foreign exchange.
5. They provide jobs for a large number of unemployed and concealed unemployed.
6. They prevent the rural inhabitants from emigrating to the towns and cities, and they create a sort of socio-political stability.
7. They create jobs for the villages during the winter and the recreation time.

8. They promote the rate of income on the part of the villages, and consequently the buying power increases. This buying power enables the rural inhabitants to buy mechanical instruments and to save their surplus income in order to increase the level of the living standards.
9. They help the economic solidarity and link the living economy to a monetary economy.
10. The raw material of crafts is supplied by Iranian factories.
11. The surplus income will benefit the national economy during the whole process.
12. The national traditional arts of the country will survive in spite of industrialization.
13. There is no rival for the handcrafts in the national level.
14. These factories could act as the basis for the heavy industries.
15. The promotion and the support of the handcrafts enables the country to avoid centralization and the development of the cities at the loss of rural areas.<sup>35</sup>
16. These factories could be adapted to mechanization. Handcraft cooperatives were created and supported from 1964.
17. About fifteen cooperatives have been established in various areas of the nation.

---

<sup>35</sup>Farhang, Manuchaher, The Economic Life of Iran.  
Tehran: National Library, 1975, pp. 135-140.

### Summary

The characteristics of Iranian culture were described in the previous section. The language, religion, kinship, or family relationships, art and architecture were selected for a brief representation of Iranian culture. The holistic planner recognizes the significance of people's culture and deals with the concerns of the people in environmental planning.

The psychological characteristics and technology of a people are related to their culture. The following sections discussed the psychological and technological system in Iran.

### Culture and the Holistic Approach to Planning

Steward says that "cultural change cannot be considered without an historic approach."<sup>36</sup> This statement would seem very relevant to this study in that change, such as industrialization, urbanization, or modernization, in any country, but especially in Iran, will involve a certain amount of cultural change. This leads to the conclusion that it is important in innovating a holistic plan to incorporate socio-cultural psychological aspects in acknowledging human values. These aspects of culture will be especially important in a study focusing on Iran, as this country retains cultural factors, such as the authority of the family unit and religious elements.

---

<sup>36</sup>Steward, Chaplin F. Cultural Change, New York: The Century Co., 1928.

## The Psychological System

### Psychology - Definition

Chaplin says psychology is:

The science of human and animal behavior;  
the study of the organism in all its variety  
and complexity as it responds to the flux  
and flow of the physical and social events  
which make up the environment.<sup>37</sup>

Psychology is a knowledge system which is initiated at conception and continues throughout every developmental stage. Early learnings and behaviors are so rooted that they are part of human life and are referred to as personality. Murray's realistic definition is concerned with personality as knowledge. Quoted as follows, Murray's definition is emphasized in this research.

The continuity of functional forms and forces  
manifested through sequences of organized  
segment processes and overt behaviors from  
birth to death.<sup>38</sup>

### Introduction

In holistic planning theory, psychology is perceived as a complex integral system highly related to all other systems of the supersystem. Psychology is a very complex system concerned with people's behavior, knowledge, attitudes, and personalities as individuals in groups. People's ability to adapt to their environment, the nature of their intelligence, the sources of their internal conflicts exhibited in

---

<sup>37</sup>J.P. Chaplin, Dictionary of Psychology, New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1968, p. 392.

<sup>38</sup>Ibid.

social activities, among others, are significant information essential to the environmental planning process. The psychological system ultimately attempts to provide one perspective on the nature of Iranian people, that is, their hopes, desires, fears, abilities, and limitations. Why they do what they do and how their environment may be planned in order to positively deal with psychological development is the concern of the holistic planner.

It is not the purpose of this dissertation to examine even superficially the complex psychology of the Iranian nation. The purpose is to acknowledge psychology as a significant planning concern and to approach the analysis of the psychological system in a future study unrelated to this dissertation.

### The Technology System

#### Introduction

Technology in Iran is the last system to be examined in the holistic planning process. The technology is related to industrial power, innovation, and the practical arts as well as to the evolutionary process of urbanization. A favorable natural situation is often conducive to the development of a city. Adequate water resources and mild temperatures are two important natural factors playing a vital role in the choice of a location for construction of a city and for the technology associated with that city. When technology is combined with the exploitation of resources of an area, cities emerge; roads, dwellings,

market places, and other facilities are developed to accommodate people's needs. A multitude of technologies contributes to different developments, relationships, and qualities. Each environment presents unique conditions for emergent technical realities. The uniqueness of a community and the preservation of the positive differences of that community provide the challenge to the environmental planner. The following discussion defines technology and some of the characteristics of Iranian technology.

In this dissertation the definition of technology is adapted as follows:

Technology in its broad meaning connotes the practical arts. These arts range from hunting, fishing, gathering, agriculture, animal husbandry, and mining through manufacturing, construction, transportation, provision of food, power, heat, light, etc., to means of communication, medicine, and military technology. Technologies are bodies of skills, knowledge, and procedures for making, using, and doing useful things. They are techniques for every conceivable human activity and purpose. The concept of technology centers on processes that are primarily biological and physical rather than on psychological or social processes. Technologies are the cultural traditions developed in human communities for dealing with the physical and biological environment, including the human biological organism.<sup>39</sup>

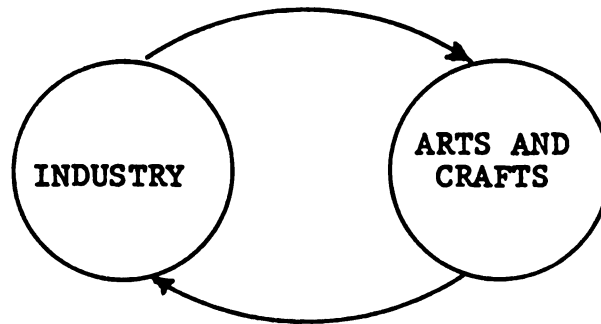
As previously mentioned, technology permeates all systems, but is arbitrarily segregated for examination purposes. The influence of culture and its expressive arts is particularly important. This is best described in the following diagram. (Figure 10)

---

<sup>39</sup> Sills, David L. International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. New York: The MacMillan Company, Volume 15, pp. 576-577.



Figure 10  
Culture - Industry - Technology



### Iranian Technology System

Technological development in Iran is in a radical transition period. Only recently has the nation made a concerted effort to develop an industrial infrastructure. Iran is in transition from a solely agrarian to an industrial society. The nation has only begun to emerge as an industrial nation within the past fifty years due to governmental incentives to encourage private industrial development through low-cost loans, tax breaks, and land for plant sites. Growth in Iranian industry has been financed through the country's natural resources, primarily petroleum, which is a finite resource.

In spite of the rapid technological changes, evidence of a rich cultural history is recorded in concert with westernization, modernization, and the corporation. Technology in Iran is reflected in many of the traditional designs and techniques developed as follows:

1. Qanats, the ancient canal irrigation system, were developed as the best, though primitive, way to carry water to the villages.

2. Environmental designs were masterpieces which reflected the struggle with nature and natural disaster.
3. Architectural techniques designed to solve the climatic problem in homes and public buildings have been of great value to Iranian lifestyle.
4. Handcrafts, carpet weaving, ceramics, pottery, painting, miniatures, and silk are excellent products of culture, but also reveal technical development. This must be considered in renewed and expanded environmental planning.

Just as in any other society, technological traditions now include a desire to produce new technologies, new processes, and new products. In Iran the government provides the leadership for creating industrial self-sufficiency through developing and utilizing the nation's resources. The government established the Plan and Budget Organization with the purpose of developing national priorities, initiatives and incentives for transforming Iran from an agrarian to an industrial nation. Chapter III summarizes the multi-year national plans designed for developing new technology and renovating existing technology. Aririe and Twitchell summarize some of the conscious technological change efforts as follows:

In the past decade, we have seen a more concerted and cohesive effort to tackle the issue. The most important measures which have been taken are the following:

- (1) introducing advanced technical subjects in vocational schools and universities;

- (2) establishing contact with technical and scientific organizations of international repute;
- (3) sending many students and researchers to institutions of higher education abroad in the various branches of science and technology; and
- (4) taking advantage of the country's industrialization (which has been gathering momentum within the past two decades) as a training ground.

True industrialization is achieved not only through production but also through the development of national design and application capability so that an increasing number of products can be conceptualized and realized in Iran. There are presently many areas where such capability has already been developed; progress is being made with acquired maturity.

It may be opportune to point out that the course of the transfer of technology has never been a smooth one. Among the major obstacles that aspirants to modern technology encounter are:

- (1) lack of industrial infrastructure and an industrial tradition;
- (2) lack of skilled manpower, particularly on operational levels (e.g., skilled workers and technicians); and
- (3) the reluctance of many foreign companies to cooperate sincerely in the transfer of technology. These companies desire to continue treating countries such as Iran as markets for their products.<sup>40</sup>

As a developing country, Iran is attempting through its technology system to move toward self-sufficiency by creating industries which will ultimately substitute export product earnings for oil earnings. Iran has progressed in

---

<sup>40</sup>Amirie and Twitchell, p. 165.

industrial and agricultural development; however, the successful accomplishment of that goal requires environmental planners who may combine the scientific goals with humanistic concerns for the Iranian people. Hopefully, modern technological developments and westernization will not be allowed to dilute Iran's globally renowned philosophy, poetry, literature, and intellectual knowledge.

### Summary

Chapter II provides general information concerning selected system facets of the Iranian supersystem. The holistic planning theory perceives the need for basic information when creating for an improved living environment. The author divided the Iranian nation into four zones in order to describe the geography and climate of the nation. The general characteristics of the Iranian governmental or civil units. The demography, and the primary characteristics of the social and psychological system, the political system, the cultural system and technological system were described in order to clarify some essential planning requirements for Iran.

Chapter III provides more information about national level planning in Iran by summarizing the major concepts of the multi-year national plans. These plans will reveal planners who focused only on economic concerns, thereby contributing to the problems identified in Chapter I.

## CHAPTER III

### A Concise History of Iranian Reform Plans and a Listing of Problems Left Unsolved in the Iranian Environment

#### Introduction - The Five National Plans<sup>41</sup>

Iran is an advanced developing country which is seeking to maintain its independence and to protect for its interests. Throughout their entire long history, Iranians have shown that they refuse to serve the selfish ends of other nations. For this reason, after several decades of absorption in external crises, Iranian leaders in the Majlis (elected lower house) and government turned their attention to more pressing internal problems. Their attention took the form of five national plans - beginning in 1947 with the first national plan and culminating with the fifth in 1973.

This chapter serves as an information bridge from Chapter II, which provides some basic holistic planning information about the Iranian nation. Chapter III provides brief summaries of the environmental planning efforts in Iran. The plans, which reflect the strong influence of American engineers, focus on the economic system at the national level. Little planning was devised for the

---

<sup>41</sup>Of the five plan organizations for Iran, some are translated into English; others are in Persian and remain untranslated.

Plan Organization; Economic Development and the United Nations, 1973.

Plan Organization, Iran Statistical Center: National Census of Population and Housing, Tehran, November, 1966.

Other information on the plans comes from: Lewis V. Thomas and Richard N. Frye, The United States and Turkey and Iran, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press), and The Area Handbook of Iran.

relationship between the regional and local levels.

The First National Plan (September, 1948 - September, 1955)

In 1948 the Majlis approved the first seven year plan (FSYP) for industrial and agricultural development in Iran. The initial allocation was 21 billion rials (\$680 million), later reduced to 6 billion rials. The original plan, proposed in 1946, and announced by Prime Minister Ahmad Qavam in the Spring of 1947, was based on the recommendations of the Morrison-Knudsen Report developed by a group of American engineers and urban planners, who had been invited by the government to study various planning proposals. (See page 86.)

The objectives of the FSYP were:

Increasing the levels of production and exports; providing the essential needs of the people within the country; developing agriculture and industry; exploring and exploiting mineral resources and particularly oil; developing means to transportation and communication; improving public health; and taking any measure for the development of the country for the purpose of raising the level of living and the level of education, improving public welfare, and lowering the cost of living.<sup>42</sup>

Other major objectives of the program included construction of railroads and small dams, and expansion of the sugar industry.

Table 9 provides an overview of the allocations for various aspects of development as originally proposed and then revised in the first seven year plan under the assistance

---

<sup>42</sup> Report on Implementation of Second Seven Year Plan, Tehran; Plan Organization, 1964, p. 2.

Table 9

Allocation of Costs to Various  
Aspects of Development<sup>43</sup>

Morrison-Knudson International  
Co., Inc., 1947

Description	\$500 Million Program	\$250 Million Program
	Percent	Percent
Agriculture	27	27
Industry, Mining, and Power	36	33
Communication	19	18
Health	9	19
Education	7	0
National Resources Inventory	2	3
Totals	100	100

<sup>43</sup>Houssein Adibi, An Analysis of the Social, Economic and Physical Aspects of Urbanization in Iran. United States International University, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1972, p. 211.

of the Morrison-Knudson International Co., Inc., of the United States.

After the Morrison-Knudson Report (cited earlier) was submitted to the government, a supreme planning board was appointed by the Prime Minister to draw up a program entitled "Overseas Consultants for Iran" (OCI). The OCI was to be composed of eleven American engineering, construction and consulting companies, and was to serve in a consultative capacity only in order to assist in the implementation of the first seven year plan until December 31, 1950. Furthermore, the First Plan, described in the five volume study entitled Report of the Seven Year Development Plan for the Plan Organization of the Imperial Government of Iran, was to be financed in large part by revenues derived from an agreement with the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company (AIOC). Again, American consultants - this time financial advisors - played a major role. It would appear that American contributions in the economic affairs of the First Plan were carried out in order to keep Iran from falling into Soviet hands. Yet, despite American aid, the Plan's cost - some 500 million dollars - could not be met because the main source of revenues was cut off by the nationalist revolutionary government during the Iranian oil-nationalization crisis. Table 11 shows the final revenue and expenditures under the FSYP.

The source of revenues and expenditures of the FSYP are shown as follows:



Table 10  
Revenue and Expenditure of F.S.Y.P.<sup>44</sup>  
(in Billion Rials)

Revenue	Amount	Percent of Total
Oil Revenue . . . . .	7.7	37.1
Sale of Government Property . . . . .	1.0	4.8
Private Participation . . . . .	1.0	4.8
Borrowing:		
BMI. . . . .	4.5	21.4
IBRD . . . . .	6.7	31.9
Totals. . . . .	21.0	100.0
Expenditure		
Agriculture . . . . .	5.3	25.0
Roads, Railways, and Airports . . . . .	5.0	23.8
Industry and Mines. . . . .	3.0	14.3
Oil Industry. . . . .	1.0	4.8
Communications. . . . .	0.7	3.6
Social Welfare Services . . . . .	6.0	28.5
Totals . . . . .	21.0	100.0

<sup>44</sup>Review of the Second Seven Year Plan Program of Iran, Tehran Economic Bureau, Plan Organization, March 10, 1960, p.4.

Table 11

Final Revenue and Expenditure under the F.S.Y.P.<sup>45</sup>  
(In Million Rials)

Revenue	Amount	Percent of Total
Oil Royalties . . . . .	2,700	94
Loans from BMI. . . . .	180	6
Totals . . . . .	2,880	100
Expenditure		
Agriculture . . . . .	260	20
Transportation. . . . .	510	39
Industry and Mines. . . . .	440	34
Oil Industry. . . . .	60	5
Social Welfare. . . . .	30	2
Totals . . . . .	1,300	100

---

<sup>45</sup> Sadri, op.cit., p. 148.

Summary, Unsolved Problems

The FSYP experienced many difficulties in the implementation phase. Among the reasons for failure of the FSYP were: lack of reliable data and statistics, ill-informed leadership, inadequately informed specialists, and insufficient staff to design and to implement the plan effectively.

In spite of this failure, the general principles of the First Plan should serve as guidelines for any program of aid to underdeveloped countries in the east:

1. Any development effort must be applied to the lowest level from the start, taking into consideration its relationship to the entire nation (whole to part concept).
2. Capital is not a substitute for skill or experience and the power of capital has been exaggerated by Americans in dealing with other countries.
3. There is a need for coordination between technological production and the consumer's physical needs, and such coordination must be based on the particular economic and social values of the community. In the case of the First Plan, which had values reflecting the agricultural focus on the country's economy, this principle was observed. (In 1948 four-fifths of the Persian people derived their living from the soil.)

In spite of the shortcomings of the FSYP, the specific benefits to Iran included the beginning of the country's Plan Organization and the development of the foundations of agriculture, industry and manpower in the nation.

The Second Seven Year Plan (September, 1955 - September, 1962)

The second seven year plan (SSYP) covered the period from 1955 to 1962. The objectives of the SSYP were:

.....raising production, improving and increasing exports, supplying consumer goods from domestic sources, developing agriculture and industry, prospecting for and exploiting mineral resources, improving and completing communications facilities, improving public health, and carrying out other far-reaching measures.<sup>46</sup>

70 billion rials (\$900 million) were allocated for the plan designed to improve agriculture, construct main roads, develop industry and to introduce welfare services. Table 12 shows the allotment of funds for the SSYP.

Table 12  
Credit Allotments under the Second  
Seven Year Plan 1956-1962<sup>47</sup>  
(In Billion Rials)

Title	Total Amount	Percent of Total
Agriculture and Irrigation	18,218	26
Communications and Transportation	22,821	32.6
Industries and Mines	10,560	15.1
Social Welfare Services	18,401	26.3
Totals	70,000	100.0

<sup>46</sup> Report on Implementation of Second Seven Year Plan, p. 3.

<sup>47</sup> Ibid., p. 70.

However, the SSYP confronted problems with political authorities, industrial financial weaknesses, undereducated communities and a lack of expertise and skill among workers. Furthermore, there was no cooperation between the planning organization and governmental ministries. Indeed, the planning agency was powerless to supervise or control projects of the ministries, which often went contrary to plan proposals. For example, while the plan included programs for the construction of new roads and airports (a transportation plan meant to be financed by oil revenues) citizen needs were ultimately ignored as the ministries diverted most of the budget into spending for military purposes. Table 13 is a summary of the final allotments under the SSYP.

Table 13

Summary of Revised Credit Allotments under  
Second Seven Year Plan 1956-1962<sup>48</sup>  
(in Million Rials)<sup>a</sup>

Source	Credit Allotments	
	Estimated Total Disbursements Seven Years	Percentage of Total
Agriculture and Irrigation	18,857	22
Communication and Telecommunication	30,408	35
Industry and Mines	6,744	8
Social Welfare Services	11,668	13
Regional Development	12,192	14
New Programs	1,000	1

<sup>48</sup>Adibi, p. 221.

Not Yet Classified Disbursement	.193	
Non-Program Disbursement	6,088	7
<hr/>		
Totals	87,150	100

<sup>a</sup> Figures are rounded to the nearest million rials

### Summary

The achievements of the second year plan include:

1. The goal of national economic development based on an organization (the Plan Organization) responsible for mobilization of resources and revenues;
2. The expansion of national self-reliance through the establishment of Iranian consulting firms in the fields of engineering and construction to replace reliance on foreign specialists;
3. The successful implementation of construction projects such as dams and roads, the establishment of agricultural projects such as agro-industries which include canning factories; the expansion of telecommunications systems such as telegraph and radio and public health projects such as the successful campaign against malaria and other infectious diseases.

In spite of these accomplishments, this plan did not achieve its objectives.

The Third Development Plan (September 21, 1962 - March 20, 1968)

In 1960 a Third Development Plan (TDP) was prepared to cover all major national activities in both the public and private sectors. Among the objectives of the Third Plan were the following:

- 1 - To continue and complete unfinished Second Plan projects on the same basis as in the Second Plan;
- 2 - To grant long-term loans and in exceptional cases to make outright grants to municipalities having the greatest needs for new urban facilities;
- 3 - To assist in the improvement of municipal administrative affairs.<sup>49</sup>

517 billion rials were budgeted for plan implementation. Table 14 shows the total approved credits and disbursements for the TDP.

The White Revolution<sup>50</sup>

In discussing reform movements in Iranian history, it is important to mention the program advanced by the Shah of Iran. He was perhaps the first monarch in history to become the leader of a peasant movement. In January, 1963, during the period of the Third National Plan and on the occasion of the opening of a conference on rural cooperatives, he unfolded a six-point revolutionary program, to which six more points were added later.\* Then, in a national referendum, the "White Revolution" of the Shah was endorsed by a landslide.

---

<sup>49</sup>Third Development Plan, Final Report, pp. 149-50.

<sup>50</sup>Deadline Date on World Affairs, (Greenwich, Conn.: DMS, Inc.)

\*More points were added in 1975-76.

Table 14

Total Approved Credits and Disbursements  
by Plan Chapters during the Third Plan<sup>51</sup>  
Period (Billions of Rials)

Chapter	<u>Approved Credits</u>		<u>Disbursements</u>		Percent of Disbursements to Approved Credits
	Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	
1-Agriculture and irrigation	47.9	21.5	47.3	23.1	98.7
2-Industry and mining	27.3	12.3	17.1	8.4	62.6
3-Power and fuel	35.1	15.8	32.0	15.6	91.2
4-Communications & telecommunications	57.0	25.6	53.8	26.3	94.4
5-Education	17.6	7.9	17.3	8.5	98.3
6-Health	13.3	6.0	13.2	6.5	99.2
7-Manpower	2.9	1.3	2.8	1.4	96.6
8-Urban development	7.3	3.3	7.2	3.5	98.6
9-Statistics and planning	1.6	0.7	1.5	0.7	93.8
10-Housing and con- struction	12.4	5.6	12.2	6.0	98.4
Partial payments to Ministry of Finance in respect to current develop- ment projects	---	---	0.2	---	---
Totals	223.4	100.0	204.6	100.0	92.0

<sup>51</sup>Third Development Plan, Final Report, (Tehran, Plan Organization, December, 1970), p. 13.



These far-reaching proposals and reforms, which advocated the implementation of land reform and the enfranchisement of women, aroused the combined wrath of landlords and reactionary clerics. But the election of 1965 also brought an entirely new group to the Majlis, the majority of whom were committed to a program of modernization, to the Shah's White Revolution, and to the new Iran.

The Twelve Points of Reform are:

1. Land reform to alter the peasant-landlord tenure system and distribute the land of large landowners to farmers. Basically, this was an ideal goal, since the government had the ability to support farmers in utilizing their farm and lands. Unfortunately, the result was not adequate, because the land reform program was poorly implemented and lacked a holistic view.
2. The nationalization of forests and pastures for better conservation and utilization of these resources.
3. The public sale of state-owned factory shares as security for land reform.
4. An increase in labor productivity by profit-sharing arrangements between industrial workers and owners up to an amount of 20 percent of net corporate earnings.
5. Reform electoral law, providing for universal suffrage, including women suffrage.

6. The formation of a literacy corps of high school graduates who, during their military conscription period, would act as primary-school teachers and multi-purpose village-level workers in rural areas to combat illiteracy, superstition and ignorance.

These first six points were national goals represented by the government for implementation during 1963. Six more were confirmed into laws:

7. Improvement of health services in rural areas by a health corps, similar to literacy corps.
8. The Reconstruction and Development Corps, made up of educated conscriptees to promote agriculture and reconstruction of villages.
9. Establishment of justice houses of equity in villages.
10. Nationalization of water resources for better conservation.
11. A program of urban and rural reconstruction.
12. Administrative and educational reform: re-organization of all government units, administrative decentralization and needed changes in national education.

The Third Plan implemented the basic land reform program, which was to end the peasant system, a major obstacle in agricultural production. In addition, the industrial sector, with an annual growth of over 12 percent, was forecasted to exceed 25 percent because of the proposed

expansion of light industry and beginning foundations for heavy industry. All policies were created with the intention of encouraging and helping merchant investment in the above-mentioned areas. For example, the foundation of a gas industry instigated oil exploiting and exporting by Iranian investors - a development which also brought problems.

### Major Characteristics

The creators of the Third Plan were experts from developed countries and economists from renowned universities. For this reason, the preparation and content of the plan were totally different from the plans inaugurated in the past. The characteristics of the plan were as follows:

1. A determination of the economy's annual growth rate;
2. An increase in employment on the basis of productive innovations;
3. A redistribution of income, especially in the agricultural sector, by means of land reform;
4. A redistribution of the factories' profits especially to the laborers;
5. The development of a comprehensive plan;
6. The observation of harmony and coordination in the development plan and balance in the components of each plan.
7. An emphasis on the infrastructural investment and an avoidance of designing short-term plans.
8. The establishment of guiding committees to

determine priorities for the plans on the following basis: (a) preference toward agricultural planning as opposed to developmental activities, and (b) stress on industrialization of the economy for the purpose of eliminating the export's deficiency and preventing organizational difficulties.

9. Emphasis on the investment and the training of experts for the purpose of facilitating industrial investment.

#### Summary, Unsolved Problems

Yet, despite its ambitious goals, this Third Plan also fell short. First of all, proposals by various agencies were not coordinated or comprehensively organized - there was no interrelationship among separate proposals. Secondly, proposals were undertaken without regard to the cultural values of Iran and the real physical needs of the people. Thirdly, foreign interference worked to the detriment of the Iranians themselves. For example, during these seven years, many dams were built for irrigation purposes, but the irrigated land did not belong to the people for long. Instead, foreign investors took out contracts on these lands for their own aggrandizement. A fourth problem was the unrealistic future forecast of project costs which resulted in insufficient funds and plan revisions.

The achievements of the TNP included:

1. The implementation of some uncoordinated housing construction projects.

2. The beginning of land reform, the preservation of national resources, the establishment of rural cooperatives and an increased control over plant diseases and pests.
3. The continuation and expansion of irrigation projects and repair of Qanat systems as well as the development of surface water resources.
4. The establishment of basic industries such as steel, petrochemicals, machine tool, tractor and pipe construction, and aluminum smelting.
5. The expansion of communication systems, ports and airports.
6. The establishment of the Literacy Corps to provide education for elementary and secondary-school children. The establishment of Pahlavi University to increase availability of higher education.
7. The continued assault on infectious diseases through control measures and through establishment of new hospitals.

The Fourth National Plan for Iran, (March 21, 1968 - March 20, 1973)

The Iranian government officials promised that the Fourth National Development Plan (FNDP) would effect a glorious and important transformation in the modern history of Iran.

The FNDP objectives were stated as follows:

- a--Rapid economic development and increased national income as a result of a gradual development of the importance of industries, augmentation of the productivity of capital, use of new methods in every branch of activities, and expansion of scientific and operational research in order to solve the problems of economic development.
- b--Fair distribution of income by providing jobs for everybody and amplification of social welfare areas.
- c--Reduction of dependency on nondomestic sources.
- d--Multidiversity of export material, expansion of existing markets and exploration of markets.
- e--Amelioration of public administration, extension of new methods in management of all ministries and public offices and strengthening of the country's defense power in order to be able to carry out drastic social and economic reforms.<sup>52</sup>

These achievements included the acceleration of the rate of industrial growth and the wider application of social welfare. Massive shifts of population from the rural to urban areas resulted in an extensive need for employment, industrialization and recreation facilities, which this plan was designed to meet. 610 million rials were budgeted for the FNDP. See Table 15 for Income and Expenditure of the Fourth Development Plan.

---

<sup>52</sup> Principles and Objectives of the Country's Fourth Development Plan, (Tehran, Plan Organization, 1968), p. 1.

Table 15

Income and Expenditure of the Fourth  
Development Plan<sup>53</sup>  
(in Million Rials)

Income	Amount
Oil . . . . .	385
Foreign Loans . . . . .	150
Petrochemical . . . . .	11
Gas . . . . .	10
Loan from Treasury. . . . .	50
Other Source. . . . .	4
<b>Total. . . . .</b>	<b>610</b>
Expenditure	
Development Projects and New Continuing Expenditure. . . . .	530
Payment of the Loan and its Interest. . . . .	47
Payment of Loan to Treasury . . . . .	15
Payment of Loan to BMI. . . . .	13
Other Expenditures. . . . .	5
<b>Total. . . . .</b>	<b>610</b>

<sup>53</sup>Ibid., p. 57.

Table 16

## ALLOCATION OF PLAN ORGANIZATION'S DEVELOPMENT BUDGET DURING THE FOURTH PLAN 54 (BILLIONS OF RIALS)

	Plan Organization development budget	Fixed investment by the public sector	Current Expenditure in connection with items in Column 2	Fixed investment by the private sector out of Development Budget contri- bution
	1=2+3+4	2	3	4
1. Agriculture and animal husbandry	65.0	24.0	20.0	21.0
2. Industry and mining	99.0	84.7	6.0	8.3
3. Gas and oil	26.3	26.3	--	--
4. Water	48.5	47.4	1.1	--
5. Power	38.0	36.3	1.7	--
6. Communications and transport	80.0	78.0	2.0	--
7. Telecommunications, television and radio	20.3	19.1	1.2	--
8. Rural development	9.1	8.1	--	1.0
9. Urban development	7.0	7.0	--	--
10. Construction and housing	23.0	20.1	--	2.9
11. Education	35.0	14.7	20.3	--
				112



12. Arts and culture	1.8	1.8	--	--	113
13. Tourism	3.8	3.6	0.2	--	
14. Health and medical services	13.75	4.85	7.3	1.6	
15. Social welfare	4.85	3.25	1.5	0.1	
16. Statistics, research and regional development	4.6	1.0	3.6	--	
Total	480.0	380.2	64.9	34.9	

Iran's plan organization officials claimed all the factors required for social, economic, and cultural development had been brought together at this point of history in an exceptional plan. These favorable circumstances should have been the means for the attainment of the maximum national growth, a rapid increase in the standard of living and the realization of the nation's long sought after hopes and goals. According to sources published by the plan organization, the chief features of the Fourth Plan included an emphasis, first, upon agricultural developments, a rise in living standards and a promotion of modern techniques of production in both urban and agricultural areas - and all this despite the special attention being devoted to industry; and, second, upon increases in social services and public welfare (with special stress on the needs of low income groups), upon improvement in professional and worker skills, and upon slum clearance and urban renewal.

This Fourth Plan called for a total investment of 910 billion rials, of which 50 percent was to come from private sources. It also required some investments by the oil consortium members and other foreign oil companies operating in the country, and foreign loans and credits to finance the foreign exchange costs of the investment projects. In order to raise the finances required during the plan period, the government adopted a series of fiscal policy objectives, including an emphasis on oil revenues, which were to be increased to a total of 486.6 billion rials in fiscal year 1972-73, and on raising revenues from foreign

Inflation was one of the major continuing trends during the period of the FNDP as evidenced in the following table concerned with the Cost of Living Index 1959-1966 (1338-1345).

Table 17  
COST OF LIVING INDEX 1338-1345

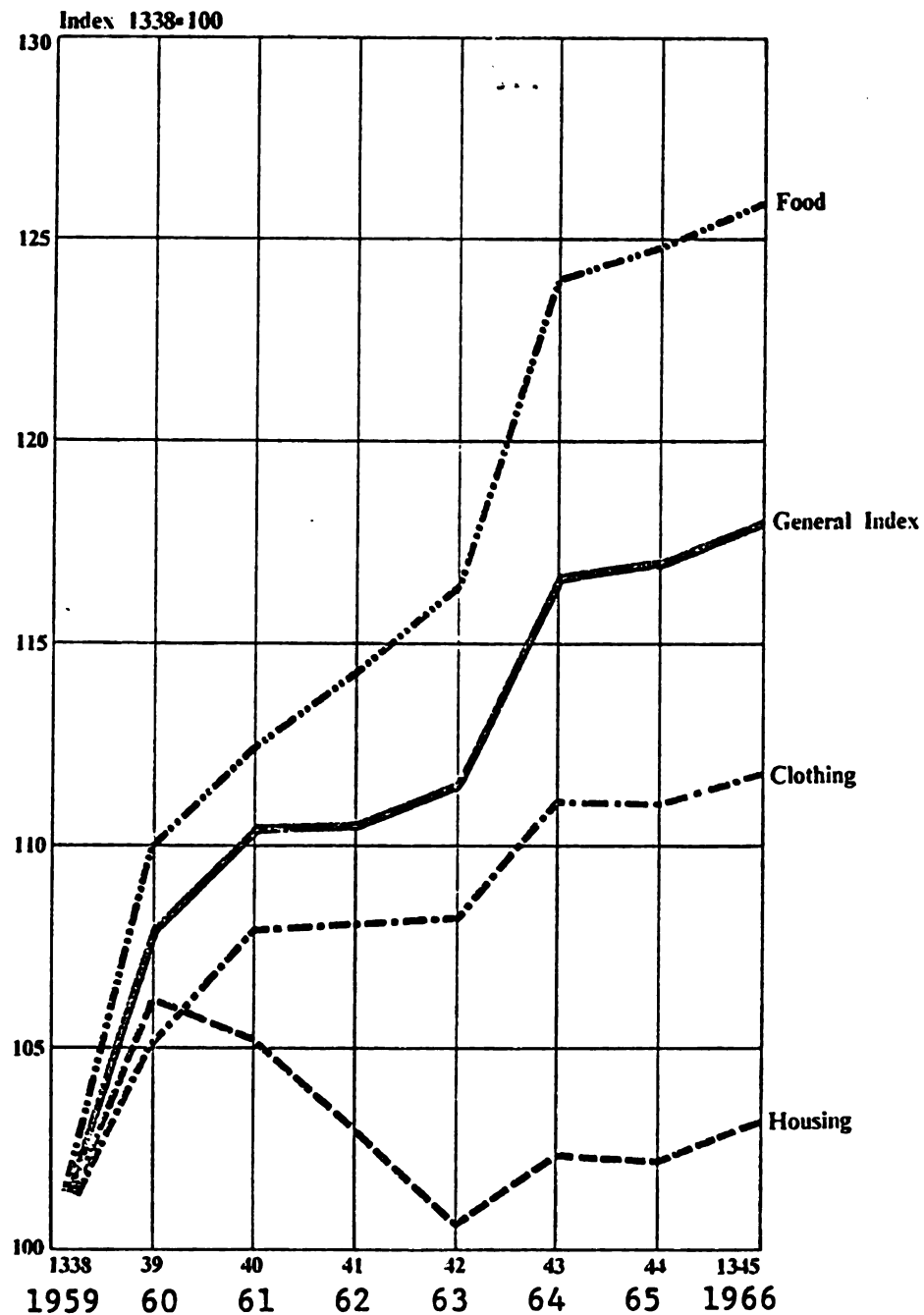
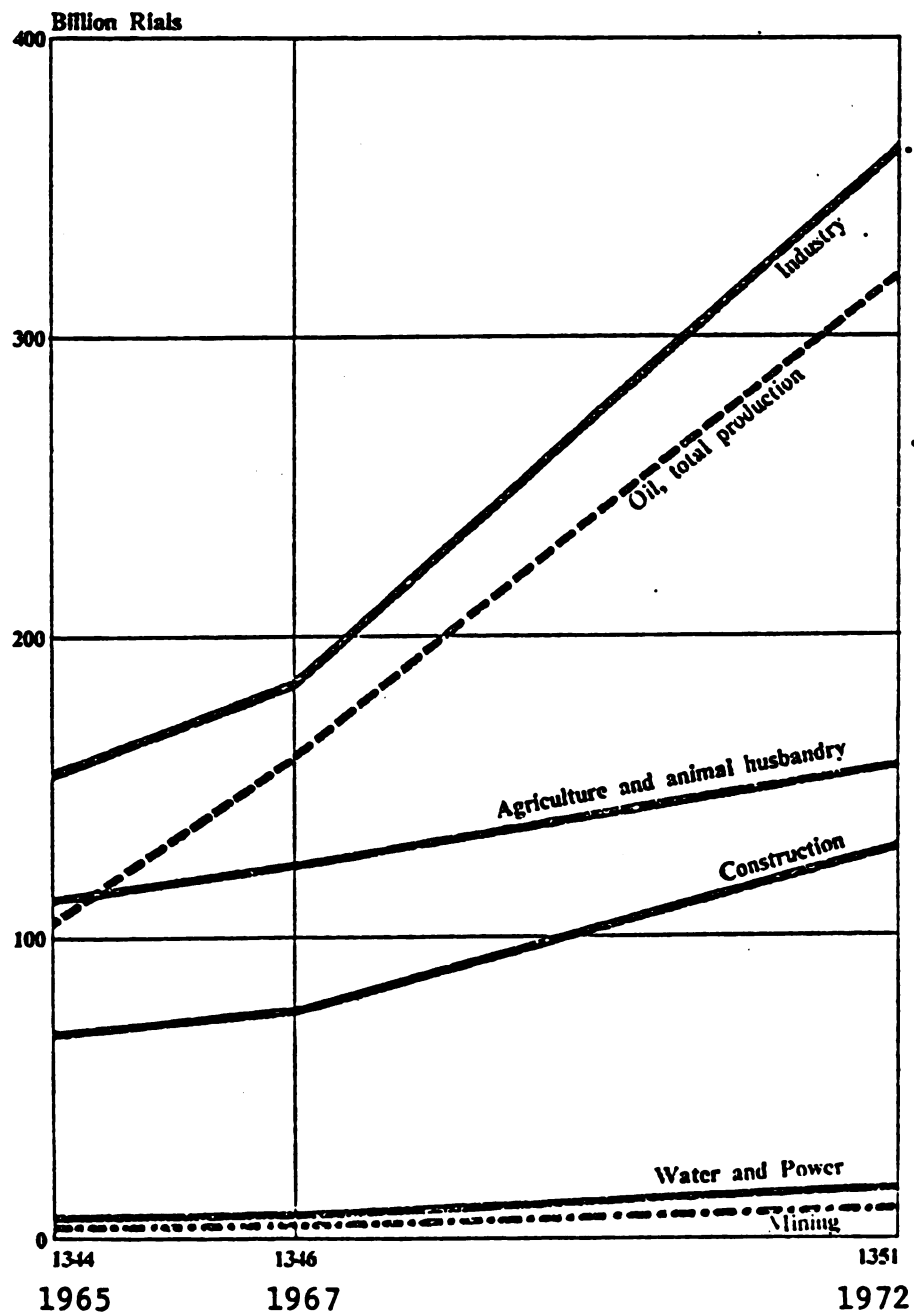


Table 18 shows the "Objectives of Major Economic Sectors Based on Production Values" in the FNDP. The table evidences the lack of balance between the society's need for water, power, and agricultural products compared with the major improvements in industry and oil production.

Table 18

### OBJECTIVES OF MAJOR ECONOMIC SECTORS BASED ON PRODUCTION VALUES



trade, including customs, duties, commercial profits taxes, and other fees, as well as the difference between the purchase and foreign exchange. Moreover, the objectives of the Plan were to be achieved through improved tax collection practices without the imposition of new or higher taxes.

### Summary

Finally, the government stated the Fourth Plan had been prepared as a "long range" scientific study to be carried out by a special committee as a project called, "A Procedure for Planning the Long-Term Future of Iran." However, in reality it was a "short-term plan" - its socio-economic proposals were not comprehensive enough.

The achievements of the FNDP include:

1. The completion of several water development projects such as dams, extension of water installation systems, and implementation of flood prevention;
2. The implementation of some safety projects in some cities;
3. The improvement of agriculture products through irrigation, and fertilization of land as well as improved technologies in a few specific areas such as Qazvin, Zone I Caspian Sea area, and the areas where dams were built. This resulted in reduced manpower optims. It also tended to benefit only a wealthy few.

4. The expansion of industrialization through the encouragement of the private sectors' investment in automotive factories, appliance factories, food industries, soft drinks, etc. However, all industries have been concentrated in the urban areas and only urbanites benefited. In fact the automobile has created greater stress because of the traffic problems it has created.
5. The expansion of efforts for oil export has depleted investments in other areas increasing the need to import basic commodities such as wheat, meat and other similar food stuffs.
6. The expansion of the development of housing projects and public service facilities such as hospitals, universities, and public recreation areas were for the benefit of the elite in the very large cities.
7. The extension of the transportation routes throughout the country, however, most were only dirt roads connecting the villages. Although this was an improvement, many villages still do not have convenient access to the market towns. This also included the completion of airports and telecommunication systems.
8. The strengthening of the nation's defense power at the expense of other national programs.

The Fifth National Development Plan (March 20, 1973 - March 20, 1978)

According to plan organization officials, the goal in the Fifth National Development Plan (FNDP) was to lay particular stress on the twin policies of agricultural development and expanded social welfare. First, in implementing increased living standards, especially among the lower income groups, the desire to contribute to Iran's total betterment would be inculcated in each Iranian who would then feel deeply conscious of his responsibility to improve his society and participate in his country's affairs, to the best of his abilities - abilities made more obvious through the results of welfare programs.

Major Objectives of the Fifth Plan

In order of priority, were stated as follows:

1. to raise levels of knowledge, culture, health and social welfare to the greatest extent possible;
2. to ensure a more equitable distribution of the national income, emphasizing the standard of living and welfare among low-income groups;
3. to maintain a rapid and sustained rate of economic growth, accompanied by relative price stability and a healthy balance of payments;
4. to ensure productive employment in all regions of the country, in order to absorb all new entrants to the labor market and achieve a considerable decrease in hidden and seasonal unemployment;

5. to create a greater social and economic balance between the various regions of the country;
  6. to utilize fully the productive capacity established in previous development plans of marketing and service activities of both the public and the private sectors;
  7. to improve the system of administration in keeping with the high national objective, and to strengthen the country's defenses;
  8. to preserve, revive and improve the environment;
  9. to increase Iran's share of international trade and ensure a greater Iranian presence in new markets, with due regard to the country's recently acquired industrial specialization.
- This policy will also be observed by non-government organizations.

Despite these noble aims, the Fifth Plan still has not completely achieved its goals; in fact, that is a criticism of all of the plans. Thus, while the Fifth National Plan is achieving many successes (as did other plans), there is still a need for improvement. Successes are occurring in the mass media, in military expansion, in industrialization, and in foreign credits. There is still need for improvement especially in the maintenance of price stability in order to control inflation and the unwarranted price increase which is occurring despite government supervision and control. Citizens are losing faith in their government because their real needs, many of which are physical, are



not being met. Despite promising ideology, the Fifth Plan as implemented to date, as well as the previous plans, contains no appreciation for cultural values or for any interrelationship among the proposals aimed at Iran's improvement.

The objectives sound good, but the goals are too general. An examination of the FNDP accomplishments after five years in the implementation phase shows meager, if any, change.

A brief overview of each objective of the FNDP reveals the following:

1. The first objective was to raise national levels of education and health. Although the goal is a good one, observation and interviews with villagers, along with an analysis of budgets and reports of accomplishments, reveal little, if any, change in the educational attainments of the people, as shown in Table 19. An examination of health standards shows further evidence of little change. Although there are doctors for people, hospitals and clinics, are still concentrated only in the urban areas. In visiting ten villages, this researcher found one or two Literacy Corps representatives functioning in each village. They were reaching the elementary school children up to the fourth grade level. After fourth grade the children had to go to the nearest market town

for further education. Secondary education and post-secondary education is available only in the cities. Even more significant than the lack of facilities is a concern that the content of the educational program may be irrelevant and that the quality of contemporary programs needs to be improved.

2. Although a more equitable distribution of income was a goal of the FNDP, it is apparent that it has yet to occur. In discussions with construction workers in an urban environment this researcher learned that, although wages have increased by seven or eight times the wages of five years ago, the rate of inflation has reduced their actual buying power to the point where they cannot buy enough food for their families, they cannot buy houses, and they cannot afford to buy enough clothing.
3. Economic growth has obviously occurred in Iran as evidenced through the oil renewal structure. However, rapid inflation and lack of humanistic expenditure priorities have caused considerable disequilibrium in the economic dimension.
4. It was observed and documented that most immigrant workers were engaged in construction-industrial work sites. Most of the rural workers are still engaged in seasonal, agriculturally related employment. Agriculture has not been organized to

favor the control of employment to ensure a consistent income over the year. Even though wages of the industrial worker have increased, the concomitant psychological alienation has been detrimental to their lives.

5. When Iran is examined in terms of the researcher's geographical zones, the goal of social and economical balance objectives seem unrealistic. When one considers that the natural resources of one zone exceeds that of another, the only alternative appears to be migration between zones or impact investment in order to capacitate the economic capabilities of the arid zones.
6. The productive capacity of previous plans relative to marketing and service activities has indeed shown growth, but there is still a critical need to develop the capacities for production and distribution of goods, minerals, and products as well as the expansion of services. If these activity areas received as much emphasis as militaristic and strategic planning, the lives of citizens would be significantly improved.
7. Iran's governmental defense expenditures have always indicated that defense has the principal priority over any other national concern.
8. One area in which the Iranian government has made great strides is in the preservation of natural resources and in water development projects during

the period of FNDP. A significant improvement has been the creation of an agency responsible for environmental protection.

9. The goal of supporting industrial capacity development of the private sector has been another area of significant improvement during the FNDP; however, only a few have benefited from this change. What good are luxurious electrical refrigerators, gas stoves, or cars in a rural village where utilities and roadways are non-existent?

Analyzing the precise content of the Fifth National Development Plan is beyond the scope and intent of the purposes of this treatise. However, in order to provide a framework for the theoretical and descriptive study presentation, a brief discussion of the chapters concerned with urban development and rural development will follow.

Chapter Sixteen of the Fifth National Plan is titled "Rural Development." It contains the objectives, guidelines and policies for authority, development areas, coordination of personnel, and expectations for local cooperation as well as specific objectives and programs for Iran's rural areas. Nearly thirty-eight billion rials were spent "to develop full welfare services and facilities in rural areas."<sup>55</sup> There were two main objectives for the rural areas. Each will be listed and discussed separately. The first

---

<sup>55</sup> Plan Organization, The Fifth Development Plan, Tehran: Plan Organization, 1973, Chapter Sixteen, p. 1.

objective was:

a) to distribute equitably investment and services of a welfare and infrastructural nature so as to ensure the greatest coverage possible, reduce the vast number of villages and lay the foundations of tomorrow's towns.<sup>56</sup>

Equality is the superior goal for most societies, especially for the villager who is pure in thought, and the symbol of goodness in traditional society. Close scrutiny of the first objective shows that the only equality among the villagers is poverty. It is near the close of the Fifth National Plan; yet after visiting ten different villages in four different zones of the country, this researcher concluded that there is still inadequate technology, food, and facilities; no utilities such as electricity and central plumbing and no sewer or drainage systems. Comparisons of these elements over the past two decades show little, if any, change in the rural Iranian village.

There is an internal contradiction in the first objective, because although there is a concern for the welfare of the greatest number of people, the second statement of the first objective proposes the obliteration of a "vast number of villages" in order to lay the foundations of tomorrow's towns."<sup>57</sup> The question is: "Why eradicate such beautiful existing entities?" Is it a progress or a program? Is centralization of population better than decentralization of population? Is uniformity better than uniqueness?

---

<sup>56</sup>Ibid.

<sup>57</sup>Ibid.

The answers are that the Iranian people are better decentralized and better served by maintaining their uniqueness. Forced urbanization and industrialization are contrary to the cultural history of the people.

The second major objective of the Fifth National Plan was related to the first objective and stated as follows:

b) in achieving the above objective, to utilize existing facilities to the fullest by expanding comprehensive educational programs available to rural society so as to make it conducive to modern concepts and thus ensure steady development of rural areas and strengthen the basis of national culture and independence.<sup>58</sup>

The second objective was well conceived. Education is the key to introducing modern concepts and development to Iran's rural areas. The problem arose in the implementation of the objective. An Education Corps and a Health Corps were created, manned by those who chose to educate villages as an alternative to two years of military service. Although this method was an excellent motivational approach, the problem was in the selection and remuneration of the individuals who served in both corps. Many were oriented to urban values and standards. They were unable to adapt to the villagers' customs and mores. Those who were sent to educate and promote health did not receive the same psychological or financial benefits as their professional colleagues who practiced in the cities. Therefore, with no

---

<sup>58</sup> Plan Organization, The Fifth Development Plan, Tehran: Plan Organization, 1973, Chapter Sixteen, p. 1.

incentive to remain in the villages, they left at the end of their military service.

Table 19 and Table 20 show that the distribution of the national budget between the rural and urban areas was inequitable. There are contradictions between the two tables and some doubt that the money was spent at all. An examination of the tables show that millions was allocated for construction, education, and other services; however, in total, the rural areas which have the larger populations and the greater needs were allocated only about 60% of the program monies allocated to the urban area program.

Table 19 shows that education, budgeting for current credits and development credits has only one billion rials for the rural areas compared to Table 20 which shows sixteen and one-half billion rials in development credits and the public sector investment for urban traffic improvement in the urban areas. This evidences the lack of earlier quality planning for industry as well as a lack of forecasting the community change needs related to production. It is also a visible declaration of national values when sixteen times as much money is invested in the transportation convenience of the few compared to the long-term investment in the education of the many. The accountability concern is even greater when one examines the lack of accomplishments relative to the coordinated distribution of service personnel, the transfer of land, and the lack of local cooperation to create employment and income. Further evidence is seen in the area of agricultural development. How may one plant

Table 19 Fixed Investment In Rural Development During the Fifth Plan<sup>59</sup>  
(In Billion Rials)

Program	Fixed investment						Total
	Public sector			Private sector			
	From development credits	From the resources of public enterprises	Total	From private savings	From development credits	Total	
	(1)	(2)	(3)=(1+2)	(4)	(5)	(6)=(4+5)	(7)=(3+6)
1. Supply of potable water	18	-	18	1.3	-	1.3	19.3
2. Rural roads	12	-	12	0.8	-	0.8	12.8
3. Sanitary facilities (public baths, mortuaries, slaughter houses)	1	-	1	0.1	-	0.1	1.1
4. Educational and rural research centers	1	-	1	-	-	-	1.0
5. Protective facilities	4	-	4	0.3	-	0.3	4.3
Total	36	-	36	2.5	-	2.5	38.5

<sup>59</sup>Ibid.



Table 20

Fixed Investment in Urban Development  
During the Fifth Plan<sup>60</sup>  
(In Billion Rials)

Program	Fixed public sector investment		
	From development credits	From the resources of public enterprises	Total
	(1)	(2)	(3)=(1+2)
1. Town planning	1.00	1.00	2.00
2. Construction and expansion of urban potable water supply system	7.50	6.50	14.00
3. Construction and expansion of urban sewage system	7.30	2.00	9.30
4. Urban traffic improvement	10.75	5.75	16.50
5. Construction of urban protective works	2.50	1.55	4.05
6. Other urban facilities	3.45	11.70	15.15
<b>Total</b>	<b>32.50</b>	<b>28.50</b>	<b>61.00</b>

<sup>60</sup>Ibid.

without seed, grow without sufficient water, maintain without adequate equipment, and harvest without these other supports? A review of the Fifth National Development Plan shows that "Fixed Investment in urban development..." exceeds "Fixed investment in rural development" by 22.5 billion rials.

One of the statements pertinent to rural areas in the FNNDP follows:

About 57 percent of the total population live in 66,000 rural centers. Of these, 74 percent live in 18,000 villages with a population of over 250, while the remaining 26 percent live in 48,000 villages with a population of under 250. By concentrating development activities in the larger villages a larger proportion of the rural population will be able to benefit from welfare facilities.

Population migration from smaller villages to larger villages and towns will be stabilized, thus checking undesirable migration from rural to urban areas. It is envisaged that this will later lead to a favorable situation for the natural amalgamation of small centers into larger ones.<sup>61</sup>

According to the recent census there are about 55,000 rural centers. The appreciable reduction in numbers is not due to the FNNDP efforts. Rather the villages have either died or declined because of the need for survival. Lack of water, insufficient income, and a strong survival need forced the people to move elsewhere rather than any significant governmental program for amalgamation.

---

<sup>61</sup>Ibid., Chapter 17, p. 1.

This migratory trend of the villagers toward the urban areas has resulted in a population decline in rural areas of 1.6 percent and a population increase in urban areas of 5.1 percent. This statistic shows the decline of the rural population and the urbanization trend in the nation. In 1966 Iran's urban population of 9.7 million lived in 249 towns. In 1972 it had risen to 13.2 million, and the number of towns had increased to 298! In 1976 after ten years, the population has increased to over 15 million people living in over 300 cities. Today about 47 percent of the total population lives in urban centers.

This appears to be a progressive trend; however, the following statement indicates some of the resultant dimensions of the Iranian urban environment's increasing problems as the FNDP is drawing near its end and the Sixth National Development Plan is being designed.

This unevenness in the growth and distribution of the urban population is explained by the enormous popularity of life in the big cities without regard for their capacity or facilities, while constant migration has contributed to excessive congestion in the larger cities. This trend has created severe problems and difficulties, such as overcrowding, traffic congestion, water shortages, air pollution, and a shortage of educational, health and other urban facilities.<sup>62</sup>

The FNDP clearly has identified this national problem; however, the FNDP offers only remedies which will lead to increasing problems rather than carefully coordinated short-term/long-term planning.

Clearly one of the major problems in the Iranian national development planning effort is the policy that

---

<sup>62</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

serves as the basis of the planning. The Ministry of Development and Housing, which is responsible for dealing with the problems described, is handicapped in that it does not have sufficient power to carry out its program plans.

Evidence of the limited planning perspective of the FNDP, when examined in terms of the money allocated, shows the impossible goals and some of the reasons for the urban problems.

...the establishment of 1,200 development areas, consisting of 14,000 villages and a total population of about 10 million, is envisaged in the Fifth Plan.<sup>63</sup>

Further evidence is contained in the concept of the "area centers." There is no evidence of the participation of the people in the plan, nor is the scope of the plan realistic when one considers that even in Tehran there is no electricity for five hours a day.

In development area centers, projects will be implemented simultaneously for a potable water supply, a clinic, a primary and a secondary school, rural crafts, institutes, a public bath-house, simple sports facilities, electricity, a cooperative warehouse, organizational housing, housing for villagers, administrative offices and other necessary facilities.<sup>64</sup>

The overall design of the plan and the implementation shows evidence of foreign influence and a model remote from the people. Change is better achieved through an acceptance and use of the peoples' experience. The First Seven Year Plan required participation by local authorities at village, urban, district, provincial and regional educational

---

<sup>63</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>64</sup>Ibid.

councils and other local organizations in development measures affecting their region. This standard is essential to change, but the villager has actually had little participation according to their responses to this researcher's inquiries concerning their involvement in the planning-implementing process. In fact, some villagers had never heard of the process or activities. One of the missing essential elements is education and/or training the people for participation in national-level planning.

#### Summary, Unsolved Problems

This Chapter provides an information bridge between Chapter II, which gives some basic information about the Iranian nation, and Chapter IV. Chapter III summarizes the Iranian national planning efforts through the five national plans and raises several issues relative to each plan. Chapter IV describes the Holistic Planning Theory which provides a model for an approach to environmental planning and management that may resolve some of the issues raised in Chapter III.

## CHAPTER IV

### Holistic Planning - Theory Development

#### Introduction

Creating and maintaining the ideal environment for human life, is the ultimate goal of most environmental planners. Since human social orders are complex, planning for that goal involves a complex network of issues and activities. In order to reach toward the idea, environmental planners must address the multiple phenomena of human society. This process requires broad assumptions from which a theoretical base may be structured. An examination of some general anthropological, sociological, architectural and urban planning concepts may provide such an assumptive base for a theoretical experimental framework for environmental planning in Iran. Such a theory can be termed as holistic planning theory, and it may possibly be generalized to apply to planning for other cultures. This substance of this chapter describes such a theory of holistic environmental planning. A more concise definition of "holistic" follows in this introduction. The text provides the five developmental phases of man which serve as the assumptive base of the theory. Definitions of several types of environmental planning collectively serve as the basis for the presentation of the five fundamental principles of holistic planning. The chapter concludes with a description of the procedure for the application of the holistic planning process.

A holistic plan is defined as one which appropriately considers the inhabitants of social, political, psychological, economic, cultural, and technological elements within a given social-cultural system. It takes into consideration the relationship of human values, human behavior, humans' interactions, and humans' reactions to each other and to their physical environment. A holistic plan acknowledges the visible and non-physical evidence of complex human processes and needs in creating new environments. There are humanistic variables as well as scientific data which must be examined in environmental planning.

#### Assumptions

A perception of the gradual movement of man from a very simple primitive relationship to his environment to the creation of a complex social order within his environment is significant to the factual analysis required in the holistic planning method. The holistic planning approach requires an examination of those evolutionary phases because, as a process, it is evolutionary.

#### The Holistic Method: Evolutionary Phases

##### Introduction

The holistic planning method perceives five developmental phases or approaches in the planning process, all of which parallel historical human development. Human development is evolutionary and related to environmental influences. It is essential for the holistic planner to analyze those

environmental influences which can be described as magnitudes. Each evolving dimension was created by man over an undefined immense period of time. Narrative and paradigm will be used to clarify the concept of man's movement from a simple relationship with nature to the complex social order created within the natural environment.

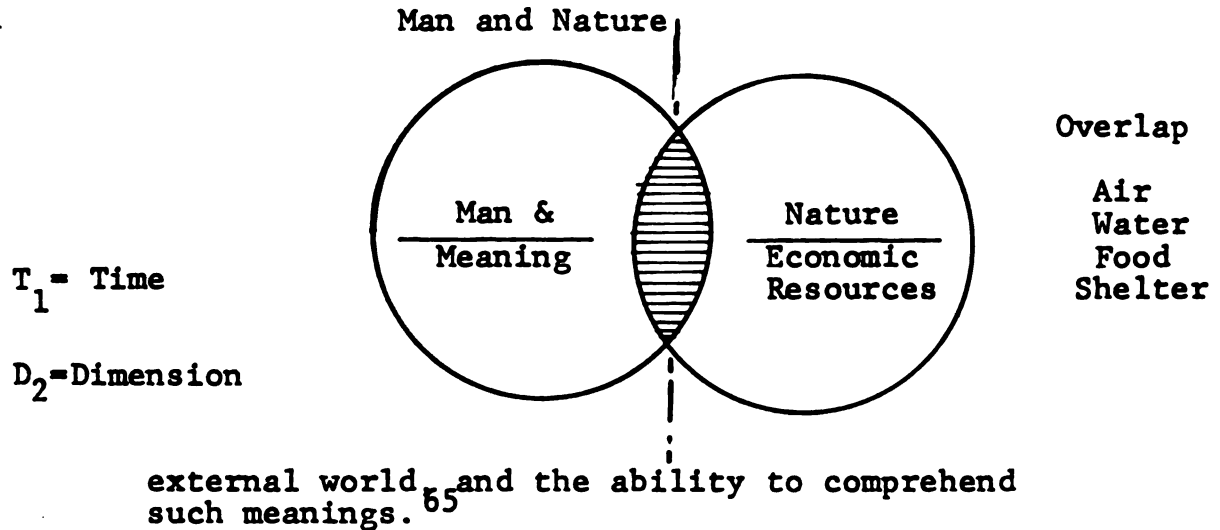
Phase One. Man began his evolutionary struggle with nature in a mutual relationship. Man is powerfully affected by nature, and, in turn, man affects nature more influentially as evolution occurs. Figure 11 shows nature as a resource for basic needs such as air, water, food, and shelter. "T" represents the long span of time man was struggling with nature and living very simply with nature over eons of time. "T" throughout this discussion represents a period of time. "D" represents the two simple, but complex, interacting variables or dimensions - man and nature. Nature is considered as an economic dimension, and man, with his emergent symbolic meaning, is assumed as a second basic dimension. Figure 11 portrays an overall integration of man with nature. In primitive times, nature impacted man and man impacted nature, but the interaction was relatively simple. Man had developed few implements to cope with the powers of nature or to use the resources of the environment.

Phase Two. Man used his innate potential to improve his physical and mental capacities and created "meanings" and "symbols." Leslie A. White stated:

The ability to symbol is the ability freely and arbitrarily to originate, determine, and bestow meaning upon things and events in the



Figure 11



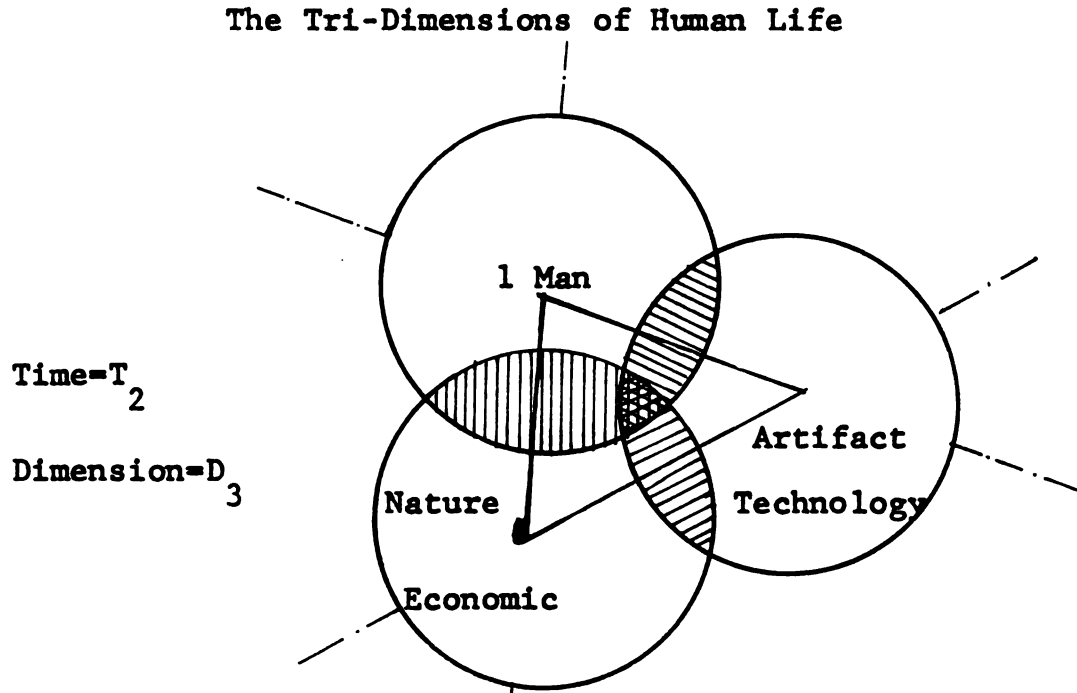
Through these "meanings" man creates artifacts and progressively corrects them in qualitative and quantitative form through the evolutionary process. Therefore, artifacts, in broad definition, is the third dimension of human life. Artifacts are of two levels - some are visualized like tools for hunting and building; others are mentally visualized and are not necessarily expressed as materials or implements. By intuition, initiative, and innovation man understood the need to get food, to make shelters, and to develop tools et cetera to meet his needs. Figure 12 shows the Tri-Dimensions of Human Life, man, nature and artifacts (technology).

Phase Three. Human beings in some evolutionary periods became more isolated and divided in response to the varieties of natural, geographical and climatic conditions.

---

<sup>65</sup>Leslie A. White, The Concept of Culture, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Co., 1973, p. 1.

Figure 12

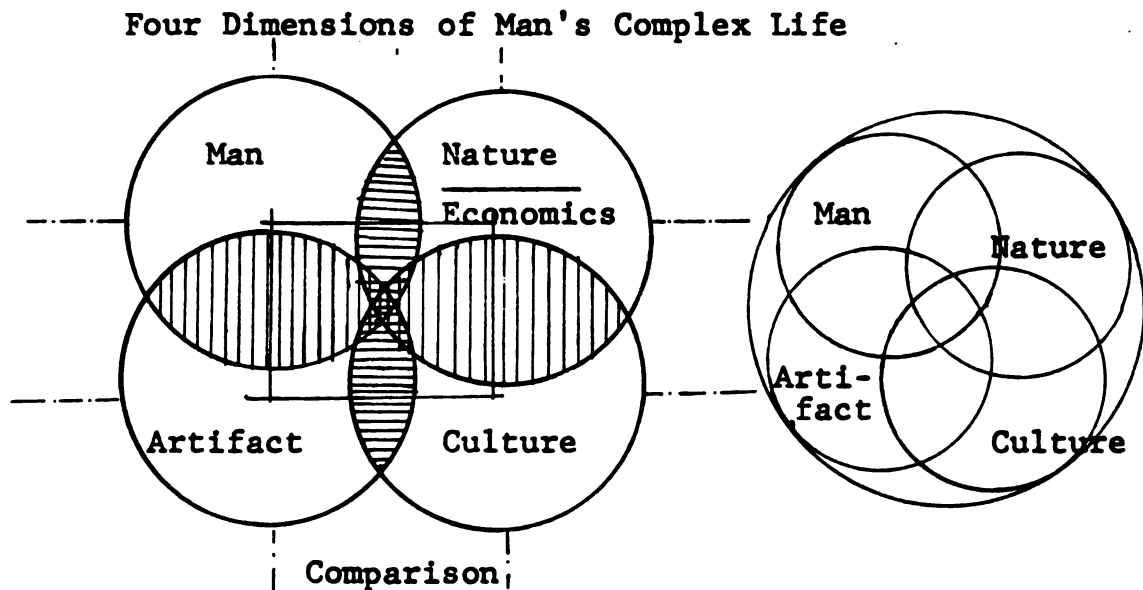


His meanings have been differentiated and his artifacts have been specialized according to his space or geographical location. Because of such reasons, different cultures have been created in different parts of the world.

"Culture" is a major phenomenon in human life. A brief definition of culture accepted by social researchers is that it is an umbrella which permeates human behavior. Man has two existences. One is his physical being and the other is his "meaning." Culture influences meaning. Culture is meaning (per White's definition), including concepts, qualities, quantities, and elements. Culture is distinguished by some scholars as significant elements which include, among others, language, religion, custom, kinship, art, architecture. In this research, the tenet is applied which states that man's meaning is in his "culture" and his "economic" resources are nature and the geographical area

where he exists. The author accepts culture as a major dimension which contributes totally to human motivations and accomplishments. Figure 13 depicts the four dimensions of man's increasingly complex existence.

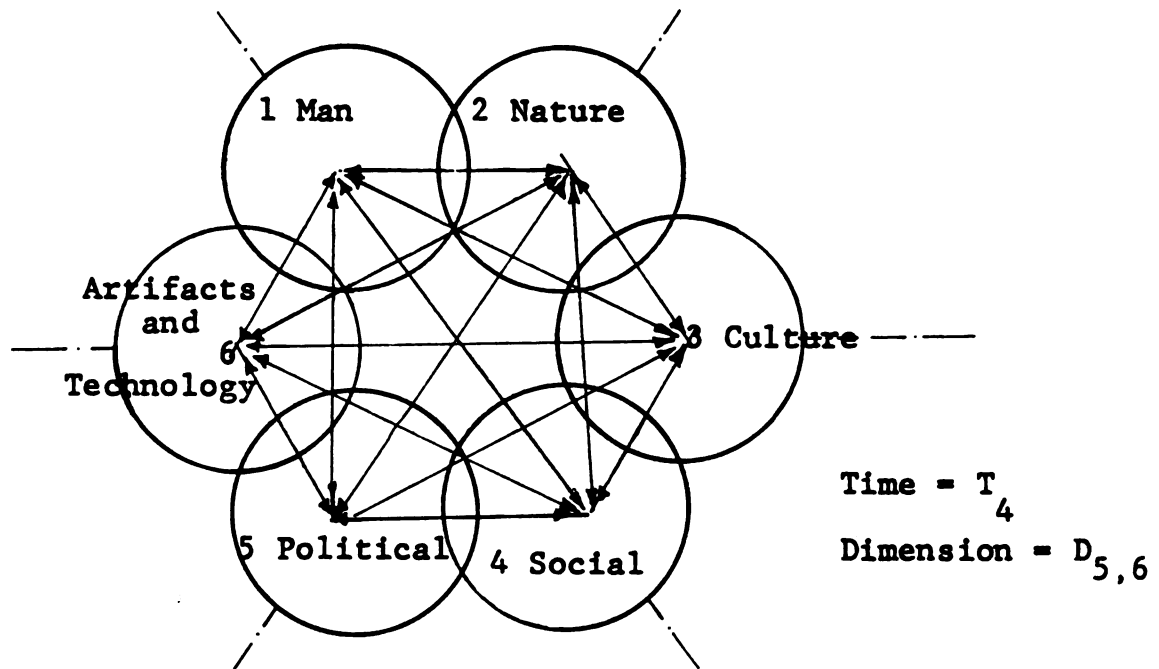
Figure 13



Phase Four. There are characteristics, such as the social and political dimensions, which are dependent upon the economic and cultural dimensions. Social, political, and economic dimensions are in reality sub-divisions of culture, but for ease of understanding, they are sorted into separate dimensions for conceptual purposes, and they emerge as humans and become more adapted to nature and more civilized; as adaptation occurs, man becomes more differentiated and more complex. As the complexity intensifies, the environmental planner must be concerned about preserving the unique differences, or complex heterogeneity, in the attempts to improve the future. Figure 14 shows man's complex interaction with environmental dimensions or systems.

Figure 14

## Six Interacting Dimensions of Human Life



Phase Five. Over the past century, man became more involved with technology and more concerned with behavior as probed through psychology. Technological phenomena and psychological phenomena have had different effects in different societies and are generally accepted as significant and related dimensions.

The main purpose of this explanation has been to clarify several important factors or dimensions which are evolutionary as man is evolutionary. This effort produces paradigmatic descriptions of the assumptions which provide the basis of the Holistic Planning Theory. In summary, those assumptions are:

1. Human evolution or development is from the simple to the complex;

2. A relationship exists between the dimensions of man and environment: natural, cultural, technological, and psychological phenomena.
3. Time is a major factor in this whole complex;
4. Space, which may change, is a factor in the whole complex;
5. The interactions of each of the dimensions, systems, or phenomena create the final form of complex structures, or supersystems, which can be viewed as an abstraction of an entire nation.

All of these dimensions interact and are interdependent upon each other; a change in one dimension forces a change in one or all of the other dimensions or systems.

With this brief explanation, one may examine the whole complex of human life in one paradigm, Figure 15. The basis of the discussion which follows is premised upon the concept of the human complex where the following abbreviations are used.

S = Social organization = S = (Group Behavior, Action and Reaction)

P<sup>1</sup> = Politics - P = (Judicial Law, Legislative, Enactive)

P<sup>2</sup> = Psychology = P = (Personality, Mental)

E - Economics = (Natural Resources, Geographical Climatic Conditions and Ecological Phenomena)

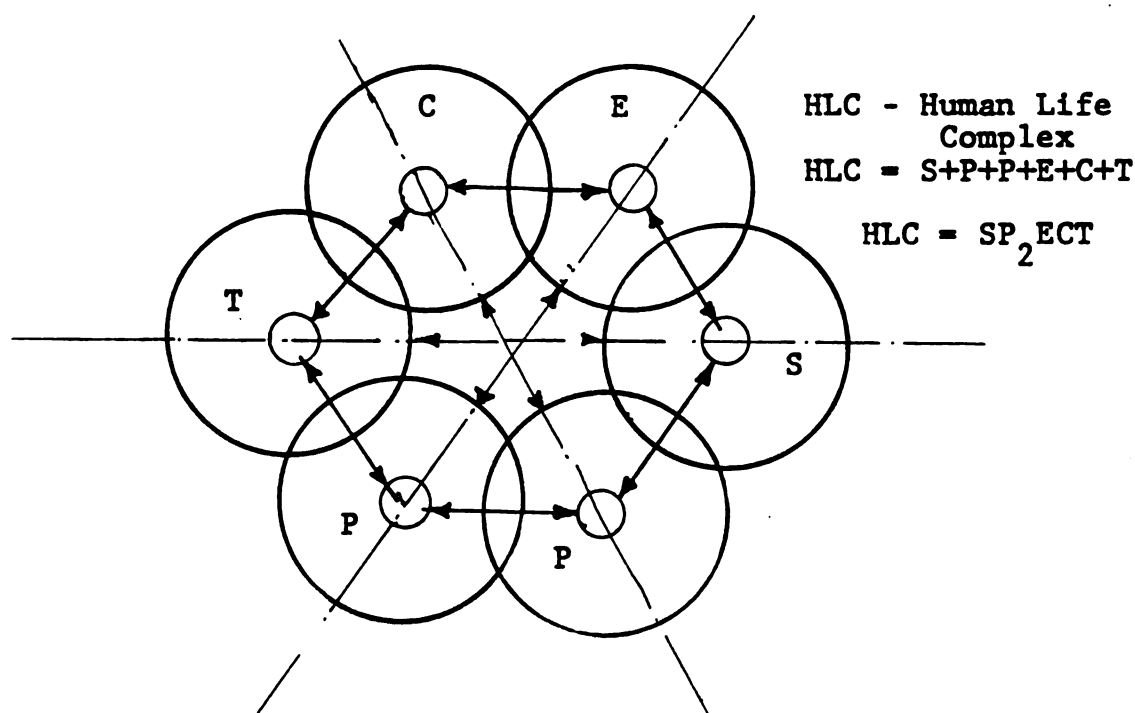
C = Culture = (Man, Physical organism and his Meanings)

T = Technology = T = (human artifacts)

Through the process all of these phenomena interact and are interdependent upon each other, and, together, comprise a supersystem. As noted in Chapter IV, the combined dimensions are called the holistic approach. Figure 15 shows the human life complex with each of the major influencing dimensions or systems. Culture is the dominant dimension.

Figure 15

The Human Life Complex As Viewed From  
the Holistic Approach



### Summary

As a consequence of these relationships and relative dimensions, the holistic planning theory assumes that man as well as his supersystem are in an evolutionary-developmental

process which may be divided into abstract factual dimensions for analytical purposes, for problem solving purposes, and for effective planning purposes.

In order to clarify the intent of this theory, several terms which are pertinent to understanding the holistic environmental planning method are defined in the following section.

### Definitions of Significant Planning Terms

#### Introduction

Modern urban life is complex and evolutionary. The city shelters an enormous range of human systems and values which are interrelated, circular and reinforced by the environment. Unfortunately, there is no satisfactory means devised to establish the ultimate primacy of any one system (as previously discussed in the evolutionary phases or conceptual dimensions). Each dimension, social, political, psychological, economic, cultural, and technological provides valuable but incomplete information about urban reality. Each dimension has a specialist with expertise in that system. Just as man and his environment are evolutionary so are the sciences which he devises to assist in coping with that environment. The perceptual bias of the expert who examines urban life often limits the solutions he designs for improving the quality of life which is referred to at this time as urban planning.

Economists perceive the city as a system of exchange which is a part of a larger organization. Economists define

the basic objective of urban planning as that of obtaining the same land use patterns that would emerge naturally from the processes of the urban real estate market. Legal scholars, social administrators, geographers, anthropologists, psychologists, and other social scientists have special interests regarding the urban environment. Lawyers seem to perceive environmental planning as the determination by public authorities of the legal quality of land areas for the purpose of adapting their use to community needs. Sociologists recognize that urban communities are inseparable from constituent and related elements, such as mechanisms, aggregations of personalities, social structure and systems of control. The architect's and engineer's definitions emphasize the mechanistic, functional and designed. Often the architect becomes so fascinated and so enamoured by his own design dreams that he ignores the goals of improving the quality of life. The planner focuses primarily on the comprehensive arrangement of land uses, land occupancy, and the regulations governing the land's arrangement and occupancy. The significant result of this variety of different disciplines involved with different facets of a community is that each component develops its own emphasis; however, their efforts overlap the boundaries of each other. There is a common thread throughout the activities of all who would improve the quality of urban life. There is insufficient knowledge and lack of coordination of efforts. Sparks succinctly summarizes the complexity of the issues in his discussion of land use information of American cities. He



states :

Despite the enormous significance of urban life in our society, our knowledge of the city and of the process of urbanization is conspicuously incomplete.<sup>66</sup>

Planning, like man and his environment, is evolutionary and may be perceived from multiple perspectives. The terms a planner uses to describe the planning process help categorize the planner's values. It is essential to the description of the holistic planning theory to discuss some selected definitions of various types of planning. The definitions of planning will move from the general description of plan, to planning and various types of planning, which include urban planning, social planning, master planning and comprehensive planning. A brief analytical statement will be made about each definition's limitations and contributions to the holistic planning definition. The definitions and discussions will provide the foundation for the definition of holistic planning.

### Plan

Anderson defines "plan" as:

having an orientation to the future  
and a focus on action rather than on  
acquisition of knowledge.<sup>67</sup>

The prediction of the future is based on past experience and the present situation. All are grounded in the facts of time, space, and environmental conditions. The

---

<sup>66</sup>Spark, Uniform Land Use Classification, p. 175.

<sup>67</sup>A. Anderson, The Social Content of Education Planning. New York: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967, p. 10.

prediction of the future depends on a knowledge of past experiences and an understanding of the parameters of the present situation. All three, past, present, and future, are grounded in the dimension of time which is accepted as an important principle in planning. The significance of Anderson's definition is the concept of action. Unless effort is made to design implementation activities, as the planning begins, the planning is in vain. The major problem historically has been that the action phase of planning has not been carried out with the involvement of the people for whom the planning is being done. Alleviation of community problems requires their direct involvement; i.e. the planners working with the people who live with the problems. They must engage in designing the alternative solutions and activities for the resolution of their community problems. Synergistic planning, involving the expert problem solver and the citizen together in action, is the only way of bridging the gap between practice and theory for active and effective environmental planning.

### Planning

One of America's foremost legalist associated with planning, Donald Hagman, articulates planning very meaningfully. It should be noted that Hagman perceives the city as an isolated, absolute entity. He is concerned with planning for a municipality, but he does not see the community in relation to regional or national design. He defines planning as follows:

Planning connotes a systematic development of a municipality to promote the general welfare and prosperity of its people with greatest efficiency and economy...<sup>68</sup>

Planning in the broad sense contemplates the evolvment of an overall program or design of the present and future physical development of the total area and services of the existing or contemplated municipality. Planning... has in view...the physical development of the community and its environs in relation to its social and economic well-being for the fulfillment of the rightful common destiny, according to a 'master plan' based on 'careful and comprehensive surveys and studies of present conditions and the prospects of future growth of the municipality, and embodying scientific teachings and creative experience.'<sup>69</sup>

In a nation such as Iran, planning for a municipality must be perceived in the context of the region and the nation. The municipal, regional and national entities are referred to as "levels" which will be described in a later section of this paper. Also, planning in Iran requires examination of more than the physical. There are complex phenomena, organizations, spaces and functions which must be included in the comprehensive plan.

Hagman defines this planning process as follows:

A planner will often be heard to say that planning is a process. This is to say, it is much more than the drawing of multicolored maps showing an idealized physical future for an area. The process generally consists of studying what a locality such as a city, village, town or county is now and is becoming, determining what the goals are, stating those goals in the form of maps, standards and recommendations, formulating precise plans for implementation, adopting appropriate regulations, making purchases (exercising eminent domain) and preparing budgets and devising tax schemes as

---

<sup>68</sup>Donald Hagman, Urban Planning and Land Development, Planning--Landplanning., p. 39.

<sup>69</sup>Ibid.

a means of implementation, and, finally coordinating efforts and making evaluations. The process is a continuous one and can be started at any point in the cycle.<sup>70</sup>

This cyclical process is part of the holistic planning approach. What is important is the adaptation of this cyclical process to the different holistic approach system levels (national, regional, municipal, et cetera) and the inter-relationship of the planning process across these levels. Thus, for example, holistic planning would take into consideration the economic system at the national, regional, municipal, and village level and the interactions with the other holistic approach dimensions within the supersystem (Iran).

#### Physical Planning

Physical planning is associated with municipalities. It is concerned with official city organizations and regulations, such as zoning and renewal projects. It does not take into consideration other dimensions of human needs or other levels of planning, such as regional or national levels. T.J. Kent examines physical planning, but his parameters are narrow. He develops a good definition for general planning at the municipal level but his terms show that he does not take into consideration social and cultural values.

---

<sup>70</sup>Ibid., p. 39.

Kent asserts:

The general plan is the official statement of a municipal legislative body which sets forth its major policies concerning desirable future physical development.<sup>71</sup>

Political powers employ this type of planning to implement their purposes. Physical planning fails to take into consideration the multiple social-psychological dimensions which the holistic planning approach emphasizes.

Goodman's definition of planning emphasizes physical planning concepts and provides the conceptual basis of this researcher's physical planning definition. Goodman suggests:

Planning is thought of as being concerned with physical things rather than as a particular body of techniques. This has been the traditional scope of city planning and this view is customarily held by planners with physical design backgrounds.

This group recognizes the interdependence of physical, social and economic factors in community development, and it concedes that a physical plan must take into account objectives, analyses and forecasts from the non-physical realm. The distinction is sometimes hard to pin down, but in general, a plan with a physical development<sup>72</sup> scope will not emphasize economic and social.

Thus, physical or environmental planning concentrates only on the integration of the physical framework within the bounds of place (location), time, and space (tri-dimensional architecture). Although it takes into account available natural resources, material resources, and manpower resources, it does not take into account the accommodation

---

<sup>71</sup>T.J. Kent, Jr., The Urban General Plan, San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964, p. 18.

<sup>72</sup>William Goodman, Principles and Practices of Urban Planning, Washington, D.C.: I.C.M.A., 1968, p. 348.

of human needs and aspirations. The holistic environmental approach in urban anthropology holds promise for more effective thinking about heterogeneity than that which seems typical of the older, more sociological approach.

### Social Planning

In contrast to Kent and Goodman's definitions are those of the social planners who focus on people's activities in groups, collectives, or corporate organizations. Myrdal describes social planning in the following terms:

Social planning involves the drawing up of plans for future action in regard to social institutions and resources. A 'social' plan is designed to meet the needs of a society which means, in many cases an entire nation. This usage, in which social planning is equivalent to societal planning, is generally accepted by social scientists.<sup>73</sup>

Gans extends the definition of social planning:

Some of the consequences of that change, such as the disappearance of traditional patterns of living, and increases in so-called 'indices of social disorganization' such as delinquency and suicide have created a demand for a planning process which would determine whether certain social, cultural, psychological goals should now have priority over the goals of economic development.<sup>74</sup>

The discussion thusfar concerns a brief presentation of definitions of physical planning and social planning. A comparison of the implications of the elements of concern may best be stated: physical planning implies the arrangement and construction of material goals. The term physical

---

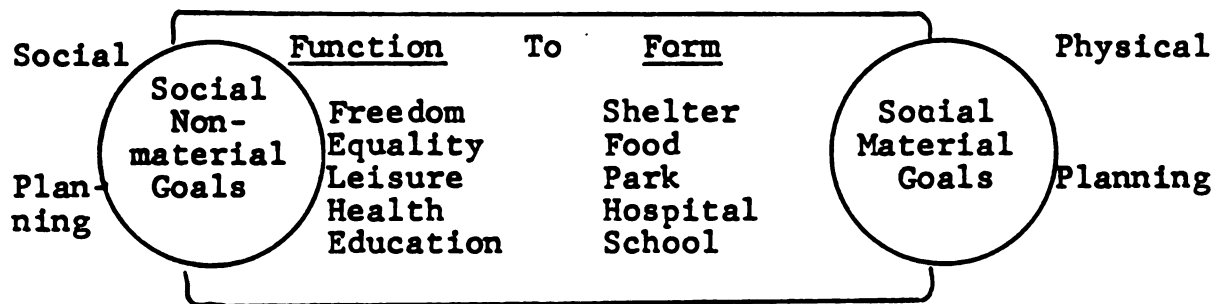
<sup>73</sup>Gunnar Myrdal, Economic Theory and Underdeveloped Regions, London: Gerald Duckworth & Co., Ltd., 1957, p.120.

<sup>74</sup>Gans, Herbert J. Essays on Urban Problems and Solutions. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1968, p.156.

planning refers to "quantity," the physical needs associated with social goals. Also physical planning assumes more concrete visible surface and form than the fundamental human needs. Social planning meets qualitative needs, such as freedom, leisure, and equality. The social, non-material goals are additional components of concern with which the social planner designs. Understanding the social needs of people provides information for physical designs. Figure 16 portrays a summary comparison of social planning and physical planning.

Figure 16

#### A Comparison of Social Planning and Physical Planning



Planners may be perceived as creative planners and remedial planners. Both seek to improve the quality of human environment, but achieve their goals differently. Creative planners seem only to design theories which are removed from the real world. Remedial planners deal with the realities of the existing problems and function to correct the planning theories with their practices. Gans

as a social planner, states:

Planning is a method of public decision-making which emphasizes explicit goal-choice and rational goals means determination, so that decisions can be based on the goals people are seeking and on the most effective programs to achieve them.<sup>75</sup>

After his experience in Boston (Urban Villager), he suggests:

In theory, planning should be an application of that method environment; but in practice it has been an art plied by a Profession dedicated to a set of narrow architectural goals and to land use and design programs for realizing them. Therefore planning has not paid much attention to people's goals.<sup>76</sup>

### Systematic Planning

Planning is a general term which may be used for all human organizations, but they have to contribute to an overall plan which is the concern of this research. Stephen D. Mitterthal describes planning as follows:

Planning is a process by which decisions are reached in a systematic and deliberate fashion with regard to allocation and utilization of resources for certain agreed-upon goals. To achieve these goals involves a rendering of choices among various policy alternatives and the mounting of specific forms of action to satisfy them.<sup>77</sup>

Mitterthal and Speigel emphasize that planning must be systematic and deliberate to be effective. It is essential to practice the systematic planning model because

---

<sup>75</sup>Ibid.

<sup>76</sup>Ibid.

<sup>77</sup>Stephen D. Mitterthal and Han H. C. Speigel, Urban Confrontation, New York: Institute for Urban Environment, 1970, p. 2.



problems continue to increase in societies where remedial short-term planning is practiced instead of systematic long-term planning.

### Urban Planning

Urban environmental planning seeks to integrate social and physical planning as the following definition evidences:

Urban planning is concerned with the nature, structure, and functioning of human collectives in physical space. It seeks to understand how these get organized into more or less enduring settlements and why they change. Like sociology, urban planning in its many versions is an offshoot of crisis and turmoil in human affairs, most recently, the growing incapacity of human beings to master the space in which they live.<sup>78</sup>

Urban policies and planning as individual, localized processes must be an integral, explicit part of other larger planning systems; namely, national, provincial, regional, metropolitan and village development plans. For the purposes of this research it is assumed that there is a need for the adaptation of the sector-oriented national plans to include regional and urban planning objectives recognizing urbanization as an essential element in the development process.

John Friedmann stated:

As a form of human settlement, the city is a social system located in geographic space that occupies a precise position in a system of interconnected settlements, extending from hamlet to megalopolis. National development occurs within this social interaction network stretched out over the Landscape. But its occurrence in the spatial system is neither uniform nor simultaneous. Impulses for development originate at certain localities and are relayed to other localities in a definite sequence. The pattern of Settlements creates a structure of potentials

---

<sup>78</sup>Encyclopedia of Urban Planning, pp. 908-909.

for development that will eventually be registered in indices of regional performance and will condition the evolving character of the Society.<sup>79</sup>

Friedmann's statement is a fundamental principle of holistic planning in terms of the various civil levels the planner must review for the impact of his solutions for the environment.

### Master Plan

Master plan is another narrow planning approach which focuses primarily on physical aspects as the following definition shows:

The typical master plan, which has changed relatively little since the first one was drafted in 1911, portrays a future ideal: a city without slums, divided into zones for each major land use, with efficient highway and mass transit systems, vastly increased amounts of open recreational space and other public cultural facilities, and served by a system of neighborhood, district, and downtown retail and civic centers. The proposals for new facilities and rearranged land use and transportation patterns are synthesized into a master plan map, with proposals for implementing this map through a zoning ordinance to order land use as prescribed by the plan, building codes to discourage slums, subdivision regulations to guide the development of vacant land, and governmental reorganization schemes to coordinate the proposed changes (Bassett 1938; Dunham 1958; Kent 1964)

No master plan has ever become a blueprint for the growth of the city, although individual recommendations have often been implemented. Perhaps the main reason for the failure of the master plan was its assumption of environmental or physical determinism. Like the nineteenth-

---

<sup>79</sup>John Friedmann, "The Role of Cities in National Development," Urbanization Planning and National Development, Beverly Hills: Sage Publication, 1973, p. 23.

century reformers, the master planners assumed that people's lives are shaped by their physical surroundings and that the ideal city could be realized by the provision of an ideal physical environment. Since they were architects and engineers, they believed the city was a system of buildings and land uses that could be arranged and rearranged through planning, without taking account of the social, economic, and political structures and processes that determine people's behavior, including their use of land.<sup>80</sup>

Even though master planning primarily considers the physical development of the city, many social planners make a conscious effort to incorporate new social values in the master planning process. City planners design facilities for people which include neighborhood recreation areas and convenient transportation systems. In spite of this, master planning efforts fail to perceive the integration of the dynamic city structural organs, such as the economic, political, and cultural elements, as well as the interaction of the city with the countryside, region and the entire nation.

### Holistic Planning

The term holistic assumes that the primitive condition of man, prior to the development of social order, was the drive to be an orderly part of nature. The term holistic assumes that natural forces instinctively synthesize units into organized wholes throughout the universe. Holistic is a general term which perceives (1) human life to be innately orderly as is nature's universe; (2) the function of social life to be orderly just as nature's other elements and

---

<sup>80</sup>Encyclopedia of Social Science

entities are orderly; (3) the synthesis of human knowledge and culture in a unique, orderly framework to deal with all facets of human systems.

Holistic planning is built upon the base of comprehensive planning where Goodman's definition will serve as the researcher's definition for comprehensive planning:

'Comprehensive' means that the plan encompasses all geographical parts of the community and all functional elements which bear on physical development.<sup>81</sup>

Goodman's definition is very general and seems to rely only on the geographical and the physical elements while holistic planning takes into consideration the relationship of human values, human behavior, human interaction, and human reactions to each other and to their environment. A holistic plan is defined as a plan which includes social, political, psychological, economic, cultural, and technological phenomena as an abstract of a whole nation called a super-system.

### Summary

The section provides definitions of several planning approaches to show the background differences for the definition of holistic planning. The principles of holistic planning will follow.

## Principles of Holistic Planning

### Introduction

There are five fundamental principles in the holistic planning theory.

---

<sup>81</sup>Goodman, p. 348.

1. Holistic planning begins with the whole entity and moves to an analysis of its parts.
2. Holistic planning analyzes data in terms of systems and levels.
3. Holistic planning accepts time and space as the essential orientation elements of human life.
4. Holistic planning requires function to be the prime factor in the design of an environmental form.
5. Holistic planning deals systematically with the relationship of all component facts of an environment.

The following describes each principle.

#### Relationship of Whole to Part

Planning concerns the future whether it is for individual decision-making, for neighborhood or community development, or for national comprehensive planning. All require a broad examination at the initiation of the planning, that is, planning must begin with a consideration of the total system. The basic principle is that of the concept of whole to part.

Whole to part is essential to systematic decision-making. It is orderly as is other natural phenomena, such as the atom in the nuclear system, the cell of the biological system, the chemical of the ecological system, or the planet of the solar system. Parts always have specific relationships to the whole. People in each situation need to begin by knowing the structure or the relations of the whole.

They move from an evaluation of the whole elements to an analysis of the parts and then back to the whole. It is a cyclical process which initially examines the entire structure to examine the components and then returns to re-examine the whole structure.

Whole, as defined in this research, means the internal and external relationships of the holistic approach in the human life complex. The significance of the holistic approach varies in relation to the purposes and intent of the research or study to be conducted. Part means any molecular phenomena of the holistic approach. (See Table 21, The Supersystem, System, Subsystem).

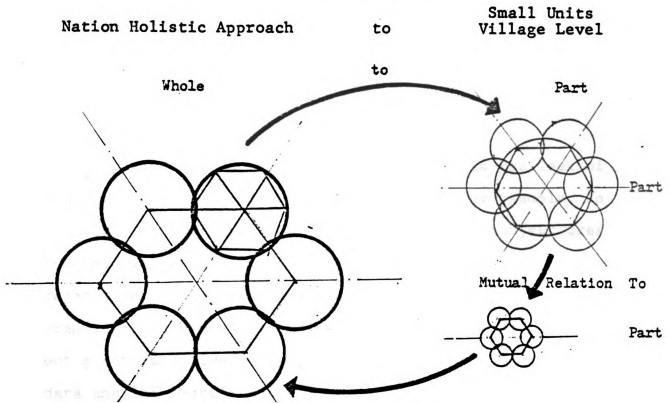
#### Procedural Planning Process

According to the above, the whole to part principle is considered in this research as follows:

1. Whole to part -- Planning must begin by examining the entire framework. Planning includes an examination of the relationship between systems and levels of the whole.
2. Planning continues by knowing and evaluating the parts and their relationship to each other within the whole.
3. In order to insure that the parts are in dynamic relationship to the whole, the initial step of whole to part will be reversed and the process shall proceed from part to whole.

This principle is described in criticism of specialized planning which deals only with parts or fragments of a system and myopically fails to view the whole integrated complex of human life. Focusing on one part or one element is not sufficient or efficient in the planning process.

Figure 17  
Circular Planning Process



The advantages of this circular planning procedure are: (1) It creates a process to understand and classify the basic problems in an orderly sense; (2) It creates a clear perspective of the supersystem and the realization of the priorities of each part in the whole system; (3) It makes it easy for decision-making and implementation; (4) It emphasizes the strength or weakness of the relation between parts and each element in the whole complex.

One of the disadvantages of this concept is complication and confusion in the methodology of planning research in dealing with infinite variables; however, the idea is that planning will be more realistic when all of the variables impacted by the plan are considered.

One of the serious planning problems is the lack of coordination between each national system; for example, in Iran each ministry is responsible for its own subject area, but has little or no interaction with others. This causes repetition among projects and confusion between their programming. Each ministry tries to improve its own area without a comprehensive outline and without adequate reliable data and information about other ministries' planning programs.

#### Iran - A Whole to Part Example

Iran is a centralized national governmental system. It is particularly meaningful to examine the whole to part principle in that society. The following discussion provides an example of the whole to part principle. The consideration



is the concept of levels. An Iranian village which has its own holistic plan is a part of the nation, the whole. It may be examined as its own planning unit or as a part of a national system. Another example, previously mentioned, is the educational system. The elementary school facilities, the curriculum, and the faculty are parts of the village and national education system, yet education itself is a subsystem of the social system, and the social system is part of the whole or supersystem.

No single factor has influenced the emergence of the Iranian system. The factors considered to be dominant to the emergence of Iran's cities are: (1) the physical environment, (2) the economic structure, (3) technology, (4) the power structure, and (5) the cultural value system.<sup>82</sup> There are political and economic factors which have influenced the hierarchical urban-village patterns in the nations. The hierarchy includes Tehran, the capitol; large cities, such as Isfahan; market cities; and large and small villages.

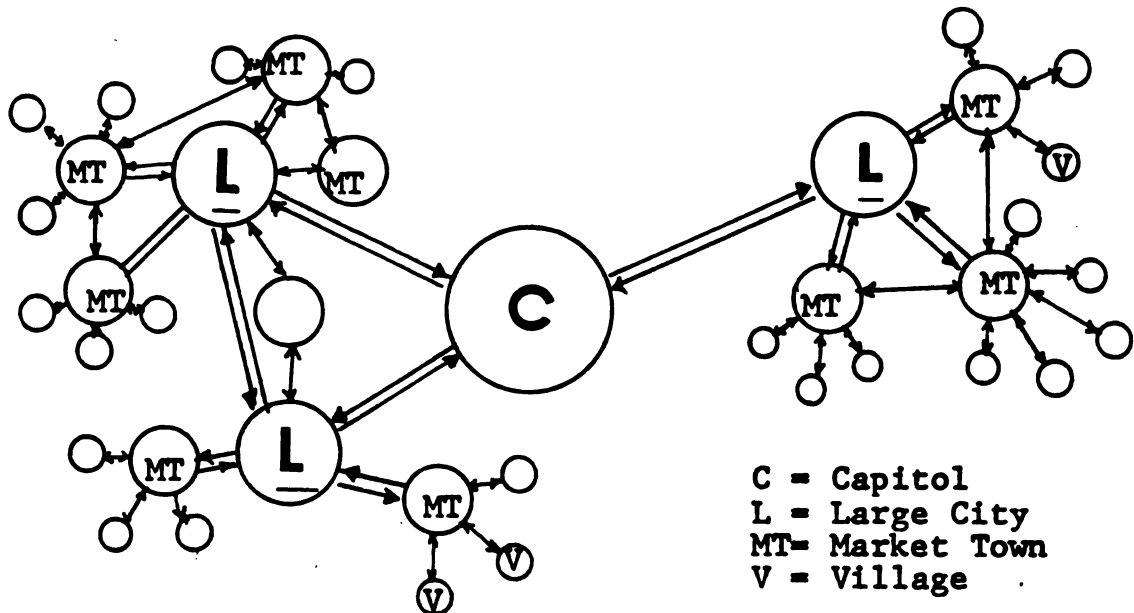
Figure 18, a Model of Governmental Levels in Iran, displays the centralized planning system where the capitol city and large cities are dominant over the smaller market towns and villages. (The weight of the connecting lines show the strength.) The problem is little direct relationship in environmental planning for manpower and resource

---

<sup>82</sup>Hossein Adibi, An Analysis of the Social, Economic, and Physical Aspects of Urbanization in Iran, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, United States International University, 1972.

Figure 18

A Model of Governmental Levels in Iran  
Based on the Whole to Part Principle



development between village and the capitol. This creates an imbalance and chaos in the nation.

Adaptation of the whole to part principle in Iranian planning requires that:

1. Planning begin with National planning within the framework of the holistic approach.  
National planning is the Levels and System Concepts. Their relationship to each other are the same as the warp and the woof of fabric.
2. Planning for the lower levels, such as, provincial or regional, metropolitan, city or village, should be based on National Planning, the whole.

The lower levels must be considered in the comprehensive planning model.

3. Planning must consider the interrelationship between parts, villages, and their effects on the whole of Iran.

### Principle of Systems and Levels

The holistic planning approach requires a systematic means for collecting complex interdependent information. It requires collaboration with many civil agencies. In order to clarify the data sources, the author provides a matrix, the Holistic Planning Information Matrix shown in Table 21, to show the supersystem dimensions or systems which must be analyzed in terms of governmental levels. It shows the combination of supersystems phenomena, placed on the vertical plane, and governmental levels, placed on the horizontal plane. Although this matrix may be done in greater detail, it is shown here in introduction to display the varieties of the main elements in two perspectives, horizontal and vertical. It provides a comparison of the standards of each level and system. It is a tool to consider the significant variables in one perspective.

Governmental levels provide an orderly approach to observing, measuring, and classifying an environment for planning purposes. The holistic planning approach classifies the governmental structures of Iranian society into the following categories: national, provincial, regional, municipal (or city) and village. They may be compared to

Table 21  
The Holistic Planning Information Matrix

	LEVELS SYSTEM	NATIONAL	PROVINCIAL	REGIONAL	MUNICIPAL (CITY)	VILLAGE
SUPER SYSTEM (Vertical)	Social	Education Immigration Health	Branch of Nation Education	Specific Training	School University or Culture	Elementary Educational co Health Corps
	Political	Legislative Judicial Enactive	Province Limitation Election	Regional Law for Preservation	Municipality own Central Institution	House of/Equity Political Structure
	Psycholog- ical	Trust Motivation	Varies to their Econo- mic Condition	Varies Zone	Cold Characterized to Zone Boundaries	Warm Limited Characterized
	Economical	Income Man Power Energy	Gross National Product (GNP)	Gross Regional Production	GNP Budget Expenditure	GVP which is Moves to GNP
	Culture	Religion Language Art	Beliefs Dialogue and Art are Limited	Varies	Characterized from Region	Unique Culture
	Technology	Tools Machines Industry	Industry Location	Agricultural Mechanized Industry Location	Urbanization Modernization Industrial- ization	Primitive Tools and Techniques

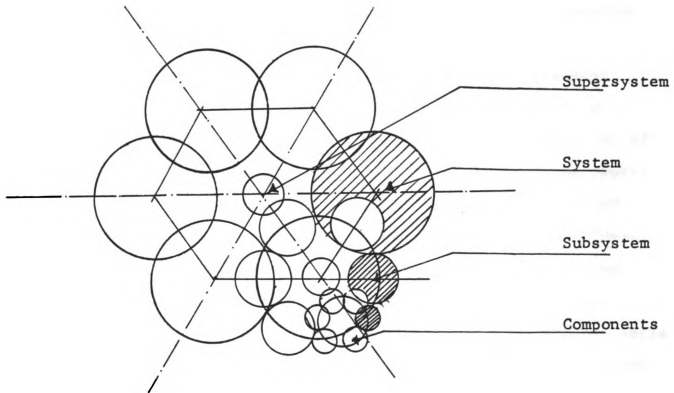
the United States of America's categories of federal, regional, state, county, metropolitan, township and municipal. The governmental units may be viewed in terms of a hierarchy organization where the village is the lowest level of the hierarchy and the national government is the highest level.

The supersystem is an abstract of the major elements of human society: the social system, the political system, the psychological system, the economical system, the cultural system and the technological system. The supersystem represents systems consolidation or the combination of all of the systems. There is interaction and interdependence between the systems, which may be visualized as a whole in circular movement. The relation within each system and among the systems is dependent upon governmental levels, time, space, and functions of the environment to be planned. Systems and levels information allow for more flexible alternatives in planning the future because of the improved data base. The complexity and activity of the supersystem is shown in the schematic of Figure 19, "The Molecular System of Complex Human Life."

In the matrix concept this means that each system is under several governmental levels; it has a whole series of relationships to several entities. For example, education, a subsystem of the social system, in a centralized system such as Iran is controlled at the national level. Education is institutionalized in the Central Ministry in Tehran; it has control over all elements of the education functions in

Figure 19

## The Molecular System of Complex Human Life



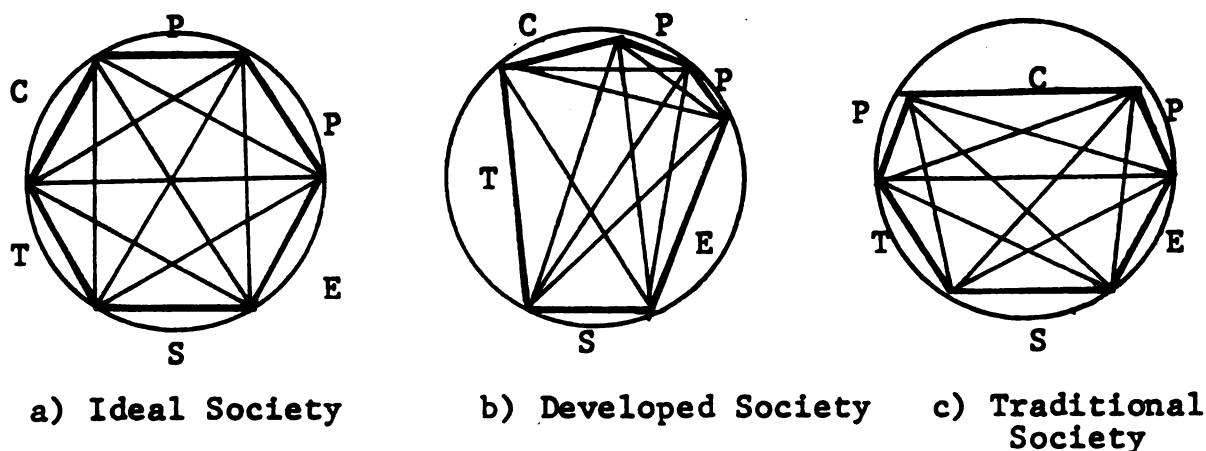
the country. By contrast, at the provincial level there is inadequate planning for education. The provinces tend to follow the National Plan, rather than develop curricula applicable to their unique needs. At the village level the education is very restricted, limited, and stops at the elementary school. Curriculum is dictated by the Central Ministry without consideration for the village's cultures and traditions. In future planning this should be taken into consideration. It is the responsibility of the planner to deal effectively with change with the participation of the people who live with the effects of change in

the complex system. Problems emerge in a society where unharnessed technological achievement develops beyond the majority's knowledge. Alienation and confusion, compounded by environmental problems, are characteristic of rapidly-changing, technologically-dominated systems.

Figure 20 shows schematic models that represent three different complex social systems. Figure 20 (a) represents an ideal society where all of the dimensions of the holistic plan are balanced and equal within the super-system. A balanced relationship where man, his created social order, and the natural environment function effectively and efficiently is the goal of holistic planning. Figure 20 (b) represents a developed country where one system dominates the society and creates an unbalanced social order. The disorder or imbalance is recognized by the problems of disintegration, alienation, and inflation within the society. Therefore, there are increased problems in psychological, cultural, social, and political relations which result in a distorted model. Figure 20 (c) represents traditional countries which emphasize culture, natural family relations, and the heritage of traditions. Countries represented by this model tend to have less technology and economics when compared with the other systems or models in Figure 20. The models function to emphasize the need for planners to balance the impacts of the dimensions of complex social systems in order to contribute to the quality of life through balancing a network of activities and dimensions of human social orders.

Figure 20

## The Hexagonal Complex of System Balance

Principle of Function to Form

The principle that form should be the result of function is fundamental to holistic planning. It adapts the contemporary architectural philosophy of Gropius (1920), which is rooted in the primary principle that "form follows function." Form is defined as the outward visible shape of a body, structure, or thing, and is distinguished from substance, color, and texture. A formalist is one who focuses only on spaces and physical form of the environment, rather than upon social and emotional concerns or relations. Function is related to the purpose, duty, or action that will be conducted within a structure. Form and function are interrelated, but function should be the priority in planning, followed by the aesthetics of the form. A functionalist in art, architecture and planning is one who holds function to be of prime importance, modifying such factors as form and structure so that they may contribute the utmost to the



effective functioning of the finished product.

Initially the purpose of environmental planning was to resolve people's problems by improving their environment through application of knowledge and science. Planning has become limited and controlled by special purposes. Indeed, some urban planners, social planners, and economic planners lost sight of the people and became enamored with their own ideas, fascinated by schemes, or controlled by power structures, as evidenced in their designs. Too few comprehensive plan designs revealed a humanitarian or functionalist concern for the needs of people. In the initial stages of planning, form has no meaning. First the function of the change must be considered through process, and then form will more logically follow.

Evidence of form resulting from function is seen in many rural Iranian villages. The unique and humanistic villages in Iran are mostly created by the people who live in them. These villages are designed to meet their needs with understanding of geographical and climatic problems. These people never had a pre-map, pre-form, or scheme of the final production, but each individual house and the total finished site pattern is perfect, visual, aesthetic, humanistic and proportionate in scale. Most of these villages are still functioning after thousands of years. Some of the environmental problems in contemporary cities and in developed areas, such as crime, pollution, traffic congestion, and poor space utilization, are due to the fact that plans are not made by the majority of the people; rather,

they are designed by one person or a group acting for the whole. Even the problem of growth does not allow everyone to make his own individual design in his territory, but each is given the opportunity to contribute to the design. Competent, relevant and functional planning strives to meet the needs of the people in a coherent functional framework. Louis Mumford has stated the real functional planner is as follows:

Civilizations have risen and fallen without apparently receiving the full import of their relations with the earth.....All good planning must begin with a survey of actual resources: the landscape, the people, the work-a-day activities in community. Good planning does not begin with an abstract and arbitrary scheme that it seeks to impose on a community; it begins with a knowledge of existing conditions and opportunities.....To build intelligently today is to lay the foundations for a new civilization--the final test of an economic system is not the tons of iron, the tanks of oil, or the miles of textiles in products; the final test lies in its ultimate products--the sort of men and women it nurtures and the order, beauty, and sanity of their communities.<sup>83</sup>

### Principle of Time and Space

Time and space are the main orienting elements of social life. Both may be considered in a number of different societal aspects, such as physical, economical, social, and political.

### Time

Holistic planning takes into consideration three main dimensions of time: past, present, and future. This includes knowledge and information of the complex human system as follows:

---

<sup>83</sup> Louis Mumford, Faith for Living, New York: Harcourt, Brace, & Co., Inc., 1940, p. 207.

1. Getting information and data about each of the holistic approach dimensions and each level of the complex system in the past;
2. Considering the present situation, as an evolving whole system;
3. Designing for the control of the final form of this complex system in the future.

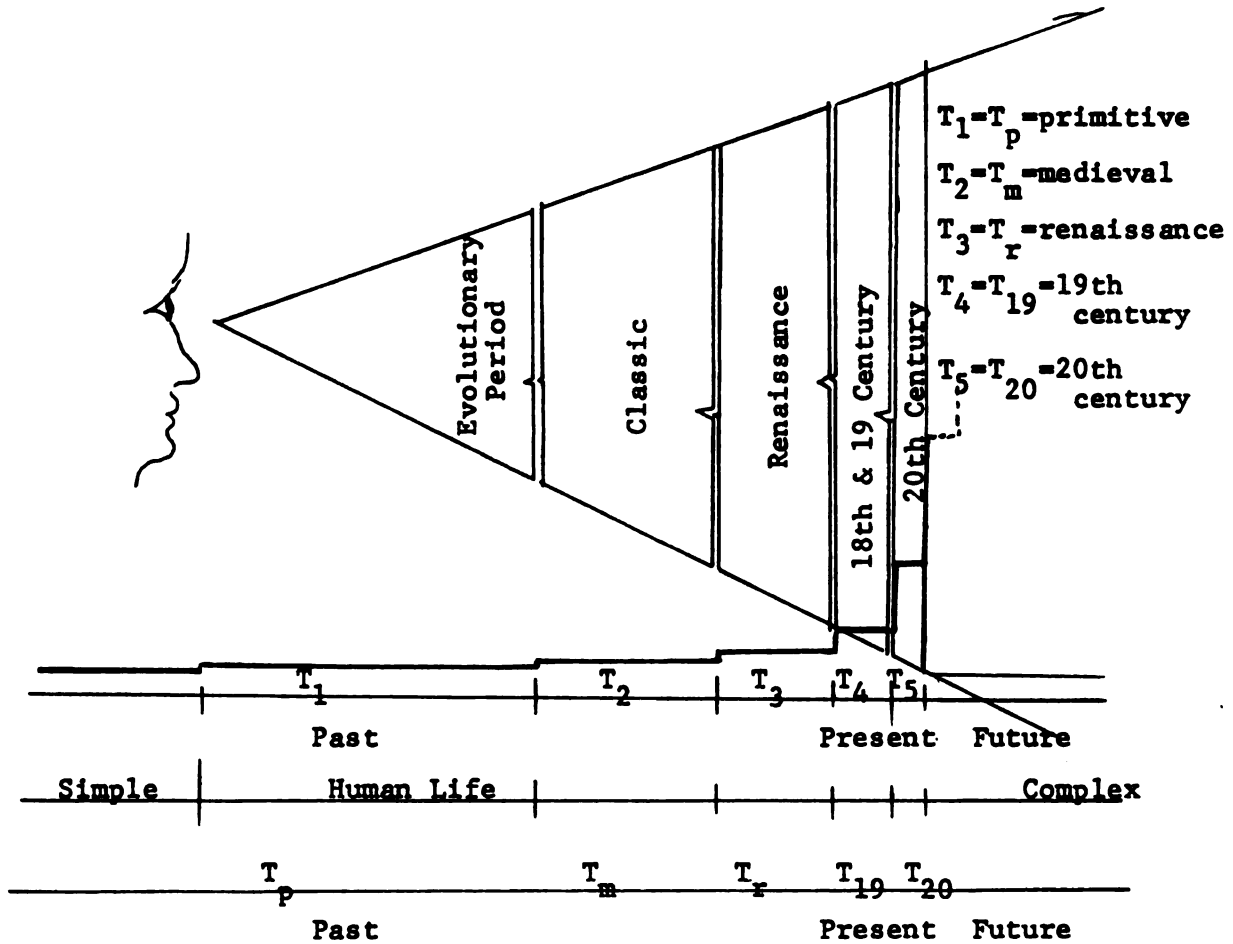
Designing takes into consideration the people's needs and assumes the control of the speed of change. This requires short-term and long-term planning with those who will live with the plan.

Figure 21 diagrams the components of man, time, and society, described previously as the five evolutionary phases of the human complex. The human complex is schematically described as an elevating plane.

Time is a tool to measure evidence within a certain period; however, it is obvious that time assumes various meanings in different societies. Past, present, and future are sections of time which have and hold different meanings and perspectives to man. It is clear that a solar year is an unchangeable fact, but how cultures view the period within that year and at what point that year begins and ends, are factors which are at least partly responsible for the many variations in culture and society throughout the world. For example, the Iranian conception of a year is different from the western calendar where the year begins in January. A year to most Iranians is the essence of the circulation of

Figure 21

## Time and the Human Complex



the universe, and most of their social organizations, cultural factors, and religious customs, are based on a calendar year beginning in March. Many traditional concepts of time have changed for the Iranians, but Iranian history is important to the people. Any major change in their rituals

or seasons would prove unacceptable. An example is the very important Iranian New Year. It begins on the 20th of March and signals the start of spring, the blossoming of flowers, the onset of happiness, and the rearrangement of their lives.

Time is related and dependent upon social spaces. There is a variety of social practices in different areas or spaces in Iran. The meaning of time is changeable. For instance, "social time" is a combination of feeling, memories, customs, religious ceremonies, and historical evidence. Furthermore, each social group, such as the fishermen, shopkeepers, and the peasants, has different concepts of time and consequently has created separate cultures.

Those who preserved and passed on the ancient history of Iran relied heavily on the oral tradition. That contact took place by social contact, from families to groups to the whole society. That example of communication points to the importance of social contact as a way of acquiring knowledge. A knowledge of time and space are also included under the same category. One is not born with a knowledge of what time and space happen to be. One learns through social contact with tribes, clans, and others.

As time is strongly related to the social structure, there is also a distinction between urban and rural conceptions of time. To the agrarian-peasant cultures it is based on religious rituals, such as Namaz (periodic worship). Before sunrise, at noon, and again at sunset, the people worship and must organize their work and rest periods

around that ritual. Time is further related to animal movements and to songs. The fact that some animals, such as sheep, who return from pasture in the morning, and roosters, who crow at daybreak, seem to have an instinctual concept of time has also had an influence on the Iranian view of time. The movements of animals are vitally important to the peasant and agrarian lifestyles; consequently, the people have learned to schedule their time around that of their animals.

In social categories, time is clearly important. Birth and death are culturally related to many social and physical aspects of life. "The sunset shadow is on the edge of the roof," indicates to an Iranian the end of existence and also demonstrates a relationship between the natural elements and man's existence on earth. Mohammed's birth is to the Arabs the start of a new year, which shows the effect of religion upon the concept of time. Many natural disasters, such as starvation or flooding, mark to some tribes the beginning or end of an era.

### Space

Space is a culmination and collection of phenomena which are dynamically interrelated to geography and created environments. It is a place where humans live, relate, and interact, such as the home space, work space, and leisure space. The distinction between urban and rural space is important. Rural spaces are built by people in order to alleviate their needs; the building of urban spaces is

influenced by forces other than needs and desires, such as economic, political, and institutional forces. Rural space is formed with the villagers' occupational functions in mind; in the cities, however, peasants are hired to work at jobs which do not suit their previous backgrounds. Those workers who migrate to the city too often become absorbed into urban life and become alienated not only from their previous environment but from themselves as well. Their new experiences in their new space (the urban area) are unrelated to their prior experiences. In the village, the schools, shops, and factories are often grouped within a single dwelling. In one room, for instance, a woman might be selling milk and yogurt, in another room in the same building a person might be making and selling rugs, while in another room a small classroom may be in session. That type of living gives the villagers a sense of working together toward a common purpose. However, one of the first things a villager encounters in a city is the fact that shops, schools, and factories are far apart, giving the villager very little sense of community. The cities have separate facilities, while the villages do not.

### Summary

The concepts of space and time are related. This principle should always be considered in national planning, but, due to the relatively quick technological growth, planners often fail to incorporate that change. It is particularly important to consider that change when one

recognizes that each area has its own peculiar characteristics. When planning buildings, one should take into account all factors of social needs, experiences, and changes, including the correlation between space and time. Long-term planning requires a self-checking device in order to keep the plan in tune with changing social needs. Related to this point is that time is, of course, involved in the production of a building from beginning to end. The programming, projection, and construction of a large building takes several years. Time and space should be considered in the planning process and a good adaptive procedural policy should govern construction in order to consider new policies and objectives when their need becomes evident.

In conclusion, time and space requires two major responsibilities: one is recognition that information is dated as it is collected for planning; the other is that the solutions based on that information are for the future, when change is the only constant. These facts require a constant or circular approach to planning which will be the final discussion in this chapter.

### Principle of Systematic Planning

Holistic planning deals systematically with the relationships of all components of an entity or an environment. The principle of systematic planning concerns the methodology or procedure to deal with the empirical and abstract elements in an environment. In a holistic planning approach one is primarily concerned with combining and interrelating the physical concerns with the humanistic,



the psychological and the philosophical concerns. In showing those interrelations, one must also show how they work as a system or as a whole. Given the definition of a "system" as a group of interdependent elements forming a collective entity, it must follow that planning, as a process, should deal systematically with all possible variables which are important to the environment. White states:

Systematic organization is encountered everywhere. By system we mean an aggregation of things and events joined in interaction and interdependence to form an integral whole. In the physical realm systemic organization is manifested in atoms, molecules, stars, galaxies. The universe itself may be a system for ought we know. In the biological realm cells and multicellular organisms are systems. Associations of living beings (societies) constitute system, and finally there are cultural systems.<sup>84</sup>

The idea of system in this principle is to observe planning as a whole organic unified form, that is to consider the relation of the holistic approach, to an arrangement of priority planning elements, which will include as many environmental variables as possible. In this era of automated data processing the holistic planner uses every available electronic tool to store and classify data as well as to analyze and verify pertinent variables. The immense dimensions of urbanization, modernization and industrialization require computer data banks and computer

---

<sup>84</sup>Leslie White, The Concept of Cultural Systems, New York: Columbia University Press, 1975, p. 3.

assisted decision-making for the creation of the most effective plan for improving the quality of life.

### Application of the Holistic Planning Process

Application of the principles of holistic planning requires a systematic approach in order to synthesize and manage the infinite variables of human life. A sketch of the implementation procedures of the holistic planning process follows:

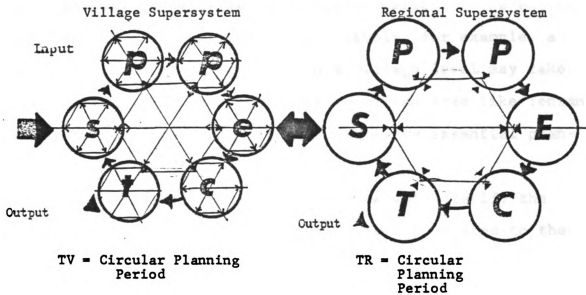
1. To deal effectively with the multiple human system dimensions and variables, holistic planners need to have reliable data available from different holistic planning or system areas. The data should be available from one main institution ( a planning organization), which has decentralized offices at all governmental levels of the nation.
2. The data should be computerized to permit banking of the data, to permit systematic analysis, and to permit simulation activities for innovative approaches to planning.
3. After the analytical process is completed and preliminary plans are designed, the planning agencies should report their findings through the mass media to the people for their reactions in public hearings.
4. Representatives of the people who will be affected by the planning designs should participate in the

decision-making process. Summaries of the peoples' input should be included in the implementation of a plan when it is feasible. The holistic planning process deals with time in continuous cyclical patterns. Previously planning in Iran dealt with short-term (one to seven years) planning, and long-term (twenty to thirty years) planning. Holistic planning is evolutionary, developmental and revisable as new facts become evident due to changing conditions in the villages, in the regions, and ultimately in the nation.

Each governmental level, described earlier in this chapter in the principle of levels and systems, must be continuously assessed for new information. Figure 22, Village and Regional Input and Output: Components of the Circular Planning Process, displays the village and region as separate supersystems within the national supersystem. Each has holistic planning that must be analyzed in order to plan more effectively at the national level. Each provides input information that should affect the final output or the national plan.

A concern with a subsystem or component is the time required for planning. It depends on the values, on the scale of universal study or on the inherent time demands of a planning effort. For example, it takes more time to assess the income of a nation than to assess the income of a village.

Figure 22  
 Village and Regional Input-Output  
 Components of the Circular Planning Process



This exemplifies the time required in a supersystem, such as the nation, versus a village, which is a level of a system. The time differential is dependent upon the purpose and intent of the study, but there are no time constraints in the holistic planning process because of the cyclical nature of the process. The goal is constant information flow and utilization.

Another dimension in a holistic plan is initiating priorities. Different societies have different priorities. Each society has its own character and priorities. One society may emphasize economics, while another society may emphasize culture. Different governmental unit levels within a nation may emphasize different values. As a result,

holistic planning has no specific order. Order is inherent in the process that emerges through the participation of people. Priorities emerge through the desires and needs of the people.

Priorities emerge with time. Priorities change with time and may be perceived as circular periods. The entire research takes place in different levels; for example, a complete study of all systems in a village level may take place within six months but a metropolitan area like Tehran needs two or three years to consider every essential planning element or dimension.

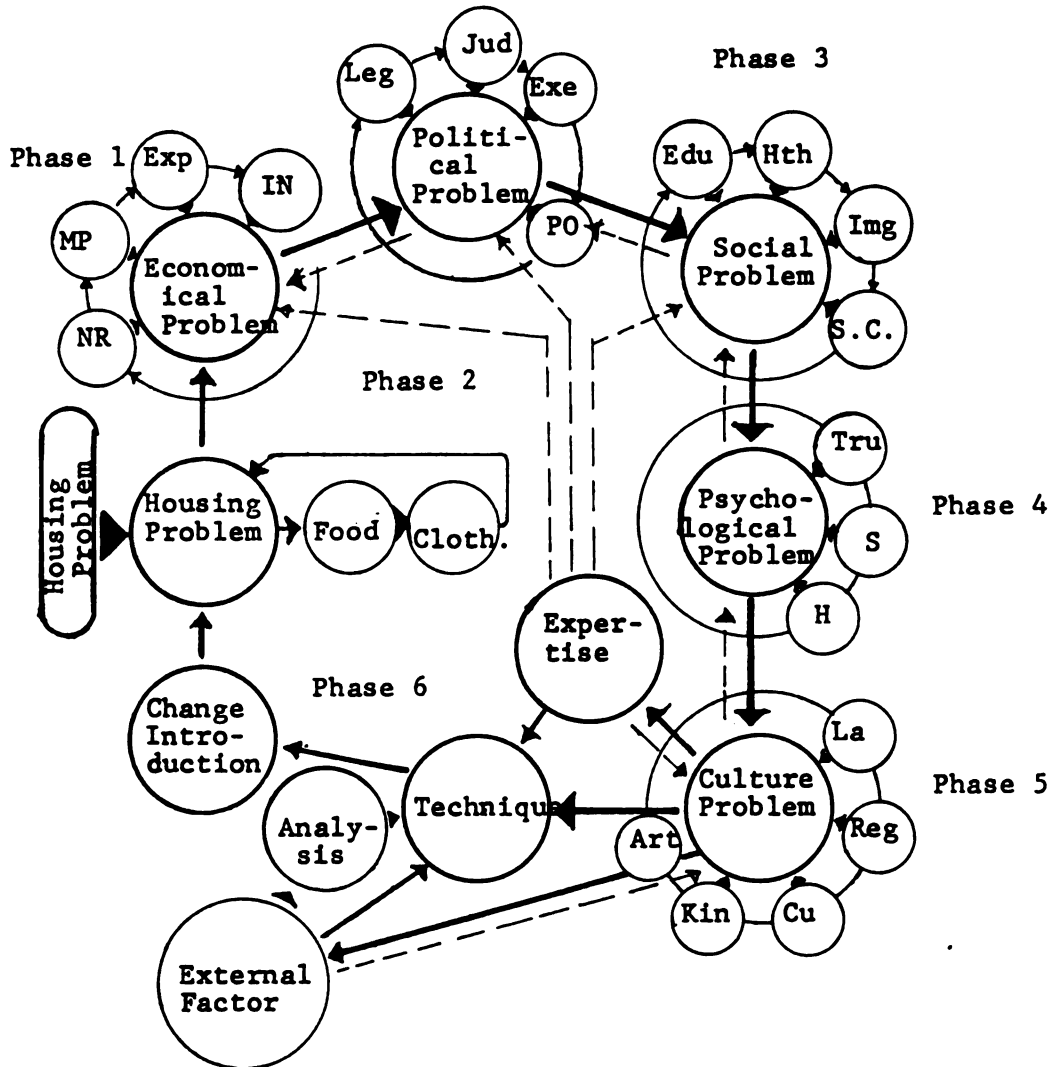
An examination of the procedure will clarify the process. The whole procedure of action is related to the system, subsystem, or component under study and to the purpose of that study. A recapitulation shows there are six major phases in holistic planning. They consist of an entity's social, political, psychological, economical, cultural, and technological systems. Table 22 shows some of the sub-systems of the six systems.

Phase I is the economic system. In the economic system there are four major subsystems. They are natural resources, manpower, expenditures, and extra factors, each of which has several components.

Phase II of holistic planning is the political system which consists of three major subsystems. The subsystems are the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. The fate of the entire nation rests upon the decisions made by these three entities. In the decision-making, Phase I

Figure 23

The Holistic Circular Planning Process  
Using Housing As An Example

ECONOMY

NR = Natural Resource  
MP = Man Power  
EXP = Expenses  
IN = Income

POLITICAL

Leg = Legislation  
Jud = Judicial  
Exe = Executive  
PO = Private Organization

SOCIAL

Edu = Education  
Hth = Health  
Img = Immigration  
S.C. = Social Class

PSYCHOLOGY

Tru = Trust  
S = Security  
H = Hate

CULTURE

La = Language  
Reg = Religions  
Cu = Custom  
Kin = Kinship  
Art = Art

Table 22 The Supersystem Systems, and Subsystems

## The Planners Guide for Planning

## Super System

Social System	Political System	Psychologic	Economic System	Cultural System	Technology
1. Social Structure	1. Components of Sub-systems	1. Trust	1. Human energy	1. Race	1. Technical
2. Stratification	2. Monarchy	2. Cautious	2. Natural resources water in villages Forests, pastures	2. Religion	2. Instruments used in Villages
3. Education	3. Constitution	3. Belief	3. Industrial arrangement	3. Rituals	3. Industrial machinery
4. Health	4. Legal & Judicial System	4. Active	4. Land use, land control and land values	4. Language	4. Electric machinery
5. Income	5. Executive Institutional relation sources and location of power	5. Emotional	5. Coordination	5. Kinship	5. Household machinery and appliances
6. Population	6. Election	6. Critical Values	6. Foreign Trade & economic relation	6. Community	6. Agricultural machinery
7. Employment	7. Political parties	7. Cold	7. Agriculture Production and Prices Livestock Production	7. Customs	7. Energy and power
8. Public Safety	8. Public Information	8. High artistic	8. Exports and imports	8. Arts and architecture	8. Fire prevention
9. Housing	9. Foreign relations	9. Security	9. Manpower	9. Agriculture	9. Heat
10. Leisure and Recreation	10. Political values and attitudes	10. Unorganized	10. Expenditures	10. Equipment and Tools	10. Light
11. Immigration	11. Revolution	11. Calm	11. Aqueduct	11. Knowledge	11. Power production
12. Social Organization Status, Rule Bureaucracy	12. Legal Norms	12. Self-confidence	12. Irrigation lineage	12. Fine Arts	12. Mass Media
	13. Equity Houses	13. Fear	13. Economic Organizations Banks	13. Mass Media	14. Traditions
		14. Bold		14. Traditions	15. Superstitutions
		15. Pessimism		15. Superstitutions	16. Folklore
		16. Stability (consistency)			
		17. Love			
		18. Rational			
		19. Artistic elements			

economic components must be examined in conjunction with Phase II to determine if law and economics are balanced. If they are, the holistic planner may move to the next phase. If not, steps must be taken to correct the economics or political system.

Phase III of holistic planning is the social system that consists of four major components. There are twelve subsystems adapted from the United Nations classification. The subsystems are social structure, stratification, education, health, income, population, employment, public safety, housing, leisure and recreation, immigration, social organization status, and role. Since Phase III entities always interact with Phase I and II entities, the holistic planner must examine the relation of the components to each other. Phase I and Phase III systems have a stronger relationship than Phase I and II or Phase II and III. Most of the previous planning philosophy and solutions have been placed in these three systems.

Phases IV and V of holistic planning are cultural system and psychological system and are the most important phases of the process. Economic planning should take into consideration the impact of these two phases on the population. The cultural and psychological variable elements are illustrated and examined in a case study presented in the next chapter. The subsystem and components all interact with other components as explained earlier.

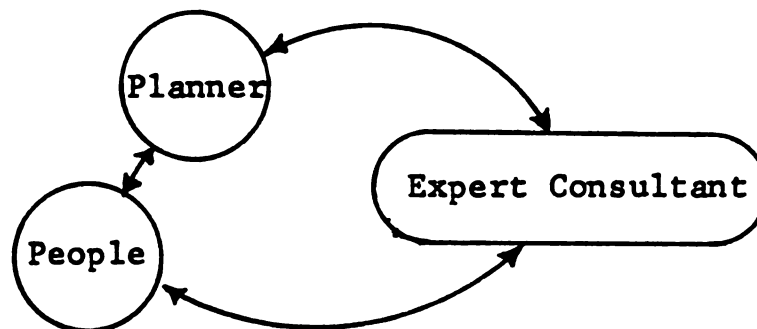
Phase VI of holistic planning is the technical system that plans for instruments, tools, machines, and methodologies



to improve the urban community. This phase is utilization of data information analysis and integration of the documents which come from all of the other phases. It requires evaluation and feedback. It strives to match the ideology of the people. Any final decisions by planners should serve the people. Figure 24 shows the process.

Figure 24

#### Holistic Planning Evaluation and Feedback Process



The change is always adaptive. The advantage of this cyclical process is that the input is data and the final output is the basis for implementation efforts. The supersystem requires time for considering its consolidations in a circular model. It must not be assumed that such a supersystem plan may be completely consolidated by one agency or by one ministry, but it has to be implemented by a new combination of institutions.

#### Summary

Chapter IV presents the theory of holistic environmental planning. It is an attempt to systematically and effectively deal with the complexities of a human social order within a given environment in order to improve the quality of life. Man's evolutionary movement from the

simple to the complex in his social environment serves as the conceptual framework for presentation of a range of planning definitions. The five fundamental principles of holistic planning provide the bases for the description of the application of the holistic planning process.

Chapter V is a case study of the village level supersystem which is a significant element in the holistic environmental planning approach to national planning for Iran. The village of Ahmadabad is one example of the 55,000 Iranian villages that are the heritage of years of hard work by the innocent villagers. Ahmadabad is a sample of the challenge of nature and the people who build all the excellent human values with empty hands. Ahmadabad was selected randomly as a case study, but according to the author's knowledge and observation there are thousands of better or more worthy situations in the whole nation which are at variance with their natural locations. This village is average. It is reasonable to portray villages in this theory, and after considering national planning to end up at the village level.

## CHAPTER V

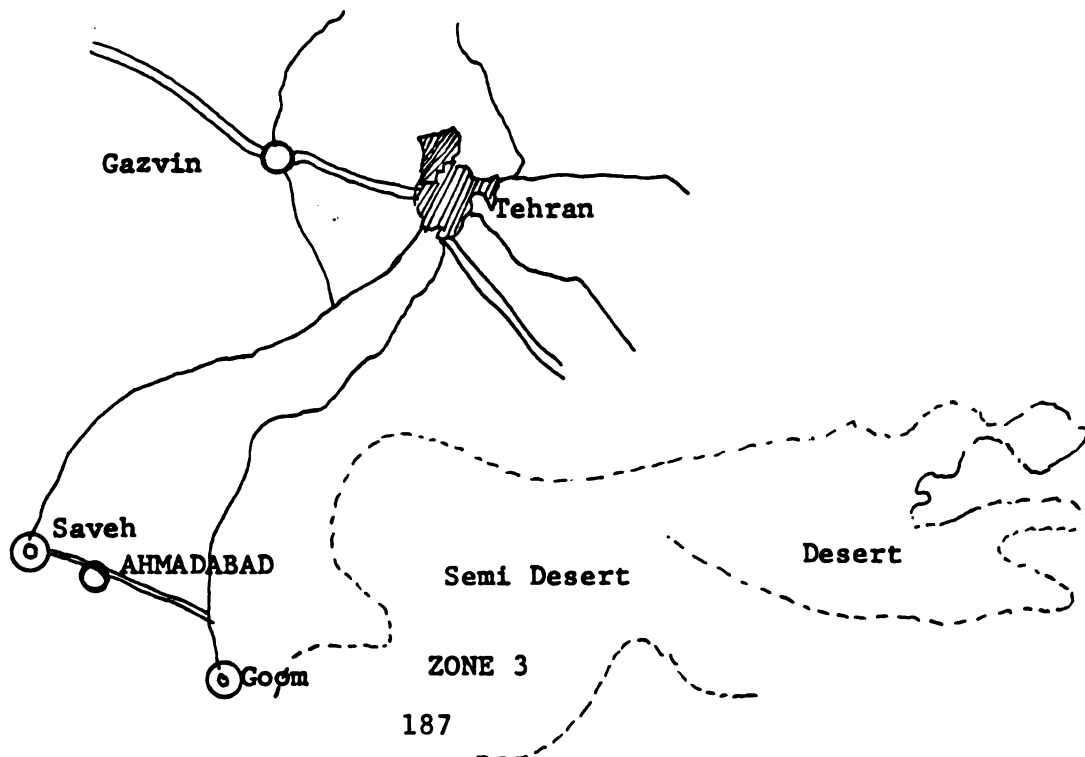
### Ahmadabad - A Descriptive Study

#### Introduction

Ahmadabad will serve as the focus for the application of the holistic planning theory. It is a microcosm of the nation's villages because it is similar to approximately 55,000 other villages in Iran. It was randomly selected from a list of villages within a 150 mile radius of Tehran.

Ahmadabad is located in Zone 3, a semi-desert region 126 kilometers south of Tehran and 6 kilometers east of Saveh. It is also a neighbor to several surrounding villages accessed by a dirt road.

Figure 25



### Historical Background

Ahmadabad is over four-hundred years old. Ahmadabad was a possession of a landowner. He was forced during the land reform era to give one-half of his land to the permanent village residents. Since only half of the land remained in the owner's possession, agricultural production was no longer profitable; marketing in another city (an option available to a wealthy man) was more profitable, so the land was left to lie fallow. The status or relationship of the villager to the landowner changed from that of serf (or rayat) to master to that of coerced cooperatives.

The landowners responded by attempting to oppress the villagers. The villagers no longer had the landowners to subsidize agricultural production needs, such as buying seeds or machinery, loaning money, or providing the necessary repairs to the irrigation systems (called Qanat).

In villages where economic survival has depended on agricultural production, animal husbandry, and handcrafts (including ceramics and carpets), the recent high priorities granted to national industrialization have had a severe impact. There have been immense investments on a national scale in industrialization for land areas and factories. This has increased the price of land, forced village migration to urban areas, and attracted the young male villagers to serve as laborers in factories. These occurrences have reduced the manpower in the village and left children and the elderly to carry on.

Thus Ahmadabad is a declining village because its

two strengths of agricultural production and manpower have been eroded. Agricultural production of dry wheat and pomegranates has declined because of the scarcity of water and because its manpower has been drained off to the factories.

Modernization in the urban areas, as evidenced by technological improvements, such as electricity, central plumbing, schools and parks, has attracted families away from the village to the larger urban areas.

Figure 26

A Typical Environmental Perspective of Ahmadabad



### The Agrarian Village Physical Pattern

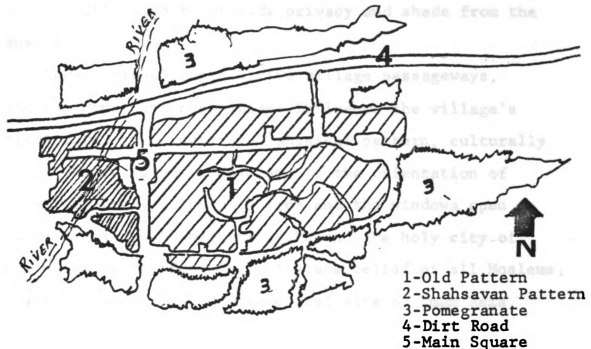
During the last decade a river and ganat flowed through Ahmadabad, but recently both dried up. The village proper is surrounded by the farmlands of dry wheat and pomegranate orchards as well as by the grazing lands of the two distinct populations of the village.

The old section of the village belongs to the farmer with a long history of village living. The village consists of very narrow arterial shaped passageways connecting characteristic old, traditional Iranian houses. The irregular pattern of the village reflects the protective function and the agricultural activities of the peasant farmers. There is no distinctive geometric pattern to the design of the passageways nor to the location of the houses. Homes have been constructed for family, friendship, relations, convenience, and occupation.

A farmer's house is usually two stories high for functional purposes. The height has a psychological-protective function. The height allows him to watch his orchards and fields. It also permits a pleasing breeze to cool his terrace.

The rooms of the house serve several purposes. One room is used as a kitchen, living room, dining room, guest room, or bedroom. Usually there are two to four rooms in the house, depending on the economic level of the farmer. The only separate space in the house is one storage room for housing the farmer's tools, for milking animals or donkeys,

Figure 27  
Ahmadabad Site Plan



and for storing fuel (usually wood), as well as for preserving food for winter.

Each house has a courtyard with specific functions. It is used for water storage, animal storage, and toilet functions. The toilet accommodates basic needs. It is placed in the courtyard so the wind will blow noxious odors away from the house. Trees and flowers are planted for functional and aesthetic purposes. The trees provide shade and circulate the cool breezes.

The architectural structure of the homes and streets is complicated, but purposeful. The houses are like a puzzle to outsiders, but the intent of the people who built them was

protective. The houses are also designed to protect against the forces of recurrent natural disasters, such as sand storms, earthquakes and other climatic weather conditions. Walls are built high to provide privacy and shade from the intense sun.

Thus, irregular protective village passageways, family patterns, and occupations influence the village's physical form. One additional physical pattern, culturally based in the religious subsystem, is the orientation of house structures. All houses face and the windows open in two directions: south because of Mecca, the holy city of Islam, which is the focus of religious belief of all Moslems; and east because of the Meshad burial site of Emam Reza, eighth Emam of the Shi'a sect. Fortunately, this exposure allows the sun to shine light into the houses.

### Social Structure

The social organization of Ahmadabad reflects the fundamental social relationships, economic abilities, and geographical conditions of Iranian villages. These three factors are basic considerations in holistic planning. Most of the Iranian villages were developed during the ancient feudal system. Many villages are still located in the areas designated by a former feudal lord (khan). Primitive production techniques are still practiced.

Social structure in the village is based upon cooperative collectivism. Irrigation as a means of economic survival evidences the combined efforts of the villagers.



Ownership of neighboring lands (the rule of Nasgh) by a group of people requires that they work cooperatively to irrigate the land. Each owner has some responsibility during the semi-weekly water distributions (called abyari) as follows:

1. One person will guide the stream of water from the river or Qanat to the village.  
He will prevent waste of the water by blocking the branch Qanat with mud.
2. Two people from the village will see that the water flows through the irrigation channels, or Qanat, to their own lands.
3. Another responsible person may not be involved in the water distribution, but has the responsibility for obtaining food and drinking water for all the families.
4. If the irrigation channels are damaged, destroyed, or dirty, all will work together in collective efforts to rectify the problem.  
If one of the owners cannot actively work in any of the previously listed efforts, he will pay money to the other to work in his place or hires a substitute.

The system of irrigation benefits the community by creating a conscious knowledge of one's responsibility to contribute to the need and good of the village. Thus, the scarcity of water and the need to obtain water contributes to the strongly-organized social-economic structural system

of the villages of Iran as exemplified in Ahmadabad. This system is fundamental, humanistic, and logical. Holistic planning would develop and adapt these villager cooperative-collective methods to the higher social settlement patterns throughout the Iranian nation.

#### Population Features of Ahmadabad Residents

The population of Ahmadabad is 1,485 people distributed across 190 households around a city square. This includes 50 landowners (farmers), 50 workers (Khoshneshin), and 90 shepherds (Damdar). The population consists of 235 men, 230 women, and 1,020 children (500 boys and 520 girls). There are 20 old widows and 5 widowers.

Fifty percent of the village population owns all of the livestock. The approximate livestock population is as follows: 2,000 sheep, 200 cows, 400 goats, 20 donkeys, 2 horses, and 600 poultry.

#### Shahsavand Shepherds Pattern

Located across the dry river bed and distinctly separated from the older farmers' village are the dwellings of the Shahsavand. The Shahsavand were nomadic people who wandered with their livestock and tents. They were forcefully settled in many Iranian villages, including Ahmadabad, by Reza Shah about fifty years ago. Their past life of shepherding and living in tents influenced the simplicity of gridiron patterns of their settlement design. The passageways among the row houses are wide to allow the herds of sheep and cows to pass. The houses are designed to

accommodate the extended family of the patriarchal social order and are surrounded by high walls. Doors open to all members of the family. Houses of the Shahsavan are obviously larger and different from those of the agrarian farmers across the river bed. Parts of the single story houses are designed to accommodate the herds of livestock. The small garden plots help meet family food needs.

Primarily because of their occupations, the Shahsavan are economically poorer than their farmer neighbors. The reduction of pastures, the practice of importing sheep from Australia, which cut into their market and the high price of hay contribute to their psychological insecurity. These factors, along with the unreliable natural resources of water and grazing lands, impact their security. The quality of their homes is lower than that of the farmers. The number of rooms in their houses is less, although their families tend to be larger. Frequently eight to ten people live in two to three room houses. Like the rooms in farmers' houses, the rooms are multipurpose. The chart below is a comparison of house size to family size of the farmers, or old pattern, and the Shahsavan, or new pattern.

Table 23  
Family Size - House Size Comparison

Number of Rooms In old Pattern	Number of Rooms In new Pattern
2 Room - 7 persons	1 Room - 5 to 7 persons
3 Room - 8 persons	2 Room - 5 to 9 persons
4 Room - 7 to 9 persons	3 Room - 8 persons and over

The Shahsavan's residential pattern still reflects their nomadic history. They live in their houses only during the winter season, then they move their herds to the mountains for pasturing in the warmer seasons.

The Shahsavan practice a different branch of Islamic religion, called the Suni. Their houses, like the farmers, face south and the windows open east because of sun and wind direction.

### The Family Relation

The family is the core of Iranian social life. It is an economic unit and the center for the exchange and preservation of traditions, culture and education. Iranian families are patriarchal, as is evidenced in the language, the lineage, and the use of the paternal name, and the co-habitation of children in the paternal home. Children are reared to be dependent upon parental assistance, and, even after the age of maturity is attained, are prevented from becoming self-sufficient and creative in productivity. In the rural areas the large family still exists, although the Iranian family is in a transitional period due to urbanization, modernization, and industrialization; however,

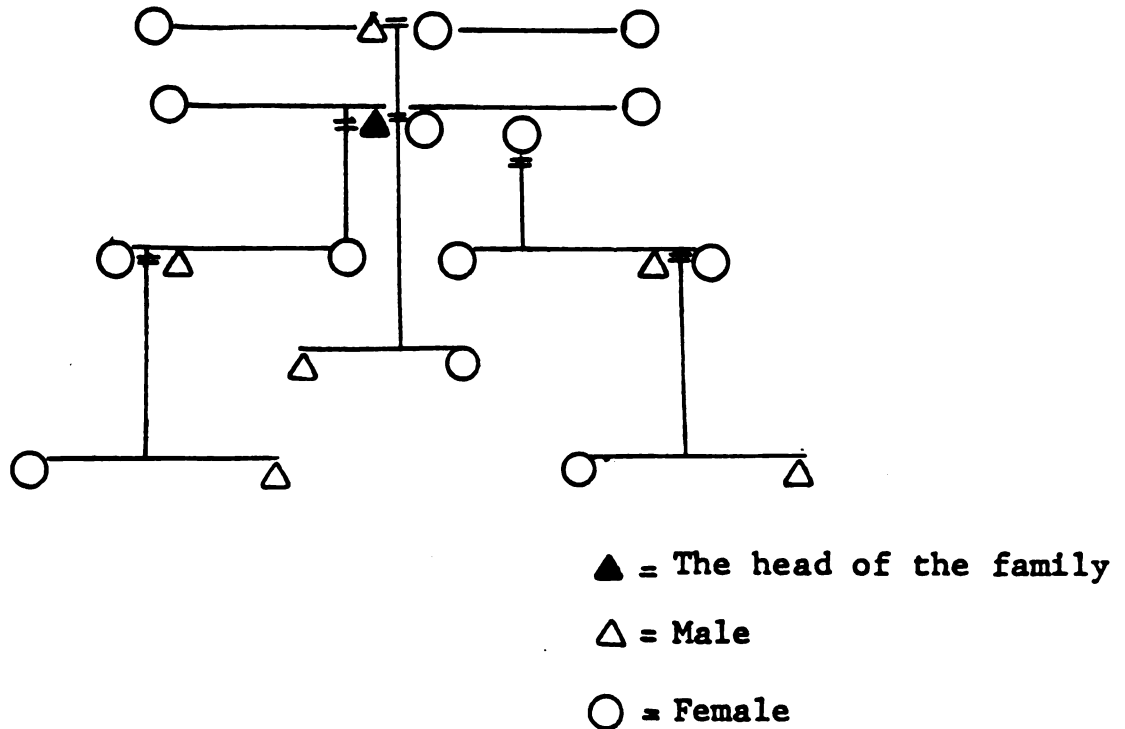
...the Persian extended family is still the most resolute social institution existing and will continue for years to come.<sup>85</sup>

---

<sup>85</sup> Adibi, Hossein. An Analysis of the Social, Economic, and Physical Aspects of Urbanization in Iran. United States International University, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1972, p. 116.

The organization of a Typical Family Household can be represented by this diagram:

Figure 28



Many of these generalizations are evidenced in the families of Ahmadabad. The family organization is another sign of the collectivism mentioned earlier in this discussion. In the village the head of the household takes responsibility for every family member. As an economic unit there are male and female domains. The father and his sons are responsible for the work out of doors, such as irrigation, agriculture production, animal husbandry, public activities participation, and construction and maintenance of the houses.

The domain of the villager woman and her daughters includes cooking, cleaning, weaving, and child rearing. The elderly are the responsibility of the son. Figure 29 shows the responsibilities and time consumption of the Ahmadabad villager by sex.

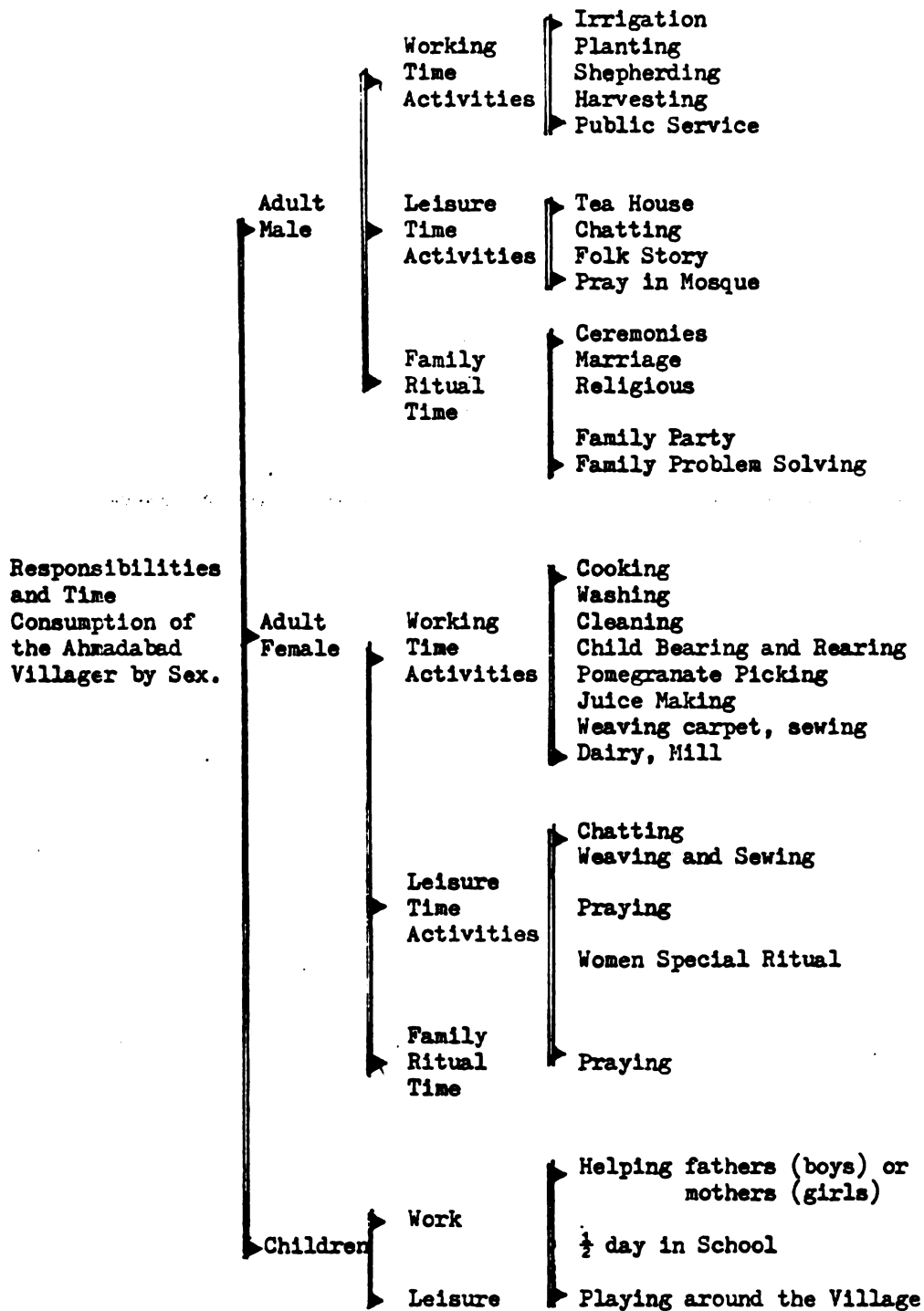
The villagers seem to have an inborn respect for nature and aesthetics. In the design of their villages they attempt to retain the lines of nature and design gardens admired throughout the world.

The origin of this cooperative family economic system is lost in the past reaches of time. In any planning effort, the power of the family structure must be taken into consideration. The holistic planning approach recognizes the impact of the family unit upon the rest of the components of society because of the Iranian personality.

### Emigration

Like many other villages in the region, Ahmadabad is a declining village due to lack of water for agricultural production, unemployment, low income, migration, lack of urban utilities, poor educational facilities, poor health care, and lack of adequate recreational facilities. Many migrate to the city in the hope for better quality of life. The probability of a reverse of the migration trend is virtually non-existent. The only exception to this is for those few families with the financial means to dig deep wells. Of all the dissoluting influences on village vitality and viability, water is the most crucial. As will be discussed

Figure 29



in later sections of this chapter, adequate water supply is essential for survival in the semi-arid environment of Ahmadabad.

### Housing as a Social Sub-System

As previously noted, house design, structure, and construction materials in a rural settlement such as Ahmadabad reflects close-knit family structure and strong cultural values. The economic base for rural living is also different. The process for constructing a house is based on the family growth potential and patterns. The head of the household, the father, forecasts family growth and attempts to buy enough land for his sons' future families' homes. When the land is purchased, a small two-room structure of sticks, straw, and sun-dried bricks is erected in his spare time on a segment of the land. A wall is built around the house and the balance of the land is planted. When a son reaches maturity and marries, another small structure is erected contiguous to the existing paternal home. This process continues until the property is completely built. When a son is able to be financially independent, he purchases his own land and the cycle continues. This process is generally practiced throughout Iranian villages. A schematic of an Ahmadabad extended family house follows:



Figure 30

## Khoshneshin Extended Family House

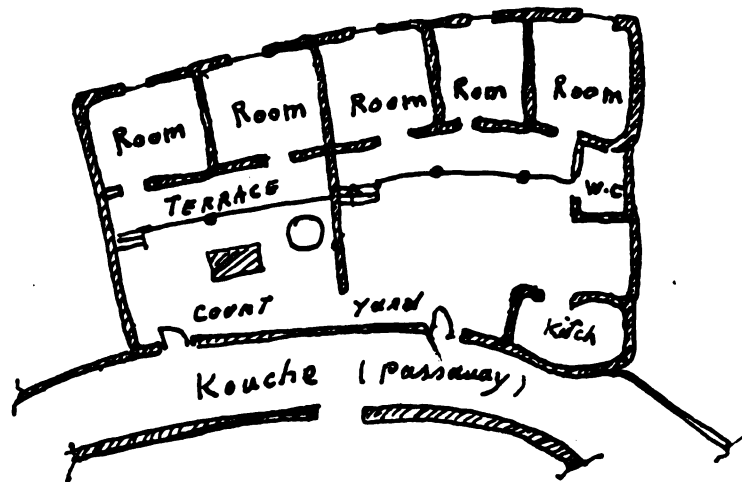
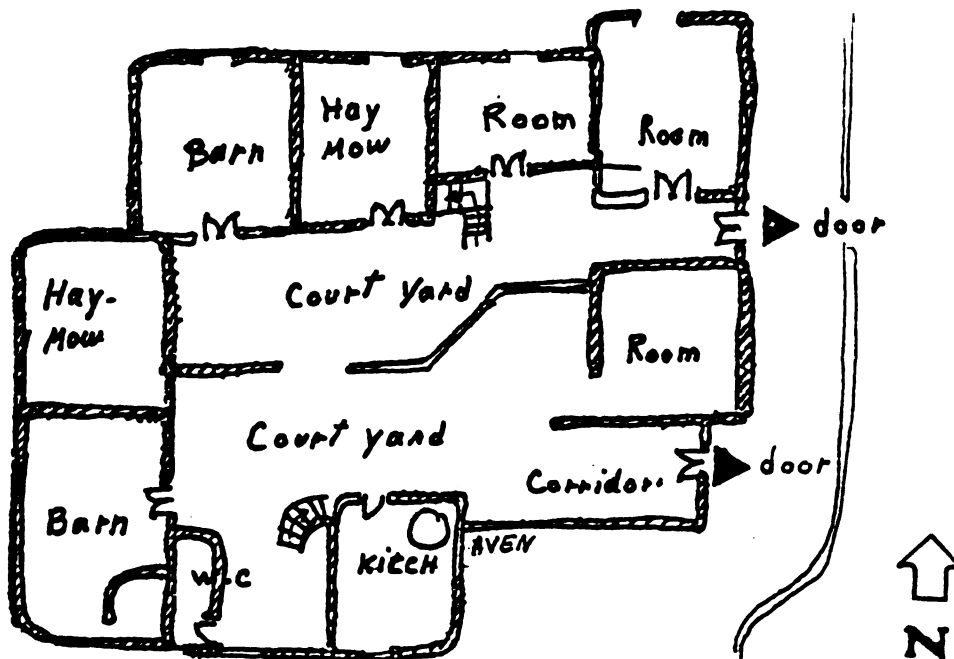


Figure 31

## A Typical Plan



Rental contracting, as in urban areas, is not practiced in Iranian villages. A new arrival in the village is permitted to stay in an existing home free of charge until his own home is built. Therefore, housing is not an income source for the villager as it is for the urbanite. Although it is not a source of revenue, often the house is an expensive item in the meager budgets of the villagers. Money must be spent to repair and expand the houses for growing families as well as for animal storage.

Homes in Ahmadabad are built with such poor materials that the probability for endurance against the elements is limited. The temporal structure reflects the psychological perceptions of the people. There is a distrust of nature mainly because of the dwindling water supply.

### Economics of the Village

A comparison of the urban production system with the rural system shows a sharp contrast. The urban economic system is an open system with a hierarchy of dependent relationships with differentiation of labor, production, professions and expertise. There is also wide differentiation of social, cultural, and political characteristics.

By contrast, self-sufficiency and collectivism are the primary economic and social characteristics of Ahmadabad. The old women are responsible for baking the bread, the old men are responsible for leading the family, the young men are responsible for strenuous activities such as irrigation and building, and children, especially the boys, are a main

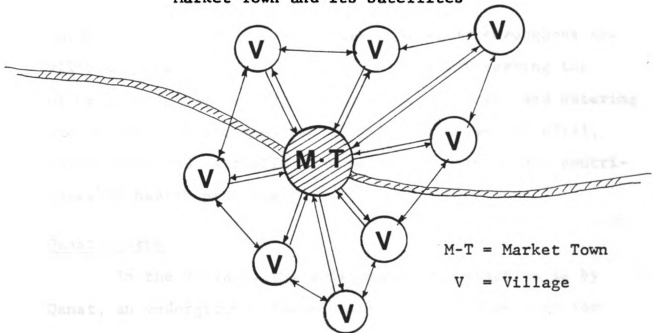
economic resource. The opportunities for women are very limited. Utilizing the energy of women outside of the house is one of the future potential resources for Iran.

At one time, according to the villagers, Ahmadabad farmers produced 200 tons of pomegranates per year. Now the production level is only 40 tons per year. The lack of water for the orchards influences production. Hay and wheat are the only other agricultural products.

The production of Ahmadabad is related to other nearby villages through a central settlement, or market town, called Saveh. Saveh is six kilometers from Ahmadabad. The villagers on market day take their crafts, agricultural products, and animals to the market at Saveh for selling. The diagram shows the general relationship of Iranian villages to the market town that is connected to the major urban centers.

Figure 32

Market Town and its Satellites



### Water

Water is the most important resource to the existence of the villagers. Unfortunately, the only available surface and sub-surface water in Ahmadabad is salty. Shallow well water is unusable. The people cannot afford the expense of drilling deep wells so the women have to walk about two kilometers to the neighboring village for drinking and cooking water. The only other alternative is to collect the winter rains in underground concrete storage bins. At the time of the research field visit, the storage bins were under construction. The villages collectively purchased the materials and worked on the construction of the project.

The location of water and the topography of the area affect the very placement and pattern of the village passageways and houses. Ahmadabad is located on a small slope so that when the once or twice weekly water distribution occurs there is maximum water availability throughout the village. Since there is no piping system, there is a primitive water guide, called a joob, that distributes water throughout the village passageways. This water is used for washing the dishes, doing the laundry, bathing the children, and watering the animals. Since the joob is filled with animal offal, street dust and cast-offs, the water is polluted and contributes to health problems.

### Qanat System

In the villages the sole means of irrigation is by Qanat, an underground channel with a slight flow used for the transportation of the sub-terranean waters from

maintenance areas to the villages. The number of these Qanats through Iran is estimated to be 301,000 of which 8,000 are out of use. Most aquaducts have been abandoned because of the wells.

However, the use of Qanats has been a major characteristic of the Iranian agricultural irrigation system. They have been the most economic means of irrigation, that is to say, these underground channels prevent the water from evaporation. Furthermore, no technical equipment is needed for digging the channel and nothing can destroy them except the earthquakes or floods. Since there is no central organization to administer the use of Qanats, the peasants have an arrangement among themselves. The repairing of Qanats is easy, owing to the abundant manpower in the villages. Usually four laborers are hired to clean the Qanat. The only major problem is the vital investment in the creation of a Qanat, which can be done over a long span of time, even up to 30 years or more. That is why the Qanat system has been created by generations. The management of the distribution of the water requires a kind of cooperative system (collectivism) in the irrigation of the fields. This system is extended to other activities, too.

In addition to the Qanat is vegetation, trees particularly, which are important in a semi-desert area such as that in which Ahmadabad is located. The trees provide shade from the sun, fruit for sustenance, and a symbol for life. The tree often indicates a nearby water supply.

### Social Collectivities and Structures

Public facilities and irrigation systems in the Iranian environment are numerous. Every village has a mosque, a place for religious rituals and ceremonies called Takieh, tea houses, public ovens, underground water storage, primitive health aid stations, public baths, public toilets, elementary schools, paved passageways, and waterways. Most of the facilities, purchase, construction, and maintenance are collectively accomplished by the villagers.

### System of Justice

Village justice is met out by a kind of court system called "Houses of Equity," which were created by the ninth point of the White Revolution of 1963. One of the purposes of the White Revolution was to create a system which would dispense justice throughout the country by improving the working of courts and by ensuring redress of wrongs in the quickest time possible.

According to tradition and prior to the White Revolution, the oldest man in the village judged minor disputes between the villagers. Major civil and criminal cases were judged in the cities. The simplicity of the villagers' lives, their strong sense of responsibility to their neighbors, and their belief in devoting their life to others made such a basic system of justice sufficient. Such poor people were religiously controlled, generally emotionally calm, politically uninvolved, and technologically unaware. Most disputes that arose requiring adjudication were concerned with problems over land boundaries.

The principles participating in the White Revolution deemed it necessary to create courts to function in the villages. These primary courts would be administered by local people and would deal with minor cases of misdemeanor and dispense justice at the village level or in the local region. By 1972 there were 5,805 Houses of Equity functioning in over 10,000 Iranian villages.<sup>86</sup>

A House of Equity is composed of five Justices of the Peace elected from among the reputable citizens of the village. They operate under the general supervision of the district court. The Justices of Peace operate in an honorary capacity for a three year term. They try to solve cases on the basis of common law, but when a more serious or complicated case is referred to them which is out of their jurisdiction, they refer it to the district court.

The main features of the Houses of Equity are as follows:

- \* The judges, that is, Justices of the Peace, are not government-appointed or employed.
- \* The justices come from the locality.
- \* Litigation costs no money.
- \* Litigants are not forced to leave their work and homes to travel long distances.
- \* Cases are heard rapidly, especially since, if any witnesses are required, they are immediately available.
- \* Because the justices have personal knowledge of both sides, most cases end in out-of-court settlement.

Where the elected Justices of the Peace are illiterate, the local Literacy Corpsmen takes up the duties of the court clerk and helps in the preparation of briefs. This is yet another manifestation of the cooperation between members of the Revolutionary Corps and basic organs of public administration.<sup>87</sup>

---

<sup>86</sup>Echo of Iran, Iran Almanac, 1972, Tehran: Echo of Iran, 1972, p. 130.

<sup>87</sup>Ibid.

Ahmadabad's system of justice functions under a House of Equity. The advantage of this new system is that instead of one headman or elder dispensing judicial decisions, there are now five elected people carrying out that responsibility. The villagers did not accept the system immediately because the justices do not carry any legal authority.

In March 1969, the Houses of Equity Act of May 8, 1965, was amended, authorizing the Ministry of Justice to set-up circuit courts of equity in required areas. Number 11 of the amended article defines the jurisdiction of the Houses of Equity as follows:

1. To deal with financial litigation involving both movable and immovable property, provided that the claim does not exceed 10,000 rials.
2. To deal with movable property involving sums up to 50,000 rials subject to the consent of both parties.
3. To deal with family cases, such as maintenance of wife and children, alimony, and other cases concerning dependents.
4. To deal with cases concerning trespassing and unlawful occupation, and disturbances of the peace.

In such cases, the House of Equity usually does not concern itself with determining the ownership of the property. Where a case concerns ownership of land or property, or endowments, or squatting, or a dispute between two or more villages concerning land, the issue is referred to higher courts.<sup>88</sup>

The Houses of Equity are part of a system of the National Judiciary, which is designed with several judgemental levels. The Houses of Equity function in the rural areas, while towns and cities are served by Arbitration Councils

---

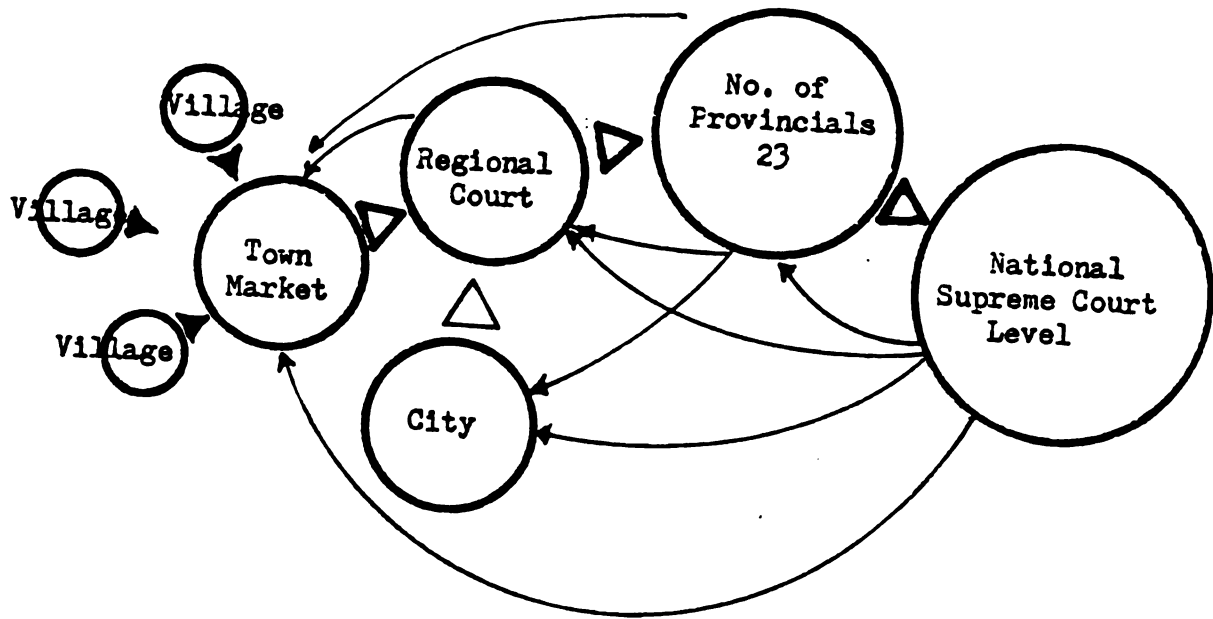
<sup>88</sup>Ibid.



which are organized similarly to Houses of Equity. If a case cannot be resolved at the village or city courts, it is moved to the central supreme court in Tehran. This court is remote from the villager. This court is unfamiliar with villagers' mores, values, customs, problems, and boundaries. Under these conditions the holistic planning concept would propose additional levels of courts, such as the regional and/or provincial level. These courts would function at a higher level, but would have knowledge of local problems.

As the market town is the economic center for the villager, it could serve logically as the location where all levels of the national judiciary court system could function for the villages. This means that villager disputes could be tried and settled by the appropriate level of jurisdiction at court sites in market towns, including town, city, regional, provincial, or central supreme court. Justice would be better met under the conditions where the illiterate villager has redress in less stressful, more familiar and convenient court environments. A schematic concept of interrelationships within different court jurisdictions within a holistic court system can be portrayed as follows:

Figure 33  
Holistic Schematic Recommendation



### Researcher Observations

There seems to be an observable difference in human relationships when the Iranian villager is compared to the Iranian urbanite.

The collective communal or public structures referred to as social collectives earlier in this treatise represent "holistic" activities because of the integration of actions, services and enterprises. Nothing in the Iranian village is isolated or independent. The home is designed for multiple activities. For example, a typical pattern of activities carried on by the occupants of a village home would include milking, making cheese, weaving carpets,

selling milk to neighbors and preparing for the husband's trip to the pastures.

Further evidence of collectivism of the village is the system of public facilities for fulfilling basic villager needs. These form significant contributing elements in the collectives.

### Economic Limitations of the Village System

In the rural areas the economic base is so weak that it forces the villages to rely on each other and to maximize interdependent actions. Their poverty, lack of resources, dwindling water supplies, deteriorating or unobtainable expensive lands and shrinking manpower force collectivism as a means of survival. Some examples of these dynamics in Ahmadabad are irrigating the land, tilling the soil, planting the seeds, harvesting the wheat and pomegranates, baking the bread, obtaining materials for construction, and maintaining the public buildings and passageways. However, the two distinct populations of Ahmadabad do not work together; they are united in their separate areas, but their unique cultural background influences their behavior toward each other that is essentially peaceful co-existence.

The fast-changing contemporary economic Iranian culture impacts the entire social behavior of the villager. Since there is little business opportunity, the young men emigrate, leaving the old men and old women in the village.

By contrast, the Iranian urbanite is self-dependent or independent. The interdependence learned in earlier

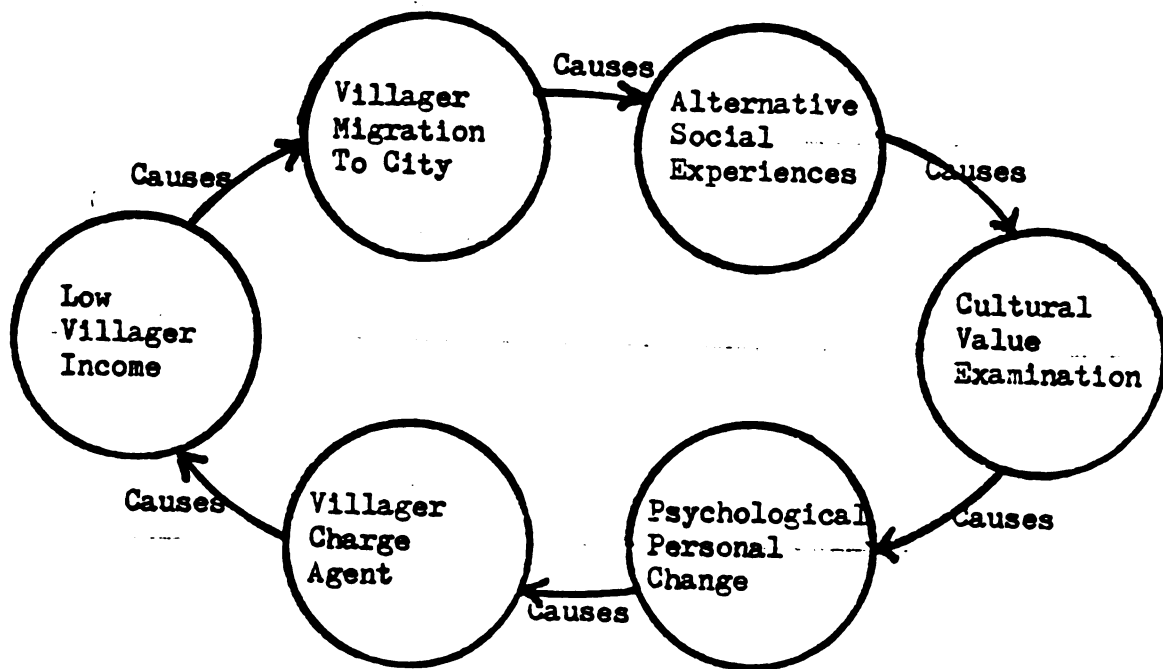
village life has waned through the urban workers' ability to buy goods and services with currency, the demands of the industrial social order, and the sheer city size or distance in metropolitan areas. The price of the increased income and the increased options offered by city living is the loss of some significant cultural values and practices.

Ahmadabad is a microcosm of the process of social change. As economic conditions, such as in this case, low level of education, lack of jobs, and lack of health care change, the social system is forced to change. The young men emigrate, and, as they are exposed to new options or alternatives, their cultural values change. As a result, the physical pattern of the village changes. For example, the transplanted young city workers sometimes return to the village to help at harvest time. Their new experiences and new expectations are shared in the village. One young man returned to live in Ahmadabad with a new bride and with a different concept of house style. Instead of building the traditional arched addition to his parent's home, he built an iron beam supported structure. This visible physical evidence was one of the observable facets of change in the rural remote village.

The process of social change may be diagrammed as follows:

Figure 34

Process of Change from Migration



Summary

Land Reform was one of the decisions made as a result of the few government policies of the Shah. It took a non-holistic approach to the majority of people, especially villagers.

It was observed in Ahmadabad that farmers who had been left with land through Land Reform were without the essential subsidy and preparation. Farmers were asked about their problems. They complained about the lack of water, seeds, and tools. They were forced to live on barren lands and many emigrated to cities to take cheap construction jobs.

The lack of balance between improving urban areas more than rural ones was another motivation for the farmers' movement to urban areas. This movement reduced agricultural production, plus it reduced the ability of the villagers to preserve the villages that were the architectural heritage of the nation.

The amazing thing about Ahmadabad and many other villages and cities in Iran is that they have been built up over thousands of years with simple tools, accommodating great natural changes in the mountains or the desert areas, to create fantastic magrastructural architecture. Not only are they creating architecture in harmony with their environment, but they are creating collective social activities in their villages. These cultural values, plus tied family relationships and kinship, can be adjusted to new phenomena in their lives without any strange and political pressure to these people. Indeed collective life is a pattern that accommodates and accomplishes the holistic approach.

The social structural discrimination between the Shah and the original farmer has been ineffectively considered. It will be resolved by considering the deep cultural, economical, and social problems in the holistic approach package. The fact is that time, as mentioned previously, is a very important aspect for changes. Cultural changes between these two groups, and even on the national level between Turke, Kord and Blouch, will not be reconciled until all the other factors come under consideration.

Each of the villages in Iran has different significant characteristics that can be researched in using the holistic method to come up with a new planning design based on the traditional cooperative village pattern. Some of these traditional factors, such as irrigation, family structure, collectivism, and architectural techniques, can be preserved and adjusted to modernization. But it should be emphasized that any new phenomena or changes, such as new techniques or developments, must serve and improve the above traditional factors, not destroy them as the past policies did. This will be expanded in the recommendations for the village level.

## CHAPTER VI

### Summary and Recommendations

#### Summary

The normal environmental problems of a country always appear worse in a developing industrial country such as Iran. The recent phenomena of urbanization, industrialization, and modernization have produced prodigious and complex problems. To moderate these, the contemporary science of planning has been drawn upon. Unfortunately, what planning has been utilized in Iran has had a narrow focus, based only on economic considerations. This limited focus has caused problems in the social, political, and cultural aspects of the entire nation. Although planning started with physical and economic goals and objectives, the planning policies were not sufficiently formulated to answer even the problems of the peoples' physical development. Also physical planning is difficult to apply in a country such as Iran which has been traditionally conservative and which has accommodated such a range of people and variety of geographical situations.

It is impossible to avoid the serious problems generated by the Iranian natural environment. The variety of climates and the widespread dryness will continue to exist. The natural resources and geographical problems, among others, will not be solved by the currently implemented Iranian planning programs. Neither will the problems be resolved by the currently contemplated plans because the plans do not encompass the physical and social needs as whole sets of



issues. The most effective way to deal with Iran's problems is to consider the relationships between basic social needs and values. Only activities directed towards fulfilling the range of human needs through coordination of the programs of the fields of urban planning, social planning, and economic planning will succeed because the needs they address overlap and impact each other. Confusion results when the planner of one mode ignores the need for a comprehensive scope with synchronization and coordination of the component elements of the overall planning process. Such an oversight occurred with the five national plans previously implemented in Iran; there was a lack of coordination of the basic planning components with varying objectives. Each government ministry or department acted independently, with the result that none of these plans succeeded in fulfilling all of the stated aims or objectives. Cole summarized the resolution of the problem in his discussion of integrated planning:

At the national level of government, successive urban development plans should embody a measure of continuity sufficient to enable sub-national governments, including city or local governments as well as regional or provincial governments, to produce plans which are compatible with overall national objectives. At the same time, urban development plans at all levels should constantly be reviewed and amended in the light of current research into demographic, social, economic and technological changes in city life and growth. And while towns and cities should be willing to perform the economic and social roles which are considered necessary from the national and regional standpoints, they should be permitted to take part in the formulation of national and regional plans of direct concern to them, and be assisted administratively and financially to perform their allotted roles.

.....  
 It follows that policies and plans for urban development should be fully coordinated with policies for national development; that physical planning (which in the past has tended to dominate the sphere of urban development) should be integrated with economic planning (which has tended to dominate the sphere of national development); and that, at all levels of government, development plans should be expressed geographically in terms of economic activities, and socially in terms of people and social infrastructure.<sup>89</sup>

Thus the major planning problem in Iran is the lack of a comprehensive coordinated planning policy. The holistic planning approach is one means of addressing the Iranian problem.

### Recommendations

Based on the previous discussions and conclusions, several strong recommendations are in order for the development of a comprehensive plan process for national and local environments for meeting the crucial needs of developmental requirements.

1. Since Iran functions under the direction of twelve different ministries; and each has a responsibility for planning national programs and projects; which many times overlap, it is recommended that a new national planning organization be created to coordinate all activities at all levels and to be responsible for gathering research data for the holistic approach to planning. National level planning is an articulated and coordinated approach with the provincial,

---

<sup>89</sup>Harry James Cole, "Integrated Metropolitan Development in Brazil," Urbanization in Developing Countries, The Hague, Netherlands: Martinus Nijhoff for the International Union of Local Authorities, 1968, pp. 166-167

regional, city or town, and village level. This organization would also be responsible for tabulation, storage and retrieval of all national, regional, urban and rural development information so that all levels of government, whether provincial, regional, city, town or village would have access to that information.

2. Since the people of Iran are those who must live with the national plan, it is recommended that a commission or system be created which will provide for the systematic participation of the representatives of the province, region, city, town, and village. These representatives will be responsible for representing the voice of the people in designing program decisions and implementation approaches based on holistic planning concepts. The final decision must be announced to the people and voted on by the majority of the people. If the plan is accepted by the majority, it should be implemented by the executive agencies. If the plan is rejected, revision of the process must be carried out until it is acceptable to the people.
3. The planning agencies should have the political power enabling the participants to act upon the jointly designed holistic national plan which has been formulated by representatives for all levels of the national system. The Iranian Laws should provide for decision making at the regional,

provincial, city, and village levels. It should provide for a provincial planning agency, a regional planning agency, a city or town planning agency, and a village planning agency with an organizational coordination under the national planning organization agency. These lower agencies must have their own legal boundaries of political and economic power with mutual interrelation with the upper levels of the planning hierarchy. Since the holistic plan has been designed by the people's representatives, it is assumed that no politician, agency, or other power will tamper or reshape the final decision developed through the whole process.

#### Economic System Recommendations

In order to control inflation, the total national economic policy must include an emphasis on agriculture. This will make the country more self-reliant by utilizing a greater portion of rural manpower. Along with subsidy of the industrially produced cars there must be a greater subsidy of the agricultural effort. This assumes a revised perception of the place and contribution of women and children to the nation's manpower supply. The holistic planning approach recommends decentralization of population in order to provide greater access to natural resources, and in order to ameliorate urban congestion. The urban congestion has been one of the major contributors to inflation because of the concentrated demands for goods and services, such as food and housing. The planning policy should include a renewed

emphasis on agricultural production and animal husbandry in order to increase the food and fiber supply.

A more equitable distribution of the wealth of the nation to the majority of the people would be the recommendation based on this research. The proposal of the Fifth National Plan still needs to be carried out. Some of the ways this could be improved would be expanding national health insurance, increasing the wages of the agricultural and industrial workers, expanding educational opportunity, and expanding technical skill training. Trial implementation of recommendations must be experimentally tested in some villages before proceeding across the nation.

In summary, this process of economic reform should include distribution of co-political power across all class structures and national planning. The latter is based on good research processes, including data and the experimental approach in which planning recommendations are applied, tested, and evaluated in a few laboratory areas before becoming part of a total national plan. The holistic circular planning chart on page 182 provides the process in which any problem may be tested.

The needs of the people of each social level must be taken into consideration in designing employment opportunities. The agricultural workers, the industrial workers, and the mineral workers have different aspirations, needs and desires which have to be considered within the framework of the holistic approach.

All of these problems, policies, and programs must be examined, analyzed, and resolved in conjunction with the other phenomena of the Iranian society.

### Housing Recommendations

The estimate that there are ten people for every residential unit in Iran indicates a considerable housing problem. It is recommended that an experimental program be established to utilize rural manpower by encouraging workers with free housing in exchange for rural building. The manpower exists; it simply needs to be recruited, trained and supplied. The houses built would more fully meet the cultural values, expectations, and needs of the villagers than those designed by architects and construction contractors in isolation. This approach will also be included in the total process. One of the severe problems in Iran is the lack of building materials due to rapid population centralization and concentration. Decentralization would eliminate this problem. The designing process would provide for the artist, architect, and planner to travel to the people and to communicate with the people, to advise the people, and to plan with the people. This would prevent the occurrence of serious difficulties, such as one problem experienced by the author in which a housing project had been built for an earthquake torn village. Upon completion of the housing, which had been designed by a government-appointed architect, the people refused to live in the development. The villagers explained to the author - that the rooms were too high and could not be heated by the only means available to the

villagers. The villagers also said that they were not accustomed to living in houses of the shape and form of the new houses.

### Social System Recommendations

Since most health support personnel and facilities are concentrated in Iran's urban areas, it is essential that more and greater national subsidies be provided for the education of health professionals and for the building of health care facilities and clinics be dispersed across the nation. This concept must be designed in short-term and long-term planning programs. Since illiteracy is still a major national problem, the Ministry of Education must coordinate planning at all levels with the other Ministries. Curricula, personnel development and facilities must be designed to meet the contemporary educational needs of the people while still maintaining their cultural values and traditions. Every level of schools must be distributed about the nation. The form of school and university architecture must be planned to support and advance the educational function and to maximize national learning.

#### A. Public Safety Components

Public safety must still be carefully addressed in Iran. The holistic planning approach recommends considering the need for fire safety support, emergency medical support and survival techniques from earthquakes, flooding, and other natural disasters. There must be national appropriations and allocations to predict,

preplan, and renovate areas where local disaster brings despair. Most of the villages are faced with drought and plagued with multiple related problems. Disease, poverty, and natural destruction must be systematically resolved. A national level planning agency would develop a system of facilities, equipment, and skilled personnel for containing the negative impact of natural and manmade disasters.

B. Government Management Recommendations

Implicit in all of the recommendations is the need for a national bureaucratic system that serves the people more efficiently, effectively, and adequately. Such an organization must be adaptable, flexible, and renewable as human needs emerge and evolve.

The organization system of Iran must be developed in relation to Iran's own unique characteristics. Knowledge and culture must control the hierarchy developed. The national design may best be a combination of Herber's bureaucratic theory and Marx's controlled biological behavior concepts.

One of the points of the White Revolution was bureaucratic change. Part of the plan was to bring young new ideas and young new personnel into the governmental system. Some of the inherent problems were the lack of knowledge of these young bureaucrats, the dishonesty of some, and the general lack of control over the actions of all bureaucrats. Furthermore, the management organization



was not designed by the people for whom it was created to serve.

The Constitution of Iran must be respected. The new White Revolution must be revised by the people and adapted piecemeal to action. The holistic planning and its process must have enough authority to be able to implement their goals across the Ministries. Planning has three criteria: expertise in each area of the holistic system, the ministries of each area, and the participant in determining the distribution of budgetary allocations. Prediction of the future for the Sixth National Plan has to be based on more cultural and psychological aspects of the people as well as on the insufficiencies identified in earlier plans. Finally, the planning agencies must be decentralized from Tehran to the different areas of the nation with careful coordination of all agency efforts. Use of the computer system to facilitate the planning would reduce errors and maximize the prediction of the interaction of variables.

C. Migration Control as Social Components

Immigration is a problem in Iran as it is for nearly all Third World nations because of modernization, urbanization and industrialization. The rush of rural peoples to urban centers for better paid jobs has caused overcrowding ultimately resulting in many slum and ghetto areas. The answer to this problem should be sought in

a more equitable distribution of wealth across the nation. The holistic planning approach recommends that areas with the potential for development should have a concentration of natural resources in order to develop light industry, agriculture, and handicrafts, in order to retain the villagers in their own environments.

Related to this approach there should be assistance in family planning. This help should strengthen the family network rather than weaken it. Thus the very foundation of the nation's stability, the family structure, will not be eroded.

It is further recommended that more recreational and business facilities be developed in the villages instead of creating and designing parks and buildings in already too congested Tehran. It would be better to spend less and develop village facilities than to spend more and contribute to further a city congestion.

### Cultural System Recommendations

#### A. Religion

Cultural values must be carefully considered in planning since culture overlaps every dimension of social order. Planning must prevent the alienation of people. Planning must bridge the gap between modern industrialization and the traditional and cultural values of the society.

It is recommended that any change must be slowly implemented through the educational process. Religious rules, laws, and moral principles dominate the thinking

of many people. Only education can reduce the inherent conflict between modernization and religion. The positive facets of religion and the principles of Islam, such as equality, friendship and honesty, have to be strongly emphasized in the planning-educational process. Religion is important because many cultural values are steeped in religious philosophy. Therefore, the Islamic scholar-philosopher must work with the planner so that mutual adaptation may be integral to environmental design for Iranian people.

B. Language

Since there are so many languages and dialects in Iran's different geographical regions, it is recommended that there be a greater emphasis on teaching Farsi, the national language. This will ease mobility, promote solidarity and further nationalism. At the same time, local languages and dialects must be preserved.

C. Mass Media

Mass Media in Iran has emphasized western values and culture in their productions, in both print and broadcast media. It is recommended that Iranian culture be emphasized instead in these productions. Iranian family traditions, Persian art and literature, Persian values and culture, should be the educational themes of mass media productions.

The printed media must expand the scope of editorial allowances to include the variety of the voices of the people. Newspapers best serve when they are the in-

strument of communication of all of the nation' issues whether they be negative or positive.

D. Conservation and Preservation of Environments

Preservation planning is recommended in order to retain the physical environments of old cities. Municipal building plans should be functional yet retain the traditional architectural patterns. This includes blending the new and the old in terms of texture, color, etc.

Political System Recommendations

Since Iranian political policies, decisions, and laws strongly impact every facet of the society, it is recommended that political activities be carefully adapted and coordinated with the other social phenomena in order to maximize the development of the Iranian people and nation. The recommendations of the White Revolution should be re-examined and revised with the input of the people. For example, the House of Equity should be studied, its organizational structure evaluated, and its effect upon the people measured to determine the optimum approach to restructure it.

A. Recommendations for Human Values/Human Development

Since psychological phenomena are basic elements to the individual, and thus to the society, planning must be concerned with more than the physical environment. In order to prevent psychological-social complexes, research is needed on the dimensions of the educational

elements which shape and mold the personality, perspectives, and programs of the people. Efforts must be implemented to generate trust among the people and their institutions. This is one area that requires considerable expertise and must become an integral concern of the Iranian environmental planner.

#### B. Natural Resources Recommendations

Since the historical preoccupation of the Iranian people has been a struggle with nature and natural disasters; i.e. concern with the lack of water, lack of minerals, earthquakes, etc., it is recommended that a new survey be conducted to assess accurately the water and mineral capacity. The utilization of these waters, minerals, lands, etc., should be scheduled for maximum return over a long-term period as opposed to the current short-term return based on the exploitation-profit motive. For example, oil is a major source of national income; its use should be considered and planned by more than just one agency.

Another example is the need to study the topography of the land, the natural resources of the areas, and the existing structure to determine the optimum location of towns and villages.

#### Physical Recommendations

It has been assumed that geographical and physical phenomena are strongly interrelated with the nation's economic system; however, for ease of discussion they have been approached as separate categories. Holistic planning

attempts to address itself to all entities of the environment. Physical aspects are the final result of all of the previous facets of society. Physical planning deals with buildings, transportation, land use, etc., and should be the final integration of social, economic, psychological, and technological phenomena in order to create the most suitable Iranian environment. It is recommended that more energies and resources be concentrated in collecting data and information prior to decision making-implementation activities especially at the village level. For example, utilization of better building materials and better building criteria for villager homes would improve the people's lives.

Some of the planning instruments, such as zoning, have been adapted to Iranian municipalities. It is recommended that this practice be carefully examined for its impact upon the villagers. For example, the multi-purpose use of the home in Ahmadabad would be eliminated or prohibited if zoning ordinances were implemented in that community. Further, it is recommended that governmental physical development criteria, standards, rules, and regulations be reviewed and revised according to the holistic planning philosophy.

It is essential that a more equitable balance be achieved between distribution of resources across village and city facilities. There must be greater national support for public services for libraries, recreation facilities, sanitary facilities, utilities, sewerage systems, etc., in the nation's villages. Parallel to this there must be systematic

education of the people in utilizing these facilities. The people must participate in national planning efforts.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

Several questions were raised by this study which could serve as the foundation for further research. The findings of this study would be supplemented if research were conducted in the following areas:

1. Since the holistic approach suggests comprehensive collective participatory planning, further integrative procedures need to be designed, refined and tested in Iran and other developing countries or environments.
2. Planning in Iran and other nations must be carefully examined in order to further examine the impact of technology upon culture and human values. Environmental planners need to provide for the cultural dimension of human society.
3. Further data must be collected and analyzed concerning the psychological dimensions in environmental planning. A methodology must be developed for integrating psychological variables with other social, political, psychical, economic, cultural and technological variables.
4. Since quantitative variables are more readily assessed in planning, further research is needed to assess the qualitative dimensions of human reactions to the planned environment.

5. In order to develop the optimum planning structure which will maximize the use of human and material resources, research is needed to test the holistic planning theory. For example, the restructure of the Iranian planning organization needs to be researched for the evaluation of the ramifications of a supra-planning structure for all levels of the Iranian environment.



## **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Achumine, Obi Basil. Dynamic and Strategies for Urban Housing and Infrastructure in Developing Countries, A Cast Study - Lagos Metropolitan Area, Nigeria. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1977.
- Adibi, Houssein. An Analysis of the Social, Economic, and Physical Aspects of Urbanization in Iran. United States International University, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, 1972.
- Amirie, Abbas and Hamilton Twitchell. Iran in 1980. Tehran: Institute for Political and Economic Studies, 1978.
- Anderson, C.A. The Social Content of Educational Planning. New York: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967.
- Anthropological Series, Volume 29, Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago, U.S.A., 1939.
- Aronoff, Joel. Psychological Needs and Cultural Systems. D. VanNostrand Company, Inc., Princeton, New Jersey.
- Ashraf, Ahmad. Rural Sociology of Iran. Tehran: University of Corps Revolution, 1975.
- Baldwin, G. B. Planning and Development in Iran. John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1967.
- Bank of Iran Census Data, 1964.
- Barth, Fredrick. Nomads of South Persia. New York: Humanities Press, 1961.
- Behnam, Jamshid. An Introduction to Sociology of Iran. Tehran: Almi, 1969.
- Behruz, Jahangir. Iran Almanac and Book of Facts. 1977. Tehran: Echo of Iran, 1977.
- Belgrane, Sir Charles. The Pirate Coast. London: G. Bell and Sons, Ltd., 1966.
- Benedict, Ruth. Patterns of Culture. Sentry edition. Houghton Mufflin Company, Boston, 1934.

- Bennis, W. C. K and Kchin, The Planning. New York: Holt Rienhart and Winston, Inc., 1964.
- Bhattacharyya, S.N. Community Development in Developing Countries. Calcutta: Academic Publishers, 1972.
- Boneleh, Leonardo. The Fundamental Essence of Modern Cities. Translated by Kosar Mehdi, Tehran: 1972.
- Boneley, Leonard. The Art of Architecture in Islam Territory. Translated by Bavar Cirous.
- Bonian Consultant. Comprehensive Plan for Rinish Region. Second Report, Tehran: N.D.
- Burke, Gerald. Towns in the Making. London: Edward Arnold, 1971.
- Cantril, Hadley. The "Why" of Man's Experience. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1950.
- Chapin, F. Stuart. Cultural Change. New York: Century Co., 1928.
- Chaplin, J.P. Dictionary of Psychology. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1968.
- Cherry, Gordon E. The Evolution of British Town Planning. John Wiley & Sons, N.Y.: 1974.
- Cherry, Gordon E. Urban Planning Problems. U.S.A.: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1974.
- Churchill, Henry S. The City is the People. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1945 or 1962.
- Cole, Harry James. "Integrated Metropolitan Development in Brazil." Urbanization in Developing Countries. The Hague, Netherlands: Martinus Nijhoff for the International Union of Local Authorities, 1968.
- Cottan, R. Nationalism in Iran. University of Pittsburg, Pa., 1964, Fried, J.F., Economic Development in Iran MSS Center of International Students, MII, 1960.
- Cousins, Albert N., and Nagpaul, Hans. Urban Man and Society, A Reader in Urban Sociology. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1970.
- Dahl, Robert A., Charles E. Lindenblom. Politics, Economics and Welfare. New York: Harper Torchbooks, 1953.

- Deadline Date on World Affairs, (Greenwich, Conn.: DMS Inc.)
- Douglas, Mary. Rules and Meanings. New York: Penguin Books, 1973.
- Encyclopedia of Social Science, "Economic Planning."
- English, Paul Ward. City's and Villages in Iran. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1966.
- Etzioni, Amitai. Complex Organizations, A Sociological Reader. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961.
- Fairchild, Henry. Dictionary of Sociology. New York: Philosophical Library, 1944.
- Farhang, Manuchaheer. The Economic Life of Iran. Tehran: National Library, 1975.
- Flagin, R. Joe. The Urban Villagers. The Free Press, New York, 1962.
- Forrester, Jay W. Urban Dynamics. The M.I.T. Press, 1969.
- Friedmann, John. Urbanization Planning and National Development. Beverly Hills: Stage Publications, Inc., 1973.
- Fromm, Erich. The Sane Society. New York: 1955.
- Fuller, John L. Motivation, A Biological Perspective. New York: Random House, 1962.
- Gans, Herbert J. People and Plans.
- Gans, Herbert J. Essays on Urban Problems and Solutions. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1968.
- Gibberd, Frederick. Town Design. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1959.
- Goldsmith, Edward, Robert Allen, Michael Allaby, John Davall and Sam Lawrence. Blueprint for Survival. New York: New American Library, 1972.
- Goodman, William I. Principles and Practice of Urban Planning. Washington, D.C.: I.C.M.A., 1968.
- Gunnar, Myrdal. Economic Theory and Underdeveloped Regions. London: Gerald Duckworth & Co., Ltd., 1957.
- Haas, S. William. Iran. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946.

- Hagman, Donald. Urban Planning and Land Development Control Law.
- Halacy D.S., Jr. Your City Tomorrow. New York: Four Winds Press, 1973.
- Hiorns, Frederick R. Town Building in History. George G. Harry & Co., Ltd., London, 1956.
- International Union of Local Authorities. Urbanization in Developing Countries. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1968.
- Johnson, James H. Urban Geography, An Introductory Analysis. New York: Pergamon Press, 1972.
- Kent, J.J., Jr. The Urban General Plan. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964.
- Kershaw, Joseph A. Government Against Poverty. Chicago: Markham Publishing Company, 1970.
- Khosravi, H. Rural Sociology of Iran. Tehran: University of Tehran, 1972.
- Khosravi, Khosro. A Research for Iranian Rural Society. Tehran: Piam, 1976.
- Lazzlo, E. The World System. New York, George Braziller, 1973.
- LeCorbusier. Meinhof Charter. New York: Grossman, 1973.
- Marjan. A Comprehensive Plan for Hamedan. Governmental Private Documents.
- Ministry of Agriculture Census Data, 1977.
- Mittenthal, Stephen D. and Han H.C. Speigel. Urban Confrontation. New York: Institute for Urban Environment.
- Mumford, Louis. Faith for Living. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., Inc., 1940.
- Myrdal, Gunnar. An Approach to the Asian Drama, Methodological AND Theoretical. New York: Vintage Books, 1968.
- Myrdal, Gunnar. Economic Theory and Underdeveloped Regions. London: Gerald Duckworth & Co., Ltd., 1957.
- National University of Iran Faculty of Architecture and Town Planning. Master Plan of Kashan. Tehran: National University of Iran, 1975.

- Organie Consultant. Bon Region Comprehensive Rural Planning. Tehran: Report, 1973.
- Palen, J. John. Urban America Conflict and Change. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Weston, Inc., 1972.
- Pickvance, C. G. Urban Sociology, Critical Essays. London: Tavistock Publication, 1976.
- Plan and Budget Organization Statistic Center of Iran. Statistical Analysis of Socio-Economics of Iran in Pahlave Period. Tehran: Plan and Budget Organization, 1976.
- Plan and Budget Organization Statistical Center of Iran. Statistical Yearbook of Iran. Tehran: Plan and Budget Organization, 1976.
- Plan Organization, Economic Development and United Nations. Plan Organization of Iran Statistic, 1973.
- Plan Organization, Fifth National Development Plan, 1972-1977, Tehran, 1972.
- Plan Organization, Fourth National Development Plan, 1968, 1972, Tehran, 1968.
- Plan Organization, Iranian Statistical Center, National Census of Population and Housing. Total Country Settled Population, Tehran, 1966.
- Potter, Jack M., May N. Diaz, and George M. Foster. Peasant Society, A Reader. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967.
- PurFacori, Nasrola. Rural Sociology, Rural Research Procedure. Agarhadegan: Tahrig, 1973.
- Rasmussen, Steen Eiler. Towns and Buildings, Described in Drawings and Words. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1951.
- Reiner, Svend. The Modern City. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959.
- Report of the Last Census Data 1976. Statistical Report No.1.
- Reiner, Svend. Population, Resources for City Growth. New York: Prentice Hall Inc., 1959.
- Sadighi, Eissa. Cultural History of Iran. Tehran, 1976.

- Sharpe, Elizabeth. A Visit to Iran. London: John Gifford, Ltd., 1972.
- Sheguhi, Hassin. Urban Getto. Tehran, 1976.
- Sills, David L. International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences. New York: The MacMillan Co., Volume 15.
- Smith, Harvey H. Area Handbook for Iran. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.
- Sorakin, A. Pitman. The Crisis of Age. New York: E.P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1946.
- Sorokin, Pitman. Man and Society in Calamity. E.P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1962.
- Spark. Uniform Land Use Classification.
- Spicer, H. Edward. Human Problems. New York: Russel Sage Foundation, 1952.
- Statistical Census Data, Social, Economical Evolution of Iran, 1973.
- Steiss, Alan Walter. Urban Systems Dynamics. Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath & Company, 1974.
- Steward, Chapin F. Cultural Change. New York: The Century Co., 1928.
- Summerson, John. Georgian London. London: Baria and Jenkins, 1970, also Penguin Paperback, 1969.
- Sweet, Louise E. Peoples and Cultures of the Middle East, An Anthropological Reader. Garden City, New York: The Natural History Press, 1970.
- Talaminay, Asghar. Analysis and Specification of Iran. Tehran, 1974.
- Tavassali, Mahmood. Architecture in the Hot Arid Zone. Tehran: National Library, 1974.
- Tehrani, Manochahr. The Human Factors of Iranian Economics. Tehran: Andisheh, 1972.
- Thomas, Norman. Socialism Re-Examined. W.W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1963.
- Thomas V. Lewis. The United States and Turkey and Iran. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Thomlinson, Ralph. Urban Structure, The Social and Spatial Character of Cities. New York: Random House, 1969.

Modern History of Iran. Translated by United Nations, 1973.

Webber, Melvin. Comprehensive Planning and Social Responsibility. Journal of the American Institute of Planners, 1963.

White, Leslie A. The Concept of Cultural Systems, A Key to Understand Tribes and Nations. New York: Columbia University Press, 1975.

White, Leslie A. with Beth Dillingham. The Concept of Culture. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Company, 1973.

White, Leslie A. The Science of Culture. New York: Grove Press, 1949.

Vandenburg, L. Archaeology of Ancient Period. Translated by Behman, E. Tehran: University of Tehran, 1969.

Zahran, Mohsen Moharram. Challenges of the Urban Environment. Beirut, Lebanon: Beirut Arab University, 1973.