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

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
~~SCHOOL OF URBAN PLANNING & LANDSCAPE~~
~~ARCHITECTURE~~
EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48823

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Iraj Eftekhari

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

Section 1 - Introduction

Throughout the history of human evolution many idealistic and humanistic men have responded to problems in their social and physical environments with dreams of imaginary societies — Utopias — where such problems are neatly and abstractly dissolved. Yet, despite their focus on the basic needs of their particular societies during particular historic periods, Utopian thinkers are, and always have been, dreamers, in touch with the idealistic rather than the realistic. Only a focus on realism can bring effective social change. Thus, although attempts to make Utopian ideologies workable have been made by planners, sociologists and economists alike, all of whom have been interested in social reform. These attempts have often failed because the ideologies from which they came were not grounded in the real, were not coordinated around actual physical and social needs of people living in a specific environment.

Section 2 - Purpose of the Study

The country of Iran has had its Utopian dreamers too — men who have sought to regenerate and reorganize the physical

and social environment of the nation. Their attempts at social reform have materialized over some three decades into five National Plans aimed at creating a more technologically advanced Iranian society with a higher living standard for the people.

But, those plans have consistently failed to bring the desired results of the planners. It is the purpose of this study — which is only a preliminary report to be later expanded — to examine those plans and the reasons for their failure, and, more importantly, to offer a new procedure for creating a comprehensive plan for the Iranian environment.

Section 3 - Need for the Study

It is currently impossible to avoid the conclusion that the serious problems facing Iran will continue in something like their present form for an indefinite period of time, unless they are examined closely and their drawbacks recognized. Indeed, despite the promise offered by their proposals, the five National Plans have been, in a sense, doomed to failure from their inception because the planners have consistently made the same error: there has been no coordination among the various proposals nor have they reflected the cultural values of Iran. Each of the plans, then, has originated on one level without consideration of sub-levels, has ignored the real physical needs of the masses in favor of meeting the priorities of the elite. In addition, the emphasis on foreign aid and consulting services — especially from the United States — has not always been for the betterment of Iranians.

As a result of the above, any "social planning," "economic planning" or "urban planning" which has been undertaken in Iran over the past 30 years has met with confusion and set-backs. This study will begin a resolution of that confusion.

Section 4 - Scope of the Study

Such a resolution will be attempted through the examination of a new procedure for arriving at a workable National Plan. Unlike efforts in the past, this procedure will be comprehensive in nature and holistic in perspective, i.e., it will place emphasis on coordinating and inter-relating all plan proposals, which will reflect the people's real physical needs and Iran's own cultural values. By so doing, the procedure suggested by this study will hopefully result in a plan methodology conducive to the creation of an open, flexible and balanced society in Iran.

A consideration of this procedure will involve the discussion of three basic concepts:

1. The centric system of Iran
2. The theory of levels
3. The nature of a comprehensive or holistic plan.

The procedure will also entail a division into six dynamic fields, each of which will have its own subsystems and components (a reflection of the holistic concept):

1. Social System Planning
2. Economic System Planning
3. Political System Planning

4. Cultural System Planning
5. Technological System Planning
6. Psychological System Planning

Section 5 - Definitions of Study Terminology

Principal Terms

An understanding of the principal concepts of this research is essential in clarifying the terms used in this paper.

Culture - any culture consists of all learned forms of behavior which derive from social contact and which are common to the activities of the total group. Culture in this framework is the product of socialization, personality, and environment. Language, folklore, poetry, drama, handwork, painting, architecture, and other arts and behaviors have cultural form and function. They have great effect on social, political and psychological values.

Society - organization of man into functioning groups of people.

System - one of the most important ideas in modern science is the idea of a system, and it is defined as a set or arrangement of things so related or connected as to form a unity or organic whole.

Social - from a sociological viewpoint, this term has been defined as "having to do with the reciprocal relations of interacting human beings, either the individuals or groups. Describes a situation in which the individual actively

identifies himself with his group and is concerned with its welfare."¹

Planning - "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."² The process includes a statement of actions to be undertaken to achieve these goals.

Social Planning - the term social planning here is meant to cover goals such as social welfare, safety, health and mental health, where it refers to "qualities" of the social indicator. Social values in this research are assumed to be the "function" of the total society's existence. Social planning denotes the arrangement of non-material goals.

Physical Planning - the term physical planning, in this research, refers to "quantity," the physical needs associated with social goals. Further, physical planning assumes the "form" for the social goals, and implies the arrangement and construction of material goals.

¹Henry Fairchild, ed., Dictionary of Sociology (New York: Philosophical Library, 1944), p. 272.

²Stephan D. Mathenthal and Hans B.C. Spiegel, Urban Confrontation (New York: Institute for Urban Environments, 1970), p. 2.

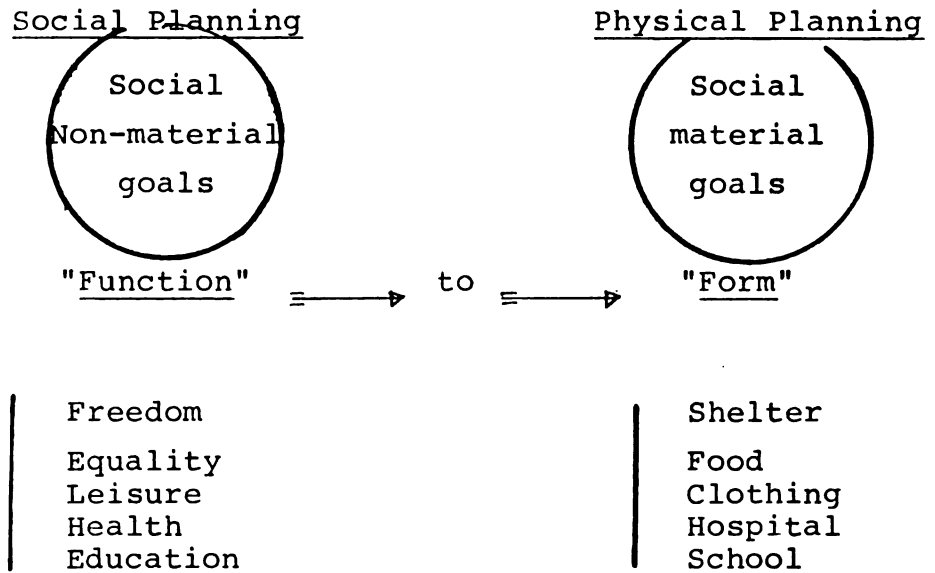


Figure 1

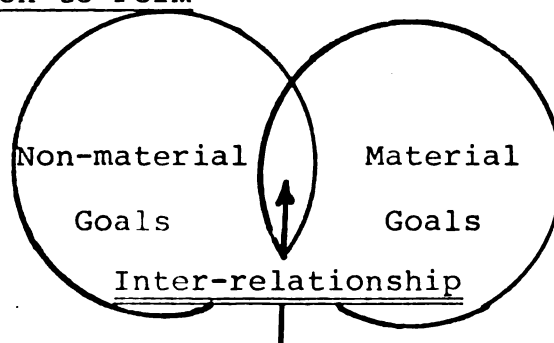
Comprehensive Planning - the term comprehensive, or holistic planning in this research refers to the whole social and physical planning. It is an overlapping of all separate plans. In other words, comprehensive planning includes social non-material goals and social material goals and implies their development and their inter-relationship for the future of the society. This broad general definition includes all social, economic, political, cultural, technological, psychological, and physical aspects of the society.

Principal -

- a. "Whole to Part"
- b. "Function to Form"

Social Planning

is
Function



Physical Planning

is
Form

Figure 2.

COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING

↙ ↘

Social Goals (non-material)

1. Equality in law and freedom of speech, press, assembly, association, procession, and of demonstration, and of religious, political beliefs for all Iranian citizens.
2. Health: Promotion of:
 - a) Distribution of medication
 - b) Long life
 - c) Eradication of disability
 - d) Scientific plans for the future
3. Education: Promotion of basic, secondary and continuing education; the eradication of illiteracy
4. Income and wealth of the citizens should be promoted and considered as follows:
 - a) Level of income
 - b) Distribution of wealth
 - c) Expenditure of income
 - d) The low income population
5. Public Safety
 - a) Safety of life and property from crime and hazard
 - b) Insurance
6. Employment opportunities and equality of employment life
7. Leisure and recreation time allocation.
8. Population growth to control fertility and mortality, and urbanization.
 - - population composition
 - - population distribution

Physical Goals (material)

1. General Citizen needs:
 - a) Housing and shelter
 - b) Food and clothing, fuel
 - c) Public utilities
2. Hospitals for all the people, medical care, clinics, and veterinary facilities for agricultural development.
3. Kindergarten, elementary schools, high schools, and other institutions.
4. Economic facilities, facilities to meet private and public needs in transportation and communication.
5. Fire protection, hazard detection organization.
6. Promotion of agricultural and industrial institutions for the majority of citizens who are under employed or without jobs.
7. Improvement of demographical institutions for projection of future needs for estimated population of Iran.

The Three Major Concepts

In addition to the above terms, one must be able to comprehend the three major concepts involved in the planning procedure offered by this study.

1. Centric System

Over a 3,000 year historical background, the Iranian environment was unconsciously formed through the centric model. Many cities like Esfahan, Shiray, Tahrig, and Mashhad were the capitals for several centuries, and, as such, were politically, socially, geographically and economically centralized by their kings and governments. Therefore, Iranian people have long been used to this kind of governmental pattern circulation. It is valuable and worth being preserved to some extent.

Tehran, Nom, is the capital, central power and the heart of the country. The other cities and villages are settlements and arteries around Tehran. Metropolitan areas are the secondary centers for small cities, townmarkets and villages. The political power is concentrated in Tehran.

2. The Theory of Levels (Whole to Parts)

The concept of whole to part is essential to the Nation for more consistent and concrete policies and the centric environmental system planning.

<u>Levels:</u>	1. National planning	upper level
	2. Provincial planning	middle level
	3. Local planning	lower level

The attempt will be made to consider each plan from "The Whole to Part." The National Plan is a broad perspective

of the whole, considering the relationships of the provinces, cities and villages to the nation. It is concerned with national needs and common goals of the citizens. The provincial planning will cover all the plans of the lower levels. The plans within each level and the levels themselves have a chain relationship and the national plan constitutes an umbrella for lower level plans.

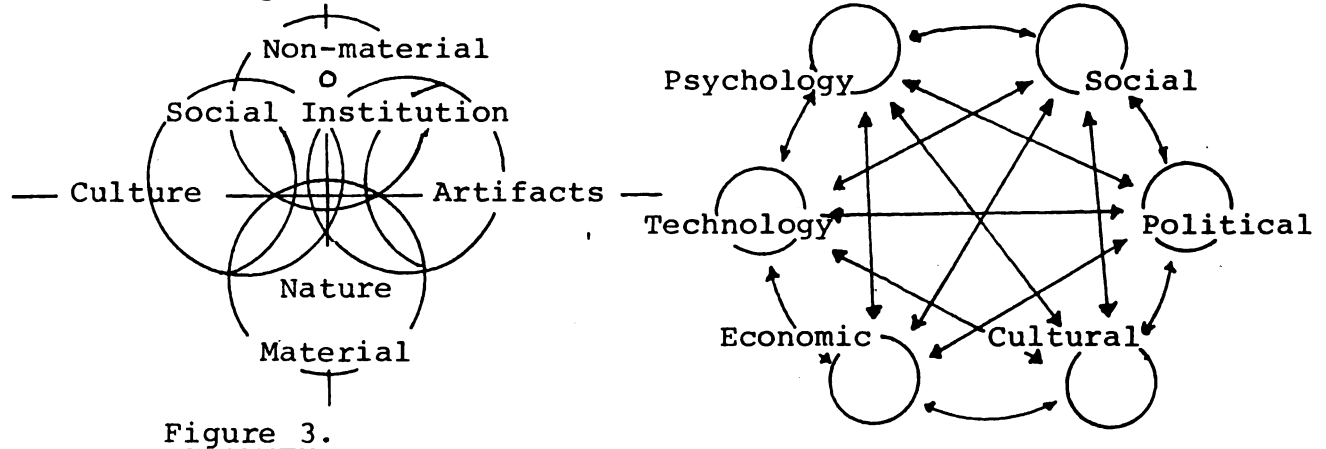


Figure 3.

3. Comprehensive Planning (Holistic Plan)

The basic concept here is social system planning which here is referred to as the "Holistic Plan," in which social needs are isolated from physical needs. Social needs are assumed as functional and physical needs are a form of the social system planning. Each of these social system plans has to deal with six separate systems as follows:

1. Social Institution Planning System
2. Cultural Planning System
3. Economic Planning System
4. Political Planning System
5. Psychological Planning System
6. Technological Planning System

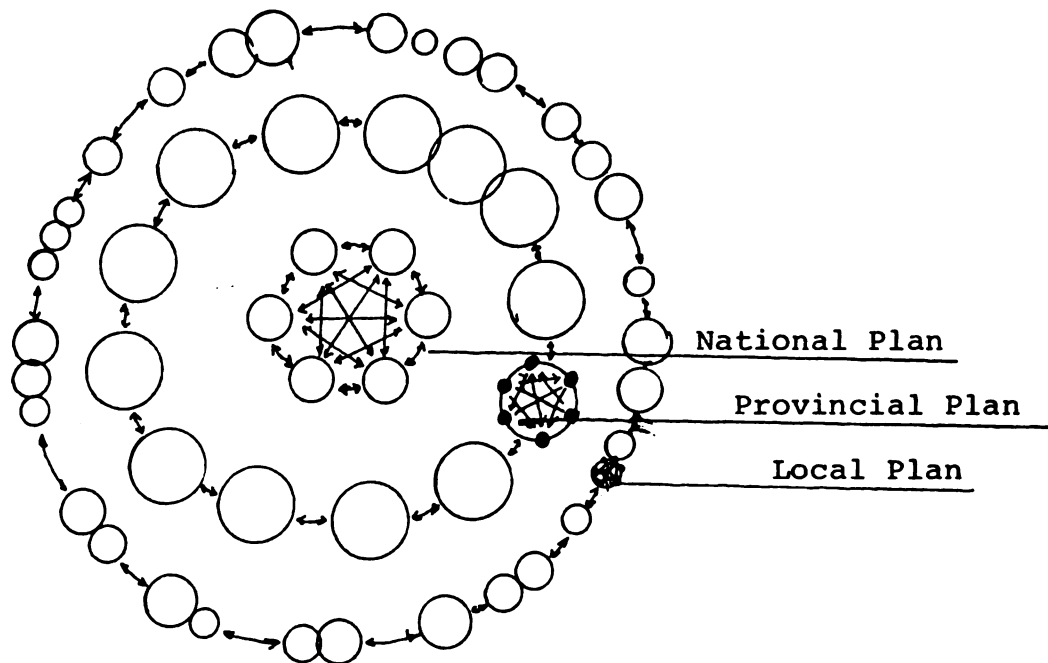


Figure 4.

All of these systems are like nuclear models inter-related to each other.

Section 6 - Review of the Literature

The major sources of ideas, statistical data and other relevant information used in this study are text books, course notes, Persian literature, articles from periodicals, personal experiences, and, most important, The Area Handbook for Iran.

The basic concept of comprehensiveness was developed by T. J. Kent in The Urban General Plan and by William Goodman in Principles and Practice of Urban Planning. The study's attention to the interrelation of dynamics was encouraged by Professor Sanford Farness. Jazues Ellul's Technological Societies also promoted many of the main ideas contained in this study.

Finally, Sociology courses, such as "Urban Sociology and Demography," aided the development of the scope of this study through their contributions of important facts about Iran, facts which allowed comparison between past plans and the new concept and modelege offered by this study. Also, cultural and social psychology textbooks, like Ruth Benedict's Patterns of Culture and Joel Aranoff's Psychological Needs and Cultural Systems, provided basic guidelines for achieving the study's major goals.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL DATA ON IRAN AND DESCRIPTION OF SOCIAL STRATIFICATION

Section 1 - Demographic Data and General Information on Iran

Iran General Data

Boundaries: Iran is bounded on the north by the Soviet Union and the Caspian Sea, on the northwest by Turkey, on the west by Iraq, on the south by the Persian Gulf, the Gulf of Oman and the Arabian Sea, and on the east by Afghanistan and Pakistan.³

Area: The area is about 628,000 square miles.

Capital: The capital is Tehran, with a population of 2,850,130.

Population: The population of Iran is 30.55 million (1972, UN est).

Ethnic Composition: The Iranians or Persians are considered to be direct descendants of the Aryans (who moved onto the Iranian plateau in the second millennium B.C.). Other ethnic groups are Kurds, Lurs, Bakhtiari, Khamseh, Turks and Arabs.

³Harvey H. Smith, Area Handbook for Iran (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office). All succeeding statistical data taken from this source.

Religions: About 98% of the people are Moslems (93% belong to the Shi's sect). Other religious groups include Armenians (50,000), Nestorian Christian (30,000), Bahais (50,000), and a few Christians and Jews.

Languages: Persian, or Farsi (an Indo-European language) is the official language. There are also dialects of Turkish (mainly in northwestern Iran), Kurdish, Arabic, Assyrian, Armenian and Hewbrew.

Education: 426,000 students were enrolled in secondary schools in 1965. There are 8 universities. The illiteracy rate is over 65%.

Currency: The Rial is a non-convertible paper currency. A United States dollar equals 68.17 rials.

Main Imports: Sugar, chemicals and pharmaceuticals, iron and ironware, machinery, passenger cars, paper, cardboard are all main imports in Iran. In 1972, total imports amounted to about \$2.41 billion (Un est).

Main Exports: The main exports of Iran are oil, raw cotton, wool and carpets. In 1972 total exports amounted to \$2,964 billion (UN est).

Gross National Product: About \$12.75 billion (AID est).

The Political System

The constitutional monarchy of Iran was established in 1906 and began a new era and a reform of the monarchy system from traditional customs and the text of Islam to written constitutional law.⁴ Basic changes in the governmental

⁴Smith, Ibid.

system and new institutions were made through the system of organization and legal codes drawn and derived from the French model, but they also retained some aspect of the older Islamic Religious laws.

The legislative bodies consist of an elected lower house (Majlis) and a half elected, half royally appointed senate. These legislative bodies are known as the parliament, and their members serve for a term of two years for Mojlies and four years for parliament. The judiciary is also appointed by the authority of the royal power and the inactive arm and all the administrative, political organizations and institutions come under the centric power of the royal and the ministry's authority.

Local administration is conducted through a system of fourteen geographical provinces and some governorates. They are further divided into sections corresponding to counties, towns, and then into districts and villages. All executive judicial and legislative officials, except in the small villages, were formerly centrally appointed.

The villages have their own organization and KadKhoda, which will be described. Most of the decision making is done from the center of the province or capital. The centric political system has been established as a traditional and cultural pattern which could be preserved, but only as a symbolic, not congregated power. 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.

Section 2 - Social Structure and Stratification

The society is divided into urban, market town, village and tribe.

1. Urban Society

In the urban society the people recognize three classes: a) upper class; b) middle class; and c) lower class (80% of the total population).⁵

2. Market Town Society⁶

It has combined characteristics of both the urban and rural environments, and tends to function as a point of contact of interaction between them.

Wide gaps remain between the members of the educated, urban elite on the one hand and the lower classes and villagers on the other (4% of the total population).

The market town society is a traditional community unit with bazaar characteristics and an essentially urban structure.

⁵Smith, Ibid.

⁶Smith, op. cit.

Market towns geographically, economically, and socially are linkages between rural and urban areas. They differ in size and population according to their location. These units serve as places for:

1. Exchange of seed, crops and agricultural products for clothes, fuel, foods and other needs.
2. Employment and labor collection for industries and construction.
3. Meeting friends or resolving social conflicts.
4. Sources of reports and news announcements (news, births, deaths, marriages, etc.).
5. Center of official registration (birth, death, schools).

In these cities the controversial subject of social stratification is completely revealed. Indeed, they provide meeting places for transactions between poor farmers and industrial workers. A few middle class people who are political officers and land owners have brick and mud houses with a few trees around them, while the lower lower class live in poverty in mud houses with one outside door and one room for ten people. In fact, for the most part, these small cities are physically poor. They do not have water, gas, electricity or sewage drainage. Such poverty often makes the citizens victims of unscrupulous speculators, persons buying from farmers, and selling to others, who are attempting to improve their social positions and increase their wealth through these dealings. Profit is their prime motive.

3. Village Social Structure

The village social structure is less rigidly organized than that in the urban centers. About 64% of the country's inhabitants live in villages. They identify themselves strongly with their kin groups and local relationships. The vast majority in village societies are lower class workers. Most villagers have little knowledge of life beyond the village.

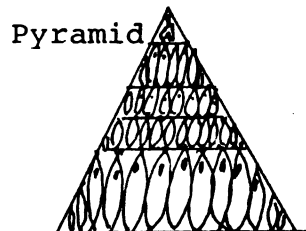
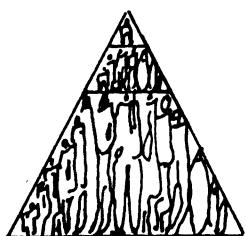
More than 60% of the total population is living in 50,000 villages, which reflect their unique life style and cultural values and economic condition. The villages differ according to their geographical location.

Social organization of the villages is traditionally less stratified and represents a more homogeneous unit of social, cultural and economic aspects. Village citizens are all relatively poor, but their behavior is open. They trust each other and are very isolated from the outside world.

4. Tribal Groups and Nomad Groups

Tribal groups and nomad groups comprise about three million people who move or live around mountain cities. Their standards of living are below those of the lower lower class.

Section 3 - Social Classification



	Rate	Population	Income
Elite	1%		\$10,000 over
Middle	10%		1,000 over
Upper lower	20%		500 over
Middle lower	29%		300
Lower lower	40%		150

Figure 5(a)

1. Elites (or Upper Class)

This group is traditionally comprised of the Shah, his family and his relations. They are less than one percent of the total population. Yet, despite this smallness in size, this class has most of the economic, political, and social power in its hands. 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 with the Shah. They will be classified by their position as follows:

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

2. Middle Class

The Middle Class in Iran is divided into upper and lower middle class strata as well as into modern and traditional groups. They provide a link between the masses and the elite.

The members of the upper stratum are often from the same occupations as the upper class, but they have not attained the political, economic or social standing of the elite. Thus, though they may occupy the same positions as the upper class, they do not possess the same power and prestige.

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.

3. Lower Class

The urban lower class can be distinguished by its distinctive linguistic usage, high rate of illiteracy, and performance of manual labor. The members of this class are generally uneducated, with little knowledge 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 service, 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.

The following table illustrates the employment pattern of lower class Iranians from rural areas:

Table 1.--Number and type of employees in rural areas.
Translated from Census, 1972*

	<u>Men</u>	<u>Women</u>	<u>Total</u>
Total Employed	3,753,300	721,800	4,475,100
Agriculture	2,934,700	2,967,700	3,231,400
Mineral	216,100	402,500	618,600
Building Construction	244,100	400	244,500
Water & Electricity	10,000	---	10,000
Business	127,300	400	127,700
Transportation	54,500	400	54,900
Service	138,700	18,400	157,100
Others	27,900	3,400	31,300

*SOURCE: The Bureau of Census of Iran

The economically active population of rural Iran is about 8 million, or 38% of the population. Of the gainfully employed, about 4,475,100, or 55%, are in agriculture, despite reduction in agricultural employment due to industrialization.⁷ Indeed, agriculture remains the major business and source for employment.

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⁷Smith, Ibid.

CHAPTER III

A CONCISE HISTORY OF IRANIAN REFORM PLANS AND A LISTING OF PROBLEMS LEFT UNSOLVED IN THE IRANIAN ENVIRONMENT

Section 1 - The Five National Plans⁸

Iran is an advanced developing country which wants to maintain its independence and is looking out for its own best interests. Iranians have shown through their whole history 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 and government turned their attention to more pressing internal problems. Their attention took the form of five national plans — beginning with the first national plan in 1947 and culminating with the fifth in 1973.

⁸Of 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 for Iran.

1. The First National Plan

In 1948 the Majlis approved the first seven year plan for industrial and agricultural development in Iran. The original plan, proposed in 1946, and announced by Prime Minister Ahmad Qavam in the spring of 1947, was the report of a group of American engineers and urban planners who had been invited by the government to study various planning proposals. After the Morrison Knudsen report was submitted to the government, a supreme planning board was appointed by the Prime Minister to draw up a program of overseas consultants to be 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 a five volume study entitled Report of the Seven Year Development Plan for the Plan Organization of the Imperial Government of Irah, was to be financed in large part by revenues derived from the agreement with the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company (AIOC). Again American consultants — this time financial advisers — played a major role. (In fact, it would appear that American interference in the economic affairs of the First Plan was carried out so as 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 of the Iranian oil nationalization crisis in which the nationalist revolutionary

government cut off the main source of revenues. Thus, the Plan failed. In spite of this failure, the general principles of the First Plan should serve as guideposts for any program of aid to under-developed countries in the east:

1. Any development effort must be applied to the lowest level from the start.
2. Capital is not a substitute for skill or experience, but the power of capital has often 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, values reflecting the agricultural focus on the country's economy this was true. (In 1948 four-fifths of the Persian people derived their living from the soil.)

2. The Second Seven Year Plan

The second seven year plan covered the period from 1955 to 1962, and included governmental activities towards production increases, agricultural development, exploitation of mineral resources, public health improvements, improved communication, and higher educational levels. This plan confronted problems, however, with political authorities, industrial financial weaknesses, under-educated 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.

3. The Third National Plan

In 1960 a Third Plan was prepared to cover all major activities in both the public and private sectors. The objective of the Third Plan was to raise the national income, to create jobs for the unemployed, and to promote greater distribution of income all through reforms in light and heavy industry and agriculture. In fact, 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%, was forecasted to exceed 25% because of 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, however, which will be discussed later.

Yet, despite its goals, this Third Plan also fell short. First of all, proposals by various agencies were not

coordinated nor comprehensively organized — there was no inter-relationship among separate proposals. Secondly, proposals were undertaken without regards 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 as well as for the financial fattening of the Iranian government.

4. The Fourth National Plan for Iran (1968-1972)⁹

The Iranian government officials claimed that the Fourth Plan promised glorious and important transformations in the modern history of Iran. These 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 extensive needs for employment, industrialization and recreation facilities needs, which this plan was designed to meet.

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

⁹Plan Organization, The Fourth National Development Plan 1968-1972, Tehran, 1968.

exceptional plan. These favorable circumstances should have been the means for the attainment of the maximum national growth and a rapid increase in the standard of living and the realization of the nation's long sought 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% 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 rising revenues from foreign 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.

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.

5. The Fifth National Development Plan (1973-1978)¹⁰

According to plan organization officials, the goal in the Fifth Five Year Plan was to lay particular stress on the twin policies of agricultural development and expanded social welfare. For 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: major objectives of the Fifth Plan, in order of priority, were as follows:

- a. to raise levels of knowledge, culture, health and social welfare, to the greatest extent possible;

¹⁰Plan Organization, The Fifth National Development Plan 1973-1978, Tehran, 1972.

- b. to ensure a more equitable distribution of the national income, emphasizing the standard of living and welfare among low-income groups;
- c. to maintain a rapid and sustained rate of economic growth, accompanied by relative price stability and a healthy balance of payments;
- d. to ensure productive employment in all regions of the country, so as to absorb all new entrants to the labor market and achieve a considerable decrease in disguised and seasonal unemployment;
- e. to create greater social and economic balance between the various regions of the country;
- f. to utilize fully the productive capacity established in previous development plans of marketing and service activities of both the public and the private sectors;
- g. to improve the system of administration in keeping with the high national objective, and to strengthen the country's defenses;
- h. to preserve, revive and improve the environment;
- i. 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 exists only on paper. In fact, in offering criticisms of all the plans, this study will take the Fourth Plan as being representative. Thus, while the Fourth Plan achieved many successes — as did the other Plans — successes in mass media, military expansion, industrialization, litigation of foreign credits, it also failed, especially in the maintenance

of price stability. Inflation occurred, prices increased at an unwarranted rate — despite government supervision and control. Citizens lost faith in their government because their real needs — many of which are physical in nature — were not met. Despite promising ideology, the Fourth Plan was implemented, as were the three plans previous to it, without an appreciation for cultural values, for the inter-relationship among the proposals aimed at Iran's improvement.

Section 2 - The White Revolution¹¹

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, on the occasion of the opening of a conference on rural cooperatives, he unfolded a six-point revolutionary program, to which three more points were added later. Then, in a national referendum, the "White Revolution" of the Shah was endorsed by a landslide.

These were far-reaching reforms, and proposals advocating the implementation of land reform and the enfranchisement of women aroused the combined wrath of landlords and reactionary clerics. But, the election of 1965 brought almost entirely a

¹¹Deadline Date on World Affairs, (Greenwich, Conn.: DMS, Inc.).

new group to the Majles, the majority of whom were committed to a program of modernization and to the Shah's White Revolution, and to the new Iran. Dr. Mosaddeg, the nationalist leader and Prime Minister, became the executor of his majesty's will.

The Twelve Points of Reform are:¹²

1. Land reform to alter the peasant-landlord tenure system and distribute the land of wealthy people to the farmers. Basically, this was an ideal goal, since the government had the ability to support farmers in utilizing their farm and lands, but the result, unfortunately, was not acceptable and adequate, because of faulty implementation and lack of a holistic view.
2. The promotion of public ownership of, and nationalization of forests for conservation. (Better utilization of)
3. The providing of investment opportunities for the public in general, and to industrialize enterprise.
4. An increase in labor productivity by profit-sharing arrangements between industrial workers and owners to the extent of 20 percent of the net corporate earnings.
5. The granting of voting and political rights to women.
6. The formation of literacy corps for 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.

¹²Yahya Armajani, Middle East: Past and Present.

These first six points were national goals represented by the government for implementation during 1963. Six more were confirmed in laws:¹³

7. Improvement of health services by a health corps.
8. Modernization of farm life and agriculture.
9. Establishment of justice council in towns, and houses of justice or houses of equity in villages (local courts).
10. Naturalization of water resources for better conservation research.
11. A program of urban and rural reconstruction.
12. Initiation of civil service law and decentralization.

Section 3 - Problems Left Unsolved by the Foregoing Reform Plans

Despite the elaborate reform proposals of the past 30 years, the following problems still exist in Iran. Hopefully, the procedure suggested by this study will result in a plan that can finally correct these deficiencies:

1. Social problems
 - a. Inequality in social stratification to some extent.
 - b. Inequality in and inequity in access to education for every citizen.
 - c. Inequality in access and distribution of income.
 - d. Inequality in employment opportunities for everyone.

¹³Iran, published by the Ministry of Information (1971).

- e. Lack of safety and security for the private citizen or the public sector as far as insurance and protection goes.
- f. Lack of housing for the majority.
- g. Lack of leisure and recreation.

2. Economic problems

- a. Lack of management in manpower at each level.
- b. Lack of control of input and output of the high degree of inflation in all of the country, at each level.
- c. Lack of checks and balances among all social needs.
- d. Lack of flexibility in existing economic programs.
- e. Lack of improvement in employment proceedings and in open jobs for the majority of the citizens.
- f. Lack of orders for expenditure toward the whole budgeting of the upper level to lower level.
- g. Lack of plans to preserve natural resources.

3. Political problems

- a. Lack of freedom for voting, press, meeting, demonstration and any other political activities.
- b. Lack of flexibility and changes in principal, or even unimportant, regulations.
- c. Lack of opportunity for every citizen to achieve political status. In other words, a monopoly of power exists in the upper class aristocrats.
- d. Lack of coordination between politicians with other institutions and systems.

4. Cultural problems

- a. Lack of any total observation or consideration of cultural values and historical backgrounds.
- b. Lack of any plans to preserve original behaviors, norms, or standards.
- c. Lack of any programming to adapt social behavior with new phenomena and techniques.
- d. Lack of enough prediction and plan for future cultural procedure.

5. Psychological problems

- a. Lack of enough research or institutions to deal with personality and psyche of the Iranian people.
- b. Lack of any consideration of the psychological effects of social elements on individual personalities.
- c. Lack of coordination between psychological needs and cultural patterns and social norms.
- d. Lack of consideration of psychological sickness which has resulted from the chaos and disorder and unmet primitive needs.

6. Technological problems

- a. Lack of preparation for acceptance of new techniques with existing situations.
- b. Lack of comprehensive plan (at each level) to consider the priority needs and utilization of different techniques and modern tools.
- c. Lack of enough consideration of or information on the personalities and behavior of the citizens confronting new technology.
- d. Lack of enough programs for technical changes and of a total view of technological changes in relation to social and cultural changes.

CHAPTER IV

A NEW PROCEDURE FOR A COMPREHENSIVE PLAN FOR THE IRANIAN ENVIRONMENT

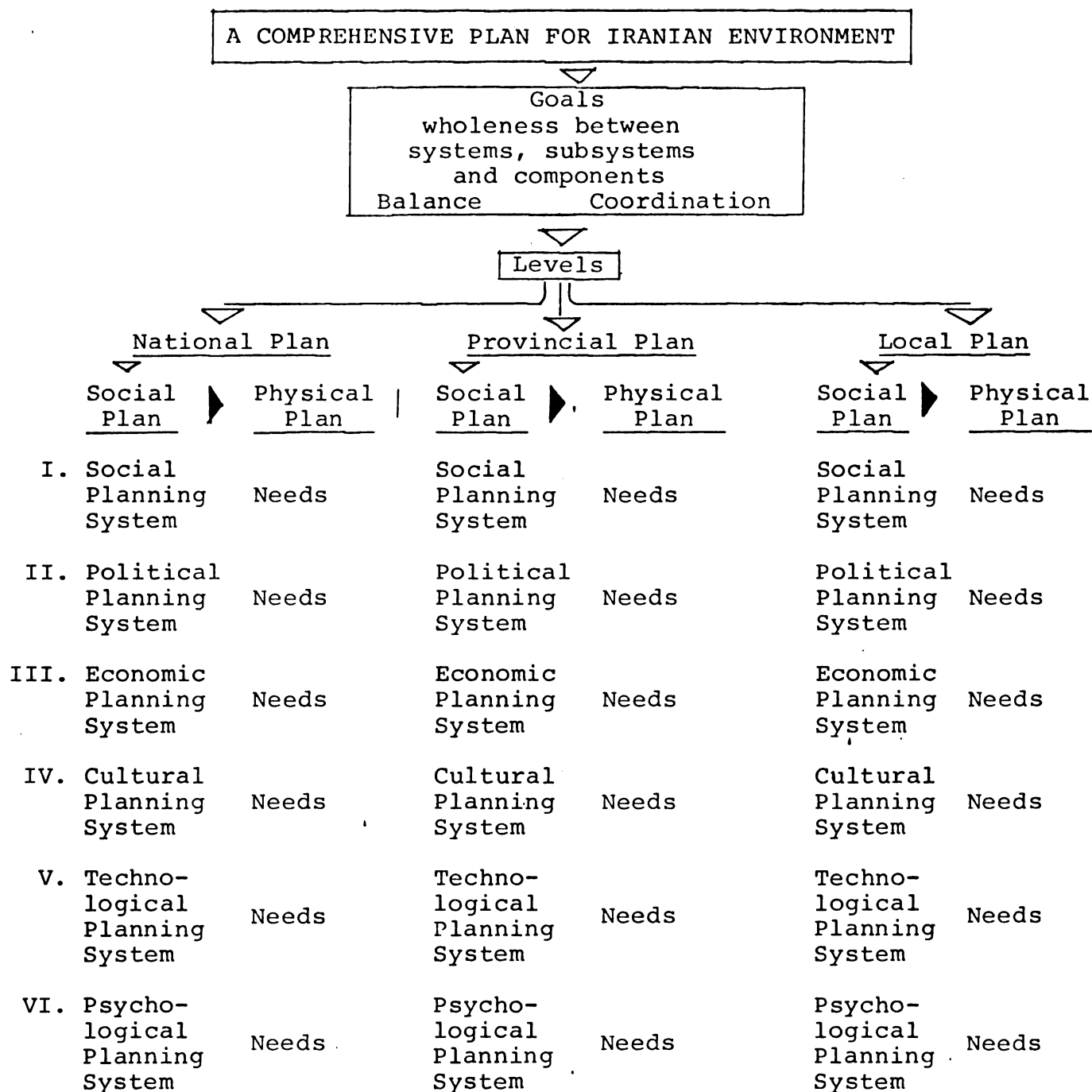
Section 1 - Design of the Procedure

This study will suggest a procedure by which many of the just-mentioned problems plaguing Iran can be solved. It will differ from past efforts at reform because of its emphasis on a comprehensive or holistic plan as its end result. The procedure itself will be divided in two sections: (1) social system planning and (2) physical system planning. In addition, each of these two systems will be divided into subsystems, and each subsystem will have its own subsections and components. Such a division, with the detail it entails, will serve to facilitate an understanding of each category, a consideration of existing problems with and weaknesses in each, a comparison with past planning procedures and an evaluation of the inter-relationships among all subsystems and components.

In order to arrive at a model for a comprehensive plan, it is necessary to consider all of the concepts below:

1. Centric System
2. Whole to Part (national, provincial and local)
3. Function to Form (Social/Physical)
4. Divisions (system - subsystems, components)
5. The Priority of Needs (goals)

The list of the goals should be ranked in a hierarchy from the citizens needs through the process of plan.



The ramifications of the comprehensive plan, which will be studied more broadly in a later paper are as follows:

	Social System Planning	(goals: order, justice, equality)
I.	Human Development Planning	(goals: self realization)
	Ecological System Planning	(goals: preservation of water, air, wild life and soil)
	Comprehensive Planning	(goals: coordination, balance, wholeness)
II.	Political System Planning	(goals: order, justice, equality)
	Economic System Planning	(goals: private, public, mixed)
III.	Technological System Planning	(goals: technological efficiency)
	Human Settlement Planning	(goals: architectonic - function and form)
IV.	Cultural System Planning	(goals: treatment, behavior control)

Section 2 - Social System Planning

Social system planning is a broad and rather recent term. The "Social" in social planning refers, of course, to the nature of the substantive areas involved. While opinions vary on this matter, social is concerned with:

1. two broad contextual or framework setting problems - poverty and discrimination.
2. a set of specific areas of functional concern, the most important being those of health, housing education, manpower development, maintenance, family services, and crime prevention; and,

3. the processes (community organization, citizen participation) whereby the principles of democratic government are sustained and enhanced.¹⁴

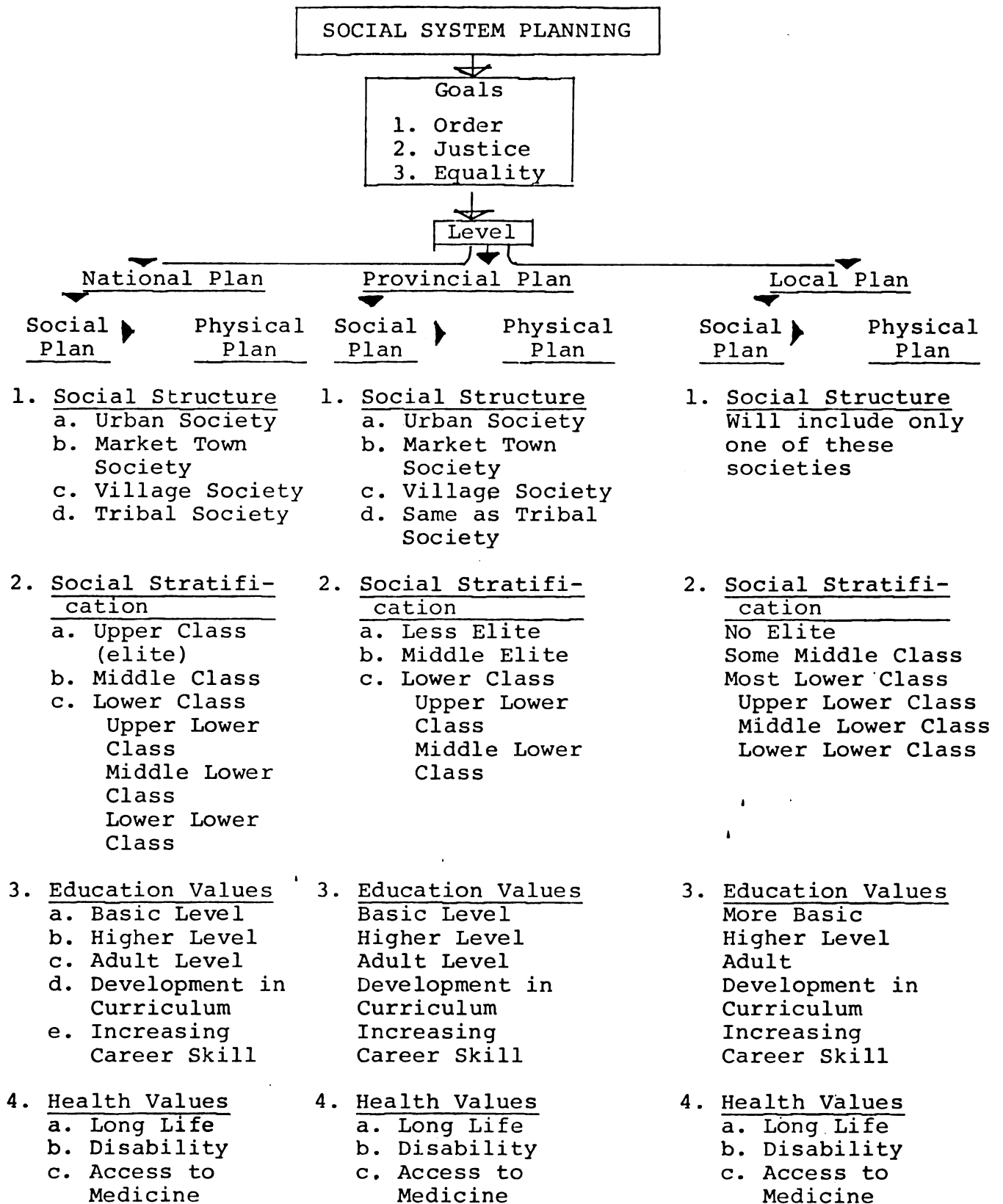
The major goals of social system planning should be as follows:

1. to order the whole to parts of the social relations.
2. to achieve a powerful social justice organization, social institutions and a national administrative system which can adapt to the existing constitution of the nation.
3. to have equality of rights for each individual to participate in social affairs.

Social system planning in this concept will be a branch of the comprehensive plan, which will be considered under three levels (National Planning Level, Provincial Planning and Local Planning). Further, social system planning will be divided into two separate parts, social and physical, for each of the above levels.

A discussion of the major social subsystems designated as social indicators, is here incomplete due to the narrow scope of this study; they will be elaborated upon in a later paper. However, in this study some of the subsystems, like population and housing, have been described in order to address the model.

¹⁴Michael P. Brooks, "Social Policy in Cities - Toward a Theory of Urban Social Planning," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of North Carolina, 1970).



- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 5. <u>Income</u>
a. Lending of
Income
b. Distribution
of Income
c. The Low Income
Population | 5. <u>Income</u>
a. Lending of
Income
b. Distribution
of Income
c. The Low Income
Population | 5. <u>Income</u>
a. Lending of
Income
b. Distribution
of Income
c. The Low Income
Population |
| 6. <u>Population</u>
a. Population
Growth
b. Rate of Birth
(fertility)
c. Rate of Death
(mortality)
d. Population by
age and sex
e. Population
Distribution,
Projection
f. Population in
Urban and Rural
Areas
g. Population
changes in total | 6. <u>Population</u>
a. Population
Growth
b. Rate of Birth
(fertility)
c. Rate of Death
(mortality)
d. Population by
age and sex
e. Population
Distribution,
Projection
f. Population in
Urban and Rural
Areas
g. Population
changes in total | 6. <u>Population</u>
a. Population
Growth
b. Rate of Birth
(fertility)
c. Rate of Death
(mortality)
d. Population by
age and sex
e. Population
Distribution,
Projection
f. Population in
Urban and Rural
Areas
g. Population
changes in total |
-
7. Employment
 - a. Employment opportunities
 - b. Quality of Employment Life
 8. Public Safety
 - a. Safety of Life
 - b. Safety of Property, Insurance
 9. Housing (Housing Quality)
 10. Leisure and Recreation
 11. Basic Pattern of Social Organization (status, role, bureaucracy)

Housing (Example 1)

Housing and environmental development in urban and rural areas in Iran present some of the most serious problems with which the government is faced. The betterment of living conditions underlies efforts to increase industrial and agricultural productivity in order to maintain a balance between living standards and social indicators and promote general social welfare. Health, education, sanitation, etc., are inter-related, but none can succeed on a long term basis without first, a focus on determined efforts to provide sufficient housing for the majority of the people. For even though there is agricultural and industrial reform, the rapid migration of farmers from villages to cities will be checked only if there is practical action to better rural housing and community living conditions in rural areas.

A new policy must be designed to accelerate the housing development, which corresponds and coordinates with the social-physical system of this theory. Some of the provisions required are as follows:

1. Housing in each level (urban, rural) and in each class (higher elite, middle, lower) should be built and constructed at a low cost (economical) and in a unique (equal quality and quantity) political arrangement.
2. Housing should be designed for the different climate conditions of Iran (geographical).

Even Psychology and Technology should be considered

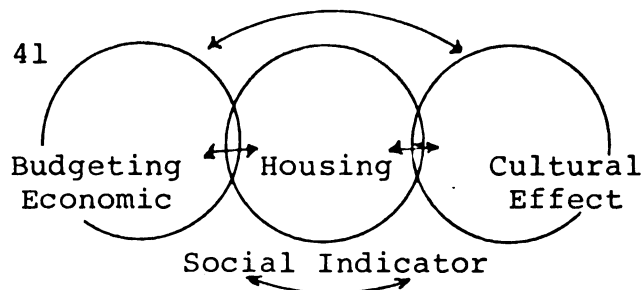


Figure 6.

3. Housing should be designed which adapts to cultural values and corresponds with the local material (cultural).

Table 2.--Housing conditions according to their materials¹⁵

<u>Materials</u>	<u>Total Nation</u>	<u>Cities</u>	<u>Peasants</u>
Total Number	3,898,719	1,300,828	2,597,891
Concrete	10,723	8,215	2,508
Stone & Steel	24,764	19,228	5,536
Wood & Steel	289,839	29,829	260,000
Steel & Brick	421,356	401,641	19,715
Brick & Wood	345,283	304,426	40,857
Wood	55,350	5,250	50,120
Mud & Wood	1,290,721	271,782	1,018,639
Mud	1,124,540	237,802	886,738
Straw	92,021	4,490	87,531
Others	244,422	18,185	226,237

Table 2 comes from a governmental document and is a social indicator of housing in the whole nation. It shows several considerable problems:

¹⁵Bureau of the Census, The Imperial Government of Iran (All succeeding population estimates taken from this source.)

1. For 26 million people in 1966, only about 4 million houses were in existence (seven persons per house on the average).
2. If this calculation (seven persons per house) should refer to the social stratification of the whole nation, the result would be different (one may have one or several houses, many may have nothing).
3. The housing conditions are externally poor; for example, only 10,727 houses are concrete and only one quarter of the total number of houses are constructed by sound material (wood, brick, stone, iron). The rest of the three million homes are either built from mud and straw or are tents. Most of this latter number of houses are made by the owner, naturally, and have only one room for the whole family often numbering more than 10; in addition, they are scattered all around the country and do not have any facilities, utilities, or even water to drink. (Seventy-five percent of all houses have no electricity.)

Based on these facts, with this image, other social elements and social indicators are found to be almost similar.

Table 3.--Utilities¹⁶

<u>Title</u>	<u>With Electricity</u>	<u>With Water Pipes</u>	<u>With Well-spring</u>
Nation	989,439	559,365	3,339,354
Urban	892,961	534,039	766,789
Rural	96,478	25,396	2,572,565

¹⁶Bureau of the Census, Ibid.

Population (Example 2)

The total population in 1971 was estimated at 30 million persons, with an annual growing rate of 3,946 percent of the people under fifteen years of age and less than 15 percent forty-five years of age or older. Life expectancy at birth was rising and had reached fifty-five years. The annual birth rate of about 50 per 100 inhabitants, coupled with a decline in the overall death rate, resulting from the availability of new medicines and health facilities, was responsible for generating a rapidly rising growth rate.

Most of the people are concentrated in the north and northwest near the Caspian Sea, whereas about 70 percent of the land area, particularly the central desert regions and the high mountains, is almost totally uninhabited. About 62 percent of the people live in villages, where most of them are engaged in agriculture. The majority of the urban residents live in Tehran and a few large cities with over 100,000 inhabitants.

Population movements have continued from rural to urban areas by individuals searching for employment and better living conditions. Farmers who have not been supported by any agency in the cultivation of their land (Land Reform Organization) are leaving their families land, and interests in the villages and immigrating to the edges of cities, creating slums and poverty. Some nomadic groups are settling in or near the villages and cities, too.

Rapid population growth has posed new and potentially serious problems for the country, particularly in the economic

sphere. Birth control measures have been approved by Muslem leaders, and the idea of family planning has been gaining acceptance among the people.

Table 4.--Population of Iran, by age, sex and urban-rural residence, 1966.¹⁷

Age Group	<u>Sex</u>		<u>Residence</u>		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
Under 15	6,070,000	5,568,700	4,353,800	7,285,400	11,639,200
15-29	2,663,700	2,789,900	2,378,700	3,046,900	5,423,600
30-49	2,870,400	2,415,900	2,041,100	3,245,200	5,286,300
50-64	919,200	908,700	721,400	1,106,500	1,827,900
65 and over	504,100	347,400	342,400	619,300	966,700
Total	12,997,900	12,145,800	9,840,400	15,303,300	25,143,700

The population represents equal rates of males and females in the whole country. Demographers have estimated the ratio of people to arable land at nearly 300 per square miles for 1975. The minimum density is in the Sawind with 6.5 people per square mile and the maximum is in center with 1,448 people per square mile. The average is 41.0 people per square mile.

A large majority of the population live on about 30 percent of the land area. This increases the effective population density to an estimated 148.6 persons per square mile. Fourteen cities had populations exceeding 100,000 persons, and the growth rate of urban areas had surpassed the national average according to official estimates. The average annual rates of population increase for the various categories of urban centers were four

¹⁷Bureau of the Census, Ibid.

percent in small towns, 4.5 percent in large and medium-sized towns, and 5 percent in Tehran. The Institute of Demographic Research at Tehran University estimated that the capital city's annual rate of growth may have attained 7 percent and its population was expected to reach nearly five million by 1976. This bigger growth rate for Tehran and urban areas is the result of natural increases (excess of birth over death), migration of farmers and villagers from rural areas, lack of facilities and utilities, ease of transportation, existence of job opportunities, in some cases, the expansion of cities' limits.

Birth rates are generally higher in rural areas than in urban areas; the rapid growth of urban centers consequently resulted in more internal migration to the cities. Rapid industrialization has created a demand for an industrial labor force and stimulated the movement of social changes and shifted migration from rural areas to the towns as farmers became workers.

If we assume the average 3.9 percent annual rate of population growth and 30 million population, then existing planning for the future with short term population prediction will be about 40,000,000 in 1978, while the long term prediction and projection population will be 70 million in 1993. According to the United Nation's annual census, the total population of Iran is predicted as follows:

different time periods and with different social need priorities. According to the United Nation's Annual Census, the total population of Iran is predicted as follows:

Table 6.--Example No. 1 - Comparison of Two Times¹⁹

<u>1965</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1985</u>
25,788,722	28,358,000	33,152,000	39,769,000	43,450,000
	Existing Dr	Immediate		Future
	#5927 Dr	needs		predicted
	#.465 Hosp.	15 years		needs
		prediction		48,000
		with base		
		of 1985		
		standard		
	#Public	Each bed per 1,000		Future
	Schools			predicted
	#2571,711			needs
	Private			Future
	Schools			predicted
	#231,930			needs
	Public			
	High			Future
	Schools			predicted
	#921,377			needs
	Private			
	High			
	Schools			
	#219,658			

All of these physical needs should be projected for the future, and their effect on the other social and physical needs should be considered. Most of these components are concentrated in urban areas and capital cities, which should be distributed within the whole country (rural-urban). They should be used by the public, not only by the upper class.

¹⁹Bureau of the Census, Ibid.

Table 5.--Population Projection¹⁸

<u>1965</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1975</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1985</u>
25,788,729	28,358,000	33,152,000	39,767,000	43,450,000

Very briefly, the population projection demands the consideration of two important points:

1. The social and physical needs of the existing population in the short range plan should be considered for the whole system and immediate decisions for immigrations and industrialization should be recommended.
2. The social and physical needs of the future population in the long range plan should be considered for the whole system and predicted for a population of about 70 million in 1995 to 2000. These needs should be revealed by the people themselves and guided by experts and considered in a nuclear proposal plan. The changes should be controlled and any social-economic changes should reflect cultural patterns. Further, the increase or decrease in the rate of population should be coordinated with all other systems according to the principle of this model.

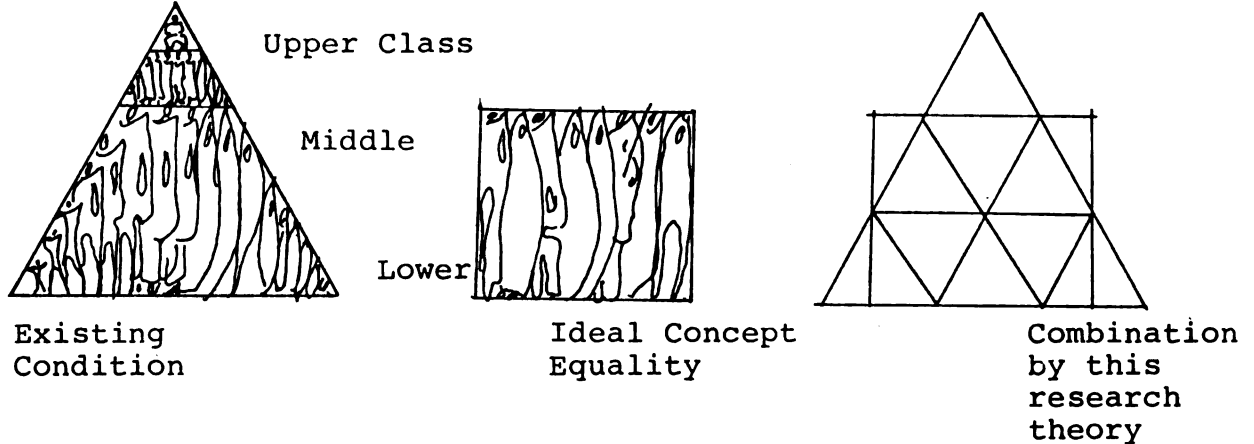
Purpose of this Plan (Example 3)

Through this procedural process, attention has been focused on a solution to deal with all problems from one perspective. This has allowed comparison between problems in

¹⁸The United Nation's Annual Census, "The Methods and Materials of Demography," Vol. I, II.

Example No. 4 Comparison between existing social pyramid and comprehensive concept.

Figure 7.



To achieve equality of classes and at least to some extent come close to the square form the educational system needs to be concerned with other social subsystems, economic systems, political, cultural, technological and psychological systems. For example, in a developed society like the United States, the technological system can develop so much faster than any other system that deformation depicted in the hexagons below can occur.

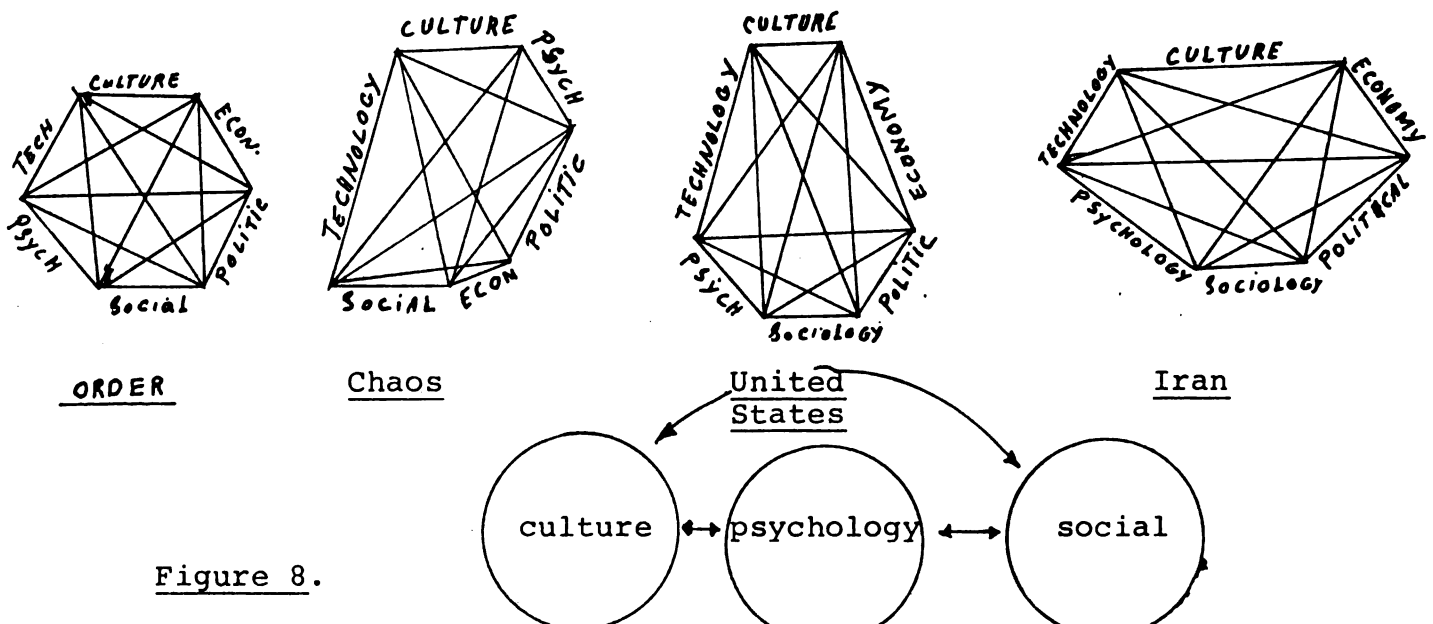


Figure 8.

Section 3 - Political System Planning

Political system planning is concerned with three major objectives:

1. To order the whole to the parts of political relations.
2. To achieve a powerful political justice organization, social institutions, and national administrative systems, which can be adapted to the existing constitution of the nation.
3. To have equality of rights for each individual to enjoy all advantages and participants in political affairs.

Political system planning in this concept will be a branch of the comprehensive plan and will be considered under three levels (National Planning, Provincial Planning and Local Planning). Further, political system planning will be divided into two separate parts, social and physical, for each of the above levels.

Although the major political subsystems are figured out as below in several charts, they are yet incomplete, but will be elaborated upon in a later study.

Political power should be divided among three levels (National, Provincial and Local) according to their potentials and needs. Each level should have its own provision as follows:

1. Local organizations should be responsible and authorized to control their own affairs under the general authority of the National Constitution of Iran.

2. Provincial organizations should be responsible and authorized to control, coordinate, and balance the relationship between local and other provinces' levels.
3. The National organization should be responsible and authorized to control, coordinate, and balance the relationship between local provinces, military, and foreign affairs (at the present time the local and provinces do not enjoy their own rights and freedoms).

All these levels should internally promote independent economic, political, cultural, and social rights, but they should externally be dependent on upper levels. They should follow one general policy and obey the National Constitution's provisions, a connection which is vital to the National Constitution, the nation and the survival of the citizens.

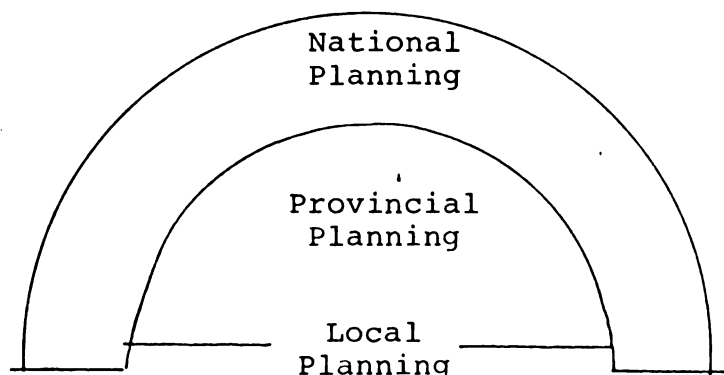
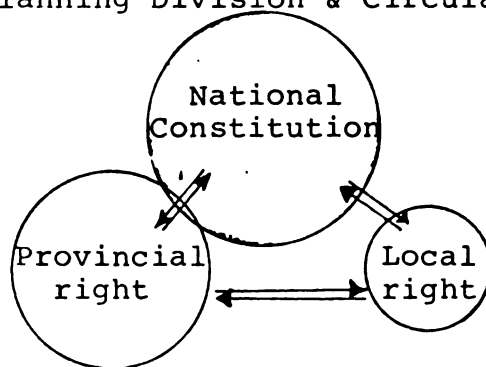
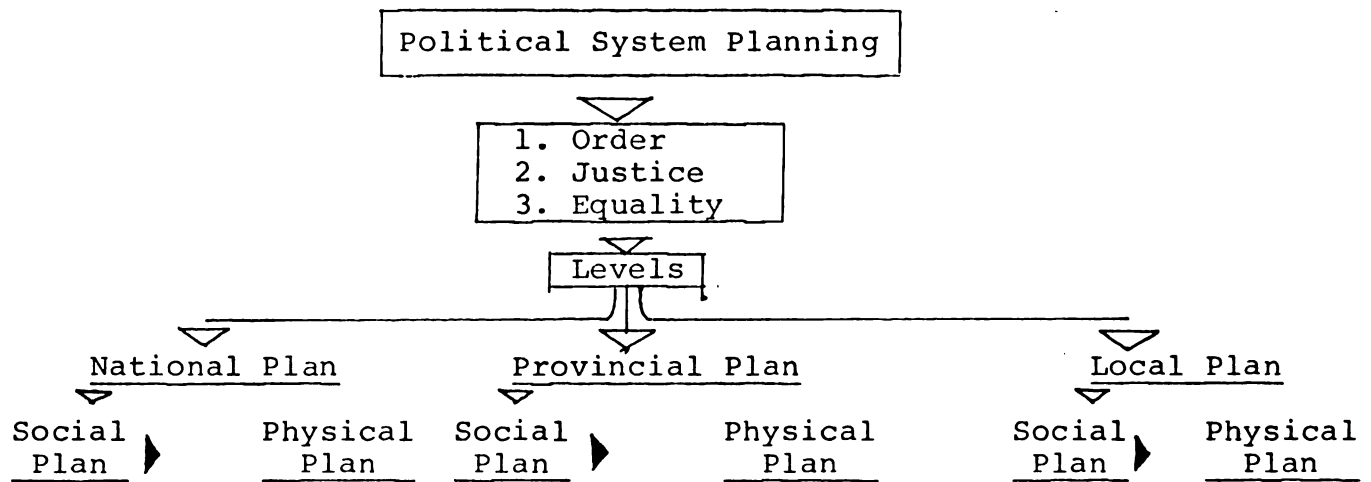


Figure 9.

Planning Division & Circulation





- | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| I. The Governmental System | Institutions | Leader |
| a. constitutional system | Institutions | Organizer |
| b. the monarchy | Administration | Kad Khoda |
| c. legal system | Institution | Religious law |
| d. judiciary system | Institution | Religious court |
| e. executive system | Institution | |
| f. national institution relation | Institution | |
- II. Political Dynamics
- Source and Location of Political Power
 - Goal of Leadership
 - Political Parties
- III. Foreign Relation
- IV. Public Information
- V. Political Values and Attitudes

Most of the laws have elapsed or have been abolished and should be rewritten or adopted based on the present evidence for change. The new laws should be flexible to some extent, and not rigid and controlled by the elite. For example, according to Article 23.24 of the Iranian Constitution:

"The state, province or any other local units cannot make any decision except by the national consultative assembly."²⁰

Within the existing system then, the responsibilities have been concentrated and congested in the hands of a few elite and the rest of the people feel psychologically useless.

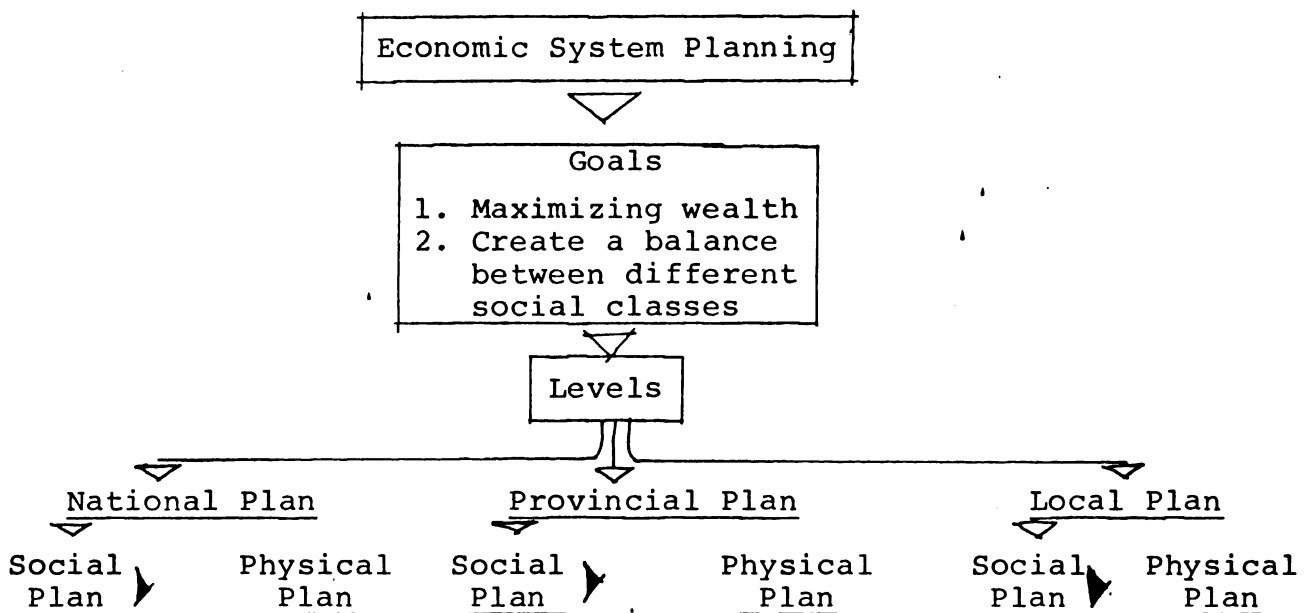
Yet, any changes in centric political system will directly affect them and their social and economic needs. For instance, distribution of political power to local government will change the social form and hierarchical pyramid. Also, it will give more freedom to the public, bringing them into decision making without economic and social changes. Actually, centralization of power creates monopoly, limited corporation, privacy and individualization, and absolute distribution of power is incompatible with social goals and cultural patterns. Finally, any changes in the political system of Iran should be made by people according to a holistic perspective, and should follow the basic principle of this social system: to integrate the positive advantages of centralization and decentralization according to all the social needs within the whole system.

One of the significant dynamic forces in the Iranian society, a force previously discussed, was the White Revolution, the fundamental change initiated by the Shah and his government in 1963. The "White Revolution" was a rapid

²⁰ Iran, Governmental Publication

reform with twelve points or goals which were partially successful and had deep roots in primary social needs. The effect of these goals should be considered from several viewpoints. There are many interpretations about the effectiveness and uselessness, strongness and weakness of this revolution. Some say optimistically that they are concerned with the goals, and some are pessimistically arguing about its policy and the weakness of its implementation. Regardless of these perspectives, what is important is that any reform plan be considered in the nuclear model which specifies its priority and its adaptability to the socio-cultural and psychological needs of the citizens.

Section 4 - Economic System Planning



I. Manpower

1. Energy Mental
2. Physical
3. Labor
4. Mechanization

1. Scientists
2. Teachers
3. Doctors

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- 5. Labor Force
- 6. Labor Legislation
- 7. Labor Organization
- 8. Employer's Organization
- 9. Labor Relations

II. Coordination

Between all of the above elements.

III. Balance

IV. Flexibility

Economic System Planning

I. Agricultural Activity

- a. Production
- b. Farming Methods
- c. Traditional Land Tenure

II. Natural Resources

- a. Water (sewage, water shed, dams, rivers, share lake, drainage)
- b. Forest (woods, soil, vegetation)
- c. Soil and mines
- d. Wild life

III. Industrial Arrangement

- a. Oil Industry
- b. Light Industry (crafts - food conservation)
- c. Heavy Industry (cars - iron, alluminum, etc.)

IV. Land Use and Control on Values

- a. Private
- b. Public

Urban-Rural

- a. Residential
- b. Commercial
- c. Industrial

V. Domestic Trade

- a. Trade patterns and practices
- b. Transportation
- c. Advertising

VI. Foreign Economic Relations

- a. Trade
- b. Type of Foreign Trade
- c. Foreign Trade Value
- d. Iran's Balance of Payments

VII. Transportation and Communication for Distribution of People and Goods

- a. Railways
- b. Roads
- c. Road Transportation
- d. Ports and Shipping
- e. Airports
- f. Tourism

VIII. Coordination between all these and other factors which will arise and be added later to the above list.

Character and Structure of the Economy: Iran's economy continues to be primarily agrarian in the country as a whole, but it is becoming increasingly industrialized in urban areas and in regions with rich natural resources. The industrial base developed rapidly after 1968 and, according to national planning, it is expected to be dominant by 1978. From this perspective, agriculture, which has been virtually the only economic activity for thousands of years and has been organized and implemented culturally, has been relegated to a secondary role in the economy, although it has been charged with providing foodstuffs for the rapidly increasing population and raw materials for the country's fast expanding industries.

The growing role of industry and the gradually diminishing importance of agriculture in a relative sense is also reflected in their respective contributions to the country's Gross National Product (GNP). At the beginning of the 1960's, agriculture provided sustenance for about 60 percent of the economically active population and accounted for about 40

²¹Fourth National Development Plan, Area Handbook for Iran. (All succeeding statistics on the economy taken from these sources.)

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 fell 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, contributions to the GNP by other sectors of the economy 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 sources allow a 3.3 percent factor for statistical discrepancies.

In the case of Iran, the per capita 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, the rural and urban inhabitants. The rural population, constituting about 62 percent of the total, contributed only about 30 percent to the Gross Product through agricultural, home and auxiliary industrial activities, despite the beneficial effects of land redistribution and the growth of agricultural production.

During the several economic recessions of last decades, different social classes have been changed by reduction of their income rates and by their living conditions which have

deteriorated to an unimaginable degree. Even the "White Revolution" reform was basically defensive and though it advocated equalization and social welfare, the lack of coordination between the different institutions, the lack of data for decisions, the lack of significant planning and clear goals and, finally, the lack of the policy and implementation (process for nation and other levels plan) all inhibited the success of the Revolution's goals.

Actually, although Iran has vast sources of wealth (oil, other mineral resources, and agriculture), the standard of living for a great majority of citizens is still quite low. The average income according to census data (official) is approximately \$400 annually.

Table 7.--Number of Occupations and Activities²²

<u>Year</u>	<u>Agriculture %</u>	<u>Industry %</u>	<u>Service %</u>	<u>Total %</u>
1956	56.3	20.1	23.6	5.907
1966	47.5	26.5	26.0	7.115
1968	47.3	25.2	27.5	7.220
1969	52.9	23.4	23.7	6.977

Less than 30 percent of the total population of the whole country is active and employed; the rest are women and children and unemployed who are supported by active groups. The above table shows that from 1956 to 1969 employment has been reduced while the population has increased. The

²² Area Handbook for Iran

significant differentiation in social classes has had its effect and caused serious economic situations in which the lower lower class, constituting more than 40 percent, may have less than a \$100 income annually.

Table 8.--Average Expenditure of Urban and Rural Family (Official Census Data, 1971)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total Expenses %</u>	<u>Food Expenses %</u>	<u>Non-Food Expenses %</u>	<u>Housing, Rent Expenses %</u>
Urban 1965	100	49.6	38.7	11.7
Urban 1971	100	46.9	38.1	15.0
Rural 1965	100	66.8	23.2	10.0
Rural 1971	100	64.0	31.7	4.3

In 1964, a new system of budgeting was introduced. Until then, the Ministry of Finance was the only authority which drafted the budget, but beginning with that year, the energy department was required to prepare its own budget and to submit the tentative figures to a budget bureau, which then drafted the national budget after consultation with the Ministry of Finance. This system is more advanced than the previous one, but still there is no communication, coordination, or balance between each institution.

Agricultural Condition

Agriculture is still the most important economic activity in the country, but its relative importance has been gradually decreasing as the result of industrialization. The total nature of agricultural production in the Iranian year

1968/69 has been estimated at 23.3 percent of the Gross National Product (GNP), the decreased figure being an arithmetical reflection of increased industrial production.

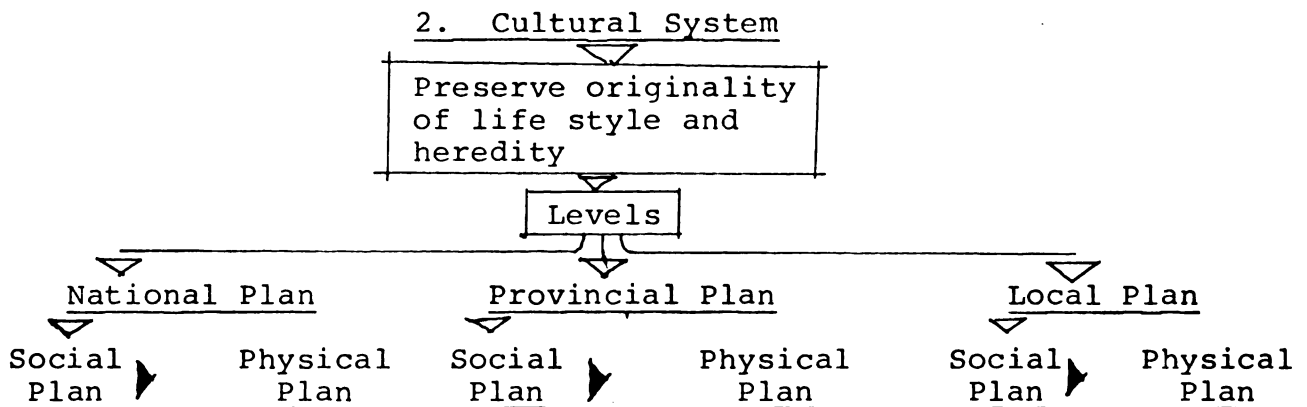
Agricultural production is not entirely of a subsistence nature and with the exception of remote areas, it is an integral and important part of the national economy. In addition, most of the country's industry, such as the textile and the carpet factories and sugar refineries, depends on the agricultural 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.

About 46 percent of the labor force is engaged in agricultural activity and about 62 percent of the population live in rural areas and rely primarily on agriculture. These people are under strong social and economic pressure and are struggling with natural problems, such as lack of water, seeds, loans, and help. The government has tried to create some roads and expand communication and transportation; but still farms have no facilities to take their goods and products to central areas.

Section 5 - Cultural System Planning

Cultural system planning is the essence of those six systems in Iranian system and should be undertaken to preserve the originality of Iranian life style, heredity, and all positive cultural values.

Cultural system planning in this concept will be a branch of the comprehensive plan, which will be considered under three levels (N, P, L). Cultural system planning will be divided into two separate parts: social and physical, for each of the above levels.



I. Historical Background

- a. Language
- b. Religious
- c. Invention
- d. Behaviors

II. Artistic (painting-ceramics) Sculpture Heritage

- a. Architecture
- b. Music (folk song)
- c. Literature (pottery)

III. Norms and Standards

Vary in form from culture to culture
Consistent or changeable artistic and intellectual expression

IV. Integrated

Adaptation of culture with social and other factors (psychological)

V. Comfortable to public and private

VI. Invention

What binds a society together is its cultural system, the ideas and standards its people have in common. The most important material for a discussion of historical beliefs,

inventions, and Iranian cultural forms and processes is its historical civilization spanning a tremendous middle east area. Though not labeled primitive, this culture is the best source for study about the diversity of human institutions. There are many recurrent behaviors which reflect the life and social structure of the Iranian. (All these behaviors are identified and will make up the cultural aspect of the Iranian society.)

Many of the social and cultural values are rooted in religious tradition. The Shiah branch of Islam, adhered to by more than 90 percent of the people, is the official state religion and is prescribed in the constitution. Small, non-muslem groups include the Bahais, Summi, Coraustrians, Assyrians, Jews, and Christian Americans. The majority of the population, composed primarily of villagers and tribesmen, continue to uphold traditional values that emphasize adherence to principles of Islam and reliance on kinship bonds. Religion and kinship ties have contributed to the formation of social and political factors more than other factors, but these ties are more effective and important among the rural masses who have maintained an essentially traditional view of the world.

Cultural patterns begin in childhood, and differ depending on the life style. For example, the peasant who is far from the encroachment of outsiders and external elements (other societies), is more original in his behavior than urbanized people. Especially in Iran, people who live in large cities have the psychological complexity to imitate the western culture and they are attracted to luxury and artificial

behaviors. However, such attention to western culture by urbanized people will soon be adopted by the peasants and smaller areas. On the other hand, technology is developing and techniques are changing very rapidly. Both will affect all citizens consciously and unconsciously. Indeed, Iran with its cultural background will either be industrialized, modernized, urbanized and westernized, or it will be preserved as a museum of cultural arts if these processes do not take place.

The homogeneity and similarity of all nations is a disease and disaster which is derived from imitation of modern technology without adaptation to native lifestyle and values. Each society should be aware of and preserve its national values, and any new phenomena should be adopted only in accordance with the tradition of that society. Many of the cultural behaviors have died gradually; others have been altered due to contact between urbanized societies and different social and political forces. Yet, all cultural values and behaviors should be inter-related, and one cannot change without affecting others; they are all dependent on each other. For example, the recent national decision in Iran about industrialization had an influence on social structure which in turn changed social classes. Farmers became industrial workers and land owners became factory owners. Technology advanced and utilized urban areas and mechanization increased modern production and facilitated urban life to some extent. The farmer became urbanized and lost his original culture and preferred to change his character and personality for the next

generation. Following this, he will change his cultural norms and standards and his language by increasing communication to new subgroups. Thus, peasant languages, which are different because of lack of peasant mobility, will be given up for a national language, a new life style, and a new environment. These changes are all inter-related and cannot be considered separately.

The Iranian peasants have strong beliefs in religion and fatalism.²³ Much of their behavior and personalities are related to their philosophy about God and supernatural power. Throughout history there has been a consistency in beliefs and they have become more prejudiced about their traditions. Yet the intellectual vitality of the Iranians has been manifested in their active participation in various schools of thought, poetry, and artistic activities. One of the most illustrious among the philosophers of metaphysics is perhaps Sina, whose SHAFI, a compendium of philosophical principle mainly based on artistry, influenced not only generations of Muslim students, but also western thinkers.

Still, creativity and inventiveness of Iranians is destroyed because of the domination of western culture. The Iranian people have no self-confidence and trust because they always look to the west for new innovations and phenomena. Most of these critical problems are ignored by the government.

²³ Area Handbook for Iran.

Indeed, extreme disorder and chaos in political organization has corrupted the social behaviors. The procedure of this model system requires the realization and renewal of all valuable behaviors by adaptation with other systems.

Section 6 - Technological System Planning

The essence of technique is the transformation and force for the qualitative. On the other hand, the technique is a tool for human activities to be transformed to mathematical calculation. On a larger scale, the technological society is a collection of many men who are absorbed and fascinated by the technique. Yet, they are losing their rationality and logic by allowing themselves to be determined by the law of technique. They cannot escape it, as all their activities and social factors like education, recreation, religion and propaganda are reshaped by it. Jacques Ellul expressed his idea as follows:

"Technique is regarded as the prime instrument of performance, whether in the economy or in politics, in art, in sports, or other aspects. Technique transforms ends into means."²⁴

Form and Function of Technology: Rapid technological changes have greatly influenced other societies and their environments. In developed countries the technology is integrated into their culture, and all their traditional forms have been changed according to technical forms. In many traditional societies, like Iran, technology is an external

²⁴ Ellul, Jacques, Technological Societies.

phenomena, and it has shocked people and has not been controlled by any authority. Also, it has not been adapted to social and physical systems. For example, Iran with 3,000 years of historical background, artistic handwork, and strong architecture, is confronted with rapid technological changes, mechanization, and industrialization. In many developed countries, technology has been utilized in the right way, but it is a dangerous tool for unconscious societies and may disturb their citizen's lives. Even in the developed countries, technology has been misused and has restricted their citizens by causing them to lose their freedom and become part of the machine. Technology changed the social structure of France.

Essentially, in capitalistic societies, technology is used as a weapon by the power structures for their selfish desires to be masters of the world. Obviously, this policy will defeat other systems and subsystems. Consequently, technological goals depend upon their purposes, not people's needs. Under these circumstances, it would be difficult for any comprehensive plan to achieve its stated goals, since comprehensiveness implies consideration of citizen needs.

Any action toward technical change needs to be considered in relation to other systems and planned for short and long terms. One of the technological advantages for Iran was to create light industrial factories to serve the agricultural community (producing tractors, farm machinery and small wells and dams). But the government encouraged foreign companies to invest in and construct heavy industrial factories. This

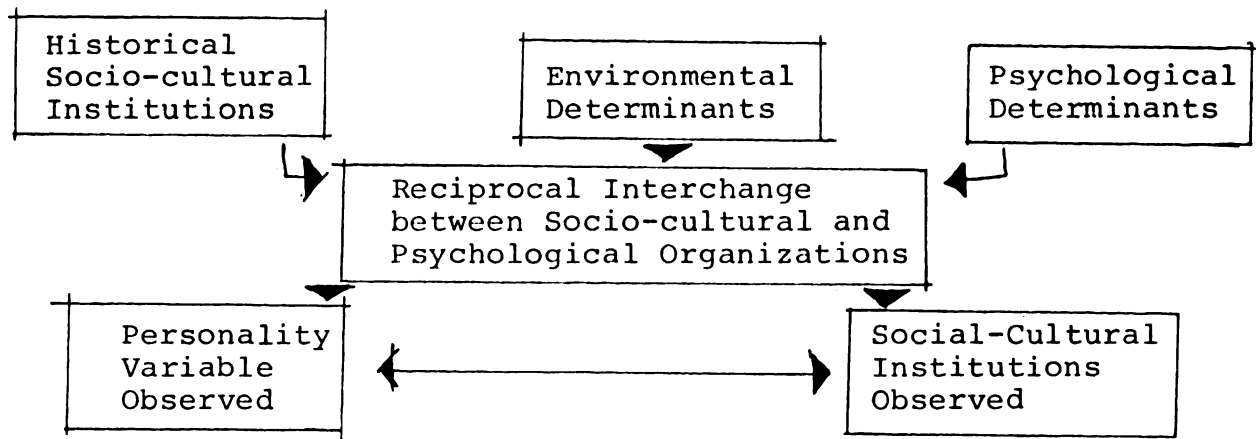
decision resulted in several complicated problems such as centralization of population in the large cities without any prediction of facility and utility. The congestion of traffic, lack of housing, destruction of old cities, architectural monuments and citizen relations resulted from these unplanned decisions. All the cultural heritages, both mental and physical, and the fine arts have been handed down by ancestors, but today new techniques and modern western civilization challenge the values of the past for the poor and uneducated. Thus, high rise buildings are close to slum areas, and the Earth Satellite Station of Iran was created in 1969, while still 75 percent of the people were uneducated.

Many other controversial developments and unbalanced components resulting from burgeoning technology could be observed in recent developments of Iran, which are witness to a lack of comprehensive planning. Three million Iranians are tribal members and nomads who are living in the most primitive of conditions with their animals and using nature in the traditional way. Meanwhile, car factories produce so many cars so that narrow streets can not handle congestion. Heavy industry is monopolized by the elite, and foreign investors use people as slaves for the satisfaction of their own power and selfishness. If any technological development program is recommended, it should be geared toward the priority of national values, such as nationalization of resources, economic aid to farmers, production of farming equipment, construction of modular housing, establishment of a nutrition program, maintenance of health and provision for adequate medication.

Section 7 - Psychological System Planning

The intent of this paper is to study the Iranian environment and its institutions, with all of their development problems. It has attempted to create a new framework for a comprehensive policy plan by using various techniques to isolate the separate factors of such a framework. Important differences found in the structure of these factors can be traced back to the different sets of determinants proposed in the theoretical model. This paper, then, has dealt with six important systems which are final products of three independent factors: environment, institutional determinants, and organismically-based psychological needs. Social psychology, the last system to be discussed here, cannot be separated from the other systems. They all have a strong reciprocal influence on one another. It is the major purpose of this paper to clarify and reveal the dynamics of such interaction and influence.

The following model perhaps more clearly reveals the mechanism by which the integration between the psychological and the social system may take place. It was prepared by Joel Aronoff, psychologist and professor at Michigan State University. It is postulated that the cultural phenomena which the ethnographer observes results neither from cultural nor psychological determinants alone. Rather, they are the final products of an integration of the two in a particular setting.

Figure 10.²⁵

This hypothesis proposed by Aronoff is based on the theory of basic needs, Maslow's Concept. Maslow's theory of human motivation can be applied to almost every aspect of individual and social life. According to Maslow, the most basic, the most powerful, the most obvious of all men's needs are arranged in an ascending hierarchy of five need levels:

1. Physical needs: the most basic level of motivation like hunger, sex, thirst, sugar, oxygen and sleep.
2. Safety needs: centered around the requirement for a predictable and orderly world, like quarreling, physical assault, separation, divorce or death.
3. Love and belongingness: the motivation on this level is related to desires, warm and friendly human relationships.

²⁵Joel Aronoff, Psychological Needs and Cultural Systems, (Princeton, N.J.: D. VanNostrand Co., Inc.)

4. Self-esteem needs: defined as "first, the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence, for confidence, independence and freedom" and, secondly, defined as "status, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, or appreciation."
5. Self-actualization is described as the full use and exploration of talents, capacities and potentials. "Such people seem to be fulfilling themselves."²⁶

Maslow's theory offers several important advantages for socialization and utilizing basic needs to alter sources of societies. These levels could be human indicators for guiding planners in their programming. (In Iran at the current time, Maslow's hierarchy of needs does not apply.) By bringing some of Maslow's theory to bear on his planning, the planner will be operative with reasonable logic. For the consistency and stability of a society and the maintenance of citizens survival, can only be achieved by recognizing such human needs. For example, citizens of Iran are now confused as they find themselves caught in a conflict between tradition and recent developments in the modernization of Iran. They had a stable, natural life in the past, but they are now faced with rapid changes and contracted phenomena which amazes them. They have lost the ability to trust each other. Their feelings,

²⁶ Abraham Maslow's theory as found in Aronoff's.

emotions and perceptions have been changed suddenly by technological and political pressure. Such complex alterations must be taken into consideration in setting up any kind of reform program. To ignore the psychological effects of change on human beings is to doom any plan to failure.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

In the preceding discussion of the Basic Principle Concepts of a Procedure for a Comprehensive Plan for Iranian Environments, this paper has attempted to create a framework and skeleton for a comprehensive plan. The next step will be to develop the idea in a broader perspective and to evaluate the components in respect to important traditional commitments. From this development and evaluation will come detailed recommendations, along with suggested implementation for the recommendations within the existing situation. Further, this procedure, as a basic concept, will provide guidelines for future measurement of the criteria of each level for a study of citizen values and their priority in Iranian society, and for a consideration of the close linkage and inter-relationship between the social and physical elements of the environment and other factors.

The model presented here provides the initiation for a plan for integration of all social, political, cultural, economic, technological and psychological aspects. In this model, all these six basic systems are divided into their own subsystems and components which will be examined completely later for the dissertation program. Each of these systems, subsystems and components will then be arranged according to

the proposal concept (Nuclear Model), according priority in citizens' wants and needs. This framework is based on the promotion of a democratic system and the constitutional monarchy of Iran; it deals with the attainment of equal rights for the people through coordination and balance between all the systems, subsystems and components in a holistic plan.

An example of this coordination is found when one examines illiteracy in Iran. Literacy is at a very low level (65% to 75% of the people are uneducated) and as a part of the social subsystem it should be related to economics. In addition, changes in curriculums should be adapted to new values on all educational levels. New techniques should be designed for teacher training, new educational textbooks should be sought and both should be adaptable to the personality of the people. The educational program must provide coordination between the home and school. The needs and behaviors of the students must be considered. Elimination of social classes by a gradual method of integration must be undertaken. Educational expenditures serve the people, yet military expenditures, which do not coincide with the wants of the citizens, are currently top priority because they save the ends of the elite class.

This study is based on the promotion of each system and its components for the social benefit of the public or individual at a minimal cost. It also is concerned with the preservation of the old culture of Iran. All systems in this model should be adapted to nature, and nature should be preserved by the provisions of national, provincial and local

law from the hazards of the technological process. Finally, this model concentrates on realities which have been neglected in the past, like the lack of balance between cost and benefits; income and expenditure; psychological complexes; misuses of technology; and westernization. A future paper will focus more closely on the detail of local plans and implementation of this model towards factual consideration of these realities.

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