

**TECHNICAL AID –
AN INVESTMENT IN PEOPLE**

“The Point Four Program in Iran”

Brigham Young University

1960

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PREFACE

From the very beginning of the Point Four Program in Iran, Brigham Young University has been intimately connected with it and has made substantial contributions. The program was first begun under the name of The Iranian-United States Joint Commission for Rural Improvement. It was later changed to The Technical Cooperation Administration for Iran, and finally to the United States Operation Mission to Iran, under the International Cooperation Administration.

Brigham Young University sent its first group of educators to Iran in the autumn of 1951 and has had three other groups succeed the first one. The United States Government has properly sought the aid of such institutions in the planning, staffing, and operating of the technical programs abroad. The objective of assisting Iran to remain among the free nations of the world, oriented to the West, has been thus far nobly achieved. The objective of helping the people of Iran to help themselves to a better standard of living is likewise being accomplished. Despite political crises, incited opposition, and tense hours, the vast majority of Iran's eighteen million people and her officials have welcomed the Point Four Program and have helped make it a success.

The desire of the Iranian people to exercise the freedoms which we in America hold sacred and to advance to a better way of life gives us hope that eventually all the goals which have been established under the Point Four Program will be achieved.

It is our conviction that technical aid is an investment in people which will bring freedom's reward to those who accept it. This report is intended to convey the message of an approach to world peace through technical aid.

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CHAPTER I

OUR FOREIGN AID PROGRAM

An Overview

Magazine articles and books have been written about various phases of our foreign aid program. Many of these have been written by those who have studied the problem from within the United States. Some writers have based their ideas on reports about the program and on information gained from interviews with those who have been abroad. Others have been written by those specialists sent abroad to evaluate the program. Still others have been done by professional journalists who have felt the need to go abroad and study the program and report their findings to the American people.

Most of these reports have been honest accounts based on limited information on some phase of the program. But there is a need for information on the foreign aid program written by technicians who have lived in the countries receiving aid, who have worked in the villages, slept in the homes and hotels, and eaten with the people. This kind of an account would be less valid if it were written by one individual. His personal prejudices might color the report. What is needed is to obtain a team report, written by a group covering a total program in a country. The report needs to be intimate in nature, filled with human interest detail which will enable the reader to get the spirit as well as the nature of the work.

This account is such a work. It is written by a team of technical assistants who each spent between two and five years in Iran. Each worked in a specific phase of the technical assistance program. An attempt is made herewith to let the American people see the needs of the proud culture of Iran,

to let them see the complexity of the problem of helping a people, steeped in tradition, see their needs for the future, and build a program to satisfy those needs.

The problem of training the nationals of Iran for positions of leadership and responsibility so that they can continue to help themselves after the technicians are gone is basic to continuous development and national progress. This training of nationals for leadership in a progressive program and at the same time preserving and extending the many fine things in their present cultural patterns is essential. While no doubt the pattern of many of our concepts and ideologies are American in origin, the great hope of Point Four is not to transplant our culture per se upon the Iranians, but to help them build a greater Iran.

The concept of aiding those in less fortunate circumstances is not new to the American people. As American frontiers were developed, mutual help was common. As the early churches began to sense a responsibility for the welfare of people beyond our borders, missionaries were sent abroad. It is true that many went to proselyte their religious faith, but as they saw the needs of the people with whom they were laboring, purposes were changed. Many American missionaries have dedicated a life of love and service to teach under-privileged peoples some of the rudiments of modern agriculture, health, and sanitation. Private church schools and hospitals have been established in many lands. U. S. private enterprise leaders in foreign lands have spent large sums of money supplying schools for the children of their employees, homes for workers and their families, and free medical service for employees. All this has been done to help these people better to help themselves. The motivation for this service is an interest in the welfare of our fellow men.

In 1949 when President Truman, in his inaugural address, presented to Congress his now famous fourth point he placed before them an idea with which all were familiar and to which most people were willing to subscribe. This fourth point was stated as follows:

. . . we must embark on a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas. More than half the people of the world are victims of disease. Their economic life is primitive and stagnant. Their poverty is a handicap and a threat both to them and to more prosperous areas.

For the first time in history, humanity possesses the knowledge and the skill to relieve the suffering of these people. The United States is pre-eminent among nations in the development of industrial and scientific techniques. The material resources which we can afford to use for the assistance of other peoples are limited. But our imponderable resources in technical knowledge are constantly growing and are inexhaustible.

. . . we should make available to peace-loving peoples the benefits of our store of technical knowledge in order to help them realize their aspirations for a better life. And, in cooperation with other nations, we should foster capital investment in areas needing development.

Our aim should be to help the free peoples of the world through their own efforts, to produce more food, more clothing, more materials for housing, and more mechanical power to lighten their burdens. . . .

Only by helping the least fortunate of its members to help themselves can the human family achieve the decent, satisfying life that is the right of all people.¹

Here is a concise statement of how our government conceived its technical assistance program. As the program has become a reality and has begun to function in many parts of the underdeveloped areas of the world the very complex nature of the undertaking has become more apparent.

The Point Four Program has been criticized as being a hand-out program

¹United States Department of State Bulletins, Volume 28, p. 311. February, 1953.

which puts nations on "relief" and which would eventually rob them of their initiative. This is the very antithesis of its purpose. Its prime foremost objective is to help people to help themselves. Every Point Four operation has programs for training nationals in the skills necessary to implement the information which is furnished by our technicians. Nationals conduct teacher training sessions under the guidance of American educators. Nationals learn how to prepare and administer vaccine to stop smallpox plagues. Nationals learn to spray houses and bring the dread malaria under control. And so it goes. In every area the program is educating people for independent action and leadership.

By providing the materials, technical skills, ideas and in some cases the power and machines to complete projects which had been started by the people but which they could not complete with their own resources, another phase of helping people help themselves has been achieved. As an example, in Iran several attempts had been made to cut a tunnel through a mountain to bring a river's life-giving water to an arid but potentially productive plain. Point Four skills and resources completed the project and brought thousands of acres into production. Another example of conservation of resources regards grazing practice. Tribesmen had for centuries moved their flocks by the same routes back and forth between their summer and winter ranges. This practice destroyed the plant life in certain valley and made them useless as grazing areas. Tribal leaders have long been concerned with the ever increasing acres of unproductive land. Point Four technicians helped them solve this problem in part by using alternate routes and by reseeding barren valleys. Assistance in education led to changes such as the following: In Iran most members of tribes had resisted giving up their nomadic pursuits to settle in villages. Village life

was not as healthful, but villages provided the only schools available. For years most tribal people have remained illiterate, yet many of them have had a desire to learn to read and write. A Point Four technician working with tribal chieftans conceived the idea of moveable tent schools taught by teachers who were members of the tribe. Thus, when the tribe moved the school moved. The advantages of the nomadic life were thus preserved and the children were able to have the advantages of an education.

Americans have believed that if underdeveloped countries were freed from disease and dire poverty, if they had the advantages of education, that revolutionary tendencies would diminish among the radical elements, and thus the countries would be saved from Communism. In feudal societies the first effect of economic development has been to make the people aware that change is possible. This awareness brings discontent with their lot and a demand for change. Thus we have learned that to relieve the poverty of a people may not save them for democracy, but only increase their expectations for change. If Communists can persuade them that revolutionary leadership is the best means of achieving change, people may be lost to the western cause even though they are free of poverty and disease. Education can contribute to unrest by awakening hopes and wants. Better economic conditions alone will not satisfy the needs of an aroused people. They must be made to see that through modifying and strengthening their own institutions, through educating their leadership and through increasing the productive capacity of their people they will be able to make definite progress towards their goal of freedom from domination.

It is evident that helping an undeveloped country is a very complex problem. More time must be spent in defining the job to be done and in selecting those individuals as technical assistants whose peculiar talents enable them to give

the help with insight and understanding.

University programs in many underdeveloped countries are based upon formed education without practical application. Knowledge for knowledge's sake is an accepted goal. Scholars from these institutions are admired for their learning of those things which their cultures hold dear. But there is a need in these countries to educate people "to do" as well as "to know." The ideal of our Land Grant Colleges is one which could be accepted profitably in those lands.

But, in adopting the new ideal of a functional education, one needs to be careful not to destroy that which the people value. It is not necessary to destroy the classical to have the utilitarian. Americans working abroad as technical advisors need to be conscious of the value of both kinds of education. Their motives can be easily misunderstood if the programs they advocate tend to depreciate or destroy the time-honored institutions of the people. Technicians need to emphasize that here is a different kind of program which should complement the classical and which is designed to serve a different purpose.

The Point Four Program does not attempt to dominate underdeveloped countries. Henry Bennet, who literally gave his life promoting the ideals of this program, stated the purposes this way:

Our friends of the underdeveloped areas do not want charity. They want to become independent, by their own efforts, of our help and of all outside help. They are eternally right in asking us to share knowledge and skill--which cannot be given away--so that they may achieve self-reliance and the dignity that goes with it. They represent old cultures that long predate ours... They would not permit us to superimpose our culture on theirs, even if we were so foolish as to try. There are as many paths to progress as there are nations. They want to choose their own.²

Many people have been concerned with this problem. Some have felt that

²Editorial in Washington Post, December 25, 1951.

If we pay the fiddler we should call the tune. However, those who have had experience, in the field in implementing programs, recognize our responsibilities more clearly. We are dealing with civilizations which are rooted in antiquity. They are as different from each other as they are different from us. It is the technicians job to promote advancement of their culture toward achievement of higher goals in meeting individual and national needs, not to destroy their cultures. "Technical assistance is in the interests of human freedom when, and only when, it not only promotes economic development, but also encourages the growth of free institutions within the framework of a free society."³

Technical assistance has become an integral part of our foreign policy. The U.S. Government conceives the world to be divided into three spheres. The Communist sphere consists of Eastern Europe and Asia with the exception of the Indian sub-continent, Japan and certain Southeastern-Asian countries. The Allied sphere consists of North and South America and Western Europe. The third sphere is the section of the world not committed to the Communist or the Allied sphere. It has not accepted the principles of Communism nor has it cast its lot with the Western Allies. The areas included in the third sphere are parts of the Middle East, Southeastern-Asia and Africa. This sphere consists of countries which have historically been colonies of one of the Western Allies. Some of these countries still have colonial status, others have recently won independence.

Countries in the uncommitted areas of the world are the so-called under-developed countries. They are characterized by retarded industrial development,

³Address by Joseph M. Stokes, Assistant Deputy Director of Technical Services I.C.A., Conference on University Contracts Abroad, Willard Hotel, Washington D.C., November 15, 1956.

high illiteracy rates, low standards of living and high incidence of disease. The people who formulate our foreign policy see this area as one in which they should have great concern. In the first place these peoples, who have been or still are colonies of some of the Western Allies, consider themselves as having been exploited. They feel that their present lack of development is largely attributable to the treatment they have received from their former masters. These considerations make it particularly difficult for them to look to an alliance with the West as a solution to their problems.

Those that have recently won their independence are in a life-and-death struggle, trying to create or strengthen the institutions which are necessary to their national existence. Their leaders lack experience in the science and the art of government. They do not have strong military establishments. They are pre-occupied with providing for the necessities of life--food, clothing, and shelter. It is in countries such as these where the majority of the people are not organized that small, well-organized groups with dedication to a cause can gain control. It is the expressed concern of our leaders that if we do not support these new governments they may be taken over by well-organized and subsidized communist groups.

Our mutual security non-aggression pacts are designed to ensure neophyte or weaker governments against outside aggression. Our economic assistance can help them build their industries and stabilize their economies. Our technical assistance program is, however, more basic to their development than either of the other programs. Through technical assistance we can provide the help which they need to build free institutions adapted to their peculiar requirements and provide their nationals with the technical skills necessary to operate them. This kind of action does not guarantee that they will finally support the cause

of freedom, but it does guarantee that they can make up their minds as members of a free society. Therefore, our leaders are anxious to furnish technical assistance to the undeveloped areas of the world. They have faith that given a chance all peoples will choose for themselves forms of government which are dedicated to the interests of human freedom.

Here is a report of how teams of technicians recruited from that part of the United States where physical conditions are most like those in Iran, worked to strengthen the institutions of that country, how leadership was trained, and how a people was given a concept of self help.

No attempt is made here to cover the mistakes which were made, and some were made. No attempt is made to indicate that some of the money spent did not yield what it should have yielded. Iran's technical assistance program was one of the first of the Point Four programs. American technicians lacked experience. Mistakes were made. Money was wasted in the beginning. But mistakes were honest ones, made by responsible people.

The real message of this book is an exposition of how a group of Americans assisted a nation of foreign people with technical and economic aid, people of an underdeveloped nation who were desperately trying to free themselves of both foreign domination and internal feudalism. Neither was wholly accomplished, but beginnings were made in many areas to assist this people in solving its own problems. As the reader is able to see the details of the program, he is asked to look at technical assistance as an investment in people.

This investment like all good investments gave returns both ways. The Iranians were started on their way to self help, and the American technicians obtained new appreciation for some of the roots of our own culture. He obtained an historical perspective that is not easily obtained by men in a new country

such as ours. He brought back to his community information which he shared with his neighbors which has helped them gain new insights and appreciations. Since many of the technicians are associated with universities, many institutions have had their programs enriched by returning faculty members, by foreign nationals who are attracted to our institutions, by the enrichment which comes to the humanities and social sciences through first-hand contacts. Ancient universities in foreign lands can make significant contributions through their libraries to our universities. Exchange of students and professors can help break our own provincialism and enrich our programs. We learn to look at our university programs as cooperative ventures between two equals. Technical assistance is an investment in people. It enriches both the helper and the helped.

CHAPTER II

THE SETTING AND GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF POINT FOUR IN IRAN

General Objectives

Two brief statements have been made frequently which set forth in general terms Point Four's objectives in instituting its program in Iran. The first was to increase the standard of living of the people; the second (in order to achieve the first), was to help the Iranians to help themselves.

A difficulty arises when we seek to define what we mean by "raising the standard of living" or "help Iranians to help themselves." Part of the meaning of the definition can be discerned, however, if one examines the program undertaken by Point Four in Iran. First, it proposed to raise the health standards of the people. Second, it made great efforts to increase production, both agricultural and industrial. Third, it attempted to decrease illiteracy, build or repair schools, reorganize the curriculum, and introduce more efficient teaching and learning methods. In order to achieve success in these three major areas the organization has other divisions such as audio-visual, public administration, engineering, and community development.

Observing closely, one can further ascertain that the program has been based upon additional assumptions which have guided its operations. Traditionally the people of the United States have believed in certain freedoms, liberties, and rights. The Declaration of Independence states that "all men are endowed by their creator with certain inalienable rights and that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Abraham Lincoln said, "There is something in the Declaration (of Independence) giving liberty, not alone to the people of this country, but hope to the world for all time."¹

¹Time, Vol. LXII, No. 13, September 28, 1953, p. 9.

In the Gettysburg Address he pleaded "that government of the people, by the people, and for the people" might not perish from the earth. Traditionally, the people of the United States have insisted on such rights as trial by jury, the right to vote, to worship as they saw fit, many of which were originally set forth in the first ten amendments to the Constitution, or in the Bill of Rights, as they have become known. This idea received its most recent affirmation when a United States Government spokesman, John Foster Dulles, Secretary of State, said that the United States "acts on the idea that the final test of policy is the moral law, which the creator legislated by making men the way they are."² The maintenance of certain rights of the individual plus the idea of government by law, then, are two fundamental ideas which are basic in the traditions and policies of the United States. There are others which are equally important. From the concepts of rights and liberty has followed the idea of equality of opportunity. The great public school system established in the United States is an expression of this idea. The present discussion in the United States concerning the matter of providing equal health facilities for all citizens is another.

A further idea important, not only to the United States as a nation, but also to many groups throughout the world, is that voluntary cooperation of men and women is a more desirable method of attaining social unity and strength than a method of coercion. Director Warne expressed this idea in a speech delivered at the organization of a farm machinery cooperative in the Caspian area. He said:

You have been convinced that by cooperative effort you can have for yourselves farm machinery that some of you could not

²Ibid.

afford to purchase alone, and that probably would not be profitable to operate individually if one of you should own that machinery by yourself. Now, at first glance, that may not seem an important bit of learning, but its importance is beyond estimation. When men learn to work together, place faith in each other, and are determined to always carry their load and never fail the other man in a cooperative effort, then those men have an unlimited future.

It is simply following the command of the prophet: 'Work together in goodness.' Now some people would have said: 'God does not believe in partners or he would have one,' but this is an incorrect statement because we are all partners of God, although God must at times get discouraged at how poorly some of his partners live up to their obligations.

Now another prophet has said: 'Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.' In those two commands you have the basic rules for operating your farm machinery co-op that is here so that no one will lose and everyone will benefit.³

Such ideas as the above, having a long tradition in the United States, were bound to be reflected in the program undertaken by Point Four. In all countries where its program is undertaken, Point Four obviously does not overtly or covertly attempt to overthrow the host governments with which, on many counts, it is not in accord. Rather, it works with the established government, attaining agreements to operate its various projects to which the government has already made contributions. This does not mean, however, that Point Four agrees with the established order of things in all aspects; it often attempts programs which it feels conforms to the basic concepts enumerated above. An example will illustrate this point. The system of land tenure in Iran has been such that a relatively large proportion of the land is owned by a small group of landholders. In a predominantly agricultural country this system denies many opportunities to the mass of the people, a situation contrary to the United

³From a speech by William E. Warne, Director of U.S. Operations Mission to Iran, for delivery at the organization of Farm Machinery Cooperative, Kia Kola, Caspian Region, OMI, Oct. 25, 1953.

States tradition of equality of opportunity. Hence, Point Four, although proceeding cautiously because of the sensitive aspect of the problem, has undertaken to support and encourage land reform measures. Another example, an activity initiated at the request of the Iranian Ministry of Education, has been the revision of the curriculum of the public school system in Iran. The changes suggested by American technicians are a result of their long experience with teaching and learning techniques in American schools where they have been influenced by the basic democratic concepts characterizing the United States as a nation.

This was illustrated in a speech given by Dr. Reed Morrill, OMI Secondary Educationist, on January 13, 1954, in Tehran:

There are three types of supervisors: autocratic, laissez-faire, and democratic supervisors. An autocratic supervisor insists on what to do, when to do it, how to do it. The laissez-faire supervisor will let the teacher decide what to do, when to do it, how to do it. The democratic supervisor will go to school, be friendly with all, establish good relations with the teacher and principal, cooperate with them and help them solve their problems.⁴

Dr. Reed Bradford, a social scientist by training and a Point Four Regional Director, further stated:

A study of the social sciences establishes the fact that all human beings have certain similar needs. One of these is physical in character. People must have enough food to eat, clothes to wear, and shelter and protection from the elements. They must have knowledge to permit them to remain healthy and to attain medical facilities to assist them to recover their health when ill. Another need is emotional security. There may be some exceptions, but by and large man is a social animal. He likes to associate with others and to feel that he is wanted by them. Many people are motivated to achieve awards of various types, simply because this is a sign of recognition by one of

⁴From "Informational Report on the Supervisory Training Course" prepared by Miss T. Ohanian, Education and Training Division, OMI, Feb. 1954, p. 4

their fellow men.

Another very important need that everyone has to achieve is a position in society for which his abilities and interests benefit him. This is especially true in a highly differentiated, industrial, urbanized society. If large masses of the people are doing tasks of an uninteresting or monotonous nature when they wish to find other more challenging activities, such a society is in a great state of tension. Finally, at least the thinking members of the community like to know something of the meaning of life, and this is why every large group is characterized by some sort of religion or philosophy.

Convinced of the existence of the above needs, and believing in the basic concepts mentioned above, we wholeheartedly endorse the efforts of Point Four to improve conditions of health, increase production, and develop greater opportunities for education.

In light of these basic concepts we subscribe to the great objective of Point Four to raise the standard of living of Iranians by "helping them to help themselves." If one gives a hungry man in a state of poverty five dollars, he has helped the man because he will be able to acquire food to satisfy his hunger. But, if one gives him knowledge and training which will permit him to earn five dollars, then one has helped him a great deal more. The latter type of assistance is of infinitely greater worth.

Voluntary cooperation of human beings in a spirit of faith, trust, kindness, love, and intelligence can achieve a solution of many of a nation's problems and can be a tremendous force in increasing its standard of living. These characteristics in the long run are far superior to such characteristics as fear, intimidation, brutality, and outright naked force in attaining the satisfaction of basic human needs. Point Four has tried to develop a spirit of cooperation among Iranians, causing them to realize that they have the power within themselves to develop solutions to many of their problems.

It has been a general policy never to give money or materials outright to Iranians without having them, if at all possible, make a contribution themselves. It is a characteristic of man that he only truly appreciates something for which he himself has expended some effort. If such a contribution by him has not been made, he is prone--either consciously or unconsciously--to regard the object as belonging to the giver and not to himself, or else he tends to be unappreciative of the gift. So many people have not discovered the great joy that comes from sharing things with others--ideas, needs, wisdom, unified effort--and yet such sharing permits them to achieve ends that would otherwise be impossible.

Naturally, all of us are concerned that our work in Point Four will have a permanent effect in raising the standard of living, and not that it will be of short duration. To achieve this end, Point Four has tried to sponsor the idea of cooperating closely with Iranian organizations, Ministries, voluntary groups, and others. Projects of Point Four that have proved successful in obtaining the general objectives must become part of the institutional structure of the government and the people. Leaders must be available and capable of carrying on the work when American technicians are no longer in Iran. A great deal of time was spent by conscientious technicians in finding capable candidates to be sent to the United States for training. These Iranians have been encouraged to feel that they can make a great contribution to their fellow men when they return to their respective regions in Iran. They, too, can assure a kind of permanency of the Point Four program in Iran.

These, then, are some of the basic, concepts, and objectives that have guided Point Four technicians in Iran. It seemed advisable to state this clearly at the outset so that the reader might know what they were. A clear definition of objectives is of concern to groups, organizations, and nations everywhere.

CHAPTER III

THE GEOGRAPHY OF IRAN

Iran is situated between the valleys of the Tigris on the west, to the valleys of the Indus on the east and between the Caspian Sea and the borders of the United States of Soviet Russia on the north to the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean on the south. It shares common borders with Iraq and Turkey on the west, Russia on the north, and Afghanistan and Pakistan on the east.

Iran is largely a desert plateau, but the key to understanding its geography, its climate, and even its people is the word "contrast." Although much of the country consists of barren desert wilderness, there are certain areas where a lush jungle vegetation and an over-abundant rainfall exist. Areas range from sea level to over 18,000 feet elevation. The extremes of climate over the wide area of Iran is very pronounced. There is a modern saying in the country that "Iran has seven climates." The southwestern area along the Persian Gulf is unmercifully hot, yet the mountainous Elburz range is intensely cold. In Tehran, the capital city, the climate is pleasant most of the year even with its four seasons.

The map of Iran resembles a Persian cat on its haunches with its gaze divided between Turkey and Soviet Russia. Because of its strategic geographic position, Iran has for centuries been a land bridge between far eastern Asia and the lands of the Mediterranean and Europe. The main trade routes between the Far East and the West crossed Iran, and even when sea routes became well established, the Persian Gulf afforded an important commercial center.

Inscriptions on gold and silver plates discovered by a geological expedition at Persepolis in Southern Iran in 1938 and inscribed approximately 400 years B.C., indicate the boundaries of the great Persian Kingdom under the reign of King Darius as extending from the Scythians from beyond the Sogdiana (the southern

part of USSR) to Ethiopia in East Africa and from India to Sardis. However, the present boundaries were established during the nineteenth century as a result of wars in which Iran was not able to hold her own against more powerful neighbors.

Today Iran covers 628,000 square miles, which is approximately twice the size of Texas, or nearly as large as the combined areas of Idaho, Utah, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, and California. It is approximately as large as that part of the United States which lies east of the Mississippi River, exclusive of New England.

Mountains

There are two important ranges of mountains in Iran--the Zagros and the Elburz. The Elburz mountains extend from west to east along the northern part of Iran and are steep and jagged. They separate the major portion of Iran from the Caspian Sea area. The highest mountain peak in Iran is Mount Demavand, a volcanic peak, in the Elburz mountains northwest of Tehran, which rises to an elevation of 18,600 feet. Hikers who have made the ascent of Demavand have reported the presence of sulphur gases still being emitted from the mountaintop.

The Zagros range extends along the western side of Iran and runs southeast from its juncture with the Elburz mountains in the northwestern part of Iran. It roughly parallels the frontier of Iraq and the shores of the Persian Gulf, extending in a graceful arc to the southeastern end of Iran. The Zagros mountains are characterized by gentler folds and smoother contours than are the Elburz Mountains in the north. This range is practically devoid of trees and vegetation. Limestone is the prevailing rock material in the Iranian mountains, although gypsum, conglomerate sand, and alluvial shingle are frequently found. The central section of the Zagros mountains contains some red sandstone and sandy shales. However, limestone is much more profuse.

Elsewhere there are smaller ranges of mountains or hills in almost all parts of Iran which rise to considerable altitudes and provide numerous streams of water (through a "kanat" system of underground tunnels) on which the people and crops depend. The successions of ranges throughout the land generally decrease in height the farther they are from the main ranges of the Elburz and the Zagros.

Deserts

A most important feature of Iran is its deserts which extend from the Elburz mountains near Tehran for a distance of approximately eight hundred miles to the southeast and beyond the frontier. This area varies considerably in width from place to place. It is estimated that approximately one-sixth of the total area of Iran consists of arid and barren deserts. The two largest are known as the Dasht-i-Kavir (Salt Desert) and the Dasht-i-lut (Barren Desert). These two deserts merge into each other and some sections contain salt lakes which are fed each year by the spring torrents from the rivers which in the summer disappear beneath a hard salt crust. As with its entire geography, contrast is characteristic of the deserts: many of their areas consist of wide stretches of salt-impregnated land, others of stony wastes, others of drifting sands and sand dunes, and a few of beautiful oases where springs flow from the earth to water the orchards and date palms. The huge deserts have left a deep mark on the people of Iran by separating the north from the south and the east from the west more effectively than could ranges of snow-clad mountains or a gulf of equal size. Deserted caravansaries stand as sepulchres to the costly toll of the desert levied on men and beasts alike in years gone by. However, recently jeeps and other vehicles have traveled successfully over long stretches of desert land. These deserts, separating as they do the inhabitants of Iran, have made government difficult and have often provided a ready refuge for rebel

tribes. The Great Desert has been referred to by some as the "Dead Heart of Iran."

Rivers

Iran suffers unavoidably from the almost total absence of large and navigable rivers. One of the most important rivers, and the only navigable one, is the Karun which flows into the Persian Gulf. The Karun is navigable by small steamers as far as Ahwaz, which is approximately seventy miles from its mouth. Small boats can penetrate the interior of Iran several miles beyond Ahwaz.

The most important river in the western basin of Iran is the Zenda Rud, which irrigates the Isfahan district and ends by discharging its surplus waters into a swamp some forty miles below.

The rivers of importance which flow into the Caspian Sea are the Aras, the Sefid Rud, the Chalus, the Haraz, the Lar, the Gorgan, and the Atrek. Except for spring run-offs, these rivers do not carry a great volume of water. They serve principally as spawning grounds for the sturgeon of the Caspian.

In Eastern Iran the principal river of importance is the historic Helmand River which rises and courses in Afghanistan until it reaches Sistan in Iran where it discharges its waters into the Sistan Lake and irrigates both Afghan and Iranian lands.

There are many other small rivers such as the Jajirud, Karej, and Kand, near Tehran; the Zarasu, near Hamadan; the Hableh, east of Kashan; the Hari east of Mashad; the Qum, near the religious center of Qum, and the Kur, which flows past ancient Persepolis.

These rivers mentioned are the main perennial streams; most of the others run dry in the middle of the summer. In fact, except during the spring, travellers can cross the Iranian plateau from east to west and from north to

south without interference by water in rivers. Many of the weak streams, however, flow into the vast interior deserts and disappear in alkaline wastelands.

Seas and Lakes

The most noteworthy body of water in Iran is the Caspian Sea which lies 85 feet below sea level and is the largest landlocked body of water in the world. Its length from north to south is some six hundred miles; its width is three hundred miles in the northern portion, but less in the southern portion. Its salt content is less than that of the oceans, and it abounds with sturgeon and other fish. Sudden and violent storms make it dangerous for small boats.

In the extreme northwestern end of Iran is Lake Rezaieh which was formerly called Lake Urmiya. It is approximately eighty miles long and thirty-five miles wide--nearly the same size as Great Salt Lake in Utah. It averages from 15 to 18 feet in depth, with a maximum depth of 33 feet. It, like the Caspian Sea, is a landlocked body of water; but unlike the Caspian, its salt content is so great that no fish can live in it. Its saline content is approximately 23 per cent, which is very similar to that of Great Salt Lake in Utah.

Fresh water lakes are very rare in Iran and most of them are distasteful and not much larger than ponds.

Climate

The general feature of Iran's climate is "aridity." The amount of rainfall over most of the country is less than 11 inches annually, or about the same as that of the state of Nevada. The desert areas receive less than five inches a year, while the area in the perimeter of the Caspian receives 50 to 60 inches, which is more than the annual rainfall in the British Isles. The high ranges intercept the greater portions of the moisture-laden clouds and discharge more rain than is needed in the Caspian provinces and less than is needed west of

the Elburz. Tehran receives approximately 9 inches of rainfall, as does north-eastern Iran. Central Iran (near Isfahan) receives approximately 5 inches, while the Persian Gulf area receives approximately 11 inches. Torrential rains sometimes occur bringing with them flash floods which sweep down from the barren mountains to wash out roads, to damage villages, and to destroy crops.

Snow falls in the northern parts of Iran during the winter. In such cities as Tehran, Isfahan, and Kermanshah heavy snowfalls are rare, and the snow usually melts in a few days. The high mountain peaks are crowned with snow until July. The high passes of the mountainous highways in northern Iran may be blocked for days or even weeks in the winter months.

The Iranian plateau has mild winters and rather hot summers. In winter the temperature seldom reaches zero and usually is above freezing; in the summer the temperature is often around 100°, but with a low humidity and with cool, pleasant nights. The Persian Gulf areas and the desert regions of the southeast have less moderate temperatures. It is not uncommon in the summers for these areas to record temperatures of 130° Fahrenheit--with a high humidity in the gulf areas.

The Iranians fear the cold of the winters much more than the heat of the summers. They seem able to stand the heat better than the cold; their houses are not equipped with central heating or even with good heating. In many parts of the country they burn "Buffalo Chips" (fuel paddies made of animal manure and chopped-up straw). In most areas all types of fuel are costly and scarce. To keep warm, families huddle around the "korsi," a low table under which is a pan of charcoal or other fuel and over which is spread a large quilt. The Iranians sit on the floor, place their legs under the korsi, and place the quilt over their laps. They may even sleep under the korsi quilt with only their

heads exposed.

The days are clear most of the year and the nights are beautiful. Except for the Caspian area, only about fifty days a year are stormy or overcast. The skies are usually a bright blue by day and starlit by night.

Flora

The vegetation of Iran is meager and scanty. Except for the Caspian area, where rainfall is abundant, or for places where irrigation provides water for trees and plants, most areas are barren. Most of the hills are without trees or vegetation. Along the Zagros range, however, in the Shiraz area is a belt approximately two hundred miles in length and varying in width up to one hundred miles where dwarf oaks grow. In the Caspian area are many hardwood trees. In other areas the trees grow only along river banks or in areas which are irrigated. The most frequently grown tree is the poplar, the lumber from which is in great demand for use in building houses and shops. Other trees found there are the elm, the ash, the willow, and the walnut.

Iran is rich in fruit such as apples, pears, plums, peaches, nectarines, cherries, mulberries, apricots, quinces, figs, pomegranates, almonds, pistachios, date-palms, oranges, limes, grapes, and melons.

Other main crops are wheat, barley, rice, beans, cotton, opium, lucerne, tobacco, and tea. The chief vegetables are potatoes, cabbages, cauliflowers, tomatoes, cucumbers, spinach, lettuce, and radishes.

Iran is believed to be the original home of the cucumber, the melon, the rose, wheat, alfalfa, the peach, the cherry, and the poplar.

Fauna

The fauna of Iran include the tiger in the Caspian provinces, the lion in the southwestern provinces, and wolves, leopards, hyenas, lynxes, wild cats,

foxes, and jackals in many areas. In the hills are the wild sheep, the ibex, and the wild boar. In fact, the wild boar roams in the Caspian forests and in every range or river bed where there is any cover available. On the plains are numerous gazelles. A specie of sheep, which is called the fat-tailed sheep because it has a tail which weighs up to nineteen pounds, is the prevalent variety in Iran.

Also, in Iran are many birds--pheasants, partridges, sandgrouse, ducks, eagles, hawks, nightingales, and vultures.

POLITICAL FACTORS

Historical Background

Dr. Mossadegh, Prime Minister of Iran, at the beginning of the upheaval in August, 1953, was a sly old fox; but like so many others who become drunk with ambition for power, he dealt in treacheries with anyone who stood in his way and struck out at those who had been his friends and benefactors, thereby bringing down ruin upon his own head and near ruin to his country. He had been exiled by Reza Shah, the present Shah's father, for acts of opposition and disloyalty; but through the intervention of the young Crowned Prince who became Shah in 1941, he was pardoned and brought home.

¹⁹⁴¹ A year later when he had become Prime Minister, and the Crowned Prince had become Shah, Dr. Mossadegh took immediate and drastic measures against those who stood in his way. The Shah's mother and his twin sister Princess Ashraf were banished, the mother as a symbol of the strength and power of her illustrious husband, Reza Shah, and Ashraf as a "firebrand," Ashraf had more of the courage, astuteness, political aptitude and the love of action of her father than did her more mild-mannered and indecisive brother. The story is told that

as the mother bade farewell to her royal son she said, "Today this man banishes your sister and me. Tomorrow it will be you."

Her prophecy was soon to be fulfilled. Mossadegh took a bold step to reduce the Shah's position to that of a "rubber stamp" by demanding that he surrender his control of the army to the Prime Minister. This extreme and unconstitutional stroke seemed too much. The Shah immediately dismissed Dr. Mossadegh and appointed another in his place. When the American Ambassador asked Dr. Mossadegh concerning the Shah's order, making a change in Prime Ministers, Mossadegh replied:

If the Shah has issued such an order, it can have no effect, because the Shah is a "figure head" who can wear all the pretty uniforms, attend all the ceremonies and funerals, but he can do nothing else. . . . He has broken his agreement and I have kicked him out.¹

For the next few days the streets of Tehran were scenes of rioting and acts of violence by Mossadegh's followers, spurred on by the Tudeh (Communist) Party supporters. The Shah fearfully reconsidered, called Mossadegh back and gave him the power he demanded. This (Mossadegh) is the man who would play one friend against another and discard each in his turn when his purpose had been served.

The world knows the events which followed. The Shah dismissed Dr. Mossadegh on August 16, 1953, for the second time, when the latter "rigged" a referendum to end parliamentary opposition and leave himself Prime Minister with no parliament and no Shah. One Tehran newspaper, Mard-e-Asia, said on July 16, 1953, concerning the proposed referendum:

After two miserable years of misrule, Mossadegh, this cunning old man, has rallied all his forces against the last ramparts of

¹ Newsweek, August 31, 1953. p. 16.

the people's freedom. This lunatic will not rest until he has plunged the country into blood and destruction. How can anyone attach credence to a referendum held under the bayonets of the security forces and of the secret police, not to mention the Tudeh party,

The Shah then appointed General Zahadi as Prime Minister. It was rumored that these two steps by the Shah were due to the influence of his sister, Ashraf. At this point the Shah fled to Rome and three days of street fighting followed, at the close of which, victory rested with Zahadi's forces and the friends and supporters of the Shah. On August 22, the Shah returned to find that peace and order had been established and that the rebellious and ambitious Prime Minister was safely lodged in jail.

Such is the ebb and flow of political fortunes in a land where failure in an individual's political ventures means more than his own political failure. It may mean great national and international upheaval.

Formal and Informal Political Systems

Things are not what they seem. It is especially difficult in Iran to get a functional picture of the political scene by examining its formal political structure. The Constitution of Iran provides for a Constitutional Monarchy, yet one may say (if we substitute King for President) that it establishes a political framework surprisingly like our own. Governmental functions like ours are divided into three branches: legislative, executive, and judicial. Yet in operation Iranian government is far behind that of America in democratic procedure and efficiency.

The Legislative Branch consists of two houses: the Majlis of between 136 and 200 members (House of Representatives) and a Senate of 60 members. The constitution provides that the members of the Majlis should be elected for a period of two years by vote of the male citizens 21 years of age or more. Iran

is still a "man's world." Although the women play a very important role in the home, they have little or no place in political life. The Tehran Press Review of January 5, 1953, quotes the following from the speech in the Majlis:

The participation of women in elections, will only add another difficulty to the difficulties now faced by the nation. I must say that Islam has provided the best guarantees to preserve the rights of women, and therefore consider the question of participation of women in elections to be harmful to our society.

Half of the 60 senators are appointed by the Shah (similar to the English system) and the other 30 are elected by the people. According to numerous reports from Iranian technicians and staff members, the elections for senators are pretty well manipulated by officials, wealthy merchants, landlords, etc. One ceases to wonder why change comes slowly in such things as the feudal landholding system, when one realizes that those who have the power to make changes are the ones who stand to profit most by the status quo. Why should a lawmaker landlord who owns from one to hundreds of villages and who collects the "lion's share" of the wealth produced, ever want to disrupt a system so beautifully geared to his luxurious living in Tehran or some foreign capitol?

The Executive Branch is dominated by the Shah who appoints a Prime Minister, who in turn selects his council from outside the Majlis and Senate. If the Prime Minister's selections are approved by the Shah and the legislative bodies, they form the Cabinet and take over the administration of the government. The Prime Minister is theoretically responsible to the Shah and the Majlis. A discouraging feature in government for American Point Four technicians is the general insecurity of tenure of cabinet ministers. One minister for example held the same post seven different times during a three-year period. The lack of continuity and security in office often seriously interferes with progress in public affairs and with the operation of the Point Four programs.

While the constitution establishes the method government operation, strong-minded, power-hungry individuals might disregard them as did Dr. Mossadegh, who manipulated himself past one hurdle after another until he was almost in a position to exile the Shah, disband the Majlis, and establish a personal rule as dictator. To an unenlightened, highly emotional citizenry in which between eighty-five and ninety per cent of the people are illiterate, political intrigue of a powerful leader may easily gain foothold. This is especially true in Iran where the lives of the great majority of the people are very drab and any kind of excitement or change is highly appealing.

The "masses" are easily awayed and respond readily to the power of suggestion. A propagandist on the street or a new report can sway the public between hate and trust. This fact is shown in the following quotations from the Tehran Press Review as it cites various Tehran papers during the turbulent days of Mossadegh.

"The treacherous Shah, fearful of the hatred and anger of the awakened people of Iran ran away to seek the protection of his masters."

"When the people were pulling down the statues of the cruel Reza Shah and his cunning hierling son, it was like pulling down the statues of Churchill or his pupil Eisenhower."

"Mossadegh is our leader. We need neither Court nor Parlit."

These comments appeared during the few chaotic days, August 18, 1953, when it seemed that the forces of Mossadegh had achieved a victory. The following items appeared a few days later, August 25, 1953, when "Old Mossy" was safe in prison and General Zahadi was putting things in order for the return of the Shah.

All along we were certain that Mossadegh would not emerge triumphant, despite the intense activities of the vociferous group that distorted the facts; , , But this shameless

old man declared that he was neither Prime Minister of the Shah nor of the Majlis; This crafty old man was out to end the monarchy. . . . Mossadegh must be tried and punished according to the law.

Mossadegh was a man who had established a reign of terror in this country in order to carry out his diabolical plans. His aim was to become the first President of Iran and to remain in power for the rest of his days. The uprising of the people frustrated Mossadegh's scheme; but this must not prevent the government from punishing Mossadegh and his clique who must be hanged. The law must be carried out.

The Judicial Branch and its functions of government are vested in a system of courts, all of which are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice. The dual system of religious courts and civil courts previously in use was abolished in 1927 and was replaced by a uniform system of civil courts. Punishment is usually swift and sure, but may be modified or avoided, depending upon the status of the offender. Many officials such as policemen are so poorly paid as to encourage and almost force them to accept bribes in return for lenience or for overlooking an offense. Police officers often (some say usually) exact tolls from their subordinates in order to add to their own meager pay.

Under conditions of turbulence and insecurity, when subversives are secretly plotting against the government, officers and courts act swiftly to apprehend offenders. Iran is a land of violence, and violence is repaid in kind. The poor and lowly sometimes have little recourse to either justice or mercy.

For administrative purposes, the country is divided into ten ostans or provinces, each presided over by a Governor General who has rather a free reign in administering the affairs of his province. On the ostan level are a number of chiefs or directors corresponding roughly to the cabinet ministers in Tehran; such as Chief of Education, Chief of Agriculture, Chief of Postal and Telegraph Service, Chief of Roads, etc. These directors have a responsibility to both

cabinet minister and Governor General. The Ostan Chief of Education for example, working under the Minister of Education, has charge of assigning, paying, and supervising teachers. He is also responsible for building and equipping schools, but the curricula and certain of the examinations are controlled by the Minister and High Council of Education in Tehran. Each city is managed by a mayor and other appropriate officials as are American cities. Each village is regulated by a landlord who in a practical way is "Lord of the Village." Point Four attempted a program of community development which aimed among other things, to establish village councils in which the peasants (villagers) themselves could be represented. Change comes slowly, for there were the handicaps of inertia, vested interests, tradition, lack of experience, ignorance and illiteracy to overcome. These changes take time. Under the circumstances, the program had had a measure of success, but local government as we know it does not exist. Yet, through Point Four self government on the local level has begun in Iran.

Tribal Government

More than ten per cent of the people are nomads, some of the more important groups being Kurds, Lurs, Bakhtiaris, and Gashghais. The political system of these tribes is somewhat unique and deserves mention. The individual tribes have been characterized by an intense love of freedom, a fierce tribal loyalty, and an inspiring, although sometimes futile resistance to the central government in Tehran.

One of the most unhappy chapters in the rule of Reza Shah has to do with his attempt to disrupt the migratory habits of the tribes and to force them into a permanent village type of living with a consequent break up of their tribal government. It is doubtful if Reza Shah knew or sanctioned the atrocities heaped upon the heads of these freedom-loving tribesmen by army officers who frequently

became a law unto themselves in carrying out their missions.

An instance of this cruelty is recounted by Justice William O. Douglas in his delightful book, Strange Lands and Friendly People, written in 1951. One chapter he calls "The Butcher of Luristan." It tells the story of an army colonel who with his troops, approached a Lur village, killed men, women, and children in the most fiendish ways and appropriated all their goods including tens of thousands of their livestock of all kinds. With the sale of this huge loot he bought "hundreds of houses" in Tehran. These are the facts as revealed by the lone survivor who lived to tell the story to Justice Douglas. The Colonel was later promoted to the rank of General and still lives in luxury, his name a household word of hate on the lips of every Lur. With memories of these injustices, tribesmen nourish hatred and mistrust of the country's military forces.

In spite of innumerable injustices, these proud tribesmen have been able to maintain their tribal unity and, in most respects, their political independence from the central government in Tehran.

Though they have a system of rule by hereditary chiefs, the leadership does not always pass peacefully from father to son. Powerful family members sometimes jockey with one another for leadership, and the strong and cunning usually survive. Leadership may also pass from one family to another in the same way.

Capable chiefs develop a rather strong and adequate tribal government for meeting all their needs. Social values and norms are unwritten, but the rules, traditions, and laws which govern them are well understood, and enforcement of the mores is stern and vigorously carried out in their tribal courts. Marriages and other religious rites are administered by their own tribal Mullahs of Islam.

At the present time the Gashghai tribe is ruled by four brothers, all of whom have degrees from institutions of higher learning in the Western World. One

or more of these brothers will live with the tribe to manage the domestic affairs and others will live in Tehran to look after tribal interests in relation to the National Government. One may say that the tribal leadership is, in most instances, hereditary and competitive, and leaders are becoming better educated.

Influence of International Politics

Iran has had more than its share of international strife. After achieving world dominance under the leadership of such kings as Cyrus and Darius, Iran's position was successfully challenged by Alexander the Great, and even though there were short periods of strength, it probably never thereafter fully recovered from the blow. A thousand years later Iran was engulfed by the Arabs in their march to world empire. While this was in the long run a cultural conquest, more than a political one, the permanent establishment of Islam in Iran has indirectly if not directly, influenced its present political, social, and cultural life. It has set Iranian life in a certain political-religious orbit of relationships. It has established some basic attitudes toward the West and Christendom and has established beliefs and attitudes toward education and progress in the Iranian people which color their whole behavior pattern. This Arabic invasion was followed by two invasions that of Genghis Kahn, the Mongol, and that of Timur, the Turk; each of whom burned, plundered, and ravaged the land. In our own time, Iran has been invaded or exploited in turn by the Russians, the Germans, the English and the Americans.

Thus, Iran has been the battleground for many peoples. This has built into the mentality of the people a fear, suspicion, and mistrust of all foreigners, and with some justification. Even when America took the Point Four Program to Iran to give economic and technical help in health, education, agriculture, etc., it is not clear to the average American or the average Iranian, how much

of the effort was actually geared to help the people of Iran and how much of it was a politically defensive measure to forestall Communist aggression from the north. These feelings of general distrust of foreigners were fanned and popularized by Communist members and sympathizers (Tudeh Party) until several American families narrowly escaped the fanatical wrath of misguided and misinformed Iranian people, and all Americans until late in 1953 suffered the derogatory greeting of "Yankee, go home," in verbal jibes and in chalked writing on the walls in the major cities throughout the country.

Influence of the Personality of the Shah

The personality of the Shah has also considerably flavored the "political pie" in Iran. When Reza Shah seized control in 1931, he terminated the chaotic, vacillating rule of the last of the Kajar Dynasty, then idling in Paris. Reza Shah embarked immediately upon a great program of social reform and the restoration of the dignity, self respect, and the respect of others for the government and people of Iran.

Out of the devastation and chaos of a century of inept rule and moral lethargy, and out of the soul-destroying effects of foreign rule and influence in Iran, Reza Shah produced social order, modern progress and a re-awakening of national fervor. He infused national pride and unity, and gave Iran a unique sense of cohesion.²

The Moslem clergy had assumed a great deal of power and control over the people and resisted the Shah's orders to limit themselves to religious activities. This immense influence had to be curtailed and the authority of the civil government had to be established beyond theological challenge. The story is told in a northern province of the Shah personally horse-whipping a recalcitrant Mullah (clergyman) who refused to accept the dominance of the civil

²Iran, a reprint from New York Herald Tribune, September 8, 1957.

government in all civil affairs. Another story is told of Reza Shah seizing an offending cabinet minister and literally throwing him through a first-story window of the palace onto the street. These were harsh and extreme methods, but the times were difficult and hazardous and demanded stern and vigorous action.

The present Shah (Mohammed Reza Shah Pahlavi), who ascended the Imperial throne at the forced abdication of his father in 1941, lacked the vigor and decisive manner of his illustrious father. Many Iranians have made the comment to the writer that the English and the Russians demanded the change because they could "handle" the young Shah more easily than they could his father. It is claimed that on one occasion the "Old Shah," speaking of his twins (the present Shah and his sister Ashraf), said of the daughter, "I wish she had been the boy." It is felt by many that she has been and still is a powerful force behind the throne.

During July 1953, when the Shah's throne and kingdom were hanging by a thread, Ashraf defied Mossadegh's order of exile and returned to her brother's side. Newsweek of August 31, 1953, had the following to say of their conference:

The Shah's stand was sparked by his smart, tough-minded twin sister, Princess Ashraf. Late in July she arrived in Tehran from Europe. According to Court Cirles she "bawled out her brother like a fishmonger's wife." Ashraf's intention was to stick around until the Shah moved against Mossadegh or, if he didn't, to organize something herself.

The apparent weakness of the young Shah, made his enemies bold and permitted corruption of self-seeking pressure groups. This left the government and country without the guidance of a strong, devoted, and far-seeing leader which they so much needed in those unhappy times.

Since that memorable visit with his sister, the Shah has shown more political vigor and determination than in earlier years. It seems that he came

back from his short flight to Italy a different man, a man who for the first time seemed to have caught the vision of his place in the political future of Iran. Time, September 28, 1953, reported the following:

"I feel as though I were beginning my second reign," said the Shah, Mohammed Reza Pahlavi, five weeks ago when he flew back to Tehran and the Throne of Iran. "I am older and more experienced and now I know what I must do." His step is now firm, his shoulders back. He has given up sleeping pills and taken up tennis again and is working hard.

It is this "new Shah" who since August, 1953, has given a new degree of stability and security to the Iranian government, and boosted the morale and self respect of the Iranian people. They now have faith in the Shah and in their country's future.

ECONOMIC FACTORS

Introduction

Iran's economic life has in the past been geared to the leisure pulse of the village agriculturist and the horse-loving nomads who trail their flocks and herds back and forth from the lowlands in the winter to the uplands and mountain slopes during the summer. As years have stretched into centuries, they have used the same simple, crude methods to produce the "staff of life," and have followed the same unimproved strains of cattle, sheep, and goats which have provided their food, clothing, and shelter. One is sometimes inclined to interpret their apparent leisure and unconcern as laziness and indifference toward their economic inadequacies. Dr. Schacht, a German economic expert, after an official tour to study the economic conditions in Iran, made the following comment to the Iranian Press, a statement which shows his feelings regarding the work habits of the Iranians today as compared with those in his own country.

I must, however, emphasize that work and activity are the best guarantees of a nation's money. An economic plan for Iran must pay its own way without necessitating the expenditures of foreign exchange. The Iranians tend to be lazy; they must work more and work harder. This is the secret of our success in Germany which is recovering from the effects of war. . . . Work and work alone can save your country.³

One should not be too quick to apply the word "lazy." The characteristics of the Iranian people referred to by Dr. Schacht, represent a normal response to their past and present conditions. One learns the art of achievement by being free to achieve and by living in a society which offers opportunity and rewards for achievement. A peasant farmer who struggles from day to day for a mere survival, and who is exploited by a landlord and taught to accept the status quo as the Divine Will, has little freedom, stimulation or opportunity to achieve beyond survival.

After living two years in that country (1953-55), one feels that Iran now has a new and better future. Point Four has introduced new techniques and "know how" in agriculture, health, education, industry, and political administration. Improved breeds of livestock and poultry, and improved varieties of seed grain are being introduced. The economy is becoming stabilized and the great natural wealth is being used to improve production, transportation and social welfare. The Shah has set the example to the landlords, in his distribution of crown lands to individual peasant ownership. The people have a vision of better things to come. There is an upsurge of optimism and hope.

The Shah showed his leadership and his faith in his country's future when he made the following comment to the National Press Club in Washington on December 14, 1954:

³Tehran Press Review, September 14, 1954.

We are trying to telescope centuries into decades and trying to catch up with the Western industrial and technological revolution. The scene in Iran affords a striking opportunity for Iranians to stop looking furtively back but to look and plan ahead, and for the leading Western Powers to help Iran introduce wide, effective, and permanent agrarian and industrial reforms, and to raise the general standard of living. The mass of Iranians are resolved to put their house in order, but they need political stability and a helping hand.⁴

Natural Resources

Iran is not wanting for natural wealth. Even though it is a very old country, much of its natural resources still lie undeveloped. With an increasing stability and security in government, domestic and foreign capital might be encouraged to sponsor industrial development which would make use of Iran's natural wealth, give work to its own people and produce goods for home consumption and world markets.

Minerals: Iran has over 275 mines producing some thirty different products, but in most cases the methods of mining are antiquated and production is on a very small scale. Among the minerals, known to exist in quantity, are coal, iron, copper, mercury, antimony and nickel. On the Persian Gulf are found sulphur, borax and red oxide. Zinc and marble are also found in a few areas. Precious stones such as topaz, emeralds, sapphires and turquoise of good quality are found. Gypsum for the expanding building trade is found everywhere. Chromite and manganese are mined chiefly for export to the United States, Tungsten ore is found in small quantities, but since no market is available, no attempt is made to expand in production.

In order to bring this great potential mining industry into profitable production, a few basic needs should be met, The first need, it seems, would

⁴Iran Today, Iranian Information Center, New York (1957) p. 11.

be a nation-wide geological survey. Second, mining should be mechanized and modernized in methods. Third, capital for this development and expansion must be found either at home or abroad. Fourth, transportation facilities should be improved; most of the mines at present are quite inaccessible except for donkey and camel trains. Fifth, markets would have to be found for the minerals and mineral products beyond the home market.

Forests: Iran is not a forested country, but there are a few places where forests of commercial quality and quantity are found. The most important of these is the Mazarandaran area of over a million acres on the northern slopes of the Alburz range facing the Caspian Sea. Large stands of boxwood, oak, cyprus, maple, elm, beach, ash, walnut, ironwood, sycamore, pine, and honey-locust are found. On the high plateaus of the southwest are areas of conifers of considerable value. In the Zagros Mountains facing south west are large areas producing oak, ash, maple, almond, and wild pistachio. Near the Persian Gulf are sub-tropical trees such as accacia, arabica, tamerisk, and date palms. Dyes for the great rug industry come from Indigo, saffron, and gallnuts. Much of these areas are not heavily wooded, and some of the trees mentioned are not of high commercial value but are important in the production of innumerable items for home consumption. A crying need exists here also for modernization of equipment and methods, as well as for transportation facilities. The program of forest management and reforestation introduced by Point Four has made a good beginning.

Oil: According to the Greek historian Herodotus, the first oil wells known in history were found in Iran about 500 B.C.⁵ It was in the village of Adericca

⁵ Iran, Iranian Information Center. New York (1957) p. 10.

near ancient Sussa, that Darius the Great of Persia settled a colony of Eritrians (war prisoners) to operate these wells. The wells were little more than open pools where the oil had seeped to the surface; but they gave forth three products: bitumen, salt, and oil. These products were separated by a gravitational system of settling, and the oil was used for many purposes including fuel for flaming arrows, the forerunner of the modern flame thrower. All the oil wells of the Middle East which today represent the major part of the world's known reserves are either in Iran or within 150 miles of the present Iranian borders.

Iran should not only be credited with the first oil well in history, but also with the greatest gusher of all times, a well which "came in" on August 26, 1956. (A few miles from the sacred city of Qum). This gusher discharged oil at the rate of 80,000 barrels per day and was not brought under control for three months. It "came in" during the night and shot a hundred feet into the air.

At dawn it was evident that this was not an ordinary gusher. In fact it proved to be the greatest gusher--in pressure, amount of oil spewed out onto the countryside, or any other criterion--that had ever been known anywhere in the world.⁶

Oil is one of the greatest sources of wealth in Iran today. Oil production has a long and turbulent history. In 1901 D'Arcy (an Englishman) secured an oil concession in southern Iran and made his first strike in 1908. Until August, 1951, following the nationalization of oil in March of that year, the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company, worked and developed the Iranian oil fields.

After more than three years of "discussion" and tremendous economic loss to all concerned, especially to Iran which was brought to the very brink of

⁶
Ibid. p. 13.

bankruptcy, a settlement was agreed upon in October, 1954, to solve the unhappy and expensive deadlock. Since Iran did not possess the technicians necessary to manage an oil business, she still had to depend on oil-wise countries for the technical "know-how" and equipment. The agreement was, therefore, between the Iranian government and the National Iranian Oil Company on one hand, and a group of French, Dutch, British, and American oil companies on the other.

During the three years when the wells and refineries in Iran were idle, news papers in Tehran had much to say about what should be done and by whom. The following are a few comments gleaned from the Tehran Press Review at that time. Some are uncomplimentary to the Americans, but all show the economic stress and insecurity of Iran.

We cannot understand how the occupants of 10 Downing Street had convinced the foolish inmates of the White House, that Iranians would sell their independence for \$10,000,000. (Sept. 18/52)

The present unhappy difficulties therefore do not arise from the nationalization of oil, but are due to the erroneous and egoistic policies of Dr. Mossadegh. (Oct. 5/53)

Effective steps should be taken to prevent the financial collapse which is hanging over our heads. The exchange of a few cheques between Mr. Warne of Point Four and the Minister of Finance must not be overpublicized. (Oct. 22/53)

Political quarters foresee that Nixon's visit to Iran may be followed by greater American aid to this country. (Nov. 20/53)

During the comparatively short period, Point Four had done a great deal to raise the level of sanitation, agriculture, education and industry in Iran; and we hope that through American aid, we shall be in a position to exploit our rich resources. (Dec. 11/53)

Under the pretext of help to this country, the Americans want to enslave our people. . . . We haven't expelled the British to replace them with Americans. . . . Dr. Mossadegh must not ignore the American peril. We must learn to continue our existence without foreign aid. (Sept. 17/52)

According to the agreement, the oil companies should operate in an area

of approximately 100,000 square miles at the head of the Persian Gulf and meet a predetermined production schedule each year. These annual schedules were all surpassed and the 1953 figure reached the pre-nationalization level. A schedule was also set for the refinery at Abadan, which was also exceeded by 1957. The present agreement was made to run for twenty-five years, with the possible extension for three, five-year periods, with progressive reductions in acreage of the land involved. The oil companies do not own, buy, or sell the oil, but are paid a set fee above their operating costs, for every cubic meter of oil produced or refined.

Iran's oil is a natural gift of immeasurable proportion. Assuming a period of peace and security and the efficient management of this great source of wealth, the Iranian nation should have the means at hand to meet its pressing economic demands. This potential wealth should not be allowed to build a few private fortunes, but should be used to raise the level of well-being and comfort of the impoverished masses of the people.

Industry and Manufacturing

Iran's industrial development had its beginning in the early 1930's under the patronage of Reza Shah, his object being to make Iran independent of foreign manufacturers as far and as fast as possible. He gave emphasis to production of goods primarily for home consumption such as textile mills, food-processing plants and building production plants. World War II soon brought the booming industrial development to a standstill and left the country dotted with numerous unfinished industrial structures. One such structure is the half finished steel mill some twenty miles west of Tehran. The completion is now in the hands of the Krupp Group; soon Iran should have, for the first time, steel from its own mill and its own labor.

After World War II the American Foreign Aid Program picked up industrial development where the Iranian Industrial Revolution had been halted by the war and poured technical and financial aid into the country to complete and repair projects already under way and to set up new ones.

It may be surprising to some people to find that the refining of beet sugar is first among the country's industries.

Like all Moslems who are forbidden the use of alcohol, the Iranians have a great fondness for sugar, and the country's leading industry is the refining of home grown beet sugar. There are at present thirteen refineries worth \$25,000,000 and still sugar remains Iran's largest import.

Probably the second most important manufacturing industry is textiles. With a few major factories and numerous smaller ones, Iran is able to produce about half their textile needs. The other half is imported from Europe. In every city are bazaars and textile shops the shelves of which are piled high with great amounts of English and Scotch woolens and lesser amounts of Italian and French goods. Shop keepers always show Americans the English and Scotch woolens first. Iranian cloth is cheaper and generally of inferior quality to foreign cloth. Iran produces cotton in abundance. With expert foreign management cheap Iranian labor and raw materials, Iran is able to meet its own demands for cotton goods, and raw cotton is, with the exception of oil, already their chief export.

Everyone has heard of Persian Carpets, famous the world over. They constitute Iran's second most important textile export. These masterpieces of art and craftsmanship are not woven, but tied by hand, usually by very young children with nimble fingers. The number of knots per measure (the length of a cigarette is commonly used) being a major criterion of quality. By Western standards this fineness or quality is measured in knots per square inch, which

ranges roughly from sixty to two hundred. A few special ancient rugs have as many as four hundred knots per square inch. Persian Carpets are indeed Iranian productions--wool, dye, design, and labor--and constitute one of the most distinctive products of the nation. Machine-made Persian rugs are of late receiving some attention and quantity production will doubtlessly increase. These are not, however, to be compared with the beautifully distinctive hand-made originals. The master-craftsmen make their own dyes from indigo, cochineal, shells of nuts, and from pomegranates, and the wool is boiled in huge color-vats and hung on racks to dry. Of late, fast aniline dyes are being standardized and regulated by the government especially for export trade. The real beauty of a Persian rug is its exquisite art, its brilliant dyes, and incomparable craftsmanship, all of which arts and crafts date back to the fourteenth century. This gives each rug a distinctiveness or personality beyond compare. The greatest importers of Persian rugs in order of quantity purchased are, Lebanon, United States, England, Germany, and Italy. The total export amounts to over five thousand tons of rugs per year. Some of these are made in regular rug factories, but the larger part comes from the "cottage-industry" type of production, and it is estimated that in all, probably more than 100,000 persons are employed in the industry.

The silk industry in the Caspian area is small but flourishing. A variety of articles are produced such as yard goods, scarves, neckties, handkerchiefs, and stockings. Yet, in Iran, too, the real silk stocking is being replaced by imported nylons.

Large numbers of processing plants are operating to produce a wide variety of products. A few of the common items are tea, soap, glass sufficient for their needs, matches (8,000 tons per year), rice, flour, wine of the finest, tobacco (5,000 tons per year in all its forms as a government monopoly), and cavier.

A few other items are of importance such as cardboard (the factory was built by Lebanese capital), leather, bricks, and gunnysacks. Special mention should be made of Tehran's new American financed "push button" cement plant, which produces two hundred tons of cement per day, yet does not fully supply building demands.

One of the most characteristic features of Iran's industry is its production by hand labor. Iranians do wood-work and build furniture of all kinds with nothing but the simplest hand tools, and metal work with brass, copper, and silver, fashioned in the most intricate patterns and designs. With the coming of machines, the people will produce more and possibly make more money; but it will be "assembly line" goods, and the uniqueness and charm of an era of individual skill and craftsmanship will have passed away.

Transportation

Closely related to industry is transportation. The lack of adequate transportation is one of Iran's serious problems. Railways now exist from Tehran in three directions, one line of which leads to Mashed in the north east, with a spur line to the Caspian Sea. Another stretches three fourths of the way to Tabriz, with an extension from Tabriz to the Russian border. A third line runs down to Korramshahr at the head of the Persian Gulf and was built during the war to carry American munitions from the "gulf" to the Russian border to support our Russian comrades-in-arms against the German drive.

Bazaars

Whoever has been to the Middle East and has not visited the Bazaars of Cairo, Damascus, Tehran, and Tabriz, has missed at once, one of the most bewildering and yet one of the most fascinating centers of interest in that part of the world. The bazaar is not an easy thing to describe. The name means "commerce," and the bazaar is indeed the center, the economic heart-beat, of

the city in particular and of the nation in general. The Tehran bazaar is the largest in Iran, but the bazaar in Tabriz in the northwest part of the country is one of the oldest and most picturesque in the whole Middle East. It is commonly accepted and understood in Tabriz that the bazaar was there in the days of Marco Polo and served as a center of caravan commerce between the East and the West. As one wanders in the dim light through the maze of narrow dirt-packed streets all covered by a continuous series of mud and brick roofs and as one sniffs the variety of strange odors that pervade the air, one does not doubt that Marco Polo had been there. Along both sides of these miniature streets which criss cross with surprising irregularity, are arranged the little stall-like shops. One can worm his way along these streets jammed with a strange confusion of masses of bargaining customers, porters (human beasts of burden), donkeys, goats, carts, bicycles, and pick-pockets, for hours on end, never seeing the same place twice and often not being able to find the same place again. Only to see, is to believe.

The whole bazaar is arranged somewhat on the order of a department store with each kind of goods such as jewelry, brass, carpets, leather or dishes being concentrated in one general area. Americans are always an object of curiosity, and when shopping to buy something an American is sure to attract a crowd. Even though the crowd is almost always friendly, a policeman is likely to show up and disperse them, with his cudgel if necessary. Inevitably a porter will appear and almost force his services upon one for a price. It is contrary to custom in Iran for people of "standing" in the community to carry parcels or to engage in any "menial" task. This does not apply to Americans so much because they, being "a bit queer" always, can bend the social norms and evoke little more than a shrug of the shoulder from bystanders. Certain of these

porters will pose as bazaar guides and porters combined, and once employed as such, assume also the role of advisor and counselor as to what and where to buy. In a large bazaar, almost everything can be bought, from pins up, if one can just find it. The bazaar may be noisy and dirty, but it is always picturesque and interesting.

Throughout the bazaars with few exceptions, no such thing as a fixed price exists and rarely even a marked price. A sort of good-natured haggling prevails throughout, whether it be for an expensive rug or a string of donkey beads. A merchant may even appear to be disappointed, to feel hurt or injured if one fails to engage in the customary friendly pass time of bargaining. One might spend twice as much time as the article is worth, but that matters little where time is abundant and nobody seems to be in a hurry. The bazaar is not just a place to buy things, it is an economic institution, the center of commerce, the economic crossroads of the Iranian society.

Tourist Trade

One of the great economic potentials, completely overlooked in the past and still sadly neglected today, is that of tourist trade. The general suspicion, distrust, and dislike for foreigners have blinded Iranian officials to the great advantages to their country of encouraging and providing accommodations for the pleasurable and convenient travel of tourists. Even from a selfish viewpoint, Iran has been "missing the boat." Few countries have a greater share of the glamour and grandeur of the past than Iran, and few countries have a greater spectacle of the modern than that found at the great oil fields and refineries at Abadan at the head of the Persian Gulf. These are things that tourists want to see. Tourists, if properly provided for, would be attracted, and the trade would boom transportation and a host of other

services which are necessary to meet the demands of travelers.

The lush, semi-tropical southern Caspian (85 feet below sea level) with its bathing and boating, and the luxurious Hotel Ramsar, make it a vacation spot deluxe for relaxation. The other extreme in climate is the great Mt. Demavend towering like a frosted cone to more than 18,000 feet above the sea. These have a great potential for tourist attraction and could be developed to appeal to a great variety of year-round interests.

Tehran with its museums, palaces, gardens, and bazaar has quite a different group of attractions such as the jewel-studded, solid-gold and world-famous Peacock Throne, brought home from India by the victorious Shah and his armies as a trophy of war during the hey-day of Persian might. Isfahan, a short hop south from Tehran, has been called "Isfahan the Beautiful" and represents the best in art and culture during the progressive reign of Shah Abbas the Great, who had his capital there a hundred years after Columbus discovered America. The ancient palace of Ali Qapu, the Shah Moaque with its brilliant mosaics and high vaulted dome and the beautiful blue-tiled dome of Sheik Lutfallah Mosque are among the many sights which remain long in one's memory.

Near Shiraz are the ruins of Persepolis, the center of Persian greatness built by Darius as his capital city nearly twenty-five hundred years ago. It was burned by Alexander at the time of his conquest, still further demolished by the Arabs during their sweep across the Middle East, and finally finishing touches were added by subsequent earthquakes. A few massive pillars still stand as mute evidence of a great builder and a great civilization. Near Persepolis are the great tombs of Persian kings, cut in the solid rock of the mountain side. At Hamadan is the tomb of Queen Esther, and the legendary burial place of the "Three Wise Men."

There is in Tehran now a newly opened tourist center. Some day the real economic potential of tourist traffic will dawn upon the minds of the national leaders and their people. Then the religious and psychological barriers will be pushed aside, and the veil will literally be lifted from this ancient land of tribulation and mystery.

CHAPTER IV

THE IRANIAN SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND ITS RELATION TO THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE PROGRAM

It is true, as you say, my dear Astrol, that human beings have many things in common, regardless of where we find them. Nevertheless a people with a long history, somewhat isolated from the world, develop a system of living that is distinctive in many ways. He who comes from another land intent upon introducing changes into a society, should understand this fact well and must examine and study the habits of the people if he would succeed in attaining his objective. -- Anonymous

The layman who has never been in any society other than his own is often surprised and somewhat bewildered on first discovering that human beings do not act the same everywhere. Furthermore, individuals often are guilty of a very common error, namely, considering their own society superior to other societies. This is known as ethnocentrism among sociologists and anthropologists, and it can have a great importance for those individuals working in a program such as Point Four, who have come to a foreign country to assist in raising the standard of living. Its importance is this. If a given individual, either consciously or unconsciously, feels his own society is superior, he may cause grave harm to those he is attempting to serve. To avoid this he must establish a criteria of judgment with which he can objectively analyze the society and see its weaknesses and strengths in light of his own societies' strengths and weaknesses. Without this objectivity, he will fail.

Many examples might be cited to demonstrate that where the customs and the mores of a society have been properly understood by those seeking to alter it, they have been able to accomplish a great deal more than those who have not understood. One such case involves Ribbontrop and his understanding of the English prior to the Second World War. It is claimed by many that Hitler's emissary to England convinced the German dictator that in the event that France

fell England would not fight alone but would surrender. At least some credence can be given the story since Hitler did not make the proper preparations to conquer England -- in fact, because of this he was never able to cross the Channel. Thus he lost the war then and there, an event through which the whole destiny of the world was altered.

One technician with the proper understanding of a people succeeds whereas another technician with similar technical qualifications but lacking such understanding, fails. In Mississippi some years ago there was a rather high infant mortality rate. Though there were many reasons for this, one important reason was the lack of sufficient doctors. However, a considerable number of midwives served the community, but their training, cleanliness, and methods left a great deal to be desired. Many of these were Negro, and the white authorities had not had much success in getting them to adopt proper procedures. Finally a technician arrived with considerable understanding of social psychology who proceeded to gain the confidence and trust of the Negro midwives. He observed that these women liked to sing spirituals. To catch their interest on his first visits to them, he asked them to sing for him. Reluctantly they did. Complimenting them on their efforts and thus breaking down some of their reservations regarding him, he told them that he knew their great aim was to save both mothers and children when delivering babies and that if they were interested he might be able to help them achieve greater success. One item he pointed out was that the State of Mississippi wanted to recognize them by granting them a license. This was something that had never been done before. In addition to the license a medal was given to those who had been more successful in bringing live babies into the world.

As stated previously, recognition is a vital need of human beings. The

giving of this inexpensive medal to these women immediately served as a stimulation for better efforts. He also introduced a nice uniform for these women which served to stimulate them further.

From here on his success with these women was phenomenal. He developed an esprit de corps among them that was excellent. Adopting such devices as inserting new words into the spirituals which gave meaning to better health practices, continuing the group singing and keeping picture charts on the steady drop in infant mortality, he developed a wonderful organization of Negro midwives.

Many additional examples might be given to demonstrate this point, but the above will suffice. One, of course, does not pretend that merely a proper understanding of a society is sufficient to assure success for a technician or an administrator, but he does contend that it is a necessary first step.

The following, therefore, are a few of the major areas where understanding has proved useful in attempting to achieve the objectives of the Point Four program in Iran.

Government. The technician arriving from the United States, where a federal system of government operates in which political divisions (cities, states, and countries) have rather jealously guarded powers and privileges, will note a difference in Iran. There centralization is the vogue. For example, we will present the Ostan education system. Theoretically in each Ostan there is one Ostan Chief of Education who supervises the work in lesser divisions in his area. Actually, however, many of these lesser officials never bother to refer to the Ostan Chief with regards to major decisions but write directly to Tehran. Many of these individuals refuse to attend an Ostan Education Conference without first receiving permission from Tehran.

This emphasis upon centralization has confronted the Provincial Team of Point Four with two problems. In the first place, local citizens have a tendency to refer everything to Tehran for solution. Local initiative is lacking. In the second place, work and progress in the execution of projects have often been held up because of the length of time required to secure the necessary stipulations of the central offices in Tehran.

Another characteristic of government that has proved to be most acute is its instability. As Director Warne has pointed out, this instability is evident both in powerful groups, leadership of which fluctuates, as well as in the interplay of rival forces within these groups.

Steady progress toward defined goals in the field of technical improvement, the raising of living levels, and the improvement of administrative standards in the government institutions with and through which these efforts must be directed is difficult to maintain in Iran because of instability in the government. Yet one must conclude that the instability, in addition to being the cause of the problem, is also the result of an absence of a solution so far to that problem. . . .

Violent fluctuations between powerful groups that cause the complete change of the government do not in any sense give the full measure of the disruption caused by lack of stability. One might say that in four years there have occurred three of these overturns: the rises in turn of Rasmara, Dr. Mossadegh and General Zahedi. The constant interplay of rival forces within these groups provides an equally disruptive influence. The number of changes in the direction of a single ministry has far outnumbered the major fluctuations of power. The absence of any body of responsible, continuing personnel in the ministries has meant that there has been only the weakest structure on which to bridge these recurring changes with the result that programs have died almost as they were born in so many instances that it can be stated that this is the norm in Iran.¹

During his stay of just over one year in the Caspian region, one Point Four Regional Director worked with four different Governor-Generals. During the

¹"86th Weekly Report of OM/Iran Director to Washington," May 21, 1954, p. 1.

eight months he was stationed in the Resht region he worked with three Governor-Generals. The same frequency of change in leadership also exists in other Ostan offices. No sooner does the respective official become acquainted to some degree with an area and its problems as well as something of its aims, projects, and with the methods of Point Four than he is transferred.

An example will illustrate the attitude of many officials. One of the Ostan Chiefs pointed out that one reason he was not interested in planning a long term program with Point Four representatives was that he was confident that he would only be in the region a short period of time and that it was important for him to make a reputation rapidly. Therefore, he wanted to carry out projects that could be done in a short time such as building a school. Training projects, though they might be excellent for changing the basic educational institutions over a long period of time did not hold great interest for him.

As Director Warne further indicates, one of the major contributions one can make is to exercise a stabilizing influence on the government. But to attain stabilization in government will require many years of effort. Certainly it would be highly desirable if major stabilizing changes could occur within the central government of the country.

The operating procedures of many governmental agencies also presented a challenge to the Point Four program. Iranians place great emphasis upon prestige. Of course, various officials of the government are ranked according to their respective position, but in addition great deference is given by lower officials to higher ones. This emphasis tends on occasions to stifle initiative and independent thinking. The team concept that has developed in the United States and elsewhere in which each individual knows his position and function,

feels a great amount of freedom to express his views and ideas, and works harmoniously with other members of the organization, is not well developed in Iran. If an Ostan Chief expresses an opinion, there is a tendency for members of his staff to accept it even though they may have legitimate objections to it. Top administrators tend to keep their hands in all phases of the work (feeling this gives them prestige) rather than to delegate authority and responsibility. Of course, there are exceptions to this tendency in which good team work is carried out, but good team work is not the norm.

Perhaps the outstanding need in leadership Point Four technicians have seen and experienced in Iran, is for an over-all concept to be developed on the part of governmental officials that they are servants of the people. In this respect American technicians can render a great service by demonstrating by example as well as precept the value of such a concept. It can be reported that Americans have done this and that Iranians as well as Americans have given many long hours of overtime in their positions without overtime financial remuneration of any kind. This has deeply impressed Iranian citizens, many of whom have commented on such efforts. Only as governmental officials generally demonstrate a similar effort will they have the respect and trust of the people. Without this the execution of major projects for raising the standard of living is impossible.

Naturally, were Iran to have a two-party system of government, the objective of attaining an attitude of responsibility to the people would be more nearly realized. Under the present system of appointing individuals to represent an area in the Majlis, people are often assigned positions who are not residents of the district or region and, therefore, do not take a proper interest in it.

Responsibility of the officials to the people would, of course, also help in the solution of other problems. Consider the present Community Development Program. In many villages no financial support has been made to the village council. It is well known that for one reason or another income taxes are not well collected. It is for these reasons that Point Four has received protests on many occasions from Iranian citizens for working so closely with Iranian Ministries. Iranians have felt (rightly or wrongly) that new organizations should be built which are characterized by efficiency, team work, honesty and trust, and that such an organization cannot be built in cooperation with Iranian Ministries. This is a criticism, of course, of many governments the world over, but it is encountered frequently in Iran.

Finally, one further characteristic of government might be mentioned which has produced problems. In their anxiety to get programs under way to benefit the people, government officials often begin projects for which sufficient funds are not available and which, therefore, go years without being completed. On a recent visit of Him, the Shah, to Resht he emphasized that he was much more inclined to participate in exercises for the completion of a building or project than he was in ground-breaking ceremonies because he had seen so many buildings started that were not properly completed or not completed on time.

Point Four noted certain characteristics of the government that presented problems in trying to get projects started and completed. It goes without saying that many excellent examples of cooperation could be cited to illustrate the desire and willingness of many government officials to assist in the great objective of raising the standard of living. The achievement of Iran in the past in many fields demonstrates the great potentialities of the nation. One

is equally aware of the great desire and strong efforts of many individuals to bring about governmental changes that will make it more serviceable to the people.

Social Structure. To the sociologist and anthropologist it is important to know how a society is organized. What are its main social classes? What functions do various groups in the society perform? What stresses and strains does one find there? Knowing these and related aspects and characteristics is of great value in program planning and execution.

Iran is primarily an agricultural nation. It is not definitely known what percentage of the population live in cities above 10,000 population, but it is estimated that Iran has some 40,000 villages in which approximately eighty per cent of the population live. As is well known, the majority of the land is owned by a small group of landowners. There are, of course, several areas throughout the country in which there are a great number of small owners, but this is not general.

It makes no difference whether it be Iran, the southern part of the United States, areas in South America, or elsewhere, where one finds the large landholding system in operation in a primarily rural, agricultural economy, there are many features which are the same. At the top of the social structure one finds a small group of individuals who have great power, who are often educated in the best schools and who control many areas of the government. At the bottom are the majority of citizens whose standard of living is not acceptable. In Iran most of these individuals cannot read or write, most of them do not earn enough to sustain proper health. They usually pay high rates of interest when it is necessary for them to borrow money, and they find few opportunities to advance up the social ladder.

This problem of land ownership is becoming increasingly difficult in Iran. When it was announced, for example, that the Shah had embarked upon a program of returning many of his villages to the peasants and small land owners, large numbers of these individuals came in groups to the Governor-General in the Caspian area to plead that they be allowed to participate.

It is needless to point out that there are forces at work stirring the peasants to a realization of their present circumstances and urging them to take violent action. Paul V. Maris, agricultural consultant of the Ford Foundation in Tehran, makes the following report concerning the distribution of some lands in the Caspian region.

. . . This morning 203 title deeds were presented on what someone called Bandarshah's greatest day. . . .

But the appearance of the 203 peasants who received their land titles this morning from the hand of His Imperial Majesty, the Shah, suggested that nothing has happened for a long time to improve materially their social and economic lot. They are--and evidently have been--near the bottom of the scale for many generations. . . .

This morning's ceremony had a prologue. Two days ago I was sitting with Asadollah Alam in his room at the hotel in Babolsar when a telegram was delivered to him. When he had finished reading the message, he turned to me and said:

"Now I can relax. Things have been going badly. Very badly. I have told no one. I did not tell His Majesty this morning when I conferred with him in Babol, but now everything will be all right."

Three days before, he continued, he had found the peasants who were to receive titles in open revolt against the distribution program. A hand bill (said to have been printed on a Russian press) had been widely circulated. In effect it had told the villagers, "Don't buy the land. It's yours, take it!"

Alam met the situation boldly. He told the peasants that the Shah's program was for their benefit and that if they did not care to receive the land they need not do so. And he left them to think it over.

Within 24 hours better judgment prevailed. The agitators' advice was rejected. The distributor of the hand bills was identified, arrested and taken to Tehran. A situation which would have been embarrassing in the extreme, here on the Russian border, was averted.²

This has been a time for decision for the government and large land holders. Certainly the efforts described above will be continued, and unless reforms are made the stirrings now beginning among the people will increase. And no one knows what might eventuate.

Most assuredly the program being undertaken by the Iranian government, the Point Four, the Near East and Ford Foundations in connection with the land distribution program is most commendable. It is hoped that it will be placed in effect in the Caspian area where the Shah has a large number of villages which are scheduled to be returned to the peasants. Without guidance, without training in better methods of farming, without the possibility of obtaining credit at low interest rates, many of the peasants cannot succeed in farming their own land.

Village Authority. Other aspects of village structure in Iran are undergoing important changes. For generations the "old men" and the Mullahs have exercised the leading authority in a typical village. Today, with programs for increasing literacy and giving educational opportunities to more and more people, this authority is being inevitably challenged. One is struck in Iran by the large numbers of young people in the cities who gather on the streets with little to do. If more and more mechanization occurs on the farms--thus releasing many young people for work elsewhere--the problem in the cities will be further accentuated unless accompanied by industrialization.

² Paul V. Marris, "Distribution of Iran's Crown Lands Gaining Public Favor Despite Red Tricks," Middle East Report, Vol. VI, No. 19, p. 4.

In the villages attempts to spread Communism have so far not met with anything like the success that they have in the cities. But the beginnings are there. Some school teachers, before the advent of the present government, openly espoused Communism and at present are still perhaps the most influential group in the villages who would back it were the government not exercising such strong measures against it. A Point Four official, visiting for the first time, a vocational agricultural school in the Caspian area, was greeted by a Communist chorus and shouts of hate against Point Four. It was known that the school principal encouraged such things to occur.

The Mullahs and the religion they espouse are also being confronted with increasing challenges in other ways in the villages. Young men learning to read are seeking more knowledge. They are wanting answers to questions that so far they have been unable to find in the villages. The Mullahs as the traditional teachers in the village will have to make adjustments to this changing situation if their influence is to remain.

Position of Women. Najmeh Najafi, a Persian scholar said:

"In an American history class, I memorized these words from the American Declaration of Independence: 'We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.'

"These words are more true in Persia than they are in America if the word men really means men. . . .

"There is one half of humanity in my country, however, that has no right to vote, no right to hold office, that until eighteen years ago was considered unworthy even to associate with men outside the home."³

The position of women in Iran and the structure of the family generally

³ Najmeh Najafi (as told to Helen Hinckley), Persia is My Heart, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953, p. 81.

has given support to the authoritarian system which emphasizes equal rights. The importance of the individual as an ideal is not one which can be easily achieved. If one has been reared in a home where one member of the household, the father, has a vastly superior prestige⁴ to another member, the mother, it is easy to extend such a concept to other areas. In America a great amount of volunteer effort is given by members of both sexes in carrying out projects of civic improvement. Such volunteer effort is given in some instances by men in Iran but only rarely by women because they do not feel free to participate with men in public gatherings called to discuss such projects.

Of course, changes are occurring in this regard as well. Reza Shah attempted to abolish the veil worn by women throughout most Moslem countries. Though he was only partially successful in this endeavor even among the upper economic classes, many women are beginning to discard it. Some women are now found working in factories and shops. Also, since more children are going to school -- both boys and girls -- a change in the knowledge and interests of the mother in the home is taking place.

It was most interesting to organize the first Parents and Teachers organization in the Caspian region. Mothers displayed keen interest in the organization and asked intelligent and important questions about the welfare of their children in the school. Such organizations might well serve to increase the influence of women generally.

In the city of Resht a woman has been a leader in organizing and executing projects of civic improvement. She has encountered opposition, but

⁴It is recognized, of course, that despite an inferior public prestige that women -- depending upon their ability and cleverness -- can exercise great influence in the home and in fact have a respect greater actually than the husband.

the fact that she is the wife of one of the most prominent men in the city has made it possible for her to proceed.

But it is undoubtedly in the schools where the greatest influence for change in the position of women might occur. If the literacy movement spreads and if more and more schools are built, it will mean that more and more women will acquire education and initiative that will enable them to acquire additional rights and privileges.

Structural Strains. The fact that important changes are occurring in Iran means that readjustments will be necessary if important stresses in the social structure are to be avoided. Only some of the more important changes will be mentioned here.

The Iranian Government, Point Four, and private agencies are all engaged in efforts to bring more mechanization to the farms of Iran. As this process takes its normal course of development, it will mean that fewer people will be needed to produce the same or more agricultural products. In the United States, for example, some ninety per cent of the population were engaged in agriculture in 1790, but at present this percentage is approximately fifteen per cent. Thus, in Iran more and more people will be released from the farms for work elsewhere.

An additional factor that might well accentuate the problem is that if the Preventive Health Program now being undertaken by the Iranian Government and Point Four is even moderately successful, it will mean the saving of many lives that would otherwise be lost. In other predominantly rural areas of the world, the population has increased rapidly when the death rate was lowered. In India, for example, between 1930 and 1940 there was approximately a 50,000,000 increase in population, not because of any important rise in the birth rate,

but because of a lowering of the death rate.

These two factors then, the mechanization of agriculture and the lowering of the death rate through the success of the Health Program, will mean an increase in population and need for an increase in work opportunity. In what ways might this work opportunity be attained? Iranian leaders who have discussed the problem indicate that there is much land in Iran still uncultivated that is an important source of livelihood for any increase of population. Certainly industrialization is another solution. Industrialization, however, will be deterred until stability of the government is attained since neither Iranians nor individuals from other countries will be willing to invest their capital unless they can be assured of a reasonable chance to earn money. Increased efficiency of production is also important.

Another stress that is at present developing, concerns the problem of education. The system of education that has operated in Iran for many years places emphasis upon memorization and not upon learning by understanding and doing. A relatively small proportion of the population receive formal educational training. With the expected increase in population and fewer individuals needed on farms, important readjustments will have to occur in the educational system. It is to the credit of the Iranian Government and the Point Four that intense efforts are now being made to produce such readjustments. Careful thought will have to be given to the matter of what training is needed in the social system. For example, how many skilled industrial workers will be needed in Iran in ten years from now? How many professional people should be trained? These are the types of questions that need careful consideration.

A further stress or strain in the society has been alluded to earlier. It involves the religion. If a new system of education develops, if more and more

people are made literate, new understanding and new answers to old questions will be given to many individuals. This will demand vigorous leadership in the churches. Certainly the great moral principles of the Moslem religion can render an invaluable service to the people. Such principles as faith, honesty, regard for one's fellow men, and cooperation are tremendously important in building a society with a high standard of living. The problem that Mohammedanism faces is that if it is to play a viatally needed role in inculcating an appreciation of and respect for such principles as those mentioned above, it must retain the confidence of the population who will receive formal educational training in the future.

The problem of the stability and responsibility of the government to the people has already been mentioned. Its importance can hardly be overestimated. Another aspect of government structure is equally significant. It concerns a definition of the relationship of the Crown to the government and the people. The question that will eventually have to be answered is what role the Crown will play. Shall it be one in which it makes crucial decisions of policy and administration or shall it play a role similar to the one it plays in England. In the latter role it can render a great stabilizing influence for the country; the former involves great problems and risks.

Finally, there is need for scientific research in Iran. No one could question this if Iran is to achieve a higher standard of living. Many problems which might be solved by research are crying for solutions, an example of which is the following. The Guilan area is rich in agricultural resources. It has a rainfall estimated at fifty to sixty inches per year. Its forests consist of hard woods of the highest quality. Tea, rice, jute, citrus, fruits, vegetables and tobacco are some of its principal products. Rice production is

much lower than in such countries as Japan. Good quality oranges are grown in Shehsavar, but there is need for finding how to control the pests that infest the trees, what varieties would do best, how to market the product, etc. Tea is produced on a wide scale in Guilan, but the quality is much inferior to that imported into the country. United Nations experts, now working on the problem, indicate that there can be as high as a quality of tea produced there as anywhere. The sooner, therefore, that responsible and efficient research agencies are established, the sooner the needed answers to problems whose solution is necessary for a higher standard of living can be obtained.

Some General Aspects of Iranian Character. One of the important and pleasing things that the visitor to Iran soon learns is the fine courtesy extended to him by the people in general. This trait, of course, is closely tied in with the question of prestige. Different classes of the population have different customs in this regard. For example, as plans were drawn to open a demonstration school, the American technician intended to invite all classes of the population to the exercises. The Iranian technician pointed out that it would not do to have them all mixed together in an affair of this kind.

It is important for the foreigner to learn the accepted and expected forms of courtesy if he wishes to have the respect and good will of the influential members of the society. It may seem insignificant to an American, for example, whether or not he should wear a coat for a given occasion, but Iranian custom may demand it. Recently when the Shah visited Besht, a picture of one of the official's was taken showing him walking behind His Majesty in company with several other people but with his hands folded behind him. Iranians considered this a grave error on the part of the official to have his hands folded thus. In this situation one should stand straight. When an Iranian

wishes to show special courtesy to a guest, he accompanies him to the gate. This is not a typical American custom, but one it is well for any technician or administrator to know since failure to abide by it may be interpreted as an unfriendly act.

The student of Iranian customs will also observe that the tendency is for Iranians of the ruling group to be very clever and competent as individuals. They are not, on the other hand, used to working according to the "team concept," as developed in the United States. In meetings, for example, several individuals may wish to speak at the same time. There may be a raising of voices, often unconsciously. This does not mean that anyone wishes to be impolite; it is simply a long-standing habit and the customary way of doing things. One of the contributions that many Point Four technicians have made is the demonstration of the idea of working as a team in which each individual has his position and work to do but each also considers the work of the other as well as his own as part of the whole, the interests of the organization being of paramount importance.

The development of cooperatives in Iran by the Iranian Government and Point Four will certainly also assist in developing the concept of cooperation efforts. This has the potentiality of being one of the most important movements that Point Four has sponsored.

One attitude that was a challenge to the Point Four teams in the Caspian and Resht regions was that of the expectation by the public that major changes in the standard of living would be made immediately. The public tended to think in terms of economic aid projects and were reluctant to consider technical aid programs that take years to reach the objective.

One final general characteristic concept of Iranian people remains to be

mentioned. It is tied in with religion. It is the concept of Iranian people that God has an intimate hand in the direction of human affairs and that what occurs has been desired by Him. If a child dies, for example, it is His will, even though it can be easily demonstrated that it was also because of a lack of proper sanitation or feeding. Of course, the educated classes do not generally share this view, but the illiterate people often do. Often our health workers found this attitude a difficult one to deal with in trying to generate enthusiasm for sanitation measures.

Needless to say, this same attitude has also tended to make people accept the status quo. But as more and more people become educated this attitude "as Allah will" is bound to undergo a change.

The successful technician or administrator is, therefore, a constant student of the customs of the country since the additional knowledge and understanding he thus obtains will prove invaluable to him in accomplishing the aims of the program. It remains to be said, however, that there are certain general attitudes which if adopted will prove useful in most if not all instances in assuring greater success. One is that the worker have a positive attitude toward his work. Point Four with its objective of helping the people to help themselves is a great organization. The technician who understands this and who also understands that it is normal to have difficulties in achieving such an objective will not become discouraged when these difficulties arise, but will use his intelligence, initiative and wisdom to overcome them. An attitude of faith and hope is, therefore, of paramount importance.

Similarly, it is helpful if a worker has a genuine liking for people and considers them as his friends and brothers. Such an individual spontaneously and without having to be told will do many things on his own initiative to

advance the work. His attitude will break down many barriers of language and custom that might otherwise prove to be a stumbling block. People will work for him and will be open to his suggestions in many, many ways.

Of equal importance for the worker is conviction of the importance of the organization of Point Four. If he has come to Iran to advance its aims, he will find hardly enough time to do the things he wishes to do. If he has come primarily for other personal reasons, he is likely to lack initiative and to find the time dragging.

A positive faith, a genuine interest in people, a conviction of the rightness of the program, genuine honesty and intelligence -- these are the attitudes and characteristics that are the mark of the successful technician and administrator wherever one goes.

CHAPTER V

THE TRADITIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION WE FOUND IN IRAN

The Broad Overview

A first look at the Iranian educational system as presented on paper would give a person the impression that the program was quite adequate. The system includes an elementary program, grades 1 - 6; a first cycle secondary program, grades 7 - 9; resembling the United States junior high school program; and a second cycle high school program, grades 10 - 12, which appears similar to the United States senior high program.

In addition, there are in operation a number of different types of private schools. These include some excellent mission schools, technical and vocational schools, kindergartens, the highly venerated Alborz College and many others.

One also finds the list of higher education institutions to be quite extensive. There is the University of Tehran with a subsidizing four-year college at Tabriz. There is a medical college at Shiraz and the Agricultural College at Karaj. There are also several normal schools under the Ministry of Education listed for teacher training.

On examination of the system, however, one actually finds that the program of education which has been extant for several decades leaves much to be desired, both quantitatively and qualitatively. This is true both from the standpoint of its impact on society and on the individual -- the product.

One going to Iran to work in the educational field is compelled to seek the causes for the inadequate results in education, both in group and individual attainment.

Apparently no one specifically is to be criticized or blamed for the undesirable condition of the educational programs. There are several contributing causes, including the basic fact that quite some time ago the present system

was borrowed from France. Whether or not the program met the needs of Iran at that time, the one fact remains that it has long since ceased to meet the needs; for while social changes in Iran have been apparent, nothing has been done to bring the educational program up to date to meet or parallel these changes. In consequence, one finds the strange situation in Iran wherein life with its socio-economic needs is one thing, while the educational program is another. There is no apparent relationship between these two social factors, and nothing was done by Iranian officialdom, prior to Point Four, to articulate or coordinate the social needs of Iran (social used in a broad sense) with the educational system.

Exactly what is the system? How has it operated? What has been the basic philosophy controlling it? And what results have been obtained?

Philosophy and Objectives of the Educational System

An attempt to answer these questions leads directly to a discussion of the philosophy and objectives of the Iranian educational system.

It is apparent that the basic weakness of the Iranian educational system is the educational philosophy which has colored all aspects of the program. It is an old philosophy which is out of step with a new social order. One must concede that the school system as such has succeeded rather well in accomplishing the objectives and aims of its organizers some seven decades ago. That aim was to produce a selected intellectual elite who would be able to control the thought and actions of the peasantry. The manipulations of these common citizens has been accomplished so well by authoritarian processes that they bow to dictation without spirit or resentment.¹ They follow the poetic dictum, their's

¹Overseas Consultants Incorporated, "Report On Seven Year Development Plan for the Plan Organization of the Imperial Government of Iran," Vol. II, New York, 1949.

is not reason why. Several factors have contributed to this philosophy of developing the selected distinguished elite to direct the masses. The feudal system of agriculture gave support to the idea that the wise and educated must not soil their hands (or souls) by manual labor of any sort. To work with one's hands was a sign of low social-economic-educational status and denoted class inferiority.

The Iranian tradition of venerating ancients also looms large in the educational philosophy of the leaders. The masses have become worshipers of the past rather than workers, organizers, and planners for their present and future needs and welfare. The grandeur of past architecture such as at Persepolis, the shrines of Ghom and Meshed and the Mosques of Isfahan -- all these are recited and, of course, justify considerable pride. The great poets are a national tradition and are highly revered. The magnificent Persian art of past ages is treasured in the great museums of the world, as it no doubt should be.

The major point in all of this worship of past grandeur -- "the greatness that was Persian" is the fact that the educational system has induced a great amount of veneration with little, if any, emulation. The system has produced few, if any, great modern poets, statesmen, architects, or men of letters. Free creativity has been stifled in the schools while copying and unimaginative reproduction in all things has been dictatorially fostered.

In the first place, the French system of education implanted in Iran many years ago was highly authoritarian in fact and nature. It was centralized in the Ministry of Education and always espoused the idea that there were those few educated (which made them wise) leaders, who being full of wisdom, should reinforce each other in order to guide the affairs of the masses. This elite group determined what was needed in the educational process to produce an edu-

cated person. The basic curriculum consisted of theoretical courses emphasizing encyclopedic knowledge which was selected to be memorized in each field. By this, the intellectual elite has continued to determine what should be taught in the schools. The assumption has been followed that obviously only the wise would know best what education was necessary for the uneducated youth as to type and amount.

The curriculum, based upon the limited experience of the elite, is indeed unfortunate insofar as national progress is concerned. The assumed core of indispensable knowledge which all citizens should possess "has always been slanted toward the theoretical."² This course content, with the lecture method of teaching and drill on theoretical materials has been superimposed upon all local schools. There has been no allowance for originality or changes to meet local needs or requirements. One can anticipate the results of such a system.

The school graduate is relatively helpless to cope with the realities of life. He is perhaps less equipped to grapple with grass roots problems of earning a living because he has been educated away from the dignity of manual labor. He has obtained a veneer of education and culture, much of which would be desirable if accompanied by other utilitarian types of education. He can recite the works of the ancient poets, but he cannot write poetry. He can recite theorems and formulas from the book and work the drill problems by heart, but he knows not why he follows the mathematical steps which he can do with mechanical precision. He cannot set up real problems in actual life situations, and he is lost if one asks him to apply his knowledge to a matter in daily life requiring mathematical manipulation. He can compete with good European or American students in working difficult textbook problems, but to apply his learning is a different matter.

²Ibid.

Dr. Clarke once asked a student working a problem on the board why he followed certain steps in a given sequence. His reply was that that was the teacher's instructions, which he had memorized.

This type of learning has not enhanced national development in any field in Iran. Those in high places distrust the efficiency of the system. "They doubt the ability of locals (trained in the school system) to interpret, modify, or administer their ideal plans."³ They place little reliance on data gathered by their subordinates or upon the ability and training of local officers.

As a result of this skepticism, those appointed to major positions set up highly detailed regulations, impose even stricter directives, tighten letter-of-the-law regulations, and establish rigid, uniform, theoretical plans.⁴ This system becomes their ideal, and failure is the inevitable ultimate result. Only a few of those better off economically can afford even the small costs of textbooks and fees imposed upon students. These economic barriers along with the imposed social barriers and inflexible educational requirements eliminate all but a few of those who want to go to school. Consequently, over four-fifths (nearly ninety per cent) of the population are illiterate.

It is further disheartening to realize that the few who do attend school and believe they are gaining an education, conclude their training with a "false theoretical perfectionism, and with an inclination to unrealistic artificial paper learning"⁵ only.

The Seven Year Study pointed out that "Iran needs a new educational philosophy in keeping with the needs and opportunities of the times, one which will

³ Ibid., p. 5.

⁴ Ibid., p. 5.

⁵ Ibid.

aid in producing trained responsible leadership; a school system that will develop free and original research; the growth of skilled, informed, self-reliant citizens."⁶

Description of the Education System

During the period between the two great World Wars, Reza Shah seemed determined to bring a new social order to Iran. Along with a multitude of other reforms and new projects, he was diligent in the construction of many new school buildings to help bring progress to his backward land. He seemed to sense the urgent need for the masses to be lifted up through education.

By Iranian standards some of these buildings were of fine construction. New buildings, however, did not greatly improve instruction. A wave of the royal sceptre does not suddenly produce a well-trained corps of teachers. However, there was an awakening among many followers of Reza Shah of the need for the extension of education beyond that which served the needs of the elite. The structure of the system it was hoped would accomplish this "noble purpose." And its workings are worthy of a second look.

Consideration of the educational structure involves a careful look at the administrative machinery, the school organization, and a wide array of the elements of the teaching process: curriculum, methodology, textbooks, and teaching materials, teachers, supervisory provisions, school laws, finances, building construction, and other aspects of the educational system.

The administration of the Iranian educational system is a highly centralized, bureaucratic, line-and-staff pattern under the direction of the National Ministry of Education. At the head is a Minister of Education, who is a member of the Council of Ministers. His tenure of office is influenced by the stability of the incumbent government. Turnover in the Ministry has been rapid. For example,

⁶ Ibid.

three ministers held this post during 1953-1955, and office tenure in preceding years was often shorter.

The Ministry is a complex organization, including four secretariats and a comparable number of bureaus, each with numerous subdivisions. The number of personnel involved in the National Ministry constitutes a tremendous overload and waste of manpower. Absenteeism and inefficiency have added to the burden through continuous enlargement of the Ministry of Education staff.

Below the national Ministry of Education are the ostans and municipal offices of education. Comparable to our states, the ostans with subdivisions of counties or sharestans with their respective education offices follow the edicts issued by the Ministry in Tehran.

As pointed out by the Seven Year Study,

The most important characteristic of the administration of education is that the central Ministry controls virtually every function--finance, construction, supervision, the preparation and appointment of teachers, the examination of students, the curricula, the text-books, methods used in teaching, even the minutes of such things as library practices--with an absolute authority.⁷

This evaluation further states,

The existing administrative organization is technically inefficient, standardized, and stereotyped, discourages initiative and leadership, and deprives the local people, both lay and professional, of the opportunity of participation in the formal education of their children. . .⁸

The overstandardization of the system is reflected in the one uniform school curriculum for the entire nation. In some instances, even the hours of the day in which a given subject is taught are prescribed.

The representative education official, from a Director General in the Ministry of Education down to the teacher in a two-room village elementary school,

⁷Ibid., p. 11.

⁸Ibid., p. 12.

can count on promotion and continued tenure of office with far greater certainty if he never diverges in the slightest degree from his instructions from above.

A program of supervision, in which the supervisor holds the position of legal inspector, is maintained to determine whether or not the local educational system has satisfactorily complied with the laws and regulations. A supervisor's visit to a school is an occasion to be endured in fear and silence, the staff hoping all the while that nothing serious is found that would demand a derogatory report. No help is given to the teachers or administrator by the supervisor. His job is to observe and report. He is to make sure that everything follows the schedule and that no deviations exist with regard to any procedure.

Under such conditions,

It is a rare official who is willing to risk his professional position by ignoring or modifying the official order. Yet a few do exist. One case is that of an outstanding official in an unnamed city who directed that the school libraries be opened to the children and that they be permitted to withdraw and read the books. He interpreted his educational duty as a higher order than the administrative direction which made him virtually a custodian of the books as national property. In all parts of the country, with the exception of a few cities of great conservatism and tradition, officials are quietly ignoring the order to stop co-education and are permitting classes with boys and girls in the early grades on the grounds that it is a financial necessity if schools are to be supplied. They point out that, after all, the children play together at home and in the streets.⁹

Kindergartens are a rarity and almost exclusively private ventures. There is no provision in higher institutions for training kindergarten teachers.

The elementary school, while basically a six-grade institution, with students entering usually at age seven, has some modifications depending on location. In the urban areas, as well as in some rural areas, one usually finds the six grade elementary school. Most village schools have only four grades. The

⁹Ibid., p. 13.

buildings are usually two-room structures with the first and second grades in one room and the third and fourth in another. Regardless of who owns the property (the Ministry of Education, the local municipality, a private organization or individual, or charitable foundation), the curriculum is rigidly prescribed by the Ministry of Education, and virtually all operating conditions are equally prescribed and mechanically performed.

The majority of the buildings are rented, and in these the hygienic and educational conditions are generally undesirable. Even newly-constructed schools are usually poorly cleaned as judged by American school standards. Wherever there are enough students to fill the schools, classes of forty are usual and ones of fifty and even higher are not uncommon.

The tone of the schools is almost invariably rigid, authoritarian, and severe. Almost the only exceptions to this are private schools which are dominated by the personality of some gifted individual. The teachers are obviously underpaid and, as a result, frequently indifferent. Simple reading, writing, arithmetic, and certain courses designed for moral teachings (a part given in Farsi language and a part given in the original Arabic language which the children and usually the teacher do not understand) constitute the core of the elementary school studies.

The textbooks are inappropriate, badly printed, usually tattered and dirty, and economically unavailable to the majority of the children. Even the best elementary schools can improve these general conditions only with regard to more superficial aspects of education. They can have new buildings, clean schools, better-paid teachers (by incentive pay from private sources which adds to the official scale), and a somewhat less formal atmosphere. But basically all elementary schools of Iran are forced to comply with regulations, which, if applied to the finest modern school, would make it largely ineffective.¹⁰

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 15.

The preparation of elementary teachers is poor, leaving much to be desired. Provision for teacher training is made through a system of so-called normal schools which in actual practice are an extension of the 10th and 11th grade secondary school program. Little is offered of practical value. In most instances the instructors in these institutions are secondary teachers brought in for an hour or two--they themselves having no background or training as far as elementary teaching is concerned. In actual practice many elementary teachers were not afforded even this kind of help. A majority of the teachers have completed only the elementary school program.

With the exception of the University, co-education is officially prohibited in the schools. While there are some isolated deviations from this rule in certain rural areas in the elementary program, the secondary schools are universally segregated. This segregation is partly an inheritance from the French system and in great measure a result of the insistence of the religious leaders.

The program of the secondary schools is organized in two cycles, the first cycle in both boys' and girls' schools being considered general and cultural in character. The second cycle is divided into two years of general work, and the final year is designed for college preparation. Only a few schools offer the full six-year program. Only those students going on to college enter the sixth year of high school (12th grade).

With a slight variation in the girls' program, the curriculum for secondary schools requires the student to study in at least seventeen different subject areas each week. The curriculum is a series of academic subjects, listed and taught separately (segmentally) each day. They are required by Ministry regulations to be taught a given number of hours each week.

Following is the required curriculum for all fifth class students (11th grade)

during the time of our work in Iran, 1951-55.

Persian Language	4 hours per week
Arabic Language	2 hours per week
Physics	3 hours per week
Chemistry	2 hours per week
Natural Science	2 hours per week
History	2 hours per week
Geography	1 hour per week
Algebra	2 hours per week
Trigonometry	1 hour per week
Geometry	2 hours per week
Cosmography	2 hours per week
Drawing (Geom.)	1 hour per week
Foreign Language	4 hours per week
Religion	1 hour per week
Gymnasium	2 hours per week
Art (Painting)	1 hour per week
Astronomy	2 hours per week
	<u>34 hours per week*</u>

*Girls' schools add 4 more periods per week in order to provide Home Economics.

The content and sequence, as well as the number of hours to be taught per week are rigidly supervised by the Ministry. The student is subjected to a series of lectures by the teacher and is expected to recite them back in "parrot-like" fashion without the slightest deviation. After conversing with many students, the observer is aware that there is a distinct difference between mere memorization and learning with its accompanying practical application.

Life with its needs and activities is one thing. Education or schooling is another. The curriculum stresses knowledge of facts, theorems, formulas, equations, poetry, and so forth, which are all committed to memory. School programs have not been set up in terms of the needs of life. When the student has finished his schooling he is not prepared to do anything. Training students to think, to deliberate, to analyze problems, to do simple research, to learn to look for information, and to find answers to problems are not in the curriculum.

The same weaknesses, overcrowded classes, rigid and inappropriate curriculum,

the indifference of teachers, unkempt general appearance of the buildings, and authoritarian and formal atmosphere found in the elementary schools are equally prevalent in secondary schools. To this must be added the far more damaging criticism that, whereas in the elementary school students are at least taught to read and write, obviously useful tools for life, the secondary schools have produced graduates who apparently are not fitted for anything after graduation but to continue their schooling.

A boy or a girl is further subjected to inflexible curriculum once he enters the 12th grade. If he elects the National Science Branch, that is where he must stay. He may not transfer into the Literary Branch or to the Mathematics Branch and vice versa. What is more, this determines the branch he may follow if he continues on to college. A Point Four technician once asked a young lady who was taking the teachers course in National Teachers College why she was applying to go to America. He asked, "Do you like teaching?"

"No."

"Why are you taking the teachers' course, then?"

"I got started in it."

"Why don't you change to another field if you don't like it?"

"I can't, unless I go back and start from the 5th class (11th grade) again; that is why I want to go to America so that I can study medicine."

An established practice of the school system is giving the national examination to all students in the 6th, 11th, and 12th grades. If a student fails the national examination in the spring, he may drill and study to take it over in the fall. If he fails in any subject or subjects to the extent that his point average is lower than 10 (on a scale of 1 to 20), he is not allowed to go forward in the subjects passed in, but must take all his subjects over again.

The boy or girl who fails one of the examinations in both the spring and fall is finished scholastically with no further opportunity to go to school and develop in any of his or her interests or talents. In order to get around this, it is known that some students resort successfully to offering bribes. The importance of a graduation certificate in Iran cannot be overstated. A student known to the present writer took this so seriously that upon failing to pass the examinations, and not being able to make other arrangements, committed suicide. An extreme case, yes--but one that emphasizes the pressures to which these students are subjected.

The secondary school teachers are usually expected to come from the National Teachers College. This consists of two main branches of learning, the School of Science and the School of Literature. The student who expects to teach must register in this curricula and take a course in education. There is no composite major or major-minor field. The arrangement for practice teaching is a regulation for fifty class periods of sitting in a room observing with but one or two periods at best required for practice teaching. There are no methods classes.

The teacher is expected to teach but one subject in which he is a supposed specialist. In fact, many teachers do not believe they can teach another subject, no matter how closely related. The older and more experienced and higher in rank a teacher is, the higher the salary and the fewer the number of hours of teaching per week required by the Ministry.

Another problem faced in the Iranian system is the transient faculty in the secondary school. A permanent staff in a school has not been known. A teacher will teach in two, three, or more schools each day, spending perhaps an hour or two in each. He teaches from twelve up to twenty-two hours a week, depending upon his rank and experience. As might be expected, these transient teachers do not

often develop an interest in the child, the school, or their co-workers.

One type of school in Iran which has proved a dead-end street to any student who has later changed his interests or who has found where his strengths are has been the school of narrow vocational specialization. There are schools for home economics or agriculture or for shop and industrial work. However, if a girl goes to a home economics high school, there her schooling ends. She can neither go to another high school nor on to college. The same holds true for the boy in the vocational trade school. The only recourse is to start back in the 3rd class and climb up the ladder all over again and make good in the national competitive examinations.

Conclusion

The Iranian school system is plagued with a multitude of weaknesses. Many have been referred to in preceding pages. The most serious problems appear to be those dealing with administration, school organization, curriculum, teacher training, and, foremost, the prevailing educational philosophy. In this compilation of problems there is no stigma or blame given anyone. These problems are inherent in the school system which has maintained its form over many years. No one person created it; no one person has been responsible for it. No one person is to be held accountable. No one person is to be blamed for the problems.

There are in Iran many fine educators sincerely interested in improving the school system--from the top to the bottom. A few deserve to be hailed as heroes in their attempts to bring about reform and progress. The following chapter will point out in some detail the work of these people coupled with the efforts of Point Four and the other agencies, working in Iran in planting seeds of progress.

CHAPTER VI

THE EDUCATION PROGRAM IN IRAN AND ITS OPERATION UNDER POINT FOUR

"It worked! It worked!" One of the Iranian teachers who had taken the summer, teacher-training program in the Tehran Ostan expressed his enthusiasm for the new way of teaching social studies. He repeated in Farsi, "It worked! It worked!"

On being asked for an explanation, he described how a group of twelve students had failed the spring National Examination in his class in social studies. "After the summer, teacher-training program," he added, "I called them in and gave them a course under the New Method and they have all passed the autumn National Examination." He seemed very happy with his new philosophy and new concepts of teaching. "The parents," he continued, "have all been in to see me and are happy over this new way of teaching." Having parents come to school in itself was indeed an innovation in Iran.

We cannot give the details of this inner change and what happened within the teacher. We do know, however, that formerly his traditional teaching method was to pour factual information into his students through lectures for them to memorize so well that they could repeat it in exact language (often meaningless to them) in the examination. Now he had attempted the "unit approach" where students discussed the problems which they had mutually accepted and then worked on meaningful projects on which they had cooperatively gathered data and information, held class discussions, and began to make analyses and form judgements. They could then see social relationships in the data. It brought thinking and interest into the subject, both of which had hitherto been minimal, and as a welcome surprise to the teacher, "It worked!" as demonstrated by students being able to pass the Ministry National Examination.

Prior to this incident, much planning and effort had gone into the upgrading

of education in Iran under the Point Four program.

In 1951, the initial group of six technicians from Brigham Young University under the first contract with the United States Department of State, had arrived in Iran. The majority of this initial group had been sent over for the purpose of upgrading general educational practices in Iran, particularly on the elementary level, and, as a subsequent development, the establishment of a tribal education system.

Twelve more education technicians, after spending a month in Washington, D.C., arrived in Tehran in October, 1953. This group had been recruited through the second Brigham Young University contract with the United States Government. These technicians were to work primarily in the field of secondary education in the various ostans and regions.

Professor Hoyt J. B. Turner was Point Four Chief of Education in Iran from 1950 to 1956. His position was known as Chief of Education and Training Division, United States Operation Mission to Iran (USOM/I). He was succeeded in 1956 by Mr. Stewart B. Hamblen.¹

Improvement in education, as with all other phases of Point Four work, went forward after approval of specific projects. Each project was jointly developed and approved by the USOM/I American officials and Iranian officials of the several ministries.

Under the Iranian centralized system of education, every activity carried out in the ostans first had to be processed through the Ministry of Education as mentioned before. Every detail of each approved educational project had to be discussed with the Minister of Education, and receive his personal approval.

¹ Mr. Hamblen was transferred to Iran from Jordan where he was Chief of Education, but he had previously worked on the Point Four education staff in Iran.

Before the local schools in the ostan would be allowed to make any changes or new inclusions, the "word" must be received directly from the Ministry through the Ostan Chief of Education and down through the proper channels of authority.

Requests for operational clearance usually had to do with such projects as school building construction, in service teacher education programs, curriculum revision, textbooks and materials development, and establishment of demonstration schools. Professor Turner and Mr. Hamblen held weekly meetings with His Excellency Reza De Jafferri, the Minister of Education. Other Point Four education staff members were invited to go along to explain major changes or requests relative to any given levels or phases of education for which the staff member was responsible. If the requests were approved, the Minister would indicate his approval to the Ostan Chiefs of Education in order that the work could go forward in the schools on the ostan level. Sometimes the orders moved rapidly through the chain of command and at other times it took weeks or months, depending upon how far the requested changes varied from the traditional set pattern.

Considerable work was done by our Point Four technicians between 1951 and 1953 to improve elementary school practices in the various ostan. The comprehensive country-wide program for secondary educational improvement, however, was to be carried on after 1953 by the secondary technicians. The first job of the secondary educationists was apparent when available Ministry statistics on the status of education in Iran were found to be largely incomplete or inaccurate. There were no compiled statistics available, for example, to tell us the number or type of high schools, the number of teachers, the number of students, or the enrollment per grade. Comprehensive data clearly were needed. To take a national survey, therefore, seemed the best approach. Although the prime concern of this survey was secondary education, it revealed the dearth of reliable information,

and general characteristics of the total Iranian educational structure.

The technicians constructed a detailed survey form for presentation to the Ministry of Education. After two or three meetings, approval was obtained for a unified, nation-wide survey to gather these essential data. The American secondary technician in each ostan was asked to make the survey in his area with the cooperation of each Ostan Chief of Education.

"We are supposed to make a survey of all the schools in our district," said one American technician to her Iranian assistant as they returned from a conference of secondary educators. She explained what was needed and produced the data sheet. "Will this be hard to do?"

"Part will be hard and part easy," the assistant replied. "It will be easy to find out what is taught because every school in the country teaches the same thing on practically the same day. The Minister of Education and the High Council decide this and it does not vary. To find out the number of teachers and their salaries will be such a tremendous task that it might be impossible."

They went to the Ministry office of the Director of Secondary Education, who said that it would be impossible to give out any of this information without his first being told to do so by the Minister of Education himself. After the headquarters' staff had worked three weeks for the Minister's approval, word was finally received that the information would be made available. However, the data was never received. Subsequently, another meeting was set up with the Secondary Director, at which time he declined giving them the information, but told them that they could come down and use the big Ministry books where all this information was filed. They accepted the offer.

The books were tremendous, being about two feet wide, two and one half feet long and five or six inches thick. Information on every school in Tehran district

was recorded in these books, much of which was the information needed. To get the necessary data, the American technician and her assistant listed the schools, the teachers with the number of hours in each school, and the subject each taught. "The Ministry finally tired of our sitting in their offices," she reported, "so we were allowed to bring one book at a time to our own offices. We listed the teachers alphabetically, thus finding the total hours each taught, and the schools in which they worked. This was a tremendous task, taking us about a month to complete." In several regions a personal visit to every secondary school was necessary to obtain the desired data.

The findings of this survey were significant. (1) There was no variation as to material taught in different schools, and all subjects were academic; no vocational subjects such as shop or home economics were included in the regular high school offerings. (2) Seventeen subjects were taught each week to all students, with a different teacher for each subject. Each subject had an allotted time, usually two hours per week. (3) Teachers taught varying loads depending on their rank. The new teachers taught about twenty-two hours per week while more experienced ones often taught only twelve hours per week, and some could get by with still fewer hours and receive full pay. (4) Classrooms, as a rule, were badly overcrowded. (5) Salaries were not consistent. Some teachers were getting as little as 1600 rials per month (\$19.00) while those teaching the fewest number of hours often received as much as 6500 rials (\$82.00) per month. (6) No schools had resident faculties, consequently, there were no faculty meetings or general planning meetings. (7) Most teachers felt no special interest in pupils, as they saw each student only one or two hours a week, and during the week often taught as many as six hundred students. (8) A very small percentage of the children of school age were actually attending school, even in the capital city. (9) Many

teachers were employed in major activities elsewhere.

Technicians were able to make practical use of these data in program planning, particularly in organizing the teacher-training programs within each ostan. The number of students and teachers were found by the survey to be much higher than anticipated. The estimates used in budget planning had been unsound. We saw many congested schools with sixty to eighty students crowded into inadequate rooms, and in a few schools between ninety and one hundred students were squeezed into one small room. Yet the survey revealed that nation-wide the pupil-teacher ratio was an ideal 23.8. Apparent in this picture, however, was the fact that many teachers taught only twelve to sixteen hours per week. While this was considered a full teaching load in Iran, by American standards these teachers would be regarded only as part-time teachers. This decidedly affected the pupil-teacher ratio. The survey listed 4267 teachers for just over 100,000 students in the 507 public (Ministry) high schools during the 1953-54 school year.

We felt that on the national level we had achieved a real measure of success in completing the Secondary Survey. However, we were not entirely satisfied with our efforts. We realized the data we had gathered were very helpful, but that they were incomplete. To gather all the data and to regard them as one hundred per cent correct in such anomalous educational structure would have been expecting too much. Our united efforts did bear fruits and the fruits were very valuable in helping us to plan more wisely than would otherwise have been possible.

Teacher Training

One of the first projects of the Point Four Program was the establishment of summer training courses for rural elementary teachers. Most rural teachers had only six years of schooling themselves and these summer courses were designed to broaden their education background and give them help in teaching. During

the first summer (1952) these courses were offered only for male teachers, but later female teachers also received training. This was one of the most successful projects undertaken, and probably affected more individuals than any other. By the end of the 1955 summer course, over 6,000 elementary teachers had participated in such courses, and the program is still continuing.

This program was well accepted even during the first year. Plans were made to train between 600 and 700 teachers during the first summer course in the several Ostan, but the response was so great that more than 1,000 rural teachers were finally crowded into the course.

These rural teachers had never before received instruction in methods of teaching, and their enthusiasm for the course was genuine. Many even contributed from their own funds to buy supplies to duplicate materials demonstrated in the course. They went back home with the teaching aids which they constructed during the summer school and a new outlook on educational methods.

One Ostan Chief of Education, who had earlier frowned on the Summer Training Program seeing the effects of the course on the students and sensing the possibilities which it provided for the children of his ostan, remarked, "I would like to obtain that training for all the 3,000 teachers in my ostan."

Most of the summer-course students were individually grateful for such training. One student rode a donkey for the better part of a day over rough terrain to express his personal thanks for the course to USOM/I Director Warne, who was visiting in that area.

One unexpected problem was reported by an elementary educationist as follows:

In our work we became aware of the need to develop not only a better philosophy of education, but also to create the attitude that physical labor is dignified.

Iranian teachers traditionally have looked with disdain on manual labor, even to the point of refusing to pound a nail into a bench or a desk that was falling apart. During our summer teacher-training courses we taught and demonstrated the value of knowing how to make simple repairs to such equipment. By demonstrating our ability to repair desks, benches, etc., and letting teachers see American technicians performing such menial tasks, we were able to persuade them to learn for themselves the skills necessary for upkeep of their school furniture and equipment. Once they got involved in this work they enjoyed it very much.

When we told the Sharistan Chief of Education that we would like to take all of the broken desks, blackboards, and benches to the summer course to be repaired by the teachers, he thought we were crazy to even suggest such a thing. He said that the teachers would be insulted at such a suggestion and would never participate in repairing this equipment.

Not only did they enjoy pounding nails and sawing boards to make the discarded furniture usable again, but they learned how to make blackboard paint and proudly displayed their artistic ability by painting old blackboards, which were still in use in the schools.

Another purpose of the summer courses was to assist teachers in the development of techniques in use of teaching aids, such as arithmetic flash cards, abacuses, work cards, clocks, bulletin boards, and easels. Many of these were made in these courses and taken back home by the teachers to be used in their own classrooms.

During the Tehran Summer School for the training of elementary personnel we conducted a course in home economics and agriculture as well as classes in academic subjects. This was given so that the supervisors would be trained to teach these subjects to elementary teachers in the schools of their ostans. At the conclusion of the class discussion on pre-natal care of mothers and babies, Mr. Benish, one of the supervisors from Resht, came to our technician and asked permission to go home for the weekend. This involved two days of travel, so the technician asked if it were really necessary to make the long journey, which would mean the loss of one or probably two days of school. Mr. Benish explained

that it was really necessary for him to go home--his wife was going to have a baby in the fall and he must tell her of the things he had learned in this class on the pre-natal care of mothers.

Realizing that no matter how well a school is equipped, it will not be a good school with poor teachers, the secondary educators also placed great value on teacher training. The teacher training courses at this time were in-service programs. Point Four also recognized the need for establishing a sound program of pre-service training and soon took steps toward improving normal school teacher-education training for first cycle teachers.

To carry on the in-service teacher training courses on an ostan level, however, it was first essential to organize a teacher education course in Tehran on a national basis. National training courses were conducted in the summers of 1954 and 1955 for all ostan "teacher trainers." An account of this program is indicative of the largely parallel "in-service" summer courses conducted for elementary teachers.

On May 8, 1954, we were ready to begin the first Point Four secondary teacher training course at Tehran headquarters. Arrangements for the teachers to come from the ostans had been attained from the Ministry. We had started planning for this summer course the previous October in the general education conference under the Point Four Chief of Education. Committee appointments were made in December and specific courses outlined during March conference. Early in May, major questions concerning details were discussed in committee, and the plan was approved by both the American and the Iranian secondary technicians.

This teacher training program emphasized professional education and subject matter workshops. Professional courses were offered in (1) philosophy and objectives of secondary education, (2) educational psychology and guidance

(personnel services), (3) methods of teaching in secondary schools, and, (4) administration of secondary schools. Subject matter workshops were provided for (1) social studies and language arts in a core, (2) foreign language (English), (3) sciences, (4) mathematics, (5) physical education and music, and (6) home economics.

The reader may wonder why music and physical education were listed together. In Iran, as a result of the influence of religion, music was prohibited in the schools. By listing music originally as rhythms and placing emphasis on its value in physical education, the inclusion was approved by the Ministry. As the plans progressed and the courses got under way, the rhythms included vocal music conducted by an enthusiastic Iranian musician from Isfahan. The course became very popular with the Iranian teachers, who were for the first time loudly singing in a public building their national anthem, and then they gradually added many other group songs. Since the building where classes were held was on one of the main thoroughfares of Tehran--Kiabune Shah Reza--Point Four officials were somewhat concerned that public censure might result when the songs came booming into the streets. We were watching for any outward signs of religious movements to obstruct our progress. None ever happened.

It was particularly interesting to watch one of the Mulahs (a religious leader) in the group who came to take the summer teacher courses. At first he sat stiffly with a real scowl on his face. He relaxed a bit after the first few days, but still he didn't join in the singing. Before long he was smiling broadly at the fun the group was having. They were full of jokes, and sometimes made humorous jests about the music. Before the course had finished, the Mulah was joining in and singing lustily with the rest.

For this first summer teacher training program for secondary teachers, we

invited each ostan to send ten carefully selected teachers to Tehran for training. These selected teachers were to be the nucleus of each demonstration school faculty. On the day after the teachers had all arrived from their various ostans, we were puzzled at the appearance of four men for whom there was no accounting. Each teacher had been listed and screened by the Ministry beforehand. When we approached the men, we found that they had been sent at the last moment by the Ministry. We explained to them that all of the ostans had filled their quotas, and that there was no provision for them. However, they insisted upon staying, even producing a letter from the Ministry, so we assigned them to the social studies workshop. We thought that the problem was solved until it was reported to us that the "men from the Ministry" had occupied nearly all of the time in the workshop, announcing to their colleagues that they were the most honored and greatest teachers in the entire country of Iran. They also added that they knew more about the teaching profession than anyone else in Iran, and that they did not need to be told how to teach, for they had already reached near perfection. Actually, they were supposed to report the course of the Tehran teachers' organization and the Ministry. The American technician assigned to the social studies workshop assured them that it was indeed splendid that they were able to give so much help and that they were welcome to join the study group.

In spite of this initial attitude, the men from the Ministry found themselves becoming more interested as the course progressed. They eventually cooperated with the leaders and took an active part in various committee assignments. They were surprised to learn that they did not know quite everything. Following this course, these men were helpful in the local ostan programs.

The first teacher training program for secondary teachers under USOM/I lasted five weeks. Graduation certificates were awarded to 125 Iranians at the

completion of the course in June.

Immediately following the Tehran course for training these 125 "teacher-trainers," local teacher training courses were conducted for five weeks under the direction of the American Secondary Educationists and their Iranian assistants in each of the ten ostan. Two thousand teachers were able to return to their classrooms that fall with additional insight as to philosophy for schools, new teaching methods, and more information about children, education, and learning.

Reports from the Iranian teachers in provinces indicated that the teacher-training course given in Tehran was of considerable value. The following, from one of our technicians, is typical: "After one week and a half in our ostan course, we are very much pleased with the methods and better teaching practices which are being taught in the course. It is easy to see that the instructors have greatly profited by the course held in Tehran."

We felt these summer courses to be particularly valuable. No other program equalled it in size. There was a change in fundamental concepts of what constituted good schools, appropriate curricula, and practical teaching methods. They sought a sound educational philosophy and objectives for secondary education, student guidance, and learning. One would not expect to inaugurate an enterprise so large on a country-wide basis without problems and without mistakes. Mistakes were made, and we learned from them to improve the courses in succeeding years. That the first summer courses were conducted with considerable success was very heartening. Of the two thousand secondary teachers who were given this training in the ostan, a large majority became enthusiastic supporters of the new concepts and methods given. One such example was quoted at the outset of this chapter.

The practice of showing favoritism or patronage and the factor of prestige were problems facing us in the ostans as well as in Tehran. These two elements play a strong role in practically every phase of life in Iran, and are even in evidence between elementary and secondary school levels of teaching. For example, the Chief of Education at Saghez sent six secondary teachers down to Kermanshah for the summer course in July, 1954. In October our technician made a trip to Saghez to see how they were doing. A new Chief of Education had been assigned there since the summer. He resented the clique of original secondary teachers appointed by the former chief, and had demoted them by re-assigning the teachers to an elementary school. Elementary and secondary teachers alike in Saghez were normal school (11th grade) graduates, and the prestige positions of high school teaching were evidently assigned to friends of the new education chief through favoritism and politics.

The 1955 summer program for training teacher trainers was held in Tehran at the National Teachers' College. The Point Four Chief of Education suggested that the Teachers' College be given the responsibility of assuming direction of the training program. He felt that if the National Teachers' College faculty could be drawn into the program and have our American technicians act as consultants, we would be able to impart some valuable in-service training to the faculty, and at the same time set up a pattern of organization for them to follow in later years. Dr. Clarke headed the program under this experiment for secondary education and reported the course to be successful in the main, although there was less headway in changing the point of view of some of the professors than he had hoped for. However, a pattern of summer workshop procedures was established, and as some of the younger and more recently American-trained Iranian professors can be influenced to carry on the classes the courses should become increasingly more productive.

Demonstration Schools

The establishment of demonstration schools was one of the first major projects recommended by the Point Four Chief of Education. By this project Professor Turner believed we could more adequately demonstrate all facets of educational improvement deemed appropriate to the existing educational structure and needs of Iran.

Point Four Education technicians believed that the demonstration schools should exemplify the best possible educational philosophy, curriculum, organization, teaching methods, and teacher-training procedures; should demonstrate effective use of buildings, equipment and materials; and should furnish the children who attended the school a good, functional educational program. They also felt that the demonstration school should function as a stimulus for the improvement of other schools in the area and as teacher training centers.

Growing out of these general aims, several more specific objectives were to establish a core approach of teaching, to provide a home room and guidance situation within the social studies core, and to provide more of the unit and project or activity methods of instruction. We hoped to demonstrate that the school program was directly related to the needs and interests of boys and girls, to the community, and to the country. We also hoped to demonstrate that school was a place where boys and girls could learn to think, analyze data, and develop procedures necessary in solving problems of life situations; that school need not induce the feeling of being prisoners, but rather it could be a place where boys and girls receive satisfactions and constructive enjoyment. In short, many of the specific objectives of education to be illustrated through the establishment of demonstration schools in each of the ostan were basic to educational improvement in Iran.

We encountered numerous problems in setting up the first elementary demonstration school in Tehran. The Ministry would not permit an existing school located near the normal school to be used for this "experiment." Teachers had to be subsidized in order to get them to teach a full day. A building had to be rented until the permanent school could be built. Six janitors to do the cleaning were proposed by the Ministry--we finally settled for two. They didn't really clean the building, however; the day before the school opened, the American technician had to get on his hands and knees and scrub the floors of the school in order to demonstrate what type of cleanliness was needed in such a school. Nothing except the basic salaries of teachers was provided by the Ministry of Education. Furthermore, Communist derogatory propaganda was aimed at this "American" school.

In providing a library for the school, almost nothing was available. We scoured the bookstores for children's literature and found only a half dozen books which seemed at all appropriate.

Point Four decided to do something practical about the lack of adequate textbook materials in the schools. The few textbooks available were far removed in context from the social and economic needs of education in Iran. One Point Four project, therefore, was adapting American textbooks to Iranian needs and translating them into Farsi. The initial efforts in this project were the printing of a school health book and an arithmetic book for primary grade children. Since this beginning, other books in several fields have been developed with project funds.

The key to establishing good demonstration schools was the selection and further training of a sound teaching staff.

One American technician relates that soon after arriving at Resht in

December, 1953, she and the American Point Four director of education called on Mr. Dastighabe, Ostan Chief of Education, and obtained his permission to use a new school building, which had just been built for an agricultural school for the demonstration school. She relates in her report:

We were given permission to visit all of the schools in Resht, to observe teachers and interview them. We spent two weeks visiting schools and observing teachers. At the end of this time we called thirty teachers into the office at the Ministry and interviewed each of them privately. Some criteria used in the selection of the teachers for the demonstration school were the following:

- a. Their willingness to accept new ideas.
- b. Their use of teaching aids as we observed them.
- c. Their attitude toward the child as an individual.
- d. Their concern over children's success.
- e. Their personal appearance.
- f. Their personality.

We selected a principal and six teachers. With the Ostan Chief of Education, we planned a program of training. We decided to take these teachers to Tehran to the demonstration school where we spent five weeks observing classes, conducting study groups, and discussing various phases of teaching and education.

One of the great concerns felt by these teachers at first was the many pictures, bulletin boards, charts, and objects which had been carved, constructed, and painted by the school children. They felt any form of decoration would distract the children so that they would not be able to study. They felt that even the teacher's clothes should be of dark colors with no decoration of any kind--no makeup, flowers, or jewelry. After watching the children at the demonstration school work in the attractive, cheerful rooms, they all agreed to go back and try it in their own rooms. It was interesting to see later how proud they were to show their rooms with their charts, pictures, and many visual aids.

From the Tehran area our technician stated that the demonstration schools, after they had become well established, developed considerable prestige. He reported his experiences in the Tehran demonstration schools very enthusiastically:

I remember one teacher who came to my office one day, saying that she would give anything if she could become a part of the demonstration school where she could teach the way she wanted to, and

develop and grow as a teacher. I was impressed with this attitude, and when a vacancy did occur, she was transferred to the Tehran Demonstration School. She thrived under this kind of freedom and developed remarkably fast. She readily accepted new ideas and experimented with them until they began to work for her. In my opinion, this teacher developed into the finest elementary teacher I had the pleasure of working with in Iran.

Before our demonstration schools were developed, students who were preparing to become teachers never had the opportunity to see planned observations or demonstrations. While these facilities have not reached their maximum potential, at least a start has been made.

Perhaps the most satisfying experience we had was in observing the changes that took place many of the teachers with whom we worked. The teachers of the demonstration schools at first were very formal in the classroom situation, showing little interest in teaching, in their relationships with children, or in the subjects which they taught. Little evidence of humor and little attempt to understand the needs and interests of children was demonstrated. As we worked with the teachers, as we exhibited informality, humor, interest in children, and as we established good relationships with the teachers, custodians, and pupils, change became very noticeable; the teachers' desires, aspirations, and interests grew. A more friendly relationship developed between pupils and teachers; teachers began to indicate an enjoyment in their teaching, classroom situations became less formal, students began to ask questions and make comments, and male teachers began to wear more comfortable and less formal clothing.

These teachers began to see the relationships of school to life and tried to help students see that relationship. Students began to come to school early and stay after school. Teachers began to play with the students in game activities, and they began to see that teaching involved much more than merely teaching a subject to children.

It became quite apparent that many of these teachers were developing a professional attitude toward teaching. Most significant of all, they were developing an awareness of the necessity to improve the educational opportunity of all the people of Iran.

The elementary demonstration schools were soon considered by Iranian educators and lay people as the very best schools in Iran.

The elementary demonstration school in Resht was on the fringe of the city serving an area of poor people. It was agreed in the Ministry of Education that the children who attended the school should be a representative group of twenty-

four students per grade. They were to be selected from several schools in the area. When they arrived, the Iranian demonstration school teachers were very much disturbed to find that the students were all the slowest students in the schools, children who had been unsuccessful in their previous schools. Point Four educational leaders considered the matter. They decided to accept the situation as a challenge.

What at first appeared to be a disadvantage proved to be an asset. By using the new methods, with smaller groups, and with attention to individual needs of children, the children passed the national tests with higher scores and fewer failures than any other school in Resht. The next fall such influential people as the Governor-General, the Mayor, and Chief of Police insisted that their children be taken in, but we kept the same children as nearly as was possible in spite of political pressures from the ostan officials.

The selection and enrollment of students soon became quite a problem in all ostan. Considerable pressure was put upon the Ostan Chief in some instances to enroll children of the influential well-to-do in our schools. Point Four education officials believed we should enroll a representative cross-section of the children, rather than a select group. By this method one aspect of democracy could also be demonstrated as well as good educational practice.

Building on the success of the elementary educationists in their establishment of demonstration schools in each ostan, the secondary educationists found a readiness in all areas and strong desire on the part of the Ministry for a similar establishment of secondary demonstration schools. Two such schools were operating in the ostan within four months of the arrival of the secondary educationists, and by the fall of 1954 almost all ostan had their demonstration schools.

We sought character development as well as academic achievement in the demonstration schools. For example, theft seems to be a common practice in Iran. Automobile accessories such as hub caps and windshield wipers and other small items may be stolen from any unguarded vehicle left on the street day or night.

Could Iranian school children be trusted? The American technicians at Shiraz believed they could be, and a proposition was made to the Fars Ostan Chief of Education to test out this belief. It was recommended that small "honor stores" be placed not only in demonstration schools, but also in various other schools scattered throughout the ostan. The Ostan Chief agreed to the experiment. These stores consisted of open tables or cabinets supplied with pencils, notebooks, paper, ink, candy and other items. An open cash box was nearby and the children were free to select their own articles and to make their own change. These stores were placed in elementary, junior, and senior high schools.

Reports to the Ministry officials revealed that the stores were a success. The children liked them and appreciated the opportunity to be trusted. In fact, children of the Fasa High School made such a nice profit that they used the funds to purchase shrubbery and other improvements for the school.

We wanted to introduce some new and practical courses to the regular curriculum. One of those approved for introduction in Shiraz secondary demonstration school was typewriting. The Ministry stipulation was that it must be in addition to the regular classes. This would mean a longer school day, but we went ahead with it.

Many problems had to be overcome before the class actually started. First, we had to locate at least twenty-five machines with Persian letters. Such

machines had been manufactured in Sweden and were in use in certain business establishments in Iran. The importer was located and twenty-five machines were ordered after approval by the Point Four officials. Next, we had to locate a typewriting teacher. There was not one Ministry teacher in the nation who could type. We finally had to settle for a young man who worked in the typing section of our Shiraz Point Four Office, who was then duly approved by the Ministry to teach the class in our demonstration school. He spent considerable time preparing materials for the classes.

The typewriters were ready for delivery to our office in the summer of 1954. However, the Point Four purchasing division objected to the delivery at this point, claiming that the cost was too great, although it was the same amount quoted by the importer and previously approved. The technician from Shiraz had to make a special trip to Tehran before the machines were finally purchased and delivered to the school.

This typing class proved to be extremely popular, not only with the high school students, but with the Ministry of Education personnel who wanted to learn this skill. The Shah visited this class during his visit to Shiraz in May, 1955.

Where music leaders were available, some music was taught in the demonstration schools. In some areas the national anthem was sung with the daily raising of their flag.

One major problem was to develop the philosophy with the Ministry that the appointment of too many administrators was not only poor economy but also not necessary for a sound educational program. The practice of appointing top-heavy administrative staffs--probably for patronage reasons--was very noticeable to Point Four technicians in Iran. Waste was high. The number of employees in all categories was excessive. In the national Ministry of Education in 1947 there

were 683 staff members and 210 servants, according to the Seven Year Study Group. This pattern prevailed also in the local education offices.

Educational administrative control in practice did not always follow a line and staff pattern. There are instances of prestige where a Sharestan or city school officer would often bypass the Ostan Chief and go directly to the Ministry. This was often considered politically desirable. Forty-two educational offices with a direct line to the Ministry were reported by the Seven Year Study.

In the United States we usually try to hire personnel to fit the needs for a given task. The opposite was often noticeable in Iran, especially in the selection of the school administrative staff.

In Tehran, when Point Four education technicians were interviewing personnel for the girls' secondary demonstration school, they were informed that the administrators had already been selected by the Ministry of Education. One technician reported, "When we asked the Ministry why more than one administrator would be needed for such a small school (ninety students), we were told that in all secondary schools two or three principals were required to do a successful job. When asked what their responsibilities were, we discovered that the principal was usually no more than an honorary appointment and his or her main responsibility consisted of seeing that the visitors were served tea and that no unauthorized visitors were admitted, while the vice-principals divided the educational tasks. We spent many hours explaining that if our demonstration school was run exactly like Iranian schools, then it would be useless for us to continue our work. We finally, after much persuasion, received permission to hire a vice-principal of one of the more progressive schools as principal of our girls' secondary demonstration school. Her philosophy and integrity were sound. The Ministry was most surprised after using only one administrator that one person had done well the job

they had been paying three people to do."

This same practice prevailed in the school also in janitorial service. One technician reported, "I felt that we needed the services of only one janitor during the 1954 summer session in Kermanshah. The Ministry wanted me to hire four, in line with their custodial policy, but I insisted on following the principle of paying a fair salary for a full day's work. Accordingly, only one janitor was put on the payroll. Later I learned that our janitor was using three "assistants" and sharing his salary with them. I never found out whether this salary sharing was voluntary or forced on the man by the Ostan Chief of Education to fulfill job commitments he might have made. "

In our work we experienced many unusual, unfortunate, and sometimes humorous happenings. One of these occurred in the city of Isfahan, where a site for the secondary demonstration school was chosen by the Ministry of Education. The Point Four office had been informed that unless some improvements and developments were shown immediately, the land would be retracted. A man with a plow and tractor was sent to the site to plow a border around the area. The local inhabitants came first out of curiosity but soon they began showing anger and cursed the driver and threatened him physically. With this development, the Point Four officials made a personal investigation to determine the cause of the demonstration. It turned out that the site selected was an abandoned burial ground which had remained unused for half a century. In the process of plowing, some of the skeletal remains lying near the earth's surface had been plowed up and had become visible to the inhabitants. They disliked having their ancestors treated with such apparent disrespect, and the thing that particularly bothered them was that the remains of men and women were being intermingled there where segregation of the sexes in school and society is almost absolute. The people

were furious. The Ministry of Education, however, was equal to the challenge. Their representative, sent to the site to appease the people, suggested that the bones of the women be placed in one pile and the bones of the men in another. This brought about a peaceful settlement. Soon, under the direction of the religious leader, the people began separating the bones right and left. The bones were then carried to another location and buried in two separate graves--one for the women and one for the men. That ended the strife and soon the old burial ground was leveled and the secondary demonstration school erected.

That we had different practices from the Iranian teachers relative to school operations often became very evident. After our secondary demonstration school teachers were selected in Tehran with the aid of Ministry representative (quite a problem because of patronage, prestige, and politics), the next step was to construct a workable daily class schedule for the school. The teachers, administrator, and Point Four technicians met to discuss this problem. After several sessions, most of the difficulties were ironed out and a practical schedule, based upon sound educational philosophy, was ready for presentation to the Ministry. However, one incident stands out as unusual because it brought out the difference of our thinking and practices in education. When we were trying to fit the curriculum into a daily schedule, the American technician naturally thought of the day being arranged into class periods with five or ten minutes between classes to allow the students time for moving from classroom to classroom.

One traditionalized Iranian teacher remarked with consternation, "Surely we won't let the students move out of their seats after every hour. It would be too hard to discipline. As long as students stay in one place, in one room, with no breaks and no moving around, they cause no trouble. Why do students need to move from room to room anyway? It is easier to leave them in their seats,

and we go to them. We need just one break. It should be half an hour long, in the middle of the forenoon, so we can have tea."

In staffing the demonstration schools we were always in need of the best teachers we could find. At one time we wanted to transfer a teacher from Tehran to one of the northern ostan to work in the new demonstration school. One Ministry official in charge of teacher placement demanded a personal rebate of the teacher's salary before a transfer could be made. We would not be a party to this practice and remonstrated with the official, pointing out our principles and the beneficial result to the program. He could not see our point. We eventually had to select a local teacher with less training. We incurred some disfavor on the part of the official in charge of teacher placement because of his lost opportunity to collect another fee, a common practice with many office holders.

School facilities existed in Iran at this time for less than twenty per cent of the children of school age, and these facilities are usually ill-adapted or inadequate. Iran's educational system is so highly centralized that even the establishment of a village elementary school depends upon action from the Ministry of Education in Tehran. The concept of a village doing more to obtain a school than to petition Tehran for it was virtually unheard of before Point Four became a reality in Iran. Moreover, funds for schools were not adequately budgeted in the Ministry of Education, and as a result, hundreds of villages had partially completed schools where the work had stopped because the Ministry of Education did not have the funds to complete the schools.

One of our projects was designed to help complete some of these unfinished schools, remodel others, and build completely new schools in other selected areas. The project, however, called for joint participation from villages and

local education offices. In some villages, committees were elected at local meetings and villagers pledged materials, labor, and money. Landlords often contributed large shares of the cost of new construction, and the Ministry provided new teachers for the schools and whatever funds were available for repairs and maintenance.

Many of these village committees took on some of the duties of an American school board. In some instances better schools were built than had originally been planned, including more windows, sanitary toilets, adequate playground equipment and occasionally vegetable gardens and woodworking shops.

Under this project, which has stimulated cooperation of villagers, landlords, and government agencies, over one hundred village schools in Iran were completed and remodeled.

The gratitude of the inhabitants of one such village which received a new school through this cooperative action is expressed in this letter which was sent to the Point Four office:

We, the undersigned, on behalf of 5,000 inhabitants of Soldeh District, wish to express our appreciation for the good will, efforts and also for the material, moral and educational assistance of Point Four, Caspian Branch, which provided experts and engineers, spending considerable money, and have made the construction of a new six-class school possible.

The construction of the school at Soldeh, which is located near the shores of the Caspian Sea, was a real community project. The villagers volunteered the labor to construct the building, and many prospective pupils, boys in their early teens, aided in the construction of benches and desks.

There were many conscientious teachers in the Ministry public schools. However, the lack of schools was pitiful and the need for better-trained teachers was drastic.

An example of the critical need for teachers was related by the American educationist in Resht:

In one of the many rural communities a few miles from Resht, the people organized and built, with the help of Point Four Community Development Division, a very fine six-room school. It had big windows and large white plastered rooms. As we drove up to the school one day, people began gathering from all directions and before our car had stopped by the school, a group of some two hundred people had gathered. They had a problem. They had a fine school. They had as many as fifty children in some of the rooms, but they had only one teacher. The teacher went from room to room teaching the children. To help keep children busy and working, there was also a young man who went from room to room trying to keep order and help the children as best he could. The men who had congregated there begged us, as Point Four people, to go to the Ministry and persuade them to send teachers to their school. However, no teachers were available for assignment until the following year.

In the spring of 1954, the Ministry of Education agreed to provide extra classrooms in the central province of Isfahan for the purpose of establishing home economics departments within the girls' secondary schools. It was agreed that nineteen of the schools of the area were qualified to be included in the program.

Equipment such as sewing machines, baking and cooking materials, dishes and utensils, furniture, stoves, draperies, etc., was procured by Point Four for these departments. This equipment was stored in the warehouse at Point Four headquarters until such time as the rooms in the schools were provided.

The Chiefs of Education in the Isfahan area were notified in a meeting that equipment was available for distribution to their schools when they had provided adequate rooms for home economics. All agreed to give the matter their immediate attention and to get rooms prepared as indicated.

Within two weeks three letters were received in Isfahan stating that three schools were ready to receive their equipment. The Iranian supervisor of home

economics, who was connected with the Isfahan Point Four headquarters, was sent to these schools to inspect their buildings and see if they had complied with specifications, which included the installation of a water system in the home economics room. She found that nothing whatsoever had even been started in the three schools. There were no rooms for home economics.

She returned to Isfahan with the disappointing news, whereupon the three schools were informed that no equipment would be dispatched and that no home economics departments would be established except under the direct supervision of educators from Point Four.

Many letters were received and many visits made regarding these schools and departments. Soon the Ostan Ministry of Education officials in Isfahan realized that they would not receive the equipment until adequate facilities were made available. In the meantime, the Isfahan Department of Education completed a large two-story building for the purpose of establishing a home economics demonstration and training school. The teachers who had been selected to teach home economics were sent by the Iranian Ministry to this new building for an in-service training program. These women became so enthusiastic that they brought pressure to bear on the Ministry officials to get the home economics departments in operation throughout the area. As a result, things began to happen, and it was not long before five schools were ready to receive their equipment.

Once the Iranians realized that in order to obtain the equipment they so greatly desired for their schools it would be necessary for them to provide adequate rooms, they made the effort to do so. Shortly thereafter there were nineteen home economics departments established in the Isfahan area.

Similarly, home economics curricula were developed, teachers trained, and departments established in almost all girls' secondary schools in Iran during the years 1953-1955.

In Iran local teachers, principals, or even supervisors, had little voice in policy making or curriculum improvement. This appeared to us to be a major weakness of the Iranian school system. One of our goals in Point Four was to alter this routine. We felt that intelligent, energetic teachers could make significant contributions to the improvement of their schools if only they were given a chance.

The Ostan Chief of Education at Shiraz could see the value of our proposal. He permitted more and more exchange of ideas among the Shahrestan Chiefs of Education (county superintendents). At last these men expressed a desire to visit schools throughout the Ostan Fars. The first major visit was arranged for February, 1955. The groundwork had been carefully laid, and the conference details were planned almost exclusively by the Iranians. Their plans developed into a five-day education conference that involved Ministry of Education officials, supervisors, principals, teachers, civic leaders, parents, and lay citizens. We believe that this was the first such education conference ever held in Iran.

The conference was held at Abedeh, Fars Ostan, from February 20 to 25, 1955. Delegates came from all of the Shahrestans and some traveled more than 650 kilometers to reach the conference. In addition to the host educators, there were forty-five supervisors, principals, and teachers from the schools of the ostan, plus seven Iranian employees of Point Four and five Americans listed as delegates. The conference was truly a school-community affair. Countless people planned and worked to make it a success. Six different features highlighted the conference:

1. Civic receptions were held for the delegates. These included several animal sacrifices.
2. Many schools in Abedeh and surrounding villages were visited. Children and teachers were observed in action and displays of their work were available for all to see.
3. The delegates and local teachers met in daily workshop sessions to discuss what they had seen and to plan for their own progress.

4. Sports demonstrations by school children and high school teams were held. Recreation periods were provided for the delegates. One day the American teachers played basketball with two different high school teams.
5. Nightly programs were held that included educational films, pageants, dramas, musical numbers, and speeches by school officials and civic leaders. A feature of these nightly programs was the participation by school children. Many parents were involved in making costumes and assisting with the programs.
6. Many of the delegates slept in private homes, but all of them ate their meals together in the Abedeh hotel dining room. The menus had been prepared by the Abedeh teachers and the meals were very satisfying. It was wonderful to see the delegates mingling together, laughing, and sharing many fine experiences.

The Iranians proved, conclusively that they could plan and conduct a good educational conference, and good schools, if they were given the resources, freedom, and encouragement to do so.

CHAPTER VII

A REVIEW OF GROUP ACCOMPLISHMENTS IN EDUCATION

Accomplishments of Point Four in the field of education between September, 1951, and September, 1955, is the subject matter of this discussion.

Numerous accomplishments could be cited to the credit of Point Four, which are quantitative results statistically reported and documented in the records. The information presented in the previous chapter indicates many attainments. For example: Both elementary and secondary demonstration schools were established in all of the ostan of Iran. In-service teacher education courses were organized for elementary and secondary teachers as well as for supervisors, both on the national and ostan levels. Two hundred or more school buildings have been constructed. Some six to eight thousand teachers have received the benefits of teacher training programs. Between sixty and eighty tribal schools were organized.

While these statistically reported accomplishments are surely of vast significance, the deeper values of Point Four accomplishments lie in the more subtle changes of the human mind, in concepts, philosophy, attitudes, desires and understandings, as well as in the acquisition of new techniques.

The Brigham Young University Contract Personnel in secondary education attempted to move along on a common front on a country-wide basis. Soon after becoming established at their posts of duty in the various ostan, they came back to Tehran headquarters for discussions and professional work sessions. (This going and coming was a strenuous task itself over the rough roads of Iran. For some it meant a round trip of six bouncing days by Point Four jeeps.)

The problems presented by the technicians from each region, while similar were still divergent and covered a broad area of educational terrain. While considerable flexibility in method of attack on the problems could be granted locally under Point Four regulations, there was an evident need for a planned program for

coordination of effort on a country-wide basis, with some rather large but clearly defined objectives and a cooperative agreement upon a unified plan of procedure to achieve these objectives. This coordination of effort centered in the Point Four educational headquarters office under the Chief of Education. It was agreed that periodic conferences and workshops be held. In these sessions the technicians identified problems, outlined a program to follow, and unified their efforts.

When an entire country-wide program is set up on the basis of the thinking of one staff member, (though he may be a specialist in that program) there are likely to be unsound spots in it. The cooperative deliberation of a unified group makes for safer programming, and for this reason a university group is effective. Director Warne and other Washington officials had thought this through carefully. The major strength of contracting with some university is to have a specifically assigned responsibility carried out under the given university group. It was the stated opinion of Point Four Headquarters that the university group, who worked in the assignment of education, worked well together and sincerely endeavored to do creditable work in upgrading education in administration and in each of the individual ostans.

Program Resume'

Conditions in the education program which deterred progress may be presented under thirteen points:

1. The educational system of Iran was an old, well-entrenched version of the French centralized system. Everything that was done within the school had to come as a directive from the central Ministry of Education. This has discouraged lay participation in educational affairs in Iran. Such a thing as local autonomy and decentralized authority was not practiced. Point Four technicians attempted to engender a philosophy as well as a functional practice toward more active local participation.

A conscientious attempt was made to provide Iranian local officials with experiences and opportunities for practicing leadership, for conducting and participating in group discussions. This participation on a local level in nationally controlled affairs in Iran develops slowly; yet, in some instances, the local educators have made a good beginning.

2. The teaching method had been for decades the "teacher-lecture; student-drill" method. The unit method of instruction with activities and projects was a new concept to the teachers. Teaching reflected little scientific knowledge of teaching, of learning, or of child growth and development. This problem greatly concerned our technicians in planning in-service teacher education. If the demonstration schools were to utilize modern methods, the teachers had to be schooled in these more modern practices and concepts. Careful planning and constant in-service educational work with the staff members brought encouraging results.

3. The totally academic and rigid curriculum of the Iran schools proved to be a barrier to overcome. For the Point Four educationists attempting to reorganize the high school curriculum for the demonstration schools, this posed one of the very biggest problems.

In November, 1954, the Ministry of Education asked the Point Four secondary technicians to help with the revision of the high school curriculum then used in every high school on a national basis. When the ministry members were asked when they wanted the recommendations of the American technicians, they suggested what they considered to be a very long time--one month. After pointing out the importance of not hurrying such a vital task as this, and of planning it very carefully, it was agreed that the American technicians and Iranian members of the Ministry curriculum committee would have their first joint meeting in January.

The Americans and their Iranian counterparts stayed in Tehran two additional days following the November Convention, before returning to their assigned districts, to carefully plan what each should do in preparation for the January meeting. In January all returned to Tehran for the joint planning meeting with the ministry officials. We were alarmed to learn that the Iranian curriculum committee had gone ahead alone. They had revised the curriculum and it was now before the High Council for final approval. Most of the Americans were dismayed by this turn of events, but Mr. Turner, the chief of the Division of Education in Point Four, seemed not at all disturbed. He suggested that the meetings proceed as planned. Evidently the one member of the Ministry curriculum committee who came to our first meetings was impressed by some of the fundamental ideas expressed this first day because we soon were joined by other members and the joint planning proceeded as originally intended.

We devoted full time in the January Work Conference to a consideration of the first cycle curriculum (Junior High). At the conclusion of this conference, the date of March 15 to 18 was set to have a second conference on the second cycle curriculum. Mr. Fatami, Chief of Education of Fars ostan, was invited to represent the Ministry and to be the Iranian leader and consultant in this second curriculum session. The total results were gratifying. We felt we were making headway in the area of curriculum revision.

The Iranian Junior High School curriculum offered seventeen subjects each year to the students. This meant subjects were taught one or two hours per week by many teachers who moved from school to school throughout the day. During the National Summer Teacher Training Program in 1954 at Tehran headquarters, the idea of combining subjects which were related (such as physics, chemistry, botany, biology, etc.) into a general science course and also the idea of teachers being

assigned full time to a school were discussed and emphasized. We operated our teacher training classes on this basis for the national training course. This permitted the number of subject areas to be reduced to about seven. It would also give each school a faculty over which the principal could have some control.

A former Minister of Education and a member of the High Council heard of these proposals and invited two American technicians to his home to discuss these ideas with him. After about four hours discussion, he grasped the concepts which were basic to the plan. Then he said, "Let's make the change next fall!" It was pointed out that changes should be made slowly. Books needed to be written. Teachers needed to be trained and a plan for systematic change-over had to be evolved. His reply was never to be forgotten. He said, "It would be better for the children not to be in school at all than to be there under the present curriculum."

This incident pointed up a very common problem in technical assistance. It had been difficult to introduce a worth-while idea and have it adequately considered by the Ministry. The tendency, when the new idea strikes fertile soil, however, is to want to implement the idea immediately, without attention to proper planning. Often fruitful suggestions have nearly failed, merely because their implications for the program were not adequately explored by Iranian educators before being tried. This haste and anxiety by Iranian educators to put a new practice into operation at once was a difficulty we had to cope with.

Change in the minds of responsible officials in the Ministry of Education concerning the new concept of learning in which the curriculum was conceived as something related to the needs of the student, the community, and to society, became our important task. To stimulate officials to view the school program as being important in reaching given objectives, and to get them to see the curri-

culum in new light was a difficult but important undertaking.

The project or activity teaching method eventually was accepted. As long as the required Ministry subjects were given the stipulated number of "hours per week" the Minister of Education granted considerable freedom in how they were to be taught in our Demonstration Schools.

4. The teacher in the typical Iranian High School was expected to teach but one subject in which he was supposed to be a specialist. Teachers in the secondary schools did not believe at first that they could teach another subject regardless of how closely related. The older teachers resented a working week of American standard length.

The allied problem of a transient faculty in the high school was also devastating to a sound program. Maintaining a permanent staff in a school was to them a new idea. A personal interest by these transient teachers in the child, the school, or co-workers was very unlikely.

The success obtained in this one concept and practice of the Point Four demonstration schools was quite revolutionary, to say the least. It brought new life and interest into the school room both for the teacher and the student.

One Iranian demonstration school teacher said, "I did not know I could ever learn to love students as I have, by becoming better acquainted with them." This was her first experience of having one group twelve hours per week and of employing the unit method of teaching.

Establishing demonstration schools meant considerable development and growth for faculty and staff alike. They received new techniques and methods of teaching, new concepts of child growth and development, and of learning. They received growth in ideas of materials construction, of students actually liking school, and of utilizing the community problems as subject matter for teaching.

The typical teacher, found in the secondary schools of Iran, has been considered infallible, and in passing or failing students he has been the sole judge. A strange philosophy of being tough on students has in the past added to the prestige and value of such a teacher. The philosophy which we tried to establish of centering attention upon a student's abilities, strengths, and talents, and developing them commensurate with his potentialities, was a new philosophy to most of the Iranian teachers. Helping all students to develop to whatever extent possible and to feel success in some sphere of activity was not present in the Iranian secondary school system. The practice of failure and cutting off all avenues of continuous growth and development was prevalent.

The first basic work performed by the Point Four secondary technicians when they were located in the ostan was to make a survey and gather statistics relative to the whole field of secondary education. They found an eighty-eight per cent mortality between the seventh grade and the twelfth grade for the school year 1953-1954. There were 34,000 students who had enrolled in the seventh grade and but 4,000 of them who had succeeded to the twelfth grade -- a mortality of 30,000 students. Of course, the national centralized examinations and the sterile curriculum and teaching methods cannot be blamed entirely for this extreme mortality. Economic circumstances, religion, personal and family desire undoubtedly constitute a cause for a certain portion of the drop-outs. In any event this loss of education is a terrific waste of potential national strength.

We faced this problem of developing an attitude favorable to student success in our teacher training courses and in our demonstration schools. Naturally, as in any other country, there are some students who lack certain essential aptitudes for specific types of learnings, but on the whole the Iranian children are bright and alert. Given good schooling, they can achieve greater success in a functional

type of education and be able to do something for community betterment when they finish school. Nearly every child possesses some good trait or talent and could experience success in some line of practical endeavor if the school system were conducive to this type of teaching and philosophy. In demonstration schools we were able to develop this idea.

5. The lack of textbooks and teaching materials was another problem faced. In the grade schools one thin book contained the material to be memorized in all the subjects. In the high school, there was a thin book on each major subject, a book lacking pictures and illustrations and containing but a few pages on each item. These pages were to be memorized verbatim. In this textbook area obstacles have been great. Everything put into the school must have Ministry approval. Point Four, however, succeeded in greatly increasing the quantity and quality of textbook and reference materials available to students and teachers. The construction and translation of more of the utilitarian type materials under Point Four management increased perceptibly.

6. Iran had little, if any, co-education in the schools below the university level. There were schools for girls and schools for boys. This sort of a cleavage between the sexes was being perpetuated as a result of the influence of the Moslem religion. Breaking this tradition is one area where the influence of Point Four has been negligible.

7. The Iranian school buildings were usually lacking in bulletin boards and other simple audio-visual aids. Blackboard were usually rough and dilapidated and often unpainted. The chalk often was a chunk of white plaster material. The erasers were ineffective hand-made affairs. There were few machine-made items in the school. The seats were in rows, fastened together. Frequently sixty or eighty students were in a room, and sometimes even more. There was no gymnasium,

no showers, no cafeteria, no flush toilets, and no library for scheduled usage. The light was usually unilateral and poor, and the buildings were very cold during the winter months. It is a school law that the small tin stoves could not be moved into the rooms until December 6, no matter how cold the weather. By the same law, stoves must all be removed from the school on March 21, regardless of temperature.

The type of school buildings and facilities for high school programs definitely had a sobering effect upon Point Four technicians and were a factor in the modification of programs. Our education technicians tried to exert all the influence possible to assist in at least three major directions:

- (a) To help bring about some new school building ideas and philosophy. There was a set pattern for schools in all Iran.
- (b) To help plan schools to house a given program. In the past they have usually constructed a building with small, dark, cold rooms and fit the program to the building.
- (c) To point out the necessity and importance of local ownership of schools. The prevalent practice of renting buildings in many cases prevented renovations and improvements that were essential. Many schools had less than one acre of playground. In the United States, five to twenty acres are the rule.

In the meantime, Point Four endeavored to brighten the schools with paint, bulletin boards, new blackboards, new types of furniture, and new furniture arrangement. Many new or improved schools were constructed for Iranians to observe and duplicate.

8. Another established practice of the school system was the national examination given to all students at the end of the sixth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. This educational practice was a problem of major proportions considering the injury it did in precluding the further schooling of many promising young people. Whether a student fails or passes the sixth, eleventh, and twelfth grades

is determined by these competitive examinations given each spring or fall by the Ministry. They are devastating, cold, and unsoundly administered. Soldiers or gendarmes are stationed at the gates and doors, carrying their bayonets, during these examination periods. Proctoring makes sure no one gets into the examination under a false name, and prevents cheating. In spite of these measures, however, the stories of the possibility of paying one's way through the examination seems not to be without some foundation.

The use to which the results of these tests are put as treated in a previous chapter is unfortunate. Because of the injustice of this system, Point Four has worked untiringly to modify the use of the sacred national examination. They stressed the constructive use of examinations within the classroom and emphasized the idea that teacher-made tests are a device for constructive learning.

9. The "dead end" type of schooling has been one of the entrenched problems of Iran. In the demonstration schools we worked to establish departments in the vocational-type subjects. Also, through cooperative effort, Point Four attempted to place vocational departments or curricula into the general high schools. In 1954 the teaching of typing and commercial work in some of our demonstration schools was a reality. We also worked to place vocational agriculture and home economics in the general schools for boys and girls respectively in an effort to curtail the narrowly specialized schools and develop departments within the comprehensive high schools. Unification and integration of the child's total educational experiences were designed by Point Four to result in a more useful, worthwhile, and understandable education for the student.

It was the aim to continue, on the other hand, to establish at least a minimum of general education--of the core subjects--for students in the specialized vocational schools. All students--regardless of their trade, business or

profession--will be citizens, and as citizens, they should have an essential minimum of general education. He should have the mental training and discipline in the social sciences, the skills in the arts of communication and the training in home living to be good community members and good citizens of Iran, regardless of the type of school attended. The secondary educationists of Point Four supported the philosophy that comprehensive general education should be available in high schools, and the student should be allowed to decide which field to follow in college having received the general education background for it in high school.

10. Another practice which created problems for those of our Point Four technicians who were attempting to establish demonstration schools, was the practice in the Iranian High School which provided scheduling of classes to fit the teachers' convenience. Many teachers had been allowed to teach their required hours per week all in one morning and then to be free the other days to work at other employment. The physics teacher, who taught physics three hours per week (or four in twelfth grade) may prefer to come Monday. In the demonstration schools we did not make a schedule in blocks of time to fit the convenience of the teacher. It had to be a schedule to coordinate all the activities and classes in the school, and the teacher had to be ready to fit into the schedule which was best for the students and the school program. The teachers of the demonstration schools came to see this necessity and supported it. As a result their teaching interest increased greatly.

11. In Iran, the large or even small organized playground was a rare sight. Alborz College (now high school) in Tehran was an exception to this, having been planned by an American. In the cities (There are a few high schools in the rural areas) most of the schools were held in rented buildings since there were few

public or Ministry-owned schools. In these schools, the playgrounds were merely the yards around the building, all encompassed by a mud or brick wall. The idea that learning experiences can be provided on a playground, or that valuable training experiences can be obtained outside four impending walls, was another new concept to Iranian educators. Field trips or excursions for practical education have not been allowed in many of the schools in Iran. Point Four worked to develop the concept that the school room was only one small area where teaching and learning may thrive, that learning can be accelerated through well-organized field trips and contacts with natural phenomena outside the school room, and that developmental experiences can be given the student in well-organized playground activities. "The whole world is the school and seat of learning," was the philosophy sponsored by Point Four.

12. To bring about change, Point Four had to have support of the central education office. In considering this whole question of accomplishments under Point Four, one must be aware of the fact that nothing can be accomplished without support of the Ministry of Education.

Ministry cooperation was most promising from His Excellency, Mr. Djaffari. He had a very commendable attitude and an understanding mind. Yet, he was not a "yes" man by any means. He had to understand why various measures were desirable before he accepted them; but when once shown the merit and importance of a measure, he was willing to accept it. He realized that changes were necessary if progress was to be made, and in several instances we found that he was so enthusiastic that we were pressed to keep up with his commitments. He was a high calibre man to work with.

If the Ministry does not continue to change personnel frequently, as has been its previous history, continued progress and systematic improvement in the educa-

tional system of Iran is very likely and indeed hopeful. The teachers who have tasted the fruits of the more challenging and promising methods of teaching are not likely to ever teach as they have taught before, standing upon the pulpit and lecturing facts to their students to be memorized for the day of judgment, the national examination. This memorized data fades out of mind after the examinations are over, leaving little of valuable aid to thinking, of making analyses or of providing a methodology for problem solving, to occupy the void left in the student's mind.

Many restrictions have been imposed on the teachers in the past because of the authoritarian administration. If teachers are given freedom to teach to their full potential, they can do a great deal to improve the classroom teaching situation. We believe this day of liberation has dawned and that freedom will increase under U.S.O.M./I.

13. Service of a first rate liaison officer for each Point Four worker was a necessity. It is recognized that our work was made effective only through the Iranian assistants, with which we were provided. Some of the Iranian school personnel speak and understand English; but in conveying our philosophy, ideas, and newer methods of instruction to the masses of educators in Iran, we had to rely on the assistants with whom we worked. Many of them were experienced educators and some of them had studied in America. Most of them were able and progressive people, understanding new concepts and transferring them to others. They were the communication mediators. Not only did the Iranian assistant act as translator and interpreter, but he understood the Iranian school regulations and was invaluable in presenting and developing relevant ideas. The Iranian assistant is the liaison officer between technician and program operation, between technician and Ministry personnel through whom all must work. Without a competent assistant an

American technician could accomplish little.

The wrong assistant could be a deterrant to the program. Some had a strong bias that "what had not been done before" could not be done now in Iran. The alert technician, becoming aware of this defeatist attitude, had to proceed carefully and help his assistant push forward beyond this stultifying danger point in order to assure that changes made would be worth while.

In this compilation of problems--and there were many more--no stigma or blame is given anyone. As has been said, these problems were inherent in this school system which rigidly followed the traditional pattern. No one person created the situation. No one in the current situation is to be held accountable.

We feel certain (though it is difficult to evaluate concretely the future effects on the Iranian educational program) that the teachers who have worked in the demonstration schools and who have had the in-service training and actually taught their groups by use of the unit and activity methods will never be satisfied to revert to the traditional lecture method. In our Point Four national and ostan teacher-training courses, it must be that seeds of discontent for the traditional patterns and a desire for better schools have been sown among teachers, supervisors, and administrators. At least a serious questioning of their outmoded system has been initiated. In-service training will have its impact in developing a pattern of conducting group discussions, organizing workshops, and in sharing ideas for improvement of the educational program. Surely the building of new schools and the provision of more adequate facilities will have a continuing influence in improving school plants.

The Point Four demonstration schools that have been organized and operated under direction of our American technicians have had an impact on the entire front of teacher procedures, curriculum reorganization, materials development, ministry

relations, teacher-student relationships, teacher-supervisor relationships, parent and school relations, and many other areas. However, the time spent and the money provided will have future value largely commensurate with a continuance of the work now started. Many other important concomitant results grew out of the varied educational activities and various efforts of Point Four technicians. These may have been as important in improving given teachers or programs as the main objectives were. But it must be stated that the maximum good from our technical help and the U.S. dollars spent, to date, can come only if there is follow-up to the point where trained and qualified Iranian nationals will be able to continue the program alone.

That point had not yet been reached when we left Iran in late 1955. Two years is not sufficient time to structure the secondary program or train the personnel to operate it. The original plan of five years often spoken of by Mr. Warne, would do much to insure and stabilize a sounder national program in secondary education.

Nomadic Education

In the total scheme of educational improvement in Iran, one additional project deserves mention. This project had to do with the development of tribal schools, the results of which were and are now considered very successful.

In the fall of 1951, Point Four set up a provincial office in Shiraz, the capital of Fars Ostan. Soon thereafter one of the tribal leaders from the Gashghi nomadic tribes came to the office of the education section to get assistance for their tribes who were without any facilities for schooling. After consulting with both Iranian and American officials, a survey of tribal conditions was made.

When the needs and resources for education in the tribes had been sufficiently studied, a formal proposal for a tent school program was drawn up and submitted to the Minister of Education. This called for the following activities:

1. A first phase of education, grades 1 to 4. This would be carried out in 120 movable schools in representative areas. It should be pointed out here that, although they were called "movable," these schools would actually be relatively fixed, moving only every thirty days on the average, while the tribes were in winter quarters and even less frequently during the summer. The "buildings" would, of necessity, be tents. The students, who are not used to chairs, would sit cross-legged on a carpet, each with a small box the size of an office desk basket in front of him. This box would be his desk and a storage place for his school supplies. Each pupil would be responsible for his own desk and equipment during migrations.

It was proposed that Point Four provide the tents, school "desks," books, portable blackboards, and expendable school supplies during the initial phase of the demonstration. The curriculum taught would be the one established by the Ministry for the regular schools. However, the tribal teachers would be permitted to use the environment of the school, and the surrounding area, as a means of enriching the traditional courses of study. Since Turkish was the language of the tribes and Ministry regulations required that the children be taught in Farsi, it was recommended that great emphasis be placed on the speaking and reading of Farsi in the Language Arts classes throughout the first six grades. The school year would be divided into two terms, May 15 through August 31, and October 15 through March 31. The two terms together would equal the nine-month year prescribed by the Ministry for all other schools.

2. A second phase of education, grades 5 through 9. Four years before the arrival of Point Four in Iran, the Ministry of Education had begun the construction of three tribal boarding schools in the Province of Fars. It was now proposed that these three facilities should be completed and used for the secondary phase

of the new tribal program. They would accommodate grades 5 through 9 and the movable schools would be feeders for them. After finishing grade 9 the students would go to a regular school, or attend a special one year teacher education course designed to prepare teachers for the tent schools.

3. Teacher selection and training. The customs and the mores of the nomad and the city or village dweller in Iran are very different. If the tribal schools were to be a means of bridging the gap, they would have to reflect in some way the values and practices of both kinds of living. It was, therefore, recommended that teachers be recruited from both cultures. As many as possible were to come from within the tribes, and the remainder from the villages. Since the average tribal teacher would have only a sixth or seventh-grade education, this plan would have some disadvantages to start with. On the other hand, most village teachers have little more schooling. The deficiencies of both groups, however, could be at least partially overcome through in-service teacher-training prior to the establishment of the schools and during the ensuing vacation periods. It was accordingly recommended that such training programs be set up, and that they initially be financed by Point Four. The tribal chiefs would each find and pay the salary of the teacher for his particular school.

To ensure a continuing supply of teachers, it was proposed that a special one-year course be given for selected graduates from the tribal schools, to qualify them as teachers for the movable schools for the years to come. This course would be housed in the Shiraz tribal boarding school. The content would be professional education courses oriented to problems peculiar to the tent schools.

4. Supervision. Four tribal men, twelfth-grade graduates, would be employed by the Ministry of Education and trained as supervisors. These men would receive special training from Point Four specialists, over and beyond the six-week course given for regular teachers. Point Four would also furnish vehicles for their transportation to and from the tribal areas. Within these areas, travel would be by horseback, the horses to be supplied by the tribes. The supervision of tribal schools would be separate and apart from that provided within the district for the regular schools. It was recommended that a special section for this particular phase of supervision be established in the Ministry of Education.

After considerable discussion, Iranian and Point Four officials approved this program and agreed that it would be implemented, in its entirety, in May of 1953. The tribal chiefs were notified to start recruiting and were told to send their teacher-candidates to Shiraz to participate in a seven-week training project. This course began the middle of July and ran through the second week of September. Toward the end of this period, the Mossadeq regime fell and the Ghasghi tribe became so involved politically that forty of the trainees, mainly those from villages, refused to go and live with the tribes. Because of the political unrest in the country, the distribution of supplies and equipment was delayed to those Ghasghi subgroups which would not pledge their support to the new government. In spite of these difficulties sixty-one of one hundred seventeen schools originally planned had been established by January, 1954, and by June, 1954, eighty-three were operating successfully.

As this tribal program progressed, those in charge became more and more conscious of the fact that tribal teachers needed additional training if they were really going to be able to help the tribes cope with their most serious and immediate problems. Among the most urgent of these problems were those relating

to sanitation, cooking, laundering, food handling, the treatment of sick children, and the care of animals.

Plans were, therefore, made to bring all the teachers back again to Shiraz, during the 1954 fall migration, for another seven-week in-service training course. In the meantime, technical help was obtained from specialists on the Point Four staff in public health, home living, agriculture, and animal husbandry. These technicians studied tribal conditions at first hand in preparation for their work with the tribal teachers.

In August, 1954, ninety-five teachers reported for this second course. The first ten days were devoted to the discussion of problems in teaching which were an outgrowth of the experiences of the tent school teachers during the past year. It was exciting to hear these men describe some of the ingenious methods they had developed to meet their needs, and to listen to their evaluation of the equipment they had been using. For the next three weeks, the group was divided into three units, each of which had thirty-six hours of basic instruction in health, home economics, and agriculture. A tribal family with its tent, sheep, and other possessions was stationed in a large compound near the training center in an effort to make the teacher-education program functional through the direct observation of problems in tribal living.

After this three-week course, fourteen days were devoted to methods of presenting basic information in health, home economics, and agriculture to groups of school children and adults through the development of units of work in these three areas. Emphasis was given to the functional approach in the teaching of the fundamental school subjects.

Each group of teachers built up units of work around a central theme and constructed many experience charts. These experience charts were compiled into three

big books: OUR BIG BOOK OF AGRICULTURE, OUR BIG BOOK OF HOME LIVING, AND OUR BIG BOOK OF HEALTH. Each teacher was provided with materials and equipment which he could use in conducting similar demonstrations when he returned to his tribe. Each was impressed with the importance of developing units of work in health, home living, and agriculture which would be practical in his own school situation. All were given materials for making charts which could be combined into books like the Big Books mentioned above.

This program of tribal education has now been in operation for six years. That is not a long enough time to show conclusively what such a program can do to bring about changes in the daily behavior of nomads. On the other hand, there is now reasonable evidence that such education can help the tribes to develop a sense of belonging to their nation and a desire to improve their standards of living. One measure of success may be the increase in enrollment in the movable schools. At the end of the first six months of the program, there was an average of fourteen boys in each school. After eighteen months, the average was eighteen in the eighty-three schools, twenty of which were relatively new. Another indication might be the fact that supervisors have seen--and eaten--vegetables from gardens maintained by pupils of the movable schools.

The Iranian Ministry of Education and the Provincial Department of Education in Shiraz have taken a definite interest in the tribal programs. For a time the Ministry of Education paid half of the salary of each tribal teacher. They also provided supervisors of the program, completed the tribal boarding schools, and made provisions for teacher education to insure a continuing supply of trained teachers for the movable schools. From all indications, the tribal program as outlined in the early days of its inception will be carried to completion by the Government of Iran.

Conclusion

Perhaps we will never be able to measure the exact extent of our influence and just what we did accomplish under Point Four in our efforts in Iran.

Our major educational objectives fell into three areas:

1. Personal relations. If we have failed in the development of good personal relations, the key to all accomplishment has been lost. Technical help is essential, but all the technical aid would have little value if the people with whom we worked did not like us and did not have complete confidence in us and in the things we endeavored to accomplish.

2. Technical assistance. Specific technical aid to education in Iran was and is very essential. The Iranian educationists in Iran admittedly desired and needed help. They needed new techniques and skills. We attempted to aid them in the areas of school building, planning and construction, teacher education, curriculum planning and reorganization, and improved teaching methods. Ultimate success in all these areas, however, depends on a more dynamic and appropriate philosophy of education.

3. Educational philosophy. Basic to the worthwhile changes in the total school system was the need of a new philosophy on all levels. Given a new way of thinking about education, these changes and new techniques became effective.

Developing a new philosophy in the minds of school personnel lacking essential background for it, would appear difficult. Our experiences were most encouraging. We found the Iranian teachers to be very alert to adapt new concepts and ideas when once demonstrated and explained carefully so they could see the value in them. Their constant reply was, "This new concept is very good and very encouraging. Why don't you teach it to our Ministry superiors in the ostan so they will understand it. They will then allow us to put it into effect." These

people are keen; they see through cause and effect quickly, and, for the most part, are anxious to do whatever will bring improvement into their school system. We did not hear any educator in Iran contend that education there was all sound or good. On the other hand, we heard many of them lament that the system was defective and needed to be improved. Those with understanding and new insight are seeking changes in education and they are eager to try out whatever can be shown them to be philosophically sound by way of new methods and improved techniques, providing the Ministry will sanction their requests. Present reports are encouraging. The tribal schools described were a new and a successful innovation in Iran--perhaps the first of their kind in the world.

CHAPTER VIII

A TYPICAL POINT FOUR PROGRAM ON A REGIONAL BASIS

Introduction

This chapter is a record of the experiences of one Regional Director in Iran. In it are outlined the programs that were initiated, the problems encountered, and some of the results obtained. It is believed that this summary of activities might be useful in obtaining some understanding of how a region operates.

Assignment to the Caspian Region

It is historic land where conquerors in times past and present traversed its area on their way to new conquests. It is a beautiful land with a high rainfall, rich foliage and many rivers flowing into the largest inland sea in the world, the Caspian. It is the land where the famous Reza Shah decided to make a garden spot in Iran. But it is also a land that needs help--help to exploit its resources, help in learning how to apply science to the soil and help in learning how to work together in common enterprises. --From the writings of a traveler in the Mazandran.

On March 9, 1952, several American and Iranian technicians and their families, left Tehran to go to Babolsar to open the Caspian Region to Point Four work. As Regional Director, Dr. Reed Bradford performed the necessary tasks along with the other Americans and Iranians assigned to the Caspian area in getting things ready to open this region.

The Iranian-United States Joint Commission for Rural Improvement decided that the best place to locate the Caspian Region Headquarters was at Babolsar. This was done for two reasons. In the first place, it was centrally located, and in the second, there were houses available which might be obtained for American personnel to live in. The houses belonged to the Imperial Pahlavi Domain. They were built fifteen years previously by His Majesty, Reza Shah, and had not been occupied since the Russians evacuated them after the Second World War. They were

in a state of disrepair. After much consultation the decision was made by Headquarters to repair the houses for occupancy by American personnel since there were no other suitable houses in the town of approximately six thousand inhabitants. A lease was concluded with the Imperial Phalevi Domain upon which agreement was reached relative to the following stipulations:

1. One Villa, No. 6, was to be leased to TCI without rental charge as a gesture by the Shah of his good will for the program.
2. The rent for the other villas was set at 3,000 Ruls monthly, with utilities being paid by the TCI.

Naturally a great amount of pioneering work had to be done at this time since many administrative personnel had not arrived from the United States to take over responsibilities in Headquarters. The delivery of the furniture and other supplies was delayed. During the time that the houses were being repaired, all the American personnel, including the regional director, his wife and two children were assigned to live together in one of the villas operated as part of the hotel. The total of fourteen individuals shared two bathrooms. Because the food at the hotel was often undesirable and caused many people to have indigestion, most of the Americans began to cook some of their meals in their one or two rooms. Certain problems of social relations arose as a result of these living conditions, but on the whole all who lived there accepted these conditions gracefully.

In the Caspian region there were two chief aims that guided Point Four work. In the first place, to promote acceptance and support of the projects, much cooperation and integration with Iranian organizations was sought. One chief problem was encountered in the attainment of this objective. It centered around the fact that many of the ostan government ministry leaders had headquarters in Sari, the ostan capital, located some sixty kilometers from Babolsar. Others were located at Babol, eighteen kilometers from Babolsar. Whether or not coopera-

tion was actually achieved depended to a great degree upon the intelligence, attitude, and ability of both the technicians and administrators concerned--Iranian and American. In some cases, a change in technicians or administrators was all that was needed for the desired cooperation to be achieved. The new technician--if he consciously sought for this objective--found ways and means to attain it.

As an example of good cooperation attained by one of the divisions, the following excerpt from the report of the Chief of the Agricultural Division, is quoted:

It has long been the policy of the Agriculture Division in the Caspian region to work in close cooperation with the Ministry of Agriculture personnel in the ostan.

Several months ago weekly or semi-weekly meetings were held with the Agricultural Ministry Ostan Chief and his staff and the TCI Agricultural Chief and his staff. This has brought about a close working relationship. . . . These actions built a great degree of confidence in the ability of the local Iranian employees to carry on the existing TCI organizations and programs.

Our second objective was to initiate basic projects that would reach as many people as possible, especially the common people who desperately need additional opportunities, advantages, and help.

At the end of the first year's work in the Caspian region, the following projects were in operation through the leadership of the people listed. The following American were at one time or another assigned to the Caspian, and to them he extends his sincere thanks for their work and achievements:

Public Health.Dr. Moye Freymann
Public Health (Nurse).Phyllis Smout
Public Health (Nurse).Ovelia Winstead
Public Health (Sanitary Engineer).Douglas Brown
Agriculture.Melvin Peterson
Education.Max Berryessa
Education.George Greenawalt
Administrative Officer.Howard Lockwood
Administrative Officer.Richard Braida
Chief, Personnel Section and.Margaret Evans
Secretary to the Director	

Agriculture

Livestock Improvement Program

The Artificial Insemination of Cattle. This project was only three months old at the time the Americans were withdrawn from the region, April 1, 1953; yet a total of 212 cows had been inseminated. It was made possible by bringing two Brown Swiss bulls to the Shahi and Ramsar livestock stations. Later an additional bull was brought, and two of these bulls got tick fever and died. This was a tragic blow. It was felt that with proper care the chances of this occurring would have been greatly diminished. These bulls were in the complete charge of the Livestock Bongah of these stations. Repeated efforts were made to get the Bongah to follow accepted practices in the care of these animals, but to train the personnel and educate them takes time. It should be mentioned that the funds for this program were completely in the hands of the Bongah so that it was not possible for the Point Four staff to use such funds as a lever to enforce accepted practices.

This project holds great potentialities for the future. It was widely accepted by the Iranian farmers who often came many miles to have their cows inseminated for upgrading the scrawny Iranian herds.

Distribution of American Chickens. During the first six months a total of 1,847 chicks were distributed to farmers in this region and an additional 500 half-grown pullets. The chicks were sold for a nominal fee and the pullets exchanged. Our chief difficulty with this project centered around two factors, Newcastle disease and the need for education of farmers in the care of chickens. The first chickens that came to the region had not been vaccinated against the disease. When it was discovered that the disease was present, vaccinations were begun. Studies made to determine losses suffered showed that about 35 per cent

of the baby chicks that had not been vaccinated died. Later all chicks sent to the region were vaccinated, and this trouble was ended.

One of the most important phases of our work in Iran centered around education--in one form or another. Most of the Iranian farmers--especially the small ones--had never received any instruction on the care of poultry. They did not have the proper coops, they did not know how to feed poultry, and they were not familiar with the common diseases that affect chickens. The regional director was grateful for the organization of the Extension Service in Iran, for its agents can be a great force in this educational process.

This project grew rapidly. Flocks were established at various livestock stations so that the eggs for hatching could be distributed to farmers. One now sees many of these larger American chickens in the villages.

Livestock Disease Control. This was one of the most popular projects initiated in the region. One of the Point Four technicians, Mr. Rahmani, stated in his last report before the departure of the Americans:

For two days I have been traveling for the purpose of making investigations in connection with the livestock disease control program. My destinations were remote localities such as Chorghach, Narkalatch, Tooranfars, Doland, Galand, Khanbin, and other outlying areas. I observed closely the diligent activities of our functionaries. I asked the people whether or not the veterinary activities have been useful to them. They answered: "If one-tenth of the effort had been expended in the past for the health of the people as has been expended by Point Four in behalf of the animals of this area, very few sick people would be seen."

By April, 1953, 70,522 sheep and 9,402 cattle had been inoculated or vaccinated for diseases of various types. This program was carried out in 118 villages and some 400 persons received instruction in the proper method of vaccination and the need for it.

Vegetable Improvement

This project had two chief phases. First, Shahpasand seed wheat and American see barley were distributed in exchange for poor quality wheat and barley in forty areas throughout the region. The distribution of Shahpasand wheat was made as an experiment only since it was thought that this type of wheat does not do well in areas which have a high rainfall such as the Caspian. This in the main proved to be true.

The second phase was establishment of experimental vegetable plots in many areas throughout the region to determine which vegetables would do best and to initiate a seed certification program. Most of the seeds planted were from the United States. It was found that string beans, egg plant, and cabbage did very well in the Caspian. It was also found that squash and cucumbers did not do as well as the Iranian varieties.

One of the most important results obtained from this project was a demonstration of the fact that vegetables can be grown throughout the fall and winter season in the region. This certainly presented tremendous possibilities for development in the future.

But of greatest significance, perhaps, was the matter of organizing an agency in Iran to collect and certify good seed. No such organization had previously existed. Extensive efforts were made by the Agricultural Staff of the Caspian region to work with headquarters and the Ministry of Agriculture to certify seed. Careful plans were developed for creation of such an organization, the establishment of which will be most important in this country.

Extension Activities

Many people had been aware of the need for establishing an extension service for a long time. During the final month in which the Point Four Americans were

in the Caspian region, the announcement of the organization of the Extension Service was made. Previous to that time, a considerable number of activities had already been organized in the region which were extension services, anticipating the country-wide organization. In his final report, Mr. Peterson pointed out that a total of 120 farmers (renters), 138 landowners, 288 government officials and 478 others, including high school students were aided in projects during that month.

Extension agents assisted in such matters as pest control, artificial insemination, planting gardens on school grounds to teach the students the value of gardens. It is the hope for the future that the work of these Extension Agents can be closely tied in with a first-class research organization in the Caspian region. There are many stations in the Caspian region that do a small amount of research, but there is no capable director such as is found in the United States and hardly any Iranian technicians who understand scientific procedures in carrying out research projects of the type needed to give answers to perplexing problems confronting the farmers of the area.

Vocational Agricultural School.

It seemed to the Agricultural Staff and Provincial Director that one of the most important projects that could be initiated in the region was a vocational agricultural school. One such school already existed in Sari, but it was in a state of great disorganization. Politics influenced the regular educational activities so strongly that when the Americans first visited the school verbal attacks were made against them and physical damage done to their vehicle. This situation was soon changed and a new director assigned. However, little or no instruction was being given in practical agricultural training. Everything was theoretical.

Some years previously, the Iranian government had started to build a new vocational agricultural school. One hundred and sixty hectares of ground had been obtained and the school foundation put in. After extensive negotiations with the former contractor and the Ministries of Agriculture and Education, an initial contribution by Point Four of 3,500,000 rials was made to complete the school. Thus, completion of a fine structure was accomplished. Again, there was a need of a capable director and a staff that could teach practical agriculture to the students.

Necessity for continued Point Four work in the Caspian Region

The Caspian area, from Astara to Gorgan, has the finest agricultural potential of any area in Iran. It has a high rainfall in certain sections such as Guilan; it has the best forests in Iran and it has many rivers which make irrigation possible. It is important and paramount that American technicians be reassigned to work in the area to assist in its development. Continuation of research and education is needed in order that the Caspian region's potentialities might be reached.

Health and Sanitation

Project for Teaching Public Health Subjects to School Teachers

For the first time in the history of the Caspian area, public health subjects were taught in the schools through the organization of the program by Point Four technicians. Dr. Meye Freymann, Chief of the Division of Health and Sanitation, OMI, Babolsar and his entire American and Iranian Staff did an outstanding job in this connection. Close cooperation with them was achieved by both the Division of Education and the Audio-Visual-Aid Section. A total of 230 teachers in village schools and 152 teachers in the cities of the area received this instruction. Supervisors were assigned to schools where teachers had received such training

and regular assistance and aid given them so that their work could be successfully carried out. Several important Iranians including the Shah viewed this work and expressed gratification at the new knowledge that students were receiving.

Public Health Publications

In order to disseminate information concerning public health matters, it was decided that a Public Health Bulletin would be issued as well as a series of small pamphlets in cooperation with the Ostan Health Department. This proved to be a very successful undertaking, but later this type of work was assumed by Headquarters, Tehran, in order to produce greater coordination and efficiency.

Health Centers

Three health centers were established in the region by April 1, 1953, one at Babol, one at Sari, and one in Gorgan. The work of these centers consisted in giving some treatment to children and babies for a limited number of diseases and especially in giving instruction to mothers in connection with child laboratory care. This health service was extended to a considerable number of people.

At every opportunity the teaching of sanitation and nutrition was undertaken. Needless to say, women (and a few men) came for miles around to these clinics to receive aid for their children as well as for themselves.

Public Health Nursing and Midwifery

One of the first things attempted with this program was the training of "Behyars" or girls whose function was to go into the villages and teach women about child care and related subjects. Twenty-three of these girls had been trained or were in the process of training by April 1, 1953. A report covering the period up to the last month that Americans were in the region shows the following activities were accomplished by these girls:

Number of villages visited.	19
Number of visits made to women.	158
Number of midwives contacted.	75

A special effort was made to work with midwives and teach them superior methods. The American nurses cooperated in this endeavor in addition to the Behyars. Several classes for midwives were organized as well as many personal visits made to them.

Sanitary Engineering

Musterah Construction. By April 1, 1953, a total of 1,239 musterah (toilets) slabs had been made by the local Point Four team and 700 actually installed in the villages. An easy method of construction was devised for making and installing of these slabs in the villages. Engineer Douglas Brown and Engineer Mohammed Assar did an excellent job in this project.

Safe-well construction. Since water is relatively near to the surface in this area, work was concentrated on either making safe the shallow wells already in existence or constructing new wells. A total of sixty small home wells had been made safe with local materials and six large, safe, village wells had been finished.

School Sanitation. It was decided that one of the best measures for improving health conditions was to assist schools in improving sanitary conditions both in their toilet facilities and in general cleanliness in the building and grounds. Activities were begun (with the assistance of sanitary aides) in Sari, Gorgan, and Babol.

Sanitary Survey of Babolsar. At the request of the municipality a map of the town showing complete details of present sanitary facilities was prepared. Recommendations for many improvements and a plan for jointly solving the problems were made.

Organization of Classes in Villages to Teach Sanitation. This was an effort in which both the Public Health Nursing Division and the Sanitary Engineering section cooperated. The Audio-Visual-Aid section also gave valuable assistance. The health offices of the government of the areas concerned, cooperated fully. The purpose of the classes was to give health instruction in simple sanitation, nutrition, and related measures.

General Training. In addition to the training already mentioned, one of the most important projects was instigation of the work of "sanitary aids." These individuals were trained by our Public Health and Sanitation staff in such subjects as DDT spraying, shallow-well construction, basic sanitation, and hygiene. These sanitary aids were then assigned to the villages to help teach the villagers. From time to time they were returned to Regional Headquarters to receive additional training. Many of these individuals did superior work.

Large Mobile Health Unit.

The Caspian region was one of the three Point Four regions in Iran to initially receive a large mobile health unit. It took considerable time and effort to get this unit fully equipped and a staff trained and assigned to operate it, but when established it rendered valuable service. Full reports have been completed concerning its cost of operation and the feasibility of its continued use in Iran.

In the Caspian region the unit's first work was obtaining information about various areas in the region--types of worms and other parasites prevalent, the relative prevalence of various diseases, and other data. Following this work, a plan was devised whereby the unit first went into a village where its first attempt was to arouse interest in health and sanitation measures. Films were shown, lectures given and some immunization work done. The unit stayed in the

village as long as villagers cooperated in accepting its services. Immunizations and other assistance was given only when the villagers themselves cooperated in carrying out certain sanitation measures such as improvement of toilet facilities, removal of stagnant pools, and other "clean up" work.

The unit became a very significant instrument of the Point Four program in the area. Aside from the assistance it rendered in improving health and sanitation, it was also a good advertisement for Point Four generally.

Transfer of Responsibility to Public Health Co-op

On April 1, 1953, just as the American left the Caspian Region the Public Health Co-op was organized. This was a significant step in turning over projects originally begun by the Americans to the Iranian government. When Point Four arrived in Iran, there was little of what might be called "Public Health." But now the Public Health Co-Op, an agency of the Iranian Government, is a growing concern.

Perhaps no part of our work was more popularly received than the work of this section of Point Four in the Caspian region. It reached large numbers of deeply appreciative individuals in the villages. One problem arose in connection with the DDT spraying program. There was often a misconception concerning what insects this preparation would kill. During the first year of spraying, many flies, for example, died and the villagers thought the same should happen in subsequent years. When it didn't, many villagers thought the DDT was defective. This general misconception was countered by having a malariologist come from Tehran and make studies in the villages. He found the spraying to be very effective against the mosquito and doing what it was designed to do. Then a program was initiated throughout the area to inform the public about the powers of DDT. After that the criticism diminished rapidly.

Education

The region was without the services of an American educationalist until November, 1952, when Mr. George Greenwalt arrived from America. He remained in the region until April 1, 1953, when he and the other Americans were withdrawn, having been there a total of only four months. This fact is mentioned to point out that capable as the Iranian staff were, they needed the ideas and advice of Americans in this program in order to bring about reforms in the whole educational program in Iran.

In spite of the absence of the Americans, however, several programs in the field of education were initiated. Full credit should be given to Mr. Jamshid Behrevesh, who acted as chief of the Education Division and to the Staff of the Ostan Division of Education who have reached a fine level of cooperation.

Teacher Training

In the Caspian region during the first summer, training was given to ninety-eight teachers from various areas. The course lasted five weeks and was generally well-received. The Communists of the area thought they had a good propaganda plum in their hands when some of their reporters began charging that this school was nothing more than a device used by the Americans to spread their imperialistic ideas. By the time the school was over, however, and many supplies had been furnished the teachers, the project was so popular, that the Communists hurriedly gave up their treatment of it.

The most important aspect of this program, it seems, was the supervisory aspect. Because of no transportation facilities, it was some time before this phase of the work commenced. Certainly these supervisors who are now in the region, can have a great influence on the teachers if they operate in a cooperative, friendly and intelligent manner.

Demonstration Schools

Two demonstration schools--one at Babolsar and one at Gorgan--were established. At Gorgan it was a great advantage to have a normal school for training teachers available so that the teachers could see the work going on in the demonstration school. In Babolsar it was planned that teachers from surrounding areas would be brought in regularly to observe the school and its procedures.

Both of these schools became very popular with parents in their respective areas as is evidenced in the fact that many more requests for entrance of children were received than could be granted.

One of the best results of the program was the organization of a Parent-Teacher Association. Nothing like this had ever been done before, and it was surprising and deeply gratifying to the workers to see the interest and response of the parents and teachers. Certainly this organization should receive further emphasis and guidance since it is a means of making the schools responsive to the desires and needs of the mass of the people and not just to the desires of the administrators. An excerpt from the report of Mr. Greenawalt is informative in this regard:

A meeting of the parents of the first grade children, the teachers and the educational staff was held on the afternoon of February 1. There were thirteen fathers and eight mothers present. Brief talks on the objectives of the school and the methods used in teaching were held. After these brief talks, the meeting was thrown open to discussion and every parent responded. All except one seemed genuinely enthusiastic concerning the school and expressed their satisfaction. The one who complained that his child did not have enough studying to do, later agreed that the child was receiving good training. As I compared the attitude of the parents in the meeting with that of parents in such meetings in the United States, I felt that in some respects this one was better. The teachers knew their children and were able to answer specific questions. After the discussion the second grade teacher said that she wished to hold a meeting of the parents of her children next week. The fourth grade teacher was eager to have a like conference for the

parents of the children in his room. This attitude was quite in contrast to that of teachers in the United States who frequently wish to avoid such assignments.

English Classes

So great was the demand for English classes that it was impossible to meet it with the funds and teachers available to give instruction. Classes were organized in Gorgan, Sari, Shahi, Babol, and Babolsar. At first the teachers were skeptical concerning the method used--that of having them constantly repeat words and phrases without primary emphasis upon the grammar--but after a short period of time the students became enthusiastic about it as they found themselves capable of understanding some words and of speaking them in a much shorter time than under the old system.

School House Construction

The need for school facilities throughout the region as elsewhere in Iran was great. When funds were made available for this project by Point Four an immediate survey was made of the area and those villages selected for building schools were where the people were willing to make a contribution either in money or labor or both. In no case was more than 100,000 rials given by Point Four. Work soon commenced on eleven prospective schools.

It was right that Point Four discontinued giving outright grants for school house construction since the need is so great and Point Four's funds so limited that only a beginning could be made. The construction of school houses became one of the functions of the Community Development Division.

Change of Methods of Teaching

It was the belief of the regional director that education--both in its limited and broadest sense--was one of the most significant, if not the most significant, area that should receive emphasis in Iran. Masses of the people in Iran are

illiterate (as high as ninety-five per cent in many rural areas). A large number of new schools were needed and the curriculum was in need of basic and important changes so that children might learn by doing and understanding rather than by rote memory work. The school system was in need of reorganization so that administration was not so centralized and local areas might have more authority and responsibility with regard to the schools of their local area. There needed to be a continued training of teachers and an increase in salary for teachers so that they would not be forced in other activities in order to live.

Economic Development

Because of a lack of American technicians for sponsorship of an economic development program, this was the last program to be started in the area. Needless to say there was tremendous need for such projects. The regional director assigned Iranian personnel to spend a number of months in gathering information in the area regarding its needs. Unfortunately reliable statistics were not available in Iran so that much needed information was unavailable. However, the reports finally submitted were studied at length, interviews held with important officials and others with a knowledge of the area, and plans drawn for the subsequent economic and industrial development of the region. The following are some of the recommendations that were made:

Repair of Bridges and Roads

As is well known, the Caspian roads, like most of the roads in the remainder of the country were bad indeed, especially when it rained during the winter months at which time many of them are impassable. Urgent requests were made for equipment such as graders and bulldozers. At that time the road commission in the region did not even have trucks or any such things as graders. The only work being done on the roads was the work of laborers throwing dirt back on to the road with home made shovels.

Because of inadequate engineering construction as well as receding of Caspian waters in recent years and the resultant steeper fall of the rivers, many bridges were rapidly deteriorating and falling down. After studying the situation, Point Four contributed the sum of \$100,000 to assist in bridge repair and reconstruction. Thus, much work has been done and many of the bridges put back into operation.

There was also additional need for the construction of many farm-to-market roads in the region.

Conservation of Forests

This subject has been treated before, but since it involves the possibility of great economic potential for Iran, it deserves separate mention here.

The Caspian region has the finest forests of Iran. In addition to the softwoods there are also many hardwoods of unexcelled quality. These forests have been and still are tragically misused. No survey had previously been made to determine the extent of misuse. An excessive number of charcoal kilns are found throughout the area. Often giant hardwoods are cut down and only the branches used for charcoal. Sheepmen are permitted to over graze their sheep most anywhere, thus destroying many young trees. Many herders build fires in giant trees that have taken years and years to develop in order that the herders can have shelter from the rain. Foresters are poorly trained and paid. There is a great disregard for a systematic cutting and replacement of the trees.

Mr. Henry Kernan, Headquarters, OMI, Tehran and members of the Forestry Bongah have now organized a program to correct some of these prodigal practices. Organized control is urgently needed in the Caspian area to preserve the forests from ultimate destruction.

Use of Audio-Visual Aids

The Audio-Visual Aids section was, of course, a service section serving all

the other divisions of the region. From the beginning, the director felt that its role was extremely important, and he made strenuous efforts to acquire competent personnel to work with the section in obtaining the much needed supplies. With Fereidoon Adl, an Iranian with six years experience in the United States as director, this section did an outstanding job.

It was the conception of all concerned in this work that the purpose of the section was to educate people in all areas and explain to them the various projects and work of Point Four. In order to accomplish this end, it was essential to coordinate its work with all the various divisions. If, for example, a film was to be shown on malaria, it was necessary to have some competent person discuss the subject of the film before it was shown, point out any additional important information, and emphasize the subject matter afterward by use of questions and other devices. If posters were to be placed, extensive preparation had to be made to determine the most fitting kind of poster and the most strategic place for it to be displayed. If a bulletin was published on some subject, its language had to be reviewed to see that the subject matter was clear and understandable to the average citizen.

Some idea of the extent of the work of this section is given in the following summary report for one of the final months before the Americans left--January, 1953. During the month, 44 film showings were made with a total attendance of 36,271. These covered such subjects as Nurse Visitor Training Class, Public Health Teacher Training Program, Village Sanitation and Health Improvements, Sanitary Aids Class, and the five basic training films: Artificial Insemination, Poultry Raising, The County Agent, Hay Is What You Make It. Aside from this the program filler, Iranian Skies, was used.

Withdrawal of American Technicians from the Caspian Region

It was a sad day for the regional staff at Babolsar when it was announced on March 9, 1953, that the Americans would be withdrawn from the Caspian Region on April 1, 1953. It had been one year to the day since the region was first established. This decision had become necessary because of various political events in Iran which are not discussed here.

It was decided, however, that the Iranian staff would continue activities and Hossein Moshiri who had been Administrative Assistant to the Provincial Director and who had spent many years in the United States, would be made Acting Provincial Director. Other Iranians, including Jamshid Behraves, Mirmansoor Khamisi, and Parviz Pakdaman were made the Chiefs of Education, Agriculture, and Health Divisions, respectively. Mr. Amir Chafferri was made Administrative Officer, but the decision was made to allow Mr. Howard Lockwood to stay in the region until the completion of his tour of duty in Iran in June, 1954. He was confronted with many perplexing problems during this period and worked hard to be of the greatest possible assistance to the entire staff.

The Iranian staff responded nobly to this challenge of operating without the assistance of American technicians. Needless to say, they accomplished much for which the American Point Four leaders are grateful. There can be no doubt, however, that American technicians are needed everywhere in Iran who have the knowledge, skill, and techniques necessary to help establish new ideas and practices in the society. Now Americans are again returning to the Caspian region. During the time when Mr. Lockwood was there, Americans and Iranians from Headquarters were asked to give special attention to the region by Director Warne.

On October 7, 1953, the Iranian-United States Joint Commission made the announcement that a new Region, the Resht Region, would be established. Its

boundaries would extend from Astara on the west to and including Chalus in the east and to the mountains on the south. Thus, one-half of the old Caspian region had been taken to form this new region.

One trait of human beings is that people often wish changes to be accomplished in a hurry. When these desired changes are not made rapidly, many people are willing to throw aside a program and try something else. To be sure, the Point Four program should be carefully considered with regard to its aims and objectives. The operation of the program should be based upon sound principles of human behavior. Above all, our objective is for native people to understand the projects and to acquire skill in putting them into effect. In this connection, our aim of helping the people to help themselves appears to the author to be a sound one.

But over and beyond these considerations we must have patience. When a human being become conditioned over a long period of time to a given pattern of behavior, it is often difficult and in some cases impossible to change this pattern in a short period. The American members of the Caspian team were in this region for only one year. The director is writing this last paragraph in the year 1959, five years after he wrote the preceding material. In considering the difficulties encountered, the patterns of behavior of people acquired over many years, and considering that we only had one year in which to operate, it seems amazing that we were able to initiate all that was initiated. This, therefore, is a plea for certain basic programs to receive careful guidance and support, not for just a short period, but for a sufficient length of time to take root in the lives of the people. Once the American and Iranian technicians have started these ideas "on the way" they will germinate and spread. We should not abandon them until that point has been securely reached.