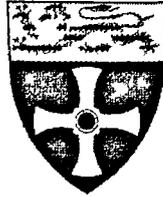


UNIVERSITY OF  
NEWCASTLE



*An Evaluation of  
Rural Development Planning in Iran after the Revolution 1979*

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*This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy*

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*October 1999*

*To Mahmoud Saremi,  
a very valuable friend, who dedicate his life to his Country*

***Abstract:***

With the industrial revolution and huge emigration from villages to cities in developed countries, and later on with the changing balance between the Urban and Rural residents in third world countries, because of the poverty and lack of basic services in rural areas, rural development has become a major problem in the world, especially in third world countries.

Iran, as one of such countries, has been faced with this problem, and some reforms for changing the situation and providing more acceptable living conditions for the rural people have been established and implemented. After the Revolution in 1979, the Islamic Government has its roots in the poor people who supported the Revolution in different stages so the effective factors for such improvements in rural condition are included in the revolutionary Constitution and later on in the National Development Programmes.

The statements in the Constitution Law and the establishment of two independent agencies, Bonyad-e-Maskan & Jihad-e-Sazandegi, to deal with rural problems, have resulted in the start of Rural Development Planning activities. The national aims developed by the policy-maker for development in rural areas in this regard are to:

*“ Create necessary social, cultural and economic conditions necessary for development, and providing necessary possibilities and physical improvements and necessary facilities for improving housing and other environmental basic public services.”*

With this overall policy, development activity has started with the aim of improvement in the standard of life for rural areas. Up to 1997, about 1000 plans have been prepared and 370 have been implemented. This research is looking to investigate the implemented cases, to evaluate the degree of success or failure and to make conclusions and recommendations.

With this aim, the research includes a literature review, in the context of development planning, specifically Rural Development Planning, and then an investigation of Iranian Constitutional Law, the National Programmes, the agencies and Iranian planning organisation to be able to make an evaluation framework and design a process for case

studies and data collection, in a qualitative approach to the research.

With 59 cases which had passed their first five years period of planning, 13 cases have been chosen, of which five have been studied in detail, each with an individual field study report, leading to specific and general conclusions, which are divided into two parts. Firstly from the literature review, which draws the main points to establish the desired achievements for successful development planning in rural areas. Secondly the conclusions apply to all parts of the rural development process in Iran, from policy making to implementation and with recommendations for the overall process in principle and in detail and relating to the agencies and resources involved.

The main results from the case studies have identified gaps and weaknesses in the process and therefore have lead to recommendations as to how the process would be more successful. It shows that the rural development planning, as part of the national development programme, needs:

- i) To have more accurate regional plans in advance in order to define the main potentials in each region, and to provide guidelines appropriate to each;
- ii) To ensure the correct designation of the villages which are to be planned;
- iii) To encourage the appointed consultants to follow best practice for plan-preparation;
- iv) To provide the necessary administrative organisation, with the powers and resources to be able to carry out the process; and
- v) To improve implementation.

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***Preface:***

### ***Cities: Problems for the 21st Century***

In the past the development of cities and the growth of villages into towns and cities was a matter of pride for inhabitants. These days, in western countries, people seem to prefer to live in the countryside, away from the cities, and this phenomenon could be very serious, threatening city life. However, in the developing countries, the processes of movement of population from rural to urban living continues causing economic and physical problems in the cities and depopulating rural settlements. The main factor for growth in cities in the world was the Industrial Revolution from the eighteenth century onwards. The invention of new production machinery, using energies like water, steam and electricity caused the replacement of manpower by machines and large scale production. This industrial system needs a large number of workers for production, distribution and sales. These were the reasons that large numbers of immigrants were attracted to the cities to work in and live near new factories, and the cities became bigger and bigger. A huge extension in cities, in a short era of time, brought a new period of large-scale social change, as a revolution in social attitudes and activities as well as the Industrial Revolution.

This global phenomenon became even faster after the Second World War, as the number of urban residents grew from 247 million in 1950 to 1.5 billion in 1975, and 3 billion is the forecast for the year 2000. By 1980 there were 28 cities with population more than 5 million, 10 cities with 10 million, and 3 metropolitan areas with more than 15 million residents. But the forecast for 2000 is that at least 21 metropolitan areas with more than 10 million will exist. The huge growth in cities is continuing and accelerating. In

recent decades the annual growth in population in cities in the developing countries is 8% and in the others 3.6%. A United Nation, demographic study (1988) define this process of change, the increase and decrease in Urban and Rural population from 1950 up to now and the appropriate forecast for next 25 years. Table 1. shows this process from 1950 to 2025.

*Table 1. Average growth rate of Urban and Rural population, (Percent per year)*

Regions		Average growth rate of Urban and Rural population												
		1950 1955	1955 1960	1960 1965	1965 1970	1970 1975	1975 1980	1980 1985	1985 1990	1990 1995	1995 2000	2000 2005	2005 2010	2010 2025
Urban	World Total	3.15	3.65	2.94	2.75	2.64	2.41	2.34	2.39	2.45	2.45	2.42	2.36	2.23
	More Developed Regions	2.43	2.47	2.18	1.82	1.53	1.15	0.99	0.89	0.84	0.75	0.67	0.58	0.54
	Less Developed Regions	4.23	5.22	3.85	3.76	3.72	3.50	3.38	3.42	3.42	3.35	3.23	3.09	2.84
Rural	World Total	1.20	0.99	1.47	1.64	1.57	1.34	1.22	1.08	0.91	0.72	0.43	0.16	-0.01
	More Developed Regions	-0.15	-0.44	-0.43	-0.90	-0.47	-0.17	-0.21	-0.14	-0.21	-0.15	-0.24	-0.19	-0.24
	Less Developed Regions	1.56	1.33	1.89	2.12	1.91	1.56	1.41	1.24	1.05	0.82	0.50	0.20	0.01

Source: *Population Studies, United Nations, 1988, (101)*

The forecast for population and its movement is that, by the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, two thirds of the city residents in the world will be in developing countries and at least 18 metropolitan areas out of 21 would be in such countries. This change is not planned and the growth and extension of the cities have happened without any programming. This causes living difficulties in small towns and rural areas as well as the problems which increasing numbers of residents cause in the bigger cities, and these have the effect of decreasing living standards in almost all situations, but especially for the poorest people. The metropolitan areas of the third world countries will be faced with the most difficulties in the 21<sup>st</sup> century; how it is possible to plan for such cities? and how it is possible for the

governments to finance the cost of such cities? It is really out of control and naturally, as the situation has developed, the problems have become more complicated and unsolvable.

### *Cities in Third World Countries.*

The growth in the population of Third World Countries up to the Second World War was slow, but this process became much faster in the last four decades and emigration from rural areas has become one of the strategic problems in such countries. From 1950 to 1980 the proportion of city residents in relation to the whole population has changed from 40% to 60% in Latin America, 10% to 25% in Africa and 15% to 20% in Asia.

Pacione (1984) claimed that:

*“In the world as a whole it is estimated that there are 14 million rural settlements of less than 2000 persons”*

and Doxiadis (1968) argued that:

*“2 out of every 3 people still live in villages, hamlets or isolated rural dwellings.”*

The population in third world countries excluding India and China, increased from 120 million in 1960 to 1200 million in 1985. This is as a completely different scale to what happened in European Countries which has some measure of population planning and also town and country planning which included the construction of new towns as well as the extension of the existing cities. The largest third world cities are, according to the forecast of the United Nations, Sao Paolo and Mexico City, which in 2000 will each have 26 millions; the population of Bombay will be more than 16 millions.

The reason for such un-programmed growth of cities in third world countries is that there is no planning for social, economic and physical development for the people, usually in the low income strata in the small towns and especially in a large number of poor villages. The suburbs of big cities are created by the rural immigrants, who come to the cities looking for enough income to live. Accommodating these people and the large number of social and criminal problems which arise in such communities, make this phenomenon more strategic and dangerous everyday. These are serious problems for any national development programme, with massive impacts on national aims and achievements, which need to be properly addressed. This phenomenon is mostly in third world countries. In 1950 in such countries there was only one city with more than 4 millions (Buenos Aires) but these numbers became eight in 1960 and 22 in 1980. In industrial countries these are 16 cities of this size.

The result is that by 1996, 2.6 billion people are living in cities, 1.7 billion of them are in the developing countries, and the growth in the numbers of city residents has been proportionally much more than the increase in the global population. By the next decade at least half of the world's population will live in cities, that is 3.3 billion out of the 6.59 billion of the world's population. 92.9% of this growth is in the developing countries, this means that, of every 4 persons living in cities, three of them will live in Developing Countries, and this figure by 2025 will be 4 out of 5. This demonstrates that the greatest number of city residents are living in the poorer countries. Mariam Pal, (1998) argues that:

*“According to the 1990 World Development Report there are 1.1 billion poor people worldwide. Of this number, nearly 200 million are in Africa and 800 million in Asia.”*

***Cities in Iran, from 1920 ~ 1998.***

In the last century, in countries like Iran, there were no big differences between cities and rural areas, as Ashraf, A. (1978) says:

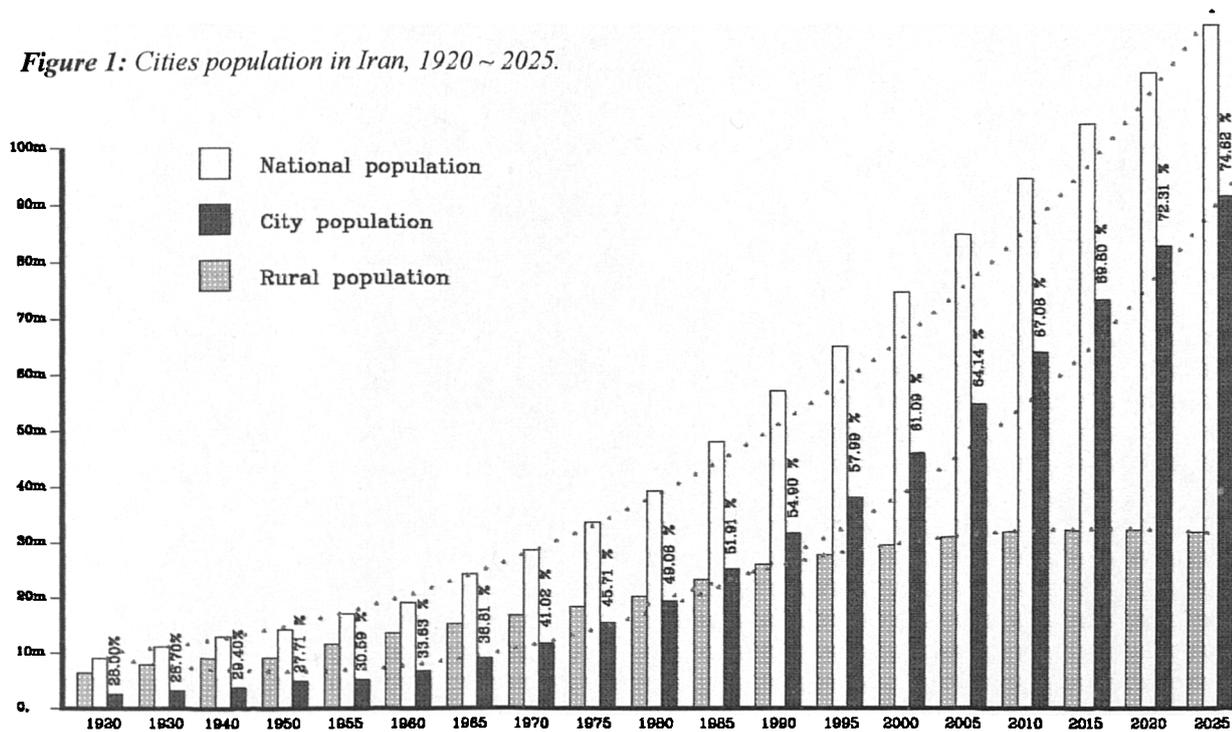
*“the rural areas were recognized as production areas and cities were centres for collecting the surplus and trading the products with the others, the important point is that even the villages, which were located on the trade routes, were not only productive places, they traded with merchants, who were passing through the village or coming for exchanging goods.”*

Historically Urbanism in a new form began from the Safavid regime and continued strongly in the regime of Reza Shah. After 1921, the administrative and political shape of the country completely changed and a new system, influenced by western countries was created. New facilities and possibilities, on a European scale started, without regard to the traditional cultural values that have a strong effect on people, and which should be taken into account for such reforms. The most important reason for such phenomenon was the emigration of rural inhabitants to cities, and this is the reason for poverty in the villages as the result of depopulation and lack of development planning in these areas.

Figure 1 demonstrates population changes in Iran, from 1920 to 1986; the lack of sufficient statistical information after the 1979 Revolution makes the analysis more difficult, but the process of change and the increasing size of city population, demonstrate that this problem is strategic for policy makers in the country, if they want to stabilize the situation and keep the process of depopulation under control. Most of the emigrants come to the cities for more income and better conditions for a decent life for their family. So the meaning of Development Planning in this issue would be to provide the necessary services in rural areas

and to try to create more employment opportunities in order to stabilise the rural population. The problems which are caused by rural depopulation have to be tackled at their origins, in rural areas.

Figure 1: Cities population in Iran, 1920 ~ 2025.



Source: United Nations, population Studies, 68, 101, 106, (1980 – 1989)

Urban programming in Iran, Dahaghani, M. 1995

More careful attention to Figure 1 demonstrates that the process of depopulation in Iranian rural areas, after 1950 is getting faster and faster. In 1950, city population was still only 27.70 % of the total, but this percentage rapidly increased to 51.91 % in 1985. It is important to note that the great Land Reform happened 1963. During this period experience showed that if this rural depopulation process is to be controlled, a more comprehensive programme was needed, concerning all relevant issues, providing all necessary supportive matters, in addition to physical environmental improvements. It could provide a more stable situation for better programming and taking into account all the existing possibilities and

potentials. The absence of all these factors in rural areas has been the reason why, at the end of this century, in spite of all the agricultural potential in Iran, the country is not self-sufficient in food, and it means that the decline in agriculture is a major problem for policy makers, as well as the problems of rural to urban migration.

This background demonstrates how Rural Development Planning would be strategic and how much it would be essential for controlling and programming population change at both urban and rural levels.

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*Statistical Data: All the statistical data in this section are provided through **Population Studies**, the report of United Nations in different years, 1980–1989.*

***Chapter One:***

***Introduction***

### **1.1. Context:**

Emigration from rural areas to towns and cities is a phenomenon which has grown rapidly all around the world and is continuing to increase with the expectations and demands of the rural population and the greater penetration of information, concerning better amenities and opportunities, either real or apparent, of urban living. The rural poor have the aim of finding more comfort, better life-style and higher income in the cities and this is the fundamental cause of the process of depopulation in rural areas. The absence, in rural areas of third world countries, of the necessary facilities for what is perceived to be “normal living” makes this situation harder and makes the process of rural depopulation faster.

After the 1979 Revolution in Iran, besides the other difficulties for rural settlements, the eight years war between Iran and Iraq, especially in the west and south-west of Iran, made these circumstances worse and many people had to leave their homes in order to escape from the war. Of course poverty and deprivation in Iranian rural areas have an historical background. After 1976 for the first time the population in rural areas became less than fifty per cent of all population of the country. It has continued to reduce rapidly since then and emigration from rural areas has continued. Rural population is predicted to be only 24% in 2022 (Zanjani, H. 1993). This process, through three different historical periods, is shown in Table 1-1. It is clear that, irrespective of the differing political systems of different governments, each period shows that the process has been increasing. These increases,

without any previous planning or programming, cause difficulties in the socio-economic structure of both rural areas and cities. These problems, as well as the need to improve the quality of living in rural areas, were the reasons that programmes for physical improvement and for improving the sustainability of villages were developed.

*Table 1.1. The percentage of urban residents to the total population of Iran..\**

Period	Different political systems (Regimes)									
	Ghajar		Pahlavi						Islamic Republic	
Years	1878	1920	1930	1940	1950	1956	1966	1976	1986	1996
%	13%	28%	28.7%	29.4%	30.4%	31.4%	38%	47%	54.3%	61.3%

After the Revolution in Iran, many actions to improve the living conditions in rural areas have been introduced. Now a great number of villages have been provided with electric power, safe water and telephones. Many new rural roads have been built and many have been repaired, many schemes were prepared and implemented for small and big dams for saving rain water for agricultural irrigation, as well as producing electric power. Such activities should be guided by a regional programme to produce the best results but many of these activities have been done individually by different organisations or Ministries without any positive relation between them, and without a development programme for the whole country. So these improvements have not produced the expected results, especially compared with the investment.

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\* The different resources for these figures separately for each period are:

1878, (Etemad-o-ssaltane) Minister of Science in Ghajar Regime

1921~1951, (Razaghi, 1978)

1956~1996, Census data.

After the Revolution, according to a policy of decentralisation and the high priority given to low income population in rural areas, two organisations have been established with important roles for rural development.

*1.1.1. Bonyad-e-Maskan (Islamic Revolution Housing Organisation).*

Set up in 1979, the improvement of Housing and building techniques in rural areas are part of *Bonyad-e-Maskan's* brief and, in natural disasters, such as earthquakes, floods, it is responsible for fast relief activities at the site.

*1.1.2. Jihad-e-Sazandegi (National Campaign for Construction).*

This agency deals with all infrastructure provision activities such as safe water, communications, roads, and some development of programming for handicraft industries in rural areas, in order to increase the income of rural families. This agency became an independent Ministry in 1981, the Ministry of *Jihad-e-Sazandegi*.

The activities of these two organisations are very wide ranging and they have branches in almost all cities. *Bonyad-e-Maskan*, which is responsible for housing in rural areas in pursuit of other government policies for improving living conditions, started to prepare guidelines for physical improvements in the villages. At first, development activity was processed under the name of Rural Revitalisation, and later on, for more comprehensive programming, this changed to Development Planning. This programme produced detailed policy guidelines for the planning of rural areas throughout the country.

These are more than 60,000 villages in Iran and it was impossible to provide all the necessary services in all villages so, as the first step, the bigger villages were defined by *Bonyad* as service centres for some smaller surrounding villages. These chosen villages

usually had already been acting as centres (political, socio-economic). Also attention has had to be given to villages which have been destroyed as the result of war and natural disasters.

The physical problems seemed to be very important and with this view the situation was tackled by some shorter-term, short-sharp activities to try to make rural conditions a little better and to try to rapidly reduce differences between villages and cities. Improving the physical conditions of living in villages might have sufficient effect in some rural settlements to slow down emigration and make the people more likely to stay in their villages. But these measures must be followed with other longer-term infrastructure investments, such as rural industrial development, economic development, agricultural development and so on, to complete the job, otherwise any short-term benefits would soon be lost. It is a fact that, without enough income, (deriving from economic development), the inhabitants can not stay in the villages; as well as being the cause of poor economic conditions they can not support the services which are built as the result of planning. With this approach, more than 1000 planning schemes were prepared throughout the country during the last decade, and about 370 have been implemented, up to 1997. But another fact is that the failure to provide the necessary facilities for more agricultural production, according to a regional programme, has resulted in a gradual decline in agriculture. This would be a real cause of emigration, that would be followed naturally by a reduction in demands for rural services, even if these were provided through a physical development plan.

## 1.2. Aims of this research are:

- 1.2.1. to evaluate the planning schemes which have been implemented;
- 1.2.2. to evaluate their degree of success and the difficulties which they have faced;
- 1.2.3. to evaluate the institutional capacity of the agencies, involved in the process of planning and implementation;
- 1.2.4. to assess what can be done in policy and practice for better achievements;
  - i) in the field of policy making;
  - ii) the process of Planning Implementation;
  - iii) in the process of Rural Development Planning;
  - iv) in improving, monitoring and controlling the processes of planning and implementation;
- 1.2.5. to improve the development of rural areas in Iran by better understanding of:
  - i) the nature of the present conditions;
  - ii) the nature of problems;
  - iii) the nature of the rural development process, suggesting appropriate proposals.

## 1.3. Research Process:

Each step in the process of the research will lead to recommendations, and will explore proposals for the future rural planning system, as outlined in Figure 1.1.

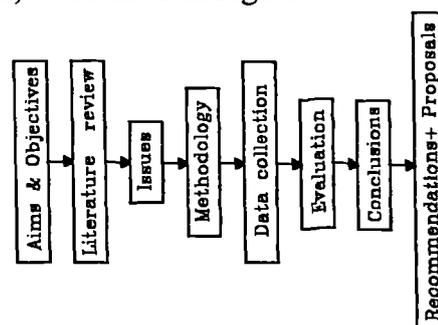
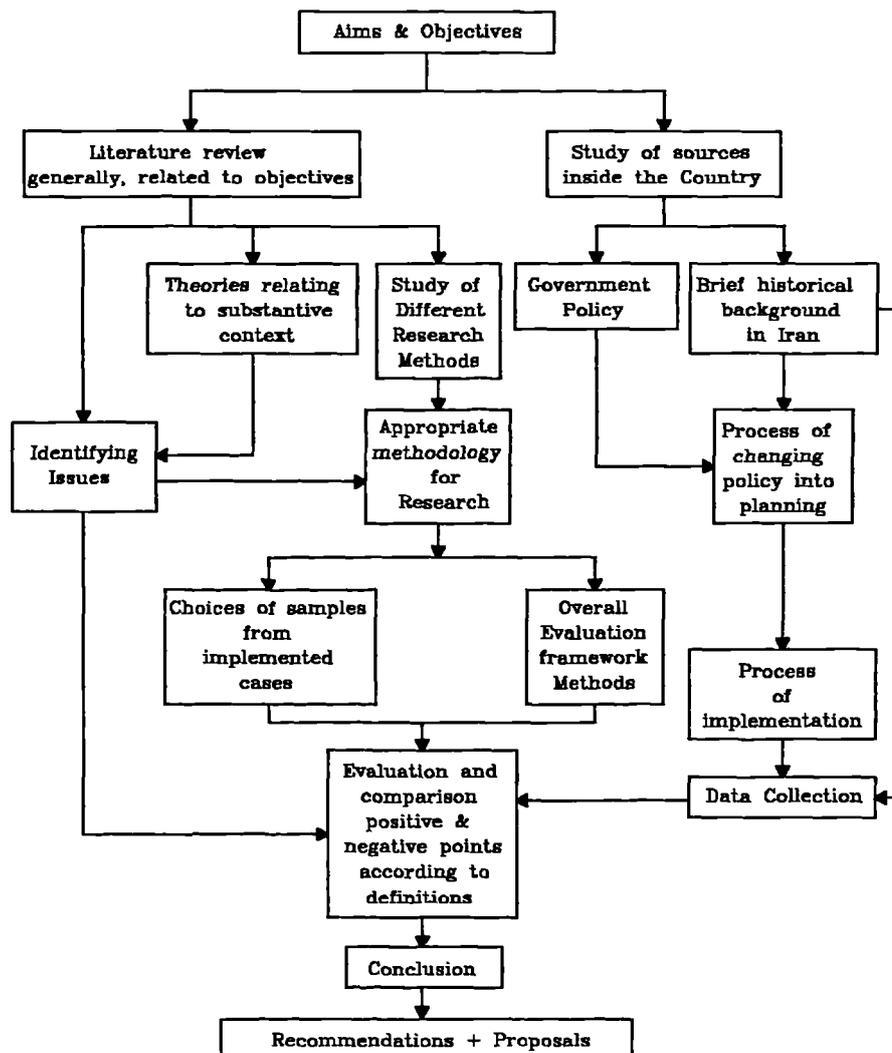


Figure 1.1. General Process of Research:

The process of research has different steps and two distinct, but related parts are recognised. One part is generally through literature review to find issues and definitions which would be a basis for evaluation and to develop appropriate methodology. The second part involves the study of the existing situation in Iran. These two parts are then synthesised to produce the conclusions and recommendations. Figure 1.2. shows all different parts of research in detail, and how they merge together to produce the final conclusions and recommendations.

Figure 1.2. Structure and different parts of research; their priority.



These two parts will progress in parallel.

1.3.1. Literature review generally related to the objectives:

1.3.1.1. Study of different sources for appropriate methodology:

- i) for overall research;
- ii) for appropriate techniques for data collection and analysis;
- iii) for the development of an evaluation framework.

1.3.1.2. Study of written sources:

- i) theories relating to planning in rural areas;
- ii) practice review or case studies in other countries, that are related to the research questions;
- iii) to identify key issues;
- iv) to establish criteria for evaluation of these kinds of project and for evaluating the results of the analyses ( evaluation framework ).

1.3.2. Study of internal sources:

1.3.2.1. Study of historical background of rural areas in Iran:

- i) different patterns of landowners and changes in Iran;
- ii) different reforms in rural areas during the last 35 years.

1.3.2.2. Background to planning and development in rural areas;

- i) general governmental structure;
- ii) governmental policy for rural development;
- iii) organisations whose functions relate to rural development;
- iv) changing policy guidelines for planning;
- v) process of planning administration;

- vi) study of the process of planning and implementation;
- vii) process of choosing planned villages for implementation, especially to identify priority factors;
- viii) process of implementation.

1.3.3. Field study: To develop a systematic approach to data collection, especially the selection and carrying out of case studies.

1.3.3.1. Choosing case studies according to the chosen methodological process;

1.3.3.2. Study of case studies which have had planning schemes implemented.

1.3.4. Evaluation: To develop a framework for evaluating the degree of success, achieved by the existing planning system.

1.3.5. Conclusions.

- i) to re-define the main aims and objectives for rural development planning in Iran;
- ii) to review the criteria for development;
- iii) to define the problems which the process of planning should address;
- iv) define the problems which the process of implementation must overcome.

1.3.6. Recommendations.

- i) Reconsider the main issues derived from the literature review ;
- ii) recommendations for the future Rural Development Planning, based on conclusions from the research;

*Chapter Two:*

*Methodology*

## **2. Methodology:**

A researcher has some fundamental problems which must be identified before the project can start. The research design is the “blueprint” that enables the investigator to come up with solutions to those problems. Nachmias, C&D (1996) argue that:

*“A research design is the programme that guides the investigator in the planning process for collecting, analysing, and interpreting observations”*

Another similar approach has been presented by Borum, Philliber, Schwab, & Samsloss, 1980, who argue that:

*“Research design is a “blueprint” of research, dealing with at least four problems:*

- i) what questions to study?*
- ii) what data are relevant?*
- iii) what data to collect?*
- iv) how to analyse the results.”*

Any research needs its own design to address the particular problems and to develop the process of study on all the different parts of the research from the beginning. This involves thinking about the context, the study of different ideas, investigation, analysis and finally evaluation. These initial questions are defined by Nachmias, C&D (1996) as:

Who or what to study? When and how will the necessary data be collected?

These questions are the starting points for the design of any research, demonstrating a process of research from start (the answers to the fundamental questions provide the overall direction for the research) to finish (when the researcher would be able to make a conclusion from the process of research and the results of study).

### **2.1. The Research Questions:**

Developing from the aims set out in Chapter one, the main questions that must have response during the process of this research are:

- i) what is the process of rural development planning?
- ii) what agencies are involved?
- iii) what has been done in the field of policy making for rural areas?
- iv) what should be the objectives for rural development in Iran?
- v) what is the basis for an evaluation of the results?
- vi) what is the process of implementation?
- vii) what are the conditions in villages, after the plans have been implemented?
- viii) what would be the recommendations or propositions for improving future activities?

### **2.2. Research Methodology**

The research will be divided into different parts, each of which needs different methodologies. A literature review is the most important starting section, which will provide a study of different notions to develop the most suitable definitions for rural development planning in third world countries, and develop the most suitable methodology for carrying out the research. This section acts as a base for different parts of the research.

So the literature review within this research would be divided into several parts, which should contain necessary and available information as the basis of study and organise these data for the best available understanding:

- i) a general exploration of the nature of planning and development, and its aims as a definition for rural development planning; this will be done in Chapter 3;

- ii) a description and analysis of the Iranian context in Chapter 4:
- details of the policy and aims for rural development planning in Iran;
  - the process of rural planning and implementation in Iran;
  - identifying the issues which should be investigated in the chosen cases;
  - the achievements which should be made after implementation.

As a practical research this literature review would be followed by:

- i) Study of selected villages where planning has been implemented, through the collection of information and data in Iran, partly from the relevant organisations and other data through field study;
- ii) Analysis of the data collected through the field study with evaluation of the achievements, and a presentation of conclusions and recommendations for the future.

These elements define the basic “research design” and the main overall structure of this research. Some of the research questions can only be answered by study “on the ground”, so more specific methodologies are required for this field study and data collection and then to provide a framework for analysis and evaluation of this data. These are the methods developed in the following sections.

### **2.3. Field Study:**

Nachmias, C&D (1996) suggest three different types of design for research in social science, these are *Experimental*, *Quasi-experimental*, and *Pre-experimental* and each of these involves some of the basic components of comparison, manipulation, control and generalisation:

### 2.3.1. *Experimental*; which includes the main four components:

- i) **Comparison:** The process of comparison underlies the concept of association between two or more variables;
- ii) **Manipulation:** The notion of causality implies that, if Y (the dependent variable) is caused by X (the independent variable), then an induced change in X will be followed by a change in Y. So research design is focused on attempt to identify these type of causal relationships;
- iii) **Control:** (Extrinsic and intrinsic) factors that threaten the internal validity of causal inferences may be controlled by several procedures. Two methods of control employed to counteract the effect of extrinsic factors are *Matching and Randomisation*. Some variables are known by the researcher before the start of the research and these variables may be controlled by matching methods. Other variables may have effects which have not been foreseen in the research and their effects may be controlled by randomisation to try to allow for this;
- iv) **Generalisability:** (External validity) This concerns the external validity of research designs to extend beyond the experiment itself. Probability methods, such as random sampling, would make possible generalisations from the sample to the population as a whole. In theory, if control groups are used they should each constitute a probability sample of the population.

**2.3.2. *Quasi – Experimental Design*:** this type of research design usually includes a combination of some of the four elements but not all of them. Typically these designs lack possibilities for manipulation and randomisation. Keeping the classic experimental design as a model of logical proof, scientists have developed a number of quasi-experimented

designs. Whereas these designs are weaker on internal validity than the experimental designs, they provide considerably more internal validity than do pre-experimental designs;

**2.3.3. Pre – Experimental Design:** This type of research design provides the least rigorous test as to whether two or more variables are causally related. Quasi-experimental design does not require randomisation and often depends on the possibility that influences, other than the action being targeted, can be ruled out by additional evidence and/or data analysis techniques.

UNESCO, (1984) argues the usage of experimental design as follows:

*“Experimental design is best suited for a precise assessment of the results, in other words for impact assessment. The field experiment methods should therefore be used wherever the essential conditions for organising it are obtainable. These are measurements at two or more points in time (before, during and after the project period) in regard to both experimental groups (those who participated in the program) and control groups (those outside the influence of the program).”*

The design most suited to this research could be Quasi-experimental design, in practical terms, of the four main components identified by Nachmias, comparison and generalisability are the most appropriate to this research. It is not thought feasible to identify a control group and manipulation is not practicable. However the nature of the research questions seems to suggest that the required methodology is not truly experimental.

#### **2.4. Case Studies:**

in order to deal with the practical, applied nature of the research questions it is necessary to obtain data from real-life situations, on the ground.

How are these studies defined? What period should they cover? In what circumstances

would case studies be helpful, and best suited for research? These are the basic questions which need to be addressed. Campbell, Daft, & Hulin (1982) introduce the role and nature of case studies:

*“Such questions like: What is my study about? and for example, am I asking a “who,” “what,” “where,” “why,” or “how,” question? have focused on some of the substantively important issues, and the response of such questions can be provided through case study.”*

And Yin, (1994) concludes that:

*““how,” and “why,” questions are likely to favour the use of case studies, experiments, or histories.”*

The point of this discussion is that the form of research questions provides an important clue regarding the appropriate research strategy to be used. It is true that we can use more than one strategy in any research: a survey or field study within a case study or a case study within a survey. According to Yin (1994):

*“Case studies are appropriate for the exploratory phase of an investigation. Surveys and histories are appropriate for the description phase, and experiments are the only way of doing explanatory or causal inquiries.”*

Another description of a case study is provided by Schramm, (1971). He says:

*“The central tendency among all types of case study is that it tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions: Why they were taken? how were they implemented? and with what result?”*

These points are very important questions in this research. This also indicates that case studies could be the best method to produce appropriate data and results. It is necessary to establish what exactly has been done and what are the changes that have occurred in relation to planning in rural areas in Iran. Other important support for this case study

strategy is expressed by Platt (1992) who argues that:

*“Case study begins with a logic of design and a strategy to be preferred when circumstances and research problems are appropriate rather than an ideological commitment to be followed whatever the circumstances.”*

UNESCO, (1984) argue in this issue that:

*“A case study is a method of understanding a thorough study of a single unit, be it a person, a group, a community, or an organisation. It seeks to determine social processes; it reveals the complexity of factors, and indicates their sequence and inter relationship.”*

Yin (1994) explains it as follows:

*“The technical definition begins with the scope of a case study: A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.”*

Yin, (1994) provides another definition:

*“The case study as a research strategy, like other research strategies is a way of investigating an empirical topic by following a set of pre-specified procedures.”*

Yin (1994) seems to be able to relate case studies to experimental methods in the following way:

*“Multiple cases in this sense should be considered like multiple experiments (or multiple surveys) under these circumstances, the method of generalisation is “analytic generalisation” ,covering the four components:*

- i) a study’s questions, its propositions, if any;*
- ii) its unit(s) of analysis;*
- iii) the logic linking the data to the propositions; and*
- iv) the criteria for interpreting the findings.”*

The case study appraisal is the best approach for the field study as a part of the main structure of the research. The case study investigation itself needs a design to have the proper outcomes that are needed for analysis especially when the results must be used to generalise the achievements and the difficulties that planning was faced with. Because of the number and distribution of planned villages around the country and the different conditions, a sample of cases must be chosen. This sampling process is very important to the structure of the methodology, and to the consideration of generalisability.

The case study approach in this research would involve multiple cases, because the whole process within the research should cover a variety of situations all around the country, different in size, climate, ethnicity and geographical location, but the main investigation overall would be similar, with this aim of generalisability.

Four different types of design for case study are recognised by Yin (1994):

- i) *“Single case (holistic) designs;*
- ii) *Single \_ case (embedded) designs;*
- iii) *Multiple \_ case (holistic) designs;*
- iv) *Multiple \_ case (embedded) design.”*

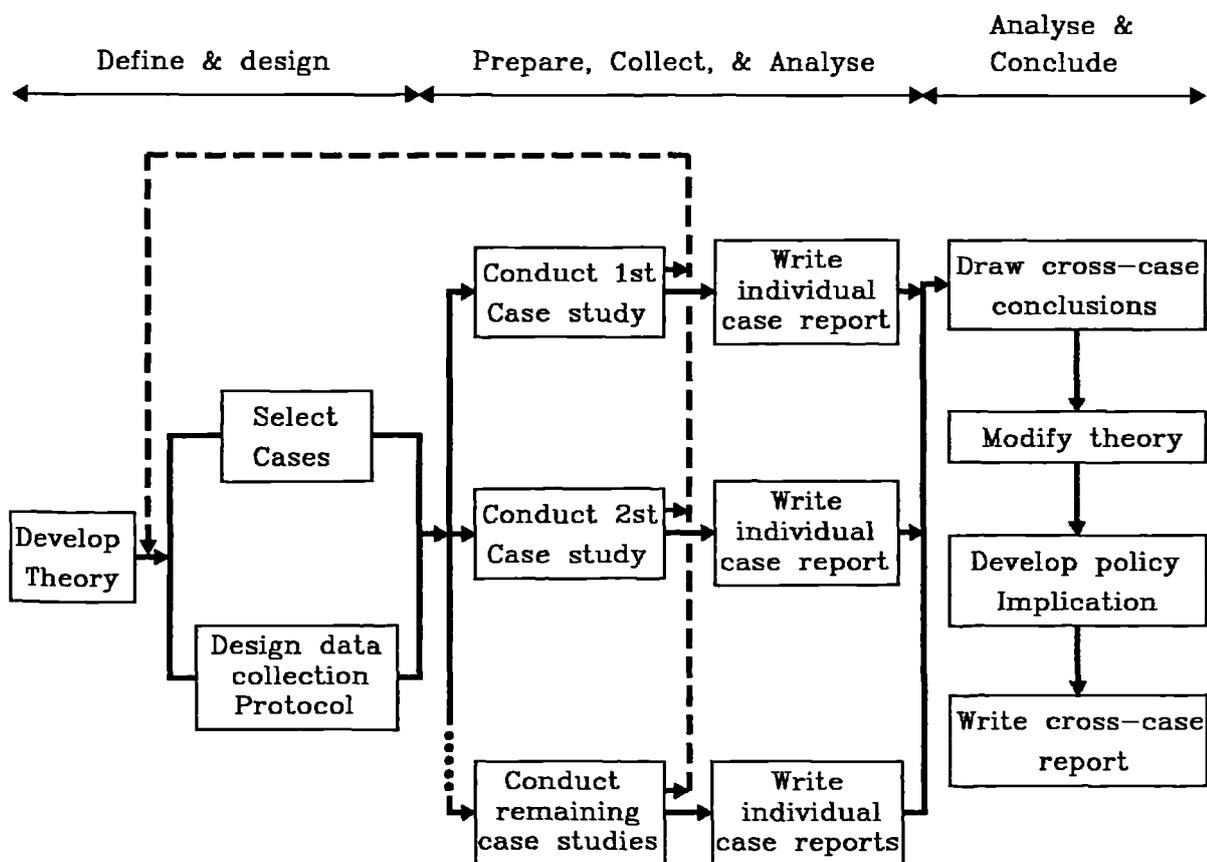
Yin defines the usage of each method: If the case study examined only the global nature of a programme or an organisation a “holistic” design would be used otherwise “embedded” design is appropriate, so for this research the multiple - case (embedded) designs would be suited. Yin (1994) argues that:

*“Any use of multiple case study designs should be following a replication, not a sampling, logic, and an investigator must choose each case carefully. The cases should serve in a manner similar to multiple*

experiments, with similar results (a literal replication) or contrasting results (a theoretical replication) predicted explicitly at the outset of the investigation.”

The case study needs specific design, like an independent experiment, and the results from the case studies would be generalised in order to be used in the main research structure. In the context of rural development, the cases could study changes in effective factors, concerned with improvement in rural areas such as demographic, social, economic, physical and environmental changes; conclusions can then be drawn comparing outcomes with policy and plan objectives.

Figure 2.1. Different steps for a multiple case study.



Source: Robert K. Yin, (1994)

So for study of the process of planning and implementation in rural areas in Iran the appropriate method would be *multiple-case (embedded) design*. (Figure 2.1.), but in this research simple sampling is not possible, there are more than 300 cases with different specifications. It is obvious that the cases could not be chosen by random sampling, but by a process of some logical division between the cases, defining some limited groups of cases; then choosing the case studies from these groups could be called sampling in that each sample would represent each group.

#### **2.4.1. Case Study Methods:**

It seems that this research, which aims to produce an evaluation of the activities of Rural Development Planning in Iran, should take place through field study with study of different selected cases. So the main questions which need response in the case study design through field study would be, as Healey argues (1997):

- i) *“How many cases must be done and why?”*
- ii) *What would the source of evidence be?*
- iii) *How will access to the cases be obtained?*
- iv) *What are practical problems that will need to be solved in this research?*
- v) *Will the research seek to generalise to a “population” or explore propositions?”*

The above questions are important for the researcher to be able to identify the achievements of planning within the cases and be able to judge the success or failure of processes of planning and implementation, according to the predictions of the planner and issues arising from the literature review. The responses to the five questions, in the context of the present research, are:

#### **2.4.1.1. How many cases must be done and why?**

The number of implemented plans under consideration is 370. Later on, the methodology for choosing the cases will be introduced, but overall, the different factors which have an affect on the process of planning and implementation are social, economic, ethnicity, and climate specifications, as well as geographical distribution. The population, economy and climate are the factors that have most effect on the nature of rural settlement in Iran and have drastic effects on the process of planning. The selection of cases must be influenced, therefore, by studying population and economy and similar cases should be classified in similar groups. For instance three different main climatic groups are recognisable (mountain plain, desert,) and each situation has special effects on planning which must be taken into account.

#### **2.4.1.2. Choosing the case studies:**

Chapter Five will detail the process of choosing case studies, but this section will outline the methodological approach, which will be used in order to limit the number of cases and to make a rational selection for study. The cases should be classified into groups, Therefore, in this classification these steps must be processed:

- i) Studying the name, location, and date of implementation. At this stage, some villages that are less than five years from implementation of their plan will be omitted;
- ii) There is a wide range of population in implemented villages, of between 10 families to more than 2,000.

Suitable size categories for planning and for being considered for planning as a cluster is

discussed by Cloke (1988), he says:

*“Minimum population for such a compact village for planning would be around 1200, with possible expansion to 2000 and above”*

Average family size in Iranian rural areas is around five and more so this means that Cloke’s criteria in Iran would cover villages with around 250 to 400 families. As is discussed in chapter 4, this is also the size which has been used in the formulation of the national guidelines, which defines 400 families as a criteria for selecting settlements to be planned. So for classifying the cases to different groups, the most important factor would be size, and the division should be done to the cases from 10 to more than 2000, families, but size of 400 families as a base should be into account.

0-100, are the small settlements, and 100-1000 would be recognised as medium size, but more than 1000, are big settlements, that in Iranian rural area, such settlements have population, more than 5000. With taking into account the size of 400, the primitive classification could be these three group and breaking up the medium size to two groups from 100 to 400, and 400 to 1000, so the base of classification of the implemented cases to four different groups would be as it is presented in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1.** Classification of the cases according to number of families.

<i>Groups of Families</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
	<i>0 - 100</i>	<i>100 - 400</i>	<i>400 - 1000</i>	<i>1000 - Onward</i>

The other factors, effective in choosing the case studies would be summarised as:

- i) Studying the geographical distribution of the cases, in three different climatic

- zones of mountain, plain and desert;
- ii) Studying the economic conditions concerning agriculture and farming in different cases. Some villages are close to a city, and are only used as dormitory settlements and have different economic resources;
  - iii) Choosing an acceptable number of villages in different categories to be studied as case studies depending in part on the number of villages in each category. at least one village from each population category should be selected.

#### ***2.4.1.3. What would the source of evidence be?***

Collecting the data in this section is divided in three parts:

- i) Some official evidence can be collected from different departments, ministries and organisations, in central government and in the different provinces in which the case studies are located;
- ii) Relevant data for each case is provided through the planner's report;
- iii) A field study will be used to collect necessary data, not available from these sources.

#### ***2.4.1.4. How will access to the cases be obtained?***

The cases would be investigated through field study in Iran, to be carried out by the author, who has been involved as a professional, in at least 30 projects in different parts of Iran, and is familiar with the process and specification for the different steps and the relevant organisations.

#### **2.4.1.5. What are practical problems that will need to be solved in this research?**

The most important practical problems are:

- i) There is no archival record for some of the necessary information therefore this data must be obtained through different sources, in order to use them in the research;
- ii) The geographical distribution of cases, especially to take account of the three different climatic conditions, makes considerable travel necessary. As a result this requires some assistance and facilities especially in some cases, where the roads are not in good condition, and the necessary time for each case may be considerable.

#### **2.4.1.6. Will the research seek to generalise to a “population” or explore propositions?**

One of the most important aims of this research is a generalised evaluation that can be extended to a comprehensive context for the whole country and to help decision-makers to correct some points (if it would be necessary) in order that these activities in the future may be more effective.

### **2.5. Evaluation Framework:**

The significance of evaluation in the planning process is indicated in a UNICEF (1984) document:

*“Evaluation is a learning and action oriented tool that should be an integral part of the basic management process, along with planning and implementation. The potential contribution of evaluation to improving both the planning and execution of programmes and to better utilisation of resources and possibly reduced costs is being recognised. There is emerging world wide, effort of governments in evaluation and growing support for this”*

Different evaluation techniques have been developed for different kinds of projects, for planning and implementation. They have been designed to carry out the necessary evaluation with monitoring and controlling the process of changes; has change been according to the defined aims and proposals, or not? Evaluation usually compares results with the aims or policies that were set, in order to measure the achievements and to indicate how much success has been achieved. But in this research, in order to improve the view of policy-makers and the process of planning, implementation and evaluation will also compare the results with the achievements which must be reached according to more general definitions of planning, implementation and specifically for Rural Development. Roberts (1974) argues that:

*“It is inherent in the concept of evaluation that a comparison is being made thus even if there was only one proposal, it should be assessed against a “doing nothing” approach, and if any individual or groups would find himself in a different position in some aspect of his welfare as a result of the proposal.”*

Roberts (1974) also emphasises the continuous nature of the planning processes and that evaluation is a part of this:

*“Evaluation will not be a “one shot” activity.”*

It should be able to take into account all the changes being implemented to make a realistic conclusion about the situation, considering all the goals. However, guidelines, principles and systematic methodologies of evaluation need to be developed so that evaluation can play its full contribution. There is no single method that will fulfil all purposes and types of evaluation although a systematic approach to evaluation is necessary. Evaluation methods must be set out, adapted to the purposes of each overall context.

Another definition established by UNESCO (1984) for evaluation is:

*“evaluation may be defined as a process that attempts to determine as systematically and objectively as possible, the relevance, effectiveness and impact of activities in the light of their objectives, it is an important training and action-oriented management tool and an organisational process for improving both activities still in progress and future planning, programming and decision-making.”*

For a more rigorous definition Lichfield, Kettle, and Whitbread, (1975) argue that:

*“The term “evaluation” is often used loosely in planning to refer to descriptions of planning proposals and statements of their merits.”* They also argue that: *““evaluation” more formally is used to denote the process of analysing a number of plans or projects with a view to searching out their comparative advantages and disadvantages and the act of setting down the findings of such analyses in a logical framework.”*

Lichfield,(1973) argues that:

*“Evaluation involves more than a description of the possibilities under consideration. A plan or proposal may be described without reference to other plans or proposals, but a plan may be evaluated only by considering its advantages and disadvantages in relation to the characteristics of one or more other possible courses of action. (other possibilities could include the “do nothing” case, which arises in the absence of a decision by a planning agency to take some positive course of action)”*

Of course, evaluation could be the assessment of the comparative merits of different courses of action as a part of decision-making. But this research really looks for comparative advantages and disadvantages, to be able to evaluate the results. Further explanation of the nature of evaluation is argued by Lichfield,(1973) that:

*“It is intended to provide check-list of all main activities or operations which should characterise a planning process from the limit that some “problem” is identified and a study is initiated through to implementation and review of the adopted course of action.”*

Evaluation should embody a substantial learning process to be recycled within the planning

process, to provide guidance on future design work. The most important aim of this research is the evaluation of the activities which have been done so far; and drawing recommendations for the future scope and nature of decision-making and implementation. Evaluation provides a guide for future activities, and in any cases where decisions or activities were not successful, evaluation will correct the process and guide towards the desired goals in future. These characteristics were described by Lichfield (1973):

*“Evaluation provides the factual basis of the issues for decision to the various participants in the planning process.”*

Different techniques, depending on the projects, may be chosen for evaluation.

Lichfield (1973) argues that:

*“The general approaches to be reviewed, are headed as follow:*

- i) Financial investment appraisal: The common purpose is to estimate the future streams of capital and operating costs and revenues which will result from the implementation of investment projects;*
- ii) Check-list of criteria: requires a subjective judgement on the alternative preferred according to the criteria employed;*
- iii) Goals-achievement analysis: (GAM) Goals-achievement methods have in common a basic approach of attempting to determine the extent to which alternative plans will achieve a predetermined set of “goals” or “objectives”;*
- iv) Social cost-benefit analysis: (SCBA) Has usually been applied to the comparison of alternatives within single sectors, such as transport or health, although inter-sector comparisons are sometimes practicable.”*

Overall the main characteristics of this approach are:

- i) goals or objectives are always formulated, and they are established at the outset of the planning process;*
- ii) the objectives are said to be multidimensional, that is, they may include those of an*

- aesthetic, social environmental or political nature, as well as economic;
- iii) the method is designed to compare mutually exclusive plans only; and if possible the evaluation criteria need to be assigned a weight to reflect their relative importance.

Lichfield (1973) argues that:

*“the application of such an approach would introduce some much-needed rigour into the urban and regional planning process.”*

Overall Rural Development Planning is a part of strategic national programmes, which means that the benefits could not be measured in these ways. The main aims of the policy maker are to improve the welfare of the residents in rural areas, reduce emigration and increase production in the best national interest and these can be measured at the strategic level, but not by measurement of cost and benefit. However in the context of Rural Development Planning, the outcomes of specific plans or projects can be identified and evaluated. So conclusion of this debate would be that the evaluation framework within this research should be carried out through the study of the changes which happened after implementation in selected case studies, in relation to:

- i) the aims of the policy-maker;
- ii) the defined proposals of the planner;
- iii) the defined criteria in this regard concluded from the literature review.

*Chapter Three:*  
*Literature Review*

### ***3. Literature Review***

#### ***3.1. Introduction:***

It is necessary to start by considering what is planning? and what we mean by Development Planning generally and by Rural Development Planning specifically. This literature review attempts to be a wide ranging investigation of different strands of thoughts to identify the main issues for the process of development planning in rural areas. So the main focus of this chapter is concerned with the meaning of development and the relevant planning processes with some special emphasis on what is necessary for this development to happen, such as: the scope of development activities; the assessment of needs of rural areas and the criteria for success. These considerations will be explored for policy-making for rural development, to be followed through the process of policy making, planning and implementation. How could the people be involved in the process and how important is this involvement?

In the context of Rural Development it seems important to have an appropriate classification for the settlements which are to be planned. It was introduced in Chapter 1 that one of the aims of policy makers in Iran has been to define the priorities for selecting villages to be planned, because the total number of villages in Iran exceeds 60,000. The identification and planning of key settlements could approach this problem by providing the necessary services, at a level between urban and rural levels. It could be argued that this development policy would allow people to benefit from a national programme, but taking account of constraints of time and finance. Woodruffe, B.J.(1976) argued in this regard that:

*“The key settlement concept uses some principles of central place theory and assumes that the focussing of services, facilities and employment in one selected settlement will satisfy the essential needs of the surrounding villages and hamlets and that in the long term such concentration is more economic than the dispersion of facilities.”*

This briefly introduces one of the most important operational concepts, and the problem of how, in a large country with 60,000 deprived villages, planning could be customized in order to get the most benefit from the available resources. Therefore the first step as a base for a good and acceptable start in this issue is accurate recognition of the problems which policy and planning have been set up to deal with and the most suitable ways of facing and dealing with them according to the situation. This chapter attempts to explore the most suitable definitions for development and planning, and to develop idea about settlement patterns, and key settlements, development agencies and the meaning of sustainability. How can development be more sustainable? And what would be an appropriate definition of sustainability in rural areas in Iran when planning schemes are implemented? What would be the objectives which relate to sustainability?

### ***3.2. Development Planning:***

Each of these words has its jargon meaning in the context of specific courses of action and could be defined in its special meaning in relation to these purposes; in every region, in a specific time and situation, a wide variety of meanings are possible. For more understanding of a common meaning of these words we need to review many different ideas to arrive at a suitable definition for *Rural Development Planning*, in order to find out: What are its aims? When is it an appropriate process? What would be its achievements? and What would be regarded as successful outcomes?

### 3.3. Context of Planning:

What do people mean actually when they talk about “planning”? It is very comprehensive and it is difficult to identify the basic elements. Wildavsky, (1973) on this subject says:

*“If planning is everything, may be it is nothing.”*

Every simple course of action in daily life has a process and to achieve the desired ends, this needs programming, to define the way of approach. So it is true that everybody could be a planner, but when the plan is for a specific technical action, it needs persons expert in the related field to design it. The definition of planning by Conyee & Hill (1984) argues that:

*“ Planning is a continuous process which involves decisions, or choices, about alternative ways of using available resources, with the aim of achieving particular goals at some time in the future.”*

In the other words, planning could be called programming for every simple action during daily life, and can become more comprehensive and complicated when it is used for specific purposes or more complete activities in a wide area.

The actions that planners are involved in, are described by Healey (1997):

*“Planners are attacked at different times for allowing something to happen or for stopping it; at the same time, they are loaded with responsibilities for safeguarding environmental qualities and protecting people’s interest.*

*These general definitions which seem very simple, draw the main highlights for planning:*

- i) *Planning as choosing;*
- ii) *Planning as allocating resources;*
- iii) *Planning as achieving goals;*
- iv) *Planning as an action towards the future;*
- v) *Planning as a process of decision making.”*

Most definitions revolve around these five objects, although different people describe it

with different views. But in a variety of ways it is defined as wide range programming, that co-ordinates and organises all related activities towards a specific aim for a specific period of time in the future. Planning attempts to achieve goals, in the future, but without any definite control of process of change. Friend, J.K. and Jessop, W.N. (1969), argue that some of these uncertainties could be summarised as concerning these main areas:

- i) *the general environment within which planning takes place;*
- ii) *intentions or policies in what are termed "relevant fields of choice";*
- iii) *the appropriate value judgements to be applied in making policy or plan decisions and assessing their consequences.*

Conyee & Hill (1984) argue that:

*"in practical terms planning is itself an attempt to reduce uncertainty about what will happen in the future, by managing and controlling change to desired objectives."*

President Nyrere (1982) in one of his speeches included the definition of planning as:

*"Planning involves making decisions about a number of courses of action to adopt, in other words, making choices"*

A different dimension arises from the fact that planning involves making decisions about how to make the best use of available resources. An important component of the planning process is the collection and analysis of information about the availability of existing resources for achieving the goals which planning is aiming for. This aspect could be included by saying that planning involves making decisions about alternative ways of using resources to achieve particular goals.

These goals could be expressed in a policy statements or a physical plan, depending on the

subject, and these would require different decisions. This situation is argued by Conyee & Hill(1984) that:

*“The product of planning exercises must be a physical document which provides a blueprint for future action, but sometimes the output is in other forms, for instance as a organisational chart, annual budgets, or written memoranda instructing people to undertake particular tasks.”*

Sometimes the product of planning is a physical document like a Master Plan, prepared for the physical improvement and land use for specific region. But it could be a programme or guidelines for economic activities for the future. So really planning acts in a wide range of actions to approach the specific goals for the future. This situation is well described by Hall (1974) who says:

*“Planning is extremely ambiguous and difficult to define; planners of all kinds think that they know what it means; it refers to the work they do. The difficulty is that they do all sorts of different things, and so they mean different things by the word; planning seems to be all things to all men.”*

This generality is clearly expressed by Jawaharlal Nehru in Strategy of the Third Plan (PP.33-34) who says:

*“Planning is the exercise of intelligence to deal with facts and situations as they are and find a way to solve problems.”*

Overall, to summarise, planning seems to involve physical or written programming, which has attention to resources and tries to make decisions, according to the possibilities to achieve a defined future. Planning could be physical planning, usually designed to control the detailed use of land, this includes determining the distribution of land between different functions-such as agricultural, industrial, commercial, housing and recreation.

The simple approach to physical planning proposed by Geddes (1968) involved

*“Survey, Analysis, Plan,”*

These objects are defined by Hall, P.(1974) as follows:

- i) *“Survey: Existing situation in the area to be planned is surveyed. In other words, recognition of the available resources, potential and possibilities;*
- ii) *Analysis: The survey data would then be analysed to establish whether any remedial actions were required, guiding the existing possibilities towards the defined goals for the future;*
- iii) *Plan: Required action would be embodied in a fixed plan to be realised over a certain number of years.”*

In the U.K. the issue of physical planning activity was handled initially in the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act, and then from the mid 1960s planning became more integrated, concerning social, economic and environmental issues.

This is described by Healey, P. (1997):

*“It was no longer exclusively concerned with land-use and design issues, but was increasingly expected to contribute to the integrated planning of economic, social and environmental forces at both local and strategic levels. This is the reason that these three strands of thought have been together in this context.*

- i) *Economic planning, which aims to manage the productive forces of nations and regions;*
- ii) *Management of the physical development of any region, which promotes health, economy, convenience and beauty;*
- iii) *Management of public administration and policy analysis, which aims to achieve both effectiveness and efficiency in meeting explicit goals set for public agencies.”*

John Friedmann (1987) describes his own idea in this regard, he argued that:

*“Planning as improving public management using the techniques of instrumental rationality, to an emphasis on collective management through interaction among small scale communities, mixing urban and rural economic and social life, a strategy of agropolitan development.”*

Another notion recognises planning as a reintroduction of space, place and the institutional capacity of localities into both micro and macro economic analysis, Healey, P. (1997) who argues that:

*“A critical contemporary challenge is to link these new understandings of the spatiality of economic process to the principles and practices of physical development planning.”*

Lindblom (1979) argues that:

*“planning process is dominated by the techniques of instrumental rationality within the public sector, produced by a form of technical analysis which drew on microeconomics rather than management theory.”*

Public policy and hence planning, in these views are seen as social processes through which ways of thinking, ways of valuing and ways of acting are actively constructed by participants. Healey (1997) argues in this issue:

*“It is now widely understood that planning is an interactive process, undertaken in a social context, rather than a purely technical process of design, analysis and management. A spatial dimension is therefore crucial. So the term planning is taken to mean efforts in the collective management of shared concerns, policies which emphasize a strategic orientation, co-ordination between diverse actions and a relation between policy and action. The term environmental is taken to mean the qualities of places, as places to live in, as places to do business, as part of natural ecological systems, and as an expression of cultural meaning. Spatial and environmental planning are thus seen as a social process within which those involved identify matters of collective concern, define problems, draw on knowledge resources, articulate solutions and develop ideas about how to put the solutions into practice.”*

The fact is that nobody these days thinks of the output of planning as a one-shot plan; rather it is an integrated programming of inter-related social, cultural, economic, environmental and political objects and it tries to co-ordinate all the activities in this field toward specific aims for the future. It is not a fixed programme for a specific period of time

although part of the output could include a blueprint for guiding specific physical actions probably in the short term. The plan must be alive and live with the people, who are involved with it because people participation is an important part of the process, from policy making to planning and then implementation. This continuity and “being alive” for the plan has been argued by Cacho (1975):

*“A plan should be regarded as a living instrument, flexible and evolving in response to changes in the numerous assumptions on which its direction, policies and programs are based; it should not be: a once-and-for-all (it is not a blue-print) as a reference of fixed prescriptions for the period to be covered.”*

Planning usually requires to take policy into action and this is the reason that policy and planning come one after the other, and policy defines the process of planning or at least defines the desired process. The relation between policy-making and planning is important. Cloke (1988) in this debate argues that:

*“Planning and policy making have thus evolved for different stated reasons and over different scales of time and space in different nations. These are by no mean the only criteria which account for the variegation of planning and policy mechanisms throughout the developed world.”*

Also Gordon Cherry (1982) has pointed out this notion:

*“planning is grounded in socio-economic, cultural and political contexts; its legitimacy springs from society and is fixed in political and institutional frameworks.”*

Policy and planning in different levels need to be closely related. Policy at the national level, and the whole process of plan making and programming, need to be integrated down to the local level. Different policies, nationally and locally, attempt to sort out different problems. So in fact local area planning systems may try to put into practice a national

policy or programme although probably each one attacks its specific problem in a different way. But each will relate to the other, so that, for instance the positive or negative impacts at local level will have a strong role for national programming.

The significance of Rural Development Planning is that more than 50% of inhabitants in most countries, especially in the third world countries, live in rural areas. Successful rural planning is of vital importance to the well-being of the nation, as Nyrere (1982), acknowledges:

*“The Rural Development Planning is a part of National Development Planning.”*

Conyee & Hill (1984) put the importance of planning at the national scale in the following context:

*“Planning must take into account political, social and physical environmental considerations as well as economic factors. At the national level the objectives of development plans should include the achievements of political goals, the provision of social needs and the consideration of the natural environment, as well as growth or structural change of the national economy.”*

This is integrated planning that nowadays is accepted and clearly relates to Development Planning for rural areas. It has strong relationship with different national programmes, in all political, economic, social environmental debate, as a strategy at national and local levels.

As Friedmann (1987) argues:

*“As a form of technical reason, modern planning is applied to the full range of problems that arise in the public domain”*

Planning suggests a systematic attempt to shape the future; when such planning is a prelude

to action, it is really policy making. So it seems that planning is engaged in all fields that in any way are relevant to each other and act as a chain; for success the changes in any one needs the proper change in all parts of the chain.

Also planning is presented as a type of decision-making, based on scientific and technical knowledge, for suitable action and processes of social guidance and transformation. Friedmann (1987) well describes this issue:

*“Planning appears as a mode of decision-making-in-advance, as an activity that precedes both decisions and action.”*

Planning attempts to link scientific and technical knowledge to actions in the public domain, for processes of social guidance, and social transformation. This process is shown in Table 3.1.

*Table 3.1. Political Ideology: the politics of planning theory, a tentative classification*

<i>Knowledge to action</i>	<i>Conservative</i>	<i>Radical</i>
<i>In societal guidance</i>	<i>Policy analysis</i>	<i>Social reform</i>
<i>In social transformation</i>	<i>Social learning</i>	<i>Social Mobilization</i>

Source: Friedmann 1987

So in other words, planning converts the policy in any field into implementation; it is the next step of decision-making that follows from relevant policy. Friedmann (1987) says:

*“Planning is concerned with making decisions and informing actions in ways that are socially rational.”*

Carly ( 1980 ) brings together a wide range of these issues:

*“the view of rationality is closely associated with welfare economics and its concern with efficiency in the allocation of resources. So planning would be a process of policy-making. Usually policy-making, planning and implementation come on one from the other, beginning with policy-making, progressing to Planning and*

*then to implementation, this in turn indicates the role of planning as a sort of intermediate stage between policy-making and implementation. This is the reason that planning would be the process of changing the policies according to the defined problems in all scopes, to implementation.”*

### **3.4. Context of Development:**

What is the meaning of development, and what is the meaning of Development Planning, especially for Rural areas. Development has various meanings for an ordinary rural area. Many of the recent studies are from western countries that are classified as developed countries. The meaning of development for such communities is different which seems to suggest that the nature of development, the design process and the need for particular services would need to be decided on by each society. For instance Town and Country Planning Act in England gives a specific definition of Development which is mainly related to physical land use and structures:

*“ Development, means the carrying out of building, engineering, mining or other operations in, on, over or under land, or the making of any material change in the use of any buildings or other land.” Town and Country Planning Act 1971,*

The full text relevant to Development is in Appendix A

The definition and the meaning of development in different societies could be different, although the basis idea may be similar. When the different stages of making decisions, planning and implementation in one country have a specified definition, and all the relevant agencies are working toward defined aims, no changes should happen without proper programming. UNESCO (1995) views development more generally in this way:

*“Some see it as concerning economic well-being or the availability of all amenities of life. Others that it is something related to being increasingly aware that the environment played a great role determining the health*

*status at the village level, and that within this context, water, food, sanitation and so on, were important. Also, awareness and improvement of the physical environment was considered a hallmark of development.”*

A dictionary definition of “to Develop” implies to change gradually, progressing through a number of stages towards some sort of state of expansion, improvement, or completeness and “Development” is defined as the process of developing or becoming developed.

Development could be identified as a goal of the planning process. It seems generally accepted that planning and development have four main aspects: economic, political, social, and physical. So it is natural that for development planning all of these must be studied and be taken into account in order that the desired changes happen. This means that development could be defined as the achievement of aims, through the processes of changes in the use of resources and the taking of opportunities and possibilities; this process could be called Development Planning. Waterson (1965) argues that:

*“There is a distinction between the concept of development as a state of being, which becomes the goal of development planning, and the concept of development as the process of changes which planning tries to influence. The development objectives are: economic, political, and social*

- i) Economic, such as bringing about an increase in real incomes;*
- ii) Political, such as the advancement of military security to increase a country's national prestige and influence;*
- iii) Social, for instance the achievement of increased housing, education or health facilities, in quantity or quality. In many cases, objectives represent a combination of economic, political and social factors.”*

This concept is also argued by Conyee & Hill (1984):

*“Development is conceived and measured not only in economic terms, but also in terms of social well-being, political structures and quality of the physical environment.”*

All these factors are focused for the improvement of living conditions in general, so it could be seen that development is improving living standards in all relevant fields, such as: economic, in terms of better employment opportunities; political, by the improvement and increased efficiency of relevant organisations and social, improved access to necessary services. The important fact in rural areas is that, normally agriculture is the main source of income for inhabitants and other living facilities such as education, health, transportation, are required to satisfactory levels.

J.J Sterkenburg (1997), in his explanation of rural development, includes the following:

- i) *“As synonymous to agricultural production increases;*
- ii) *As a welfare improvement for the rural community;*
- iii) *As the satisfaction of basic needs on the part of the rural population;*
- iv) *As a structural transformation of rural society; and*
- v) *As an integrated process of achieving higher living standards in rural areas.”*

Certainly development is synonymous with progress. So every programme that aims to guide activity toward a specified aim, should result in development, it is not important in which area. However it is important that it should mean real development in all aspects which somehow relate to the general context of development and changes towards the desired growth and progress. This meaning is defined by Mabogunie, (1981), who argues that Development should be defined as:

*“A rapid and sustained rise in real output per head and attendant shifts in the technological, economic, and demographic characteristics of a society”*

Specifically, as a conclusion to this debate, the dominant definitions of development would include economic growth, modernization, distributive justice and socio-economic

transformation, in other word, to include changes in social and cultural objects as well as economic growth. This definition would be closer to rural development and emphasises the achievements that any policy-maker wishes to achieve after implementation, although development planning really is the start of a process of development that, when started, should never stop and monitoring of the changes would indicate the degree of progress.

Solving any problem needs knowledge of the specific problem to guide the planner to the right decisions, for policy making, to make the right policy leading on to planning, design and implementation. It is certain that the study of existing resources and the historical and social background would be very important in order to make the planner expert enough to make appropriate decisions in each specific area.

Overall it is progress that is the main aim of any development planning exercise. This point is argued by Todaros, (1981), who argues that:

*“Rural Development is concerned with the improvement of the living standards of the low-income population living in rural areas on a self-sustaining basis, through transforming the social-spatial structures of their productive activities.”*

He believes that, if the aim is improvement of standards of living this will happen with the transformation of the social-spatial structure of productive activities. It is generally recognised that rural development represents perhaps the only logical way of stimulating the overall development for many nations. As was discussed, development must be in all related subjects to be regarded as Rural Development; not only economic growth, but including the enhanced capacities for individuals to cope with changing circumstances of their living. Nyerere, (1982) argues that:

*“for self sufficiency and welfare in rural areas the farms must be efficient, producing foods for all rural*

*inhabitants as well as a surplus which can be sold to meet other needs. The returns on that surplus must be retained in the rural areas and used to finance rural industries and rural services, based on local resources, and meeting local needs”.*

It means growth in agriculture and economic growth. But it is very important that it should be based on local resources. According to this idea, Rural Development is really a way of approaching general development so rural development can best be described as a process of change in the rural areas leading to better living conditions and a greater security of existence for the population. J.J.Hinderink (1997) outlines this process as:

- i) *“The growth of production and productivity, and the diversification of production activities within the agricultural sector;*
- ii) *The increase in complexity and linkages in the rural economy as a result of the expansion of non-agricultural production activities, rural industries in particular;*
- iii) *The improvement of the employment situation, and the rise of incomes for broad segments of the rural population;*
- iv) *The expansion and amelioration of agro-support and community services;*
- v) *The improvement of environmental conservation as a form of preserving natural resources, which is essential to sustain the process over a longer period of time.”*

The changes must occur to satisfy the demands of a changing society for employment, for leisure, and for decent and improved living conditions. This would result in growth in all objects, plus economic development to enable the inhabitants to maintain these changes and continue development.

Overall Development would be as a process of change or evolution towards some improvement or progress, and it could be summarised that the goal of development has been the progressive satisfaction of human needs and aspirations. These needs are usually

considered in terms of items such as food, employment, housing, and services such as education, health and drinking water supply. For achieving these aims, the role of the planner is very critical. This role is well described by Owen (1991) as:

*“bringing together objective information about the natural environment with the social and personal needs or preferences of the inhabitants of settlements, and guiding the creative skills of designers in line with politically confirmed policies and proposals.”*

What would constitute this Rural Development Planning in Iran? And what should be its aims? The most important failure of rural communities for policy-makers in Iran has been depopulation. In order to stop this or make it slower and perhaps keep it under control, a policy was introduced to improve rural living conditions as a first stage to remove reasons for emigration. Table 3.2. shows the results of research in four Iranian provinces, Kerman, Hamedan, Mazandaran and East Azarbayjan, searching for reasons of emigration from rural areas. As the table demonstrates, 47.5% of the emigrants had left their village to search for a job and more income, and a large proportion, 44.7% for marriage.

**Table 3-2: Reasons for depopulation in Rural areas (1990)**

<i>Row</i>	<i>Reasons for Emigration from Rural Areas</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<i>1</i>	<i>Searching for job</i>	<i>13.20 %</i>
<i>2</i>	<i>Inadequate income in rural areas</i>	<i>34.30 %</i>
<i>3</i>	<i>Family problems</i>	<i>2.60 %</i>
<i>4</i>	<i>Inadequate possibilities in rural areas</i>	<i>2.60 %</i>
<i>5</i>	<i>Marriage</i>	<i>44.70 %</i>
<i>6</i>	<i>Do not like living in the village</i>	<i>2.60 %</i>

**Source: Habib-al-lah Zanjani, Population and Development, 1992 – Tehran**

If the process of marriage and choosing a partner is taken into account, especially in rural areas in Iran, this mostly happens between families who know each other and only rarely does anybody choose somebody who they have not known before; this is true for

for families who have previously left the village to find a job or to increase income. So in reality the results of the research indicate that  $(47.5\%+44.7\%)=92.2\%$  of the people who were interviewed, left the rural area because of economic reasons. So according to this descriptive analysis, the most important problems in Iranian rural areas are economic reasons and probably fast relief would come from some improvement in economic development of agriculture and rural industries. Similar analysis of rural situations and the causes of depopulation in rural areas in UK is presented in a review of the causes of rural depopulation. (*Department of the Environment, 1977, 133*) It argued that:

*“the increased expectations and demands of rural population and greater penetration of information concerning the better amenities and opportunities, either real or apparent, of urban living, have both sustained the process of depopulation.”*

But the main reason for emigration has been unemployment in rural areas, Saville (1957) argues that:

*“rural depopulation has occurred in the past century and a half and will continue in the future, because of declining employment opportunities in the countryside.”*

and Pacione (1984) argues the clear link between rural emigration and urban industrial growth:

*“For much of the period in last 150 years, the dominant direction of population movement was from rural to urban areas in response to the growth of urban industrial society. With few exceptions rural areas lost population to the burgeoning towns and cities.”*

This point also is argued by Pacione (1984):

*“The principal energizing force behind rural emigration is the lack of employment opportunities. This*

*deficiency is reflected in high levels of unemployment, low activity rates, particularly among women, and low incomes, in addition to out-migration of young people.”*

Migration from the countryside affects the migrants, the departure zones and the reception areas. Individuals move in order to obtain better-paid employment, to have access to better social, educational and cultural facilities, and to enjoy better living conditions in the city, as the final goal of most people is to improve their quality of life. These are generally the reasons which have effect on the social changes in rural areas, Pacione (1984) classifies these changes as:

*“Firstly, depopulation, as a result primarily of net outward migration, Secondly, at a later stage, the nature of the community may be changed by a growth in population as a consequence of a net immigration of adventitious population at an early stage of the life-cycle, and Thirdly, there is re-population which refers to retirement to the countryside by people in a late stage of the life-cycle.”*

Of course the last stage re-population as the result of some retirement is strongly associated with a very different kind of life and thought of the people and it seems more likely to happen in developed countries rather than in third world countries. Lewies and Maund (1976) complete the notion by arguing:

*“of course all such processes operate at one and the same time within each community, and hence the demographic and social character of a community is controlled by the predominant processes.”*

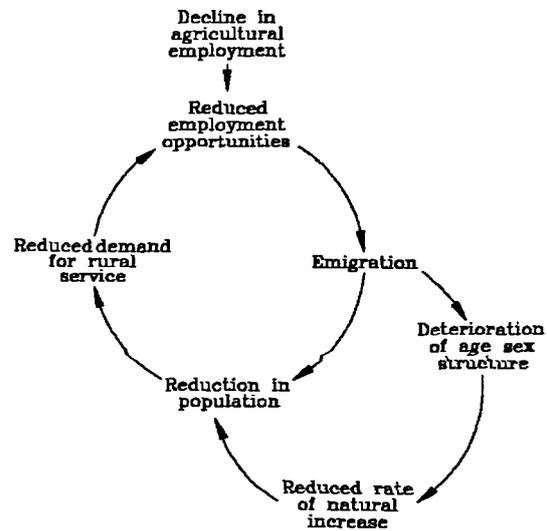
Another point is the fact that some developments in farming, for instance mechanization and modernization, create more unemployment in agriculture, unless the quantity of cultivated lands increase; otherwise the reasons for emigration will increase.

This cumulative causation is demonstrated through Figure 3.1. It acts as a chain. although

not usually the only source of work in the countryside, farming is traditionally the central component of the rural economy. The decline in agricultural employment as a result of increased mechanization and modernization is a widely observed trend in developed countries and along with a decline in necessary agricultural services for cultivating and marketing. These processes of depopulation are demonstrated through

Figure 3.1.

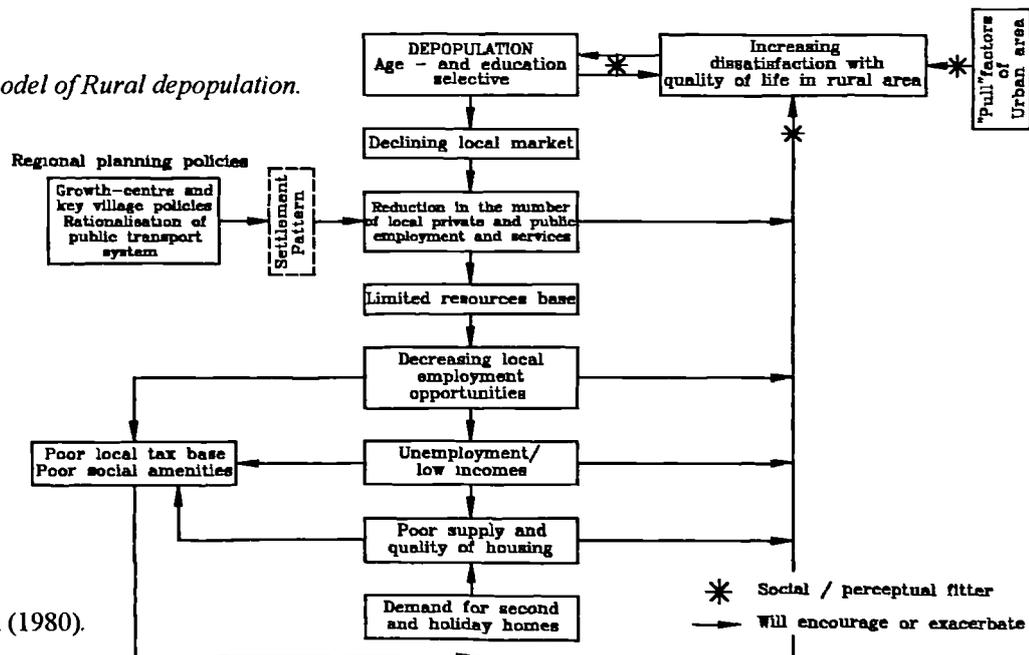
The principle of circular and cumulative causation



Source: Hodge & Whitby (1981)

Figure 3.2. It shows how the decline in local market and limited resources, followed by a reduction in the number of employees would be the cause of depopulation in rural areas. As the Figure shows, increasing dissatisfaction of rural residents with quality of life has a mutual relation with depopulation, which would be the result of a series of factors, such as limited resources, decreasing employment opportunities, poor quality of housing, and etc.

Figure 3.2. A model of Rural depopulation.



Source: Grafton (1980).

But what is general in this analysis? One important reference document is the Agenda of the Annual Meeting of Habitat (1996). This speaks about the necessity of improvements for all human possibilities in living and working conditions, and some sections deal especially with rural settlements. The Agenda argues that:

*“the diversity of types of human settlements is a key component to creating just and sustainable societies. The living and working conditions in all human settlements, including regional urban centres, rural services centres, rural hamlets, rural communities, market towns and villages, must be improved, with particular emphasis on shelter, social and physical infrastructure, and services. The maintenance and the development of rural settlements require sustainable agriculture and forestry activities and improved agricultural technology, economic diversification, and expanded employment opportunities created by encouraging appropriate and environmentally sustainable investment in industry and related economic production and service activities.”*

Other parts discuss the eradication of poverty for a sustainable society. It is obvious that a society suffering from poverty can not be sustainable and the important point is recognition of the reasons and causes and designing the most efficient programme according to the existing potential and possibilities. This is very important because the main cause of poverty is the lack of economic possibilities, so any unrealistic programme would fail. The necessary points that should be taken into account are argued in Habitat Agenda (1996, 115):

*“promoting equitable, socially viable and stable human settlements is inextricably linked to eradicating poverty. Poverty has various manifestations, including homelessness and inadequate housing, inadequate income and lack of access to all primitive necessary social services. The eradication of poverty requires, inter alia, sound macroeconomic policies aimed at creating employment opportunities, education and training that will promote sustainable livelihoods through freely chosen productive employment and work; and basic social services, including health facilities.”*

As a practical solution for the eradication of poverty in all areas, the suggested actions are summarized in Habitat Agenda as: (1996, 118)

- i) *“Stimulate productive employment opportunities that generate income sufficient to achieve an adequate standard of living for all people;*
- ii) *Improve policies that reduce environmental health hazards, and provide the informal sector and all workers with accessible information on how to enhance occupational safety and reduce health risk;*
- iii) *Ensure that people living in poverty have access to productive resources, including credit, land, education and training, technology, knowledge and information, as well as to public services, and that they have the opportunity to participate in decision-making in a policy and regulatory environment that would enable them to benefit from employment and economic opportunities.”*

The Agenda contains a section which reviews the problems in rural areas and presents some propositions as a guide for development actions in such areas. The main items for proposed action are outlined below: (Habitat, 1996,165) The full text of the Agenda is presented in Appendix B.

1. *To promote the sustainable development of rural settlements and reduce rural-to-urban migration, Governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, should:*
  - i) *promote the active participation of all interested parties;*
  - ii) *Take appropriate measures to improve living and working;*
  - iii) *Foster a sustainable and diversified agriculture;*
  - iv) *Provide infrastructure, services and incentives;*
  - v) *Promote education and training in rural areas.*
2. *To promote the utilization of new and improved technologies and appropriate traditional practices in rural settlements development, governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, in cooperation with the private sector, should improve access to information on agricultural production, marketing.*
3. *In establishing policies for sustainable regional development and management, Governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, should:*
  - i) *Promote education and training programs;*
  - ii) *Make full use of geographic information systems and environmental assessment methods;*
  - iii) *Implement regional and rural development plans and programs based on needs and economic viability;*
  - iv) *Establish an efficient and transparent system.*
4. *To strengthen sustainable development and employment opportunities in impoverished rural areas, Governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, should:*

- i) *Stimulate rural development by enhancing employment opportunities;*
  - ii) *Establish priorities for regional infrastructure investments;*
  - iii) *Encourage the private sector;*
  - iv) *Promote equitable and efficient access to markets;*
  - v) *Promote products from rural areas in urban markets and rural service centres;*
  - vi) *Reduce significantly or eliminate environmentally harmful subsidies and other programs.*
5. *An integrated approach is required to promote balanced and mutually supportive urban-rural development. To achieve this objective, governments at the proper levels, including local authorities, with the support of the relevant international and regional institutions, should:*
- i) *Provide an appropriate legal, fiscal and organizational framework;*
  - ii) *Facilitate the development of an efficient communication;*
  - iii) *Promote broad cooperation among local communities to find integrated solutions for land-use, transport and environmental problems in an urban-rural context;*
  - iv) *Pursue a participatory approach to balanced and mutually supportive urban-rural development.*

This outline provides a global view for Rural Development and the desired objectives. So as the result of all these debates and the Habitat agenda, what would be the final definition for the Rural Development Planning in all aspects?

Briefly the result of literature review would be that “Development” means changes towards growth and progress, and that planning should be involved in the design and implementation of such changes. The other important points are that the people and communities, and their culture, should be taken into account for the desired design. It is also clear that the starting point should be the most accurate recognition of the problem, then to set out the main aims (policy), and then to define the desired changes that are necessary to meet the aims. These will cover all parts of the process of planning for development. Perhaps these needs to be added emphasis to the importance of implementation and the process of ensuring the availability of the required resources.

The main policy, as the national policy for solving the rural problem is the main guideline

for the planning organization to think about its own policy and the necessary process for planning. The organisation needs to explore and understand the real purpose of the policy and what kind of aims are proposed by the policy-makers. It was discussed several times that all these processes, at the local level, depend on the people and the cultural, educational, and physical conditions, potentials and resources.

The context of this research comes from a national government objective concerning rural depopulation and the need for a process, from policy to implementation, for providing the decent life for rural residents to be happy and stay in the village to produce more, to provide bright futures for themselves and the next generation. In this issue all the process would be summarised as:

- i) Governmental policy – decision to adopt “planning”;
- ii) Governmental policy – the broad, general goal for planning, which is to reduce rural-urban migration or, if possible, to stabilise the rural population;
- iii) Planning policy – aims and objectives, translated into statements of principle, to be followed by the plan;
- iv) Policy proposals – to work towards the policy “as above” with specific proposals, projects and programming;
- v) Monitoring – keeping a check on what has happened, especially to see if goals and objectives are being achieved;
- vi) Final Review – perhaps a new plan?

### ***3.5. Social Learning and Policy Analysis:***

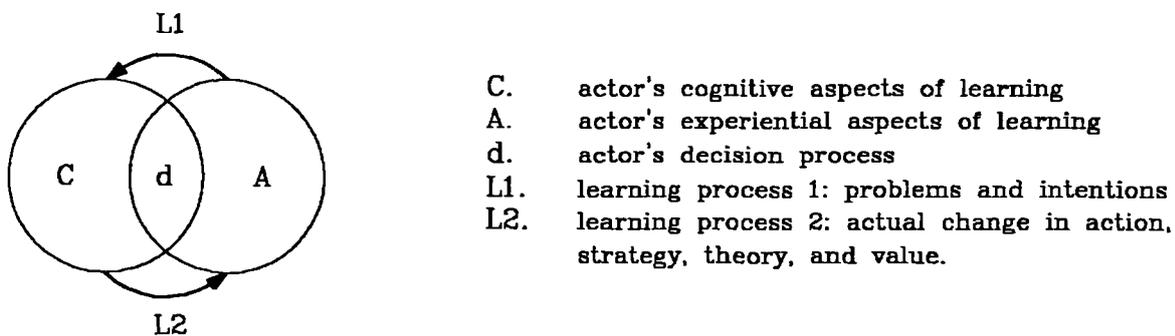
The writing of Friedmann makes a useful connection between ideas of social involvement

and how planning and policy analysis relate to these issues. Social learning, begins and ends with action, that is with purposeful activity. It is complex, time-dependent process as Friedmann (1987) argues:

*“in addition to action itself (which breaks into the stream of ongoing events to change reality), political strategy and tactics (which tell us how to overcome resistance), theories of reality (which tell us what the world is like) and the values that inspire and direct the action; taken together these four elements constitute a form of social practice.”*

These activities and processes are shown in Figure 3.3. with the desired relations between different sections and the cyclical nature of the process.

**Figure 3.3.** A simple model of social practice and learning.



*Source:* Friedmann, (1987)

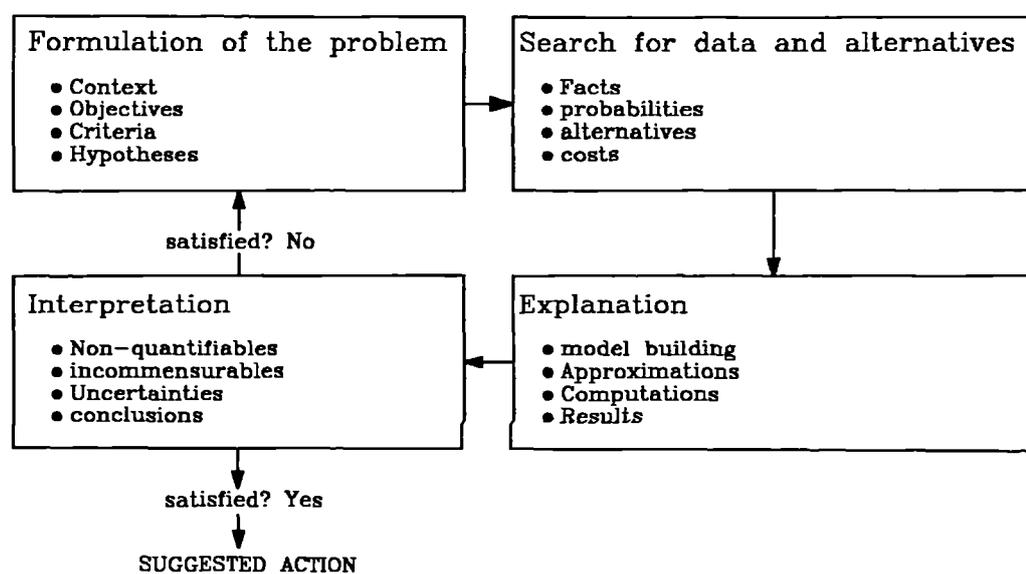
The other necessary analysis would be policy analysis, which is looking for the problems, data and alternatives, explanation and interpretation. This is also a cyclical process which tests itself and, in case of lack of satisfaction for the desired response, the problems should be studied again.

Figure 3.4. demonstrates this process and the important points in each step. Policy analysis is all about the decisions derived for the main policy. It describes the specifications which planning should follow and the achievements that planning is looking for. This idea is

argued by Friedmann (1987):

“policy analysis is focused on decisions; it is a form of anticipatory decision-making, a cognitive process that uses technical reason to explore and evaluate possible courses of action.”

Figure 3.4. Activities in policy Analysis.

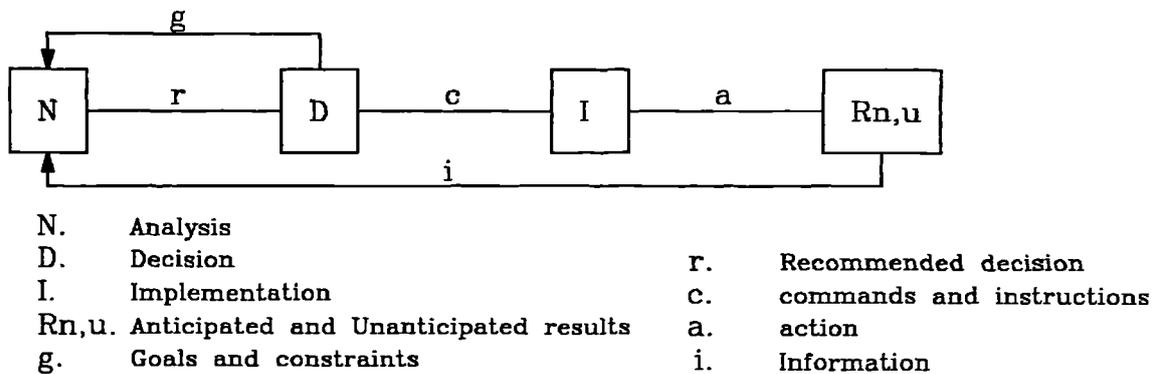


Source: Friedmann, (1987)

This model of policy analysis is demonstrated in Figure 3.5. It shows the relation between the policies, affected by goals and constraints, in a process of decision making for the proper action, that in a cyclical process tests the results for the recommended decision. A conclusion of all these processes as a result of the different stages of planning in all aspects would be policy analysis as understanding the goals, problems, and the necessary process of planning toward progress by designing the solutions, defining the goals and objectives, as well as forecasts, available resources, and implementation, designing the desired implementation procedures, putting these into action and the feedback for evaluation of the

activities which have been carried out.

Figure 3.5. A structural model of policy analysis.



Source: Friedmann, (1987)

This process as a operational definition of development is argued by Friedman (1987):

1. "Defining the problem to be addressed in ways that will make it amenable to action or policy intervention;
2. Modeling and analyzing the situation for the purpose of intervention with specific policy instruments, institutional innovation or methods of social mobilisation;
3. Designing one or more potential solutions in the form of policies, substantive plans of action, institutional innovations, and so on. These solutions are typically expressed in terms of:
  - i) Futurity- specification of goals and objectives, as well as forecasts, probability judgments, action sequences, and so on;
  - ii) Space- locations, spatial organisation, physical design;
  - iii) Resource requirements- cost estimates and other claims on scarce resources such as foreign exchange, skilled labour, and so on;
  - iv) Implementation procedures.
  - v) Procedures for feedback and evaluation."

This seems to under-plays the significance of the goals and constraints. Goals are especially important in this process in the sense that problems only exist if some desired state has been defined in the form of a goal, aim or objective.

### 3.6. Rural Employment:

It seems that providing more opportunities for employment would be the best way for erasing one of the effective reasons for depopulation. These points are argued by Pacione (1984). He discusses about employment and its relationship to development and industrialisation in a western context, but with points which have general validity:

*“Employment and Rural Development, the principal energizing force behind rural emigration is the lack of employment opportunities. This deficiency is reflected in high levels of unemployment, low activity rates, particularly among women, and low incomes, in addition to out-migration of young people. Rural industrialization, the transfer of employment opportunities from the primary to secondary and tertiary activities is a concomitant part of the development process. Agriculture, forestry and the extractive industries are no longer major rural employers and, to an increasing extent, the employment prospects for rural dwellers will be found in manufacturing and service industries. Processing of rural products would appear to be an activity well suited to employment creation in rural areas. This would include the canning and freezing of vegetables or meat, and processing of dairy products.”*

But the facilities which are required in an area, whether urban or rural, to allow the establishment of manufacturing will clearly depend on the type and scale of activity being considered. The general factors, important for establishing new enterprises, were set out by Pacione (1984), as follows:

- i) *“the availability, quality and cost of labour;*
- ii) *cost of transporting inputs and products;*
- iii) *availability and cost of energy supplies;*
- iv) *attractiveness of area to key workers and management;*
- v) *presence of local or regional markets;*
- vi) *linkage with other firms or parent plant;*
- vii) *availability of suitable site and premises;*
- viii) *local authority cooperation, for example in the provision of housing for key workers; and availability of government grants and incentives.”*

In countries such as England, the quality of the environment represents the greatest asset of rural areas in the competition for jobs, either directly by encouraging recreation, or indirectly by providing an attractive living environment for those working in secondary or tertiary activities. Woodruffe, B.J.(1976) gives an interesting approach to the identification of rural policy areas:

*“The recognition of area or morphological units which have some elements in common e.g. building materials, architectural style, or phase of development and the identification of the morphological structure of settlements in one aspect of urban geographical theory which is being increasingly used in rural planning, especially in the establishment of conservation and policy areas.”*

The rural economy of third world countries is based on agriculture, either cultivation or livestock rearing, and this fact should be always into account, so that the need for development good agricultural land and natural resources is essential. For instance in arid areas, water supply and irrigation are critical; in mountain areas, then the availability of flat-land is crucial along with access considerations, Agricultural potential not should be wasted and countryside should not be spoilt. Another important economic factor is recognition of settlements itself, which are functioning as a centre or providing some services for other settlements. So the process of selecting villages, defining the objective levels of development and the criteria to be used in the planning process are other important issues to be explored.

### **3.7. Settlement Patterns:**

For a realistic approach to rural planning, Woodruffe, B.J. (1976) gives the following account of the activities which were undertaken in rural areas in England:

*“Having analyzed population data as part of survey for the first development plans, many authorities then proceeded to an analysis of rural population distribution, and to a consideration of population in relation to facilities and services. Some counties undertook very detailed geographical surveys of villages and hamlets, classifying each settlement in respect of size, location or function. This type of analysis was essential for an understanding of the settlement structure in the county and subsequently, for a clear set of policies to be drawn up.”*

Clearly these points are drawn for England but from my point of view they apply to everywhere in the world for classifying settlements, identifying necessary services, and their level of needs. Such study enables the policy-maker to identify settlements and districts with particular service deficiencies, or to recognize areas where services are not being fully utilized. This kind of analysis leads to a series of settlement classifications, based on services or functions and economic potential and scope or need for residential development.

The ultimate aim of the policy would be identifying some settlements suitable for further development and factors such as road quality and existing services, facilities and capacities should be taken into account. However other factors affecting the changing quality and nature of services is that the rural population is becoming increasingly mobile and that the structure of village population differs widely and alters with time. Woodruffe, B.J.(1976) lists problems affecting rural areas in England, as:

- i) “The economics of providing services to many small and scattered villages;*
- ii) The selection of “rural service centres”;*
- iii) The smallness and wide spacing of existing “rural service centres”;*
- iv) The decline in functions of market towns;*
- v) The lack of sewerage in rural areas;*
- vi) The relationship of education development plan proposals to selected villages.”*

The whole debate is for recognition of the centres, but there are different grades of centres, Woodruffe's classification of services is:

- i) *“Group A, facilities considered to be those which are most likely to draw residents to a village: secondary school, bus service every two hours or less, village hall.(300 people and more);*
- ii) *Group B, These facilities which in conjunction with those above enable a village to play a greater part in the rural community than is played by a normal village: daily bus service, doctor's surgery, district nurse, industry employing over five people, sewerage system, playing-field.(200 people);*
- iii) *Group C, Facilities which are fairly generally available throughout agricultural areas or which have comparatively little influence upon the growth of the village or its opportunities for serving the surrounding areas: church or chapel, clinic, library, primary school, post office, shop, public house, garage or agricultural engineer, allotments, public water supply, electricity, gas, occasional bus services, village organisations such as women's institutes and men's clubs.(100)”*

So these levels of services and settlements population should be the main guideline for policy-makers to establish the main policy in this issue, for more suitable distribution of the possibilities to cover more settlements, as many as possible. These points make clear that for development planning in rural area in third world countries, a study of settlement patterns and key settlements should be part of the whole study which defines the scale of development and the region which it should cover, which settlement are going to be planned?

The different shape of settlements depends on geographical location, climate, socio-economic characteristics, distribution and even safety in the past; the influences of these factors can be observed through the organic, rural fabric. The spatial distribution of dwellings is discussed by M. Pacione (1984):

*“The key to the settlement pattern is the distribution of individual dwellings, and this aspect of the cultural landscape varies between nations and regions.”*

He classified settlements as nucleated or dispersed.

*“The nucleated-dispersed settlement dichotomy is based more upon general statements about grouping and non-grouping of buildings than upon any rigorous definitions.”*

Of course this is not the only way that the settlements could be classified. This idea is argued by Bunce (1982):

*“There is, therefore, no agreement on the minimum spacing of dispersed settlements, nor on the number of buildings required for a nucleation.”*

M. Pacione (1984) describes the factors favouring dispersed settlement although these may not be relevant in all regions or countries, most of the factors should be into account for a relevant classification:

- i) “An absence of the need for defense, prompted by peace and security;*
- ii) Colonization by individual pioneer families rather than by groups bound together by the ties of blood-relationship or religion;*
- iii) Domination by private-enterprise agriculture rather than communalism;*
- iv) Unit block farms rather than scattered holding;*
- v) A rural economy dominated by livestock-rearing or ranching;*
- vi) Hilly or mountainous terrain;*
- vii) Readily available water supply;*
- viii) Deliberate governmental action to break up villages, piece together fragmented holdings and thereby produce a more efficient agriculture.”*

With the huge changes in rural and urban areas the real function of each settlement as a

centre or an individual settlement should be studied. This notion has been argued by Franklin (1955) who describe villages which are:

*“rural but non-farm, urban but not fully urban” and which “act principally as serving and trading, distribution and collecting centres.”*

It is clear that most modern villages possess a wider range of functions than their agricultural antecedents and that they serve the surrounding territory to some degree.

Settlements which interact with and provide goods and services for an adjacent geographical area as well as their resident population have been termed central places. The point is recognising the key settlements which can perform this function and act as a centre for their cluster. Sometimes many settlements have developed naturally as a centre and should be supported by planning to do the job more efficiently, and sometimes a study of the potential in each case, can show possibilities for improvement so that the settlement may develop as centre to serve the other settlements in the area.

### **3.8. Key Settlements:**

The concept of key settlements, which has been extensively used in developing countries, is based on the objectives of providing rural residents with essential services and facilities at reasonably accessible locations. Woodruffe,(1976) claims that:

*“in essence the principle behind the key settlement concept is one of concentration of limited financial resources upon a few selected centres rather than dispersal throughout a range of settlements.”*

As the starting point, Cristaller’s theory describes the relationship of each settlement to the others in a cluster. From the view of economic principles and geometry, Christaller’s theory

applied to those settlements predominantly concerned with serving the needs of the surrounding area. M. Pacione (1984) argues this point:

*“The significance of this service role cannot be measured simply by the population of the place. While population might be a measure of absolute importance, it is not a measure of a settlement’s centrality. But Centrality is the degree to which a place serves its surrounding area and this can only be gauged in terms of the goods and services which would be offered. Clearly there are different orders of goods and services; some are costly, bought infrequently, and need large populations to support them; others are everyday needs and require small populations. From this two concepts emerge:*

- i) The “threshold” population: this is defined as the minimum population required for a good or service to be provided, that is the minimum demand to make the provision of the good or service viable;*
- ii) The “range” of a good: this is the maximum distance which people will travel to purchase a good or service. At some range from the central place the inconvenience of travel as measured in time, cost and effort will out-weight the value of or need for the good..*

*From these two concepts an upper and a lower limit can be identified for each good or service – the lower limit is determined by the threshold, the upper limit by the range. The most serious problem with this theory would be in statistical nature, which does not enable it to respond easily to changing social and economic conditions. This is the reason why for choosing settlements, other relevant factors should be taken into account.”*

Morrill (1963) examined the spread of settlement in Sweden using a historical predictive approach as the number, size and location of settlements in any region is the result of a long and complex interplay of forces through which particular settlements develop as service centres. His conclusion in this regard is that:

*“any study which proposes to explain the origins of such patterns must take into account four major factors:*

- i) The economic and social conditions which permit and/or encourage concentration of economic activities in towns;*
- ii) The spatial or geographic conditions which influence the zone and distribution of towns;*
- iii) The fact that such development takes place gradually over time;*
- iv) Recognition that there is an element of uncertainty or indeterminacy in all behavior. ”*

In the U.K. context, Cloke (1979), has defined nine criteria for key settlements selection:

- i) *“Existing social facilities, including primary (and in some cases secondary) schools, shops, villages hall and doctor’s surgery; and public utilities (gas, water, electricity, sewerage);*
- ii) *Existing sources of employment (excluding agriculture) in, or in the vicinity of, a village;*
- iii) *Their location in relation to principal roads and the possibility that new development may create a need for a by-pass;*
- iv) *Their location in relation to omnibus routes or railways providing adequate services;*
- v) *Their location in relation to urban centres providing employment, secondary schools (where not provided in the key settlements itself), medical facilities, shops and specialized facilities or services. A town will provide all services and facilities which one would expect to find in a key settlements. Key settlements are not appropriate near main urban centres;*
- vi) *Their location in relation to other villages which will rely on them for some services;*
- vii) *The availability of public utilities capable of extension for new development;*
- viii) *The availability and agricultural value of land capable of development;*
- ix) *The effect of visual amenities.*

The main issues involved with these factors are economic, social and political, and each is important for the selection of any settlement. Other writers add emphasis to the consideration of economic, social and political factors. For instance an example of an economic perspective could be that in general, public service provision costs per head are higher for rural than for urban areas HM Treasury (1976), and Pacione (1984) argues that:

*“A major principle upon which the key settlement policy has been founded is that significant savings in public sector costs may be made if new development in rural areas is concentrated in a limited number of larger settlements rather than dispersed throughout the countryside.”*

An example of a social perspective is that key settlements are intended to raise rural living standards at a minimum cost to the community, and to act as viable service centres for the surrounding areas. But critics like MacGregor (1976) claim that:

*“the concentration of facilities in key settlements without concern for hinterland transport links has merely exacerbated the plight of the non-mobile population in small villages.”*

And thirdly a political perspective suggests that politics and planning are inextricably linked and as Jenkins (1978) observes,

*“there is really no such things as an apolitical arena”*

Certainly the selection of a key settlement, with the policy implication of concentrating resources and power in that settlement requires a strong political commitment and the political will to mobilize all resources for implementation. In some settlements control must be enforced in order to prevent development. Cloke (1979) has argued that:

*“the ineffectiveness of key settlement policies in both social and economic terms has been due, in part at least, to deficiencies in policy implementation and coordination.”*

Cloke and Shaw (1983) in a survey of rural structure plans in England, found that planners themselves identified four major problems associated with previous resource concentration policies:

- i) *“the assumption that hinterland villages will benefit from investment in key settlements has been undermined by the decline in rural accessibility;*
- ii) *The key settlement concept has granted respectability to market trends of service rationalization and has positively discouraged beneficial development in non selected villages;*
- iii) *The scale of new public investment is often too small to realize any scale economy benefits;*
- iv) *planning authorities have limited control over the provision and disposition of rural resources so policies often do not have their desired effect.”*

In a review of postwar rural settlements strategies in the UK. Martin and Voorhees (1981) concluded that:

*“there is no conclusive evidence that settlement policies of concentration have achieved the most economical pattern of infrastructure and service provision.”*

However Cloke (1979) argues that:

*“no real evidence has been advanced to demonstrate that alternative planning frameworks would provide a more practical or successful approach to rural planning than would the key settlement system.”*

Planning should be, above all, a problem solving activity and the ideal settlement policy would be one which is responsive to local conditions and opinion and which considers all settlements regardless of their size. An approach is required which is capable of generating alternative solutions and evaluating them against a wide range of social and economic criteria relevant to the study area, and then implementing the most favored policy. And all these points return to the fair selection of the settlements for planning.

Clearly this widening of the concept of rural planning means that planners must extend their interests and expertise to encompass social and economic planning as well as their traditional concern with land-use strategies and built form. However it is still very relevant to ask how land is being or could be used to the specific advantage of the marginalised rural population. Ghimire, K. (1997) argues that:

*“It is source of food, employment and income in rural area. It is obvious that sustainable land-use would bring productivity, family welfare, children's education and improved living conditions.”*

Ghimire, K. (1997) also argues that:

*“land-use policies for any given area must focus on the local potential of natural and human resources. They have to be built on local systems of resource use, and local skills and initiatives. Local people must have*

*guaranteed rights over resources, and should be in charge of the decision making process involving, for example, the quantity of resources extracted, forms of resource use, seasonally and sharing of products, benefits and responsibilities.”*

This is the reason that the state and external development agencies should allow land-use policies to be more flexible and supportive of rural people.

### **3.9. Rural Development Agencies:**

The need for a comprehensive integrated approach to the development of rural areas is widely recognized, for example Gilg (1980) argues that:

*“Comprehensive development is an approach which emphasizes the combined effects of individual policies and tries to ensure that activities are planned with interaction in mind, so that they work together to further overall objectives. This goes beyond postfact to coordination of sectoral plans to which agencies are already largely committed and which have usually been prepared separately within a strictly limited outlook.”*

Despite the U.K. context, this debate has general relevance and importance. Robinson (1972) has detailed the characteristics which a rural comprehensive development agency should possess. It would:

- i) *“operate on a regional scale;*
- ii) *treat economic, social and physical planning as a combined operation;*
- iii) *be innovative in outlook;*
- iv) *have power of intervention and its own budget;*
- v) *have a continuing role and be allowed to take a long-term view of problem solving;*
- vi) *be an indigenous agency thus avoiding problems of alienation, misinformation and misinterpretation which can accompany planning from a distance.”*

Although this quotation is from 27 years ago, it could be regarded as a brief conclusion for the debate for creating sustainable development and clearly demonstrates the nature of the

agencies, and the process which are required.

It is clear that every programme needs a relevant and suitable agency for implementation, monitoring and to control the process. The lack of such departments in third world countries, in which the power in all fields tends to be centralized, is one of the most important problems that comes along with the process of planning and implementation. In fact often there are no such agents to monitor the process or evaluate progress, to demonstrate the importance of the process. Roberts (1974) outlines an approach to integrating plan-making activity with implementation, especially emphasizing the need for effective programming in relation to resources. He argues that:

“PPBS. (Planning, Programming, Budgeting System) brings all these facts together; but with increased emphasis on the importance of resources and a programming approach:

- i) *Physical planning* – comprising land use and physical environment;
- ii) *Social planning* – development of local services and their impact on the local community, and;
- iii) *Resources planning* – which includes both financial and manpower planning – in an attempt to ensure that the choice of priorities and policy options employs all available relevant information.”

### **3.10. People and Planning:**

According to the understanding so far, development planning is going to programme future changes which should happen to try to achieve specified aims. It would cover all the social, economic, and cultural context and in reality involves the people with the activities and processes of their daily life. If they become involved from the early stage of decision making and planning, producing proposals, then the success of the plan should be guaranteed because it will contain the demands of the majority of the community. The participation of the people, or in the other words, self-helping could take different shapes; from providing their ideas about planning aims and objectives, to providing land, manpower

or financial resources for the process of implementation.

In England the Skeffington report to the Ministry of Housing and Local Government (1970) says:

*“Participation for the process of planning would be defined as sharing in the formulation of the policies and proposals of planning; it could be by giving necessary information to the local planning Authorities and an opportunity to comment that is a major part in the process of participation.”*

It will be full participation only where the public are able to take an active part throughout the plan-making process. The value of public participation also is argued that:

*“Planning is a prime example of the need for this participation, for it affects everyone, people should be able to say what kind of community they want and how it should develop. This can improve the quality of decisions by public authorities and give personal satisfaction to those affected by the decisions.”*

The importance of this participation practically is shown by section (3) of Town and Country Planning Act 1968 which requires:

*“3(1) When preparing a structure plan for their area and before finally determining its content for submission to the Minister, the local planning authority shall take such steps as will in their opinion secure:*

- (a) that adequate publicity is given in their area to the report of the survey under section 1 above and to the matters which they propose to include in the plan;*
  - (b) that persons who may be expected to desire an opportunity of making representations to the authority with respect to those matters are made aware that they are entitled to an opportunity of doing so; and*
  - (c) that such persons are given an adequate opportunity of making such representations;*
- and the authority shall consider any representations made to them within the prescribed period.”*

Public participation would be little more than an artificial abstraction if it became identified solely with planning procedures rather than with the broader interests of people. It should be one of the main parts of the planning process, from the beginning when the questions for planning and the desired policy is forming, to the final stage for approving and

implementing the plan.

In all the cases some people will benefit from planning and some will be hurt; even though they are informed of proposals and are able to comment on them, not everyone's wishes can be met. But in fact some people may ultimately be hurt, but with an understanding that the proposal will be for benefit for whole society, it may become more acceptable. This is the reason that Town and Country Planning Act (1971) introduced this involvement as enabling people to contribute their ideas while plans are being prepared for the area in which they live. This was intended to make people ready to be involved and so to make the planning process more successful. As will be developed in details in Chapter four, in Iran, the national constitution adopts a "self-helping" approach in which local people can contribute, on voluntary basis, land for public services, manpower or even finance.

### **3.11. Sustainability:**

Following global event such as the Rio Summit and the Habitat Conferences, sustainability is a new goal for development planning. It seems without sustainability, planning can not be acceptable. But what is the meaning of sustainability and what is meant by a sustainable plan?

Sustainability in western countries, is all about the environment, and how a plan can be implemented with the least damage to environment, or how it would be helpful, for supporting the environment to keep it untouched, as much as it is possible, for transferring the available natural resources to the next generations. It is true that western countries already have passed the stage of necessary progress in economic and social factors; and they

have passed the social economic crisis, which the third world countries are facing. This could be a strong base for environmental sustainability, and these factors are very helpful for providing a more sustainable environment. So the issue in industrial countries would be completely different compared with third world countries, especially in rural areas.

Sustainable development in rural areas, could be defined as necessary programming for environmentally sensitive production processes in cultivated lands, fertilising, and, calculating the appropriate capacity and potential of rural areas, the number of families who could use these lands, providing decent living environment for residents and more acceptable conditions for the people to live in their village. It needs to be recognised that, in this issue, welfare would be a necessity, because without it the people have not enough motivation to stay and help to provide and support a sustainable environment.

In the Habitat Agenda, as a strong base for a global definition for a more stable society in rural areas, one of the pre-factors for reducing rural-to-urban migration has been established as the promotion of sustainable economic development of rural settlements. The necessary factors have been defined briefly in section 3.4. and the complete text is presented in Appendix B, as: Appropriate measures of living and working conditions; Sustainable and diversified agriculture; Providing infrastructure services; Promotion education and relevance training; and finally the appropriate participation of the residents in all the development process.

There seems to have been strong agreement with the approach that it is necessary for

sustainable development to provide decent conditions of life for residents. So in taking into account these points, planning would be more acceptable if it would be sustainable.

For this concept of sustainability to be incorporated in the planning process, there needs to be a study of alternative ways of achieving particular goals dealing with the facts and situations as they are. A sustainable economy will provide a strong base for a sustainable planning process. In other words, the maintenance and development of rural settlements requires sustainable agricultural activities and improved agricultural technologies and the creation of more employment opportunities by encouraging appropriate and environmentally sustainable investment in industry and related economic production and service activities. Another conclusion for this sustainable rural development plan would be continuity of the process. This means that the plan would be successful if it can continue the process of improvement after implementation. In third world countries, rural development projects are part of national programmes. In the long term, only with sustainability as one of the aims and objectives, will this be long term investment that should be able to continue after implementation of the plan itself. In development projects for rural areas, based on comprehensive study of all the relevant fields, it is not only the environmental issues which are tackled, but it needs necessary changes and improvements in social and economic contexts for a wider view of sustainability. Mariam, (1998) argues:

*“Today, the concept of sustainability has been expanded to include more than just environmental issues. Development practitioners now address questions linking sustainability to population and, in particular to poverty alleviation. This approach makes the relationship clear, since environmentally sustainable development cannot be achieved, let alone maintained, unless poverty is reduced.”*

This debate briefly discusses the point that no settlements can keep its environment sustainable, when their social, economic conditions are not sustainable, so once more this could be argued that in processes of development, all the relevant factors should be changed in acceptable ways to be able to support the whole process as a sustainable process.

Mariam, (1998) argues:

*“from the perspective of poverty alleviation, a sustainable project refers to one designed permanently to increase the economic and social well-being of the poor, and thus, their independence. Specially this means that the project or programme structure is one which can eventually function without external assistance”*

Experience has helped to improve our understanding of the issue as a basis of development policies and programming. Consequently, there is a growing recognition of the complex factors that influence developing economies. Notably, the interaction between the economic, socio-cultural, and political forces has been given greater emphasis, but the concept of sustainability can be applied also to all areas of the development process. But as an acceptable achievement for development, the aim in this section is to discuss those issues most relevant to Rural Development Planning. The plan would be successful if it can increase the economic and social well-being of the rural people and it would be called sustainable if it could eventually function without external assistance and if it will have a long-term beneficial impact on the quantitative (measured by income) and qualitative (measured by quality of life) aspects of the residents lives. Isbister, (1993) argues that:

*“Poverty reduction must always be closely linked to economic growth and more equitable income distribution. (Social Justice).”*

The nature of planning was described that it should be an interactive process, undertaken

in a social context, rather than as a purely technical process of design, analysis and management. This definition clearly defines that sustainable development plans should have a continuing function without external assistance. Mariam, (1998) presents the important questions in this context:

*“for the development practitioner, the translation of policy initiative into sustainable programming is challenging. How does the notion of making poverty alleviation activities sustainable manifest itself at the project or programme level? Alternatively, how can the existing system, especially relating to design and implementation be made better to help the poor?”*

The implementation of development plan concerns may be presented in six recognised stage of a project cycle to be sustainable. This would be defined as a planning process for sustainable development:

- i) Identification of problems and potentials;
- ii) Plan preparation;
- iii) Implementation;
- iv) Monitoring and evaluation;
- v) Transfer of project to rural development agency, or local authority at the rural level.

Based on a systematic progression from identification to preparation, appraisal, approval, implementation, and evaluation, the project cycle could create a regularised approach to public investment. These are the main points, and the process has been defined in different sections so far, but as a conclusion in this issue, the Identification, Planning and Implementation should be done with public participation to cover all the necessary and possible demands. Monitoring should be done by the relevant agencies to be sure that the process is going on in the right direction, and transferring to local authority or in Iranian

situation to a Rural Council could support this idea that the process will continue without external assistance, which could be evaluated as sustainable.

### **3.12. Conclusion:**

This chapter has explored the nature and main aims of Rural Development Planning. The most important lessons would be for policy makers to be able to make the right decisions for the planning process, and to learn from their experiences to improve rural development planning and implementation; by appropriate understanding of whole process, and desire achievements to be able to make the right policy in this regard. Other important points for the process require the *understanding of socio-economic, cultural and geographical issues* and involvement of the people.

The plan should be a key activity which ensures that the actions occur in the correct sequence. The main concerns would be to provide services and facilities and employment opportunities in selected settlements, which will satisfy the essential needs of surrounding villages and hamlets, (rural cluster) in the long term. Such concentration would be more economic than the dispersion of facilities. In this regard the recognition of key settlements would be the first stage and a valuable and fundamental step, because the right decisions at this stage underpin the rest of process and consider the benefit of planning at a wider scale, beyond the planned settlement itself. The concept of key settlements means providing rural residents with essential services and facilities at reasonably accessible locations. In this regard, the facts which should be into account would be the identification of the morphological structure of settlements, analysis are essential for correct understanding of

defining the objective levels of development and the criteria which should be used in the planning process, and finally classifying settlements in respect of size, location, and function and the decision-making process of selecting the key settlements. These types of analysis are essential for correct understanding of the settlement structure, with a clear set of policies, drawn up with the ultimate aim of the policy to be identifying settlements which are suitable for further development. The necessary criteria for a key settlements, according to the points, which were discussed in this chapter are:

- i) The existence of social, economic and administrative facilities and services;
- ii) a source of employment (excluding agriculture), or at least the necessary potential;
- iii) good location in relation to principal roads, and to other settlements, which are to be served by this settlement.

Overall, Planning should be a problem-solving activity and the ideal settlement policy would be one which is responsive to local conditions and opinions and which considers all settlements. All these points relate to the proper selection of the settlements which are to act as key settlement for planning. In this context, planning involves choosing between settlements, allocating resources, achieving the desired goals and taking actions towards the future. It is a whole process of decision making and implementation.

The process of development should be predictable according to the existing resources. But all the time one of the problems of the policy maker in practical terms has been the uncertainty about what will happen in the future and how planning, by managing and controlling the changes, could be an attempt to reduce uncertainty to achieve desired objectives. Its function inevitably changes through time.

The other point is that nowadays sustainable outcomes would be more acceptable and the desired concept of sustainability could be investigated through alternative ways of achieving particular goals, dealing with facts and situations as they are. The need for a sustainable economy as a strong base for a sustainable development planning process is inevitable. In other words the maintenance and development of rural settlements require sustainable agricultural activities and improved agricultural technologies for providing more employment opportunities by encouraging appropriate investment in agriculture, industry and related economic production and service activities.

From this literature review, an overall summary of the desired aims and objectives of Development Planning in Rural areas are:

- i) Appropriate and environmentally sustainable investment in employment and related economic production and service activities;
- ii) Develop appropriate land-use control measures, including land-use planning solutions, for more rational and sustainable use of limited land and other resources;
- iii) Social development for the eradication of poverty;
- iv) Creation of productive employment and social integration;
- v) Education and training that will promote sustainable livelihoods through freely chosen productive employment and work; basic social services including health facilities;
- vi) Reducing inequalities, and increasing opportunities;
- vii) Improving and providing, as appropriate, access to resources, employment and income, promoting rural development and measures to improve economic, social

and environmental conditions in rural areas; and as the most important effect,

viii) Reducing emigration from rural area. (Rural depopulation)

These are main aims for a programme of Rural Development Planning and the necessary process. What would be the aims for process of Rural Development planning in Iranian context? Taking account of the definitions of planning and development presented above, the main objectives as defined by Cloke (1983) have been merged with ideas according to the specifications of planning in rural Iran, to re-state the overall aim as follow:

The development of rural settlements should be planned to create a network which serves its rural population, providing opportunities for the satisfaction of their needs for an acceptable standard of life, specifically:

1. Rural housing:

- i) Examine how needs can be met within a strategic framework;
- ii) Improve existing housing structure;
- iii) Promote policies to achieve the right type for local people.

2. Local economic development:

- i) Establish the type and level of employment needed;
- ii) Examine the potential of an area for increased production and the introduction of new techniques or products;
- iii) Match need with a development programme to encourage economic development which will provide employment opportunities.

3. Education:

Improving existing schools from the view of quantity and quality according to changes in

population; proposals for higher stage of education where this is appropriate; the village should be able to provide these services to the other settlements in district;

#### 4. Health:

To improve provision of health care facilities for the village and the other Settlements in the district;

#### 5. Infrastructure services:

Within limited resources, consider optimum means of assisting rural communities, public transport schemes in the rural district and for the provision of modern standards of water supply and power. To conclude, Planning in any field is strongly relevant to understanding and acknowledgement about the problems and the expectations. Cloke (1988) argues:

*“What is true for rural deprivation applies to all other problems experienced by rural people, preconceptions of the role of planning within the state context should therefore be carefully acknowledged and understood prior to any evaluation of the success of policies and plans for rural people.”*

The other point which is very important in rural development is that usually every village is part of a cluster, dependent on the centre of the cluster. This fact has been argued by Cloke (1983), who says:

*“the village cluster system seems to provide a very useful tool for a planning authority. It provides a framework for making development control and investment decisions. It may also be that, in the future, local plans should be drawn up for clusters, rather than individual villages. So allowing the spreading of resources, perhaps some housing in one village, industry in another, etc.”*

Cloke looks at the situation very comprehensively. The problems in rural area and the results of depopulation are very complicated and all the relevant facts act as a chain, so successful planning must look at all aspects, study all the resources and possibilities, the

efficiency of the existing services and correctly evaluate the existing potential for planning. So in this regard cover planning is seen to include all the process, from policy, decision making, planning, implementation and evaluation afterwards, and to continuing development planning activities.

***Chapter Four:***  
***Development Policy***

#### ***4.1. History of Land reform in Iran:***

##### ***1905 up to 1979 (the Islamic Revolution)***

This background study of rural conditions is divided into two parts: first, historically, when the landlords were the owners of villages and the peasants cultivated the land according to their traditional roles, second, after various reforms through which some peasants became small landlords.

##### ***4.1.1. Land reforms of 1905 - 1962***

The “City Feudalism” of the Middle-East and most parts of Asia is sometimes cited as one of the reasons why modern capitalism did not develop locally in these areas. Cook, (1970) argues that:

*“In many studies, stress has been put on the lack of independent municipal communes in Asia and on the economic effects of landlord domination of the cities. However, the agricultural sector is one of the most important factors in causing different rates of economic change in different parts of the world, and it underpins rural settlements and productive systems.”*

The struggle between modernising groups and the traditional ruling classes makes up much of the history of the twentieth-century in Iran. This history is not easy to summarise, but the Iranian leaders also had economic ties to the old system of landowners and had limited interest in reform for purposes of efficiency or modernisation. Such men include leaders of the Persian Revolution of 1905-1911, Reza Shah who ruled from 1925-1941 and some moderate reformers such as Mohammad Reza Shah who ruled from 1941.

The First World War had a devastating effect on Iran. The country was used as a battlefield by the Turks, Germans, British and Russians; many Iranians were killed and foreign armies ruined agricultural areas; peasants were taken from the fields and forced to work on military roads and other war projects. Traditional irrigation works, which required special care and maintenance, were destroyed in many areas and the extent of cultivated areas decreased. The war also caused a fall in urban enterprise and population. Razi (1957) argued that:

*“The central government became weaker in the war period, and local landowners and Khans\* rebuilt local armed forces and the powers of feudal controls became stronger than government in local areas.”*

The War and post-war crisis gave rise to nationalist reform and radical movements, but these differed in goals and lacked nation-wide organisation. The strong man of the new government had himself declared monarch, under the name of Reza Shah, in 1925, and in the agricultural sphere, he relied on the support of old and new landlords and made himself the largest landlord in Iran. This period strengthened the position of the landed groups. The government passed a law declaring:

*“Any village which had been in the continuous possession of one man for thirty years is to be his private property.”*

In 1930, Reza Shah launched a programme of industrialisation which gave the country its first modern factories and railroad. His programme of army modernisation and educational and social reform continued, along with the impressive economic achievements in those

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\**Khan*: The landlord in Iranian villages was called Khan.

years. However the position of the great majority of the population who lived off the land did not improve and the social structure of the countryside remained much as before. By 1930s the peasant village in Iran was a purely agricultural unit. The peasants usually worked for one landlord, and Iranian tradition based the division of the corn crop on five factors *land, labour, water, seed, and animals* with the provider of each to get one-fifth of the corn. In practice, the weight allowed to each factor varied. The peasant's share varied from one-fifth to seven-eighths of the corn, depending on where he lived and what he supplied.

Peasant conditions were bad throughout the country, but they were much worse in the south and east than in the north and west. Housing and health conditions were primitive and unsanitary. Bank Meli Iran (1934) reported that:

*“In the depression years the peasants were especially hard hit, as prices of the agricultural goods they sold fell more than the prices of the manufactured goods they bought”*

When Reza Shah resigned hard conditions for the Iranian economy during World War II, brought a new rise in nationalist and reform movements. At no time was the peasant's income enough for living and they had to borrow money to survive. The bad economic conditions meant that, at all times, the peasants had debts. Lambton (1953) observed.

*“It is thus not surprising that debt should be one of the curses of Persian rural life.”*

The main economic burdens on the peasant are debts, rents and taxes, and these burdens have tended to increase through history. This indebtedness and, until the mid-1950s, the lack of capital investment in agriculture resulted in a decline in irrigation and hence of

cultivable land in many areas. Since the war there have been various attempts at reform, including notably the Shah's sale of crown lands to some of the peasants, who were working on them, and the law passed by Mosaddeq\* raising the peasant's share of the crop. The most important reforms were those begun in January 1962, which required landlords to sell their agricultural land but under these rules they were allowed to keep one village. Several categories such as mechanised farms, with the necessary machinery and equipment for farming and irrigation were sold to the government which, in turn, could sell the land to certain of the cultivators.

#### ***4.1.2. Land reforms of 1962 - 1963***

The 1962 Land Reform law gave priority to allocating land to those who held a recognised right to cultivate a share of a village's land. These people, who owned some instruments of production, were called cultivators. But this did not ensure that they actually worked the land themselves either before or after reform. In practice this has generally meant that non-cultivating classes (Small renters, lenders of productive instruments and heads of work-teams) acquired land, while cultivating classes ( Peasants, Labourers with regular wage and casual labourers ) who probably comprise 40 to 50 percent of the villagers, did not. The crucial land reforms measures in Iran were adopted in 1962-1963. But the early 1960s was a period of sharp economic recession after a boom in the late 1950s. Lambton (1969) argues that:

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\**Mosaddeq* - Iranian prime minister after 1949, who was a nationalist and tried to introduce some reforms for low income people.

*“During this reform in practice this seems generally to have meant that the heads of work-teams got land, while labourers, who constituted approximately 47.5 percent of the rural population according to the 1960 survey, did not. By mid-1964 the land of around five thousand complete villages, or about 10 percent of all Iranian villages, had been distributed to the peasants in rural areas, at which time the first phase of land reform had been declared completed.”*

She also argues that:

*“There were political reasons for land reform, including foreign and internal pressures and some change in peasant attitudes.”*

The second phase of land reform was proclaimed in decrees and regulations in 1963-4, and its implementation began in 1965. It covers most of the villages untouched by the first phase. Landlords are allowed to retain a maximum of 30 to 50 hectares of non-mechanised lands, depending on the region. The remainder was disposed of in one of several ways, as chosen by the landlord, who could:

- i) Rent the land to the peasants on the basis of the average net income of the past three years, the lease to be for thirty years and subject to five yearly revisions;
- ii) Sell the land to the peasants at a mutually agreed price;
- iii) Divide the land with the peasants, retaining a section equal to the share of the corn he formerly received;
- iv) By mutual agreement, set up a joint stock company with the peasants, with the landlord's share in the company to be equal to his former share of the crop;
- v) Sell his share to the government to be resold to the peasants on terms equal to those of the first phase.

A United Nation study (1966), Progress in Land Reform summarised the situation in 1966

as follows:

*“In the first place, it is not clear that (the reforms) have solved the social and political problem of landlord dominance.”*

The Shah said in one of his speeches (1963):

*“our aims are not to destroy small landlords. What we are doing is a means of making it possible to become small landlords. Those who become owners of land today, we hope, will become small landlords in future.”*

The shift in power from the feudal magnates to the new larger class of small landlords could still represent a significant political change

After these reforms, rural conditions had not changed significantly, because even the low percentage of cultivators, who got enough land, from the view of quantity, were not able to support themselves from this. They did not have agricultural machinery, enough money, and the other necessary facilities for cultivating. This situation was worse in the south, east and south-east, where the geographical situation, especially the climate, is one of the most important factors.

In this history of rural settlements it is possible to see these reforms as a start for the revolution. In 1963 the Ayatollah Imam Khomeini was an opponent of this reform and the other laws, that he thought were not suitable for Iran, according to Islamic culture. He was arrested and sent to Iraq. 15 years later the Revolution happened.

#### ***4.2. Development Policy in the Islamic Republic of Iran:***

The Islamic Revolution had its origins in the low income strata of the society, who supported the Revolution and spent all that they had for Islam and the Revolution in order to make a suitable space for living for all Iranian generations in the future. They were the people who fought for victory and a large number of them were killed during the Revolution. Even after the Revolution most of the Revolutionary body's army were made up of ordinary people who believed in the Revolution and the Islamic leadership. So it is natural that the main parts of the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Iran, which set out the guidelines of general policy for the Country, refer to this strata and to the state's commitment for improving the living condition of low income people, most of them living in rural areas around the country.

##### ***4.2.1. The Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Iran***

In the constitution, three chapters and some articles about General Principles, Rights of the Nation and Economy & Financial Matters contain obligations which the state should have for low income people, especially in rural areas. These are set out below to explain the basis of the policy for addressing problems of deprivation and a context for rural development planning.

##### ***Part One: General Principles***

##### ***Article 3:***

***Line 3.*** Providing free education and the physical development of facilities for all, at all

levels, and to universalize higher education.

**Line 9.** Elimination of all inequitable discrimination and bringing about all of the reasonable possibilities for everyone in all material and spiritual areas.

**Line 12.** Setting up a correct and just economic foundation, according to Islamic Principles, in order to bring about welfare, eradicate poverty, and eliminate all deprivation in the areas of food, housing, work, health and providing social insurance.

**Article 7:**

According to the Qoranic injunctions, *Their affair being counsel between them (42:38), take counsel with them in the affair, (3:152)*, Meaning that citizens should consult between themselves and be committed in all dimensions. These principles have resulted in a series of councils which constitute the main departments of decision making and administration of affairs of the country: These are the *National Assembly Council, Provincial Councils, Municipal Councils, Town Councils, Neighborhood Councils, District Councils, Village Councils* and so forth. The instance and manner of formation, extent of authority and the method of establishing them and the responsibilities of these councils are specified in the constitution and the laws proceeding from it.

**Chapter Three: Rights of the Nation:**

**Article 30:** The Government shall be required to provide free education and training for the entire nation up to the end of high school education and to expand the means of free higher education up to the level of self- sufficiency of the country.

**Article 31 :** It shall be the right of every Iranian individual and family to have a house

suitable to his needs.

The Government shall be required to carry out this article with due observance of the priority of those who are more needy, particularly the villagers and workers .

***Chapter Four: Economy & Financial Matters:***

***Article 43:*** For ensuring economic independence of society, uprooting poverty and deprivation and meeting the needs of Man in the process of growth, while maintaining his freedom, the economy of the Islamic Republic of Iran shall be based on the following considerations :

- i) Satisfaction of basic needs: housing, nutrition, clothing, hygiene, medical treatment, education and necessary facilities for the setting up of a family, for all.
- ii) Creation of work conditions and opportunities for all for the purpose of achieving full employment and placing means of work at the disposal of those who are able to work but lack the means, in the form of co-operatives, by extending interest- free loans, or by any other legitimate method that leads neither to accumulation or circulation of wealth in the hands of certain individuals or groups nor to the Government becoming a big and absolute employer. Such measures shall be taken with due consideration of the needs governing the general planning of the national economy in every phase of growth.
- iii) Emphasis on increase of agricultural, livestock and industrial production so as to meet public needs, leading the country to self-sufficiency and making it free from dependence on others.

#### **4.2.2. Government Development Agencies:**

According to these policies, instant action was to establish two governmental departments in relation to the rural areas. In a historic speech, Imam Khomeini, (1980), asked the government to set up these agencies, and asked for the people's support for the process of this activity. These agencies are Bonyad and Jihad.

*Bonyad-e-Maskan*, established in 1980, responsible for housing for all the people around the country, but with responsibility for the rural settlements as priority. This agency has become the principal organisation involved in Rural Development and its functions, and operations are discussed and analysed later in this research.

*Jihad-e-Sazandegi*, established in 1980, responsible for providing essential services, such as drinking water, road, health services, etc, and overall basic services that are necessary for normal living in villages.

Four years after the Revolution, on 29 Nov 1983 the *Jihad-e-Sazandegi* was changed to be an independent Ministry. The aims for this Ministry of *Jihad-e-Sazandegi* were:

- i) To move towards independence and self sufficiency for the Country, improving the social, economic conditions in rural areas by developing agriculture and rural industry and the reconstruction of villages, with the help of all the population;
- ii) To prepare the necessary environment for improving the rural character with self help and monitoring of rural settlements and rural activities;
- iii) To organise the potentials of different strata of people and available resources towards, the reconstruction of villages and to prepare suitable action for getting People's help.

The services which this Ministry has performed for the rural area are: \*

- i) Programming, building and conservation of the general buildings which are regarded as the basic needs for living in rural areas, such as : Baths, Abattoir, Laundry, Funeral Services, and piped drinking water supply in villages with population of more than 150 families. All activities to be undertaken with the self help of the people. For other essential services, such as Schools and Clinics, provision is shared with related Ministries, but the priority for executive action is with the Jihad;
- ii) Programming, building and maintenance of rural roads;
- iii) Programming and preparing necessary designs for providing electricity in villages;
- iv) Help the rural settlements with the cleaning and reconstruction of the Qanats\*\* for agricultural irrigation.

This summary shows that this Ministry has a budget and responsibility for improving rural living conditions with the policy that basic services that everyone needs for living must be provided in villages. There are more than 60,000 villages in Iran and provision of basic necessary services in all villages is impossible, so priorities have to be assessed according to different situations and conditions. However there is no comprehensive written national programme for Jihad's activity. Usually the responsible persons in each province

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\* *Jahad-e-Sazandegi*, Establishment agenda, 1980

\*\* *Qanat*: Links several wells with different depth on the natural slope connected to each other by a narrow channel on the bottom, collecting water of all the wells and finally water comes out using slight slope of the ground on the surface without using any mechanical or electrical instruments. This system is common all around Iran.

decide what can be done according to their annual budget, the possibilities and the priorities, and the central Ministry offices try to co-ordinate these activities. The other department responsible for rural housing is Bonyad-e-Maskan which recommend the best techniques for building and repairing rural buildings, suggesting the preferred materials that the villagers can provide themselves. But for these activities, as with the infrastructure activities of Jihad, there was an absence of any plan to co-ordinate these activities for better results.

#### **4.3. Towards a Rural Development Policy :**

In 1983, for the first time a project with the title "Rural physical improvement" was produced by the Secretary of Home Ministry in CharMahal Bakhtiary province. Following this successful experiment (according the view of implementer)\* in January 1984 a law was approved in the Islamic Republic Parliament with the aim of:

*« Reconstruction and Physical Improvement in all rural areas for providing cultural, educational, health, industrial, and productive facilities in order to make the rural population eager to stay and live in their villages.\*\* »*

This act relates to all villages with a population of more than 400 families. This basic policy was made for a limited period of 5 years. The aims of the policy were defined as :

- i) Improvement of rural income;
- ii) Preparing the resources for investments in rural areas in order to decrease inflation;
- iii) To prevent emigration from rural areas to large cities;

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\* Provincial Branch Office of Ministry of Programming and Budget. Jan 1984

\*\* Executing Agenda for Rural Development Planning. 1987

- iv) To make rural areas self sufficient from the view of administration, agricultural facilities and for all the necessary basic services that the rural population usually move to the cities to obtain. All necessary services should be provided in a larger village, to act as a cluster centre for a rural district, to be able to provide the services to all residents in the district;
- v) To make improved living conditions in rural areas, similar to what is usually found in cities;
- vi) To organize all relevant development activities, in all relevant governmental Ministries for rural areas.

This project included all activities which rural society is engaged with, such as: Agriculture, Industry, Roads and communications, Employment, Education, Health, Commercial and Distribution, and finally : Rural Development Planning. With these powers, a detailed policy for Rural Development Planning was established and these activities were to be carried out through the National Planning Organisation.

#### ***4.4. Planning Organisation in Iran:***

##### ***4.4.1. Governmental Organisation before the Revolution:***

The planning system is an instrument of government which controls development and its direction at National and regional levels. Usually it is the main instrument with which the government tries to affect the course of production of regional and local fabric. The two main categories of planning at national and regional levels are directly involved in the production of built environment in National Development Planning and its spatial manifestation.

Under Mohammad Reza Shah, national policies were increasingly institutionalised. In particular, the organisations of political centralism became increasingly complex and were placed within a highly bureaucratic administration headquartered in Tehran. Thus, at the provincial level, the central government came to be represented by two basic forces: politically by the governor and sectorally by the provincial heads of the offices of the main Ministries. The first of these forces had a more territorial dimension than the second. The governor, as the representative of the Shah, oversaw the province as a whole. Indeed, he was, in theory, responsible for the supervision and co-ordination of all provincial affairs. In practice, the governor found it almost impossible to carry out his functions, because the sectoral heads were responsible only to their Ministries in Tehran, and these Ministries were completely independent of the national Minister for the Interior who had responsibility for co-ordination of all provincial affairs. The primary reason for such independence was that, at least at the provincial level, the country was highly centralised vertically along the two parallel lines of political and sectoral functions, while, horizontally, few bridges existed between these two forces.

#### ***4.4.2. Governmental Organisation after the Revolution:***

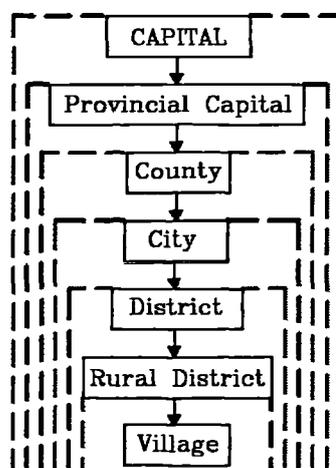
In spite of the points in the Iranian Islamic Constitution law regarding people's involvement in decision making at all levels (4.3.1. Article 7), the bureaucratic administrative, political organisation in Iran has remained highly centralised vertically along the two political and sectoral function. The councils were ordered by the law to be established as soon as possible 20 years ago, at the time of general referendum for Islamic Constitution, but they have only recently been elected in February 1999, and officially start working on April 1999. It is too

early for judgement, but it is natural that even in the best situation they need time to settle down and certainly will be facing with problems in decision making if they want to do the job the law asks them to do, independently and using the powers, performing the duties, as established by the law. This is the official administrative hierarchy in the country but as was the case before the Revolution, the other power centres in the provinces have the real power to make decisions, and naturally in the planning process, which could have side effect for their private benefit, these local powers do not allow it to be done independently.

Politically the provincial governor (Ostandar) who represents the Home Minister, is the head of the political body in the province and the provincial heads of the branch office of all ministries act sectorally in the province. The religious powers, such as the Friday Imam in every city, are the other centre of power which most of the times are more powerful than the official administrative body. They are sometimes more powerful than the governor and this could be the cause of conflict and problems at all levels.

#### ***4.4.3. Political Division in Iran:***

According to the Constitution, the council of the provincial capital is responsible for the councils of all levels in the province, cities, districts, rural districts and finally villages, and itself is responsible to the central council in the capital of the country. There are no local authorities, such as are found in the UK, so it is necessary to explain these political divisions, what they mean, and what are their official roles. The different levels of councils are shown through Figures 4.2. & 4.3. but the official relation between the different parts of the political body of government in Iran is shown in Figure 4.1.

*Figure 4.1. Different levels of political division in Iran*

As a subdivision, each Rural District acts as a Rural Cluster containing several villages, and the largest one is recognised as the centre. Practically sometimes the real functional cluster is different to the political boundary of a rural district, it depends, in what scale and range each centre is providing service to the other settlements in the cluster. At the larger scale, each city, politically and administratively, contains several Districts and Rural Districts, then all this complex, city and all the districts, rural districts and villages, is called a county. Within each Provincial boundary the largest city is the capital of province and each Province contains several Counties, Cities, Districts, Rural Districts and villages. According to the last political division by the Home Ministry, approved in the Iranian Islamic Parliament, Iran has 27 Provinces, 265 Counties, 678 Cities, 707 Districts, 2,227 Rural Districts and more than 60,000 villages.

#### **4.4.4. Regional Planning up to 1979:**

The formation of the Plan Organisation in 1949 and the beginning of institutionalised planning did not help integration or co-ordination. Indeed, the achievements of these planning institutions were similar to those of the centralist sectoral agencies, simply because

they also were centrally organised. Thus, as Namazi (1973) argues:

*“The regional planning system had to cope not only with the outside resistance of ministries, but also with the sectoral departments of the Plan Organisation.”*

At times, special Regional Development Organisations were created and partial efforts were made to organise the country on regional economic grounds and to create corresponding administrations. But due to the centralist sectoral nature of the Iranian administration and the existing laws of the country, within a short period of their existence, the functions of these regional organisations were divided among the existing Ministries. In some cases new Ministries were created to take over such functions, so that the original goal, which was to programme and execute interrelated development plans, was completely forgotten.

Figure 4.2. shows the Governmental Organisation in Iran from 1971 to 1978. During the first (1949-1955) and the second (1956-1962) seven-year plans, a number of special regional development organisations were created to develop selected backward regions through concentrated and intensive investment projects. These organisations were given special authority for budgeting, preparation, and execution of development projects designed to exploit natural resources. Major among them were the Moughan Plain\* Development Institution, 1953, and the Khuzistan Development Authority, 1956. The Southern Development Services (in Sistan and Balouchestan) was also established to give relief to those mostly backward areas.

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\**Moughan* Plain is a region in the North-west of Iran with extensive plains, high quality farmlands, that was chosen for a programme for development in the first phase.

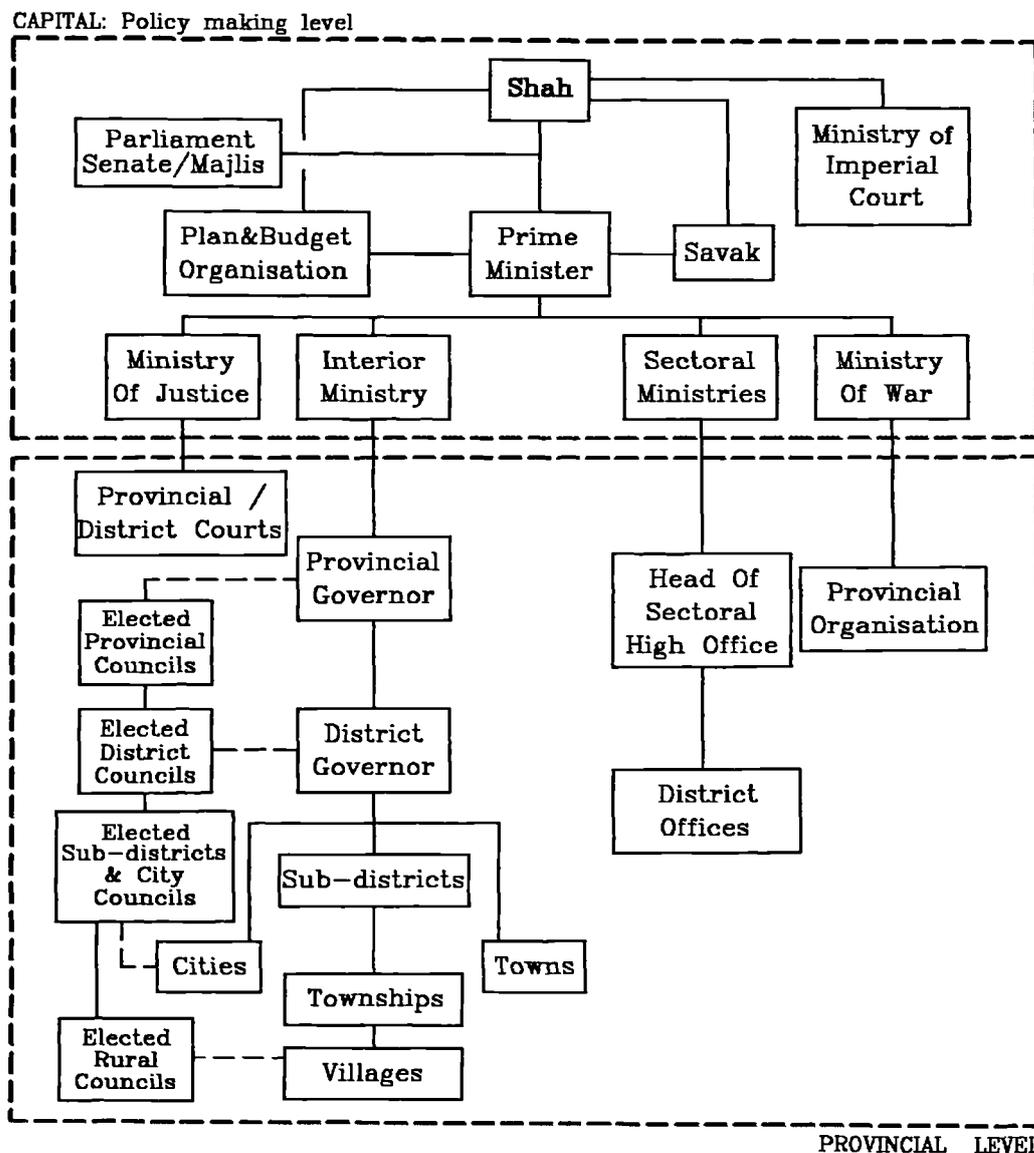
During the early stages of the third five-year development plan (1963-1967), a number of other regional development organisations were created, including the Ghazvin, Jiroft, and Kuhkiluyeh Development Authorities. After a short time, however, their comprehensive regional projects were broken up along sectoral lines. Each sectoral project was then transferred for execution to a sectoral Ministry. Because such projects were mainly agricultural in nature, many were transferred to the Ministry of Agriculture to be executed by the newly established provincial Water and Electricity Organisations responsible to the Ministry of Power. Thus, sectoral considerations prevailed over regional concerns and centralism defeated attempts at decentralisation and at integrated development.

Some recommendations were made for setting up regional planning units in the provinces and the law associated with the third plan provided the legal base for having projects identified and executed by provincial authorities. The important point is that all these regional development plans were agricultural projects in provinces that have very good conditions for agriculture and almost all the projects were established, with foreign investments, to obtain the best benefit from natural resources. But these plans were not comprehensive in all dimensions for making better living conditions for inhabitants; in some cases the population of rural settlements even had to sell their land to the companies and leave the site.

In 1962, the Plan Budget Organisation (P.B.O) set up technical offices in the provincial capitals in order to help provincial authorities identify regional needs, prepare reports, plan projects, and execute provincial plans. These offices, however, lacked any decision-making

power, which created problems for regional development. The dilemma was apparently solved in 1963 when a new Ministry of Development and Housing was established and the technical offices were transferred to it as its provincial branches. However, once again, centralism prevailed over regional concerns.

Figure 4.2. Spatial and Sectoral Organisation of the Iranian Government (1971 - 1978)



Source: Hooshang Amirahmadi. The Journal of Developing Areas, 1988.

During the fourth five-year plan (1968-1972), a number of important administrative changes were introduced at the regional level. Major changes were also made in the organisation of the Regional Development Authorities, which had originally been given authority for planning and execution. Toward the end of the fourth plan, they were broken up into separate sections; planning was appended to the Plan Organisation and execution was subsequently transferred to the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources. Later on, during the fifth plan (1973-1978), they became the provincial Planning and Budgeting Organisations. Again, the struggle between sectoral and spatial forces was resolved in favour of the former.

The concept of Planning as a development programme inside the National Plan, providing Master plans for large cities, was proposed by a German Consultant in 1959\*, in a report for the technical office of the Home Ministry. The next main planning initiative was the Tehran Master Plan (1967), prepared by Victor Gruen, jointly with Iranian Consultants (Farman Farmayan)\*, which proposed a twenty five years plan. This was the first time that the need for organisations to undertake development control and monitoring was recognised as part of the process of city development planning and Master plan implementation. Following this, the Ministry of Development & Housing, which was part of the technical office of the Home Ministry, became an independent organisation, named the Ministry of Development and Housing. Then its name changed to the Ministry of Housing and Urban Planning (1970-1971).

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\*Information from *Dr Mohamad Brar*, Ministry of Housing and Urban Planning, Interview 1998

At this time the High Council of Urban Planning became responsible for preparing plans and development control and a system of approval of all development planning was established. According to the law, the members of this Council were: the Ministers of Housing, Defence, Economics, Agriculture, Living Environment, Culture and Art, Education and the Home Ministry. Although at this stage the P.B.O.'s were established at provincial and central level, all the final decisions were made by the central office and the provincial offices were activated for the early stages of the planning studies and for monitoring the approved plans. When the Master Plan for Tehran was being prepared, there was no organisation responsible for observing and controlling the process of the Tehran Master Plan, so a separate Planning Organisation, including the Central Office and the other related departments at Tehran was established (1967), and in the other provinces, at least at Provincial level, but like the administrative chart, all these activities also was centralised.

Other development programming was going on, as before, but as the nature of this was mostly Agricultural, no separate organisation was thought to be necessary and the main responsibility was with the Agriculture Ministry.

#### ***4.4.5. Regional Planning since the Revolution of 1979:***

The Islamic Republic Constitution in 1979 emphasised the creation of provincial, city, and rural councils, that the members of these councils must be elected by the residents, and it emphasised the importance, given by law, for the ideas of the people and that they should be engaged with national decisions.

As described in section 4.4.2. after almost two decades, these councils are not yet working and the result is that the comprehensive administrative system, inherited by the Revolution, has continued to be essentially centralised as before, as shown in Figure 4.2. Councils at all levels have existed in the governmental structure of Iran before the Revolution. In fact none of them were decision makers and all the activities, from election of the members to the other responsibilities that are indicated, only existed on paper. They have not been active in any stages of decision making. So the important point is the councils are intended to be co-operative, involving with all executive activities in their region. But their activity is not positive and they have not been given the necessary power, so these organisations have become very large administrations, but useless for the executive part of governmental action. As was discussed about the constitutional law of the Islamic Republic of Iran, principle 4 of the constitution makes all laws and regulations subject to Islamic rules and standards as determined or interpreted by the religious jurists of the Council of Guardians\*.

Elected councils, both spatial (at provincial, urban, city, local, and village levels) and Sectoral (in agricultural and industrial production units), are recognised as potential organs of public participation and co-operation in administering local affairs, preparing programmes, and co-ordinating progress. Theoretically the strength of these councils comes from the supreme council of the provinces, in which each province has a representative. The council has the right to make plans within the limits of its duties and is superior to the

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\* *Council of Guardians*: 12 expert persons in law and religious rules, who are appointed, half by parliament and half by the religious leader. They determine whether the rules and governmental activities are according to Islamic rules or not; they have to power to stop, or veto every law that they judge to be counter to the religious rules.

governor and all other provincial government officials. The constitution thus provided Iranian planners with the ingredients needed to institute a progressive, decentralised, and participatory type of spatial or territorial planning. Elected Councils were to act as the foundation of this new approach. Certain problems prevented the introduction of such system, however. Lack of clarity in the constitution regarding private property was one of the main reasons. Other problems blocking the formation of new regional development planning included the old planning system. Despite these problems, in January 1982, the Plan and Budget Organisation submitted a document to the Economic Council entitled "*The Planning System*."\* This document was approved by the Economic Council and forms the basis of subsequent planning organisation and procedures. The new system was designed to be a machinery to produce the development plan, practically and basically avoided many ideologically or politically controversial issues of the time, including the concepts of "Islamic economic system" and sectoral councils. However the new system re-instituted the centralised structure of the old system and its bias in favour of sectoral planning. Regional planning, nevertheless, received more attention in the new system than it had ever received in the old one, at least theoretically. According to Razavi and Vakil (1982):

*"The system explicitly recognises that a realistic plan for any region can only be prepared by those who work as planners or in other related professions in that region. Further more, it is hoped that the preparation of a regional plan by the residents of that region will persuade a more effective public participation in planning affairs."*

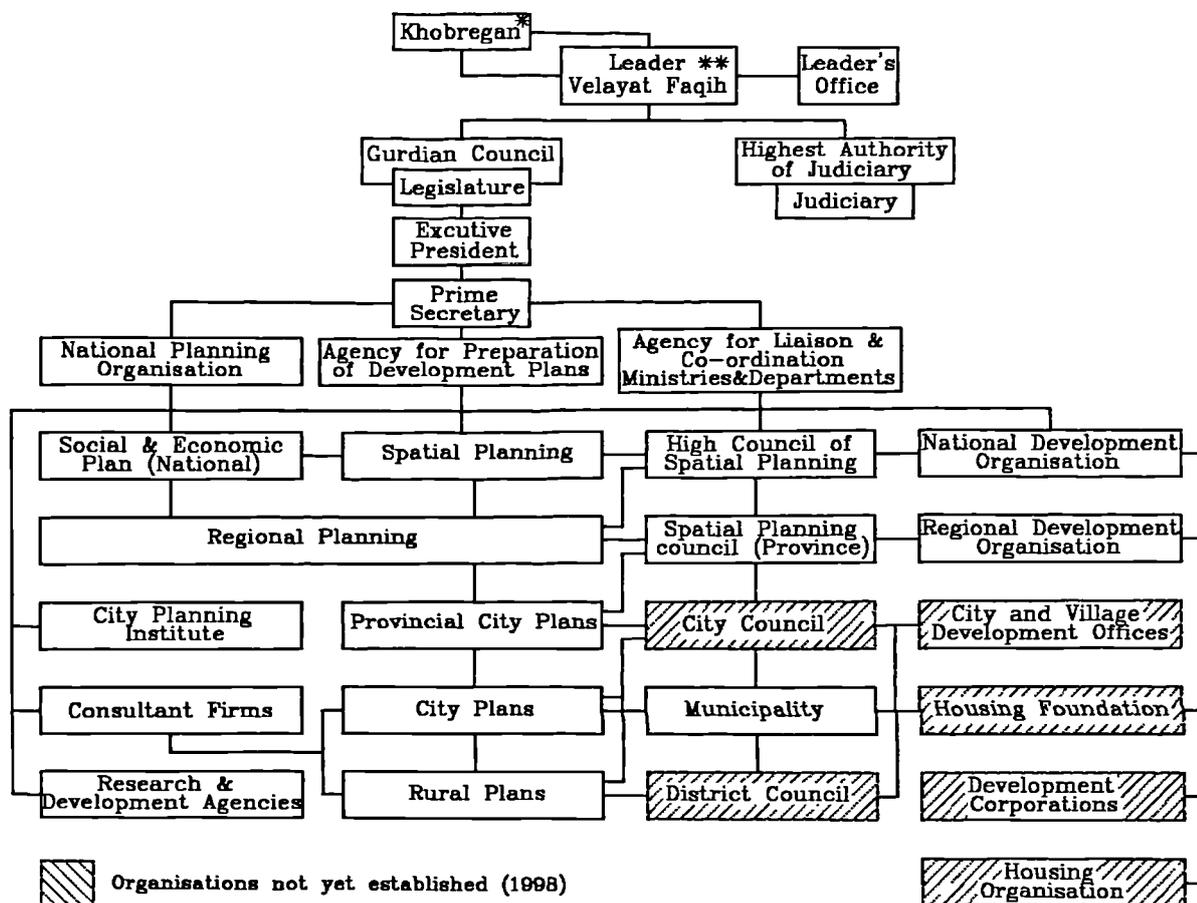
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\**The Planning System*. Tehran, Plan and Budget Organisation, 1982

The new “bottom - up and top – down” system for regional planning is demonstrated in Figure 4.3. The flow of information and project proposals starts at the village level and then goes through the rural district, city, and provincial levels. The provincial planning and political authorities analyse the information and proposals using the central government's sectoral regional guidelines, and prepares a provincial plan and a list of major sectoral projects in the form of proposals, which are then submitted to the Plan and Budget Organisation and the corresponding Ministries. Each Ministry analyses and modifies the proposals to arrive at its own sectoral plan with a regional distribution. The result will be sent to the Plan and Budget Organisation, where the sectoral regional plans are to be collected and made into a unified National Plan, consistent with the development targets and guidelines issued by the Council of Ministries and the Islamic Parliament. After modifications and approval, the plans are sent back to the Plan and Budget Organisation. The regional planning section, with the help of the Sectoral Planning Organisation, prepares proposals for the regional distribution of sectoral targets and submits them to the Regional Planning Council for preparation of detailed regional plans, consisting of development projects in each sector and region. The detailed plan is then announced to the provincial planning councils.

Each provincial council utilises a similar procedure to allocate the budget among different cities, rural districts and villages. All these stages are defined and are shown in Figure 4.3. But as was mentioned, some parts of this chain have not been established yet, and it is natural that when there are some missing links, the other parts are not able to operate properly or effectively.

Figure 4.3. Organisation of Physical Planning System.



\*The Council of Khobregan: the council of experts in Islamic rules elected by the people, they chose the religious leader, and monitor his activities and decisions.

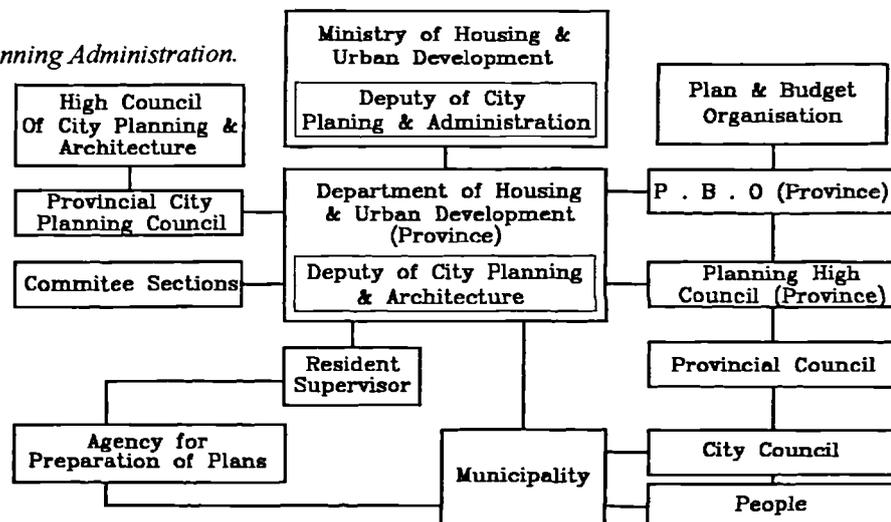
\*\*Leader: who is chosen by the khobregan and is the highest official person in Islamic Republic of Iran.

Councils in all levels, elected at 30 April 1999, were not active at the time of planning and process of this research.

The Institutions that carry out the tasks at regional and provincial levels are shown in Figure 4.4. This shows the legal framework for the preparation of development plans, but as is shown, the framework, despite its emphasis on a bottom-up approach, remains essentially centralised on a sectoral basis. While information is decentralised, decision making regarding targets, guidelines and resource allocation remains centralised and sectorally determined. Allocation of the centrally determined provincial budgets to various development projects remains in the power of the provincial authorities as they take account

of centrally determined sectoral targets and guidelines. This framework for spatial planning has not yet been applied. Indeed, the first development plan of the Islamic Republic (1982-1986) was never approved by parliament; and it did not spell out a clear national development strategy. Such strategy still remains to be formulated. In its absence, territorial planning in the Islamic Republic remains essentially ad hoc. This includes the activities of a number of revolutionary institutions such as the (Jihad-e-Sasandegi & Bonyade-e-Maskan) as discussed in 4.2.2. The only programmed and direct spatial activity of the Islamic Republic so far concerns pre planning studies at the regional and local levels for the preparation of the basic design of spatial planning (*Tarh-e Payeh-e Amaayesh-e Sarzamin*). These studies provide a detailed picture of resource availability, potentials, constraints, and problems at various spatial levels to be used as a guide for future spatial planning. The studies have been going on since 1983. These projects seriously could be used as a base for Rural Development Planning in allocating the resources in each area for programming the economy of the region, the relevant industries, agricultural programmes and the other development potentials which could be recognised and programmed at a regional scale.

Figure 4.4. Hierarchy of Planning Administration.

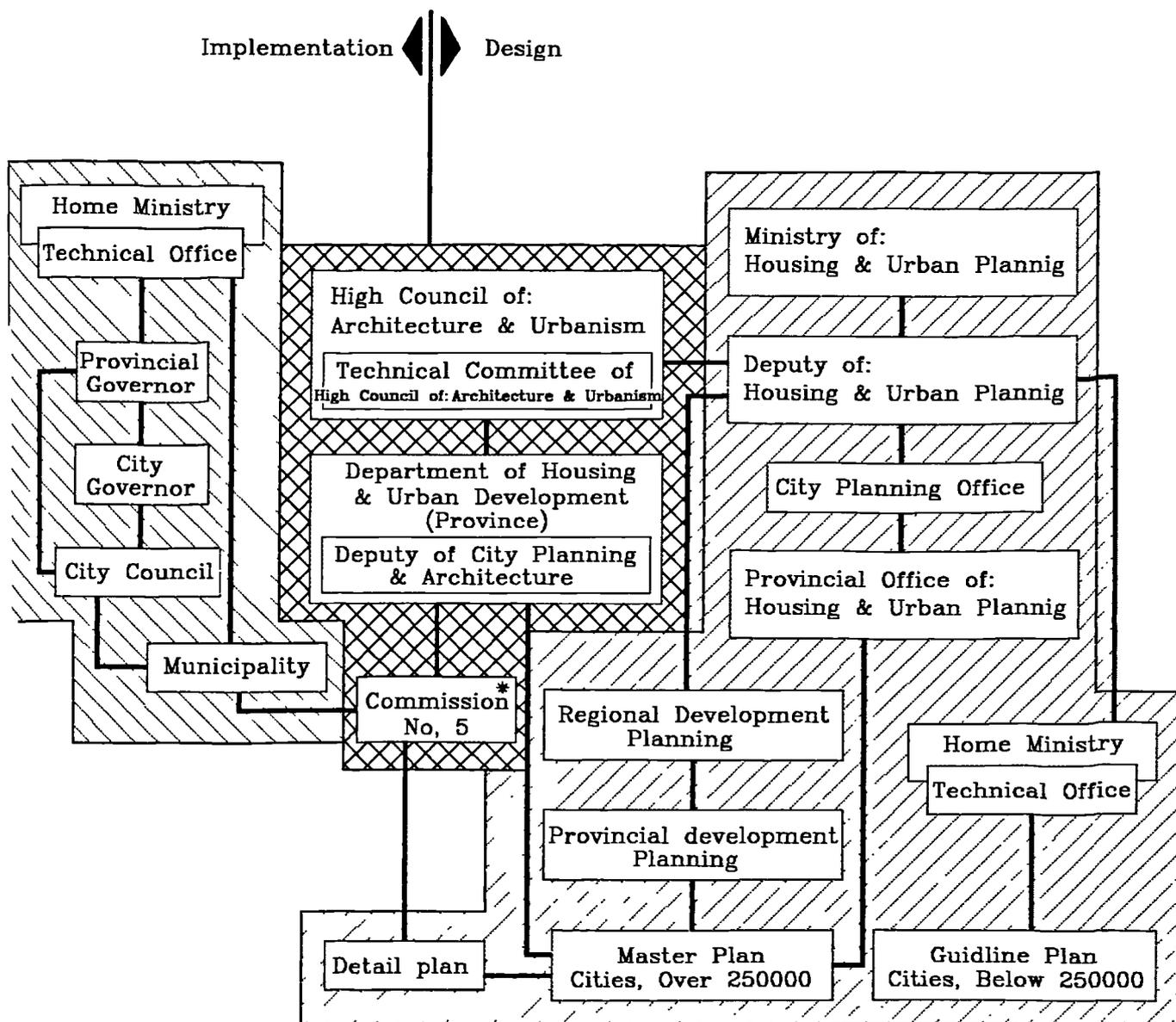


#### **4.4.6. The High Council for City Planning and Architecture:**

A body called the "High Council for City Planning" at the national level (Bolourian 1975) and the role of Governor of the province at the regional level were established to resolve conflicting interests before the Planning & Budget Organisation and the Ministry of Housing Development was established. The High Council was set up in 1964 and had the task of producing a general urbanisation policy and co-ordinating the urban activities of government organisations. The council consisted of eleven members, including the seven Ministries of Iran's Council of Ministries. This council has responsibility for the Development Planning and Master Plans for cities with over 250,000 people, and branch offices in provinces have the same responsibility for smaller cities. The members of these councils at provincial level are the delegates of the provincial offices of the responsible Ministries and they have powers to make decisions for such plans.

It is true that, despite this law, there are no organisations at district, rural district and rural levels, and this is the reason that at these levels Rural Development Planning is being carried out by the Approval Committee. As the Figure 4.5. shows that this committee does not exist in the organisational chart. This would be the main point in this regard that in spite of this committee's strategic duty relevant to rural areas, it does not work in the national planning organisation, although all the members of this committee are from the Ministries and agencies which have members in the High Council of Architecture and Urbanism. However it is significant that the Bonyad does not have a member of this Council. Figure 4.5. demonstrates the existing planning organisation in Iran and different relation between different parts.

Figure 4.5. Existing Planning Organisation in Iran (1998).



\* This commission controls the Urban Functions and implementation and decides Changes, if necessary.

- Relations defined in law.
- Relations defined in law for municipalities
- Relations defined in law for establishing the High Council of Urban Planning & Architecture

Source: Dr Mohamad Barar. Ministry of Housing and Urban Planning, 1998

#### ***4.5. National Development Programming:***

After the Revolution, there have been two national programmes : First: for the period: 1986-87~1991-92, and the second for 1992-93~1997-98. In the first, the main priority was to deal with post war reconstruction, because a wide area of Iran, in the west and south-west had been destroyed in the war with Iraq. The war continued until 1988, so support and provision of defence necessities were the first priority and after the war priority was given to the environmental conditions in war-damaged area in order that war-time emigrants would be able to return to their towns. Other national problems had priority over development planning for resources. But this idea of rural development has always been a main part of the policy, although as result of the war, these has been rapid progress in development activities, mainly with a focus on rural development.

The context and articles which follow, are translated from the original copy of Second National Development programme in Persian. It contains statements to demonstrate the general policies as Guidelines for related Ministries and departments to be able to organise their short and long term programming according the macro policies of the country. The interesting point is the state's commitment to give priority to agricultural development, and irrigation in particular.

#### ***Article - 74***

Because of the important role of agriculture, irrigation and natural resources, it is the State's commitment to make necessary arrangements for national development and self sufficiency.

#### ***Article – 75***

- i) Give priority to finance for agriculture and irrigation projects;

- ii) In the field of agriculture and cattle production the country aims to be self sufficient at the end of the programme.

**Article - 77**

- i) During the period of the Programme, at least 25% of all Banking system credit must be specifically used for agriculture and irrigation. It is the State's commitment to pay 70% of the interest of such credits and at least 50% of the interest for private sector's credit in related fields;
- ii) The State guarantees to buy all agricultural production from rural settlements;
- iii) The State must organise agricultural production insurance all around the Country.

**Article - 78**

3% of all development credits, except to the Ministries of Education, Culture and Higher Education, Health and Treatment, and Defence, would be in Ministry of Power's account to improve the infrastructure of services in this field.

**Article - 79**

It is the State's commitment to control agricultural marketing and protect the producer and consumer by:

- i) Building and improving the necessary industries, stores, freezers, and transportation;
- ii) Providing the necessary facilities for producers to sell their agricultural production straight to the consumers.

**Article – 80**

- i) Rebuild, protect and improve rural industries, providing banking credit with long term repayment, with commitment for paying 70% of the interest, in order to produce 200,000 new jobs in rural areas, the credit will be paid from the annual

budget;

ii) The programme's objectives by the end of the programme are:

- ◆ At least 15% improvement for Rural roads, electricity supply and physical conditions;
- ◆ At least 10% improvement for providing safe drinking water in rural areas.

According to the forecast for development in rural areas, the budget for the Second Programme, is shown in the Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1. Current Credits For Rural Development, During Second National Programme**

*Source: Second National Programming, Tehran 1992*

<i>Period of Programme</i>						<i>Overall Credit</i>	<i>Increase %</i>
<i>1992-3</i>	<i>1993-4</i>	<i>1994-5</i>	<i>1995-6</i>	<i>1996-7</i>	<i>1997-8</i>		
<i>Current Credit for Rural Area in Second National Programme</i>							
49.50	53.50	58.10	63.60	71.90	82.00	329.10	10.60
<i>Development Credit for Rural Area in Second National Programme</i>							
48.30	49.80	55.40	60.90	65.30	70.20	301.60	7.77
<i>Distribution of Current Credit for Rural Area in Second National Programme</i>							
0.241	0.237	0.238	0.244	0.253	0.259		0.247
<i>Distribution of Development Credit for Rural Area in Second National Programme</i>							
0.389	0.361	0.327	0.295	0.266	0.240		0.287

The forecast for new employment is shown in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2. Forecast for employment in agricultural activities during the Second National Programme.**

					Thousand persons	
<i>Period of Programme</i>					<i>Overall persons</i>	<i>Increase % 94-99</i>
<i>1991-2</i>	<i>1992-3</i>	<i>1993-4</i>	<i>1994-5</i>	<i>1998-9</i>		
3205	3251	3297	3339	3552	214	1.2

#### **4.6. Guidelines for Rural Development Planning:**

The guidelines for preparing rural development plans and the procedures for the Approval Committee were approved by the board of directors of Bonyad-e-Maskan in 5 July 1988,

and it was also approved by the Ministry of Housing and Urbanism on 9 October 1988.

The most important content are:

*First Chapter:* defines village, Rural Area, Rural Development Planning, Planner and sets out the most important aims;

*Second Chapter:* describes the local committee's duty in relation to rural development planning, and the experts and their qualifications to be chosen as the members of Approval Committee.

*Third Chapter:* describes the duty of Bonyad-e-Maskan in relation to the process of preparing plans, their approval and implementation.

*Forth Chapter:* describes generally the detailed policy for rural development planning, and how it should be implemented.

*Fifth Chapter:* describes the process of planning and implementation.

*Sixth Chapter:* describes the sources of funds for planning and implementation.

These activities have been set out according to the main policy, as a result of study and analysis of the constitutional law and according to the two national development programmes, established after the Revolution.

To address the problems in rural areas, and the possibilities of the State to run the programme, a guideline for Rural Development Planning has been established; during the last decade this has been up-dated with the necessary facts that should be taken into account. Appendix C presents a complete a copy of the guidelines which are being used for Rural Development Planning in Iran. These guidelines have been designed by the technical

office of the Bonyad Maskan and have been approved by Ministry of Housing and Urbanism. It will be seen that the guidelines cover almost all the relevant points from the Constitution and the National Development Programme. Also it will be seen that the guidelines relate to the issues which this research has summarised in the literature review, especially the main points from the Habitat agenda. The established guidelines make clear for the policy-maker and the planners the effective facts and relevant factors which have been taken into account. It starts with the definition for such planning, and sets out the overall aims of policy maker in this regard.

*“ Development Planning is for the purpose of reviving and guiding villages in terms of Social, Economic and Physical improvement.”*

Specific objectives are stated as :

- i) To create the necessary Social, Cultural and Economic conditions for Development;
- ii) To provide guidelines for improvement of physical conditions;
- iii) To create the necessary facilities for improving housing and other general basic public services.

It is clear that the process of change in all social, economic and physical factors and the interaction of urban and rural cultures, are strongly inter-related to each other and each one has its own effects on the other.

4.6.1. At the city level, the guidelines require the planner to carry out a study of the conditions of the whole city area, the climate and the location in the country; in order to create better understanding of the situation of the villages;

4.6.2. The aim of policy-maker has been to provide the necessary services for a wide area by planning key settlements and the planner is required to study the district in these specific issues:

- i) study of the cluster from the point of view of roads, services, and establishing the effective area which is already served by the village, with which services and to what scale;
- ii) study of the existing potential in the area, its natural resources, especially of water for irrigation and drinking;
- iii) population movement in the district for the last decades ;

4.6.3. A study of the villages is to include all the relevant issues for the village. It is to be very comprehensive and includes all the social, economic and physical conditions of the settlement and the factors which have influenced changes such as:

- i) History of the village;
- ii) Agricultural lands and natural resources;
- iii) Rural income, according to the agricultural economy and production, industry;
- iv) Physical nature of the area;
- v) Physical shape of the village including roads, streets, buildings and building materials, the occupied areas with different public services, their nature and scale in quantity and quality;
- vi) Existing infrastructural services, in quantity and quality;
- vii) Architectural shape of the village and identification of the physical centre of the village.

These are the main facts which are necessary for the planner to get the real idea about the

situation and recognise the problems and the process of changes, development or decline investigating the reasons. Probably if the study covers all the issues in the right depth, the solutions will show themselves and the proposals would have a strong base, based on the existing facts.

4.6.4. The policy-maker requires the planner to make the necessary analysis of the following topics for city, district and village level:

- i) population ;
- ii) necessary services ;
- iii) possibilities and restrictions for physical development ;
- iv) classifying the necessary services in the village according to the effective cluster and for the other villages in district, the extent to which they could be served and if there are other demands or needs;
- v) appropriate proposals for physical development, public services and to address the problems which have been raised through the study.

4.6.5. Plan.

In this section the planner has been asked to make suitable proposals for :

- i) distribution of necessary services in the district, identifying the nature and scale of them;
- ii) forecasting of necessary infrastructural services in the village;
- iii) providing the land-use plan for the village;
- iv) designing the appropriate guideline for development of housing and necessary advice for reconstruction ;
- v) defining the priorities according to two five years period of planning;

- vi) designing the administrative organisation within the village, and how it can support the process of planning.

#### **4.7. Planning Organisation for Rural Development Planning :**

In order to implement a programme, someone must have direct responsibility and have the power to make the necessary decisions. As was discussed in Planning Organisation section, 4.4. there is no specified programme for Rural Development Planning, so in order to execute decisions, an Approval Committee was established to coordinate these activities; these committees are located in Bonyad-e-Maskan's branch offices in each provincial capital. Bonyad is also officially in charge of an administrative process for the control of building development in rural area. In the official establishment agenda for the Approval Committee, the specification is that membership will include the delegates of: The provincial administration, *Bonyad-e-Maskan*, *Jahad-e-Sazandegi*, Agriculture Ministry, and Ministry of Programming and Budget. The other organizations which should be engaged with development planning and also have their delegates on this committee are: Ministry of Roads & Transportation and the Ministry of Health & Environment. The duties, of the Approval Committee are:

##### 4.7.1. Choosing the villages, which are to be planned.

The most important factors to be taken into account are:

- i) The village should be the centre for a rural cluster;
- ii) Population should be 400 families and more;
- iii) Villages should be already the centre of some cluster of villages and present some services to the others;

- iv) Villages which are facing severe physical problems;
- v) Villages which are damaged as the result of earthquake or war;
- vi) The priority should be according to the scale of population and their resources for development.

Two special factors, population and the potential for self help, are important in the decision. Because of restriction in the Development budget and the large area needing reconstruction after the war, one of the factors that has been always on the agenda, is the potential self help of inhabitants in each individual village. This has two dimensions, First: when the inhabitants have been engaged with the process of planning, from plan-making to implementation, this should be a guarantee of success for the plan, because usually it would contain the peoples' ideas, they have become familiar with it and would support it. Second: even if they can not usually provide any financial help for planning, during the implementation their help would be to provide labour, some local construction material and in some situations money, even very small amounts, means that they share in the process. According to these ideas one of the factors for choosing the cases for plan-preparation is the prospect of self help of inhabitants.

The other important fact is the population of the village. According to the large number of villages all around the country, the focus has been on villages of more than 400 ~ 500 families. The policy maker wants to give a priority to villages of this size for two reasons. Firstly this size of village could provide many public services to the smaller villages in its area, and secondly it reduces the number of qualified cases in line with the number that the State could afford to plan.

#### 4.7.2. Choosing the planners who must be qualified to carry out planning in rural areas.

- i) The planner's office must be approved for the purpose by the Ministry of Programming and Budget;
- ii) In order to be more familiar with the problems, it is better if the planner is from the local area.

#### 4.7.3. Appraise the prepared plans, comparing with the guidelines and prepare the implementation programme according to the approved plan.

The other duties of the Committee concern the approval of the plans and the arrangement for implementation. Some official definitions for the process of planning and implementation are set out as a guideline for the Committee to be able to evaluate the plans. The Committee's role in the process of planning and implementation, is officially explained as :

- i) Study the plans prepared, by the planners and Bonyad's offices;
- ii) Organize the different departments, for the activities which would be required for planning and implementation;
- iii) Promote the people's involvement in self help for planning and implementation;
- iv) Organize the related activities between Development Planning and Regional Planning;
- v) Monitor the process of planning and implementation.

#### **4.8. Definition of the Process of Planning, According to Iranian Policy Making.**

The Planning Process is to start with a study of geographical, historical, social, and

economic matters. In summary, the process of planning is to include :

- 4.8.1. analysis and appraisal of the existing conditions and possibilities;
- 4.8.2. suggestions for achieving the defined aims and to co-ordinate roles to implement these;
- 4.8.3. Preparation of the plan.

The process of Planning must include the results of these matters, covering all problems, and moving towards improved conditions of living for inhabitants. Some definitions that guide the members of the Approval Committee on how to appraise a plan, as quoted in official documents, are:

- i) The planning process must establish understanding of the Rural Environment and living conditions, as a basis for change in some physical factors in the village, to create better conditions and have the least impact on the natural environment;
- ii) Self help of inhabitants: This means that the inhabitants of the rural settlements must have the right to share in decision making and be part of the process of planning and implementation, being engaged with the effects of planning in their daily life. The important aims of the policy maker in the process of planning and implementation would be summarised as: to incorporate the inhabitants of Rural Settlements in decision making and implementation of Planning.

#### 4.9. *Implementation :*

According to the policy and the process of selecting villages for planning 1,005 plans have

been prepared by the end of March, 1994. Some of them have not received final approval, but 531 have been approved and implemented. Table 4.3. shows the number of implemented projects in each period.

*Table 4.3. Number of implemented plans in rural area during the Second National Programme. (figures for each year and the running total)*

<i>Period of Programme</i>						
<i>By 1991</i>	<i>1992-3</i>	<i>1993-4</i>	<i>1994-5</i>	<i>1995-6</i>	<i>1996-7</i>	<i>1997-8</i>
59	182	165	154	180	196	193
59	241	406	560	740	936	1129

As the result of planning and the main concentration on physical improvement, the implementation process in recent years has been limited to physical activities on site, carried out by the Bonyad. All the decisions and process of design and implementation are undertaken in the Provincial Offices. With the lack of an independent implementation organisation, Bonyad is doing the job alongside its other daily activities. But the nature of planning and the wide range of related activities that any planning involves, means that the lack of an administrative organisation for co-ordination between different departments for implementing the short and long term programmes as well as the physical activities is completely obvious. Lack of necessary organisation for implementation could be a major cause of failure to meet policy objectives, especially with regard to the importance of co-ordination between all the relevant agencies. An additional point is that the focus on physical development means that economic and social objectives are very neglected. In general term, the theoretical discussion about the nature of the planning process indicates the critical importance of implementation, the continuous nature of the planning process and the role of evaluation and monitoring. Clearly these are features which seem to be

absent from the existing organisational structure. It will become clear that implementation agencies have not been set up, despite the importance of implementation for the process of development after planning. It is only a secondary job for *Bonyad-e-Maskan* to carry out according its physical capacity although it is the fact that the main defined responsibility for Bonyad is development activities in rural areas and it is also in charge for Rural Development Planning. Every branch office of Bonyad has construction machinery and specialists for executive activities and they can implement the physical proposals of the planner in the planned villages.

#### **4.9.1. Process of Implementation:**

The implementation process is similar to planning, beginning with the decision making with priorities in each case, taking into account factors such as the social and political situation, as well as the date of planning and size of the village. Usually the planned cases are in a waiting list for implementation, and other factors such as population, physical conditions and, in some circumstances, political reasons, come into account for starting the implementation. Every year the Board of Directors in each provincial office of *Bonyad-e-Maskan* make decisions about the next year's projects for both planning and implementation. These decisions are influenced by the annual budget for the office, as well as the other side factors. There is the chief manager, directly responsible for every project, who co-ordinates the necessary activities according to the proposed land use and is in charge of the activities. In some cases some changes are necessary when the project is compared with the plan which had been approved by the Approval Committee of the province.

***Chapter Five:***

***Case Studies***

## 5. Case studies:

The most important questions in this research are:

- i) What exactly has been done?
- ii) What are the changes that have occurred as a result of the planning of rural areas in Iran;
- iii) What can be done to achieve more effective results, based on an evaluation of recent planning activities.

As mentioned in the Chapter 2, on Methodology, the best way to carry out field study within this research is to undertake multiple case studies. In particular in order to make comparisons and generalisations from the data analysis. Robert K Yin (1994) argues that:

*"The cases should serve in a manner similar to multiple experiments, with similar results or contrasting results."*

This chapter includes three sections, choosing the cases, the design of the field study and some general points which provide a general context for the cases.

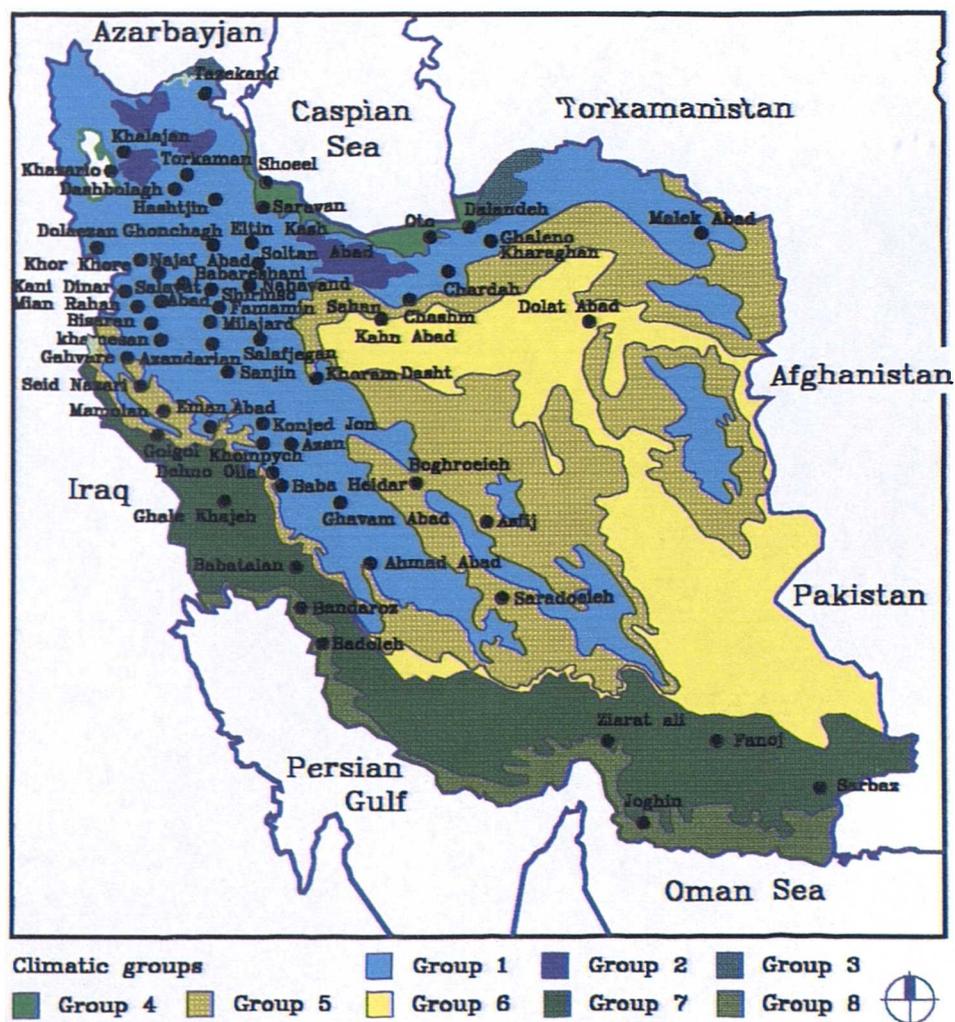
### 5.1. Choosing the Cases.

Because of the large number of potential cases the study should consider the main factors in order to define how many and which cases should be chosen as case studies. There were seen to be two 5 year periods of plan preparation and implementation, and in order that the impact of the plans can be properly evaluated, only villages that were planned in the first 5 year period will be considered to be chosen as a case study within this research. Of these, some of them have changed their official status to become classified as cities, because of

population growth or for reasons of political division, or some are too close to cities.

There are 59 cases around the Country with different scales of population, in different regions, with the other specifications that have been considered. Figure 5.1. shows the location of these cases on a map, showing the climatic divisions of Iran, in order to show the distribution of the cases both according to their location and climate.(Table 5.1. lists these data) There are two cases with only 10 families (approximately 50 Persons ) and the largest has 2,564 families.

Figure 5.1. The geographical location of the village and climatic zones.



The climatic divisions are described, with their subdivisions, in *Appendix D*

Table 5.1. Villages, which have been planned and implemented by 1991.

Province	City	District	Rural District	Village	Climate	No. Families
Ardebil	Moghan	Pars abad	Moghan gharbi	Tazehkand	4	291
	Khalkhal	Khoresh Rostam	Khoresh Rostam	Hashtjin	2	743
Boshehr	Dashtestan	Markazi	Homeh	Banda roz	7	34
	Dashti	Kaki	Kaki	Badoleh	7	1914
Charmahal Bakhtiari	Farsan	Markazi	Farsan	Baba Heidar	2	1374
		Shorab	Shorab	Dehno Olla	2	130
East Azarbaijan	Hashtrod	Markazi	Homeh	Dash bolagh	2	94
	Mianeh	Torkaman	Bardanan	Torkamanchi	2	1055
	Tabriz	Markazi	Sardrod	Koja abad	2	708
Khalajan				2	1184	
Esfahan	Esfahan	Maimeh	Maimeh	Azan	5	2564
	Golpayegan	Markazi	Jolgeh	Konjed jan	2	1243
	Kashan	Markazi	Homeh	Khoramdasht	6	48
	Khonsar	Markazi	Rahmatabad	Khom pych	2	370
Eyllam	Shirvan & Chardavol	Markazi	Asman abad	Seid Nazari	5	568
		Markazi	Sarab	Gol gol	5	36
Gillan	Rasht	Markazi	Sangar	Saravan	3	945
	Rodsar	Markazi	Ashkor Sofla	Shoeeel	3	64
Hamedan	Kabdar ahang	Markazi	Mehraban	Shirinso	2	248
	Hamedan	Famanin	VarjazinSofa	FamaninSahn	2	2139
		Shoree	Chahdasht	Milajard	2	165
	Malayer	Markazi	Tork	Azandarian	2	1330
Hormozgan	Minab	Rodan ahmadi	Rodkhanedoolia	Ziarat ali	8	91
	Rodan	Rodan ahmadi	Rodan	Jaghin	7	1586
Kerman	Jiroft	Saradoeieh	Saradoeieh	Saradoeieh	7	1162
Kermanshhan	Eslamabad	Kovand	Gorany	Gahvareh	2	829
	Kermanshah	Sahneh	Dinvar	Mian rahan	2	24
Khorasan	Mashhad	Ahmad abad	Pionjan	Malek abad	2	107
	Torbatheyarie	Markazi	Zavareh	Dolat abad	2	1340
Khosestan	Masjdsolymn	Markazi	Andika	Ghale khajeh	7	46
Kohkiroye & Boer Ahmad	Gachsaran	Markazi	BibiHakimeh	Baba talan	7	300
	Yasoj	Markazi	Sardrod	Ghavam abad	2	24
Kordestan	Baneh	Namshir	Namshir	Dolaezan	2	77
	Bijar	Markazi	Khosro abad	Babar shany	2	112
		Markazi	Najaf abad	Najaf abad	2	133
	Marivan	Sarv abad	Rashteh deh	Kani dinar	2	401
		Sarshiv	Zavard	Bisaran	2	657
	Saghez	Markazi	Khor Khoreh	Khor khoreh	2	42
	Sanandaj	Markazi	Salavat abad	Salavat abad	2	553
		Kamiaran	Gavrood	Khamesan	2	732
Lorestan	Khoram abad	Dolfan	Oity vand	Eyman abad	2	10
		Malavi	Mamololan	Mamololan	2	1000
Markazi	Arak	Markazi	Homeh	Sanjin dafjin	2	1489
Mazandaran	GonbadKavos	Ramian	Fandrask	Dalandeh	4	1063
	Savadkoh	Markazi	Kastian	Oto	3	160
Semnan	Damghan	Markazi	Rodbar	Chardah	2	793
	Garmsar	Markazi	Aradan	Kahn abad	5	385
	Semnan	Mehdi shahr	Chashm	Chashm	5	152
	Shahrod	Bastam	Bastam	Ghalnokhrghn	2	558
Sistan & Balochestan	Iran shahr	Bampor	Fanoj	Fanoj	7	1183
		Sarbaz	Sarbaz	Sarbaz	7	84
Tehran	Ghom	Markazi	Rahjerd east	Salafjegan	5	25
Westazrbayjan	Makoo	Padasht	Ghrehghoyn	Khazar lo	2	81
Yazd	Ardakan	Markazi	Meybod	Boghroeieh	5	889
	Bafgh	Bahabad	Bahabad	Asfij	5	25
Zanjan	Ghazvin	Markazi	Eghbal	Soltan abad	2	1862
		Tarome Sofla	Tarome sofla	Eltin Kash	2	48
	Takestan	Markazi	Dodangeh	Nahavand	2	946
	Zanjan	Markazi	Ejrood	Ghonchagh	2	71

In a classification of the villages by population size, cases with less than 400 families are considered as small villages, and as was mentioned in the section 4.7.1. the view of the policymaker is that only villages with a population of more than 400 families should be planned, so these smaller villages would require special features in order to be chosen. In such cases it seems these factors are that the village is politically the centre of a rural district in a strategic position, with benefit for other villages; or damaged as the result of natural disasters or as a result of the War or in a bad physical condition. Differences in size may produce differences in the nature of planning and outcomes, because some problems that the residents in a big village are faced with could never be found in a small one with fewer people.

A categorisation of villages into 4 groups with populations of 0 - 100 , 100 - 400 , 400 - 1000 , and over 1000, is based on personal experience, as well as the conclusions about this debate in the literature review, that the social and cultural features in such groups would be similar, with a need for similar services. Study of these different size groups would give a realistic view about the success or difficulties of planning at different scales.

Another explanation of this categorisation of villages from the view of population would be that usually three different sizes for rural settlements are recognized, small up to 100 families, medium from 100 to 1000, and large villages with more than 1000. However the population size of 400 families was used as the normal criteria for choosing villages to be planned in development policy in Iran; this has been one of the necessary conditions for each case, so it is logical if the medium size group is broken into two groups. This is the

size that is usually recommended as a village which could act as a centre for several villages and is suitable for planning. This size also is argued by Cloke, (1988) who says that:

*"Minimum population for such a compact village would be around 1200, with possible expansion to 2000 and above."*

Of course Cloke is speaking about British villages, but there should not to be serious differences between the *public services necessary in a village for the role of being the centre of a cluster (key settlements) in Britain or in Iran*, although some differences in function and size of each service would be recognized according to different ways of living, but overall the necessities would be similar.

However the size which is recommended by Cloke is according to the average size of family in European rural society which would be different compared with third world countries. 1,200 people in western countries would represent a village with about 400 to 500 families but in third world countries, like rural areas in Iran, this population means villages with approximately 200~300 families, because of the larger family size. As seen in the Habitat Agenda, the aims of planning to create better conditions for decent living condition would be similar everywhere, the decisions and chosen policies would be similar, and the basic conditions of living would be similar. The differences would be found in the chosen process and the expectations and achievements that should be defined according to the possibilities. So this is the reason that for grouping the cases, the medium size has been broken into two groups, one from 100 to 400 families and the other from 400 to 1000 families. These divisions for the 59 settlements are demonstrated in Table 5.2. As Table 5.2.

shows, the percentage of the last three groups is similar, but the smallest category has the largest number, making up about one third of all the planned villages.

Table 5.2. Clasification and the percentage of each group, compare with all cases.

Groups	1	2		3
	1	2	3	4
Families	0 - 100	100 - 400	400 - 1000	More than 1000
No, & Percentage	18 Or 30.50 %	12 Or 20.34 %	14 Or 23.73 %	15 Or 25.43 %

5.1.1. Population :

The information about population for the implemented cases was taken from annual reports of bonyad-e-Maskan, and refer to the population at the time of making decision for planning . Figure 5.2. shows the distribution of rural population in the country. The comparision with Figure 5.1. shows that the geographical distribution of implemented cases is according to the density of rural population, relating to existing financial resources and according to population distribution.

Figure 5.2. Density of rural population. (1986).

The next four figures show the geographical distribution of each of the four size categories in terms of number of families. Consideration of these four figures, based on four size categories, suggests that there should be at least one Case from each group. The group with most cases in group one, but the numbers of cases in the other groups are very similar.

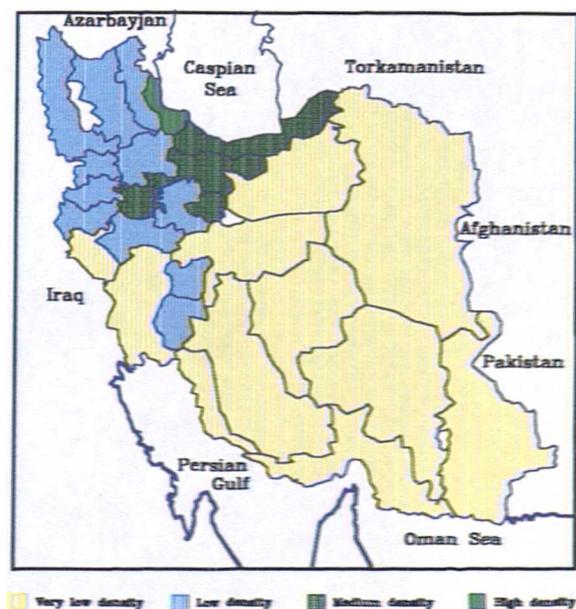


Figure 5.3. Distribution of 0-100 Families category.

Most of these villages are distributed in the west and north-west. Only two cases are in south-east.

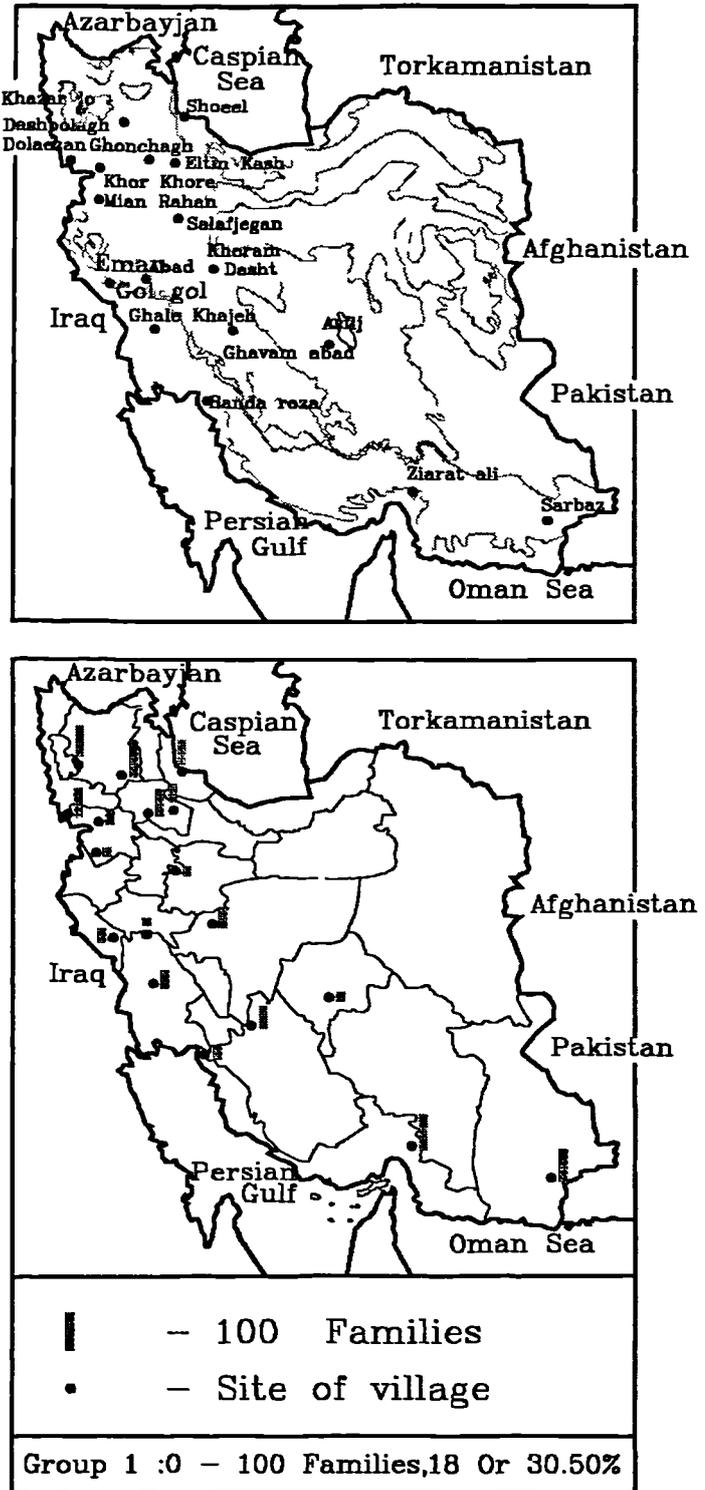
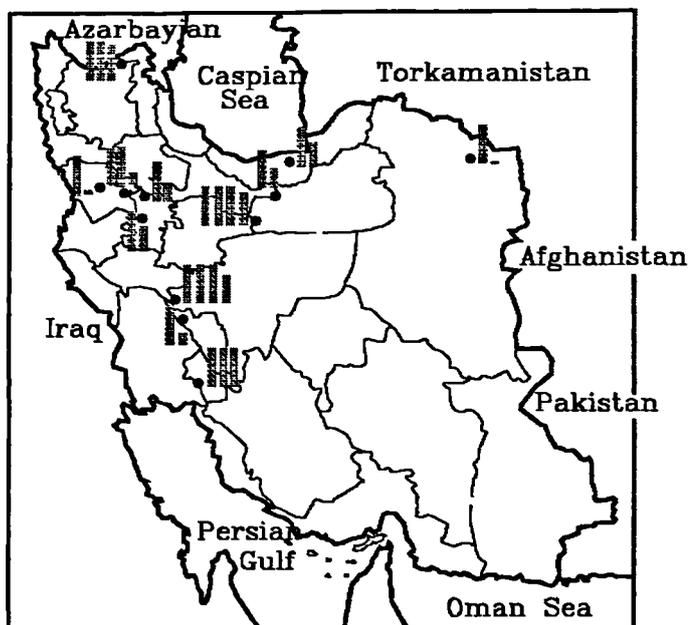


Figure 5.4. Distribution of 100 - 400 Families category.

In this group, the cases are mostly in west and centre of Iran.



	- 100 Families
•	- Site of village
Group 2 :100-400 Families,12 Or 20.34%	

Figure 5.5. Distribution of 400 - 1000 Families category.

In this group the cases are mostly in west and north of Iran.

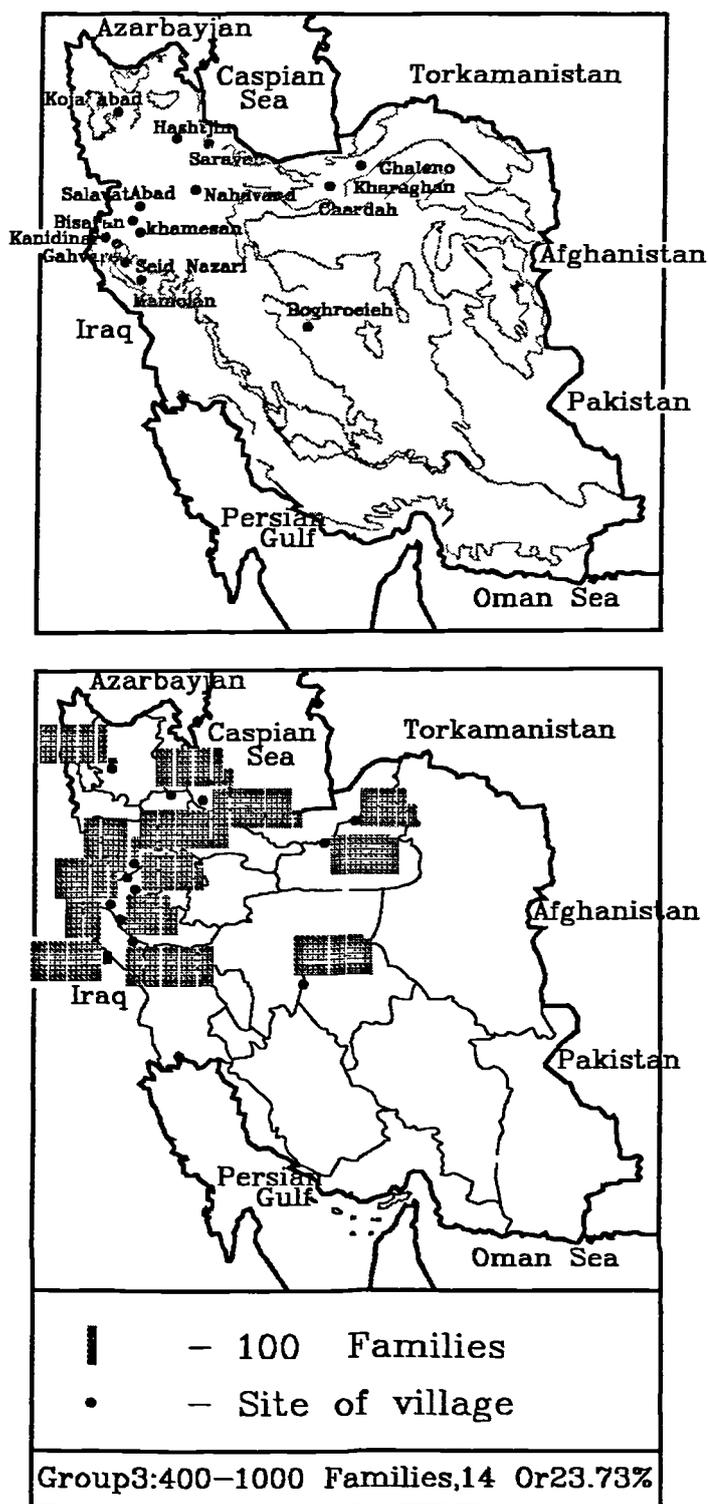
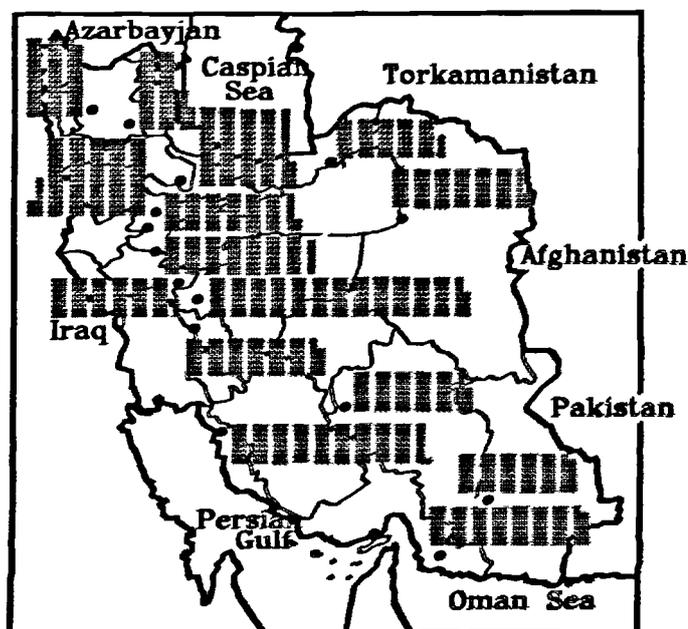


Figure 5.6. Distribution of 1000 and more families category.

And in this group, the large villages are spread around the Country.



- | — 100 Families
- — Site of village

Group 4: 1000 onward Families, 150 or 25.43%

The accepted size for planning as a key settlement according to the literature review and the policy-maker's condition for the cases to be selected is at least 400 families and this should be given weight.

The population of the chosen case in each group should be about average for the group's population. The detailed process of selecting the cases was then extended also to include the other factors, the climatic zone, ethnicity and etc, and practical issues for carrying out the field work, including data availability.

#### ***5.1.2. Location and Climate:***

According to the distribution of cases around the country, it would be desirable to select the cases located in different climates, because it is accepted that climate affects the form and function of settlement and this may have an impact on the rural development process.

#### ***5.1.3. Ethnicity:***

Another factor for choosing the cases could be ethnicity. Different ethnic groups such as Fars, Lore, Kurd, Turk, Balouch and Arab exist in Iran, and a selection of the cases from areas of different ethnicity may enable the study of the effect of different cultures on the process of planning.

#### ***5.1.4. Data Availability:***

Another important factor in terms of selection of case studies is data availability. Access to basic data for some of the cases through the 59 cases is known to exist and as the existence of accurate data is vital for the study, if these cases satisfy the other specifications, these villages would have priority to be chosen as a case study.

### **5.1.5. Implementation and Changes:**

A brief study of all cases, as far as it was possible, was undertaken to discover if there were special factors which would be useful to study in process of planning and implementation.

According to the location of cases, in order to have case studies from all around the country, the cases in the north, north-east, south-east and west could be from groups 2, 3 & 4 and the two remaining cases would be from the centre and north. As it is demonstrated in Figure 5.2. the distribution of the rural population and the implemented cases are mostly in the North, North West, West and Centre. Some local circumstances such as the local power structure, being in favour of some influential people in the government, or being strategic according to the political view of the government would have effect on the cases and on the process of planning and implementation that must be taken into account. Study of some unusual cases can examine the side effect of the other power centres for implementing the national policies. During the field study, effort will be made to identify such effects and analyse them as far as possible, this is in order to find out what points in such situations must be taken into account, to make the process of planning and implementation feasible, and what factors could be against planning or probably influence the results.

### **5.1.6. The Chosen Cases:**

Table 5.3. shows the four different categories with the villages populations, climatic zone and ethnicity. In this table all the cases which could cover all the discussed factors for field study are selected as step 1. They are 18 cases. The table demonstrates how far these cases cover all the factors. One point about the climatic zone which should not be ignored is that each divisions has several subdivisions, which are described in Appendix D. so even if it

Table 5.3. Decision Table. Four categories, population, climate and ethnicity. Chosen cases

Groups	Village	No, Families	Climate	Ethnicity	Step 1	Step 2	
1	Ghavam abad	24	2	Fars			
	Eyman abad	10		Loure			
	Khor khoreh	42		Kurd	Khor khoreh		
	Dolaezan	77					
	Mian rahan	24					
	Khazar lo	81					
	Dash bolagh	94					
	Ghonchagh	71					
	Eltin Kash	48				Eltin Kash	
	Shoel	64		3	Gilac		
	Gol gol	36			Arab		
	Asfij	25		5			
	Salafegan	25			Fars		
	Khoram-dasht	48		6		Khoram-dasht	Khoram-dasht
	Ghale khajeh	46					
Banda roz	34	7	Arab				
Sarbaz	84		Arab &				
Ziarat ali	91	8	Balouch				
2	Dehno Olia	130	2	Fars			
	Khompych	370			Khompych	Khompych	
	Malek abad	107					
	Milajard	165		Turk			
	Shirinso	248			Shirinso	Shirinso	
	Babar shany	112					
	Najaf abad	133		Kurd			
	Oto	160					
	Tazehkand	291			3	Gilac	
	Chashm	152		4	Turk	Tazehkand	Tazehkand
	Kahn abad	385		5	Fars	Chashm	Chashm
Baba talan	300	7	Kahn abad	Kahn abad			
3	Nahavand	946	2	Turk			
	Hashjin	743					
	Koja abad *	708			Koja abad *	Koja abad *	
	Ghahnokhrghn	558		Fars	Ghahnokhrghn	Ghahnokhrghn	
	Chardah	793					
	Mamolani	1000		Loure			
	Gahvareh	829		Kurd			
	Kani dinar *	401			Kani dinar *		
	Bisaran	657					
	Salavat abad	553			Salavat abad		
	Khamesan	732			Khamesan	Khamesan	
	Saravan	945		3	Gilac		
	Boghroieeh	889		5	Fars		
Seid Nazari *	568	Arab	Seid Nazari *				
		Loure	Azandarian *		Azandarian*		
4	Azandarian *	1330	2	Turk			
	FamaninSahn	2139					
	Khalajan	1184					
	Torkamanchi *	1055		Torkamanchi *	Torkamanchi *		
	Soltan abad	1862		Fars			
	Dolat abad	1340					
	Sanjin dafjin	1489					
	Baba Heidar	1374		4	Gilac		
	Konjed jan	1243					
	Dalandeh	1063					
	Azan	2564		5	Fars	Azan	Azan
	Saradoeieh	1162		7	Arab & Balouch		
	Fanoj	1183					
	Jaghin	1586				Jaghin	Jaghin
Badoleh	1914						

\* These are cases, which are located close to a city, or changed to city status after implementation

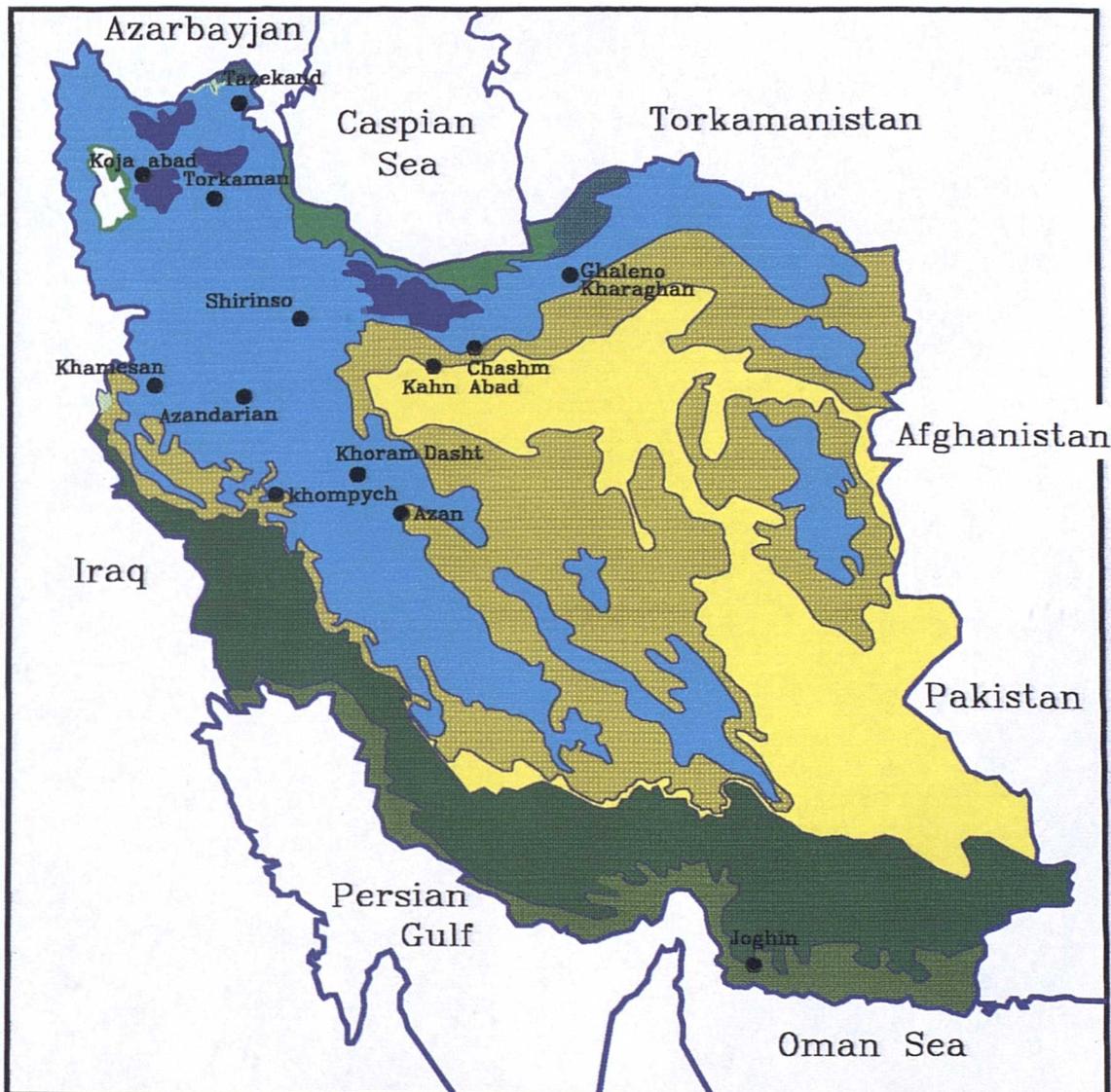
seems that some of the cases have similar climate but these are variations when the subdivisions have been taken into account and this is shown in Table 5.4. The fact that some of the cases have changed their status from the point of political division is also shown in this Table, some of the cases have changed to city and some are so close to the cities that they could be considered as a city suburbs. Consideration in all these facts has led to the selection of the cases which are shown as step 2 in the last column of Table 5.3. which include at least one case from each of the four population categories. These are 13 cases which will be studied. More details of these 13 cases are shown in Table 5.4. with their city, province, districts, ethnicity and climate with the relevant subdivision, and their number of families. A further selection of five cases for detailed field study has taken place after consideration of all 13 planner's reports, as well as location, population, ethnicity and the other factors. This provides a broad base for analysis and for the detailed investigation of these five settlements. Table 5.4. and Figure 5.7. shows the distribution of all the 13 cases and the five which are chosen for the detailed study.

**Table 5.4.** Step 2: The list of the cases selected as case studies:

\* The 5 Cases which will be studied in detail, identified in case study design.

<i>Province</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>District</i>	<i>Rural District</i>	<i>Village</i>	<i>Ethnicity</i>	<i>Climate</i>	<i>No, Family</i>
<i>Ardebil</i>	<i>Moghan</i>	<i>Pars abad</i>	<i>Moghangharbi</i>	<i>Tazehkand</i>	<i>Turk</i>	<i>4-2</i>	<i>291</i>
<i>East Azarbyejan</i>	<i>Tabriz</i>	<i>Markazi</i>	<i>Sardrod</i>	<i>Kojaabad</i>		<i>2-2</i>	<i>708</i>
	<i>Mianeh</i>	<i>Torkaman</i>	<i>Bardanan</i>	<i>Torkamanchi</i>		<i>2-3</i>	<i>1055</i>
<i>Esfahan</i>	<i>Esfahan</i>	<i>Maimeh</i>	<i>Maimeh</i>	<i>Azan</i>	<i>Fars</i>	<i>5-2</i>	<i>2564</i>
	<i>Kashan</i>	<i>Markazi</i>	<i>Homeh</i>	<i>Khoramdasth*</i>	<i>Fars</i>	<i>6-1</i>	<i>48</i>
	<i>Khonsar</i>	<i>Markazi</i>	<i>Rahmatabad</i>	<i>Khom pych*</i>		<i>2-1</i>	<i>370</i>
<i>Hamedan</i>	<i>Kabdar Ahang</i>	<i>Markazi</i>	<i>Mehraban</i>	<i>Shirinso</i>	<i>Turk</i>	<i>2-1</i>	<i>248</i>
	<i>Malayer</i>	<i>Markazi</i>	<i>Tork</i>	<i>Azandarian</i>	<i>Loure</i>	<i>2-5</i>	<i>1330</i>
<i>Hormozgan</i>	<i>Rodan</i>	<i>Rodan ahmadi</i>	<i>Rodan</i>	<i>Jaghin*</i>	<i>Arab &amp; Balouch</i>	<i>7-2</i>	<i>1586</i>
<i>Kordestan</i>	<i>Sanandaj</i>	<i>Kamiaran</i>	<i>Gavrood</i>	<i>Khamesan*</i>	<i>Kurd</i>	<i>2-7</i>	<i>732</i>
<i>Semnan</i>	<i>Garmsar</i>	<i>Markazi</i>	<i>Aradan</i>	<i>Kahn abad</i>	<i>Fars</i>	<i>5-5</i>	<i>385</i>
	<i>Semnan</i>	<i>Mehdi shahr</i>	<i>Chashm</i>	<i>Chashm*</i>	<i>Fars</i>	<i>5-3</i>	<i>152</i>
	<i>Shahrod</i>	<i>Bastam</i>	<i>Bastam</i>	<i>Ghalnokhrghn</i>	<i>Fars</i>	<i>2-5</i>	<i>558</i>

Figure 5.7. Distribution of the chosen cases for case study.



### 5.2. Case Study Design.

The general methodology of this part has been introduced in Chapter Two, but the detailed design of the case studies is presented here, to make clear the process of case study and data collection in Iran. The whole process as multiple case study has been shown in Fig 2.1. This process according to Yin (1994) requires that all the cases should be investigated individually but consistently and the conclusions would relate to the results of the all cases

and for this research, the whole process of rural planning. Conclusions for individual cases are collected and generalised, if possible, to relate to the whole process.

The field work consists of a separate study of each case, and the material collected is similar in coverage. According to the results and differences in each case, the final conclusion would be based on a synthesis of the case studies. So the case study section is divided into three parts:

- i) Planner's report study;
- ii) Site study;
- iii) Evaluation and conclusion.

*First: Collecting the official evidence relevant to the process of planning in relation to each of the chosen cases.* This will take place in following patterns: For all 13 cases, study of the planner's report about the situation and existing conditions of the village, before planning covering population and demographic situation, physical conditions, transport network, existing public services and the role of the village in its cluster.

*Second: Site visit, investigation, interview with inhabitants, analysis, making conclusions.*

For each of the five cases, this will involve:

- i) Collecting the information about the existing situation;
- ii) Comparing the planner's proposals with the facts in the village after planning;
- iii) How much of the planner's proposals have been implemented?
- iv) How accurate were the planner's forecasts?
- v) How far did the process of planning reflect the reality of the situation (pre plan) and the possibilities and potentials?

*Third: Evaluation of the report & implementation:*

This part of the investigation will then assess the quality of the study, according to the defined detailed guidelines, and study how much was successfully implemented. This assessment is then used for the purposes of:

- i) Assessing the quality of planner's report as a basis for planning of the village. Evaluation in this section would be done according to the established criteria based on the guidelines in the literature review and the field study;
- ii) Does the report cover the necessary topics as set out in the Rural Development process? A short comparison between the guideline and the planners report about the conditions of the village at the time of planning, dealing with population and demographic specifications, physical conditions, rural economy and employment and agricultural products.

The planner's report needs to be provided by the central office of *Bonyad-e-Maskan* or the branch office in the province, or even by the planner. The other statistical information would be provided through the related departments and agencies such as:

- i) Central statistical department of the Iranian government;
- ii) Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources;
- iii) Department of Programming and Budget;
- iv) *Bonyad-e-Maskan* (central office and local branch);
- v) Ministry of *Jahad-e-Sazandegi* (central office and local branch);
- vi) Planner's office.

And all the data will represent the existing conditions of the settlement and summarising the forecast of the planner and his proposals.

Site visit, interviews with the relevant agencies and residents and finally obtain up to date statistical information about the social-economic situation of the village.

### **5.2.1. General points concerning the field study:**

In order to obtain the necessary data for the research:

- i) I spent two days in each case study village, living with inhabitants, interviewing in very friendly environment, and discussing the conditions, pre planning and after implementation. This enabled me to obtain resident's ideas about the advantages and disadvantages of the plan, visit the site, and investigate the changes that should have happened after planning and implementation. I was able to interview informally most of key people in the village, such as the Friday Imam, the head and the members of Islamic council of the village, and the others whose information would be valuable for more understanding of the process of planning in the village.
- ii) Visit the branch office of the *Bonyad-e-Maskan* in each Capital Province, meeting the Rural Development Planning Authority of the Province and interviews with them, getting necessary information about the planner, obtaining the report for the chosen case, and obtaining other necessary information according to the case study design. name of planner, duration, budget and any specific point about the case.

The general form for this section will start by study of the forecasts of the planner which are usually divided into two 5 year periods, as short and long term recommendations. The forecast and recommendations would then be explored in the field study. The collected information through site visit and interviews with the inhabitants, about the physical changes after planning, clearly would illustrate the existing potential in the area, demand

and expectation of residents from the plan, and how much the plan has met these demands in reality. The achievement of physical change, changes in services in quantity and quality, would be compared with the planner's land use proposals. Specifically these will study the areas of education, health centres, transport, accessibility from the view of quantity and quality, compared with before the plan and study of the effects on rural life.

What have been the changes in the economic sector? Comparison of the situation now with that before planning, through the latest information from the Statistical Centre (there is 10 yearly national census in Iran, the last in 1996) compared with the planners forecast of:

- i) Population;
- ii) Agricultural production;
- iii) Rural industries;
- iv) Cultivated lands;
- v) Irrigation system;
- vi) Changes in employment in all economic sectors, and rural income.

The study of the different possibilities for employment in the village would be necessary identifying the main economic activities within the village and the numbers of employment in different economic sectors and the changes. Did these changes happen as the effect of planning implementation or was it a side effect of other programmes in the district?

Study for this section will be based on the planner's report, the proposals for the two 5 year periods of planning, related to the present situation and the latest statistical information for 1996 which will be the base for analysing the situation. And finally a study on social

changes related to population and the relevant facts such as sex, age, marriage, education, employment, ethnicity, and emigration or immigration patterns.

Overall the changes in these factors should be studied for the first 5 years period of planning, comparing the past (pre planning) and investigation of how far the planners proposals for different sections actually happened. Some changes in some situations will happen as the result of activities in the region, study of the changes that probably are not the effect of the planning and are side effects of other national activities will be investigated and be taken into account in the conclusions.

Iran is a large Country and the 13 cases are distributed in different parts of Country, the nearest to the political centre of Iran (Tehran), is Chashm, 300 Km away and Jaghin is the most distant, 1600Km away. The various aspects of the case study investigations needed careful planning in advance for instance to cover all relevant official documents and any information that should be useful in the field study; to arrange the field work and data collection on the sites, and meetings with the Rural Development Authority in each relevant province.

The five cases selected for detailed field study were, Khoram-Dasht, Khompych, Jaghin, Chashm and Khamesan. As shown by its climate classification, the best time for field study in Jaghin would be during autumn and winter, because in other times the weather is hot and damp, so that for anybody who is not used to such weather even breathing would be difficult.

With these points the field study took place as follow:

- i) Jaghin in March 1998;
- ii) Khoram-Dasht in May 1998;
- iii) Khompych in May 1998;
- iv) Chashm in June 1998;
- v) Khamesan in March 1999.

Full details of the pre-plan situations and the recent conditions after planning are provided in the individual case study report for each village. In each of the five, main case studies the different statistical data have been provided for different decades, from the planner's report or the other official resources are presented in tables for better comparison of the figures for pre-plan, planner's proposals, and recent up-date. This approach is taken for the demographic, economic, education issues and the other social changes that would be relevant to the planning process.

The other 8 cases have been visited and the planner's report and some up-dated statistical data have been studied, but only the main changes such as population change have been presented in a short report summarising the relevant facts, and analysing the changes that have happened.

The most important points have been highlighted and the final conclusion relates to 13 cases out of the 59, representing a large sample for the study. This is 29% of the total.

### ***5.3. Points of Context for the Case Studies:***

Field study has been done according to the case study design, but there are some general points which have arisen during the field study, which should be necessary for more

understanding of the process of planning and implementation. This section attempts to explain the relevant situations, regarding different issues, involved in planning.

### **5.3.1. Data Problem:**

One of the problems that clearly was predictable, is data availability and relevant problems for data collection. Usually archival records in third world countries are poor and un-organised so that the necessary data is not found from conventional published sources, and data collection itself needs some skills and perhaps knowledge about the alternative sources of data in such countries. The official census data is collected every ten years, but because of weakness of administrative sector, in the Statistical Centre of Iran even a couple of years after data collection, the results are not published yet. More importantly, it becomes apparent that official statistics may have some obvious faults that should be taken into account.

One of the most important aspects of planning is study of demographic data and its analysis by the planners as a base to assess and plan social change in the village. All the proposals should be related to the changes that were going on in the past and which will happen in the future according to the planner's proposal. This is very sensitive for the future of each region, relating to the programmes that should be into account in order to maintain population or control the change in the desired manner. It needs specialists in this issue to study the reasons and causes, and the lack of such important analysis in all reports is obvious. The other necessary data should relate to economic factors, but unfortunately, the only available official data are for 1988 and 1993, and even these data are not

comprehensive in all matters.

This research has taken place after the last census in 1996. As was discussed, sometimes the necessary data are not available, or at least not in the desired detail, necessary for appropriate analysis, especially in the demographic section. This has been a serious problem for planning and for case studies within this research. Wherever it was possible, attempts were made to get accurate data from the health centres in the village. They have up-date data about the village population in different age groups, sex, and education, that are quite helpful in this regard. This data can be regarded as the best available and as will be seen in some case studies, this can indicate that data used by planners can sometimes have been incorrect.

### **5.3.2. Consultants:**

Most consultants are registered in Tehran and the lack of local consultants has been an important reason for making the contracts with non-qualified persons or firms for rural development planning. The guidelines encourage the appointment of persons with local knowledge, but some local consultants may not have enough experts or resources for doing such projects, but nevertheless they ask for, and usually are successful in gaining the contract. Also the shortage of such consultants is the other factor that the Branch Offices are faced with, especially in poorer areas. There may not be a qualified proper local firm and the low fee for such projects also is another reason that there is no motivation for others in the other regions to apply. Signing the contract is one thing and implementing it is another point. Small companies, although they may be qualified according the P.B.O, may not have

proper access to the all necessary experts for making the plan. It is true that to obtain qualification they may have to introduce some specialists as partners according to the nature of the project that they applied for but, according to their financial situation they often do not continue to employ them. The use of the necessary specialists for a short period for such projects does not allow consultants to act in comprehensive ways, even when firms could afford the costs of specialists for such projects.

### ***5.3.3. Land use Proposals:***

The process of designation of land for development in Iranian villages always has been faced with some restrictions, and the planner is not free to design the land use proposal as he wishes. Because of land ownership in Iranian rural areas, most lands in the villages are privately owned and in many cases the owner are not happy to donate or sell their land for public purposes. On the other hand, there is some land which has been provided by the residents for some development purposes even though this may not be in the best location. This is a fact that almost in all the cases have been restriction for the planner in land use design.

### ***5.3.4. Education:***

The education from the Primary School up to University is divided to 3 parts, first Primary School (6-10) that takes 5 years, then Middle School (11-13) that takes 3 years and finally High School (14-17) that takes 4 years. But above 10 children do not have to go to school. There is a law in parliament that everybody must send his children for education, at least at Primary School level.

As emphasised in the Constitution Law, quoted in Chapter 4, Education would be the most important factor for development, to produce knowledge about the reality of life, desires, and what people can expect from their life and to provide information about improved technology and possibilities in other regions to guide people to choose the best way of using their possibilities for better living. The ability to read and write would be the first step, and when we speak about education in rural areas, this is the basic education which is required.

Almost the oldest primary school in rural areas in Iran would be 50 years old, and in a reform in 1971, in celebrating 2,500 years of the Iranian Empire, the Shah ordered the construction of 2,500 schools in rural areas. It was a great deal, bearing in mind the lack of such facilities in rural areas. It was an important reform because it is not only a matter of building, but it needs many other facilities, including the teacher.

Before the Revolution some of the boys and girls after High school have to go to rural areas to teach in Primary Schools (science army) as their army service. It was a good relief. Many of them stayed in the villages even after their service and continued teaching as their career. But the other problem is in continuing from primary education to Middle school and High school. It is a problem of culture (for girls) and economy (family income) for boys of working age. With lack of income potential in rural areas, families can not afford for their children to live out of the village for education even if they want to.

The new policy has been establishing some boarding schools in key settlements at Middle School and High School levels to be able to cover a large area. But without

necessary co-ordination, they implemented these services individually with no regard to the other programmes in the area. This is the reason that despite many approved planning schemes proposing the construction of Middle or High schools, these have not been established. The lack of necessary specialists for teaching as well as long term budget problems explain why even with constructed buildings for this purpose, in some cases they were not yet operating.

### **5.3.5. Housing :**

Usually the main economic activity in the village is farming, and in some circumstances the residents keep cattle. According to the activity of the owner, different houses have different plans suitable for the function that should take place in it. Also the climate influences the activities and relevant spaces, designed in regions with hot weather try to provide shelter and heat insulation and compact design in cold areas with built forms suitable to prevent energy loss as much as possible. These different functions are deeply related. These relationships would be more visible if we focus on the rooms for animals in a traditional plan and study the importance of these for the owner and his livelihood. When a farmer has his own machinery, even the size of the entrance door to the courtyard would be influenced by the size of the tractor, plough and so on and these signs indicate the economic activity of the owner. Farmers usually need special storage for agricultural equipment and production, normally a barn with enough space for a tractor or probably tiller, etc and the families with cattle and sheep need a sheep-fold, enough space for their food, and space for dairy production, or keeping milk to send to market. Living spaces in rural housing usually consist of a living room as well as a special room for guests and a kitchen, which is mixed

with bakery area ( mud oven ).

The other point concerns problems for physical planning, in cases where population growth is forecast, giving a demand for new housing area, the usual structure of an Iranian village is based on family grouping; for example a village of say 1000 people might be based on five main families, in five district residential areas, its own mosque, and even other public facilities. It is therefore not a easy task for a planner to identify areas for housing expansion, based on overall population forecast and then to find physical solutions.

Constructions material are the other point, that should be concerned. The local material has the advantage of inhabitants knowledge, they repair it when ever it is necessary, without any additional costs to family, and this is the reason that the best proposal in all areas, would be technical advice by the planner for improvement the existing construction systems and material by using local material and improved techniques. Mostly the buildings in mountainous area are constructed of stone and mud, covered with wood and local materials for insulation, and in plain and desert area, mostly by clay and mud. With introduction of new materials to the villages, residents will face new problems, the most important of which is incorrect usage of materials like iron, and the necessary technical solutions for beams and joints, which provide more danger in special events, like earthquake, or the other disasters. Proposals for new rural fabric, like the construction of new streets, or widening the existing ones may make the physical shape similar to an urban fabric. This might be what residents desire, but in reality, these proposals may have little justification, but have relatively high costs for the project and take away the real rural personality from the village.

### **5.3.6. Budget and Finance Resources:**

The necessary budget is usually provided from the annual budget of *Bonyad-e-Masket*. The budget is limited, and every year, some of it is spent for planning and some for implementation. This is in addition to the province's development budget, that is usually divided between different departments, according to their annual programmes. With these restriction and taking into account the potential, the Board of the branch office makes decisions for its annual programme and defines which cases will be planned, and which will be implemented. The planner's fee comes from the usual budget of Bonyad, every year, according to the number of the plans they are awarded.

According to the nature of Bonyad's activities, all the branch offices have good construction machinery and they implement physical development projects themselves, so the actual true cost of executing these projects would be more than the amount that will be allocated for every project. This is besides any self-help of inhabitants who provide free labour, sometimes money, and in some of the development projects, provide land for people who lost, partly or wholly, their own house to make way for improvement in existing streets or constructing new ones.

### **5.3.7. Self Help:**

In the literature review, section 3.10. the importance of public participation was discussed. Policy-makers in Iran have included self-help in the process of planning. It is certain that the involvement of the people of the community, who are planned, should be involved with the process which will be going on in their society, and this involvement could be the cause of success for the whole process. There is no point for public participation in Iranian

development policy, but the potential for self-help by residents to the project, by financial, man power, or land, contributions have been one of the conditions for any case to be planned. The self-help in this issue only covers the economic support by the inhabitants, and according to the detailed policy for rural development, process of planning and implementation, the public participation and its importance have been ignored. The role of the various elected councils in this regard has not been established.

***Chapter Six:***

***Field Studies***

***Field Study – Case One:  
Khoram-Dasht***

### 6.1. Khoram – Dasht

Figure 6.1.1. Geographical location of Khoram-Dasht

Khoram-Dasht is located in central Iran, near Kashan in Esfahan province.

Figure 6.1.1. shows the geographical location of the village.

Khoram-Dasht according to the political division is the centre of a Rural District.

All the villages are of a small size; Khoram-Dasht is the third largest; the biggest one is Shadian with 200 persons,

and the smallest, are single farms, with only 2 persons.

The total population of Khoram-Dasht Rural District, is 1444, and table 6.1.1. shows 11 villages that have over 25 persons. These are shown on Figure 6.1.2.

There is one army complex on the site with 500 persons, who according to their activities and duties, usually have no contact with the local inhabitants, and do not have any effect on the Planning process, positive, or negative.



Table 6.1.1.. Khoram-Dasht, Rural District: Sites with more than 25 persons.

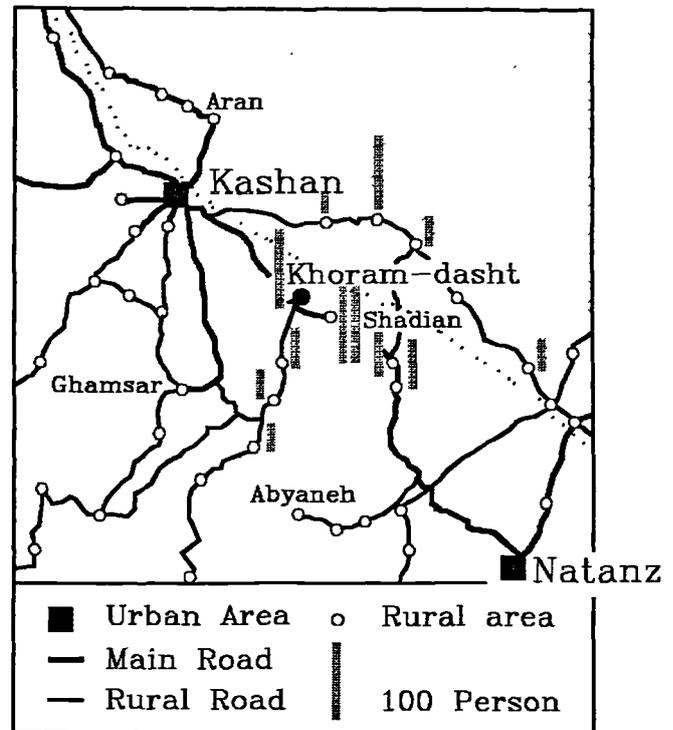
Residential sites In Rural District	Khoram-dasht, Rural District										
	Shadian	Nasrabad	Khoram-Dasht	Tatmaj	Shojaabad	Deh-zire	Chalghara	Jahagh	Zanjanbar	Ahmadabad	Shorab
Population	200	136	104	98	96	65	58	37	37	29	25

### 6.1.1. Decision to Plan:

Figure 6.1.2. Population in Rural District, Khoram-Dasht.

According to the records, in the branch office, of Bonyad-e-Maskan the reasons for choosing this village for planning were:

- i) According to the political division, Khoram-Dasht is the centre of Rural District;
- ii) It is close to the main road between Kashan and Natanz; (part of the national principal road from centre to the south and south-east)
- iii) Existing social-economic opportunities were poor and inadequate.
- iv) The President's office suggested this village for planning and even provided some funds for the planning and implementation.



The potential of self help of the inhabitants or side finance potential is an important factor for choosing a case for planning and then implementation. It was discussed in section 3.10. This is the reason that the money, provided by President's Office influenced the process of selection and has been one of the most important facts in this regard.

### 6.1.2. Choosing the Planner:

The planner of this village is one of the members of the Bonyad-e-Maskan office in Esfahan,

and the most important reason for choosing him was that he asked for only half the fee, that usually is paid for such projects. In this case it is clear that this financial consideration became the main factor instead of ability of the planner and his team to do the job for a projects of this scale. According to the rules, the planner for these development planning projects should have a registered office which is classified and recognized for such projects by the P.B.O. this agency been identified in Chapter 4, section 4.4.4.

Although the planner who was appointed had some of the necessary characteristics, discussion with the Rural Planning Authority in the Province, showed that the financial reasons were the main reason for his selection. This clearly indicates that there is no effective regulatory control of these processes.

### **6.1.3. Demographic:**

Comparing the past and present conditions, using the planner's report and statistical information, the demographic situation of Khoram-Dasht is presented in Table 7.2.2. which shows the changes during the last 30 years. This table shows the size of village with the number of families and their size and the changing rates every decade and at special points of time of the planner's study and field work for this research.

The differences between 1996 and 1998 demonstrate some special circumstances of this village. The planner's forecast of 151 person for 1997 has not been met, possibly because of some incorrect analysis, based on faulty information or because there are no effective activities in order to encourage the inhabitants to be eager to stay in the village. But what is certain 104 is the actual number of inhabitants at 1996, it seems certain that there is

population movement into the village, for instance, for different religious ceremonies, new years vacation, and in the summer.

*Table 6.1.2. Khoram-Dasht, demographic information. 1966 – 1998*

Specifications	Years					
	1966	1976	1986	1996***	1997**	May 1998*
<i>Population</i>	228	172	149	104	151	130
<i>Number of Families</i>	55	44	48	33	---	55
<i>Persons in Family</i>	4.1	3.9	3.1	3.15	---	2.4
<i>Changing Rate</i>	-% 2.65		-%1.64	-%3.5	+% 2	-%1.3
<i>Diference</i>	54		23	45	---	---

\* The population of village at the time of my field study;

\*\* Forecast of the planner for 1997;

\*\*\* The village population according to the census in 1996.

Some of them still have their own land and house, some of them have left their parents and come over to see them and some of them were away from the village on a daily, weekly basis or even for a season, but their family are still living in the village. During the summer sometimes the population of the village would increase to about 250~300 persons. This means that many residential units are empty during the rest of the year. In May 1998 time of field study, the religious ceremonies of Tasoua & Ashora were taking place. These are the most important ceremonies for Muslims. This fact would explain the higher population compared with 1996.

Over all, in all years many residents were leaving the village, as from 1966 up to 1996, the population has declined by 124 or 46%. The decrease in population has not been similar in all decades, as the population loss was 56 between 1966~1976, and 23 between 1976~1986, and 45 between 1986~1996. One of the results of this process is that in all these years the

development in Khoram-Dasht has been faced with restriction, and with this resultant effect that young residents went away to search for better working opportunities. As the possibilities for agricultural lands are limited, this limits the number of families which can work in this sector.

The other fact is that the number of females are 59 compared with the number of males that are 45. This is because of male emigration for temporary working in other cities, although their family still live in the village.

The other important specification is the number of households, the changes of which do not correspond to the changes in population. The size of families became smaller because of birth control and because young couples set up their own home, if they can, instead of the traditional form of living with parents. As shown in Table 6.1.2. the size of families has decreased from 4.1 in 1966 to 3.15 in 1996 after 30 years. This is because of fewer children, but also because of some houses which are empty during most of the year, the average household size, result of dividing population by the number of houses, does not provide a realistic measure of family size.

Table 6.1.3. shows that number of employed people is similar to the number of families, as the usual social conditions in rural area are that one person is the main source of income in the family, the others are children or old persons who stay at home, although in some seasons all the family work together for agricultural activity. The average number of dependent people to every employed person is 2.15. and there are two persons who can work and do not.

The other important point from this table is that all the residents over 6 years can read and write. So these residents would be classified in high class strata from the cultural view.

**Table 6.1.3.** Demographic specification of Khoram-Dasht. (1996)

<i>Population</i>	<i>Family</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>0-6</i>	<i>7-10</i>	<i>Educated</i>	<i>Employed</i>	<i>Unemployed</i>
104	33	45	59	9	6	95	33	2

Census Data 1996.

#### **6.1.4. Education:**

Khoram-Dasht has had primary school for 50 years, and this is the reason that almost all the residents can read and write. But the population was not sufficient at any time for a Middle or High School there. Children have had to go out of the village to continue their education beyond primary school. At the time of field study there were 10 students in a new building that was built according the planner's proposal.

The new building has provision for 4 classes, but because of the low number of students they use one class for different grades. One person acts as manager, teacher, etc and also lives in this building.

**Table 6.1.4.** Division of the students in different grades in Khoram-Dasht, 1991 to 1996

<i>Primary school</i>	<i>Grades</i>					<i>Total</i>
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	
<i>Number of Students: 1991</i>	4	1	2	3	5	15
<i>Number of Students: 1996</i>	1	—	3	4	—	8
<i>Number of students, May 1998</i>	2	1	—	3	4	10

The number of students when the planning exercise was going on was 22, 15 of them in the village and the others (7 in Middle School and High School) were studying in Kashan; with the

decrease in population by 1996, the numbers in the village school decreased to 8. In May 1998, the number of students had increased to 10. The statistical information show that 6 children in village in 1996 were 6 years old, as these children get older it seems that the numbers of students with next decade would be similar to what it was in last decade.

### **6.1.5. Economic activities:**

#### **6.1.5.1. Agriculture:**

Up to 1991, agricultural lands totaled 32 Hectares with 10 Hectares of Gardens. But with the planning and reconstruction of the main Qanat in the villages these areas increased to 45 Hectares of farmlands and 15 Hectares of fruit gardens.

All the land up to 2.5 Km to the north of the village is now cultivated. The other reasons beside improving the quality and quantity of irrigation is that the price of fruit and the other agricultural products has gone up and working the land produces enough income for farmers to encourage them to cultivate as much as they can.

However according to the census data for Agriculture shown in the Table 6.1.3. the number of farmer families declined from 31 in 1988 (or 65% of all) to 22 in 1993~98 or 66%. This means that Hectares per family have increased and this indicates improvement in residents income and better economic conditions after the emigration of the others. Fewer farmers are cultivating more land.

During the last decade the possibilities and facilities for the agriculture sector have changed, of course the changes are not as much as would be the results of planning. As the

result of social changes, and opportunities the farmers have extended their activities, with changes in the style and production system.

Table 6.1.5. demonstrates that the quantity of activities is quite limited but with some

*Table 6.1.5. Changes in Agricultural facilities. \* 1988~1998*

Years	Specifications									
	No, Of Farmer Families	Irrigation				Instrument		Animals		
		Deep well	Qanat	River		Machinery		Carriers Donkey	Cattle**	
				Permanent	Season	Tractor	Plough		Cow	Sheep
88	31	---	5	---	---	1	---	15	3	10
93	22	1	5	---	---	1	1	10	6	124
98		1	5	---	---	1	1	10	10	145

\* census data for Agriculture, 1988 & 1993

\*\*Only 6 families keep cattle, and the numbers that are shown in the table belong to them.

increase in cows and sheep. Otherwise irrigation and equipment seem not to have changed. Economic activities in the village would be summarized as, farming, gardening, cattle and building workers. There is no economic unit such as a local shop in the village. Although after planning two families have used a small space of their home with a window to the outside as a shop, really these units will not be able to support a family. They are so small that they only have potential as a supplementary activity. There is a small tea shop in the village used by farmers as a space for spending free time for chatting and drinking tea, but this was in existence before the plan. The small number of permanent residents and their daily trips to Kashan means that it is cheaper if they do their shopping in Kashan. Clearly the village has not been able to provide any service for the other villages in the cluster. This is an important point that although the village is politically the centre of the rural district it does not serve as a centre and the other villages in the district do not use it as a shopping or

administrative centre. Each of the other villages have low-level services.

This is the reason that there are many daily trips from the district and from Khoram-Dasht to Kashan. The other important change in Khoram-Dasht is the changing number of economically active population. In 1986, when the population was 149, the number of active persons was 34 or 22.8%. In 1996 in spite of decreasing population to 104, the number of active people was 35 or 33.4%. This would be the result of the increase in agricultural lands and Gardens that improved parallel with improving the quality of the irrigation system. This was not influenced by the plan, usually such development activities are carried out by Jihad, but there is no co-ordination between these agencies for development planning, even it is very important, and the interesting point is that even Jihad has not his delegate in Approval Committee.

#### **6.1.5.2. Handicraft:**

There is no industry in the village, but the activity that would be called industrial production is the production of handicraft carpets and rugs, in Kashan style and design. Only 22 persons (usually young girls) do this. Carpets are usually 3 x 4m or 1.5x2.5m and the material is wool and silk. There is no change in the number of active persons in this field. Of course this work is undertaken to supplement family income by the girls and the housewives. This number also shows that for each of the farming families in the village there is a carpet knitting set and every farming household is producing carpets. With the increasing cost of wool, silk & thread, with reduced market as the result of Export Policy and variable exchange rate of foreign currencies, this industry is likely to stop. Also there is not enough internal demand.

### **6.1.6. Physical Planning & Implementation in Khoram-Dasht**

#### *Comparison pre planning and after implementation.*

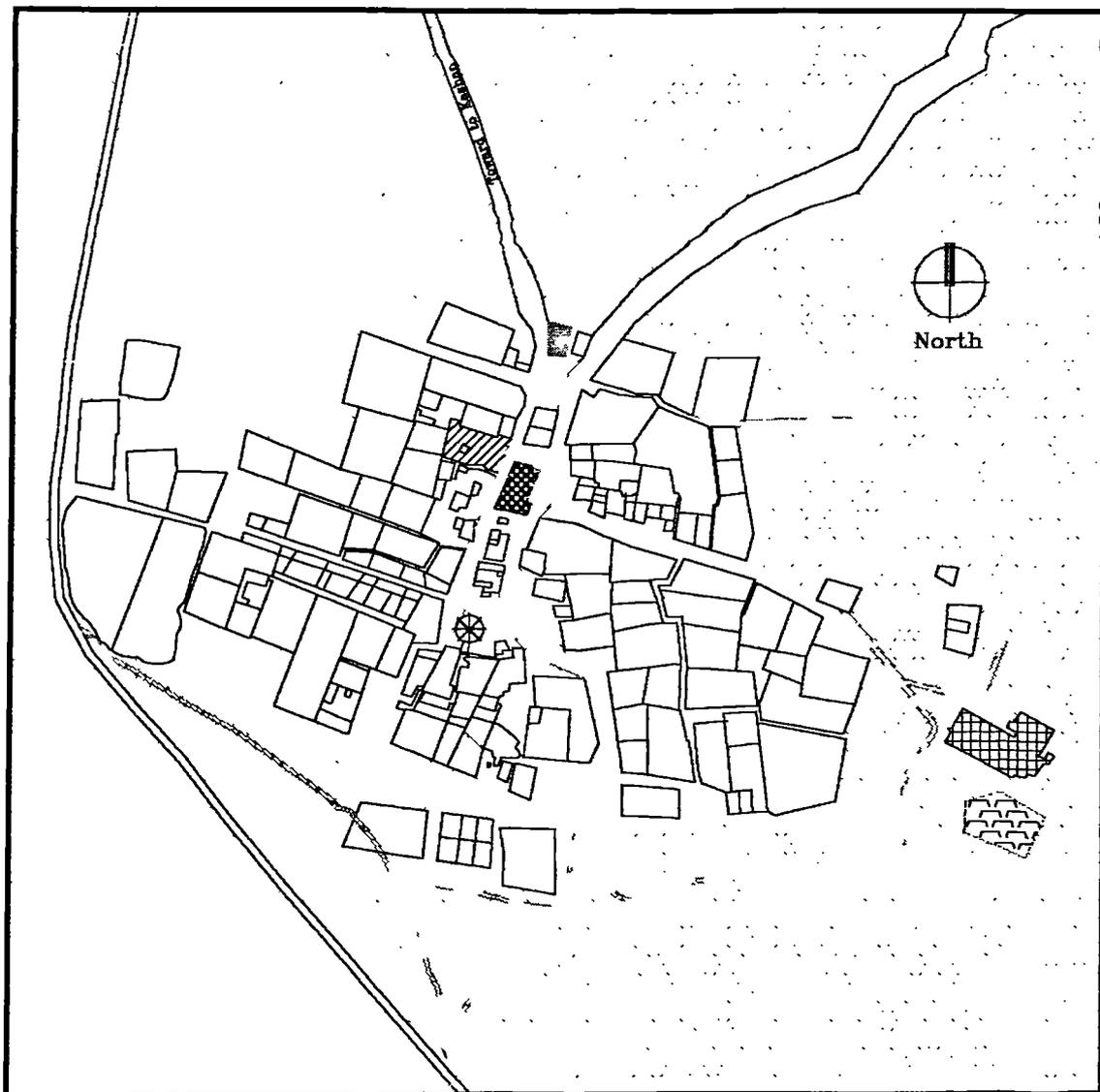
The physical shape of rural fabric in Khoram-Dasht has been organized by itself, without any predefined planning, according to natural environmental conditions, culture, population, access and the other usual points that are the cause of physical arrangements of any rural residential community.

The centre of this rural fabric is the mouth of the Qanat. Water supply is very important for rural people so that usually all the villages have been established around water, beside a river or around the mouth of a Qanat. Water supply has a significant effect on the rural income from the view of its influence on agricultural production, in quantity and quality. The name of the village Khoram-Dasht, has the meaning of “Green plain”, and this situation requires suitable climatic conditions as well as adequate water. Khoram-Dasht was established beside the Qanat and during the years the village buildings have been extended mostly to the south because the topography of the area slopes slightly from north to south, and the majority of high quality farmlands are located to the north.

The location of Farms, Gardens and the irrigation system, influenced by topography are the other most important factors for establishing the settlement pattern. According to the detailed policy (Appendix C) , the main requirement has been for physical improvement and this is the reason that almost all the planner’s proposals in the report are related to changes in the physical shape of the village or suggesting new physical elements

relating to the main functions. Physical elements and physical improvements form a dominant element through the rural development process. Figure 6.1.3. demonstrates the physical elements of the organic rural fabric of Khoram-Dasht.

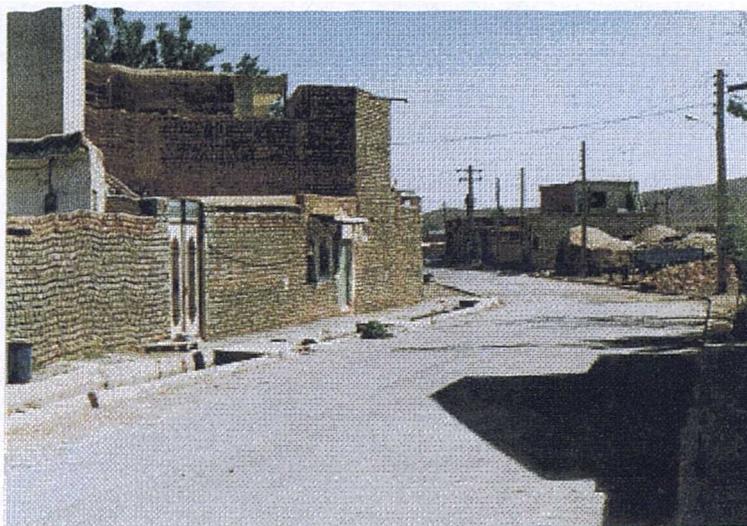
Figure 6.1.3. Khoram-Dasht Rural Fabric, Land Use Plan, pre Planning.



- Emamzadeh (burial place of one of the religious leaders of the people in the area )
- Residential Units    
  Tea shop    
  Mosque    
  Farms & Fruit gardens
- School    
  Cemetery    
  Mouth of the Qanat

*Figure 6.1.4. General view of Khoram-Dasht after Planning*

Khoram-Dasht in its new, more Urban form has a new access road and all, new and old, roads have been paved. This shows the use of new type of materials, used in urban culture. This process really had started before planning and



after planning generally every renewal activity uses new construction materials. Everything is affected by these changes, from the size of an entrance door to the size of the internal spaces of the house, although the living functions of most rural families are totally different compared with urban functions. But lack of opportunities compared with cities, and the differences between rural and urban fabric, make these changes inevitable in order to try to compare with urban standards and appearance.

New cement channels beside the roads have been built to carry rain run-off and are also used as an irrigation system, taking the water from the mouth of the Qanat, passing through the village, to irrigate farms and gardens.

These are signs of the physical changes that reduce the differences between urban and rural fabric. As it is illustrated in Figure 6.1.4. the main access streets have been paved and have sewerage channels. Although this could not be regarded as being of high quality, it

has made a large difference compared with the past, as is shown in Figure 6.1.9. because it affects almost all the village.

Another physical element in the village is the flood channel that goes through the rural fabric from the south to north. In some locations some new houses have been built partly on this route, as well as the fact that sewerage from some houses comes into this passage and makes it more dangerous and produces unhealthy environment for inhabitants.

**Figure 6.1.5.**

*New construction in the flood passage.*



This picture shows structural

activities in the flood channel in the village. These channels need barriers to protect the residents from danger in the flood time, but these have not been built and there were no proposals for this in the planner's report.

After planning, two bridges over this passage have been built for the streets but, as shown in Figure 6.1.6. there seem not to have been any calculation of the size, required for floods to flow under it. It would probably be dangerous for the residents if a flood happens. In such situation these bridges would act as barriers themselves.

**Figure 6.1.6.**

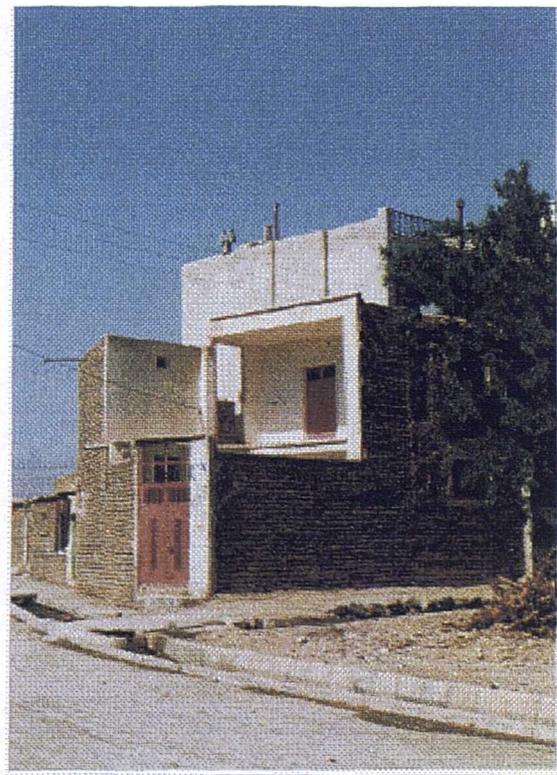
*Bridge over the flood passage for new street.*



The new infrastructure activities have changed the physical shape, new homes with new styles and new materials, as well as new access streets, electrical network, post and communication offices, amphitheater, health centre are the new elements for new physical spaces for living.

The physical shape of the village has been changed totally after planning. Figure 6.1.7. shows the new buildings with new materials, without any rural personality.

As was discussed in the demographic section, some of the residents live in the city and spend their holiday in the village and they have enough wealth to keep their house in good condition.



**Figure 6.1.7.** *New buildings with new personality*

This is the reason that there are several houses illustrated in Figure 6.1.7. that really have an urban plan and shape.

After planning and establishing the new streets, some houses which were damaged during this process, re-built their walls, access and in many cases the elevation of the building. In some cases after demolition of an old house to make way for the new street, the property has not been developed but has been left as it was.



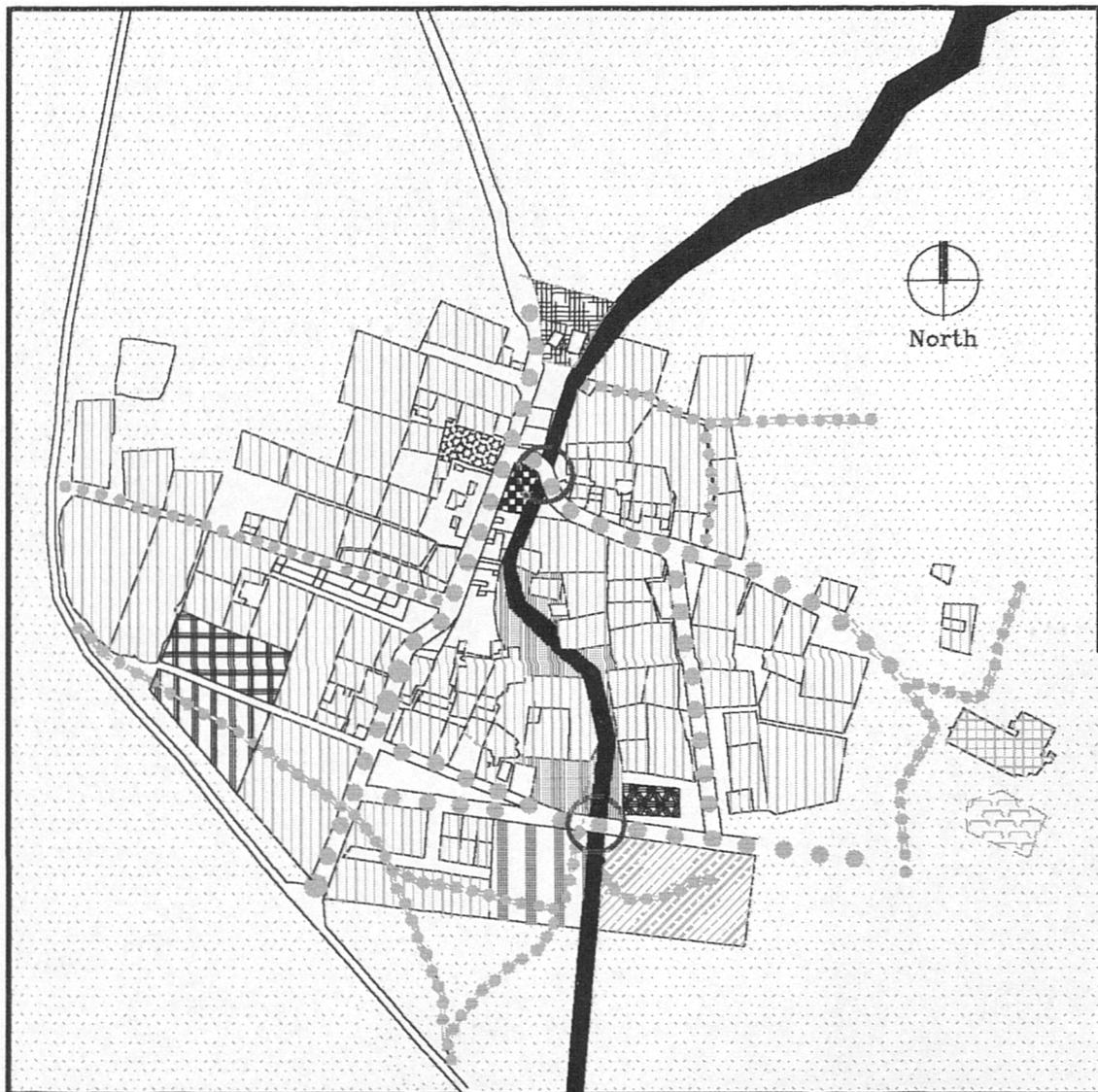
**Figure 6.1.8**

*Sites affected by road buildings*

One of these buildings was not renewed after the time of planning, but the other building has been rebuilt in a completely different shape and style compared with a rural residential building. The electric network that is shown in this and other Figures was in progress during the implementation of the roads and according to my investigation there was no relationship between planning and this infrastructure activity.

The physical elements and changes within Khoram-Dasht are shown in Figure 6.1.9. All the planner's proposals have been implemented.

Figure 6.1.9. Khoram-Dasht Rural Fabric, Land Use Plan, after Planning (1992)



- |  |  |  |                            |  |        |  |          |
|--|--|--|----------------------------|--|--------|--|----------|
|  | Emamzadeh  |  | Health centre              |  | Mosque |  | Tea shop |
|  | Residential units                                |  | Sport centre               |  | School |  |          |
|  | Flood Passage through the village                |  | Administrative, Rural Hall |  |        |  |          |
|  | Residential units in flood passage               |  | Jandarmery                 |  |        |  |          |
|  | New streets constructed and paved after Planning |  |                            |  |        |  |          |
|  | Old access streets paved after Planning          |  |                            |  |        |  |          |
|  | Post and Telephone                               |  |                            |  |        |  |          |
|  | Location of new bridge over the flood passage    |  |                            |  |        |  |          |
|  | Cemetery   |  |                            |  |        |  |          |

### **6.1.7. Housing:**

In Khoram-Dasht, after the planning, the Health Department introduced some restrictions for the keeping of cattle, in addition, the natural environment is not well suited to keeping cattle and these are the reasons that this economic activity is very limited through the village; only 6 families keep cattle, with a total of 155 cows and sheep. The limited number of farmers families explain why most new houses have a completely Urban form and there is no traditional rural personality, as might be expected in a village. This may also be explained by the aspirations of these rural dwellers to achieve a more urban culture. But the main reason is that more than one third of families are not farmers and have strong relationship with city. This is the main reason that as was demonstrated through the last pictures the physical shape of this village has been changed to a totally new form.

### **6.1.8. Source of funding:**

50m Rials was provided by President's office and the remainder come from the Province's Development Budget.

In some of the development projects, some units had to be demolished to make way for improvement but it is interesting to note that where this happened in Khoram-Dasht no money has been paid for the damaged houses. However these owners have been provided with loans, with a limit of 6,500,000/- Rials at 16% interest. If the owners reconstruct the building with approval of Bonyad's specialist the interest would be decreased by 8%, which has been paid by the government as subsidy for development projects. There is a question as to whether this amount of money really would be sufficient to build a new house? Usually

such decisions are not made according to actual need and the policy-maker, in such situations, tries to make a division of the existing, available finance for all the cases that should be paid.

#### **6.1.9. Conclusion:**

There have been many changes and improvements in the physical conditions of the village because of the planning exercises, as is clear by comparing the land use plan, pre planning and after implementation.

The inhabitants now have more acceptable physical conditions, including a number of reconstructed houses, better access, a new school, health centre and etc. Some of these services existed previously, but what is important is how effective these improvements in quantity and quality have been to encourage the residents to remain in the village. According to the literature review, (section 3.4.) the real development will not happen, unless all the relevant factors such as social, cultural, economical and political also being into account. Improve the other conditions such as providing new employment opportunities would be a necessary for a society to create the proper conditions for development to happen thereafter. Unfortunately the population data indicate that emigration is continuing, although people maintain their links and properties in the village. The fact that all the planner's proposals were implemented is entirely due to the availability of the budget, made available by the influence of the President's office.

As stated previously the rural conditions in some parts of Iran are very bad and unacceptable in comparison with Khoram-Dasht before planning, and this is the reason why

the policy-makers set some priorities for any site to be planned. (section 4.7.1.) It is very important in early periods of development planning, according to the large number of the villages in need for development and finance problems, the priorities were for the villages which were able to improve the rural district generally by providing some of their services in the area. This has been one of the pre-conditions of the policy-maker (section 4.7.1.) for any case to be planned, and the importance of the issue has been studied in literature review,(section 3.4.) but this has not happened in Khoram-Dasht, because it was never a centre of cluster.

A study of the planner's report shows it is really helpful to get all the details about the village, the report covers carefully all the items required by the detailed policy and with very good presentation, maps, photos and tables. The statistical information in the report came partly from local people, not from local authority for the statistical information. This is another reason why the planner has been faced with difficulty for making conclusions and some proposals and forecasts have not been occurred in the defined period of time.

The other main weakness in the report is in the parts which really need to use other experts as consultants and without the necessary manpower, an expert's view in these related objects is impossible. For example, there are no proposals in the report on the topic of improvements to agriculture, cattle and rearing and the other related rural activities. Also there is lack of any clear proposals for waste disposal and sewerage to improve the rural environment, and specifically there is nothing in the report for a very important physical element such as the flood passage. For an integrated development planning, with variety

of issues, which should be studied (section 3.4.), it is natural that all the relevant experts would be necessary for a successful plan.

Another point is that some physical elements such as the school, health centre, administration building and rural hall are not planned according to any defined calculation of the need. Also they have been located according to the availability of land, not according to the logical location relating to their functions. This is the reason that the building constructed as a rural hall is useless and it is not used. The school was not built according to the criteria for the number of students and the health centre can not be economic for such a small population. In theory there are some situations in which the conclusion of a consultant would be that the client should not do the job. But in many situations the consultants do the job according the wishes of the client, not according to their knowledge and objective analysis of the situation. In spite of the hard work of the consultant although the plan has been fully successful in improving the existing physical conditions of the village, the most important forecast for the future population has not been achieved and this is the most important as it provided the necessary foundation for the other social, and economic changes. This process once again approve the necessity and importance of study in all relevant issues, effective in development.

In comparing the planner's proposals with the physical activities that have been implemented, it can be seen that almost all the planner's proposals for the village from the view of quantity have been completed, but this should also be evaluated from the point of view of quality. There were no subdivision layouts for implementation and there is no monitoring by an independent department. This indicates, lack of monitoring, which could

Be useful for improved practice, that is very important in national programme in order to work properly, to have acceptable outputs compared with the previous situation. In Khoram-Dasht as was demonstrated through the case study, in spite of the political point that the village is the centre of the rural district, there is no other factor that highlighted it as a village suitable for planning. This village does not provide the necessary services to the other villages in the district to justify the selection.

There is no clear proposal in the planner's report to improve the village from the view of administrative or agricultural services or access roads to the other villages in the district, or health services, education and the other related services that usually tie the villages to each other and act as the centre of a complex. The plan was not aimed towards creating such relationships because the necessary institutional capacity could not be found in the village. However according to the planning and implementation that has been done there are some points that illustrate difficulties which exist in this process. Some important points are missing and have not been given attention through the process of approval. Many of the aims relate to the need for a sufficient population to create a demand for a particular function, for example when there are not enough students to provide a school, how would it be possible to manage and improve the educational standards? These problems put a question mark for the capability of the approval committee, and this fact that how much they are able to handle these plans?

Therefore a conclusion would be that these improvements in the village were not successful in keeping the residents in the village and the aims of policy-maker have not been achieved.

***Field Study – Case Two:  
Khompych***

**6.2. Khompych**

Figure 6.2.1. shows the location of Khompych in the centre of Iran; near to Khonsar and Golpayegan. Although Khompych is not the administrative centre of the rural district, it has the largest population in the rural district of Kohsar.

Kohsar means “low mountains” and the District has very good scenery with very

suitable conditions for agriculture and cattle rearing with adequate water.

*Figure 6.2.1. Geographical location of Khompych*

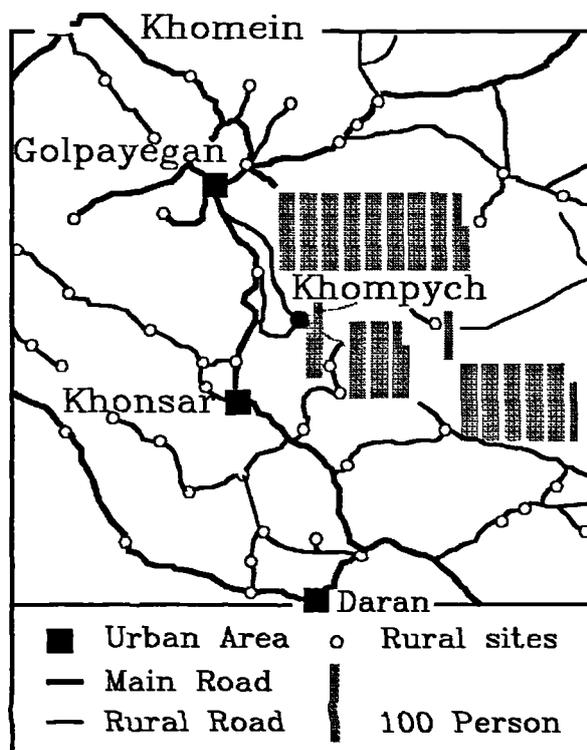


*Figure 6.2.2. Population in Kohsar Rural District*

There are 46 residential sites in the district, but only 5 of them are occupied.

The population of the district is 3645 persons in 948 families.

Figure 6.2.2. shows the residential sites in the rural district, with their population and the proximity of two bigger cities, Khonsar and Golpayegan and the main road through the district. The population data shown in Figure 6.2.2. are for 1996



and the population changes for the last four decades are shown in Table 6.2.1. (1956~1996)

*Table 6.2.1. Kohsar Rural District, settlements and their population during last four decade.*

<i>Residential Sites in Rural District</i>	<i>Years</i>	<i>Kohsar Rural District</i>					<i>Total</i>
		<i>Khompych</i>	<i>Rahmatabad</i>	<i>Tajareh</i>	<i>Mehrabad</i>	<i>Hajbolagh</i>	
<i>Population ( Person)</i>	1956	1329	1524	870	294	128	4145
	1966	1347	1450	771	302	135	4005
	1976	1525	1787	727	270	121	4430
	1986	1852	1477	725	287	108	4449
	1996	1758	1075	568	178	67	3646

Rahmatabad is the political centre of the Rural District. This village was the biggest in 1976 since when Khompych has become larger while the other four villages have declined. The whole population in the district in 1996 was 3646, this is 20% less than 1986. This trend is similar in all the villages in the district, in spite of the increase in Khompych during the three decades from 1956~1986, it seems the conditions have changed especially in the last ten years. As Table 6.2.1. shows, all the villages in the district have been faced with emigration, but calculating the increase rate in Khompych demonstrates that the emigrants have left the area for the other urban sites in the area or the other large cities in country, rather than to Khompych.

### **6.2.1. Decision to Plan:**

According to the Provincial Committee agenda, the reasons for choosing Khompych for planning were classified as:

- i) Khompych has the highest population in the rural district;
- ii) Geographical situation allows good access to the other villages in the district;

- iii) Demographic changes in the years up to 1986 were always positive;
- iv) Natural potentials in the village for development were evaluated as good and the current social, and economic conditions had capability for improvement;
- v) The access for the village to the main road between Khonsar and Golpayegan is convenient;
- vi) During last twenty years Khompych has developed as a centre for education, clinical and technical services in the district. Students for Middle School in rural district use Khompych middle school. In spite of the lack of a permanent GP in the village, the rural district residents use the Khompych Clinic. The garage for Tractors, Motorcycles, and the other agricultural machinery in Khompych is used by all the farmers in the district.

Although not an administrative centre, the village met the conditions set by the policy-makers including its role as a service centre. Rahmatabad is the administrative centre of the Rural District but does not have the advantages of natural location and potential to become the functional centre.

### ***6.2.2. Choosing the Planner:***

Poya Consulting Engineers is one of the consultants that were recognized by the P.B.O, as having the necessary qualifications. Usually for some specific projects, the branch's office of Bonyad ask the P.B.O for a short list of consultants in the related field and choose one of them. In some cases Bonyad suggest a consultant for a specific project to the P.B.O and get the necessary permit to make the contract with it. In this case Poya consultancy was

suggested to the P.B.O and they approved it to prepare this plan.

### **6.2.3. Demographic:**

Considering the general situation, the planner's report contains the details for the village through the last decades, but it is not comprehensive, at least not enough to make an accurate forecast of the future population. The guidelines require the report to describe the existing situation, how it has come about and to make a forecast for the period of the plan. This section reviews the analysis and the forecast in the light of information gathered by the field study, using information which came partly from the planner's report, partly from the official documents and other data, collected during the field study. According to the 1986 census, in the whole City of Khonsar, 53% of the population were living in rural areas and 90.7% of all population lived in the place they were born. According to the 1986 census, population movement, immigration or emigration in this city area was detailed as below:

*“2.8% from rural area to the cities, 3.3% from city to city, 1.6% from village to village, and 1.1% from city to rural area.”*

The number of emigrants generally from rural area to cities has been 162 persons, 34 male and 128 female, aged between 0 and 30. For females emigration has happened after marriage and the men will have gone to look for a job.

Table 6.2.2. contains demographic information for Khompych 1956 to 1996. The forecast of the planner for 1996 (the first five year period of planning) also is shown to demonstrate the accuracy of the forecast. During each of the decades up to 1986 the population of the village increased. In general the natural increase rate through these years for rural areas of the

country has been more than 3%. The highest rate of population growth for the village is 2% for the decade 76-86. This indicates that even with this increase, there has been significant emigration from the village.

However the 2% increase in 76-86 changed to a 2.1% decrease during 86-96. The present population of the village of 2,000 in 1998, the figure of 1,986 persons for the year 1996 seems likely to be more accurate, otherwise it means that a decreasing rate up to 0.55% has happened from 1986-1996, and that from 1996-1998 the village has had increase rate up to 6.7%. There is no reason for that, so it seems the best conclusion would be that the figure presented by census data for year 1996 could be wrong and the village has had slow increase during the 8 years from 1990 to 1998, up to 0.32%.

The planner's forecast for 1996 was 2307, if we accept the total of 1,986 persons for 1996 the discrepancy is 321 persons, almost 15% more than the actual population. This may be because of wrong expectation about the impact of physical changes after planning. But there is not enough information in the planner's report or any analysis of population movement or the causes of increases and decreases during the years before planning. In fact the report contains only a short study about the district population, without any analysis of the link between population movement and the social changes in the village. There is no investigation to clarify the process of social change in the village. The report is very weak in this section and there is not enough analysis of the demographic situation in particular. The analysis and investigation of changes in different age groups is necessary to establish numbers and age/sex characteristics of population movement. This would help the

recognition of problems and ways of solving these problems, in order to make the planner able to make accurate forecasts for the future.

**Table 6.2.2.** *Khompych, demographic information. (1956–1998)*

<i>Specifications</i>	<i>Years</i>								
	<i>1956</i>	<i>1966</i>	<i>1976</i>	<i>1986</i>	<i>1990*</i>	<i>1996**</i>	<i>1996***</i>	<i>1996****</i>	<i>1998</i>
<i>Population</i>	1329	1347	1525	1852	1949	1758	1986	2307	2000
<i>Households</i>	--	--	356	376	390	399	399	--	400
<i>Persons in Family</i>	--	--	4.28	5	5	4.40	4.98	--	5
<i>Changing Rate %</i>		+ .1	+ 1.3	+ 2	+1.3	-.55	+ .32	+ 3	+ .32
<i>Difference</i>		+18	+178	+327	+92	-192	+37	--	+14

The population for 1998 is provided during the field study, it should be 100% accurate from the Health Centre.

\* The population for 1990, provided by the consultant at start of the plan, no sources indicated.

\*\* Population according to 1996 census.

\*\*\* According the population at 1998, 2000 persons, compared with the time of planning in 1990 of 1,949 persons it seems the population at 1996 with increase rate of 0.32% would be 1,986 persons and the data provided by the National Statistic Centre for 1996 could be wrong.

\*\*\*\*This is the forecast of the planner for 1996, 2,307 persons, and the population for this year provided by census data was 1,758, but it seems it should be at least 1,986 considering the current population in 1998, which is 2,000 persons.

As is shown in Table 6.2.2. the largest decrease, according the 1996 census, has happened after planning. Alternatively if we accept the 1,986 population figure for 1996, no interesting changes have happened. However even if the population in 1998 was 2,000 persons the rate of increase is 0.32% almost ten times less than the national rate of increase for rural areas which was 3.20% at this time.

Table 6.2.3. contains more detail about the population in 1996 & 1998. There were 878 males, and 880 females, or 999 and 1001 respectively which indicates that there is no seasonal emigration and that the men do not go out of the village for temporary jobs.

The number of 0-6 years people that are 189 or 215, it would be because of the high birth rate in the village (50% of families had a baby during these last 5 years). If this number is compared with the difference of 192 person after 1990-96 according the census data, or the increase of 51 persons during last 8 years, it means that really at least 138~381 persons of economically-active age have left the village.

According to Table 6.2.3. 386 persons out of 399 families at 1996 were in a job, and only 7 persons out of the job. Actually they are not unemployed, they are some seasonal workers who work out of the village, and at the time of collecting data for 1996 census, classified themselves unemployed.

*Table 6.2.3. Demographic specification of Khompych. (1996)*

<i>Population</i>		<i>Families</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>0-6</i>	<i>7-10</i>	<i>Educated</i>	<i>Employed</i>	<i>Unemployed</i>
<i>1998</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>400</i>	<i>999</i>	<i>1001</i>	<i>215</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>1231</i>	<i>439</i>	<i>8</i>
<i>1996*</i>	<i>1758</i>	<i>399</i>	<i>878</i>	<i>880</i>	<i>189</i>	<i>192</i>	<i>1082</i>	<i>386</i>	<i>7</i>

Census data.

In 1998 the employed number has increased to 439 for 400 families, but with increases in the population and number of families, it means that the dependent rate has not changed, it is still around 4.55

#### **6.2.4. Education:**

In Khompych, according to the 1996 census, 61% of the inhabitants can read and write. This shows that there was no programme for improving standards for older people in the village, and the percentage has not changed over the last ten years. Table 6.2.4. shows the number of students in school and middle school in 1990 and 1998.

**Table 6.2.4.** Number of students at school, 1990 & 1998

<i>Schools</i>	<i>Primary School, Boys &amp; Girls</i>			<i>Middle School, Boys &amp; Girls</i>		
	<i>1990</i>	<i>1998</i>		<i>1990</i>	<i>1998</i>	
<i>Khompych</i>	290	<i>Boys</i> 142	<i>Girls</i> 140	142	<i>Boys</i> 90	<i>Girls</i> 70

In 1998, the number of children of school age in Khompych was 318, compared with the number of students, 282, it means that 38 or 11.3% of them were not attending school. The conditions for middle school are more critical. There is no middle school in Mehrabad and Tajareh and of the 347 children in these ages, only 160 students are studying in Khompych Middle School. Even in the village itself only 160 children out of 252 in the age group attend the Middle School.

Table 6.2.5. shows the data. It is interesting that the number of students in 1990, presented in the planner's report, is 290, more than the number of children of school age according to the census, and for the Middle School is 142, about 227 less than the number that it should be. This is another indication that probably there is some mistake in these data. There is no analysis about this situation in the planner's report, and it is unbelievable that the planner's forecast for the period of planning is so high; there is no investigation of the reasons why the children do not continue their education, even to Middle School. What would be the reason that the planner's forecast for the number of students for Primary School & Middle school at year 2000 are 391 and 222? No sources are indicated.

In 1990, at the time of planning, there were 226 persons, 11.4% of High School age, with 65 from Mehrabad and Tajareh, and these numbers increased to a total of 313 at 1998.

**Table 6.2.5.** *Children of School age in Khompych and district.*

<i>School</i>	<i>Khompych</i>		<i>Mehrabad</i>		<i>Tajareh</i>		
	<i>School</i>	<i>Middle school</i>	<i>School</i>	<i>Middle School</i>	<i>School</i>	<i>Middle School</i>	
<i>Years</i>	1986	296	236	46	36	115	91
	1990	316	250	--	--	--	--
	1998	318	252	28	23	90	72
	1998	<i>High School</i> 228		<i>High School</i> 20		<i>High School</i> 65	

According to the planner's proposals for Khompych the construction of a High School was to be in the first phase, but after 8 years, at the time of field study, there was no news of it, in spite of the fact that the plan had been approved by the Province Approval Committee. According to my investigation this project is not in the programme for implementation by the Province office of the Ministry of Education.

The most important point is that the departments involved with the planning have not co-ordinated the process, to adjust their annual programme with the other development programmes which are going on. This is the reason that sometimes they establish educational space and they can not provide the teachers, and in the other places, like Khompych, there is no programme in spite of approved planning.

## **6.2.5. Economic activities**

### **6.2.5.1. Agriculture:**

Agriculture is the main activity in the village. According to the statistical information presented in the planner's report 33.5% of all population in Khonsar Rural areas, more than 10 years old are working and 54.7% of them are in the agricultural sector, 21% are in general services, 21.4% in industry and construction and 2.9% of residents do not declare

their occupations. According to the 1993 census for agriculture, the number of farming families reduced from 295 in 1988 to 277. But the area of cultivated land and fruit gardens has increased from 265 Hectares to 320 Hectares, and the number of cattle from 24 to 11,194 at 1993. 24 is the number that is presented in 1988 census for agriculture. It seems this is a mistake. If it were correct, the improvement in this scale to 5,400 at 1990 (according to the planner's report) and 11,194 in 1993 (official data) and 14,158 in 1998 needs some serious explanation. Such great changes need great production programming which has not happened. So the declared data for 1988 seems incorrect. However there has been an important increase between 1990 and 1998.

The natural potential, in addition to the physical improvements after planning, certainly had effect in these great changes. But in the planner's report there is no proposal for developing the agricultural land or cattle rearing, or for improving the industrialization of related industries that would have necessary effects on the employment in the District. These great changes demonstrated that there is enough capability for improving all the District and it needs comprehensive study in all dimensions to take all opportunities into account for the best possible proposal for improving economic conditions in the District. Table 6.2.6. demonstrates these changes in Khompych, there is no more information for district.

Data from the 1993 agricultural census shows the number of cattle in the whole of Kohsar district, and with increases for 1993~1998 similar to which happened to Khompych. The great number of cattle in the village and in the district demonstrates that the lack of accurate study of this topic could have had a great effect in the future of the district. Meat and dairy

production, especially, has great potential in the area and would bring more employment and after that some more stable economic improvement and welfare that might encourage immigration to the village, rather than emigration.

**Table 6.2.6.** *Agricultural facilities and possibilities changes in Khompych. (1988–1998)*

Years	Number of Farmers families	Specifications															
		Irrigation							Agricultural Cultivated Lands	Instrument			Animals				
		Deep well	Moderate well	Qanat	River		Spring			Machinery			Carrier		Cows	Sheep	Goats
					Permanent	Season	Permanent	Season		Tractor	Plough	Tiller	Horse	Donkey			
88	295	2	1	2	–	1	30	10	265	6	–	–	7	153	24	–	–
90	254	2	4	3	–	1	30	10	265	6	–	–	3	200	400	5000	–
93	277	2	6	3	–	1	30	10	320	9	9	2	3	300	737	8279	2178
98	285	3	8	3	–	1	30	10	320	9	9	3	4	320	843	9485	3830

It seems that great potential in the district has been ignored. There were no proposals for these developments in planner's report, although all the statistical information about the village is provided in the report but there is no analysis or evaluation of the situation for future programming.

#### 6.2.5.2. Handicraft:

Handicrafts in Iranian rural areas are regarded as side work for housewives, which helps household income. Depending on the geographical locations the handicraft is different, but everywhere the sheep are kept, the knitting of carpets in different styles, plans, and colours is going on as a daily activity. The most important material for this economic activity is sheep's wool. According to the 1986 census, from the 8671 households in Khonsar County,

7400 families had handicraft production. 14.6% of these families were in the cities, and 85.4% in the rural area. The most important handicraft in quantity was knitting Carpets, Rugs and Gellim\* involving 17.7% or 1310 families. Esfahan is another important city from this view in Iran. Its style is known around the world and the residents in this area use the Esfahan style.

This is another economic activity for which the resources exist in the local area and with which the inhabitants are familiar. Also it would be a strong attraction for investments from out of the village for production. This is an economic sector of national importance, providing world-wide exports from the Islamic Republic of Iran. In the Planner's report there is no attention to this economic activity. In 1994 the Behzisty Department\*\* which is responsible to the Ministry of Health and Medicine Education established a unit for carpet knitting in Khompych. Already in 1998, 18 persons are working in it but according to my survey, there is no relation between this Unit and the plan. This is another example of departments doing their jobs individually according their duty and programme with no co-ordination with the others for similar areas. Overall the planner's report is very weak in trying to identify economic resources and the analysis to give the necessary programming in order to be able to shape the future economic activities in the region.

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\**Gellim*, this is another name for carpets, that are knitted without any predefined plan, every tribal has its special style according to the tribal culture passed from generation to generation, using mathematical forms and natural wool and colour.

\*\**Behzisty Department*. This is a dependent department that tries to manage the poor, disabled people throughout the country, usually by economic activities for supporting poor families income, establishing nurseries for children under school age in rural areas. The other organizations for managing and keeping disabled people through the country are covered by this Department and its provincial and cities branches.

### 6.2.6. Physical Planning & Implementation of Khompych

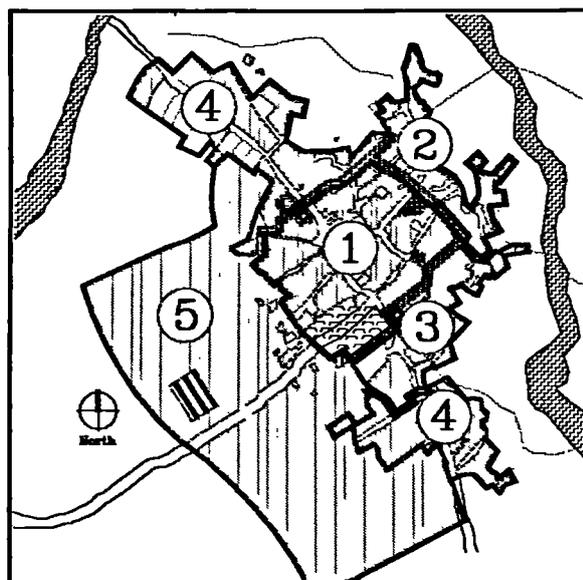
#### *Comparison pre planning and after implementation.*

Khompych is one of the old villages in the Kohsar district, in Khonsar city. Some ancient remains have been explored near the village. A cemetery and a praying place from the Zoroastrian period are near the village. Different stages of physical development of the village are shown in Figure 6.2.3.

The first zone in Khompych, as the oldest area in the village, called *Tabatabaei*, is the physical centre of the village (1). The mosque and some shops are located in this area and are used as a common area for all the inhabitants to meet each other, chat and spend their free time. The next stages of physical

development in the Khompych have been along the main access road, up to 1956 in the north east, (2) and after that up to 1976 in the south and south-east (3) and now in the north-west and south-east along the main access road (4) and planner proposal for development of new housing and the other services. (5) At all times the farmlands and gardens are a barrier to

*Figure 6.2.3. Different stages of Physical Development*



physical development. These are vital for rural development and the way of life and usually

all the land of good quality for cultivation is not used for construction. This is the reason that the physical development has happened along the main road in linear form. This also provides access to the services for the other inhabitants in the District and those who have a daily trip through Khompych to the cities or the other villages in the district.

The seasonal river in the north and North-east has been the other barrier for physical development. According to the topography of the area, the slope in the West and South is more than the other part of the village and such land is not used for farming, because these land can not irrigate naturally, but may have potential for production. However most land is cultivated and through my field study I found that some farmers have bought farmland in other areas in district to develop their farming. So this clearly demonstrates how valuable the farmlands in this area are; so certainly programming the use of existing possibilities with greater efficiency in many cases would be better than any physical extension. Already some new general services such as the Football ground, Middle School and Nursery have been constructed in the South-West and are in use. But the main general basic services that usually exist in every village and do not depend on size, like the Mosque, School and Health centre are located in the oldest zone of the village.(Tabatabaei)

Khompych, in terms of population and economic possibilities was the biggest village and it has grown as a service centre for the district. It is true that for calculating all necessary areas for different general functions, the population of the other villages in district should be taken into account. For instance Middle School, clinic, Sport centre, rural co-operative, etc should have the capability to provide for all residents in the district. The other villages in

the district already use these services and certainly these relationships would be stronger if the district population is taken into account for calculating the necessary areas in the future. The planner's report contains two tables, the first, shows the area of each function that was occupied in the village, compared with some standards,\* and a second one that shows the area that would be necessary during the period of planning for the extension of some and establishment of new departments and residential areas. The calculations are based on the population at 1990, and the planner's forecast for 2000. These two tables are combined in Table 6.2.7. But as was discussed in demographic section, these increases in population have not taken place, and seem impossible even for next decade, so many areas reserved for residential expansion will not be occupied. The planner's report has no analysis of each space, and forecasts are made according to some fixed figures and the planning forecast of future population.

Figure 6.2.4. demonstrates the existing conditions before planning. This was the organic rural fabric which has been shaped according to the necessity of rural interaction and daily life. In the planner's land use plan (for the period 1990~2000) the residential area has doubled, and by designing the new access road as a ring road, the planner intended to take out the through traffic from the village. There is no statistical information in the planner's report to prove this need on the expected benefits. For instance it could be argued that

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\**Rural Functions standards.* In rural areas it would be unreal to take into account fixed standards for services such as, Education, health, etc. Rather these should relate to the possibilities and conditions in each area, and the accurate study of the planner for each settlement would provide the most suitable standards for each functions. It should not been thought of as fixed numbers, except that sometimes standards can establish a minimum of provision.

retaining through traffic would increase interaction and trade, provided traffic could mix safely with other activities.

Table 6.2.7. Existing and planner's proposals for rural services, 1990 & onward 2000:

	General Services	1990			2000			
		Area	Per Person	%	Area	Per Person	%	
General Services, Different Functions	Residential	31.42	157.80	70.50	38.40	143.60	44.60	
	Educational	0.41	2.10	0.92	1.40	5.20	1.60	
	Sport	0.53	2.70	1.19	2.10	7.90	2.40	
	Health & Clinic	0.20	1.00	0.45	1.20	4.50	1.40	
	Mosque	0.17	0.90	0.38	0.50	1.90	0.60	
	Administrative	—	—	—	0.30	1.10	0.30	
	Police station	0.14	0.70	0.31	0.80	3.00	0.90	
	Commercial	0.12	0.60	0.27	0.20	0.80	0.20	
	Barn	—	—	—	0.70	2.60	0.80	
	Green Area, Recreation	—	—	—	10.00	37.40	11.60	
	Rural co-operative	—	—	—	0.30	1.10	0.30	
	Work shop	—	—	—	1.00	3.70	1.20	
	Access Roads	1th Grade	5.02	25.20	11.26	22	82.30	25.50
		2th Grade	2.17	11.00	4.87	3.70	13.80	4.30
		3th grade	1.81	9.10	4.06	1.80	6.70	2.10
	Cemetery	2.80	14.10	6.28	2.00	7.50	2.30	
Total	44.69	224.60	100	86.10	322.00	100		
		44.69 Hectares			86.10 Hectares			

The main access road in Khompych varied in width between 8 to 20 metres, and the planner's proposal is for a new width of 25m. There is no explanation or calculation for this width or for the proposal for the ring road to be 45m wide. The plan also proposes some changes to the original rural fabric and attempts to establish new functions, such as general services outside of the old fabric. For instance, before planning there was a very small workshop for carpet knitting in the village. The planner has reserved land for a new location for a workshop, but the report has no explanation of the need for this or any definition of its intended use. All the proposals and forecasts are general and vague. Naturally all the proposals should be supported by the necessary explanations, and

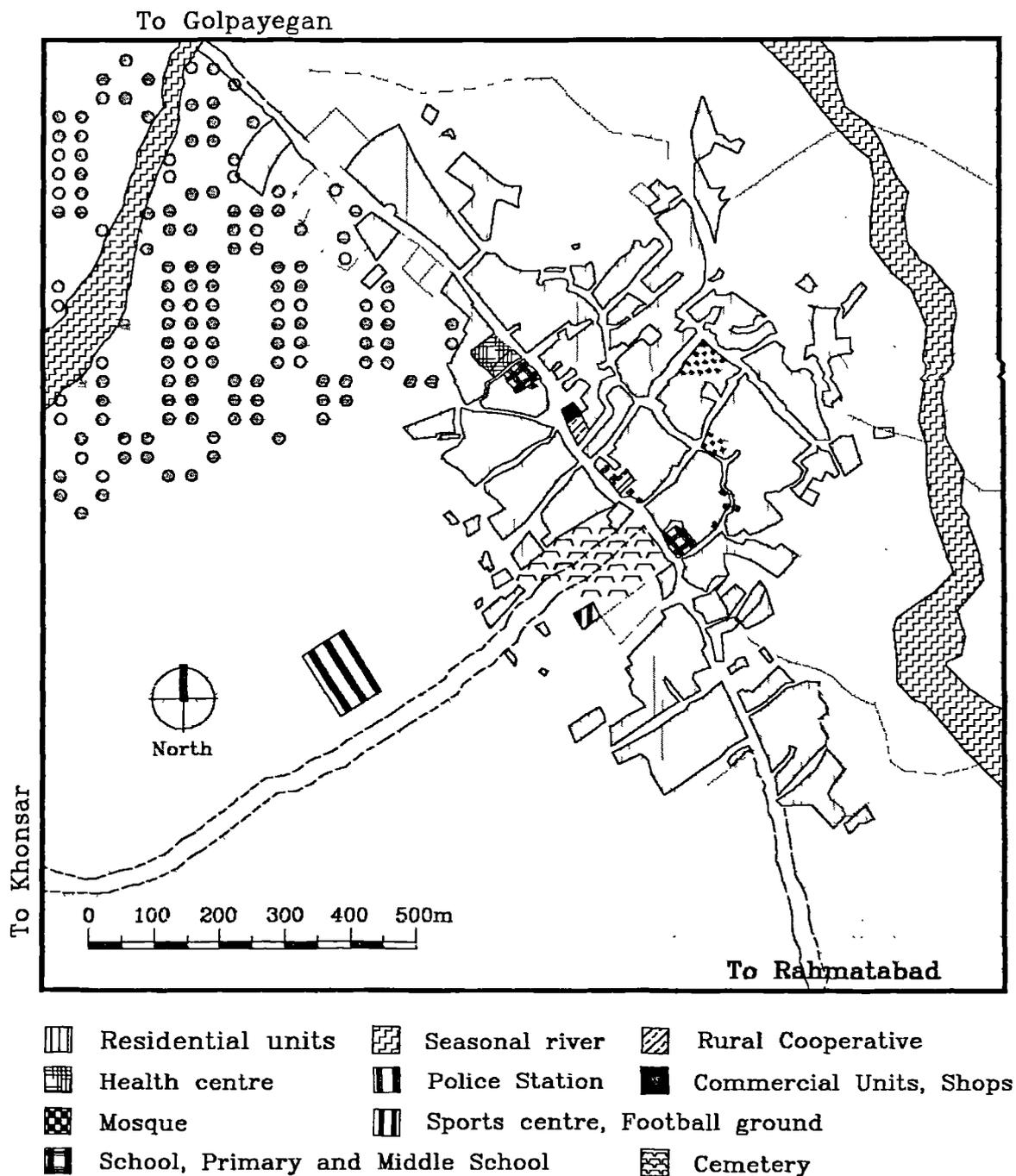
and statistical analysis, but in this report the process of the study is not visible. An analysis of the trends in the un-planned development would be a starting point for the plan, and would help understanding the demands of inhabitants. Study of the economic possibilities and the economic activities that are already in the village are important for a planner to understand the real conditions and the current economy, in order to create and suggest the necessary process of improvement in each case. Improvement in these conditions means more production, more employees and naturally more income.

The most effective point for shaping any residential area is the economic activity of inhabitants, and the fabric of Khompych has been affected by agricultural activities. The amount of production, the number of livestock, and the number of farmers families and the families who keep cattle, have had strong affects on the physical shape of the village; these activities also strongly affect the interior plan of each residential unit of the rural fabric.

The following Figure 6.2.4. demonstrates the original rural fabric in Khompych. The planner's proposals for physical change are based on some general services which are regarded as necessary in each village; some have been constructed before in the south-west and east, on some pieces of lands that were reserved for such services by people for the village. The scale of these services was calculated according to the village population forecast for 2000 (ten years after planning). Some buildings have been constructed according to the standard plans which the related department uses everywhere. According to the field study and investigations for the demographic, economic, and education sections, incorrect statistical information and incorrect conclusions mean that the basis of the new

land use plan is suspect. The area for each function should be calculated for the number of people who will usually use it, and 8 years after the plan, the field study demonstrates that the population in the village and district is much less than the planner's forecast.

Figure 6.2.4. Khompych Rural Fabric, Pre Planning, 1990.



In this case the conclusion could be that the planner has not had improvement of rural conditions as his main aim, but that changing the physical form and the external appearance has been of more interest of the planner and to the Approval Committee, because they approved this plan.

In order to understand the real social economic conditions of the village for planning design, it is very important to try to use the existing conditions and improve them. But changing the general view of physical conditions, although this would be interesting for inhabitants from the view of comparing the new shape with the past and urban, with more form in the long term, when change is not co-ordinated with the real conditions and processes of rural life it would not be successful and new problems will arise. In particular the residents in rural area are mostly farmers and cattle rearers, so the physical shape of the village should be suited to these economic activities. As well as that, large physical changes need large budgets and, with restrictions in the budget, these kinds of plans usually are never implemented; the proposals in the plan should take account of the likely level of the available resources and budget.

The Figure 6.2.7. shows the planner's land use plan for Khompych. As was shown in Figure 6.2.3. all the time during which the population has increased, the village has been extended physically along the main road, linearly from north-west to south-west and east. The rural fabric is compact in order to get the best benefit from the farmlands and the residents have tried to keep clear of the quality farmland as much as they can. The proposed shape is completely different compared with the past, with a lot of new very wide streets in the new fabric. The compact and linear form of the village has been changed; then plan tries

to spread out all the functions on the ground with more open spaces between them. This plan needs a relatively huge budget to implement and this is the reason that after 8 years less than half of it has been built. (Figure 6.2.5.)

According to the planner's land use table, the area under access road before planning has been 9 Hectares or 20.19% of all the village area, this would change to 27.5 Hectares or 31.9% of the planned village. The village area is to be doubled, increasing from 44.60 Hectares to 86.10. There is no analysis that can justify these changes, because according to my study of demographic factors there is only a little increase in the population after planning up to now (8 years after planning).



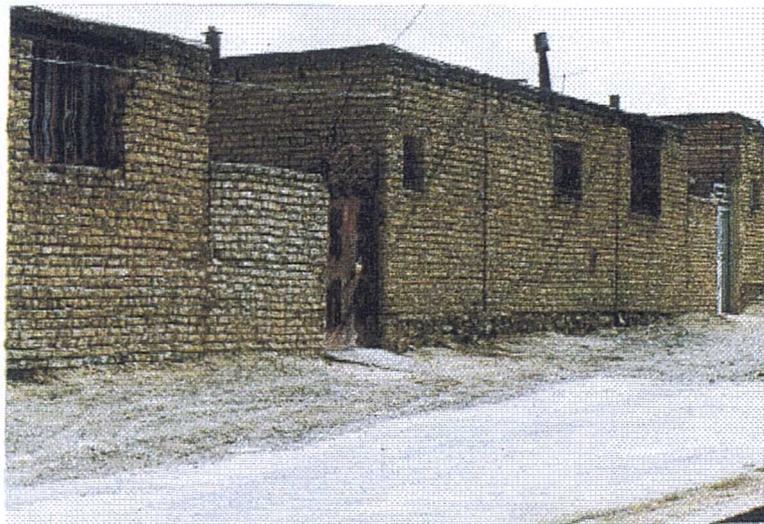
**Figure 6.2.5.**

*Almost half the existing streets have been paved, the construction of the new electricity network was in progress during my field work.*

It could be argued that improving the existing conditions would be the best way for improving the living conditions and providing better environment, instead of creating new spaces that the people also are not familiar with. The village is located in a very nice area between low mountains. In the planner's land use plan, 10 Hectares, or 11.6% of village area, has been allocated as green space for recreation. People in cities need green space to be provided and it seems there is some confusion for a village to be allocated green spaces

on what an urban scale. Perhaps the intention is to create a children's park or something like this, but there is no specific definition for this space.

All the incomplete works have caused people to fill in the drainage channels to have access to their house. The size of the channels is not calculated, and there is nothing in the report.

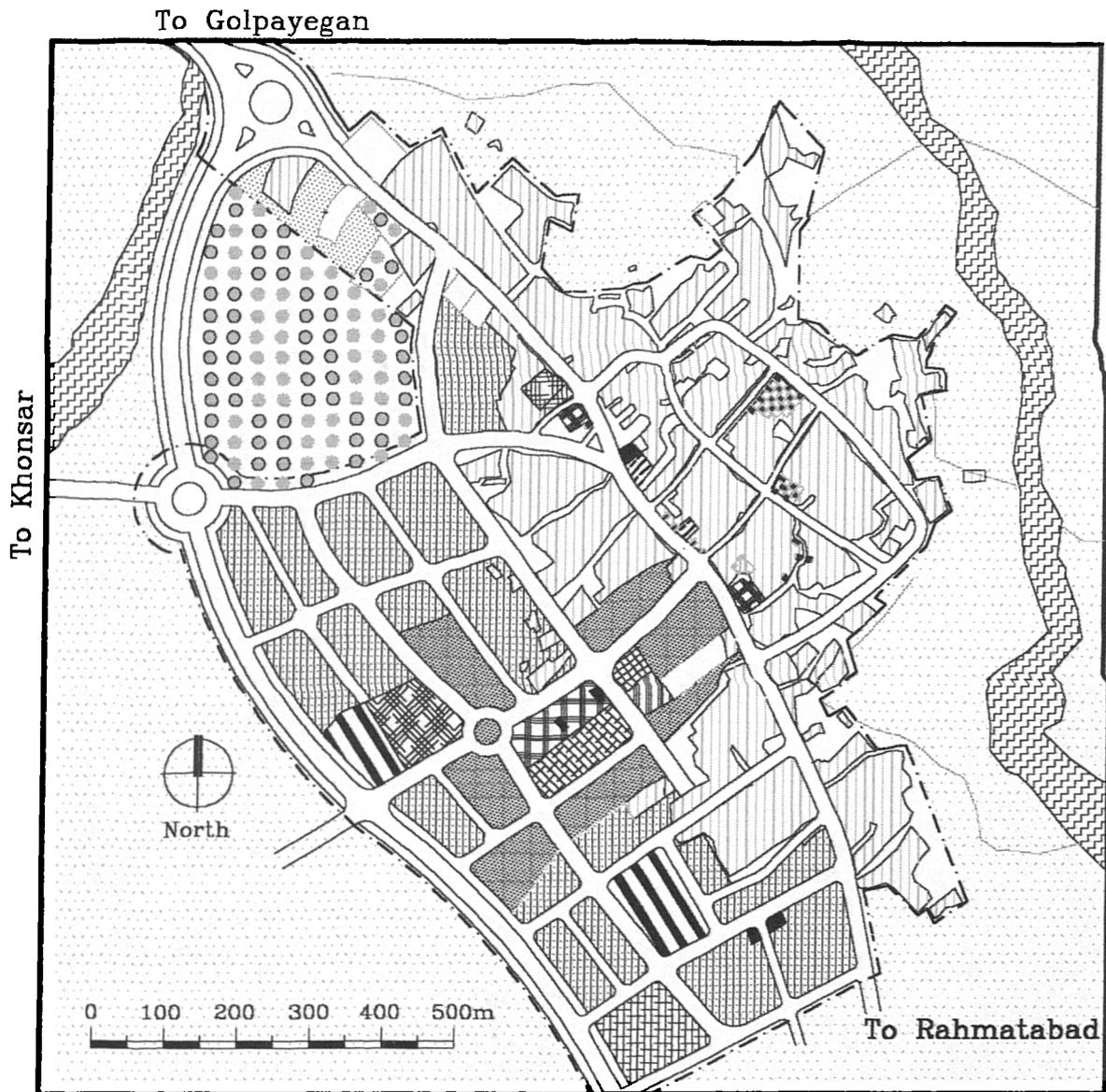


**Figure 6.2.6.**

*New construction alongside a new street after planning, Khompych 1998*

This new construction is of low quality, with an unpleasant face to the street, because there is no effective monitoring after planning and there is no strong administrative department to control and conduct the process of implementation.

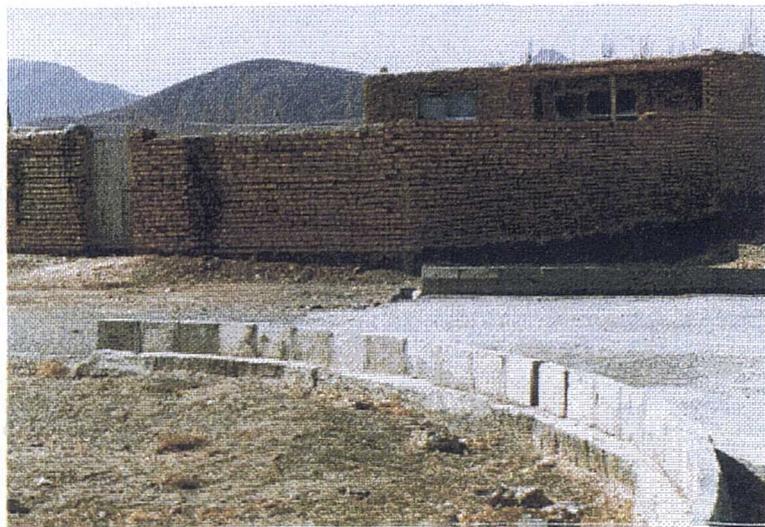
Figure 6.2.7. The planner's Land Use Proposal, (Period of Planning 1990-2000)



-  Residential units
-  Extension of Residential areas during Planning period
-  Sport centre, existing space and the planer's proposal
-  Mosque       Area for Mosque extension
-  School       Area for extension of School and High school
-  Police Station       General Green area, (recreation)
-  Work Shop       Comercial units, Shops and Rural Cooperative
-  Administrative, Post & Telephone
-  Health centre       Seasonal River
-  Cemetery      Existing gardens conserved during Planning

**Figure 6.2.8.**

*Some of the constructions in the village are incomplete, causing environmental problems for inhabitants.*



The other part of planner's proposals are for general services such as a Health and Clinic centre, Mosque, and Police Station, that should be provided and constructed by the government; except for the high school, these services have been finished. But overall, after 8 years, more than half of the planner's proposals have not been implemented. Figure 7.3.8. shows one of the streets that has been left unfinished, with new houses beside.

### **6.2.7. Housing:**

The economic section, showed that Khompych has 285 farmer families, almost 160 of which keep cattle, and need some special spaces in the house, and that is the reason that in Khompych the average size of the houses according to the planner's report is 788 square metre (157.8 m<sup>2</sup> per person).

Agricultural functions require special design features and special size and almost every house in Khompych also needs a space for handicraft production. The planner only mentions the average size for the residential unit without any analysis about the reason for

this. In spite of his forecast of increasing families, he proposed a decrease of the average space per person to 143.60, without any written reason or anything to prove or explain this decision. The mixing of activities for livestock with daily life create problems and there are no proposals for this. One sentence comments that it is better for environmental hygiene to separate these spaces but there is no guidance on how this should be achieved and no assessment of priority. It seems at least there should be some proposal, perhaps as a diagram for the proposed access for the cattle space from the living area, to explain the problem and the solution. It seems it should have been necessary to analyse some different residential plans, for different functions, study the number of spaces and their size, the relation between different spaces and as a conclusion, to present some models for improved efficiency and hygiene, ending with recommended sizes and layouts.

The planner has a forecast for increasing the residential area from 31.42 to 38.40 Hectares to accommodate the increased population. But according to the information presented in demographic section, this increase will not happen, and the areas reserved for this purpose will not be occupied during the plan period, nor in the next decade if the conditions continue as they are.

As a result of implementation of some parts of the plan, residential units have been damaged and some destroyed. The policy for this has been to provide an alternative plot of land of about 300 m<sup>2</sup> and 3,000,000/- Rials loan for reconstruction, but neither the size of the land, nor the amount of the money is enough. There is no reason or explanation for this decision. At least the economic activity of the families should be considered, because for

some families who are not farmers or who do not have cattle, probably this size would be sufficient. Otherwise families with agricultural activities or with cattle need additional space according to their economic life. The main weakness of the report for this problem is that the existing conditions were not well studied, nor are there any defined proposals for future. But there is a long section in the report that tries to define some construction and planning rules for the applicants who want to reconstruct their house. Definitions for the percentage of each lot to be occupied in each floor, the place and size of windows, the height of each floor and whole building. It would have been more useful if there was specific recommendation for the division between the living area and the animals, in a way that would be more acceptable to residents.

#### **6.2.8. Budgeting and Economic Resources:**

The implementation budget for this project was 100,000,000/- Rials, provided from the annual national budget for deprived areas. The actual cost of executing these projects would be more than this amount, even taking account of the self help of the inhabitants as free labour or in some cases some money, as well as the construction machinery that is usually provided from the Provincial branch office of *Bonyad-e-Maskan*.

The planner's fee usually comes from the annual budget of Bonyad, but in this case precise information about the planner's fee was not available, but it seems likely to be less than 5,000,000/-Rials, which is low compared with the implementation budget. This is the basic reason why for such strategic projects, with high expectations, the outcomes are not so acceptable. The study has not been carried out in depth and the report does not contain well considered and well developed proposals.

### **6.2.9. Conclusion:**

There have been some changes in the planning period and improvements in the physical conditions of the village, few changes in population and many changes in farming. A comparison of the pre planning land use with the proposals of the planner shows that great changes for physical conditions were proposed, most of which have not been implemented, 8 years after implementation.

However it is very important to note that the selection of Khompych to be planned as a district centre has been correct in accordance with the detailed policy, and there is very strong improvement potential for this site based on social economic, demographic conditions. Khompych had developed itself as a centre during the years before planning and it was already serving some of the villages in the District with some necessary services such as health and education. It would be able to do the job more efficiently with more of the basic services in quantity and size. Khompych is not the political centre of district, but with suitable possibilities during the last three decades, in spite of depopulation in the other villages in district, it had increased in population to become the biggest in the district. Cases like this need guidelines to identify the positive advantages and give priority to them for more and faster improvement. It is very critical, because probably wrong policy or decisions may change the current situation, even stop the current process, so the study of the existing situation to recognise the real potentials is a very critical step in order to make the best decisions for the future. As Cloke (1979), section 3.8. argues, the unsuccessful samples of Key Settlements would be according deficiencies in Policy, Implementation and Co-ordination. Through this field study, different sections explained briefly the weakness if the planner's report, but overall the main problems according to the detailed guidelines

(section 4.6.) were:

1. *District:*

- i) Insufficient attention to the natural resources and possibilities in the district. In spite of the fact that clearly this is required in the detailed policy, there is nothing in the planner's report except a superficial study of the district population;
- ii) There is nothing to describe the functional relations between the villages in the district and Khompych.

This information would be the base for defining the needs and potential in quantity and their scale. It is not necessary to include every item from the detailed policy, but it is clear that there is no comprehensive study of the district and no suggestions or proposals for the area as a whole.

2. *Village:*

- i) There is no research on population movement or population structure. It is not defined what is the process of the study for the proposed population in the next decade (period of planning). There is no description to explain the probable reasons for decrease or increase, neither statistical nor descriptive analysis;
- ii) There is no accurate study of economic activities, existing in 1990, and the constraints, if any, possibilities and resources;
- iii) There is no analysis of the existing physical conditions to show the advantages or disadvantages in quality, quantity and scale. Briefly, one figure considers the the structural quality of buildings, but there is nothing to explain the basic element or definition for comparison.

This section is very important because one of the policy-maker's aims was about self-sufficiency of the district from the view of general services, administrative, education and so on. There is nothing in the report to draw the study of the real situation of the village to the proper conclusion.

The planner's report in many sections does not follow the detailed policy guidelines, (section 4.6. and Appendix C) at least it is not organised according to the importance of the different sections; it seems there are many misunderstandings for different parts although it physically follows the main headings. More than 20% of the report has been occupied by climatic information and construction rules and there is no use of this information in the report. But some important points like the study of economic possibilities in the village and district do not have enough analysis for reasonable conclusions to be used for the future proposals. In considering the planner's proposals for physical changes and comparing these with the implementation and evaluating the quality of implementation it needs to be recognised that usually, in such situations, the planner is not completely free to allocate different functions. But he could manage existing areas according to their locations and other characteristics to make the best possible decision for the proposed land use. In Khompych some land was provided by the residents for public services such as the School and Medical centre and the planner designed probably had to his land use plan according to these areas. But these area were not according to the required size. Also the calculations for new land or services were based on the proposed level of population during the planning and this has never happened. The other problem concerns the calculation of different areas in the land use plan. They are not based on the needs of the actual number of residents during the period of planning and their particular rural social economic specifications.

Rather it is according to the figures that planners use for Urban Planning resulting in oversized allocations, not according to realistic local situations.

The planner has introduced two tables, the existing areas and the proposed areas, calculated according to the necessary area per person for each function. There is no explanation how he got these figures or any references for these areas. Also the proposed population growth has not taken place. So the reserved areas, especially for residential uses, are over-allocated as after 8 years there is still no demand for the reserved residential development areas. There is no basic information on rural income in the village. But what is certain is that, with increased cultivated lands and the number of cattle in the village and district, the rural income will have increased in the last decade.

The question would be how this compares with the existing potential for farming and cattle? This needs more information and data, but according to the existing situation described in planner's report and author's field study, it could be much greater and it has the necessary potential for absorbing more farmers even from other areas. There is no programme for recognising the real resources and possibilities in the village. There is no organised department for controlling and conducting the economic activities in the village and there is no proposal on this issue in planner's report. this is in spite of the importance of these issues, discussed in literature review. (section 3.4.)

Planning has not been successful in predicting the population and the predicted increase in population during the last decades has become slower than before. This means that the

process of planning and implementation has not been effective enough to retain the existing population in the village. Eight years after implementation there are no administrative departments in the village. The proposed High School has not been established and the services that are provided by Khompych for the district are limited to the Medical Centre and the Middle school. Improvement in the physical conditions of village, such as paving of streets and old accesses, new concrete channels for drainage and so on, has changed the rural character and where completed, has provided more healthy environment for the inhabitants. But there is no organisation for controlling and co-ordinating the activities that are going on and some schemes are left incomplete. This is because of lack of monitoring, one of the important sections of development process, in a sustainable plan.(section 3.11.)

Over all in spite of the fact that all relevant governmental departments are members of the Approval Committee, their activities are not co-ordinated and each of them acts independently. This is why most of activities that would complement each other are implemented separately and do not have the desired effect compared with the investment. This lack of co-ordination would be the main reason why the most of planner's proposals have not taken place.

***Field Study – Case Three:  
Jaghin***

### 6.3. Jaghin:

Figure 6.3.1. shows this rural area in the South-east of Iran beside the Oman Sea. Most land in this area has excellent conditions for farming, with adequate water, and usually farmlands produce two crops in a year.

Jaghin politically is located within the administrative area of Minab City; it is the

only village with more than 5000 residents in the whole area. There are two urban areas and 834 rural settlements sites in this county. Most of them, (502) have population between 0-100 persons. Table 6.3.1. demonstrates this situation in Minab.

Figure 6.3.1. Geographical location of Jaghin



Table 6.3.1. Villages in Minab (according to population, and percent of each group in whole area) 1986

Groups	0-99 Person	100-249	250-499	500-999	1000-2499	2500-5000	5000 +
Number & Percent	502 Or 60%	191 Or 23 %	71 Or 8.50 %	36 Or 4.40 %	29 Or 3.60 %	4 Or 0.3 %	1

Jaghin with the other 4 large villages are the biggest in the area and acts as the centre of a rural cluster, for several smaller nearby villages. These five villages are big enough to be self-sufficient from the view of administrative, educational, and other services and they serve the other villages.

Table 6.3.2. The five biggest villages in Minab City with their population.1986-1996

Name		Jaghin	Barentin	Beyka	Islam abad	Karban
Population	1986	5182	4167	3558	3174	2791
	1996	5515	5163	4666	3820	3630

Figure 6.3.2. shows the location of these villages and their population in the area.

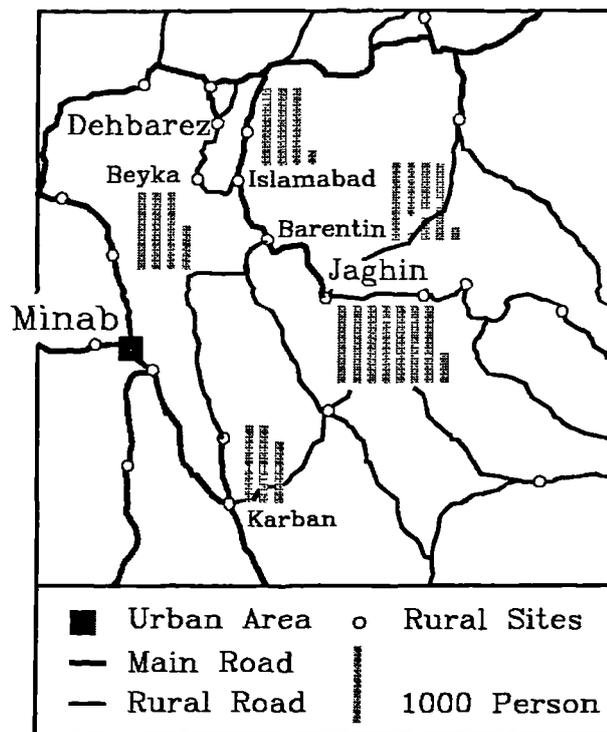
Jaghin has no direct effective district, but it contains several small residential sites that all together are called Jaghin.

Continuing improvement in economic conditions has been one of the most important bases for development, but in this case the good economic conditions have not created any new development because the surplus income is going outside the village.

Most of people are farm workers, or own

only small pieces of land. The big landowners permanently live out of the village in cities or even, in many cases, out of the country. This is the reason that despite the high quality of the farmlands, bringing high profits for landowners, the main economic benefits are external. They spend their money outside, so there is no change in the village. The local conditions have remained as before, without any improvement. This situation will be

Figure 6.3.2. Distribution of population in rural district



more clear when the demographic characteristics of the area are studied.

The population in the whole district increased 1.22 times between 1966 to 1976 with more increase in the next decade which had a 1.61 increase 1976-1986. This means that the population in the area doubled between 1966-1986 and almost all the population lives in rural areas with only 5% of the population living in urban areas in 1966, 7.8% in 1976 and 18.2% in 1986. This recent increase in 1986 is as the result of changing the status of one of the rural areas to be a city in this decade. If these figures are compared with the whole country the increase of the population living in cities is less than 1/3, compared with other areas. The population density in this district is low, rising from 8.1 persons in each Km<sup>2</sup> in 1966, to 9.9 persons in 1976 and 15 persons in 1986. These densities are less than the half of density for the whole country. All these information are presented in Table 6.3.3.

**Table 6.3.3.**

*Urban population, compare with whole population and density of population in area in last three decades.*

<i>Periods</i>	<i>1956-1966</i>	<i>1966-1976</i>	<i>1976-1986</i>	<i>1986-1996</i>
<i>Percentage of urban population to whole in the area.</i>	5 %	7.8 %	18.2 %	21.9 %
<i>Density of population, person per Km<sup>2</sup></i>	8.1	9.9	15	19

Another interesting fact about the area is that the rate of increase of population in the last two decades, which was 2.02 % in 1966-1976 and 4.85% in 1976-1986. The average rate for the whole country was 2.9% for the first decade and 3.4% for the second. Comparison between these rates suggest that in the first decade there were some emigrants from the area explaining the net 0.9 % decrease below the national rate, but in the second decade it has received immigrants from other areas, explaining the increase which is 1.45%

higher than the national figure. Table 6.3.4. shows this data for the last two decades. These data are for the whole district, but could be extended to the area under study, because the effective conditions for living are similar.

*Table 6.3.4. Population movement in the district:*

<i>Description</i>	<i>Periods</i>		
	<i>1966-1976</i>	<i>1976-1986</i>	<i>1986-1996</i>
<i>Increase rate in the district</i>	2.02 %	4.85 %	3.60 %
<i>Normal increase rate in the country</i>	2.90 %	3.40 %	2.35 %
<i>Emigration Or Immigration</i>	-0.90 %	+1.45 %	+ 1.25 %

The figures demonstrate how much improvement potential could be found in the area. It has been able to absorb more residents and provide jobs for them especially in farming and fruit gardens. Adequate water and high quality farmland, along with very good access to the sea for the export of agricultural products to the southern Persian Gulf countries, are the other reasons that keep the people there and encourage other agricultural workers to come to the area. The special climatic conditions provide agricultural production twice each year, so when normally farmers in other regions have no crops, in this area the workers are busy the whole year. Jaghin is made up of two village groups of 8 small villages that have their own names, but all fields connect to each other, one group is recognised as North Jaghin, and the other complex is located to the south of the Jaghin river, called South Jaghin, containing another 8 smaller villages.

The ethnicity in the area is Arab and Balouch, and usually families have relations in most other villages in the area, for instance the 8 settlements in North Jaghin can be recognised as 8 sites for 8 large families, most of them have a surname which is the same as the area in

which they live. Until the previous decade these two parts of Jaghin, were recognised as one village, that is now politically separate, North and South. The target in this field study is North Jaghin. The area occupied by this village is estimated at 350 Hectares, with a population density of 19 persons per Hectare. The houses usually are separate from each other, set among the gardens and farms, distributed in a large area. Such a village site works as a rural district in itself, providing the necessary services for such a distributed population. It needs planning for better efficiency and for organising the existing possibilities and resources for the best usage.

This is a valid reason for planning in order to change the situation, and to create an established programme to continue creating good conditions to make the area attractive to its inhabitants.

### **6.3.1. Decision to plan:**

This area has very good agricultural potential and during the last decades has absorbed many people as immigrants; Jaghin itself is the biggest rural settlement in the district. In spite of positive conditions for economic activities, from the view of evaluating the services that were provided for residents, the area is one of the regions of greatest deprivation throughout the country; almost all the rural areas in south and south-east of Iran are in similar conditions. For instance, this area of about 1,5000 inhabitants did not have electric power until four years ago in 1994. The lack of such basic services, with the high increase in population in the area demonstrates how much improvement potential for development exists in the site, and the decision to plan development and provide the necessary possibilities would be helpful to make real improvement in the region. In addition

to the usual size criteria, the decision to choose Jaghin for planning had the additional factor of being beside of the sea and with a unusual population growth rate. Before planning the village contains a large number of small settlements working as a complex rural site. Providing more efficient general services is one of the policy-makers' aims in such an area and would be helpful to improve the use of existing resources for better efficiency. The choice of Jaghin as a key village followed the main aims for providing general services in those centres that are able to provide them in a large scale for large number of rural residents. The population on this site, is almost 8000 persons, that is equal to that of many of cities in the country. The decision to prepare a plan for Jaghin was made by the Provincial Committee in 1988 and in the same year the contract was signed with the planner.

### ***6.3.2. Choosing the Planner:***

Mr Yazdanbin is an Architect from the local area, who applied to be authorised to carry out planning in Hormozgan Province and was successful in obtaining the contract in this case. Being from the local area is a positive advantage, making the planner more able to communicate with the people in the area. They can trust him more, he is one of them and emotionally the residents feel more comfortable to discuss the problems with him, also the planner has strong motivation to do the job, especially for people who are from the same ethnicity group as he is.

### ***6.3.3. Demographic:***

Changing boundaries in the last decades create the most important problem for the

comparisons of the number of residents in different periods and the study of population movements in different decades in this area. These changes are the cause of some confusion in the number of residents in each period, and for any increase or decrease in any specific area, but what is certain is that the population in the whole area has increased during the last years. Numbers of rural residents compared with the whole population in the area has been more than the usual figures for rural area through the Country.

Up to the last census (1986) Jaghin district included all villages north and south of the Jaghin river. The villages (Zones) close to Jaghin were included in its district but with the increase in population over 5000, the last census in 1996, recognised North Jaghin as an independent village. The data that is presented for this site, contains the data for the villages close to the centre of village and the centre itself. The planner is an architect, but the study in the demographic section of the report is very comprehensive about the existing population in the village, district and city in the last period. The problems arise because the population data for the time of planning is provided by the residents or by the Islamic Council of village. This was not accurate, as is shown by the next official census data in 1996 or in 1998, from data produced by the field study.

The data given by the planner are complete and in some areas are more than requested by the guidelines, but there is no clear analysis of Jaghin, and all the demographic study is about the City, District and whole of Jaghin (North & South). In this research the planner's report and study of the existing demographic data has made possible a descriptive analysis, and the current population for 1998 is produced as very accurate, with details for different ages groups and gender.

Data for the population in different decades, according to different sources, are shown in Table 6.3.5. The great changes began after the Revolution. The ethnicity in the area is very similar to the other areas in the south and south-west, where the war between Iran and Iraq happened, so it would be a probability that a number of residents came originally from the sites that were affected by war. Also the exchange rate between the Iranian currency and foreign currencies improved. Some areas like this, with a great amount of high quality farmland and with the easiest access to the sea for export to the Arabian countries in the south of Gulf, became more than usually attractive because the interest for investments in agricultural activities became high. These economic changes and activities are the important facts that could be the reason for the increase in population up to 16.5% between 1976-1986. As Table 6.3.5. shows, the village has been faced with 3% decrease in 1966, but this process has been changed to a massive increase up to 16.5% in 1976, followed by 4.1% in 1986, and if the whole three decade from 1966 to 1996 be taken into account, the village has had an increase of 3.6%. it seems the planner without investigation in the reasons for such strong changes, chose the increase rate of the last two decades which has been 6.3%, as proposed increase rate for the future, period of planning, that has not been happened.

The real significance of these figures is in comparison with other rural areas. It is a fact that many areas have had a population loss throughout this period. Also the usual increase rate for rural areas in the whole country is around 3.5 % in the last decade and with some control policies in the country this is currently around 2.5%. This means that, after the Revolution, this village has been attractive to many immigrants.

Table 6.3.5.. Jaghin's population 1966 – 1998\*

Periods	1966	1976	1986	1989	1996		1998	2000	2000
	N&S	N&S	N&S	N&S	N	S	North	North	N, Planner
Population	1770	1120	5182	5850	5515	7493	8036	8625	10780
Increase or Decrease rate	-3%	16.5%	4.1%	--	3.6 %		3.6 %	3.6 %	--
	6.3 %				6.3 % Planner Proposal				

\* Generally all the data from the census are provided for North and South Jaghin in 66 – 86, divided for the two Jaghins, based on local information for better consideration of the situation for North Jaghin which is the case study within this research. Population in 1996 is divided for North and South.

1989, This is the data that were provided to the planner;

1998, This data is collected at the time of field study;

8,625 This would be the population of Jaghin at 2000, if the increase rate for 1998 – 2000 is as it was during the last 8 years;

10,780 This is the forecast of the planner for the year 2000.

In the field study it was possible to collect accurate population data with details of age, sex, education, to give a more accurate view about the present situation in the village, almost 7 years after planning. These data are shown in Table 6.3.6. and graphically their distribution for different ages groups, and sex also are shown in Figure 6.3.3. As it is shown in Table 6.3.6. there are 240 children under 1 year old, indicating a high birth rate. Only 18 deaths in the last year, so the natural increase in the last year has been 222 person or 2.85%; compared with the increase rate in the village this shows that in last year there were 57 immigrants or 0.75 % of the village. According to Figure 6.3.3. and Table 6.3.6. 60% of the population are under 20 years old. If the village is not able to absorb them they will have to leave in the future to search for employment but this can also be recognised as positive economic potential in the village and plans should be introduced to provide services and employment for the increasing population.

The other point from the planner's report is the forecast of future population. It is forecast to increase at 6.3% for the period of planning (10years), this would mean a population of 10780 for year 2000, with 8625 in 1998 (the time of field study). According to the site investigation, the current population in North Jaghin is 8036. The difference is 589 person and probably two factors could be the cause of this wrong forecast. One could be the changes in the boundaries and the other could be the unusual rate of increase between 1976~1989, which the planner considered would continue for the next decade, but which has not happened.

Table 6.3.6. Demographic information (1998).

Age	male	Female	Total
0-1	128	112	240
1-4	555	539	1094
5-9	725	729	1454
10-14	544	553	1097
15-19	474	488	962
20-24	334	287	621
25-29	280	258	518
30-34	175	208	384
35-39	200	174	374
40-44	170	136	306
45-49	122	113	235
50-54	77	89	166
55-59	79	87	166
60-64	88	74	162
65&Over	142	115	257
TOTAL	4073	3963	8036

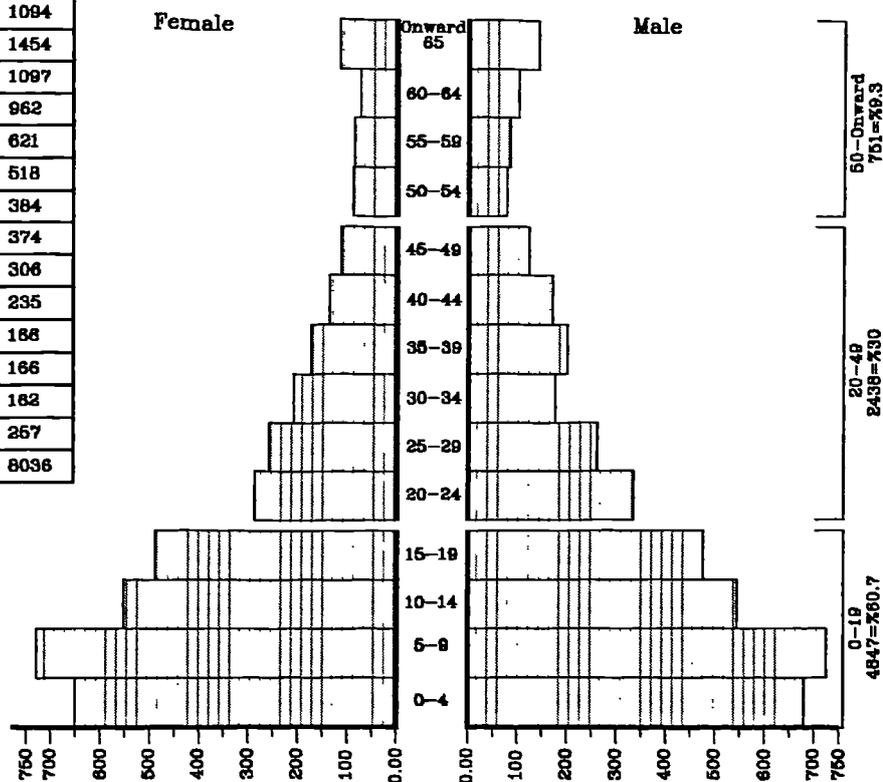


Figure 6.3.3. Population of North Jaghin (1998),

Another interesting point in Table 6.3.6. is that the gender ratio in the groups 20-24 and 40-44 is around 1.25 and for 25-29, 35-39 & 45-49 about 1.10, but for 30-34 is only 0.85. This age is the most powerful period of activity for everyone and men in this age are relatively few. This is certainly because of some recent movement out of the village, and probably out of the country to the southern Arab countries (Emirates). The high exchange rate for foreign currencies encourages residents to work abroad, even if the village has a large potential for working and economic activities. The foreign income is higher and access to these countries is very easy.

#### **6.3.4. Education:**

In spite of having a large and rapidly growing rural population Jaghin has been faced with the lack of basic services; perhaps the most important shortage is educational spaces. These conditions, as well as the low potential to generate family income in such societies, are the reasons why young people do not have the motivation to go to school and their families do not encourage them to do so. Additionally is the fact that there are restrictions for girls according to religious beliefs and bias in the family and often they have to stay at home and rarely continue their education for further study in High School or even Middle School. This is the reason why females in rural areas can often only read and write. Table 6.3.7. shows the number of boys & girls of school age in each stage and the number of students at the time of planning or who were studying at the time of the field study.

The number of students in 1986, studying in 5 primary Schools and 2 Middle schools, was 702, or 27% of all the children in these ages. Percentages of students to total children in

these ages are very interesting. 49% in Primary School, decrease to 36% for the boys of Middle School age and only 9% for the girls. There was no report for the number of High school students, who probably study in the cities in the area. This could demonstrate the degree of cultural poverty in the village, although some of these lack of motivation, but usually many families can not afford it. The number of students seems to have increased from 702 to 1036 in 1998, but the physical facilities have not changed.

*Table 6.3.7. Persons of school age and students in Jaghin 1986 & 1998.*

Year	Age	School age		Middle School age		High School age		Total
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
1986	Gender							
	Population	527	530	395	402	344	355	2553
	Students	522		144	36	—	—	702
1998	Population	725	729	544	553	474	488	3513
	Student	718		198	49	71	—	1036

According to the planner's analysis of educational possibilities in the area, he had planned the establishment of two new High School and one Middle School, specially for girls. But according to the field study in 1998, the number of spaces has not changed; however with increasing numbers of students, some of the schools accept students two times a day and try to use the exist facilities more efficiently. A new High School was established for boys, using the old primary school building. Another change after planning was to establish one full-time boarding school in Middle school range for girls, to accept girls from the other villages in area. But because of cultural reasons there is not enough demand for that.

In the light of the agricultural situation in the village, the planner proposed to establish a Technical School in the field of agriculture to train some technicians for the village and the

area, but it has not been established yet. This proposal seemed to be very good, following a realistic idea for improving living conditions through improving the economic activities which are tied to rural life. But it has not been established 8 years after planning.

Such proposals are technical and need more comprehensive study of the possibilities in the region, such as teacher supply, student demand, budget and the other resources that would be necessary and without which the proposed ideas would remain on paper, as has been the case here.

Overall the planner's report has not covered all the necessary information, that is usually necessary for analysis of education and training. It is brief and limited to some description of the existing situation, without investigation, conclusions, or recommendations about why inhabitants do not have strong motivation for education. The planner's proposals in the report are not supported with logical analysis, concluded from data, there are no reasons or proof of the need for them. It seems they are based on the planner's experiences or his impressions of the demands of inhabitants. The important point in such communities is that usually nothing happens unless it is programmed by the agencies responsible for implementation.

These problems are so widespread that only the "special situations" or which are politically "hot issues" are on the agenda. Decisions like establishing a high school or a boarding school, need strong demand and the support of inhabitants in each site, and it would need to be strongly supported by self-help of the inhabitants, as well as meeting the other legal conditions such as the number of students.

So a clear analysis to prove the need is necessary; but even this is not sufficient and the residents themselves and their actions would be the major factor to speed up the process or even prevent it happening. This would be the right answer to how to fulfil the aims.

### **6.3.5. Economic:**

The economy of this village is based on agriculture and related activities. Although the farmer families have decreased in number (Table 6.3.8.), the high quality of the farmland creates permanent work conditions for farm-workers and this is the cause of increasing population during last decades. The development of agriculture has been the cause of growth in other related activities, such as marketing, export, packing and transportation. Investment is necessary for more efficient farming, and usually large land owners in area like to control the process of farming and production, so without new technology, they need more farm-workers. This would be one of the reasons for immigrating to the village. Investment by a limit number of wealthy families would be another reason for the decreasing number of farmer families through the last decades in spite of the increasing area of farmland.

The Jaghin river with a flow of 500 litres per second, irrigates 560 Hectares of farmland directly and there are hundreds of medium-wells for mechanical irrigation in the plain. Wells of moderate depth 30m have increased from 200 in 1988 to 252 in 1998 along with the development of more farmland. This is in addition to a large number of diesel and electrical motor-pumps for irrigating the lands higher up from the river. Table 6.3.8. shows in 1990 more than 57% of the agricultural lands were cultivated for farming and only 43%

were fruit gardens, these figures has been changed to 93% fruit gardens and only 7% for farming in 1998. A large consumer market for fresh fruit in the Emirates in the south Persian Gulf is the strong economic reason for the dramatic change from farmland to fruit gardens. The amount of land which is cultivated is used for sheep and cattle. The number of animals in the village is 2795 sheep and goats, 560 cows, almost every family keeps a couple of cows for family needs and only 8 families keep cattle as a economic activity, each owning about 200 cattle.

The planner's report includes assessment of water supply for drinking and irrigation, the river, wells, and its quantity and quality, for economic activities. But the report almost all refers to existing conditions and does not provide analysis and conclusions about proposals and proper forecasting of the people who could be absorbed in the future. Collecting the existing data and classifying it is a necessity for the planner to make the proper analysis, and it should be used for necessary calculation and to address questions like how much? how? and by what processes could the existing conditions be improved? The response should be the guideline for the future of the village, defining its capability for immigrants, proposing the necessary services for programming and a plan for the physical land use. This process is not visible in the planner's report.

The other weakness is about the statistical information. The planner depended on census data in 1986 and the information that he obtained from interviews with the experts in the village. The most recent census is not accurate and is not a strong base for analysis and for making decision for programming the future.

Table 6.3.8. Agricultural facilities and changes. (1988~1998)

Specifications															
Years	Number of Farmers families	Irrigation					Cultivated Lands		Instrument Machinery		Animals				
		Moderate depth well	Qanat	Permanent River	Spring		Farms*	Gardens*	Tractor	Tiller	Carrier		Cows	Sheep & Goats	
					Permanent	Season					Horse	Donkey			
88	824	200	1	1	2	--	--	13	--	7	153	420	1590		
90	--	210	1	1	2	--	280	395	--	--	9	200	2350		
93	628	236	1	1	2	--	122	490	48	2	13	300	524	2546	
98	523	252	1	1	2	--	50	675	54	3	24	560	560	2795	

The other weakness is about the statistical information. The planner depended on census data in 1986 and the information that he obtained from interviews with the experts in the village. The most recent census is not accurate and is not a strong base for analysis and for making decision for programming the future.

As Table 6.3.8. shows, the area for farmland in 1990 was 675 Hectares, but this was more than the amount reported in the agricultural census data of 1993, so almost certainly the figure for 1990 is not accurate. The recent figure of 725 Hectares in 1998 makes it obvious that the amount which is presented 1990, based on local information contains some mistake. This example could be extended to all the data collected at the time of planning (1990) which is presented in the report.

### **6.3.6. Physical Planning & Implementation of Jaghin**

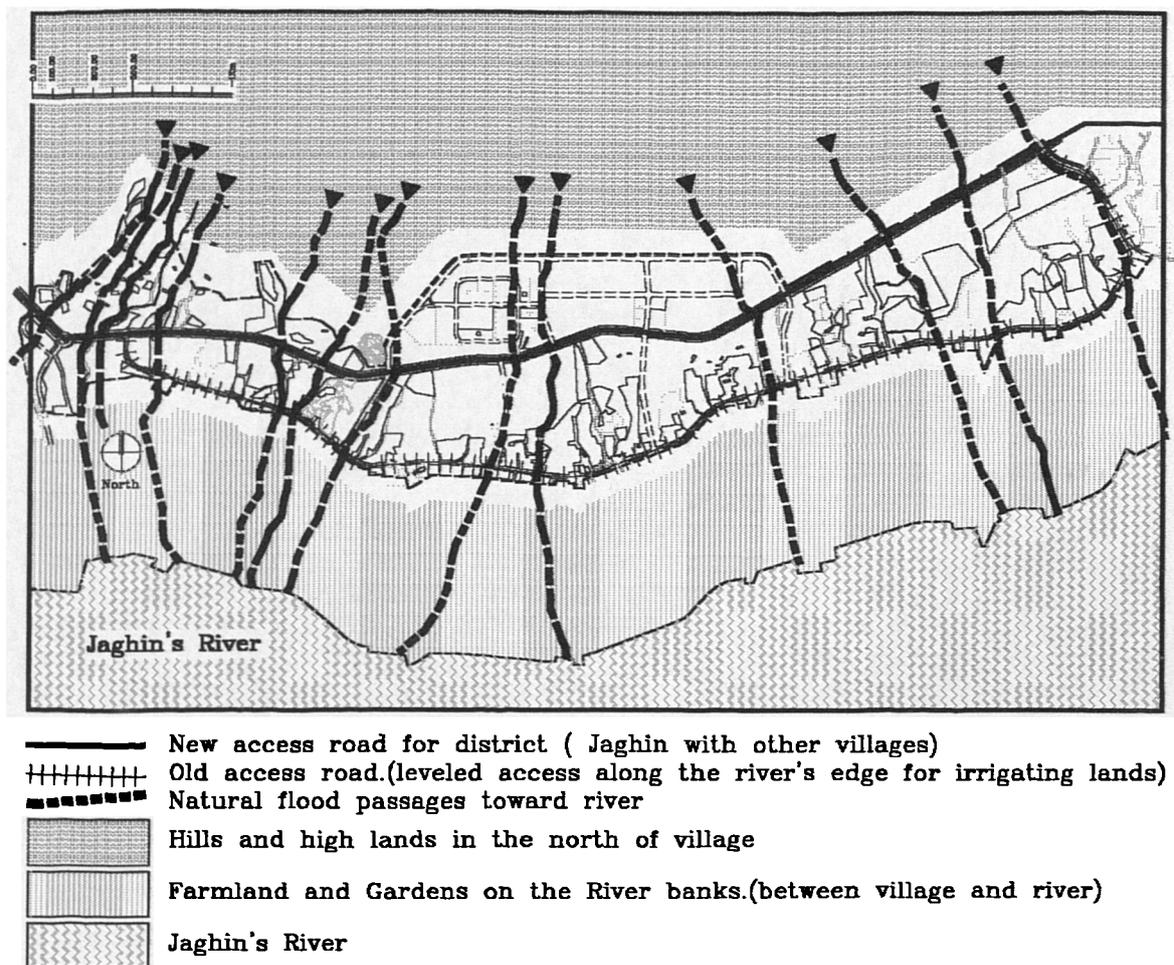
#### *Comparison pre planning and after implementation.*

Jaghin has grown along the river, in a linear form, stretching more than 6Km, but not more than 500 m at its widest. The density of population is only 19 person per Hectare, because big farms and gardens exist between the residential buildings, with each house located individually in the owner's land.

Figure 6.3.4. shows the physical shape of the village. The area between the edge of the village and the river is occupied by gardens and farms and the old access road, which goes through the village was leveled to guide the river water, irrigate land in the south and the farms on the edge of the village. This is the reason that first new residential areas were built on land that originally was not naturally irrigated by the river to the north of the old access road. The area between this and the new access road has been filled in by development constructed in the last decade. The new road has been paved by asphalt and acts as an access road for many villages in the region. This by-pass was located through the rural fabric and has become the main route through the settlement. The secondary connections between these two access road are the flood passages which exist along the natural slope from the north to south toward the river. These areas have been chosen by residents as residential site because irrigation in this area needs machinery and with increasing height above the river, but the quality of the land is not so good for agriculture compared with other areas. The need for flood passages has been the most important physical problem for some time with a lot of rain in this region every year, and the natural slope towards the

river has caused serious flood problems. These flood passages are used for access when they are dry.

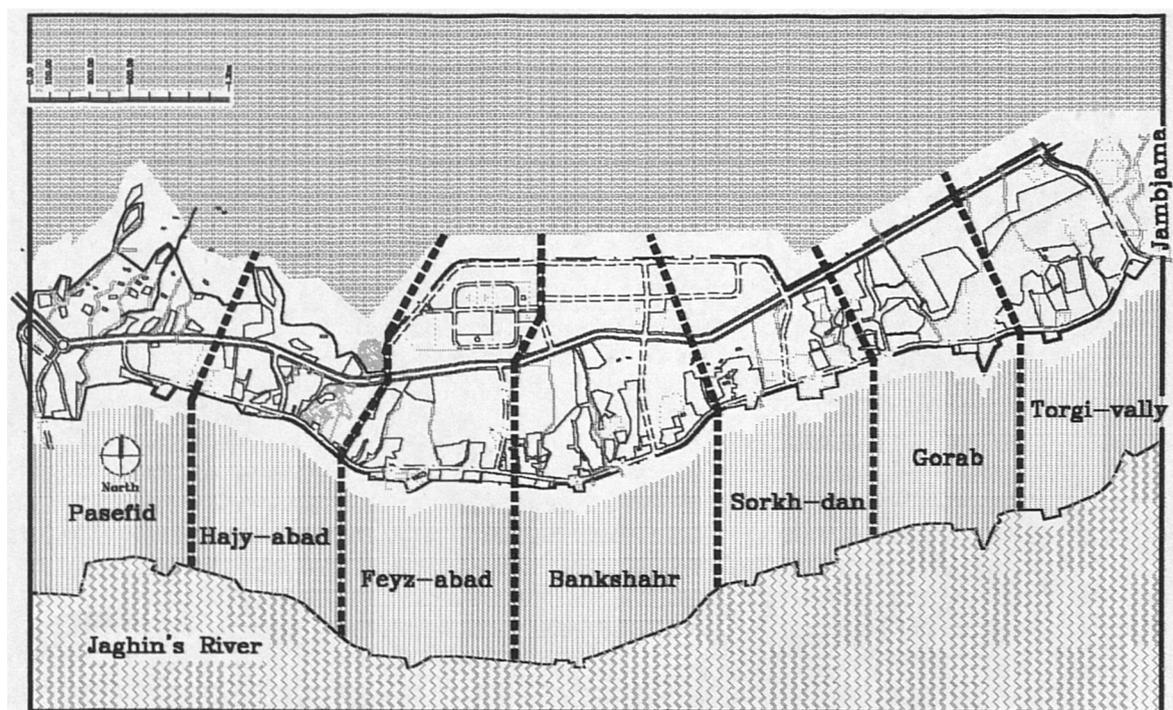
*Figure 6.3.4. Jaghin – Access route in flood passages.*



The planner suggested improving these passages with new barriers and bridges to maintain the old access to cultivated areas. This was another problem, because at the time of rain the old access road was not useable since none of the flood passages had bridges. So solving this problem would improve the site. But with restriction in budget for the construction of such projects and with a large number of these infrastructure activities proposed in Jaghin, it has been obvious that these projects could not be implemented on such a large scale.

Figure 6.3.5. shows the different residential zones in Jaghin, but it is not possible to recognize the settlement as 8 different villages and the physical shape shows it to be a unit. However according to the planner's report, the client (*Bonyad-e-Maskan*) required that Jambjmba, was not to be included and the other seven zones were studied as one site. There is no explanation for this decision. It is obvious that this settlement zone is attached to Jaghin and would not be able act as a separate village. Everything in these sites is inter-related, and it seems natural that the plan should be designed for all the area.

*Figure 6.3.5. Different zones within Jaghin.*



The basic services, such as the Primary Schools, or some shops, are distributed in the area with almost one for each zone, but the other services that usually function at a larger scale are closer to the settlement with the most population. The planner's report presents a land use table which shows the different functions before planning, and the planner's forecast.

One very important fact (which has not been into account) is the distance between the east and west of village, (6 Km) so for some services it is almost impossible or certainly inconvenient for residents to use one single facility. The allocation and spread of general services in such an area is very important, and the other point is that there is a lot of vacant land inside the village area without any defined use.

Each zone has its own services but these are not located according to population distribution, and the plan ignores the fact that these general services could be calculated according to the population and to standard distances for residents.

Jaghin's fabric is very low density (19 person per Hectare) because there are many farmlands and gardens and physical improvements could be made with no necessity for physical expansion; probably this is the reason that in spite of some new functions that are forecast by planner, the whole area almost has not been changed. The other important point is that there are some functions in the Table 6.3.9. that do not need any building and only the location and the area will be provided such as the sports area and football ground, or the Friday Prayer space (Mosalla)\* that is a 2 Hectare leveled site. The forecast for 2000 is calculated for 10,780 person, and as was discussed in the demographic section, the predicted increase in population (8 years after planning) has not happened. So the calculations for the land uses are not according to reality, and even if these services

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\**Mosalla*, After the Revolution in all cities and villages there are special spaces for people to attend for Friday prayer and the local Imam's speech.

were constructed, or established, they would not be in the right scale. If all the forecasted figures are changed according to 8625 person at 2000 (based on the current population in 1998 and continued change to 2000) the differences in land use areas would be considerable.

*Table 6.3.9. Different functions area, before planning, and forecast for 2000, ten years after planning*

Land Use Function	1990 Time of planning			2000 End of Planning Period		
	Area*	Per Person**	%	Area*	Per Person**	%
<i>Residential Areas</i>	100.53	171.80	32.8	131.50	122.00	43.4
<i>Educational areas</i>	2.52	4.30	0.80	6.90	6.40	2.30
<i>Clinical and health</i>	1.03	1.80	0.30	1.93	1.80	0.60
<i>Green Area and Recreation</i>	---	---	---	2.40	4.10	1.50
<i>Commercial</i>	0.04	0.07	---	0.55	0.50	0.20
<i>Sport</i>	1.09	1.90	0.40	2.28	2.10	0.80
<i>Religious and Cultural</i>	0.67	1.10	0.20	1.20	1.10	0.40
<i>Administrative</i>	0.32	0.50	0.10	1.65	1.50	0.50
<i>Police</i>	1.59	2.70	0.50	1.65	1.50	0.50
<i>Infrastructures services</i>	---	---	---	2.40	2.20	0.80
<i>Industry and Workshops</i>	---	---	---	1.60	1.50	0.50
<i>Access (Roads &amp; streets)</i>	19.49	33.30	6.40	33.20	30.8	10.90
<i>Vacant Lands &amp; Flood passages</i>	99.95	170.90	32.60	41.80	38.80	13.80
<i>Farm lands &amp; gardens</i>	77.78	133.00	25.40	58.80	54.50	19.40
<i>Reserves</i>	---	---	---	9.85	9.10	3.20
<i>Mosalla, (Friday pray place)</i>	---	---	---	2.00	1.90	0.70
<i>Cemetery</i>	0.80	1.40	0.30	0.80	0.70	0.30
<i>Old Castle</i>	0.73	1.20	0.20	0.73	0.70	0.20
<b>Total</b>	<b>306.54</b>	<b>524.00</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>303.24</b>	<b>281.30</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Planner's report. (1990, P 261) \* The calculated area for functions are in Hectares.

\*\* The calculated area per person is in Square meters.

The other point is that the planner has included the flood passages area with the vacant land. These could not be considered similar and should not be taken into account in same manner. It would be logical if the planner had suggested some new functions for land inside the site, but the only change in flood passages were limited to upgrading them, for better safety and efficiency. The lack of analysis is obvious throughout the report; also there are several pages before the land use table but there is no explanation or supportive reasons for

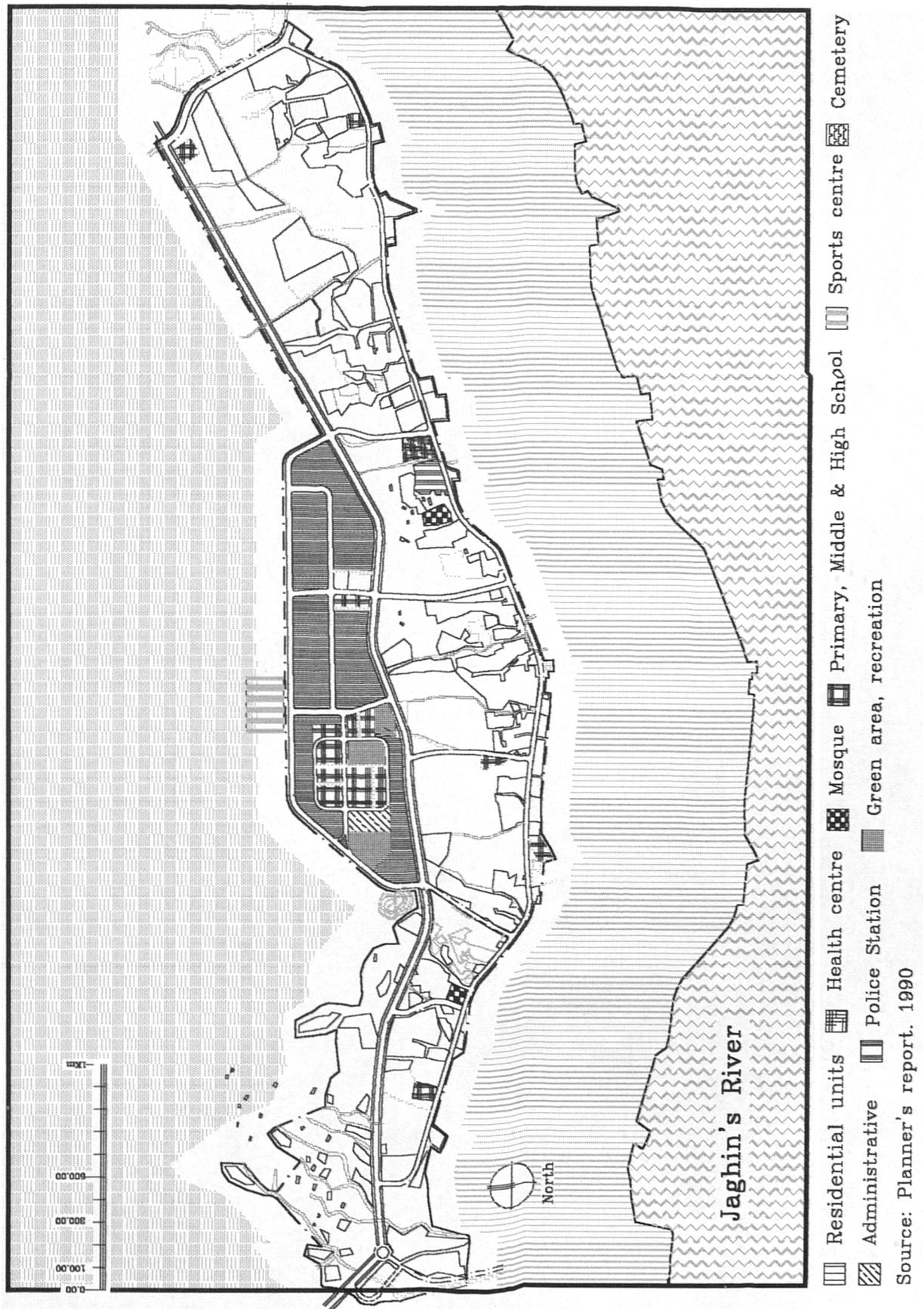
choosing the figures for the proposed land uses.

It seems these figures are based on the planner's personal knowledge of the site and situation. There is no logical allocation for some functions in particular. The distance between east and west is not taken into account, and there is no logical distribution of different services according to the population of each zone. The most important reason for such distribution of houses and residential areas is the land ownership, as well as the high quality farmland. So there is no strong motivation for the people to gather together, but probably when the number of land owners is reduced and most farmers are employees, this will prevent more linear extension. For health facilities, at the time of planning, there was one clinic and a health centre that deals with family health, children and population control. After planning there are two more health centres, but there is no improvement of the clinic facilities in quantity or quality.

According to Table 6.3.9. the area for farms and gardens has been reduced to 58.8 Hectares from 77.78. There is no explanation of this or anything that can indicate the new functions for these areas or explain what is going to happen to these. Overall it seems the existing information and data which were collected by the planner were not relevant to the proposals presented in the report.

Figure 6.3.6. shows the planner's land use plan following Table 6.3.9. According to the field study and visiting the site, except for some parts of the southern road which have been paved and leveled, and some of the flood passages which have been bridged, there has been no physical activity throughout the village.

Figure 6.3.6. Planner's land use plan.



Why has this plan been reported as an implemented plan? This is another problem that probably has organisational reasons. One of the answers could be that there is no department in charge of monitoring and evaluating the activities of relevant organizations in this field. The branch offices of Bonyad provide their improvement chart themselves, without control, criticism, or evaluation.

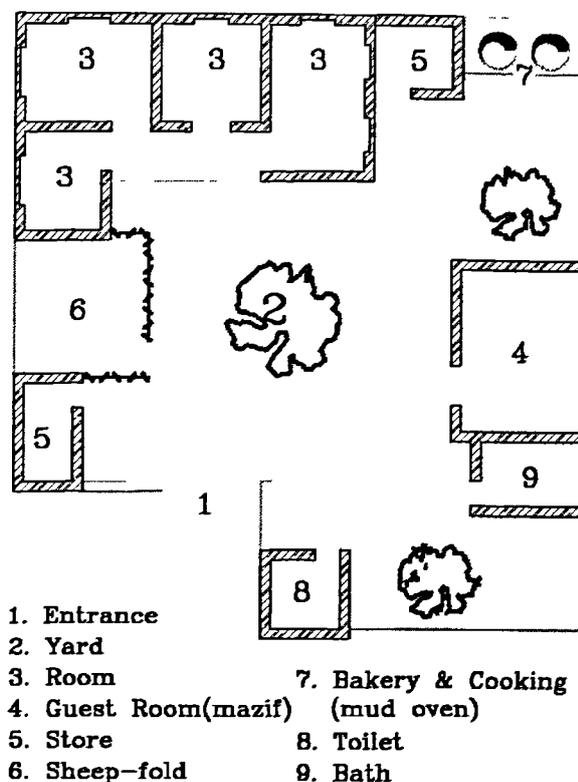
Why have they submitted wrong information? They have to report the cost of projects that they are funding and in reality they report the money that has been spent, not an evaluation of the use of the money. The other reason is that, because all these planning expenses were estimated in the first phase, there is no accurate estimation of the actual spending. So everything in this field could be unreal, and usually does not cover whole projects, and Bonyad have to ask for more money every year. This is another problem that such projects are facing and would be the main cause, why they remain incomplete.

#### **6.3.7. Housing:**

Housing in this village relates to whether or not the owner keeps livestock. This is the reason that almost all houses have special spaces for storage or sheep-fold. Figure 6.3.7. illustrates an example plan in Jaghin. Usually in the south of Iran, in every house there is one room specially for guests, and a space for bakery. The planner proposed to reduce the size of houses from 860m<sup>2</sup> to 300 square meters per family for the future expansion and there is no justification for this, considering the function of farmers house and the spaces which are necessary in the unit. This is another point that has been raised in the other case studies.

As the Table 6.3.9. demonstrates, the density through the village is very low. According to culture and ethnicity usually each family consists of young and old generations living together, so the houses are bigger and usually expansion of accommodation takes place on the same with large properties throughout the rural fabric there is no need for land to be reserved for residential expansion as in the last 8 years there has not been any expansion.

Figure 6.3.7. House plan in Jaghin



### 6.3.8. Budgeting and Economic Resources:

Usually the necessary budget for such projects come from Province's Development Budget, divided between different departments according to their annually programmes. The person who is in charge in the provincial office of *Bonyad-e-Maskan* did not provide any information. The processing of these activities in all provinces is similar. In this case, in addition to the insufficient budget for the projects, there was no self-help by inhabitants according to an interview with a member of the Islamic Council of village; he told me that some local labourers who worked in the projects even got their wages.

As usual all these debates about the budget are in addition to the necessary machinery for

these development project which is provided by Bonyad and there is no overhead charge for that. These kinds of costs are covered by the annual budget of Bonyad. The fee paid to the planner is another point for which there is no official data. But according to my personal experience, having done several planning projects for Bonyad, it would be less than 5,000,000, Rials and probably less than 1% of the total implementation cost.

### **6.3.9. Conclusion:**

Table 6.3.5. shows that perhaps the most remarkable feature of Jaghin is the population change during 5 decades, showing that the rate of increase up to 1986 has been 6.3%. But in the planner's report there is no analysis of such large increase, no search for reasons and it is certain that the village has accepted a large number of immigrants in that period. The increase would be even more impressive if the lack of basic services, such as electric power, is taken into account. It demonstrates that there is a great potential and natural resources in the region, especially in this particular village. It is sign of the strength of local possibilities that should be a base for future planning. As Carly (1980) argues, (section 3.2.) the efficient allocation of the exist resources closely associated with welfare economics, one of the important issues of development planning. But the planner's report focuses on the existing situation, and in the section for presenting the proposals, there is no proper analysis or conclusions about the situation, relevant to the proposals.

The planner's report contains very comprehensive data but the report is very weak in its analysis and in searching for the causes and reasons for these processes. The plan was prepared in 1989, that was 4 years after the last census data, and the planner had to provide up-date data. But this data was obtained from interviews with inhabitants and unofficial

resources. At the time of the field study for this research, almost 8 years later, it is certain that most of the data used by the planner were not accurate or at least not accurate enough to be the base of conclusions and proposals. For instance the predicted population increase for the period of planning, based on the previous decade (1976-1986) has not taken place and the real increase has been 3.6%. although this would be regarded as very high growth compared with other rural areas. But as was explained during this field study report, the changes mostly refer to the strong natural resources in the region, and without correct planning they may reach a peak and stop. Even in this period with 3.6% increase in population, compare with the birth and death in last year, there were at least 57 people who emigrated which suggest that population growth is beginning to get slower compared with last decade. A decreasing rate of increase and reducing expansion seem likely to continue without proper programming and planning.

The other main criticism of the planner's report concerns the economic activity in the village and region, and changes according to the relevant facts in this field. Proper economic analysis for best possible forecasting is a necessity. It is impossible to make proper proposals when the existing possibilities are not taken into account. As J.J.Hindelink (1997) argues, and the idea is discussed in literature review, P,41. the plan should include training of farmers, development of suitable lines of production, providing more suitable kinds of production according to the possibilities. In the planner's report, there is a lot of material about agricultural production, but there is no data or suggestions for future production, or anything about improving the economic situation relevant to agriculture. Farmland had been changed to gardens during the last decade but there is no analysis of

this, in order to search for reasons and make necessary conclusions for the future. Similarly there is no explanation of the situation in which the cultivated area has increased, but the number of farmers families has decreased.

The agricultural income for each family has to be sufficient, from a large enough area, otherwise the farmer, in the long term will have to sell the land and become a farm worker, otherwise be absorbed in the services sector in the village or near cities.

Along with the development programmes, government and local authorities need to support farmers with supportive programmes to keep them informed and help them to improve their living conditions. With progress on different production methods and the necessity for new machines, investment becomes very important, and this is the reason that the big land owners buy up the small units and after a while, they will control the process of production and the future of the region. But with the poor physical conditions in the village, the landowners are likely to move outside the village. In general, it seems that the people who can support changes and progress do not have the motivation, and the others do not have economic possibilities to support the process of change. This is the reason that even before planning there was an approved programme for establishing another health centre in the village, with preconditions of self help by inhabitants, and it took something around ten years for implementation. So in reality there is no positive change produced by planning in the region, and there is no programming or proposals in this area. According to the planner's land use plan Table 6.3.9. a lot of physical changes were supposed to happen but physically little has happened. In this case the period of planning was supposed to be ten years, and now with the passing of almost 8 years less than 20% of planning proposals,

in the shape of some incomplete infrastructure activities, have been implemented. This seems to be the result of wrong judgment at the time of planning. The only physical activity that is visible in the village is the construction of the southern by-pass in the village. As was described before through the field study there are several flood passage that need bridges, and less than half of these have been constructed and the by-pass has not yet been paved. Such a long road, 6 Km long, the necessary bridges and the reshaping of the main inter district route (division between fast and slow lanes) has been in the first phase of implementation. The necessary amount of budget for these two roads would be enough to exhaust two years budget for such villages, so in reality such proposals would be impossible to implement.

Some activities have been done after planning but they were not according to the plan. They would be summarized as below:

- i) Electricity network; it was programmed before planning. It started in 1989, and finished in 1994;
- ii) A new high school was proposed by the planner but it has been established and is running in the old primary school building; to deal with increases in student numbers, the existing educational buildings are used twice per day;
- iii) A new boarding school for girls in the middle school level has been established and is running now. There is no new building for this function and it is located in the old nursery building;
- iv) There is no improvement in the clinical centre, but the health centre that as the result of lack of budget was not established in proposed time before planning, has now been established and is working.

It seems likely that these changes in Jaghin would have happened without planning, and there is no effective contribution made as the result of planning in the site.

The significant point is that there is no self help in this village, even the local workers for some infrastructure activities in the village has been paid. This contrasts with the situation elsewhere in which local inhabitants are expected to contribute labour, materials and even money for the implementation of planning proposals.

*Field Study – Case Four:  
Chashm*

**6.4. Chashm**

Chashm is the administrative centre of its rural district, located in the north of Semnan province.

Semnan is a province with special geographical specifications, its boundary to the south and south-east is the Kavir -e- Lot (desert), but in the north a range of high mountains (Alborz)

surrounds the area and the climate is completely different to that in the south.

Figure 7.5.1. shows the location of Chashm in Iran. Because of the local topography there is no proper access from the other settlements

to Chashm so it does not act as a service centre for the other villages in district.

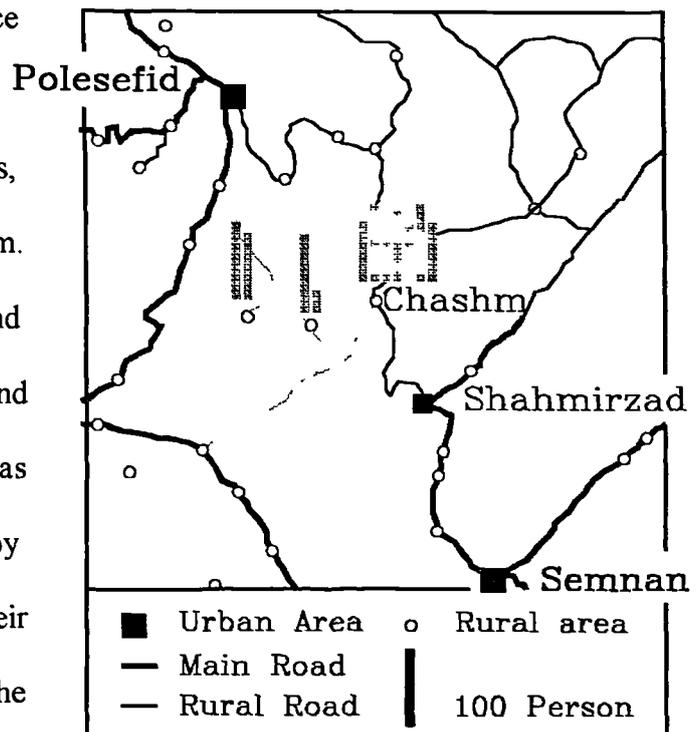
Many services are provided in urban areas, with better access, compared with Chashm.

The site is located at altitude 1700m, and has a moderate climate in the summer and very cold in the winters. The village was established no more than 100 years ago by the tribe who used the area for their livestock during the summer, along the

*Figure 6.4.1. Geographical location of Chashm*



*Figure 6.4.2. Distribution of population in rural district*



seasonal river that passes through the physical fabric of the village.

Figure 6.4.2. shows the rural district, Chashm, and the other villages in the area. Semnan province has a population density of only 4.5 persons per km<sup>2</sup>, because of the large area which is covered by desert, uninhabited, but in the north of province the conditions are completely different. Chashm has a different climate and the population density is much higher than the southern areas.

According to the census data in 1986, 58.7% of the province's population lived in urban areas and 41.3% in rural areas. It is very significant that in this area, the percentage of educated people is higher, compared with other parts of the country. 95.9% in the cities and 93% of the population in rural areas at least can read and write, which is very high compared with the other provinces and the national rate, which is less than 75%. This high rate of educated population is recognised as a strong fact that encourages emigration because the better educated people leave the rural area.

#### **6.4.1. Decision to plan:**

Until 1989 Chashm politically and administratively was one of the villages in the Poshtkoh rural district, but after the new political division it became the centre of a rural district. Chashm had the second highest population in the region and has become the largest village in the area. These were strong reasons why the village should be selected for planning. Also the earthquake in 1989 with strength of 5.8 on the Richter Scale, caused physical damage in the village and made the situation sensitive enough to be on the agenda for early planning.

However it is important to note that this village, because of its location, and the ease of access for the villages in district to the cities and the lack of proper access road to the other villages in the district was able to provide no effective services to the other settlements. But almost all the other necessary conditions for the village to be in priority for planning such as population size administrative centre of district, and earthquake damage were present so it was selected by Bonyad's branch office and the planning process started in 1989.

#### ***6.4.2. Choosing the planner:***

The process of choosing planner is similar in all cases. But one of the differences in this province compared with the others is that it is located only 4 hours from Tehran and this helped Bonyad to be able to find more qualified consultants to do the job. A Tehran-based consultant was awarded the contract for this plan. This consultant *had been accepted as* qualified by the P.O.B and was probably well known in the province branch office of Bonyad-e-Maskan.

#### ***6.4.3. Generalities from planner's report:***

The planner's report forms a reference point and an important part of field study for evaluating progress. All relevant sections of the planner's data have been used, but unfortunately the data mostly are from non official resources and are not accurate. Now after 8 years and with another official census data available in 1996 and with data provided through field study in 1998, it is obvious that the planner's conclusions, ending in proposals for the site, have been made according to inaccurate information, so un-expected results may be expected.

The report is about 200 pages which, as well as being based on the wrong data, is not well organized according to the detailed policy guidelines and the planning process. More than 120 pages contain irrelevant general information about the province, city district and so on, none of which has been used for conclusions, and is not relevant to the planning process and planner's proposals. There are several pages about general rules for building construction, implementation, housing policy, which they are so general that probably most of them would never be used.

To examine the process carried out in Chashm, the relevant sections which will be studied are: demographic, education, economy and physical changes after planning.

#### **6.4.4. Demographic:**

There are a lot of demographic data for the province, district, rural district and finally something about the village in the planner's report. Some of the data that were used in this field study are from the planner's report, but no analysis is presented. For the planner's proposals for the planning periods, only the proposed figures for the forecasted population for the two five years periods of planning have been presented, but there is nothing about the reasons and facts that have been taken into account for making the forecasts.

Table 6.4.1. shows village population in different decades (1966 -1998) and the rate of population change, increase and decrease in the village. The rates of increase during the decade 1976-86 and up to the date of planning (1990) were 3.20% to 3.36%. This is very close to the national rural increase rate, and it demonstrates that there is enough motivation for inhabitants to stay in the village and that there is no immigration to the village. The planner makes no analysis of this issue or reasons to explain his forecasting of an increase

rate in the first five years of 3.3% and in the next period 4%. What has been the reason that the proposed rate in second period is more than the first one? According to the provided data for 1998, the proposed population increase has not taken place and the actual population in 1998 is 1,068 compared with the proposed population for 1996 of 1,100 or the forecast of 1,295 for 2000. This demonstrates at least that the planner has not understood the situation perfectly.

*Table 6.4.1. Chashm, demographic information. 1966 – 1998*

Specifications	Years								
	1966	1976	1985	1986	1990*	1996**	1996***	1998****	2000***
<b>Population</b>	658	571	758	795	904	676	1100	1062	1295
<b>Households</b>	130	114	146	152	174	145	---	204	---
<b>Person in Family</b>	5.06	5.00	5.19	5.23	5.20	4.66	---	5.21	---
<b>Changing Rate %</b>	-1.40		+3.20	+3.36	+3.26	---	3.30%	2.20%	4.00%
<b>Difference</b>	-87		+187	+37	+109	-228	+196	+158	+233

The data for different decades are provided from planner's report, (census data)

\* These figures were provided by planner at the time of planning.

\*\* This is the population provided by census data in 1996; as is obvious, it seems very strange compared with the other decades, before and after.

\*\*\* These are the proposals of the planner for the population in the village for 1996 & 2000

\*\*\*\*The population for 1998 is produced for the field study, 100% accurate from the Health Centre in the village.

The real increase during the 8 years after planning is less than 2.20%, which is less than the natural increase rate in rural areas in the whole country. So there has been a decade of some emigration from the village in spite of planning.

The other point concerns data provided by the population census. This total of 676 for 1996 is unacceptable compared this with the present population of 1062 in 1998, which is 100%

accurate according to health centre data which are up-dated every year in all villages. Some similar inaccuracy seems to have happened in 1976 when that population is compared with that for the decade before and after. This inaccuracy could be explained as the result of seasonal emigration for taking sheep and cattle to other places in the cold season. Usually data collection for each census data takes place in October, and this is the time of changing weather for cattle and sheep when they should be moved to the areas with warmer climate, and usually tribal families move with their livestock.

#### **6.4.5. Education:**

Semnan is one of the unique sites in Iran where people used the old Persian language, the traditional language in this area is based on the Dary Language, which is the base of modern Persian and nowadays is used in part of Pakistan and India.

According to the census data, the population is more educated compared with the other provinces and at the last census the proportion of educated people in this province was 95.8% in urban areas and 93% in rural regions. In Chashm, according to the 1996 census, more than 62% of the residents can at least read and write and this is much higher compared with other rural areas in other provinces. This information is shown in Table 6.4.2. The other interesting point in this village is that almost all children of school age are studying in primary school and middle school and the number of girls is almost the same as for boys; in middle school there are more girls than boys. This is a rare situation in Iranian rural areas.

The number of students compared with the whole population is 21%; almost all the children

of the school age for primary and middle school attend school but for high school the attendance is less than the national average. This could be explained because of the age that young people are absorbed into the labour market and their income is important for their family. Also there is no possibility of continuing education in the village and the few high school students are studying in urban areas near the village. Distance, problem of access and additional costs that are not affordable for the families would be other reasons.

The planner has reported the existing situation and concluded that a new high school was necessary. In the other case studies it was explained that there is no co-ordination between different departments, in charge of different general services such as education and health and this is the reason that, even with an approved plan, usually these functions do not get established in the proposed time.

*Table 6.4.2. Number of students in different educational sections in Chashm, 1990 & 1998*

<i>School</i>		<i>Primary School</i>		<i>Middle School</i>		<i>High School</i>		<i>Total</i>
<i>Gender</i>		<i>Boy</i>	<i>Girl</i>	<i>Boy</i>	<i>Girl</i>	<i>Boy</i>	<i>Girl</i>	
<i>No, of Students</i>	<i>1990</i>	57	58	27	33	4	2	185
	<i>1998</i>	70	65	30	36	11	6	218

This is the reason that up to the time of the field study the proposed high school had not been built. The proposal of the planner, based on a small number of students who were studying at high school compared with the number of children in this age group has been the right decision.

#### **6.4.6. Economic:**

Among the reasons for the creation of the village are the good natural conditions and resources for livestock and the site that had been used for summer movement of tribal society. The economic activity in the village is dominated by sheep and cattle raising. Rain of about 400 – 500 mm each year provides good natural conditions for farming, but there is little flat land. The farm land of the village totals 211 Hectares, 135 of this amount are irrigated and the others are served by rain. In the summer in the whole area there are more than 440,000 sheep and this number decreases to 280,000 in winter.

The agricultural activities in the district shows that 94% of residents in the district are farmers, 88% in gardening but 100% keep sheep and some cattle. The planner's report contains some data on this issue and demonstrates the importance of this economic activity through the area, although data for different periods does not match with each other. The figures individually do not indicate whether the situation is improving or declining. What is obvious is that the planner's data are not gathered from official centres, so the conclusion are not correct. In the last agricultural census data in 1988, there is no information for cultivated lands and the number of sheep and cattle, but two years later the planner estimated the cultivated land as 265 Hectares and the number of sheep and cattle together as 9,342. The statistical information is provided in Table 6.4.3.

The report contains some information about the existence of two electric-powered Mills in the village. It should be strong reason that in spite of limited cultivated land, probably the other villages in the district or even in the region, are using this service, but there is no

explanation about the situation in the report, or anything about the Mill's capacity, the villages which use these services or the scale of production.

**Table 6.4.3. Agricultural facilities and possibilities changes in Chashm. (1988~1998)**

Specifications																	
Years	Number of Farmers families	Irrigation					Cultivating Land	Mill	Machinery				Animals				
		Deep well	Medium well	Qanat	Seasonal River	Permanent Spring			Tractor	Combine	Plough	Tiller	Horse	Donkey	Cow	Sheep	Goat
88	142	-	1	-	1	15	--	2	9	6	--	--	25	65	285	--	--
90	152	-	1	-	1	15	265	2	6	--	8	--	30	70	335	9342	
93	131	-	2	-	1	15	211	2	9	9	67	5	35	73	382	3443	1476
98	204	-	2	-	1	15	--	2	9	9	--	--	40	77	--	--	--

The latest agricultural data shows 211 Hectares for farming land and 4,919 animals. According to experience in other regions, these recent figures should be correct and the problems in the planner's report were probably caused by using data provided by residents through interviews with them. At the time of field study unfortunately I was not able to check this, but if the data provided by planner is believed then this means that the village has been faced with decline. But it seems that the reality would be that there has been no effective social economic change in the village after planning.

The economic section is the most sensitive part of planning study, and the most obvious weakness in this report would be lack of proper recognition of existing possibilities and potential. In spite of strong natural resources in this area there is no effective investigation as a basis to define future activity patterns and the plan does not contain any proposals.

### 6.4.7. Physical Planning & Implementation in Chashm

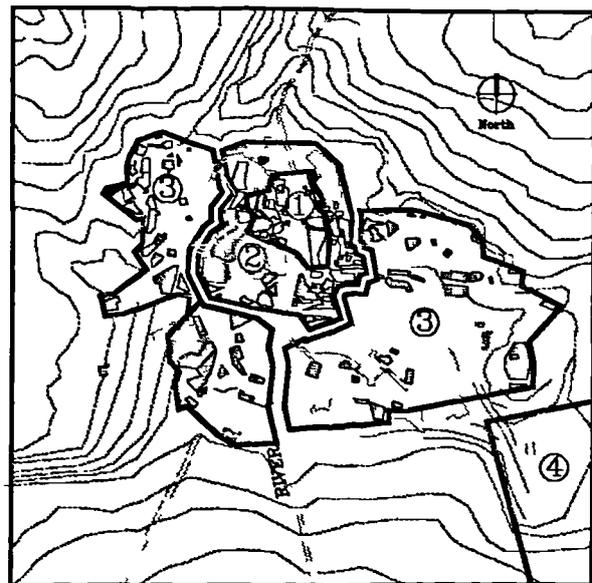
#### *Comparison of pre planning and after implementation.*

Chasm is one of the villages that was founded by the tribal people who used this area for their livestock not more than 100 years ago. The physical development of rural fabric during this period happened in 4 stages shown in Figure 6.4.3. the earliest one and the following stages have been all around the river and all the passages end at the river. This demonstrates how much the river and access to water have been important for choosing the site as a settlement place.

The houses have been built stepped up the steep slopes, and the accesses then follow the contour as much as possible. The first 3 stages were mainly towards the west and south, but the last one, the planner's proposal, is towards the south-east, away from the original rural fabric. The natural condition of the land, with steep slopes and rocks has always been the most important restriction for physical development in the last ten decades. Alleys are narrow with many bends, and are so steep that none of the original ones are accessible by car.

The altitude of the area (1700m from sea level) and the climate provide good possibilities

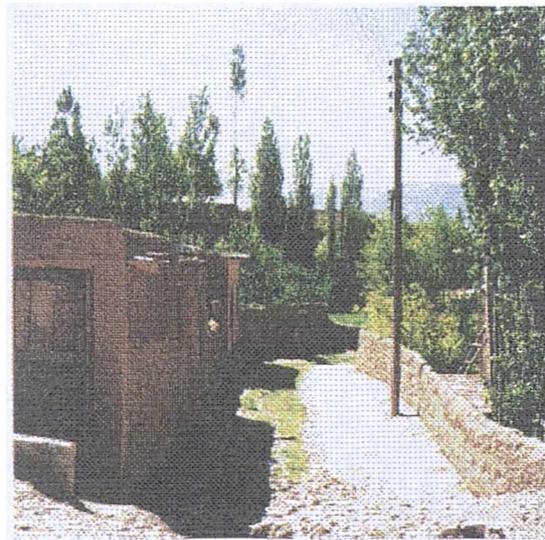
*Figure 6.4.3. Different stages of physical development*



*Stage 4 is the planner's proposal*

for keeping sheep and cattle. It was explained in the economic section that livestock movements in the summer, make the area one of the most important strategic regions from this view in the whole country. These economic activities and the nature of the area have effectively shaped the physical structure of the settlement.

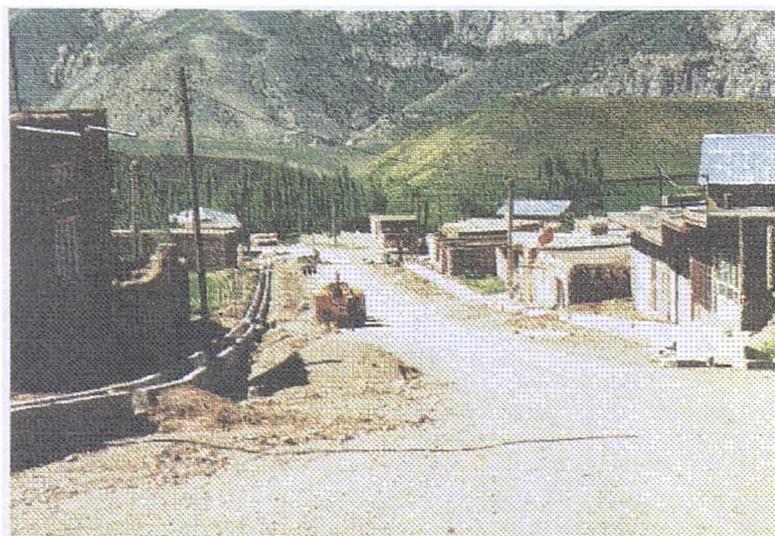
Chashm's function as the centre of the district has been into account for some physical activities even before planning. Drinking water, electricity network and telephone have been installed in the village before planning, but after planning attention has been given to such infrastructure services.



**Figure 6.4.4.**

*Electrical network in old rural fabric. Before planning.*

Figure 6.4.5. shows a main access through the village where a wide street (compared with the capacity and the vehicle movement in the village) has been constructed after planning. This street has not been finished at the time of field study, but the side channels for drainage have been implemented.



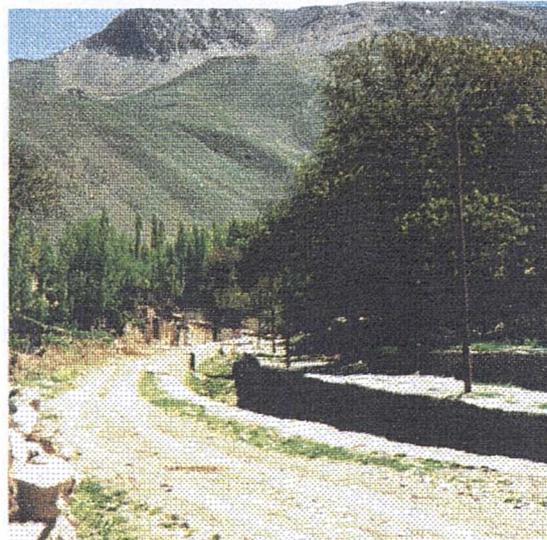
**Figure 6.4.5.** *Physical improvement in Chashm.*

What is the planner's reason for designing such a street in Chashm. The main point is that this wide street in the village takes the people nowhere; it is a dead-end. Perhaps it is the result of an urban view of what would made village inhabitants happy. Such expensive proposals, in the wrong place, would be the cause of unimplemented plans like Chashm, because usually the development budget is not enough to afford such proposals. This sort of proposal, of the wrong type and scale, would cause other proposals to be un-implemented, because most of the budget will be absorbed by a few proposals of this scale. And others, proposals which might be more important for the planning process from the view of implementation, will remain un-programmed or un-completed, without the necessary budget. Figure 6.4.7. shows the plan of the original rural fabric pre planning and its low density. Because of the natural conditions and according to the economy of the area, residents tried to use the agricultural land as much as they can on the slopes for livestock, not for residential purposes.

Educational facilities up to middle school, a medical centre, a cultural religious centre and more than 17 commercial and workshop units were in the village pre planning. During the field study, some residents seemed to think that the results of planning would be to increase the potential of these services and economic activities. In the planner's report there are some tables that calculate the need of different services, improving some existing services and providing others, in order to make provision of the required quantity or quality. All these services have been located in the west of the site, close to the oldest physical centre of the village. One of the planner's proposal were to establish a street on both side of the river to make more convenient access and a better physical shape for the village.

Figure 6.4.6. shows this river in the village. The river barrier had been constructed before planning, but there is no sign of implementation for improving the conditions and new pathways beside it.

Figures 6.4.7. & 8 shows Chashm as it was pre plan and the planner's proposals. There is not too much difference in general services, and the main features of changes are the



**Figure 6.4.6.**

Proposed street through the village and the new boundary of the river. According to Table 6.4.1. the planner's proposals have been calculated, based on the forecasted population, but as discussed in demographic section, the proposed increase has not happened, explaining why the proposed area for new housing in the south-east of the village has not been occupied.

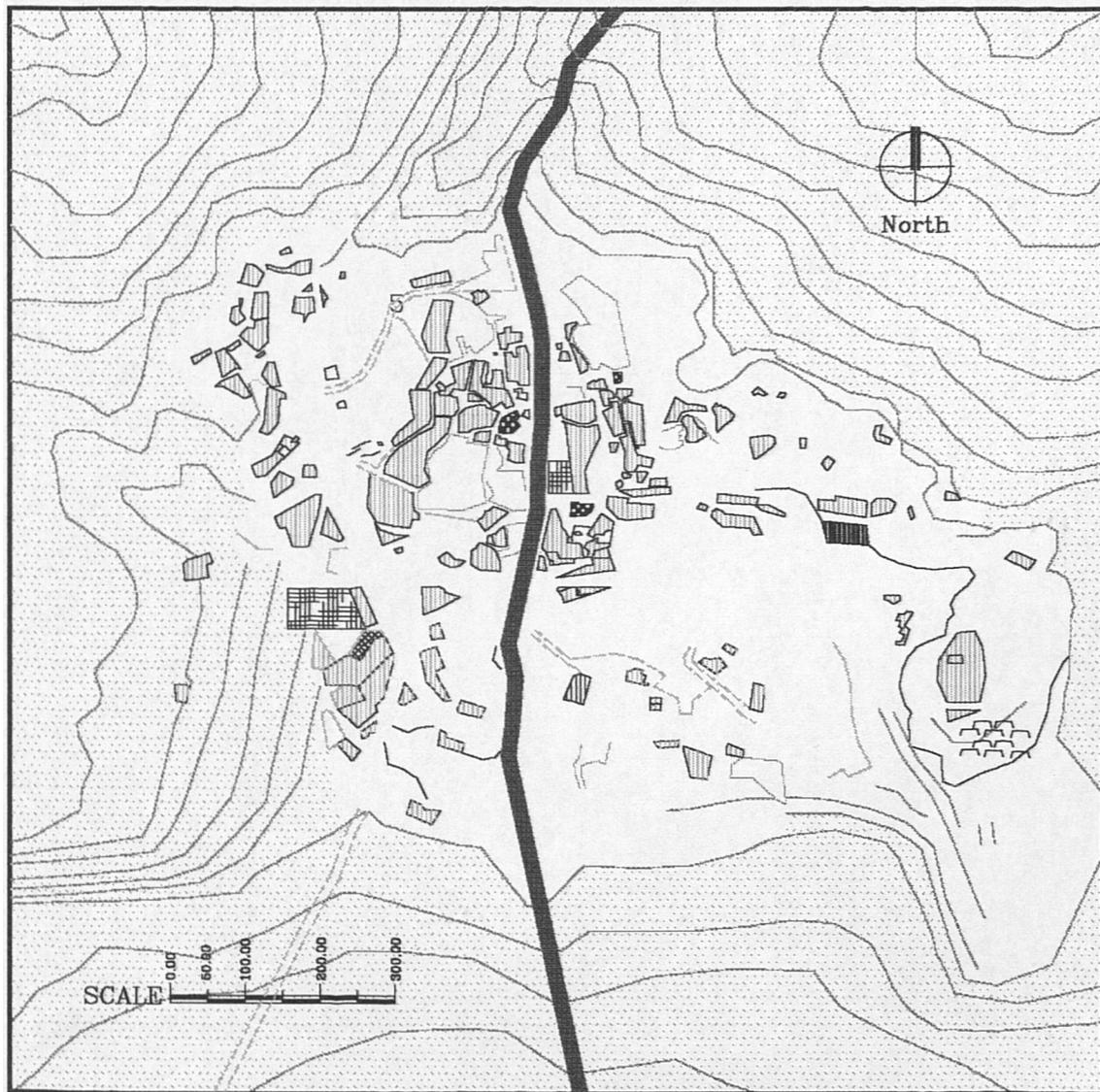
*Seasonal flood passage (River) in the village*

In spite of planning and the introduction of an urban style for reconstructed buildings and the new road, Chashm has maintained its original physical shape even after some physical development activities in the village.

As explained before there were few proposals for new services in the village, partly because of the lack of proper study of all the resources and natural potential in the area and partly because of the lack of necessary co-ordination between all relevant departments.

Figure 6.4.7.

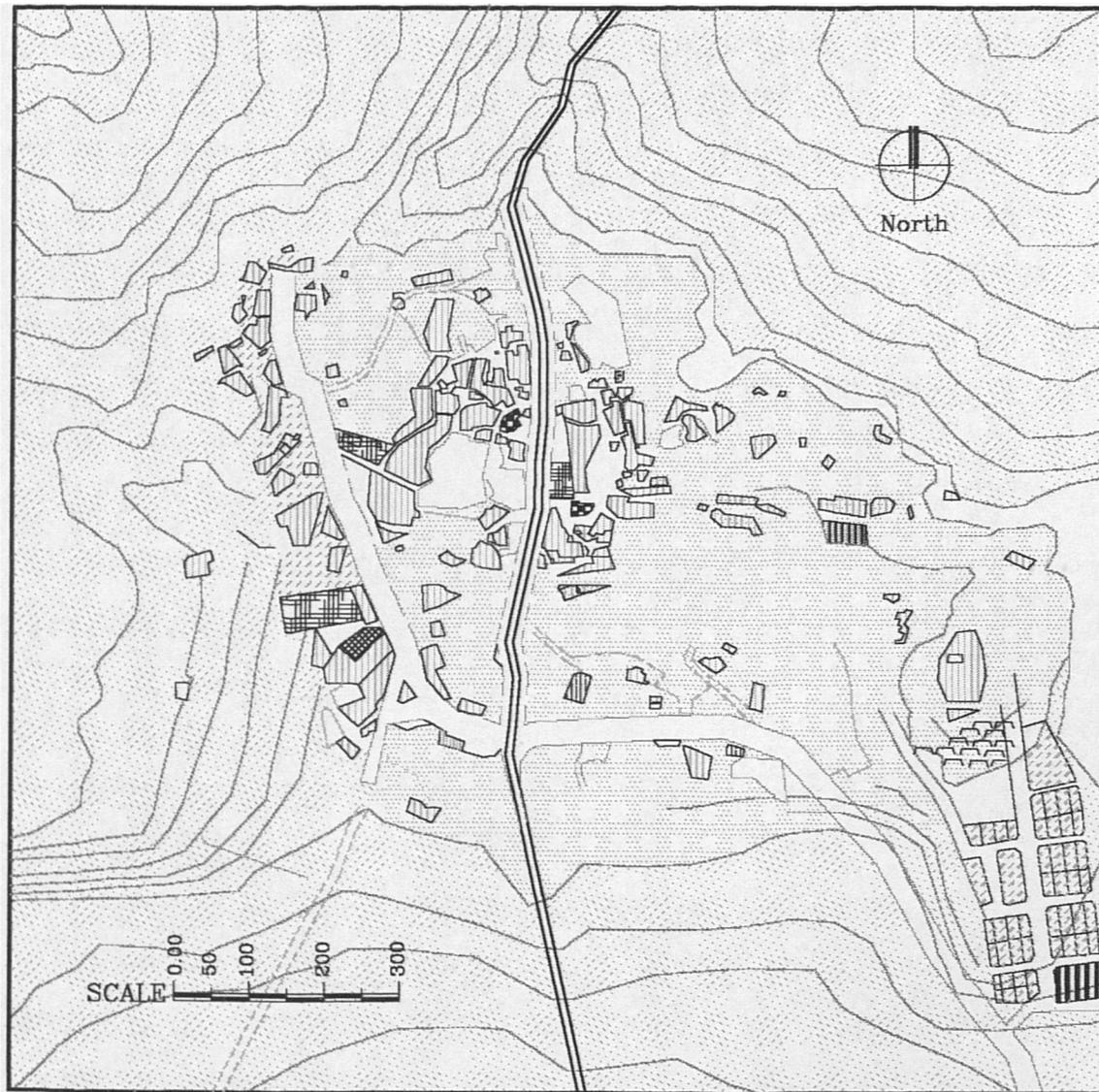
Chashm pre planning rural fabric. dispersed settlement; Settlements land use with economy dominated by livestock-rearing, located on Hilly or Mountainous terrain.



- |   |                         |   |                                  |
|---|-------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
|  | Residential units       |  | Administrative, Post & Telephone |
|  | Mosque                  |  | Health centre                    |
|  | School                  |  | Cemetery                         |
|  | Industrial Unit, (Mill) |  | River                            |

Figure 6.4.8.

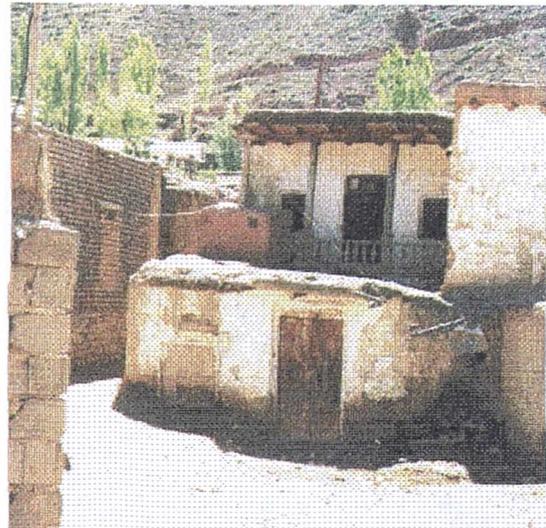
Planner's proposal, Chashm land use plan (1989).



- |   |   |   |                                  |
|---|---|---|----------------------------------|
|  | Residential units   |   |                                  |
|  | Extension of Residential units during the Planning,(Planner's proposal) |   |                                  |
|  | Sport centre, exist space and the planer's proposition                  |   |                                  |
|  | Mosque  |   |                                  |
|  | School  |  | Administrative, Post & Telephone |
|  | Existing Gardens inside the village                                     |  | Health centre                    |
|  | Industrial Unit, (Mill)   |  | Cemetery                         |

Although the organic rural fabric in Chashm is dispersed, the residential units have been constructed in ladder form because of the climate and of the steep topography of the area. All the houses face south for better light and heat specially the very long winter in the area which requires proper architectural design and positioning of the buildings toward the sun (south).

In the planner's report there is no defined proposal for the narrow alleys in the village and in some areas the proposed drainage channels are not even *in the right direction according to* the actual slopes of the alleys. Perhaps this is because an incorrect topography map had been provided to the planner, or because of a lack of specialists to design the channels.



*Figure 6.4.9.*

*Original rural physical shape in Chashm.*

Although the incorrect forecasting of future population means that there is no necessity for any extension of residential areas, but even if it was necessary, there is no explanation for choosing the proposed site in the south-east. In any case, because of the dispersed nature of the settlement, there is enough space within the existing rural fabric for expansion.

#### **6.4.8. Housing:**

Because of the earthquake, some reconstruction or renewal of the residential units had been started before planning. New materials and building systems all around the village are visible and with some planning implementation, these activities have increased.

The old buildings had been constructed with stone, mud and wooden bars. But with better access to the city and improved transportation, new material has come to the village and all the new houses or the others that have been repaired, use brick, cement and metal beams, with sloping roof. Depending on the economic activity of the families, generally two kinds of housing are recognizable. Firstly for the people who work in the general service sector, the size of land and the residential unit is smaller, only the necessary space for members of family is provided. The second type serves families with agricultural activity, contains some storage, sheep-fold and other spaces for agricultural and dairy products. These units, as well as being larger, are in a special form. In cold areas, usually all the space for livestock is constructed under the residential spaces, helping to keep the living area warmer in the winter as well as to be secure and more convenient for the owner.

#### ***6.4.9. Budgeting and Economic Resources:***

For implementation, Chashm has used the provincial budget as well as self help of inhabitants, in the shape of free labour. The money spent for physical implementation has been 275,000,000, Rials. If the values of necessary machinery which has been provided by the branch office of Bonyad and the free labour, provided by the residents, are taken into account, the true costs would be much more than the official figure. The amount that has been paid to planner is not revealed, but compared with the national criteria for such payments, it should not be more than 3,500,000 Rials, less than 1.5% of implementation costs.

#### **6.4.10. Conclusion:**

The first part of this field study report explains that most of the statistical information in planner's report is general and not relevant to the process of development planning, compare with the detailed guidelines that would be one of the criteria for evaluation of the planner's activity.

The time of plan preparation was in the middle of two official censuses and all the planner's data has been provided through un-official sources. Compared with the statistical data in 1996 and the data which was produced by the field study it seems not to be accurate. Because of these data problems, it should not be unexpected that most of the proposals based on these data and forecasts have not been implemented. The great natural potential in the site, and natural resources for improving livestock and farming seem to present a great opportunity for development planning that unfortunately has not been realised. The area has been one of main centres for livestock rearing in the whole country, with annual movement of more than 400,000 cattle and sheep (mostly sheep) demonstrating the importance of area. Programming for such an area should be comprehensive at regional level, relevant to a national programme in this issue, to support all the area, but there is no proposal for improvement in agriculture or cattle in the planner's report. This point demonstrates the importance of the existence of relevant specialists for such national projects. The availability of planners with the right skills and experience and a proper selection process are a basic requirement for success of the national development programme, which as an integrated programming has been discussed in section 3.4. through literature review. The more accurate population study in the village shows that emigration has continued

during these years. One of the points according to the statistical information on economic issues is a decrease in cultivated land between 1990 (planner's report) and 1993 (the agriculture census data), that seems very impressive, but perhaps the data for 1990 which is provided by the planner through local sources were not correct. There is no serious reason for decrease, especially with even a small increase in population, and according to the data (Table 6.4.3.) there were increases in agricultural equipment like tractors, combines, ploughs which would be the result of more demand for the facilities.

The service function of the village in the area is not certain, because of easier access to the city, the residents in the cluster prefer to go to the city rather than coming to Chashm. It is also true that some services are not at such a level to be able to satisfy the people, and they have to go to the city. Most important issues, such as improving local access roads in the district are very important but the need for more effective communication between the settlements in the area has been ignored, and there is no proposal in planner's report about this. Overall like every case, creating positive activity would be very effective for residents to try to improve their living continues, but this is not possible without a relevant programme for all existing possibilities and potential that could be able to create more employment opportunities, taking into account the local potentials. Unfortunately in the planner's report there is no investigation of potential employment growth and no proposals for improvement in economic conditions in the region, district and finally village. The proposals are limited to physical proposals in the village have not been completely implemented, and those implemented are not related to the needs of the area, nor according to the planner's timetable.

*Field Study – Case Five:  
Khamesan*

***Declaration of interest:***

Akhir Consulting Engineers is the firm which was awarded the contract to plan this settlement and I have been partner and manager in this firm for over 16 years. Author's experience with this firm means an intensive involvement in all stages, of rural planning, from making the contract to data collection, plan preparation and the final application to the Approval Committee.

**6.5. Khamesan****Figure 6.5.1. Geographical Location of Khamesan**

Khamesan is located in Soorsoor Rural District in the area of Camyaran District in Kurdistan province. Figure 6.5.1. shows the geographical location of the village in the Country and Figure 6.5.2. shows its situation in relation to the other settlements in the area. Administratively and politically the centre of the rural



district is Yosefabad but all the villages in the east of district are closer to Khamesan and this village provides many general services for them. The main part of the district is located on the high plain of the southern Kurdistan mountains with height range of 1400-1600m. considering the natural conditions, the farmlands have been leveled and cultivated as much as possible. Several permanent and seasonal springs as well as the permanent river

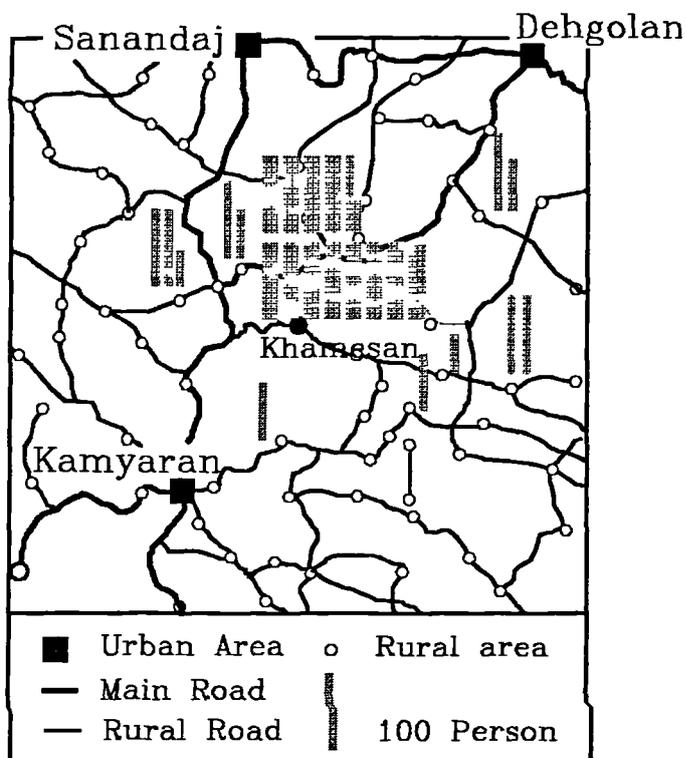
(Gavrood) are irrigating part of the farmlands. All the necessary conditions for farming and livestock rearing are provided in the area with enough water, suitable climate, and good quality farmlands.

The earliest stage of the development of the village was established along the river. Different levels and the steepness of the area mean that only 30% of the land could be irrigated naturally and, with a lack of mechanized facilities, the remainder is

served by rain. This indicates how much farmland could be improved in quality if it was all irrigated.

According to the statistical information there are 51 settlements in the district ranging from between 12 to 220 people. Khamesan has more than 30% of the district population. In order to make clear the existing conditions from the view of infrastructure facilities in the district, 28 villages or 55% of the settlements have piped, safe drinking water; 7 villages or 13.7% have electric power; 3 villages or 6% have public baths and 31 villages or 60% have a primary school and only 2 or 4% have a middle school. These data make it clear that the poverty is wide-spread in the region. Kurdistan is one the border provinces which, after the revolution, was damaged from the war with Iraq and the most powerful opposition group to

Figure 6.5.2. Distribution of population in Rural District



the government (Mojahedin Khalgh)\*.

Lack of safety has been another reason that the government had no guarantee for investment in the area, and the people have been victim of these situations, suffering from poor living conditions and services and with no serious support from the government. Everything is in its early stage of development such as primary school in the village even after some decades of establishment (47 years), there is no acceptable improvement from the view of quality or quantity.

#### **6.5.1. Decision to plan:**

According to the factors for settlements to qualify for planning, Khamesan is a key settlement in the area and so has been on the agenda for planning. The population of the village met the required size and the geographical location in the district, historically, recognized the village as the centre of the district. These were the main reasons for choosing Khamesan. In 1988 this settlement was chosen for planning and the year after the branch office of Bonyad contracted with the planner. More information about the case and the other specifications show that the selection was correct, since it had the necessary potential for improvement, already being a key settlement among all the villages in the district.

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\**Mojahedin khalgh*: These were one of the armed oppositions groups. They started armed confrontation with the Iranian Government in 1981, and after that they became one of the Iraqi supporters during the Iran-Iraq war. Iraqi Government accommodated them inside the country and support armed activities within Iran. They arranged several terrorist activities in the country especially in Kurdistan province after the revolution, before the war was ended. Now the leaders live in France, and they have some military bases in Iraq.

### **6.5.2. Choosing the Planner:**

Akhir Consulting Engineering has been known to *Bonyad-e-Maskan*, as an expert consultant for rural planning, with very strong collaborative contacts on all issues relevant to rural problems. It had experience during the war in fast reaction for reconstruction of settlements that had been destroyed, and doing early studies for rural revitalization, before Rural Development Planning started. Akhir had undertaken 8 village plans in Kurdistan province. So the firm had long-standing contact with the Bonyad and was doing several projects in other provinces as well as the fact that Akhir has been certified by P.B.O and been recommended for research projects to relevant departments.

### **6.5.3. Generalities from Planner's Report:**

There is an effective study of the district and the existing relationships between and with the other relevant villages in the district with a study of the dependent settlements in the district, which clearly have been served by Khamesan, to establish its role as a key settlement in the district according to its history, situation and functions. As described by the planner, the general services which were provided by Khamesan for the other villages, would be classified as:

- i) 23 villages use the clinical services;
- ii) 11 villages use the educational facilities;
- iii) 27 villages use the economic, commercial functions;
- iv) 18 villages use the access road through Khamesan to go to the other rural and urban sites in the area; and
- v) 22 villages use Khamesan administrative, post and telephone services.

This clearly shows that Khamesan is the key settlement in the region, providing a wide range of services to the other inhabitants in the district. This point is one of the important aims of the policy-maker for rural development planning, which was covered in the planner's report for Khamesan. The need for these services was recognized and their scale has been determined to meet the needs of the catchment area. The planner's report was divided into two different, but related sections, dealing with the district and then with the village.

Different ways that could make the village as strong as possible for its function as key settlement have been studied and designed. There is a consideration of the existing services in each village of the district, their population and the necessary services for each settlement, and the planner has designated two second degree centres in the district to support 7 villages each in their cluster. The other settlements close to Khamesan and these two second degree centres will be served by Khamesan. According to this division the necessary services for Khamesan, for the second degree centres and for all the settlements have been calculated in the report. This is one of the cases in which Christaller's hypothesis works well and this is exactly what planner has done. Pacione (1984) discusses the issue and explains the settlements that are suitable for the theory to be applied, as has been discussed in literature review chapter 2. The model demonstrates how the settlements would be connected to each other and how they will be served, covering all the area, with some overlapping catchments and some areas using some common services from different centres.

As will be discussed in the next sections the other main point is about the incomplete implementation of the physical proposals of the planner for the village, partly because of the lack of necessary budget and partly because of poor management and a failure to give

priority in the process of implementation. Construction or implementing some of the proposals in the planner's report are the responsibility of the other relevant agencies and a lack of co-ordination explains some delays or lack of implementation. Once again these facts make clear how much the implementation process needs to be defined and that lack of the necessary agency for implementation and monitoring of the process of implementation is a serious problem.

#### 6.5.4. Demographic:

There is a very comprehensive study of all relevant issues in the demographic section in the planner's report, including district and village levels in the last three decades, and forecasts of the village and district population for two five year periods after planning. The population movement in the district has been very severe, and shows depopulation of the area. The changes have been presented in planner's report and the recent census data for 1996 has been added at the time of field study. It demonstrates that the process of depopulation in Khamesan rural district as a whole has been gradually continued from 20 years ago (1976) and is still continuing.

**Table 6.5.1.. Population in Khamesan Rural District, 1966-1996**

Specifications	Years			
	1966	1976	1986	1996
Population	4741	5323	4019	3080
Changing rate%	+1.20%		-2.80%	-2.50%
Differences	—	+ 582	- 1304	- 939

Table 6.5.1. shows the depopulation of the district, and rate of decrease that has been high during the last two decades and this would be another point that indicates the importance of

the need to prepare a development plan for Khamesan, as a key settlement it is very important to try to stabilise its population and to maintain its levels of service provision. Planning has not been effective or at least not enough to affect the rural district. The planner's proposals and programme state that proposals for the village could not be separate from district, and for progress in all fields, the proposals should be implemented simultaneously with physical implementation in the village.

Of all the cases which have been studied, this is the only one in which the planner's proposal for future population of the site is matched almost with the actual population at the time of field study. This is not because the planner's proposals have all been implemented, but perhaps because the population forecast has been more realistic according to the facts in the area. Based on a strong study and analysis of demographic data the planner made a forecast of the size and number of families. This also required an accurate recognition of the existing potential and possibilities of the site by the planner. The literature review (chapter 2) indicated that the principle that being familiar with the site and people would be necessary for a planner to plan a site.

The demographic data for the village is provided in Table 6.5.3. It contains the population of the village in different decades, including the time of the field study, and the proposals of the planner for two five years period after planning. Through the planner's report there is another fact that makes conditions and character of Khamesan different to the other case studies. The increase of population in the village, compared with the changing rate in rural areas in all country, rural areas in Kurdistan province and rural areas of Sanandaj city generally, indicates that the natural potential of the village is very strong and how important

planning would be to improve the conditions. This comparison is shown in Table 6.5.2.

*Table 6.5.2.. Rural population, increase rate in different political levels in the Kurdistan Province.*

<i>Area Stages</i>	<i>Years</i>	
	<i>66-76</i>	<i>76-86</i>
<i>Rural area through the Country</i>	<i>1.11%</i>	<i>2.38%</i>
<i>Rural areas in Kurdistan Province</i>	<i>1.40%</i>	<i>0.90%</i>
<i>Rural area in Sanandaj City</i>	<i>0.74%</i>	<i>0.20%</i>
<i>Khamesan</i>	<i>1.90%</i>	<i>1.30%</i>

During the last 20 years, in spite of all the crises that have been in the area, the increase rate in the village has been more than the general increase rate in rural areas in the region. This is despite the fact that even before the revolution, collaboration between the Shah and Iraqi presidents had made the living conditions hard for Kurds in Iraq and Iran and they can hardly remember real peace. Table 6.5.3. shows that the increase rate generally for all rural areas has been more than Khamesan during 1976-1986, but the population change in the village itself makes the case special and strongly demonstrates the internal potential that exists. Table 6.5.3. demonstrates the continued increase rates in Khamesan and shows that even with the daily problems that the residents are facing, as much as it was possible, they stayed at the village.

The planner's proposal for increase rate seems to have been realistic and taking into account all the factors, the proposed rate has been 3.40% that is similar to national rural area increase rate (1996). The forecast of the planner has been that, with planning implementation and providing more decent living environment, the process of emigration will stop and the village will be able to support and keep its population and its national

increase. The proposal has been that by providing the new conditions, the increase rate could be 3.4%. But as the Table 7.6.3. demonstrates the increase rate in the first five years period has been more than usual ( 5.00%), and in next 3 years (1996-1999) it has been reduced to 1.00%, but all together the proposed population for year 2001, was 2,530. Already the population in the village is 2541, more than the proposal, and probably in year 2001, it would be more than the proposed population. This is probably due to increasing family size; if more young people remain in the village and expand families, then the population will continue to raise.

*Table 6.5.3. Demographic information for Khamesan 1966 – 1999*

<i>Specifications</i>	<i>Years</i>							
	<i>1966</i>	<i>1976</i>	<i>1986</i>	<i>1990*</i>	<i>1996</i>	<i>1996***</i>	<i>1999**</i>	<i>2001***</i>
<i>Population</i>	1168	1417	1615	1811	2466	2141	2541	2530
<i>Households</i>	242	270	290	288	396	376	380	443
<i>Person in Family</i>	4.80	5.20	5.50	6.30	6.50	5.70	6.68	5.70
<i>Changing rate%</i>	+1.90%		+1.30%	+2.30%	+5.00%	+3.40%	+1.00%	+3.40%
<i>Differences</i>	249		198	196	655	330	75	389

\* Population at the time of planning, provided by planner.

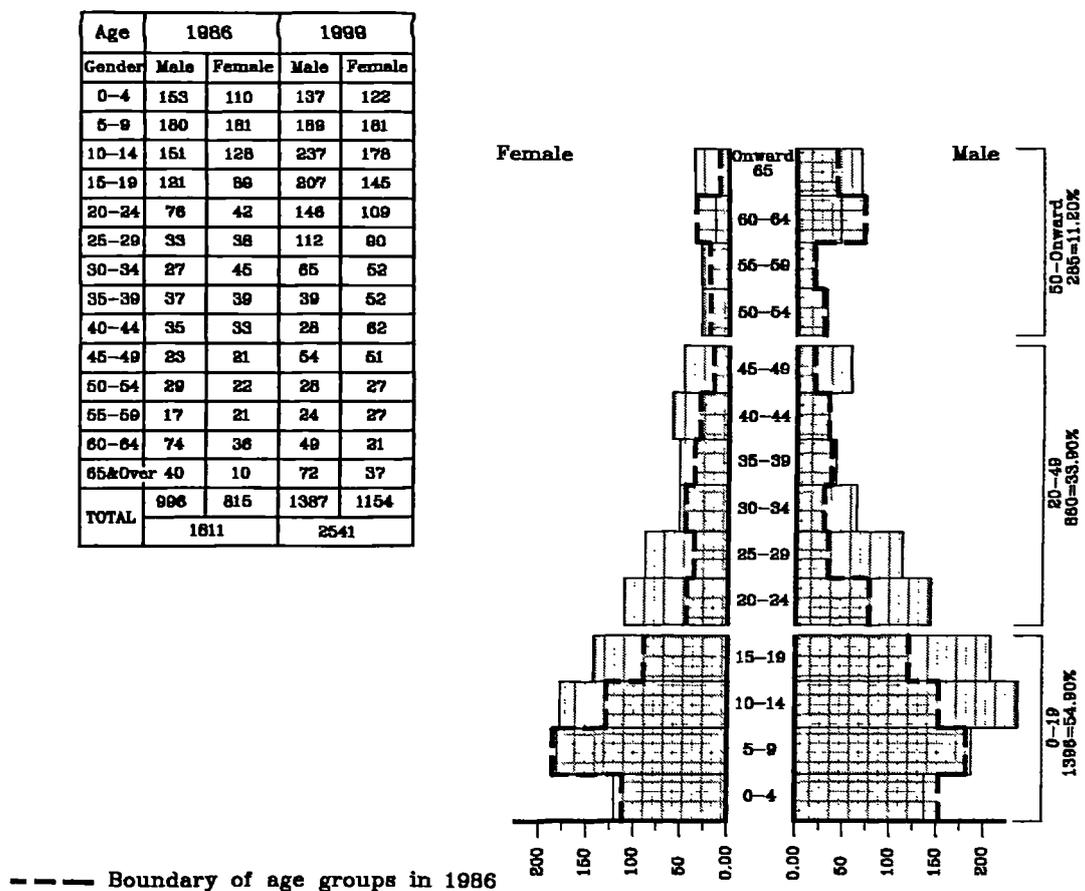
\*\* Population at the time of field study.

\*\*\* Proposal of planner for the two periods after planning.

In the physical section, the problems and proposed improvements will be discussed, but with in-complete implementation and these changes in population, the great potential in the area will demonstrate real change toward growth and the need to be effective to improve the living conditions in this area. The demographic data for the different age groups clearly demonstrates the nature of the population and its structure and the increase or decrease, of young, active and old people, their percentages and changes of these groups in the last decades.

Figure 6.5.3. shows the age pyramid for 1986 & 1999, with the relevant table that presents the number in each age group. The age groups have been into three sections, 0-14 (children), 15-49 (young and active age) and 50 and onward (usually out of economic activity). Normally the active age would be from 20, but it is certain that in rural areas, especially among the males, they start to support the family as soon as they can work, usually when they are 15 or even younger. This would be another effective reason why especially in rural areas a huge reduction happens in the number of students transferring from middle school to high school.

Figure 6.5.3. Age pyramid for Khamesan 1986-1999\*



\* Population for 1999 has been provided through field study.

In Figure 6.5.3. the two period age pyramids are overlaid and this more clearly demonstrates the changing population in different ages and groups. Increase for the next groups (20-49) would be the cause of more employment demand in the area. As is clear the real increase is in groups of 15-49 which would be a sign of progress or at least starting the process of improvement and reducing emigration. The other important point in this Figure is comparison between the number of male and females of economically active age. It demonstrates that if there was emigration from the village, it has been for whole family. The village council stated that 13 families have left the village in this year (1998). But as seasonal emigration; there is almost no temporary emigration from the village.

#### **6.5.5. Education:**

There has been a primary school in the village since 1952. In spite of this, while the rate of educated people in the whole province was 29.1% in 1986, this figure was 21.2% in Khamesan. At the time of planning this figure had changed to 57%. This would be explained by comprehensive teaching in the country in order to give necessary services to all old people to be able at least to read and write, and the great number in the village belong to these age groups (Nehzat Savad Amози)\*. At the time of planning, educational facilities in the village included a Primary School, which was used by boys and girls in two shifts each day, a Middle School used by boys and a building for a High school which was under construction. At the time of planning there were 392 pupils in primary school and 134 in the

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\**Nehzat Savad Amози*: This is an independent organization, established after revolution. The aim is to teach all population regardless of age, gender, ethnicity, to be able to read and write. This service is free for everybody who wants to attend.

Middle School, 72 students of whom were from other villages in the district. 19 pupils were studying in high school out of the village, in Camyaran or Sanandaj. This demonstrates strongly from the view of education that the other sites have been dependent on the village, and if more facilities were provided in the village the settlements in the district will benefit from that and this relationship will become stronger.

At the time of field study, almost 9 years after planning, the high school is not established. The number of students who were going to Camyaran and Sanandaj, has increased markedly from 19 (1990) to 76 at 1999. But the proposal of the planner regarding the existing building to be used as soon as possible for the high school has not been implemented and the proposal for establishing middle schools in two second degree centres in the district has not happened. Table 6.5.4. shows the number of students with their gender in Khamesan at the time of planning and the field study. There has been some improvement in the number of students but compared with the increase in population, this means that a declining proportion are attending schools. Of course the number of children in primary school age is similar to the number of students in school. But for children of middle school age, only 43% are going to school, and this number decreases to 21% for high school children. Part of this is on account of cultural reasons that the girls of Middle School and High School age get married and stay at home. But there is a lack of facilities for continuing education in the rural area and most of the families could not afford more costs, specially for girls who would not be allowed by the parents to go out of the village, out of the family, even if they can afford it. The need for young people to provide more economic support for their family is another strong reason why they do not continue education.

Table 6.5.4. Educational facilities in Khamesan, 1990 – 1999

School		Primary School		Middle School		High School		Total
Gender		Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	Boy	Girl	
No, of Students	1990	242	150	134	—	19	—	545
	1999	210	160	132	48	75	—	625

The Planner's proposals for the new schools in the district, including the two second degree centres, and for a boarding school at Middle School level, that is not yet implemented, could be effective to reduce population movement. The lack of a high school, in spite of approval for the construction of the building being given 9 years previously, shows that the lack of co-ordination between different agencies is serious and can divert the process of planning and its implementation.

#### 6.5.6. Economy:

Agriculture is the main economic activity in the region. Lack of flat land and high mountains causes some limitations and because of the different levels, a lot of farms can not be irrigated naturally, but all the possible land is cultivated, served by rain. The total agricultural land in Khamesan is estimated at around 1500 hectares, with 60 Hectares of permanent gardening (orchards) and 540 Hectares out of the 1440 irrigated and the rest served by rain.

High stoney mountains elsewhere in the village mean that the area is not regarded as very suitable for livestock, because the poor grass cover could not support an acceptable number of sheep and cattle. However livestock raising is the second economic activity in the village and some interesting improvements have been made. It means that there is capacity for

livestock in the area to be increased. Almost all families keep animals, at least to be self sufficient. The agricultural census of 1988, recorded 271 families out of 291 as farmers. But the important point is that according to the criteria used for these data, they recognised every family with 400 square metres of farmland or more as a farmer. This is not a realistic criteria for a farmer family because nobody with 400 square metres would be able to support a family. This is the reason that in the planner's report, in the data for 1990, these numbers were presented as 185 farmer families out of 288 (total families), allowing for those classed as farmers to have enough land to cultivate and support themselves.

The permanent river in the area (Gavrood) is located 5 Km from the village, but because of the differences in levels between the river and the farmlands, water needs pumping ( by electrical or diesel pumps ) to irrigate more farmland. This potential for improvement in agricultural efficiency was recognized by one of the proposals of the planner the yield of the farmland in the area with irrigation is 6.5 tones per Hectares, decreasing to 1.5 for the land which are served only by rain.

An agricultural services centre for the area is located in the village. It was established in 1978, and 650 members from 32 villages have shares in this agency. The centre provides some agricultural facilities for the members but it is not strong enough to support the members on all relevant issues. Such agencies need governmental support and even subsidy in some cases to be able to support farmers. The planner's report describes the role of the centre in the area and has a study of the effective radius of its activity, but makes no proposal. These agencies are managed by the Agriculture Ministry, and all the guidance policies come from the Ministry, although a delegate of the Agriculture Ministry in the

province is one of the Committee members which has to approve all rural development planning. But probably they have no clear idea about the approved cases, the process of implementation and the planner's proposals on agricultural issues. The role is not effective.

The other relevant activity in Khamesan is keeping livestock. The numbers have improved during the last decade, one reason being the increased demand for dairy products at good prices. This activity also is carried out in the traditional way. Some support, by the relevant agencies, and more finance could improve conditions and a proposal for this was made in the planner's report. Several times the other field studies pointed out that a lack of regional programming and of the necessary co-ordination for development programming at national level would be a cause of failure of such activities.

**Table 6.5.5.** *Economic facilities, existing and changes in the Khamesan. 1999.*

<i>Specifications</i>																	
<i>Years</i>	<i>Number of Farmers families</i>	<i>Irrigation</i>					<i>Cultivating Land</i>	<i>Mill</i>	<i>Machinery</i>				<i>Animals</i>				
		<i>Deep well</i>	<i>Medium well</i>	<i>Qanat</i>	<i>Seasonal River</i>	<i>Permanent Spring</i>			<i>Tractor</i>	<i>Combine</i>	<i>Plough</i>	<i>Tiller</i>	<i>Horse</i>	<i>Donkey</i>	<i>Cow</i>	<i>Sheep</i>	<i>Goat</i>
<i>1988</i>	<i>271</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>1500</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>86</i>	<i>135</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>1300</i>	
<i>1990</i>	<i>185</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>1500</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>150</i>	<i>800</i>	<i>2300</i>	
<i>1993</i>	<i>231</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>1500</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>120</i>	<i>120</i>	<i>900</i>	<i>3000</i>	
<i>1999</i>	<i>—</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>1500</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>35</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>150</i>	<i>140</i>	<i>985</i>	<i>3800</i>	

The data for 1999 are provided during field study by interviewing residents.

Table 6.5.5. provides some statistical information about changes in economic conditions in the village. At the time of the field study it was not possible to obtain the number of farmers families but according to the process shown in the table, it would probably be less than 300

out of the 385 families in the village. The sheep and cattle in the village are used for family support and also they produce dairy produce to be sold in near by cities. In case of implementation of the planner's proposal for providing industrial facilities for dairy production, probably more income will be generated for the residents, but this proposal has not been implemented.

The other minor economic activity is handicrafts, producing traditional local carpets. At the time of planning, there were 230 knitting sets in the village, and the planner's proposal was the establishment of a carpet workshop in the village, and in the two second degree centres in the cluster, to create more income-generating opportunity for the families in the area. This has not taken place after 9 years.

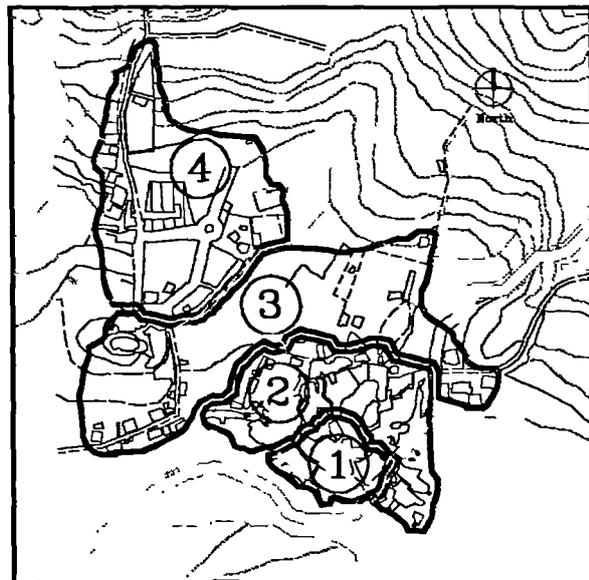
### 6.5.7. Physical Planning & Implementation in Khamesan

#### *Comparison pre planning and after implementation.*

The physical shape of the village at the time of planning shows two different parts of the village, one the old part, and the other, new extension to the north. The old rural fabric of Khamesan was extended in different stages in the past. The first part had been the settlements which chose the river side for living and the old buildings were constructed there beside the mosque, later on it has developed towards the north and west. The final part, as a new extension to the north, accommodates the new services that were provided for the village before the revolution, including the Medical Centre, Public Baths and Middle School. Figure 6.5.4. shows the different stages of physical development, the new part is completely separate from the old rural fabric. There seems to have been no reason to

explain the location of this new area, rather than an extension to the old fabric. Probably this planning was done through a programme for rural development before the revolution.

In the new planning scheme the planner tried to connect these two parts, to integrate, them to make more significant single settlement.



*Figure 6.5.4. Different stage of physical development in Khamesan*

The proposal for residential development in the plan, to accommodate the population increase, has been to fill in the existing gap between the old and new rural fabric in Khamesan. The improvement of the quality and quantity of the access ways was the planner's main proposal and bearing in mind the importance of farmlands for rural life, the in-fill will save the farmlands as much as possible. The proposed streets connect the entrance of the village to these two parts. Figures 6.5.7. & 8. shows, the differences in the rural fabric between pre-planning and after planning, and how the planner's proposal has given the village rural fabric more unity, and it would give it more significance as a planned village.

Figure 6.5.7. shows pre planning rural fabric and it shows that all the services in the village except the high school, were provided before. In relevant sections in the planner's report, the quality or quantity of each service were assessed. The planner's proposals were comprehensive and all the relevant services in the village, as well as the district, were taken into account. According to the existing services at the time of planning, all the necessary recommendations, were made, with a timetable and clearly defined priorities of each phase for implementation. The services that, as a centre and key settlement, Khamesan should be able to provide were calculated. There are recommendations for new services in the cluster, such as Middle School in two second degree centres, which are not implemented and with the necessary building for High School being under construction, a new proposal was not necessary for this. Figure 6.5.5. presents a general view of the village and demonstrates how much the physical shape of settlement has remained rural, in spite of some more urban streets brought to the village as a result of planning.

The beautiful nature of the area is demonstrated in the picture, the residential units are sited to be able to get more sun light and heat by facing the houses to the south, and using the slopes. All the time the traditional experience of inhabitants would be the best guide-line for future development, they have chosen the best according to all effective factors such as culture, climate, economy, ethnicity and so on.



*Figure 6.5.5. General view of the village, using new material for new constructions.*

As a person who has known the site almost ten years, the recent field study, really showed that large-scale change has not happened in the village. Some of the proposed streets have been constructed and paved and access to the old buildings is easier than before, but these were not main purposes of planning, as was explained in the planner's report. Figure 6.5.6. shows the access network, proposed by planner. The objectives for such design, as well as providing more convenient access for inhabitants, were:

- i) Proper connection between the old fabric and new extension;
- ii) Providing more hygienic and pleasant environment beside the internal river and providing new access alongside the river;

- iii) Providing vehicle access to all the sites in the village, with maximum 100 metre walk for emergency cases.

Figure 6.5.8. shows the proposals which aim to integrate the rural fabric of Khamesan by making the two sections more connected to each other, especially by the development of the proposed extension area, for new residential units.

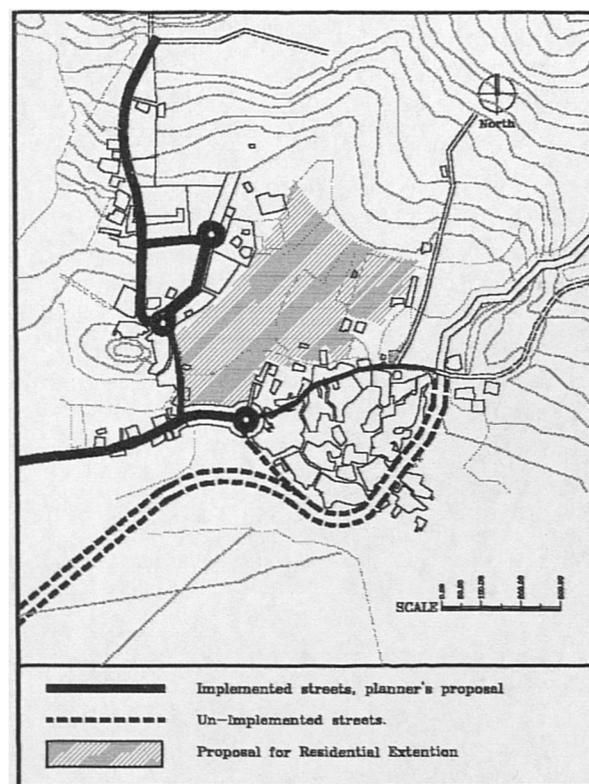
Figure 6.5.6. shows the implemented part of the access proposals. Most of which are in the north part of the village, of benefit only about 70 families, but the proposal for the other part of the village in the south, with about 310 families has remained uncompleted. The proposal for the river barriers and new side ways have not been implemented.

What are the reasons for this and Who is responsible?

**Firstly:** There is no agency responsible for implementation, and all such activities need to be organised by the Bonyad's Branch Office. According to site investigation, the site officer who usually is not a specialist in this process, make decisions for the priorities for implementation and deals with technical problems. If the budget is not enough for complete implementation, he is the person who decides which parts of the proposal could be ignored.

**Figure 6.5.6.**

*Planner's proposal and implemented streets (1999)*

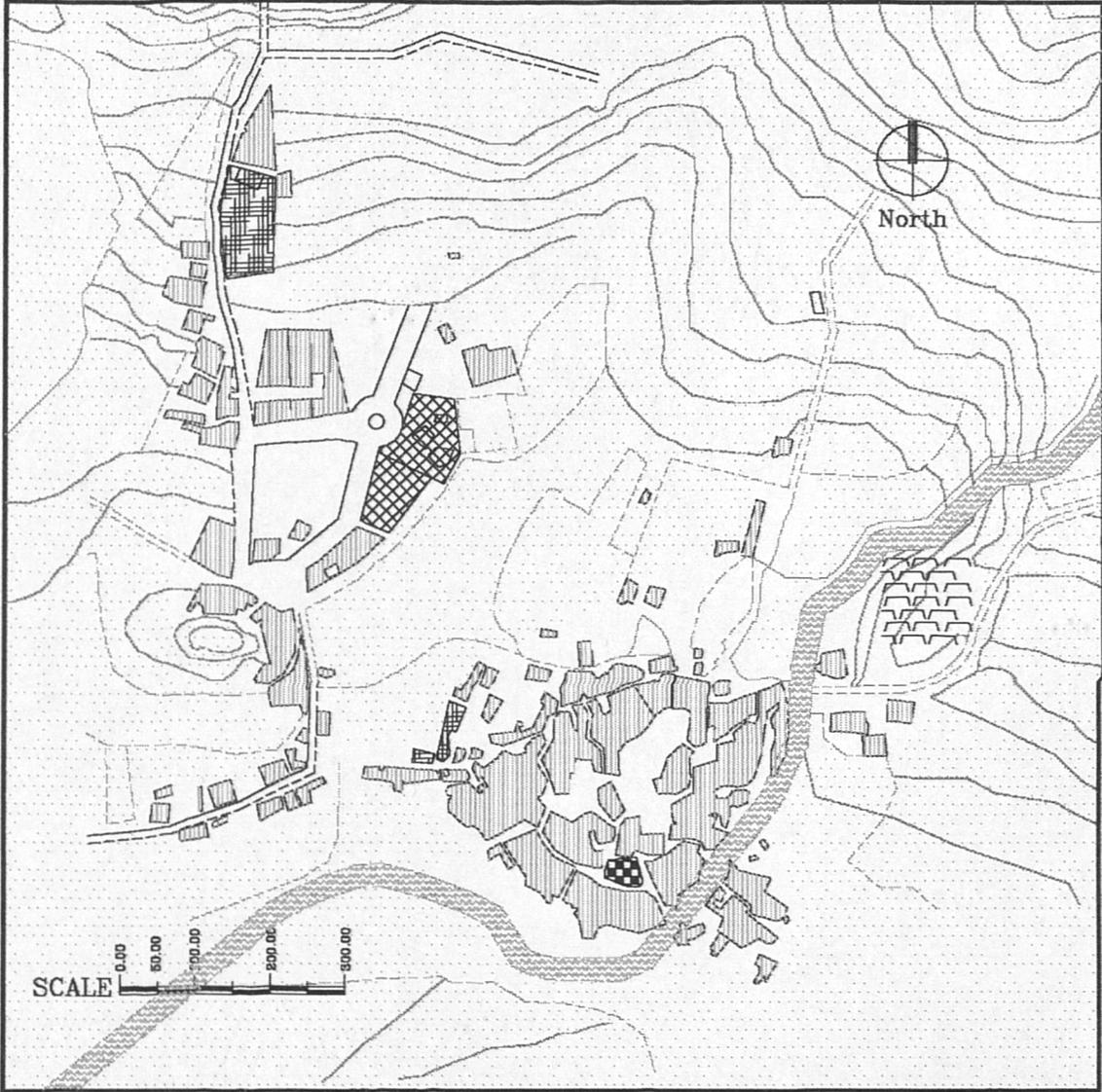


So a non expert, non professional management may not make the best decisions.

*Secondly:* Local influential people, most of the time can divert all implementation in their favour. In this village the Religious Imam lives in the far north of the village, so this part has been paved without regard to the needs of the whole population and the overall amount of money which could be spent for implementation.

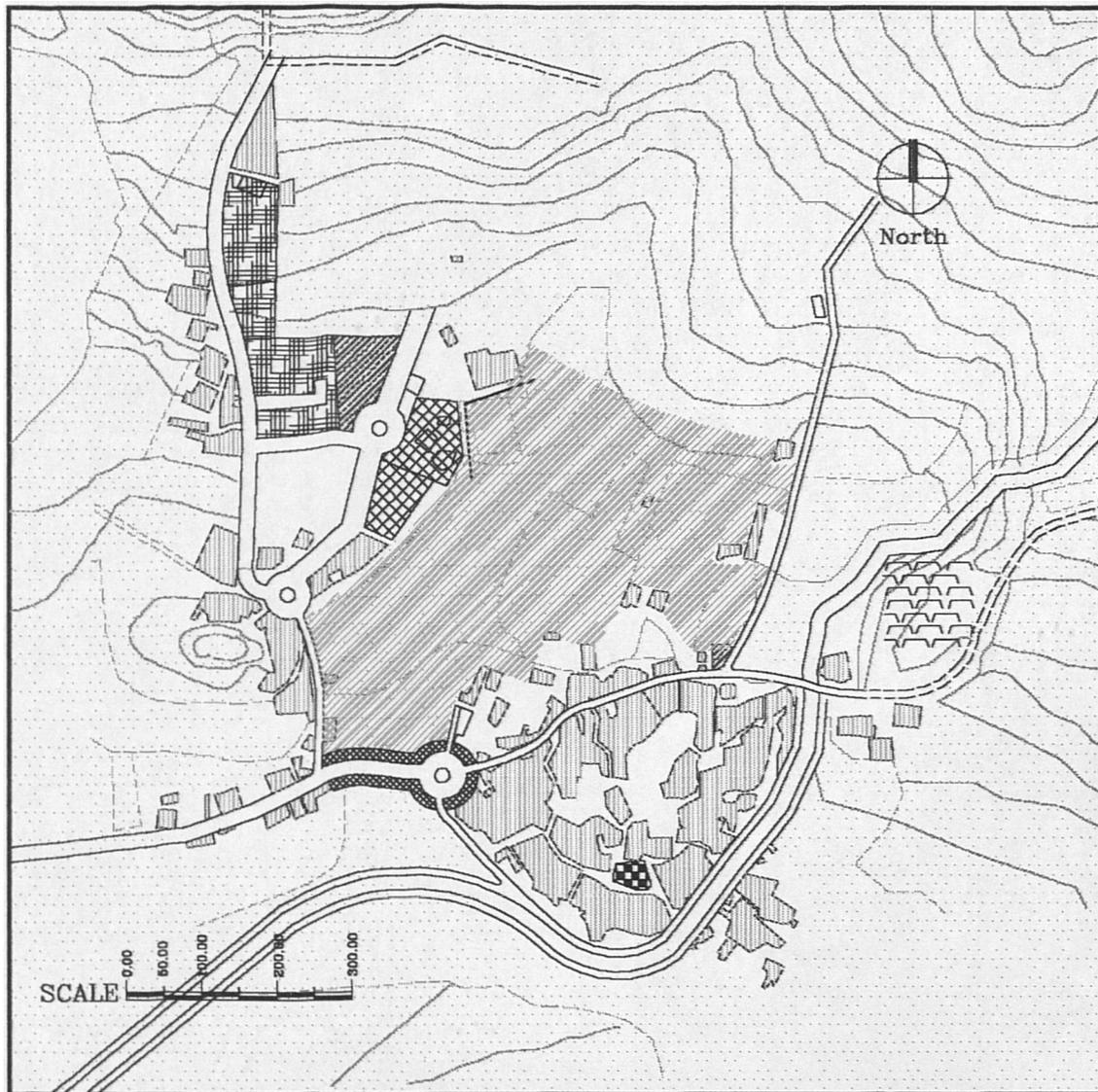
Overall the quality of implementation is not acceptable and after a short time many parts show damage. The cold climate of the area, with many days below freezing, and the use of bad quality asphalt have created damage, especially when no one or agency is responsible for maintenance.

Figure 6.5.7. Khamesan, pre planning, 1990.



- ▤ Residential units
- ▣ Mosque
- ▧ School
- ▨ Commercial units
- ▩ Administrative, Post & Telephone
- Health centre
- Cemetery

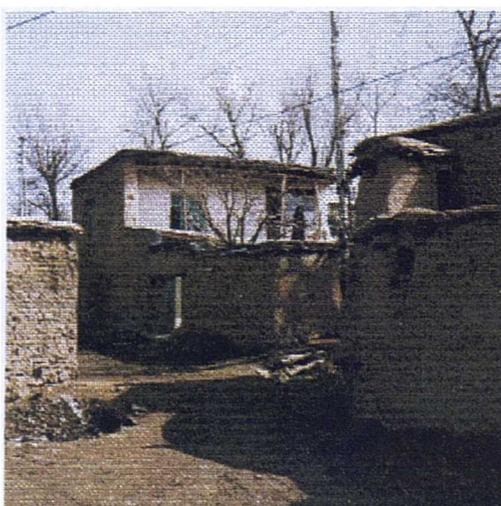
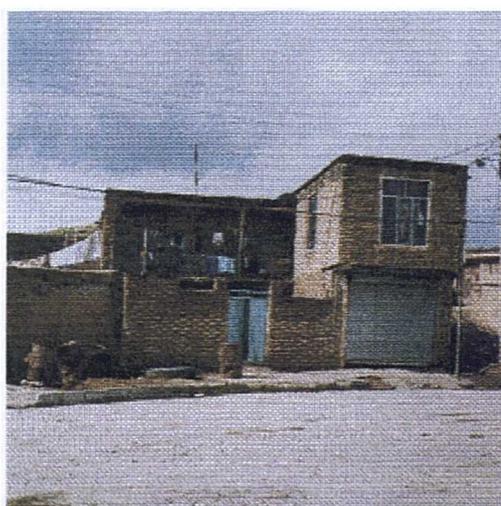
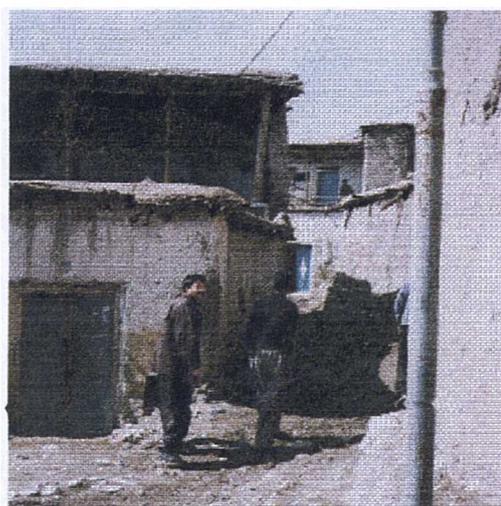
Figure 6.5.8. Khamesan, Planner's proposal, 1990.



-  Existing Residential units
-  Proposal Residential extension
-  Mosque
-  School
-  Commercial units
-  Administrative, Post & Telephone
-  Health centre
-  Cemetery

Figure 6.5.9. shows the different materials used for new construction in Khamesan. New buildings beside the new street or any units which were damaged related to the new street, used new material for reconstruction, but the others have been maintained in the traditional way that would be more familiar and economic for inhabitants in case of repair or any changes.

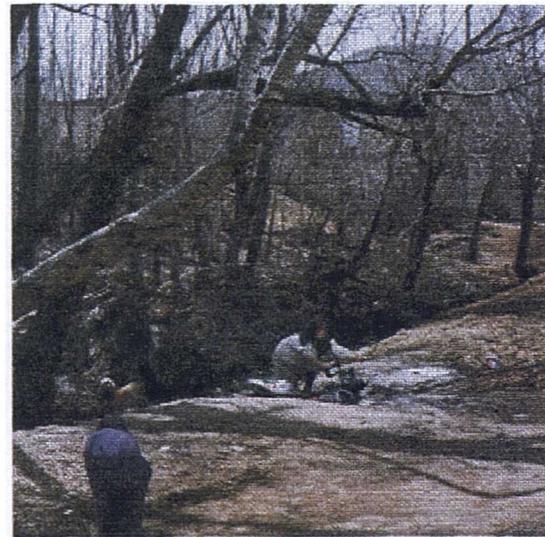
With new access the new buildings have used garage doors, and any new feature that inhabitants have seen in the city. Traditional materials do not need new technology or special skills for implementation and all necessary repair can be done in the seasons when usually there is no agricultural work. It would be the best advantage to use local material with some recommendations by specialists for more safety during implementation. If the planner can make the necessary changes without changing the nature of rural life, then real development could happen. New materials and new decent living conditions need not conflict with



*Figure 6.5.9. New and old materials in Khamesan after Planning 1998*

making existing conditions more efficient and providing all necessary factors for improved conditions in rural areas. One problem that was mentioned in the planner's report, was drinking water. The tanks do not have the desired capacity, and after a few hours in the morning they are out of water, and the springs which should fill them again do not have the necessary capacity for substitution in time. The planner's proposal was the construction of bigger tanks or extensions to existing tanks to fill during the night and serve the residents during the day. This has not been implemented.

The lack of water causes the use of the river water for washing clothes, dishes, etc beside the river, as is shown in Figure 6.5.10. It is not hygienic and could be the cause of many diseases in the village. The Figure 6.5.10. also shows that the path way beside the river has not implemented..



*Figure 6.5.10. Internal river in Khamesan,*

Figure 6.5.11. shows the new street in the heart of the old rural fabric and new construction. In the distance the old fabric can be compared with the new.



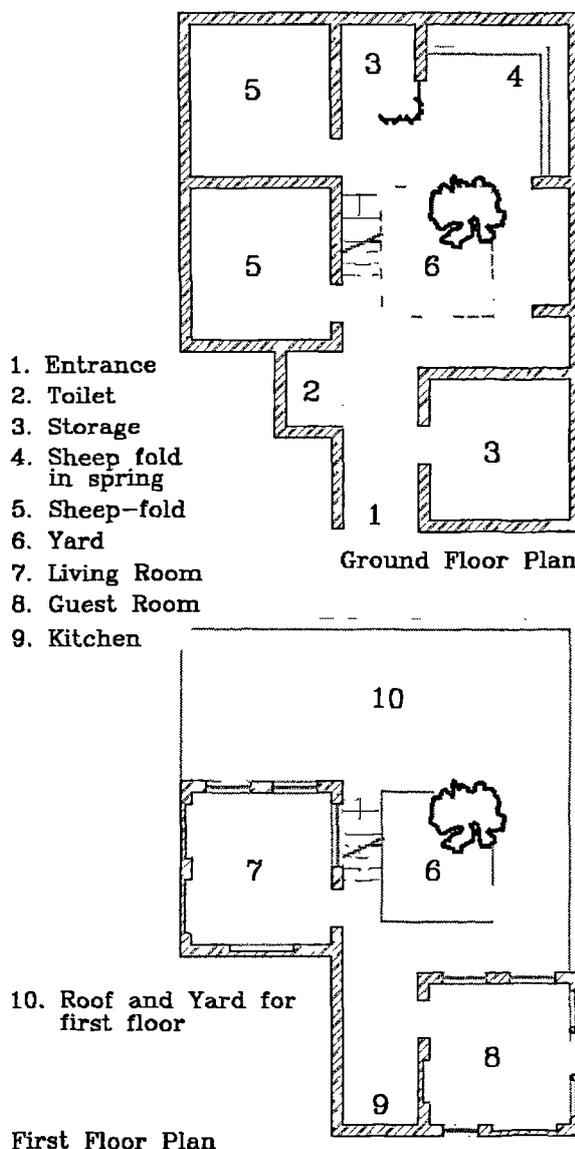
*Figure 6.5.11.*

*New street in old rural fabric, new construction beside the new street.*

This picture also shows the bad quality of implementation in Khamesan. The paved street seems older than it really is.

**6.5.8. Housing:**

At the time of planning the average area of each residential unit in the village was 309m<sup>2</sup>. The proposed area which has been suggested for the extension in planning period mostly has been used for new construction. The planner's proposal says that the new houses should be planned to be 180m<sup>2</sup> for small and moderate size families (3-5 person), and 210m<sup>2</sup> for larger families. According to the economy of the village almost all houses will have livestock and most of the units are built in two stories with ground floor for storage, sheep fold and the first floor is used by the family. This format helps to keep the residential and livestock spaces warmer in winter. Figure 6.5.12. shows one of the new houses in Khamesan, with more room for livestock than for the family. Any proposal disregarding this fact would not be acceptable to the inhabitants. The planner calculated the number of houses which could be reconstructed in-situ, and the new population according to how many new units



**Figure 6.5.12.. Residential plan in Khamesan, a simple.**

the first floor is used by the family. This format helps to keep the residential and livestock spaces warmer in winter. Figure 6.5.12. shows one of the new houses in Khamesan, with more room for livestock than for the family. Any proposal disregarding this fact would not be acceptable to the inhabitants. The planner calculated the number of houses which could be reconstructed in-situ, and the new population according to how many new units

would be needed for the duration of the plan.

The planner's forecast was 153 new units over ten years, so that according to the number of households at the time of field study compared with 1990, at least 92 new units should have been constructed. The reconstructions, up to field study mostly have happened in the old area, with demolishing the old building and constructing new ones. The probability is that the new constructions from now should be constructed in the proposed extension area. The forecasted size of family has been 5.70, but the exist size after planning is 6.70. This would have economic reasons, with young families not be able to afford new houses.

#### **6.5.9. Budgeting and Economic Resources:**

As usual such projects are implemented by the annual development budget in each province, and the amount of available money each year affects the quality of implementation and number of cases which would be implemented. In this case *Bonyad-e-Maskan* has paid 2,750,000,- Rials for planning, but no data was available to show the costs of implementation. But as explained for all implementation, like the other cases, there are some restrictions on budget. It is usually not enough for doing a complete job, and this seems to be the situation job in Khamesan.

#### **6.5.10. Conclusion:**

In this case, experience of planning some similar cases and being in touch with the local people made the planner more familiar with the culture, traditions, and desires of the people of the area. These are the reasons that the planner in this case has something to say and, compared with the other case studies, it would be more obvious that planner understands for

whom and for what purposes the plan is to be made. The importance of people involvement in the process has been discussed in section 3.10. The report presents a more comprehensive, effective study with more data relevant to the final conclusion and proposals according to the detailed policy guidelines. It follows all the pre-defined process, this has been one of the reasons that this village was selected as one of the case studies within this research. The planner's report and the results after almost one decade, make it obvious that being realistic about the problems and providing practical solutions, would be more effective, for the national objectives, to develop existing potentials, and to be an effective process for the whole country.

Khamesan is a particularly interesting case study since the author personally prepared the plan and carried out both the field study at the time of planning and for the field study research, but without any knowledge what had been going on in the village after the plan was approved by the Approval Committee. This could be another point to note, the lack of involvement of the planner in the process of implementation and in the monitoring of the changes as one of the important part of planning process (section 3.11.) which would allow the possibility of reviewing the plan, if it is going not as was proposed.

The planner's report is the most complete report that author have read for this research (between the 13 cases) both in comparison with the requirement in the guidelines by the P.B.O, but also in relation to the wide range of issues as an integrated development programme, (section 3.4.) whcih it should cover, as well as the detailed guidelines, along and direct with the people, who were planned for.

Khamesan have been studied as a key settlement and the services that the village was providing to the others have been taken into account. With a large number of villages in the effective radius of Khamesan, two second degree centres have been proposed to provide some services on a smaller scale, and all issues have been forecasted. This is the only case study in which the proposed population has been met.

All these factors show that, as well as comprehensive study by planner, there was real potential in the village, and the selection for plan preparation has been justified. As planner in this case, with the professional experience of Rural Development Planning, with the knowledge of institutional capacity of government, local authorities, local powers, weaknesses in all administrative organisation in the country, the planner has tried to be completely realistic in the proposals.

Most of the time, setting something as a standard would not work in particular circumstances, especially in rural areas, with restrictions in budget. Programming for more efficient services according to existing possibilities would be the best response at the first step, and then programming for upgrading the others and, as the last step, it may be possible to make proposals for new provision in the future. It is true that almost none of the proposals have been implemented, but the implementation of the new street in the heart of old rural fabric, should not be ignored. It provides a practical example of an improved environment and better physical view and decent conditions for living, and would be strong motivation for the young generation to take advantage of the possibilities for improved economic production in the village, especially when the other economic resources

are provided naturally. The study of demographic information and changes make it certain that as well as the desired increase of whole population, increase in the numbers of economically active in the village is impressive. (Figure 6.5.3.)

Even without a high school in the village the number of high school students is up more than three times, and this is another positive change. Increasing agricultural machinery will create more efficient production and increase income for the farmers in spite of lack of increase in amount of cultivated lands. These facts have been strongly taken into account as proposals in the planner's report as well as the suggestion for a pumping station to irrigate more farmlands that would mean more production per hectare. The implementation of some proposals, even incomplete has caused a huge improvement in the village.

***Field Study – The eight Cases:***

***Azan, Azandarian, Ghale-no-Kharaghan, Kahnabad, Kojaabad, Shirinso, Tazekand, Torkaman***

### 6.6. The eight Cases:

*Azan, Azandarian, Ghale-no-kharghan, Kahnabad, Kojaabad, Shirinsu, tazekand, Tokaman*

The previous 5 cases, have been studied in detail, and this section presents brief conclusions of these eight other cases selected in Chapter five, base for final conclusions. The similarities in results and problems make it clear that the factors involved are similar.

*Figure 6.6.1. Geographical location of eight cases*

As explained in Chapter five, the background

to these cases, in particular the planner's report, has been studied as completely as the previous ones, but only main effective points of each case will be provided through this section.

Figure 6.6.1. shows the geographical location of these eight cases in Iran, and Table 6.6.1. provides the demographic



information in the last three decades, at the time of planning and their rates of change.

Three cases after planning had a rate of increase similar to the national rural rate, one negative rate, and the others less than the average rate. But even the case with 4% increase rate did not meet the increase rate proposed by the planner. As was the situation in the 5 detailed cases, the planner's proposals were not realistic and all the relevant facts for development, had not been taken into account, or the improvement has been as the result of other activity in the area rather than planning that was not been foreseen in the plans.

Table 6.6.1. Population of the cases 1966- 1996.

Villages	Populations in Different Decades				
	1966	1976	1986	1989*	1996
<b>Azan</b>	—	1800	2339	2564	3453
	2.65 %			3.10 %	4.00 %
<b>Azandrian</b>	3633	4828	7246	—	9184
	2.80 %			—	2 %
<b>Ghale-no Kharghan</b>	—	2311	2454	2497	3470
	0.60 %			0.58 %	4.81 %
<b>Kahnabad</b>	—	1548	1756	1981	1814
	1.26 %			2.44 %	-1.74 %
<b>Kojaabad</b>	2110	3141	4508	5064	5097
	4.1 %			3.67 %	2.95 %
<b>Shirinso</b>	712	1040	1443	1800	2300
	3.86 %			3.30 %	7.60 %
<b>Tazekand</b>	808	1552	2028	2247	2333
	6.74%			2.71%	2.74%
<b>Torkaman</b>	—	4879	6371	—	6895
	2.70 %			0.80 %	

\* Time of planning

The percentages are the population change in the three decades, where data is available.

### 6.6.1. Azan:

Azan, the centre of Vandadeh Rural District, has been recognized as an administrative centre politically for many years. The demographic data for Azan, provided in Table 6.6.2. shows that the net population has increased in each of the last three decades. Morchekhort industrial centre, close to the village, has been a very strong and effective factor for the process of change and population growth in the village. A great number of residents work in this centre and live in the village. The population has increased more than the national rate in this village, because of the employment opportunity in the area. 700 employees who work in the industrial centre, live in the village community daily using 2 buses and 18 minibuses. At the time of planning, a dormitory for Meime University had been constructed in the village, but this building is used as a Boarding School in the village and students from the village and rural district study in it. They stay all the week in the

village and return to their villages every weekend. There are 20 students in the High School section. Azan girls high school, established in 1996 has 48 students.

*Table 6.6.2. Demographic changes in Azan 1976-1996*

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No. of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<i>1976</i>	<i>1800</i>	<i>342</i>	<i>5.26</i>	—
<i>1986</i>	<i>2339</i>	<i>454</i>	<i>5.15</i>	<i>2.65 %</i>
<i>1989</i>	<i>2564</i>	<i>513</i>	<i>5.00</i>	<i>3.10 %</i>
<i>1996</i>	<i>3453</i>	<i>691</i>	<i>5.00</i>	<i>4.00 %</i>

In 1989, there were 400 carpet knitting sets in the village, but this number decreased to 200 in 1998. The market for hand knitted carpets in the country has declined, with a worsened export situation during these years, as the result of national policies.\*

Overall, around 20% of the planner's physical proposals have been implemented. However the location of the new by-pass road has caused the destruction of the old Qanat in the village. In spite 116 construction permissions being issued after planning, only 50 residential units have been constructed, 20 of these used a governmental loan for reconstruction. In all 13 cases, this is the only one, that I have been faced with such control after implementation, or at least this is the only one that this control is seriously doing. The increase in population, compared with the low scale of physical changes, would be because of low financial returns of owning and renting houses in the village compared with near-by

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\* The national studies programme of, Jihad-e-Sazandegi for producing more income opportunity in rural area, provided thousands of knitting sets and raw materials for this industry, with disregard to the market, internal and export demand, quality and quantity, the main economic factors that such comprehensive activity should take into account. All the experts in this issue believe that this process has been one of the most important reasons for decline in this industry, as well as the global economic crises.

cities. The employment opportunity which the nearby industrial estate has provided to the area, would be another strong factor for keeping the residents or even absorbing some immigrants to the village, that none of them have been studied in the planning process. No effective result of planning is visible in the village and most problems which existed before planning, especially environmental problems (which should have been taken into account in physical planning) have remained unsolved. There is a 30m wide street in the plan that has been forced on the planner by Approval Committee. This demonstrates another negative point concerning the decisions and conduct of Approval Committees who can make decisions without any respect to the study of existing conditions and the need for new physical elements.

#### **6.6.1.1. Conclusion:**

The Village has been successful in keeping and increasing its residents but the main reasons have been the industrial estate in the area. The lack of an effective programme for improving the economic possibilities within the village has been the cause of decline in handicrafts, which has been one of the most important sources of family income in rural areas. The other important point for this case is the idea of the Approval Committee for the construction of the new street, without any respect to the planner's study and using their power in a wrong way to put an unstudied idea into the design. The new wide road planned really by the Committee, is the one which damaged the local Qanat, the source of traditional irrigation through the village. This demonstrates that the lack of relevant specialists in the committee in charge of making the decision and in the planner's office can make the whole process of study and implementation vulnerable.

### 6.6.2. Azandarian

This village was planned in 1987 at an early stage of thinking about rural development focussed on the design of physical proposals. There is no written report and only a physical plan for the site was produced. This case was in the agenda for Revitalization of Rural Fabric, which preceded the process of Rural Development Planning. The plan was prepared in 1985 and was implemented just after. The reasons for such urgent planning have been recorded as destruction as the result of flood, and having in a population of more than 5000 people. Demographic data of the village is shown in Table 6.6.3.

*Table 6.6.3. Demographic changes in Azandarian 1956-1996*

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No, of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<b>1956</b>	3037	—	—	—
<b>1966</b>	3633	726	5.80	1.80 %
<b>1976</b>	4828	878	5.50	2.80 %
<b>1981</b>	6131	1226	5.00	4.89 %
<b>1986</b>	7246	1330	5.44	3.40 %
<b>1996</b>	9184	1608	5.70	2.66 %

Because there is no report, there is no evidence of any study of demographic, economic or any other issues relevant to the planning or the effective factors for Rural Development Planning. The only proposals for Azandarian have been the improvement of access passages through the rural fabric and a rain collecting network, that has not been completed after 12 years. Some infrastructure activities, such as drinking water, electricity and telephone were constructed in 1981. The lack of maintenance is the reason why the physical developments which were implemented are going to ruin.

Being close to the city (Malayer), the main function of the village is a dormitory for

People employed in economic activities in the urban areas in neighbourhood, such as transportation. Already there are 113 lorries, 9 minibuses, 44 tractors, 35 vans and 63 cars in the village. The statistical information reports that the active people in the village would be classified as 900 families in agricultural sector, 377 in transportation, 301 industry and general services and 31 in the administrative category. The lack of any programming of economic activities means that the increase of population has been result of other factor influencing the village's economy.

#### **6.6.2.1. Conclusion:**

This is a case from the past, before the development planning process for rural area began. The main concern of the previous revitalization programme was the physical improvement of villages and it produced some improvement to the access network in rural area but the process did not require study and plan.

In spite of poor physical facilities in the village, the population has increased in the last decade (3.40%), but this has not been due to planning activity. Increasing employment in transport, with 377 persons in this field, defines the strong of natural potential of this economic activity in the village. Also a great number of families are farmers, but increasing income in the other economic sectors would be strong reason for a gradual decline in agriculture. Also the existence of stone mines near the village, the location of the village on a principal road, and proximity to a city have been all points that have been factors in the growth of the village but which have not been the subject of any planning or programming.

### 6.6.3. Ghale-no-Kharaghan

The village is the administrative centre of Bastam Rural District in Shahrood City. The tomb of Sheikh Kharaghan is located in the village; he was one of the important religious leaders in the region and the tomb has a lot of visitors every year, even from the other Islamic counties. There is a large religious complex in the village and the name of the village also has come from his name. Demographic information of the village is provided in Table 6.6.4. which presents the population data from 1976 to 1996.

**Table 6.6.4.** Demographic changes in Ghale-no-Kharaghan 1976-1996

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No, of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<b>1976</b>	2311	484	4.77	—
<b>1986</b>	2454	555	4.42	0.60 %
<b>1989</b>	2497	557	4.32	0.58 %
<b>1996</b>	3470	930	3.73	4.81 %

There are some proposals for physical improvements in the planner's report that mostly have not been implemented, and some which were implemented, but not according to the proposed timetable. Only the main street has been paved, but the work has not been of good quality. As the result of the existence of the religious centre in the village and population increase in the area, a number of commercial units have been established along the main street. In spite of very good natural conditions and strong farming potential there is no specified programme for farming generally, nor any guidance for improvement of relevant factors. The existing potential has been the cause of the establishment of several spaghetti factories in the village, that already employ 70 persons from the village. The Metallurgy factory in Shahrood has absorbed 70 person and around another 70 are working in the general services sector. So already about half of the active population were outside the

the agricultural sector.

According to the statistical information, the number of employed people has increased from 578, pre planning, to 690, after planning. This is not as the result of planning. The other point would be that the village had been planned once before the Revolution, but there is no sign of implementation of the previous plan. The residents helped with the implementation by providing self-help, where necessary giving some part of their house for the construction of new streets or the reconstruction the existing one and providing some of the necessary manpower for implementation.

#### **6.6.3.1. Conclusion:**

This village has a great religious significance in the area but this does not seem to have helped to attract resources and most of the planner's proposals have not been implemented. But there are some new streets, and the new factories have created new employment opportunities and these development will have helped encourage the 4.81% increase in population after planning 1989–1996.

#### **6.6.4. Kahn abad**

Kahn abad in the centre of a cluster in Aradan Rural district located 20 Km South-East of Garmsar, beside the principal railway and the Tehran-Semnan highway. According to the statistical information, in spite of very strong farming potential in the area, only 31% of the employed people were working in the agricultural sector, 32% in general services and 36% in administrative sector. This demonstrates that the dormitory function of the village is

very strong. This is one of the reports in which the planner has made some proposals for changing the agricultural products to produce better income, with better marketing, and some research into local possibilities, the quality of land, suitable plant programming, etc has been done. But the Lack of proper communication between residents and relevant agencies in the planning authority means that the farmers in the village do not know of these proposals.

As usual all the physical improvement projects have remained incomplete, and this has caused new public health problems for the inhabitants. Lack of co-ordination between relevant departments has meant that the old electrical posts remained in the middle of extended streets, 5 years after the road improvement. Not even one residential unit has been constructed after planning and an interesting point in this case is that there are 108 families who are tenants. This is a rare situation in Iranian rural area and might indicate demand for houses. The establishment of a new industrial site in the area (Semnan) could explain the reasons for leaving farmlands and going to work out of the village because of differences between the farming income and working as an industrial labourer. Demographic changes in the village during the last 3 decades are indicated in Table 6.6.5. which shows growth until 1989, with a loss after then.

*Table 6.6.5. Demographic changes in Kahn abad 1976-1996*

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No, of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<i>1976</i>	<i>1548</i>	<i>301</i>	<i>5.14</i>	<i>—</i>
<i>1986</i>	<i>1756</i>	<i>385</i>	<i>5.56</i>	<i>1.26 %</i>
<i>1989</i>	<i>1981</i>	<i>483</i>	<i>4.10</i>	<i>2.44 %</i>
<i>1996</i>	<i>1814</i>	<i>508</i>	<i>3.57</i>	<i>- 1.74 %</i>

Some reduction of population in the village could be explained because a number of residents in this village were Afghanis who have been affected to the governmental policy for deporting these immigrants. With the increasing price of agricultural products, the positive point is that some of the residents who now work out of the village still plant their farming land by themselves or employ workers to do that.

#### **6.6.4.1. Conclusion:**

The population decrease of 1.74% after 1989, around the time of planning shows that, in spite of all the positive potential, the village could not keep the existing population; if it was not so close to an urban centre, probably the current conditions would be worse. The lack of water for irrigation would be one of the reasons that agriculture has not made improvement during recent years but the planner's report has no proposals for this, despite the fact that the report makes other proposals for the agricultural sector. The physical proposals of the planner have not been completely implemented and the results are not as they should be. Given the existing potential, if there had been more comprehensive programming, and integration of activity, probably the results would not be as they are.

#### **6.6.5. Koja abad**

Tabrize has one of the most important industrial estates in Iran and Koja abad is located 15 Km west of Tabriz, and would be regarded as a suburb of this big city. A huge petrochemical industrial site is constructed beside the village. This is one of the cases which is specially considered for study as an example of a village near a big city, and it will soon be designated as a district of the city. Demographic information of the village for the

last three decades are provided which shows growth is continuing but at a slower rate.

*Table 6.6.6. Demographic changes in Koja abad 1976-1996*

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No. of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<i>1976</i>	<i>2110</i>	<i>353</i>	<i>5.90</i>	<i>—</i>
<i>1986</i>	<i>3141</i>	<i>516</i>	<i>6.00</i>	<i>4.10 %</i>
<i>1986</i>	<i>4508</i>	<i>708</i>	<i>6.30</i>	<i>3.67 %</i>
<i>1989</i>	<i>5064</i>	<i>812</i>	<i>6.20</i>	<i>2.95 %</i>
<i>1996</i>	<i>5097</i>	<i>926</i>	<i>5.50</i>	<i>0.10 %</i>

400 residents are using the site as a dormitory and work in the factories in the area, they do not have farming land and do not farm. One of the biggest problem for inhabitants is that administratively no one has clear responsibility for the village. In spite of having had a prepared plan, and the fact that it is officially reported as an implemented plan, there is no sign of implementation in the village. The Bonyad says that a lack of budget for paying the owners who will lose their houses as the result of planning has been the cause of resistance of inhabitants against implementation but also that applications for credit have been rejected by Bonyad. But, despite this, the village is listed among the implemented cases. According to the main criteria mentioned in the policy for choosing the villages for planning, there is no point for planning in this case, but anyway it should be important that necessary attention to these special facts has not been into account. The plan took no account of the effect of being so close to Tabriz or to the many factories all around the area. In such sites, very close to a large city, the price of land goes up and encourages farmers to sell the land rather to cultivate it. Mostly the profit for land sale is much more than the agricultural income. These points make the case more interesting and more sensitive so that usually such cases need a more experienced planner, to be able to take all these facts into account, and make the right analysis and programming.

### **6.6.5.1. Conclusion:**

This case is exceptional in all dimensions. It is very close to one of the most important industrial estates in Iran, a petrochemical factory, tractor manufacturing, and many other industrial zones near the village so that it could be regarded as one of the city districts. The farmland has not been fully cultivated, because the land price has gone up and it is not worth cultivating since people are working out of the village in factories and workshops inside and outside the village. It seems that this potential has been filled as is shown by the fact that population increase rates in the last decades, of 4.10% in 1976, 3.67% in 1986 and 2.96% in 1989, have reduced to the current increase rate of 0.10%. None of the planner's proposals have implemented, and even the executive budget has been rejected.

### **6.6.6. Shirinso**

Shirinso is the centre of Mehraban Rural District in Kabodarahank City, Hamadan province, located beside the new principal road between Hamadan and Zanjan, completed in 1997.

The demographic information in Table 7.7.6.1. shows the population increase during the last three decades. In the official reports (Bonyad-e-Maskan, 1994) the urban costs and housing problems are mentioned as the cause of reduced emigration from rural areas to the cities in this province. These should be added to the good quality farmland and the increasing price of agricultural products that should be other motivations for rural people to stay in the village and work on their own land. The data provided in this table are from planner's report and census in 1996. As it shows the increase for the population between 89 to 96 is 500 persons, but the increase in the number of families is only 130, it shows that

these data would probably incorrect. But however, the increase in population has been around the national increase rate for rural areas, but the 7.60% increase for 1989 seems to suggest a data problem, because there is no serious reason for such increase in 1986 – 1989 and a reduced rate thereafter.

*Table 6.6.7. Demographic changes in Shirinso 1976-1996*

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No, of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<i>1966</i>	<i>712</i>	<i>152</i>	<i>4.70</i>	<i>—</i>
<i>1976</i>	<i>1040</i>	<i>199</i>	<i>5.20</i>	<i>3.86 %</i>
<i>1986</i>	<i>1443</i>	<i>248</i>	<i>5.80</i>	<i>3.30 %</i>
<i>1989</i>	<i>1800</i>	<i>300</i>	<i>6.00</i>	<i>7.60 %</i>
<i>1996</i>	<i>2300</i>	<i>430</i>	<i>5.35</i>	<i>3.56 %</i>

The new road and heavy traffic flows have been the cause of establishment of more than 80 shops beside the road and the existence in the village of 50 tractors and 3 combines, a grain silo and a mechanical repair shop for agricultural machinery, demonstrate that area has good position as a central site to provide agricultural services in the region. During the last 10 years, 30 more deep wells for irrigation have been added and, as an experiment one farm is irrigating by water dropped from the air. But the important point is that none of these development were proposed in the planner's report.

In 1990 a station for livestock vaccination was established and in 1994 the special agricultural services airport has been constructed in the area. These key activities once again prove that there is no co-ordination between relevant departments for important factors relevant to development and the rural planning process. However the rapid implementation of these proposals has required development and almost all the physical proposals of the plan for improvements in living environment, like the street pavements, have been

implemented. But mostly they are something different to the planner's proposal and the implementation team has made the necessary decisions, on site, but there are no official documents for these changes. The lack of co-ordination and disregard for the plan is shown by the fact that almost 12 villages in the district use the educational facilities in the village, the planner's proposals for improved schools have not been implemented.

The 80 commercial units beside the principal road, the good quality farmlands and the other economic activities relevant to the village as the service centre of the cluster, would be the reasons for increases in population, although it is less than the previous period. But it indicates that in the last period after planning there is no emigration from the village.

#### **6.6.6.1. Conclusion:**

In this case almost all the physical proposals of planner were implemented, although not exactly as was planned or in acceptable quality. But it has been implemented. The village is the real centre of the district with the additional importance of being beside the new principal road. This makes its physical situation stronger than before in the area. However it is now clear that one of the weaknesses of the planner report was that the potential of this road was not foreseen in the programming, with no reference to the possibility of associated new employment, such as the commercial units. This is despite the fact that the road had been proposed for at least 10 years before plan was produced. The area overall is in very good condition for farming and there has been some improvement but not to the extent of its potential and possibilities.

### 6.6.7. Tazekand

Tazekand is the centre of West Moghan rural district, located 18 Km from Parsabad City along the border of Iran and Azarbayjan. The village was planned by the Power and Water Organisation, in 1959, in its current location after the destruction of the previous village by a flood. Demographic data from 1959, is provided in Table 6.6.8. which shows rapid growth which has then decreased since 1976.

*Table 6.6.8. Demographic changes in Tazekand 1966-1996*

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No, of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<i>1966</i>	<i>808</i>	<i>167</i>	<i>4.84</i>	<i>—</i>
<i>1976</i>	<i>1552</i>	<i>255</i>	<i>6.08</i>	<i>6.74 %</i>
<i>1986</i>	<i>2028</i>	<i>192</i>	<i>6.96</i>	<i>2.71 %</i>
<i>1989</i>	<i>2247</i>	<i>333</i>	<i>6.76</i>	<i>2.74 %</i>
<i>1996</i>	<i>2333</i>	<i>305</i>	<i>7.64</i>	<i>.80 %</i>

The huge increase rate at 66-76 has been as the result of land reform and land division in the area. The high quality of the farmland as well as a supply of irrigation water from the Ares River, caused immigration to the village, but as Table 6.6.8. shows this process became slower, up to now; even with the new planning scheme, the growth is going to stop. According to local information, during the year 1992, 30 families emigrated from the village and only 10 new families came in. 475 families or 72.3% of the active population are in farming. Definitely farming has special importance in the area, but being close to the border, many residents illegally import or export goods with the Republic of Azarbayjan. It is natural that this source of income would be another reason for agricultural decline in the region. Almost none of the planner's proposals have been implemented, only two streets which are paved could be sign of planning implementation and even the new

high school building, which was constructed in 1983, is not running yet.

#### **6.6.7.1. Conclusion:**

The village in its present location has been planned from the beginning to re-house inhabitants from the ruined settlement and the physical shape is planned rather than organic, although subsequent development has been un-planned, with no further programming. The recent very slow rate of population increase shows that, in spite of some physical implementation, the necessary conditions, for keeping residents in the village, have not been met. The restriction in increasing the cultivated lands and the lack of any development did not improve these conditions from the view of quantity and quality in fact with increasing mechanisation and modernization in agriculture the demand for workers has decreased. So the need for regional programming for the creation of new employment opportunities becomes more serious in such areas. Only programming would be used for improving the quality of agricultural productions and establishing the relevant agricultural industries to improve incomes of rural people and providing more employment opportunities in the area.

#### **6.6.8. Torkaman**

Torkaman, the centre of Torkamanchai Rural District in Mianeh City, is the administrative centre of the rural area from 1971. The population change in the village during the last 3 decades is show in the Table 6.6.9. As it shows, the population for 1989 (time of planning) estimated by planner is not in the same order as the other years. This seems unusual and probably this is the reason that the proposed population for 1998, 9,627 has not been reached.

**Table 6.6.9.** Demographic changes in Torkaman 1976-1996

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>No. of families</i>	<i>Size of Families</i>	<i>Increase Rate</i>
<b>1976</b>	4879	956	5.10	—
<b>1986</b>	6371	1055	6.00	2.70 %
<b>1989</b>	7805	1473	5.30	7.00 %
<b>1996</b>	6895	1064	6.40	0.80 %

This is one of the cases in which almost all the physical proposals of planner have been implemented, perhaps it is the result of changing the administrative status of the village to be a city and having control of all the necessary departments that are usually found in cities. The physical shape of the village has been totally changed and it is not similar to the other rural areas. Changes in different economic sectors are impressive, in 1996 the number of the active population in sectors other than farming was 650, before planning this was 350. This shows a huge development of the services sector. These facts, as well as the physical shape of site, demonstrate the differences between cities and villages.

#### **6.6.8.1. Conclusion:**

Torkaman is the only case among all the case studies which has been changed to city after planning. Probably this is the reason that all the physical proposals of the planner have been implemented and are well maintained. In spite of the new shape of Torkaman and the changes in the administrative capabilities of the local authority, the decrease in population after planning was only 0.80%, and this could not be acceptable in relation to the objectives overall. There is almost no improvement in agriculture from the view of quality, compared of with pre-planning, in spite of the huge increase in active people in the village (City) from 350 pre planning to 650 at the time of field study. But the main new employment opportunities are in the service sector, not in production, and this would be one of the factors that shows the process of change in the change in size from village to city.

***Chapter Seven:***  
***Conclusions and Recommendations***

## **7. Conclusions and Recommendations:**

### **7.1. Introduction:**

This research has tried to investigate the successes or failures of the Rural Development Planning process in Iran and this conclusion will be a summary of the relevant issues. Generally these issues have been identified in the literature review and then specifically in the context of Iranian Constitutional Law, National Development Programmes, and the approved guidelines for Rural Development. The study has tried to develop understanding of the Rural Development Planning process for Iranian rural areas and has designed and carried out an appropriate field study for investigation of implemented cases. The study has developed an appropriate methodology for carrying out the research and has produced an understanding of the development process in Iran through case studies of planning and implementation in selected cases. So these conclusions may be the synthesis of all these sections leading to comments and recommendations for improved practices.

### **7.2. Overview of the Context:**

It is natural that changes will happen in all societies according to the situation and possibilities, but according to the literature review, planning is a key activity which attempts to guide the processes of change toward the desired aims of the main policy. In simple words, it attempts to reduce the uncertainties of the future in order to achieve its goals. It is expected to predict the achievements, taking into account needs, potentials and the existing resources. The literature suggests that the process would be more successful if it has the desired continuity and the activities are carried out in an integrated manner, to

complement each other and to help the society to achieve the goals of the programme.

According to the literature review, the main aims for rural development have been classified as:

- i) Appropriate and environmentally sustainable investment and economic production, mostly based on agricultural activities;
- ii) Land use planning solutions for rational and sustainable use of existing land resources;
- iii) Social development;
- iv) Education and health facilities development;
- v) increasing opportunities and more appropriate access to resources, employment and income, and improving economic, social and environmental conditions in rural areas.

Iranian revolutionary Constitution Law includes these main aims, covering all these activities for development including recognition of economic improvement as the base for development, the alleviation of poverty and the importance of community involvement.

The Constitution defines the main aims to create necessary conditions for:

- i) satisfaction of basic needs: housing, clothing, hygiene, medical treatment, education, etc for setting up family, for all;
- ii) creating work conditions and opportunities for all for the purpose of achieving full employment;
- iii) increase of agricultural, livestock and industrial production to meet public needs, leading the country to self-sufficiency.

The rural people have been a priority. Meeting the aim for increasing the agricultural and

livestock production directly means comprehensive rural economic improvement, as well as dealing with the situation that a large proportion of the national population live in rural areas and most of the villages do not even have the basic necessary services. All the statements in the Constitution Law, and creation of the Bonyad and Jihad agencies which are dealing with rural problems, have led to a series of activities for rural development planning. As a terms of reference for these activities, all these aims have been defined by the policy-makers in order to provide the necessary conditions for development in rural areas; they are summarised as:

- i) To create the necessary social, cultural, and economic conditions for development;
- ii) To provide guidelines for improvement of physical conditions;
- iii) To create the necessary facilities for improving housing and other general basic public services.

It can be seen that these main points are almost the same as the outcomes of the literature review. In detail, in official documents, the aims have been outlined in section 4.3. as :

- i) Improving rural income;
- ii) Preparing resources for investment in rural areas in order to decrease inflation;
- iii) To prevent emigration from rural areas to big cities;
- iv) To make rural areas self-sufficient from the view of administration, agriculture, facilities and the necessary basic services that rural populations usually move to cities to obtain. All necessary services are to be provided in central settlements of a cluster or rural district, to be able to provide services for all residents in the district;
- v) Make suitable living conditions in rural areas, similar to what is usually found in cities;

- vi) Organise all relevant activities, in all governmental ministries and agencies, and co-ordinate them in rural areas.

The main aims are set up to provide the necessary conditions for changes towards social and economic development, stabilise rural population, and providing necessary physical improvements. And in the main policy, in fact, co-ordination between all the agencies involved in the process has been taken into account. It is obvious that the effect of success or failure would be significant at national level and that the problems are about economic conditions and the necessary task to make acceptable improvements in rural areas.

### ***7.3. Organisational structure and capacity:***

Despite these policy objectives, according to the organisation of planning in Iran, there is no programme for rural development planning. The policy-maker asked for an Approval Committee in each province to supervise the process of development planning in rural areas, from the selection of the cases that should be planned, to monitoring the process of planning, and the control and approval process for plans prepared by consultants. There are some outlines which define the main duty of such committees but, according to the results of field study, these are not being operated in a way which can produce the desired outcomes. The results of the field study define these weaknesses throughout the whole process.

The first step of decision making for the Approval Committee and the branch offices of Bonyad is the process of selection of cases for planning. The pre-conditions for the cases to be planned have been defined so that the case should be the political centre of a district, or a service centre in its cluster, be in need of physical improvement, and have a population

of 400 families at least. But from the study of implemented cases in Iran, it is clear that several cases, partly or wholly do not meet these conditions. So at this stage some of the research's conclusions would be:

- i) The process of selection for planning needs accurate criteria for selection, and comprehensive study in the different regions, which would define the key settlements, their effective radius for providing services, the scale of services, their populations, and the other factors that could make the Approval Committee able to recognise the priorities and to make the right decisions in this regard. These studies would designate proper key settlements for planning;
- ii) There is no specific planning authority in rural areas and this is the reason that all the relevant activities are carried out by the Approval Committee in each province. The members of these committees are from all relevant Agencies, or Ministries, who usually are members of the High Planning Council in each province, except the delegate of Bonyad who is member of this committee and has no place in the Province's High Council. This could be a sign of weaknesses in the agencies in this regard, as well as that when the administrative organisation is highly centralised in the country, many other powers could be effective in the process of planning, from the early point in selection to the last stage for implementation. The Approval Committee should be able to make sound decisions concerning the research that should be provided by the planner and they should be capable of identifying whether the aims or objectives set in a plan are appropriate. According to the decisions that they have made on some of the approved plans, overall it seems they do not have a proper knowledge about the issues and the desired aims. These problems arise

when the people, who should be the main factors in the planning process, are not involved and the importance of this has not been seen in the process. Peoples ideas are not in the plans, and the process of decision making is very isolated. So the conclusion is that the rural development process needs its own organisation, with its provincial committee, which should be designed in different scales according to the size of activities in each province;

- iii) The guidelines contain the main points of the policy maker that should be studied by the planner to cover all the desired aims, but it is not complete enough to ensure that the planner is able to make competent conclusions and recommendations. These are the only guidelines which are used in all regions. So the guidelines would be evaluated as one of the weaknesses because although they contain the main key points, they should be flexible for use in different situations. The existing guidelines do not ask for study of all the development activities in the region and the proposals should take these development programmes by other relevant agencies into account. So with various conditions and existing potential all around the country, regional planning is necessary to define different potentials and possibilities in each region, to be used by the planner as a base for appropriate detailed proposals in rural areas. But in the meantime, before such regional guidance is available, the planner should get all the relevant information for all development activities at the provincial level in order to be able to make development proposals for their local areas;
- iv) The co-ordination between all relevant agencies and organisations and their individual development programmes is very important, and the lack of such co-ordination is obvious in all parts of the study. In almost all cases there are many

proposals which have not been implemented, partly because of a lack of funding but also because of lack of necessary co-ordination between organisations, such as the education and health authorities in the provinces and the planning authorities. This is in spite of the fact that most agencies have their delegate on the Approval Committee and that they are informed of the approved proposals. But the problem is that in their annual programming and budgeting they do not have the necessary co-ordination, nor does there seem to be a mechanism for such co-ordination;

- v) the research has shown that there is a lack of agencies directly responsible for implementation, and that this has caused a general lack of implementation but also several un-programmed developments and a large number of incomplete projects. Bonyad is responsible for the whole process, but through the research it became clear that the institutional capacity of Bonyad has not been designed for such comprehensive development activity, involving the whole process from plan preparation to implementation. It is certainly lacking in sufficient capacity to act as the main developer;
- vi) as an important part of the planning process, development control has a vital position. But in all 13 cases, only in two was there any reference to the issuing of construction permissions. One of these cases was Azan; the other was Torkaman, the status of which was changed to be a city. This means that for villages, the development stage, which should be an important part of the process, is not being seriously taken into account.

So far all the problems are about the institutional capacity and organisational hierarchy, that are necessary for the process and should be responsible for rural development planning,

from defining the guidelines to preparing the plan, feedback and monitoring the process.

How far have they been capable of handling their duty, and how far was the process designed to be able to be self correcting? These are the considerations which will be helpful to improve planning in the future.

#### ***7.4. The Planning Process, Review of the Case Studies:***

The studies of the five cases which have been chosen for complete field study contain the results of investigations of demographic, education, economic changes, housing and physical implementation in the shape of the creation of new infrastructure or improving the existing services in the village.

The study of all 13 cases produce very similar results and Table 7.1. summarises the changes and facts of the 13 case studies. This makes it clear that the problems generally would be in the organisation and in the process of planning and implementation. The main aim of policy makers, according to the definition of development, should be improvement or progress in all relevant issues, and changes in these factors would be evaluated as a sign of development. However according to the results, the achievements in the implemented cases are not acceptable, or at least they do not meet most of the main desired changes and improvements that should be achieved. The normal population increase rate in a rural area would be a sign of stable society, a society which can support the residents in all aspects, such as general services, employment and sufficient income, and a decent environment for living. Except in one of the cases, none of them have met the proposed population increase rate forecast by the planner, due to a combination of unrealism in the proposals as well as an

incorrect or non-existent analysis of the existing potential.

Table 7.1. Changes and development factors in 13 cases studies. 1998.

Selected Cases Studies Development Points, in each case	Detailed Cases						Other Cases						
	Khoran- Dasht	Khompych	Jaghin	Chashm	Khamesan	Azan	Azandaria	Ghle-no- khareghan	Kahnabad	Kojaabad	Shirino	Tazekand	Torkaman
Cases with management agencies for maintenance and development planning control	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*
Planner's population proposal has happened	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
In event of increase, or any change, if it has happened because of other development programmes in the region, not planning.	-	-	*	-	-	*	*	*	-	-	-	-	-
Case is a key settlement	-	*	*	*	*	*	-	*	-	-	*	-	*
District as a effective service area, has been studied.	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Higher education facilities, have been provided after planning, as planner's proposal	-	-	*	-	-	*	*	-	-	-	-	-	*
There are economic proposals for the area.	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-
Physical proposals have been completely implemented.	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	*
The cases, with Development Control is going on	-	-	-	-	-	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	*

In some cases the villages selected for planning did not meet the criteria in the guidelines; for instance the village was not a key settlement in the area, or does not have the necessary potential for improvement. In the others, despite being a political centre or service centre, after implementation it has not proved possible to provide effective services to the district. These weaknesses once again emphasise the necessity of defining key settlements and recognising the regional and local potentials and the ways that these can be made use of:

- i) Being a key settlement was a pre condition for early selection for planning, because of the importance of this issue for the whole area, but according to the Table only 8 out of the 13 cases had the necessary potential to be a key settlement. It is clear that when the selections of the cases has been wrong in the first place, the desired achievements would not be met;
- ii) Only two cases have complete physical implementation. One is Torkaman, where the status changed to city and so it obtained additional resources and powers as well as the necessary administrative departments; the other is the smallest case Khoram-Dasht, which was financially supported by the Presidents' office, and which in reality, would not otherwise have had sufficient budget for implementation or even been selected for planning;
- iii) Only one case has met its proposed population, although some population increases have happened in four cases, because of the impact of other development activities in the region, not planning;
- iv) Despite clear proposals for some physical developments in the planner's proposals, such as educational facilities, some apparently with a strong need, only in four cases have High Schools or Boarding Schools been established and are running. But mostly these new functions are using the existing buildings, little new construction has been done for these purposes;
- v) Despite the importance of economic improvement, and its strong relation with development only in two cases did the planner make proposals for economic activity;
- vi) Only in two cases is development control being undertaken, one is Torkaman, that

has city status, and has the necessary administrative agencies for development control. The other is Azan where after planning the residents need permission for new construction.

### **7.5. Overall evaluation of the planner's reports:**

The study of all 13 reports confirms that all the reports make some attempts to follow the guidelines as set out in the detailed policy. But in different ways, they do not cover all the main contents required by the policy-maker. The problems generally would be:

- i) Most of the studies are only reports on the existing situation and do not follow on with the analysis that should be the basis of final proposals;
- ii) Lack of necessary expertise in all the different topics, to produce the necessary understanding of the current situation and the potentials;
- iii) This planning process has been happening in the 90s. this was between two census dates (1986-1996), and almost none of the consultants tried to provide accurate data for their cases at the time of planning. This has been the cause of invalid proposals based on incorrect data. This point makes clear the need for the quality of data to be improved.
- iv) Unrealistic proposals have been the reason that most of the planner's proposals, even physical projects, have not been implemented 6~8 years after planning;
- v) Lack of accurate estimates of the costs of the projects has been part of the cause of poorly organised programmes in the Branch offices and many incomplete implementation projects;
- vi) In spite of the importance of economic development throughout the development

policy and guidelines, very few attempts have been made to study and identify the potential for employment opportunity in the areas and different ways of economic development;

- vii) Almost in all the reports the main emphasis have been for physical proposals, with nothing for social and economic development.

The overall problem is the quality of the research, and the way in which the planner's reports have been prepared. Usually the planner's fee is less than 1% of the executive budget which shows how the importance of such strategic projects, important at the national level, has been ignored. This would be the cause of low quality plans, which usually do not include a comprehensive study of all the subjects which are *very necessary for the plan*. This problem also indicates that perhaps the policy maker did not realise the importance of good quality plans for these strategic projects at National level before implementation.

### **7.6. Implementation:**

The land use plan which is provided by the planner in phase 1, usually needs some preparatory engineering work in order to be ready for implementation but this stage is missed in this process. This would be one of the reasons why when physical proposals are implemented, they are not of good quality. Lack of any second phase plan for implementation, that should provide all the necessary details for physical activities, would be the reason for some poor quality implementation. This could also be the cause of some discrepancies between investment and outcomes that in some situations do not match with each other.

Another problem shows up, when a correct estimation of the costs is not available, it also needs more detailed planning for the calculation of the costs; the lack of estimates means

that organising the annual budgets is almost impossible, and this would explain why many proposals in the physical development plans remain incomplete.

In this research, with the lack of agencies directly in charge of the process of implementation, Bonyad's duty and its responsibilities, have been discussed. But the main question concern the institutional capacity of Bonyad, and the level at which it is able to handle such projects. Usually from the view of machinery, all the Bonyad's branches have funding, but there is a lack of human resources, who can use the Budget and machinery in the best and most efficient way, and there is doubt that all the branch offices of Bonyad have enough experts for construction, especially when there are no detailed plans and they have to make most of the decisions on site. This is a matter of policy and money, and in one word, programming.

### ***7.7. Main Reasons for failure of Rural Development Planning in Iran:***

All the problems that have been discussed so far and analysed in cases studies, are summarised in this chapter, and would be classified as:

- i) Lack of direct organisation responsible for rural development planning, and lack of definite place for these activities within the national planning organisation's body;
- ii) Weaknesses in the Approval Committee, in charge of the development programme, specifically in these areas:
  - Decision making in the process of selection of cases for planning;
  - Selection of appropriate consultants.
  - Approval of prepared plans.

All of these problems refer to a lack of the necessary knowledge of the process, its requirements and a good understanding of the situation in order for correct decisions to be made at the right time;

- iii) lack of co-ordination between the different Agencies and Ministries involved;
- iv) Lack of people participation in the process, from the beginning for plan preparation to the implementation and monitoring;
- v) The detailed guidelines, which do not cover all the necessary aspects for development;
- vi) Lack of agencies in charge of development control, and for feedback and monitoring of the process;
- vii) Lack of agencies in charge of implementation; and finally
- viii) Lack of qualified consultants for such strategic and implementation projects.

### **7.8. Recommendations:**

Overall recommendations concern the process of planning, implementation, monitoring and execution of the programme, and the ways that these issues could be improved:

- i) the organisations, which are supposed to handle these projects should have clear definition and accurate designation within the national planning organisation, accurate design for all necessary branch offices in the country, compared with the number of the projects, which annually they have to deal with;
- the appropriate decisions structures to produce spatial co-ordination between all relevant Ministries, and organisations, which somehow are doing development activities, these should include, Bonyad, Jihad, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and medicine, Road and Transportation, Ministry of Agriculture;

- the accurate definition for the nature of Approval Committees;
  - the accurate definition for the agencies that should control development;
  - the resource allocations; and
  - a comprehensive study for different ways to improve the “institutional capacity” of all the agencies involved.
- ii) the necessity for regional planning, for the recognition of the potentials in every region, and a study of how they could be improved, and of the priorities in order to be taken into account in all development programmes in the region. This would be a long term programme, but in the short term, at least every planner should make a comprehensive study of all development programmes in the effective area for the case, and make appropriate proposals in order to identify and develop economic and social potential and to improve the coordination;
- iii) providing different versions of the guidelines for different regions, for covering all the necessary points of study in each region, to be sure that such guidelines cover all the necessary areas for a continuous and “sustainable” process;
- iv) a proper selection of qualified consultants, evaluation of their possibilities for using the required specialists, and defining proper criteria for the planner’s fee, enough for covering all necessary costs, in order to prepare plans which meet all the desired aims for a good quality study and plan;
- v) design the proper agencies for monitoring and feedback at all levels;
- vi) taking into account the importance of accurate data as a vital base point, the ways for producing more accurate data in this regard should be considered by the Iranian Statistical Centre in the first place, to provide the necessary information for the

planner. But at the local level, the planner should be required to control and check the available data and make the necessary investigations or surveys for use within the plan.

- vii) Community participation, which with the recent establishment of councils, should become more effective in the whole process of planning.

These points are all necessary and vital to improve the process. These points are closely inter-connected and in some way, are each necessary to improve the process, overall. It would be very difficult to highlight one from another as priority, but some of them could be done in the short term to guarantee the process, and the others need more comprehensive and national programmes. As short term activities, for improving the quality of plans, the suggestions would be:

- i) One of the main points through the case studies, refers to the Approval Committee, that has the main role in such projects, and as discussed one of the reasons for the failure of the plans is the weakness in their institutional capacity, in relation to the duties they should undertake. They should be provided with:
- very clear guidelines for the activities that they are in charge of, with clear criteria for the selection of the cases, the appointment of consultants and the evaluation of the prepared plans, which would be the first steps to improving the quality of decision of these Committees;
  - the importance of the Committee require well-qualified membership, some necessary training should be given so that they are better prepared to make the right decisions in the different parts of their duty.
- ii) the appropriate design for proper, detailed guidelines for every region, covering all

- the desired issues for development;
- iii) organising the desired co-ordination between all the development activities in every region, to be sure they complement each other within main development framework.

In the long term, the other activities, which would improve the base for rural development plans would be:

- i) preparing regional plans, for different areas, to define the existing potentials and natural resources, to be base of development studies and rural development plane in each region;
- ii) recognising the real key settlements, for programming the future development activities in the right places.

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***Appendix A:***

***General Planning Control***

***Meaning of Development and requirement of Planning Permission***

***Source: Town and Country Planning Act 1971***

### ***Part III***

#### ***General Planning Control***

##### ***Meaning of Development and requirement of planning permission***

###### ***Meaning of “Development” and “new development”***

22.—(1) In this Act, except where the context otherwise requires, “Development”, subject to the following provisions of this section, means the carrying out of building, engineering, mining or other operations in, on, over or under land, or the making of any material change in the use of any buildings or other lands.

- (2) the following operations or uses of land shall not be taken for the purposes of this Act to involve development of the land, that is to say---
  - (a) the carrying out of works for the maintenance, improvement or other alteration of any building; being works which affect only the interior of the building or which do not materially affect the external appearance of the building and (in either case) are not works for making good war damage or works begun after 5<sup>th</sup> December 1968 for the alteration of a building by providing additional space therein below ground;

- (b) the carrying out by a local highway authority of any works required for the maintenance or improvement of a road, being works carried out on land within the boundaries of the road;
  - (c) the carrying out by a local authority or statutory undertakers of any works for the purpose of inspecting, repairing or renewing any sewers, mains, pipes, cables or other apparatus, including the breaking open of any street or other land for that purpose;
  - (d) the use of any buildings or other land within the curtilage of a dwellinghouse for any purpose incidental to the enjoyment of the dwellinghouse as such;
  - (e) the use of any land for the purposes of agriculture or forestry (including afforestation).
  - (f) In the case of buildings or other land which are used for a purpose of any class specified in an order made by the secretary of state under this section, the use thereof for any other purpose of the same class;
- (3) For the avoidance of doubt it is hereby declared that for the purposes of this section---
- (a) the use as two or more separate dwelling houses of any building previously used as a single dwelling house involves a material change in the use of the building and of each part thereof which is so used;
  - (b) the deposit of refuse or waste materials on land involves a material change in the use thereof, notwithstanding that the land is comprised in a site already used for that purpose, if either the superficial area of the deposit is thereby extended, or the

height of the deposit is thereby extended and exceeds the level of the land adjoining the site.

- (4) Without prejudice to any regulations made under the provisions of this Act relating to the control of advertisements, the use for the display of advertisements of any external part of a building which is not normally used for that purpose shall be treated for the purposes of this section as involving a material change in the use of that part of the building;
- (5) In this Act “new development” means any development other than development of a class specified in part I or part II of schedule 8 to this Act; and the provisions of part III of that schedule shall have effect for the purposes of parts I and II thereof.

*Appendix B:*

*The Habitat Agenda, 1996*

*Source: Habitat Webside.*

### ***The Habitat Agenda, 1996***

#### *10, balanced development of settlements in rural regions.*

163. Urban and rural areas are interdependent economically, socially and environmentally. At the turn of the century, a substantial proportion of the world's population will continue to live in rural settlements, particularly in developing countries. *In order to achieve a more sustainable future for the earth, these rural settlements need to be valued and supported.* Insufficient infrastructure and services, lack of environmentally sound technology, and pollution resulting from the adverse impacts of unsustainable industrialization and urbanization contribute significantly to the degradation of the rural environment. Additionally, the lack of employment opportunities in rural areas increases rural-to-urban migration and results in a loss of human capacity in rural communities. Policies and programs for the sustainable development of rural areas that integrate rural regions into the national economy require strong local and national institutions for the planning and management of human settlements that place emphasis on rural-urban linkages and treat villages and cities as two ends of a human settlements continuum.

164. In many countries, rural populations, including indigenous people, play an important role in ensuring food security and in sustaining the social and ecological balance over large tracts of land and thus contribute significantly to the task of protecting biodiversity and fragile ecosystems and to the sustainable use of biological resources.

### *Actions*

165. To promote the sustainable development of rural settlements and reduce rural-to-urban migration, Governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, should:

- (a) promote the active participation of all interested parties, including those in isolated and remote communities, in ensuring the integrated consideration of the environmental, social and economic objectives of rural development efforts;
- (b) Take appropriate measures to improve the living and working conditions in regional urban centres, small towns and rural development efforts;
- (c) Foster a sustainable and diversified agricultural system in order to have vibrant rural communities;
- (d) Provide infrastructure, services and incentives for investment in rural areas;
- (e) Promote education and training in rural areas to facilitate employment and the use of appropriate technology.

166. To promote the utilization of new and improved technologies and appropriate traditional practices in rural settlements development, governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, in cooperation with the private sector, should:

- (a) Improve access to information on agricultural production, marketing and pricing in rural and remote areas by using, *inter alia*, advanced and accessible communication technologies;
- (b) In cooperation with farmers' organizations, women's groups and other interested parties, promote research and the dissemination of research findings in traditional, new

and improved technologies for, inter alia, agriculture, aquaculture, forestry and agro-forestry.

167. In establishing policies for sustainable regional development and management, Governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, should:

- (a) Promote education and training programmes and establish procedures for the full participation of rural and indigenous people in the setting of priorities for balanced and ecologically viable regional development;
- (b) Make full use of geographic information systems and environmental assessment methods for the preparation of environmentally sound regional development policies;
- (c) Implement regional and rural development plans and programmes based on needs and economic viability;
- (d) Establish an efficient and transparent system for the allocation of resources to rural areas based on people's needs.

168. To strengthen sustainable development and employment opportunities in impoverished rural areas, Governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, should:

- (a) Stimulate rural development by enhancing employment opportunities, providing educational and health facilities and services, improving housing, strengthening technical infrastructure and encouraging rural enterprises and sustainable agriculture;
- (b) Establish priorities for regional infrastructure investments based on opportunities for economic return, social equity and environmental quality;
- (c) Encourage the private sector to develop and strengthen contract-based wholesale markets and marketing intermediaries for rural products so as to improve and/or establish a cash-flow and futures contract economy in rural areas;

- (d) Promote equitable and efficient access to markets as well as, where appropriate, pricing and payment systems for rural products, especially of food items consumed in urban areas;
- (e) Promote products from rural areas in urban markets and rural service centres by improving access to market information and distribution centres and networks;
- (f) Reduce significantly or eliminate environmentally harmful subsidies and other programs, such as those that stimulate the excessive use of pesticides and chemical fertilizers, and price control or subsidy systems that perpetuate unsustainable practices and production systems in rural and agricultural economies.

169. An integrated approach is required to promote balanced and mutually supportive urban-rural development. To achieve this objective, governments at the appropriate levels, including local authorities, with the support of the relevant international and regional institutions, should:

- (a) Provide an appropriate legal, fiscal and organizational framework that is suitable for strengthening the networks of small and medium-sized settlements in rural areas;
- (b) Facilitate the development of an efficient communication and distribution infrastructure for the exchange of information, labour, goods, services and capital between urban and rural areas;
- (c) Promote broad cooperation among local communities to find integrated solutions for land-use, transport and environmental problems in an urban-rural context;
- (d) Pursue a participatory approach to balanced and mutually supportive urban-rural development, based on a continuous dialogue among the interested parties involved in urban-rural development.

***Appendix C:***

***Guidelines for:  
Rural Development planning in Iran  
Source: Central Office of Bonyad-e-Maskan***

## ***Guidelines for: Rural Development Planning process***

### ***Introduction:***

### ***Definition:***

Development Planning is for the purpose of reviving and guiding villages in terms of Social, Economical and Physical improvement.

### ***Aims:***

1. To create the necessary Social, Cultural and Economic conditions for Development ;
2. To provide the necessary possibilities in relation to this Aim;
3. To provide guidelines for physical improvements conditions;
4. To create the necessary facilities for improving housing and other general environmental basic public services.

### ***Process of preparing Development plans***

#### ***Chapter 1. Study of existing conditions and possibilities:***

##### ***1. City:***

- i) Geographical location of the city in the country;
- ii) Geographical conditions of the city ;

##### ***2. District:***

- i) According to the geographical location, a study of the cluster, of which the village is its centre, roads and other services, that this village provides for the

- other villages in the cluster, and specify the effective cluster for different services. The methodology of this study must be designed by the planner;
- ii) A brief study of the natural resources in the district, especially water; (drinking & agricultural) ;
  - iii) Study of natural disasters, if these have happened, such as earthquake, etc.
  - iv) Study of the demographic details of the villages in the district, including: population, number of families, age, sex structure, marriage, birth & death and emigration or immigration;
  - v) Study of the functioning of the existing services from the view of quantity and quality, in the district, including: health, education and commercial services;
  - vi) Study of the situation of the nomadic people, if any, in the district, and their effects on the village;

### 3. *Village:*

- i) Study of the Agricultural land and natural resources inside the village limits;
- ii) Study of water resources for drinking and agriculture;
- iii) Study of rural income, agricultural activities, kinds of production, rural industry, and income from each;
- iv) Study of the administration of the village, past and present;
- v) Study of the climate;
- vi) Study of the history of the village, special points concerning its origins and development;
- vii) Study of the main influences on the physical shape of the village, like: rivers, mountains, topography and other natural, and societal factors and specify the

- different stages of physical development;
- viii) Study of the different functions and the different areas and land uses in the village, such as: Residential, Administrative, Services, and calculate the areas that each occupies;
  - ix) Study of the different kinds of ownership of different lands with different functions;
  - x) Study of the quality of the buildings, including private and public;
  - xi) Study of the roads of the village. Classify them, calculate their length and width, their function and degree of importance;
  - xii) Study of different districts in the village and identify the physical centre of the village;
  - xiii) Study of the infrastructure services, including drinking water, electricity, sewerage, etc;
  - xiv) Study of different types of construction systems and materials in the village appraise the advantages and disadvantages of each system;
  - xv) Architectural study of the physical shape of the village, the residential complexes and their public spaces;
  - xvi) Calculate the existing areas of each function per person.

***Chapter 2. Analyse the collected data and make Recommendations.***

- i) Analyse population movement in the district;
- ii) Calculate the need for services in the district;
- iii) Study of physical development possibilities and the restrictions;

- iv) Study of the existing difficulties for provision of the general and infrastructure services in the village;
- v) According to the functions of the village, analyse the suitability of the road pattern for connecting the physical centre of the village to the other parts; and to other villages in the district;
- vi) Study of the difficulties related to housing.(quantity and quality);
- vii) Study of the area for each function, according to existing standards and calculate the areas that are needed for the future;
- viii) Classify the necessary services in district;
- ix) Forecast the direction and boundaries for physical development in the village for the next 10 years;
- x) Make necessary suggestions for general specifications, relating to physical planning including sites for housing;
- xi) Planning how any difficulties with connections between different parts of the village would be solved.

### **Chapter 3. Planning :**

- i) Forecasting the distribution and location of each necessary public service around the district;
- ii) Specify the function of different zones for next 10 years and define the different stages of development according to the boundaries of physical development and suggested development areas as a Master plan (land use);
- iii) Planning for sewerage and for improving the infrastructure services such as: electricity , water and sewerage;

- iv) Making necessary suggestions to develop and improve the road network;
- v) Making suggestion for housing development for the next 10 years;
- vi) Making a proposal plan for the physical centre of the village;
- vii) Making guidelines and necessary specifications for housing and rules for the reconstruction of buildings;
- viii) Specify the priorities, for short, medium and long term development;
- ix) Specify the administrative organization for the village in order to execute the development plan .

***Appendix D:***

***Climate Classification of Iran***

***Kasmaee, A. Climate division in Iran***

## ***Climate Classification of Iran***

### **Housing and Residential Environment**

The aim of this Appendix is to explain the climatic classification of Iran, the specification of each group and its geographical location through out the country.

The next pages explain the specification and distribution of each group in the country, finally Figure 9 shows the distribution of the groups.

Generally 36 climatic types are recognised in Iran, but some of them from the view of planning have the same characteristics so that eight main groups are identified.

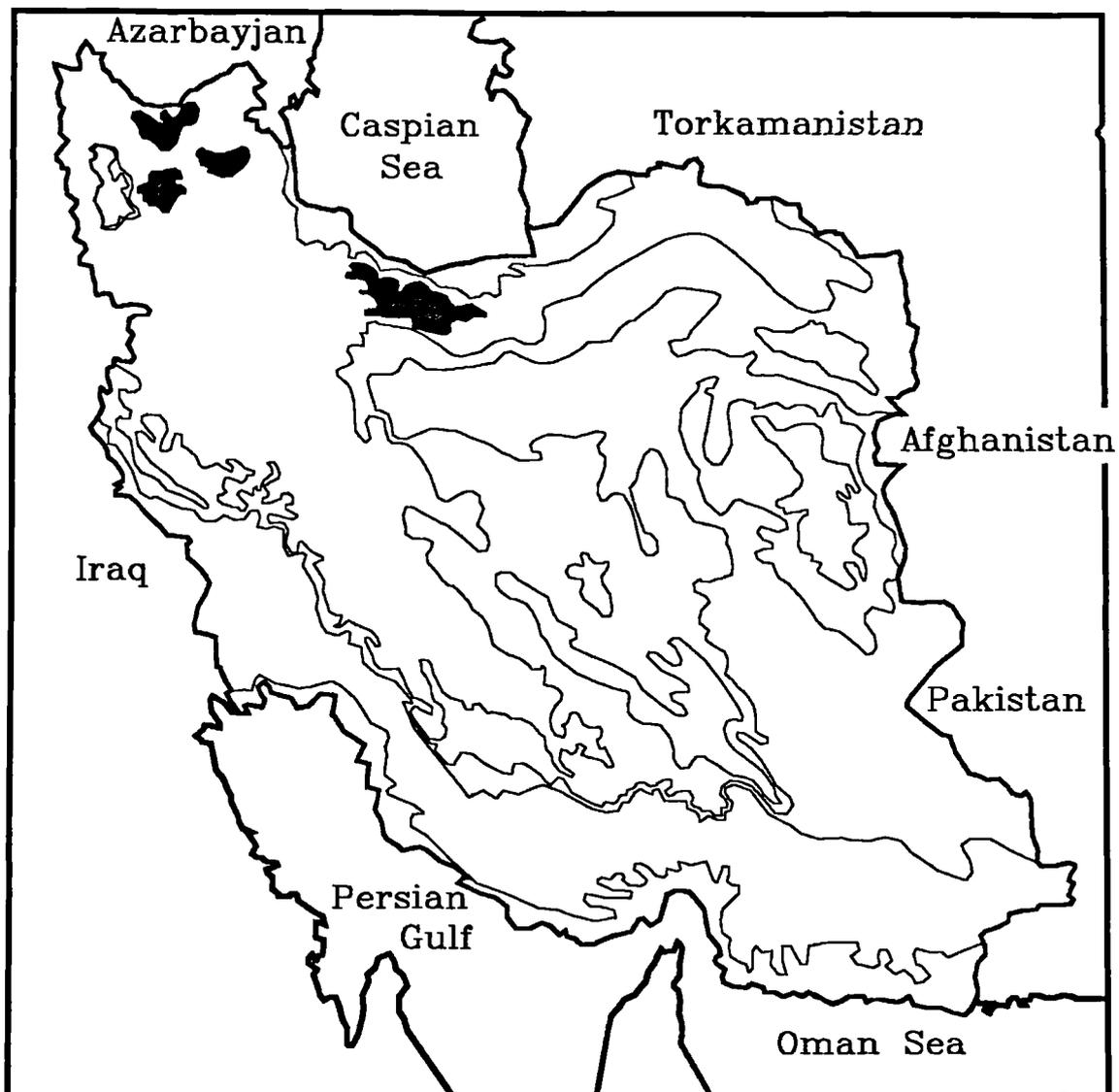
This classification indicates the necessary structures, mechanical or some building specifications, that are needed to be built in order that the residents would be able to continue their life in the different regions. This classification affects the physical conditions for rural physical planning.

**Group 1:**

This group is “high and cold” located north of 35 degrees, with altitude over 2000m.

The specification of this group is very cold weather in winter and smoderate conditions in summer.

**Figure 1.** Areas of this group.



**Group 2:**

This group contains the largest area through the country between 20 to 35 degree north, and higher than 2000, up to 2250m. From the view of temperature, the high altitude southern regions have the same conditions as lower regions in the north. Winter in these regions is cold to very cold, and the summer moderate to warm and dry.

**Figure 2:** Areas of this group.



**Group 3:**

These regions are limited to low altitudes, 700m in the south of the Caspian Sea and around Oromie Lake. These regions are cold in winter and wet in summer with high rain fall.

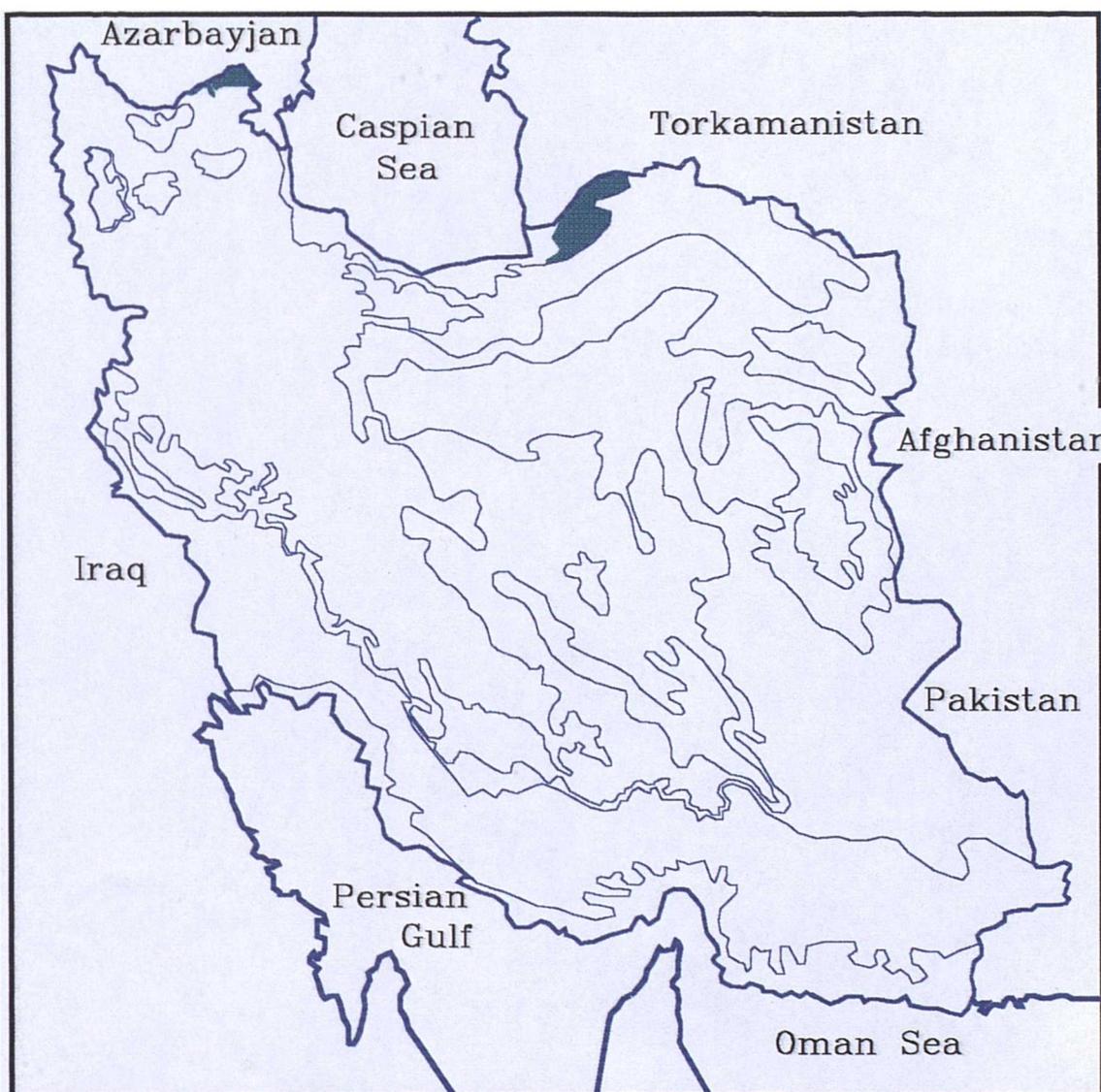
**Figure 3.** Areas of this group.



**Group 4:**

This group is similar to group 3, but they are further from the sea and so have colder winters.

**Figure 4.** Areas of this group.



**Group 5:**

This group contains different regions, with different geographical width and height, distributed in the north, east and south of Iran.

From the view of area this group is the second largest group and contains 7 main areas.

These regions are cold in winter and hot to very hot in summer.

**Figure 5.** Areas of this group.

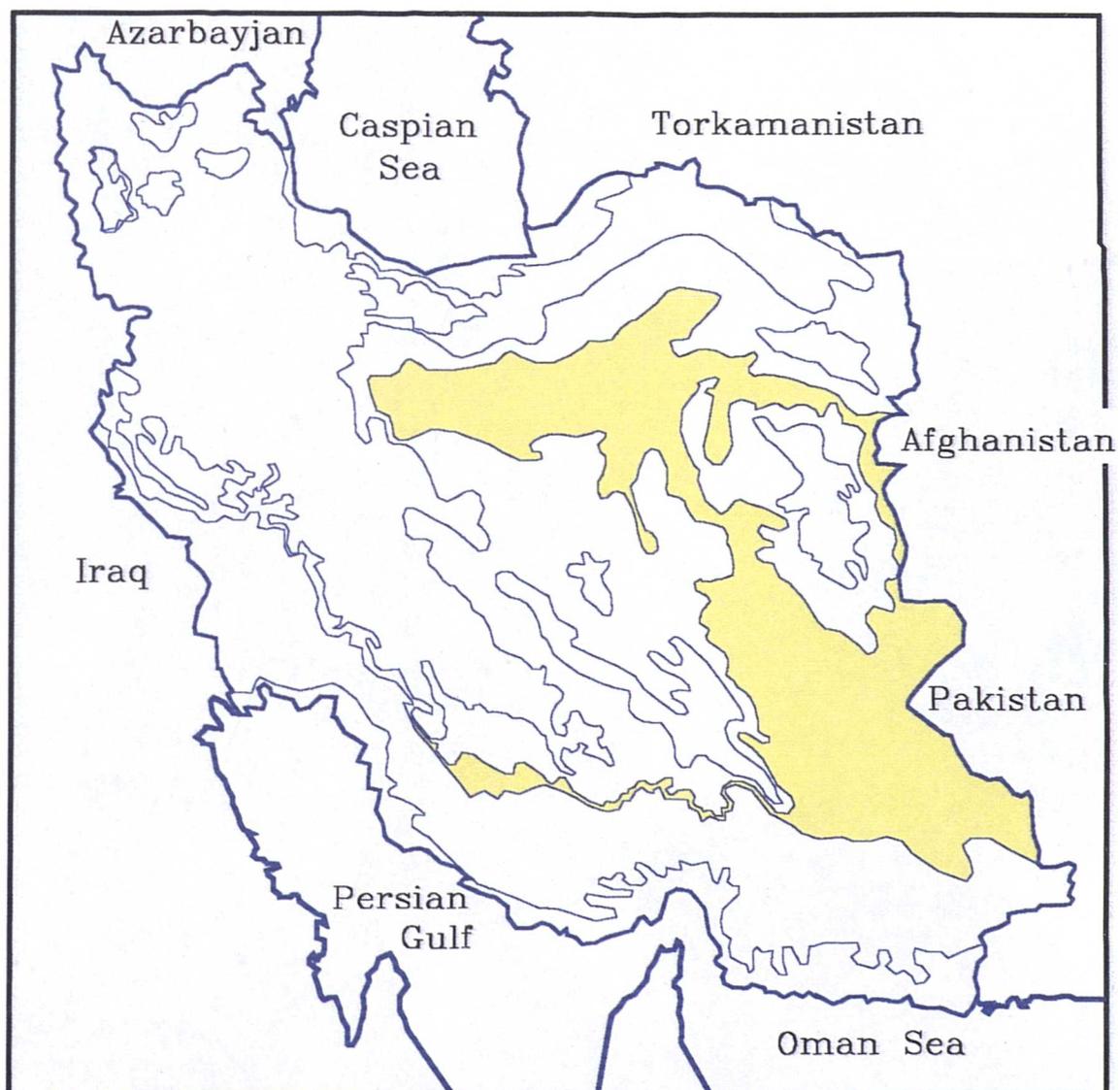


**Group 6:**

The altitude in these regions varies from 690m to 1300m, mostly desert, the areas are cold in winter and warm, very warm and dry in summer.

This group contains 6 areas. These areas are surrounded by deserts, without any plants, with very strong and dusty winds.

**Figure 6.** Areas of this group.



**Group 7:**

This group contains 5 main areas of coastal plain, distributed along the south coast beside the Persian Gulf and Oman Sea. The altitude, and the location between 28 to 33 degrees north are the reason why these regions are very hot and dry in summer and moderate to cold in winter.

**Figure 7.** Areas of this group.



**Group 8:**

This group contains 3 areas in a very narrow area between group 7 and the Persian Gulf and Oman Sea. These are lowlands below 3m. In these regions the low height, as well as being beside the sea are the reasons that these regions have the worst conditions, very hot and wet and humid. Usually ordinary life stops during the summer. Only for five months from November to April is the temperature moderate and sometimes lower at nights.

**Figure 8.** Areas of this group.

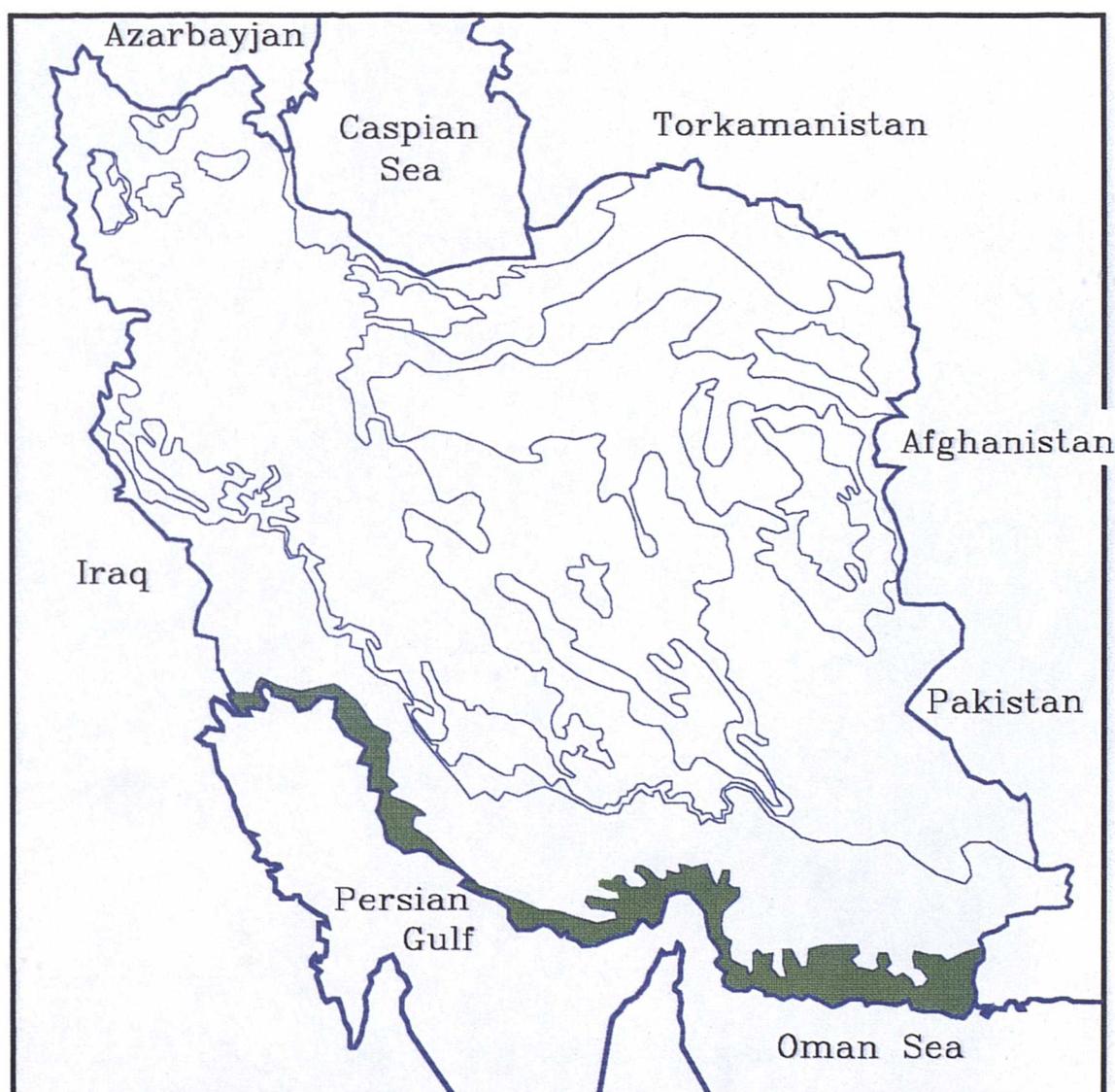


Figure 9: The climate classification for IRAN.

