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KINGDOM OF IRAQ

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His Majesty King Faisal II

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AN INTRODUCTION TO THE PAST AND PRESENT OF THE

KINGDOM *of* IRAQ

By

A COMMITTEE OF OFFICIALS.

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His Royal Highness the Regent and Crown Prince Emir Abdul-Ilah

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I

FOREWORD

An attempt has been made in the following pages to present to the English-speaking world the picture of a young and progressive nation.

Iraq was one of the several Arab provinces liberated from the Ottoman Empire in the First World War. The political settlement which followed did not embody the fullest realization of the aspirations for which the people fought on the Allied side during the war, but considerably fell short of it. Nevertheless Iraq continued its efforts in the subsequent years. It became a kingdom upon the accession of King Faisal the First to the throne in 1921. During the next ten years she made great progress and reached a high enough standard of government efficiency and stability to be admitted to the League of Nations in 1932 as an independent sovereign state.

With her sister states of the Arab East she now awaits the day when the historical and cultural identity of the Arab peoples will finally attain economic unity and political expression. Meanwhile she has followed her traditional inclination by linking her fortunes with the great democracies by ranging herself beside her Allies in the war against aggression.

This little handbook is not intended to describe the completion of a task. On the contrary, every citizen of Iraq realizes that what has so far been achieved is the establishment of Iraq as a recognized member of the civilized family of nations which is only the first stage.

Iraq is now equipped with a framework of laws which have cleared the path for social and individual progress. By trial and error she is evolving an administrative machinery which will be capable of interpreting in a practical manner the growing demand of the younger generation for a national effort to raise the country's standard of living and administrative efficiency.

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But there is no intention in the following pages to ignore Iraq's shortcomings or to minimize the tremendous task that lies ahead.

Therefore, if a note of self-satisfaction or complacency is to be found in this book it is entirely confined to what has been accomplished in the past. This achievement can only be adequately gauged by comparing the state of the country in which it emerged from the First World War with its state today bearing in mind the difficulties and vicissitudes that the young nation has had to face during that period.

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II

THE ROYAL FAMILY OF IRAQ

With the establishment of the Kingdom of Iraq under King Faisal I in 1921, not only did Iraq regain her political entity which she had lost in 1258 as a result of the Mongol invasions, but by choosing a Hashimite as head of the State she also restored to the throne the very family from which the Abbasid Caliphs themselves had sprung.

The Hashimite family belonged to the Koreish, most distinguished of the Hejaz tribes and were custodians of the Holy *Kaaba* at Mecca long before the advent of Islam and continued in that capacity almost without interruption up to 1926, their Elders dispensing justice and regulating the communal life of the tribes. The Prophet Mohammed, who inspired the Arabs in the seventh century to spread his teaching from the Indus to the Pyrenees, was also of the Hashimite family. Generations of modest living in the communal simplicity of a patriarchal society, combined with the requisite human understanding and philosophy to control the destinies of the ever-increasing Arab Empire, all contributed to the development of its distinguished tradition.

It was therefore natural that, with the revival of their national aspirations, the Palestinians, Syrians and other Arabs turned for leadership in 1915 to the Sherif of Mecca, Husein Ibn Ali. For Husein was not only the custodian of Mecca but also a Hashimite and the thirty-seventh generation in direct line from the Prophet's daughter, Fatima, who married his cousin the Imam Ali.

The Emir Faisal, the third son of the Sherif of Mecca (later King Husein of the Hejaz), led the Arab forces against the Ottomans in 1916. With assistance of many Arab officers who deserted the Ottoman Army to join their compatriots, and the aid of a few capable British officers, he succeeded in matching his inexperienced and ill-armed tribesmen against the German-organized Ottoman Forces and in holding his own until a regular Arab army had been trained in the field—a remarkable tribute to the Emir's natural ability and commanding personality. Later

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King Faisal I

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these qualities proved invaluable to the British, Iraqi, and other Arab officers, who had joined the Arab Revolt, in organizing and co-ordinating the Arab Forces which were to play a decisive part in the liberation of Palestine and Syria.

In 1919, Emir Faisal went to Paris where he represented his father at the Peace Conference. Later he visited London to press the Arab claims under the Anglo-Arab Agreement of 1915. On his return to Damascus he was crowned King of Greater Syria, a short-lived Kingdom which succumbed to French Imperialism. On his accession to the Throne of Iraq, King Faisal had to deal with the difficulties attending the change from a British colonial administration to a national constitutional government. The measure of his success is reflected in this book. By wise statesmanship he adjusted the relations between Iraq and her ally, Great Britain, by a series of treaties which hastened the admission of Iraq into the League of Nations as an Independent Sovereign State in 1932.

His frequent visits to Europe made King Faisal an international figure and won him the goodwill of many great statesmen, especially in England. He also cultivated the friendship of the rulers of neighbouring countries and concluded friendly agreements with them which greatly consolidated Iraq's position.

King Faisal's tastes and way of living were simple and democratic. By keeping in close contact both with the administration and with his people and by frequent personal tours of inspection, he was able to control and guide the development of his country. He kept a model farm which was open to the public and to which he frequently invited prospective farmers for week-end visits. He inspired the teaching profession by registering himself as a teacher and presiding over a Teachers' Conference.

A keen sense of humor and the ability to communicate his enthusiasm and optimism to others enabled him to unite his country's various communities in a bond of mutual confidence and common endeavor. There was no racial or religious discrimination in the country, all communities sharing together in the government of the State along democratic lines.

Born in 1883, Faisal had left the Hejaz as a young man for Turkey and a few years later he represented Jedda in the Ottoman Parliament at Istanbul. Socially inclined he mixed freely with politicians and states-

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King Ghazi I

King Ali

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men and made close contact with Western life. Thùs in establishing a modern order in Iraq, he was particularly well prepared to integrate all that had a survival value in the cultural heritage of the country with the best elements of Western civilization.

Of his brothers, the Emir Abdullah has become the ruler of Transjordan while the youngest, Emir Zaid, who had served with great gallantry in the Arab Revolt, leading raiding parties in the rear of the Turkish lines, went to Oxford, and on his return to Iraq temporarily entered the diplomatic service.

It was, however, King Ali to whom King Faisal was most attached. During the siege of Medina, they had ridden together among the bursting shells of the Ottoman guns to inspire their men who were unaccustomed to artillery. When King Ali lost the Throne of the Hejaz, he came to live near his brother in Baghdad, where his gentle nature and dignified personality soon made him popular. The two brothers were inseparable and their characters in many ways complementary. On the death of King Husein in 1931, Ali became the Head of the Hashimite Family and as such Faisal felt a sincere respect towards him, whereas Ali deeply appreciated the hospitality of the King and people of Iraq. This mutual respect is a typical trait of the Hashimite tradition.

King Faisal died in 1933 and his only son, Ghazi, succeeded him as King Ghazi I. The death of Faisal shook the Arab world. His personality was familiar to every Arab village and community. His name had become legendary even while he still lived. For in Iraq he had demonstrated to the world what could be accomplished in an atmosphere of freedom and security. It was also an indication of what could have been achieved in Greater Syria and other Arab countries had the Allies respected the Anglo-Arab Agreement in its entirety. The September day on which Faisal passed away marked the birth of a new spirit of unity among the Arab States. Iraq had lost its master-builder, the Arabs their leader and champion.

Two years later King Ali who had been deeply affected by the loss of his brother died of a heart attack.

Ghazi was born in 1912. Educated in England at Harrow and at the Military College in Baghdad, he ascended the Throne at the early age of twenty-two. Energetic and full of zeal he had a passion for modern mechanical inventions to which he devoted much of his spare time.

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He was a natural sportsman and soldier, piloted his own plane and took an active part in army maneuvers. King Ghazi gave away a large part of his personal property to those who had served the nation or the Arab Cause. He seldom refused a plea for assistance and showed clemency and human understanding in the exercise of his duties.

In 1934 he married his cousin, Emira 'Aliyah, the daughter of King Ali. A son, Faisal, was born in 1935 and became heir to the throne. Both these events added to the popularity he already enjoyed, for in his short reign he had captured the imagination of the masses and the enthusiasm of the country's youth. His tragic death in April 1939 in a motor accident brought to a premature end the life of a promising and popular ruler who, with maturity, would have undoubtedly contributed much to the country's future development. Since his death, the Queen Mother, has shown a very real sense of increased responsibility towards the young King and the State. She has taken a particular interest in the welfare of the women of Iraq. She is accessible to the humblest women of the country and spends many hours of her time in active work among the various welfare societies.

Ghazi was succeeded by his four-year-old son, King Faisal II. The Emir Abdul 'Ilah, son of King Ali, was appointed Regent and Heir to the Throne by Act of Parliament. Born in 1913, Abdul 'Ilah was educated at Victoria College in Alexandria, and in him again Iraq is fortunate in having a ruler who combines both the Arab and the Western outlook. Hardly had he been installed when the Second World War began, and the young nation headed by its young ruler had to face, with the rest of the world, this gravest of all crises. The strategic position of Iraq and the unsettled state of opinion in the Arab countries combined to create a situation fraught with difficulties and dangers, yet the Regent never faltered, and his inherent courage and wisdom now manifest as being worthy of his great forebears—overcame the forces of disruption and ranged the country on the side of the Great Democracies. It is to be hoped that the success of his recent visit to Great Britain, the United States and other countries augurs well for his future as an international figure. His strong personality and keen interest in the advancement of his country and the Arab Cause have already won for him the respect of the Arab world, while his devotion to the alert and promising young King whom he is preparing to be another Faisal the Great, is in the best tradition of the Hashimite Family and has earned the nation's deep gratitude.

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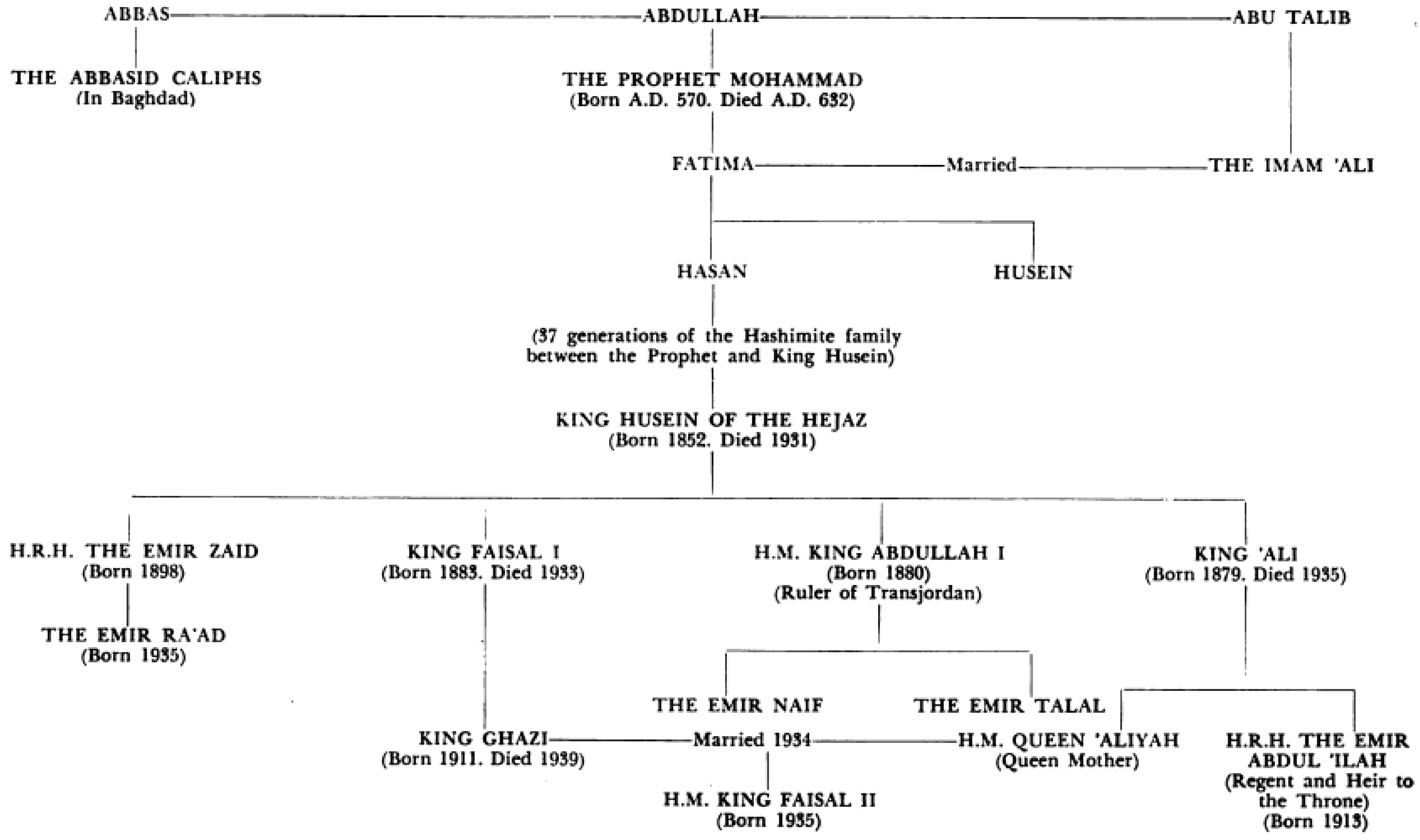
TREE OF THE HASHIMITE FAMILY
INCLUDING THE PRESENT ROYAL FAMILY OF IRAQ



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THE LAND

The frontiers of the modern Kingdom of Iraq were fixed during the years immediately following the First World War. The country which they include approximately corresponds to what had previously been the three Turkish provinces of Basrah, Baghdad and Mosul. Limited on the East side by the mountains of Iran, and on the West by a more arbitrary line in mid-desert, its several regions vary considerably in character and even in climate. In the South is the alluvial plain, reclaimed by the rivers themselves from the Persian Gulf. In the North are the undulating uplands of the old *vilayet* of Mosul. These are the main divisions, but also included within its frontiers are a large slice of the Syrian Desert and approximately one-third of mountainous Kurdistan.

The southern alluvial plain is exactly delimited by the ancient shore-line of the Gulf before the sixth millennium B. C. To the north-east this follows the foothills of the Persian mountains up from the sea, turns south-west across the old river estuaries at Samarra and Hit, and returns parallel to and west of the Euphrates. Enclosed within this boundary is an expanse of entirely flat and stoneless riverborn soil, potentially very fertile indeed but requiring artificial irrigation to compensate for climatic shortcomings, the annual rainfall averaging about six inches. Through this area the two rivers have meandered for seven millennia, changing their course continually, often remaining split into several branches, but latterly always reuniting above the modern city of Basrah to complete their course in a single great channel called the Shatt-al-Arab. Above Basrah also is the marshland of the Muntafiq *liwa,* where the drying-out process is still incomplete. Elsewhere, the rivers, being in their delta, flow at a level a few feet higher than the rest of the plain, which is consequently always in danger of flood, particularly in the springtime, when the snow melts on the mountains of Kurdistan and Anatolia.

Depending for its cultivation on artificial irrigation, the entire plain is threaded and crisscrossed with water-channels and the remains

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Date Palm Trees

of ancient canals, testifying the sixty centuries of human industry and ingenuity. It is also flecked with innumerable mounds, each representing the accumulated remains of some human settlement, now abandoned.

The greater part of northern Iraq may be called upland country. It is undulating, gravel steppe and rick ploughland with some stone. Here the rainfall of an average year is sufficient for it to yield a single crop without irrigation, wherever the soil is suitable, so that only gardens and plantations are artificially watered. This is sometimes done by the *Karez* system which has been practised in Iraq, Iran and Afghanistan for many centuries. Where the land is situated at the foot of gravelly hills, if a series of wells are dug down to the water-table, and connected underground by a tunnel, water will be produced and will pass out where the lower end of the tunnel runs out onto the ground surface. In this way sufficient water is provided for the irrigation of small choice areas. The wells are of very small diameter, just sufficient to allow a man to descend—and the connecting tunnel is also very small. The men who make the *Karez* have acquired great skill in directing their tunnel underground and in maintaining sufficient slope to

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bring their water to the surface at the desired place. Elsewhere the country is normally bare, but a wet spring covers it with an ephemeral garment of grass and flowers, which withers in May. Between the two rivers, in the center, is a wedge of uncultivable gypsum desert known as Al-Jazirah, itself divided by a strange deserted *wadi,* called Thar-thar, which runs due north and south and ends in a salt lake.

After the uplands come the high lands of Kurdistan, forming a north-eastern crescent of mountain country with its lower point resting approximately on Khanaqin and its upper on the Tigris at Faish Khabur. Here are stone-built villages shelved into the side of the hills, with tall silver poplars, and terraced cultivation including vineyards and tobacco. The mountains run up to 14,000 feet in height and are covered with snow throughout the winter. The rainfall is heavy from October to May. In the spring, when the valleys are full of flowers and blossom this district is as beautiful and attractive to visit as any in the world. Large areas of mountain-side are covered with scrub-oak, or less often conifers, and there is much game below the snow-line in winter.

Lastly, as we have said, included in the frontiers of northern Iraq is a portion of the Syrian Desert, almost equal in area to the remaining half of the State. This is uncultivable and almost waterless, inhabited only by Bedouin tribes with their flocks and camels.

Amadiyah (A Northern Village)

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IV

HISTORY UP TO 1914

Traces of the first settlers in Iraq, in the fifth millennium B. C., are naturally found in the northern uplands only, since the head of the Persian Gulf had at that time not yet receded. When the southern plain did eventually begin to dry out, new settlers came in three waves—the first and third from the Iranian highlands to the east, the second from northern Anatolia. By about 3000 B. C., when written history begins, these indeterminate immigrants had fused themselves into a homogeneous national entity with clearly defined character. They called themselves Sumerians, and by the middle of the third millennium had laid the foundations of the world-civilization.

The subsequent history of Iraq can be divided into two main periods, each of which must be sub-divided into several sub-periods. The first main period is that prior to 539 B. C. before which date two great States, Babylonia (on the lower and middle Euphrates) and Assyria (on the upper Tigris), were in existence for a long age. The second main period, subsequent to 539 B. C., was marked by the rule of a regular succession of foreign conquerors until the Arab Conquest in 637 A. D. which transformed the country into an integral and permanent part of the Arab world.

BEFORE 539 B. C.—BABYLONIA AND ASSYRIA. The history of Babylonia and of Assyria falls into four sub-periods, the first two of which each lasted a thousand years or more, the third and fourth together totalling only 211 years.

Sub-Period No. 1 (3100 B. C.—1750 B. C.). In the earliest sub-period for the first 1000 years the name Babylonia is really a misnomer, because Babylon itself was an unimportant village. The ruling powers were the Kingdoms of Sumer and of Akkad, and these kingdoms consisted of several "City States" or large areas encircling the powerful cities which owned them. The great cities of Sumer and Akkad were Ur, Eridu, Lagash, Erech, Nippur, Kish, Agade, Isin, Larsa, etc. The two kingdoms combined in 2500 B. C. and formed one great nation, its most famous kings being Sargon and Naram Sin.

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The Bull, an Assyrian Statue

Ruins of Babylon

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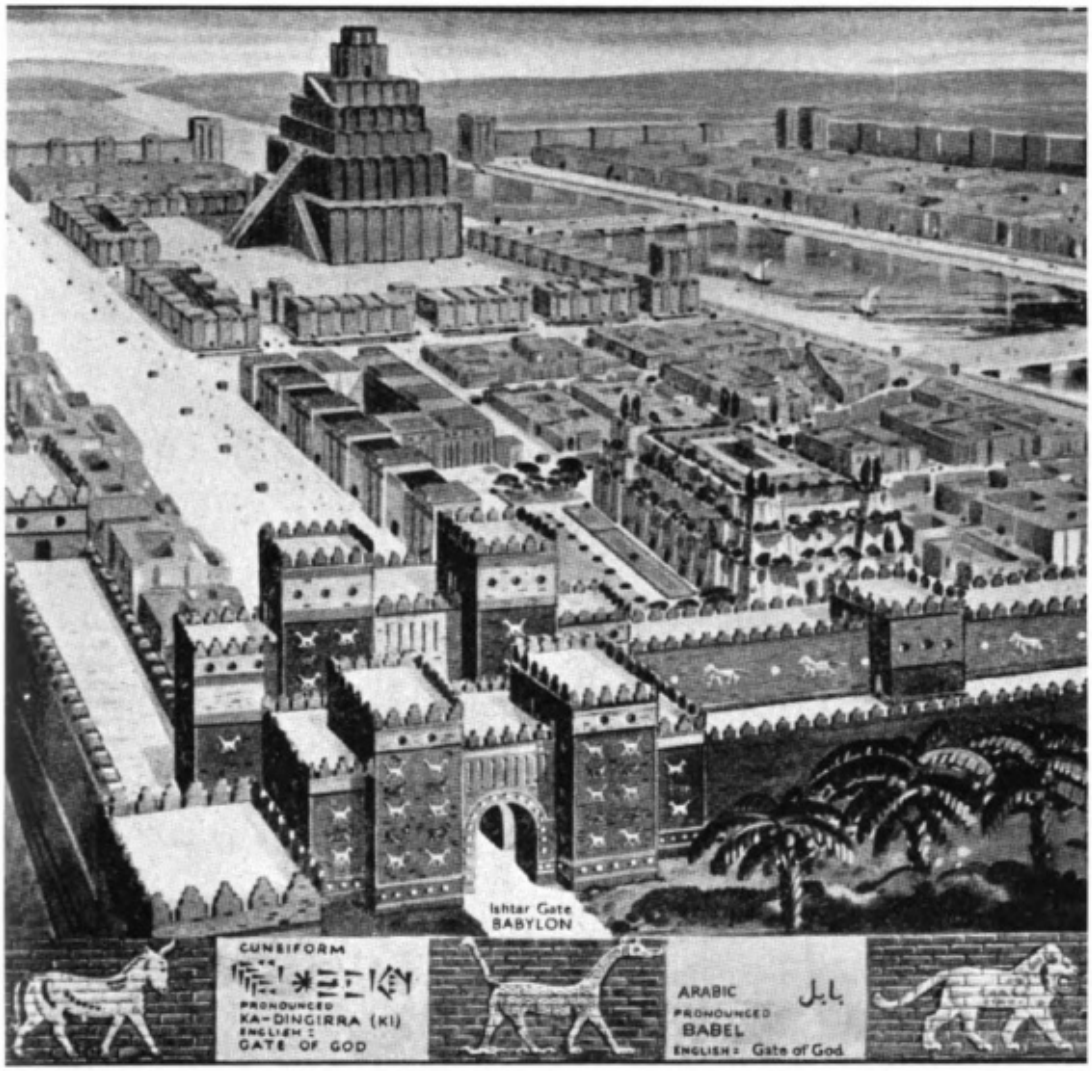

Reconstruction of Babylon Showing the Hanging Gardens and the Tower of Babylon

Finally an invasion of Agade which was followed by confusion, and a dispute between Isin and Larsa allowed a new dynasty to come into power. This new dynasty was an Amorite one, which probably originated in the Northern Syrian desert and moved over to the village of Babylon in about 2200 B. C. Babylon now became a "City State," but one of capital importance. Hammurabi, the most important ruler of this Amorite dynasty, made Babylon into a mighty city; he was famous for his great progress and for his wonderful code of laws. Although cuneiform characters had been invented by the early Sumerians, it was the great trade of Babylonia under Hammurabi with other countries that caused these characters to become the medium of intercourse

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Arch of Ctesiphon

throughout the Middle East. The splendor of this early city of Babylon was short-lived. After the death of Hammurabi, the Hittites swept down from the Northern mountains and laid hold of Babylonia for a time: they were followed later by the Kassites from the Eastern mountains. The Kassites came to stay.

Sub-Period No. 2 (1750 B. C.—750 B. C.). The second sub-period of 1000 years was one of declining importance for Babylonia under the Kassites. During this sub-period the very able rulers of a "City State" at Ashur, south of Mosul, increased the boundaries of their dominance and formed the kingdom of Assyria, which for 200 years (1350 B. C.—1150 B. C.) was especially strong in military power. There were 77 kings of Babylon in this sub-period.

Sub-Period No. 3 (750 B. C.—606 B. C.). The third sub-period of 144 years was that of the powerful military Empire of Assyria, that State having increased its boundaries to include most of the Middle East. In 720 B. C. the capital moved from Ashur to Nineveh (Mosul), and this city greatly surpassed the old Babylon in wealth and magnificence. The Assyrians dominated Babylonia, and the old City of Babylon (built by Hammurabi) was destroyed by them.

Sub-Period No. 4 (606 B. C.—539 B. C.). The fourth sub-period of 67 years was short but famous. In 606 B. C. Assyria fell to pieces, one of the tribes which hastened its downfall being the Chaldeans who had

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for four hundred years been continually encroaching northward from the Persian Gulf and southern Babylonia, and finally occupied Babylon itself. The Chaldeans now ruled in Babylon for 67 years, of which King Nebuchadnezzar ruled for 40 years. Nebuchadnezzar rebuilt Babylon, copying much from and surpassing Nineveh. It was during this epoch that Jerusalem was conquered and the Jews brought captive to Babylon. The ruins of Babylon that can be seen today are those of Nebuchadnezzar's Babylon, nothing being left of the older city of Hammurabi. This sub-period is often referred to in books as "Neo-Babylonian."

AFTER 539 B. C.—FOREIGN RULE

SUB-PERIOD No. 5 (539 B. C.—331 B. C.). Finally Babylonia was overthrown in 539 B. C. by Cyrus the Great, King of Persia, who defeated the Babylonian army led by the young crown prince Belshazzar, whose name in the Book of Daniel is a household word throughout the Christian world. This defeat is the one forecasted in the writing on the wall at the palace of Babylon. Babylonia became but a part of a great Persian Empire, though Babylon itself was chosen as the winter capital by its ruler.

It was during this sub-period that a famous raid was made on Babylon by Xenophon and his Ten Thousand Greeks.

SUB-PERIOD No. 6 (331 B. C.—247 B. C.). In 331 B. C. Alexander the Great invaded the country and changed Persian for Greek rule.

Aerial View of Al-Malwiyah, at Samarrah

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This remarkable and energetic young Macedonian had set out at the age of twenty and conquered Asia Minor and Egypt. Then, at the age of twenty-five, he decided to throw the Persians out of Babylon; in 331 B. C. he defeated the Persian King in a terrific battle near Arbela, occupying Babylon a few days later. During the next seven years Alexander conquered modern Persia and Afghanistan, crossed the frontiers of India, and invaded the Punjab; he built a fleet on the river Indus and returned to Babylon via the Persian Gulf. He thus became master of the world—or of as much of it as was then known.

In 323 B. C., after 13 years' reign, Alexander died at Babylon, aged 33 years. The succession was disputed, finally Seleucus (one of his generals) acquired the Iraq portion of his conquests. The latter built a new capital, Seleucia (on the Tigris, twenty miles below Baghdad). The Greek House of Seleucus lasted for 175 years, but the culture brought by the Greeks and the development carried out by them influenced the country for several more centuries.

Sub-Period No. 7 (247 B. C.—226 A. D.). The next invaders were the Parthians (from Persia). After long wars this able people conquered the Seleucids and built a new capital called Ctesiphon, just opposite to Seleucia, on the other side of the Tigris. During this sub-period the great Roman Empire was in being, and Syria formed part of that Empire. There was continual war between Parthia and Rome.

Sub-Period No. 8 (226 A. D.—636 A. D.). Afterwards another Persian dynasty, the Sasanians or Sasanids, overcame the Parthians in 226 A. D., and in this epoch was built the great Arch of Ctesiphon, where the Sasanid kings spent their winters. Iraq was in a fine state of development under the Sasanids; and most of the disused irrigation canals which are to be seen all over the country are said to have been in operation during their reign. The strength and length of the Sasanid rule make their epoch a most important one of the "Foreign Rule Period" of Iraq history.

Sub-Period No. 9 (Arab Conquest) (636 A. D.—1258 A. D.). In 570 A. D. the Prophet Mohammed was born in Mecca, and on reaching manhood his religious teachings introduced a new great element into the world, the Moslem religion. On his death in 632 A. D. the Arabs inspired and united by his teachings organized campaigns which overran the fertile but mismanaged states surrounding their desert. In 636 A. D. they defeated the Byzantine Romans at the battle of Yarmuk and occupied Palestine and Syria. In 637 A. D. they reached Iraq and

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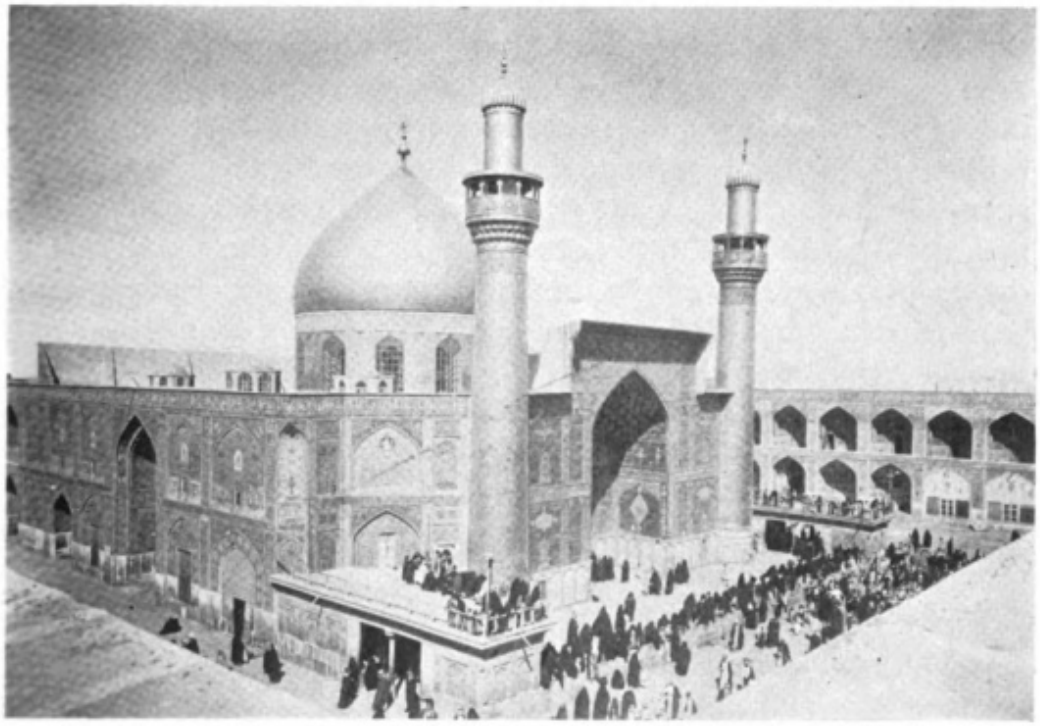
routed the Sasanians at Qadisiyah, 15 miles west of al-Kufah. The following year the Arabs took Ctesiphon, the capital of the Sasanids, and established strongholds at al-Kufah, Wasit, and al-Basrah; there was at once an influx of Arabs into Iraq.

When the Prophet died the title caliph (or successor) was instituted as the title of the Head of Islam. The first three caliphs ruled in Medina in the Hejaz; and Ali, the last one, came to Iraq where he was assassinated. The Umayyad Dynasty made Damascus the center of Arab power and the descendants of the Prophet's uncle, Abbas, brought the caliphate again to Iraq, and the capital was moved from Damascus to Anbar, near Faluja. The second Abbasid Caliph, Al-Mansur, decided to move the capital again. He chose a spot as being suitable, healthy, and well provided with water for irrigation purposes, and in 762 A. D. he started building Baghdad.

Iraq under the 'Abbasid caliphate (750-1258) wrote one of the most brilliant chapters in the history of that land. This was especially true under Harun al-Rashid (786-809) and his son al-Ma'mun (809-813). Sir Mark Sykes gives a vivid and realistic description of their great empire in his book, "The Caliph's Last Heritage" from which we will



Sepulchre of Ali Ibn Abi Talib, Al Najaf

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quote the following passages. He says: "The Imperial Court was polished, luxurious, and unlimitedly wealthy; the capital, Baghdad, a gigantic mercantile city surrounding a huge administrative fortress, wherein every department of state had a properly regulated and well-ordered public office; where schools and colleges abounded; whither philosophers, students, doctors, poets, and theologians flocked from all parts of the civilized globe. . . . The provincial capitals were embellished with vast public buildings, and linked together by an effective and rapid service of posts and caravans; the frontiers were secure and well garrisoned, the army loyal, efficient, and brave; the governors and ministers honest and forbearing. The empire stretched with equal strength and unimpaired control from the Cilician gates to Aden, and from Egypt to Central Asia. Christians, Pagans, Jews, as well as Moslems, were employed in the government service. Usurpers, rebellious generals, and false prophets seemed to have vanished from the Moslem dominions. Traffic and wealth had taken the place of revolution and famine. . . . Pestilence and disease were met by Imperial hospitals and government physicians."

The Abbasid period witnessed one of the most momentous intellectual awakenings in Islam. The brilliant intellectual revival is most eloquently described by H. G. Wells in the following passage from his "The Outline of History." He says: "For some generations before Muhammad, the Arab mind had been, as it were, smouldering, it had been producing poetry and much religious discussion; under the stimulus of the national and racial successes, it presently blazed out with a brilliance second only to that of the Greeks during their best period. It revived the human pursuit of science. If the Greek was the father, then the Arab was the foster-father of the scientific method. Through the Arabs it was, and not by the Latin route, that the modern world received that gift of light and power." Iraq passed on the numerals through Spain to Western Europe where they became known as the Arabic numerals. The famous "Arabian Nights" were developed and emanated from Iraq. From the store of Greek treasures several works including those of Aristotle and Plato in philosophy, Galen in medicine and Euclid in geometry were rendered into Arabic and later transmitted through Arab Spain into Latin Europe, where they were instrumental in producing the modern renaissance.

The age of translation was followed by one of origination in the sciences, arts and literature. The science of algebra, alchemy and astronomy had their bases laid in this period in Baghdad, al-Basrah and

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HISTORY 1914-1944

The modern history of Iraq may be divided into three periods—1914-32; 1932-39; and 1939-44.

PERIOD I (1914-1932): In the years before World War I in these distant *vilayets* of Turkish Arabia, Ottoman rule was beginning to show a marked deterioration, and wars in Europe were weakening the Central Government in Istanbul. Amongst the Arabs these facts, combined with resentment at the "Ottomanism" of the Young Turks, had already led to a revival of Arab aspirations, and the comparatively new concept of "nationalism" claimed its partisans. Damascus and Beyrout were the first centers of an organized Arab Nationalist Movement, but by the outbreak of the First World War the secret society called Al-Ahd had extended its activities to Baghdad.

The impact of Western civilization and Western ideas on these inner regions of the Middle East had been a gradual process. But the implications of certain events were by no means lost on the Arabs. Great Britain's interest in the Port of Basrah and the Persian Gulf generally, in relation to the newly discovered Persian Oil and the overland route to India, had plainly anticipated, if not forestalled, the Berlin-to-Baghdad Railway. Strategically as well as economically Turkish Arabia was acquiring a new significance, and its now politically conscious people had visions of the future in a shape which was by no means reassuring.

When the great upheaval, in which their partimony was to be contended for by the great western powers, did materialize, they were, as a result, to some extent prepared for it.

Great Britain's Mesopotamian campaign, which began in Basrah in the winter of 1914, and ended in Mosul simultaneously with the signing of the Mudros Armistice, was an unassisted military conquest. Yet Allenby's Campaign in the West had proved to be a different story. Here a revolt of Hejazi Arabs against the Ottomans, encouraged and equipped by Britain, religiously sanctioned by the Hashimite family, and led by the young educated Arab Nationalists of Al-Ahd and

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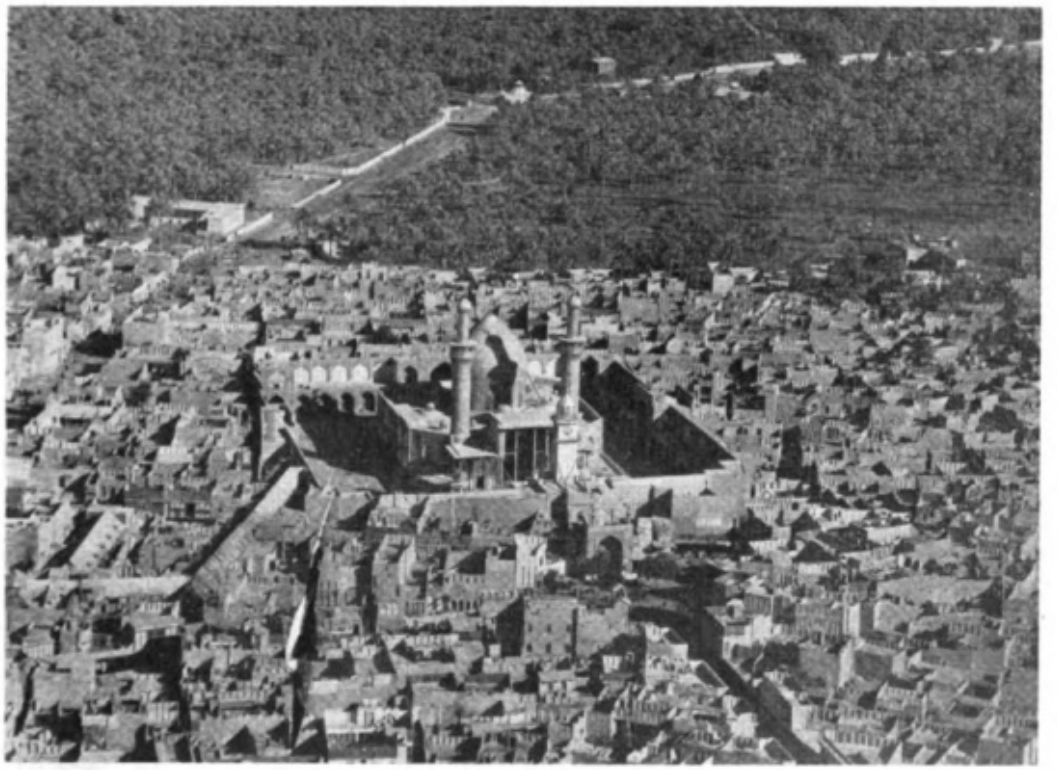
Al-Fatat[1], many of them Iraqis, had provided a mobile force protecting the right flank of the British advance from Egypt to Aleppo, and contributed more than a little to an eventual British triumph. Furthermore, it had been instigated on the basis of a wholesale pledge of Arab emancipation in the case of the campaign succeeding. A second and almost simultaneous negotiation ending in the Sykes-Picot agreement envisaged a different situation which was contrary to the pledges given to the Arabs, and was mainly concerned with a provisional division of the spoils between Great Britain and France.

Another breach of those pledges was demonstrated by Great Britain's approval of a scheme to establish a Jewish National Home in Palestine as expressed in Lord Balfour's Declaration of November 2, 1917.

This, in the briefest possible form, is the background of the post-war settlement in the Middle East. What transpired in Mesopotamia is familiar to most people, but none-the-less remarkable. A preliminary period of military occupation, with a semi-colonial administration, con-

[1]Al-Ahd and Al-Fatat were secret nationalist societies.



Holy City of Kerbela

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Al Mustansiriyah

scientious and efficient, but making few concessions to the reviving nationalism of Iraq, resulted in a serious check. The Revolution of 1920, in addition to costing the British Treasury forty-million pounds, was undoubtedly symptomatic.

The Anglo-French Declaration directly after the Armistice had renewed the promise of those powers to "encourage and assist the establishment of indigenous governments" in the countries "liberated from Turkish oppression," and Woodrow Wilson, in his Twelfth Point, had spoken of "an absolutely unmolested opportunity of autonomous development." Meanwhile the ejection by the French of King Faisal's autonomous Arab Government from Damascus had resulted in an intensification of popular resentment and a transference of nationalist hopes to Iraq. Here they had not only become determined and vocal, but had now expressed themselves in open revolt.

Under these circumstances the League of Nations' mandatory scheme of tutelage had much to recommend it to Great Britain. The Iraqi Nationalists, however, were disinclined to admit the necessity of any sort of tutelary period. Their experience in Damascus, and their suspicion and distrust of their "tutors" made it unacceptable. The years

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of the mandate were not, therefore, entirely plain sailing. Yet by 1932, when the country, as a sequel to a succession of treaties, passed from mandate to independence, there was little doubt that from a purely practical point of view, the policy of self-determination had succeeded. This was largely due to two factors. First: the late King Faisal the First, taking full advantage of British assistance proved himself to be not only the greatest Arab statesman but also a wise administrator and ruler. Secondly: The complete readiness and response of the people coupled with the devotion of officials, Iraqi and British alike in all sections of governmental departments, resulted in making Iraq nation-conscious in a remarkably short time. Thus a creditable standard of government stability and efficiency was reached, which enabled Great Britain to recommend Iraq's admittance to the League of Nations in 1932 as an Independent Sovereign State.

PERIOD II (1932-1939): In any case, the final treaty between Great Britain and Iraq, signed in 1930 as a basis of Iraq's admission to the League of Nations, was an unequivocal assurance of the State's genuine independence. Her future relations with Britain were defined as a "close alliance" and the special concessions required of her were reasonable and reciprocal. In case of foreign aggression against one party to the treaty, the other would "come to his aid in the capacity of an ally."

There is no need here to attempt to assess the general progress of Iraq during the second period. The reader is invited to form his own opinion from the account rendered in the pages of this book. Two of its principal landmarks were tragic ones. The untimely death of King Faisal I from heart failure in the summer of 1933 left the throne to his young son, Ghazi, whose own equally sad end came through a motoring accident in 1939. With the shadow of war already darkening the skies of Europe King Ghazi's four-year-old son, Faisal, now became King of Iraq and the Emir Abdul 'Ilah was appointed Regent.

PERIOD III (1939-1944): September 1939 found Great Britain at war, and Iraq accordingly called upon to fulfill her commitments under the treaty of 1930. Yet these commitments were reciprocal, and many were aware that Iraq herself had already become the victim of another form of aggression, in combating which she had received little assistance. This was no invasion of her frontiers by uniformed men and machines, but the virus of political penetration, an insidious weapon in the hands of an experienced and ruthless foe.

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Furthermore it came at a time when Iraq's national equanimity was already seriously shaken. For some years she had been watching with increasing disquiet the tendencious aspect of events in sister States with whom she felt her future to be identified. Owing to the non-fulfilment of the Anglo-Arab Agreement of 1915, Arab public opinion was crystalizing into a strong national movement. In Palestine itself, political Zionism waxed aggressive in its fight for unrestricted immigration and political domination. In Syria up to 1940, the provision in the mandate for its own ultimate termination had been ignored by the French, while more recently under the Vichy regime the country had become a center for the political and military activities of the Axis Powers.

Each of these facts served to increase Iraq's misgivings, and what little reassurance was forthcoming from her ally was insufficient to prevent her resistance from being dangerously weakened. It was accordingly less surprising when in 1941 this state of affairs culminated in an attempt by an unscrupulous and non-representative faction to interfere with the legitimate government of the country.

Since 1941 much has been done by both allies to restore each other's confidence, and a landmark was reached in January, 1943, with Iraq's decision to enter the ranks of the United Nations as a belligerent. Her very real sacrifices in the cause of freedom are enumerated elsewhere in this book and may be taken as a measure of her dedication to that cause and her belief in its ultimate justice.

And so, with a clear conscience and great expectations Iraq faces the future. Nor does she face it alone. In the last quarter of a century she has become a corporate State, able to play a leading role in the wider destinies of that community of Arab countries whose history, language and religion made them a single entity in the past and point the way to reunion in the future. Iraq cannot remain politically or economically isolated. She is too small a unit to hold her own in the economic and dynamic regrouping of nations in the post-war world. Her one hope of security lies in the reintegration of the Arab World, whereby not only her own future would be safeguarded, but the interests of her neighbours and traditional allies. Disruption in the past has left the integral parts of the Arab Nation at the mercy of strangers. Reunion in the future is their rightful destiny.

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V

THE PEOPLE

MOSLEM ARABS. Many of the vicissitudes through which the country has at various times passed are reflected in one or other section of the modern Iraqi people. About four-fifths of the population are Moslem Arabs. The tribal system, to which almost the whole population outside the cities is subject, may be considered a heritage from Arabia. Apart from the Marsh tribes in the South, tending their buffaloes from canoes, there are Bedouin tribes, nomadic pastors of camels, sheep and horses; there are cultivator tribes near the rivers, and semi-settled, semi-nomadic tribes, whose behaviour varies with the climate. Every stage in tribal development from the desert nomad to the riverain cultivator can be observed, and it is interesting to note how few of his tribal characteristics the *fallah* has lost in his transition from the desert to the town. In the country, however, the administration of justice on the lines of tribal customs is gradually being restricted and the government regulations for disposing of tribal, criminal, and civil disputes on this basis are regarded as provisional.

It would none the less be a fallacy to imagine that all the cultivators of southern Iraq are provided by the gradual settlement of nomadic Arabs. Any anthropologist who has watched a short-headed Mesopotamian *fallah* patiently trenching his field with the identical spade which appears in Assyrian reliefs, or carrying home on his shoulder the elementary wooden plough of Sumerian drawings, must realize that this Iraqi at least has his roots in the pre-Arab past of the country.

In the cities the racial blending is more subtle and complicated.

KURDS. The Kurds have been variously identified, by those seeking their forebears in the three millennia before Christ, with the Gutians, Kassites and Medes. Historically, they are for the first time easily recognizable in the *Karduchi* whom Xenophon found already established in the Hakkiari district of Anti-Taurus. By the Middle Ages they had pushed a good deal further West into northern Syria, and it seems likely that this movement dates from the time of the great Kurdish hero, Saladin, who united the Western tribes, making the Aleppo citadel their central fortress. Today there are several million

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Armed Arab

A Kurd

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Kurds fairly equally divided between Iraq, Iran, and Turkey. In Iraq their domain corresponds to the highland country referred to elsewhere.

They are plainly Indo-Iranian by extraction, or what is sometimes loosely called Aryan. Their religion is Islam, but they have a language of their own. Kurdish families are characterized by the strongest possible feudal sense and a rigorous code of honour. Their women are allowed considerable freedom, and often attain positions of respect and authority in later life.

CHRISTIANS. There are Christian communities in all the principal towns of Iraq, but their villages fall thickest in the Mosul district. There are four principal local subdivisions of the Christian Church. The two primary sects are the Nestorians (who have the purely political denomination—"Assyrians") and the Jacobites. The others are the "Uniate" branches of these two, respectively known as the Chaldean and Syrian Catholics. Christianity reached northern Iraq and Syria in the very early years after the death of Christ. By the fourth century, when Constantine made it the state religion of the Roman Empire, there was a powerful church established in Antioch, and the missionary work of St. Thaddaeus had spread its influence throughout Mesopotamia. A famous heresy split the Antioch Church in two, and Sasanian persecution scattered the Nestorians eastwards. Gibbon refers to the remarkable role played by the Mosul Church in evangelizing India, and Nestorian missionizing reached its climax in the time of the semi-fabulous Prester John, whose temporal power carried Christianity eastwards to China, while his fame spread to the courts of Europe. Religious apathy characterized the Mongol's treatment of Christians, but the Tartars were less tolerant. Repeated massacres eventually confined the Nestorians once more to a group of villages south of Van, and the Chaldeans, who had now separated themselves to the Mosul district. In 1917 the fortunes of war brought the Nestorian Assyrians back to Iraq. Today Christians hold many responsible positions in the Iraq Government and there has been more than one Christian Cabinet Minister.

JEWS. The majority of Iraqi Jews, who slightly exceed the Christians in number, live in Baghdad. It will be remembered that the patriarch Abraham, whose first home was at Ur-of-the-Chaldees, later migrated to Canaan; so the ancestors of the present Hebrew Iraqis must have arrived at a later date—probably as war-prisoners in the wake of the victorious armies of Tiglathpileser, Shalmaneser, Sargon and

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Nebuchadnezzar. The tears of their early captivity were soon forgotten in their growing appreciation of this new land of promise, and the Greek writers found them prospering in large communities on the Euphrates, including their university cities of Sura and Pumbaditha. In Sasanian times they even attained some measure of administrative independence, while the Abbasid Caliphs benefited from their commercial and economic acumen. They have since been assimilated into the life of the country, until today a foreigner will find them barely distinguishable from Iraqi townsmen of different extraction.

In Baghdad there are Jewish schools, hospitals and charitable institutions, financed by the community, and conforming to government regulations. The community has a president and two councils whose appointment is confirmed by Royal *Irada*.

OTHERS. About thirty thousand Yezidis and an even smaller number of Turcomans, Sabeans, Shebeks, and Lurs complete the picture. The Yezidis in the hills north of Mosul have an obscure religious formula centered around the propitiation of the principle of evil. They are consequently often erroneously called "devil-worshippers." The Turcomans are a remnant of a fourteenth-century invasion. They were retained by the early Ottoman rulers in a line of settlements calculated to protect their own communications with Turkey from the less reliable elements along the route.

The Mandaean "baptists" have a more ancient faith, whose origins may perhaps be buried among the ruins of Harran on the Turko-Syrian frontier. They now ply their trade as silversmiths at Baghdad and Amarah.

Near Mosul half-a-dozen villages of Shebeks speak a language of their own; the Lurs are mainly confined to city activities.

THE WOMEN OF IRAQ

The main object of the Arab Revolt was political freedom, but it brought in its wake throughout the Arab countries an intensified desire to gain other than political rights. Along with the hope of achieving an independent Arab nation grew criticism of existing customs and institutions and the ambition for national reconstruction.

No one could doubt that the magnitude of the task called for the combined effort of the whole nation, and no one could ignore the fact that the cooperation of women was vitally necessary. No spectacular

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laws were passed. There were no new customs to enforce; no old ones to forbid. Simply through being an integral part of the struggling nation women came back into their own. Their equal rights and responsibilities were appreciated and tacitly admitted by all.

The past history of the Arabs was rich with the names of great women. From the dawn of history onward there had been famous queens and stateswomen, but more significant still women had shared in the wisdom, learning, and song of their country, and many had achieved greatness. There were poets like Khansa, and Leila Akhyliyeh, whose work is comparable only to the best in Arab literature. There were great ladies like Sekineh bint al Husein, who still personifies for us the wisdom and culture of her time, and women of learning like Leila, secretary of the Caliph Abdul Rahman, who shared in his success and at the same time collected one of the great libraries of the world. These, and many more, and all the unnamed mothers and workers, were part of Arab culture and Arab civilization.

Twenty-five years ago women had almost forgotten what the rest of the world had hardly appreciated, that the long period of seclusion of Arab women was caused neither by her traditions nor by law. The laws, which were established 1,300 years ago during the first period of Arab expansion, were incomparably more liberal for women than the Roman or other laws dominating the rest of the world. In a wide variety of circumstances Arab women have always had the right of divorce, and marriage contracts assure their security if divorced by their husbands. A man can only dispose of one-third of his property by will, so that women can never be entirely dispossessed. Arab law recognises the economic independence of women, holds them solely responsible for their property, and gives them independent status before the law.

But for six hundred years before the last war the Arabs were deprived of political freedom, and as a result all Arab institutions fell short of their original ideals and principles. Constant neglect and enforced ignorance so crippled woman that she lost her value as a social entity and was forced inevitably into seclusion and the veil.

The beginning of the modern state in Iraq found women in an anomolous situation; heir to their own historic tradition, they were now also heirs to the struggles and achievements of their European and American sisters. They had to live up to the one and to catch up with the other. Emotionally awake to national consciousness, they recognized

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the magnitude of their task but saw at the same time that they were sadly unprepared for it. There was no feminist movement as such, for there was no masculine antagonism. The complete emancipation was the joint aim of both sexes, and the education of women was admitted to be the first step towards the common goal.

Iraq was fortunate in being able to take over straight away the most advanced educational theories. Equal educational opportunity was the right of all. But it was not possible for women to avoid the penalties imposed by their initial handicaps. Schools had first of all to be started with teachers brought from other luckier Arab countries, where women's education had not been so neglected. Even now, in spite of constant endeavours to train teachers, supply still lags behind demand and puts a brake on the growth of women's education.

There are now about 30,000 girls at school in Iraq, but the number alone cannot give any idea of the fervor which women have brought to learning. Girls ask for it as a present from their fathers; mothers want it as a favour for their daughters. In schools women work with such enthusiasm that they have gained some of the highest places among the graduates at the Medical College, the Law College, and the Teachers' Training College.

There are about 1,200 women teachers in Iraq, but again numbers cannot tell the pioneering spirit that women have brought to teaching. When King Faisal I enrolled himself as a teacher the gesture was profoundly symbolical. Women from every sphere of society were coming

School Girls in Swedish Exercises

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Nurses of the Royal Hospital

proudly forward to teach. In cities, in small towns, in villages, without material comforts, under social conditions that left them almost completely isolated, they taught not only their students, but by example their community.

Prejudices created by centuries of ignorance are hard to fight. Women had by their lives and work to prove that they deserved the freedom they claimed. In other countries schools have to fit into the existing social order; in Iraq they have to lead, and teachers have to make of schools centers where parents can come and learn to keep pace with the development of their children. But if the teachers' work is often arduous, it is not thankless. They have gained self-confidence and the respect of the community. They have always been honored by the support of Her Majesty the Queen Mother, who takes a personal interest in schools and attends school plays, athletic contests, and debates. Her presence is a source of help and an inspiration to all.

The growth of education is steadily bringing about changes in social customs. Many women are still veiled, but the veil has lost its significance and has become nothing more than a habit that some find difficult to discard.

Wisely made laws are keeping pace with progress. A law passed in 1926 declares that "Unless the context demands otherwise, words im-

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Wedding at Telkaif

Kurdish Mountaineers

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Iraqi Girl Speaking

porting the masculine shall include the feminine." This law enabled women to become doctors and lawyers as soon as they had qualified, and has left the civil service open to them. Women who have the same qualifications for a post as men receive the same salary. Women share with men in the rising feeling of nationalism, but this has not led to suffragist movements. They know that democratic representation needs an educated electorate, and as the professions and the civil service have been opened to them, women feel secure that the vote will be theirs when they are ready for it.

National ambitions are creating among the women of Iraq a strong social consciousness. They have concentrated their efforts on social services such as the Red Crescent Society (the equivalent of the Red Cross), child welfare clinics, adult literacy campaigns, and housing schemes. All these are presided over by the Queen Mother, and together with other members of the Royal Family she sets an example by her regular attendance at meetings and work parties.

Today, as the women of Iraq look back on the last twenty years, they remember gratefully the assistance they have received from men, and as they look forward they are sobered, but not discouraged, by the fact that the distance they have travelled towards freedom is infinitesimal compared with the distance still to travel. They have learned that the boundaries of freedom are always expanding, and must be discovered and conquered afresh by each generation in turn. Their pride can only consist in having been the first generation.

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VI

GOVERNMENT AND JUSTICE

The history of the political development of Iraq, from a forgotten province of the Ottoman Empire, to an independent State, has been described elsewhere. We have seen that in spite of the country's youth it has now an assured place in the community of nations, and its internal structure is no less secure. Much of the country's stability is due to the prestige and experience of the Hashimite Royal family which had ruled it since 1921. But the King of Iraq is a constitutional monarch. His powers are circumscribed by legal theory and practice and, in the words of the Organic Law, "sovereignty belongs to the people, and it is a trust confided by them to King Faisal, Son of Husein, and to his heirs after him."

The rights and duties of the monarch are numerous. He is the supreme head of the State, and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces. He orders elections, convokes parliament, and promulgates the laws made there. He also by a recent amendment of the Constitution. has the power to demand the resignation of the Prime Minister when "it is deemed necessary in the interest of the country." It is the King. moreover, who appoints the members of the Senate. These are wide powers, and the monarch who exercises them with the tact and goodwill can obviously have a profound influence over the working of the State.

Under the monarch comes the Cabinet, chosen from among the members of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. Nowadays it must legally consist of not less than seven members including the Prime Minister, but more usually consists of about ten members. For example, the Cabinet formed in June, 1944, was made up of the Prime Minister, and Ministers for Foreign Affairs, Finance, Interior, Defense, Justice. Communications and Works, Education, Economics, Social Affairs and Supply. The Ministers are responsible to the Chamber of Deputies collectively in matters which concern the Cabinet as a whole and individually in what concerns their respective Ministries. The functions of the Cabinet are the same as of its counter-part in England, and its life can be ended by failure to receive support in the Chamber of Deputies or, by Royal dismissal.

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Legislative power in Iraq is vested in two Houses of Parliament: the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. Senators are not more than one-fourth of the Deputies in number and are chosen by the King from among those who, by their acts, have gained the confidence and trust of the people, and have served their country with distinction. They must not be less than 40 years old, and retain their position for eight years. Deputies are elected on a basis of one for every 20,000 male inhabitants. Every male Iraqi over the age of 20 has the right to vote for primary electors, who in their turn vote for secondary electors, with whom rests a final choice among the candidates. The basis of elections are the *liwas* (districts), each of which sends deputies to Baghdad in proportion to its population, as do the American States to the House of Representatives. Recently there has been a suggestion that instead of the liwa the basis of election should be the smaller area of the *qadha* which would help to make the Chamber of Deputies more representative, and it is likely that this change will be made. There are now 118 Deputies including 4 to represent the Christian and 4 the Jewish com-

Partial View of Parliament

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munities. The Chamber of Deputies sits for four sessions of one year each, though fresh elections may be held if the Chamber of Deputies is dissolved before its session expires.

For administrative purposes the country is divided up into fourteen *liwas* or districts administered by a *mutasarrif*, and the *liwas* are sub-divided into a total of forty-four *qadhas*, administered by a *qaimmaqam*. The *qadhas* are in their turn divided into *nahyas*, the smallest administrative unit, at the head of which is a *mudir*. All this organization comes under the Ministry of the Interior. Other government departments such as Health and Education have their own officials in the *liwas* and *qadhas*, but it is always the *mustasarrif* who is senior. The post of *mutasarrif* or *qaimmaqam* is a very responsible one: he is confronted each day by a host of complex problems, and if he possesses a strong personality he can exercise very considerable influence over his area in addition to the authority he naturally wields as representative of the government.

Justice in Iraq, as in America or Great Britain, is free from the interference of government. There are three sorts of courts—civil, religious, and certain special courts including the High Court. The Civil courts deal with civil, commercial, and criminal cases as well as actions for or against the government. Religious courts—Moslem, Christian, and Jewish—are concerned with the questions of personal status affecting the members of these communities, such as marriage, divorce, and wills. The Moslem courts also have to deal with disputes arising out of *awqaf*, which are the bequests of land and property made for religious and charitable purposes and which in Iraq are of very great value. The High Court is summoned to deal with questions affecting the constitution or to judge offenses alleged against ministers or officials. The nomadic tribes are allowed to keep their tribal traditions as embodied in The Iraq Tribal Law, but the interpretation of this law is under government supervision, and the present tendency is to bring all citizens under a uniform law as quickly as possible. There is no trace left of the capitulations granted by the Old Ottoman Empire, under which foreigners maintained their own civil and criminal courts.

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VII

FINANCE

1). GENERAL

Iraq finances are administered by the Ministry of Finance. This Ministry was first created in November, 1920, on which date the first Iraqi Cabinet came into being after centuries of foreign rule. Several ministers have been in charge of the office but on the whole a change of ministers has not meant a change in financial policy. Political factors have not been allowed to interfere with the establishment of sound conservative financial traditions, which are essential for progress in a young country like Iraq. The Ministry now controls revenue, customs, currency, lands, budget, banks, income tax, pensions, etc., and is responsible for the accounts and domains of the State. The various services are entrusted to responsible executive officers called directors general under the control of the Minister. Their activity is regulated by laws and regulations formally issued and published in the Government Gazette.

2). CURRENCY AND BANKING

The unit of currency in Iraq is the Dinar which is worth one pound sterling (Dollar 4.04). Before the last war the unit of currency in Iraq was the Turkish lira. From the time of the British occupation until the introduction of the Dinar in 1931 the unit of currency was the rupee. The currency is entirely covered by foreign exchange, *i.e.* sterling, and in addition there is a statutory obligation to increase the cover to provide against any possible depreciation in the value of securities representing the currency reserve fund. In 1932 the circulation of currency in Iraq was about 2,248,000 dinars, which increased gradually until it reached 6,183,000 dinars at the end of 1939. The war, and in particular the heavy expenditure in the country by the Allies in the years 1942 and 1943, has had the result in Iraq as in other Middle Eastern countries of greatly increasing the circulation of currency, which had by the end of March, 1944, reached the high figure of 38,965,000 dinars. The currency reserve fund amounted to

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39,920,000 on the same date which is an indication of great financial stability. Iraq currency is freely convertible into sterling on London and vice versa, subject to such conditions as are considered essential for normal banking purposes. The dinar is, therefore, a very sound currency and commands international confidence.

Banking is carried out by four Chartered banks and a certain number of private banking houses. The banks have branches in important cities and report to the Ministry of Finance according to the terms of the law for the control of banking. The Rafidain Bank, created in 1941 under Government auspices, is banker to the Iraq Treasury and other official and semi-official institutions. It has now two branches: one in Basra and one in Mosul, and correspondents and agents abroad. The Government further owns the Industrial and Agricultural Bank which make advances and loans to farmers, cultivators, industrialists and others on reasonable terms. Banking business is conducted on conservative lines and aggregate deposits at the end of 1943 were estimated at about twenty million dinars.

3). PUBLIC DEBTS

Iraq was formerly an integral part of the Ottoman Empire, and when the latter disintegrated as a result of World War I, its public debts were distributed among its various former provinces irrespective of whether these new States had derived any benefit from the debts or not. Iraq's share of debt was fixed at about seven million Turkish pounds which were subsequently increased to 9½ millions by the addition of various annuities, arrears, etc. The debt was mainly due to foreign bond-holders. While Iraq derived little or no benefit from these debts, yet because the main debtors were unwilling to face a general settlement, it decided to pay up its full share of the debt. This was done through a deal with the bond-holders, partly by the tender of bonds and coupons purchased on the open market, and partly by a cash payment spread over a certain number of years. The final settlement was completed in 1932.

From the first the Iraq Government has systematically avoided incurring foreign, or indeed any other debts. Its large capital works programmes have been financed by local means and since 1932 by oil royalties. An attempt was made in 1937 to raise a loan on the London market for the purpose of financing the extension of the railway from Baghdad to link up in Turkey with the European network. A first

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tranche of one million pounds was floated at 4½% interest for repayment within twenty years. The scheme was received unfavourably in Iraq, and accordingly no further issues were made. The amount was wholly paid up in 1943 and much earlier than at first anticipated.

As a result of this policy Iraq has no public debt in the normal sense. A sum of four million pounds has been received during recent years from the various oil companies owning concessions in Iraq, representing an advance payable from surplus oil royalties in future.

A law was passed recently for the floating of two internal loans of one million dinars each, the first a short term and the second a relatively long term loan. The object is more educative than financial, the aim being to initiate the people in investing their savings in government securities. For this purpose very generous terms are being offered and it is expected that the loan will have a deserved success among the local population.

4). BUDGET AND ACCOUNTS

The main concern of the State is the preparation and execution of the budget. The budget in Iraq is prepared by the ministries and departments concerned and submitted to the Ministry of Finance for approval and to Parliament for sanction. It contains two parts: revenue and expenditure, each divided into sections and sub-sections and covers one financial year which in Iraq begins on the 1st of April.

In the last twenty-four years of its financial administration Iraq has maintained a high standard of public budgeting. Seldom has a deficitary budget been passed, and during years of crises such as 1923 and 1931 a ruthless axing policy was adopted in order to balance revenue and expenditure. The size of the budget steadily increased since its modest beginning in 1921 and in the year 1944-1945 the volume of the ordinary and subsidiary budgets reached the figure of nearly twenty-four million dinars, which works out at about five dinars per head of population.

The revenue derives mainly from Customs and Excise, 15%; Oil Royalties, 10%; Income and Property Taxes, 8%; Consumption and Agricultural Tax, 13%; Railways, 15%; Government Services, 16%; other income or revenue, 23%.

The expenditure is distributed as follows: for defense and security, 21%; Health, Education and other Social Services, 12%; Irrigation and

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Public Works, 8%; Railways, 14%; Government Services, 14%; other services, including temporary allocations, 31%.

The accounts of the State are regularly published. A detailed report is issued annually which gives full particulars of the yearly accounts and the cumulative financial position at the end of the year. The accounts bear the counter-signature of the Controller and Auditor-General who, in addition, reports separately to Parliament, to which he is responsible.

In accordance with these statements the financial reserves of the Treasury on March 31, 1943, amounted to 3,200,000 dinars besides recoverable assets amounting to about two million dinars.

5). CONCLUSION

As previously stated, Iraq has no public debts; it has on the contrary a semi-permanent and fixed income in the form of royalty receivable from the various oil companies operating or having concessions in Iraq. It has a sound and easily convertible currency with a handsome reserve and with no monetary complications. Budgets, even during the war period, have been self-balancing, and the accounts have usually resulted in some surplus of revenue over expenditure. The country has great agricultural and economic potentialities which await development. Its key position at the center of Middle East communications is a guarantee of the future development of trade and industry. For these and other reasons, the country looks to the post-war period with hope and confidence.

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VIII

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

OIL

Mineral oil has been known and utilized for various purposes by the inhabitants of Iraq for several thousands of years. Yet its industrial importance was not realized until the early years of the present century, when British and American experts became interested. Thereupon the country soon came into prominence as a potential oil-bearing region. Political and other exigencies, however, delayed the development of her resources until after the First World War.

Iraq has become in recent years a substantial oil-producer and has great potential reserves. In 1939, it ranked eighth among the oil-producing countries of the world, but it is now firmly believed that Iraqi fields are capable of producing several times the present quantity.

There are at present four oil companies operating in Iraq. They are:

1). *The Iraq Petroleum Company,* which obtained in 1925 an oil concession from the Government of Iraq for a period of seventy-five years covering all lands in the former *vilayets* of Mosul and Baghdad. The concession gave to the company the right to select after examination twenty-four plots each of an area of eight square miles for its own exclusive use. After the company had made its choice, the Iraq Government had the right to put the remaining territory of the concession on the open market. In 1931 the concession was revised. Under the new agreement, the surrender of territory proviso was removed, and the company was given the sole right to exploit all lands situated to the East of the Tigris covering an area of 32,000 square miles. In return for the removal of the above proviso, the company undertook to construct a pipe-line system of a total capacity of not less than 3,000,000 tons per annum, and to pay the Iraq Government the sum of £400,000 (gold) each year until the commencement of regular export of oil.

The company discovered oil in large quantities in 1927, when the famous Baba Gurgur well near Kirkuk came in with a production of 60,000 barrels per day. The results of drilling have since proved the

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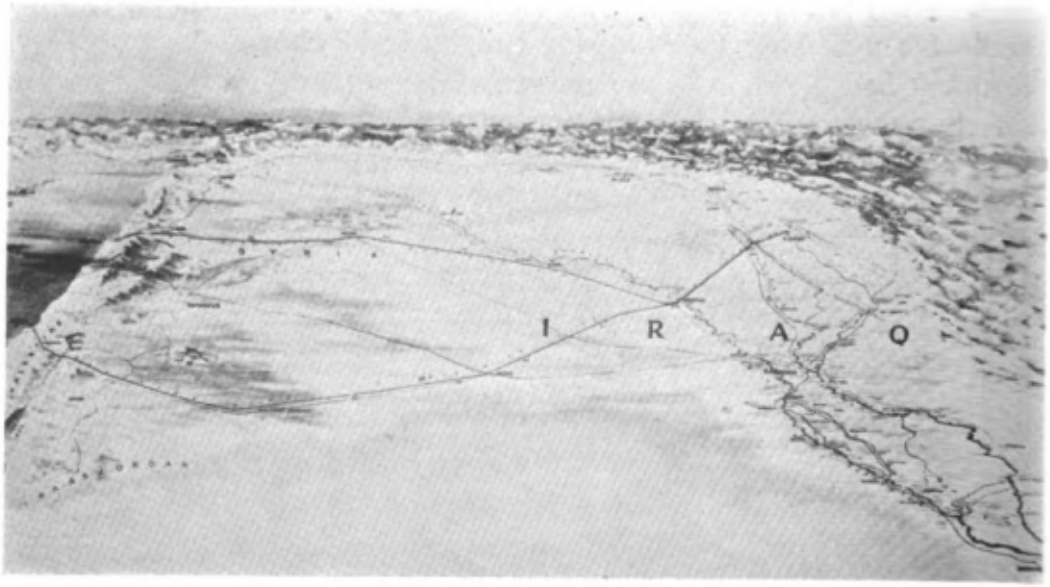
vast potentialities of the Kirkuk oil field. The Kirkuk structure is sixty miles in length, between one and two miles in width and is one of the biggest single oil structures in the world. The oil produced at Kirkuk is sent to the ports of Haifa in Palestine and Tripoli in Syria through a twelve-inch pipeline which has a capacity of four million tons of oil per annum.

The export of oil from the Iraqi fields is, at present, limited by the capacity of the Mediterranean pipeline, but Iraq expects that after the war a new outlet will be found for her vast reserves of oil.

2). *Mosul Petroleum Company.* Following the revision of the Iraq Petroleum Company concession, the Mosul Petroleum Company (previously known as the B. O. D.) was granted a concession in 1932 over all lands in the Mosul and Baghdad *vilayets* situated West of the river Tigris and north of the thirty-third parallel. This company is still in the exploratory stage, and pays the government a dead rent which started with £100,000 (gold) in 1933 increasing by £25,000 (gold) annually up to £200,000 (gold). Over sixty wells have been drilled, and oil in large quantities has been found. By the terms of its concession, this company has eventually to construct a pipe-line with a minimum capacity of 1,000,000 tons a year, or to make arrangements for the transport of that minimum quantity.

3). *Basra Petroleum Company.* Obtained a concession in 1938 covering all lands situated south of the *vilayet* of Baghdad. This com-



Oil Pipe Lines

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pany is still in the exploratory stage, and has carried out a thorough survey of its concession area, which included both geological and geophysical examination. It pays the government of Iraq a dead rent of £200,000 (gold) annually and has eventually to make satisfactory arrangements for the transport of 1,000,000 tons of oil per annum.

4). *Khanaqin Oil Company*. Was formed in 1925 to acquire and operate the concession held by the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company in the strip of land along the Iraq-Iran frontier known as the "transferred territories." This company produces oil from the Naft-Khanah field and delivers it through a twenty-five mile pipe line to its refinery on the Alwand River near Khanaqin, the entire output of which is consumed locally.

The oil companies pay a royalty of four shillings (gold) per ton of oil exported or sold in Iraq. The Iraq Petroleum Company, Mosul Petroleum Company and the Basra Petroleum Company pay a sum of £60,000 (gold) on the first four million tons of which royalty is payable and £20,000 (gold) and prorata on each subsequent 1,000,000 tons is commutation of taxes. The government is entitled to take up to twenty per cent of the total oil produced by the Mosul Petroleum and Basra Petroleum Companies, free of charge for local consumption.

The marketing of petroleum products within Iraq is, at present, undertaken by the Rafidain Oil Company, a subsidiary of the Iraq Petroleum Company, which is a selling organization and does not manufacture oil products. Supplies are drawn partly from the Khanaqin Oil Company's refinery at Alwand and partly from the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company's refinery at Abadan in Iran (Persia).

The Government of Iraq has given careful consideration to a project for the erection of a State Oil Refinery capable of supplying the country's requirements of oil products. There are two sources of supply available at present, from which the government has the right to obtain oil for the proposed refinery, viz: the Kirkuk and Qayara crude oils. Experts have been engaged to study the technical and economic aspects of the problem of refining in Iraq and producing the country's needs of the different products from the crude oils available. The proposed scheme involves the use of both the Kirkuk and Qayara oils and will provide for the production of aviation spirit, motor spirit, kerosene, gas, diesel and furnace oils, and asphalt required by the domestic market. It is expected that work will start on this project in the near future.

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DATES

In the reliefs found in the Assyrian Royal Palace at Khorsabad the king is shown carrying in his hands the symbol of date fertilization, and today in the center of the Coat of Arms of Iraq is placed a group of date palms. This is as it should be, for there is nowhere else in the world where dates grow so plentifully or where their quality is so high as in Iraq. And the palm tree is not simply a producer of food, its various uses are almost as numerous as those of the cocoanut. Its wood is almost the only fuel in an otherwise treeless land; its branches provide the material for mats and roofs, while the tough fibres of its bark can be used for ropes.

The date-growing part of the world is in the dry belts round the tropics of Cancer and Capricorn; the northern of these belts extends along the southern shore of the Mediterranean, from Morocco to the Nile Valley, and through Arabia, Iraq, and southwest Persia to the northwest corner of India. But three-quarters of the date palms of the world are found in Iraq, and from the port of Basra before the war eighty per cent of the dates entering the international market used to be shipped. The war has naturally placed great handicaps in the way of this trade, but in peacetime fast steamers used to lie up at the head of the Persian Gulf for days, or even weeks, to rush the first dates of the season back to Europe and America.

The date-growing region of Iraq is along both banks of the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, from Ana on the Euphrates and Samarra on the Tigris down to the Persian Gulf. Here, at the southern end where the two rivers join to form the Shatt-al-Arab, is the most productive area, and in it seven million of Iraq's total of thirty million palms are situated. Along the banks of the broad Shatt-al-Arab the palm groves follow the course of hundreds of canals leading out into the desert, sometimes only for a few hundred yards, but at other times for a distance of as much as five miles. For the date-palm is a simple tree to cultivate; all that it needs is plenty of root moisture and a continuous spell of five or six months of high temperature, and it will not demand any other special attention. These conditions are found in Iraq. The alluvial soil washed down by the two great rivers is of great richness, and the summers are long and hot enough to ripen the date clusters. Water is brought to the roots of the palm trees either by the elaborate system of irrigation which criss-crosses the country or, in the Shatt-al-Arab area, by the regular tidal rise and fall of the Persian Gulf. Under the

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shade of the palms other crops—apples, oranges, plums and vegetables—are grown, so that none of the precious soil is wasted.

The date-palm is grown from small off-shoots, which begin to bear after four or five years. Early in April the blossoms of the female palm, which is the fruit-bearing tree, are fertilized by hand, and about one month later the fruit forms. At first the dates are small, hard, green and bitter, but by the middle of the summer they turn red or amber, and in August the half-ripe fruit is already being sold in the bazaars, although it is not yet ready for export. In September the fully-ripened fruit is cut off the trees and placed in wooden boxes which are carried down the river to the packing stations. Here it is packed for export under the most hygienic conditions possible, carefully controlled by officials of the government's health departments.

Export trade is of two sorts—bulk packed and carton packed. In the bulk trade the dates are filled into boxes holding about sixty-eight pounds, which are then stacked under the shade of palm branches until the clumsy but efficient river barges are ready to take them off to the ocean-going steamers. Nowadays, however, increasingly large quantities of selected dates are being packed in cellophane wrappers and cartons. Before packing, these dates are graded and cleaned. Sometimes their stones are removed, and in their place walnuts, almonds or pistachio nuts are inserted.

All palm trees may look very much alike to the inexpert eye, but in fact there are about 350 different types of date growing in Iraq, although only five of these are cultivated for export. These are the Hallawi, Khadrawi and Sayer, grown mostly in the Shatt-al-Arab area, and the Khastawi and Zahdi which are chiefly grown in the groves round Kerbela and Baghdad. The Hallawi is a favourite date with the American consumer on account of its light and attractive color. The Khadrawi is perhaps the best commercial variety from the point of view of taste, while the Sayer is one of the most widely grown dates, although of comparatively inferior quality. However the food value of all the varieties is about the same. By chemical analysis it can be shown that the date contains all the elements required for a balanced diet; seventy per cent consists of sugar, 2.5 per cent is fat, and two per cent proteins in a readily assimilated form. On account of this high percentage of carbohydrates the date is concentrated energy producer, and in fact has a higher caloric value than any other fruit. Of the 3,000 calories required each day by an ordinary workman, 1,330 units could

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be got from a pound of dates. For several hundreds of thousands of Arabs the date is actually their staple, and sometimes their only food and these are among the healthiest members of the community.

The date industry of Iraq is now directly under the control of the government, and is organized by a Date Board, largely financed from government money, which has its headquarters in Basra and assists in the marketing of dates abroad. There are also Growers' and Packers' Associations which meet periodically to discuss questions relating to these aspects of the business. Finally, there is a Research Station, also situated at Basra, which is engaged on the scientific study of improving the date crop and utilizing the by-products.

DATE EXPORTS FROM IRAQ

	1938		1939		1940	
	Tons	*Value in Id.*	*Tons*	*Value in Id.*	*Tons*	*Value in Id.*
U. S.A.....	20,822	173,284	20,572	208,953	23,048	266,824
U. K.....	13,242	106,924	23,871	244,549	25,540	305,323
INDIA.....	66,598	223,144	58,066	260,999	53,527	258,546
EGYPT.....	13,582	43,568	8,614	29,609	1,544	9,701
OTHER COUNTRIES.....	71,306	340,220	37,139	218,114	28,593	204,602

TOBACCO

Tobacco has an increasingly important place in Iraq's economic set-up, and the livelihood of a considerable section of the population depends upon its cultivation. Production was formerly limited to the Persian type and primitive methods of cultivation and packing were used. Modern development of the industry began in 1930 when cigarette-manufacturing machines were introduced to assist the hand-made cigarette factories. The number of mechanical factories is fifteen per cent at present. The daily cigarette output of all factories in Iraq has long ago exceeded the ten million mark.

The cultivation of tobacco in Iraq is confined to the mountainous Kurdish districts where the soil and climate are most favourable. The yield in 1943 reached an approximate total of 4,000 tons which is

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double the amount produced six years ago. It was hoped that the year 1944 would give an increase of thirty per cent compared with the quantity produced in the previous year.

In 1939, in order to put the tobacco industry on a sound footing, the government adopted the Monopoly System, therein following the example of neighbouring tobacco-growing countries. This system assured to the cultivators and traders satisfactory profits and resulted in an increased output.

The prospect for more settled trading after the war is good. Any improvement in the quality of Iraqi tobacco will depend on improved scientific methods of planting, picking, curing, packing and storage of the crop, based on wider research, and on the selection of more suitable seeds. This might even result in a surplus, to the requirements of the country, which could be exported.

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IX

AGRICULTURE

Writing in the fifth century B. C. the Greek traveller Herodotus says of Iraq, "Of all the countries that we know there is none which is so fruitful in grain. It will yield commonly two hundredfold or when the production is greatest, even three hundredfold. The blade of the wheat-plant and of the barley-plant is often four fingers in breadth. As for the millet and the sesame I shall not mention the height to which they grow lest it seem incredible." Many other ancient writers agree with Herodotus that Iraq in ancient times was one of the great granaries of the world.

It continued so until the thirteenth century A. D. when the Mongol invasions destroyed the interior administration of the country and the irrigation network consequently fell into ruin. In the generations which followed Persian and Turkish conquerors did little to revive it or to encourage agricultural enterprise. So that Iraq entered the twentieth century with her water-channels still empty and her fields largely untilled. The half-measures and neglect of the proverbial government had left no semblance of order in cultivation. Land-tenure had become chaotic, while floods in spring, drought in the summer and destructive pests at all seasons had reduced the yield of the land itself to a pathetic figure.

From 1921 onwards one of the greatest tasks confronting the new government was the revival of agriculture and its return to a leading place among the economic assets of the country. For this purpose an effective Department of Agriculture was established and embarked upon its manifold duties. Experimental farms were opened where the respective merits of various crops and methods of cultivation were examined. Rural education was inaugurated by means of pamphlets, lectures and courses of instruction, which the regional staff, whose duties are to advise and instruct the farmers themselves, were strengthened in numbers and more widely distributed. Land-tenure also received attention and an expert campaign of Land Settlement was eventually undertaken on the basis of a Cadastral Survey.

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Harvesting Dates

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All through these early years the Department received every form of encouragement and wise counsel from His Majesty King Faisal I who, like his predecessors on the throne of Babylon, took the most lively interest in the land. He was the first to introduce on his own estates the most modern farming methods and machinery. He encouraged the revision of customs duties to exempt agricultural machinery and the adjustment of taxes to favor certain crops.

Except in the date-groves and the fruit or market-gardens around the large towns, most Iraqi farmers engage themselves in the very "extensive" cultivation of wheat and barley, rice, maize, sorghum and sesame. This means that a light amount of work is put into a large area, and when a careless regime and inadequate drainage produce "salting" the farmer merely transfers his cultivation to new ground. Uneconomical methods such as these can only be discouraged by control and instruction, and this also has fallen to the lot of agricultural officials everywhere in the country.

Of other specific crops, both dates and tobacco have been dealt with elsewhere. Cotton cultivation is now very well established and has expanded rapidly. It was first mentioned in Iraq by the Assyrian king Sennacherib in the seventh century B. C. who referred to it as "the tree which bears wool." A certain amount of short-staple cotton is still cultivated as stuffing for mattresses and domestic purposes generally. From 1920 experiments proved that good quality American upland types gave a profitable yield, and long-staple cotton accordingly began to be grown for export. The first year's yield of sixty bales increased in 1940 to twenty-six thousand. Like Sennacherib's Nineveh, modern Iraq also has wide areas of orchard. Many new varieties of fruit, particularly citrus have been tentatively imported in recent years for experiments in planting, and there has been a fairly extensive distribution to orchard-owners.

Finally, there is a flourishing horticultural station near Baghdad, while forestry officials in the North are concerned with gum, resin, gall nuts, and other exportable commodities.

Insect pests in Iraq have been continually and assiduously investigated, and several new species identified. The Department has a permanent establishment for the control of locusts. Scouting for breeding grounds takes place directly the locusts are on the wing and observation posts are set up at points of vantage on the frontiers. When the season

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arrives, with the cooperation of local authorities and the cultivators themselves the hatching-swarms are scientifically destroyed. In addition, a most effective degree of cooperation for this purpose with corresponding services in neighbouring countries has now attained.

By law all agricultural products and plants in transit through the country or to be imported, are examined for pests and diseases, and carefully fumigated.

Again it should be mentioned that in recent years H. R. H. the Regent has emulated King Faisal the First in respect of the great interest he has taken in all branches of agriculture, and particularly in research. Iraqi representatives have attended recent international conferences on the subject and benefited greatly therefrom. In short, no effort is being spared to restore Iraq to her position as a world-granary.

Cotton Plantation

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X

IRRIGATION

ANCIENT IRRIGATION. Iraq's greatest national hero should be the man who first thought of digging a ditch to bring water from the river to a distant field. For a country with summer shade temperatures of 110 degrees F. and no rain for eight months in the year, the distribution of water to both crops and human beings is its most vital function. In Mesopotamia, the engineering side of irrigation by trench and canal had already been brought to a fine art in Babylonian times, and the ruins of ancient waterways confirm the testimony of ancient writers that Iraq was once one of the great granaries of the world. There is no doubt whatever that up till the thirteenth century A. D. an immensely greater area of the land was under cultivation than at present, and the obsolete irrigation system can still easily be traced. In the first place the Euphrates, as at the present day, then flowed at a slightly higher level than the Tigris. This permitted irrigation from the one, and drainage into the other, so that a succession of almost parallel canals ran diagonally between the two rivers.

Other great waterways were diverted from the Tigris by a barrage in its prehistoric estuary. One of these was the great Nahrawan canal, which brought into cultivation a vast expanse of what is now dry desert east of the Tigris, between Samarra and Kut. There was a great brick barrage to control the Tigris at Daur just below Tekrit, and two lines of high mounds still mark the channel through which the water was drawn off southeastwards towards Baquba. This northern reach of the canal is still called "Qatul al Kisru" or "Chosroes' Cut" because it was supposed to have been the work of the great Persian conqueror. It is interesting that when the Arab Caliphs built Samarra in the ninth century and the land between this canal and the Tigris became covered with gardens and palaces, Mutawakkil attempted to reopen Chosroes Channel, but after spending several million dirhams his engineers were still unable to raise the Tigris to the required level.

Up to Baquba the Nahrawan was in the true sense a canal, constructed scientifically with its controlling wiers and affluents. But at

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Baquba it received the waters of the Diyala river and the whole flowed out eastwards into the plain to find its own course to Kut. As a result this southern most reach has no spoilbanks and has the appearance merely of a huge dry riverbed. But it can easily be traced, and takes very much the line of the modern railway which has just been opened.

Where in the old days one would have sailed down the Nahrawan in a ship, as several of the old Arab geographers did, observing the prosperous cities and gardens on its banks, today one can drive along its bed in a car and identify some of the forlorn ruins which mark its course.

IRRIGATION TODAY. We have already observed the two primary divisions into which the land of Iraq naturally falls, namely the southern alluvial plain and the uplands or mountains of the north. Where agriculture is concerned these correspond to what are known as the "Irrigation Zone" and the "Rainfall Zone," terms which are self-explanatory.

The rainfall in the northern provinces, supplemented by the waters of perennial streams, is sufficient to produce a cultivable area of 41,000 square kilometres, though only a fifth to a tenth of this area is actually cultivated in any one year. In the fertile delta-lands of the south the winter rainfall is inadequate and agriculture depends entirely on the distribution of river-water in a system of canals. The potentially cultivable area here is reckoned at about 80,000 square kilometres, though the figure is necessarily approximate owing to the continually changing conditions in the marshes and lakes. The area actually cultivated in the Irrigation Zone is about 16,000 square kilometres, which means that in the whole country approximately 22,000 square kilometres are cultivated in an average year.

There are two principal methods of irrigation; by lift and by flow. The great increase in the popularity of the former system may be judged from the fact that 143 pumps working in 1921 increased to 2,778 in 1941.

All irrigation works in the south are annually in danger of damage or destruction by the spring floods, and the control of these by embankments and retention reservoirs is one of the main pre-occupations of engineers responsible for their development. The widely variable discharge of the two rivers is one of their most disconcerting characteristics. The Euphrates flow varies from 2,500 cubic metres per second

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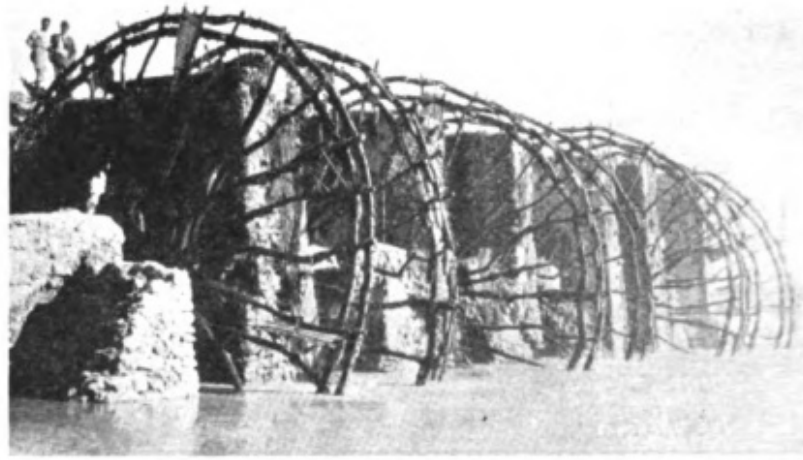
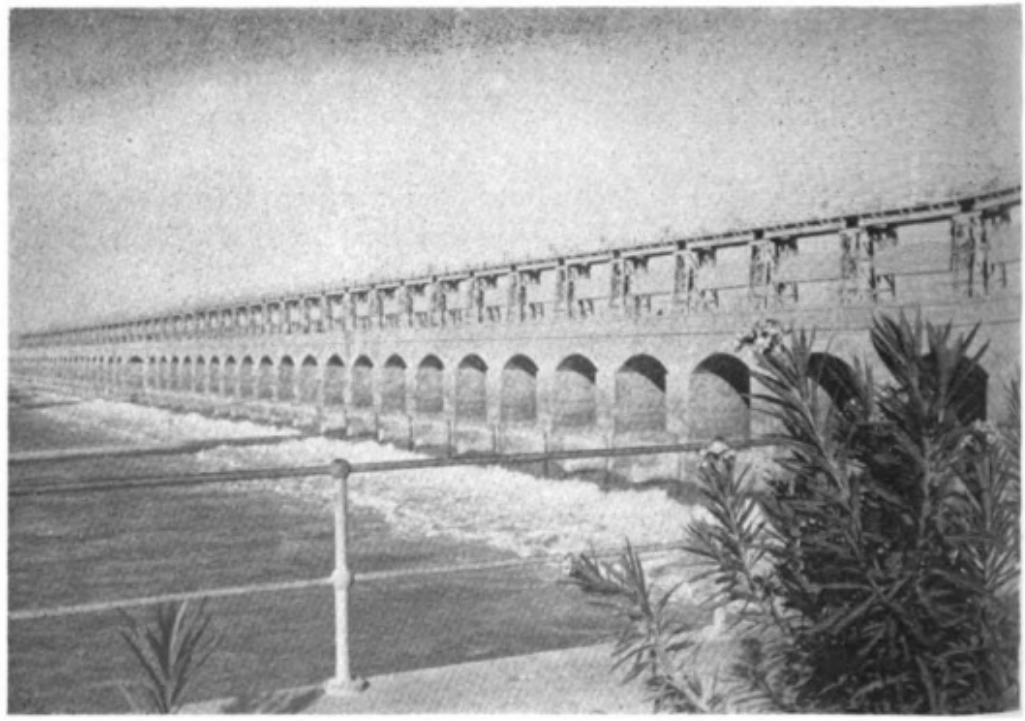


Ancient Irrigation Device



Hindiyah Dam

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in flood to 220 in the summer and has been known to attain a record discharge of 5,025. The Tigris varies from 3,000 to 300. The southern cultivation is thus continually threatened with inundation in the spring and drought in the summer and almost all the most notable irrigation projects planned or undertaken in past years have been connected with the conservation and proper distribution of flood-water by means of barriers and reservoirs. In 1911 two plans of this sort were conceived, one of these was the Hindiya Barrage on the lower Euphrates, which was actually completed two years later. It has a length of 240 metres and through the Hilla canal and other channels, brings 180,000 hectares of land under adequate irrigation in winter.

The second project was connected with Lake Habbaniyah, which lies in a vast natural depression in the desert near Ramadi, and with a storage capacity of 2,500 million cubic metres, would serve admirably as an escape for the Euphrates floods. To the south of it but separated by high ground is a second even deeper depression called Abu Dibbis which could supplement this function. An escape-channel from the river was actually begun in 1913 but the work was interrupted by the First World War. A revised scheme which included an outlet from the lake back into the river about 40 kilometres downstream was again interrupted by war in 1939, but is now to be resumed. An immense volume of useless flood-water will thus be made available in the summer months.

On the Tigris a major accomplishment was the famous Kut Barrage, completed and opened by King Ghazi in 1939. This ensures the irrigation of some 900,000 acres of land through a canal called the Gharraf, taking the line of what was once the main bed of the Tigris. This barrage has a length of 1,625 feet and resembles in design the Naga Hammadi Barrage in Egypt. Another important hydraulic structure on a tributary of the Tigris is the weir across the Diyala at Table Mountain. This was erected in 1939 on the site of an older structure destroyed by flood in 1935, and controls the whole irrigation system of the Diyala province.

The contribution of the Irrigation Department to Allied War Effort in cooperation with the British military authorities has been by no means inconsiderable. In addition to the strengthening of embankments, the erection of new dykes, revetment, etc., several larger projects have been undertaken in this direct connection. This new regular, for instance, at the head of the Chahala, an affluent of the Tigris at Amara,

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ensures the navigability of the main river. The automatic weir at the head of the temporary inlet to Lake Habbaniya is another example. Finally, it is interesting to note that a variation of the irrigation regime at Hindiya Barrage, at the suggestion of British medical experts, almost eliminated the local occurrence of malaria.

First and foremost amongst the irrigation schemes planned for the future is the Bekhme Dam. The proposed site of this dam is located at a point where the greater Zab and Rowanduz rivers meet and flow out into the Kurdish foothills through a narrow defile. The dam would create a most spectacular mountain lake nearly forty miles long, extending along the foot of the Baradost mountain and up the Zab Valley as far as Zibar. Since the Zab is the most important tributary of the Tigris, it has been pronounced a perfect solution of the flood problem. In the spring the snow water from Kurdistan will be held up and stored, thereby removing the danger to Baghdad. In summer it would be released and increase the irrigable area of land. It would also be used for the generation of electric power on the lines of the Boulder Dam. Another scheme is the new affluent from the Lesser Zab which will bring the Hawijah district under cultivation, and the extension of the Abu Ghuraib and Hurriyah canals, which add 40,000 hectares of land to the cultivated area. It is only fair to add that all work of this kind was greatly hampered by war conditions. Shortage of labor, inadequacy of technical staff, lack of spare parts for machines in operation, shortage and cost of building materials, have been some of the obstacles in the path of the Irrigation engineers which made their achievements all the more remarkable.

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XI

THE ARAB HORSE

You will today see more horses around you in Baghdad than in any other capital in the course of an ordinary week. Horse carriages still compete with buses and automobiles. Policemen patrol in pairs on horseback in the suburbs. A regiment of cavalry may at any moment go clattering through the streets. And seldom will you be out of sight of sleek and elegant looking race-horses being taken out for exercise.

Since the earliest times the Arab horse has occupied a privileged place in the economic and domestic life of the Arab tribes. Graceful in appearance, it combines great energy and endurance with an intelligent docility which makes the bit almost superfluous. In raiding, in hunting and on many other occasions the life of an Arab tribesman may depend on the speed and endurance of his horse and in this way its worth has for centuries been proven and its fame has spread through the world.

The pure Arab horse, or *Asil* is of two main strains: *Kuhaylan* and *Saqlawi*. Each strain has its sub-divisions such as *Hamdani* and *Jedran* which may be combined in breeding under certain rules to produce pure types suitable for any specific purposes. In the so-called "Arabian" found today in the countries bordering on the Arabian desert, pure types bred with local blood in the past have produced certain definite types, such as the "Syrian," "Persina," or "Egyptian" country-bred, which are not considered *Asil*. All other unrecognized crossbred are treated by the expert breeder as nonentities and contemptuously referred to as *Kadish*.

Up till the early years of the present century the circumstances of tribal life and other characteristics of the country had enabled Iraq to become the largest breeder of Arab horses in the world. More recently with the introduction of motor transport and the gradual suppression of raiding, the Arab horse has begun to lose its privileged place among the tribes. Thanks, however, to the keen interest shown in the subject by the Royal Family, effective measures have been taken to offset the decline in breeding. Racing, for instance, which was intro-

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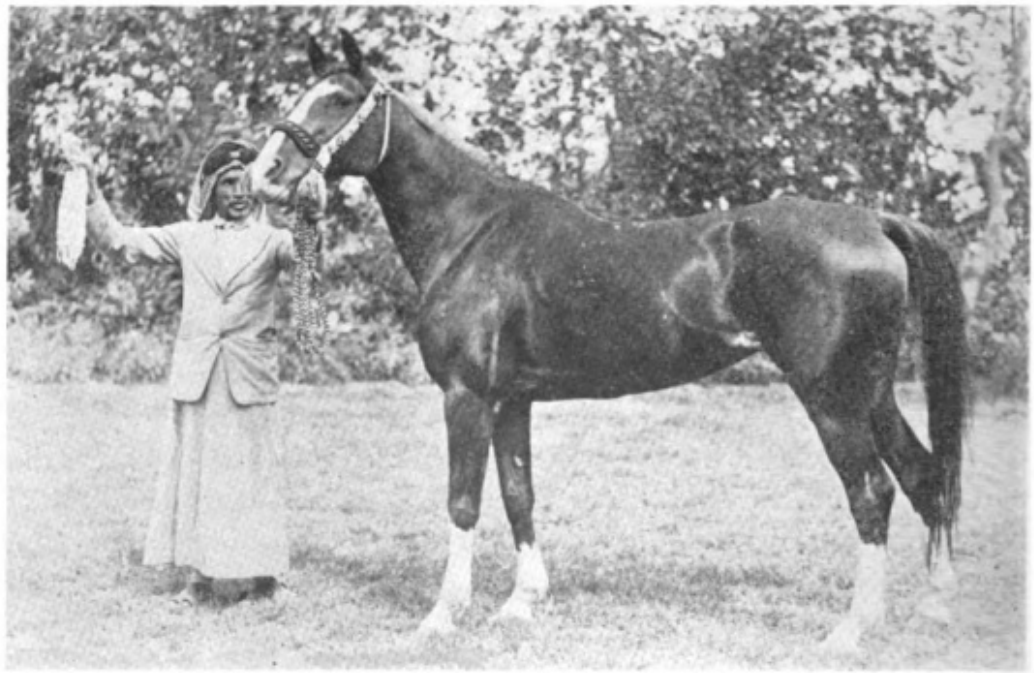
duced in Baghdad after the British military occupation in 1917 was developed and regulated with a view to encouraging and protecting breeders of bloodstock. A stud-book was established with compulsory registration, and horse-racing has now become the most popular and democratic sport. There are about seventy-five days' racing each year between October and May with not less than eight events each day. About eight hundred horses are in constant training and the stakes have been sufficiently increased to finance the sport satisfactorily. Betting is by totalisator and in the season of 1943-1944 over ID. 1,500,000 (about six million dollars) passed through its accounts.

Substantial purchases of Iraq horses have been made in recent years by Turkey, Iran, China and other countries for their armies, and race-horses with creditable records have found a ready and profitable market in India and Egypt.

Although much mechanization has taken place in the armed forces of Iraq, yet owing to the peculiar character of the country the horse remains indispensable, and mounted police and cavalry are extensively used. Polo is played throughout the winter by both these services and sometimes eight or nine teams entering for the more important tourna-



Arabian Horse

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ments. No pony is easier to teach than the Arab. He is naturally handy, intelligent and quick and needs little schooling.

Again, mention should be made of the Exodus Hunt which has been flourishing in Iraq for the last twenty years. The jackal is the quarry and gives many good runs. Both H. M. the King and H. R. H. the Regent are among the keenest followers. Pig-sticking is also popular. Wild pigs abound and are as large as any in the world. Needless to say that the Arab Horse, being invariably both handy and fearless, is the ideal mount for the sport.

Breeding takes place on traditional and individual lines. There are no stud-farms, and pedigrees are usually recorded only in the mind. The buyer is expected to know horses and to judge purity of strain by conformation and action. These two factors have been officially adopted by the racing authorities as standards in classifying Arab horses. Thus for admission to "Class I Arabs" speed over short distances is of secondary consideration and a horse with a good racing record may not qualify if he defaults in action or conformation. These are in fact the traditionally recognized criteria of endurance and stamina, and so of capacity for speed over long distances, in which the Arab horse excels.

The cost of upkeep of a horse in Iraq is extremely low and within the reach of almost all classes. This fact combined with the popularity of racing often results in modest family partnerships in a hopeful filly. Each member contributes a few dinars and the result is a great deal of pleasant expectation.

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XII

OTHER LIVE STOCK

In a pre-eminently agricultural country like Iraq, the whole of the rural population as well as many townsmen interest themselves in live-stock of one kind or another. The numbers of beasts in Iraq are now estimated as follows: *Sheep* 6,500,000; *Goats* 2,000,000; *Cattle* 600,000; *Buffaloes* 118,000; *Horses* 100,000; *Donkeys* 140,000; *Mules* 30,000; *Camels* 70,000.

The steady increase in flocks over the past ten years has been to a great extent due to the vigilance and care of the veterinary department in controlling and eradicating outbreaks of those contagious diseases which are endemic in the country.

Research connected with the breeding and nourishment of all kinds of livestock is at present conducted on a modest scale, and largely directed towards adapting them to local conditions.

Sheep-breeding in Iraq is mainly restricted to the nomadic population and all sheep are of the fat-tailed variety. Throughout the country goats are kept for milk purposes in settlements where the grazing would be inadequate for sheep or cattle. The majority of cattle and buffaloes are owned by the agrarian population in the riverain belts and in the vicinity of marshes where herbage is plentiful. Most of the equine population is kept for work on the land and for pack purposes. Horses and mules plough much faster than oxen, but in heavy soil where tough roots occur and in stony ground such as is found in the northern districts, the slower bullocks are preferred since breakages by them are less frequent. Camels are bred entirely by Bedouin tribes.

Water buffaloes are extremely sensitive to their environment. They will not thrive unless exactly suitable conditions prevail. They are mainly kept for milk purposes.

The Iraq Government effectively controls the import as well as the export of animals and animal-products in order to safeguard the country from those contagious and infectious diseases from which it is at present free. These include Rinderpest and contagious Pleuro-pneumonia.

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GAME

Game in Iraq is plentiful and varied. Black partridge (*francolinus vulgaris*) abounds in orchards and vineyards all over the country while the Chukar (*alectoris graeca*) breeds in great numbers among the scrub-oak on the rocky hillsides of Kurdistan. In the marshes of the south every imaginable variety of duck and teal are to be found and in the winter several sorts of geese, including the Grey Lag (*anser anser*) who appears in flocks several hundreds strong. Two species of Sandgrouse, the "pintailed" and "spotted" varieties (*pterocles alchata and pterocles senegallus*) breed throughout Iraq and afterwards congregate in vast flocks. All the above give excellent shooting in season while less usual sport is provided by the greater Bustard (*otis tarda*), the Houbara (*otis chlarnydotis undulata*) and the Crane (*grus megalornis*).

Far out in the desert one may still meet with a Bedouin Sheikh, falcon on wrist and Saluki (Arab greyhound) trotting beside him, in search of Houbara or Gazelle. At least three varieties of the latter (*dorcas, marica, and arabica*) are common in the plains, while a large brown hare (*lepus dayanus connori*) is also hunted with salukis in the cultivation. In the mountains Ibex are shot beneath the snow-line in winter. They have been seen up to eleven years old with very fine heads.

Finally, the rivers are full of fish, mostly of the carp and barbel varieties. They run to vast sizes and have been known to provide exciting sport for a rod.

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XIII

TRANSPORTATION

RAILWAYS

The famous Berlin to Baghdad railway, which was to have been the main lever of Germany's *"Drang nach Osten"* before the First World War, only became a fact in this war, when in 1940 the Iraq Government completed the line between Mosul and Tell Kotchek on the Syrian frontier. Baghdad is thus now linked with Turkey and with the European network. Meanwhile daily passenger trains connect Baghdad with the principal towns of Mosul, Basra and Kirkuk, and twice a week through trains run from Baghdad to Syria and Istanbul.

It was during the First Great War that the British Army laid the track which was to become the main part of the present 1555 miles of Iraqi State Railways. About a third of this is standard gauge and the rest metre gauge, but it is hoped that soon the whole system will become standard.

During this war the Iraq railways have been rendering incalculable service to the Allied war effort. From 1941 onwards demands on the railways for the movement of troops, stores and lend-lease supplies to Russia, have kept locomotives, rolling-stock, and personnel working continuously at full pressure. Schools have been opened where personnel can be trained as station-masters, guards, number-takers, signallers, etc. New stations and crossing points have been built up and down the country, and considerable extensions made to the marshalling yards at Baghdad and Basra.

Skilled allied troops have been brought in to cooperate with the permanent staff, and by now the number of railway employees is almost double the pre-war figure—15,000 as against 8,000. All the time that the increased military traffic has been handled the normal civilian services have been maintained, and these include periodically moving thousands of pilgrims to Kerbela and the other Holy Cities. In addition, a scheme of air-raid defense has been in operation on the whole network, and everything in 1942 was prepared for an emergency if, as at one time seemed possible, Iraq had had the misfortune to become a theatre of war.

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But now that peace has come the Government's main attention is directed towards post-war development. A fifteen year programme, involving the expenditure of twenty-five million dinars (dollars 100,000,000) is under consideration. This would mean, in addition to converting the metre gauge section of the railway to standard gauge, the construction of new line from Baghdad to Homs in Syria, and another from Baghdad to Andimeshk in Persia, which would have the result of giving Persia, through Iraq, direct rail communication with the Mediterranean.

These are long-term schemes. Short-term plans, involving the expenditure of 4½ million dinars (dollars 18,500,000) over a period of three years, are already in hand. Work will soon be begun on a line across the northern plain from Kirkuk to Erbil, the construction of railway bridges over the Tigris and Euphrates, and a large modern terminal station at Baghdad is to be built.

ROADS

In 1914 only two main roads were maintained to any extent for vehicular traffic. The first started from Baghdad and crossed the desert westwards to Faluja on the Euphrates. It then followed the river upstream through a picturesque valley rich in historical remains, where ancient waterwheels irrigated a strip of land on either side, and islands in midstream were crowned with ruined castles. This road eventually joined the main highway from the capital, Istanbul to Syria. The

Mosul Railway Station

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second road which led northwards from Mosul to Mardin and Diarbakir had served for centuries to carry the produce of northern Iraq up into Anatolia. Together with the complementary tracks connecting Mosul with the Euphrates at Deir-ez-Zor and directly with Aleppo along the line of the modern railway, these roads constituted the only form of communication between Ottoman-Turkey and her Mesopotamian provinces. Mails and passengers travelled along them in lumbering coaches drawn by four horses harnessed abreast, a day's journey averaging about thirty miles. Elsewhere there were only pack-animal and bridle-paths, where country carts would occasionally venture in fine weather. There were as yet no automobiles.

On the rivers boat-bridges were maintained when the principal tracks crossed their various tributaries and branches. At Baghdad there was a single-bridge of boats, which in flood time was cut and folded back against the bank, so that the swollen river could only be negotiated in rowing boats. Another pontoon-bridge spanned the Tigris at Mosul, but the swift waters of the two Zab rivers could only be crossed in unreliable ferries.

The tranquil slumber of Mesopotamia was rudely disturbed by the war of 1914-1918. Motor vehicles of the Allied armies spread over the Middle East and engineers followed them to improve earth tracks and bridge irrigation canals with culverts. When the tide of war receded, motor traffic remained, and the new-born State of Iraq was faced with an overwhelming demand for metalled roads and bridges. This demand has still only partially been met. Brought suddenly into line with the nations of the West, Iraq's national assets were at first scarcely adequate to furnish the essential social and economic services and provide for national defense. Road construction was costly and could only be undertaken in gradual stages.

Nevertheless much has been accomplished. Of four thousand miles of maintained roads, one thousand are now metalled and bitumen-sealed. These occur mostly in the northern and eastern districts where alternative communications by rail or river are non-existent. Fine feats of engineering have carried new roads through the passes and mountain-valleys of the northern highlands, and hundreds of permanent bridges and culverts adequate for mechanized traffic have been provided. In Baghdad two cantilever-type steel bridges have replaced the pontoon contrivances inherited from General Maude's army in 1918, and at Mosul a steel bridge one thousand feet long was opened to traffic in 1934.

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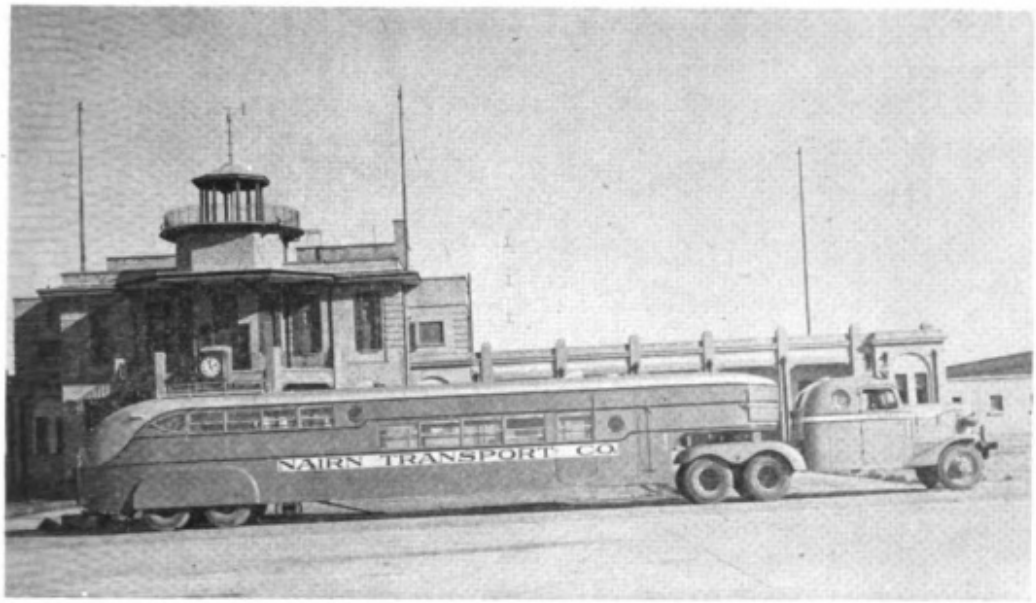

Large Bus for Desert Transport

In the south many tracks still await the roadmaker, and there are still to be seen on the Euphrates examples of the ancient type of boat-bridge, inadequate for modern fast and heavy traffic. Many have been replaced, but the recent war had temporarily halted the programme. The main road-system now permits safe automobile travel throughout almost the whole country, though in the South the grader-maintained earth surfaces become impassable during and after rain. Finally, the last few miles of metalled road are about to be completed, linking the Mediterranean with Iran through the Syrian Desert and Baghdad—the "Golden Road to Samarkand" in a new guise. The long trans-desert section of this road was constructed by the British army as part of their system of communications in the Middle East.

WATERWAYS

The southern part of Iraq is fortunate in the possession of network of navigable waterways, though, during a considerable part of the year only shallow draft vessels can use them. Between Basra and Baghdad on the Tigris a considerable volume of freight is carried in barges usually lashed abeam to steam or diesel-engine vessels specially designed for shallow draft. Nearly a hundred years ago the still active firm of Stephen Lynch & Company initiated a service of this kind, and in the name of associated companies has maintained ever since a fleet of vessels in the trade. Motor launches are surprisingly few, but native sailing

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craft trading for freight are myriad on both the Tigris and Euphrates. They are graceful high-prowed, carvel-built craft, a high mast with a distinctive forward rake carrying a single large sail. The type was standardized by the local shipwrights thousands of years ago, as antique models, recently discovered, have proved.

On the northern Tigris prevailing northwest winds, coinciding with the direction of the current, militate against the use of sail craft and shoals and rapids tend to limit long distance river transport to rafts, plying downstream only. These rafts are built up of poplar poles lashed over a large number of inflated goatskins; they are broken up on arrival at Baghdad where both the poles and skins are sold.

Local produce is carried for short distances in circular basket-form craft, the woven shell waterproofed by a thick adhering skin of local bitumen. These "gufas" vary up to about ten feet in diameter, and in origin go back to antiquity. They are easily recognizable in Assyrian relief carvings while the *kelek* rafts are mentioned by the famous Greek travel-writer, Herodotus, in the fifth century B. C.

For sport and recreation the waterways are not much utilized, probably because the fairly swift current makes up stream movement slow and laborious. Although the volume is small in the low water season the current is still swift in the narrow tortuous channel that forms through the wide shoals and silt banks on either hand.

The Tigris at Night

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Baghdad River Front

CIVIL AVIATION

Air transport in Iraq dates as far back as 1921 when military aircraft of the Royal Air Force maintained a weekly civil service from Cairo to Basra. In 1927 Imperial Airways inaugurated their first Empire Service from Cairo to Basra, and later to India and Australia. They were soon followed by the K. L. M. (Dutch) Company operating from Amsterdam to Batavia, and by Air France from Paris to Hanoi in French Indo-China, with a shuttle-service between Damascus and Baghdad. In competition, these airlines gradually accelerated their services and increased their frequencies. Thanks to facilities afforded by Airport Authorities in Iraq and elsewhere, they did much of their flying at night.

In the years immediately before World War II Iraq, by virtue of her geographical position, had become a primary air-junction for services of all nationalities. In addition to the three companies mentioned above, the German, Italian, Egyptian and Iranian airlines were operating to and through Iraq, so that every day a great variety of airliners passed through the air fields of Iraq carrying passengers, mail and freight to remote parts of the world. Prospects for further increased activity were also bright, as other companies such as the Polish and Japanese Airways had already applied for concessions, while those already operating, were planning to speed up their schedules.

As the public became increasingly air-minded, the traffic grew greater from month to month, until in the month of August, 1939,

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more than 250 planes were handled and serviced at Baghdad, Basra and Habbaniya airports. The Iraq Government did all in its power to keep pace with this increasing volume of aircraft and to this end in 1932 they established a modern airport at Baghdad provided with the latest amenities for passenger accommodation, night landing facilities, radio goniometry, refuelling, etc. In 1935 a very comprehensive meteorological service was created and in 1936 a large combined land-and-water, all-weather airport was inaugurated at Basra (Margil), including among its amenities an air-conditioned hotel, swimming pool, tennis courts and elaborate aerodrome facilities, so that it ranked as one of the best airports east of Suez. In 1937, a sea-plane base was established at Habbaniya lake for flying boats on the Cairo-India route.

Meanwhile amongst the Iraqis themselves great interest was aroused in aviation and a flying school for civilians was opened in 1937. In the same year Iraq inaugurated its first national airline, operating initially within its own frontiers. The war unfortunately hindered further progress and the majority of airlines closed down. But with the prospects of peace and the revival of civil air transport, the Iraq Government is preparing to cater for the needs of post-war aviation. Already the runways of the Baghdad Airport are being extended to the maximum length required by the largest air-liners under construction or design. Attention is being paid also to improved wireless communication, lighting and control. A scheme for enlarging the Basra aerdrome is also under contemplation. Finally, on the correct assumption that Baghdad will in the future become an air-junction of major importance and a primary stage halt for long distance craft in the world network of post-war airways, negotiations are in progress for the foundation of a national air-service to provide "feeder" lines from neighbouring

Basrah Airport

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countries. Much else is being done to prepare for the day when air transport will resume its true function of promoting the closer association of peace-loving nations.

BASRA

The Port of Basra under the administration of the Port Directorate comprises the River Shatt-al-Arab with its extensive approaches from the open sea to Nahurumar, a distance of one hundred miles as well as wharves, jetties, dockyards, airport, etc., covering altogether an area of 2,000 acres. The commercial history of Basra as a seaport goes back to the arrival of the Arabs in Iraq, but more has been attained in the last twenty-five years in the development of this sea-gate of the *Land of the Two Rivers* than in all the previous centuries.

In 1914 the port installations at Basra consisted of three customs sheds. The bar at the mouth of the Shatt made it impossible for vessels drawing more than nineteen feet to enter the river. All loading and unloading was consequently done by "lighter," and in general, conditions were exceedingly primitive. With the advent of the British army during the First World War Basra became the base for a large expeditionary force and the history of the modern port may be said to date from that time. Modern equipment was brought out, wharves constructed, land reclaimed and railway sidings laid down. In fact, all provisions were made by the British military for the rapid landing of cargo, and as a result the return of peace found the newly constituted Port Directorate well set up in many important essentials. In 1919 it was transferred to a commercial administration and became a self-supporting unit, with an advisory committee consisting of representatives of commercial firms, and the civil and military authorities. Today the Port of Basra Directorate is an authority of quasi-autonomous nature, with its own finances. It is controlled by the Ministry of Communications and Works.

In 1922 entry to the Port was still restricted to ships drawing less than nineteen feet, while the operations of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company in shipping oil from Abadan was severely handicapped by their inability to pass fully-laden over the bar. A scheme for dredging a channel was therefore undertaken. The Directorate purchased dredgers of the drag suction-hopper type and this was later financed by means of a dredging due chargeable on all ships using the channel. The original scheme provided for a channel 28 feet deep and 300 feet wide, but the

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depth was increased by 2 feet in 1928. The entire plan cost a million and a quarter pounds sterling and was declared complete on December 31, 1930. An ocean steamer of ordinary size can now take her full cargo into, or ship it direct from the port.

The saving in transport costs effected by the dredged channel on all classes of cargo coming into and leaving the port up to 1935 was estimated at 2½ millions sterling, whilst the annual dredging due imposed in order to finance the scheme amounted to little more than two hundred thousand pounds.

Generally speaking the great expansion of trade passing through the port can be judged by the tonnage of shipping entering it. Before 1914 the figure was something less than 400,000 tons. By 1936 it had reached the five-million mark and has since exceeded this by many thousands.

At the outset of World War II the port had reached a stage of most modern efficiency. There are available today forty-nine deep water berths, most of them fitted with modern equipment for the expeditious handling of all kinds of cargo and many of them are serviced by railway lines directly connected with the Iraq and Iranian Railways. An

Port of Basrah

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organized and experienced labor force of approximately 1,000 men was in existence.

In 1941, strategically this situation was of the utmost value, since a modern port was available as an advance base to the Allied armies in the Middle East at a time when there must have been the gravest apprehension that the Axis Powers would spread their activities further afield by way of the Caucasus.

On the entry of the Allied armies the port facilities were still further extended, and the original labor force was able to expand to 2,500 men within twelve months. Two new wharves were built, and the efficient lay-out of railway sidings and yards enabled additions to be made. Power and filtered water was made available in unlimited quantities for the huge base camp at Basra.

For two years from 1941 to 1943 the Port of Basra worked at top pressure. All wharves were continuously occupied and every crane working day and night landing munitions for an army in the field. Floating craft, workshops and every piece of apparatus available was incessantly in use. At the same time the Port of Basra was called upon to cope with the export of millions of tons of oil from the Persian Oil Fields. Vast quantities of aid to Russia in the form of guns, munitions, tanks, vehicles, etc., were handled expeditiously and forwarded to the Russian battlefront.

It can confidently be said that the fleets and the armies of the whole Eastern Theatre of war had been largely supplied with oil from the Port of Basra. Just what this export was must remain a military secret but some seven million tons were exported in 1936, so we may hazard a guess that more than ten million tons of oil have left Abadan during 1944. The handling of this vast quantity of oil is only possible by the continuous and unrelaxing efforts of the Iraqi dredging fleet, and work is in progress to get a still greater depth in the navigable channels so that larger and deeper drafted vessels may enter the port.

The development of the Persian route as the main artery of aid to Russia has resulted in the handling of large quantities of military stores over the Port's own wharves in Margil and the American-built wharves at Khorramshahr. The quantity of lease-lend cargo dispatched by the U. S. A. and handled through the Shatt-al-Arab had exceeded four million tons by 1944. The American-built wharves at Khorram-

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shahr were only a practicable proposition on account of the fact that deeply laden Liberty ships could be brought up the river.

Another valuable contribution that the port has made to the war effort has been the export of large quantities of cereals, dates, etc., to the Middle East and the countries of Iraq's Allies. Barley was exported in large quantities to Bengal during the recent famine, and doubtless contributed in a very material way to alleviate the food situation in that province.

The history and value of the port cannot be complete without reference to the airport and seadrome which were completed in 1937. The Basra airport, which includes an administrative building and hotel, an aerdrome and a flying-boat station is sited a mile above the main wharves on the right bank of the Shatt. It is ideally situated, presenting a landing-ground with exceptionally clear approaches for planes of all dimensions. The sheltered reaches of the Shatt also simplify the handling of flying-boats.

The Airport Hotel is a fine modern building with air conditioning and "five-star" accommodation. By providing ample and comfortable accommodation for the armed forces it has furthered the strategic position of the port in general.

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XIV

EDUCATION

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In the last thirteen hundred years the great tradition of Arab culture has developed its own appropriate methods of transmission through schools and teachers. But in Iraq modern education of a scientific character and similar in form to that adopted by western peoples is of comparative recent origin. In Turkish times the greater proportion of Iraqi education took place in what were called *Mullah Schools,* where a religious teacher gave instruction to young children mainly consisting of readings from the Koran. This form of teaching was nominally free, but by a loose traditional arrangement the *Mullah* usually received payment in kind from the children's parents. By 1914 the Turkish administration had formulated a system of supplementary education and had established 160 primary schools with a registration of about 6,000 children, but an estimated attendance of much less. And also several secondary, vocational, and preparatory schools (civil and military) were established. Shortly before World War I a Law College was founded in Baghdad. Some of these Turkish school buildings are still in use both in the cities and smaller towns. The Turkish system was largely modeled on the French pattern. This influence on the curriculum and methods is still reflected today. For higher education boys were sent to the military colleges of Istanbul, and here of course the German influence was more conspicuous.

The chief features of the Turkish regime were really restrictive in character. The first was that all instructions were in the Turkish language. This was a language foreign to all but to the officials' class. This requirement made it quite impossible for the elementary schools to progress very far. The second restrictive regulation was, that religious instruction was compulsory and of the Sunni Sect. This automatically excluded not only the non-Moslem groups, but perhaps half of the Moslem population.

When the Iraqi administrative officers took over from the British, Arabic had already been substituted for Turkish as the official language, and today this medium is universal except in places where the mother-tongue of the majority of the inhabitants is other than Arabic. Even

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in such places instruction in Arabic has from the first formed a large part of the curriculum.

TODAY

Iraq's approach to education today may be characterized as nationalist, democratic and progressive. It is nationalistic in the sense that it tends to make the rising generation nation-conscious; to recall the tradition of Iraq as a center of Arab culture in the past, and to stimulate its future contribution to human welfare. It is democratic in the sense that it provides equal opportunities for education to all sections of the population. It provides free primary and universal secondary education. It recognizes no class, race or denominational distinctions. It is progressive in that it appreciates all that is best in western education with its attention to physical hygiene and social preparation as well as industry and agriculture. But this in no way interferes with its efforts to recall the peculiar literary and spiritual heritage of the Arabs and stimulate their renaissance.

The present system is composed of three stages. Six years of primary and five years of secondary education are followed by higher training. The primary stage aims at developing in the children a capacity for observation and thinking as a preliminary to studying the language, literature and history of their country. Primary education is free and compulsory, though compulsion has not yet been everywhere enforced.

During the school year 1943-1944 the following schools were opened:

State Elementary Schools			
1). For Boys	625	Pupils	61,954
2). For Girls	199	Pupils	19,069
3). For Children	49	Pupils	6,240
Primary Schools	61	Pupils	13,484

The majority of the last named receive a State grant.

The courses of study in the Primary Schools consist of the following subjects: 1) religion, 2) the three "R's," 3) history, 4) geography, 5) civics, 6) object lessons (with a special emphasis on the health and agriculture), 7) handwork and drawing, 8) physical training and singing, 9) English (which is taught in the fifth and sixth years).

In the secondary stage an opportunity is provided for the special aptitudes of the students to be encouraged. The pupils are prepared for

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various forms of higher education and so equipped that they may eventually become leaders of the country.

Secondary Schools open at present are as follows:

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS (first stage)

1). For Boys.....	27	Pupils.....	6,640
2). For Girls.....	17	Pupils.....	1,514

SECONDARY SCHOOLS (second stage)

1). For Boys.....	19	Pupils.....	2,272
2). For Girls.....	3	Pupils.....	702

In addition there are two Technical Schools for Boys, a School of Home-Crafts for Girls, an Agricultural School, a School for Health Officials, and a School for Nurses and Midwives.

The curriculum in the Intermediate school does not vary. It consists of religion, Arabic, English, mathematics, biology, elementary physics and chemistry, hygiene, physical training and drawing. In the second stage of the secondary education there is a special course for girls dealing with child welfare. The programme for boys is divided into three branches, scientific, literary and commercial.

Iraq has no University but the following Colleges fulfill many of a university's functions:

1). The College of Engineering, with 140 students.
2). The College of Medicine with 302 students.
3). The College of Pharmacy, with 144 students.
4). The Institute of Physical Training, with 41 students.
5). The Law College, with 495 students.

The preparation of teachers is conducted on three academic levels, the Intermediate, the Secondary and the High level. At the Intermediate level there is the Rural Training School for Boys and the Elementary Training School for Girls, each of which is a five years' course in teaching to follow primary education. These institutions draw their students mainly from the rural areas and particularly from small towns and villages. Besides giving ordinary academic and educational instruction the Rural Training School lays special emphasis on agriculture and hygiene. The Girls' Elementary Training School pays special attention to domestic science and child welfare, in addition to the usual subjects.

On the Secondary level, there is the Primary Training School for

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men which admits students for a three years' course in education after they have passed their intermediate public examination, physical education, handicrafts and hygiene are among the subjects taught here. On the same level there is a school for girls, which also gives a three years' course in education for girls who have passed their intermediate public examination.

The Higher Teachers' Training College admits students who have passed their secondary public examination and gives them a five years' course. This institution is, in fact, a college which prepares teachers for the country's intermediate and secondary schools. The students here can specialize in any of the following subjects: 1) Arabic literature, 2) Chemistry and Biology, 3) Mathematics and Physics, 4) Social Sciences, 5) Education and Psychology.

The objectives which the Ministry of Education has set itself may be summed up as follows: a primary education which is universal, a secondary and technical education which answer the increasing educational and technical needs of the country. The campaign against illiteracy is already under way—tribal schools have been opened, books are distributed free to the poorer students. At the same time schools are being used as the best medium for improving the health of the nation—free meals and medical attention are being provided where necessary and instruction in the principles of health and hygiene are being given to all students.

FINE ARTS

The Iraq School of Fine Arts, inaugurated in 1939 gives instruction in Painting, Sculpture and Drama. It also incorporates the Institute of Music opened by the Ministry of Education in 1937.

In the years immediately before the war, important work was done here to revive interest in classical music for the traditional instruments of Arabia. Fine compositions came from the Institute, in addition to pleasant, new instrumental settings for lyrics already well-known. Simultaneously, though rather more slowly, a taste for western music began to manifest itself in cultured circles. There is little doubt that the advent of the gramaphone and radio had already done much to foster this movement and the inauguration in 1935 of an Iraqi State Broadcasting Establishment gave it a new impetus. The Iraq Army had already made a modest experiment with a military band and the Ministry of Defence sent an officer to London for musical education.

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He returned fully qualified in 1939 and was able to do much for the western branch of Iraqi music. All the army bands were retrained and modernized, while new instruments were taught to an increasing number of pupils, so that by 1941 it was found possible to create an Iraqi Symphony Orchestra, which gave concerts of classical music in the new and admirably suited Concert Hall dedicated to King Faisal II. Since 1941 the presence in Iraq of foreign musicians with the British and Polish military, and the encouragement and help of the British Council have greatly stimulated the movement. Nor has popular support been lacking in Baghdad. An intelligent and almost universal interest in western music is now to be seen amongst the better-educated classes throughout the country.

Equally encouraging is the progress of modern art in Iraq. Up to the last war, painting and sculpture in this country had been almost completely in abeyance for over seven centuries. Conscious of this fact, in 1930 the Ministry of Education sent their first pupil to a London school to study European Art. Others followed, to study painting or sculpture in the great *ateliers* of Paris and Rome, and returned at the outbreak of the recent war to create a Faculty of Art in Baghdad. The first months of the war were no auspicious time for such a venture, yet in 1940 a group of them formed themselves into a society known as "Friends of Art," and in the autumn of 1941 were able to give their first exhibition. In addition to attracting considerable interest in cultural circles in Baghdad some of the pictures received flattering attention in the press of neighbouring countries. In this and the five further exhibitions which have taken place since, critics were gratified to find the first indications of a local style of expression which gives promise for the future of an Iraqi School of Painting.

Meanwhile in June, 1943, the Iraq Government opened its first gallery of modern art. The pictures were at first particularly chosen for their interest as illustrating the nature of the country and the character of its people. The gallery was in this way intended to become an annex to the neighbouring Museum of National Costumes. Some of the pictures were commissioned especially for this purpose. Others, together with some sculpture, were bought from the Art Society's exhibitions. The group was later completed by representative work of foreign artists temporarily resident in Baghdad, so that finally the whole collection constituted a first attempt to establish a national collection of modern art, in the hope that it may some day form the nucleus of an Iraqi National Gallery.

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XV

ANTIQUITIES

It is probably safe to say that the name of Iraq is mainly associated in the mind of the outside world with two things—oil and antiquities. The second of these is the more long-standing, for scholars and explorers from the West made pilgrimages to Babylon and Nineveh long before the mineral wealth of the country had begun to interest foreign industrialists. Throughout the land a strange variety of standing monuments testify to its illustrious past, and represent a succession of widely different periods in the longest history of any single state in the world. In Iraq the stone-built temples, the pyramids and rock-hewn tombs of Egypt are missing, for the natural building material is brick which does not stand up to the passage of time so well. Yet the ruins of many brick buildings survive and others have been brought to light by excavators' pick.

Almost every one of the city-states into which the Sumerians divided the country from the thirtieth to the twentieth century before Christ, has left traces of its capital city, with ruins of temples and palaces. The most prominent feature of these is always the great temple—tower or *ziggurat,* at the summit of which the central shrine was built. At Ur-of-the-Chaldees, Kish, Eridu, Aqer Quf, near Baghdad, and a dozen other sites the denuded remains of these great structures are reared up against the sky like eerie Towers of Babel. But it has needed the excavators industry to expose the buildings which cluster round their bases and to recover their treasures. They are in fact all that remains above the ground of Sumer and Akkad, and the same may almost be said of Babylon and Assyria. Babylon itself before excavation was no more than a vast brick-field while the four capital cities of Assyria on the Upper Tigris were mere mounds, and even their identification was doubtful. It is true that high among the rocks at certain places in the northern mountains the Assyrian kings had carved the images of their gods and inscribed the records of their accomplishments in the pompous idiom of their own language, but elsewhere only the lion and the lizard kept watch where they and their Babylonia contemporaries had "gloried and drunk deep."

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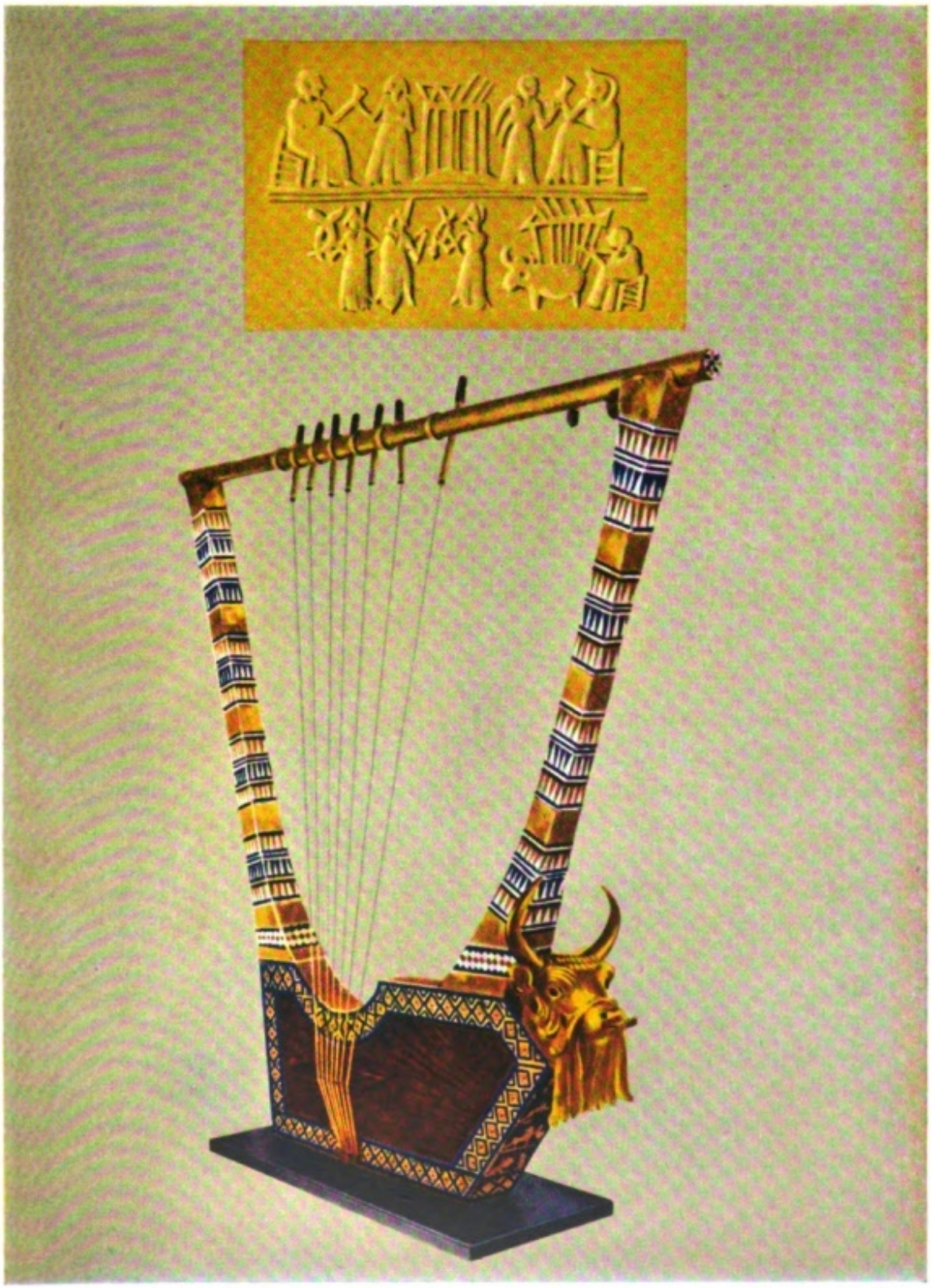

The Gold Cylinder Seal and Lyre from the Royal Graves at Ur of the Chaldees B.C. 3000-2750

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One of the best preserved ruins of Iraq dates from the Parthian dynasty of the Persians who ruled Iraq during the lifetime of Jesus Christ. This is the city of Hatra whose ruined walls and houses surround the remains of a great temple-palace. Its splendid isolation on the banks of an almost dry river-bed in the middle of the Jasirah desert appeals greatly to the imaginative visitor. Twenty miles below Baghdad on the Tigris, the famous arch of Ctesiphon was built several centuries later by a Sasanian king. Half of the great brick facade of his palace still survives, leaning today upon a powerful buttress built recently by the Iraq Government. The ruins of the arch itself have also been strengthened. Its vast arc of masonry is still seen against the sky and recognized as the greatest span of any similar brick structure in the world. Also in the desert, west of Kerbela, another splendid ruin attracts many visitors in spite of its remote situation. This is the fortified palace called Al 'Ukhaidir, built in the early years of Islam by some eccentric Arab-potentate. Its buttressed enclosure wall and many of its stone-vaulted chambers remain almost intact, and form an astonishing landmark in the waterless desert.

Later Islamic buildings are so numerous that they cannot be done justice to here. Dating from the time of the Abbasid Caliphs in the eighth century A. D. is the astonishing mushroom-city of Samarra seventy miles north of Baghdad. Built, occupied by a succession of caliphs and abandoned, all within a space of fifty-six years, its mosques and mansions once spread themselves for a distance of over twenty miles along the left bank of the Tigris. Still standing are the wall of two enormous "Friday-Mosques" with strange, spiral minarets recalling the Babylonian *ziggurats,* and the great central archway of the caliphs palace. Those buildings and the entire layout of the town were planned with studied magnificence, and the tiny modern city with its golden dome serves to accentuate the colossal scale on which the Abbasids built. It is in fact surprising that in Baghdad itself, their original capital, considerably fewer traces are left today of their accomplishments. The famous circular city built by Al Mansur in 762 A. D. on the right bank of the Tigris afterwards formed a splendid setting for the court of Harun al Rashid and the capital of an empire which extended from China to Spain. Yet so thorough was its destruction by Hulagu's Mongol hordes that today hardly a trace of it remains and even the site of his famous palace with its green dome is uncertain. In his lifetime a suburb had begun to grow up at Rusafa on the opposite bank of the river, and in the Middle Ages this assumed the heritage of Mansur's

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city and the name of Baghdad. The line of its walls enclose the nucleus of the modern city, but the only architectural remains of old Rusafa are the famous college building of Al-Mustansir Billah called the Mustansiriyah and the Abbasid Palace in the citadel, whose ruins have now been partly restored. Few other buildings in Baghdad have survived the seven centuries of war and general insecurity which have intervened between the fall of the Caliphate and the present day, but certain of its mosques, notably that which covers the tombs of the two Imams at Khadimein make up in the richness of their ornament for what they lack in antiquity. The city of Mosul has perhaps suffered less at the hands of invaders. Here numerous buildings have survived with mediaeval ornaments beautifully carved in stone. The best of these date from the time of the curiously named Atabeg Sultan, Badr-ud-Din Lulu. In the Shi'a cities of Kerbela and Nejef, the fine ornament and accumulated treasures of the two famous shrines are known to foreigners only by hearsay.

Until a hundred years ago the buildings we have just mentioned were all that remained to testify to the antiquity of Mesopotamian cul-

Historical Pottery

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Historical Arms

ture. Since that time archaeological excavations have added a great wealth of historical information and ancient works of art. The story of excavating in Iraq may be divided into three separate chapters. From about 1840 until the end of the last century the work of the great pioneer archaeologists, English and French, was mainly devoted to the investigation of the Assyrian capital cities and the removal of their treasures. The Ottoman government showed little interest in antiquities, and during those years many heavily-laden barges and rafts floated down the Tigris, carrying the fine sculptures of the Assyrians destined for the principal museums of Europe and the New World, and priceless historical documents for decipherment by the western scholars whose industry and ingenuity had recently made the process possible. To take an example, in King Sennacherib's palace at Nineveh Sir Henry Layard unearthed "nearly two miles of bas-reliefs and twenty-seven portals formed by colossal winged bulls and lion-sphinxes." In this palace and in that of Ashurbani-pal nearby, he also discovered two libraries containing more than 25,000 clay tablets or books inscribed in the wedge-shaped characters of the time. These revealed in detail not

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Pieces in Iraqi Museum

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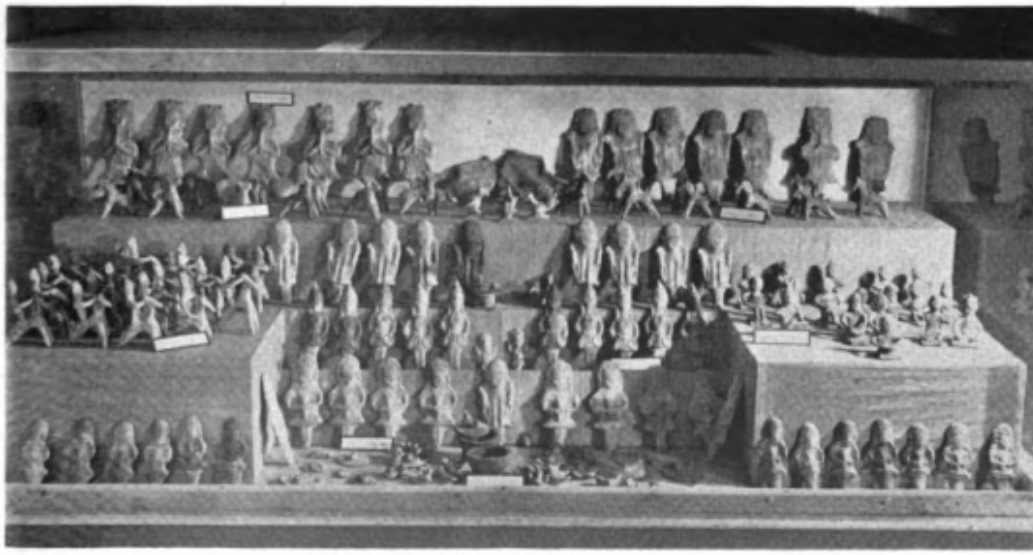
only the greater part of Assyrian history, but the bulk of Assyrian science and philosophy, from chemical formulas to lyric poetry.

The early years of the present century were mainly notable for the advent to the Mesopotamian field of German archaeologists and the improvement by them in their work at Babylon and Ashur of excavating technique. At Babylon in particular traces can be seen of their conscientious planning of important buildings. The best preserved of these was the famous Ishtar Gate, the upper part of which was removed and reconstructed in Berlin. Our second chapter does not begin until the years immediately following the First World War, when an Iraqi National Museum was created on the initiative of Miss Gertrude Bell, and an Antiquities Law drafted to apportion the finds of foreign excavators. There followed a score of years during which sixteen foreign institutions of five different nationalities sent archaeological expeditions to Iraq. Their labors, in cooperation with local antiquities authorities filled the new museum with priceless works of art, and built up many completely new chapters in the history of early Mesopotamian culture, and so of world-civilization.

In fact it was the marvelous discoveries of Sir Leonard Woolley at Ur-of-the-Chaldees, which in the early nineteen-twenties, astonished the western world and concentrated all eyes on the brilliance of Sumerian culture. His Royal Tombs, with their wealth of gold and precious stones and gruesome "death-pits" occupied the headlines of the world press



Toys Excavated from Wasitt

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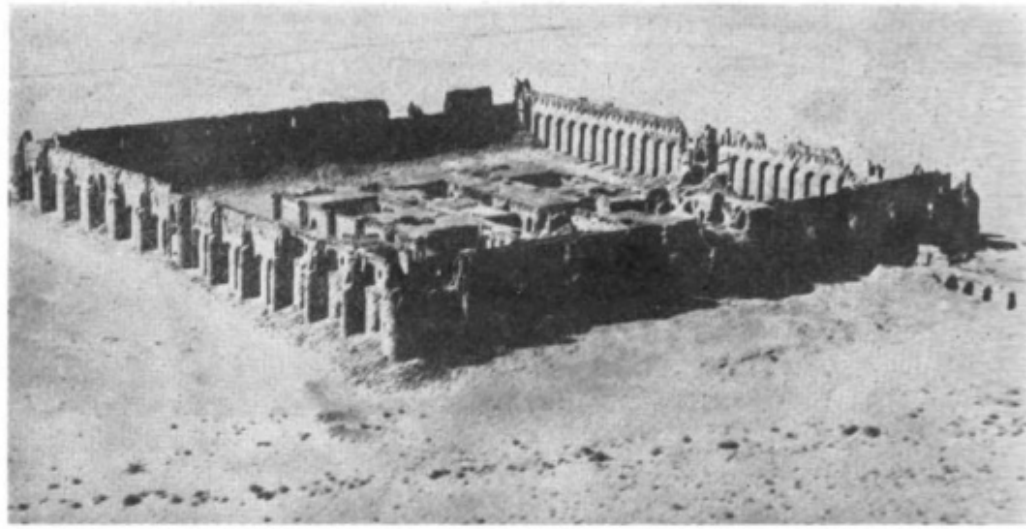

Aerial View of Al-Ukhaidir Palace

for many months. It seems that these Sumerian notables were not only buried with all their personal finery and possessions but were accompanied to the grave by a great retinue of guards and male or female attendants, fully equipped and dressed in ritual ornament, who in their turn became human sacrifices to the after-world comfort of their masters. Many of the most famous treasures of the Iraq museum are from this source. Weapons and vessels of finely-chased gold or silver, elaborate personal ornament of lapislazuli, crystal and cornelians, musical instruments, gaming-boards, toilet sets and the marvelous golden wig-helmet of a Sumerian prince all testifying the splendor of these ancient courts and the advanced craftsmanship of the Sumerian people. As we have said many other archaeologists followed in Woolley's footsteps and mounds in all parts of the country contributed a striking variety of antiquities from the strangely modern-looking sculpture of the southern sites to the exquisite painted pottery of the northern cultures, dating from four thousand years before Christ.

The third chapter in our story has hardly begun. The outbreak of World War II put an end to the activities of our foreign visitors, and the Iraqi Department of Antiquities alone was left to preserve the continuity of archaeological research in the country. Fortunately as a result of long-term technical training the young Department was now well equipped in this respect and an enlightened treasury did not find it necessary to curtail the sum budgeted for excavation. It has consequently proved possible in the past five years for work of this character

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to be undertaken at five carefully chosen sites and the results have in almost all cases been sensational. The now-famous "Painted Temple" at 'Uqair with its remarkable pre-historic frescoes, the Treasure Chamber and vaulted wine-cellar of King Kurigalzu at Aqer Quf with its Kassite inscriptions, and the stone-age settlement of the first Iraqi farmers at Tell Hassuna all represent notable pieces of research, and have added a new section of exhibits to the Iraq Museum. In the Islamic field the discovery of Al Hajjaj's palace and mosque at Wasit and the Abbasid Mansions of Samarra have both produced interesting publications.

Furthermore in Baghdad the Iraq Museum no longer stands alone. The restored Abbasid Palace and the Khan Mirjan house a fine collection of Arab antiquities. The Mediaeval city gate known as Bab al Wastani is now rebuilt as a Museum of Arms. At South Gate there is a museum of National Costumes and a Memorial Exhibition to the late King Faisal I. Connected with these is the beginnings of a National Gallery of Modern Art. Finally both Babylon and Samarra have small local museums containing plans, photographs and scale-models of the principal buildings found there.

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XVI

HEALTH AND MEDICINE

A thousand years ago there was nowhere more famous for its doctors and schools of medicine than the land of the Two Rivers. In the hospitals of Baghdad, Rhazes and Avicenna taught and practiced, and their influence for many centuries dominated the East and profoundly effected medicine in the West. Then came the successive waves of invaders—Mongols, Persians, Turks—and for six centuries Iraq lived in a twilight of ignorance and neglect. Medical practice fell into the hands of charlatans, plagues and famines periodically swept the land, and when by the middle of the nineteenth century Iraq once more opened relations with the outside world, travellers found only a shrunken population, mostly diseased and living on the edge of starvation.

It was Midhat Pasha, Turkish Governor of Baghdad and a great reformer, who in 1872 built Iraq's first modern hospital, which still stands in Baghdad on the west bank of the Tigris. Between this date and the first World War medical progress was appallingly slow, although one or two more hospitals were built, a few doctors who had been trained abroad came to practice in Baghdad, and foreign medical missions established themselves in the main towns. But the Great War swept away what was left of the Turkish system, and in its place the beginnings of Iraq's modern health services were laid by the British army of occupation. In 1920, when the first national cabinet was formed, the military "Health Secretariat" was converted into a civil Directorate-General of Health, under the Ministry of Health and Education. Now, after various changes, the Directorate of Health forms part of the Ministry of Social Affairs.

In less than a quarter of a century a nation-wide health organization has been built up, almost from nothing.

In each of the fourteen liwas there is now a Chief Health Officer, directly responsible to the Director-General of Health in Baghdad, and controlling all the hospitals, dispensaries, dressers, and so on in his own

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area. In the *qadhas* (sub-divisions of the *liwas*) and some of the larger *nahyas* (sub-divisions of the *qadhas*) there are also resident health officers. It has to be admitted that there are still not nearly enough health officials of all grades. Medical training is a long process, and even before the war, when foreign countries were still accessible for study, the rate of expansion in the health services was not fast enough to fill Iraq's needs. For example, there are now 528 doctors in Iraq, but accepting that one doctor for each 3,000 of the population is a reasonable average, Iraq could still absorb another thousand.

The great majority of doctors in Iraq graduate from the College of Medicine, which occupies a large tract of ground on the east bank of the Tigris near the old North Gate. This College now includes Schools of Medicine, Pharmacy, Nursing and Midwifery, a School for Health Officials, and a Teaching Hospital to which is attached a Nursing Home. There are twenty professorial chairs in the College, filled by Iraqi, British and Egyptian specialists. Even in its present enlarged form the Teaching Hospital cannot cope with all the students who wish to enter it. Since the war began about 300 boys and 30 girls have applied each year for admission, but there have only been vacancies for between 50 and 70. Before the war there was a steady stream of students going to the American University of Beirut and to Europe to complete their training, and an average of about two graduates a year used to go to America, Britain or France to take specialist courses.

The Schools of Pharmacy, Nursing and Midwifery, and the School for Health Officials, are almost as hard pressed as the School of Medicine. In some outlying parts of the country it is rare for even one of these junior officials to be seen, and although mobile dispensaries, the first few of which are already in service, will do something to fill the gap, they should be ideally used to supplement and not replace resident doctors.

In the past few years the authorities have been paying increased attention to Preventive Medicine. In 1941 a separate Directorate of Preventive Medicine was set up, with its own budget, staff and laboratories. Its headquarters are in Baghdad but it has seven specialist doctors working in the provinces. In Baghdad research work is carried on against the main scourges of the country—malaria, hookworm (ankylostomiasis), bilharziarsis, trachoma and other eye diseases, and tuberculosis. There is also a Pasteur Institute where in 1939 more than 500 people received treatment for rabies.

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It is only through vigorous preventive measures that the country will be rid of its endemic disease. The problem of malaria is of such vital importance to Iraq that a separate chapter has been devoted to it, but some of the other diseases most frequently met with deserve a word of explanation.

Hookworm and Bilharziarsis are both diseases caused by worms which live in the human body. The hookworm parasite lives in mud or muddy water and burrows into the body, often through the feet of the peasants who still in most parts of the country walk about barefooted. The effects of hookworm are not easily noticed, and by no means always produce serious results, but it causes a great deal of anaemia and weakness and may render other diseases more dangerous. Moreover, a survey carried out by the Royal Hospital at Baghdad in 1926 showed that probably as much as one-third of the population of Iraq was suffering from the disease.

Bilharziarsis is a more serious disease, and in some parts of the country, particularly the rice-growing areas, even more widespread than hookworm. Like the hookworm, the bilharzia parasite lives part of its life in the human body and part in water, but to complete its cycle of development it must enter the body of certain small snails and molluscs which are found in the streams and irrigation channels of Iraq. The disease is not a fatal one, but it is prolonged, and even more debilitating in its effects than hookworm.

Trachoma is the eye disease most commonly met with in Iraq. It is a very contagious conjunctivitis, and can be cured if treated early, but if neglected it will cause blindness.

All these diseases, as well as tuberculosis, venereal disease, and others which are common to Iraq and the West, can be eliminated or reduced in their effects. But it will not be an easy battle. In the first place, the fact that nearly three-quarters of the population of Iraq are peasants scattered through innumerable villages and small settlements, another twenty per cent are nomads, means that any form of control is not easy to enforce. The cooperation of the people, in the towns as well as in the country, must first be enlisted, and this is clearly not a matter which can be tackled by the Directorate of Health alone. Poverty and ignorance are, in Iraq as in any other country, the most usual parents of disease, and they can only be removed when there is a general rise in the standard of living of all classes and a general spread of education.

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MALARIA

When the Directorate-General of Preventive Medicine was established in 1941 the first endemic disease to which it turned its attention was Malaria, which was justly considered to be Iraq's Public Enemy No. 1.

On a conservative estimate the number of deaths in the country each year which are directly or indirectly attributed to malaria is as much as 50,000. It has also been estimated that every year malaria affects between 700,000 and 800,000 individuals, these figures representing either a new infection, a reinfection or a relapse. Before anything could be done to remedy this state of affairs it was essential to have an accurate malarial survey of the whole country. As everybody knows, malaria is transmitted from man to man by means of mosquitoes, which act as carriers, and without whose agency the disease cannot flourish. But it is not so generally known that there is only a limited number of kinds of mosquito which are dangerous, and that these vary greatly in their habits, and in particular in their breeding habits. The function of a survey is therefore to show what mosquitoes are present in the various localities and to establish as far as possible where their breeding grounds are.

Iraq is in a fortunate position of having such a survey for the whole country as a result of the cooperation of the medical services of British Expeditionary Forces in Iraq during both World Wars. It is essential to keep armies healthy and in a country where malaria is endemic it was necessary to know how and where the disease was distributed. An extensive survey was carried out during the last war by Sir Richard Christophers, perhaps the greatest authority on malaria of all times, and during World War II a second survey was made by the British Army under the control of the well-known malarialologist, Brigadier Mulligan. The latest investigation shows that there are only six kinds of mosquito in Iraq today capable of carrying malaria. Of these six only three are sufficiently widely distributed and have a close enough affinity to man to be dangerous. However, a comparison between Christophers' and Mulligan's surveys shows that malaria in general is on the increase in the country.

It is possible to divide the country up roughly into six "malarial zones." The most southerly of these zones is the area of the Shatt-al-Arab around Basra. This area is heavily infected as the tidal waters of the

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river cause swamps which favor malaria breeding. The second zone stretches along the westerly river plain from the Shatt-al-Arab to Baghdad. Although most of this area has been comparatively free of malaria up till now, the disease is on the increase here. The third zone is the easterly-river plain between the second zone and the Persian frontier. At the moment it is relatively free from malaria but is in danger of becoming infected. The fourth zone consists of the Upper Tigris plain. It is fairly malarious in places and is threatened with becoming more malarious if irrigation is not carefully handled. The fifth zone is the belt of northern hills from Mosul down to Khanaqin. It is extremely malarious and two dangerous carrying mosquitoes have adapted themselves to the special water condition which exists there. The sixth zone is the valley of the Diyala river. Malaria is widespread here.

On the basis of these surveys it will be possible to carry out modern methods of dealing with malaria. The method which has been recently worked out by malaria specialists is known as "species sanitation," that is to say the attack on the individual species of dangerous mosquitoes in their breeding grounds.

The first point which has struck all specialists who have considered the problem of malaria in Iraq is that its complete eradication ought to be much easier than in most badly affected parts of the world. Their reasons for this optimism are based on the climatic conditions of the country. For mosquitoes to breed two conditions are essential; they must have water, and there must be continuous high average temperatures. In countries where the rainy season is continuous or where that season coincides with hot weather, conditions exist which are favorable to malaria. Such conditions exist in those parts of India where the heavy rains of the monsoon coincide with hot weather, also in Equatorial Africa and America where there is continuous heat and rain. In Iraq, however, there is no rain during the eight warmer months of the year in which temperature conditions favor the development of the mosquito and of the malarial parasite. On the other hand, during the four colder months of the year, when there may be a fair amount of rain, the temperature falls below that favoring the development of mosquito and parasite. Iraq is, in fact, well placed with regard to the possibility of malarial control. In most parts of the country it would be possible to keep the swamps and canals where the mosquito breeds properly drained and in general, the connection between the wet and dry and hot and cold season is notoriously unsuitable to the spread of malaria.

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A beginning in control has already been made. The Directorate-General of Preventive Medicine treated Baghdad as an experimental area and the capital has now been completely freed from the disease. The British Army Medical Authorities in the recent war also took a badly malarious part of Basra under control and succeeded in clearing it up. The lessons from these two experiments have been studied, and will be applied elsewhere. H. R. H. the Regent has publicly stated that a wide and comprehensive campaign against malaria will be prominent among Iraq's schemes for post-war development.

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XVII

ARCHITECTURE AND TOWN-PLANNING

The Mongol invasion in the thirteenth century and the seven hundred years of war, flood and general insecurity which followed were reflected in the appearance of Iraq's cities at the beginning of the present century. The capital, Baghdad, had shrunk to the dimensions of a small Arab market-town whose twisting lanes and rickety houses covered scarcely more than half the space enclosed by the dilapidated remains of its mediaeval walls. In the villages peasants built themselves houses of mud and reeds, identical with those of their Sumerian ancestors. Such ancient buildings as had survived throughout the country were in a ruinous state and of the magnificent edifices of the Abbasid Caliphs hardly a brick remained standing upon another.

With the birth of the new State after World War I an intensive campaign of building and public works was undertaken to remedy this state of affairs, and its astonishing progress may be judged from a glance at the country today. The capital itself has been transformed almost beyond recognition, conforming always to a broad and imaginative scheme of planning. Cautious clearances have been made in the old city avoiding interference with historic buildings in order to open up new traffic arteries with central squares at their intersections. From its fringes flower-lined boulevards lead to distant suburbs along the river bank, where a new style of private residence is to be seen, standing in a pleasant garden and adapting the local brickwork to the requirements of climatic extremes. Elsewhere problems of overcrowding and defective sanitation, the heritage of so many eastern towns from the past, are being seriously tackled and experiments made with new types of working-class houses. New schools, hospitals and many other public institutions are springing up at a great pace, built and equipped in a modern manner. During the war years great ingenuity has been used in substituting local materials for expensive imports. Amongst the notable modern buildings which dominate the outlying districts of the city is the mausoleum which lends dignity to the resting-place of King Faisal I, founder of the modern State. An outstanding example of the fine tradition of Arab ornament adapted to the functional character of a modern building is to be seen in the group including a city-hall and

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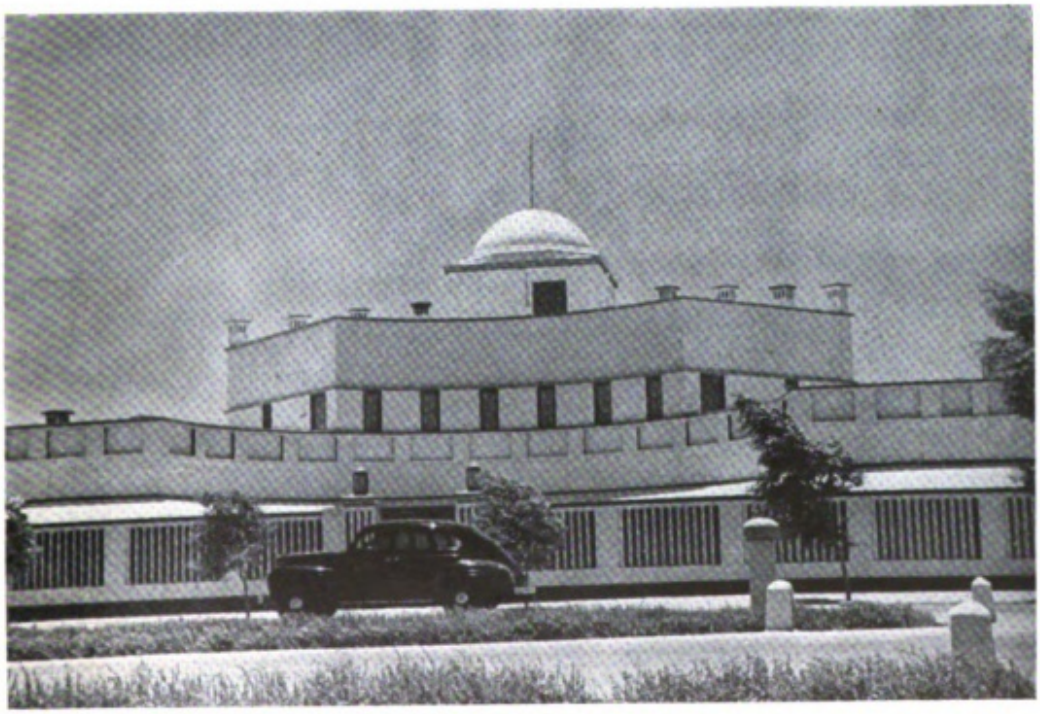
Aerial View of Baghdad



(The White Palace) Government Guest House

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Sepulchre of Musa Al Kadhim

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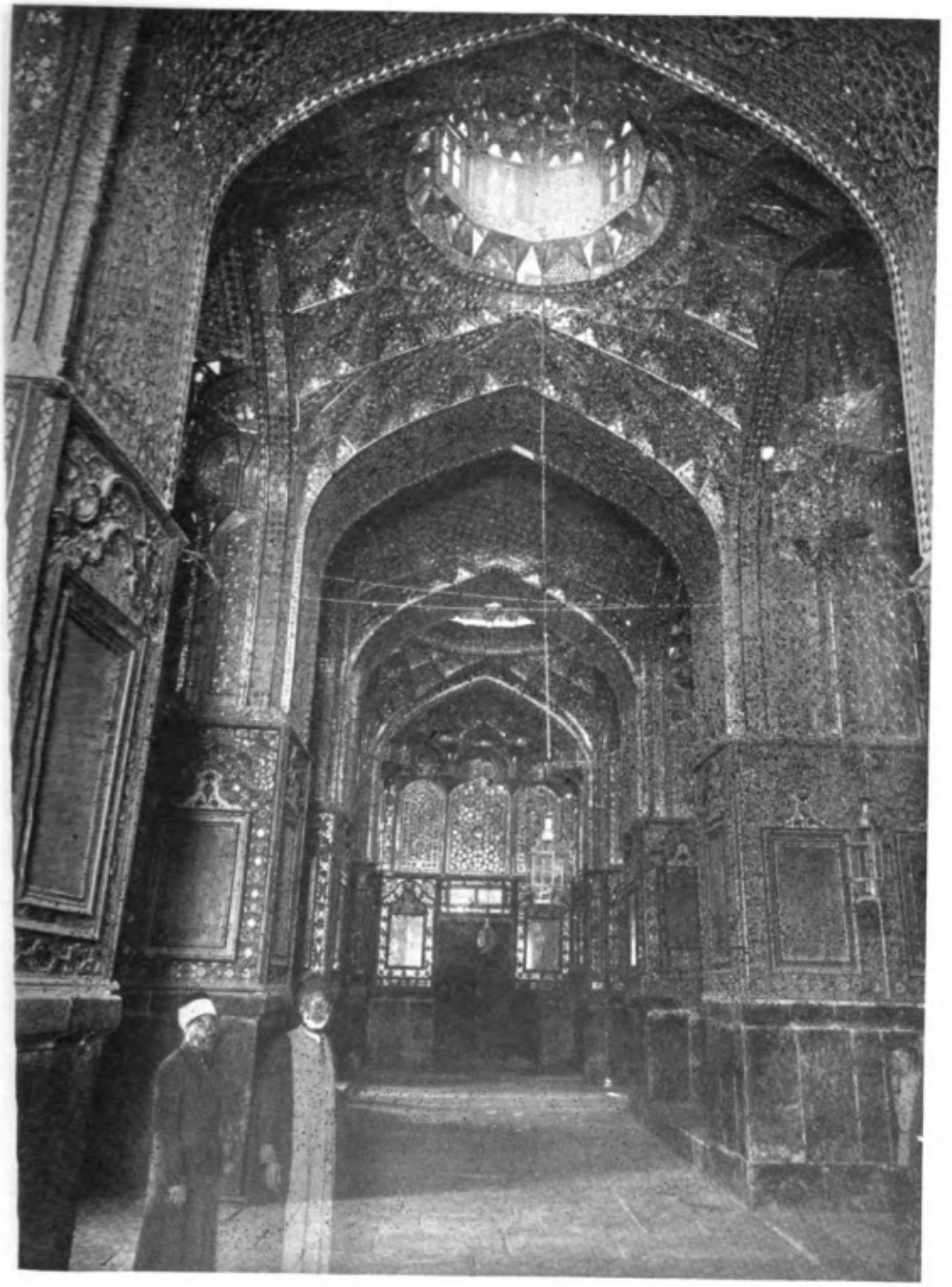

Mosque of Al Kadhimain

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opera house completed in 1940, and now providing an impressive background for civic functions. Nor should it be thought that public works have been confined to the capital alone. In almost every provincial town the improvement of civic amenities have been the care of a succession of local governors. The new railway station and public gardens at Mosul, the airport and other buildings at Basra and the attractive layout of many smaller cities such as Hilla, all testify to this.

King Faisal II Square, Baghdad

Sa'adoun Avenue, Baghdad

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XVIII

THE IRAQ ARMY

When King Husein joined the Allies in 1916 and declared war on the Ottoman Empire in accordance with the Anglo-Arab Treaty, many Iraqi nationalists made the long and dangerous journey from Baghdad or Istanbul to join the newly-formed Arab army in the Hejaz. Iraq officers who had previously served in the Turkish army and who had graduated from Military or Staff Colleges in Istanbul became the military leaders of the Arab Revolt under the command of the Emir Faisal. Thus when the Kingdom of Iraq was established in 1921 and a national army was formed, a nucleus of trained officers was available.

The force made a modest beginning with one infantry battalion and one mountain battery. A British Military Mission was attached to provide technical advice and assist its gradual expansion. Later military colleges were established where young men who had completed their secondary education received a two years' training course. In 1928 a staff college was started and technical military schools for small arms, mountain and desert warfare, etc., provided specialized training for the young army. At the same time a flying training school was established in Baghdad and several air squadrons were formed. A growing number of qualified officers were now also sent abroad, at first to Great Britain and India and recently to the Middle East centers for further specialization.

By 1932 the Iraq Army included all the essential services of a modern army, and ordnance factories for small arms and munitions were established. Finally, with the introduction of conscription in 1935 the total strength reached several divisions.

Until World War II, the main duties of the army have been confined to policing the tribal areas of the country both in the desert and mountainous regions and to guarding the frontiers. On the outbreak of World War II precautions were taken to protect natural communications including the strict patrolling of the waters around Basra against mine-laying. Axis planes had extended their activities to that region

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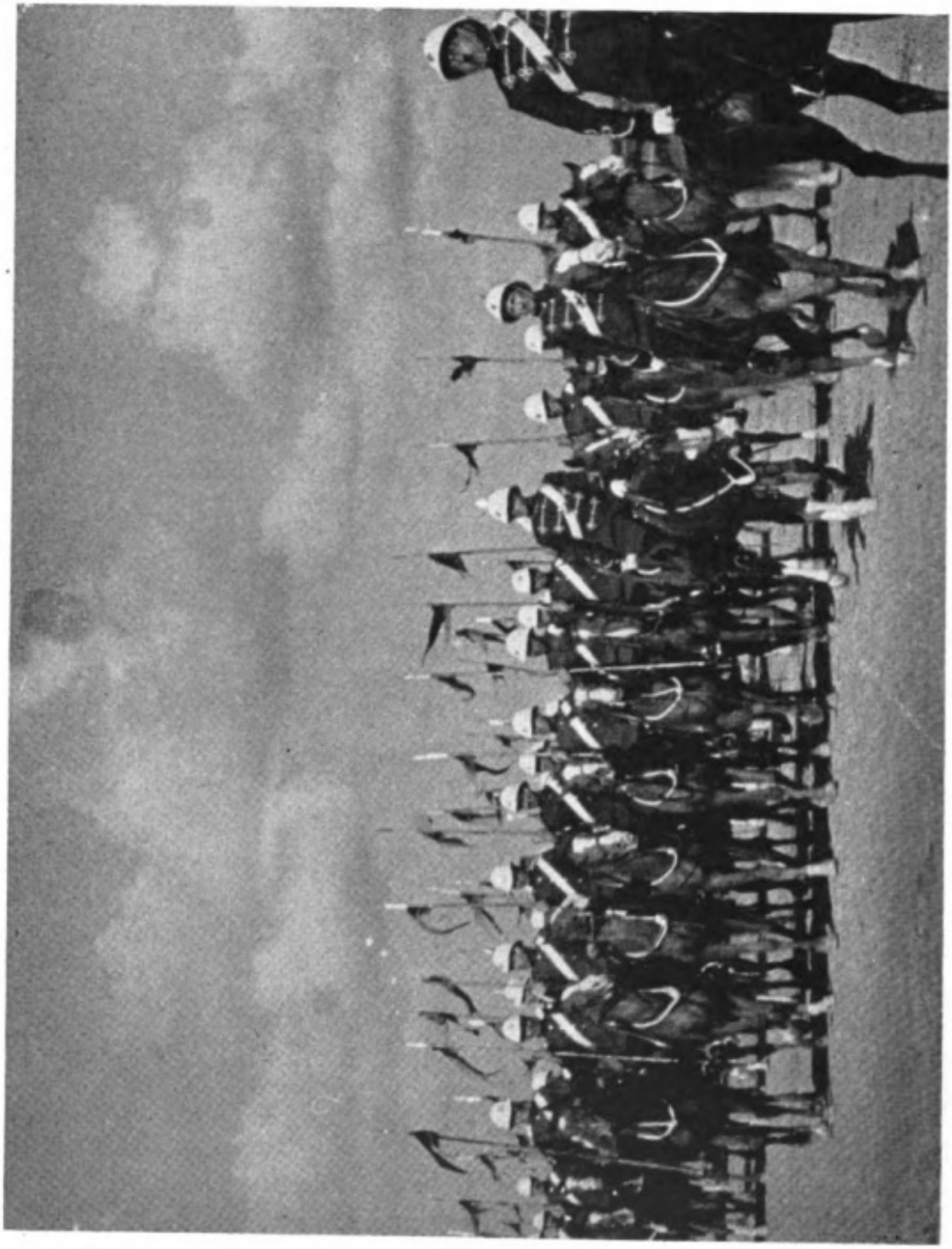

The Royal Guard

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and it was essential that this most important strategic port should be kept open to Iraq's Ally, Great Britain, and the United Nations.

After the disturbances of 1941, mentioned elsewhere in this book, the army had to concentrate its forces in the northern mountains in cooperation with British and Polish forces to meet the threat of an Axis drive through the Caucasus. When Iraq declared war on the Axis Powers in January, 1943, the army had to deal with enemy paratroops and sabotage. Lines of communication through Iraq had by that time become of vital importance to the United Nations as a transport artery for aid to Russia and had to be defended against every form of attack. The army's military installations, ordnance factories and transportation equipment were put at the disposal of its allies and plans for an expeditionary force to serve abroad were prepared in case the government should decide on such a course.

In conclusion the Iraq Army is today prepared to participate with the forces of the United Nations in restoring and safeguarding the peace and security of the world insofar as its modest means and scope of operation may permit.

Army Artillery

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XIX

POLICE

Travellers to Iraq never fail to be impressed by the courtesy and efficiency of the Iraqi police constable, and the further into the country the traveller penetrates, the more this will be noticed. The police force fulfills a dual role of police and gendarmerie. It is administered by a Director-General who is responsible to the Minister of the Interior, and the present strength of the force is 197 officers, 683 under officers and 16,548 other ranks, of which 4,727 are mounted and 11,841 foot police. At headquarters there are four Assistant Directors, each in charge of one of the four branches—Administration, Operations, Quartermaster General (supply), and Political and Criminal Investigations. In the provinces the organization of the police force follows the political divisions of the country; that is to say there is a Director of Police in each *liwa,* and under him Assistant Directors in charge of *qadhas;* and *Mufawwadhs* (Station Officers) in charge of individual police stations. The mutasarrifs (governors) control the police in their *liwa* for purposes of law and order and the general functioning of government but the Directors of Police remain responsible for administration, training, discipline, etc., and the general efficiency of the force.

In addition to the regular *liwa* police, who are divided into the usual departments—C. I. D.[1], traffic, licensing and so on—there are a number of separate forces with special functions.

The Railways are guarded by special Railway Police, and the Port of Basra by its own Port Police Force. Control of the outlying parts of the country, including the frontiers, is not an easy matter. The frontiers of the State extend for some 2,500 miles, most of which is barren desert or mountains, and to maintain a check on the illegal entry of men and goods over such extensive districts requires the cooperation of several forces. There is a separate Customs and Excise Force, and for the desert there is a Desert Force which works among the bedouin tribes, patrols the desert, and garrisons the scattered desert posts. The use of armored

[1]C. I. D. stands for Criminal Investigation Department.

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cars and wireless has made their task easier, but they are still handicapped, as are the police in the mountain areas of the North, by the fact that the political boundaries often cut across territories occupied by nomadic tribes. Finally, as a reserve, there is a mobile police force consisting of mounted, foot and motor police, complete with mobile radio and signalling units, and trained on military lines. This constitutes a balanced force available to reinforce the *liwa* police in an emergency.

One of the most interesting and effective branches of the force has proved to be the Finger Print Bureau, which is run as a branch of the C. I. D. The bureau is in touch with similar departments in other countries, and its effect has been to impress potential and actual criminals with the far-reaching hand of the police system.

Recruiting for all the police forces is entirely on the voluntary system. After he has been accepted the recruit goes to an Other Ranks School where he receives his elementary training. For higher ranks in the force there are additional schools at which cadet mufawwadhs have a course of two and cadet officers a course of three years' training.

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XX

IRAQ AND WORLD WAR II

Since Iraq's entry into the war the activities of its national administration have been greatly expanded and coordinated with the war efforts of the United Nations in the Middle East.

Public security organizations, such as police, censorship, etc., have been enlarged in order to furnish the necessary protection for the large Allied forces stationed in Iraq, and for the immense supplies of war material that have been transported through the country en route to Russia.

All telephone and telegraph installations have been placed at the disposal of Iraq's allies. Iraq has reduced civilian use of long distance and local lines to a minimum. Moreover, telephone communications with neighbouring countries have been completely suspended for civilian purposes and handed over to the Allied military forces. Trunk lines, switchboards, instruments, wires, poles, and other equipment which the Iraq Government had in stock and on order for the much-needed expansion and maintenance of the country's communication system, have been made available to the military authorities together with the services of Iraq's engineers and workshops.

LAND COMMUNICATIONS. The service of the public works department and its large well-equipped workshops have been utilized exclusively for the construction and maintenance of war communications. Large stocks of irreplaceable materials owned by the department, such as steel and other metals, and originally intended for national needs, have been utilized to further the war effort of the United Nations.

Very stringent restrictions have been placed on civilian use of building materials so as to divert existing stocks for military purposes.

The entire railway system of Iraq (about 1,500 miles), together with its workshops, stocks of material, technical staff, etc., has been placed under the joint control of the Iraq Government and the British military. Major General H. C. Smith, in a signed statement dated July 14, 1943, declared:

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"These railways have readily supplied the British military forces with various materials, stores, equipment, etc., whenever these were required and have also extended to them facilities relating to the supply of electricity and water and repairs in the workshops. In addition, lands, sheds, buildings, etc., the property of the railways which the British forces needed for their purposes have been placed at their disposal. The provision of such facilities and the extension of assistance of this nature will be continued by this Administration whenever and as long as they are required.

"It may not be out of place to mention here that the demands of the British military authorities have placed a heavy strain upon the various services of these railways, especially upon traffic operations and this Administration is gratified to place on record the fact that all staff, both Iraqi and non-Iraqi, have risen to the occasion and by their unstinted exertions have enabled this Administration to cope adequately and expeditiously with the increased military traffic and other requirements."

All of Iraq's existing roads have been used gratuitously by the armies of the United Nations. Many new highways have been constructed and large expenditures made for the strengthening of bridges and other overpasses in order to carry the exceptionally heavy traffic. All motor and animal transport has been requisitioned for military purposes.

WATER COMMUNICATIONS. River steamers and crafts, inland port installations and waterways have been handed over to the military, leaving a minimum of facilities available for civilian use.

The Port of Basra with its grounds and equipment, which includes electrical power and water purification plants, roads, airdromes, hangars, residential quarters, rest houses and clubs, has been made available for the use of British and other allied nations even to the exclusion of commercial traffic.

Civilian employees of the port have been evacuated in order to provide living quarters for the military. The plants have been enlarged so as to supply Allied troops with electricity and safe drinking water. Large tracts of ground owned by the port have been allotted to the Allied Military authorities for the construction of buildings and camps.

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Among major works carried out by the port technicians have been:

(a) Construction of two deep-sea berths.
(b) Construction of berths for discharge of lighters.
(c) Surfacing of areas for storage purposes.
(d) Erection of additional quay cranes.

AIR COMMUNICATIONS. All Iraq's air communication facilities such as airports, landing fields, hangars, workshops and equipment, have been handed over to the Allied military forces for their exclusive use.

IRRIGATION. Flood control: The Department of Irrigation has had to give full protection to the country's strategic communications, to the large areas occupied by the armies of the United Nations and to numerous storage installations housing valuable stocks of war materials. The building and reinforcing of river bunds and other protective earthworks such as diversionary outlets, sluices and gateways has necessitated a 50 per cent increase in the department's engineering staff and an increase of over 400 per cent in its labor force. The available stocks of building material, originally intended for the expansion of irrigation, in accordance with Iraq's plan for economic development, have been used almost entirely for military purposes.

Canal construction: To promote production of foodstuffs, the government has had to hasten the completion of canals which were under construction and to open new ones with the object of increasing the arable areas by about 30 per cent.

Clearance of silt: Before the war, individual farmers were responsible for the clearance of silt from canals passing through their lands, but now all irrigation canals are being dredged by the government at its own expense. This has been done for the double purpose of keeping farm labor at its productive occupations and to insure an even flow of water so as to irrigate all available land. The department of irrigation has had to meet these very costly undertakings from government funds.

AGRICULTURE. Though essentially an agricultural country, Iraq has had to increase its yearly exports of foodstuffs so as to relieve the food supply crisis faced by the United Nations in the Middle East. The following steps have been taken:

(a) Control of foodstuffs at their source of production and government requisitioning of all agricultural products at fixed prices.

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(b) Distribution of free seeds to farmers.

(c) Expansion of the organization by the Department of Agriculture of an anti-pest campaign.

(d) Government provision of credit facilities and financial loans to farmers.

OTHER CONTRIBUTIONS. Allied military forces have been allowed to use government-owned land for camping and other purposes free of rent.

A control of foreign exchange was imposed so as to make Iraq a member of the sterling area.

The Government of Iraq has levied no customs duty or impost on the huge quantities of war materials imported into the country or transported over its highways and railways to neighbouring countries. Nor has the government collected income tax from either civilian or military members of Allied Nations who are stationed in Iraq and engaged in the war effort.

Surplus production of wool, cotton and dates (150,000 tons yearly), oil seeds, etc., were entirely used for the war effort and have been exported for that purpose under control at low fixed prices.

CONCLUSION. It is evident from the foregoing that the people and Government of Iraq recognized the importance of the geographic and strategic position of that country and in their effort to help their allies in the common cause, the country's national economy has been severely disrupted.

Every material and installation connected directly or indirectly with transportation and communication services has been strained to the utmost in order to handle the hundreds of thousands of tons of military equipment, and in rendering the various services for the efficiency of the Allied armed forces stationed in Iraq and the surrounding countries.

A very large portion of the Nation's various installations such as: Port machinery, rails, engines, workshop equipment, electric and water purification plants, etc., need replacement. The various stocks of materials which had been intended for national requirements and diverted to the war effort will have to be replaced.

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Not only will the cost of these replacements after the war be more than their original value but as no customs or other revenues have been collected on anything connected with the war effort from which a reserve fund could have been built up, the Nation will have to face a tremendous tax burden in the post-war period. And during that period both the economic and social requirements of the country will be handicapped.

Customs revenue formed 54 per cent of the budget before the war and now it has dropped to 44 per cent, the deficit has to be made up by increased taxation.

It is estimated that about 35 to 40 per cent of the labor available in Iraq has been used for unproductive military purposes and this will have its repercussion on the national income in the years to come. The high wages paid to labor for war work has drawn manpower from the shepherd tribes and cattle breeders and has retarded the land settlement movement. Thus, the supply of farm labor has become short.

Except for dates, Iraq did not export vegetables or fruits. These were cultivated in quantities just sufficient to supply the country's requirements. The large Allied forces and refugees stationed in the country were allowed to buy vegetables and fruits without restriction. This condition decreased the supplies available to Iraqis and has caused a very sharp rise in the cost of living.

When one considers that the population of Iraq is only about 5,250,000 people and that the national income is comparatively low, it is obvious that Iraq's citizens are rapidly incurring a per capita tax burden which may bring them dangerously near the border line of economic disaster. And this is being done knowingly and in a sincere cooperative spirit by the Iraqi Nation.

Indeed a creditable effort on the part of a 25-year-old nation!

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XXI

IRAQ AND POST-WAR RECONSTRUCTION

Iraq's post-war reconstruction projects have been inspired by a desire to raise the standard of living of the population, and so satisfy the widely felt urge to ensure a fair share of the fruits of progress to all. It is, moreover, generally realized that national policies, both in their internal and in their external aspects, should fit in with the spirit of the new age, with its implications of dynamic social and economic advances and international cooperation. The government and people of Iraq are conscious of the colossal task which a policy of reconstruction involves and they are prepared to pay the price.

To the Iraqi Government, raising the standard of living of the people is not only a question of more and better food, or even more material goods, but also of better housing, health services, education, public services, and anything else which will ultimately lead to a fuller life. To approach the problem of reconstruction by way of the standard of living of the mass of the community, has its special value at present. It is in harmony with the peace aims of the United Nations which are mainly directed towards human welfare and material well-being. Any government having this end in view must devote much of its energy and time to bringing about successive orderly changes in the economic structure of the State. Since the entry of the U. S. A. into the war Iraq has taken a keen interest in the various economic and social conferences which have been held in America, the Middle East and elsewhere, and in the decisions reached at them. Iraq's attitude has not been confined to observing international events; it has attempted in its small field of action to promote a policy of direct assistance towards an Allied Victory. In order that this collaboration should be of lasting benefit, the government's plan is to carry the economic and social principles of the Atlantic Charter and decisions of the Hot Springs Conference into effect.

A committee for reconstruction has been constituted and plans are being considered by each department. Though these plans are still in

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their early stages, their cumulative effect will be considerable. The problem will be tackled from an agricultural point of view, since seventy-five percent of the population of Iraq depends on agriculture for its living, and national economy of the country is, therefore, based on agricultural production. Any improvement in agricultural methods would make more food available and then lead to better nutrition for all. Partial mechanization of agriculture is already increasing the productiveness of the land and so helping to fill the gap caused by a shortage in agricultural labor and the use of antiquated farm implements. Moreover, wide areas of uncultivated land will be put into production. The individual peasant will have more land to cultivate and his share in the final produce will increase manifold. The government intends to encourage the small-holding system which allows the small farmer more independence. Riverain water, which is abundant in the country, will be economically utilized and will be brought to distant farms by means of new irrigation channels and more water pumps.

For this purpose new irrigation schemes are being worked out. Most considerable of these is the Bekhme Dam scheme in the North which, when completed, will store up much of the Tigris water which at present reaches the sea without being used and will protect towns and villages lower down the river from the danger of floods. A similar form of control for the waters of the Euphrates is envisaged in the Habbaniya reservoir scheme. A third reservoir, for the Diyala river, is being considered, and a barrage on the Euphrates near Falluja has also been proposed. All these schemes are intended to put available water to greater use, and to solve the complicated problem of tribalism by settling the still nomadic tribes of Iraq on cultivable land. In general farmers will be encouraged to improve their conditions of life and work by the building of modern villages where houses, schools, hospitals, and recreation ground will be made available through State money and effort.

Cooperative societies, legislation for which has already been passed, are to be established through government guidance and finance, which will afford both producers and consumers a better value for their money.

Endemic disease is to be fought by prevention and treatment. Special health centers are already being established although their capacity at the moment is limited by the medicine, equipment, and staff available. These obstacles will, however, be removed after the war. It

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is clearly realized that disease must be eliminated before the output of labor can be increased or the population begin to rise. The health of the people will not only be improved by making health institutions accessible to everybody, but also by better nutrition which implies growing plenty of the right kind of food. Plans have already been made for improving the breed of livestock and modernizing the fishing industry.

Roads and railways will be expanded to link all parts of Iraq with each other, and to shorten the distance between the producer and home and foreign markets. The project of extending the railway from Kirkuk to Erbil will make it easier for Kurdish producers to reach the central markets of the South. The projected railway link between Baghdad and Haifa would open a new and direct route to the Mediterranean which would considerably help the expansion of Iraq's commerce.

Last but not least, it is fully realized that unless the purchasing power of the rural population is appreciably raised other professions, handicrafts, and industries, can never greatly advance. By increasing the purchasing power of the farmer new internal markets will be opened for industrial products, and consequently the standard of living of townsmen, workers, and others will automatically go up.

Attention is also being paid to the town laborers. Their conditions of work and living are being gradually ameliorated; fair living wages and permanent employment are being maintained through government public works; more facilities for technical training are being planned through new schools and training centers; child labor will be completely eliminated when enough schools are established; the protection of women workers will be made effective; workers' housing schemes will be wholly financed by the State. Freedom of association which is guaranteed by the Labor Law, will be encouraged with a view to making trade unions healthy social institutions.

Iraq is looking ahead and planning a new and fuller life for everybody. In this it will be helping in winning the battle for peace and prosperity.

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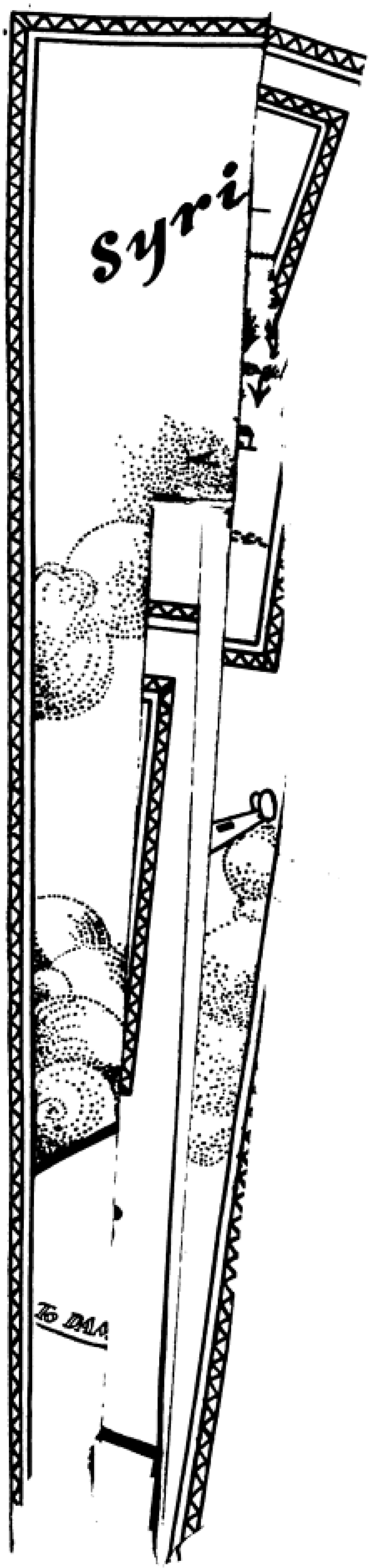

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