Persia in Transformation
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(5) Historian's History of the World Vol 1 p. 422
(6) Persian Sources
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(26) Persian Revolution and Strangling of Persia
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(33) Encyclopedia Year Book for 1913 (See the Articles on Persia) p. 202
(34) Strangling of Persia p. 282
(35) Persia Behind the Veil (A pamphlet written during the war) p. 282
(36) Encyclopedia Year Book for 1912 1911 November and December
(37) Review of Reviews 1912 February
(38) Encyclopedia Year Book 1912
(39) Persia Behind the Veil

Dying to lack of authoritative information this last chapter is written largely from memory and such newspaper references as have been available.
CHAPTER I.

General Notes about Persia

The events which have occurred in Persia during the closing years of the 19th century and the succeeding years of the 20th century have tended to create a new interest in the mind of the public in regard to that country. Persia, which had been following the direct path to degeneration, showed signs of a new life and proved to the world that if left to herself, she could, by inaugurating an era of reform, follow the path of development that the other civilized nations had trodden and appear in a short time in the rank of the progressive nations of the world. The causes which led to this national awakening in the land of Iran and the new situation that it created will be discussed in the subsequent chapters of this book. But before considering the main subject of the same, I deem it proper for the good understanding of the narrative to expose to the reader a true picture of Persia. This I think essential, first, because I desire to point out the great influence that the natural situation of the land has exerted on the character of the people and, second, to show that Persia is not, as some writers have described, a land of no resources, peopled by a band of nomadic people unable to manage their own affairs and ready to accept the rule of the foreigner. This aim in view can be pursued under three main topics: (1) the situation of the country; (2) the people, and (3) wealth and resources of Persia.

(1) The Situation of the Country

Persia is situated between the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf occupying a temperate zone and holding a commanding position in Central Asia. The whole plateau is rugged in character but abounding in fertile tracts of land. The climate is dry, cold in winter and warm in summer, but it is healthy. Large rivers are not present in Persia and in this respect the country may seem to be in a disadvantageous position. The presence of a great river, such as Nile or Amazon, might have given to the land another aspect. But the situation is not helpless for small rivers are numerous all over the country and their waters are conducted by numerous canals to the cultivable lands. The rivers of Karun, Sefid Rud, Zarinda Rud, and Senj-Amir are among the large rivers of Iran. Karun itself is navigable for a long distance from the Persian Gulf and it is due to its rapid that navigation cannot be followed for a longer distance.

Mountains range out the country from north to south in parallel lines, a thing which has tended to make the people cling to their local customs. These ranges at points culminate in very high peaks varying from less than thousand feet in height. The Mountain of Demavend, situated north-east of Schirvan, is an excellent volcano 14,500 feet high. These high mountains are perpetually covered with snow which, melting during spring and summer, give rise to the numerous rivers and rivulets which are used for the irrigation of the adjoining districts.
Persia can without any exaggeration be called a land of contrasts. Between the mountain ranges are extensive plains which sharply separate the country into distinct districts and explain the great climatic differences. The warm climate of the plain suddenly gives way to the cool breeze of the mountain as one ascends the hilly districts. During the summer, when the climate of the city grows unbearable, people seek refuge in mountainous summer resorts where the air is as bracing and delicious as can be imagined. For example, the city of Ghilan is situated at the foot of the Elberz range which runs north of Persia and joins the Hind-Kush in Afghanistan. In summer the hot air of the city makes life there unpleasant. But, thanks to the gifts of nature, at a distance of six miles from the capital are situated the beautiful summer resorts which present a marked contrast to the heavy atmosphere of the city, while some 15 miles farther are the extremely cold regions where snow still may be found lying on the ground.

Such climatic differences account for the great variety of plant and trees that can grow in Persia. On the hot regions of the Persian Gulf littoral banana and mango trees, which flourish in a country like India, can be grown successfully. On the shores of the Caspian sea recent experiments in the cultivation of tea plant has shown successful results. Briefly speaking, recent explorations has shown in Persia almost all kinds of plant life can flourish if introduced in favourable regions.

The climate of the whole is temperate. Abdominal diseases originating in Persia are rarely found. Cholera and plague, which in every decade so sweep over the whole surface of the country, is introduced into Iran from Arabia and India by the pilgrims to Mecca. Other prevalent diseases can be exterminated by preventive measures. Severe winds and destructive earthquakes do not occur. In southern and north-eastern Persia where occasional earth quakes take place they are not of a nature to destroy cities or villages. Thus the phenomena of nature in all their various forms were a modified form in the land of Iran.

Considering the geographical situation of Persia we can see how the history of the land has been affected by its natural position. From east Persia is protected by the great range of Zagamas which branches longitudinally from the mountain system of Caucasus. This natural barrier, culminating in high peaks, records passage only through certain passes which, if held by a strong force, can defy a mighty army of invasion. From time immemorial these battlefields have served as a natural wall separating Persia from the neighbouring lands.

From the north. Persia is bounded by the mountainous country of Aserbaiban, the Caspian sea and the steppes of Turkestan. Here again nature has been kind enough to give protection to her precursor of civilization. From the east the Boundary touches Afghanistan and the hot deserts of Baluchistan. Here the natural barriers are not well marked, and time and again Persia has been overrun from this unprotected side by hordes of invaders. By the south the Persian boundary is well fixed by the Arabian sea and the Persian Gulf.
The People of Persia

This vast tract of land, 623,000 sq. miles in area, approximately 2½ times the extent of France, is inhabited by 10,000,000 souls. Some are astonished to hear that such a large country should be populated by a comparatively few inhabitants. They urge that it is a pity that a vast realm should be left under the control of a handful of people. They believe that Persians have no claim to the country which they call their own and think it more advantageous to the civilized world if the administration of the country were taken over by a European passport, possibly England, in which case the country would be less to income. If not, I object to point out that it would be in the Persians, we are a distinct race, should become extinct. Simply I would mention that this same case would be true in regard to some other nationalities as well. That would such gentlemen say about Brazil which is much larger in area than Persia and is inhabited by only 6,000,000 souls.

An impartial glance at the history of Persia will make the situation clear. Is it not a wonder that a race which has suffered 13 centuries from invasion and misgovernment should still be aware of its existence? Notwithstanding this, the population of Persia has been increasing and should a period of peace and prosperity manifest itself in a short time the Iranians can double their numbers. The size of the population of Persia must be estimated at... The sources which are at hand are estimations of European travellers. Many years ago some Europeans got permission from the Persian government to determine the number of the people and others have based their estimations or their work. But that source is not reliable as almost everybody managed to misrepresent the number. The of the Members of the family, first because of the fear of military service, but second, due to a rumour that a poll tax was going to be exacted. Such being the case the census that was put down the population of Persia at 9,000,000 was an underestimate.
Now supposing that 10000000 is a fair estimate, let us investi-
gate the character of the inhabitants. The rugged character of the I
land has tended to produce a military spirit in the Iranians. They
are hardy, good riders, and excellent shooters. Riding and shooting
is the thing that almost every Persian knows. Their houses which re-
semble castles, the narrow streets of the cities, the ramparts which
still surround the towns, and the city gates which at any moment can
keep out the stranger, can well explain to what extent the inhabitants
of Iran have preserved their military character.
(1) The Persians by descent belong to the Aryans of Indo-European
origin. It is very difficult to state where the Iranians started their
immigration and penetrated into western Asia. History dates back
their appearance in Mesopotamian valley to about 2000 B.C. They were
a race of horsemen and wish them this custom was introduced in the
lands of Babylonia, Assyria, Greece and Egypt. The Iranian tribes
spread over the plateau of Iran and each came to settle a certain dis-
trict. From nomadic people they changed into an agricultural race
and the tilling of ground came to be regarded by them as a second duty.
At present, going to the many conquests that Persia has witnessed, few
Iranians of pure blood can be found.
(2) In his "History of Mankind" Professor Friedrich Ratzel gives
a fair description of the Persians which I now quote. "The Persian
possesses the refinement natural to the child of an ancient civiliza-
tion. Wit, poetry, elegance, but also a cunning of address, make him
recognizable among a thousand. He is distinguished from his caravane-
rist by taste in dress, even to his shoes, with an almost feminine co-
quetry and a generally well cultivated exterior. Just as he adorns his
body so he embellishes his talk with figures and jests. The character
which he himself describes as "fusul", a man of refined address, craft-
ily, fond of jest, clinging to superiors, respectful to inferiors, su-
perficially cultured- is frequent in Persia and especially in Isphahan.
The Persians have the reputation of first rate diplomats, negotia-
tors, brokers. Even in India the Persians stand of all races nearest
to the English, and rise by their wit to situations unattainable by
other natives. An often quoted verse of Sa'd says, "Better tell a
lie than a truth to breed offence."--- Much praised too is the Persian
country but there is a good deal of falsehood in it; a Persian deems
himself bound to offer anything however large and costly that takes a
stranger's fancy."---Love of titles is extraordinarily common in Persia
Mirza (learned) is prefixed to the name if Khan or Bag is not offend-
ed. Pious people decorate themselves with Hadji the title of pilgrim-
age to Mecca or names like Kerbelai, Moshkobi, from other pilgrimages."
The people of Persia can be divided into three main classes, the urban, the rural, and the wandering people. The urban population is naturally more advanced than the other two. The city is the center of Persian life and here gather the well-to-do classes of the people. The nobles and great merchants carry on their work from this center. They take an active part in the political activities of the country and their influence is well felt. To them the people look as leaders. The city population have recently awakened. They realize their needs and know what their country is passing. They have understood that the only way to save their country is to educate the young and for this end they have started schools on European methods. In the political agitations of the past the people have taken an active part. Some did not know what they wanted but they identified themselves with the national movement. On the whole the urban population is ready to accept the principles of modern civilization. They can adapt themselves easily to the changed conditions and have no objection in doing so as soon as opportunity presents itself.

The rural population constitutes the second class. This forms the mass of the people who work in the fields. Although their financial means do not allow them to take part in the enjoyment of city life, they are not discontented with their condition. In some cases their condition is life is miserable yet they take their lot happily. They do not own the land they till. The landlord gives them the seed that they sow. The peasants do all the field work, gather the crop, and receive about one third of the harvest. The peasants of Persia are peaceful and their desire is to be freed from the aggression of the Kud-Esha (village chief). Peasants are free to move from one land to another if they feel that by it their condition could be improved but they seldom resort to such means. They look to the landlord for protection and to him they present their cases for arbitration.

The wandering people form the third group. This class are included that have preserved till the present day their nomadic character and are at times the cause of annoyance to the urban and rural population. These occupy certain regions and move back and forth from Yaslagh (summer resort) to Keshlagh (winter resort) according to the change of season. It is in this moving back and forth that at times they take advantage of the disturbed condition of the country and plunder village and carry away the caravans with their loads of merchandise. But we must not suppose that these tribes are bands of robbers. It is only in recent times that, having felt the power of the central government weak enough, they have produced disturbances. The tribesmen are richer than the peasants and their standard of life is consequently higher. They can supply in case of need a large body of expert cavalry which if trained after the modern military methods can revive the name of the 'Imamshahs' of the ancient Persian army. Some of the tribes, especially the Bahktiar, have taken interest in the recent political changes in Persia and in some cases have played an important role. Most of the great Bahktiar leaders have visited Europe and through their influence schools have been established which wander with the tribe from Yaslagh to Keshlagh. The tribesmen of Persia do not resemble the bedouins of Arabia. They are richer and more enlightened. They form a mass of hardy people in whom Persia has a great hope.
One thing is now common to all the people of Persia; they have a contempt to be ruled by foreign powers. This is not due to the fact that they hate the foreigner but simply because they have a pride that they belong to a nation which they know has kept its identity from ancient times and they are determined to keep what their forefathers have left to them. They abhor to be the servant of others but they like to be their own masters. Day by day this sense of nationality is increasing, thanks to the effort of those who encourage it.

(3) Resources of Persia

Persia is a country rich in hidden wealth. The mineral wealth of the land is enormous and it is due to the great cost of transportation that these natural treasures are not utilized. For the extraction of mines industries must be started. The wealth of the country cannot answer these demands and as a consequence foreign capital must be called in. Moreover the produced articles, owing to lack of railroad, cannot be disposed of cheaply. These great drawbacks have kept the country in an undeveloped state. A railroad concession to England or Russia would mean an increase of foreign influence, a thing which the Persians more than anything else abhor. Even then a Transpersian railroad as planned by those powers would be of no great help to the country.

Iron and coal, the two essential ingredients of industrial development, are found in large deposits. The best iron ore in Persia is found around the region of Shahr-i-Teleh where even at the present time large amounts of the mineral are extracted by crude methods. In other places of the country also the ore can be found in large deposits. The coal supply has its chief bed in the Elburz range. At present, although the cost of transportation is high, still the coal is mined to a considerable extent and the city of Teheran draws its coal supply from that region.

(3) By quoting a passage from the new International Encyclopedia we can get a fair idea of the mineral resources of the country.

"Roughly speaking there are six mineral depositing zones: (1) the province of Azerbaijan in the northwest where iron, copper, lead and coal are found; (5) the northern and southern slopes of the main Elburz range where iron and coal occur near each other, Teheran deriving its coal supply from this region; (5) Khurasan the rich northeastern province which contains the famous turquoise mines of Alshahr and in which are contained considerable quantities of copper, coal, and salt; (4) the province of Kerman where copper, lead, manganese ore and fine marble, (5) the highly mineralized district in the central mountains with iron antimony, nickel, cobalt, copper, lead, sulphur and asbestos; and (3) the Persian Gulf littoral where naphtha, rock salt, iron, ochre, hyposulphite and sulphur. While Persia abounds in remarkable mineral resources their commercial value is chiefly dependant on the cost of transportation to the coast or nearest market."

The naphtha deposits of Persia are of considerable extent and some geologist believe that they are continuous with the naphtha fields of Guiana. On the shores of the Caspian sea in the provinces of Gilan traces of naphtha can be found. This region extends more or less toward Luristan and becomes more marked in the province of Kniestan. In this province the English secured a license to mine this valuable mineral. After great trouble they at last succeeded and near Susa the naphtha came out with great force. The English were then planning
to conduct the fluid by means of pipes to Mohammash, from which place after rectifying it, they could use it on board of a large number of their battleships. Near the Persian Gulf lateral the nashta region again becomes marked. In Dalaki, a place some 40 miles from Bushire, a rivulet flows from the hills which has mixed with it a large percentage of petroleum. The people of the surrounding regions take the water and, letting it rest for a while, gather the oil which rises to the surface and use it in their lamps.

Besides Persia has a large number of mineral springs which at present flow away and are used only by the people in their neighbourhood who by experience have understood their medicinal values.

The agricultural product of Persia are also worth mentioning. Wheat and Barak are cultivated in almost all districts of the country. Rice of all qualities is cultivated in places where large supplies of water are available. The province of Delan is a rice producing region. There rice forms the staple article for food while in other province wheat is the chief article of consumption. The rice fields of Basra also cover large areas. Poppy and cotton plant are also grown in Persia and are chiefly exported to foreign lands. Gums, dyestuffs and vegetable products flourish to a considerable extent. Fruit trees are cultivated in large numbers. The fruit products of Persia are by far in surplus of home consumption and are dried and exported every year in large quantities.

(4) Persia raises a large number of horses and mules annually. The horse is brought up in agricultural districts or by tribes in places where pasture land is available. The quality of the horse is excellent and is best suited for the purposes of cavalry. Large number of these horses are exported yearly from Southern Persia to India. The mule although of a small size is strong and of good quality being best suited for the purposes of transport and trade.

The forest of Persia are also worth mentioning. There are three main regions where forests cover large areas. First is a forest zone which extends from southeastern Persia to the Bakhtari district. The second zone is situated in western Persia specially in the provinces of Luristan and Khorasan. The third region is that of the Persian sea coastal. The last mentioned region is the most noted and extensive of all. But already a great deal of damage is due to the forests. Large numbers of trees have been cut down and no provisions is made to encourage the growth of new ones. After large section of forests are burned out to prepare charcoal. Should a more prosperous and orderly era come, which surely will, the large revenue that the government can draw from the forests of the country will be considerable.
Persons interested in Persian affairs usually come across such questions: What forces have been at work in shaping the destinies of Iran? Why is it that Persia to-day does not occupy such an important position as she held in former times? The answer to these questions and the forces behind them cannot be given easily. Some maintain that Persians of the present era do not possess that energy and valour that their forefathers exhibited. They are of the idea that the Persians have degenerated and unless the foreigner steps in there is no hope for their regeneration. These persons have overlooked the great causes that have led to the decline of Persia. Political, social, religious, and economic forces have brought ruin to the once prosperous realms of Iran and these can best be dealt with under four main headings, (1) successive wars, (2) religious influences (3) the government, and (4) foreign intrigues. Let us now consider each of these in detail.

(1) Successive wars and invasions

The main reason why Persia has sunk into this deep abyss of poverty is attributed to the successive wars and invasions to which the country has been exposed. These blows have tended to depopulate the realm and make large tracts desolate. In this respect no nation has suffered so greatly as the Iranians. Here we will deal especially with one phase of these events, that is, those cataclysms that at times have threatened Persia's existence as a nation. One thing, however, the history of Iran records five great invasions each of which threatened at the time to put an end to Persia's existence as a nation. There have been also several minor invasions which comparatively speaking have been mild. The final results of all these invasions have been favourable for the Persians. The wars in a short time have been submerged in the customs and ideas of their subjugers. They have been Christianized and surrounded themselves with Persian surroundings. The story repeated itself over and over again and the same general result showed itself throughout. For example, the present ruling dynasty is of Turkish origin but in the course of time, they have been fully transformed. Some foreigners may still look upon them as outsiders but this feeling is not general. The Shah is Persian in every respect. If he is to be called a Turk there can be no objection, if one should at the same time call the king of England a German.

The first great invasion of Persia took place at the time of Alexander the Great. That conquest was a wave of reaction which had its origin in Macedonia and flooded Asia from the Mediterranean to the Indus. The endopendence of Persia came to an end for the time being, her treasures were plundered by the invaders, and her capital was set on fire in revenge for Athens. But Hellenism, which was successful wherever the Greeks set their foot, failed on this side of the Sargares. Alexander himself adopted ways and customs, dressed as a Persian and took for his wife the daughter of Darius. Even his body guard came to be composed of the Persians, a thing which led to the revolt of the Greek army. After Alexander's death Persia was for a while under Seleucids but later passed under the sway of the Parthians. The Sassanian dynasty of Persian origin was established.
The second great catastrophe was the Arab conquest 632-661. This is the greatest blow that Persia has received during the course of her history and she is suffering from it till the present era. At the time that the Arab conquest took place Persia was in the summit of her material prosperity. The Persians were far advanced in civilization while the Arabs were nothing but a board of nomadic people accustomed to the demands of a desert life. The palaces of Ctesiphon, Suse, and Cambyses were demolished by the invaders and as a token of the submission of the land of Paradise before the victorious armies of the prophet a huge mass of wealth was sent to pleases the Caliph. The Arabs congratulated themselves that they had survived to see the beauties of the promised land. A large number of men and women were taken as captives and conducted out of their homes as slaves. But the victors were not contented with these atrocities. Convinced that the inhabitants would drive them from their new homes sooner or later, the invaders took all measures to suppress the last traces of Persian nationality. In a short time Islam became the recognized religion. The Arabic language became the medium of speech and one by which any appeal for justice could be made. Local customs and national feasts were no more allowed to be observed. It seemed only a matter of time when Persia would appear by language and custom a complete Arab state. Fortunately that time never came. For the Persians soon adapted themselves to the new environment and in a short time became the councillors of the Caliphs at Baghdad. First rate writers appeared from their ranks who became leaders in the literary and scientific fields. Two centuries had hardly elapsed from the establishment of the Arab Empire when Abu-Numium Al-Qarausi raised the first successful banner of revolt against the Caliph.

(6) From 509-522 A.D. four waves of invasion passed over Persia and different foreign dynasties succeeded each other. The Samanids held the sway for a time. The Ghaznavids followed and ruled Persia from 999-1038. Suluk Turks succeeded to the throne from 1030-1193, and the Karasiana dynasty won the supremacy from 1193-1260. The wave which led to these dynamic changes were attended with great losses of person and property. But these invasions were not as acute as the Arab conquest for the invaders although foreigners were soon transformed. The conquerors became in a short time Persians by a custom and language and soon enjoyed some periods of glory at these times. Sultan Masoom Ghaznavi was a great patron of arts and letters and some of the great poets of Persia gathered at his court. It was at his time that the greatest of Persian poet Saadi completed his great epic "The Book of King" a thing which more than anything else helped to keep up the spirit of the Persians.

The conquest of Gengis Khan lasted from 1206-1226. It had been prophesied for the ill-treatment of Mongolian merchants by the Persians. Gengis had sent an ambassador to ask for indemnities but the envoy was also met with death. This roused the anger of the great Mongol chief who determined to exterminate the Persians. The invasion was most horrible in its nature. The armed forces of Aly Takin the Persian King were annihilated and the country fell a prey to the invaders. Women massacred without pity was shown to women and children. Wherever an influential man was found he suffered the fate of his brethren. Only the death of Gengis put an end to these atrocities.
...Haliluz who succeeded him was more conflictory and the Persians did not let the chance pass away. Through the influence of the patriotic statesman and philosopher Nasir-ed-din Persia was once more saved.

But scarcely had the Persians forgotten the Mongol conquest that the country was overrun from 1393-1395 by Tamerlane. Timur appeared in Iran with his Kaiser army and marked his path to Baghdad by towers of skulls. This time again the Persians showed remarkable resistance and in turn influenced their conquerors.

The Afghan conquest was the last in the series of great invasions to which Persia had exposed. The Afghans or religious grounds started their attacks of Persian territory and their intention was to exterminate the people as far as possible. In a short time they overran Khurasan and Kerman. They captured the city of Isphahan which was then the capital of Persia and put its inhabitants to the sword. All places that fell before them witnessed a scene of horrible vengeance. At this critical moment when the question of life and death was at issue appeared a man of genius, Nadir by name, who drove the Afghans back from Persia and consolidated the realm once more.

This was a brief sketch of the great calamities which Persia has witnessed during the course of her history. Persia for centuries has been the battle field of the Orient and in fact her history is mainly a chronicle of wars. In between the great invasions dynastic wars have ravaged the country. As soon as the power of the central government has become weak because of extravagance and indulgence in luxury the country has witnessed a scene of anarchy. Great provincial chieftains have tried to gain the supremacy and they have resorted to all sorts of cruelty in order to attain their ends. This story has repeated itself several times since the Arab conquest. We should not forget also the wars of offense and defense waged against the neighboring states. To it then no wonder that under such circumstances the Persians should still have remained a homogeneous nation?

(2) Religious Influences

When Persia was conquered by the Arabs a great change came about. The Mohammedan religion was imposed upon the people. Before that the inhabitants of Persia were Zoroastrians. The religion of the Iranians was well suited to their nature and character. The morals that Zoroastrians religion had taught were simple and practical and had helped to refine the mode of life and custom of the early Persians. Lying was a sin which could not be forgiven. The tilling of the soil was among the great virtues. While Zoroastrians the Persians had far advanced in civilization. In this a large laboratory had been constructed for the pursuit of science. A great library had been founded at Persepolis. In a word the character, the customs, and the cultural attainment of the Persians was in direct opposition to that of the Arabian Medina. Whatever might have been the causes, the Persians being disheartened could not show resistance to the invaders and the battle of Nehawand sealed the fate of the Sassanian Empire.

The invaders imposed a foreign religion upon the inhabitants who had no choice but to submit. Only by Gaukhs (trilites) could a Persian cling to the religions of his ancestors.
The conquerors learned the libraries as they did later that of Alexandria to make the Persians forget their history and civilization. They claimed that Koran was the mother of the books and satisfied the world. The Koran was not allowed to be translated into Persian and the Inhabitants could not understand their new religious book. They thus accepted a religion the essence of which they did not comprehend and which due to fear they were obliged to praise. The Persians came by little by little to lose that trait of nobleness and generosity that made them famous in the earlier period of their history. I do not attempt to discredit Islam as a religion. Mohammedanism was the best remedy imaginable for ameliorating the condition of the Arabs and raising them to a higher level of civilisation. But as it was introduced in Persia it bore no good results and this can be explained as mentioned before by the fact that the nature of Persians and Arabs were totally different. The Persians from the first appeared to adhere to the house of Ali whose son had married Shabr-Ban the daughter of Yazdigerd. For this they came to be considered by the rest of the Mohammedans as infidels. It was late in their history and then at the time of the establishment of the Safaveds dynasty that the separation between Sunnite and Shiite Mohammedans became sharp. On this religious difference great wars have been waged between Persia and the neighbouring Moslem states. Religious corruptions also set in at the time of Safaveds. The theologians began to write commentaries on the Koran. They set about gathering the traditions related by the Imams and forged them in cases of necessity to make the difference between Sunni and Shia more marked. At present there are voluminous books written upon these subjects which are of no benefit to the country and have helped to make the people more superstitious. It was at the time of the Safaveds that the influence of Mullahs became great. They became councillors of the kings and tried in every way to keep the people in an ignorant state. This influence has survived till the present day but is swiftly passing away. (7) Every time that the Mullahs have expressed an opinion in the political affairs of the country its consequence has been misery and destruction to the state at large. In the last days of the Safaveds dynasty the Mullah interfered in the affairs of the country. They then held the reins of the state in their hand. At this time Georgian soldiers from Caucasian had been sent to Garrison Afghanistan. This the Afghans despised for the soldiers were Christians and their conduct was insulting to the Afghan Moslems. No heed was given to the Afghan grievances and the result was the terrible invasion mentioned before. (9) Again at the time of the succession of Aga Mohammad Khan who was the founder of the House of Bazar the Mullahs sought to interfere in the internal affairs of the country. They maintained that the new house was from the religious point of view unfit to rule. Civil war then ensued for several years and several claimants to the throne appeared in the person of prominent men. It was only after the decisive battle of Kerman when the power of the Mullahs was totally destroyed and a large number of them were put to the sword that peace and order could be restored.

(9) In the reign of Fat-Ali Shah once more the Mullahs planned to interfere in the affairs of the country. Unaware of the facts they made the people understand that Russia was nothing but a mere shadow.
They declared jihad and obliged the government to declare a state of war. The Mullahs and Zalab (student of theology) participated in the military activities. But such a board of untrained men could not show resistance to a regular army. They fled as soon as they heard the thundering of the cannon and fleeing away destroyed the moral of the army. The result of the campaign was loss of territory, the payment of indemnity, and military disgrace.

The Mullahs of Persia are mostly responsible for the backwardness of the country in the last century. They condemned all European learning as contrary to the religious dogma. They encouraged the nation to engage in discussions which contributed nothing to the advancement of the people but rather checked all progress and development. The inferences that they have made from the Koran and traditions has made the Persians lose their sense of individuality. The average Persian is unable to pursue the path he desires. Before engaging in any field of activity he must see that nothing is in the way which is in opposition to Dhaal (religion). He is overburdened with religious beliefs that every educated man would be shocked to hear.

(10) Socially also Islam has not been of benefit to Persia. In their prosperous days the women of Persia were not secluded. They did not wear veils but associated freely with men. The wife of the nobles followed their husbands to hunting grounds and participated in the chase of game. They were respected by their husbands and were given first place in the time of festivities. Among the Parsees who are pure Persians these customs have survived till the present era. Even among the peasantry and tribe women associate with men and help them in their work. The tribeswomen can ride at full speed and they, to a certain extent, exhibit the valour of their ancient sisters. At the time of the Arab conquest this chapter in the history of the country came to an end. Although not mentioned in the Koran it was inferred by the Mullahs that the women had to veil. The grave results that ensue from such a practice is evident. Men accustomed to live in a society unfrequented by the gentle sex are apt to forget the delicacy which should be observed in polite gatherings. The presence of women in the company of men produces in the latter the power of self-control and enkindles the growth of noble habits. In Persia the women have been kept out of the society of men for 13 centuries and the vile habits to which this has given rise can be imagined by every body.

The teaching of Mohammed is taken in the pure form that the prophet had meant would have done great good to Persia. But unfortunately his teachings were not adhered to and on the contrary they were perverted from their original meaning and used to check the advancement of the people. In the early days of its glory Islam furthered the cause of progress so that Sajjadi and other places became the seat of knowledge and learning but later corruption set in. It present in the form to which it has been reduced in Persia Islam cannot help to further the cause of the national revival and the Persians are coming to realize this fact more and more. Putting the blame upon the Mullahs we can conclude that a religious element has worked in the decline of Persia.
The government of Persia has been to a great extent responsible for the backwardness of the country. The negligence of the central government and the cruelty of the provincial administrators has brought in the last century misers to the nation. The Shah enjoyed absolute power, their being no restraint upon his action. He surrounded himself with courtiers who kept their position as long as they enjoyed royal confidence. Royal disfavor meant the loosing of one's station and sometimes death. Many promising statesmen were put out of the way because their increasing influence was thought dangerous. The interest of the country was sold to the foreigner for paltry sums. The necessary reforms were postponed.

The finances of the country were in a deplorable condition. A large part of the revenues went to meet the royal expenses and those of the royal family. The princes drew large pensions from the treasury although in most cases they did not render any service to their country. There were also the nobles and grandees who for special services they had rendered to the king received large pensions which passed after their death to their descendants. The number of persons who thus received pensions of one kind or another was exceedingly large. After these heavy drains on the treasury little money was left to meet the other expenses of the government. The army for instance would remain unpaid for long months. The representatives of Persia in foreign countries kept their position as an honorary post without salary. The chief ministers of the state and provincial governors did not receive fixed salaries from the government ran short of money.

The army which was the force on which the central government depended remained unpaid for connsecutive months. Most of the time a large part of the money, before being distributed among the common soldiers, would be absorbed by the higher officers in charge and no account would be given as to how it was expended. Moreover the soldiers were looked on by the governing body as a source of income. The soldiers were employed as workmen for public works with small pay and sometimes without any payment. The officers at times employed them in their private affairs. The soldiers did not enjoy their miserable lot and took the first opportunity to escape. They abandoned the regular drill hours and used to follow a profession the rest of the day to gain a living. Some times soldiers garrisoned to keep peace and order joined hand secretly with bands of robbers and in turn got a share of the booty.

Persia for administrative purposes was divided into provinces which are large territories ruled by a governor. Each governor enjoyed in the province administrative and judicial powers. The work of administration was divided among individuals who took charge of the provincial districts and were responsible to the governor-general. The governors that came to the provinces were men who had offered large sums of money to the central authorities and had received their position in exchange for it. These persons then expected to collect the sum that they had paid and hoped to gain in addition to it a handsome surplus. (11)J.L. Hillis in his book entitled "Persia as it is" written about 1885 states "In Persia everything is sold—governorships, judgeships, religious offices, places of every kind, official protection all. The great officials are as corrupt as Bacon but they are not detected or if detected, know how to buy safety."
The governors were responsible for the provincial revenues which were to be deposited at the royal treasury in the raising of which they took to all means in order to consider their own advantage. They employed for this purpose a host of men who were all anxious to gather a fortune while they enjoyed power. The taxes in Persia are gathered not from the peasants but from the land owners and only a fraction of that collected reached the royal treasury.

The governor had the power of life and death. Tortures were inflicted upon criminals. Capital punishment was not uncommon. Mutilation of offenders before the public occurred frequently. The Bastinado was the common method of inflicting punishment. The governors in coming to a province used to make acquaintances with the influential men and ask their help in the conduct of business. This was most natural for the grandees living in the provinces were men who had by long practice learned the ways and means which could be employed for shielding the helpless people. The nobles by contract promised to present a definite amount of revenue for a certain district. The control of a whole region thus fell to them and they in a smaller scale exercised the same power that the provincial governor enjoyed. The governors were responsible to the king and Grand Vizier for their acts but they were seldom brought to account. The only way that the people could get rid of a governor was by Samia (revolt). This used to be financed by the grandees who could no more tolerate the action of the governor and would result in most cases in the recall of the Naids (governor).

(12) The administration of justice was considered by the sets of courts the Shari and the Urz. The Shari was the religious court which tried civil cases in conformity with the laws of Islam. The Urz was the government court whose judgement was based upon a system of unwritten law. This latter court was especially concerned with criminal cases but could consider civil cases if no decision was given which was in opposition to the laws of Islam. There was a third court presided over by the chieftains of merchants which considered commercial cases. This system of justice was prone to bribery and enormous fortunes were made out of it. Heavy fines were exacted on rich men for slight excuses and these sums would go to the governor and his subordinates. The clergy as usual did not keep within their own spheres and often trespassed it. The misdeeds intersected in behalf of offenders before the governors who usually favoured the clergy by issuing a decree of pardon.

Bribery was prevalent in all departments of the government. A person taking bastirrefuge in a shrine or at the house of a great Mullah used to escape trial and punishment. The Mullah was not a negligible factor in Persia since the common people, considering them the protector of religion, were apt to answer their calls. They could condemn the use of the ordinary articles of consumption and every one had to abstain from using these forbidden articles.

This corruption had set in through all government circles. From the highest ministry of state to the lowest office holder every body sought after his own interest and used all means in his power to attain it. The government official robbed the people of what they had and did not care that the nation would be led by it to the point of misery. They wanted to milk the inhabitants but did not improve their conditions to make it possible for them to be milked. Through misgovernment Persia has been reduced to poverty. The central government became bankrupt.
The mass of the nation due to the inefficiency of the government to enforce order and justice were disheartened and did not take such measures that would develop the resources of the country and serve to be of benefit to themselves for such undertakings would surely entangle them in difficulties. The corruption of government which did not set a limit to the extent to which her officials could proceed and did not differentiate between religion and political affairs has helped the process of Persia’s decline. Such were the condition of things before the advent of the revolutionary era.

(4) Foreign Intrigue

One of the great forces that hastened the decline of Persia is foreign intrigue and interference. (13) In the 16th century Persia had political relation with the European powers. At the court of Shah Abbas the greatest of the Safavids, kings were present the ambassadors of Spain, Portugal, Holland and England. But owing to the lack of good means of communication these relations were not kept up. Persia for her geograpic position continued a more or less solitary life. With the rise of Russia, Persia came little by little in contact with a great northern power. The glorious dreams of reaching India bounted the monarchs of Russia from Peter the Great downward. Could one ever this dream be realized Persia, which controlled the way, had to be absorbed.

(14) At the time of the Afghan conquest Russia took the opportunity of occupying the provinces of the Caspian Sea. But the appearance of the great military leader Nadir Shah put an end to their intrigue and the Russians quietly withdrew their forces from the occupied provinces. Turkey in the mean while had made arrangements with Russia to get a share of the spoil and had occupied the western provinces. Nadir in turn defeated the Turks and invaded Iran. Persia fought many battles with Turkey but that power was not the one which threatened the safety of Iran and consequently the one to be feared. It was Russia, the sworn enemy of Persian independance, that had to be feared more than any other power.

(15) When the 19th century opened Persia resumed active political relations with the European powers. In 1786 the East India Company made advances to the king of Persia to keep in check Shah Zaman who was producing disturbances in northern India. Malcom’s mission was sent to Persia in 1801 for this very purpose. At this time Napoleon’s power was increasing in Europe and he opened political relation with Persia. His object was to create a strong Persian army which could operate against Russia. A French general was sent to Persia and the reorganization of the European forces takes from this time. The peace of Tilsit however was not received favorably at the court of Persia and in 1805 the French general was dismissed. England too gained ascendency but soon rivalry between Russia and England for supremacy began. Disagreement between Russia and Persia and to two wars which ended by the Treaty of Guecsestan-provinces and Bulah Gulistan and Turcomanbait, 1813 and 1838 respectively.

As a consequence Persia lost her Caucasian provinces and Tablish the river arms becoming the main frontier. In these wars Russia followed her old policy which was not only to gain territory but also to cripple her antagonist so that she may not be able to recover. A large indemnity was exacted and this was a heavy drain on the resources of Persia.
The rivalry between England and Russia continued and it cost Persia dearly. Russia secretly provoked Persia to carry arms against Herat. The English on the other hand looked upon Herat as the key to India and its falling into the hands of Persia was considered to amount to an increase of Russian influence in that district, a thing which they could not tolerate. Later during the Crimean War the English called the Persians to take up arms against Russia and resume their lost provinces in Caucasia. This however the Persian government did not do because of Russian successes against Turkey in Caucasia. Thus for a long time Persia was used by her northern and southern neighbours as a tool for the advancement of their own interests. Little by little Russia gained ground toward the end of the reign of Maserreddin Shah Russian influence had been well established. The Shah's visits to Europe cost the kingdom heavily so that when his successor followed him, loans had to be floated in Russia to England with the general result that southern and northern custom houses passed into the hands of the foreigner.

One of the policies that Russia has followed in Persia to weaken the country has been to cause agitation and on the pretext of protecting her interests seek to increase her influence. In 1884 after reducing the power of the Turkomans and conquering New Russia became the neighbour of Persia from the province of Khorezm. Ever since by establishing consular services she has extended her influence as far as the Persian Gulf. Her agents have sought constantly to produce agitation and by some ministers of state who for a handful of gold sold the interests of their country to the foreigner. A cossack regiment modelled after the Russian pattern was organized in Persia and these played a great part to advance Russian interests. The extraterritorial rights that the two powers exercised in Persia were enormous. A man who suits himself under the protection of any of these two powers could perform almost any act with impunity. The interceding of the English and Russian representatives in behalf of any individual would certainly procure good results.

At the beginning of the century Persia was in an ominous position. The country had fallen a prey to foreign intrigues and many predicted a gloomy future. When the Persians awoke to their interests they saw that much had been lost. At the time of their national revival the Persians saw the victory snatched from their hands. These events will be dealt with in a separate chapter. Suffice it to say that the ambition of foreign powers regarding England and Russia has made them to enforce a policy of status quo in Persia. They have resorted by every means to keep the central government weak, to raise difficulty and catch fish in troubled waters. They have thus a part in the decline of Persia.

So far we have been looking at Persia from a particular point of view. In the first chapter an attempt was made to show the potentials wealth and resources of Persia and in the second chapter mention was made of the forces that had worked to reduce the once prosperous nation of Persia to its present status. All this has been a preliminary step and I hope that it would give the reader some material for reflection when considering the recent history of Iran. In the following chapters we will trace the history of the awakening of the Persians and point out the new factors which are working to transform the ancient Empire of Cyprus.
Chapter III

The Eve of the Persian Revolution

When Nassereddin ascended the throne on Sep. 17, 1848, quick action was necessary to avert the impending dangers to the state. The shah was young and energetic and his prime minister was a man who promised a great future. Foreign influence had increased to such an extent as to hamper the progress of affairs. But the situation was not helpless and by taking vigorous action the prestige of the country could be restored. The situation at home was somewhat difficult. There was a good deal of disorder, which accompanies any change of ruler in Persia and which throws the country into chaos, had occurred at the time of the accession of Nassereddin Shah. But the power of the central government was still strong and peace and order could easily be restored. Should the new government show signs of activity everything would go along it normal path and the Persians, true to their old principles, would rally about the throne. The misgovernment of the earlier times had reduced the country to the verge of poverty. The religious movement started by declaration of the Báb in 1848 had spread rapidly. Its aim was to awaken the people and cause them to demand their right from their sovereign. Advantage had to be taken before any loss of time would make the situation grave and put the basis of governmental machinery on a firm foundation.

(16) Amir Nizam, who had been raised to the rank of prime minister at the time of the accession of Nassereddin, realized the critical position of the government and at once set himself to the task of reconstruction. Amir Nizam had risen to this high position from a humble rank and he had many enemies among the princes and nobles of the court; but being dauntless he pressed his way through with courage. At first he took in hand the problem of the reform of the financial of the realm. To quote Rawlinson "By revoking the extravagant grants of his predecessor regardless of complaints and opposition and by imposing in some cases additional taxation, he obtained funds for current expenditure and gradually reestablished the revenues of the state on a healthy footing." By following a strong policy he restored peace and order in the province of Khurasan by suppressing the rebellion conducted by Rasan Khan Salar. In his foreign policy Amir Nizam showed a great deal of firmness, never allowing an advantage to the foreigner except at a time of extreme necessity. Even then he sought to compensate himself somewhere else. At this time both the Russians and the English were interfering greatly in the internal affairs of Persia. They did this by the use of the right of asylum in an extended form. The Russian and the English ambassadors used their influence in behalf of certain persons and insisted sometimes on the removal of governors who did not show sympathy or willingness to cooperate with them.

Amir Nizam was the man who could successfully grapple with these affairs and steer the ship of state out of troubled waters, but court intrigue put an end to the career of the great statesman. In 1850 the shah, fearing that the increasing power of a minister should prove dangerous to his own position, dismissed him from office. To quote Rollin- son once more "the story however of the disgrace and death of Amir Nizam is one of the saddest that occurs in the whole range of Persia's history. Every evil passion, every miserable active, jealousy, selfishness, pride, and hatred seem to have combined to cause death to this really extraordinary person who was in advance of his age and country."
The death of Amir Mirza early in 1858, shocking as it appeared to the nations of Europe, and arresting as it also was to the onward march of progress and improvement in Persia, was still more disastrous in its effects on the external political relations of the country. 

The foreign policy of the government changed after the death of Amir Mirza. Encouraged by Russia the Persians once more took up the problem of conquering Herat which she deemed belonging to herself. English diplomacy failed to prevent such a move. War broke out between Persia and Afghanistan and in 1856 Herat fell. This caused the rupture of relations and the English declared war. It is not necessary to enter into the details of this engagement. The English landed a force at Bunder and another at Mohammar but the battles fought were neither bloody nor decisive and short campaign came to a close by the treaty of Paris, March 1857. Persia promised to evacuate Herat and England withdrew her forces from the occupied regions. During the Crimean war Persia was inclined toward England. It is true that before the outbreak of war Persia showed sympathy with Russia and gathered auxiliaries in Azerbaijan and Kermanshah but the two powers reached no agreement. The Prime minister was rather inclined toward the English. Later on the idea developed that it was absurd for Persia to unite with her arch-enemy Russia and enter into a fratricidal war against Turkey for the purpose of self-aggrandisement.

In 1858 a concession was given to England for the construction of a telegraph line to connect India with Europe through Persia. The negotiations for the securing of this concession dragged on for a long time. The reactionary party at the court declared that such a grant was against the interests of the country as giving too much power to the foreigner. The telegraph service was of great help to Persia for it opened the country to western ideas of civilization. But it at the same time increased the political influence of the English for the British interests in connection with the service took the opportunity to roam about the country. 

In 1871 the Shah called Mirza Hussein Khan, the ambassador at Constantinople, to fill the place of Prime Minister. The policy of this statesman was to identify the interests of Persia with that of England. It was to this end that after full consideration a concession was given to a company presided over by Baron Julius de Reuter to take up the work of the development of Persia for 70 years. To quote Rawlinson this gigantic monopoly at which Europe stood against comprised the following items: the construction of a railway from the Caspian to the Persian Gulf with a number of subsidiary branches; the laying out of tram ways throughout the kingdom; the exclusive working of all the Persian mines excepting those of gold and silver; the introduction of works of irrigation on whatever scale was deemed expedient; the establishment of a national Bank; the issue of a loan of six millions starting with a Persian guarantee of 5% interest and 2% sinking fund; together with the right to initiate all remunerative public works such as lighting with gas, paving and embellishing the capital; making roads, bridges, and embankments; postal and telegraphic extensions; mills, factories, and workshops etc; and finally a farm of the entire customs of the Empire for a period of 20 years. Of course such a scheme, no matter how beneficial to the country for the large share that Persia drew from the enterprise, nevertheless established the national pride.
Moreover the scheme proved impracticable due to the objections raised against it and the greater opposition shown to it by the Persians themselves. When the Shah visited Europe in 1873 he found out that Russia considered the Renter concession against her commercial interests for the Persians were to be controlled by the English at the same time. The attitude of the British government toward the concession was one of indifference. On his return from Europe the Shah found that the people of the capital were indignant about the concession. It was maintained that the Shah had surrendered the interest of the country into the hand of the Forestiers.

Nasereddin saw that the only prudent way open was to cancel the concession and this was publicly declared in 1875. Had this not been done the germs of discontent sown in the mind of the people by malcontents would have given rise to a revolution.

The Shah in 1873 had determined to put into execution the idea of visiting the different European countries. In this journey he was accompanied by Mirza Hussein Khan, Malcolm Khan, and a number of royal princes whose presence in Persia during the absence of the Shah might have caused serious consequences. The journey of the Shah to Europe was looked at by some as the dawn of a new era for Persia. It was said that European civilization would impress treaty the Shah who would make an attempt to develop the resources of Persia. The visit of the Shah to European capitals had been undertaken mainly to place the political relations of Persia with foreign countries upon a more cordial basis. But festivities and royal receptions occupied most of the attention of Nasereddin. In London and St. Petersburg politics were discussed. The Shah wished England and Russia to enter into an agreement for preserving the integrity of Persia. He received little support for this idea in England, and consequently, when he left London, he better understanding had been reached between Great Britain and Persia.

After a short visit to Constantinople the Shah hurried back to Persia for already clouds had gathered there which threatened his position. The center of suspicion and attack was Mirza Hussein Khan who was supposed to be the author of, and the one chiefly responsible for, the Renter concession. The malcontents belonged to different factions each of whom had some reason to oppose the Grand Vizier. The national party headed by Teymeh Mirza looked upon the concession as a piece of underranged treasury and one endangering the independence of the country. There was also the religious party who considered the concession a wholesale Europeanization of Persia. A third party consisted of the King's courtiers who for personal reasons wanted to get rid of the Grand Vizier. Nasereddin dealt calmly with the question and the agitation was quelled. However toady the public opinion might have expressed itself the effect that it produced on the course of events was effective. It was the last demonstration on the part of the people against their sovereign and it showed that no matter how violent the Persians were yet there was a limit beyond which the Shah could not safely step without endangering his own position.

(17) In 1879 the Shah once more visited Europe. But this time the journey was not extended to England. The countries visited were Russia, Germany, Austria Hungary and France. From a political standpoint the tour was of no great importance.
But the journey had impressed the Shah with the backward condition of his country. Consequently upon his return the question of the re-organization of the army and police was taken up. For this purpose a number of Austrian officers had come to Persia. Their efforts were successful and the army that they organized on European lines proved to be an efficient force. During his visit to the court of the Tsar Nasereeddin had been greatly charmed by the Cossacks. By his consent a Russian mission was sent to Tehran and the result was the formation of the Cossack brigade on a purely Russian model. This brigade with its Russian officers played an important role in the later revolutionary periods and proved a good instrument in the hand of the Russians.

(18) Nasereeddin visited Europe for the third time in 1889. This time the Shah stayed for a month in England. During this tour the Shah committed two great blunders, one was the concession for a lottery monopoly granted to a Persian who turned it over to a British syndicate for £40,000. This concession was withdrawn later as the bad results of the monopoly became apparent to the Shah, but since the money was not paid back Persia was discriminated in the London Stock Exchange. The second blunder was the grant of the Tobacco concession which will be dealt with in detail. It was during this journey that Shah met Sayyed Jamal ed-din in Munich and asked him to go to Persia and help the king in the administration of affairs.

The journeys of the Shah to Europe were on the whole costly and did not bring about permanent results. One thing however had come about. The visit of the Shah opened to a great extent the mind of the people. In his journeys Nasereeddin had been accompanied by a large number of nobles and princes who saw much of the dignity of the European courts and when they returned to their country they told stories of the wonders of European civilization which had attracted their attention. These tales created an interest in others who took the first opportunity to take the trip. The sending of Persian students to Europe dates from these times. Even the Shah undertook to send special students to Egypt and establish a university at Tehran where several European professors gave courses of instruction.

(19) From 1884 onward Amin-ul-Mulk was the chief minister of state. Under his administration in Oct.1888 the river Karnu was opened to international navigation. On Jan.30,1889 a concession was given to Baron Julius de Reuter for formation of a Persian State Bank with a right to issue notes and "working the mines of iron, copper, lead, mercury, coal, petroleum, manganes, borox, and asbestos in Persia. Russia of course looked upon such a concession with dissatisfaction and demanded some similar concession. Finally the Russian ambassador succeeded in getting a document on Feb.1889 which refused any concession of railway for a period of five years. On Nov.1890 this document was changed and no railway concession was to be granted in Persia. On Sep. and the Imperial Bank of Persia was established by Imperial charter and started business.

In 1891 Persia was on the point of revolution over the Tobacco concession affair. In 1890 the construction of a road from Abruaz to Lephehan and Tehran was taken up. In 1893 the mining rights of the Imperial Bank was handed over to the Persian Bank mining Rights Corporation. A number of engineers were sent to examine the condition of the mines of the country. The report of the commission was that due to the absence of good means of transportation the operation of mines promised no great benefit and the corporation after spending large sums abandoned its plans and liquidated in 1894.
In 1893 by an exchange of territory the Persian government left to Russia the district of Lutfahad on the Khoresan frontier for Iran on Azerbaijan frontier. On May 13, 1894, by a royal firman the French government was given the exclusive right of exploring ancient sites in Persia provided that "one-half of the discovered antiquities excepting those of gold and silver and precious stones should belong to the French government which had also the preferential right of acquiring by purchase the other half and any other antiquities which the Persian government right wish to dispose of."

The exploration work began in Susa under the supervision of M. J. de Morgan in 1897.

(20) The Tobacco Concession

We saw that while the Shah was at London during his third visit to Europe negotiation had been carried on for the formation of a tobacco monopoly in Persia. When Nassreddin returned to Persia these negotiations were kept up and finally on March 5, 1899, a concession was given to a company for the control of the production, sale and exportation of tobacco throughout the kingdom. So far the proceeds of the Shah, although costly and of no direct benefit, had caused no great alarm. But during this third tour grants had been made which were directly against the interests of the nation. The tobacco monopoly gave to the foreigner the control of an article of almost universal consumption. So far the nation had borne the burden of autocracy faithfully and patiently but events proved that thereafter the nation would not sit silent and see that, by concession after concession, Persia was handed over peacefully to the foreigner.

According to the terms of the concession the company secured the exclusive right of production, sale and exportation of tobacco throughout the whole extent of Persia. The Persian government was to receive an annual rent of £ 15,000 and 1/6 of the profit after the payment of 5% on the capital of the company. The period of the control of the company was to extend to 50 years and the corporation was to be supported and protected by the government. The corporation was to start business with a capital of £ 650,000 and the annual net profits were estimated at about £ 37,000. All the necessary preparations were made that the company should start work in 1891 and many dreams of the handsome gains that would accrue from this grand undertaking.

The company started work in 1891 but the leading business men and important personages of liberal tendencies did not remain silent. Amin-al-Dowleh, one of the great statesmen of Persia, whose patriotism was well known, led the party of the opposition and appeared as the spokesman of the representative body of the merchants who on Feb. 23 had been sent to appeal to the Shah. Although the representations made by this body were not successful, yet as soon as signs of the activity of the company became evident dissatisfaction showed itself from every quarter. So far due to the non-existence of an efficient and active press little had been known of the nature of the monopoly but the activity of the company soon made the situation clear to the public. Some disturbances occurred at Yazd and southern Persia but Tabriz was the city that led the revolution and was flambéed by Shiraz and Isfahan. The people of Tabriz made it clear to the Shah that they intended to defend their rights if necessary by force. They even refused to listen to the project that Persians were to be employed by the company.
The agitators were strengthened by the help of the clergy who now took a decisive part on the scene. To the clergy the concession was anti-religious because the tobacco which they sold was to pass to the hands of the foreigners who were not moslems. Hadji Mirza Hasan Shirazi, the mujtahid of Sameru, a clergyman recognized throughout Persia, in a letter to the king pointed out why the concession was anti-Islamic in nature. The Shah however did not attach great importance to this declaration because he believed that public opinion would subside in a short time. To his surprise in Dec., 1891, a second letter from the mujtahid called the people to stop the use of tobacco till the abolition of the abnoxious concession. The effect of this abolition was tremendous. No body dared to smoke. Even the water-pipes of the royal pavilion were broken. The ulamas were thus the masters of the situation and the movement had shown how far they could influence the people. Things went to such an extreme that the life of the foreigners was threatened if the concession was not withdrawn. On Dec. 26, 1891, a royal proclamation declared the withdrawal of the concession but Hadji Mirza Hasan although congratulating the Shah had made no reference to its prohibition measure. On Jan. 21 when all was certain that the monopoly had come to an end and the interdict on smoking was withdrawn by the mujtahed.

This was not all, for Persia had to pay an indemnity to the company. The company claimed $300,000 but the Persian government was ready to pay only $250,000. The discussion dragged on for a while, finally the Persian government agreeing to pay $250,000. But the money could not be paid from the treasury which at this time was empty. A loan was therefore contracted from the Imperial Bank of Persia at 6% interest on April 27, 1892. The custom houses of the Persian Gulf were given as guarantee and the capital was to be paid back after 40 years. Thus without reason Persia became indebted to foreign lands due to the carelessness of her ministers who could have prevented such a bad result. One thing, however, had become certain and that was that the Persians would thereafter defend their national rights. From 1891 dates therefore the history of the national awakening of the Persians for the tobacco concession crisis had made it evident that in time of necessity the people could make a successful stand against their sovereign.

(21) The Reform Movement

We saw that in 1873 there already existed a national party led by Persad Mirza who was a prince well aware of the condition and needs of his country. A Persian paper by the name of Akbar had been started about this time at Constantinople. Its press was very moderate and it dealt with questions in a general manner. Sabzi movement was also doing great work in opening the minds of the people. Intelligent men who had been in Europe had become familiar with the Western principles of civilization. Thus a class had come forward in whom a sense of nationality and patriotism had been awakened. When Sayyed Jamshed visited Persia in 1889 he found a bearing among the more intelligent class of the people. The Sayyed was of Persian origin but he had called himself Afghan in order to escape from the hand of the Persian officials abroad.
He had spent some years in Egypt, Constantinople, and India. He had identified himself with the national uprising in Egypt at the time of the revolt of Arabi Pasha. Jamaleddin's stay in Persia, however, was not long and soon he was obliged to leave the country. But during his third journey Nasereddin met him at Munich and invited him to go to Persia an invitation which Jamaleddin accepted after some hesita-
tion. Jamaleddin's position in Teheran was important and his influence was increasing daily. But the ideas of the Sayyed were too revolu-
tionary and the Shah did not count it wise that he should remain in
the country. He was therefore banished from Persia in a humiliating
manner. For this reason Sayyed Jamaleddin incurred the enmity of the
Shah and did not stop intriguing against him.

Another man who took a leading part in the awakening of the Per-
sians was Nalkom Khan. This great politician had acted from 1872-1889
as Persian Ambassador at London and had efficiently fulfilled his du-
yty. In 1889 falling into a quarrel with Nalkom Khan remained at Lon-
don and from there he began to issue a paper called Quumun. This pa-
per was Islaamist in tone and it directed an attack specially upon the
prime minister, Amirsultan. The Quumun raised a cry for law, de-
nounced the existing condition of things and called the people of Per-
sia to adhere to what he called the "Religion of Humanity". Nalkom
called the attention of the Persians to the fact that a national as-
sembly consisting of the eminent men of the realm ought to take part
in giving counsel to the King. In No. 3 of the Quumun Nalkom Khan
described the existing condition of Persia in this satirical way.
"The control of all affairs of the state is in the hands of ignorant and
base-born persons. The right of the state barrelled to please
legation diplomats. The titles and offices of the state the play-
thing of successful knaves. Our army the laughing stock of the
world. Our princes desiring the pity of the beggars. Our mujaheds
and doctors craving the justice of the unbelievers. Our towns with
a metropolis of dust. Our roads worse than the tracks of animals."
The Quumun much emphasized the idea of a fixed law by which all the
different righ should be defined. This paper circulated to a great
extent in Persia but those who were suspected by the government to be
in possession of it were imprisoned.

Some give great importance to Sayyed Jamaleddin in the awakening
of the Persians but it seems to me that Nalkom Khan deserves an equal
if not a greater, honour. Before the time of Nalkom no newspaper had
dared, like Quumun, to expose to the people in a bold way the exist-
ing condition of affairs. The part that Jamaleddin played was more
of a revolutionary nature; the role of Nalkom Khan was that of a
strong political reformer.

Other important personages such as Khabir-el-Molla, Sheykh
Ahmad Rudj, and Mirza Aga Khan were the associates of Nalkom Jamal-
eddin and took a leading part in the work of reform. These men
were engaged in the task of the literary awakening of the Persians.
Sheykh Ahmad wrote articles for "Alkhan a Persian newspaper printed
at Constantinople" and contributed articles to the Persian newspaper
printed at Constantinople and wrote pamphlets denouncing the different so-
cial, political, and religious institutions.
This man can be called the Voltaire of Persia for it was his aim to expose to the public the existing evils.

Among men of the higher class were also persons of liberal tendencies who supported the cause of reform in which alone they saw the salvation of their country. Chief among these was the statesman Amu Badshah, who during the tobacco riots had pleaded with the king to withdraw the concession. To him is ascribed the novel called Ibrahim Beg. This novel dealt with the political problems and intended to pursue the cause of reform by showing to the people in the course of the narrative the condition of their country.

Finally mention must be made of another force which was at work in Persia. This was the Bahá'í movement which is better to be treated under a special topic.

(22) The Bahá'í Movement

At the time of the Arab conquest Persia not only lost her national grandeur but other changes also took place. The invaders imposed their religion upon the conquered people. Thus the Persians by force of circumstance accepted Islam and became Mohammedans. In the course of time the teachings of Islam was so perverted by the theologically that it caused the degeneration of the Persians and checked the way of their progress. The Bahá'í movement which started in 1844 and which culminated in the Bahá'í movement was thus a religious revival destined to free the people from the bondage of superstition and the influence of the Mullahs and it did much to open their minds to the higher demands of life.

The Bahá'í movement was started in 1844 by Mirza Ali Muhammad of Shiraz, a youth of 25 who called himself Bahá'í by which he meant "the gate of religion." He summoned the people to himself, stating that old religious beliefs and customs were over and that a new day had dawned. The movement spread rapidly. The "Istana" raised a protest against it and maintained that new movement was anti-religious and threatened the safety of the nation and therefore appealed to the government to suppress it. The government, afraid that a revolution would break out, arrested the Bahá'ís and followed a policy of repression. The Bahá'ís were sent from Shiraz to Tehran and then to Mazandaran and three, to Kham and Chahar. The adherents of the new religion were not disappointed and carried on an active propaganda. The opposition of the Ulama became greater. They created a spirit of hatred and antagonism between the people and the adherents of the Bahá'ís. Wherever they found the followers of the new religion they did not refrain from persecuting then. The conflicts that followed between the people and the Bahá'ís soon came to involve in it the government. In three places government force had to be applied to quell the uprising, and even then it was by treachery that the Bahá'ís were vanquished.

The first great resistance shown by the Bahá'ís to the government force was in the castle of Tabrizz in Mazandaran. In this place a few hundred Bahá'ís kept at bay from Dec. 1849—July 1849 a much more superior force sent against them by the Shah. Then followed the Jàlahán inscription of 1852, which was the death of the Bahá'ís, and at a time some 12,000 government troops were engaged against them.
The Heiriz insurrection was the third of its kind and its duration was shorter than the previous ones. In all these there stood the government, being unable to put down the rising by force of arms, restored to mischievous methods which any sense of honour would condemn.

The Koran was signed as a pledge that if the Bahais would surrender and put down their arms they would be allowed to retire unmolested. But as the Bahais put down their arms and left their stockhold of wholesale massacre ended and only by chance a few managed to escape. The Bahais at all times knew what tricks were employed against them but wishing to express their respect for the Koran they saw no other way open to them but to surrender.

While the siege of Zanjân was going on the Persian government considered that perhaps the greatest blow that could be struck at the foundation of the new movement was to put to death the leader the Bahá. Consequently the Bahá was brought from Ghazíriq, the place of his confinement to Tabriz where he was publicly shot in 1890. The Bahá garrison of Zanjân was informed that their master had been executed and that further resistance on their part was useless. The answer given was that the spirit of their master always guided them in their action. In 1888 a Bahá who had been greatly touched by the death of his master and who had become desperate, on his own account attempted to assassinate Masjíredin. The Shah was wounded but escaped death. On Aug. 31, 1885, a great Bahá massacre took place in Tehran. The important leaders of the new movement were taken and divided among the different classes of the people who took part in the work of the execution. This massacre had a marked effect and for a while it seemed as if the Bahá movement was stamped out. But it was destined to give birth to a stronger cause.

The Bahá had declared that he was the forerunner of a great age when God would manifest and before his death he had appointed Mirza Yahya, later known as Subhi Aqal, as his successor till the appearance of the "appointed one." Yahya had fled from Tehran but his brother Mirza Hussein Ali well known in Tehran as a man of great attainments was arrested by the government during the massacres of Aug. 31, 1885, and later exiled to Baghdad. Later through the request of the Persian government Mirza Hussein Ali was sent from Baghdad to Constantinople and Adrianople and thence to Acre in Syria. In 1885 Mirza Hussein Ali declared himself to be the one whom God would manifest and called all the Baháís to his support. Thereafter he was known as Behulâl. All the Baháís except a small minority who attached themselves to Mirza Yahya answered the call. Thus started the Bahá movement which has grown rapidly since that day. Behulâl died in 1892 and was succeeded by his son Abbas Effendi known as Abdul Bahá Abbas.

The teachings of the Baháís were very radical. It prepared the way for the progress of the Baháí cause. The Baháí movement was destined to strike a blow at the root of the existing institutions. The aim of Baháí was to establish an order of society based upon a new foundation. The work of the one was to upset, the task of the other was to reconcile. The teachings of Bahá in was practical and was intended for all, through specially for the Persians. Before his martyrdom the Bahá had written that the validity of his commands depended upon the ratification and acceptance of the same of God would manifest.
Behaullah now abrogated most of these commands and principles and reinstated in their place such ones that were in conformity with the principles of modern civilization.

Now it may be asked in what way has Bahaiism worked to awaken the Persians from their long sleep? This question can be better answered by propounding some of the essential teachings of Bahaiism. (1) The Bahai Movement was a trumpet call to the Persians of that day that a new era had dawned. It showed that religion during long centuries of transformation would come to lose much of its force and originality. A time would come then that by outgrowing its original purpose it would no more meet the demands of the society. Islam therefore had been once the cause of progress but as it then existed was a cause of retrogression. In Bahaiism the Persians therefore found a new religion which they fully understood and whose doctrine was in conformity with the demands of the time. (2) The Babis were to tolerate men of all faiths and to look upon mankind as their brethren. Before that the Persians looked upon those who were not Moslem of the Shiite sect as unclean and infidels. This had largely kept them away from associating with Europeans and adopting their methods. It is marvellous how Bahai has changed the character of the Persians. Men of all faiths, who have embraced the new religion, met each other as brothers and regarded one another as members of one great family worthy to be loved. (3) Bahai enjoined upon parents to educate the children of both sexes so that no one should remain ignorant in society. The learning of useful arts and sciences was especially emphasized. Before that the Ilmeh had declared it antireligious to study the different branches of learning as developed by the Europeans. (4) Every body was to learn a profession so that manerism might be abolished. Anybody familiar with the condition of life in Persia can appreciate fully the value of this commandment. There were large masses such as dervishes, scribes, and officials who although of no benefit to society were supported by the people. (5) The station of women was raised to be equal to that of men. No check was to be put thereto in the way of her advancement. This was a great social change in Persia. (6) A limit was put upon the authority of the priests. Therefore all controversies were to be referred to a great elect set assembly whose decision was to be final. (53) The principles of Bahai were thus constructive and such that it raised the morals of the people. In one sense the history of the awakening of the Persians can be dated from the appearance of the Bahai movement and if one should become familiar with the development of the new movement one can appreciate to what extent this is true. It is well to quote a passage from the Historian's History of the World to show the idea of others in regard to Bahaiism. "Persia made in the nineteenth century an unexpected effort to create for herself a virtual ideal. Bahai has little originality in its dogmas and in its mythology; its metaphysical dogmas are derived from Sufism and from old Aliche roots formed among the dogma of divine incarnation; its moral rules are a revolution, they are as the morals of the Ancient. It suppresses legal injustice; it suppresses polygamy the great source of oriental degradation; it recognizes the family, and it elevates man in bringing woman up to his level.
Bahais which spread in less than five years from one end of Persia to the other, and which in 1853 was bathed in the blood of martyrs, is recovering and spreading in silence. If Persia can be regenerated she will be so by Bahais. The author has confused the Babi movement but the statement which he makes is fair.

(24) Assassination of the Shah

Mention has been made of the causes that led to the loss of the popularity of the Shah. His arbitrary actions which finally ended by imposing upon his nation a foreign loan caused to make the intellectual people popular over the dangers that might ensue from personal rule. Nevertheless the mass of the people still favoured their sovereign. But other forces were working against the Shah. Sayyid Jamaliaddin, safe in Constantinople and favoured greatly by Abdul Hamid II, was intriguing against Naserieddin. Jamaliaddin with his propagandas of Panislamicism had opened correspondence with the Ulama of Iraq and other great Islamic leaders. His plan was that all Moslem states should unite and recognize the Sultan of Turkey as Caliph. Of course Naserieddin Shah would not consent to such an idea and Jamaliaddin had pointed to Abdul Hamid that the Shah was the only antagonist of the Sultan and one necessary to be put out of the way. As appeared from the interrogation of the Shah’s assassin, Mirza Reza, Sultan Abdul Hamid had said to Jamaliaddin, “Do whatever you can in regard to him and be not anxious about anything.” The enmity between Jamaliaddin and the Shah was certain to result in bad consequences should the chance present itself.

Meanwhile a disciple of the Sayyid who had been treated with cruelty and had suffered years of imprisonment, visited Constantinople. What might have passed between him and Jamaliaddin no one exactly knows, but it is clear that the attack on the counsel of Jamaliaddin was no great shock for Mirm Reza that he determined to take his vengeance. To these Mirm Reza briefly refers in his interrogation. Jamaliaddin had told the man after he had exposed the tale of his suffering, “Now pour out your heart and how great was your love of life. You should have killed the tyrant. Why did you not kill him?” From these words Mirm Reza understood that the tyrant was either the Shah or Naserieddin or the Shah’s uncle. Mirm Reza had come from Constantinople to Tehran for this purpose. Not being able to stay in Tehran, he had chosen Shah Abdul Haji, a village 20 kilometers from the capital, for his abode.

He stayed in the mosque of the village and after failing to find justice he resolved to take his revenge. He had chosen the King as a prey and waited a favourable opportunity.

In the fiftieth year of his reign—according to the lunar calendar the Shah had planned to visit the shrine of Shah Abdul Asir. Great preparations had been made for the celebration of this important occasion. On the appointed day the Shah visited the mosque but while in the shrine he was shot through the heart by Mirm Reza. This happened on May 1st, 1896. The death of the Shah was certain and the assassin was captured. In his interrogation it became certain that Sayyid Jamaliaddin, Shabir el Malek, Shihuk Ahmed, and Dja Khan were of the same idea as Mirm Reza and the extradition of these men was emphatically demanded by the Persian government. The last three mentioned were surrendered and were put to death recently on May 12, 1896 in Teheran. Abdul Hamid however refused to give Jamaliaddin who after a short trial at Constantinople was acquitted. On Aug. 12, 1896 Mirm Reza was hanged publicly at Teheran.
Although many people condemned the action of Mirza Resa yet his name survived. He put an end to the reign of a tyrant who for 40 years had directed the destinies of his nation into unproductive channels. Had the Shah been conscious of the great responsibility of his position he could have left a great name for himself in the history of Persia. He was a man of marked intellectual capacity and had in his service capable ministers. But the work of reform was postponed and the opportunity passed away and Massreddie bequeathed to his successor a poverty stricken country.

(26) **First Years of the Reign of Mozaffareddin Shah**

On June 8, 1896 Mozaffareddin Shah was crowned king of Persia. Amir-Nasrulallah could not remain long in office and in November Amir-Nasrulallah, his rival, succeeded him as prime minister. The new Shah was gentle by nature and careful not to alienate his people. As Mr. Brown puts it in his book *The Persian Revolution* Mozaffareddin was, "of kindly nature, weak health, and melancholic disposition, adverse from cruelty and blood shed, disinclined to refuse requests or incur unpopularity, and lacking initiative and self-reliance he suffered rather than caused the government of Persia to grow steadily worse while refusing or at least omitting to follow those methods of repression, whereby his father had to a considerable extent held in check overt manifestations of the discontent which was universally prevalent." Such were the character and attitude of the Shah who now came to guide the destinies of the Persian nations.

The cabinet which was formed under the premiership of Amir-Nasrulallah had in it Majlis Molk as minister of finance. The chief work which faced the new government was to reorganize the finances of the country which had fallen into a deplorable condition due to the misgovernment of the earlier periods. The Shah owing to bad health wanted to visit Europe to take a treatment of mineral waters. The treasury, being empty, could not meet the expenses of the royal voyage. An attempt to float a loan of £1000000 in London market also failed. The cabinet of Amir-Nasrulallah fell because of his inability to float a loan and the minister of Ministry of Nouriehoddin suffered the same fate for that very reason. Amir-Nasrulallah who was now in his place of exile at Wimbledon was called by the Shah and on Aug. 10, 1899 a new ministry was formed. One important work undertaken by this ministry was the calling of Belgian officials to take charge of the custom house. Another task accomplished by this ministry was the negotiation of a loan with Russia. The loan amounted to £2400000 payable in 75 years at 6% interest. It was intended that the £500000 loaned by the Imperial Bank at 6% be paid from the sum so that Russia alone should become the creditor of Persia. The custom houses of Persia with the exception of those of the Persian Gulf and the province of Fars were to be guaranteed for the loan. By this loan England lost much prestige. From the date that this loan was contracted and Belgians came to control the custom departments Persia's misfortune can be said to have begun.

By this loan however the Shah was able to make his tour in Europe. He visited St. Petersburg and Paris and in the latter place his life was attempted by an anarchist. Mozaffareddin returned to Persia in the latter part of 1899 without visiting Germany, England and Italy because the courts of these countries were on mourning.
Rumors spread that an era of reform was near at hand. The Shah undertook to send 20 students to pursue special course of study in different European countries. The year 1901 was important for the increase of Russian trade in the Persian Gulf. A movement was going on against Aminusultan who was counted to be the person opposed to the inauguration of reform measures, and who was thought to be negotiating for a new Russian loan. In 1902 a new loan of 10,000,000 rubles was contracted from Russia at 4½ interest. By it Russia secured the right to construct a road from Gulf on the Araxes river to Tehran. The Shah having secured the necessary money set out for his second voyage to Europe.

Mussafirad in visited several European capitals this time staying about a week at London. The important European papers wrote about the royal visit and Novo Varanya expressed in a peculiar manner how the desire on the part of Russia to reach the Persian Gulf did not mean the absorption of Persia. Some 30 Belgian officials were called by the government to be employed for the purpose of financial reforms. A new tariff came into force.

The year 1903 was marked by the discontent that the people showed to new tariff. In this year also the rivalry between Russia and England reached a high state. Almost every move that England made was met by a countermove on the part of Russia. At this time England made the declaration that any power seeking to establish stations on the Persian Gulf would be considered by England as an enemy and the act would be a sufficient cause of war. Two Bokair persecutions of great severity took place in this year. One occurred in June in the city of Yezdi and the other in July in Isphahan. Dissatisfaction with the progress of affairs of state was increasing day by day and there were rumors that the Shah's place was in danger.

So far we have been discussing the events that led to the awakening of the Persians and prepared the way for the revolution. It is time to recapitulate the contents of this chapter. We saw that the successful resistance against the tobacco concession had made the Persians realize that they could successfully stand against their sovereign. Mention was also made of the other forces which were at work in the awakening of the Persians. The successive loans caused alarm. The employment of foreign officials who exploited the country and the arbitrary act of ministers and governors produced bitterness. External forces such as the the Russian-Japanese were tended to intensify the patriotism of the Persians. In the coming chapter we will deal directly with the Persian revolution.
The granting of the constitution—Almuddowleh was appointed on Jan.24, 1904 Prime Minister. In this year the Russo-Japanese war broke out and attracted the attention of Russia to the Far East. An announcement was made on March 21, 1905 declaring the intention of the government to reorganize the army. The dissatisfaction of the people was increasing and disturbances broke out. The original causes of these were the extravagance of the Shah, the tyranny of Almuddowleh, and the placing of the financial affairs of the country in the hands of foreigners who took this opportunity to amass wealth. New grievances were added to these. The action of the provincial governors, especially those of Farah, Kerman, and Khorasan had become intolerable. So far no action had been taken by the people but the conduct of Almuddowleh per- cipitated the events which followed. Almuddowleh the governor of Teh- ran had punished several important merchants for the rise of the price of sugar, a thing which made the people take sanctuary in Masjidi Shah. Among them were several important clergy as Sayyed Abdullah, Sayyed Mu- hammad, and Sayyid Fasollah who later deserted the rationalist cause.

So far there had been no demand for a parliament but the liberal leaders were at work among the people. When all the attempts of Almuddowleh to disperse the people had led to the increase of the refugees the pubic were encouraged to demand the dismissal of Almuddowleh and granting of a House of Justice. As the agitation was gaining ground the Shah was obliged to send an autograph letter to the refugees promising the dismissal of the Prime minister and the convening of the Idalimanch (House of Justice). This letter was photographed and sent all over Persia. The crowd then dispersed joyously.

On April 30, 1906 a petition was presented to the Shah by the Ulama. In it the Shah’s attention was called to the events that had occurred four months earlier and he was begged to give effect to his promises. No answer was returned to this petition. Therefore the chief Mullahs such as Sayyed Abdullah, Sayyed Mohammad, Sayyed Jamal, and Sayyid Moh- moud denounced autocracy publicly. Other Factors such as a national library established to teach the people the duties in restriction and a secret society, were at work. Finally Almuddowleh being greatly annoyed by the preachers determined to expel their chief ones from the capital. Sayyed Jamal was expelled to Bus and Sayyed Mahmoud was arrested and ordered to be exiled. But the people, being now greatly aroused, had determined to prevent Sayyed Mahmoud from being sent away. This brought the crowd in conflict with soldiers whose officer shot the leader of the Mob. The dead body was then carried in procession around the city amid cries of lamentation. The Mob grew in size and further collision with the soldiers who tried to disperse the crowd caused the death of 16 persons more. A crowd composed of all the different classes of people gathered in the Mosque of Jamali, but being surrounded by troops asked and received their permission to retire to Bus where a large number of people gathered.

It was the custom in Persia when the people are dissatisfied with the government for the business men to close their shops and suspend work. This had not been done but Almuddowleh threatened that if the shops were not opened, soldiers would be turned loose to shoot them. This threat threatened to change the situation. It was feared that a bloody revolution was being prepared. It was necessary to look to other centres of government—Teheran, Kirmein and Mashhad. The demand was not to be satisfied by mere change of minister but by a new constitution. The Shah appointed the Prime Minister for the first time, with a promise to consider the constitution.

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On July 19, 1906, a representative body of merchants received assurance of the British Charge d'affaires that the people would be allowed to take refuge in the British Legation. The Legation had a large garden and in it the refugees pitched their tents. Their number daily increased till by August 1st it reached 13000. On July 30 Muzaffareddin yielded to the popular demands. Munudowleh was dismissed and was succeeded by Mushirudowleh. But the demands of the people had increased by this time. A cry was raised for a constitution and a regular national assembly. These demands were accepted by the Shah and a sufficient guarantee that effect would be given to these promises the people girted the Legation grounds on Aug. 3. During the time that the people were in the Legation grounds extraordinary prudence and wisdom had been exhibited by them. The people had appointed their own commissionaries and sanitary officers and had succeeded in keeping order.

The clergy who had taken sanctuary at Qum accompanied by a large multitude proceeded now to the capital amid wild acclamations for the event was considered a national victory and on Aug. 19 the new house of Parliament was officially opened. By Sept. 1st the new ordinances had been drawn up by the Premier Mushirudowleh but the Shah, having declined to listen to the amendment of the Mullahs, the people once more took "Boo" (refuge) in the British Legation. To quote Mr. Brown more directly the demands of the "Boo" were three: (1) That Persia should be divided into eleven or thirteen electoral areas; (2) that the Majlis should consist of 200 members; and (3) that any male person between the ages of 30 and 70 being neither a government servant nor a convict and able to read and write should be eligible for membership. The Shah having accepted these demands the "Boo" was abandoned. The ordinances that the Shah accepted on Sep. 1st arranged for a Parliament of 150 members, 60 from Tehran and 90 from the provinces. The election was to be direct in Tehran while in the provinces it was to be by an electoral college. The deputies of Tehran, as soon as elected, were to gather and open the parliament without waiting for the provincial deputies. This last arrangement had been made to establish the new regime before any possible wave of reaction could upset the scheme. The national assembly opened on Oct. 7 in presence of the deputies of Tehran and Mushirudowleh the premier read the first speech from the throne. Thus almost without any bloodshed the Persians gave a death blow to the "Ancien régime." The first work of the new national assembly was to take up the question of finance. The financial situation of the country was very critical at this time. Nasirul Molk later regent of Persia presented to the parliament the plan of a new loan of 2600000 to be contracted from England and Russia. The Majlis (parliament) opposed the proposal on the ground that it endangered the safety of the country. Some deputies advocated the idea of an internal loan. Meanwhile the Turks were encroaching upon Persian territory. The provincial elections were also delayed. But the Majlis continued its work. A committee which had been appointed in the meanwhile to draw up an electoral law had finished its work in a little more than a month and the document received the sanction of the Shah on Sep. 8, 1906. On Oct. 7 the Majlis refused to sanction the
proposed loan and thus showed plainly from the very first that it was not an instrument in the hand of the Shah and his courtiers.

Tabriz was in open revolt in September because the crown prince with the aid of the reactionaries had been working against the new regime. The people sought protection in the British legation and evacuated the place on being assured that the Shah had granted a constitution. An "Aujumani Nuzar" was formed to superintend the work of the election. Distance occurred also in other provinces and the British legation everywhere served as a place of refuge. The deputies gradually gathered in Tehran and with them came a large number of those exiled. Chief among these was Saad-ed-Dowleh who had been elected a deputy of Tehran and who now organized a party of opposition in the Majilis.

The problem of the Fundamental laws which had been taken up by the assembly came to a successful end by the signature on the part of Musaffaroddin of the drafted laws on Dec. 30, 1906. The Majilis also discussed the possibility of the formation of a National Bank. A Million tumans (200,000) had been subscribed in Tehran and Azerbaijan promised another million. The Shah would approve the scheme if a loan of 200,000 tumans could be extended to the government. Difficulties were raised by the English and Benzeceri Banks who rightly thought that if a National Bank with a capital of 600,000 tumans was established they would be driven out of the market for the people would deal thereafter with the National Bank as far as possible. On Dec. 10 a demand was presented by the Majilis to the Shah asking whether he was ready to sign the new constitution. Meanwhile the crown prince arrived at Tehran and on Dec. 30 he signed the constitution and another document promising not to dissolve the existing parliament for at least two years. On Jan. 1, 1907 the Shah signed the constitution in his death bed and on Jan. 8 expired.

Before going into the details of the reign of Mohammad Ali Shah some remarks must be made. During the struggle for the constitution the clergy had supported the National cause and without their help it is difficult to state what would have happened. The Shah careful of the clergy whose influence was great upon the Mass of the Persian people and who had shown during the reign of Musaffaroddin Shah to what extent their demands would be listened to was obliged to yield to the popular demands. But the constitution being once established a change took place. So far there had been no sharp division between the clergy and the non-clerical class. Now an anti-clerical party came into existence which condemned the clergy as seeking their own interests and not that of the country at large.

The Reign of Mohammad Ali Shah

Mohammad Ali Shah was crowned on Jan. 13, 1907 with brilliant ceremonies. But no representative from the Majilis had been allowed and to this representations were made by the assembly. During a discussion in regard to coronation ceremonies one of the deputies in the Majilis by the name of Aqa Mirza Mahmood on Jan. 19 said "Now that the Majilis is at the beginning of its career let it demand its rights if it can, otherwise it will hereafter be unable to do anything." On the same occasion another said "We should have been content to be represented by our President alone; the point is that the Assembly was disregarded."
The character of the Shah was totally different from that of his father. He had spent his early years in Azerbaijan in which province the Vail Abi (crown prince) of Persia by custom resides and acts as governor. In this province the crown prince had come in contact with the Russians and the influence of his Russian tutor Shapely Khan had been great upon him. He was therefore inclined to Russia. Personally he was an able man intelligent and brave. But he was a sworn enemy of the constitution. He desired to live as his forefathers had done and did not care whether his nation liked it or not. His courtiers were孟买 displacery tendencies who advised him to revive the reign of attorney and absolutism.

From the time that Muhammad Ali Musaied the throne suspicion arose between him and the Najissors. His ministers refused to appear and answer questions. The National assembly considered the Ministers of the Shah who were nominated by him responsible to the representatives of the people who were to be consulted on all important national questions. The project of a new loan of 2,600,000 to be made from England and Russia was rejected by the Najissi and was declared to amount to the selling of Persia to foreigners.

The suspicion of the Shah and his courtiers by the Najissi was increasing day by day. The Najissi therefore was determined to strengthen its own position and resist any encroachment on the rights of the nation whose representatives they were. The question of the reformatory of the country especially demanded attention at this time. As to the question of foreign relations Persia had taken the occupation of Egypt and Tunis as a warning and was ready to oppose any plan which increased the power of the foreigner. The scheme of the establishment of a National Bank was therefore to be taken at hand. It was the purpose of the assembly also to stop the royal extravagance by the grant of a limited civil list and put a check upon the illegal ways of securing money. Finally there remained the question of freeing the country from the hand of foreign official especially to Belgians who while employed in the work of the reconstruction of custom houses, had considered their own personal interests and had gathered large sums of money.

(09) K. Parsi, one of these Belgians who had made a great fortune, was specially hated by the Persians. The leader of the agitation against him was Sadat-Dorukh. Finally on 9th Oct., 1907, Mohammad Ali Shah was obliged to dismiss K. Parsi from office a victory which added greatly to the prestige and power of the Najissi.

Mushtirodwan the Premier, who could no more tolerate the unpatriotic policy of his sovereign, now resigned and the Shah called Amir Mosaliman, who since 1903 had been in exile, to return to Persia and form a ministry. This statesman was broadly educated and had been primer for a long time and therefore possessed wide experience. While in exile he had seen much of the world and the way the European governments conducted their work. The Shah was a descendent of the first rank. He had been responsible for negotiating the loans of 1902 and 1905. While passing through Russia great honour was shown to him. This caused the Persians to suspect him from the beginning and he was obliged to take the oath to the constitution before he could leave Russia for Tehran.
When Aminussultan reached the capital confusion had set in all department of the government. The treasury was empty. The people had revolted in many of the provinces against their governors. Sareed-dowlah, the brother of the Shah had raised the banner of revolt and claimed the throne, but he was defeated and brought to the capital as captive in June, 1907. There was a fear that the Russians would intervene in the affairs of the country. Already 6000 Turkish troops had crossed the frontier in the province of Azerbaijan and had laid claim to a piece of territory to which they could not present any possible right.

Aminussultan saw that the only thing he could do was to contract a foreign loan but without the consent of the Majless he did not venture to enter upon such a course. Saad-ud-Dowlah, the leader of the opposition had now fallen into disgrace with his party and did not use to attend the parliament. The premier believed that in his absence he could make some headway. Aminussultan had succeeded in winning the Majless to his side when on the night of August 31 while going out of the Majless grounds he was shot by a "fida" (one who sacrifices his life) called Abbas Aqa who also shot himself. This was a gallant act because the fida had committed suicide not to risk his society being detected. All that could be found in his pocket were several caskets of strichnine and a thicket which showed that he was No 41 among his comrades. At this time a large number of Anjumans had come into existence. Most of these resembled some sort of a club where the people interested in political affair assembled. But there were also secret anjumans composed of men who had sworn to keep the hands of traitors away from the direction of affairs.

The Shah became extremely angry at the death of Aminussultan and his hatred of the Majless became more intense. A period of uncertainty followed but finally Mohammad Ali Shah and the Assembly agreed and Nasirul Nolx was appointed Premier on Oct. 1307. The new cabinet was obliged to resign on Dec. 15 due to the opposition of the Shah.

On April 4 the Persians became aware of a treaty which had been entered into by the Russian and British government in respect of to their country. This was the Anglo-Russian convention which had been signed on Aug. 31, 1907, at St. Petersburg between England and Russia. The great document acted as a basis for the atrocities that the two powers committed on the Persian territory from now on. But we will reserve the discussion of the treaty to another chapter.

(38) The disturbed condition of the country continued as before. At this time several newspapers were published at Tehran. Some of these attacked the Shah bitterly while threatening his called him to terms. The Rubai-yat in its issue of Nov. 8 wrote "Is it not possible that the story of Louis XVI may be repeated in this kingdom? Does he (the Shah) not know for certain that from the blood of Fida No. 41 the fida hech arises a greater Fida? For a greater task who waits to complete the proof? ----- If his Majesty the King and his family consider it a pride and an honour to become the attendants and servants of foreigners, we the people deem subjection to such dominion a shame and a disgrace. These patriotic zealots have caused the country to continue in this family; else the garden of the constitution which
not been watered for two months is at first and the unknown and un-
seen Pidai who is its guardian so that flowers and sweet herbs may
blossom therein; or in other words the wise unknown surgeon will re-
move the gangrenous limb so that the remaining members may be saved
from that disease."

On Nov.10 the Shah in order to show his sincerity toward the
constitutional visited the House of Parliament in Baharanistan and took
an official oath on the Koran for the fourth time to uphold the con-
stitution. But he was no more sincere than in former times and had
made up his mind to do away with the Majless as soon as possible. The
Shah had in his immediate service the Cossack brigade which had a
strength of from 1200-1500 well trained men and besides had hired a
large number of Ruffians. These ruffians occupied the central square
of the city and caused disturbance. The Majless, however, continued
its meetings and a large number of National volunteers who were well-
armed gathered there to repulse any possible attack upon the assembly.
Nothing, however, was done because the Cossacks and the ruffians did
have the courage to attack the parliament. Mohammad Ali finally gave
way and made new promises to dismiss several of his reactionary cour-
tiers and to put the Cossack brigade under the control of the minis-
ter of war. After restoration of order Nizamussaltanah was appointed
premier and the Majless showed a conciliatory attitude.

But new events strained the relation between the Shah and the Majless.
On Feb.1306, an attempt was made on the life of the Shah. While he
was driving through the streets a bomb was thrown at him but being in
another carriage he escaped death. Mohammad Ali considered this a
plan on the part of the constitutionists. On Jan.1 the Shah dismissed
several of the reactionary ministers chief among them being Sardar
Bahadur-i-Jaz. A new force now came into play. The Russian minister
H.de Hartwig and the British charge d'affairs informed the Persian
minister of foreign affairs that should opposition he shown to the
plans of the Shah the Russian government would be obliged to inter-
fere. This intervention, caused great alarm. The Majless afraid of
foreign intervention did not push its demands.

On June 3,1906, the Shah left Tehran for Saghi Shah a large park
outside the city escorted by this Cossack guard and accompanied by
artillery. This move on the part of the Shah conducted in an unusu-
al manner caused panic in the city. The attitude of Mohammad Ali
became more threatening. For a time the Shah played with the assem-
bly. On the one hand he planned against the Majless by gathering
troops, paroling reactionary officers in important posts and appoint-
ing Colonel Liasoff (the Russian commander of the Cossack brigade)
in Supreme command of the troops; while on the other hand he assured
the Majless that the difference between him and the assembly could
be solved by a mixed committee of nationalists and royalists.

The Majless was surrounded on June 27 by Cossacks whom Colonel
Liasoff had set in position with their guns. The demand of the Shah
for the surrender of several nationalist deputies was rejected by the
assembly. Fire was there upon opened. The cossacks were reinforced
by several regiment of soldiers. The fighting continued till noon
and resulted in the capture of most of the important deputies and
nationalist leaders. Colonel Liasoff became the military dictator of
Tehran.
He had been acting actually against the Majless according to the instructions that he used to receive from the government of Russia. This has been proved by several documents which have fallen into the hands of a Captain M. Panoff who by order of the Minister of Foreign Affairs had officially declared that she had nothing to do with Colonel Liakoff who was considered to be in its service of the Persian Government but in reality Liakoff received instructions from the military head Queta of the Caspian.

As soon as the news of the destruction of the Majless spread abroad disturbances arose in some of the provinces. In Tabriz the street fightings gave rise to a revolution when the people understood that Mohammad Ali was strongly anticonstitutional. Tabriz continued the struggle for ten months and suffered from a bitter siege which was finally raised by the Russians. The heroic resistance of Tabriz attracted much of the attention of the Shah and enabled constitutionists in the provinces to gather their forces. But the Russian troops who now were in and about Tabriz were very harsh and their conduct was unbearable.

When the Majless had been destroyed a series of announcements by the Shah had the people to preserve order and promised to convene the national assembly at an early date. In March, 1908, a body of national volunteers of Recht occupied the road from Recht to Kassan. The Shah then under pressure from the Russian and British legations solemnly promised on May 10 to restore the constitution. But the nationalists had lost confidence in the Shah and two armies in Recht and Ispahan were prepared for the March on Tehran.

The Bakhtiar forces assembled at Ispahan under the leadership of Samsamussaltaneh and were joined on May 9, 1908, by Sardari Asad his brother who had returned from Persia from Europe by way of the Persian Gulf. Sardari Asad was by far more active than his brother and he soon organized the Bakhtiar forces. The Nationalist forces from Ispahan under the command of Sepahdari-Azam had in the meanwhile occupied Kazvin which was only 60 miles from the capital. The armies of Ispahan and Recht drove before them the royalist troops and were soon a few miles from Tehran. The Russian Legation now started to intervene and threatened that any further move on the capital on the part of nationalist forces would result in the deportation of the Russian troops to settle the affair. A Russian force had been collected at Ispahan and by July 3 some 2000 Russian troops were on Persian soil and several of their detachments had reached Kazvin. The Nationalist leaders were not discouraged and insisted upon their demands. These were the dismissal of the royalist troops, appointment of a ministry from the anjumane, and the allowing of Sepahdari and Sardar-Asad to enter the city each accompanied with 150 of their men. A vague answer was returned to these demands. Therefore by a skillful move the nationalist forces slipped by the royalist troops and on the morning of July 13 entered the capital. Tehran received her liberators warmly and a large number of the people armed themselves and appeared in the rank of the Nationalist forces. The Constitution of the capital were besieged in their barracks and other forces.
were sent to reduce the other gates of the city which still remained in the hands of the royalists. For three days fighting continued and the capital was encircled from Saratana, the royal residence north of the city.

Finally the Shah on July 16 took refuge in the Russian Legation at Zarganesh a summer residence a little distant from the city. Russian and British flags were unfurled over the place where he was. Many of his reactionary courtiers had also accompanied him. The action was interpreted as a formal abdication of the throne. Colonel Lintoff and his associates who had been besieged in their barracks in Tehman in the meantime surrendered to the nationalists and promised to accept service and remain loyal to the new government. On this same day a meeting took place at Baharistan (Parliament house). Mohammad Ali was formally deposed and his son Ahmad Mirza was proclaimed the future king, but as he was young Asud-ul-Molk, the head of the Qajar tribe, was appointed regent. After long discussion with the Russian Legation the Shah was granted an annual pension of 500000. He left Persia for Odessa on Oct. 1st special attention being paid to him by the Russian government.

The New Regime

The boy Shah entered the capital on July 19 amid joyous acclamations of the populace. New elections were soon ordered and the new press again came into existence. The deputies gathered and the Majles was formally opened on Nov. 15,1905, and Sepahdar who had been appointed by the national council prime minister and minister of war read the speech from the throne. Although the new government had been recognized by Russia and England a large body of Russian troops occupied different points in northern Persia. The situation under which the new government set to work was therefore not encouraging. Moreover the country was in a state of chaos. But the new government and the Majles set to work with energy to restore order and organise the finances. M. Bazet a Frenchman was employed by the government to re-organize the finance department. He was not forever fit for his task and the condition went from bad to worse.

It is a misfortune that the revolution did not bring to the front a strong man who could manage the affairs of the state with an iron hand. Some of the nationalist leaders as soon as they came to office sought their own personal interest. All sorts of difficulties forced the new government from the very start and the situation became more complex by Russian intrigue and half-hearted British policy which in one way or the other approached upon the severance of Persia. During the whole revolution prudence had been shown by all the nationalist leaders in all their action but now that the critical time had come some of these men who were raised to important posts did not fulfill their duty as their country desired and expected from them.

The local disturbances that were common hitherto to a great extent the activity of the new government. Rahim Khan a brigand appeared in Sept. 1905 around Ardabill and caused desolation. Large sums were spent to prepare a force against him. Sephrati Khan who commanded these troops succeeded in destroying the power of Rahim Khan but the brigand sought safety by passing the Russian frontier and was the source of new trouble in Jan., 1917.
The Persian government in Dec, 1899, was trying to negotiate a loan of $250,000 with the Russian and British governments, but the terms that these powers wanted to impose upon the Persian government were so dangerous to the safety of the country that the Majless refused to consent to the new measure. A loan that the government wanted to negotiate with a British firm likewise failed due to the intervention of England. The Russian government as a price for withdrawing her army from Persia was trying to acquire new concessions. On Oct. 16, 1910, England presented an ultimatum complaining of the bad condition of the roads in southern Persia and proposed a plan that an Anglo-Russian force should take charge of the roads and be paid by customs revenues. This caused great alarm both in Persia and the other Mohammedan countries. The Potsdam agreement was also reached on Nov. 5, 1910, between Germany and Russia, an understanding which enabled Russia to take more liberty of action in Persia without fear of English interference. The Persian minister of foreign affairs was obliged to resign his post at the time owing to the opposition of the two powers who did not want him to remain in power.

The aged Amud-al-Nolz the acting regent died on Sept. 28, 1910. For a long time there was some uncertainty as to whom that honour could be bestowed. Finally the choice fell on Naser-ed-doleh who formerly had acted as minister of finance and later as premier during the latter part of Mohammad Ali's reign. He was a graduate of Oxford and was well informed of the condition of his country, but he was too cautious and this habit prevented him from taking quick action. He accepted the post offered to him after some hesitation and arrived at Tehran on Feb. 8, 1911. The rest of the history of Persia had to do with Anglo-Russian intervention in the affair of the country and will be dealt with in the coming chapter.

Now let us take a glance at the revolutionary era. Then the nationalistic forces entered the capital they were received with enthusiasm by the people. During the fighting that followed the loss of life was not great and order had been fully observed. Then victory fell on the side of the nationalists because it transpired that the power of the royal house was not so powerful as they had supposed. The insurgents soldiers and civilians received full pardon as they laid down their arms and took the oath of allegiance. But there were several men who had proved extremely notorious and these, received the punishment that they deserved and all the people approved the course of action adopted by the Nationalists.

A supreme court sat on July 22, 1909, to try persons who had committed great offences. Of the persons who appeared before this court only a few were condemned to death. The rest were either acquitted or less severe penalties passed while. Most of the prisoners among those who were condemned to death were Shaqir Pardudullah the prominent Mullah who had played the role of an uncooperative reactionary. He was hanged on July 32, 1909, publicly and from that day dates the increasing of the power of the clergy.

The year 1910 can be called a year of trial. The leaders in the struggle for the constitution had become very popular and influential. Many of the reactionaries now saw it to their advantage to be reconciled with the constitutionalists.
Corruption and self-aggrandizement destroyed the reputation of some of those who were once the idols of the nation. Sayyid Abdullah Behbahani was the first to suffer from his own conduct. He had been found out to be in communication with the British Legation and intriguing against his nation. On the evening of July 18, 1910, three Pidais watered his house, shot him dead, and drove away in a carriage without being detected. Taqi Zadah the great orator who had been given a triumphal entry into the capital was to have the capital on August 1910 because of his radical political ideas. Next came the turn of Sattar Khan and Baqir Khan. These two men had been the chief heroes of Tabriz during its siege by the royalist troops and had come to Tehran with some of their men to help the new government. During their entry into the capital they had been hailed as national heroes. But a time came when the national volunteers had to be disarmed. Sattar and Baqir refused the proposal and finally force had to be applied. Sattar and Baqir with their followers took their position in the barracks and were surrounded by Esfahani Khan's men. Artillery was used and the surrender of the insurrectionists was forced. Sattar was wounded but soon recovered. Nevertheless the early services of these two men were not forgotten and they were pensioned for the rest of their lives. Another thing which became day by day more clear was the intriguing of Sepahdar. This gentleman had been previously in the service of Mohammad Ali and had been sent to take part in the siege of Tabriz. But later he had retired to Rezvani, had identified himself with the Nationalist cause and had become their leader. As a price of his services he had been made premier and minister of war. Soon it became clear that Sepahdar was playing a double game. He as a statesman sought first his own interest and then that of his country. The action of such men put a blot upon the otherwise brilliant annals of the revolution.

But these things must not give a bad impression about the National movement. In every country where great changes occur such events are not uncommon and treacherous and self-seeking men have very often shown their faces. At the same time appeared in the Nationalist ranks noble characters whose name inspired courage and taught men lessons about self-sacrifice. Esfahani Khan must stand first in the list. From the time that he entered upon his career as a volunteer he showed great devotion to his cause. He was made the chief of the police in Tehran an important position in Persia and he fulfilled his duty of preserving order efficiently. He took part later on in suppressing several reactionary uprisings. He saved Tehran during the return of the ex-Shah, and finally he gave up his life for his country on the field of honour. His name will be ever remembered by all Persians.
Chapter V.
The Constitutional Regime and the Anglo-Russian Intervention

In following a "Forward policy" Russia's endeavour had been to reach the open seas. In three directions this policy has been pushed and in all these she met opposition from England. In 1878 her plan of reaching Constantinople was frustrated by the Congress of Berlin. Russia then followed a policy of expansion in central Asia and the Far East. By the lease of Port Arthur and the fortifying of that strong position it seemed that finally Russia had come into possession of a harbour free from leo which promised to be an excellent naval base for the future. By the Russo-Japanese war that plan also came to naught and the Anglo-Japanese understanding had become so cordial that a check was put to further Russian intrigue in Eastern Asia. One other way to reach the open sea was however possible and that lay through Persia. Consequently, after the close of the Russo-Japanese war in 1905, Russia directed her whole attention on Persia. But here also English rivalry manifested itself. Russia's sole purpose for a long time has been to absorb Persia while England's desire has been to maintain her influence and use Iran as a barrier for India. The influence of Russia had increased greatly in the latter years. By advancing loans and taking of concessions her influence had become preponderant. The commercial interests of England had increased in the meanwhile, a fact which made her watch more carefully the march of events. During the course of their rivalry England has steadily lost ground while Russian influence came to be fully established.

(29) During their constitutional struggle at first the Persians showed gratitude to England. The people of Tehran had been given shelter in the British Legation and this had made it possible for them to reach their aims. But when the constitution was granted and Persia seemed to have awakened to her interests the attitude of England suddenly changed. Both she and Russia for the furtherance of their own interests followed a policy of Status Quo in Persia. Both powers knew that their influence could remain unhampered as long as the Persians were not awake to their own interests and their government was indifferent. Russia wanted to take advantage of Persia's weakness and take, in short time, the final step of absorbing the country. England feared that a progressive Persia under a constitutional regime should cause future troubles in India.

In the early part of 1907 there was a hope that Persia would soon recover from the mismanagement of former times and that the introduction of reform measures would save the country from the direct path to degradation. At this time the treasury was empty and the project for a foreign loan had been opposed by the English. England and Russia, however, continued friendly relations and the political horizon was not dark. Suddenly the world was taken by surprise to read of an Anglo-Russian convention in regard to Persia. This important document was looked at by the Persians to have sealed the fate of their country. (30) The treaty had been signed at St. Petersburg on Aug. 31, 1907 and was known to the Persians on Sept. 4. Of course the alarm which it caused to the Persians, who were then at the time of their National crisis, was great, and at once a cry was raised against it.
The agreement divided Persia into two spheres of influence and a neutral zone. Great Britain was not to seek concessions of a political or commercial nature in the Russian sphere and Russia pledged herself to observe this same in the British sphere. Both powers by previous agreement could seek grants of concession in the neutral zone. The sovereignty and integrity of Persia was to be maintained according to the treaty but it was clear to every far-sighted man that the final division of Persia would follow on the appropriate occasion. The Persian government did not have any previous knowledge of the intentions of her neighbours and had not been consulted in the matter. Therefore the Persian government made a formal protest against the agreement. The Anglo-Russian convention was explained by Sir Edward Grey as an innocent agreement. In his official communication the British minister Sir Cecil Spring residing at Tehran stated that N. Isvolsky and Sir Edward Grey were equally in accord on two fundamental points. Firstly, neither of the two powers will interfere in the affairs of Persia unless injury is inflicted on the person or property of their subjects. Secondly, negotiations arising out of the Anglo-Russian agreement must not violate the integrity and independence of Persia. The British minister then stated that Sir Edward Grey and N. Isvolsky had denied all rumours that Persia was to be partitioned between England and Russia and maintained that what the two powers desired by the agreement was to prevent one another from seeking concessions on Persian territory adjacent to their frontiers. To quote the official communication more directly, "The object of the two powers in making this agreement is not in any way to attack, but rather to assure for ever, the independence of Persia. Not only do they not wish to have at all and any excuse for intervention but their object in these friendly negotiations was not to allow another to intervene on the pretext of safeguarding their interests. The two powers hope that in the future Persia will be for ever delivered from the fear of foreign intervention and will thus be perfectly free to manage her own affairs in her own way, whereby advantage will accrue both to herself and the whole world."

But this official explanation as to what was meant by the agreement did not satisfy the Persians. For how could Russia claim to be the well-wisher of the cause of liberty in Persia while in her own country at this time severe persecution of the liberals was a matter of daily occurrence. As to England the Persians rightly believed that their country had been sold by Great Britain to promote her general interests in Europe and Asia. In reality the Anglo-Russian agreement was an acclamation of the part of England before the increasing power of Russia in Persia and its sway as a basis for the future intrigues of the government of the Tsar in the realm of Iran. That the part played by Russia in 1906 to destroy the constitution is plain enough. Although each article was introduced to the terms of the treaty, yet England did not protest, and the Persians justly declared that if Great Britain was unable to support a treaty which she had signed, it were better that she had not engaged in it. In the destruction of the Majles the Russian government took a direct part. Colonel Liebhart who was then the commander of the Cossack brigade at Tehran used to send reports to the Russian military head quarters in Caucasus informing them of his brilliant feats and asking for further commands. Even when the nationalist forces were at the gates of Tehran, the English and Russian representatives did all in their power to prevent them from entering the capital by threatening that Russian troops would be landed.
Russian troops in fact landed and reached Kazin and would have snatchèd the victory from the hand of the nationalists at the last hour had not their leaders taken quick and resolute action. When the Majees gathered in 1909 there existed a party which violently opposed Russia. Although during the revolutionary times the life and property of the foreigner had been well protected; still the Russian forces refused to evacuate Persian territory on the pretext that the safety of the foreigners was in danger, although if there were any disturbance it was due to the inactivity of the Russian troops whose conduct could not be tolerated by the Persians. Later it was understood that Russia was seeking new concessions as a price of withdrawing her army.

The Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 although not solving the problem of central Asia made the formation of the Triple Entente possible. England had appreciated that the Anglo-French Entente could not meet successfully the increasing power of Germany. Russia in 1906 had emerged from the war with Japan a weak state. England thought by pouring capital into Russia that Empire could be strengthened and could be used to threaten Germany from the East in the event of a European war. The Anglo-Russian convention brought about by the effort of the French statesman M. Delcassé was an attempt to bring Russia and England into more friendly relations. By settling their differences in Asia Russia and England could cooperate and complete the plan of drawing a circle around Germany. But during the formation of the Triple Entente Germany had been awake to her interests. She had directed her attention to Asiatic Turkey and her influence at Constantinople had become greater than any other power. The Anglo-Indian scheme made Germany take more interest in Asiatic affairs and watch closely the events in the middle east.

(54) The Year of Russia and the Kaiser met at Potsdam in the autumn of 1910 and exchanged views in regard to the political situation, and the Potsdam Agreement was the result of this exchange of opinion. Baron Marschall Von Berlestein the German Ambassador at Constantinople, stated to the Turkish Government on Jan. 14, 1911, that joining of such lines within the Persian territory. The main points of the agreement were, (1) Germany recognized the Russian sphere of influence in Northern Persia and Russia recognized commercial rights of Germany in the said sphere; (2) a railway was to be built from Erakpin on the Turkish frontier to Teheran by way of Kernochon and Nainjan by German and Russian capital and controlled by Russia; and (3) that Russia was to admit the policy of open door in Northern Persia. Besides such terms as were made public there might have been secret clauses so that by supporting the forward policy of Russia in Persia Germany might have gained the good will of her neighbour in Europe. Whatever might have been the motives that led to the Potsdam agreement, it is sure that by it Russia gained moral support as shown by her later actions.

(55) In 1910 the roads of southern Persia were in disorder, there being a belief that the English by bribing the tribes had instigated the disturbance. On Oct. 10, 1910, an Ultimatum was presented by the English government that if order was not restored within three months England would be obliged to and Indian troops to restore order. The Persian government took active measure and the robberies ceased. Great Britain then expressed her satisfaction but reserved the possibility of repeating the demands if necessary.
The question of the organization of a gendarmerie force had long been thought of. Foreign officers had been active in the work of reorganization and so with the consent of the Swedish government, three Swedish officers arrived in Persia on Aug., 1911, and their number soon increased to seventeen. Russia and England had approved the scheme. In February, Nastrumholk the new regent reached Tehran. He gave a statesmanlike speech before the Majless and advised the deputies to divide into two distinct parties for by that he said the stability of the ministries would be preserved. His advice was adhered to and thereafter the different parties mainly those of the moderates and the democrats. The Regent also told the deputies that the future of the country depended upon them and upon them also devolved the duty of seeing whom they wanted to be their premier. He also appealed for support for his forces in the Majless. A cabinet was formed under Sepahdad and anti-Russian feeling was suppressed.

Another question that the government took up was that of the reorganization of finance. Since 1910 the Persian government had been planning to ask some foreign financial advisors to come over and take charge of the finance department. In this respect negotiation had been carried on with the American State Department by the Persian representatives at Washington. Russia did not favour this plan from the very beginning but she stopped her objection when the British government no longer opposed the scheme. The State Department kindly pointed out Mr. Shuster who showed readiness to go to Persia. On Feb. 8, 1911, after the Majless had approved the terms of the contract of the American financial advisors, Mr. Shuster and his associate, they started for Persia. The party reached Tehran on May 16. Mr. Shuster had previously been employed in Cuba and the Philippines and he was a man of experience. He was active and capable and proved to be equal to the great task that he was called to undertake but had been more familiar with the history of Persia his work might have been a complete success.

Mr. Shuster thought that by identifying himself with the nationalist he could succeed in his work. By this he incurred the hostility of Russia which power considered from that time on that an anti-Russian had taken charge of the Finance department. By the end of May Mr. Shuster was prepared to take charge of the Finance department, but before doing that he thought it necessary to secure the necessary powers from the Majless. Two bills gave the necessary power to Mr. Shuster who as Review of Review of bill stated was appointed Treasurer-General of Persia with an "absolute control over every department of finances including the collection and distribution of all revenues in the custody of the treasury." On June 13 Mr. Shuster set officially to his task. But difficulties soon showed themselves. It was found out that he and the cabinet were not of the same opinion. Sepahdad whose flexible character did not allow him to be truthful to his task was not the premier and the stability of the government was shaken by the embarrassment of this gentleman. Another difficulty which grew was that M. Bernard, the Belgian administrator of customs, refused to recognize Shuster as his superior. In this he was supported by Russia and it took a month before the question was settled.

Another event now took place. Mr. Shuster desired to appoint Major Stokes, the British military attaché in Tehran whose term of service was over to command the Treasury Gendarmerie. He requested from Sir George Barley the British minister in Tehran that permission should be given to Major Stokes to accept the post.
Mr. Shuster did not think that the appointment of Stokes to the com-
mand of gendarmerie which was specially intended for the south was po-
litically wise. Sir George Barley referred the question to London.
The answer which was returned after the English and the Russian go-
vernments had consulted with each other was that wither a Swedish of-
ficer was to be appointed or if Major Stokes was to be raised to com-
mand a Russian officer was to command the northern forces.

At this time the ex-Shah had returned to Persia. The English and
the Russian views in regard to recognition of the ex-Shah was not the
same but soon an agreement was reached. Sir Edward Grey stated now in
a telegram that Major Stokes could be raised to command if he would
resign his commission. Shuster interpreted this telegram that the Eng-
lish government had no objection to the appointment and formally pro-
posed it. A joint Anglo-Russian note regarding the action of the ex-
Shah was presented at Tehran the Russians suggesting that Stokes might
have Russians subordinates. But Sir Edward Grey feared that the ap-
pointment of Stokes in the north against the ex-Shah would cause a
European crisis took a wavering attitude. He went even so far as to
state that he could not protest if Russia raised objection to the ap-
pointment of Stokes and this was a blow at the prestige and power of
Mr. Shuster.

The news of the arrival of the ex-Shah caused panic at the capi-
tal. The Cabinet was embarrassed and did not know what measures to
take. But Ephraim Khan and Mr. Shuster did not lose themselves.
Some 500 men were enrolled hurriedly in the gendarmerie. All the avai-
able forces were gathered and set on the way to meet the army of the
ex-Shah led by his best general against Tehran. The government forces
claimed a victory at Firozkoh by the valor and skill of Ephraim
Khan and the army of the ex-Shah lost its moral by this defeat. This
victory was followed by a greater one on Sep. 5 in which Arshad-as-
Dowlah, the great commander, was captured. Arshad was shot a day la-
ter outside Tehran and his dead body was carried publicly in the
streets of the capital to ensure that danger was over. The forces of
Salar-as-Dowlah the brother of the ex-Shah also defeated on Sept.
27 and the capital was saved. Measures were taken to restore order
by stamping out insurrection and by Oct. it continued only in the
North.

These events had caused the paralysis of the British trade in
southern Persia. The British government decided to send Indian troops
to restore order, but Russia answered that a similar move would be
adopted by her in the North. The British foreign office took the ques-
tion seriously for, owing to the grave political situation in the
North, for it was not sure if the Russian force once entered Persia
where it would stop. In Tehran anti-Russian feeling was increasing
for it was maintained that the ex-Shah had been sent by Russia. The
Nationalists became the dominant party in the Baghers. Mr. Shuster
being now fully convinced that Russia opposed all reforms plans in Per-
sia emebbed his ideas in a letter to the times. Nasr-ed-Dowlah the
regent, now realized that the situation had become critical.

The difficulty increased when Mr. Shuster appointed Mr. Lecointe
as financial inspector at Tabriz. Lecointe was a British subject and
well known Russophile but Mr. Shuster did not give any heed to the
French protest against the suggestion of confiscating the property of
prince Shamsa-Sultan. A house of this prince was mortgaged to the
Russian Bank.
When the treasury gendarmes went to occupy the house the Russian consul-general who was an advocate of the Russian forward policy sent his men to drive the gendarmes away. Next day 100 gendarmes were sent to occupy the house. There hot words were exchanged between the gendarmes and men of the Russian legation who drew rifles at each other. The Persian government thereupon demanded the call of the Russian consul-general.

The Russians could no more tolerate the situation and seeing that a better opportunity would never present itself they took the chance. On Nov. 11, 1911 an ultimatum was presented to Persia demanding the removal of the gendarmes from the house and an apology. The premier Samadzadeh-Sultaneh advised Shuster to withdraw his men but the consul-general demanded an order signed by the whole cabinet which did not exist at that time. The Russian ultimatum was backed up by 4000 troops. At this time the Russians declared that if they once occupied the country, their demands would change. Sir Edward Grey, aspiring to stop a Russian occupation of Tehran, advised that they should make representations against Shuster before advancing on the capital. On Nov. 24 the cabinet had been formed and an apology was officially extorted, but the Russian minister stated that before the withdrawal of the troops further conditions had to be fulfilled.

On Nov. 26 a second ultimatum was presented by Russia. The terms of the ultimatum were three and within 48 hours an answer had to be given. First Mr. Shuster and Mr. Lecoffre were to be dismissed, secondly Persia was to ask the consent of England and Russia before taking into her service any non-Persian, and thirdly a money indemnity was to be paid for the cost of the Russian expedition. This ultimatum had a marked effect upon the Persians. Shahs were alarmed, demonstrations were given by the students, and women gave speeches to enthrall the patriotism of men. On Dec. 2nd, Majless unanimously rejected the ultimatum. As Mr. Shuster describes it, a great clergyman stood up and uttered these words, "It may be the will of Allah that our liberty and our sovereignty shall be taken from us by force but let us not sign them away with our own hands." A by-cot was put upon all foreign goods while proclamations were made against Russia. Appeals were made to foreign countries specially to the socialists and the student body. There appeared also a group of Nationalists who wanted to resist the Russian advance on Tehran. The cabinet wanted to destroy the Majless but failed. Then they asked for full power to deal with the question but it was only when the Russians had reached Kaskin 50 miles from Tehran that a small committee of the Majless was appointed to approve the work of the ministers. The clause of the ultimatum regarding the nomination of foreign officials was somewhat changed and the cabinet accepted the ultimatum on Dec. 22 Mr. Shuster left Persia and V. Bernadot, the Russian Envoy, succeeded him on Jan. 1912. All the gendarmes were put under the control of the Swedish gunners.

But before the acceptance of the ultimatum by the cabinet serious events had taken place. The Russians and the Nationalists had come into open conflict in Reshad and Tabriz on Dec. 22. At this juncture the Russian troops were not withdrawn. Tabriz was besieged and a large number of the nationalists were brutally murdered. Lahri-
el-Islam a great jihâd had been suspended since his return was also varying the government.

(36) The powers now discussed the question and dictated to the Persian government to what they had agreed. As to a loan which could make it possible for the Persians to take up necessary reforms no definite settlement was reached but on the request of M. Hermand a sum of 200,000 was advanced and that upon two conditions, (i) that the ex-Shah by retiring to Europe should receive his pension, and (2) that Persia should adopt a policy in conformity with the Anglo-Russian convention of 1827 and should organize a small army with the consent of the powers. In March the Russian forces retired from Rasvin and the money was forwarded.

(39) Lord Curzon criticized the government policy in the House of Lords, maintaining that Russian occupation of Persia on the slender excuse that Mr. Shuster had not respected the Russian "diplo- matic usage" was not advisable to be allowed by England. The main reason why the Russians disliked Shuster were two: (1) that he had acted after the idea that Persia was an independent sovereign state, and had an instruction by the Persian government paid no regard to the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1827, and (2) that Shuster being honest in serving a nation which had called in his help did not consult with the British and Russian representatives at Tehran. In regard to the independence of Persia a sent official Russian paper stated: "A kingdom which is divided into two spheres of foreign influence, whose rights to build railways were for years suspended, and whose finances and foreign policy are in the hands of two guardian Empires can be said to be independent only by a courteous extension of the meaning of the term." The Review of Reviews after admitting this statement wrote: "It is the selfish and improved encroachment of the great European powers upon a weak nation endeavouring to regenerate itself however that have justified the condemnation of the world."

The action of Russia in the last days of 1911 was an open defiance of the treaty of 1827. Persian sovereignty had been invaded but still the English foreign minister declared that he could not see how it had been violated. It was "interest" which kept England from supporting a treaty to which she had been a party. Lord Curzon on March 23, 1911, some nine months before the Shuster incident during a debate in the House of Lords declared, "I am convinced that the integrity of Persia, which was guaranteed by her Majesty's government in the preamble of the Anglo-Russian convention of 1827, has no more substantial support than her Majesty's government."
(41) Persia was thus humiliated by her strong neighbours. In the latter part of 1912, this proposition and early dismemberment. In September, the Russian foreign minister visited London, and it was rumoured that the visit intended to put an end to the Persian question. This idea was not strange because Russian influence had become so great that this final move could easily be made. It was thus expected that the English and Russian foreign ministers would soon reach an agreement. What the two ministers discussed about Persia has not been made public but it was certain that General Conference presented themselves. The only declaration made was that Russia and England were in complete accord about the Persian problem. Persia thus escaped from being partitioned and the powers upheld the policy of Status quo in Persia.

With the dismissal of Gusher Parliament (Majlis) was finally closed and remained so for a long time. A period of ministerial instability followed and in a year half a dozen cabinets rose and fell. The Gusher's assistants with the exception of Colonel Hanif left the country and Russia and England cleared the path by having all undesirable ministers removed from office. M. Morard, who had joined to his duty of director-general of customs the post of treasurer general, proved satisfactory to the powers. A number of leading patriots in the spring of 1912 were obliged to take passage to Europe, chief among them being Hussein Karaz Kazar, Suleiman Mirza, and Sardar Montale. By force of circumstances also Persia was obliged to accept the hard terms of England for a small loan and accept the Anglo-Russian convention of 1907.

(42) Although both England and Russia had promised to withdraw their troops from the South and the North their removal was delayed. In January, 1912, there were in Tabriz 3,000 Russians with artillery and other war equipment. Besides there were other soldiers in different points of northern Persia. The Russians did not refrain from interfering in local affairs and causing great inconvenience. In Roest they stopped the publication of a local paper. Private also took place in Mashhad and culminated in the Russian atrocities of March 1912. There a number of Mulahas took refuge in the national sanctuary of Pan Baba, a place of pilgrimage for all Shiite Persians and demanded redress from Russian tyranny. These were joined by a large multitude. The Russians demanded that the place should be evacuated but the demand having been refused force was applied. The shrine was bombarded and a large number of the people were massacred. This caused great alarm in all modern countries and increased the hatred of Russia in the hearts of the Persians.

In 1912 the northern provinces were in such a turmoil due to the presence of Russian soldiers and the intrigues of Russian Protectors that the central government did not receive a cent of revenue from those quarters. The treasury was empty and fresh loans had to be floated. But each time a new demand was made upon the Persian government which was obliged to acquiesce. The demand for a railway concession was referred by the cabinet to the consent of the Majlis. The powers now looked for a man by whose help they could succeed in their demands and their choice fell on Saad-ed-Dawla. That reaction-ist Minister of the Shahs who the terror and indignation of the people had swept from the country together with that personage.
Sir Edward Grey defended this choice by stating on Oct., 8, 1912, "The only justification which we have taken with a sense to the appontment of Saad-ed-Dowlah as Premier minister is the fact that mo- ney is absolutely necessary to the Persian government."

On Feb., 6, 1913, Russia got a concession to construct the Julfa-Tabriz Urfa railway which by the terms of the Persian constitution was not valid without the consent of Majless. The money given to the Persian government was to be expended largely on the Cossack drissage and the gendarmerie which were to the benefit of the powers. There remained no fund to be used by provincial administrators to put down local disturbances.

During 1913 the brother of the ex-Shah Salar-ed-Dowlah returned to Persia and due to the absence of reliable troops the prince be- ing defeated in one place went to another everywhere looting villages and causing disorder. Finally the Prince took refuge in the British consulat at Kermanshah. He was conducted out of Persia and retired to Switzerland on the condition of receiving an annual pension. The province of Fars was quieted by appointment of Mulzher-as-Saltash as governor general. He was a man of sound principles who reconciled the different factions and restored order. But by adopting a system whereby the gendarmeri received its pay by advances from the English government, government activity was in reality put under some res- triction.
Chapter VI

Persia During the World War

(43) When Ahmad Mirza was declared the future king of Persia he was a boy of 14. He had been brought up in the luxuries of the royal court which had impressed his mind with the glories of autocracy. He had received that sort of education which every royal prince least in Persia and he knew little of his country. One thing then called the attention of those who counted themselves responsible for the future welfare of their nation. If the Shah were to be a constitutional Monarch he had to be educated in a democratic atmosphere and along such lines that would make him familiar with modern ideas and beliefs. Therefore a class was constituted from twelve select students of the schools of Tehran to be the schoolmates of Ahmad Mirza and his brother Mohammad Hasan Mirza. The best available teachers were also appointed to give instruction in different courses of study. The class regulation was severe and discipline was observed. Ahmad Mirza took interest in his studies taking part in all routine work of the course. He also associated freely with his classmates. Efforts were made by the instructors to teach the future Shah lessons in patriotism and in making his realize what kind of a king the nation wanted him to be. Attempts were also made to bring up the boy king in a very liberal manner.

Finally a time came when Ahmad Mirza was of age and by assuming the crown could take a more direct interest in the affairs of state. The Persian nation eagerly looked to the time when the prince whom they adored and from whom they expected much could mount the throne which they had offered to him. Importance was attached to the coronation of Ahmad Mirza because by it the nation which had recently been humiliated would regain its spirits and would set to repair what was lost before it would prove too late. The internal condition of the country at this time had improved greatly and the disorders which had been organized by the Swedish officers had done excellent work to restore peace and order. But the external political situation was somewhat gloomy. English and Russian influence had increased greatly and Persia resembled a prey lying between the clasp of two fighting beasts. It was under such circumstances that Ahmad Mirza was to assume the title of Shah-in-Shah.

At this time the Majles did not exist for since its dissolution or rather destruction at the time of the Qajar era it had not met. It was the desire of many that the Shah should take the oath to the constitution before the representatives of the nation. Orders for an election were therefore given. Meanwhile preparations were made for the coronation ceremony. In July, 1925, when everything was ready Ahmad Mirza ascended the Persian throne. However owing to delay in the elections whereby the necessary number of deputies needed to form a quorum were not present the oath was taken before a committee of 28 deputies. The coronation ceremony was brilliant but not as luxurious as had been the custom in the days of old Persian kings. It was modern and showed that Persia had no desire clinging to old usages. Telegrams of congratulations arrived from all foreign governments. Poets wrote verses to commemorate this great occasion.
The European war broke out at the end of July. It attracted the attention of Russia and England greatly to their own countries and gave the Persian government more freedom of action. The Russians now sought to cause the increase of the cossack brigades which meant an extension of the Russian influence, and the English tried to gain the good will of the Bathtilari's and the influential men of the south. The new government declared that Persia would follow a policy of strict neutrality during the war and was anxious to cling to her word. When Turkey entered the war popular opinion somewhat changed. Turkey was a neutral country that had declared war on Russia and England which powers in the past had not treated Persia fairly. Russian hatred and resentment therefore showed itself in many ways. The language of newspapers daily became more severe. Nevertheless the government kept a cool head and continued cordial relations as before, assuring the two powers that nothing serious would happen.

But Persia was not left to herself; and serious events occurred in the year 1915. The English forces operating in Iraq came to take more interest as to what was going on in southern Persia. The base of the British army being far away in India the English preferred to use some points on the coast of the Persian Gulf as relay stations. At Bushire they established several hospitals for the wounded. They soon took under their control the region of Kerman from Ahvaz to Hermann to strengthen their position at Kermanshah situated on the junction of the Tigris-Elburzian valleys. In the same year the Turks, afraid of an attack by the Russians on their flank from the Persian province of Azerbaijan, sent an army and occupied Tabriz. The Germans and the Turks kept busy in the meanwhile in stirring the people against Russia and England which powers made country efforts to neutralise the work of their enemies. The Turkish consul was arrested in Bushire and sent to Russia. The English in the south took similar action in neutralising the Germans to India. So far there were no German consuls in south Persia but now the German appointed one called Wasem to establish a consulate at Shiraz. Wasem accompanied by Dr. Lampson started for Shiraz by way of the south. Before reaching Shiraz however the Mutiny was stopped by the order of the German with the purposes by the English. Wasem appointed his agent but his doctor friend was taken on board a ship and sent to India to join the other Germans taken from Bushire in the Civil Prisoners Camp. No sooner did the consulate arrive at Shiraz and told what had happened than the people grew indignant. Anti-English feeling became more intense. Once feeling spread quickly and the Germans found it easy to attract men to their sides.

An idea then spread that Persia had to take her chance in the world and throw off her foreign shackles and stand up on her own feet. The hand of foreign oppression was felt. The Russian consul at Isfahan and Poland encouraged the people. In the south the discontent was won over by the Germans and a force of national volunteers was organised. The government was unable to support public service and took advantage of the situation to take more liberty of action. The attitude of the Russians became more threatening and there was fear of landing troops. In the south the German plans were successful to such an extent that in the summer of 1915 relation with the English gave rise to actual fighting.
Bushire was bombarded by the British and occupied after some resistance had been shown. The English forces now moved toward Shahr, but the tribes of that region, especially the Zangestani, made common cause with the volunteers. The English forces were met and defeated near Dalali. Later the English evacuated Bushire on the condition that a pro-British governor should be reinstated there. Pargahai was sent and the situation was quieted for the time being.

The events which occurred in the north were more important. The democratic party which at that time was in power had identified with the side of the Germans. It had been arranged that the capital should be changed to Tablasan and open enmity towards Russia be declared. Preparations had been made that the Shah should leave for Isphahan. A number of deputies and nationalist leaders left before hand for Gum and there awaited the arrival of the Shah. The people of Tehran, however, made demonstrations and did not let Ahmad Shah have the capital. Suddenly the situation changed. A new ministry was formed by Harman Purma who was a pro-Russian by sentiment and the former policy of siding with Germany was abandoned. The government policy was again to maintain the neutrality of the country. The deputies and leaders who had retired to Gum were ordered to return and give up the plan of planning Persia in the world war. Some accepted but others refused.

At this time the Russians had poured an army into northern Farsia. The Russian army of Rasht had occupied Karrin and was at the gates of the capital. The nationalists of Gum now declared a provisional government and decided to side with the Turks and Germans. Actual fighting then began. The nationalist volunteers were not well armed but showed good resistance to the Russians. At Cava the first important engagement took place and Persian in a defeat for the nationalists. The provisional government then withdrew southward toward Isphahan and was finally obliged to take its seat at Kermanesh. To save Persia from totally falling into the hands of the foreigner the government at Tehran broke all connection with the provisional government of Kermanesh, declared them to be insurgents and exiling on their own account and authorizing the Russians to drive them out of the Persian Territories.

The forces of the provisional government increased when Micol-Saltanah, the governor of Turistan, made common cause with the anti-Russians. He was appointed the head of the Provisional government. Meanwhile the Germans were pouring officers and ammunitions in Western Persia and the Turks sent a contingent. Von der Golty who at this time had come to Bushed had visited Kermanesh in person and procured help. The Russian at this juncture had made preparations to defeat the nationalists. In the latter part of Autumn and cold winter months the Russian forces on the Gazaran fell back towards their capital. The Russian troops pressed towards Kermanesh. The most important battles of the campaign were those of Mangoven and Sidisoch. The nationalists forces composed of gendarmes volunteers and several Turkish detachments although badly equipped showed a marked resistance to the Russians but finally were obliged to retreat before greater odds. At last Kirmanshah fell and the nationalists were obliged to retire to Salehmaneh and Baghdad in the spring of 1915.
In the meantime the Russian and the English governments were trying to induce the Persian government to take up arms against Turkey. They promised to cancel the Persian loans and offer more money if Persia agreed to put some 150,000 men into the field. The government at Tehran weighed the question carefully. It was seen first of all that the organization of a large army necessitated the employment of a large number of Russian and English officers which meant an increase of the influence of the two powers in Persia. Secondly, it was seen that the gains in comparison to the losses were small and that public opinion was not pro-Russian. Finally it was observed that it was a fratricidal war to destroy Turkey for the benefit of Persia’s sworn enemy. The government at last refused the proposal and preferred a state of neutrality.

With the fall of Kut-al-Amara the position of the Turks became strong in Iraq. An army was prepared to help the Persian nationalism and penetrate into the interior. When everything was ready the offensive began in the summer of 1915. The Russians retreated before this force and Kermanshah and Hamadan fell before the victorious army. Panic took the inhabitants of Tehran and the Farsophone managed to escape. But the Russians received reinforcements and the advance on Karrin and Tehran was checked. The Russians did not succeed in disabling this army and for a while the provisional government established itself in the occupied district. But soon the conditions changed. In the spring of 1917 Baghdad fell and the Persian army seeing its position threatened from behind was obliged to retire on the Turkish side of the frontier. The nationalist having lost hope slowly dispersed and their leader Nasar-ud-Daulah left for Constantinople.

The change of government in Russia made the Persian situation more clear. The Russian revolution, which broke out in the middle of 1917, overturns the Tsarist regime in Russia and brought to the front a liberal government. The attitude of the new government with Erasals at its head was cordial toward Persia. At once the Russian agents who were the upholders of the forward policy of the Tsar were changed for men of more democratic principles. The Russian army however remained. Soon after Erasals fell from power and the Bolsheviks took over the leadership of Lenin and Trotsky assured the control of the affairs. By this time Russia had been exhausted and could not continue the war further. In the Autumn of 1917 Germany accepted the offers of Russia and granted an armistice. Then followed the peace negotiations in Brest-Litovsk where the representatives of the nations warring with Russia gathered to discuss terms of peace. These negotiations dragged on during the first months of 1918 and it was finally by force of arms that Russia was obliged to sign the treaty of peace. The treaty was signed on March 3 and its seventh clause which referred to Persia and Afghanistan runs as follows, “Having their attention fixed upon the fact that Persia and Afghanistan are free and independent states the contracting parties pledge themselves to maintain the economic independence and the territorial integrity of these states.”

According to the terms of the Armistic both sides had promised to withdraw their armies from Persia. Retreating divisions neither promised and the Russian forces left Persia with the utmost speed. This great event was hailed all over Persia as the beginning of a new era.
Before that Trotsky had stated to the Persian ambassador at St. Petersburg that the Anglo-Russian Treaty of 1917 was no more valid. Later on Lord Curzon in answer to a question raised in the House of Lords maintained that the English government was on the point of negotiation with the Russian government to annul the Treaty of 1917 which England by force of circumstances had been obliged to sign.

Now that danger was over the Persian government allowed the nationalists who had fought against Russia to return by declaring a state of amnesty.

The effect of the Russian revolution will be undoubtedly great upon Persia. For long years there existed animosity between the two nations and the Persians considered the Russians the greatest enemy of their liberty. The peace of Brest-Litovsk which marks the sudden disruption of the once mighty Empire of Russia may be called a turning point in the history of Asiatic lands. The fall of Russia was an untimely blessing for Persia which at least for a long time to come is saved from any fear of invasion from the North. The Persians are now ready to be reconciled with their arch-enemy and are prepared to continue warm friendly relations in the coming years with their northern neighbour. Hereafter the events which take place in Russia will have great effect on Persia. The Russian revolution of today resembles the French revolution of the 18th century. It will exert the same influence on the Asiatic countries as the French revolution did on the neighbourg states of Europe.

In concluding this essay I can say that the future of Persia is very brilliant. The Russian policy has totally changed and the English are so slow in choosing any course of action that there is no fear from them. The Persians have awakened from their long sleep and nothing can prevent an eager nation from regenerating itself. Still there are many barriers in the way and there are drawbacks which must be overcome, yet by that and perseverance these obstacles can be annihilated in the course of time. The Persians are already on their feet and with willing, they will take the final march to victory. Hopeful aims are already apparent. The question of the education of both sexes has been considered with much care. One great change which will take place in Persia in the future years will be the social problem of the marriage of women. In the last ten years there has been great activity among women of Tehran along this line. They have formed a society and published a magazine for their own interest. The women of Persia must take example from their sisters in other countries and by putting away the greatest barrier that stands in the way of progress of the nation. Every educated Persian takes the question of the veil seriously nowadays and realises its great social evils.