

The Qajar Dynasty in Iran: The Most Important Occurrence Evented in the Qajars Monarchy

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Abstract

The first Iranian state was the Achaemenian Empire, established by Cyrus the Great in about 550 B.C. Alexander the Great conquered the empire in 330 B.C. The Greeks were followed by the Parthians, who ruled from 247 B.C. until A.D. 224, and the Sassanians, who ruled from A.D. 224 until the Arabs conquered Iran in A.D. 642. The Arabs brought with them Islam, which eventually became the predominant religion. In the centuries that followed, Iran was ruled by a succession of Arab, Iranian, and Turkic dynasties. In 1501 the Iranian Safavis created a strong centralized empire under Ismael I and also established Shia Islam as the official religion. In the eighteenth century, Iran was weakened by civil wars, new dynasties came to rule, and a new regional rival, Russia, arose. The Qajar dynasty in Persia (present-day Iran) spanned 130 years, beginning with Agha Mohammad Qajar in 1795 and ending with Ahmad Shah in 1925. It was a period in Persian history that saw substantial British and Russian regional influences that eventually created a backlash over time in the form of the Constitutional Revolution. In the nineteenth century, Iran, under the Qajars, lost much of its territory in the Caucasus and Central Asia to Russia.

Key words: Qajar dynasty, Iran, Russia, Golestan treaty, Turkmanchy treaty.

1. Introduction

The term Iranian is derived from the Old Iranian ethnical adjective Aryana which is itself a cognate of the Sanskrit word Arya. The name Iran is from Aryānām; lit: "[Land] of the Aryans". The old Proto-Indo-Iranian term Arya, per Thieme meaning "hospitable", is believed to have been one of the self-referential terms used by the Aryans, at least in the areas populated by Aryans who migrated south from Central Asia. Another meaning for Aryan is noble. In the late part of the Avesta (Vendidad 1) one of their homelands was referred to as Airyanem Vaejah. The homeland varied in its geographic range, the area around Herat (Pliny's view) and even the entire expanse of the Iranian plateau (Strabo's designation). The term "Ariya" appears in the royal Old Persian inscriptions in three different contexts:

- As the name of the language of the Old Persian version of the inscription of Darius the Great in Behistun;
- As the ethnic background of Darius in inscriptions at Naqsh-e-Rostam and Susa (Dna, Dse) and Xerxes in the inscription from Persepolis (Xph) and
- As the definition of the God of Iranian people, Ahuramazda, in the Elamite version of the Behistun inscription. For example in the Dna and Dse Darius and Xerxes describe themselves as "An Achaemenian, A Persian son of a Persian and an Aryan, of Aryan stock"(saidiyān, 2004, p. 106) .

Iran is located in the Middle East, between Turkey and Iraq on the west and Afghanistan and Pakistan on the east; it borders the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman in the south and Armenia, Azerbaijan, the Caspian Sea, and Turkmenistan in the north. Library of Congress – Federal Size: Iran's total area is nearly 1.65 million square kilometers, of which 1.64 million square kilometers—an area slightly larger than Alaska—is land mass. Land Boundaries: Iran is bounded by Afghanistan (936 kilometers), Armenia (35 kilometers), Azerbaijan proper (432 kilometers), Azerbaijan's Nakhichevan enclave (179 kilometers), Iraq (1,458 kilometers), Pakistan (909 kilometers), Turkey (499 kilometers), and Turkmenistan (992 kilometers). Disputed Territory: Iran and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) dispute sovereignty over three islands in the Persian Gulf that are occupied by Iran. Iran's coastline includes 2,440 kilometers on the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman and 740 kilometers on the Caspian Sea. Iran has rugged mountain chains surrounding several basins collectively known as the Central Plateau, which has an average elevation of about 900 meters.

East of the Central Plateau are two large desert regions, a salt desert in the north and a rock and sand desert in the south. There are lowland areas along the Caspian coast, in Khuzestan Province at the head of the Persian Gulf, and at several dispersed locations along the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman coasts. Principal Rivers: Iran has no major rivers. The only navigable river is the Karun, which is 830 kilometers long. Other rivers include the Safid Rud (1,000 kilometers), Kharkeh (700 kilometers), and Zayandeh Rud (400 kilometers) (Darvish zadeh, 2002, p. 87).

2. Qajar Dynasty

The Qajars were a Turkmen tribe that held ancestral lands in present-day Azerbaijan, which then was part of Iran. In 1779, following the death of Mohammad Karim Khan Zand, the Zand Dynasty ruler of southern Iran, Agha Mohammad Khan, a leader of the Qajar tribe, set out to reunify Iran. Agha Mohammad Khan defeated numerous rivals and brought all of Iran under his rule, establishing the Qajar dynasty. By 1794 he had eliminated all his rivals, including Lotf 'Ali Khan, the last of the Zand dynasty, and had reasserted Iranian sovereignty over the former Iranian territories in Georgia and the Caucasus. Agha Mohammad established his capital at Tehran, a village near the ruins of the ancient city of Ray (now Shahr-e Rey). In 1796 he was formally crowned as shah. Agha Mohammad was assassinated in 1797 and was succeeded by his nephew, Fath Ali Shah. Under Fath Ali Shah, Iran went to war against Russia, which was expanding from the north into the Caucasus Mountains, an area of historic Iranian interest and influence. Iran suffered major military defeats during the war. Under the terms of the Treaty of Golestan in 1813, Iran recognized Russia's annexation of Georgia and ceded to Russia most of the north Caucasus region. A second war with Russia in the 1820s ended even more disastrously for Iran, which in 1828 was forced to sign the Treaty of Turkmanchai acknowledging Russian sovereignty over the entire area north of the Aras River (territory comprising present-day Armenia and Republic of Azerbaijan) (Ghuzanlou, 1983, p. 176). Fath Ali's reign saw increased diplomatic contacts with the West and the beginning of intense European diplomatic rivalries over Iran. His grandson Mohammad Shah, who fell under the influence of Russia and made two unsuccessful attempts to capture Herat, succeeded him in 1834. When Mohammad Shah died in 1848 the succession passed to his son Naser-e-Din, who proved to be the ablest and most successful of the Qajar sovereigns.

During Naser o-Din Shah's reign Western science, technology, and educational methods were introduced into Iran and the country's modernization was begun. Naser o-Din Shah tried to exploit the mutual distrust between Great Britain and Russia to preserve Iran's independence, but foreign interference and territorial encroachment increased under his rule. He contracted huge foreign loans to finance expensive personal trips to Europe. He was not able to prevent Britain and Russia from encroaching into regions of traditional Iranian influence. In 1856 Britain prevented Iran from reasserting control over Herat, which had been part of Iran in Safavid times but had been under non-Iranian rule since the mid-18th century. Britain supported the city's incorporation into Afghanistan; a country Britain helped create in order to extend eastward the buffer between its Indian territories and Russia's expanding empire. Britain also extended its control to other areas of the Persian Gulf during the 19th century. Meanwhile, by 1881 Russia had completed its conquest of present-day Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan, bringing Russia's frontier to Iran's northeastern borders and severing historic Iranian ties to the cities of Bukhara and Samarqand. Several trade concessions by the Iranian government put economic affairs largely under British control. By the late 19th century, many Iranians believed that their rulers were beholden to foreign interests.

Mirza Taghi Khan Amir Kabir, was the young prince Nasser o-Din's advisor and constable. With the death of Mohammad Shah in 1848, Mirza Taqi was largely responsible for ensuring the crown prince's succession to the throne. When Nasser o-Din succeeded to the throne, Amir Nezam was awarded the position of prime minister and the title of Amir Kabir, the Great Ruler. Iran was virtually bankrupt, its central government was weak, and its provinces were almost autonomous. During the next two and a half years Amir Kabir initiated important reforms in virtually all sectors of society. Government expenditure was slashed, and a distinction was made between the privy and public purses. The instruments of central administration were overhauled, and the Amir Kabir assumed responsibility for all areas of the bureaucracy. Foreign interference in Iran's domestic affairs was curtailed, and foreign trade was encouraged. Public works such as the bazaar in Tehran were undertaken. Amir Kabir issued an edict banning ornate and excessively formal writing in government documents; the beginning of a modern Persian prose style dates from this time. One of the greatest achievements of Amir Kabir was the building of Dar-ol-Fonoon, the first modern university in Iran.

Dar-ol-Fonoon was established for training a new cadre of administrators and acquainting them with Western techniques. Amir Kabir ordered the school to be built on the edge of the city so it can be expanded as needed. He hired French and Russian instructors as well as Iranians to teach subjects as different as Language, Medicine, Law, Geography, History, Economics, and Engineering. Unfortunately, Amir Kabir did not live long enough to see his greatest monument completed, but it still stands in Tehran as a sign of a great man's ideas for the future of his country. These reforms antagonized various notables who had been excluded from the government (Adamiyat, 1999, p. 124-136). They regarded the Amir Kabir as a social upstart and a threat to their interests, and they formed a coalition against him, in which the queen mother was active. She convinced the young shah that Amir Kabir wanted to usurp the throne. In October 1851 the shah dismissed him and exiled him to Kashan, where he was murdered on the shah's orders. When Naser o-Din Shah was assassinated by Mirza Reza Kermani in 1896, the crown passed to his son Mozaffar o-Din. Mozaffar o-Din Shah was a weak and ineffectual ruler. Royal extravagance and the absence of incoming revenues exacerbated financial problems. The shah quickly spent two large loans from Russia, partly on trips to Europe. Public anger fed on the shah's propensity for granting concessions to Europeans in return for generous payments to him and his officials.

People began to demand a curb on royal authority and the establishment of the rule of law as their concern over foreign, and especially Russian, influence grew. The shah's failure to respond to protests by the religious establishment, the merchants, and other classes led the merchants and clerical leaders in January 1906 to take sanctuary from probable arrest in mosques in Tehran and outside the capital. When the shah reneged on a promise to permit the establishment of a "house of justice", or consultative assembly, 10,000 people, led by the merchants, took sanctuary in June in the compound of the British legation in Tehran. In August the shah was forced to issue a decree promising a constitution. In October an elected assembly convened and drew up a constitution that provided for strict limitations on royal power, an elected parliament, or Majles, with wide powers to represent the people, and a government with a cabinet subject to confirmation by the Majles. The shah signed the constitution on December 30, 1906. He died five days later. The Supplementary Fundamental Laws approved in 1907 provided, within limits, for freedom of press, speech, and association, and for security of life and property. The Constitutional Revolution marked the end of the medieval period in Iran.

The hopes for constitutional rule were not realized, however. Mozaffar o-Din's son Mohammad Ali Shah (reigned 1907-09), with the aid of Russia, attempted to rescind the constitution and abolish parliamentary government. After several disputes with the members of the Majlis, in June 1908 he used his Russian-officered Persian Cossacks Brigade to bomb the Majlis building, arrest many of the deputies, and close down the assembly. Resistance to the shah, however, coalesced in Tabriz, Esfahan, Rasht, and elsewhere. In July 1909, constitutional forces marched from Rasht and Esfahan to Tehran, deposed the shah, and re-established the constitution (Eghbal Ashtiyani, 2001, p. 154). The ex-shah went into exile in Russia. Although the constitutional forces had triumphed, they faced serious difficulties. The upheavals of the Constitutional Revolution and civil war had undermined stability and trade.

In addition, the ex-shah, with Russian support, attempted to regain his throne, landing troops in July 1910. Most serious of all, the hope that the Constitutional Revolution would inaugurate a new era of independence from the great powers ended when, under the Anglo-Russian Agreement of 1907, Britain and Russia agreed to divide Iran into spheres of influence. The Russians were to enjoy exclusive right to pursue their interests in the northern sphere, the British in the south and east; both powers would be free to compete for economic and political advantage in a neutral sphere in the center. Matters came to a head when Morgan Shuster, a United States administrator hired as treasurer general by the Persian government to reform its finances, sought to collect taxes from powerful officials who were Russian protégés and to send members of the treasury gendarmerie, a tax department police force, into the Russian zone. When in December 1911 the Majles unanimously refused a Russian ultimatum demanding Shuster's dismissal, Russian troops, already in the country, moved to occupy the capital. To prevent this, on December 20 Bakhtiari chiefs and their troops surrounded the Majles building, forced acceptance of the Russian ultimatum, and shut down the assembly, once again suspending the constitution. There followed a period of government by Bakhtiari chiefs and other powerful notables. Ahmad Shah, was born 21 January 1898 in Tabriz, who succeeded to the throne at age 11, proved to be pleasure loving, effete, and incompetent and was unable to preserve the integrity of Iran or the fate of his dynasty. The occupation of Iran during World War I (1914-18) by Russian, British, and Ottoman troops was a blow from which Ahmad Shah never effectively recovered.

With a coup d'état in February 1921, Reza Khan (ruled as Reza Shah Pahlavi, 1925-41) became the preeminent political personality in Iran; Ahmad Shah was formally deposed by the Majles (national consultative assembly) in October 1925 while he was absent in Europe, and that assembly declared the rule of the Qajar dynasty to be terminated. Ahmad Shah died later on 21 February 1930 in Neuilly-sur-Seine, France. (Shamim, 2000, p. 197)

The chief events of Fath- \square Ali Shah's reign (1797-1834), after overcoming his internal rivals, were the disastrous wars with Russia, the increasing contacts with Western powers, the establishment of relations with the British government, the inconclusive French attempts under Napoleon at securing the support of the shah against the British, the reform of the Persian army and improvement of its weaponry with assistance first from the British and later also from the French, the introduction of printing, the dispatch of students to Europe to study military and other sciences through the efforts mainly of his heir apparent \square Abbās Mirzā (q.v.), the deepening influence of the Shi \square ite clergy, increasing interference of Britain and Russia in Persian affairs, and the recognition, by some Persians, that, compared to the European states, the country was lagging behind and required a thorough overhaul of its institutions and a critical re-examination of its cultural attitudes. In 1814, following the diplomatic maneuvers of Sir Gore Ouseley (q.v. at iranica.com), the British envoy to Persia, a treaty was signed with Britain, according to which Persia was to cancel all commitments to countries that were at war with Britain, prevent the movement of such countries' armies on Persian soil, and declare war on Afghanistan should that country attack India. For its part, Britain agreed to assist Persia to achieve peace if a conflict should develop between Persia and a European power, and to send troops to assist Persia if the conflict should continue, a commitment that Great Britain did not honor in practice. The war with Russia was motivated by contending Perso-Russian claims over Caucasian territories. From the time of Peter the Great (r. 1682-1725), Russia had begun a policy of expansion with the ultimate goal of reaching the Persian Gulf and the Sea of Oman. It started by extending its protection to Georgia and also incited insurgence against Persia in some other regions of the Caucasus.

The Persians attempted to reestablish their rule, and a series of wars ensued that lasted about nine years (1804-13). The Persian forces were eventually defeated, and \square Abbās Mirzā, who was conducting the war on the Persian side, had to submit to the humiliating conditions of the Golestān Treaty (q.v.) that ceded to Russia Georgia, Dā \square gestān, eastern Armenia, Širvān, Bāku, Darband, Qara-bā \square , Šaki, Ganja, and upper Tāleš. The defeat was caused partly by the superior Russian firepower and the poor pay and maintenance of Persian soldiers. The Persian court's scant knowledge of developments in Europe in the Napoleonic era (1804-15) prevented the Persians from exploiting the shifting alliances and the hostilities among the European powers for its own ends. Golestan treaty was signed in Garbage suburbs in 11 chapters and one introduction on October 12th, 1813 A.D. by intercession of British ambassador, Sir Gaur Ouzli, Russia agent, Yermilouph as the commander of Georgia forces and Iran agent, Abolhasan Khan Shirazi (Publishing House of Documents, 1993, p. 143). The basis of this treaty was the amendment of Statukouo international law. It meant that those parts occupied by Iran and Russia belonged to themselves. Other contents are: Georgia states and cities, Dagestan, Baku, Darband, Shervan, Garbage, Shaky, Gandzha, Meghan, and a great part of Tallish were transferred to Russia. Iran had no right to navigate in Caspian Sea and thus many facilities were provided for Russian traders. Russia was charged to help each Fat Ali Shah's child who was appointed as successor.

Golestan treaty resulted in finishing the war in Caucasia. Caucasians had no fanaticism and partisanism and were willy-nilly satisfied with one of two governments. As a result, this treaty was a great promise for Caucasians and it made all pleased. But it did not determine the borders of two countries truly. Therefore, restarting the fire was possible because of disagreement among agents, and it caused Caucasians to go in fear. Consequently, the only interest of Golestan treaty was a temporary unstable peace between Iran and Russia for 13 years, namely till 1896 A.D (Kazemzadeh, 1991, p. 201) The second phase of the Perso-Russian wars (1826-28) resulted in an even more humiliating treaty, that of Torkamančāy (22 February 1828). According to this treaty Persia also lost Na \square javān, Eravān, and Ordubād. Persia was to pay Russia an indemnity equal to 10,000,000 gold tomans (art. VI; Eqbāl, p. 797) and was forbidden to have any fleet in the Caspian Sea; Persia also agreed to grant judicial immunity against prosecution to Russian residents in Persia, a capitulation which impinged on Persian sovereignty and became a model for other European powers demanding the same privilege. Furthermore, Russia was allowed to have a consul or a commercial agent in any Persian city it chose; the Russian subjects were allowed to purchase and own property and, if they engaged in trade, to own also storage space and shops; and no more than 5 percent tariff would be charged on imported Russian goods. As a concession, the Russians recognized the position of \square Abbās Mirzā as heir to the Persian throne, which in fact implied interference in Persian internal affairs.

In the meantime, disturbances in eastern Persia and problems with the governor of Afghanistan continued, while the government needed to dispatch contingents of the Persian army to several provinces, such as Yazd and Kermān, to reestablish order. Russia agents inserted some contents into this treaty and the complement to make Russia protectorate and hold special ceremonies for the entrance of their ambassadors to Iran. According to the supplement contents, Iranian governors and agents should make Russian political agents welcome everywhere in the beginning of their entrance to Iran borders and Iranian ministers should go to meet them while getting the capital and then they came to the king. Turkmanchy treaty was signed between Iran and Russia in 9 chapters in French. Now one Russian volume is available. After the imposing the treaty on Iran and so many advantages accruing to Russia, they chose apparently a friendly approach to Iran and expanded their political and military power little by little throughout Caucasus and then started to invade regions between Aral and Caspian Sea and a great area of Axus, namely Kharazm and Northern Khorasan.

4. Consequences of European Influence

Naser al-Din Shah succeeded Mohammad Ali in 1848 and reigned for forty-eight years. He faced growing European influence, which was difficult to combat due to the weakness of the Persian government. Government revenues were so low that they could not cover the lavish expenditures of the royal court, a situation that led the ruling class to accept bribes from outside power sources in exchange for favors that were contrary to national interests.

The prime minister, Mirza Taqi Khan Amir Kabir, tried to correct this situation by taking measures to centralize power. He also created new offices, reformed the tax system, and established a chain of command within the bureaucracy and provinces. Unfortunately, his efforts were halted due to jealousy and fear of his growing popularity and power. He was fired and ultimately assassinated in 1851. Closer association with European powers also had another impact. It led to the emergence of reformists such as Malkam Khan, who advocated that Persia could be strengthened politically and economically if it emulated and mastered the European methods. This line of thinking led to the creation of a cabinet modeled after those found in Europe. Meanwhile, financial difficulties compelled Naser al-Din Shah to give lucrative concessions to both Britain and Russia. (Amanat, 1997, p. 97) In 1890, the monarch gave Britain a monopoly on the tobacco trade in the country, and this turned out to be the straw that broke the camel's back. Upset with the constant submission to outside interests, the entire nation boycotted tobacco, which forced the shah to revoke the monopoly concession. However, this was not enough to appease the people, who continued to oppose the monarch's policies. Finally, he was assassinated in 1896 at the alleged urging of the well-known Islamic leader Jama al-Din al-Afghani. Soon, Naser al-Din Shah's son Muzaffar al-Din was proclaimed king.

5. The Constitution of 1906

Muzaffar al-Din Shah was often physically ill and was politically unable to reverse the tide of political and economic turmoil that had begun during his father's reign. On the contrary, he exacerbated the situation by his extravagant expenditures. He received two major loans from Russia, which he promptly spent on luxury items, including a trip to Europe. Meanwhile, masses of Persians were suffering from inflation and mounting poverty. This caused the populace to question, criticize, and finally revolt against the monarchy. Strikes took place all over, and religious services were withheld in protest. The monarch was unable to receive assistance from Russia, which was dealing with its own internal strife. Therefore, he had no choice but to promise the people a constitution. Soon they formed an assembly, composed of Qajar princes, merchants, religious leaders, artists, and landowners, to write a constitution, which was completed in the fall of 1906. Muzaffar al-Din Shah signed it on 30 December and died just days later. This constitution limited the powers of the royal family and supplanted it with the Majlis (Parliament) and a cabinet whose members had to be approved by the Majlis.

This constitution, however, faced challenges before it became a reality. After Muzaffar al-Din Shah's death, his successor, Mohammad Ali Shah, was able to garner Russian support and close down the Majlis. This started a prolonged struggle between the monarch and supporters of the constitution. Eventually, the supporters of the constitution were able to raise armies to march on Tehran and overthrow the new king, who was exiled to Russia. His eleven-year-old son, Ahmad Shah, was chosen as the shah, and the Majlis was repaired of the damages incurred in the military struggle. The country was in a vulnerable position, which the deposed king tried unsuccessfully to exploit in 1911. The new constitutional system did not survive.

Under the 1907 Anglo-Russian Agreement, Britain and Russia split the country into spheres of influence: Russia took the northern part of Persia, while Britain took the south and east. Faced with financial ruin, the Majlis had hired Morgan Shuster, an American administrator, to help put their finances in order. Both the Persian elite and the Russians criticized his hiring. The latter did not appreciate tax collectors approaching them in their sphere of influence. In fact, Russia demanded Shuster be fired. When the Majlis refused, Russian troops shut it down and with this action destroyed any hope for a constitutionally based system.

A movement to liberalize the government practices and to place its operations on the basis of law rather than the whims of the shah and his agents gradually grew as a result of the encounter with the West and the increasing awareness of the backwardness of the country. Some half measures were taken from time to time from Naser-al-Din Shah's time, but often poorly executed, and these did not satisfy the reformers. Writers such as Fath- \square Ali \bar{A} kund \bar{a} da (q.v.; 1812-78) Jam \bar{a} l-al-Din Af \bar{g} ani (q.v.; 1838-97), \bar{A} q \bar{a} Khan Kerm \bar{a} ni (q.v.; 1854-96), and Mirz \bar{a} Malkam Khan (1833-1908) kept fueling the fervor for a "just" government. A number of periodicals published abroad, but filtered into Persia, such as Ak \bar{t} ar (q.v.) in Istanbul, Q \bar{a} nun in London, and \bar{H} abl al-matin (q.v.) in Calcutta, served as sources of encouragement for changing the arbitrary rule of the Qajar government. The ulema, interested in a more genuine application of Islamic principles and greater power for themselves, and also responding to popular appeal against governmental abuses, joined forces with the liberals, all leading, eventually, to the issuance of the Constitutional Charter by Mo \bar{z} affar-al-Din Shah. The first Parliament (Majles) elected by quotas from different estates and layers of society, including Qajar princes, met on 7 October 1906 and provided a legitimate platform for thereformists to air their views and grievances. Soon two factions took shape among the deputies: one, the Socialist-Populist party (Ejetm \bar{a} \square iyun- \bar{A} mmiyun), a radical group, among whose leaders the fiery Sayyed \bar{H} asan Taqiz \bar{a} deh, the deputy from Tabriz, distinguished himself; and the other the Moderate Party (E \square ted \bar{a} liyun), which represented some of the traditional interests and privileges and opposed radical changes in the government system and social or political conditions.

A major achievement of the first Majles was to formulate the Supplement (Motammem-e Q \bar{a} nun-e as \bar{a} si) to the Constitutional Charter. Its 107 articles improved and defined the Constitutional Law by including a bill of rights; the division of the government power into legislative, executive, and judiciary; defining the powers of provincial and municipal councils, and the rights of the elected deputies to the Majles, the shah's rights, the ministerial responsibilities, organization of the judiciary and the independence of the judges, all more or less adopted from the Belgian Constitution. Thus the country was converted from an autocratic and arbitrary monarchy to a bicameral, constitutional one, even though the formation of the Senate was postponed and not instituted until the reign of Mo \bar{h} ammad-Rez \bar{a} Shah Pahlavi (William, 2009, p. 132).

7. World War I and Its Aftermath

Ahmad Shah was powerless against the British and Russian influence. In 1914, World War I started, and the Qajar monarch had no choice but to remain neutral. This, however, was not enough to keep Persia secure. British, Ottoman, and Russian armies fought on Persian soil and brought death and destruction to innocent Persian civilians; the war also gave the local population the opportunity to rise up against the Qajar monarch. At the end of World War I, Russia had its own revolution to contend with and was unable to maintain its influence in Persia. This provided the British with an opportunity to bring an order in their own favor. They supported Reza Khan (Reza Shah Pahlavi, 1878–1944) in a coup against Ahmad Shah. Reza Khan became the defense minister first, then prime minister, and ultimately the first shah of the Pahlavi dynasty, which formally ended Qajar rule.

Conclusion

The history of each society is a futurity of ups and downs got over by its nation. The basis of their future will be made by the past, particularly if their precedent returns to the ancient times. The Qajar dynasty began in Tehran in 1795 A.D. when Agha Mohammad Khan as the first king of Qajar crowned, and in tracing another six of them ruled so that Ahmad shah was the last one. During this dynasty, local governments in different parts of Iran were destroyed by fighting and compromise and replaced with a federal system followed central government. But constitutionalism was created in Iran for more conflicts between Qajar kings and liberals, resulted in holding parliament and transferring a part of king's authority to it. Qajar is counted among dissipated years in the history of Iran whereas this period needed civilization, industry, and great changes in governing. What Qajar kings put first was coronation guarding, pleasure and enjoying from the poor labor.

They fell Iran into decadence by their wrong policies on terms that Europe was developing day by day and prepared the way for visible and invisible long-lasting foreigners' influence on Iran. These kings not only did not have any understanding of colonial policies nature, but sometimes they accompanied them and took a main step to provide their interests. The wars between Iran and Russia as well as Golestan and Turkmanchy treaties are abject pages of Iran's history in the Qajar dynasty. Losing the rich and populous territories such as southern Caucasia, Georgia, and Armenia that is irreparable economically and militarily took Iran a great knock. According to these treaties, losing each part of Iran during the unwanted wars was as the most important irreparable event in the history of Iran. And now this period of history is gazed with desirously eyes.

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