A CRITICAL STUDY OF LAND REFORM IN IRAN UNDER MUHAMMAD REZA SHAH

ABSTRACT

THESIS
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BY
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ABSTRACT

The title of my thesis is A Critical Study of Land Reform in Iran Under Muhammad Reza Shah. It consists of six chapters. The first deals with the physical character of Iran. Iran has an area of 636,296 sq miles. Its interior is surrounded by heavily eroded mountain ranges. One of them is the Zagros range stretching from the northwestern part to the Persian Gulf and eastward into Baluchistan. The Elburz mountain chain runs along the south side of the Caspian to meet the border ranges of Khorasan.

The interior plateau is covered by loose stone and sand. A remarkable feature is a salt waste 200 miles long known as Kavir.

There are three large rivers in Iran, the Kazerun, the Atrak and Safid of which only the Kazerun is navigable. Soil patterns differ widely. The Caspian coastal region is rich. The semi-arid plateau is covered with coloured soil in grassy vegetation grows.

Iran has a complex climate. In winter a high pressure belt moves west and south while low pressure slasher over the Caspian and Persian Gulf. In summer lowest pressure prevails in the north. The temperature varies from a high of 120°F in Khuzistan to a low of 35 in Azerbaijan.

About 11 percent of the country is covered with forest mostly in the Caspian region. The Zagros mountains are covered with oak forests along with walnut, pear and pistachio. Almond berberies and wild fruit grow in dry plateau. Thorn shrubs grow in the Steppes and in the Caspian region.

The inhabitants of Iran are mostly the descendants of the Aryan tribes. The Kurd are of different race, while in Khuzistan, a mixed population, of the Arab stock as well as of the Aryan tribes are found. The language is Persian but the Kurd in the south west speak a different language. In Khuzistan the people of the Arab stock speak Arabic while in the north west in Azerbaijani people speak Turkish. There are some tribes who have different dialects. Bakhtiari and Lur tribes inhabiting western part speak Luri dialect. The Baluchi dialect is spoken in Baluchistan.
The economy is mostly agrarian. About 25 percent of the total land is arable, one-half of which is under cultivation. Wheat, barley, rice, cotton, tobacco and sugarcane are the main crops.

Iran is rich in mineral resources. In 1970 it was the world's fourth largest producer of oil, and the Iran National Oil Company had developed marketing agreements with more than 50 foreign countries. The industry's output was four million barrels a day, but after the Iran-Iraq war the balance has been disturbed and its oil production has declined much.

Chapter II deals with the history of Iran. The early history starts with the establishment of the Achaemenid dynasty in the 6th century B.C. The founder was Cyrus the Great who captured Babylon in 539 B.C. His successor Darius conquered Egypt in 525 B.C. During the great and great achievements as a rule as a conqueror, the empire was overthrown by Alexander in 330 B.C. Upon Alexander's death the Parthian were established by one of Alexander's generals which was finally overthrown by the Parthians. The Parthian empire was destroyed by Ardashir Babakan who founded the Sassanian dynasty which ruled from 226 A.D. to 637 A.D. The first ruler of the dynasty was Yazgiid I who was defeated by the Arabs in 637 A.D. in the battle of Qadisiya. Upon Yazgiid's death the Kharijs succeeded in establishing the Muslim rule in Iran. During the Sassanian period, the Iranian culture had reached its zenith which has exerted great influence on Islamic way of life. The early Muslim rulers laid the foundation of their rule on the Sassanian pattern. The language of Sassanian was Pahlavi and this language had great impact on Persian which was modelled on the pattern of the Pahlavi itself.

By the 8th century the Abbasid caliphate under whose governance Iran showed signs of disintegration. This resulted in the establishment of the Samanid, Ghurid and Samanid empires. Samanid dynasty was overthrown by the Chuznavid, a Turkish dynasty whose formidable ruler Muhammad Choro took the possession of the major part of Iran and had carried seventeen campaigns against India. When the Chuznavid rule grew weak, the Ghurid defeated the Chuznavid and established the Ghurid empire in the eastern part of Iran, in eastern Khorasan and
Afghanistan The Ghurids subsequently succeeded in establishing an empire in India.

The Seljuks, another Turkish tribe, established a strong empire in Iran after the Ghaznavids. The Seljuq empire broke up in the 13th century into a number of states, while during the 13th century, Iran saw the great political impact of the Mongol invasion brought about by Chingiz Khan whose grandson Hulagu sacked Baghdad, the metropolis of Islam, in 1258. Hulagu's successor founded the Il Khan dynasty which ruled about one hundred years was broken up into various states. Towards the end of the 14th century, Timur conquered most part of Iran and founded the Timurid empire which was disintegrated on the death of Shah Rukh, western part falling into the hands of the "Black Sheep" and "White Sheep" and Transoxiana fell to the Uzbeks.

The sixteenth century saw the foundation of the Safavid empire and the creation of a sense of national unity and the later Safvids the internal decline set in and Iran was subject to Afghan occupation which was evicted by Nadir Shah Afshar who ruled from 1736 to 1747. The Afsharids were succeeded by Karim Khan Zand (1750-1794) followed by the rise of the Qajar who continued to rule till 1925. During the Qajar rule Iran was subject to rivalry of foreign nations, primarily the Russians and the Britains and ultimately the country saw the establishment of the constitutional government. This was followed by the Pahlavi rule. In 1971 a coup d'etat took place and Reza Khan (subsequently Reza Shah) became the minister of war. Two years later the prime minister and in 1925 he was crowned as king. All extra territorial agreements were cancelled. In 1932 the Anglo-Persian oil company concession was withdrawn on the outbreak of the war, the Allied powers invaded Iran and Reza Shah abducted in favour of his son Muhammad Reza in 1941. Very soon a treaty was signed with Russia and Great Britain whereby the territorial integrity and independence of Iran were guaranteed. In 1945 an autonomous government was set up in Azerbaijan with the assistance of Russians. In May 1945, the Russian withdrew but had continued to support the democratic movement in Iran and Kurdistan. In 1947 an agreement was concluded with America providing an American military mission in Iran to cooperate with the Iranian ministry of war. In May 1951 Mr. Muaddiq who had led the campaign of the nationalisation of
oil became the prime minister. In August 1953, Musaddiq was overthrown by General Zahidi who resigned in April 1955 and was succeeded by Hassain Ali. In March 1957, a defence agreement was signed between Iran and U.S.A. In April 1957 Ali resigned and was succeeded by Dr. Minochihr Iqbal. In August 1960, Imam replaced Dr. Iqbal but very soon Imam resigned and Dr. Ali Amini was asked to form a new government. The parliament was dissolved and Dr. Amini had to resign and Asadullah Alam was made the prime minister who laid emphasis of the Land Reforms and the programme was approved by a referendum in Jan. 1963. In March 1964, Mr. Alam resigned and Hasan Ali Mansoor succeeded him. In May 1964, the second stage of land reform was passed by the Majlis.

In 1964, Iran started to have good relations with the U.S.S.R. from 1964 to 1965 Shah visited Moscow, thereafter an agreement was signed for the construction by the U.S.S.R. a steel mill. After the withdrawal of British forces from the Persian Gulf in 1971, the rivalry between the Arab and Iran over the supremacy in the region was revived. Iraq had the sovereignty over the whole water-way of Shatt ul Arab. In 1969, Iran decided to abrogate the treaty and in 1970, diplomatic relations between Iran and Iraq were broken. In 1973, subsequent to the Arab-Israeli War, the relations were restored. In 1975, an agreement was signed which provided that the Shatt ul Arab frontier will be the middle of the deepest shipping channel. This became the key issue so much so that a war with Iraq broke out in September 1980 which continued unbated till the shooting down by the U.S.A. an Iranian civil aircraft in 1983.

But internally signs of opposition to the Shah's regime became more and more evident from 1971. The ruthless activities of the SAVAK provided a handle to the opposition leaders to activise their efforts. During the years that followed, various prime ministers changed their hands, but the pressure from the opposition remained unabated. As a last resort, the Shah asked Bakhtiyar to form the Government. The latter dissolved SAVAK, stopped export of oil to Israel and supported the cause of the Palestinians. But these measures could not satisfy the opposition and at last the Shah had to leave the country on 15th Jan. 1979, never to return. Thereupon Ayatollah
Khomeini formed an Islamic Council in Paris. On Feb 11, 1979 Ayatullah arrived in Tehran, Makhkani had to resign and Dr. Bahrami was made the provisional prime minister. On the 1st April an Islamic Republic was established in Iran to be governed by a President, a Prime Minister, and a Majlis Shura of 700 Deputies. In December 1979 a revised constitution was framed in which the provision of Velayet-e-Faqih was made. The one holding this position is called Valla-e-Faqih. He has executive powers and holds the office till his death. The first Valla-e-Faqih was Ayatullah Khomeini himself.

Mehdi Bazargan resigned in Nov, 1979 and election to the Majlis took place in 1980 in which the Islamic Republican party emerged victorious with Ayatullah Bihishti as its leader. Subsequently the Islamic Revolutionary Council was dismissed and the government was formed in June 1981 with Mohammad Pajii as its prime minister. Bani Sadi was dismissed and fled to France. After a few days Ayatullah Bihishti along with his minister and twenty deputies were killed in a bomb explosion. Easly Hujjatul Islam Ali Khamnai was elected President. Now the moderate leader Hashimi Rafsanjani is the President of the Islamic Republic of Iran.

Chapter III deals with the Land Tenure System in Iran's history. No accurate information about tenure system during the Zoroastrian period is forthcoming. However, the land was owned by the feudal nobility and the dihqans the representatives of the government were responsible for the collection of tax. The peasants were attached to the land and had to perform 1 hour service.

After the Arab conquest of Iran the land divided into three categories:

1. Those conquered by force.
2. Those conquered by peaceful means.
3. Lands coming into Mullah ownership but remaining in possession of their owners on condition that they would pay kharij.
From the decline of the Suljuk dynasty onwards, the iqta system became more prominent in terms of land allocation. In practice, the iqta system was often linked with visits of the lord land and was initially liable to variation in the manner of its implementation. The holder of the iqta could have originally no military duties, but subsequently with the introduction of military duties, the iqta was divided into iqtas. In the present condition, it is further divided by the prince, or those whom they had in mind were entitled.

With the overthrow of the Suljuk and the invasion of Ghur, the khurasani condition of the iqtas took on a more defined structure. The country was divided into tracts and the settler population were subject to an imbalance by the ruler.

The population rose rapidly in this period due to increased cultivation and with the migration of people rich and of the populated and cultivated land became dry and unproductive. In due course the land fell into the hands of the landlord, who used their right to the land and land which was allocated to the ruling family, divided land which was titled and sold milky land was privatised property.

During this period, there was an increase in the holding and a decline in productivity and progress and the ruling class.

The religious revival continued in maintaining the position of the king by the introduction of the divine right of kings which elevated the whole range of political and social life. Now, instead of land tenure, the lord of the ruler, the ruler himself and the landowner became more hostile to the nobility of the lands to provide them with a quiet military force. In the later period, the land was sold to large areas from the direct control of the state. At first, this was a means of revenue for the military, the king and finally, it became direct private property,
During the period of the Shi‘a domination (At hurr,), order was towards relative control over the
whole region and the division of property and social
inversion led to great. inter-tribal clashes in the
region as a result of changing property, the situation
in some years return to the selling practice of the
past by the ruling Khans and his family who were
interested in the relative nature of his
monarchy and submission of society to the will of the
monarch b, telling him shillah the shadow of God.

Under the Otuhrh law was full observed on
the form of feudal which occurred era of great i.e
since the feudal was great on Khilah land in 11111 et
very such that it came of time became her duty

In the Juht the Qa‘ib domination was tribal
and tribal laws both fam be had. LUI the
elder son and the other children who were for the oil
tribal lives and prime and the laws were centered on the
tribal lives were common where we
consider enter local tradition in the tribal lives

In the control the payment was that the
were to be paid both in kind and kind equally put in
practice the equal proportion which the persons paid
while the land owners preferring to pay in

The main source of the wealth of the country was the
land it is producer of the land and still occupied
considerable at the country; but because of being in
stable it made little contribution to the annual
sum in the general land only was to claim, the
Khilah land private property A great deal at the country,
was lost from the direct control of the country to
since legal land was sold both at Khilah and
out as private property Another class of land were tribal
land put to a harsh control over the tribal area w
on of the most pressing problems faced by the Qajar, was
finding a way to collect taxes from the tribal chiefs. He
Khan and his Qajar government tax collectors were
confronted with the task of securing the payment of taxes
conditioned on military service.

In the first part of his report, he noted:

"In order to ensure the proper collection of taxes
and maintain order, it was necessary to establish the
authority of the government in the various
constitutions, regions, and provinces. It was

understood that no tax could be imposed on the land
without the consent of the local authorities. In order to
establish the authority of the government in the
constitutions, regions, and provinces, a

committee was formed to examine the

constitution, regions, and provinces, which was

ably led by a prominent local official. The committee

made several recommendations for reform,

including the establishment of a

number of new institutions.

The local authorities were given powers to

establish and administer the tax system.

The tax system was reorganized.
Reza Shah's Reforms

After the First World War, Reza Shah (subsequently Pahlavi) emerged as the most powerful person in the Iranian political scene. He quickly took control of the head of state. He introduced the shah's financial, administrative, and military reforms in 1911 to establish a uniform land tax throughout the country. In Feb 1911, the government monopoly over the law of land and water was established in several districts, and the registration of land and real estate was initiated. On February 13th, a further law concerning the establishment of a registration department was passed. When a village was jointly owned, it could be sold as a joint holding, known as Mucha. In March, a new agreement concerning the exploitation of land and water was to be concluded with all the owners. The law of Haidariyah in 1909 permitted the village official to prevent the possession or property with 20th Araf. The law concerning villages had been passed according to which the head man was the representative of the neighborhood and was responsible for the execution of laws and regulation. Article 2 of the law of 20th Araf 1311 appointed the village editorial board. The district officials prevailed possession of all property in the district on 20th Araf. In addition to the above measures, a body of law concerning land use was published in the civil code, the chapter two of which describes various rights which were exercised over property, so may occur to put on fines the number toll.

The main rights are three:

1. the right of ownership
2. the right of use of

In civil code has special provision for these matters. The eminent, inheritance, dead land, crop hiring, etc., in Article 443. Reza Shah issued other laws concerning the conditions about the
Another law empowered the minister for a period of three years to control the law of Mihr 1321 Minister of Finance was put into practice for the first time in Khuzestan. From that date, the laws who administered the business of the government of Khuzestan.

The British government of Mihr, some a development. The British government of the regulation of the economy of the central institute was charged with the regulation of Khuzestan which had been reform only a few years before. The British ended the administration of Mihr and focused on the political and economic development of the country.

1) Full Reform and the regulation of land, land ownership and the redistribution of the land in the form of an estate (or the term of all land) of each individual of our village.

2) The public ownership of all water sheds of the river for the purpose of conservation, management and better utilization of their resources.

3) The public and private industrial and commercial development and the support of industrial and individual to raise funds of construction and development of industry, especially in the area of investment opportunities to increase the income of particular. It is well known in general that if there are no industries in a country, the economy of the country will fall. We must aim to have a variety of industry in the country so that the economy of the country will be flourishing.

4) The control of the local laws and the situation of the local affairs with the support of women, students, workers and university students in Iran.
within the fram work of what is called White Revolution designed to appeal to and benefit the majority of Iranian people of different religious views and the leaders in the
traditional monarchies in Such a divided the
fram work of the fram work and made it comparable to that of the
th century outlook of the world.

Chapter V dealt with the land reform. It was a step toward the
with the irrevocable law of
1962. It was an improvement over all the previous
where the land reform of 1960 in a few
of the following points:

1. It limited the holding to one village only.

2. It fixed composition to be given to the land lords.

3. It allocated the land to the peasant cultivating the land.

4. It made membership in cooperative unions a condition of receipt of land.

the law of 21 January 1963 and the AdditionalArticle
of 17 June, the regulation for the execution of the
two instrument a number of ministerial decree and finally
cs of the Land Reform Council, it upheld the law
of 21 June and the legal basis of the reform.

The main division of the law was to limit the amount
of land which an individual could hold to one village which
is defined as a rural population and the place or
and more of a number of families engaged in
agricultural operations in one village lands and the majority of whom came from the village.

The Land Reform Council made the following decree on
21 June 1963:

1. In all cases or groups of houses were included in
one registered village they were to be considered
as a village.
In the valley and in the hill the all and the moor was included; in the hill and the moor was a village and a village was included; so that one will

In each of the several districts worked and cultivated several fifties of land, which in the valley and in the hill, and in the village and moor, are belonged to the same part of the river, was to be leased to the part of the river in which the prince lived.

In the order of the transfer of the land, the admittance of land, returns laid down in Article 11 of the law, to the surety of the order, the government would appeal such land in payment of the price and would transfer it to the tenants living in that valley at the price for which it is bought with the prince.

In the case of land was to be transferred with the rights, upon article 11 forbade the government to sell it to the present below a certain limit the will to the price in instalment, but if he failed to pay three instalment without failure, he would recover his claim over the

And the lord of the basin of the district and the law of the prince, 1/2 of the nominal price; 1/2 of the price of the tenor; the village bought by the

A council had been formed to supervise the
operation of the farms. In division were set aside
from an area called land, from which men were
appointed by a headman.

In each of the villages there were small plots
supplied with seeds and livestock and poultry,
the duties of each village. Operations in
operations common to the whole village were to be
performed through committees.

Articles laid down the duties of land owners and
operators throughout the country. The duties of the
operators follow:

1. To keep and maintain a house and to pay the rent thereon.
2. To pay the water and electric bills.
3. To do the work of operation by power or rated pump.
4. To provide road.
5. To provide and maintain a well, and to keep it in
6. To pay the due to village headmen and other officials.
To provide information on agricultural and social matters.

Disputes between the landlord and peasants on matters relating to agriculture were filed to the official of the land reform organization.

The land reform was to bring about changes in social, political, and economic conditions of the rural people. It was an improvement upon the system of distribution of land and the land up of villages, while it also affected the condition of land by breaking the political, social, and economic power of landlords and by making the members of a cooperative society the owners of the land. It did this by giving them the right to run their own lives.

The situation of the land of Jan. 16 came to be known as the first stage of the land reform. While the execution of the official till 1917 did not come to be known as the final stage.

The land reform was put into operation in March 1917, which was the most vital district with the most difficult.

The reform gained widespread support in many areas, and landlords were in support of the law, but the intellectual community regarded the execution was by the left and the official did not. Their preference was for the collective farming.

When the land reform took place, landlords were forced to submit the declaration of their state as required under the law. In order to avoid delay in the transfer of land, they paid the money regulation, which provided for the transfer of joint tenants of land old to the government in the proportion they held under the existing division of villages into households.

Upon the amount went to the operation of land reform, the central region, some of others, went to the land reform,
The practice of redistributing past holdings was common under the Roman system. In the 1st and 2nd centuries CE, land reform was a frequent topic. The amount of land recorded in the libri decernum was less than the amount actually paid to the landowner. Under the Roman system, it was necessary...

Their were some claims in the period of cultivation that land was under production and which had been turned into the past. There were economic reasons for this, and it was necessary...

In both the north and south parts of the Roman provinces, land was exchanged or sold from person to person. For example, in the north, land was larger, and the landowners had more land. In the south, land was smaller, and the landowners had less land. In both places, the people exchanged their land to make a profit...

These practices were not based on the return of land from the former owner. The area of land was not large, and it was not profitable.

The cooperatives were, however, more successful in the south. In the north, they were less successful and led to further land reform. However, they had been difficult to implement due to the specifics of each region.

In the north, the cooperatives were more successful, contributing towards the achievement of the common good. They had many benefits, and it was beneficial for the area. However, they had been difficult to implement due to the specifics of each region.
oc] condition that actually limited the community
influence to the point that in many regions, new
followers believed that their position of privilege
was jeopardized, and thus a rift formed from the
opportunity afforded by the land available.
In many cases, the value of the land,
could be increased under the same
elevation with the obvious advantage of the
spruce trees being
in the immediate vicinity of the
crop. The
land was
being cultivated for the
same
purpose,
which
left
the
farm
in
a
really
advantageous
position.

...
In order to count the number of will land holding

This is a small land holder in government,

But he may think they will not get power and that it will not lead to the equal right for all.

And this with land reform established in 1860,

A bill for the bill at the country is extended to the whole of the country in principle we have

revised also and the land reform

It is a fixed and the country is sure at it.

This has been done with the official.

During this

We proceeded and how the official was

Looked in this way, it is "last case" in under the second

The reform had until it is found from the

The land reform did not contribute much to it in

So been in the one who had received and the other who

And the difference in real to be said by present

It had until the cultivation in the first stage and

You know me in the second quarter

Of course, all well, not any between the two classes of

However in the in which farmer get to have had been

A representative in the condition of such a

But a small amount of the one for more

In order to have and the other to cultivate the land to

Village in which

So all method of still at and been concluded

Under the condition the improvement in the standard of

Buildings in and,

And despite the states under the

Provision in the case of a second right in second two

And which is according to the established and

Still to competitive to set up and the second set as

A different world of condition

In many cases the things to sell and demand

We were not low

We put the agricultural outlook toward for the

Industrial development of the country.
At the inception of the 1950s, the state of food prices had improved, as might be expected in a country which had just emerged from the post-war recovery period. The introduction of new technologies, especially in the field of irrigation, led to a significant increase in agricultural production. However, the distribution system, which had been established during the war, was not capable of handling the increased supply of food products. This led to a situation where food prices continued to rise, further exacerbating the economic hardship of the populace. As a result, the government decided to intervene in the market, implementing measures to control food prices and stabilize the economy. These measures included the establishment of state-owned food stores, which were charged with the task of purchasing and distributing food at regulated prices. This helped to stabilize the market and reduce the pressure on the currency. In the long run, these efforts were successful in improving food availability and reducing prices, which had a positive impact on the economy and the standard of living of the population.
the even the contributions farming, especially in the sphere of water provision for irrigation, were to be reduced over the ten years after the revolution as they had been before. An integration of the traditional water and farming systems proceeded later, in 1960, than any time before. Accumulated progress in managing land and water diminished as planned farms moved away from the country. New farming systems were put to replace the traditional system with the obvious result that output fell behind population growth.
Date: 23.03.92

This is to certify that Mr. Mohammad Haroon has prepared his thesis entitled "A Critical Study of Land Reform in Iran Under Muhammad Reza Shah" under my supervision. His work is the original contribution in the field of Iran's Land Reform Programme. I have found it fit for submission for the award of the degree of Ph.D. in West Asian Studies (Economics).

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Supervisor
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ALIGARH (INDIA)
1991
Dedicated
To
Professor Nazir Ahmad
Professor Emeritus, A.M.U., Aligarh
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A Ph.D. thesis of this magnitude required many years of research and wide help from many quarters. In connection with carrying out this research I came across many difficulties including the paucity of enough material. However, at last I have completed the work.

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(Mohammad Haroon)
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Preface

The available material for a critical study of Land Reforms in Iran is very meagre, very very few scholars in the east and west have come forward to have a serious study of this subject. The only exception of Ms A.K.S. Lambton who had the privilege of travelling through the villages of Iran during her extensive tour programmes in 1962, 1964, 1965, 1966 and 1968. She had occasions to meet the peasants, the landowners, officials of the societies and federations, and of the Banks for credit etc and had thus obtained first hand information about the agriculture problems of the country. After acquiring such information she sat up to compose her book in which all the points have so well been co-ordinated that the book had turned to be the most excellent piece of research work. And so far as my knowledge goes no other writer had ventured to do the job in such a commendable manner with the result that the book of Ms Lambton remains to be a unique composition not equalled by any one else. Her book, as she in a tone of scholar's humbleness says, may inspite of its imperfections contribute in some measure to a fuller comprehension of what had been achieved by the Persian Land Reform and of the problems which it still faces.
Thus, there was no alternative but to fall back on this book and quote from it, extensively for which I should be excused. For study like this a tour to Iran is a must and even then it would not necessarily ensure an improvement what Ms Lambton has written.
PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF IRAN

Iran is known by two names: Iran and Persia. The name Persia is of western origin and only in the Middle Ages began to be used for the regions occupying the Iranian plateau. It is derived from the Greek-Roman appellation "Persae" (=Persis) for the Achaemenids. Farsi (=Pars) is the Muslim term for Persis and Farsi is the language of Farsi (Pars) which is the Islamic form of the western term "Persian".

The form "Iran" is of Pahlavi origin and goes back to an earlier form "Ariana" originally an adjective meaning Aryan. Now it is the most common form. But the name of language is Farsi (Persian) and not Iranian which has a different connotation.

Iran has an area of 636,296 square miles and a population of about 57,799,204. It is bounded to the north by the U.S.S.R. and the Caspian Sea, and to the west.

4. This is the modern boundary which had been at variance during the course of history.
by Turkey and Iraq, to the south by the Persian Gulf and the
Gulf of Oman, and to the east by Pakistan and Afghanistan.
More than 30 percent of its 4865 mile boundary is sea-coast.
The capital is Tehran.

The Landscape

A series of massive, heavily eroded mountain ranges surrounds Iran's high interior basin. Most of the
country is above 1500 feet, one-sixth of it over 6500 feet.
In sharp contrast are the coastal regions outside the
mountain ring. In the north, the 400 mile strip along the
Caspian Sea, never more than 70 miles wide, falls sharply
from the 10,000 feet summits to the marshy lake's edge, 90
feet below sea level.

The Zagros range stretches from the border with
the Armenian Soviet Republic in the northwest to the
Persian Gulf and then eastward into Baluchistan. It is
drained on the west by streams and water fertile valleys.
The land is much rugged and populated largely by nomads.

1. Encyclopaedia Britannica, p. 821.
2. Various Republics in U.S.S.R. have declared their independ-
dence and the U.S.S.R. exists no more.
The Elbuz mountain chain runs along the south shore of the Caspian to meet the border range of Khurasan to the east. The highest peak is 18,386-foot snow-clad mt. Demavend very significant in the Iranian history, and in Persian literature and culture.

The portion of the desert region – the arid interior plateau – known as Dasht (دشت) are covered by loose stones and sand merging into fertile soil on the hill sides. The most remarkable feature of the plateau is a salt waste 200 miles long and half as wide known as the Kavir (کویر). Cut by channels of intermittent streams, it is virtually impenetrable. Its eastern portion is called Kavir-e-Lut (کویر لوت), the site of the legendary city of Lut mentioned in the Quran.

1. It is believed that the prehistoric Persian King Zahhak was imprisoned in this mountain.

2. A wide and unfertile sallish land (Farhang-i-Moin Vol-III p. 311:9)

3. Lut was a contemporary and nephew of Abraham when the city of Sodom was distrayed for its wickedness. he was saved as he was just (Quran, Surah VI, verse 86 note 906) For the Biblical verse, see Abdullah Yusuf Ali, Glorious Quran, Surah VII, verses 80-84, note 1040.
Drainage and Soil

There are three large rivers in Iran, the Karun, the Atrak and Safid. Of these only the Karun is navigable, the other two are too steep and irregular. All streams are seasonal and variable, spring floods do much damage, while in summer there is little water flow when streams disappear.

Soil patterns differ widely. The Caspian coastal region is rich in brown forest soil which helps growing abundant sub-tropical vegetation. Mountain soil are shallow layers over bed rock. Natural erosion moves the finer soils into the valleys. The semi-arid plateau lying above 3000 feet are covered with brown coloured soil in which grassy vegetation grows. The soil is slightly alkaline and contains some organic material and is infertile.

Climate

Iran has a complex climate. In winter a high-pressure belt moves west and south to the interior of the Iranian Plateau, while low pressure slashes over the Caspian, and the Persian Gulf. In summer lowest pressure prevails in the north. Low pressure in Pakistan generates
Bad-i-Shamal, which blows from February to October north-westerly, and the "120 days" summer wind some time with velocities of 70 miles per hour in Sistan. Warm wind from the Arabian sea brings heavy moisture from the Persian Gulf resulting in unbearable heat and humidity.

Temperatures vary from a high of 123°F in Khuzistan as the head of Persian Gulf to a low of -35°F in Azerbaijan in the north-west. The annual average rainfall is 14 inches. Winter is generally the rainy season for the country as a whole. The Caspian plain is very fertile. It has luxuriant forests, swamps, and rice paddies and is densely populated. Temperatures may rise to 100°F and humidity to 98 percent.

Vegetation

About 11 percent of the country is covered with forest, most extensively in the Caspian region. In this region are found broad leafed, vigorous trees, usually oak, beech, elm, walnut, hornbeam etc. Thorny shrubs also grow in this part.

1. It blows from the north direction; hence this name is given (see Farhang-i-Moin, Vol. II p. 2074).
2. Encyclopaedia of Britannica, p. 823.
The Zagros Mountains are covered with semihumid oak, forests along with walnut, pear, pistachio etc. Willow, polar and plane trees grow in the ravines together with several varieties of creepers. Almond, berberies and wild fruit trees grow in the dry plateau. Thorn shrubs grow in the steppes, while artemisia is found at medium elevations of the desert plains. Oases support polar, date palm, willow, plum, mulberry trees, vines etc. In swamp region reeds and grass grow abundantly.

People and Population

Iran is a multilingual and diverse culture society. About 48 to 50 percent speak Persian, 23 percent other languages of Indo-European dynasty. Iranians are the descendants of the Aryan tribes. The Kurds, a fierce nomadic people, live in the western region and have a separate language, and culture. The Kurds also inhabit the northern region of Iraq and the southern part of Turkey, and they have the same language and culture whether in Iran or in Iraq or Turkey. Also inhabiting the western mountain are the Lurs among them the Bakhtiyari tribes live in the

1. The author of the above says that the Kurds have a separate religious belief: but it is not true. They are mostly Sunnis; some are Shia as well.
Zagros Mountains west of Isfahan. Both the Lurs and the Bakhtiyari tribes speak Luri, a Persian dialect. The late Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlawi's father Reza Shah belonged to the Bakhtiyari tribe. The Baluch, the agrarian semi nomadic group reputed for their excellent horsemanship inhabit Baluchistan, the eastern part of which is Pakistani territory. The latter country has a separate province called Baluchistan. The Armenians with a different ethnic heritage have maintained their Indo-European linguistic identity and their concentration is in Isfahan, Tehran and Azarbijan. There are two important ethnic Turkish groups, one Qashqai in the Shiraz area and the other is Turkoman of Khurasan. They speak Turkish. The Assyrians are concentrated in the northwest and the Arabs live in Persian Gulf islands and in Khuzistan.  

Religions groups

The vast majority of Iranians are Muslims, mostly of the Shia sect. The Kurds, the Turkomans and Bluchs are mostly Sunnis. The religious minorities are Christians, Jews, and Zoroastrians. Christians constitute the largest

1. Ibid p. 2842
minority group. The Zoroastrians were concentrated in Yazd and Kirman. The Bahi and Bahai, though ethnically Iranian have a different religions sect. After the recent revolution, the Babis and Bahais have left the country and settled in America and some other western countries. They speak Persian.

**National Economy**

In the early 1970s Iran had one of the highest

1. Their religious book is Avesta which was supposed to be revealed on Zoroaster, their prophet in the 7th century B.C. (see E.G. Browne, A Literary History of Persian, vol. I p. 28) the extant books and religious formulae of the Avesta are divided into five sections, the Yasna, the Visheda, the Vendidad, the Yashts, and the Khurda Avesta (see Browne, Ibid pp. 99-101).

2. The rise of the Babi sect, which began in the later year of Mohammad Shah's reign was an event of the most far reaching significance, and forms the subject of an extensive literature not only in Persian and Arabic but in English, French, German and other European languages. Its founder was Syed Ali Mohammad of Shiraz who claimed to be the Bab (gate) of the twelfth Imam, Imam Mahdi. He was put to death in 1856. (For details see Browne, A Literary History of Persian, vol. 4, pp. 149-51, l53-54, 156-57 etc.

3. The founder of the sect which was an offshoot of the Babi religion, was Abbas Nuri a follower of Bab subsequently termed as Bahaullah. He was born in Tehran in 1892. His follower called themselves God and him the creator of God. One of his verses reads:

   "Men say thou art God, and I am moved to anger, Raise the veil, and submit no longer to the Shame of God head."

   (E.G. Browne, A Literary History of Persian, vol. IV p. 151)
economic growth rate among the developing countries. Between 1965 and 1971 the gross national product increased at the average annual rate of ten percent because of vigorous industrialization. During this period the cost of living remained stable and the Iranian currency maintained parity with western currency. But after the Revolution the cost of living has gone so high that Tehran is considered to be the costliest city of the world. The official rate of Rial is almost the same as in 1971 but it has come down to such an extent that one U.S. Dollar fetches 130 to 140 Rials in the market.

Sources of National Income

Despite some structural changes Iran is basically an agrarian economy. Although 25 percent of the total land is potentially arable, only one half of the arable land is under cultivation. Almost half of the active population is engaged in agricultural activities which provide 1/5 of the gross domestic product. In

2. In 1971 the official rate was 75.75 Rials per U.S. Dollar, and 183 Rials per sterling.
1971 about 17,500,000 acres were devoted to wheat, barley and rice, about 7,40,000 to Cotton, 50,000 to tobacco, 25,000 to sugar. Olive variety of fruits, tea, spices are also commercial crops.

Forest cover as much as agriculture. The largest and most valuable were in the Caspian region. Previously forest wood had been in use for fuel. In 1963 the Government nationalised the forest and now the use of wood fuel has been replaced by a fuel by oil and natural gas. Fishing is an important source of national income. This industry was producing about four thousand tons per annum from the Caspian sea only. The Persian Gulf is also important from the point of fishing industry.

Mineral resources

In 1970 Iran was the world's fourth largest producer of oil and the largest exporter of oil. Its reserves were about seventy thousand million barrels, 11 percent of the world total.

1. Ibid pp. 824-25
Production was concentrated in the south west but now oil has been discovered in Qum and the Kavir-i-Lut as well as under the offshore waters of the Persian Gulf. In 1971 National Iranian Oil Company had signed marketing agreements with more than 20 foreign countries and produced 10 percent of the country’s petroleum. The industry’s output was four million barrels a day. About 16 percent was processed in five refineries and the rest was exported in crude form.

Natural gas found in the south as well as in the Elburz mountains and in Khurasan is a valuable asset. Reserves estimated at 214,000,000,000 cubic feet were the sixth largest in the world. A 708 miles pipe line was completed in 1970 running from the southern oil field to the Soviet town of Astara on the Western shore of the Caspian.

Iran is rich in terms of the possession of mineral wealth which has not been properly utilized. Coal is found near Tehran and in Kerman totalled only 32,70,000 tons in 1969. Some 44,500 tons of Chromium was discovered near Bandar Abbas.
Lead in combination with Zinc and other minerals, is found widely scattered. Two major mines and process plants were in operation by 1970. Copper was obtained for centuries from small mines discovered in a belt extending from the Pakistani to the Soviet border. Iron ore mine near Yazd, Arak and Kirman feeds the 6,50,000 ton capacity steel plant in Isfahan opened in 1971. An Ahvaz factory was turning out 1,20,000 tons of steel pipe annually.

Cement production is centred in the provinces of Tehran, Fars, Khuzistan and Qazvin. It amounted to about 2,500,000 tons in 1970.

The petrochemical industry concentrated in the south has received setback due to Iraq-Iran war in which the southern region of Iran was the target of heavy bombing and shelling.

Hydroelectric and other power sources

The need to develop power resources, being essential to industrial development, was clearly recognised in Iran and by 1970 a national electrification network was in operation having 485 power stations including 1. The New Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1973-74, p. 825.
hydroelectric installations. The use of oil and gas in power plants was rapidly growing. The abundant supply of gas was the greatest potential power source. Atomic energy used for research purposes, was being produced on a small scale by the University of Tehran. The eight year war with Iraq disturbed the balance in every sphere of activities including power sources and now Iran has started building its economy etc. but still it is in the grip of rising prices and declining economy.

Foreign trade

Despite the efforts for self sufficiency the value of Iran's imports increased by eight percent over the preceding year 1969-70. The country imported machinery, iron, steel, chemicals and automobiles from West Germany and U.S.A. Export value was ten percent above the previous year. About 89 percent export trade was oil and petroleum products. Other exports included carpets, cotton and fruits.

Economic Planning

Economic planning was initiated in Iran in 1946.

1. Ibid. p. 825
2. Ibid. pp. 826-27.
Allocations for successive plans indicated the strengthening economy, growing from $ 65 crores for the 1st plan to $ 1100 crores for the 4th plan. The major items included in the development plan were agriculture, mines industries, power communications and social services.

Taxation

The tax structure included 10 percent income tax, corporation taxes, heavy tariffs on manufactured goods and excises on both manufactured products and utilities. The government received 53 percent of its income in 1970 from its taxes, exclusive of oil royalties. But since then the whole structures has changed.

Transportation

The adverse nature of geographical conditions has greatly restricted the growth of communication in Iran. The country is very large in comparison to the size of its population. Its population is widely scattered. In the absence of navigable rivers, inadequate rail and air transportation, roads are of primary importance. In 1971

1. Ibid. pp. 826-27.
2. Ibid. p. 827
the country had about 27,000 miles of roadways of which about 7,000 miles paved, about 13,000 gravel and the rest undeveloped. A paved highway connecting Pakistan with Turkey could not be completed.

In 1971 the railway was linked with Europe via Turkey. An extension eastward to Singapore was projected under the auspices of United Nations Economic Commission for Asia and Far East-ECAFE- but it was not completed. However Iran's portion was completed as far as Meshhad in 1971.

There was also a connection with the Soviet rail system. But all the development plans were abandoned due to the eight year war with Iraq and the declining economy thereafter.

Port facilities

Iran's sea-trade was served by five ports on the Persian Gulf in addition to oil industry's outlet at Abadan and Kharg island, the latter being the world's largest terminal. Khurramshahr and Bandar Shapur handled 75 percent of non-oil import-export trade. The largest port, Bandar Abbas had inadequate land connections. The Bushahr J. Thid. p. 827.
shipyard served Iran's merchant marine company. But due to Iran-Iraq war all the ports have been heavy bombarded so as to become unfit for carrying on sea trade for a long time to come.

Air Transport

Almost all the major cities of Iran are served by the country's 23 airports all of which are capable of handling jets. Tehran and Abadan were international airports but the latter was destroyed in the Iran-Iraq and is incapable of handling large craft.

Education

Compulsory education laws were ratified in 1943 and until 1970 of the total population only 28 percent were literate and 58 percent of the elementary age group were enrolled in schools. A literacy corps was established in 1962, and by 1970 the corps enrolled 3,70,000 pupils of primary stage. The enrollment of high school was about 10,00,000.

The University of Tehran is the most important

1. Ibid. p. 827.
2. Ibid p. 827.
University. It was opened in 1934. By 1970 seven more Universities, 44 more colleges and 100 technical schools were in operation. In the meantime a few more universities and colleges were opened and the number of university students about 76,000 in 1970 has been multiplied. In seventies the number of Iranian students studying abroad was 20,000. This number may have increased as a large of students studying in America have preferred to remain in America and some other western countries rather than returning Iran to serve their mother land.

Health

Although health facilities were inadequate even prior to Islamic Revolution, efforts are being made to increase health facilities so as to cope with the conditions available. Before the Revolution 40 percent of the entire medical doctors concentrated in Tehran at the cost of the rural and tribal areas. To meet the shortage of medical facilities in rural area 400 health units have been opened to offer treatment to almost half of Iran's 50,000 villages. After the revolution special attention has been paid to 1. Ibid. p. 827.
rural health service and even foreign doctors have been asked to serve in villages.

**Traditional Crafts**

The main centres of manufacturing of carpets are Keshan, Kirman and Isfahan. Some 4,00,000 workers were producing about 4,00,00,000 square feet of carpets and rug which are used locally as well as are exported. In hand woven cloth industry about 45,000 weavers were engaged in producing velvets, printed cotton, wool brocade, shawls and cloth-shoes. A wide range of articles are made of various metals whose centres are Tehran (gold); Shira', Isfahan and Yazdjan (Silver); and Keshan (Copper). Decorative articles in wood are produced in Isfahan, Tehran, Shiraz, Rasht, Kizaia etc. These articles are both for domestic use as well as for export purposes. Machine made ceramic tiles were produced in Tehran but hand made tiles and mosaics, an ancient Persian art, richly designed and beautifully coloured, continued to supply a growing market.

**Fine Arts**

It has been rightly realised in Iran that an...
artificial imitation of Western styles in architecture has no relevance in the country's climate; so the Iranian styles modified to serve the modern needs are encouraged.

Since Islam does not encourage painting and sculpture, the Iranian artists devoted themselves to the other media like calligraphy, illumination, book-binding, miniature paintings, carpet-making etc., which resulted in the production of high class articles of art in Iran which were in great demand in the world market. A look in Pope's Book of Persian Art would show the impressive contribution of Iranians to art which in some cases remain unmatched. The European and American museums are flooded with most valuable art pieces produced in Iran during the course of history. The Moghul rulers in India continued the Persian traditions. They even patronised the painters as well with the result that a number of Indian painters produced high class art pieces including painting and miniature paintings which are preserved in Western museums and libraries.

Race & Language

Iran has numerous ethnic groups. In the

1. Ibid., p. 828.
 central plateau there occurs a sub-race termed as Irano-Afghan; in the mountain districts there are a number of smaller groups of separate racial composition. A number of nomads, including the Bakhtiare tribes, seem to be of Kurdish stock. Turki (Mongoloid) strains are apparent in Qashqai tribes and the same Turki influence is again apparent in the racial composition in eastern region specially around Mashhad. Smaller groups from the Caucasus (Georgians and Circassians) are represented in Azarbijan. The southern province of Khuzistan and adjoining area is dominated by the people who reckon their lineage from the Arabs; while the western part is inhabited by the Kurds who are of a different race.

With so many ethnic groups, it is not surprising that various languages and dialects are current in Iran. The Persian language which is called Farsi in Iran has the dominating position, being the lingua franca, as well as the language of belles letters. The other dialects current in various parts are Kurdish, Turki, Luri, Baluchi, Armenian etc.
The history of Iran starts with the establishment of the Achaemenian dynasty in the 6th century B.C.¹. The founder of the dynasty was Cyrus² the great. After defeating the Median emperor (in 529 B.C.) he captured Babylon. Cyrus was succeeded by Cambyses who conquered Egypt in 525 B.C. Darius the Great reduced the tribes of the Armenian mountains and extended his dominion to the Caucasus. During his reign wars broke out with Greece and in 490 B.C. the Persian army suffered a defeat. Xerxes was the successor of Darius and he made an attempt to avenge the earlier defeat but with no conspicuous success. The empire was finally overthrown by Alexander who defeated the Persian army at Arbela in 331 B.C., and burnt Persepolis, the capital. The ruins of this metropolis, situated at a distance of about 30 miles in the north of Shiraz, can be seen even today and speak of a high tradition of culture, specially in architecture. The death of Alexander was followed by a struggle between his generals, one of whom,

². For details refer to The Encyclopaedia Britannica, pp. 833-841.
Seleucus, took whole of Iran and founded the Seleucid empire. But it was eclipsed with the rise of the Parthians, who were succeeded by the most illustrious dynasty of Pre-Islamic Persia, viz., the Sassanians which ruled over Iran from 226 A.D. to 637 A.D. The founder of the dynasty was Ardshir, son of Bahak, commonly known as Ardshir Babakan. This empire, whose capital was at Madain near Baghdad, continued the traditions of the Archaemenians, though it never equalled the latter empire in extent. The Sassanian monarchy was a religious and civil institution. The monarch who ruled by divine right was absolute. His autocracy was limited by the power of Zoroastrian hierarchy and feudal aristocracy. In the reign of Qubad (488-531) a movement of revolt led by Mardak gained ground but Qubad's successor, the renowned Naushirwan, restored the Zoroastrian orthodoxy at the cost of military despotism. The Sassanians were occupied with wars with the Roman Empire in the West, and with nomads from central Asia in the east. The Sassanian empire was noted for its administrative reforms and cultural development which had great impact on the administrative system of the subsequent Muslim empires. The Sassanian culture too had influenced the Muslim culture in its varied form. The Pahlavi
language which was the official language of the Sassanian
had played a major role in the origin and development of
what we call the Persian language of the Islamic Persia.

Muslim Persia

The Sassanian empire was overthrown when its last
ruler Yazdgird III was defeated by the Arabs at Qadisi:
(637 A.D.). Thereupon, Iran became a part of the vast Muslim
empire. The Arab conquest of Persia had a far-reaching
effect on Iran and Iranian culture. In the course of time
a new civilization developed in this country the unifying
force of which was Islam. At first, Arabic language became
a dominant factor, but gradually it gave way to Persian, a
developed form of the Dari dialect, with the admixture of
the Pahlavi and Arabic elements. Local administration
remained largely in the hands of the indigenous population
and several local customs continued to be observed. And
with the transfer of the capital of the Islamic empire

1. Charles Issawi, The Economic History of Iran - 1800-

2. It was the dialect prevalent during the Sassanian period
specially in the eastern part of Iran and after the advent of Islam it was developed and took the form of modern Persian (Farsi). About its origin there are various views; it is most probably derived from Dar meaning Court.
from Damascus to Baghdad (about 750 A.D.), Persian influence began to be strongly felt. Islam had already replaced Zoroastrianism, and by the 10th century modern Persian written in Arabic script along with a huge vocabulary from Arabic, had established itself. By the ninth century the Abbasid Caliphate had started disintegrating under the pressure of independence by the local elements of Persian stock like the Tahirids, Saffarids and Samanids. The Samanid dynasty was overthrown by the Ghaznavids, a Turkish dynasty, whose formidable ruler Mahmud Ghaznavi took possession of the major part of Iran and Transoxiana. He had led 17 campaigns against India subjugating the last Hindu ruler of the Hindu Shahi dynasty. During this period the influx of the Turk increased to the extent of altering the balance of population. The Suljuqs who succeeded in establishing a strong empire, were also Turks whose most powerful monarch, Sanjar, was defeated by the Ghuzz hordes. The importance of the Suljuq rule lies in the fact that during this period the main lines of politico-economic structure which was to last in Iran till the 20th century were worked out. The basis of the structure was the land assignment, the holder of which was often a petty territorial ruler who was
required to provide the ruler of the land with a military contingent. This was in some respect similar to the Mansabdari System introduced during the Mughal rule in India.

The Suljuq empire broke up in the 12th century into a number of states; while the 13th century Iran saw the great political havoc of the Mongol invasion brought about by Chingiz Khan whose grandson Halagu sacked Baghdad in 1258 and destroyed the Caliphate. Halagu's successors founded the IL Khani dynasty which ruled Persia about one hundred years whereupon it broke up into a number of successive states. Towards the end of the 14th century Persia again fell under the domain of a military conqueror Timur who carried on military campaigns between 1381 and 1387 and founded a dynasty which disintegrated on the death of his son Shah Rukh, the western part falling into the hands of the Turkoman of the Black Sheep and the White Sheep and Transoxiane fell to the Uzbeks.

The 16th century saw the foundation of the Safavid empire, the founder being Shah Ismail Safavi (1502-24) who

1. Ibid. p. 7.
fostered a sense of national unity vis-a-vis the Ottoman Turks with whom the Safavids were engaged in a struggle for supremacy and the main force they used for this purpose was Shiism. The majority of the population was Sunni but the Safavids imposed upon them Shiism by force and created among the population of the dominion a sense of national unity as Persian. Under Shah Abbas (1587-1629) the Safavid empire reached its zenith and Persia enjoyed a power and prosperity it has not achieved since.

Under the later Safavids the internal decline set in, and from 1722 Persia was subject to Afghan invasion and occupation, while in the west and north she was threatened by Turkey and Russia. The Afghans were finally evicted by Nadir Shah Afshar whose reign (1736-1747) was remarkable chiefly for his military campaigns. The Afsharids were succeeded by Karim Khan Zand (1750-1779) whose peaceful reign was followed by the rise of Qachar who continued to reign until 1925. During the Qachar period events in Persia were increasingly affected by great power rivalry which dominated both her foreign policy as well as her internal politics.

Meanwhile, Russia formally annexed Georgia in 1801.
which was followed by a campaign against Russia. It was brought to an end by the Treaty of Gulistan in 1813 by which Persia not only ceded Georgia but Qarabagh and seven other provinces. During this period Persia was also engaged in hostilities with Turkey resulting in an outbreak of war and thereafter the treaty of Erzerum (ارزنم) in 1873.

In the second half of the century the subjection of the Turkoman tribes by Russia and her capture of Merv meant that Russian became dominant in Khurasan—the eastern province, just as the advance of Russia in the early part of the 19th century had made the Russian influence dominant in Azarbijan.

Internally the second half of the 19th century was remarkable mainly for the beginning of the modernist movement which was stimulated by internal mismanagement of the affairs of the country as well as by increased interventions in the affairs by Russia and Britain. Towards the end of the century numerous concessions were granted to foreigners in order to pay for the extravagances of the court. These concessions as well as raising of foreign loans gave rise to growing anxiety on the part of
the Persian public. Further, large numbers of Persians had fled the country and were living in exile. Unfortunately, for a long time no effective steps were taken to allay popular discontent. In 1901 protests were made against the loans and mortgages to pay for Muzaffar Shah's journey to Europe. By 1905-6 the demand for reform had grown in strength and finally on 5th August, 1906, a constitution was granted which was followed by a long struggle between the constitutionalists and the Shah. The Cossack Brigade formed during the reign of Nasirud-Din Shah which was manned by Russian officers played a major part in suppressing the National Assembly in 1908 by Muhammad Ali Shah. But he was forced to abdicate the throne in 1909.

**REZA SHAH (1925-41) AND AFTER**

In 1921 a Coup d'etat took place in Persia and Reza Khan (subsequently Reza Shah) became the minister of war. Two years later Reza Khan became the prime minister and finally in 1925 he was crowned as the king of Persia. His first task was to restore the authority of the Central government throughout the country and the second, to place 1. Middle East and North Africa, Chapter on Iran, pp. 397-396, 2. Ibid., pp. 396-397.
Iran's relation with the foreign countries on the basis of equality. All extra-territorial agreements were cancelled from 1928. In 1932 the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's concession was withdrawn. The Persian Government's action in cancelling concession was referred to the League of Nations. As a result an agreement for a new concession was concluded in 1933 whereby the concession area was reduced and the royalty to be paid to the Persian Government increased.

Internally Reza Shah's policy aimed at modernization of the Iranian Society and in the later years the government became totalitarian in nature. Compulsory military service was introduced and the army increased. Communication was improved and construction of a trans-Persian Railway was undertaken. Women were not to wear the veil and education was remodelled on the pattern of the West. Foreign trade became the monopoly of the State and by the outbreak of the second world war Germany had acquired great influence in Iran both commercially and politically.

On the outbreak of the war the allies demanded the expulsion of German nationals which the Persian Government
could not comply with. Consequently Iran was invaded on 26th August 1941. Hostilities lasted for two days. On September 16, 1941 Reza Shah abdicated in favour of his son Muhammad Reza. In January a Tripartite Treaty was signed with Great Britain and USSR, whereby the last two powers undertook to respect the territorial integrity, sovereignty and political independence of Persia. American advisers were appointed by the Persian Government in 1942 and 1943 in the hope of reorganising the administration but with little success.

In the meantime, pressure built up on the Persian Government and an autonomous government was set-up in Azerbaijan under the Security Council's supervision two times. Though in May the Soviet forces left the country, the Soviets continued to support democratic movement in Azerbaijan, and the Kurdish autonomy movement. In October 1947 an agreement was signed with America providing a U.S. military mission in Persia to co-operate with the Persian Ministry of War.

Nationalization of the Oil Industry

Meanwhile, internal unrest resulted in the
nationalist movement of 1950-51. In 1949 a supplementary oil agreement with the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company was initiated but it was rejected. In 1951 the National Assembly passed a bill for the nationalization of the oil industry. In May Dr. Musaddiq, who had led the campaign of the nationalization of oil, became the Prime Minister and Anglo-Iranian Oil Company evacuated the country being unable to continue operations. On 22nd Oct. the Persian Government broke off diplomatic relations with the Great Britain. Meanwhile, rift developed between Dr. M. Musaddiq and the Shah. The economic situation of the country deteriorated, culminating in the overthrow of Musaddiq by General Zahedi in August 1953. The new Government resumed diplomatic relations with Great Britain in Dec. 1953. In Sep. 1954 an agreement was signed and ratified by the Parliament, granting a concession to a consortium of eight companies. The National Iranian Oil Company (NIOC) was to operate the Naft-i-Shah oilfield and the Kirmanshah refinery to meet part of Iran's own need.


and handle the distribution of oil products and to be responsible for all facilities and services, refining and transport operations of the two operating companies set up under the agreement.

Growing Power of the Shah

In April 1955, Zahedi resigned and was succeeded by Husain Ala. But the change of government did not materially lessen the mounting discontent. In March 1959 a bilateral defence agreement was signed between U.S.A. and Iran.

Relations with the U.S.S.R. after the fall of Musaddaq were not cordial. In 1954 an agreement providing for the repayment by U.S.S.R. of her debts and mapping of the revised boundary, was signed.

On 3rd April, 1953, Husain Ala resigned and was succeeded by Dr. Manoutchehr Iqbal. He issued a decree ending martial law and declared his intention to form a democratic two party system. Two parties, the Nation Party, which was pro-government, and an opposition People's Party were formed in 1958. But the scheme did not work and in 1.

1. Middle East and North Africa, Chapter on Iran p. 398.
August, 1960 Jafar Sharif Imami replaced Dr. Iqbal as prime minister but Imami resigned and Dr. Ali Amini was asked to form a new government.

Dr. Amini took measures to halt political and economic chaos in Iran. A drive was undertaken to remove corruption and to form policies of land reform, decentralization of administration, control of government expenditure, etc. Both the Houses of the Parliament were dissolved pending the passage of a new electoral law which would make fair and fair elections possible. But it did not work and Dr. Amini had to tender his resignation.

Consequent upon Dr. Amini's resignation, Asadullah Alam, the leader of the Mardom Party was asked to form a new government. Dr. Alam, one of the biggest landlords, had previously distributed much of his land voluntarily among the peasants. He laid emphasis on land reforms and removal of political corruption. A reform programme was approved by national referendum in January, 1963.

Reforms of the Shah

In 1950 the Shah started distributing his estate amongst the peasants and by the end of 1963 he had disposed...
off all his crown properties. The Pahlavi Foundation was established in 1958 with huge gifts by the Shah for the purpose of improving the standard of education, health and social welfare. In 1961 Pahlavi Dynasty Trust was established with 40 millions, the income of which was used for social, educational and health services.

In Jan. 1963 a referendum was held in which the Shah’s six point plan for the distribution of land among the peasants, promotion of literacy and emancipation of women, was approved overwhelmingly. Elections were held in September 1963 in which National Front of Dr. Alam came out victorious. The New Parliament was called and a 20 - year programme of economic and social reforms was approved. In March 1964 Dr. Alam resigned and Mr. Hasan Ali Mansur was made the prime minister. In May 1964 the second stage of the programme of Land Reform was passed by the Majlis.

Regional Co-operation

In July 1964 the heads of the state of Iran, Pakistan and Turkey formed an organization called Regional Co-operation for Development-R.C.D.- for the purpose of

1. Ibid. p. 398.
collaboration in the economic and technical affairs. On 21 January, 1965, Mr. Mansur was assassinated by the members of Fidayan-i-Islam, and Amir Abbas Hovaida, the Finance Minister was appointed Prime Minister who continued his predecessor's policy for which he got support of the Majlis. He continued on his post until August 1977 when he was succeeded by Amouzgar.

**Foreign Relations**

Iran began to have good relations with the U.S.S.R. from 1964-65. In June 1965 the Shah visited Moscow and in Oct. an agreement was signed for construction by the U.S.S.R. of a steel mill. Economic Co-operation with Russia developed and an agreement was made for the purchase of armaments worth 40 m. from that country.

After the withdrawal of the British forces from the Persian Gulf in 1971, the rivalry between the Arabs and Iran over the supremacy of the region was revived. Iran got the control of Abu Musa Island and Tumbs from Shajah and Ras al Khaimah respectively. But Iran's relations with the more radical Arab states were less friendly. Iraq had

1. Ibid. p. 398.
2. Ibid. p. 398.
the sovereignty over the entire Shatt-al-Arab waterway but Iran resisted this position and in 1969 Iran decided to abrogate the treaty and in 1970 diplomatic relations between the two countries were broken. In 1973, subsequent to the outbreak of the Arab-Israeli war, the relations between Iraq and Iran were restored. In March 1975 the two countries signed the famous Algiers agreement for the elimination of the conflicts between them. The agreement provided that the Shatt-al-Arab frontier would be the middle of the deepest shipping channel. The treaty giving effect to this agreement was signed on 15 June, 1975, which later on became the key issue of the War with Iraq which broke out in September 1980.

Internal problems and Fall of the Shah

Internally, signs of opposition to the Shah's regime became more and more evident with the celebrations for the 2500th anniversary of Persian monarchy in 1971. The handle to the opposition leaders to activise their efforts was provided by the ruthless activities of the SAVAK on the one hand, while on the other by the Shah's single party system. But soon it became clear that this system too l. Ibid. p. 399.
had failed to solve the problem of the country. Political violence in the universities during 1977-78 shook the very fabric of the government and all the attempts of the Shah to control the situation failed. In 1977 Dr. Amouzegar became the Secretary General, replacing Hoveda as Prime Minister. But he resigned and in August 1978 Sharif Imami was appointed Prime Minister. But unrest continued and in November, 1978, the Shah set up military government headed by the Army Chief of Staff, General Azhari. But it did not allay the public resentment and the Shah as a last resort charged Dr. Bakhtiar with forming the government. Dr. Bhakhtiar undertook to dissolve SAVAK, stop export of oil to South Africa and Israel and support the cause of Palestine. But opposition to the Shah continued with so much vigour that he left the country on January 15, 1979, never to return.

The opposition to Shah within Iran was spearheaded by the left and the more liberal National Front. But by the time the Shah left they were overshadowed by the success of the opposition coming from the exiled religious leader Ayatullah Khomeaini who conducted the campaign against the Shah from France where he had arrived after 11 years of exile in Iraq for opposing Shah’s White Revolution.
because it conflicted with Islamic values.

In January 1979, Ayatullah Khomeini formed an Islamic Revolutionary Council in Paris and pressure in Iran grew for his return and Ayatullah arrived in Iran from Paris on February 1st and received a tumultuous welcome from the people. Bhakhtiar refused to recognise Khomeini but he had to resign on 11th February. Dr. Bazargan was named the provisional Prime Minister by Khomeini on 6 Feb., who formed a provisional government later in that month. But soon it became clear that the real power rested with Khomeini's 15-member Islamic Revolutionary Council.

Constitutional Development

On 1 April an Islamic Republic was established in Iran after a referendum in March, 1979, and a draft constitution was approved which proposed the country to be governed by a President, Prime Minister and an Islamic Majlis-e-Shura of 270 deputies. In Dec., 1979, a revised constitution was framed in which the provision of Vilayat-i-Faqih was made. The Wali Faqih had extensive powers who was to hold office till his death. The First Wali Faqih was 1. Ibid. p. 400.
Ayatullah Khomenei himself. Prior to the election of the
officials, the Islamic Revolutionary Council had been taking
decisions on running the country, although there was a
government headed by Mahdi Bazargan until his resignation
in Nov. 1979 on the question of American hostages. The
election to the Majlis took place in two rounds on 14 March
and 9 May, 1980, in which the Islamic Republican Party
emerged victorious with 130 seats with Ayatullah Beheshti
as its leader. The latter presented a threat to the
authority of Dari Sadr. The Islamic Revolutionary Council
was dissolved on 18 July but the formation of the
government was delayed. After a lot of hot burning Mohammad
Ali Rajai was appointed as Prime Minister. On 10 June,
1981, Dari Sadr was dismissed and fled to France to form a
National Council of Resistance. On 28 June a bomb exploded
at the head quarter of the Islamic Republican Party killing
Beheshti, ten ministers and twenty deputies. On July 24,
Prime Minister Rajai was elected as President and Javed
Bahonar became the Prime Minister. But both were killed on
August 29 in a bomb blast. Thereafter, Hujjatul Islam Ali
Khamenei was elected President. At the end of October,
Ayatullah Mirdavi, who was appointed Prime Minister after
Bahonar, resigned and Mir Hosain Mosavi was appointed Prime Minister.

The Gulf War

The immediate cause of the War between Iraq and Iran, which lasted for about eight years and in which more than a million people were killed, was ignoring the Iraqi demand for the withdrawal of the Iranian forces from the Zainul Quds on the border between the two countries. Iraq maintained that the territory be returned to Iraq under the 1975 agreement with Iran. Iraq then abrogated the 1975 Shatt-al-Arab agreement and invaded Iran on 22 September, 1980. Iranian resistance was spirited, and a position of stalemate was soon reached on a 300 mile long front. In spring 1982 the Iranian forces launched two offensives which met with success. They recaptured Khuramshahr captured earlier by the Iraqis. Thereafter, the Iranians

1. In March 1975, the Iraqi leadership accepted an offer by Iran to stop supporting the Kurds, provided Iraq agreed to a border settlement with Iran. On 13 June 1975, Iran and Iraq signed a treaty in Baghdad containing four main points:
   i) The definitive marking of the boundaries, in accordance with the Constantinople Protocol of 1913 and the proposal submitted by the committee for boundaries markings of 1914.

......Continued
carried the war in the Iraq territory. In Feb. 1983 Iran began a major offensive in Iraq's Misan province but with no decisive results. Iran was waging a war of attrition, keeping Iraq on a war footing and thereby exerting pressure on weakening Iraqi economy which might topple the government of Saddam Husain. During the 2nd half of 1983 Iraq started missile and air raids on Iranian towns and oil-installations. Iran retaliated forcefully and in March 1984 Iran captured the marshy land around the Island of Majnun, the site of rich oil fields. Iraq retook some of its lost territory but it preferred to build up a network of defensive fortification along its southern border.

Internal developments

On the one hand Iran had been engaged in war against Iraq, while on the other it had serious internal problems which were to shake the very foundation of the

i) The establishment of the river boundaries along the thalwegline, i.e., in mid-water.

ii) The re-establishment of security along the shared land boundaries, and of mutual trust and end to infiltration of a subversive nature on both sides.

iii) The recognition of all points as unrenounceable conditions of a general settlement of the problem.

By signing this treaty Iraq recognised for the first time the thalweg principle of the Shatt-al-Arab. ...Continued
revolutionary regime. In April, 1982, an anti-government plot was unearthed in which Ayatullah Shariat Madari and the former foreign minister Qutb zadah were stated to be involved. The latter was executed and the former died of cancer. Prior to this the Mujahideen-i-khalq leader Musa khiabani was killed in Feb. 1982. In 1983 the Iranian government succeeded in banning the activities of the powerful Tudeh Party. In April and May 1984 election to the second Majlis took place in which 50 percent seats were filled by the new members giving rise to the speculation that the new Majlis might implement Musavi's economic programme. But Musavi's cabinet suffered a blow as five of its members failed to win the support of the Majlis in August 1984.

President Khamaenaei was to retire after his four-year term in sep. 1985. But he was re-elected in August and Hussain Musavi was confirmed as Prime Minister by the Majlis in Oct. 1985.

Developments in the Gulf War (1985-86)

The Iraqi attacks on shipping caused much but five years latter it became clear to Iraq that it had agreed only under considerable pressure from Iran. (See M.S.El Azhary, Iran-Iraq War, p. 20.)
disruption to the Iranian Oil exports\(^1\). They failed to stop them altogether and despite the superiority of Iraq in military equipments, they could not defeat the Iranians. However, the Iranian offensive resulting in crossing the Tigris, was repulsed. Iraq is stated to have used chemical weapons. However, due to the pressure of the U.N., both Iraq and Iran agreed in suspending attack on civilian population in June 1984. But soon Iraq broke the terms and resumed attacks on Iranian population in order to build pressure on Khomeini to bring him to the negotiating table. But Iran's conditions of negotiation and reconciliation were not acceptable to Iraq.

In April Iraq suspended the air attacks on Iranian towns in order to give Iran the opportunity to call a cease-fire and start negotiation. But Iran did not respond and Iraq resumed air raids with greater intensity with Iran retaliating. In August Iraq conducted a series of air raids on Kharg Island resulting in the halting, though temporarily, of exports from Kharg. By the end of 1985 some 60 attacks on this oil field were made which had an adverse effect on Iranian economy. In Jan. 1986 a further blow to exports of oil was dealt by Iraq.\(^1\) Ibid. pp. 403-404.

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In the land war Iran launched offensive in the region of the Hawizah marshes and in the north Kurdistan in July 1985. On Feb. 1986 Iran launched the Wal-Fajr 8 offensive and some 85000 Iranian troops crossed the Shatt-al-Arab Waterway and on 11 Feb. occupied the Iraqi abandoned port, Faw. When Iraq launched a counter offensive on Faw in the middle of February, Iran opened a second front in Iraqi Kurdistan with the Wal-Fajr 9 offensive and drove the Iraqi forces and captured about 40 villages in Sulaimaniya area. In August 1986 Iraq's counter offensive on Faw failed to dislodge the Iranians. In May Iraq made armed incursions into Iran. Teheran was air attacked and Iran's second refinery was bombed resulting in a renewal of reciprocal attacks on urban areas and economic targets and attacks on tankers and commercial vessels in the Gulf War increased manifold by mid-1986.

The War continued unabated and all attempts to end the war by the U.N., the Gulf states, the Non Aligned Movement and various Islamic bodies failed. The war stopped only in 1988 subsequent to the shooting down by the Americans of an Iranian civil air craft on its way to Dubai in which all the passengers were killed. Subsequent
to this event Iran agreed to enter into negotiation with Iraq for peace. The war stopped and shortly afterward the ailing Ayatollah Khomeini who had wielded the supreme power died. And in the period following his death, there was a struggle for power in which the moderate leader Rafsanjani succeeded to become the leader of the country. He was finally elected the President of the Islamic Republic of Iran. After some time the Gulf War broke out in which Iran had a neutral role to play. But after the end of the war Iran was blamed to have encouraged the Shias residing in the southern provinces of Iraq to revolt against Saddam but it did not hear fruits and the revolt was crushed through the connivance of U.S.A. Saddam was not removed from presidency. President Saddam, who utterly failed in the Gulf War, showed a good amount of sagacity in negotiating a treaty with the Kurds.

However, during the short period of the Gulf crisis Iran had acquired much importance as a nation which had to play an important role in solving the Gulf crisis. This was why the leaders of Russia, and other European countries and even of India, visited Iran and had talks with Iran's foreign minister, Ali Akbar Velayati, about
resolving the Gulf crisis.

The Impact of The War

The physical damage of the war to both Iran and Iraq has been extensive. However, the overall effect of the war on Iran's oil sector has been much less devastating than on that of Iraq, but the destruction of the Abadan refinery was a serious blow to Iran's oil production. However, Iran's oil production has reached almost the pre-war level. Iraqi production also recovered but at a much slower rate. The physical damage to gulf terminals forced Iraq to close them. Consequently, it had to rely exclusively on its pipeline to the Mediterranean. But due to rupture of its relation with Syria the latter closed its borders with Iraq and also closed the pipelines, leaving Iraq with only the pipeline to Dortyol (Turkey). It is interesting to note that as Iraq production of oil dropped off sharply in 1982, Iranian production increased. Iran had a greater need of oil earnings to maintain its economy, because oil is the principle source of foreign exchange. Iraq had been able to avoid economic disaster.

1 M.S. El Azhary, Iran-Iraq War, Croom Helm Ltd, Kent, 1984.
mainly because of the generous subsidies from the Arab States, the total of which is estimated to be in excess of $25 billion.\(^1\)

Iraq's vulnerability to the closing of its vital export links has resulted in having a project for building a pipeline across Saudi Arabia and also in increasing the capacity of the pipeline through Turkey. As far as Iran is concerned, the most urgent need was the generation of foreign exchange. The revolution wiped out the country's foreign exchange reserves. The war worsened the situation. Greater incentive to import substitution, industries especially for small arms and ammunition manufacture, tank and truck repairs and a whole range of small industries feeding and supplying the army were urgently needed. Iraq did not have to face the shortage of foreign exchange reserves so long as the Arab oil producers continued to provide substantial financial support. But when in 1982 the support stopped, Iraq's foreign assets began to slide dramatically.\(^2\) Hence, the major consequence of the war has been almost complete erosion of

1. Ibid. p. 49.
2. Ibid. p. 53.
3. Ibid. p. 57.
Iraq’s foreign exchange reserves. Thus one somewhat unambiguous effect of the war on Iraqi economy has been a sharp increase in the number of foreign workers and a consequent additional burden on the country’s foreign exchange reserves.

The manpower situation in Iran was quite different, with a population about three times that of Iraq, and a manpower pool of about nine million. The ratio of males is higher in Iran so that the lives of young men could be poured out in infantry attacks on Iraqi positions. Iran’s need of manpower to replace battle casualties had no adverse effect on its foreign exchange reserves as against that of Iraq.

Both Iran and Iraq faced the post war era with foodstuffs and agricultural and pastoral inputs having a very high priority in the use of foreign exchange. Both the countries have a significant agricultural potential, but it is certain that agriculture proved to be the sector most damaged by the war.

1. Ibid. p. 57.
2. Ibid. p. 57.
3. Ibid. p. 57.
In Iran a free market economy concept permitted recovery in the post war era. But in Iraq the economic growth had taken place under an economic regime of a strong centralised public sector with state control of markets and prices and a tightly controlled private sector.\(^1\)

Iraq had not made up the economic losses, oil production shortage and shortage of manpower when it was militarily crushed by the western powers in Kuwait besides international economic sanction. This fact is too well known to merit a discussion.

\(^1\) Ibid. p. 64.
LAND TENURE SYSTEM IN IRAN: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The Sassanian period is very important from the point of view of administrative and cultural development during the Pre-Islamic Iran. But we do not have enough data to form a clear idea about the development of various political, social, and economic institutions of the Pre-Islamic Iran.

Unfortunately, we have no precise knowledge of the nature of Sassanian land tenure system. However, the feudal nobility had to pay taxes and were obliged to perform military service. Next in the hierarchy after the feudal nobility were the heads of the villages known as dihqans, who derived their power from a hereditary title from the local administration. They were the representatives of the government vis-à-vis the peasants and their function was collection of taxes. The feudal nobility and the dihqans were not the only land owners. The priests also derived their influence from their territorial possessions. The peasants who passed their time on their land with the duty

of the local administration were attached to the soil and were made to perform labour service.

Agriculture was the main source of revenue. The revenue collector used to collect revenue and he was also responsible for the supervision of agriculture and irrigation.

The Arab conquest of Iran is very significant in Persian history. Iran became the part of Muslim land and the new theory of state common to all Muslim territories came into being.

Various local customs continued to be observed under Muslim rule. The tax system resembled the earlier Sassanian practice in many respects.

There are a few aspects of Persian life where the influence of Islam cannot be traced. As regards the matters of land, Islam contributed to the development of landed property and land tenure. Water and pasture were common to all Muslims. The existence of private property

The Muslim jurists divided the land conquered by the Muslims into three categories:

(a) those conquered by force and abandoned by their inhabitants.

(b) lands acquired peacefully because their owners had abandoned them.

(c) lands coming into Muslim ownership by virtue of a treaty but remaining in the possession of their owners on conditions that they would pay Kharaj.

Regarding the disposal of land in the first category there were differences of opinion among different schools of jurists.

Lands which were in the second category paid Kharaj; such lands could not be sold or mortgaged. Lands in the third category were of two kinds:

(a) those which were immobilized and continued to pay Kharaj.

1. Ibid. p. 18.
2. Ibid. n. 19.
those which remained in the possession of their original owner who paid Kharaj.

According to Mawardi (died in 1058) the Muslim conquests are divided into four categories: (a) land the inhabitants of which in order to retain possession of the soil, had become Muslims; (b) dead land reclaimed by Muslims; (c) land conquered by force and divided as booty amongst the conquerors; and (d) land the inhabitants of which had surrendered by virtue of treaty. The first three categories paid ushr, i.e., 1/10 of the crop; while the land in the fourth category, paid kharaj.

From the exposition of the jurists it follows that land in Iran can be divided either according to the tax regime to which it was subjected or according to the ownership. In the first case the land is divided in two major categories:

1. the ushr land,
2. the kharaj land.

1. Ibid. p. 19.
According to the second mode of division, land falls into four categories.

1. Crownlands comprising the former crownlands of the Persian king.

2. Land belonging to the community and administered by the Imam.

3. Land held as private property.

4. Land the ownership of which was vested in the Muslim community taken by the Non-muslim owners who exercised the occupancy right.

Another form of landholding was vaqf. The underlying idea of vaqf land was that at the conquest the soil became the property of conqueror who subsequently surrendered their rights. The land then became vaqf.\(^1\)

From the decline of the Abbasid Caliphate one of the important types of landholding came to be known as Iqta which covers both the assignment of land and its revenue. Since the rise of the Suljuqs the Iqta holding became the most important form of the landholding in the country. In practice the crownlands together with waste-land, dead-land, swamp land, were assigned to the Arabs as property liable to

1. Ibid p. 27.
taxation. This type of assignment was known as Iqta-at-tamlik. The holder of the Iqta was called the Muqta. Mawardi recognised two types of Iqta which he called Iqta-at-tamlik and Iqta-al-istighlal; the former representing an assignment of land and the latter an assignment of its revenue.

Regarding the assignment of land the lands could be assigned before the conquest while regarding the assignment of revenue Mawardi held it legal to assign Ushr land and Kharaj land and he considered members of the army to be among those to whom it was most fitting to make such assignment of the revenue of the Kharaj land. But such grant could not be made hereditary.

THE IQTA SYSTEM AND THE SULJUQS

During the fifth century A.H., 11th century A.D., the military had been able to seize power and to divert the revenue from the state treasury into their own pockets as muqtas. They had, therefore, no permanent interest in their land. Thus if a strong government was to be established it was necessary to find the solution to those problems. The Suljuqi period (11th century onward) saw attempts to solve them not only by regularising the position of the muqta, but also by bringing regulation into the iqta system, which was to be the dominant feature in the field of land tenure and land revenue administration for centuries to come.

The work of the Suljuqs is of importance because it decided the main lines along which the system was to develop. The iqta system is sometimes known as feudalism. But it was basically different from the feudal system as it prevailed in the western countries. The muqta had originally no military duties, and it was only with the militarization of the state that the military penetrated into the existing iqta system. While the peasants, except

when driven by undue burden to migrate, continued to cultivate the soil to which they were attached. The position of the owner, as distinct from that of the peasants, was more directly affected by the power of those whom the land and revenue were granted. In some cases they sold their properties because of poverty while in others they continued as owners of the soil with full rights of alienation, paying their taxes direct to muqta. This appears to have been the situation when the Suljuq migration in the eleventh century took place. 1

There were two major problems which the Suljuq had to solve both of which closely affected land tenure and land revenue administration: first how to incorporate into the structure of their empire a large nomadic element, the basis of whose livelihood was the tending of flocks; and secondly, how to pay their military forces. During this period the population was divided into Turks and Non-Turks. The other division of population was into military and civil. Military was commonly Turks and the civil Non-Turks. Of the composition of the settled rural population, a great deal of information is not forthcoming. Small landowners known as

dihqan continued to exist. The main feature of the land administration of the Suljuqs was no longer divided into the Darul-Islam and Darul-Harab. The conquest of land was often made at the expense of Muslim holders. The Imam was no longer the spiritual and temporal leader of the community.

The iqta to members of the ruling family was not the only type of iqta: there were also administrative iqtas, and iqtas granted as personal estate. Nizamul-Mulk Lusi, the author of the reputed iyasat Mama and the prime minister of the Malik Shah Suljuq, brought about a general unification of the iqta system but it is with the administrative iqta that he is chiefly concerned. The idea of promotion of cultivation underlying the grant of the original iqta is also taken care of by Nizamul Mulk. He states that if attention is drawn to the ruin and dispersal of inhabitants of any district it must be at once investigated and the condition of the muqta and Amil enquired into, so that the land should not be wasted, the peasant may not be dispersed and money levied unjustly.

Originally the relation of the muqta to the

J. Ibid p. 61. 61
central government was mainly a financial one, but with the militarization of the administration their financial obligation was largely replaced by a military one. The payment of the standing army and local militia was largely made by assignment. The precise form in which payment was made is not clear; however in the case of soldiers it was in the form of draft. The iqta of the standing army were smaller than those of the great Amirs. According to Nizamul Mulk, the rights of iqta over the population in his iqta were financial. It had no rights over the land of the cultivators. Nizamul Mulk forbade the muqta to prevent the peasant under him from coming to represent their case, threatening him with punishment and cancellation of his iqta. However, in practice the position of the peasant on assigned land appears to have varied considerably. Their freedom of movement was often restricted and they were frequently subjected to forced labour.

There was a considerable area of Vaqf land in the Suljuq empire. A certain measure of control was exercised over Vaqf by the state. It was in keeping with the general religious policy of the Suljuqs, which was to bring

1. Ibid - p. 66.
the religious organisation within the general framework of the state.

In addition to the various classes of lands it is clear that private property was also recognised by the Seljuqs. The transmission of such property was recognised by testament and by sale.

There appears to have been no regular system of land registration, the holders of land in many cases had some sort of title head in their possession, but there seems to have been no process for the transfer or cancellation of these when the property was transferred from one holder to another.

Land tax (Kharaj and Ushr) in the directly administered area was collected by government tax collectors, while in the iqtas it was collected by the muqta or his representative. It was collected both in cash and kind, the assessment being based on the amount of the crop. In addition to the land tax other dues were levied both by the Central Government and by muqta. The nature of

2. Ibid, pp 133-159.
these varied. In some cases they were levied as regular taxes, while in others as extraordinary taxes.

The condition of the peasants in any given area depended primarily on the personality of the local official to whom the Central Government had delegated authority. The peasant had the possibility of demanding redress from the Central Government. But often there were practical difficulties in doing so. The governor or muqta often prevented them from making such demands. Sometimes the peasants were subjected to immigration and flight.

With the overthrow of the great Suljuqs and the invasion of Khurasan and the neighbourhood by new groups of Chuz, the condition of the settled people in that area deteriorated, the country was laid waste, and the settled population subjected to new inroads by the nomads.

In sum up, the great Suljuqs period should be regarded as an important period in the history of land tenure; with the advent of the Suljuqs the concept of the autocratic sovereign was fused with the concept of the ruling khan, who was regarded not only the ruler of the

people, but also enjoyed proprietary rights over the territory which he ruled. But de facto possession of land became the most important factor in deciding the ownership of land, since the military power was largely in the hands of the Turks. It was they who became the owner of vast areas of land. In so far as local administration and the relations between the land owner and the peasants were concerned, the traditional practices appear to have continued.
THE MONGOLS

The immediate effect of the Mongol invasion of Persia in the thirteenth century was widespread devastation and destruction, and owing to the massacre and migration of population and as such, land became vacant. Most of populated and cultivated land became dead and unclaimed land. The conquered lands were looked upon as the Yurt or the Mongol family in which their flocks and those of their followers grazed. In due course, land fell into the following classes: Yurt, Divani, Inju, Ouqaf and Milki.

The first was a continuation of the practice of the steppe and did not imply proprietary rights over the soil. Inju land was crown land which was allotted to the ruling family; divani land was state land, so the difference between divani and inju was not apparent; milki land was private property.

The Mongol leaders continued to own considerable flocks which annually migrated from summer to winter. This was a constant source of anxiety to the settled population.

in the neighbourhood of their pasture.

... both the rulers as well as their ministers possessed large flocks and herds.

The Mongols imposed a number of levies and taxes. There were two main taxes called Qubchur and Qilun. Qubchur was a cattle tax the tax rate minimum was 100 and the rate of 3, was one percent. According to Barthold, Qilun was levied on villages. In a taurih of Chagan Khan there were no Qilun. In the Mongol army it is stated that the Qilun have been assigned to those dailars who are included in Qilun and called upon for service. In the new assessment for irrigation work under Rashidud Din 7 i t x on cultivated land, it is mentioned at the same time as exemption from Qilun Local information known from bards and were appointed to collect taxes.

It appears that the revenue of the province was ir some cases formed such that the revenue former, estimated double the amount of the sum for which they had contracted but they paid nothing to the treasury. As a result when money was needed for the army or for the 1 The most famous Vakil of Chagan Khan who was the author of the I t W hired Historian called Tamit Tawarikh. He was a great Scholar and Scientist of his time.
protection of the frontiers it was necessary to have recourse to confiscations and to make extraordinary levies. Another custom which was against the well-being of the peasant and the country-side in general was that of writing draft on provincial districts. As financial disorder and official corruption increased, it became more difficult to realise these drafts and it became usual to collect the sums through the military expeditions. Such was the extortion practiced by officials that on the approach of the tax-collector the peasants would leave their village. Rashidud-Din, Vazir of Ghazan, relates that anyone who visited the villages of Yazd could not find a single person from whom to enquire the way. Ghazan Khan realised the difficulty of immediate reform and decided to go slowly. The first measure was to prohibit the writing of draft on the peasants by the lower grades of tax collectors. He ordered the revenue collectors to go to provinces and make a list of the property of all villages. He realised that insecurity of tenure was one of the reasons for all prevailing decay. So he attempted to secure the positions of the peasants and landowners in there title to the land by a series of measures. He conferred proprietary right when the occupation was
undisputed Inju lands. The lands were assigned to the male heirs of princes to obviate the need of making levies on the population. Instead of writing draft to soldiers he decided to transfer to them the lands on which these drafts were to be made as their Iqtas. His condition was that if the military were provided with Iqtas they would achieve their desires and would no longer be a burden on the treasury. These Iqtas were assigned to the commanders of thousands who in turn divided the land among the commanders of hundreds. This distribution was then communicated to the Central Government.

Ghuzan Khan in his effort to increase the prosperity of the country and to bring dead land back into the cultivation, classified them into three groups; first were those lands having water facilities, nothing was taken in the first year but subsequently the cultivator had to pay some dues annually; second were those lands where a moderate amount of labour was needed to provide water; third were those to be reclaimed lands where a dam had to be constructed or an underground irrigation channel to be provided.

The general tendency throughout the period was that the taxation be increased either by raising the rate or by the imposition of new levies. Ghazan's attempt to control this tendency was substantially successful. He tried to bring about the reform, and officials and land owners such as Rashidudd-Din did some thing to reclaim land and increase productivity.\(^1\).

A striking feature of the Mongol period is the great increase in the size of the private estate and private fortunes. During the Suljuqs the large areas of land were under the control of the muqta, but they were in the nature of provincial governments rather than private estates. But under the Mongols, the civil officer-acquired vast fortune derived from land.\(^2\)

The composition of the land owning class under the Mongols underwent considerable change. First were the members of the ruling class who held considerable areas of land. Secondly, there were large-landholdings by prominent officials. Thirdly, there was the former

\(^1\) Ahmed B. Husain B. Ali-Al-Katib, Tarikhi Fadidi Yazd, Yazd, 1938 - 39 pp (\(a\).
\(^2\) Ibid - pp. 243 - 240.\(b\)
The extent to which it survived varied in different areas.

To sum up, the mongol period marks a further movement away from the Islamic theory. It also saw an increase in large holdings and a decline in productivity and prosperity. The hostility between the peasants and the ruling class was heightened and the gulf between them widened. However, the period between the decline of IL-Khan and the rise of the Safvids brought little new in the field of land tenure and rural organisation. But the government had moved away from the idea of the Islamic theory, so the tendency towards arbitrary action increased. The various demands made upon the rural people included dues levied on each plough land a tax levied on the produce varying from 14 percent to 20 percent and taxes on vine yards. There were a number of dues levied such as a percentage upon the harvest, a tax on mills and levies on feast days. In short the main burden of taxation fell on the peasants. Although exemption was granted to the holders of Soyurghals from the payment of various dues, it was most likely that the holder did not collect these and similar other dues from the peasants.

The Safvids

The rise of the Safvids in the sixteenth century marks the beginning of a new history of Iran. In the sphere of land tenure a new content was given to the farms. The old institutions moulded by Islamic practice and modified by the practice of the steppe were infused with new devices by the absolutism of Shiism. The position of the ruler was reinforced by the theory of divine right. Absolutism in religion affected the whole range of social and political life. In the field of land tenure, the theory of the ruler as the sole landowner became more definite. Its practical application was modified by circumstance. The inability of the Safvids to provide themselves with adequate military forces led them to alienate large areas from the direct control of the state. At first drafts were made on revenue for the military leaders, and finally it became a defect to private property?

solo land owner did not receive complete and unqualified acceptance. In practice private persons enjoyed full right of ownership of land. The recognition of private property in effect is further corroborated by the fact that private persons could also constitute their lands into Ougaf. There were thus three main classes of land, 'the Crown lands, the Ougaf land and estates in possession of private persons.

By the time of Shah Abbas a change in the basis of Safavid power had taken place: he recruited the regiment from non-tribal elements for his support. But the creation of these new forces depending directly upon the Shah raised the problem of how they were to be paid. The military composed of regular troops maintained by the ruler, and the militia in the province were paid by land assignment made from the Khalisich land. As in the case of earlier military lqta the hereditary principle was recognised, and these assignments were transmitted to the holder's heirs. In case of the army the assignments were made to groups of soldiers to avoid the difficulty, for collections by individual assignees. In some cases, collection was made direct from the assignment, in other cases from the

1. Chardin, J. Voyage du Charalier Chardin, Paris 1811 p.419
Crown lands were alienated by temporary or life grants to official and others, while in part they were retained under the administration of officers who received their revenues on behalf of the Shah.

Some feature of the early Iqta al-tamlik and iqta al-i-tighal were retained in the Safvid tuyul. The old conceptions which had underlain the grant of the iqta-al-tamlik, namely the promotion of the cultivation of land, can still be found. In return for the grant, the granter had to provide a military contingent.¹

The term tuyul also covered assignments of land to officials in lieu of salary.² The estimate of the revenues of the areas assigned for the payment of salaries were not subject to inspection of the Shah's officials. They were considered the property of those to whom they were assigned. The grantees treated the inhabitants as they pleased.

There were two main classes of land, namely Viqf land and estates in possession of the private persons. Many

¹ Ibid., p. 250.
areas were constituted into ouqaf for charitable purposes, especially for the benefit of Shia Shrines, notably the Shrines of the Imam Reza in Mashhad and his sister Fatimah in Qumm.

In so far as estates, in the hands of private individuals are concerned, these were held by their owners on a ninety-nine years' lease. On the lapse of this period a new lease for the same period was issued on payment of one year's revenue. During this period the holder could settle and dispose of the land as he pleased. Some hereditary grants termed as 'soyurghal', were made out of Vaqf land to eminent families among the religious classes. These grants passed from generation to generation. Soyurghals were also granted out of dead lands or crown lands which carried with them certain immunities from taxation. The original grant was frequently in perpetuity and it was not necessary to demand a new order everywhere. It seems likely that on death of the original grantee it was necessary to obtain confirmation of the grant. Sometimes an increase in prosperity would warrant immunity from any future demand.

1. Chardin, J. Voyages due Charalier Chardin, Paris 1811 p. 419
2. Ibid. p. 233.
It appears that exemption from taxation was also granted to individuals. These immunities were personal and did not attach to their lands as such.

The renting of property was fairly common, especially in the case of vagf lands and crown lands. Crown lands directly administered were under the charge of the Vazir of the Capital. He was to find the peasants for every place in the crown lands which had lacked peasants to promote its cultivation. The duties of the Vazir were to collect the peasants, to increase cultivation, to repair buildings and to protect the peasants from violence and oppression from any quarter.

There was a special Mustoufi who dealt, among other matters, with the accounts of these estates. He wrote drafts on and assigned the revenues from the crops, and collected by the Vazir, and cleared the accounts of the peasants. The administration of the Qunaf in the provinces was the duty of a special Mustoufi. One of his duties was to examine the accounts of the peasants and tenants and to issue to them receipts.

2. Ibid - p. 120.
There was an important change in the position of the Qazi and their decision of the customary law courts. The Shari'a Court and the Qazi were made subordinate to the customary law court and diwanbaga (the army military hierarchy). The diwanbaga began to control all Shari'a Courts and acted as the executive power for the decision of the Shari'a Court.

In most notable change in the composition of the landowning class was the rise of a new dynasty, which the former states were held by the members of religious families. Originally they held this land called mutawalli of Qaqqaf or by way of hereditary grants called agyurghal. In due course much of this land had become private property. In some parts of the country notably in Azarbayjan and Isfahan, the religious classes continued to form an important element in the landowning class. About the condition of the peasants little information is available. According to Cheriton, land around Isfahan paid 66 luma per jari'a. Instead of the manual crop sharing arrangement the peasants paid a cash rent. They worked on the land owed the seed and

harvested the crop. All the expenses of cultivation were the responsibility of the peasants.

In the neighbourhood of Isfahan if the Shah provided the seed and water, and the peasant oxen, manure, labour and additional servitudes, the peasant received one-third of the harvest. If the Shah provided oxen and agricultural implements and remitted the servitudes the peasants' share fell to one-quarter, and if the Shah provided the labour also the share of the peasant did not exceed one-eighth. This latter agreement was thus, properly speaking, not a crop-sharing agreement at all, the one-eighth representing wages paid to the peasant for his labour. On rice, millet, cotton, beans, fenugreek, melon and pumpkins, the share of the peasant, even if he provided all the costs of cultivation, was two-fifths. On opium his share was eleven twenty-eight. On Sayfi crops the peasant paid the landlord's share in cash at current prices to which were added 15 percent. The landlords' share of shatyi crops was paid in kind with additional 1\frac{1}{2} mahmudi per hundred men. In addition, the Shah received 2 percent in cash on the value of all crops. The landlords always had the worst of the bargain with the peasant in a crop-sharing agreement,
and Chard n decried many abuses; he alleges they used to obtain a larger share than was their due. He states that peasants lived in tolerable comfort, and compares their conditions favourably with that of peasants in the more fertile parts of Europe. He further states that they wore silver ornaments and sometimes gold, and were well clothed and had good footwear. Their houses were well provided with utensils and furniture (presumably carpets). On the other hand they were exposed to rough treatment on the part of officials. Further they were subject to heavy demand in the way of forced labour, particularly in crown lands and lands held by great nobles.

1. Ibid - p. 127.
THE AFSHARID OF THE QAJAR PERIOD

After the reign of shah Abbas-II (1642 - 1677) the Safavid empire declined. During the reign of Husaïn-Mahmud. (1694 - 1727) the Afghan revolted and in 1722 under Mahmud, they captured Isfahan, the Safvid Capital.

The period of Afghan domination is remarkable for ruin which it brought about especially in Isfahan and the neighbourhood. In 1729 Isfahan was recovered from the Safavid and Nadir Shah put Tahmasp on the throne and some months later defeated the Afghans near Shiraz and finally in 1732 he assumed power himself.

The Afsharid period is not of great importance in the history of land tenure and land administration. It brought no lasting changes. The general tendency was towards a tighter control over the administration and the resumption of tuyul, royurghals. Greater care was exercised over the matter of divan taxes. The army under Nadir Shah was to some extent paid in cash. He discouraged his Amirs from acquiring property. The importance of the

period from the point of view of distribution of land revenue administration lies in his policy with regard to Ouqaf and his tribal policy. During the last years of his reign he issued a decree for the resumption of Ouqaf, as a result of which a considerable number of Ouqaf were taken over and entered with Khalisheh estate in the land register. Where the benefactors of a vaqf and the Muttawalli were strong they did not surrender the vaqf. However, Nadir Shahi's successor Ali Quli Adil Shah revoke the decree and gave back some of the confiscated estate. Generally Nadir Shahis rules was hard on the population. The constant campaigns resulted in heavy taxation. The state of the peasant and common people was by no means satisfactory. However, Mashhad which was his capital was in a flourishing condition.

After the decline of Afsharid rule Iran enjoyed a brief period of relative peace during the later years of Karim Khan Zand. But there was no change in the administration; the tendency was towards direct administration by the official of the state rather than to

the practice of making assignments to the military leaders.\(^1\)

The death of Karim Khan in 1779 was followed by a period of anarchy and the emergence of Aga Mohammad Khan Qajar, the founder of the Qajar dynasty.

The Qajar period sees in some respects a return to the Suljuq practice of the Government by the ruling Khan and his family. Once more provincial governorships were given to members of the ruling family. They inherited from the Safvids the absolute nature of the monarchy and the attribution of sanctity to the person of the monarch calling him the Zil-Allah, the shadow of God.

After the reign of Aga Mohammad Khan the tendency under the Qajar was for large area of country to be alienated in the form of tuyo1s and for the indirectly administered area to grow as against the directly administered area. The term tuyo1 as in the Safvid period covered a variety of grants. In some cases it was a grant in the revenue attached to certain officers, in others the tuyo1 was grant of Khaliseh land in lieu of salary and it was perhaps the dominant form of tuyo1 in Qajar times. The

General tendency was for such tuyuls to become hereditary. Various officers became the hereditary right of certain family. As the control of the government weakened so the tendency grew to convert tuyuls into private property inheritable and saleable. The ranks of landowners proper thus increased. Originally these officials had collected taxes on behalf of the Government from the peasants; while the tuyuldar had been granted the right to collect the taxes of the certain area in lieu of the salary; the landowners too collected certain dues by sharing the property. 1

Possession of land was not economically beneficial to the holder. It however enabled him to keep a body of armed retainers which in turn gave him considerable power. In other words the government had deferred to the large landowners in the area in which they had land. This again gave the landowner social prestige as well as political power. Thus throughout the Qajar period the land owning classes were the most powerful element in the kingdom. 2

Large areas of the Qajar Kingdom were tribal

under them there was a redistribution of tribe and
a weakening of one group and strengthening of other.
During this period there was a tendency for tribal groups to
be moved from one part of the country to another. For the
most part the tribes in so far as they were seminomadic
were left subject to their own leaders who were responsible
to the government for the collection and payment of tax
and were seated on their clock. In some local
instances where combined there were considerable local
variations in the tribal area, local administration was
regulated largely according to the customary law which was
administered by the Shah's lieutenant, the ruler of
province, the governor of cities and other local officials.
In villages head men, these duties were enforced very
effectively. They were prompt and arbitrary in their
decision. The heads of villages were allowed to inflict
slight punishments and impose small fines. The
distinctive of the Urf Court could not by the nature of
the case be clearly defined but the general tendency was
to increase in their jurisdiction. But decision on land and
other cases were placed within the competence of the
Tuyuldur and Landwali. However in some cases the peasant was
deprived of an appeal for redress in an impartial tribunal.¹

The general and the established rule for payment of taxes was that the taxes were paid in cash and in kind in equal proportion, but in practice the actual proportion varied. The poor villagers paid entirely in kind while the land owners preferred to pay in cash.

Whereas vaqf land decreased in extent, Khaliszech land formed an expanding category of land. At the beginning of the Qajar times there were considerable Khaliszech territories which were subsequently increased. During this period some estates became known as Khaliszech jat-i-zabti which remained annexed to the crown until the families were again restored. The Shah, while he retained such property, allowed a portion of its produce to the relations of former owners. This allowance was known as mustamari. According to Warning one-eighth of the land of the province of Fars and Iran was in the hands of the Shah. The cultivators of these lands paid a rent of half the produce. Cattlès for drawing water were provided by the Shah. In events of droughts some allowances were made to the cultivators. These lands were

cultivated by the peasants on terms very favourable to the
cultivators. One percent was put aside for repairs and
irrigation and the remainder was equally divided between
the cultivator and the king. Every encouragement was held
out to cultivators to sow government demij lands. The right
of crown in the lands of which it was proprietor, was one-
ten of the produce.

However, beside the regular taxes the landowner
and cultivators had to pay extraordinary taxes levied for a
variety of purposes civil and military. To quote Malcolm:

"If on additional is made to the army if the king desires
to construct an aqueduct or build a palace - if troops are
marching through the country, and require to be furnished
with provision - if a foreign mission arrives in Persia in
one of the royal family is married, in short, on any
occasion, more than ordinary, an impost is laid, sometimes
on the whole kingdom, on others only on particular
provinces. This is regulated by the nature and extent of
the occasion and by regard to its local or general
polity."

1 Lumbton A.K.S. Landlord and Peasant in Persia, Oxford
In short, the picture of the land revenue system, and administration of the early Qajars is one of maladministration, oppression, and insecurity.
THE SECOND HALF OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY: THE EVE OF REFORM

In the latter part of the Qajar period certain new developments can be seen. Though the old problems continued to persist, such as the military weakness and administrative inefficiency, there was a growing discontent and demand for reform. Like other parts of Islamic world Iran too was influenced by the pan-Islamic movement of Syed Jamalud-din Afghani. This demand for change became increasingly vocal after the Shah’s concessions to foreign companies and culminated in the constitutional revolution of 1905 and 1906. As for the land system and the status of landowner and peasants, the Qajar period marks the final breakup of the old system of land holding. But the process of change was gradual. Though there was growing demand to bring about a measure of reorganisation during the second half of the nineteenth century, there is no evidence to show that the ruling class in general appreciated the need for reform.

The main source of the wealth of the country at this period, as earlier, was the land and its produce, but

the method of assessment varied in different parts of the country. Some areas were over-assessed while others under-assessed. Khalisheh land still occupied a considerable area of the country, but because of being in a state of decay it made little contribution to the revenue. Thus the general tendency was for the Khalisheh land to be converted into private property. In view of general decay prevailing in Khalisheh land, decrees were issued for their transfer. They were made subject to a relatively higher rate of taxes. These Khalishehs became known as Khaisejati intiqali. The holder was able to transfer to his heirs but could not sell the land. However, their value was in general less than that of Arbabi land. During the reign of Nasirud din Shah a decree was issued for the sale of all Khalisheh land except that in the neighbourhood of Tehran. At the beginning of his reign there were 1,000 villages in the neighbourhood of Isfahan, some of which were private properties, some Ouqafi and some Khalisheh which had fallen out of cultivation. After some time a new assessment was made and these lands were placed into two categories: Khalischayi Ouqafi and Khalischayi Arbabi.

2. Ibid pp 50-51
In the latter part of Nasirud-Din Shah's reign much of the Khaliseh in the neighbourhood of Isfahan was sold, and during the reign of Muzaffarud-Din Shah the process was almost complete. However, the court was in need of money, and so various types of lands were declared Khaliseh which were likely to be sold in favour of the state. As a result of all this, the situation became confused. Even old aababi land was declared Khaliseh and land was regrown into the following categories (1) Amlak-i-divanah which was in the hands of government officials cultivated directly but had state of let to peasants (2) Amlak-i-Tahrir, states temporarily confiscated by the state for punishment (3) Amlak-i-Intiqal (4) Amlak-i-Sabri (5) Amlak-i-hizori. The vicissitudes undergone by Qajari property in this period were little less than those undergone by Khaliseh land. However, in the latter Qajar period appropriation of Qajari funds and their conversion into the private property was unknown.

A great deal of the country was alienated from the direct control of the government in the form of tuzmat. These were allotted both out of Khaliseh land and of private ownership.}

Anseri, Haji Marzattasun Khan, Shaykh Jabiri Anvari, Isfahan, Isfahan, Ikhlas, 1944 pp 54-60.
property. In some cases a certain area was tuyul allotted to a particular government office. But it is relative extent of land granted as tuyul or of the different form of landowning. Another important class of land in Qajar times was tribal land, but there was not a clear delimitation between tribal land and non-tribal land, one merged into the other. In certain areas, some peculiar practices in regard to land tenure also prevailed. In some parts of Khuzistan the whole district would become the right of the Wali or the Shaikh of the day and because of this no one would like to develop the land. The nomads and seminomads were also a great problem. In the area through which they migrated, extensive damage was frequently done to the crops and no adequate measures were taken to protect the settled people and the semi settled elements. Pasture were allotted to certain tribes in their summer and winter quarters as part payment from the military contingent which they were required to furnish. A tax was also levied upon families according to their wealth. Special levies were paid by the leaders of the tribes to the ruler at the new year 1.

But to establish control over the tribal area
was indeed one of the most difficult problems faced by
the Qajars. In general at this period they attempted to
rule the tribal through the tribal chief, but the control
was very precarious. The government official known as Il-
Khan and Il-beg were appointed over the larger tribes, they
collected government taxes and were generally responsible
to tribal affairs. They were in most cases appointed from
the tribes themselves. There were a considerable number
of tribal groups of various origins in Iran, some settled
some semi-settled and some entirely nomadic. The two main
groups were the Khamseh and the Qashqai. The former group
was composed of five tribes: three Turkish and two Arabs.
They lived largely by plundering and highway robbery.
Control over these tribes was of a precarious nature in
most of the cases. There was no leader over the whole
tribe. The lullman, like other tribal groups, were a
element making for insecurity but as in the case of other
tribal groups they were often subject to operation and
provocation. In some of the frontier areas in the north-
west, various tribal groups held land free in return for the
military contingent. The Khan held his lands free of
revenue, but it was subject to the payment of a yearly
tribute in the shape of presents of money and horses, but
some of these tribal chieftains were exempt from the payment
of revenue on condition of military service. The
provincial contingents outside the tribal areas were levied
on a somewhat different basis. It was necessary upon each
area, in addition to tax assessment, to provide so many
soldiers or, in some cases, a sum equivalent to the wages of
so many soldiers.

In theory the loyalty of these soldiers was to
the local land lords. Formerly the duty of service was
obliged upon the muqta or qasnee and not upon the land as
such. He was granted an iqta to defray the cost of the
contingent. He was bound to provide as his service. Such
contingent was first loyal to him then to the sultan.

So far as local administration and the
administration of justice was concerned there was little
difference from the earlier Qajar period. In villages the
land owner was judge of all disputes among the villagers.
But in the villages held by wuuli the wuuli exercising
similar authority. The revenue administration was under a
Ibid p 164.
The Mustoufi of each province prepared a revenue assessment which was entered in a special register. The revenue was used to defray regular local expenses. The villages were assessed in lump sum. The division of this among the individual peasants was made by the local authorities. In making these assessments, water, land, the availability of labour etc were taken into account. The unit on which the tax was assessed varied in different areas. For example in some villages of Fars the assessment was made by the plough; the rate varied from 4 Tuman to 16 Tumans according to the quantity of land. The divani villages were more heavily assessed than Arbabi. The Arbabi could make some kind of resistance while the majority of poor tenants could not resist effectively. In the plains of Pushahr and Iar where wells were used to irrigate the land, the state levied a tax known as Sarchorkhi on each well. There were private properties even in Khalisch villages. In Yerd however, the assessment of village was based upon a calculation of its water supply. In addition

Ibid p. 249.
Ibid p. 250.
Ibid pp. 256-257.
to the regular land tax the population also had to pay occasional taxes.

In the later part of the Nasirud-Din Shah's reign steps were taken for unifying the tax administration of the country, increasing the revenue, and ensuring that the revenue reaches the central treasury. The next step was taken in 1889 when a new land survey was carried out under the Ministry of Finance. By this survey land was divided into various categories and taxation was assessed on the basis of produce per ten thousand (10,000) square yard (zar). The categories were: (1) Crown lands (Amlaki Saltanati) consisting of building, gardens, factories, stores, forests, special state preserves, telegraph offices, embassies and similar properties (2) Common property (Amlakiummuri) such as: water tank, drinking places, public hospital etc. (3) Real estates consisting of baths, caravan sheds and similar properties (4) Private property (Amlak Khasseh) consisting of houses, gardens, orchards and cultivable property. Taxes were to be levied in this way. At harvest time an official was to go to the village and from every kind of grain, pulses and grass, 10 percent was

to be taken in kind; from tobacco, melons, opium, cotton, sugarcane etc. 10 percent cash was to be collected in installments. Various other dues were also to be levied. One man per 180 male Muslims in each village was taken in military service. All males from 16 to 50 years of age were bound to give some days' labour on the roads, and those who could not give labour made payment in cash. The religious classes, school teachers, soldiers and police were exempt. leviation was levied in lumpsum on each village, both in cash and kind. Each village had to provide a number of soldiers. However, for an assessment and collection of revenue was concerned considerable variations appear to have persisted.

In relation between the peasants and landowners varied considerably from district to district. In some cases the land was permanently apportioned, in others it was redistributed among the peasants. In Fars for example the lands of the villages were divided into various tracts known as zehra according to position and local advantages. In the southern part of the country irrigated land were annually

1 Ibid pp 169-70
In Shiraz and Lar the cultivators paid 2/3 of the crop to the landowner while in some other parts they paid only 1/2 of the produce. In Mishapur the landlord took 2/3 of the produce and was responsible for payment of all due to the tax. In Azarbayjan the rights of a proprietor in the land which he owned or Khaliseh or Vaqi land amounted to 1/10 of the yearly produce in case of dayam (that is unirrigated) land, while in the case of irrigated land he received a little extra for the water; but when the proprietor furnished seed and cattle he generally received 2/3 of the produce. The peasant in Iran was effectively tied to the land. This dependence was further increased when military service under the Qajar became a charge on the land and not on the individual. As long as the peasants could appear to the courts provided over by the Qazi which was independent of the landowner, munta or inyula, he had some possibility of redress. But as time passed the religious institution was incorporated into the general structure of the state. Under the Mongols land

1. Ibid p. 171.
dispute, in some cases were referred to court presided over by Qazi. Under the Satuids, the independence of the Qazi was reduced; the suyilders and the holders of hereditary suyurghal were in many cases, given full power to decide all cases in the area granted to them. This tendency of the extension of the jurisdiction of the local landowner and suyilder and to concentrate all power in their hands continued in Qajar time. The result was further increase in the dependence of the peasant.

Meanwhile, other influences began to be realized. Contact with foreign countries was increasing. It was strongly felt that some change was necessary if Iran was not to be left behind by the technical superiority of European countries. In the later part of the nineteenth century the Young Turk movement and Pan Islamic movement of Jalalud-Din-Afghani had great impact. Further, the ever-growing financial stringency was exercising the minds of both the ruling classes and the intellectuals. The latter reacted to the tendency of the rulers to attempt to solve financial difficulties by the grant of commercial concession to foreigners because in their opinion such grants would reduce Iran to the economic and political tutelage of foreign
powers. They sought a large share in the government of the country. The various movements and tendencies came to a head into constitutional resolution 1905 and 1906 and resulted in the grants of constitution of Muzaffarud-Din Shah by 1906. With this began a new period in the history of Iran so far as land tenure is concerned. The break in legal theory was perhaps greater than in practice. Power still largely remained in the hands of the land owner and the tribal Khans, and it was not till the reign of Raza Shah that this was materially changed. 1

1. Ibid pp 176-177.
THE CONSTITUTION : THE RISE OF REZA SHAH

The grant of the constitution in 1906 marks a new period in the history of the relationship of the various landowning classes. The constitution recognized the sanctity of private property and that no owner could be deprived of this land except by sanction of the Sharia with certain limitation. One of the first actions of the National Assembly in 1907 was the appointment of a committee to examine the question of financial reforms, which was closely linked with land tenure and the land revenue administration. The committee recommended four measures of reforms:

1. It greatly reduced, and in some cases abolished, the pensions and grants which were paid to a large number of persons of rank and princes of royal house.

2. The sums which local governors levied over and above revenue assessment for their expenses, were added to the regular assessment and provisions were made for the expenses of provincial administration.

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3. The system of tuyul was abolished.

4. The conversion rates were abolished. The abolition of this practice considerably increased the national revenue.

THE RISE OF REZA SHAH

After the First World War Riza Khan, who later became Reza Shah, emerged as the most powerful politician in Iranian politics. Reza Shah first devoted his attention to the formation of an efficient national army, and undertook a series of campaigns against various tribal lords in order to ensure the authority of the central government. But he subsequently realized that military reform cannot be carried out without some measures of financial and administrative reform. In the National Assembly a bill providing for a survey of all landed property and fixing of a uniform tax on land had been introduced. Despite this, the financial administration was in a state of disorder. The financial legislation enacted by the National Assembly was generally not enforced. Land disputes were numerous, and many Khulaisch villages had fallen into private hands. There were also irregular taxes and the exaction of a duty. Survey of International Affairs 1918, p. 525.
Gradually some sort of order was introduced into the finance of the country. Thus in the winter of 1925, financial agencies were set up in certain districts of Fars, and the financial administration of the whole province of Khuzistan was taken over. The law of January 1926, established a uniform land tax throughout the country. Irrigated and unirrigated land was to pay three percent of the gross produce. The tax was payable on each item once only and the taxable value on various articles was to be fixed annually. The effect of this law in practice was to increase the burden of taxation on peasants. In February 1931 by the law of Sixth Island 1900 foreign trade was made government monopoly and various other monopolies were subsequently established under the general authority given by this law. Under these monopolies, the government in the case of wheat, bought the produce at a fixed price. This measure was beneficial to the peasants since it assured them of a market for their crops at known prices.

A Department of Registration had been established. Further legislations were passed fixing the changes to be made for registration. The Law of Mihr (1308/1979) made the registration of real estate compulsory within a period of two years after the setting up an office of the Department of Registration on 26 Irshand 1101/1937. A further law concerning the establishment of registration department was passed. In the regulation for this law provision made for the registration of any property by others. Special provisions were made for the institution of Ougaf of the responsibility for this relating with the Mutawalli.

In certain cases there had been some difficulties in deciding ownership owing to the fact that several people received right over a property concurrently. Attempts were made to remove the difficulties by issuing the letter by the Director General of Registration. Where a village was jointly held, it could be registered as a joint holding known as Mushe. The individual holdings might be defined in which case it was known as Mutrus. When a village was Mushe, agreement concerning the exploitation of the land and water had to be concluded with all the owners. The bardere or harim of Khurdi malik village owned by several
persons were normally registered jointly in the name of owners of the village concerned. Rights of ownership had been further reinforced by legislation concerning dispossession and recovery. The law of Urdibihisht (1309/1930) concerning the method of preventing dispossession permitted the security officials, the police, the governors and district officers, to prevent dispossession of property Where cases of dispossession concerned agricultural land and the interests of a third party, namely the crop-sharing peasants, were also involved, certain conditions were laid down to provide for such contingencies.

Under Rezai Shah changes were brought about in local administration. On 20th Azar 1314/December 1935, the law concerning Kad Khuda (village headman) was passed. According to this law the Kad Khuda was the representative of the landowners and was responsible for the execution of laws and regulations. In each village or group of villages Kad Khuda was to be appointed. He was to look into the agricultural matters in accordance with the orders of the landowners. He could decide minor cases in the village and was thus guardian of the interest of the landowners.
The law of 16th Aban 1316 (1937) concerned local administration affecting the division of the country and the duties of the governor (Farmandar) and district officers (Bakhshdar). Articles 21 laid down that in every district (bakhsh) a district council was to be formed. The duties of the council were:

1. to investigate into the condition of each township.
2. to supervise the provisions for public health and other public needs.
3. to form agricultural companies.
4. to give guidance in agricultural training to peasants and landowners.

The increase of production and productivity was a matter of great interest for the government of Iran. On Aban 25th 1316 (Nov. 1937) the law for agricultural development (Qanuni Umran) was passed. Under it the owners of lands were bound to bring them into cultivation. The duty for the better provision of Vaqf property was of a Mutwalli. Under this law provision was made for creation of Qanat, reclaiming of waste lands, maintenance of irrigation channels, improvement of housing, the making of
roads and establishment of public health posts. In short the period from 1906 onwards observed marked changes both in the structure of administration and in Iranian society.

THE CIVIL CODE

In addition to the various measures discussed above a body of law concerning land was also promulgated in the Civil Code. The Civil Code was more precise in its division of property into two kinds, movable and immovable property. Under immovable property were included certain articles which were not, properly speaking, immovable property. Thus fruits and crops were deemed immovable. Similarly trees and their branches young plants, and cuttings were immovable.

Chapter two of the Civil Code described the various rights which were exercised over property or may accrue to person from its possession. These were three, the right of ownership, the right of usufruct, and the right of easement in the property of another. Concerning ownership it was stated that every owner had unlimited rights of occupation and enjoyment of his property except in matters.

1. Ibid P - 193.
in which the law had made an exception. Under the right of
vaguely defined life rights, rights for pre-erased period and
right of occupation were recognised for a period. Under
right of easement, wherever one had channel, for
running water through the land or house of another person,
the owner of the land or house could not prevent unless he
could prove it was not being used as a right.

Harim (Borders). According to Islamic Law, the
ownership of a property involves a right of its border.
The civil code defined the rule about such border. The
borders of a quality of land were the boundary of the
property, had also of the water channels, the streams etc.
which were necessary for the full enjoyment of the land.

Gifts
The question of gifts was dealt with briefly in
the Civil Code. Delivery of possession was essential for
consummation of gift. It was revocable even after deliver
unless: (a) donor was the parent of the recipient; (b) some
exchange was given for the gift. If the gift was no

1. Ibid p 196.
2. Mawardi, Abdul Harun Ali Bin Muhammad Mawardi, Al Akbar
- Sultaniyi - Fehrein 1853 pp 31, 218, 221
In the possession of the recipient (or) some change had occurred in the instance of the gift.

**Preemption**

In right of the preemption was also discussed in the Civil Code. It was important in view of the relatively common occurrence of jointly held property. The Civil Code limited the right of preemption to immovable property owned by two co-heirs. If buildings and trees without land were sold, the right of preemption was not established.

**Bequest**

Islamic law limits to one third the property to be disposed of by bequest. The Civil Code similarly stipulated that only one third of a testator's property could be disposed of by bequest without consent of the heirs of testator.

**Inheritance**

The Civil Code incorporated the main provisions of the Shari'ah law of inheritance. Heritable right was based on

nabāb and on sāhib. Fixed shares were allotted to the various classes of heirs. The rules for the combination of these shares and orders of the succession were regulated. Where there were male or female heirs, each male had double the share of female; the wife inherited only on movable property.

Dead Lands

According to Islamic theory legal governments belong to Imam or his deputy. It had been assumed that such privileges as belong to the Imam in matter of land, had developed in the temporal government since government as the successor of Imam was the representative of the people. What was owned by the community was also wasted in the temporal government. Reclamation of the dead land for agricultural purpose involved three conditions:

1. The heaping up of the earth delimiting and isolating the land intended reclaim. (2) The bringing of water to the land (3) Ploughing and levelling. The Civil Code preserved the main feature of the Islamic tradition concerning their reclamation. Article 141 defined the

1. Ameer Ali, Lectures on Muhammadan Law, Calcutta 1885 pp. 11, 12
action direction towards the reclamation of land as those which made dead land exploitable by means of operation. Article 142 defined the preliminary steps, which were known as talijeas to cultivate land.

**Crop sharing Agreement**

The Civil Code dealt with contract for agricultural and harvesting purposes. Both were crop sharing agreements. The former was defined as a contract by virtue of which one of the two parties gave other a piece of land for a specified time so that he would cultivate it and divide the proceeds. A second type of contract known as muqaf, concerned a transaction which took place between the owner of trees and similar things and another party known as Amlal to return for a specified undivided share of the produce. According to the Civil Code it was subject to the same provisions on the contracts for agricultural purposes known as mubanar.
in the Civil Code in so far as land questions are concerned had been strong, but little attempt had been made to supplement the old one and very little attention had been paid by the Civil Code to the regulation of the relation of landlord and tenant. In general the scales were weighed in favour of landlord and little protections had been afforded to tenant.

1. Ibid p. 56
WHITE REVOLUTION

In January 1963 Iranian nation endorsed the six-point reforms charter which the Shah of Iran put before his nation which has since come to be known as the charter of the White Revolution. The six-point programme consisted of:

1. Land Reform, and the abolition of peasant landlord tenure system, and the redistribution and sale to their former peasants (on easy terms) of all handed estates in excess of one village.

2. The public ownership of all forest lands of the nation for the purpose of conservation, proper management and better utilization of their resources.

3. The public sale of state-owned industrial enterprises to private corporations and individuals to raise funds to finance agrarian reconstructions and development programmes, creating profitable investment opportunities for former landlords in

Z.N. Cavidian Iran in the service of world peace, Tehran, 1971 pp. 61 - 62
particular and for small savers in general.

4. Incentives for increased labour-productivity by means of profit sharing arrangements between industrial workers and management to the extent of 20 percent of net corporate earnings.

5. The amendment of the electoral laws so as to grant voting and other related rights to women, extending equal and universal suffrage to all Iranian citizens regardless of sex.

6. The formation of the Education Corps from high school graduate conscripts to act as primary school teachers and multi-purpose village level workers in rural areas, combating illiteracy, superstitions and ignorance.

It was subsequently realized that if the reform measures were to be all-embracing and introduce radical changes in the living conditions of the masses, other reform-measures had to supplement the initial six points of the charter. The Shah, therefore, proclaimed six other points which consisted of 1.

1. Ibid p. 62.
7. The formation of Health Corps from physicians and dentists and health personnel to bring free medical attention to rural areas, improving sanitary conditions and public health standards.

8. The formation of the Development and Agricultural Extension Corps to modernize the physical structure of the village and help farmers acquire new skills necessary to raise farm productivity.

9. The establishment of village courts to hear minor local cases so that they may be settled pragmatically, equitably and speedily bringing the rule of enlightened modern law to the village.

10. Nationalization of the country's water resources for the purpose of conservation of fresh water supplies through modern scientific practices, assuring judicious use of water in agriculture.

11. An extensive reconstruction programme in urban and rural areas to improve living standards of the whole nation.

12. A complete administrative and educational reorgan-
organization and revitalizations of Government agencies to meet the more exacting requirements of the times.

The Shah unveiled a revolutionary front still at a great risk to his personal position and successfully put to the Iranian people in a referendum his own reform programme within the framework of what is called White Revolution designed to appeal to and benefit the majority of Iranian people of different political views under the leadership of the traditional monarchy. The Shah later declared that Iran's internal situation made him feel the great need for a revolution based on the most advanced principle of justice\(^1\), and human right that would change the framework of Iranian society and make it comparable to that of the most developed country of the world.

Several scholars have examined the White Revolution from various points of view\(^2\). For example J. Bill and M. Jonis have looked at it as the politics of system preservation and the politics of maneuvering

respectively, R. Ramazani has considered it as the politics of Independence, while C. Piggmore has analysed in terms of the politics of social modernization. The White Revolution was a means whereby the Shah attempted to achieve two objectives; to widen the popular basis of his rule and to reduce his dependence on the United States. The Revolution represented an attempt on the process of controlled mass-mobilization and selected psycho-economic reform in support of his leadership and rule. In expounding the philosophy and working programme of the White Revolution the Shah drew on several sources, ranging from the Iranian cultural heritage and Islamic principle to democracy and westernization. However it was claimed that the idea and the philosophy were purely an Iranian concept. It was a "White Revolution". Its accomplishment was to be through no disorder and no bloodshed not even class hatred. In this context the Revolution was to cover a wide range of innovative things affecting the socio-economic life in Iran which the Shah visualised in terms what he called political economic and social democracy and westernisation for social justice. His use of terms such as democracy and westernization should be understood within the Iranian
context. By political democracy he meant a synthesis of western principle of parliamentary system and the Iranian monarchical situations. He made it clear that he preferred a two party-system over one party system which he considered as a communistic and absolute dictatorship. By economic democracy the Shah meant the equal distribution of resources goods and services according to the abilities and individual needs and the establishment of mixed economic system to be composed of private and public sectors. By social democracy he meant enabling every Iranian citizen to develop himself fully and act freely within the limits of social welfare, national interest and security of the Iranian people.\(^1\)

The implementation of such democracy requires education and psychological development, the reconciliation of individual wishes with social responsibility, the rethinking of moral values and individual social loyalties and learning to work in cooperation more than before. Such an understanding of democracy and westernization pertained only to selective and judicious terms, whereby Iran would liberalized its way of life as far as this was compatible

with Iranian traditions. The monarchy, to the Shah, was a pivotal tradition of Iranian society and he sought refuge in the important tradition in order to legitimise the blend of the institution of monarchy with the requirement of modern times. He wrote:

"Especially in a country with such venerable traditions as ours, rapid change naturally brings its strains and stress. These are the price we must pay for westernization and modernizations. But I do not propose that we abandon our great heritage. On the contrary, I have every confidence that we can enrich it. Religion and philosophy and literature, science and craftsmanship all will prosper more as we develop our economy so that the common people of this ancient land can enjoy all the essentials of life. Instead of the few flourishing at the expense of the many, they will do so with the many. Selective and judicious Westernization can help us towards the goal of democracy and shared prosperity and it is why I refer it to be as our welcome ideal."¹

Against the background of these conditions the Shah officially launched the White Revolution in January.

¹. Ibid p 160.
1962. The Revolution's philosophy and reform programme were declared to be instrumental in transforming Iran from an economically poor and socially divided country into a prosperous, industrialised, self-sufficient and truly an independent sovereign nation.

In order to implement the initial reform of the White Revolution the Shah had already promulgated a Third Five Year Development programme in September 1962. This plan represented the first serious attempt at comprehensive and consistent national planning in Iran. It made projections of the available financial and other source for the plan period much more clearly than ever before. The plan called for speedy development of agriculture, industry and the social sector. While stressing the importance of public and private investments, it initially proposed a total outlay of 190 billion Rials, over 66 percent of this expenditure was to be met from oil resources estimated at U.S. $ 5000 million during the plan period. Thus for the first time oil income was to be channelised into national development.

The third plan provided the working framework of the White Revolution. By this the Shah was able to mobilise
a large number of masses in support of his leadership. He put his reform-programme to the Iranian people in a referendum, in which 99 percent voted to Shah's programme. The result of the referendum gave the Shah a handle to claim that the Iranian people not only endorsed his Revolution but he also had full support to his regime.

Drawing upon his popular legitimacy the Shah moved forcefully to implement his reform. He started with land reform. After approving some supplementary article to land reform law in January 1963, the Shah started implementing the land reform programme in three stages. Under the first stage the government purchased a total of 60,000 villages (about 14.5% of arable land) from landowners and transferred them to over 74,000 families. It limited the landlords, individual holdings to one village and urged the new rich peasants to join the government guided cooperatives. The second stage of the reform began in 1965. The landowners were offered a choice of five methods of settlement: tenancy; sale to peasants; division of land in the same proportion as the cropsharing agreement; formations of agricultural co-operatives; sales of peasant's right to landowners. Moreover the land reform was to cover
the religious endowment lands. However the peasants were generally given tenure; they did not all receive ownership of land and the conditions under which the land was transferred to them were less favourable than those under the first stage. The third stage of the Reform was launched in 1966. This stage aimed at the expansion of the agricultural production in accordance with the need of Iran's industrial development; a rise in the per capita output and standards of living of peasantry and the improvement of marketing and production techniques and consequently the stabilization of food prices.

Meanwhile forest and pasture lands were nationalized by the government. This was to put these resources in the service of all, to prevent their misuse and waste in the hands of private owners, to develop them according to the needs of the country and above all to support the land reform and strengthen the position of farmers. For the pasture land it was legislated that public ownership be available to sheep and cattlemen. It subsequently nationalized water resources and established

the development and extension crops. The nationalization of water resources pushed up agricultural and industrial development plan.

The land reform, whatever be its socio-economic benefits for the people, proved politically rewarding for the Shah in several ways. He liquidated the large holdings of major landlords thereby undermining their power-base. In this way the Shah had direct access to the majority of the population in the countryside. In this way he was able to meet one of the popular demands of his political opponents, the land reform as a popular and democratic measure. Thus the Shah could claim to have abolished the traditional land base feudalism in Iran and revolutionised the life of the peasantry. As a result, a large number of rich peasants submitted themselves to the Shah in the hope of a better life. The land reform thus opened a potential source of rural support for the Shah's leadership and rule.

But the Shah neither wished to alienate the landlords altogether nor to have a prolonged confrontation with them. The Land Reform was thus balanced by the public

sale of state owned factories to private shares. This reform aimed at enriching the Government with an additional source of revenue, so that it could finance the land reform effectively, and at providing the former land lords with stimulus to re-invest in industry the money which they had received by way of compensation for their lands. Many former land-lords thus soon managed to become industrial lords.

The White Revolution programme stressed the rapid industrialisation of Iran, an improvement in the working and living conditions of the country's industrial labour force. It sought direct investment to establish heavy industry such as steel and petrochemicals. It promoted light industries such as manufacture of consumer items, and sought to protect and strengthen traditional industries such as textile, carpet and food industry. In the mean time, the government legislated a minimum wage and worker's social insurance policy. In each factory, up to 20 percent of the profit was to be distributed among the workers. The profit sharing law was put into execution in June 1963. It was hoped that the law would ensure workers' reasonable wages and increase employment and welfare incentives. All this
created some improvement in the working and living conditions of the workers. It also provided some basis for the growth of an urban working class, largely under the leadership of the Shah. Thus it provided a source of support for the Shah's rule.

The agrarian and industrial measures were accompanied by the Shah's efforts to mobilize women and youth behind his regime. In 1963 the Shah amended the constitution: allowing the women to play an increasingly important part in the political and social life of their country. The women's response to this 'emancipation' was immediate and highly enthusiastic. Soon they took up the challenge and entered nearly every field of social and political activities.

There were women lawyers, judges, parachutists, policewomen, literacy corpswomen, high ranking government officials including a minister, women parliamentarians and many others engaged in various social and political activities. They gave conclusive evidence that, given suitable opportunities, women could be effective members.

of the society and thus play a significant part in the social and economic reconstruction of their country ¹.

A by-product of the women's emancipation was the enactment of the family protection law. This law aimed at preventing family life from breaking up because of the ease with which some men could marry more than one wife or divorce their wives to marry again.

The emancipation of the Iranian women, supplemented by the family protection law, was hailed both at home and abroad as a very significant social, economic and humanitarian measure. It helped to free the Iranian women from the prejudice-ridden shackles to which they had been subjected, and enabled this very significant portion of the country's population to occupy its rightful place in the Iranian society, a right to which they were fully entitled if by no other reason than their being members of the human race ².

For the educated youth the Shah instituted the literacy Corps, Health Corps, Development and Extension Corps and Houses of Equity. Under the first three schemes

¹. Ibid. p. 8.
². Ibid. p. 9.
thousand of unemployed University and High school graduates drafted as trained cadres to work in rural areas in lieu of the part of their three years' military service. The Literacy and Health Corps were to help improve rural literacy and health and sanitation standards. The Development and Extension Corps were to guide and to assist farmers and rural co-operatives in new production. These corps were collectively entrusted with the task of propagating the aims and objects of the White Revolution throughout the country from 1963 to 1971. A total of 98,599 men and women served in twenty one teams of Literacy corp and educated about 16,75000 pupils. By 1972 the corps were active in over 20,000 remote villages. Consequently Iran's literacy rate rose from 15 percent at the end of 1950's to about 25 percent at the beginning of 1970's. The Health corps was established in 1964. By 1972 there were 400 medical groups, each of which covered 20 to 40 villages with a total population of 8,000 to 70,000. The Development and Extension Corps were founded in 1965. By 1972 the number of corps members serving in the scheme was 4692. The Houses of Equity or the village courts of justice were founded in 1963 to deal with petty offenses. By 1973 there were 300 Houses of Equity with 24000 corps members or judges on service in
Through these schemes the government succeeded in the execution of White Revolution and increasing contacts between the rural and urban population. Since the corps members were fulfilling part of the military service in civilian form they provided the government with some justification to emphasise the importance of the civilian role of armed forces and thus justified the expansion of Shah's military power base. In addition the scheme created employment opportunities and opened government controlled avenues for political participation of Graduates, a majority of whom had been previously critical of the Shah's regime for lack of job opportunities. Thus the scheme mobilized a good number of educated Iranian youths behind the Shah's leadership.

The Shah declared "National Reconstruction Reform" which was to narrow the gap in the standards of living between the cities and villages, to pay greater attention to less developed areas, to accelerate rural development and to introduce all modern facilities for transforming Iran.  

into a prosperous and powerful country in its region 1.

The administrative aspect of this reform aimed at improving the efficiency and working standard of Iran's public service. It stressed the need for public servants to work honestly and consciously and by accepting the responsibilities of their duty. It promised the decentralization of the administrative system and the protection and public interest as well as improvement in the social welfare and security of public servants. "The educational aspect of the reform was stressed as essential for the continuing successes of administrative and all other introduced reforms. It emphasized need of Iran for trained educational, agricultural, technical and administrative personnel 2."

The Shah failed to couple these socio-economic reforms with any major political reform. He continued to centralize politics under his absolute control to strengthen his central position in Iranian politics. The people were allowed neither to criticize the government policies nor to seek redress for their grievances. The Shah

1. Ibid. p. 07.
continued to maintain the parliament which was reopened in 1963 after a lapse of three years and the two party system and formally allowed the people to elect the Majlis every four years. But as in the past, party membership and elections were strictly controlled by the government and the opposition was suppressed. In fact by 1964 even the principle of two party system seemed to disappear. The Shah instigated a new ruling party called Iran Nawin which was led by his loyal colleague, Ali Mansoor, the Prime Minister from 1964 to 1965. After his assassination in 1965 he was succeeded by his finance minister and the former critic of the Shah's regime, Amir Abbas Huwaida who was responsible for making Iran Nawin the sole political party elections.

The formal opposition party Mardum continued only in name. The opponents were to be effectively suppressed. But despite his promises the Shah virtually did not succeed to democratize the Iranian political system. Initially through his reforms, no matter how undemocratic they might be in the eyes of his opponents, the Shah, to a certain extent, improved domestic credibility. He had opened up basis of support among peasants, industrial workers, women and

youths, and even intellectual, professionals, technocrats and bureaucrats. Thus mass-mobilization improved the prospects of social and economic stability with the result that the people began to hope for a better future. He had stimulated some social and economic bases thereby gaining a reputation for his revolutionary ideas to reform his society and to improve the living conditions of the Iranian people. Thus the domestic image of the Shah considerably improved and he was able to initiate certain changes in his regional policy in order to attain the goal of White Revolution for an independent national foreign policy. This helped the Shah's regime both to strengthen the regional security as well as to gain regional economic and technical support of his reform.

By the beginning of the 1960s it was clear that the Shah's policy of exclusive alliance with the West opposed to communism, had done his regime more damage than good. Thus the Shah found it imperative to effect domestic reforms along with changes in regional policy. He later emphasised the importance of bilateral relationship with other countries on the basis of peaceful co-existence and co-operation and independence. He conducted his foreign
relation with more flexibility within the limits of his regime's alliance within the West and opposition to communism. He stressed that the foreign policy goal of the White Revolution should be of the national independence. He subsequently declared: "Our policy is based on the maintenance and preservation of peace. We in Iran have adopted a policy which we call a policy of independent nationalism. Its essential principles are non-interference in the internal affairs of other countries and peaceful coexistence. We must go beyond this stage and convert peaceful co-existence into international co-operation and understanding especially to countries with different political and social systems from ours, for without them the basic difficulties facing the world today, such as illiteracy, sickness and hunger, cannot be solved. We believe that the way to safeguard the real interest of our country is by co-existence and sincere co-operation with all countries........... on the basis of mutual respect for national sovereignty........... At the same time........ the establishment...........understanding and peace cannot be achieved without sincere respect for the principle of co-existence between different ideologies and systems of government or without respect for the principle of
To conclude, let us recapitulate the reforms envisaged in the White Revolution. It was in the year of 1334 (shamsi) that the bill for the distribution of the crown properties was passed and in the year 1337 it was actually put in practice. According to this law, every farmer could hold not more than 10 hectares of irrigated or arid land. Hence the crown land was distributed among hundred thousand farmers. But the big land owners, despite this law, were still holding lots of land and the average income of small farmers was not more than fifteen thousand Rials per annum. Keeping this disparity in mind, the Shah introduced a "Land Reform Bill" in the parliament in Khurudad of 1339. But this bill, when passed by the parliament, lost many of its reformatory points and was not more than an artificial aid to the farmers.

In Di Mah of 1340, another bill was passed putting a ceiling to the property owned. According to this, an Irani land owner could not possess more than one tenth of his entire land.

In 1343, another Land Reforms Bill was passed and put into practice. The first township that was affected by this was Maragheh, and after that, it was applied to the entire country.

The third stage of land reform was mechanisation of farming and increase in the agricultural output with the help of modern techniques. A 20 point programme was evolved, consisting of:

1. Acquiring best means of irrigation.

2. Increasing and popularising the use of chemical manure.

3. Mechanisation of agriculture, according to the needs and demands of different agricultural zones in the country.

4. Protection of agricultural products from natural calamity and disease in fields of storages.

5. Technical training of the farm-workers.

6. Proper transportation of the agricultural produce from the farms to the market and...
7. Expansion and reinforcement of the network of cooperative associations and various other agricultural units.

8. Establishment of economic unit in agriculture.

9. Joining animal husbandry with agriculture.

10. Encouraging investment of capital in agricultural ventures.

11. Encouraging capital investment in animal husbandry and farming.

12. Joining agricultural programmes with industrial ventures.

13. Cultivation of arid land.


15. Formation of special co-operatives for agricultural products.

For implementing this Programme, it was necessary
to form rural cooperative associations. Therefore, simultaneous with the introduction of this programme, many cooperative associations were founded to help the farmers. These cooperatives gave loans to them, provided them with chemical fertilizers, and arranged irrigation for dry lands. By the end of Mehr Mah, 1345, more than 7,000 cooperatives consisting of 9,000,000 units all over the country were established. More than 16,000 villages were included in these corporations. The capital invested was about 800 million Rials.

In the middle of 1342, the Central Organisation for Rural Development was established under the auspices of the Agricultural Ministry. A Bank of credit for Rural and Agricultural Development was also established. The basic functions of this organisation were:

1. To specify the ways of working of these co-operative associations.

2. Expansion of the co-operative network.

3. Advancing credit to these co-operatives.

4. To find market for dispensation of the agricultural product.
5. Advancement of cottage industries.

6. To establish contact with international co-operative.

The Bank of Credit and Rural Advancement gave loans to the farmers. About 4 hundred million Rials was given as loan to farmers during the last four years. The bank also gave loan for the drought hit lands.

Modification in Land Inheritance

According to the new law, the lands of the deceased cannot be distributed among the inheritors if it is less than 10 hectares.

Irrigational Reforms

1. Nationalisation of Water Resources.

2. Water Reservoirs.


5. Cannals.
6. Channelisation of rivers.

7. Procuring technical aids for water supply throughout the year.

8. To tap and utilise underground water resources.

9. To save water in daily consumption.

THE PERSIAN LAND REFORMS

This and the following chapter are based on the book entitled Persian Land Reform (1962-1966) by Ann K.S. Lambton, Oxford, 1969. Its author made a thorough investigation of agricultural problems of Iran during her travel through all parts of the country several times. She was, therefore, very well qualified to discuss the problems of land reforms and she did discuss these problems in her book so thoroughly and so much critical insight that for a long time to come no one will be able to add much to her observations. It is because of this that I have no alternative but to summarise her views with some additions here and there.

The Land Reforms Law of January 1962

On January 1961 Dr. Ali Amini was appointed as Prime Minister of Iran. He belonged to the old bureaucracy. His methods were those of the old fashioned Persian diplomacy but since he was well trained in western techniques he brought new ideas to these old methods. He

was a deputy of the National Consultative Assembly in 1948 and later a Minister of National Economy in 1950 and under Dr. Musaddeq in 1951. From 1953-5 he was the Minister of Finance and in 1955, he was Minister of Justice and from 1956-8 he was an Ambassador in Washington.

In 1960-61 there had been a deterioration in the internal affairs of the country which was due to the neglect of the problems by those in authority. This was fully evident in the conduct of the election in 1960 and 1961 which were highly rigged resulting in generating unrest in the country and creating disturbances with the ultimate result that the government fell. Dr. Amini was asked to form a government but his appointment was perhaps not unconnected with the country's foreign relations.

Dr. Amini's cabinet included ministers who had links in past with Dr. Musaddeq and his Tudeh party. The minister of agriculture was young and dynamic Dr. Hasan Arsanjani. He was a widely traveled man and had sufficient experience of agricultural problems of his country. He was convinced that the agricultural reform was urgently needed in his country and no political reform will be successful without agricultural reforms.
The programme of the new government though not different from the old one, had an intention of limiting land holdings. And on 5 Oct. 1961, a small team of officials from the ministry of agriculture was sent to carry out a land survey in the Maragheh area. On 11 Nov., 1961, the Shah issued a Farman to Dr. Amini ordering the government to execute if necessary in a modified form the land reform law of 17 May, 1960. On 9 Jan., 1962, Dr. Amini and some of his cabinet colleagues signed a bill amending the land reform law of 1960. The former differed from the latter in respect of the following:

1. It limited holdings to one village only.

2. It fixed the compensations to be given to the land owners on the basis of the taxation they had paid.

3. It allocated the land to the peasants cultivating the land.

4. It made membership of a cooperative society a condition of the receipt of land. The law of 9 Jan. 1962/1340 Daymeh 1340 together with the Additional Article of 17 Jan. 1963/2/ Daymeh 1341, the regulation for the execution of these two instruments, a number of
The main provision of the law was to limit the amount of land which any individual could hold to one villagers irrespective of its size. Such village in Iran is divided into 'parts and under the law landowners could select for his home village (بیشتر) in the village which he would retain, one whole village or a number of three or four villages, the aggregate of which is not to exceed three villages (دیگر). Any land in excess of village was to be transferred by the landowner to the peasants or sold by the landowner to the government and by the government to the peasants cultivating it.

A village (قرمز) was defined as a center of population and the place of residence and work of a number of people.
of families who were engaged in agricultural operation in
the village lands, and the income of the majority of whom
came from agriculture and which was by custom recognised
as a village. The fact that the several villages might be
included in one unit or in one registration area was the cause of much confusion and
gave rise to many disputes between the parties.

The land reform council made the following
decisions on 19 Jan. 1963:

1. If several Centres or group of houses were
   included in one main registration unit, they were
to be considered separate villages.

2. If one village and several (زنار ) were
   included in one registration unit (نور),
   the villages and the (زنار ) were to be
   regarded as forming one village.

1. Art. 2 note 3, Art. 1 para 10
2. The term (زنار ) is plural of (a cultivated
   field), and covers both a hamlet and the cultivated
   fields belonging to it and also a group of fields without
   any dwelling houses, which are cultivated by peasants
   living in a neighbouring village.
3. If each group of peasants residing in each of the several centres worked and cultivated several tracts of land, each centre was reckoned as a village. But if all the peasants in the different centres jointly cultivated all the lands included under main registration unit, it was to be treated as one village.

4. If a centre with separate name and nasaq (نَص) was covered by a subsidiary registration unit (بِلدَة خِص) it was to be regarded as a separate village.

5. In the case of registration unit covering a having a separate name but with no houses, which was cultivated by peasants from another village, if this village and belonging to the same person and two were treated as one, the was to be regarded as part of the village in which the peasants lived.

6. An area covered by one main registration unit with a name and several subordinate plaks (بَلدَة) without names was to be regarded as one village.
Although the land owner was free under the law to choose which village he would retain, some limitations were, in practice, placed on his choice. On 19th Sept., 1962, the land reform council stipulated that a land owner could not retain part only of a village which had been his chosen village. The reform council again decided on 28 Jan., 1963, that the land reform organisations were to recommend landowners to sell to the government the villages which had grown and in which municipality had been set up and to choose some other villages as their "chosen" village. From the date of the passing of the law any transfer or sale by a landowner of land in excess of the holding was forbidden (Art. 4).

Certain categories of land were exempted from the provision of the law. These, called 
ستثنایات were as follows.

1. Orchards, tea plantations and woodland with some limitations.

2. All land worked by mechanised means at the date of the passing of the law.

3. Land which had been held on a leasehold tenure on
5 December, 1959, was subject to sale to the government until the lease expired. It was further decided on 19 Jan., 1963, that any lease concluded after 5 Dec., 1959, would be considered null and void. Thus there was no place for the middle man.

In the case of land constituted into a private or personal Waqf before 5 Dec. 1958, each of the beneficiaries allowed to continue to draw revenue from up to maximum holding permitted by the law of Jan. 9, 1962. Any land excess of this was to be sold and proceeds invested in other property under the supervision of Waqaf.

The procedure of the transfer of the land was as under: on the decision of the land reform council to put the law into operation, the ministry of agriculture would announce in a newspaper twice that the land reform is to begin in a particular area. Within one month of the second announcement landowners whose property exceeded the limit laid down in Article 2 of the law were required to declare particulars of their property to the authorities named by the ministry of agriculture. According to Note 3 to Article 1. Article 2 n. 1.
2 of the law of Jan. 9, 1962, in case of land under joint tenure, the land owners were to delimit their land and define the government's share within five days of the declaration of land reform in the area.

A cabinet decree issued on March 1, 1962, authorised the government to purchase the land offered to it by the land owners whose estates were not subject thus to transfer under Art. 2 of the law of Jan. 9, 1962. The land acquired thus by the government were transferred to the peasants living in the village. The price of such land was fixed by the department of agriculture on the basis of taxation paid. The land owner was entitled to appeal for the revision of price within a period of ten days. The landowner received the price of the land in ten annual installments. The land sold by the landowners to the government was to be handed over immediately by the ministry of agriculture at the price for which it was bought with an increase of ten percent to be paid to the central bank, to the people in order of preference in the following order:
1. The peasants living in the village who cultivated the land.
2. Musho meaning "joint tenure".
2. The heirs of peasants who had died within a year of the beginning of transfer.

3. Agricultural labours\(^1\) who received a share in the crop from the landlord.

4. Agricultural labours\(^2\) who did not own or provide an agricultural element and received in cash for the agricultural work.

5. Those who volunteered for agricultural work\(^3\).

In effect it means that the land subject to transfer went to the sitting or occupying peasants and that agricultural labourers would benefit from land reform indirectly.

The nature of land reform might have discriminated between the different classes of peasants but there were strong reasons for transferring the land to the occupying peasant. If the agricultural labourers were included in the distribution of land, it would have involved a change in the field layout of the village lands. It would have

\(^1\) Barzigaran i.e. men who did not own or provide any of the agricultural elements

\(^2\) کارکنان کشاورز

\(^3\) Article 16.
involved delay and led to conflict in the village. Another important factor not to transfer land to agricultural labourers was that they did not have sufficient means to cultivate the land. However, it is not easy to assess the proportion of occupying peasants in a village to the agricultural labourers.

Under Art. 16 of the law of Jan. 9, 1962, persons living in a village not engaged in cultivation of land (فوش منش) were excluded from the categories of persons to whom the land might be transferred. The land reform council in its proceedings of March 31, 1962, stated that in case of an agreement between the peasants of the village and (فوش منش) to include the latter among those holding a share in the village ploughlands, there would not be difficulty over their receiving a share of the land. It was permissible by agreement to revise and change the ١ (nasaq) of the village. Irrigated land was to be transferred with the water rights from qanats or rivers etc. belonging to it according to local customs. Art. 19 forbade the fragmentation of the land transferred to the peasants below a certain limit. In the event of ١. Division of the village land into plough land and peasant holdings. masha is holding land jointly.
peasant living and his heirs unable to agree over the administration of the holding they had to sell it to another peasant who would be responsible for the payment of the remaining installments. In the event of a peasant not cultivating the land transferred to him in accordance with the programme laid down by the cooperative society, the latter had right to handover his land to some one else (Art. 19, note 1). If a peasant failed to pay three installments for the land transferred to him with a valid reason, he would forfeit the land and the ministry of agriculture would transfer it to some one else.

Dead land or barren lands were also to be distributed under the law of Jan 9, 1962. The land reform organisation was authorised to sell for agricultural needs or stock grazing any land within the limits of a village subject to transfer under the law other than the land under cultivation, land on which building were constructed and the harim of qanat. The land reform council decided on Jan. 19, 1963, that the barren lands within village limits were:

1. Article 28
2. Article 6
3. Article 7
4. Land in medially surrounding qanats (Canal) paths or roads or pasture lands
to be bought by the government. Barren lands outside village limits could, with the permission of the ministry of agriculture, be bought by the landowner of the "chosen" village.

The price of barren and dead lands was to be fixed by the ministry of agriculture at the rate of 1/20 of the price of the nearest village bought by the ministry under the law of Jan. 9, 1960.

A council called the Council for Land Reform was to be formed to supervise the execution of Land Reform law of Jan. 9, 1962, under the chairmanship of the minister of agriculture. The decisions of this council were to be referred to an organisation called the Land Reform organisation, the head of which was to be appointed by a royal farmer. The Land Reform organisation was to have a head and a deputy head and was to consist of the following sections: statistics and information technical services, law and registration, purchase and transfer, and administration.

The region in which the Land Reform law was in operation was to have a well equipped organisation for the
provision of seed, good seedlings, good livestock, and necessary facilities for credit etc. In transferred villages agricultural operations common to the whole village were to be carried out through cooperative societies.

The law made provision of the relations between the landowner and the peasant in private owned properties and Vaqf land. These provisions were also to cover the relation between the landlords and peasants in agricultural lands within the confines of a town.

Under the law a peasant engaged in cultivating the land in a village was to be regarded as residing in that village and no landowner had the right to turn him out of the village or to prevent him from cultivating the land.

Agricultural operations by the landowner on land either a. the disposal of the peasant or in which the peasant had acquired certain right were to be permitted only with the consent of the peasant and after the purchase of his rights.

1. Article 30.
2. Article 32.
3. Article 22.
4. e.g. of which he own the a'yan (اِيَانُ) tangible agricultural property.
5. Article 22 n. 1.
6. Article 22 n. 1.
Tangible agricultural property (a'yān) was to belong to the peasant and he had the right to register his ownership but new a'yān could be created by the consent of the landowner.

Article 20 laid down the duties of the landowner and the peasants through out the country. The duties of the land owners were as follows:

1) To repair qanats, and to pay the cost that needed.

2) To pay the cost of water from rivers and canals.

3) To pay the cost water ducts, dams, tanks and cisterns etc.

4) To pay the cost of irrigation by power operated pumps.

5) To provide suitable seeds in areas where this was the responsibility of the landowner.

6) To perform such other duties as might be laid down by future laws and regulations.

The duties of the peasant were as follows:

1. To carry out agricultural operations.

2. To provide suitable seed in areas where the provision of 1. Article 25.
seed is the responsibility of the peasant.

The joint responsibilities of the land owners and the peasants were as under:

1. To maintain qanats, wells, tanks etc.

2. To pay the cost of chemical fertilizer and pest control.

3. To pay the dues of village headmen, and other officials.

4. To maintain gardens, trees and public buildings.

5. To provide the officials of the ministry with information on the agricultural and social matters of the village.

Article 33 laid down that the differences between the landowner and the peasant about agricultural matters were to be submitted to a special committee for such dispute. A committee was to be set up in each district composed of the district governor, the head of the local department of justice, and a representative of the ministry of agriculture. But the system was found to be cumbersome so it was amended on Oct. 15, 1962, which reads: disputes between the landowners and peasants on matters relating to
agriculture shall be referred to the officials of the land reform organization.

These were the main provisions of the Land Reform law of Jan. 9, 1962, which was drawn up with an understanding of local conditions and was thus pragmatic. It aimed at reform which would bring about change in social, political, and economic conditions of the country. It was certainly an improvement upon earlier measures of distribution of Khališeh or the setting up of village councils. The former had no effect on the relations of the landlord and the peasant and the latter, namely the village council did not give responsibility to the peasant. The real control remained with the government official and the landlord. The law of Jan. 9, 1962 aimed at a major change in tenurial conditions by breaking the political, social, and economic power of the landlord, and by making the membership of a cooperative society a necessary condition for the receipt of the land to give responsibility to the peasant for running of their own affair.

1. The word ending in has in خالیسه, is pronounced as Khališa or Name in Iran. But in Khalisa and Name.
The execution of the land reform law of Jan. 9, 1962, the additional articles, the peasants congress

The land reform law was signed on Jan. 9, 1962, and later on it was announced that it would be put into operation in Maragheh in eastern Azerbaijan; consequently on Jan. 16 it was notified that the landowners should declare their holdings. The execution of the law of Jan. 9, 1962, came to be known subsequently as the first stage of land reform; while the execution of the Additional Articles passed on Jan. 17, 1963, came to be known as the second stage. There were some valid reasons for the selection of Maragheh as the first place in which the law was put into operations. Maragheh was one of the most fertile districts and had a large export of dried fruits. Moreover, natural conditions in this area were more favourable for agriculture.

With the beginning of the execution of the land reform law, the propaganda campaign was intensified beyond proportion. However, the reform gained some measure of support in urban areas. Even many of the smaller landowners...
were in favour of the reform though their holdings was not so large as to bring them within the scope of Article 2 of the law.

The intellectuals, on the other hand were critical of the land reform. They argued that execution was hasty without having been given due attention to detailed planning. The left was also not favourable to reform. They wanted nothing short of collective farming.

The final distribution of title deeds to the peasants of Maragheh and some other area was made by the Shah on 23rd September 1962, and the landowners were advised to sell to the government the land which they were permitted to retain under article 2 of the law of January 9, 1962. The land reform was extended to various districts of Qazvin in May 1962. These districts were poor because they had been neglected by the landlords. In May 1962 the law became operative in various districts of Gilan which was a rich rice-growing province. And in the same month some districts of Arak were brought under the land reform. A little later the law became operative in Kermanshah, Fars, Azarbaijan and Kurdistan.
When the land reform started many landlords refrained from submitting a declaration of their estates as required under the law. This they did so as to get the reform delayed and they could have their share of the harvest before selling the villages to the government. However, in order to avoid delay in the transfer of villages to the peasants supplementary regulations were passed by the council. These provided for the transfer to all the peasants of the village on a joint tenure of the scattered parcels of land which had been sold to the government in the same proportion as they held under the existing division of the village into ploughlands.

Upon the announcement of the operation of land reform in a particular region a group of officials from the land reform organisation was sent to villages to collect the relevant information and check it with information available from the local registration office. For this a meeting of men of the village was held in which the purpose of the collection of information was explained. Then the assembled villagers elected three men who would accept responsibility.

1 Article 2, n. 3 dated 7th August, 1962
3. حمزة بن كل
for the correctness of information. The collection of statistics proceeded satisfactorily. The second stage was the formation of a cooperative society membership of which was a condition for the transfer of land under reform. The formation of the society took place in the same way as the collection of statistics. However setting up societies and having them functioned properly is a difficult task specially in a country where the rate of literacy is low. Membership of cooperative society was pre-requisite for receiving land under the land reform.

The Land Reform Law of Jan. 9, 1962, was not concerned with all classes of peasants. It was restricted to those who actually held and cultivated a part of the village ploughlands. Those who cultivated land in the village which the landowner has retained as his 'chosen village, or land owned by small landowners, continued to cultivate the land on the old crop sharing basis or by payment in cash or kind.

On Jan. 8, 1963, a national congress of peasant was held in Tehran in which 4700 peasants from the different parts of the land drawn from cooperative societies, took part. The participants elected their own managing
committee. The congress was a great landmark in the change in their conditions. It diminished the role of the town community which no longer remained the embodiment of the Persian people.

The Shii had addressed the congress on Jan. 9 and announced that a six-point referendum would be held for:

1. the abolition of landlord-peasant regime,
2. the nationalisation of forests,
3. the sale of shares in government factories to the landowners is compensation for their land,
4. profit-sharing for the workers in factories,
5. reform of the electoral law,
6. the creation of a Literary Corps.

On 17th Jan., 1963, the Additional Article to the Land Reform Act of Jan. 2, 1962, were issued. It comprised five articles meant to lessen the disharmony developing between the peasant in the village which were transferred.

1. The National Oil Co. and Government concerns were excluded.

1,1
and the peasants in the chosen village as well as small landowners. Note 6 to article 1 laid down that in case of rice growing land, landowners could retain upto 75 acres while the land surplus was transferred to the peasants at a fixed price.

Article 2 of the Additional Articles concerned the charitable Owqaf (إمتيازات). The Article laid down that the charitable Owqaf were to be left to the occupying peasant for a cash rent for 20 years. It also laid down that personal Owqaf would be bought by the government and divided among the peasants.

Article 4 of the Additional Articles extended the period for the payment of compensation to landowners laid down in the law of 9th Jan. 1967, from ten years to 15 years. This was done because of the financial difficulties faced by both the land reform organisation and the government.

Taking in view the situation prevailing in Iran before the land reform in Jan. 1962, the results achieved by March 3, 1963 were considerable. In the political field the power of the landowners were broken. However, the cult
between the urban and rural population was still wide but there were signs of the beginning of mutual understanding and respect. In the economic field the achievements were not so marked. The emergence of independent peasantry could not be possible without a rise in living standard. The problem of productivity remained to be tackled at a large scale. Besides these, many problems were still outstanding such as minimum size of holdings, scarcity of water and new legislation in the field of irrigation, soil conservation, agricultural wage policy, marketing techniques, political security and administrative reform.
Land Reform Programme in Iran

The Implementation of the first stage; Variations in practice; Khurasan:

The date of the completion of the first stage of the land reform varied in different parts of the country. The second stage like the first, was put into operation gradually which resulted in overlapping of the two stages in the country.

If a village was bought into by the government and transferred to the peasants the situation was fairly good. The effect of the reform in a village of which only a small part was transferred was less and the likelihood of obstruction greater. The law laid down that the land was to be transferred to the occupying peasants, and that each peasant was to have the piece of land that he was cultivating when the land reform law became operative in the area. The object was not to disturb the general field layout of the village. Occasionally by agreement among the peasants there was redistribution of the village land, but it was an exceptional case.

The practice of redistribution of peasant holdings was abolished under the provisions of the law of Jan 9, 1962. In some villages, however, the practice continued. In Farsi in some of the villages, the peasant were still collecting the land annually in 1965. In some villages in the organization of the village land into sahds (م) was changed after its transfer to the peasants. In a number of villages particularly in the number of ploughlands into which the village land was divided was increased after land reform.

The Land Reform Law of Jan 9, 1962 did not deal with the thorny problem of consolidation of holdings. It laid down that the peasant should cultivate that portion of land he occupied at the time the land reform law became operative. The intention was to prevent disintegration of traditional tribal layout of the village lands which would have undermined the success of the land reform law. The officials took the view that there should be no attempt to enforce the consolidation of the holdings.

1 The arrangement by which a number of ploughlands were grouped together and worked as a unit.

In the different parts of the country the amount which the peasants paid for their land and the collection of installments varied from place to place. In almost all cases it was said to be less than the amount formerly paid under the crop-sharing agreement to the landowner. However, in some areas, notably in Kirmanshahan and in Kurdistan, the peasants did not know what they would have to pay for the land.

The peasants to whom land had been transferred in the districts of Azerbayjan, Kurdistan and Qazvin were of the view that despite bad crops, their conditions had improved. They spoke badly of their former landlords who extorted money from the peasants under false pretexts. As the result of the land reform larger and better houses were built in villages which had been transferred to the peasants particularly in the Thurasan and Kurdistan. Prior to the land reform the land areas 'were hardly allowed to peasants to build larger houses, and if some one dared to build he was turned out of the village by the landowner'.

1. Ibid p. 135
2. Mr. Lambton visited this region in 1964, see the Persian Land Reform, p 135.
3. Ibid p. 137
There was an improvement in standards of cultivation leading to increased production in those village which had been transferred to the peasants. They were generally pleased with land reform and their cooperative society. They were economically much better off and were their own masters.

To be brief the first stage of the land reform inspite of opposition and difficult physical and tenurial conditions, in the first three years, achieved in the north a considerable degree of success socially, politically and economically\(^1\). Its effect in the social and political fields was marked while in economic field it was not negligible.

The implementation of the first stage: the south and south East:

There is a great contrast physically between the north and the south part of the Iranian plateau. In the north west of the region there is the rich, fertile and richly cultivated valley of Zayanda-rud\(^3\) (زاینده رود) in

1. Ibid, p. 143.
2. Ibid p. 144.
3. Also called Zinda Rud. It is one of the most important river of Iran whose water is mostly used for irrigation of land. It most significant bridge known as Pul-e-Khwaju is associated with the Persian poet Khwaju, a contemporary of Hafiz.
Isfahan, and in the north-east, the desert or semi-desert districts of Baluchistan; the rugged mountain country of the Bakhtiari and upland districts of Fars and hot lowlands of the Persian Gulf, the flourishing villages of Isfahan and tiny settlements in Kirman and Baluchistan.

Tenurial conditions also differed from region to region. Most of the land in Kirman was owned by large landowners. In Isfahan there was much large landownership. Many of the villages were owned by the descendants of the ((Property), the Bakhtiari and others. However most of the large holding were broken; but the weight of the landowning class was still heavy. In Yazd, land was mainly owned by small landowners. In Fars, large landownership was widespread. This was true of Khuzistan. However, in parts of Khuzistan the Arab Shaikhs enjoyed a social position by virtue of their status as Shaikhs.

Standards of cultivation differed widely.1 The peasants of Yazd and Isfahan compared favourably with those of Fars and Khuzistan. In Yazd peasant proprietorship had long been established. This was true of Isfahan. In some

districts of Kirman the subjugation of peasantry was more
marked than in any other part of the country. Baluchistan
was barely affected by the first stage of land reform. In
some villages transferred to the peasants near Khash there
was a marked improvement in morale, and in two other
villages there had been considerable agricultural
development since the transfer of land.

In Kirman the amount of land bought by government
was not large. One of the reasons for the limited operation
of the first stage of land reform in this province was the
fact that grain crops played an unimportant role. The
villagers had little arable land and consisted mainly of
orchards and gardens which were exempt from the purchase by
the government. In Isfahan the provisions of the land
reform were avoided by various measures. The peasants to
whom land had been transferred were satisfied with the re-
form because in the villages which were transferred to the
peasants a marked increase in production was claimed.

The degree in which the peasants benefited from
the reform in Fars varied considerably from region to
region. Here the progress was more chequered than in the
1. Ibid 5. 149-50.
north because the landowners opposed the reform and peasants were not prepared for the reform. One of the reasons for the opposition of the land reform by the landowners in Fars was that many of them had not been able to benefit from the concession which allowed to landowners to transfer a village to their wives and children. The land reform was considered as the main cause for their loss of prestige.

But the peasants in general felt that their condition had greatly improved since land reform. They were free and were no longer subject to all sorts of extortion, and enjoyed security.

The peasants redistributed the land among themselves annually. Though it was contrary to the practice laid down by the land reform, they preferred to do this.

When the second stage of the land reform began, the landowners selected method (a) of Article I of the Additional Articles i.e. tenancy. The peasants preferred method (c) i.e. division of land according to the proportion in which the crop was divided under crop-sharing agreement. This resulted in dispute between the landlords and peasants.

1. Ibid p. 68.
2. Ibid p. 152.
The cooperative society was then a flourishing concern. It had given loans and sold fertilizers. The peasants who had not received land under the land reform were also said to have sunk wells.

In Khuistan the picture presented by the land reform in 1966 was a varied one. Distui was a special area owing to the existence of the Khuistan Water and Electricity Authority which managed the distribution of irrigation water from the dam on the River Diz and power from the hydroelectric station completed in 1963. Two villages were brought completely under the first stage and 47 partially affected. One of them was Dibbar of which 1/5 was brought under the first stage. The remainder of the village was to be settled by the tenants under the second stage. The peasants agreed that the production had gone up and variety of crops was grown since land reform.

The Kharieh land around Ahvaz formed something of an exception. Much of such land was given to individual on condition that it was brought under cultivation by pumps and other means. If this was done within five years,

1 Ibid., p 153.
2 Ibid p. 155.
3 Land under Government Management (see the glossary).
possession was given to the peasant who brought under cultivation. In some cases a title was conferred but in others no title was acquired though the land had been brought under cultivation.

This situation in Surangird was complicated by the fact that the Arab Chaikhs or tribal headmen levied dues in their capacity as tribal leaders. Under the land reform they had been allotted uncultivated land according to their status. Agreements had been signed with the Chaikhs by which the land in made productive within five years would be transferred to them in full ownership without payment.

There had been a marked improvement in the well-being of the Bihbahan villages which had been allocated under the first stage of the land reform. About half of Khurribud new Bihbahan was transferred to the peasants under the first stage. The settlement under the second stage had not yet been completed in 1966 because the ownership of the land was disputed.

From the account given by Prof. Ms. Lambton in her

1 It was called minal.
2 Called Bayir.
Irfok, the Persian Land Reform 1962-1966 it is clear that difficulties in the operation of the land reform in south both from the point of view of nature of the country as well as social conditions are more formidable than in the north which would naturally limit the economic advance in the region. But in several areas marked changes had taken place. The positions of the peasants had improved and they were capable of benefitting from the opportunities offered.

The implementation of the first stage in the west:

The west of Iran is mainly a grain growing area with mostly a dry farming. In the district between Sanandaj and Divan Dara there had been a great increase in grain production since the land reform began. The newly cultivated area had mainly been brought under mechanised cultivation by the large landowners though some peasants too shared in this activity. Earlier only one crop was grown but in recent years several sorts of crops including sugarcane and vegetables had been grown in this region. The yield on grain is high but sometimes due to the lack of rainfall there is failure of crop resulting in the loss of

\[1\] Ibid, pp. 145-167.

revenue. In many parts of Kirmanshah, Kurdistan, likab and Ilam there had been an outbreak of foot and moat disease in 1966 with heavy losses.

Communication in the area, though improved recently, some of the mountain villages have no roads at all. Tikab is virtually cut-off for several months annually when, due to rain and snow, the tracks across the hill become impassable.

Large land ownership was formerly widely spread in Tikab, much of Kurdistan and Kirmanshah. Landed estates in Sanandaj tended to be very large. Large landed proprietor ship was also the dominant tenure in Saqqaz.

In Kurdistan and Kirmanshah the peasants were mainly the Kurds, though the landowners were not mainly the Kurds in Ilam the population was an admixture of Lurs, Arabs and Kurds. The proportion of the crop taken by the landlords under the crop-sharing agreement was not so high as in other regions of the country. But many dues were levied and bonded labour was in practice with the result that the condition of the peasants was of poverty, and they

1. Ibid., p. 169.
suffered great insecurity of tenure. Even after the introduction of the land reform the peasants had a lack of interest in it. On the other hand cooperative societies were well received.

The first stage of land reform began fairly well in Kirmänšahr but after a satisfactory start, it slowed up. In the summer of 1966 there had remained several hundred disputed cases undecided. In many of the villages of this region it was difficult to disentangle the tenure of the village. Even if the landowner had legally transferred the title of some of his properties to his heir, the peasants still regarded that the whole property belonged to the original landowner. Besides this, complicated tenures were common. Even then the cultivation of summer crops which had begun after land reform had made the peasants of economically better off. A cooperative society had been established in the village which also served another neighbouring village. The conditions of the peasants had improved since land reform.

Shir Khan and two neighbouring villages in Dimwar were example of successful operation of land reform.

1. Ibid. p. 170.
2. Ibid. p. 171.

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The peasants seemed well pleased with land reform. They were free and had planted trees and gardens, and using fertilizers which were never done before. It was claimed that the land was being better cultivated. The manager of the cooperative society said that the price of the land sold to the peasants under the land reform law was very low and that the peasants would be able to pay the total price for the land transferred to him in one year. His income had increased from 30 Khavvar before the reform to 50 Khavvar after the reform.

In some villages of Kurdistan, as in Kirmanishah, there had appeared irregularities in the collection by the former landowners of a share of the crop from the land which had been transferred to the peasants under the first stage of land reform. Disputed tenure held up settlement in some of the villages of Kurdistan. It was alleged in some villages that the Waqf revenue was not being given to the village as laid down in the Waqf name.

In general despite uncertainties and perhaps a lack of vigour on the part of officials of the land reform.

1. An ass load: the measure of a hundred Tabjiz maunds (Steingass), 300 kils, or 207 kilos. (Main)
there had been a marked improvement in social and economic conditions in those villages in Kirkmanshah and in Kurdistan in which the first stage of land reform had been implemented. The sense of freedom was noticeable in these villages and this offered a great contrast to the mood of the peasants at the time in pre-reform days. This sense fully exhibited itself in an increase in the area of cultivation and in building of better residential houses. The practice of for selling of crop was decreasing day-by-day.

Mr. Lambton had toured through almost all the region of Iran in order to make a personal survey of the condition of the peasants vis-à-vis the landowners and the benefit that accrued from the land reform of 1962. Though he could not cover all district, the villagers selected represent a cross section of the society. The number of villages directly affected by the first stage of reform was only a small portion of the total number in the country, but the impact of the reform was felt beyond the limits of these villages.

The results may be seen in the social and political sphere of the society, whether in north or west and

1 Ibid, p.18.
2 Ibid, p.111.
south, was greatly affected. A new confidence was evident among the peasants. They were capable of standing against those who had formerly extorted from them. They were not to submit to the excesses of the landowners. And this change in their morale was striking. However, there had been some problems to solve. The opposition to land reform by the landowners and by those with vested interest was very much there. The majority of the peasants had not been benefitted by the land reform; resulting in discontent among the non-beneficiaries.

Broadly speaking the improvement in conditions was more striking in those areas where a considerable proportion of land was bought by the government and transferred to the peasants. The amount paid by the peasants for the land transferred to them was less than their payment to the landowners under the crop-sharing agreement. Moreover the land transferred was better cultivated. In villages where the land reform was made the house condition was better than in those without land reform. Similarly the Land Reform resulted in the improvement of the education in rural areas where there:

1. Ibid. p. 192.
2. Ibid p. 192.
had been remarkable rise in the number of schools.

The effect of the first stage on the economic sphere are not so striking. After the beginning of land reform there was a reluctance to invest in land. But in Sirjan predominantly an area of small landowners there had been considerable agricultural development through the sinking of wells by small men immediately after land reform. This improvement was temporarily halted because of the uncertainty over the future position of small landowners. On the other hand in many of the more fertile parts of the country there was an increase in mechanisation and much dry land was brought under cultivation. The better standard of cultivation resulted in the increase of production in the districts transferred to the peasants. These tendencies can only be fully assessed over the longer period of time which will only be possible when the facilities for complete survey of the conditions are provided as have been provided to Ms. Lambton whose book, the Persian Land Reform, 1962-1966, is most authentic and useful document for the study of land reform in Iran. 1.

1. Ibid p. 19
The Second Stage: The Regulations of The Additional Articles

The Additional Articles of 17 Jan. 1963 unlike the first stage of the land reform were not put into operation immediately\(^1\). There had been much delay in putting the regulation into execution. Despite the provision of the Land Reform Law of 9 Jan. 1962 the peasants had little security of tenure. Some of the large landowners had not given up hope to overthrow the reform and were busy with intrigues against it. The small landowners were also becoming apprehensive. Some of whom who were members of the professional class, were perturbed lest a later stage of land reform should deprive them of their land. There were thus many reasons for the government to press on with the next stage. Nevertheless the draft regulations for the execution of the Additional Articles were not submitted to the National Consultative Assembly until 18th May 1964. They were passed in a considerably amended form on 25th July 1964. They consisted of forty seven articles and were in some respects a new law. Landowners were given a choice of five possible courses instead of three as laid down in Article 1 of the Additional Articles. These were


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tenancy sale to the peasants, division of land between
the landowner and peasant, the formation of an agricultural
unit by the landowner and the peasant, and the purchase by
the landowner of the peasants' rights.\(^1\)

After going through the regulation for the
Additional Articles, one could arrive at the conclusion
that contrary to the Land Reform Law of January 9, 1962,
objectives of which were clear, whereby its provisions could
be effectively implemented, the second stage was ambiguous
in its aims. The first stage was favourable to the
peasants as against the landowner. This was not the case
with the second stage. In drafting the Additional Articles
the idea was to regulate the relations between peasants
and landowners and specially to improve the conditions of
those peasants who cultivated the land in villages which
were not subject to purchase by the government under the
first stage. Another object was to protect the interest of
the small landowners whose condition deteriorated under the
land reform because the peasants were verse to pay them
their share of the crop and the latter had not enough
influence to obtain redress.

\(^1\) It is called 'Nagag'.
\(^2\) Lambton A K S. The Persian Land Reform (1962-66),
The Additional Articles were not drafted carefully and the peasants failed to realise their implication. The land reform might have aimed at the creation of an independent peasantry but those who held the reins of power had begun to realise that an independent and self-reliant peasantry might constitute a new factor in the political situation and threaten their own power. This induced more caution in government circles regarding the objectives of land reform and it is fully reflected in the regulations for the Additional Articles.

The Execution of The Second Stage Tenancies

The second stage of the land reform started in Feb. 1965 in Western Azarbajjan and by the end of the autumn it was extended to the whole of the country. It procedure was more complicated than under the first. The land reform officials were correspondingly heavy burdened. The number of documents to be drawn up was enormous. As a result the officials had to sit in the office rather than to get out in the country as was done in the first stage.

In one respect the task of the land reform

1 Ibid. p. 215.
2 Ibid. p. 216.
officials was more difficult than in the first stage. During the latter stage the land reform was pro-peasants and hence the officials of the reform were looked up as their "friends". Under the second stage the peasants did not receive land; there was a change in their attitudes towards the land reform officials and the tendency was to regard them as their "foes". Thus the relations between them became sour.

The following table issued by the land reform organisation shows the number of villages settled under the second stage in different parts of that country. According to these figures the second stage had been completed by Feb 1966 in Gilan and Mazandran. The largest number of villages were still unsettled in the Kirman province (21%), Luristan (46%), Western Azarbayjan (18%) and Fars (30%).

1. Ibid. p. 318.
2. Ibid. pp. 318-319.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>DATE OF COMMENCEMENT</th>
<th>NO. SUBJECT TO SECOND STAGE</th>
<th>NO. COMPLETED BY SECOND STAGE</th>
<th>NO. VILLAGES</th>
<th>NO. HAMLETS</th>
<th>NO. AFFECTED</th>
<th>NO. AFFECTED PEASANTS</th>
<th>NO. OF AFFECTED PEASANTS PER ESTATE</th>
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<td>2,214</td>
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<td>10,217</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>1,874</td>
<td>495</td>
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<td>Gurgan</td>
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<td>195</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>496</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>15,166</td>
<td>43,513</td>
<td>13,013</td>
<td>8,732</td>
<td>1,499</td>
<td>189,670</td>
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</table>

Source: Report issued by the land reform organization for its operations in the year 1965-6 (with adjustments).
In addition to the villages set out in the above, 4678 villagers were listed as having wholly fallen out of cultivation. The number of landowners who worked on their land was put at 582, 801, Khuzistan (179, 581), 1 saran (129, 245), lehian (46, 307) and sitan and Baluchistan (14939) Hamadan (161).

The following table, also issued by the land inform organization, shows how estates were settled under the second stage in different parts of the country.

For the country financially accounted for 129, 649 cases excluding charitable Ougaf and private family Ougaf. Article 61, the agricultural unit, rated second with 21,959 cases, followed by Article 45, the purchase of the peasant rights by the landowners, with 15024. Division of land with 2441 case-ranked fourth.

The second stage did not contribute much to lessen the gap between the peasant to whom land was transferred under the first stage and those who had not received the land.

1 For example, or waste and uncultivated (land) village whose land is uncultivated. See Farhangi Moin Vol. 1, p. 8). 7 Lambton A.K.S. The Persian Land Reform (1962-63), Oxford University Press, London 1969, p. 270. 3 Ibid. p. 272. 4
### SECOND STAGE (UP TO 17 FEBRUARY 1966). METHOD OF SETTLEMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Charitable Duqaq</th>
<th>Private Duqaq</th>
<th>Tenancies</th>
<th>Sale by agreement</th>
<th>Article 17</th>
<th>Division according to the crop division</th>
<th>Article 45</th>
<th>No.of</th>
<th>No.of</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gurgan</td>
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<td>E.Azarbij</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1. These figures do not include those landowners who worked part of village by mechanized means.
2. Presumably the sale of the remainder of the peasants had not been completed.
3. When I was in Kirmanshah in the summer of 1966 several village were claimed by their owners as mechanized, some of the cases were being disputed, but some village, I think, had been peasants working mechanized land reform office.
4. These appear to have been peasants working mechanized land which was outside the land reform.

Source: Report issued by the land reform organization for its operations in 1965-6 (with adjustments).
received the land. As it became clear to the peasants that they are not to get any land under the second stage envy and discontent grew. The difference in reckoning the price to be paid by the peasant for the land under the first stage and the rent for a tenancy agreement under the second, generated envy discontent and even conflict between the two classes of the peasants. If a village was partially transferred under the 1st stage and the remainder settled by tenancy under the second, it sometimes happened that the price of the land transferred was less than the amount paid as rent for the remainder land.

A few cases are cited below which would give a clear idea of the tenancy agreement as it worked in different parts of the country.

In Kheratan great efforts were made to get the second stage finished by summer 1966. Statistics were collected in some cases rapidly. For example, between May 5 and July 16, 539 villages in Boir Ahmadi had been settled and 16350 persons given tenancies. But the title to the land was in many cases still disputed in 1966 and the land had not yet been registered.

1 Ibid. p. 223
On the whole the reform officials had tried to ensure that the rent fixed was equitable. In Khurasan the peasants were, in a general way, satisfied with the rents fixed. At Abrud, a village near Turbat-i-Haidari, three out of 21 shares were transferred under the first stage; tenancies were concluded for most of the remainder under the second. And those who got tenancies said that their condition had generally improved. In Lahram tenancy agreement were for the most part chosen under the second stage. Satisfaction was on the whole expressed in 1966 in those villages for which tenancies had been concluded in Kirmanshahan. Similarly the tenancy agreement concluded in Silvan in the province of Kirmanshahan were said in some cases to be favourable to the peasants.

Iranshahr, a village near Saqqiz was settled by tenancy. It consisted of 45 ploughlands of various size. Some were consolidated but the majority consisted of strips. The peasants said the condition had much improved, since land reform. The area under cultivation had improved, the land was cultivated by tractors hired from outside the village.

1. Ibid. p. 224
2. Ibid. p 218
Vaqf properties accounted for a large number of villages settled by tenancies. Besides, the large and valuable Vaqf properties belonging to the shrine of Imam Riza in Mashhad there was a great number of Vaqf properties scattered all over the country. However, tenancy agreements had been concluded for properties belonging to the shrine of Imam Riza in Mashhad.

Mansuriyya, close to Rihbahan, was also Vaqf, comprising charitable and five dangs private Vaqfs. Tenancies had been concluded for the former for 99 years and for the latter 40 years. The peasants of this area were very pleased with the land reform. They said that their condition under the tenancy agreement had immensely improved.

Under the second stage of the land reform tenancies were concluded with the peasants in Vaqf land at a lower rent than that which they had formerly paid.

Under the land reform there was no place for the middle men. Before the land reform there was a type of

1. Ibid, p. 234.
3. Ms. Lambton had visited the region and had collected first hand information from the villagers.
tenant who was really a working peasant. To deprive such tenants of the possibility of taking part in agricultural development was to involve them in hardship. But it was next to impossible to frame the land reform law in such a way that all cases would be covered and injustice avoided. The conclusion drawn by Lt. Lambton after examining a considerable number of cases is as follows:

"Settlement by tenancy accounted for the greatest number of villages affected by the second stage. In many cases, although this form of settlement had been chosen no rent had been collected by the summer of 1966, or, in some cases, even yet. In many of those villages in which tenancy agreements had been made, an improvement in conditions of the peasants was to be seen, not economically: it was too soon for the economic effect of the changed relationship to be felt, but in the new sense of freedom which the peasants felt with regard to the management of their own affairs. Just as a similar feeling had led those peasants who had received land under the first stage to cultivate it better, so too in villages in which tenancy or other methods of settlement had been concluded under the second stage, there was often
an improvement in standard of cultivation. Further, by the conclusion of tenancy agreements for Waqf property, one of the most difficult problems facing the land reform settled without open dispute."

This is very fair judgment which is based on personal examinations of hundred of cases throughout the country.

The execution of the second stage

(Sale, division, the agricultural unit and purchase of the peasants' right.)

It may be noted that there were five methods of settlement permitted under the Additional Articles and their regulations. They were:

1. Settlement by tenancy.
2. Settlement by sale.
3. Settlement by division.
4. Settlement by formation of agricultural unit.
5. Settlement by purchase of the peasants' rights.

The method of settlement by tenancy has been

2. Ibid. p. 240.
discussed in the previous chapter. The examination after remaining four will be taken up in this chapter.

The second method of settlement under the Additional Articles and their regulations, namely sale by the landowners to the peasants was most favourable to the peasants. This form of settlement was most common in the country. The main task of the land reform organisation was to ensure that the land was to be transferred to the occupying peasants and unlike under the first stage the initiative was with the landowner and peasants and not with the officials of the land reform organisation. The land owner would come to the local land reform officials with an agreement of the peasants and after an investigation by the official the document were to be drawn up.

The third method of settlement, division of the land between the two parties in the same proportion as under the prevailing crop sharing agreement though popular in Feng was not favourable to peasants for under the crop-sharing agreement the peasants would in some cases receive 1/4 or 1/5 of the crop. The amount of land he received was often

1 Ibid. p. 291.
insufficient to provide him with a living so he was compelled to work under a tenancy agreement on the land retained by the landowner. If the relations between the two parties were good, such agreements were concluded. But if the relations were bad the landowners had brought in outsiders to cultivate the land remaining in their possession. If the other hand the amount of land available for cultivation was large, the peasants even if small were able to improve their lot by bringing new land under cultivation.

The fourth method of settlement, the formation of an agricultural unit, as laid down in Article 17 of the regulations for the Additional Articles, accounted for a large number of cases only in the provinces of Khurasan and Kirman and to a lesser degree in Tehran. It was, restricted mainly to region, bordering the central desert. The reason was that the peasants were poor and could not provide the capital required to exploit the land. Moreover, the expenses on the qanat were high. Good relations between the landowners and the peasants contributed much towards

1 Ibid, p. 250
adopting this method of settlement because there was no
demand for change. A transfer of ownership was not to
benefit the village where the holdings were mainly
small. In such cases the agricultural unit was the best
method of settlement, pending the development of other
sources of employment.

A detailed examination of the cases in which
settlement under the Article had been adopted is likely to
show that poverty of the peasants was the most important
factor influencing this choice. The choice of settlement
by Article 17 in some villages of Nishapur was due to the
poverty of the peasants of the villages.

The fifth method of settlement permitted by the
regulations for the Additional Article, the purchase of the
peasants' rights by the landowner, is the most
controversial of all the methods. This method in some
cases encouraged the unscrupulous landowner to try to
force the peasants on his land to sell their rights. In
some districts notably Turbat-i-Haidari the sale of their
rights by the peasants in 1965 was fairly widespread. The
main reason was poverty. The harvest was bad. The
1. Ibid. p. 253.
Peasants were in dire need of seed and means of livelihood. Some of the landowners had promised to the peasants to secure employment after they had sold their rights, others withholding seed and water thus forcing them to sell their rights. In general the land reform officials discouraged and even prevented such sales under pressure. But there were cases of collusion between the officials and the landowners to apply pressure on the peasants to sell their right.

To be brief, in many villages, before settlement under the second stage, changes in social conditions had already begun to take place; the abolition of dues became effective from the beginning of the land reform, and decline in the extortion practiced by some landowners had a favourable effect on the condition of peasants. And in spite of the fact that the second stage of the land reform represented a weakening of the real spirit of the reform, and in spite of the abuses which were made possible by the provisions for the sale of peasants' right, the second stage was not wholly retrogressive.

Although under the second stage the peasants had not received the ownership of the land with a few
exception and the terms under which they had received were
do not favourable to them, they had had the security of tenure
and their conditions generally improved but not as should
be. Because of this there was discontent among the
peasants but there were numerous cases in which their
satisfaction at the settlement under the second stage was
genuine and real. Thus it can be claimed that the land
reform slowed under the second stage but it did not come
to a stand still. The work of cooperative societies
continued and a standard of understanding amongst their
members rose and it was achievement worth recognition.

J. Ibid. p. 756
Irrigation

Irrigation was carried out in Iran by the following method: By river water led off by canals, raised by pumps, wells operated by cattle, power-operated wells, and on plateau by underground irrigation channel known as qanat 7 or hariz 3.

The government owned large rivers so the conservation of their water and its distribution was the main responsibility of the government. In cases of most rivers, customary rights to the water belonged to the land through which the water flowed. This rule was modified on construction of dam or major irrigation work. The construction of temporary dams for irrigation purpose was in some cases, carried out by the landowners. The wells operated by cattle or other traditional means and power-operated wells usually belonged to the owner of the land in which they were situated. In some parts of the country, the qanat and the water which it watered were in different ownership 4.

2 A subterraneous canal
3 qanat and hariz are synonymous except that the first is Arabic and the second is Persian
4 Ibid p. 275
It was laid down in the Land Reform Law of January 9, 1962 that irrigated land subject to it purchase by the government and subsequent transfer to the peasants, was to be transferred with it water-right. In case of jointly owned qanats and irrigation channels leading off from them, the water rights which belonged to land transferred to the peasant were to be handed over with it. In order to prevent disputes between the former owners and the peasants over water, the Land Reform Council laid it down in its provisions of April 9, 1962 that in documents for transfer, were to state that the water right of gardens defined by time or by any other way must be secured according to custom. The Land Reform Law of January 9, 1962 made it incumbent on the landowners to pay for the repair and upkeep of qanats and other irrigation work according to local custom. The additional Article 1 of January 17, 1963 laid down that the water right of the land transferred to the peasant must be transferred to him if the settlement under the second stage was division of the land between the two parties in the same.

In these Articles the landowners was given three choices: the third being to divide the irrigated and unirrigated land between himself and the peasants in the same proportion as the crop-sharing agreement (The Persian Land Reform, 1962 cf., p. 104).
proportion as crop was shared under crop-sharing agreement.  

The government continued to control the distribution of water from big rivers and to collect the dues. In case the land watered by a river was transferred, water dues were collected from them. In the case of a river such as Zayandarud, with a traditional division of the water among the villages through which it flowed, no major problem was involved. As for the big rivers in the south, before the land reform water dues were mostly paid by the landowners, but the land which had been watered by the great rivers and was transferred under the land reform law to the peasants, water dues were collected from them. Since the establishment of the ministry of water and power, there had been a tendency to extend state control over the small rivers as well. In some areas a development organisation was set up which affected land reform sometimes disadvantageously.

The officials of the Khuzistan Water and

1. Ibid, p. 275.
2. It flows in Isfahan and it is a well known river which has been quoted in literature. Dr. Muhammad Iqbal has symbolised it in his masnavi but calls it Zindarud and not Zayandarud.
Electricity Authority based their idea of land reform entirely on economic criteria. They appeared to have little care for the well being of the peasants whom they seemed to regard simply as instruments in the experiment. In summer of 1966 in Qazvin there were no real understanding between the peasants and the official authority. Qazvin is another region where had been a developed plan for irrigation. The area allocated to the plan had 300 villages with 150,000 persons. Water shortage was the main problem of the area. But the development authorities failed to obtain the cooperation of the peasants who were not informed of the details of the plan.  

Water resources were not subject to purchase by the government and transfer to the peasants in the same way as the land. The reason was that in the case of power operated wells, the capital investment and running costs were considerable and the peasants and cooperative societies were unable to provide the necessary funds required. In the case of irrigation by water raised from l. For the detail, see, Engineer Mossane, 'A pilot study and evaluation in Qazvin plain villages', University of Tehran, Institute for Social Studies and Research, Tehran, 1967. This plan was to be executed by Irraoli Consultants in 1963.
well, by motor pumps as practised in Fars there had prevailed a different situation. The pump owners generally were not the owner of land. In some cases they were middlemen who, under tenancy agreement with the land-owner, el up pumps in unirrigated land and had entered into a crop-sharing agreement with the peasants who worked the land. A variety of practice arose under the land reform. In some cases the pump owners received land under the first stage and participated in the settlement under the second stage. In others they only continued to provide those who cultivated the land with water under the existing agreements.

After the land reform the interest of landowners to invest in qanats declined and in spite of the provision of law they did nothing to maintain the flow of water. This generated a feeling of discontent among the peasants whose conditions had deteriorated because of signs of decay in qanats.

In Kirmans garden and orchard produce, notably pistachio nuts, being the main source of revenue, the larger

2 Ibid, p. 784
that was given to those which were retained by the landlord. But strictly speaking it was against the provisions of the land reform law. In general, where the village land had been transferred wholly to peasants and the intervention of the landlord removed, not only had there been no breakdown in irrigation but the maintenance of existing resources had improved. There was, however, a matter connected with irrigation which required urgent consideration. It was the question of deep wells and their effect upon the water table and thus upon qanats. As a result of deep wells, a serious diminution had taken place in the flow of qanats in the proceeding years. Hence legislation governing the harim of qanat was drafted which prohibited sinking of deep wells in the area surrounding a qanat. It was obvious that much physical damage was caused by the lowering of the water level in the harim of qanat, hence there was need for new regulation with regard to the harim. This included such matters as how many wells might advantageously be sunk in

1 It implies the area surrounding a qanat within which certain Harim or Harim means sacred, unlawful to touch, sanctuary, a sacred place the sacred enclosure of Mecca, Medina and Jerusalem, the women apartment. It also refers to an area of land around a well or qanat within which certain operations are forbidden.
particularly true and whether irrigation by quait might not be at least temporarily more profitable in some areas than by power operated well.

The cooperative societies and the organisation for rural cooperation

The Land Reform law of Jan. 9, 1969 provided for the setting up of cooperative societies in rural areas. They were to take the place of landlords in villages which were transferred to the peasants. They were to provide credit and also general supervision and direction of agricultural affairs. A note to Article 16 made the membership of the Cooperative Society of the village compulsory for a peasant who had received the land. Note 8 to Article 19 empowered cooperative societies to recall from membership any peasants to whom land had been transferred but who failed to take part in the programme for the development of agriculture.

The functions of rural cooperative societies were

all or some of the following:

i) Operation concerned with the production, exchange, storage, transport and sale of the produce of the members.

ii) The provision of agricultural implements, and machinery, pesticides and fertilizers.

iii) The provision of food stuffs etc.

iv) The purchase of agricultural produce of the members, its storage and sale.

v) Giving loans to members on easy terms to tide them over the period until they sold their crops and to provide what they needed for the cultivation of the crop.

vi) to accept deposits from the members.

vii) to obtain credit.

The membership of rural society was open to peasants and persons engaged in agriculture and living in that area. Day-to-day administration was in the hands of an executive committee consisting of three members and two reserve members who were appointed by the general assembly. The executive committee appointed from its members.

1 Ibid p. 295.
2 They were called Kashavarzan and even Uighan were included in them (See Ibid p. 294).
Pati (Chairman) and a Munsri or Dobir (Secretary). It
was also designated a manager\(^1\) from the members of the
cooperative society other than the members of the Executive
Committee. The offices of the manager and the Executive
Committee were honorary.

The Executive Committee would meet once in a
fortnight. The manager had the right to be present in the
meeting. If the Committee could not meet for 45 days, it
was deemed to have been dismissed, and the Agricultural
Credit and Rural Development Bank or the Central
Organisation for Rural Cooperative\(^3\) was to invite the two
receive members to run the affairs of the society for the
remainder of the two years period. The Executive committe
was the legal representative of the cooperative society,
and had right to draft regulations: the manager
represented the society in courts, government offices etc.

Ordinary meetings of the general assembly at which a
Chairman and a secretary were to be elected, were held at
least once a year. Their main function was to receive

1 He war mudir i-Amil (مدير عام) and though honorary he
might be given a Commission (حق لي مديراً), Ibid. p.294.
2 Ibid. pp. 295-96.
3 Set up in 1963 to take over the running of the
cooperative societies from the bank, Ibid. p. 297.
reports from the executive committee, the manager and the
inspectors; to pass the balance sheet, the budget and
the programme for the ensuing year. Two inspectors were
appointed by the general assembly to hold office for one
year. Their office was honorary and their duty was to see
that the affairs of the society were conducted in
accordance with the regulations of the society.

In 1963 a central organisation for rural
cooperation was established which took over from the land
reform organization and Agricultural Credit and Rural
Development Bank the setting up and supervision of rural
cooperative societies. Its functions were multifarious,
such as:

To give guidance to societies and their
federations.

To audit their accounts and balance sheets

To train staff for this purpose

To train the members of society in the principles
of cooperation and management.

1. Ibid., p. 297.
To expand the cooperative network in rural areas

To provide the rural cooperative societies with credit for the execution of their projects

To expand the rice under the cultivation

To encourage mechanization and better marketing

To provide farming implements

To establish factories for agricultural requisites

To carry out commercial transactions essential to the execution of the projects.

To take steps for the establishment of the companies to grant credit to them for the provision of agricultural requisites

To extend credit to rural areas and the like.

The organization was run by a general assembly, a council board of directors, and an inspector.

The general assembly was composed of stakeholders, the minister of agriculture, and the manager.

Ibid pp 124-125
of the Agricultural Credit and Rural Development Bank. Its functions were:

1. To approve the balance sheet.
2. To take decisions regarding operations for the ensuing year proposed by the board of directors.
3. To appoint the members of the board of directors, the council and the inspector.

The council was composed of five members appointed by the general assembly for a period of three years. The functions of the council were:

1. To take decisions on the recommendations of the board of directors.
2. To consider proposals for obtaining credits from banks and other organizations.

The board of directors was composed of three persons, a chairman and two members elected by the general assembly for a term of three years. The main functions of the board were:

To arrange programmes for the guidance of

1. Ibid, p. 790.
2. Ibid. p. 300.
existing co-operative societies

to draw up regulations for recruitment for
submission to the council

To submit projects for co-operative establishments,
the general assembly elected annually a competent
inspector or accountant whose main function was to
in part and audit the organisation's accounts

The co-operative officials were a keen and
dedicated body of men. Although in some cases they were
inexperienced officials who took hasty actions, they in
general did commendable jobs. They were in many areas
under great pressure because of local intrigues; most of
them were overworked and means of transport were often
inadequate. Still, a sense of urgency was noticeable in
them.

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Under the land reform it was intended that
rural co-operative societies in each area would form a
federation and each federation was to be formed by
co-operative societies, but in practice there was a variation
1 Ibid. p. 309
§10
The first of the federation was the M. egha federation formed by fifteen societies in 1963 with a capital of 1,013,000 Rials (US$450). By 1961 ninety one societies with 16751 members joined it and its capital had increased to 30,000,000 Rials. It appointed and paid its own employees, 80 percent of the profits were put to assets and 20 percent divided among the member societies. By the summer of 1964 there had been considerable progress in the cooperative movement. Many of the rural societies had made a good start and federation generated among the landowners and middlemen was a measure of success of their activity.

The purpose of land reform essentially depended on the cooperative movement. By 1964 when the first stage was nearing completion the situation was encouraging. Understanding of purpose and function of the cooperative societies was still somewhat preliminary, but this was not surprising. In view of the poverty and subjection of many of the peasants, the purpose of the movement was not quite clear to the peasants. Despite this a large number of the societies worked and in many of the villages men ran.

1 Ibid. pp. 318-19.
forward to take an effective part in running the society.

When the land reform visited cooperative societies were intended to become the centre for the conduct of the village affairs. However, there were certain objections to letting societies conduct all village affairs. First, all the villagers were not the members of the society, and secondly, since the government agencies had some interest in village affairs, it provided an opportunity to interfere with the activities of the society. The ministry of the interior set up in each village a council charged with the administration of its affairs. The council sometimes cut across the activities of the society. In some areas a local tribunal called khana Insaaf was set up to settle minor disputes.

The federation, although like the cooperative societies still in an early stage of development, showed marked promise. There were great possibilities of expansion if trained personnel could be made available. On

1 Ibid p. 322
2 Ibid p. 323
3 Ibid p. 324
of the main field of activities was the sale on easy terms of agricultural implements, irrigation pumps, fertilizers and pesticides at necessary with government subsidies. The marketing of produce of the members of the cooperative societies and of consumer goods was another area in which the federation could operate. But an attempt to extend their activities was likely to meet with opposition of vested interests which would aim at breaking the federations and the cooperative movement. Unless they received full support from the government they could not succeed and this was true of the cooperative movement as a whole. 1

The number of villages settled under the second stage 2 of the land reform was far larger than those under the first stage. Article 22 of the regulations for the Additional Articles required the Central Organisation for Rural Cooperation to initiate cooperative societies in the villages, to supervise them and extend to them financial and technical help; and to arrange for practical training of peasants to establish and manage such societies.

1 For a detailed study of the working of society in Iran 1962-64 based on the personal survey see Ms Anne K.S. Lambion, The Persian Land Reform (1962-66), pp. 221-334.
2 Ibid p. 325.
Article 17 of the regulations for the Additional Articles introduced another method, not foreseen in the Land Reform Law of Jan. 9, 1962 or the Additional Articles of Jan. 17, 1963, namely the formation of an additional unit (ileeaw dowy) of three persons, one representing the peasants, the other the landowners and third chosen by mutual agreement. The Agricultural Credit and Rural Development Bank was to provide them with necessary facilities and sufficient credit, and the Central Organisation for Rural Cooperation was to give necessary guidance for the formation and administration of such unit. The establishment of management committee of three might have been a convenient method of overcoming some of the difficulties of providing

1 The decision was to be taken by the land reform organisation. See: Ibid. p. 325.
2 Note 2 of Article 17.
management and credit. But it nevertheless suggests that it was no longer the general intention to hand over control of local affairs to the peasants through the cooperative societies and to foster the development of a self-supporting peasantry.

When the cooperative societies were first set up, the members had hoped that they would provide them with credit and water. In 1966 there had been a growing demand for multipurpose cooperative societies and it was the ambition of the members of the societies in Kirkuk, Kurdistan and Khuristan for their oriety to sell consumer goods and agricultural machinery and even to market some of the members.

Although the members of the societies were developing a sense of loyalty and pride in their society and there had been a great increase in the cooperative societies in the country, a large number of villages still had no society in 1966. Even in those villages in which there were societies the peasants did not join them immediately subsequent to the operation of the second stage. Under the

1. Ibid. p. 326
2. Ibid. p. 324
3. Ibid p. 321
could stage a protest to getting up of cooperative
societies in Vahid villages for which-training had been
concluded in Kharasan thr. general tendency, in 1965 in
that new societies would be started in Vahid villages. There
were some 150 societies in Mashhad by 1966 while in Nishapur
there were still very few.

An of the objectives for the smooth running of
the societies was the suitability of suit-able men to become
managers of societies. Not those were appointed as
managers were incapable of running the business code of the
society's activities.

After giving a personal survey of the working of
the cooperative societies in almost all the parts of Iran
which he had visited in 1965-1966 Mr. Imondton arrived at
some interesting conclusions which are being summarized as
follows:

An unfortunate rivalry was developing between
Central Organisation for Rural Cooperation and Agricultural
Credit and Rural Development Bank which resulted in the
conflict of policy between the two in 1966. There was an

1 Ibid pp. 345-46
The growing coolness towards societies was accompanied by an interest in the development of private investment in agriculture. In the meantime the younger, Western-educated economist and banker's view was that the present inability of increasing production to turn away from the present and support and encourage men with capital to embark on mechanised farming. There had been growing tendency to oppose anything which would strengthen the independence of the cooperative movement. At the same time on the protest of 'direction' and leadership it was conceded to make the cooperative movement into a full government organisation which would be until step. The officials of the Central Organisation for Rural Cooperation were able to win the trust of the parents simply because they were not regarded as government officials. And one of the reasons...
for the success of the cooperative societies that the members regarded them as their own and had developed a sense of loyalty and pride in them. In short if the cooperative societies are transformed into organizations entirely run by the government, they will cease to command the loyalty of their members and to be effective instruments in the creation of an independent, self-supporting peasantry, and the land reform as originally conceived will fail.  

1 Ibid pp 345, 46.
The third stage of the Land Reform

Before the end of the second stage of the reform it became apparent that there was some dissatisfaction with the progress in agriculture productivity. It was felt in some quarters that an opportunity for the modernization of agriculture had been missed from the beginning of the reform when the process of fragmentation of farm land was started and the time priced and plots were inherited there was a new danger of each of the separate parcel of land being divided among heirs into small fragments. Some 145/8 villages had been bought from the landowners by the year 1935-67 representing some 30 percent of the eligible villages. It was thus felt that more upheaval was necessary, this time to consolidate the ownership and the management of the land into larger units that would result in the record mechanization and an increased rate of growth.

In January 1965 the "third stage" of land reform was announced. The main aims of the new stage were:


1) The expansion of the agricultural output required for the industrial development of the country.

2) A rise in the per capita output and standard of living of the peasant class.

3) The stabilization of food prices by improved marketing.

The other objectives were:

To utilize the latest scientific and technological advances;

To train qualified men;

To introduce new methods of cultivation and harvesting;

To provide proper irrigation system;

To promote mechanised agriculture;

To provide protection of agricultural land against pests and diseases;

To stabilize the prices of agricultural goods;
To strengthen agricultural and farm cooperative societies.

To introduce cattle raising.

To encourage private capital investment.

To coordinate agricultural plans with the industrial ones.

To protect the rights of the farmers.

To arrange for their insurance.

With the partial completion of the scheme of redistribution of land, attention was drawn to the utilization of the nation's agricultural potential. As a result, water resources were nationalized in Oct. 196/ and three new ministries were established for the accomplishment of the goals of the third stage of land reform. These were:

Ministry of Natural Resources

Ministry of Agricultural Products and Consumer Goods

1 F.M. Davidian, Iran in the Service of World Peace, Tehran, 1971, p. 70

221
Ministry of Land Reform and Rural Cooperation.

In order to overcome some of the problems arising out of the fragmentation of land holdings, an ambitious programme of agribusiness was approved. Under this plan several large agricultural joint-stock companies were organized in collaboration with foreign investors and some agricultural cooperatives were formed.

The first political step in this direction was made in 1968 when a twenty point manifesto was proposed laying the basis of the third stage land reform which aimed at ending the fragmentation of land, acceleration of mechanization and increase of rural productivity and income. In 1968 articles for the Distribution and Sale of Rented Farms were enacted which made provision that all ploughlands under tenancy or joint farming ventures were to be converted into full ownership either by sale of lands to tenants or division of land between landlord and peasant.

And it was claimed that some eight hundred thousand tenants received ownership under this stage.

A law for the formation of farm corporation was passed on 17 Jan, 1959, which gave the government the legal basis to inaugurate its land consolidation operation under the third stage reform. In early 1963 the Land Reform Organization was consolidated so as to facilitate the setting up of farm cooperatives.

The first farm cooperation was officially inaugurated on 13 May, 1963, in Fars. The Ministry set up three main committees: each committee consisted of three members, one representative of the ministry, and two representative from each village brought into the programme. The committee was to assess the value of shareholders' land.

In 1963 it was envisaged that as many as 100 corporations would be established before 1971 at the end of the 1966-71 five-year plan period. A sum of 530 million Rials was allocated to the bank for this purpose. A ten-year tax holiday was offered to those beginning new farm enterprises in either the livestock or cash crops.

The initial response by the farming population to the proposals in phase three of the reform was negative.

There was apprehension among the peasants as well as the landlords about the government's intentions on the matter of farm cooperation. They were afraid that their land would be taken away and that their rights to their land would be curtailed. Thus the Shah and the government lost credit with the peasantry resulting in the damaging consequences of rural alienation. The social effects of the third stage were totally unappreciated in Tehran. Most small landlords, cultivators and landless cultivators and landless labourers were destined to suffer by the reform.

"The third phase effectively dismantled, according to Keith Mc Lachlan, 'the social structure of the villages involved.' Mr. Keith continues his criticism of the farm corporation structure further. According to him process of centralization developing rapidly during 1960s and articulated through the Shahs' reform programme, the spreading security system and the growing strength of the bureaucracy were accelerated by adopting farm corporation system. This system halted the progress of the cooperative movement in rural Iran. The official interest in improving the welfare of peasant farmers and stimulating self help in villages declined to a very low ebb. Allocation of credits 1. Ibid. p. 120.
through the societies declined as available funds were placed at the disposal of larger commercial funds. The most damaging aspect was the blighting effect it had on the adjacent areas. Rural families lost faith in their future on land and directed their children away from agriculture. During the period 1968-72, the impact of rural insecurity was apparent but not to cause alarm. But the insecurity combined with a booming urban economy from 1973 generated negative trends.

Cyrus Salamanzadeh's too is critical of the reform. According to him it was the logical outcome of a reform in the interest of a true peasantry, and was directed against those landlords who either still maintained a foot hold through the agricultural unit or were party to tenancy contract. The third phase was to complete the programme of land distribution by 22 Sep, 1971; but the dead line was extended to 2 Jan, 1977 because of the various problems involving Mucha and land right inheritance system among peasants.

1. Ibid, p. 160.
The programme as a whole has been criticised for discriminating between the various classes of peasant-sharecroppers and the agricultural labourers. The former received land but latter did not, though their need was far greater. Similarly, it discriminated between various types of tenants, for example cultivators of small areas received less than the others. Land evaluation formulae also created unfair price differentials since they were based on land tax previously paid. Corrupt landowners ensured that their sharecroppers could buy land at a much lower price than the sharecroppers of those landlords who had paid their tax in full. Similarly, the third stage reform did not increase the general level of agricultural output, although it did increase income and income distribution. The level of agricultural output remained unchanged because the farmers continued to employ the same techniques as were used prior to the reform.

The author of *Capitalism and Revolution in Iran* has given a more balanced view of the Land Reform in Iran which may be summarised as follows:

With the end of feudalism, the peasants lost their class entity to a great extent. Before the land reform, 80 percent of all arable land were cultivated by smallholders. Afterwards a much larger number of peasants joined the ranks of smallholders who are counted to be more than two million rural families. Of them the rich did not work on the land themselves but managed their farms. The middle smallholders employed Khoshnothin (خوشنوین) the landless peasants along the system of family production. The third category is of those whose land was not sufficient to support them and their families and who had to work for others.

Feudalist exploitation had been brought to an end but large sections of the peasants were exposed to exploitation by the comprador bourgeoisie which was mainly affected in the form of taxes and dues. While the small shareholders had their own land and the land lords were not there to exploit them, they remained poor and hungry. As the result of the end of feudalism, followed by the penetration of capital and urban culture in rural Iran, the peasants’ needs increased and hence there was a wide gap between their income and requirement.
the end of feudalism paved the way for the rapid growth of capitalism. After the land reform the agricultural bourgeoisie achieved growth qualitatively and quantitatively. Rural markets were opened to capital and a cheap and plentiful supply of labour became available. Foreign exploitation increased with the extraordinary increase in production and export of raw material and foreign investment.

With the end of the old system the economic crisis also ended. The level of production particularly in the industrial sector increased and this increase improved the lot of the masses. Those previously unemployed got jobs, the living standards of the petty bourgeoisie went up and all this created in them, and even among the workers, a feeling of optimism. But such conditions created a wide gap between the vanguard to CC that tore the regime's ordinary dictatorship and masses who were in a state of confusion. At a time when the regime had increased its allround pressure, the popular movement stepped out on a new road which finally succeeded in bringing the regime's rule of the Shah to an end.

1 Bishan Irani, Capitalism and Revolution in Iran, translated by Iran Committee, Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 1982, p. 69
Agriculture during the revolution and after

There were various factors for the overthrow of the Shah's regime. But whichever combination of elements is chosen or having been involved in bringing about the overthrow of the Shah, the position of agriculture and rural community will inevitably form an integral part of the argument to find out the causes of the overthrow of the former regime. The land reform and other part of the Shah's "White Revolution" remained as continuing sources of friction between the government and many of those within the establishment.

In fact most of those groups who participated in the revolution had in their manifestos some mention of plans for agriculture once the Shah had been removed. They all laid great stress on agriculture and condemned the maladministration of the prosperity and failure of the Shah's government to have policies to bring about a positive development of agriculture. Shah's reforms were badly criticised. But when the Shah was removed and the power transferred to the revolutionaries, they failed to have

Proposed for the cultivation of agriculture. Po" as a programme for improving productivity and stability of living at the present time. We only lack the revolutionary basis of urban nature fail to take into consideration the problem which the agricultural community had to face. Although Ayatollah Khomeini claimed that this was of the condition even in the most remote village, the centre of revolutionary farmers in the 1970s was cities and towns though the villagers were not entirely possible this were not the active components of revolutionary forces. The result was that the real criticism of urban and forming interest in the first revolution in situations very weak and there was no improvement in the position of the rural community.

In the midst of these worries, the 1971 impaneled to take the situation in hand though the importance of agriculture was recognized. The first minister of Agriculture, Ali Mohammad Hadi, suggested that success in future of agricultural policy would make a break the revolution by the middle of 1972 the ministry was changed to the complex bureau of land ownership with some of land by the peasants and other opportunities.

1 Third, 191
causing it serious problems. Peasants took land from landlord holding expecting connivance from the authorities. Corrupt officials too exploited the chaotic situation prevailing in the country. The ministry of agriculture attempted to solve the problem of land reform but due to the lack of political strength needed to carry out the reform it failed in its attempt. The ministry had to spend much time in confronting the religious establishment over land reform despite the supremacy of the Council of Guardians of Revolution in judging issue of this nature.

Only the revolutionary guerrilla group, the mujahidin-e-Khalq put into practice its idea on agriculture in the cotton growing region of Gorgan. Local committees controlled by the guerrilla attempted to oust landlords who were not Turkomans with the result that the central authorities crushed the committee and with them the Turkoman ministry.

The pace of agricultural development after the revolution was slow due to the institutional framework which foreclosed its management. There was a division of responsibility between the Ministry of Agriculture and two

1 Ibid. p. 193
2 Ibid. p. 193
organisations which in practice operated quite separately, the Jihad-i-Sarvandegi (جهاد سرفندی) and the Buniyad-e-Mustazafin (بنیاد معزولین). The former was founded immediately after the overthrow of the Shah and it carried the revolution to the countryside. It attempted to take a major initiative in the land reform and was the agency through which collective farming was brought to the villagers under the terms of Esfahan reform of March 1980. The Buniyad-e-Mustazafin became the heir to the properties taken from those associated with the regime of the Shah. It took into its ownership considerable areas of land including agro-industrial units. The proceeds of its activities were dedicated to the interest of the poor and the deprived.

The first coordinated land reform was published on 1st March, 1980. Rural lands were divided into three categories:

a) comprising public lands under the direct management of the government.

b) lands confiscated from members of the former regime.

1. Ibid. p. 202
2. Ibid. p. 202
3. Ibid. p. 206.
(c) Large farms under private ownership.

Under the last category, known as Band--Jim (بند جم), the lands unutilised by the large land owners were liable for distribution to farmers. However, on 17 Nov, 1980, the provision of Band--Jim was revoked.

In order to put the law into effect seven-member teams were set up. They comprised two persons appointed by the Ministry of Agriculture, a representative of the Ministry of the Interior, a member of the Ihnad e-Sazandegi, a representative of the Ministry of Justice and two members from the local village council. But these teams grew unpopular amongst the villagers because they were perpetuating uncertainty in respect of ownership of land and other resources.

The lack of decision making on the issue left the seven member teams in a great deal of difficulty since the legal basis of their land allocation was defective.

The revolution did little positive for the farmers of the country. The revolution was urban oriented because.

1. Ibid pp. 106.
2. Ibid p. 707.
those with real power had neither sufficient enthusiasm for, nor understanding of agriculture so as to effect a major change in the policy and programme related with uplift of the peasantry. The aim of the Jirgi proposals of 1979 was to regularize the land seizures by peasants under the stress of the revolutionary conditions. The submersion of these reform in the radical proposals of March 1980 was almost a disaster. Events in the mid-1980s led to the conclusion that the government had no constructive policies towards agriculture that would secure a significant future role for the sector. The constraints on farming specially in the sphere of water provision for irrigation were to be as severe five or ten years after the revolution as they had been before. Disintegration of the traditional water use and farming system proceeded faster in 1980 than any timed before. Accumulated expertise in managing land and water diminished as experienced farmers moved away from the countryside. New farming systems were not to replace the traditional system with the obvious result that output fell behind population growth.

1. Ibid. p. 221
2. Ibid. p. 271
3. Ibid. p. 274.
Conclusion

The land reform in the four years between 1962 and 1966 brought about considerable change in the social, political and economical life of the people of Iran. Prior to 1962 the landowners owned a large proportion of the cultivated land and were therefore dominant throughout the country. The relationship between the landowners and peasants was regulated by cropsharing agreement. The first stage of the land reform altered the distribution of landownership and the second stage brought to an end the relationship between the landowners and the peasants based on cropsharing agreement.

Before the introduction of land reform the peasants lived under unfavourable conditions and they never believed that it was possible to change their conditions. But after the Land Reform of 1962 the peasants began to feel that their voice counted for something. The land reform was essentially pragmatic. Now the peasant was convinced that the reform represented


Ibid. p. 348
a genuine attempt to secure for him a better
c Condition. He became sure that the change in his
Condition was a practical possibility. So he gained new
Self-confidence and independence.
Economically and agriculturally the effects of
Land reform could not be so easily conceived. However,
the land transferred to the peasants was better cultivated
Ensuring increase in produce, increase in the use of
Fertilizers, and greater diversification of crop. In most
Of the land reform villages there was reduction in for
Selling of crop and indebtedness and an improvement in
Social and economic conditions. The peasants put in
Extra effort to raise their standard of living. Their were
Community efforts for the provision of schools, baths,
Roads etc.
The peasants no doubt had not been benefited by
The land reform equally. Those to whom land was
Transferred under the first stage received better treatment
Than those who had their lands settled under the second
Stage. Moreover, the number of the peasants directly
1. Ibid. p. 348.
2. Ibid. pp. 348-49.
affected was much less than the number not affected. But as living conditions in villages improved and oppression lessened, all the peasants had benefited, though the benefit was only marginal.

A number of problems still remained to be tackled, one of which was the minimum size of the holding. It is a difficult problem in Iran. The quantity of the land, the availability of water, the method of irrigation etc. which vary widely in different parts of the country, all affect the question of the size of the holding. The land reform did not do anything in this respect excepting the halting of further fragmentation. The other complicated problem was the consolidation of individual peasant holding. The holding of a peasant consisted of several plots of land situated in different parts of the village. The quality of the land and irrigation facility vary considerably. So the idea of compulsory consolidation was abandoned to avoid opposition and hostility among the peasants. However, in a few cases consolidation had been carried out. In due course with the spread of mechanization, increased use of fertilizers and better irrigation, the benefit of 1. Ibid. p 340.
consolidation would be realised.

Although the peasants on the land which had been transferred to them or settled had become better off, still poverty exists which is mainly due to lack of water and which has been the limiting factor in agricultural development.

Despite some shortcomings it may be said that the land reform generated a movement of change in the countryside. It is to be seen in the great demand of education for children. It is also expressed in a new sense of purpose, independence, and self-reliance of the peasants and above all in the emergence of leaders in the cooperative societies.

The basic need of the peasants almost everywhere was short term credit. The cooperative societies did an excellent job in providing this. A sense of loyalty to the societies had developed among their members, and there was some measure of responsibility for the grant of credit and its repayment.

The main function of the cooperative societies was

1. Ibid. p. 351.
to grant short term credit. But there were instances in which it was used for long term ends, for the purchase of pumps and tractors and sinking of wells. While these activities were worth encouraging, the confusion of two types of credit was to create difficulties and confusion.

The minister of agriculture, General Riahi promised a third stage of Land Reform on January 9, 1966. The aims were (i) an increase in production to provide foodstuffs and raw material for industry (ii) a rise in production per head of the peasant population in order to improve their conditions of life by self-help and cooperation, (iii) a stabilization of food price by increased production and marketing.

The third stage was a continuation of the first and the second stage of the land reform. But its discussion falls beyond the scope of my view.

It was realised from the beginning that the success of land reform depended on the increase in the production and this would be achieved by creating an

1. Ibid. p. 353.
2. Ibid. p. 354.
independent peasantry and by developing a cooperative movement which would provide credit and marketing facilities. But as the land reform progressed a kind of apathy towards it developed in government circles. By 1965 there was to appear a new credit policy which was to divert the funds from the land reform and cooperative movement to private investment in agriculture aiming at increase in production. While increase in production was important because without it the standard of living of the peasant could not be improved: it would have been a mistake if the government were to concentrate on the question of production excluding the other aspects of the land reform. Persian agriculture was likely to continue to depend largely on the production of the peasant holding. On these grounds it would have been desirable to foster the confidence of the peasants through the land reform and cooperative societies.

Ms Anne Lambton concludes her discussion which is summarized as follows:

"The first stage of Land Reform marked a genuine change in the political and social life of Persia. In
Ibid. p. 355."
aims were clear and unambiguous, and its operations, on the whole, rapid and effective. The second stage was not merely or even mainly a consolidation of the ground already won; it was rather a weakening of the original purpose. But although its aims were to some extent equivocal, in those districts where its implementation was rapid and vigorous progress continue to be made particularly in the co-operative movement, where it was not the peasants began to lose confidence because their hopes were disappointed. It is of profound importance that the government should give practical recognition to the aims of the first stage and begin the full confidence of the peasants. Without this there will be no rise in production over the country as a whole.

After 1966, the second stage of the Land Reform had been officially completed except in those districts which had not yet been registered or the estates whose title was disputed.

Attention was being increasingly directed to the

1 Ibid., p. 356.
2 This is supplied as Postscript to the Persian Land Reform which is based on Mr. Lumbton's personal experience.
full exploitation of the agricultural resources of the country. In this regard irrigation was of paramount importance. Consequently large dams are being built. On Oct 15, 1967, the nationalisation of all water resources was announced but in the absence of detailed plans and effective means of implementation the effect of the new plan created uncertainty and disencouragement.

The first step taken under the third stage was to increase the output by mechanisation. As such on Dec. 26, 1967 a law was passed by the National Assembly and on Jan. 16, 1968 by the Senate for the establishment of agriculture co-operation. The idea was to abolish the fragmentation of holdings and to facilitate irrigation and mechanisation

These holding land in a district where the corporation is set up hand over their land over the corporation and in its place receive a share in it. They have no responsibility for cultivation and are employed as agricultural labour.

Some 15 or 16 corporations were established in districts in which good land with adequate irrigation facility was available. There was strong feeling of hostility among the peasants towards the idea of the corporation. The main

1. Ibid., p. 352
2. Ibid., p. 352.
reason was that the corporation were to be set up in districts in which good land and adequate water were available and not in dry villages.

The second step was the passage of a bill by the National Consultative Assembly on Oct. 11, 1968 for the abolition of tenancies except in charitable Waqf and sale of the land to the occupying peasants. In the case of tenants of land belonging to landowners subject to the first stage, this was a desirable step.

In order to have better production the ministry of Agriculture was reorganized and three new ministries were created in Oct 1967: the ministry of natural resources, the ministry of agricultural products and consumer goods and the ministry of land reform and rural cooperation and the last ministry incorporated the former Land Reform organisation and the Central Organisation for Rural Cooperation (CORC). The corporation of CORC in the ministry of land reform was detrimental to the growth of rural cooperation movement. However, by the spring of 1966, 865% societies with a membership of 1,105,402 (eleven

1. Ibid. p. 359.
2. Ibid. p. 360.

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the capital, membership and number of societies was partly because a small percentage of every new loan was put to the share capital of each member, and partly because the number of peasants eligible for membership had greatly increased.

However, the societies achieved great degree of success. First, in respect of provision of credit, the general experience was that the loans provided by them were larger than the advances formerly provided by the land owners. Second, with regard to irrigation, the peasants to whom land was transferred showed a tendency to maintain flow of the qanats and increased their flow by regular cleaning them. Much work on qanats and irrigation channels was done by the members of societies with the loans from the societies. Third, with regard to management and good farming practices, excellent work was done in the sale of fertilizers and improved seeds. In the year 1967-68 some 11,000 ton of fertilizers were sold through the societies and over 15 lakh kg. of improved seeds and over fifty five lakh kg. of local seeds were sold by the societies.

Ibid. pp. 362-63
In short, the success of the land reform during its six-year duration had been considerable. A considerable portion of the total cultivated land was transferred to the peasants. The social and political power of the landowners was reduced. The levy of dues and services from the peasants was abandoned. The peasants were thus been liberated from the bondage of their masters who were the landowners. The cooperative movement made tremendous success. They were fostering a spirit of self-help and independence and encouraging a sense of responsibility. This was the great achievement of the Persian land reform.

1. Ibid. pp. 365-66.
GLOSSORY OF TECHNICAL TERMS

A list of technical terms in Persian concerning land reforms is given below. This list is based on the glossary prepared by Anne Lambton and appeared in her book, Persian Land Reform (pp. 67-77). I have departed from Ms. Lambton in these respects.

1. A number of words not peculiar to Land Reform have been dropped such as باغ، سَمَّ، غلام، هِبم، etc.

2. I have been able to supply some new meanings to terms on the basis of some Persian-English and Persian-Persian Dictionaries such as Fteingass and Ftehang-i-Moin.

3. In order to facilitate the reading of terms, they have been written in original Persian along with transliteration in English.

4. I have preferred to Indian pronunciation of the terms rather than the modern Persian pronunciation. The basis of my preference is that Indian scholars are not conversant with the Persian pronunciation especially regarding
such words as are common in India and Iran. Secondly because the pronunciation of such words in old times was similar to our modern pronunciation. For example the word "Ain Nama" is pronounced in Modern Iran as Ain Nameh.

5. In transliterating Persian words I have made a departure from Ms. Lambton: that I have not used "h" as a sign of as in Name and Dadna which I prefer as Name and Dadna. But I would like to clarify that one should keep in mind that has been retained as such for example has been transliterated as Nih.

Ain Nama ( آین نامه ) : Regulations for the execution of law. This is new coinage not available in Persian English Dic by F. Steingass.

Allot ( عللت ) A vendor of fodder, a corn chandler.

Amlak ( املاک ) Plural of milk ( میلک ) lands, private landed estate.
Amlak-i-Dangi Para Ganda\footnote{اصل: دانگی پراگدانا} and scattered parcels of land

Amlak-i-Wujuzari\footnote{اصل: ووجزاری} The private landed estates of Peer Shah which were to be returned to their original owners.

Amlak-i-Yarati\footnote{اصل: یاراتی} agricultural elements such as land, water, seed, etc.

Awn (اون) dues.

A’yoon or A’yani\footnote{اون, ایانی} tangible property, the house, trees of agricultural holdings.

Aish (امش) crop rotation.

B har-i Maliknamah\footnote{بهرہ مالکنامہ} the land owner’s share of the crop under a crop sharing agreement.

Bakhsh dar\footnote{بخشن دار} District governor, in India, District Magistrate or Collector.

1 In modern Persian it is پرکاندہ (پرکاندا)
Hair or Baire (بایره): uncultivated land.

Bazarse (بازرس): Inspector.

Shirkat-i-Talavuni (شیرکت تلاوینی): Official charged with the accounts of a Cooperative Society.

Begari (بیگاری): Labour service in India. Begari is service without remuneration.

Dadizan (دلدیزان): Public Prosecutor.

Dari (دلاری): A sixth of anything; a sixth of a real estate.

Dasttaban (دستتابان): A village official appointed to protect fields from damage.

Diyum (ذیم): Unirrigated land.

Diyamdar (ذیمار): Peasant cultivating unirrigated land.

Firmandar (فرماندار): Governor.
Independent governorate.

Warm low lands.

One who is not the owner of the land but cultivates the land by means of an agricultural labourer who is paid a share of the crop and pays a share of the crop in cash or kind to the land owner.

The solution of disputes for which special provision are laid down in the Land Reform Law of Jan 9, 1962.

Ground rent.

Water right.

Ploughlands grouped together.

Haizim (حائزيم) : An area of land around a well or qanat with in which certain operations are forbidden.

Ihtisami (إحتمامي) : Separated the delimited.

Iqta (إقطاع) : Land assignment

Iqrib (إقرب) : Measure of area varying in size.

Iqribana (إقربانية) : Due levied on the area of land held.

Iqrima (إقرمة) : Due levied by the landowner for the settlement of disputes.

Juft (هفت) : Yoke of Oxen; ploughland; measure of water.

Juftbandi (هفت بندى) : Division of the village land into plough lands.

Kadkhudi (للخري) : Headman of the village
Agriculture labourer defined under Article 1 (iv) of the Land Reform Law of Jan. 9, 1962, as one who does not own or provide any of the agricultural elements and receives a wage in cash or kind or some specific agricultural work.

Khalisa (خالسہ): State land, land under government management; an office of the government in which the business of the revenue department is transacted.

Khish (خیش): Plough, ploughland.

Khurdamalik (خوردامالک): Small landowner.

Clearing silt from a water channel.

Rotation period of water used for irrigation.

Of unknown ownership.

Taxes.

Landowner: one who owns the land but is not personally occupied in agriculture.

Measure of weight; the common is Mann-i-Tabrizi or 40 Sirs or 2.97 kg.

Dead Land.

Due levied the state from peasants on Khalisa land.

Official in charge of the distribution of water.

Mu'minati Amil (سيرغل) · Manager of a cooperative society, or federation of cooperative societies; general manager of the Central Organisation for Rural Cooperation.

Mu'min i kulli (سيرغل) · Director General of a ministry.

Mu'mini (مقت) · One who makes or repairs a qanat.

Murravi (مرطرف) · Agricultural extension officer.

Muhara (مناع) · Jointly owned in undivided shares of land.

Mu'ahir (مستشیات) · Land exempted from transfer or settlement under the first or second stage of the land Reform

Mu'tamid-i Mahal ( مستصل) · Village elder.

Muttawaddi (مصید) · Overseer, administrator of a Waqt.
Mutwalli (محمد) : Administrator of a Vaqf.

Noueh (ناصر) : In Kurdistan and Kermanshah, levy made at harvest time on the peasants for the bread for the landowner.

Nasaq (نق) : Field layout of lands, division of the village lands into ploughlands.

Nasaqbandi (نقبند) : Dividing the village lands into ploughlands; preparing ploughlands for cultivation.

Nimkar (نبکار) : Peasant who receive half the crop under a cropsharing agreement in daym land.

Ouraqi-Khazana (وارقی خزانه) : Treasury bonds.

Pirkar (پیکار) : New excavation at the source of a qanat.

Plak (پلاک) : Registration unit.
Qibla (قَبْضَة‎)  
Bill of exchange, Promissory Note.

Qanat (قنات)  
Underground irrigation channel.

Khandaq (خندق)  
Winter quarters of a tribe

Qidr (قيدر)  
Plot of land

Arba'at (رابعة)  
Chairman of the council

Rum (روم)  
Dues.

Sazari Kar (سازاری کار)  
Pasant engaged in the cultivation of vegetables.

Mabneh Nāk (مبنین ناق)  
Pasant holding a plough land.

Sahrā (سَحْرَاء)  
Several plough lands grouped together and run as a unit.

Salṭana (سلطنة)  
Dues paid to a landowner by a man residing in a village but working outside.

Sundari Rumī (سندری کسی)  
Official document.
Supervisor of a cooperative Society.

Summer crop lands, summer quarter for flocks.

Summer crops.

Summer cropping.

Pahlavi Foundation For Social Service.

Central Organisation for Rural Cooperation.

Governor.

Rural Co-operative Society

Health Corps.

Literary Corps.
Agricultural extension

Member of the Health Cor.

Member of the Literary Corp.

Member of the Agricultural extension Corp.

Right of residence

Payment made by a person to the landowner for any purpose to marry

Grant of land or assignment of revenue dues of salary or by way of pension

Advance given by the government to a peasant, in India, or to a village people in case of drought and similar calamity

 решите
 CFLM ركز

one engaged in cultivating, in cultivating land with water raised by pump

بطرول

irrigation of land or re- revenue

ناتدوز (بطرول)

holder of a Tujur

محرش (الملك)

big landlord.

امان (عمر)

Agriculture development

ص (دين)

customary law, custom

روني

customs

حائستان

governor general

رستاندار

governor general, in India, only governor

دشت

land immobilized for religious

دشت عام

charitable purpose

دشت خاص

private Waqf or family Waqf
Vikalat Name : Power of Attorney.

Summer Quarter of a tribe : "Yulqan".

Dues levied by or for the landowner's bailiff.

Zarri : Peasant - one who is not the owner of the land but who possessing one or more agricultural elements (زرعی) cultivated land belonging to a landowner, to whom he gives a portion of the crop in each of in Kind.

Zuji : In Khurja yoke of oxcart; ploughland: measure of water.

The above quoted list of technical words i.e. is very useful for those scholars who venture to undertake the study of the Land Reform introduced in Iran from time to time. One who is not conversant with those would fail to understand the agricultural problems of that country. Even for a study of medieval Indian history...
and one interested in agrarian and agricultural problems of the medieval India, a full understanding of such technical terms as listed above and even more, is a prerequisite for success in his project. Several of these Persian terms are used in India which prove the impact of Persian cultural and language on India, a topic beyond the scope of my study.
Persian Land Reform 1962-66 by Ms Anne K. J. Lampton is an outstanding work on the topic it covers. This study is based on the author's extensive tour through the villages of in the east, west, south and north of Iran. She took this tour for several times and had the programme of meeting the peasants, landowners, officials of the Societies and Federations, and of the Banks for Credit etc. and had first-hand information about the agriculture problems of the country. After acquiring such information she set up to compose her book in which all the points have so well been co-ordinated that the book had turned to be the most excellent piece of research work. And so far as my knowledge goes no other writer had ventured to do the job in such commendable manner with the result that the book of Ms Lampton remains to be a unique composition not equalled by any one else; this is why that I had no choice but to benefit exceedingly from her excellent contribution.

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Ahmad B. Husein : Tarikhi Fadidi Yazd, Yazd, B. Ali R. Kafir 1938-39

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Amin Banani

Amin Saikal

Amuzegar Jahanmir

Amuzegar Jahanmir and M A Fekrat

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Amin Banani

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