Ancient history of iran pdf

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The people who speak the languages of the Indo-Iranian subgroup of Indo-European language families probably entered Iran from the ancestors of the later Iranian population are little known. The Elamites of Fars province in the southwest
had written language unrelated to Iranian. Other doi Iranian languages are unknown. The ancient Iranians gradually developed an identity separate from the kindred peoples who had moved to the occupation of northern India. However, their cultural and religious traditions have long remained similar. In Iran, a priest named zoroaster reformed the Indo-
Iranian polytheistic faith for ethical reasons and preached a religion with one god, Ahura Mazda, and the underlying dualistic theology, pitting against Good Evil. Avesta is a religion was practiced during the earliest historically candle-jewish Iranian
dynasties, honeys and Persians. The media were lying in the central mountains of zagros; Peris (the name of the Greek form Fars) lay in the southwest. The history of the Medes and the Persian dynasty of Achaemenid (named after the ancestor, Achaemenes) is known primarily from Greek historians such as Herodotus, from the great inscriptions of Cliffside
in the old Persian in Behistun, and from the excavations of palaces and tombs in Persepolis and Pasargade. Cyrus the Great, who founded the lands of the Aakhemenids, Darius III, was defeated at the hands of Alexander the Great in 330
BC Over the past period, the Iranian Empire has established itself as the dominant power in the Middle East and the sworn enemy of any state lying to the west of it. This confrontation between the tan of the Iranian empire and the Western adversary has been repeated many times in Iranian history. Mesopotamia was sometimes the enemy's domain, both in
the early Islamic period and during the recent Iran-Iraq war; sometimes this area was an area that, despite the predominantly Semitic and non-Iranian population, was an extension of Iranian imperial territory, as under Achaemenid relations with
related people in the east are poorly known, but pastoral tribes pushed south from Central Asia pose problems. The rules of Achaemenide used the name King of Kings (modern Persian, Shahanshah). They also differ between their provinces in Iran and Aniran (non-Iran). Some later dynasties tried to use the example of the Amemenids to legitimize their rule,
most recently Pahlavi in the twentieth century. After Alexander in 323 BC, his general Selevkus became the controller of his Iranian territories. Like his predecessors, Selevkus and his descendants had difficulty controlling Iran's eastern borders. By 303, he had lost the Indian provinces of Alexander Chandragupta Morya. A separate Greek kingdom originated
in Bactria in northern Afghanistan. The Seleucids have focused their interest in the west and expanded their forces to the Mediterranean, with capitals in Antioch in Syria and Seleice on the Tigris River. The Arsacids were the leaders of the Parthian, the Iranian people who followed the pastoral ousse southeast of the Caspian Sea. They founded a kingdom
that expanded after growing concern about the Selweids in the west. The Arsakid dynasty or Parthian ruled from about 250 BC to 226 AD It is the least known of the major Iranian dynasties, despite being a formidable enemy of the Romans. The Silk Road through Central Asia to China, which first became active in the Parthian period, gave rise to an
exchange of cultural influences between the two ends of Asia. The Susanids, a family of zoroastrian priests from the Far East, inspired the Parthians and exceptional Iranian religion. Christians, Jews, Buddhists and Manicheans, a sect started by the prophet Mani in the third century AD, were sometimes
persecuted and sometimes tolerant. The hierarchical church and its leader, the Shah, clashed in the west with a similarly organized Christian church led by the emperors of the late Roman or Byzantine Empire, established by Constantine in 330. Rival empires fought back for three centuries. Meanwhile, new nations entered Iranian territory from Central Asia.
Some of them speak Iranian (e.g. Sogdian); others spoke Turkic languages. Buddhism was the dominant religion, although Manichean and Christian missionaries spread from Iran deep into Central Asia. The eastern border of the Susanid empire fluctuated. Numerous small principalities abroad are poorly known. Written by Richard Bullet. История Персии /
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Parthian Kingdom 19 – 224/5 Sasanian Empire 224 – 651 Zarmihrids 6th century – 785 Qarinvandids 550s – 11th century Medieval period Rashidun Caliphate 661–750 Abbasid Caliphate 661–750 Abbasid Caliphate 750–1258 Dabuyids 642–760 Bavandids 651–1349 Masmughans of Damavand 651–760 Paduspanids 665–1598 Justanids 791 – 11th
century Alid dynasties 864 – 14th century Tahirid dynasty 821–873 Samanid Empire 819–999 Saffarid dynasty 961–1003 Ghurid dynasty 932–968 Buyid dynasty 934–1062 Ghaznavid dynasty 977–1186 Kakuyids 1008–1141 Nasrid dynasty 1029–1236
Shabankara 1030–1355 Seljuk Empire 1037–1194 Khwarazmian dynasty 1177–1231 Eldiguzids 1135–1225 Atabegs of Yazd 1141–1319 Salghurids 1233-1306 Mihrabanids 1236–1537 Династия Курта 1244-1396 Империя Ильханате 1256-
1335 Династия Чобанидов 1335-1357 династия Музаффарид 1335-1393 Джалайрид Султанат 1337-1376 Сарбадары 1337-1376 Инджуиды 1335-1357 Династия Каркия 1370-1592 Кара Коюнлу 1406-1468 Ак Зоюнлу 1468-1508 Ранний современный период
Сефевид Иран 1501-1736 (династия Хотак) 1722-1729 Афшарид династии 1736-1796 Талыш Ханате 1747-1826 Занд династии 1751-1794 Заджар Иран 1789-1925 Современный период династии 1789-1925 Современный период династии 1736-1796 Талыш Ханате 1747-1826 Занд династии 1751-1794 Заджар Иран 1789-1925 Современный период династии 1789-1925 Современный период династии 1789-1926 Совреме
Имя монархов Главы государственной экономической истории Военные войны Хронология Иран , переплетается с историей более крупного региона, также в такой степени, как Большой Иран, включающий область от Анатолии,
Босфора и Египта на западе до границ Древней Индии и Сырдарьи на востоке and from the Caucasus and the Eurasian steppe in the north to the Persian Gulf and urban settlements dating back to 7000 BC the Southwestern and
western part of the Iranian plateau participated in the traditional ancient Middle East with Elam, from the early Bronze Age, and then with various other people. In 625 BC, the Medes united Iran as a nation and an empire. Achemid Empire
(550-330 BC), founded by Cyrus was the first true global superpower state, and it ruled from the Balkans to North Africa, as well as Central Asia, spanning three continents, from their place of power in Persisa (Persepolis). It was the largest empire yet seen, and the first world empire. The Ahemenid Empire was the only civilization in history that connected
more than 40% of the world's population, representing approximately 49.4 million of the world's 112.4 million people around 480 BC. Persia's rival was the Roman Empire and its successor, the Byzantine Empire. The Iranian people gave birth to Meheda, Ahemenid, Parthian and
Sasan Empires of classical antiquity. Once a large empire, Iran survived invasions too, Macedonians, Arabs, Turks and Mongols. Iran has been steadily restoring its national identity for centuries and has become a separate political and cultural entity. The Muslim conquest of Persia (633-654) put an end to the Sasan Empire and is a turning point in Iranian
history. The Islamization of Iran took place in the eighth and tenth centuries, which led to the final decline of zoroastrianism in Iran, as well as many of its addictions. However, the achievements of previous Persian civilizations were not lost, but were largely absorbed by the new Islamic statehood and civilization. Iran, with its long history of early cultures and
empires, suffered particularly hard in the late Middle Ages and early modern period. Many of the nomadic tribes whose leaders became rulers in that country had a negative impact on it. Once again functioning as a leading world power, this time among the neighboring Ottoman Empire, its arch-rival for centuries, Iran was a monarchy ruled by the emperor
almost without interruption from 1501 until the Iranian Revolution of 1979, when Iran officially became an Islamic republic on April 1, 1979. During the first half of the 19th century, Iran lost many of its territories in the Caucasus, which had been part of Iran for centuries, including modern Eastern Georgia, Dagestan, the Republic of Azerbaijan and Armenia, to
the rapidly expanding and emerging neighboring Russian empire after the Russo-Persian wars of 1804-13 and 1826-8. Background Additional information: Tepe Sialk, Culture, and Shahr-e-Sukhte Paleolithic The earliest archaeological artifacts in Iran were found in Kashafrud and
Ganj Par sites, which are believed to date back to 10,000 years ago in the Middle Paleolithic. Musterium stone tools made by Neanderthals were also found. There are more cultural remains of Neanderthals dating back to the Middle Paleolithic period, which have mostly been found in the region of zagros and less in central Iran in places such as Kobe, Kunji,
Bisitun Cave, Tamtam, Varwazi and Yafte Cave. In 1949, the Neanderthal radius was discovered by Carlton S. Kuhn in the Eisitun Cave. Evidence of the Upper Paleolithic and Epipaleolite eras is known mainly from the zagro mountains in the caves of Kermanshah, Piranshahr and Horramabad and several places in Alborz and Central Iran. During this time,
people began to create rock art. Neolithic to Chalcolithic Early Agricultural Communities such as Chogha Golan in 10,000 BC,2021 began to flourish in and around the region of the mountains of zagros in Iran's west. Around the same time, the earliest known clay
vessels and simulated terracotta figurines of humans and animals were manufactured in Ganja Dareh, also in western Iran. Among many other ancient artifacts there are figurines of humans and animals were manufactured in Ganja Dareh, also in western Iran. Among many other ancient artifacts there are figurines of humans and animals were manufactured in Ganja Dareh, also in western Iran.
crops of mankind were grown, in villages such as Susa (where the settlement was first founded, perhaps as early as 4395 BC) and settlements such as Choga Mish, beginning in 6800 BC; There are 7,000-year-old jars of wine excavated in the mountains of zagros (now exhibited at the University of Pennsylvania) and the ruins of 7,000-year-old settlements
such as Tepe Sialk are further evidence of this. The two main Neolithic Iranian settlements were the culture, Akkadian Empire, Kassites, and Mannaeans Cylinder with the ritual scene, in the early 2nd millennium BC, Geoy Tepe, Iran
Choga ernil is one of the few surviving zigzags outside mespotami and the best preserved zigzag outside of Mesopotamia and the best preserved in the world. Parts of present-day northwestern Iran were part of the Caucasus and Anatolia. Sousse is
one of the oldest known settlements in Iran and the world. Based on the date of C14, the time of the founding of the city as early as 4395 BC, just after the creation of the Sumerian urban state of Uruk, therefore, including many aspects of
Mesopotamian culture. In its later history, Sousse became the capital of Elama, which emerged as a state founded in 4000 BC There are also dozens of prehistoric sites throughout the Iranian plateau indicating the existence of ancient cultures and urban settlements in the fourth millennium BC, one of the earliest civilizations on the Iranian plateau was the
culture of The Giroft in southeastern Iran in the province of Kerman. It is one of the richest archaeological sites in the Middle East. Archaeological excavations in The Giroft led to the discovery of several objects belonging to the 4th millennium BC. There are a large number of objects decorated with very distinctive engravings of animals, mythological figures
and architectural motifs. Objects and their iconography are unlike anything archaeologists have ever seen. Many of them are made of chlorite, a gray-green soft stone; others in copper, bronze, terracotta, and even azure. Recent excavations at these sites have led to the world's earliest inscription, which is up to the date of mesopotamian inscriptions. There
are records of many other ancient civilizations on the Iranian plateau before the emergence of the Iranian peoples in the early Bronze Age was the beginning of urbanization in organized urban states and the invention of writing (the Uruk period) in the Middle East. While Bronze Age Elam used written writing from an early age, the proto-
elait script remains promiscuous, and Schumer's records related to Elam are scarce. Russian historian Igor Diakonov argues that the modern inhabitants of the Iranian plateau, not the proto-Indo-European tribes of Europe, which are mostly ancestors, in the
physical sense of the word, modern Iranians. Early Iron Age See also: The Neo-Assyrian Empire and the Urartu Gold Cup at the National Museum of Iran, dating from the first half of the 1st millennium BC Records are becoming more tangible with the rise of the Neo-Assyrian Empire and its records of invasions from the Iranian plateau. Already in the 20th
century BC tribes came to the Iranian plateau from the Pontian Caspian steppe. The arrival of the Iranians on the Iranians plateau forced the Elamites to abandon one area of their empire after another and take refuge in Elam, Khuzestan and the surrounding area, which only then became coterminous with Elam. Bahman Firuzmandi says that southern Iranians
can be mixed with Elamites living on the plateau. By the middle of the first millennium BC, Medes, Persians and Parthians inhabited the Iranian plateau. Before the rise of the first millennium BC, some of what is now Iranian Azerbaijan was incorporated into
Urarta. Classical Antiquity Median and Achaemenide Empire (650-330 BC) Main articles: Medes and Achaemenid Empire See also: Greco-Persian War Tomb of Cyrus the Great Ruins of the Gates of All Nations, Persepolis. The ruins of Apadana, Persepolis. An image of the combined Medes and Persians in Apadan, Persepolis. The ruins of Tachhara,
Persepolis. In 646 BC, assyrian king Ashurbanipal dismissed Sousse, ending the superiority of the Elamites in the region. For more than 150 years, the Assyrian kings of nearby Northern Mesopotamia wanted to conquer the middle tribes of Western Iran. Under the pressure of Assyria, the small kingdoms of the western Iranian plateau merged into
increasingly large and centralized states. In the second half of the seventh century BC, Medes gained its independence and was united by Deyokes. In 612 BC, Chiaxares, Dejoce's grandson and Babylonian king Nabopolassar invaded Assyria and besieged and eventually destroyed the Nineveh capital, which led to the fall of the Neoassirian Empire. Urartu
was later conquered and dissolved by Medes. I am credited with creating Iran as a nation and empire, and he founded the first Iranian empire, the largest in his time, until Cyrus the Great founded a single empire of The Medes and Persians leading to the Ahemenid Empire (c.550-330 BC). The Ahemenid Empire is the most. Cyrus the Great, in turn, is an
enormous, median, Lydian and Neo-Babylonian empire, creating an empire much larger than Asiriyah. He was better able, through more benign policies, to reconcile his subjects with Persian rule; the longevity of his empire was one of the results. The Persian king, like the Assyrian, was also the king of kings, xšāyaθiyānām (Shahanshah in modern
Persian) - the great king, Megas Basileus, as the Greeks know. Cyrus' son, Cambeis II, conquered the region's last major power, Ancient Egypt, stories have evolved as related to Herodotus that he was struck for impurities against ancient Egyptian
deities. The winner, Darius I, based his claims on membership in the collateral line of the Aagemenid Empire. The first capital of Darius was in Suz, and he started a construction program in Persepolis. He rebuilt the channel between the Nile and the Red Sea, the forerunner of the modern Suez Canal. He improved the extensive road system, and it was
during his reign that the mention was first made of The Royal Road (shown on the map), a large highway stretching all the way from Sousse to Sardis with the placement of stations on a regular basis. The major reforms took place under Darius. Coin, in shape daric (gold coin) and shekel (silver coin) were standardized (the coin was already invented over a
century before in Lydia C. 660 BC but not standardized), and administrative efficiency increased. The old Persian language appears in royal inscriptions written in a specially adapted version of cuneiform writing. Under Cyrus the Great and Darius I, the Persian Empire eventually became the largest empire in the history of mankind up to this point, ruling and
ruling much of the then famous world, as well as covering the continents of Europe, Asia and Africa. The greatest achievement was the empire itself. The Persian Empire was the world's first superpower based on a model of tolerance and religions. A map showing key locations during the Persian invasions of Greece. At the end
of the sixth century BC Darius began his European campaign in which he defeated the Paons, conquered all the coastal Greek cities, and defeated the European Scythians around the Danube River. In 512/511, the Macedonian became the vassal kingdom of Persia. In 499 BC, Athens supported the Mileta uprising that resulted in
Sardis being dismissed. This led to the Amemenid campaign against mainland Greece, known as the Greek-Persian War, which lasted the first Persian Invasion of Greece, Persian General Mardonius re-conquered Thrace and made the
Macedonian a full-fledged part of Persia. The war eventually turned out in defeat though. Darius Xerxes I's successor launched the Second Persian Invasion of Greece. At a crucial moment in the war, about half of mainland Greece was captured by the Persians, including all the territories north of the Isthmus of Corinthian, but it also resulted in a victory for
Greece after the battles of Platai and Salamis, which resulted in Persia losing its footholds in Europe and eventually withdrawing from it. During the Greek-Persian wars, Persia gained significant territorial advantages from the capture and demolition of Athens in 480 BC, however, after a series of Greek victories, the Persians were forced to leave, thus losing
control of Macedonia, Thrace and Ionia. Fighting continued for several decades after Greece successfully repelled the Second Invasion with numerous Greek urban states under the newly formed Delhi League of Athens, which eventually ended the peace of Callias in 449 BC, putting an end to the Greek-Persian wars. In 404 BC, after the death of Darius II,
Egypt rebelled under the leadership of Amirtayev. Later, the pharaohs successfully resisted Persian attempts to retake Egypt until 343 BC, when Egypt was recaptured by Artaxerxes III. Greek conquest and the Sevkid Empire (312 BC) B.C.) Main article: Seevkid Seevkid The Selebresses in 200 BC, before Antioch was defeated by the Romans from 334 BC
to 331 BC, Alexander the Great, also known in Avesta as Arda Viraz Namag (cursed Alexander), defeated Darius III in the battles of Granicus, Jesus and Gaugamela, quickly conquering the Persian Empire of 331 BC., and General Alexander, Selewkus I Nikator, tried to take control of Iran, Mesopotamia, and then Syria and Anatolia. His empire was the
Seevkid Empire. He was killed in 281 BC by Ptolemy Keraunos. The Greek language of diplomacy and literature throughout the empire. Parthian Empire (248 BC-224 AD) Main article: Parthian Empire See also: Roman-Parthian War Bronze
Statue of a Parthian Prince, The National Museum of Iran's Parthian Empire, run by the Parthians, a group of northwestern Iranian plateau after the conquest of the Guys, and periodically controlled Mesopotamia between about 150 BC and 224 AD the Parfian Empire
quickly incorporated East Arabia. Bagadates I, the first native Persian ruler after the Greek rule of Parthia was the eastern sworn enemy of the Roman Empire and limited the expansion of Rome beyond Cappadocia (central Anatolia). The Parthian armies consisted of two types of cavalry: well-armed and armored cataframes and lightly armed but highly
mobile archers. For the Romans, who relied on heavy infantry, the Parthian swere too difficult to defeat, as both types of cavalry was particularly feared by the Roman soldiers who proved key in the crushing Roman defeat at the Battle of Carrhe. On the
other hand, it was difficult for the Parthians to occupy the conquered areas because of these weaknesses, neither the Romans nor the Parthians to occupy the conquered areas because of these weaknesses, neither the Romans nor the Parthians were able to completely annex each other's territory. The Parthian Empire lasted five centuries, longer than most eastern empires. The end of this empire came at last
in 224 AD, when the organization of the empire weakened and the last king was defeated by one of the vassal peoples of the empire, the Persians under the saxons. However, the Arsakid dynasty continued to exist for centuries in Armenia, Iberia and Caucasian Albania, which were the eponymous branches of the dynasty. Sasan Empire (224-651 AD) Main
article: Sassan Empire See also: Roman-Iranian relations, Byzantine-Sasan Wars, and Byzantine-Sasan War 602-628 Rock-face relief on the Naksh-i Rustam Iranian Emperor Shapur I (on horses) capture of the Roman Valerian (knee) and Philippe Arabic (standing). The scene of the hunt for a gilded silver bowl depicting King Khosrau I. The First Shah of
the Sasan Empire Ardashir I began to reform the country economically and militarily. For more than 400 years, Iran was once again one of the world's leading powers, along with its neighboring rival, the Roman and then The Byzantine Empires. At its heyday, the empire's territory covered all of today's Iran, Iraq, Azerbaijan, Armenia, Georgia, Abkhazia,
Dagestan, Lebanon, Jordan, Palestine, Israel, parts of Afghanistan, Turkey, Syria, parts of Pakistan, Central Asia, East Arabia and parts of Egypt. For most of the Roman-Parthian wars and the all-inclusive Roman-Persian wars; the last was the longest-running
conflict in the history of mankind. Beginning in the first century BC by their predecessors, Parthians and Romans, the last Roman-Persian war was fought in the seventh century. The Persians defeated the Romans at the Battle of Edess in 260 and captured Emperor Valerian for the rest of his life. Eastern Arabia was conquered early. During the reign of
Khosrow II in 590-628, Egypt, Jordan, Palestine and Lebanon were also annexed to the Empire. The Sasanians called their empire Heronshahr (Dominion of the Aryans, i.e. Iranians). The head of Iran's history followed some six hundred years of conflict with the Roman Empire. At this time, the Sasan and Romano-Byzantine armies clashed for influence in
Anatolia, the West Caucasus (mainly in Lazic and the Iberian kingdom; modern Georgia and Abkhazia), Mesopotamia, Armenia and the Levant. Under Justinian I, the war came to a difficult world with the payment of tributes to the Sasanyans. However, the Sasans used the besieging of the Byzantine Emperor Maurice as a case of belli to attack the Empire.
After many conquests, the Sasans were defeated in Issus, Constantinople, and finally Nineveh, bringing peace. With the end of more than 700 years of Roman-Persian war as part of the culmination of the Byzantine-Sasan War of 602-628, which included the most besieged Byzantine capital of Constantinople, the war-weary Persians lost the Battle of Al-
Kadisiyah (632) in Hilla (modern Iraq) to invading Muslim troops. The Sasan era, spanning the length of late antiquity, is considered one of the most important and influential historical periods in Iran, and has had a great impact on the world. In many ways, the Sasan period witnessed the supreme achievement of Persian civilization and represents the last
great Iranian empire before the adoption of Islam. Persia greatly influenced Roman civilization during the time of Sassani, their cultural influence beyond the territorial boundaries of the empire, reaching to Western Europe, Africa, China and India, as well as playing a prominent role in the formation of both European and Asian medieval art. The unique and
aristocratic culture of the dynasty turned the Islamic conquest and destruction of Iran into the Persian Renaissance. Much of what later became known as Islamic culture, architecture, writing and other contributions to civilization were taken from the Sasan Persians to the wider Muslim world. Battle between the army of Hercules and the Persians at Khosrow
II. Fresco Piero della Francesca, c. 1452. Medieval Iran Early Islamic Period Islamic Conquest of Persia (633-651) Main article: Muslim Conquest Expansion during the Patriarchal Caliphate, 632-661 Expansion during the Umayyad Caliphate, 661-750 In 633, when the Sassan King
Yazdegerd III ruled Iran, muslims under Umar invaded the country just after it was in a bloody civil war. Several Iranian nobles and families, such as King Dinar of Karen's house and then the Sasan throne under two prominent generals, Bahram
Chabine and Shahrbaraz, he remained loyal to the Sasanyans during their struggle against the Arabs, but the michrans were eventually betrayed by Yazderd III. Yazdegerd III, fled from one district to another until a local miller killed him for a
purse in Merwe in 651. By 674, Muslims had conquered the Great Khorasan (including the modern Iranian province of Khorasan and present-day Afghanistan and present of the zoroastrian religion in Persia. Over time, most Iranians converted to Islam.
Most aspects of previous Persian civilizations were not rejected, but absorbed by the new Islamic statehood. As Bernard Lewis commented: These events were viewed differently in Iran: some as a blessing, the emergence of true faith, the end of an era of ignorance and paganism; others as a humiliating national defeat, the conquest and conquest of the
country by foreign invaders. Both perceptions are, of course, valid, depending on the angle of view. The Umayyad Era and the Muslim invasion of the Umayyad Caliphate adopted many Persian customs, especially administrative and court manners.
Arab provincial governors were either Persian Aramaic or ethnic Persians; Of course, Persian remained the language of the caliphate until the adoption of the Arabic language at the end of the seventh century, when in 692 in the capital, Damascus, began chasing. New Islamic coins evolved from imitations of Sasan coins (as well as
Byzantine coins), and the Pahlevsky coinage font was replaced by the Arabic alphabet. During the Umayyad Caliphate, Arab conquerors imposed Arabic as the main language of subjects throughout their empire. Al-Hajaj ibn Yusuf, who was not happy with the predominance of the Persian language in the sofa, ordered to replace the official language of the
conquered lands with Arabic, sometimes by force. For example, in From the Remaining Signs of Past Centuries al-Biruni wrote: when Kutaiba bin Muslim under the command of Al-Hajjaj bin Yousef was sent to Hwarazmia with a military expedition and conquered it for the second time, he quickly killed someone who wrote the native language of Hvarazmiane,
who knew about the hwarazmia of heritage, history and culture. Then he killed all his priests, burned and melted their books, until gradually there were only illiterates who believe that the Umayyad rule creates a dhimma to increase taxes on the
interests of the Muslim Arab community financially and prevent conversion. The governors filed complaints with the caliph when he passed laws that simplified the conversion by depriving the provinces of revenue. In the 7th century, when many non-Arabs, such as the Persians, entered Islam, they were recognized as mawali (clients) and were regarded by
the ruling Arab elite as second-class citizens until the end of the Umayyad caliphate. In this era, Islam was initially associated with the ethnic identity of the Mawali. The half-policy of the late Umayyads to tolerate non-Arab Muslims and Shiites has failed to
quell unrest among these minorities. However, the whole of Iran is still not under Arab control, and the Dailam area is under the control of the Dailamites, while Tabaristan is under the control of Dabuyid and Paduspanida, as well as the Damawand mountain area near Masmuganami Damawanda. The Arabs invaded these regions several times, but did not
achieve a decisive result because of the remote terrain of these areas. The most prominent Dabuyid ruler, known as Farroukhan the Great (b. 712-728), managed to hold on to his possessions during his long struggle against Arab General Yazid ibn al-Muhallab, who was defeated by the combined Dabuid Dabuid Dabuid Dailamites army and was forced to retreat
from Tabaristan. With death Khalif Hisham ibn Abd al-Malik in 743, the Islamic world was launched into civil war. Abu Muslim was sent to the governor of Omeyyad there Nasr ibn Sayyar. He became the de facto governor of Abbasid
Khurasan. At the same time, the dabuyid ruler Khurshid declared independence from Umayyad, but was soon forced to recognize the Abbasid government. In 750, Abu Muslim stormed Damascus, the capital of the Umayyad caliphate, in the same year.
The Abbasid Period and the autonomous Iranian dynasty, Sallarid Dynasty, Saffarid Dynasty, Saffarid Dynasty, Saffarid Dynasty, Samanid, Sajid Dynasty, Samanid, Sajid Dynasty, Samanid, Sajid Dynasty, Saffarid Dynasty, Samanid, Sajid Dynasty, Samanid, Sajid Dynasty, Samanid, Sajid Dynasty, Saffarid Dynasty, Saffarid Dynasty, Samanid, Sajid Dynasty, Sajid Dynas
Khorasani. It contained both Iranian and Arab elements, and the Abbasids enjoyed the support of both Iran and the Abbasids inspired the omeyades in 750. According to Amir Arjomand, the Abbasid revolution essentially marked the end of the Arab empire and the beginning of a more inclusive, multi-ethnic state in the Middle East. One of the first
changes introduced by the Abbasids after Umayyad took power was the movement of the empire's capital from Damascus, the Levant, to Iraq. The latter region was influence in the empire. The city of Baghdad was built on the Tigris River in
762 as the new capital of the Abbasids. The Abbasids established in their administration the position of a vizier, like the Barmakids, which was equivalent to a vice-caliph, or a second commander. In the end, this change meant that many caliphs under the Abbasids found themselves in a much more ceremonial role than ever before, with a vizier in real power.
The new Persian bureaucracy began to replace the old Arab aristocracy, and the entire administration reflected these changes, demonstrating that the new dynasty was very different from the Umayyads. By the 9th century, Abbasid control began to wane when regional leaders emerged in the far corners of the empire to challenge the central authority of the
Abbasid Caliphate. The Abbasid Caliphs began to recruit Mamluks, Turkic-speaking warriors who in the 9th century moved from Central Asia to Transoxian as slave owners. Soon after, the real power of the Abbasid caliphs began to wan; eventually, they became religious figures, while slave warriors ruled. Babak Horramdin was the leader of Khurramia A
devout zoroastrian, he led the Persian freedom movement against repressive Arab rule. In the 9th century there was also an uprising of indigenous zoroastrians, known as the Khurraites, against repressive Arab rule. In the 9th century there was also an uprising of indigenous zoroastrians, known as the Khurraites, against repressive Arab rule.
northwestern Iran called for the return of political glory of the Iranian past. The Horramdin uprising of Babak spread to western and central Iran and lasted for more than twenty years before it was defeated when Babaka betrayed Afshin, a high-ranking general of the Abbasid Caliphate. As the power of the Abbasid caliphs diminished, a series of dynasties
rose in various parts of Iran, some of which had considerable influence and power. Among the most important of these overlapping dynasties were the Tahirids in Khorasan (821-873); The Saffarids in Sistan (861-1003, their rule continued as Maliki Sistan until 1537); and the Samanids (819-1005), originally in Bukhara. The Samanids eventually ruled the
region from central Iran to Pakistan. By the early 10th century, the Abbasid administration was still Persian, the Buids were quietly able to take over the real power in Baghdad. The Buids were defeated in the mid-11th century by the
Seljuk Turks, who continued to influence the Abbasids by publicly swearing allegiance to them. The balance of power in Baghdad remained so - with the Abbasid dynasty. During the abbassid period the enfranchisement was tested mawali and the shift
was made in the political conception from that of the main Arab empire to one of the Muslim empire and c. 930 the demand was enacted which required all bureaucrats of the empire to be Muslim. The Islamic Golden Age, and the excerpt of
Shu'ubiyya from the medieval manuscript of zutbeddin Shirazi (1236-1311), a Persian astronomer depicting the epicyclical planetary model of Islamization was a long process in which Islam was gradually adopted by the majority of the iranian population. Richard Bullitt's conversion curve indicates that only about 10% of Iran converted to Islam during the
relatively Arab-oriented Omeyyad period. Since the Abassi period, with a combination of Persian as well as Arab rulers, the Muslim population grew from about 40% in the mid-9th century to almost 100% by the end of the 11th century. Seyed Hossein
says that helped the Persian nationality of the rulers. Although the Persians accepted the religion of their conquerors, for centuries they worked to protect and revive their distinctive language and culture, a process known as Persian. Arabs and Turks participated in this attempt. In the 9th and 10th centuries, non-Arab Umm subjects created a movement called
Shubia in response to the privileged status of the Arabs. Most of those who stood behind the movement were Persian, but references to the Egyptians, Berbers and Aramaic were lit up. Citing the Islamic notions of equality of races and nations as the basis, the movement was primarily concerned with the preservation of Persian culture and the protection of
Persian identity, albeit in a Muslim context. The Samanid Dynasty led the revival of Persian culture and the first important Persian poet after the advent of Islam, Rudaki, was born in this era and was highly praised by the kings of Samanida. The Samanid Dynasty led the revival of Persian culture and the first important Persian poet after the advent of Islam, Rudaki, was born in this era and was highly praised by the kings of Samanida. The Samanida Dynasty led the revival of Persian culture and the first important Persian poet after the advent of Islam, Rudaki, was born in this era and was highly praised by the kings of Samanida.
origins, also played an important role in reviving Persian culture. The Persian manuscript, describing how the ambassador from India brought chess to the Persian court by the culmination of the Persian movement, became Shahnameh, Iran's national epic, written almost entirely in Persian. This voluminous work reflects Iran's ancient history, its unique
cultural values, its pre-Islamic zoroastrian religion and its sense of statehood. According to Bernard Lewis: Iran was indeed Islamized, but it was not Arabized. The Persians remained Persians remained Persians remained Persians remained Persians remained Persians remained Persians. And after a hiatus of silence, Iran was indeed Islamized, but it was not Arabized. The Persians remained P
Culturally, politically and most notably, even religiously, The Iranian contribution to this new Islamic civilization is of paramount importance. Iranian origin have made a very significant contribution, composing their poems in Arabic. In a sense, Iranian Islam is the
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second appearance of Islam itself, a new Islam sometimes referred to as Islam-e-Ajam. It was this Persian Islam, not the original Arab Islam, that was hung into new areas and new nations: the Turks, first in Central Asia and then in the Middle East in a country that came to be called Turkey, and of course to India. The Ottoman Turks brought to the walls of
Vienna the form of Iranian civilization... The Islamization of Iran was to give a profound transformation in the cultural, scientific and political structure of Iranian society: the flourishing of Persian literature, philosophy, medicine and art became the main elements of the new Muslim civilization.. Heritage inheritance 81 years of civilization, and being on the
crossroads of major cultural highways, contributed to the fact that Persia was the culmination of the Islamic golden age. During this period, hundreds of scientists and scientists made a huge contributed to the fact that Persia was the culmination of the Islamic golden age. During this period, hundreds of scientists and scientists made a huge contributed to the fact that Persia was the culmination of the Islamic golden age. During this period, hundreds of scientists and scientists are scientists and scientists and scientists are scientists and scientists and scientists are scientists and scientists are scientists and scientists are scientists.
of almost all Islamic sects and schools of thought were Persian or lived in Iran, including the most prominent and reliable Hadith collectors of Shiites and Sunni theologians such as Sheikh Tusi, Imam Ghazali, Imam Fahr, the greatest
physicians, astronomers, mathematicians, mathe
mathematicians, mathematicians
such as Avicenna, and Nasser al-Din al-Tosi, the greatest Sufism sheikh like Rumi, Abdul-Kadir Gilani. Persian States and Dynasties (977-1219) Main articles: Persian, contain the tombs of the princes of Seljuk. In 977, the Turkic governor of Samanidov,
Sabuktigin, conquered Ghazna (in present-day Afghanistan) and founded the Ghaznavid dynasty, which lasted until 1186. The Ghaznavid Empire grew, taking over all the territories of Samanida south of Amu Amu'ary in the last decade of the 10th century, and eventually occupied parts of Eastern Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan and northwestern India. The
Ghaznavids are usually credited with the beginning of Islam in predominantly Hindu India. The invasion of India was undertaken in 1000 by the ruler of Ghaznavid Mahmoud's death in 1030. By 1040, the Seljuks had taken over the lands of
Ghaznavid in Iran. The Seljuks, who, like the Ghaznavids, were Persian in nature and of Turkic origin, slowly conquered Iran during the 11th century. The dynasty originated in the Turkoman tribal confederations of Central Asia and marked the beginning of Turkic power in the Middle East. They established Sunni Muslim rule over parts of Central Asia and the
Middle East from the 11th to the 14th century. They created an empire known as the Great Seljuk Empire, which stretched from Anatolia in the west to western Afghanistan to the east and the western borders of (modern) China to the northeast; and was the target of the First Crusade. Today they are considered the cultural ancestors of Western Turks,
modern residents of Turkey and Turkmenistan, and they are remembered as great patrons of Persian culture, art, literature and language. The Seljuq Empire at the time of its great degree, at the death of Malik Shah I citation is essential Tugril Running turned his army against the Ghaznavids in Khorasan. He moved south and then west, conquering but not
wasting the city in its path. In 1055, the caliph in Baghdad presented Tugril Beg with clothes, gifts, and the title of King of the East. Under Tugril Bege's successor, Malik Shahe (1072-1092), Iran enjoyed a cultural and scientific renaissance largely attributed to its brilliant Iranian ismier Nizam al-Mulq. These leaders founded the Observatory, where Omar
Khayyam did most of his experiments for the new calendar, and they built religious schools in all major cities. They brought Abu Hamid Ghazali, one of the greatest Islamic theologians, and other eminent scholars to the capital Seljuk in Baghdad and encouraged and supported their work. When Malik Shah I died in 1092, the empire disintegrated when his
brother and four sons quarreled over the separation of empires. In Anatolia, Malik Shah was replaced by Kiliy Arslan I, who founded the Sultanate of Ryoma, and in Syria, his brother Tutush I. In Persia, he was replaced by Kiliy Arslan I, who founded the Sultanate of Ryoma, and in Syria, his brothers in Iraq, Muhammad I in Baghdad and Ahmad Sanjar
in Khorasan. As Seljuk's power weakened, other dynasties began to work in its place, including the resurgent Caliphate of the Abbasids and the Hwaresmshahi. The Hwartzmid Empire was a Sunni Muslim Persian dynasty of East Turk origin that ruled Central Asia. Originally a seljuk vassal, they took advantage of the decline of the Seljuqs to expand into
Iran. In 1194, Hwarezmshah Ala al-Din Tekish defeated Sultan Seljuk Empire. A serious internal threat to the Seljuks during their rule and was by the Nizar Ismailis, a secret sect headquartered in the Alamut castle between Rasht
and Tehran. They controlled the area for more than 150 years and occasionally sent their supporters to consolidate their rule by killing important officials. Parts of northwestern Iran were conquered in the early 13th century AD by the Kingdom of Georgia led by Tamara the Great. Mongol Conquest and Rule (1219-1370) Mongol Invasion (1219-1221) Main
articles: Mongolian invasion of Central Asia, The Mongol invasion of Hwarezmia and Eastern Iran, and the Mongol Empire of Eurasia on the eve of the Mongol Empire guickly expanded in several directions. In 1218 it borders Hwarezm. At that time, the Hwarazmian Empire
was ruled by Ala. Muhammad (1200-1220). Muhammad proclaimed one of his nobles a caliph and unsuccessfully tried to
overthrow al-Nasir. The Mongolian invasion of Iran began in 1219, after two diplomatic missions in Hvuacsma, sent by Genghis Khan, were killed. In 1220-21, Bukhara, Samarkand, Herat, Tas and Nishapur were killed and the entire population was killed. Hwarezm Shah fled to die on an island off the coast of the Caspian Sea. During the invasion of
Transoxian in 1219, along with the main Mongolian force, Genghis Khan used a Chinese may have used again in 1220 in Transoxania. The Chinese may have used again in 1220 in Transoxania and Persia, several Chinese
familiar with gunpowder served in Genghis Khan's army. Whole regiments, made entirely of Chinese, were used by the Mongol invasion brought Chinese gunpowder weapons to Central Asia. One of them was a huochong, a Chinese mortar. Books
written around the area depicted a powder weapon resembling a Chinese one. Destroying the Mongol invasion had disastrous consequences for the Iranians. Although the Mongol invaders were eventually converted to Islam and adopted Iran's
culture, the Mongol destruction of the Islamic heart marked a significant change of direction for the region. For much of the six centuries of Islamic science, culture and infrastructure, the invaders burned libraries and replaced mosques with Buddhist temples. The Mongols killed many Iranian civilians. A large number of people, especially men, were killed;
between 1220 and 1258, 90% of Iran's total population may have been killed by mass destruction and famine. Ilhanate (1256-1335) Main article: Ilhanate Mongolian commanders. Genghismis's grandson, Hulag Khan, was tasked with expanding Mongolian rule to
the west. However, by the time he came to power, the Mongolian Empire had already disintegrated, dividing it into different factions. Arriving with the army, he established himself in and founded Ilhanate, a breakaway state of the Mongolian Empire that will rule Iran for the next eighty years and become Persian in the process. Hulagu Khan captured Baghdad
in 1258 and executed the last Abbasid caliph. However, the advance of his troops to the west was stopped by the Mamaluks at the Battle of Ain Jalut in Palestine in 1260. Hulagu and Berke fought against each other, demonstrating the weakening of the unity
of the Mongolian empire. The rule of Hulagu's great-grandson, Ghazan (1295-1304), saw the state religion of Ilhanate as the establishment of Islam. Ghazan and his famous Iranian vizier Rashid al-Din brought Iran a partial and short-term economic revival. The Mongols lowered taxes for artisans, encouraged agriculture, rebuilt and expanded irrigation, and
increased the security of trade routes. As a result, trade has increased dramatically. Items from India, China and Iran easily passed through the Asian steppes, and these contacts culturally enriched Iran. For example, the Iranians have developed a new style of painting based on a unique fusion of solid, two-dimensional Mesopotamian painting with feathered,
light brush ointments and other Chinese motifs. However, after the death of Ghazan's nephew Abu Said in 1335, Ilhanate entered the civil war and was divided between several small dynasties - the most famous of them are the Jalayrids, Muzaffarids, Sarbadars and Kartidas. In the mid-14th century, the Black Death killed about 30% of the country's
population. Sunniism and Shia in the pre-Safavid Iran Main article: Islam in Iran Imam Reza shrine, the tomb of the eighth imam of twelve Shiites Before the rise of the population at the time. According to Mortaza Motahari, most Iranian scholars and masses
remained Sunni until the Safavid. Sunni dominance did not mean that Shiites are unselfish in Iran. The authors of the Four Books of Shiites were Iranians, as well as many other great Shiite scholars. The dominance of the Four Books of Shiites were Iranians, as well as many other great Shiite scholars. The dominance of the Four Books of Shiites were Iranians, as well as many other great Shiite scholars.
exceptions to this general domination, which arose in the form of Tabaristan's zaida (see Alida Dynasty in northern Iran), Buyidov, Kakuyid, Sultan Muhammad Khudabanda (R. Shawwal 703-Shawval 716/1304-1316) and Sarbedar. In addition to this domination existed, first, throughout these nine centuries, the Shiite tendencies among many Sunnis of this
land and, secondly, the original Shiami imami, as well as the Shi'ism of zaid were predominated in some parts of Iran. During this period, Shiites in Iran were fed from Kufa, Baghdad later from Najaf and Hilla. Shiism was the dominant sect in Tabaristan, Kuma, Kashan, Avaja and Sabzewar. In many other areas, the combined Shia and Sunni populations
lived together. In the 10th and 11th centuries, the Fatimids sent the Ismailis to Daesh (missionaries) to Iran, as well as to other Muslim lands. When the Ismailis split into two sects, Nizaris established his base in Iran. Hassan-i Sabba conquered the fortress and captured Alamut in 1090 AD Nizaris used this fortress before the Mongolian raid in 1256. After the
Mongol raid and the fall of the Abbasids, the Sunni hierarchies faltered. They lost not only the caliphate, but also the status of the official Madhab. Their loss was a benefit to Shiites whose center was not in Iran at the time. During this time, several local Shiite dynasties, such as the Sarbadars, were established. The main change took place in the early 16th
century, when Ismail I founded the Safavid dynasty and initiated a religious policy to recognize Shiite Islam as the official religion of the Safavid Empire, and the fact that modern Iran remains an officially Shiite state is a direct result of Ismail's actions. Empire of Timurids (1370-1507) Map of the Timurid Empire. Main article: The Empire of Timurid Iran remained
divided until the arrival of Timur, an Iranian-Mongolian Turko-Mongol who belonged to the Timurid dynasty. Like its predecessors, the Timurid empire was also part of the Persian world. After establishing a power base in Transoxean, Timur invaded Iran in 1381 and eventually conquered most of it. Timur's campaigns were known for their brutality; many
people were killed and several towns were destroyed. Reconstruction of the face of the Turkish conqueror Timur from the skull. His regime was characterized not only by tyranny and bloodshed, but also by the inclusion of Iranians in administrative functions and the promotion of architecture and poetry. His successors, the Timurids, retained control of much of
Iran until 1452, when they lost most of its Black Sheep of Turkmenistan. The Black Sheep Turkmen were conquered by a white Turkmen sheep near Uzun Hassan in 1468; Uzun Hassan and his successors were the masters of Iran before the rise of Safavid. The popularity of the Sufi poet Hafez was firmly established in the era of Timurid, when compilation
and extensive copying of his sofa became widespread. Sufis were often persecuted by Orthodox Muslims who considered their teachings blasphemous. Sufism developed a symbolic language rich in metaphors to hide poetic references to provocative philosophical teachings. Hafez hid his Sufi faith even when he used the secret language of Sufism
(developed over hundreds of years) in his own work, and he is sometimes credited with bringing it to perfection. His work was imitated by Jami, whose own popularity spread across the persian world. Kara Koyunlu article: Koyunlu were Turkmens who ruled northwestern Iran and surrounding areas from 1374 to 1468. Kara Koyunlu
extended their conquest of Baghdad, however, internal battles, defeats of the Timurids, uprisings of Armenians in response to their persecution, and unsuccessful struggle with Ag Soyunlu in the most. Ak zoyunlu was a Turkmen led by the Bayandur tribe, a tribal
federation of Sunni Muslims who ruled much of Iran and much of the surrounding areas from 1378 to 1501. Ak zoyunlu appeared when Timur gave them all Diyar Bakr in modern Turkey. After that, they fought with the nascent Safavid dynasty led to
their downfall. The early modern epoch (1502-1925) of Persia experienced a renaissance during the Safavid dynasty (1502-1736), the most prominent figure of which was Shah Abbas I. Some historians attribute the Safavid dynasty to the creation of the modern nation state of Iran. The modern Shiite nature of Iran and large segments of Iran's current borders
date back to this era (e.g., the Treaty of suhab). Safvid Empire (1501-1736) The main article: The Safavid Empire See also: The Ottoman-Persian Wars and the transformation of the most significant ruling dynasties of Persia (modern Iran) and is
often considered the beginning of modern Persian history. They ruled one of the greatest Persian empires after the Muslim conquest of Persia and founded the Twelve-Year School of Shiite Islam as the official religion of their empire, which was one of the most important turning points in Muslim history. Safavid ruled from 1501 to 1722 (from 1729 to 1736)
and at the peak of their development controlled all modern Iran, Azerbaijan and Armenia, much of Georgia, the North Caucasus, Iraq, Kuwait and Afghanistan, as well as parts of Turkey, Syria, Pakistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan. Safavid Iran was one of the Islamic powder empires, along with its neighbors, its sworn enemy and the main enemy of the
Ottoman Empire, as well as the Mughal Empire. The ruling Safavid dynasty was founded by Ismayil, who is stylized as Shoha Ismayil I. After that he went on to campaign for conquest, and after the capture of Tabriz in July 1501, he is on the throne as a schm. minted coins on this name and proclaimed Shi'ism the official religion of their domain. Despite the
fact that initially only the masters of Azerbaijan and the south of Dagestan, the Sefavidi, in fact, won the struggle for power in Persia, which was fought for almost a century between different dynasties and political forces after the fragmentation of Kara-Koyunlu and Ak-Soyunlu. A year after the victory in Tabriz, Ismail declared much of Persia his property and
quickly conquered and united Iran under his rule. Soon after, the new Sefev Empire quickly conquered regions, peoples and peoples in all directions, including Armenia, Azerbaijan, parts of Turkmenistan and large chunks of Anatolia, laying the
foundation for its multi-ethnic character, which will strongly influence the empire itself (primarily the Caucasus and its peoples). The portrait of Shah Abbas I Tahamsp I, the son and successor of Ismail I, made several incursions into the Caucasus, which were incorporated into the Safavid Empire from the time of Shah Ismail I and for many centuries after it,
and began with the trend of deporting and moving hundreds of thousands of Circassians, Georgians and Armenians to the heart of Iran. Originally reduce the power of zizilbash, by creating and fully integrating a new layer in Iranian society.
According to the Encyclopedia of Iran, for Tahmaspa the problem revolved around the military tribal elite of the empire, zizilbash, who believed that physical intimacy and control over a member of the immediate Safavid family guaranteed spiritual advantages, political status and material advancement. With this new Caucasian layer in Iranian society, the
undisputed power of zizilbash (which functioned just like the gasi of the neighboring Ottoman Empire) will be questioned and completely diminished as society becomes fully meritocratic. Shah Abbas I and his successors will significantly expand this policy and plan initiated by Tahmasp, depotive only during his reign about 200,000 Georgians, 300,000
Armenians and 100,000-150,000 Circassians to Iran, completing the foundation of a new layer of Iranian society. With this, and the complete systematic disorganization of zizilbash, with the power of the Caucasian ghouls. These new Caucasian elements (the so-called
gilman/غلمّان/servants), almost always after turning into Shi'ism depending on the given function will be, were unlike zizilbash, completely loyal only to the empire, as well as in harem, regular military, artisans, farmers, etc. This system of mass use of
Caucasian subjects existed before the fall of the Kajar dynasty. Rostom (also known as Rustam Khan), Viceroy of Cartley, East Georgia, from 1633 to 1658 The Greatest of the Safavid monarchs, Shah Abbas I the Great (1587-1629) came to power in 1587 at the age of 16. Abbas I first fought the Uzbeks, recapturing Herat and Mashhad in 1598, which were
lost by his predecessor Mohammad Khodabanda as a result of the Ottoman-Safavid War (1578-1590). He then turned against the Ottomans, the sworn branches of Safavid, recapturing Baghdad, eastern Iraq and the Caucasian provinces and beyond by 1618. Between 1616 and 1618, after the disobedience of his most loyal Georgian subjects Teimuraz I
and Loiresab II, Abbas conducted a punitive campaign in his territories in Georgia, ravaging Kakheti and Tbilisi and taking 130,000 Georgian prisoners towards mainland Iran. His new army, which was greatly improved with the advent of Robert Shirley and his brothers after the first diplomatic mission to Europe, won the first crushing victory over safavid's
sworn enemy, the Ottomans in the aforementioned war of 1603-1618, and will surpass the Ottomans in military power. He also used his new power to dislodge the Portuguese from Bahrain (1602) with the Dutch East India Company and established close
ties with european royal houses, which were initiated by Ismail I earlier by the Habsburg-Persian Alliance. In this way, Abbas was able to break the dependence on Zzilbash for military power and was therefore able to centralize control. The Safavid dynasty had already established itself in the time of Shah Ismail I, but under Abbas I it really became a major
power in the world along with its sworn enemy the Ottoman Empire, against which it was able to compete on an equal footing. It has also started promoting tourism in Iran. Under their rule, Persian architecture flourished again and saw many new monuments in various Iranian cities, of which Isfahan is the most notable example. With the exception of Shah
Abbas the Great, Shah Ismail I, Shah Tahmasp I and Shah Abbas II, many Safavid rulers were ineffective, often more interested in their women, alcohol and other leisure activities. The end of Abbas II's rule in 1666 marked the beginning of the end of the Safavid dynasty. Despite falling revenues and military threats, many of the later Shahs had a lavish
lifestyle. Shah Soltan Hossein (1694-1722) was known for his love of wine and disinterest in management. The shrinking country has repeatedly been attacked on its borders. Finally, Gilzai the Pashtun chief Mir Weiss Khan launched an uprising in Kandahar and defeated the Safavid army led by the Iranian Georgian governor over the Gurgin Khan region. In
1722, Peter the Great of neighboring imperial Russia began the Russo-Persian War (1722-1723), capturing many Caucasian territories of Iran, including Derbent, Shaki, Baku, as well as Gilan, Mazandaran and Astrababat. In the middle of all chaos, in the same 1722, the Afghan army, led by Mir Weiss's son Mahmoud, passed through eastern Iran, besieged
and took Isfahan. Mahmoud proclaimed himself the shah of Persia. Meanwhile, the imperial rivals of Persia, the Ottomans and the Russians, took advantage of the chaos in the country to seize more territory for themselves. With these events, the Safavid dynasty actually ended. In 1724, in accordance with the Treaty of Constantinople, the Ottomans and the
Russians agreed to divide the newly conquered territorial integrity of Iran. Nader Shah and his successors Main articles: the Afsharid dynasty and the dynasty and the dynasty and the dynasty and the dynasty of Iran was restored by the indigenous Iranian Turkic warlord Afshar from Khorasan, Nader Shah. He defeated and expelled the Afghans, defeated the Ottomans,
reinstalled Safavid on the throne, and negotiated Russia's withdrawal from the Caucasian territories of Iran, with the Treaty of Resta and Ganja. By 1736, Nader was so powerful that he was able to overthrow the Safavid and crown the Shah. Nader was one of the last great conguerors of Asia and briefly led perhaps the most powerful empire in the world. To
financially support his wars against Persia's arch-rival, the Ottoman Empire, he took aim at the weak but wealthy Mughal empire in the east. In 1739, accompanied by his faithful Caucasian subjects, including Erecle II, he invaded India of the Mughals, in less than three hours defeated the size of the Mughal army and completely plundered and plundered
Delhi, returning Persia's immense wealth. On the way back, he also conquered all Uzbek Khanates except Kokanda, and made Uzbeks his vassals. He also firmly established Persian rule over the entire Caucasus, Bahrain, as well as much of Anatolia and Mesopotamia. Undefeated for many years, his defeat in Dagestan, after the guerrilla uprisings of the
Lezgins and the assassination attempt on him near Mazandran is often considered a turning point in Nader's impressive career. To his disappointment, the Dagestans resorted to guerrilla warfare, and Nader and his usual army could do little against them. In the Battle of andals and the Battle of the Accident, Nader's army suffered a crushing defeat, and he
lost half of his strength and forced him to flee to the mountains. Despite the fact that Nader managed to take most of Dagestan during his campaign, an effective guerrilla war deployed Lezgins, as well as the Avars and varnishes, made the Iranian re-conquest of a particular North Caucasian region this time short-lived; a few years later, Nader was forced to
leave. Around the same time, an attempt was made on him near Mazandaran, which accelerated the course of history; he slowly fell ill and became a megalomania, blinding his sons, whom he suspected of assassinations, and showing growing cruelty to his subjects and officers. In later years it eventually caused numerous uprisings and, ultimately, the
murder of Nader in 1747. Nader's death was followed by a period of anarchy in Iran, when rival army commanders fought for power. Nader's own family, Afsharida, was soon reduced to holding on to a small domain in Khorasan. Many Caucasian territories broke away in various Caucasian Khanatas. The Ottomans regained lost territories in Anatolia and
Mesopotamia. Oman and the Uzbek Khans of Bukhara and Khiva gained independence. Ahmad Shah Durrani, one of Nader's officers, founded an independent state that eventually became modern Afghanistan. Erekle II and Teimuraz II, which in 1744 were made by the kings Kakheti and Kartli respectively, nader himself for their faithful service, were
capitalized on the eruption of instability and proclaimed de facto independence. Erekl II took control of Kartli after the death of Teimuraz II, uniting them as the Kingdom of Kartley-Kakheti, becoming the first Georgian ruler in three centuries to lead politically unified eastern Georgia, and because of the frantic turn of events in continental Iran, he could remain
de facto autonomous during the Sand period. From his capital, Shiraz Karim Khan of the dong dynasty ruled an island of relative calm and peace in an otherwise bloody and destructive period, but the scale of the power of the Sand was limited to modern Iran and parts of the Caucasus. The death of Karim Khan in 1779 led to another civil war in which the
Kajar dynasty eventually triumphed and became the kings of Iran. During the Civil War, Iran permanently lost Basra in 1779 to the Ottomans, who were captured during the Ottomans, who were captured during the Civil War, Iran permanently lost Basra in 1775, and Bahrain to the Al-Khalifa family after the invasion of Bani Utba in 1783. (quote necessary) Dynasty of zajar (1796-1925) Main articles: zajar
dynasty, The Russo-Persian War (1804-1813) and the Russo-Persian War (1826-1828) See also: The Battle of Krzanisi, the Gulistan Treaty, the Turkmenchay Treaty and the Iranian Constitutional Revolution Mir Ali (Iranian, active 1800-1830). Portrait of Fatah-Ali Shah zajar. Brooklyn Museum. Currency of the era of zajar with the image of Nasser al-Din
Shah Kajar. Map of Iran during the 19th century. A map showing Iran's northwestern borders of the 19th century, including modern eastern Georgia, Dagestan, and the Republic of Azerbaijan before being brought away by the neighboring Russian Empire as a result of the Russo-Iranian wars. Aga Mohammad Khan emerged victorious from the civil war, which
began with the death of the last King of Sand. His rule is celebrated for reviving a centrally led and united Iran. After the death of Nader Shah and the last King of Safavid and Nader Shah before him, saw this region as no exception
than the territories in mainland Iran. Therefore, his first goal after it secured mainland Iran was to return the Caucasus region to Iran. Georgia into the Iranian Empire were part of the same process that led to Shiraz, Isfahan and Tabriz
being under his rule. As the Cambridge history of Iran says, its permanent separation was unthinkable and should have resisted in the same way that one could resist the attempt to separate Fars or Gilan. Therefore, it was natural for the Aga Mohammad Khan to carry out all necessary measures in the Caucasus to subjugate and re-acor the recently lost
regions after the death of Nader Shah and the death of the zands, including putting down what in the Iranian eyes was spotted by the Viani (vice-king) of Georgia, namely the Georgia, II (Heraklia II), who was appointed viceroy of Georgia.
and re-submit to the Persian Suzerint in exchange for the peace and security of his kingdom. The Ottomans, Iran's neighboring rival, recognized the latter's rights to Kartli and Kakheti for the first time in four centuries. Heracli then turned to his theoretical protector, Empress Catherine II, pleading with at least 3,000 Russian troops, but he was ignored, leaving
Georgia to fend off the Persian threat alone. However, Herakli II still rejected Khan's ultimatum. In response, the Aga Mohammad Khan invaded the Caucasian region after crossing the Aras River, and, on his way to Georgia, he re-conquered the Iranian territories of Erivan Khanate, Shirvan, Nakhchiwana Khanate, Ganja Khanate, Derbent Khanate, Baku
Khanata, Talysh Khanate, Shaki Khanate, Shaki Khanate, Karabakh-Khanate, having reached Georgia with his large army, he won in Krsanizi, which led to the capture of Tbilisi. On his return from a successful campaign in Tbilisi and effective control of Georgia together With about 15,000 Georgian prisoners who were moved back to mainland Iran, Aga Mohammad was
officially crowned Shah in 1796 on the Mugan Plain, like his predecessor Nader Shah about sixty years ago. Aga Mohammad Shah was later killed while preparing a second expedition against Georgia in 1797 in Shusha (now part of the Republic of Azerbaijan), and the experienced King Gerakli died in early 1798. The founder of Iranian hegemony over
Georgia does not last long; In 1799, the Russians entered Tbilisi. The Russians were already actively engaged in expansionist policies towards the neighboring empires in the south, namely the Ottoman Empire and successive Iranian kingdoms from the late 17th to early 18th centuries. The next two years after Russia's entrance to Tbilisi were a time of
confusion, and the weakened and devastated Georgian kingdom, with the capital twice in ruins, was easily absorbed by Russia in 1801. Since Iran for centuries, it would have led directly to wars a few years later, namely the Russo-Persian wars of
1804-1813 and 1826-1828. The outcome of these two wars (in the Gulistan Treaty and the Turkmen Treaty, respectively) proved the irreversible forced cessation and loss of imperial Russia of what is now eastern Georgia, Dagestan, Armenia and Azerbaijani. The area north of the Aras River, including the territory of the modern Azerbaijani Republic, eastern
Georgia, Dagestan and Armenia, was Iranian territory until they were occupied by Russia during the 19th century. A picture showing the Battle of Elisabethpol (Ganja), 1828. Franz Roubaud. Part of the collection of the Museum of
History, Baku. Migration of Caucasian Muslims See also: Ayruma, Karapapaki and ethnic cleansing of the Circassian Persian Cossack Brigade in Tabriz in 1909. After the war of 1804-1814, as well as the war of 1826-1828, which took root the last territories, large migrations, the so-called Caucasian Muhajirs, went to migrate to mainland Iran. Some of these
groups included the Ayrums, the Karapaps, the Circassians, the Shia Lezgins and other Caucasian Muslims. After the Battle of Ganja in 1804 during the remainder of the war of 1804-1813, as well as during the war of 1826-1828, a large
number of Ayrums and Carapaces, which were still in the newly conquered Russian territories, and migrated to Solduz (in the present-day Iranian province of Western Azerbaijan). As they say in the Cambridge history of Iran; The constant incursion of Russian troops along the border in the Caucasus, brutal punitive expeditions and mismanagement of
General Yermolov forced a large number of Muslims and even some Georgian Christians to report in Iran. From 1864 to the beginning of the 20th century, Russia's victory in the Caucasian War resulted in another mass expulsion of Caucasian Muslims. Others simply voluntarily refused to live under Christian Russian rule and thus went to Turkey or Iran.
These migrations again towards Iran included masses of Caucasian Azerbaijanis, other Caucasian Muslims, as well as many North Caucasian Muslims, such as Circassians, Shia Lezgins and Lacquers. Many of these migrants played a key role in further Iranian history, as they formed much of the ranks of the Persian Cossack brigade that was established in
the late 19th century. The initial ranks of the brigade will consist entirely of Circassians and other Caucasian muhajir. This brigade will prove decisive in the decades to come in the history of zajar. In addition, the Treaty of Turkmenistan of 1828 provided for the official rights of the Russian Empire to encourage the settlement of Armenians from Iran in the
newly conquered Russian territories. Until the middle of the fourteenth century, Armenians constituted a majority in Eastern Armenia. At the end of the fourteenth century, after Timur's campaigns, the Timurid Renaissance flourished, and Islam became the dominant faith, and Armenians became a minority in Eastern Armenia. After centuries of constant wars
on the Armenian plateau, many Armenians decided to emigrate and settle elsewhere. After the mass resettlement of Armenians and Muslims by Shah Abbas I in 1604-1605, their number decreased even more. During the Russian invasion of Iran, about 80% of the Iranian population were Muslims (Persians, Turks and Kurds), while Christian Armenians were
about 20% of the minority. As a result of the Gulistan Treaty (1813) and the Turkmen Treaty (1828), Iran was forced to cede Iran's Armenia, the ethnic composition shifted, and thus, for the first time in more than four centuries, ethnic Armenians
regained their majority in one part of historical Armenia. The new Russian administration encouraged the settlement of ethnic Armenians from Iran and Ottoman Turkey. As a result, by 1832 the number of ethnic Armenians corresponded to the number of Muslims. It would have been only after the Crimean War and the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-1878,
which brought inflow of Turkish Armenians that ethnic Armenians have regained a strong majority in Eastern Armenian and 50% Muslim (Azerbaijan and Persian). His grandson, Mohammad
Shah, who succeeded him in 1834, came under the influence of Russia and made two unsuccessful attempts to capture Herat. When Mohammad Shah died in 1848, the successful attempts to capture Herat. When Mohammad Shah died in 1848, the succession passed to his son Nasser-e-Din, who was the most capable and successful of the zajars. He founded the first modern hospital in Iran. Constitutional Revolution and Deposition
Home Article: The 1921 Persian coup d'etat the Great Persian famine of 1870-1871 is believed to have led to the deaths of two million people. A new era in the history of Persia began with the Persian constitutional revolution against the Shah in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Shah managed to stay in power, granting a limited constitution in 1906
(which makes the country a constitutional monarchy). The first Majlis (parliament) was convened on October 7, 1906. The discovery of oil in 1908 by the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new interest in Persia from the British in Khuzestan generated an intense new intense ne
Great Britain and Russia, in what became known as the Great Game, and codified in the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, which divided Persia into spheres of influence, regardless of its national sovereignty. During the First World War, the country was occupied by British, Ottoman and Russian troops, but was essentially neutral (see Persian campaign).
In 1919, after the Russian Revolution and their departure, Britain tried to create a protectorate in Persia, which was unsuccessful. Finally, Gilan's constitutional movement and the central power vacuum caused by the instability of the government of zajar led to the rise of Reza Khan, who was later to become Reza Shah Pahlavi, and the subsequent creation of
the Pahlavi dynasty in 1925. In 1921, a military coup established Reza Khan, an officer of the Persian Cossack Brigade, as the dominant figure in the coup was not really directed against the monarchy of zajar; according to the Encyclopedia Iran, it was
directed against officials who were in power and actually played a role in controlling the Government; cabinet and others who played a role in the management of Persia. In 1925, after he was prime minister for two years Reza Shah
(1925-1941) Main article: Persian Cossack Brigade Reza Shah ruled for almost 16 years until September 16, 1941, when he was forced to abdicate as a result of the Anglo-Soviet invasion of Iran. He created an authoritarian government that valued nationalism, militarism, secularism and anti-communism, combined with strict censorship and state
propaganda. Reza Shah introduced many socio-economic reforms, reorganizing the army, government and finances. His rule brought law and order, discipline, central authority and modern amenities - schools, trains, buses, radios, cinemas and telephones to his supporters. However, his attempts at modernization were criticized for being too fast and
superficial and his rule was a time of oppression, corruption, taxation, lack of authenticity with security typical of police states. Many of the new laws and regulations have caused outrage among devout Muslims and clergy. Mosques, for example, should use chairs; most men had to wear Western clothing, including a hat with an edge; women were asked to
give up the hijab; men and women were allowed to gather freely, violating the Islamic mixing of the sexes. Tensions escalated in 1935 when bazaars and villagers rebelled outside the Imam Reza shrine in Mashhad, chanting slogans such as Shah is the new Yazidi. Dozens were killed and hundreds injured when troops finally quelled the unrest. World War II
See also: the Anglo-Soviet invasion of Iran, the Polish civil camps in World War II and the Persian corridor of Mohammad Reza Pahlavi with FDR at the Tehran Conference, 1943. Polish refugee camp on the outskirts of Tehran, c. 1943. German interests had a great influence in Iran in 1941, when the Germans staged a coup d'etat in an attempt to overthrow
the Pahlavi dynasty. With the German armies very successful against Russia, the Iranian government expected Germany to win the war and create a powerful force on its borders. It rejected the demands of Great Britain and Russia for the expulsion of the Germans. In response, the Allies invaded in August 1941 and easily defeated the weak Iranian army in
Operation Face. Iran became the main channel of lend-lease-assistance to the Allies to the Soviet Union. The aim was to secure Iran's oil fields and provide supply lines to the Allies (see Persian Corridor). Iran remained officially neutral. His monarch Reze Shah was overthrown during the subsequent occupation and replaced by his young son Mohammad
Reza Pahlavi. At the Tehran Conference of 1943, the Allies issued a Tehran Declaration guaranteeing Iran's independence and borders after the war. However, when the war ended, Soviet troops stationed in northwest Iran did not refused to back down, but supported the uprisings that created short-lived, pro-Soviet separatist national states in the northern
regions of Azerbaijan and Iranian Kurdistan, the Azerbaijan People's Government and the Republic of Kurdistan, respectively, in late 1945. Soviet republics in the north were soon overthrown and oil concessions were abolished. Mohammad-Reza
Shah (1941-1979) Tehranians celebrate the 1953 Iranian coup in Turkey. Initially, there were hopes that post-occupation Iran could become a constitutional monarchy. The new, young Shah Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi initially took on a very practical role in the government, and allowed the parliament to have a lot of power. Some elections were held in
the first shaky years, although they are still mired in corruption. Parliament became chronically unstable, and from 1947 to 1951 Iran saw the rise and fall of six different prime ministers. Pahlavi increased his political power by assembling the Iranian Constituent Assembly in 1949, which finally formed the Iranian Senate, the legislative upper house allowed to
the 1906 constitution but never created. The new senators largely supported Pahlavi, as he had anticipated. In 1951, Prime Minister Mohammed Mosaddek received the votes needed from Parliament to nationalize the British oil industry, in a situation known as the Abadan crisis. Despite the pressure of great Britain, including the economic blockade,
nationalization continued. Mosaddeck was briefly removed from power in 1952, but was quickly re-appointed by the Shah, due to a popular uprising in support of the prime minister, and he in turn forced the Shah into brief exile in August 1953 after a failed military coup by Imperial Guard colonel Nematollah Nasiri. 1953: Organized coup of the USA removes
Mosaddeq Home article: 1953 Iranian coup d'tat Soon thereafter on August 19 a successful coup headed by the retired army colonel-general Fazlollah zahedi, organized by the United States (CIA) 184 with the active support of the British (MI6) (known as Operation Ajax and Boot to the agencies). The coup - with a black propaganda campaign aimed at
turning the population against Mosaddeq (186) - forced Mosadek to leave his post. Mosaddek was arrested and tried for treason. Found guilty, his sentence was reduced to house arrest on his family estate, while his Foreign Minister Hossein Fatemi was executed. He succeeded him as prime minister and suppressed opposition to the Shah, in particular the
National Front and the Communist Party of Tude. Play media 1971 film about Iran under the Shah Iran ruled as an autocracy under the Shah at support from that time until the revolution. The Iranian government has concluded an agreement the international consortium of foreign companies that operated Iranian oil facilities for the next 25 years shared profits
by fifty-fifty with Iran, but did not allow Iran to audit their accounts or introduce members to their board of directors. In 1957, martial law was terminated after 16 years, and Iran became closer to the West, joining the Baghdad Pact and receiving military and economic assistance from the United States. In 1961, Iran initiated a series of economic, social,
agricultural and administrative reforms to modernize the country, which became known as the Shah's White Revolution. The core of this program was land reform. Modernization and economic growth were at an unprecedented pace, fueled by huge oil reserves in Iran, the world's third-largest. However, reforms, including the White Revolution, did not
significantly improve economic conditions, and liberal pro-Western policies alienated some Islamic religious and political groups. In early June 1963, several days of riots took place in support of Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini after the cleric was arrested for speaking out, attacking the Shah. Two years later, Prime Minister Hassan Ali Mansour was
assassinated and sawak's internal security services became more active. In the 1970s, left-wing guerrilla groups such as the Mujahideen-e-Hulk (MEK) emerged, attacking the regime and foreign targets. Nearly a hundred Iranian political prisoners were killed by SAWAK a decade before the revolution, and many others were arrested and tortured. The Islamic
clergy led by Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (who was expelled in 1964) became increasingly vociferous. Iran significantly increased its defense budget and by the early 1970s was the strongest military power in the region. Bilateral relations with neighbour Iraq were not very good, mainly because of the dispute over the Shatt al-Arab Waterway. In November
1971, Iranian forces seized control of three islands at the mouth of the Persian Gulf; Iraq responded by expelling thousands of Iranian citizens. After a series of clashes in April 1969, Iran was cancelled under the 1937 agreement and demanded a review. In mid-1973, the Shah brought the oil industry back under national control. After the Arab-Israeli war in
October 1973, Iran did not join the Arab oil embargo against the West and Israel. Instead, it used the situation to raise oil prices, using the money raised to modernize and increase defense spending. The border dispute between Iraq and Iran was settled by the signing of the Algiers Agreement on 6 March 1975. Revolution and the Islamic Republic (1979-
present) Main articles: The Iranian Revolution and the history of the Islamic Republic of Iran Ayatollah Khomeini returns to Iran after 14 years of exile in France on February 1, 1979. The Iranian Revolution, also known as the revolution, was the revolution that transformed Iran from absolute led by Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi, an Islamic republic
led by Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, one of the leaders of the revolution and the founder of the Islamic Republic. It can be said that its period of time began in January 1978 with the first major demonstrations and culminated in the adoption of a new theocratic Constitution under which Ayatollah Khomeini became the Supreme Leader of the country in
December 1979. Between them, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi left the country, and on 1 February 1979 after strikes and demonstrations paralyzed the country, and on 1 February 1979, Ayatollah Khomeini returned to Tehran. The final collapse of the Pahlavi dynasty came shortly after the Iranian military declared itself neutral on February 11 after guerrillas and
rebel forces defeated troops loyal to the Shah in armed street battles. Iran officially became the Islamic Revolution 1979, when the Iranians overwhelmingly approved a national referendum. Ideology of the Iranian Revolution 1979, when the Iranians overwhelmingly approved a national referendum. Ideology of the Iranians overwhelmingly approved a national referendum.
populist, nationalist and, above all, Shiite Islamic. His unique constitution is based on the concept of velayat-and-faki ideas put forward by Khomeini that Muslims - in fact everything - require custody, in the form of rule or supervision by leading Islamic lawyers or lawyers. Khomeini served as the ruling lawyer, or supreme leader, until his death in 1989. Iran's
rapidly modernizing capitalist economy has been replaced by populist and Islamic economic and cultural policies. Much of the industry was nationalized, laws and schools had laws and schools banned. In a non-Muslim world, he changed the image of
Islam, generating a great interest in the politics and spirituality of Islam, as well as in fear and distrust of Islam, and especially the Islamic Republic and its founder. Khomeini is in power (1979-1989) Khomeini was the leader of the revolution or supreme leader of Iran from 1979 until his death on June 3, 1989. This era was dominated by the consolidation of
the revolution into a theocratic republic under Khomeini, as well as the costly and bloody war with Iraq. Consolidation continued until 1982-19196, when Iran coped with damage to its economy, army and government apparatus, and protests and uprisings by secularists, leftists and more traditional Muslims, former allies of revolutionaries but now rivals, were
effectively suppressed. Many political opponents were executed by the new regimes. After the revolution, Marxist guerrillas and federalist parties rebelled in some regions, including Khuzistan, Kurdistan and Gonbad-e-Kabus, leading to fierce fighting rebels and and Forces. These uprisings began in April 1979 and lasted from a few months to more than a
year, depending on the region. The KDPI-led Kurdish uprising was the most brutal and lasted until 1983 and resulted in 10,000 casualties. In the summer of 1979, the Assembly of Constitutional Experts drafted a new constitution, giving Khomeini the powerful post of supreme guardian leader and the clerical council of the guardians of power over legislation
and elections. The new constitution was approved in a referendum in December 1979. The hostage crisis in Iran (1979-1981) Main article: The hostage crisis in Iran. After the former Shah of Iran entered the United States for cancer
treatment, on November 4, 1979, Iranian students captured U.S. Embassy staff, calling the embassy a spy den. Fifty-two hostages were held for 444 days until January 1981. The U.S. military's attempt to rescue the hostages taker, and it is
believed that it has strengthened the prestige of Ayatollah Khomeini and strengthened anti-Americanism. It was at this time that Khomeini began to refer to America as the Great Satan. In America, which is considered a violation of the long-standing principle of international law that diplomats can be expelled but not captured, this has provoked a powerful
anti-Iranian reaction. Relations between the two countries remain deeply antagonistic, and U.S. international sanctions have stydled Iran-Iraq war During this political and social crisis, Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein tried to take advantage of the
revolution mess, the weakness of the Iranian military and the antagonism of the revolution, and after the overthrow of Shah, Hussein had ambitions to position himself as the new strongman in the Middle East and sought to expand Iraq's access to the Persian
Gulf by acquiring territory that Iraq had previously claimed from Iran during the Shah's rule. The main important thing for Iraq was Khuzestan, which boasted not only a significant Arab population, but also rich oil fields. On behalf of the United Arab Emirates, the islands of Abu Musa and the Greater and Small Tombs were also unilaterally targeted. With these
ambitions in mind, Hussein planned a full-scale offensive against Iran, boasting that his forces could reach the capital within three days. On 22 September 1980, the Iraqi army invaded Iran in Khuzestan, leading to the Iran-Iraq war. Teh caught revolutionary Iran by surprise. Although Saddam Hussein's forces made several early successes, Iranian forces
pushed the Iraqi army back into Iraq by 1982. Khomeini sought to export his Islamic revolution west to Iraq, especially to most Shiite Arabs living in the country. The war then lasted another six years until 1988, when Khomeini, he said, drank a cup of poison and adopted a United Nations-brokered truce. Tens of thousands of Iranian civilians and soldiers were
killed when Iraq used chemical weapons in its war. Iraq was financially supported by Egypt, the Gulf Arab states, the United States (since 1983), France, Britain, Germany, Brazil and the People's Republic of China (which also sold arms to Iran). During the eight years of war, more than 182,000 Kurds have been
killed in Iraq's chemical weapons. Iran's total war toll is estimated to be between 500,000 and 1,000,000. Almost all relevant international agencies have confirmed that Iran had never used chemical weapons during the war. Since July 19,
1988, the government has systematically executed thousands of political prisoners throughout Iran. This is commonly referred to as the execution of Iranian political prisoners in 1988 or the massacre in Iran in 1988. The main objective was membership in the People's Mujahideen Organization of Iranian political prisoners in 1988 or the massacre in Iran in 1988. The main objective was membership in the People's Mujahideen Organization of Iranian political prisoners in 1988.
political prisoners from other left-wing groups, such as the Tudeh Party (Communist Party). Estimates of the number of people executed range from 1,400 to 30,000. The Khamenei Rule (1989-present) The first eight years (1989-1997) On his deathbed in 1989, Khomeini appointed the 25-member Constitutional Reform Council, which appointed then-
President Ali Khamenei as the next Supreme Leader and made a number of changes to Iran's constitution. The smooth transition followed Khomeini's death on 3 June 1989. While Khamenei lacked Khomeini's charisma and clerical position, he developed a network of supporters in Iran's armed forces and its economically powerful religious foundations.
Under his rule, the Iranian regime is said to be at least one observer, more like a clerical oligarchy... than autocracy. Khamenei's successor as president was the pragmatic conservative Ali Akbar Hashemi Rafsanjani, who served two four-year terms and focused his efforts on rebuilding Iran's economy and war-damaged infrastructure, though low oil prices
hampered the start. He sought to restore confidence in the government population as a whole by privatisation companies that were nationalized in the first few years of their economy has also affected the Government to move towards ending their
diplomatic isolation. This was achieved through the restoration of normalized relations with neighbours such as Saudi Arabia and attempts to improve its reputation in the region, with claims that its revolution was not exported to other countries. During the 1991 Gulf War, the country remained neutral, limiting its actions to U.S. condemnation and allowing Iraqi
planes and refugees to flee to the country. Iran in the 1990s had more secular behavior and admiration for Western population at the government's invasive Islamic policies. Public pressure on the new supreme leader, Ayatollah Ali Khamenei, has led to
an uneasy alliance between him and President Akbar Hashemi Rafsanjani. Through this alliance, they tried to interfere with the ability of the ulema to gain further control over the state. In 1989, they created a series of constitutional amendments that removed the Prime Minister and increased the scope of presidential powers. However, these new
amendments did not limit the powers of the Supreme Leader of Iran in any way; that position still contained ultimate authority over the armed forces, the creation of war and peace, the last word in foreign policy and the right to interfere in the legislative process whenever it deems necessary. Reforms and Consequences (1997-2005) by Mohammad Khatami
Iran's reformist president from 1997 to 2005, President Rafsanjani's economic policies, which led to broader relations with the outside world and the weakening of his government to enforce certain rules of social behaviour, were met with some responses to widespread disillusionment among the general population with ulema as the country's rulers. This led
to the 1997 defeat of a government presidential candidate with the support of a top Islamic lawyer. He was beaten by independent reformist candidate Mohammad Khatami. He received 69 per cent of the State: women and young people. The younger
generation in the country was too young to experience the Shah's regime or revolution with it, and now they are outraged by tensions between a reformed government and an increasingly conservative and vocal cleric. This split culminated
in Mass anti-government protests erupted on the streets of Tehran. The unrest lasted more than a week before police and pro-government vigilantes dispersed the crowd. Khatami was re-elected in June 2001, but his efforts were repeatedly blocked by conservatives in Parliament. Conservative elements in Iran's government have undermined the reformist
movement by banning liberal newspapers and disqualifying candidates in parliamentary elections. This suppression of dissent, coupled with Khatami's inability to reform the government, has led to growing political apathy among Iranian youth. In June 2003, anti-government protests by several thousand students took place in Tehran. In 2006, there were also
several human rights protests. In the 2005 presidential election and aftermath (2005-2009) In Iran's presidential election, Mahmoud Ahmadinejad, the mayor of Tehran, became Iran's sixth president, winning 62 percent of the vote in the second round of elections against former President Ali Akbar Hashemi Rafsanjani. During the authorization ceremony, he
kissed Khamenei's hand in a demonstration of his devotion to him. During this time, the American invasion of Iraq, the overthrow of Saddam Hussein's regime and the empowerment of the Shiite leader again demanded an autonomous
Shiite region in the week of September 3, 2006. At least one commentator (former U.S. Secretary of Defense William S. Cohen) said that since 2009, Iran's growing power has overshadowed anti-zionism as a major foreign policy issue in the Middle East. In 2005 and 2006, there were allegations that the United States and Israel were planning to attack Iran,
with the most common reason being Iran's civilian nuclear energy program, which the United States and some other states fear could lead to a nuclear weapons program. China and Russia opposed any military action and opposed economic sanctions. Supreme Leader Ali Khamenei issued a fatwa banning the production, stockpiling and use of nuclear
weapons. The fatwa was quoted in an official statement of the Iranian government at a meeting of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) in Vienna in August 2005. In 2009, Ahmadinejad's re-election was hotly contested and marred by large protests that formed the greatest internal challenge to the leadership of the Islamic Republic in 30 years. The
resulting social unrest is widely known as the Iranian Green Movement. Mir-Hossein Mousavi, an opponent of the reformists, and his supporters claimed voting irregularities, and by 1 July 2009, 1,000 people had been arrested and 20 killed in street demonstrations. Supreme Leader Ali Khamenei and other Islamic officials foreign powers in inciting protest.
2013 Presidential Election and improved relations between the United States and Iran (2013) on June 15, 2013, Hassan Rouhani received 18,613,329 votes. At his press conference the day after Election Day, Rouhani reiterated his promise to reconfigure Iran's relations with the world. On
April 2, 2015, after eight days of tortuous discussions in Switzerland that lasted through Thursday night, Iran and six world powers (the United States, Britain, France, China and Germany) agreed on the outlines of an agreement to curb Iran's nuclear programs, negotiators said as they prepared for the announcements. Iran's Foreign Minister
Mohammad Javad zarif tweeted: A solution has been found. We are ready to immediately join the drafting. EU foreign policy chief Federica Mogherini tweeted that she would meet with zarif after the final meeting of the seven countries at the nuclear talks. She wrote: Good news. In a joint statement, Eus' foreign policy chief Federica Mogherini hailed what she
called a decisive step after more than a decade of work. Iran's Foreign Minister Mohammad Javad zarif followed up with the same statement in Persian. U.S. Secretary of State John Kerry and senior diplomats from Britain, France and Germany also briefly took the stage behind them. The deal is meant to be a temporary basis for a comprehensive agreement
and was signed in 2015 and marked a significant breakthrough in the 12-year history of negotiations with Iran over its nuclear program. When Donald Trump campaigned to become US president, he repeatedly said he would abandon the Iran nuclear program. When Donald Trump campaigned to become US president, he repeatedly said he would abandon the Iran nuclear program.
May 8, 2018. An Iranian group known as Kataib Hezbollah attacked the United States Embassy in Baghdad on December 31, 2019. On January 3, 2020, the U.S. military launched a drone strike on Baghdad airport, killing Kasem Soleimani, the leader of the Kuds Force, an elite branch of the Islamic Revolutionary Guard Corps. Cm. also List of Monarchs of
Persia List of Rulers of Iran Description of Iran's Policy of Religion and Culture Safavid Transformation of Iran into Shia Islam Timeline of the Iranian Revolution Common History of the Middle East History of the Caucasus Links - People, New Evidence: Modern Civilization Began in Iran, August 10, 2007, extracted October 1, 2007 -
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