



IRAN COUNTRY REPORT

October 2004

Country Information & Policy Unit

**IMMIGRATION AND NATIONALITY DIRECTORATE
HOME OFFICE, UNITED KINGDOM**

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1. SCOPE OF DOCUMENT

1.1 This Country Report has been produced by Immigration and Nationality Directorate, Home Office, for use by officials involved in the asylum / human rights determination process. The Report provides general background information about the issues most commonly raised in asylum / human rights claims made in the United Kingdom. It includes information available up to 1 September 2004.

1.2 The Country Report is compiled wholly from material produced by a wide range of recognised external information sources and does not contain any Home Office opinion or policy. All information in the Report is attributed, throughout the text, to the original source material, which is made available to those working in the asylum / human rights determination process.

1.3 The Report aims to provide a brief summary of the source material identified, focusing on the main issues raised in asylum and human rights applications. It is not intended to be a detailed or comprehensive survey.

For a more detailed account, the relevant source documents should be examined directly.

1.4 The structure and format of the Country Report reflects the way it is used by Home Office caseworkers and appeals presenting officers, who require quick electronic access to information on specific issues and use the contents page to go directly to the subject required. Key issues are usually covered in some depth within a dedicated section, but may also be referred to briefly in several other sections. Some repetition is therefore inherent in the structure of the Report.

1.5 The information included in this Country Report is limited to that which can be identified from source documents. While every effort is made to cover all relevant aspects of a particular topic, it is not always possible to obtain the information concerned. For this reason, it is important to note that information included in the Report should not be taken to imply anything beyond what is actually stated. For example, if it is stated that a particular law has been passed, this should not be taken to imply that it has been effectively implemented; rather that information regarding implementation has not been found.

1.6 As noted above, the Country Report is a collation of material produced by a number of reliable information sources. In compiling the Report, no attempt has been made to resolve discrepancies between information provided in different source documents. For example, different source documents often contain different versions of names and spellings of individuals, places and political parties etc. Country

Reports do not aim to bring consistency of spelling, but to reflect faithfully the spellings used in the original source documents. Similarly, figures given in different source documents sometimes vary and these are simply quoted as per the original text.

1.7 The Country Report is based substantially upon source documents issued during the previous two years. However, some older source documents may have been included because they contain relevant information not available in more recent documents. All sources contain information considered relevant at the time this Report was issued.

1.8 This Country Report and the accompanying source material are public documents. All Country Reports are published on the IND section of the Home Office website and the great majority of the source material for the Report is readily available in the public domain. Where the source documents identified in the Report are available in electronic form, the relevant web link has been included, together with the date that the link was accessed. Copies of less accessible source documents, such as those provided by government offices or subscription services, are available from the Home Office upon request.

1.9 Country Reports are published every six months on the top 20 asylum producing countries and on those countries for which there is deemed to be a specific operational need. Inevitably, information contained in Country Reports is sometimes overtaken by events that occur between publication dates. Home Office officials are informed of any significant changes in country conditions by means of Country Information Bulletins, which are also published on the IND website. They also have constant access to an information request service for specific enquiries.

1.10 In producing this Country Report, the Home Office has sought to provide an accurate, balanced summary of the available source material. Any comments regarding this Report or suggestions for additional source material are very welcome and should be submitted to the Home Office as below.

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2. GEOGRAPHY

2.1 According to the Europa Yearbook the Jomhoori e Islami e Iran (Islamic Republic of Iran, Persia until 1935) lies in western Asia, and is bounded on the north by the Caspian Sea, Azerbaijan and Turkmenistan, by Turkey and Iraq to the west, by the Persian Arabian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman to the south, and by Pakistan and Afghanistan to the east. It has an area of 1.6 to 1.7 million square km. (635,000 to 636,000 sq.mi.) [1a](pg423) [4j](pg1) The climate is one of extremes. It is a land of desert and mountain and is in the main semi-arid with, by contrast, a sub tropical climate in the north and northwest along parts of the Caspian coast. [1a](pg361) This is a result of the considerable rainfall that falls in these areas. The Caspian coast has a hot and humid climate and this region is by far the most densely populated. [1a](pg361) The capital city is Teheran, with an estimated population of 12 -15 million. [26a] The towns of Mashad, Esfahan, Tabriz and Shiraz each have populations of 1 - 3 million; the total population of Iran is an estimated 66 million (2001 estimate). [1a](pg423) [4j] 9pg1) [36]

2.2 The principal language is Farsi Persian and Persian dialects, spoken by about 50 per cent of the population. 27 per cent of the population are Turkic-speaking, Kurdish, Arab, Lur, Baloch, Turkish and others less than 25%. [1b](pg2102) [4j](pg1) The national flag comprises three unequal horizontal stripes of green, white and red, with the emblem of the Islamic Republic of Iran, the stylised word Allah centrally positioned in red and the inscription "God is Great" on the red and green stripes. [1b](pg2102)

For further information on geography, refer to Europa Yearbook, source [1a] [1b]

3. ECONOMY

3.1 According to the Europa Yearbook, Pre-Revolutionary Iran's economic development was rapid. Traditionally an agricultural society, in 1961 Iran initiated a series of economic, social and administrative reforms (that became known as the Shah's White Revolution) [1a](pg361). The core of this program was land reform. By the 1970s, Iran had achieved significant industrialisation and economic modernisation, however the pace of growth had started to slow by the late 70s. [4j](pg4). Increased central control, a result of the Revolution in 1979, disruption caused by the Iran/Iraq war and a general decline in oil prices in late 1985, contributed detrimentally to the economy. [1a](pg391) [4j](pg4)

3.2 In March 1989, Khomeini approved President Rafsanjani's 5-year plan for economic development. [4j](pg4) According to the Economist Country Briefing 2003, since then Iran's five-year economic plans have

emphasised a gradual move towards a market orientated economy and the development of the private sector. The third five-year plan, which came into force in March 2000, commits the Government to an ambitious programme of liberalisation, diversification and privatisation and the creation of 3.8m new jobs by 2005. The resolution of Iran's external debt problems have eased the policymaking environment, and facilitated the unification of the exchange rate at the start of 2002, but significant political obstacles to rapid reform remain. [24a] However a lack of consensus on the privatisation drive has resulted in delay. [5ad] On 16 August 2004 the Iranian legislature suspended for one year aspects of the Fourth Five Year Plan that deals with privatisation. [42d]

3.3 According to the Europa Yearbook, today, Iran's economy is a mixture of central planning, state ownership of oil and other large enterprises, village agriculture and small scale businesses. [1a](pg391) [4j](pg4) [24a] It has been stated by an Iranian official [21aah] that the unemployment rate is 15 per cent nationwide whilst the International Money Fund (IMF) and the CIA Fact Book for 2003 has put it as high as 16 per cent. [5af] [44] However figures quoted in the US State Department country report for 2003 released in February 2004 stated that "The official unemployment rate was approximately 16 percent, although other estimates were higher. Estimated inflation was 17 percent with economic growth at 6 percent during the year". [4n](pg1) The Iranian press also reported in September 2002 that some 12 million, from a population of 66 million were living below the poverty line. [5ag] According to an economist quoted in a BBC News report of 29 May 2003, " The brain drain is a problem for the country because we are losing highly educated people and these people... could be our entrepreneurs who create jobs for the next generation". [21aav] According to an International Monetary Fund report referenced in an article in the Tehran Times on 12 July 2004,

"Iran stands in first place in emigration among 91 developing and developed countries and 150 to 180 thousand Iranians immigrate to other countries every year". [71a]

3.4 According to the USSD 2002,

"Large charitable foundations called bonyads, most with strong connections to the Government, controlled the extensive properties and business expropriated from the Pahlavi family and from other figures associated with the monarchy. The bonyads exercised considerable influence on the economy, but neither accounted publicly for revenue nor paid taxes. Legislation was introduced in the Majlis during the year, which would require the bonyads to pay taxes at the rate of 25 percent. It is not yet clear if this legislation became law". [4m](pg1)

3.5 A key factor in Iran's economic prospects is whether it will be able to gain full re-admittance to the international trading community World Trading Organisation (WTO). Membership will depend in large part upon the outcome of the political contest in Tehran and the success of Iran's policy of détente towards the outside world. [1a](pg416) [21w] [5ax]

3.6 According to a Reuters report of 28 May 2002, the Secretary General of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development said that UNCTAD supports Tehran's will to join the WTO currently the United States administration was opposed to Iran gaining membership. It was expected that non-members would suffer grave economic losses in future years as a result of the majority of the international community following the same trade policies. [5ac]

3.7 In its annual review of the Iranian economy in September 2002 the IMF, notwithstanding concerns over unemployment rates and fiscal policy concluded that the economy had performed well during the year [5af] and the World Bank planned to lend Iran \$755m over two years although opposition from some of the World Bank's shareholders was expected. [21x]

3.8 According to BBC News Reports in March 2003, the Deputy Governor of the Central Bank of Iran for Economic Affairs Akbar Kimanji reported that Iran's foreign debt stood at 23.438bn dollars up to 20 January 2003. [21ag] US sanctions were also renewed by President George Bush for a further year on 13 March 2003. [21ah]

3.9 On 25 August 2003 the IMF reported that the Iranian economy had performed well over the last three years, as evidenced by the rapid growth of the non-oil sector, a decline in unemployment, a reduction in external debt, the accumulation of gross official reserves and an improvement in key social indicators. These achievements were in large part attributable to structural reforms implemented over the last three years, including the opening up of the economy to international trade and foreign direct investment, exchange rate unification, and further progress in enhancing fiscal management and reforming the financial system. [45a] However, the report also noted that domestic demand pressures stemming from a monetary expansion policy had intensified, generating rapid growth of liquidity and putting upward pressure on inflation. [45a] [52a]

3.10 In a press release of June 23, 2004, the IMF said,

"The mission noted that in 2003-04 real GDP growth was high and broad based, unemployment declined, gross international reserves increased to the equivalent of more than six months of imports of goods and services, but the external current surplus narrowed compared to the previous year. Inflation remained at about 15 percent. The prospects

for 2004-05 also look favorable, aided by higher oil revenue and the continued strong momentum of private sector investment. Growth is expected to remain at about 6 ½ percent, with most sectors showing relatively strong performance". [45b]

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4. HISTORY

4.1 Iran was one of the first countries to be occupied by the early Islamic armies that erupted from Arabia in the seventh century. Iran [formerly Persia] had been one of the greatest empires of the ancient world and despite frequently being overrun by other powers always maintained its own cultural and political identity. Within the Islamic world it retained its own language and adherence to the Shi'i interpretation of Islam. [1a](pg363) [4 j](pg2)

Pre 1979:

4.2 Modern Iranian history can be said to have begun in 1907 when a constitution was introduced which limited the royal absolutism exercised by past ruling dynasties. In 1921 Reza Khan, an army officer, seized control of the government, ruling as Reza Shah Palavi from 1925 onwards. [4j](pg2) In 1941 he was forced to abdicate and his son became Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi, ruling until 1979. [4j](pg2)

4.3 During late 1977 and 1978 public opposition to the regime increased dramatically, partly in response to the worsening economic situation, resulting from a slowdown in the pace of growth [1a](pg367) [4j](pg3) and particularly as a result of the repressive nature of the Shah's rule. By late 1978 anti-government demonstrations and strikes were widespread, staged both by left wing and liberal opponents of the Shah, and Islamic activists. The most effective opposition came from supporters of Ayatollah Khomeini, who was by then based in France. [1a](pg367)

1979 - 1989:

4.4 The Shah was forced to leave Iran in January 1979, and Khomeini arrived in Tehran on 1 February 1979. A 15-member Revolutionary Council was formed to govern the country, in co-operation with a provisional government, and on 1 April 1979 Iran was declared an Islamic republic. Supreme authority was vested in the Wali Faqih, a religious leader, initially Khomeini, appointed by the Shi'ite clergy. In October 1981, Hojatoleslam Ali Khamenei was voted President and Mir Hussein Moussavi was appointed Prime Minister. [1a](pg368)

4.5 In September 1980 Iraq invaded Iran. Iranian forces displayed strong resistance and the war developed into a long conflict of attrition until a cease-fire came into effect in August 1988. Peace negotiations became deadlocked in disputes regarding the sovereignty of the Shatt al-Arab waterway, the exchange of prisoners of war, and the withdrawal of armed forces to within international boundaries. The process received a boost when Saddam Hussein, President of Iraq sought formal peace with Iran in the 1990s [1a](pg374) as a result of the Gulf War.

4.6 Ayatollah Khomeini died on 3 June 1989, and was replaced as Wali al-Faqih spiritual leader by President Ali Khamenei who was quickly elevated to the clerical rank of Ayatollah in order to satisfy constitutional demands of the position. Rafsanjani easily won the presidential election in July 1989, his only opponent was widely regarded as a 'token' candidate. At the same time, voters in a referendum supported proposed amendments to the Constitution; the most important of which was the abolition of the post of Prime Minister, and a consequent increase in power for the President. [1a](pg373)

1990 to 1996:

4.7 In the early 1990s Rafsanjani successfully contained the influence of the 'conservative' faction within the leadership, and emerged from the fourth Majlis elections in 1992 in a strengthened position with regard to his policies of economic reform. Serious rioting reported to have occurred in several cities in April and May was attributed by some observers to dissatisfaction with the Government's economic reform programme. When Rafsanjani stood for re-election to the presidency on 11 June 1993 he was re-elected but had lost popular support since the previous election. [1a](pg375)

4.8 In 1993 the UNHCR adopted a resolution condemning continuing human rights violations in Iran and further extended the Special Rapporteur's mandate. The Special Rapporteur's mandate has in fact been in place and subject to renewal, periodically since the early 1980s. The first and only time that a resolution failed to be adopted was in 2002. On Islamic Republic Day 1 April an amnesty was decreed; the prison terms of 1,682 individuals convicted in public, military and Islamic Revolutionary courts were reduced. [2a] A campaign to uphold Islamic morality was launched, resulting in hundreds of arrests for dress code violation.

4.9 Elections to the fifth Majlis were conducted in 1996. The Society of Combatant Clergy, a conservative faction which enjoyed the unofficial patronage of Ayatollah Khamenei, won only 96 seats, which represent a major decline as compared with 155 in the previous Majlis. The main reformist group which emerged at that point, the Servants of Construction, won a similar number of seats. The UN Special

Rapporteur noted a number of irregularities in the elections; in particular the nullification of election results in eight jurisdictions apparently on ideological grounds. Most of the candidates disqualified were pragmatists rather than conservatives. [4a](pg10)

1997 to 1999:

4.10 President Rafsanjani stood down in 1997, in conformity with the Constitution that provides for the Presidency to be held by an individual for two consecutive terms only. [1a](pg378) In March 1997 he was appointed Chairman of a committee, the Expediency Council, which arbitrates between the Majlis and the Council of Guardians, the upper house of the legislative process, for a five-year term maintaining his continuing influential role in political life. [1a](pg378)

4.11 In August 1997, President Seyed Mohammad Khatami, regarded as a “liberal” and supported by the Servants of Iran’s Construction [1a](pg378) amongst others, was inaugurated; following a landslide victory in elections held on May 23, the 2nd of Khordad in the Iranian calendar. During the campaign, a lively debate on political, economic and social issues occurred. There was considerable government intervention and censorship, with disqualified candidates and the intimidation of opposition campaigners by the encouragement of vigilante groups. Ayatollah Khamenei, in a break with precedent, backed one candidate, Majlis Speaker Ali Akbar Nateq-Nuri. Nonetheless, Khatami’s election victory, with nearly 70 per cent of the vote, was not disputed and the regime apparently did not engage in election fraud. Khatami’s election appeared to demonstrate a strong desire among his supporters, primarily women, youth and the middle class, for greater social and cultural freedom and increased economic opportunity. [4b](pg2) There were signs that Khatami, with popular support, intended to move Iran towards greater openness and cultural rapprochement with the West. Khatami stated his intention to loosen constraints on freedom of expression, denounced terrorism and expressed regret for hostage taking at the US Embassy in Tehran. [7] Ayatollah Khamenei, meanwhile, continued to denounce the West’s military and cultural ambitions, particularly those of the USA and Israel. The divergent messages between the two men were interpreted by Western commentators as indicative of the conflict between Iran’s “moderate” and “conservative” factions. [1a](pg384)

4.12 The result of the Presidential election appeared to revive long-standing rivalries among members of the senior clergy in Iran, with Ayatollah Montazeri openly opposing Ayatollah Khamenei’s authority and demanding that Khatami be permitted to govern without interference. Violent demonstrations in Qum and Tehran followed, until Khamenei urged an end to the protests; he none the less demanded

that Montazeri be tried for treason and that all others who questioned his authority be prosecuted in accordance with the law. Montazeri's supporters protested in subsequent months that Montazeri was under house arrest. Khamenei expressed unprecedentedly vociferous criticism of Montazeri in May 1998. [1a](pg378) Montazeri was finally freed from house arrest on January 30 2003 amid concern over his deteriorating health. [21au].

4.13 President Khatami's attempts to introduce reform continued to meet resistance. The issue of press censorship increasingly became a focus of rivalry between conservatives and reformists. [1a](pg380) These tensions erupted into violence. On 8 July 1999, around 500 moderate students rallied outside Tehran University dormitory complex, to protest peacefully at the closure of the newspaper Salam and calling for the expansions of press freedoms. The rally ended in clashes with hard-line vigilantes of the Ansar-e Hezbollah group. Police, who reportedly stood by during the clashes, raided the dormitories with excessive force. There were reports that students were thrown from windows. Student leaders were arrested in the early hours of the following day. The authorities later stated that one student had been killed, but students claimed that there had been eight deaths [1a](pg380) [5p] [5r] The demonstrations and sit-ins continued for six days and spread to other major cities. On 11 July, at least 10,000 students took part in a street protest in Tehran, and were attacked by Ansar-e Hezbollah members armed with clubs. Police in the city centre fired tear gas and shots into the air to disperse the crowd. 1,400-1,500 students were detained in the wake of the student protests. [4g](pg6) [18a] The protests were followed by a rally, in support of the Islamic republic, officially organised with the help of Basij.

4.14 The Supreme Council for National Security, led by Khatami, announced that two senior police officials had been dismissed and that the chief of police had been reprimanded. Following an appearance before a closed session of the Majlis in August 1999, it was reported that the chief of police had informed the legislature that almost 100 police officers had been arrested for their role in the campus raid. At the end of August it was announced that Tehran's head of police had been dismissed. In mid-September it was reported that four alleged leaders of the July riots had been sentenced to death; 45 defendants had been sentenced to terms of imprisonment and fined, and a further 20 had been acquitted. [1b](pg2105)

2000:

4.15 In elections which took place in February [22a] and May 2000, pro-reform candidates swept into power in the Majlis. In the first round in February, the initial counting took an inordinately long time. Then a partial recount was ordered, and then another, which was abandoned

halfway for reasons which remained obscure. There was a lengthy pause during which there was much sniping and recrimination between the Interior Ministry, which was generally sympathetic to the reformists, and the conservative Council of Guardians. The Council of Guardians said that at 505 of 577 polling stations reviewed, fraud affected at least 10 per cent of the votes. The council also carried out an unprecedented third recount of ballots in the Tehran constituency [21a]. It was not until Ayatollah Khamenei delivered a ruling telling the Council of Guardians to invalidate those voting boxes which had definitely been tampered with, but to accept the rest of the results, that the issue of the Tehran constituency was laid to rest, and the second round of the elections could take place. [21b]

4.16 In August 2000 two leading reform intellectuals, Mohsen Kadivar and Abdul Karim Soroush were prevented by semi-official club and knife wielding vigilantes from addressing a student convention in Khorramabad. Subsequent clashes between students and vigilantes resulted in the death of a police officer and injuries. The authorities arrested 150 persons. [4h]

4.17 In November 2000 investigative journalist Akbar Ganji went on trial for statements he allegedly made during an April conference in Berlin on Iranian politics. He was arrested in April upon his return to Iran and held over the next 6 months for long periods in solitary confinement. Ganji told the court that he was beaten and tortured in prison. Ganji previously had written articles implicating former President Rafsanjani in a series of murders of dissidents and intellectuals apparently carried out by security forces. [4h]

2001 onwards

4.18 The Presidential Elections of 8 June 2001 saw the return of President Mohammad Khatami as president. Khatami won a landslide victory, securing 77 percent of the vote, and secured a second four-year term. [21k] [21l] 10 members of the Freedom Movement were arrested in April 2001 in the campaigns leading up to the June elections; the Freedom Movement was banned in March 2001. [21j] Khatami was then confirmed in office by Iran's supreme spiritual leader, Ayatollah Ali Khamenei. However, in early August 2001, there was a slight hitch in the confirmation of the appointment by the Guardian Council, as conservative elements opposed to Khatami disrupted the election of replacement members to the Council, rendering it temporarily inquorate, by presenting two hard-line candidates designed to upset the Majlis. [21k] [21l] [21m]

4.19 Iran strongly condemned the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001, led by a statement by Khamenei on 17 September, [21p] [21q] and reiterated during the visit of the UK Foreign Secretary on 25 September.

[21r] Iran and Iraq however condemned the bombing of Afghanistan by the United States on 8 October 2001.

4.20 However, in mid October 2001 details emerged of a secret agreement between Iran and the USA whereby Iran would offer assistance to any US personnel either shot down or forced to land within its borders, provided the USA respected Iran's territorial integrity. [1b](pg2109) There were also reports that Iran might be sharing intelligence with the USA. [1b](pg2109) Yet, despite an apparent shift in bilateral relations, in 2001 Iran continued to head the US Administration's list of states deemed to be most active in sponsoring terrorism. [1b](pg2109)

4.21 Early in 2002 relations deteriorated rapidly with the USA when the President, in his State of the Union address referred to Iran as forming, together with Iraq and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, an "axis of evil", explicitly accusing Iran of aggressively pursuing the development of weapons of mass destruction and of "exporting terror". [1b](pg2109) The statement was denounced, in the strongest terms, by both "moderates" and "conservatives" in the Iranian leadership. [1b](pg2109)

4.22 In September 2002 the UK named its new ambassador to Iran, after a previous nomination earlier that year led to disagreement. [1b](pg2110) [21y] The newly nominated ambassador was expected to go to Tehran before the end of 2002 and take up his post in January 2003. [21y] but he in fact took up his post on 01 December 2002. [21ai]

4.23 In September 2002, President Khatami presented new bills to Parliament designed to override obstacles to his reform agenda. One new bill sought to increase the president's power to issue warnings when state institutions exceeded their constitutional functions. President Khatami had issued numerous such warnings over the years to protest against the arbitrary closures of newspapers or the jailing of his supporters, but his warnings had been ignored. The bill was accompanied by another designed to curb the powers of the Council of Guardians to veto electoral candidates. By the end of the year, the bills had passed through Parliament easily, but their endorsement by the Council of Guardians was unlikely, [8h](pg1) and on 01 April 2003 the electoral bill was sent back to the Majlis for further amendment. [21ax] By 09 June 2003 the twin bills had been referred to the Guardian Council and had been rejected yet again. [46] President Khatami stated that he would not be referring the Bills to the Expediency Council, the next part of the political process but recognised as being circuitous in this case, and expressed the hope that the dispute between the Majlis and the Guardian Council be resolved before the next Majlis elections. [21aa0]

Student Unrest - June 2003.

4.24 According to the June 2004 Human Right Watch Report - "Like the Dead in Their Coffins",

"The current pressure for democratic reform in Iran changed dramatically after the student protests at Tehran University in 1999, protests that marked the beginning of the contemporary student movement. The protests began over the closure of the well known newspaper *Salam*. Black-clad thugs attacked the students, beating many and killing at least one student. President Khatami called for an investigation and trial of those responsible, but no convictions were ever returned. Every year on the anniversary of the 1999 event, students have gathered at Tehran University and other major campuses throughout the country. The date has been a flashpoint for violence and tension, and as recently as July 2003 the authorities have tried to keep large crowds from gathering at the university campus in Tehran." [8j](pg32)

4.25 Thousands of Iranians took to the streets on 10/11 June 2003 and again on the following 10 nights. Ostensibly they were protesting against draft proposals to privatise universities in Iran. They were joined by local residents and the demonstration reportedly escalated and became increasingly politicised, with slogans being chanted against political leaders. Militant supporters of religious leaders opposed to social reform began to attack the demonstrators and police rapidly intervened to end the clashes. As the demonstrations grew over the following nights, Tehran's Special Forces (Nirou-ye Vajeh) were deployed to disperse demonstrators. There were reports, however, that the Special Forces permitted some militants to attack peaceful demonstrators and that in certain instances excessive force may have been used to break up the demonstrations. Some demonstrators were reportedly attacked by unknown individuals on motorcycles wielding iron bars. [9w]

4.26 The demonstrations were part of countrywide unrest which began on 11 June and lasted for ten days. Hundreds of people have reportedly been arrested and according to a statement made by the head of the Tehran Justice Department Abbas Ali Alizadeh on 24 June "the judiciary is intent on dealing firmly with the main perpetrators". [9w] Around 4,000 people were reportedly arrested, up to 2,000 of whom were still held in mid-July. At least 65 have been charged, but the charges have not been made public. [9x]

4.27 Few students were reported among those arrested during the clashes which indicated that the dissent was by no means confined to the campuses where the trouble began. Many of those taking part in the

protests, which later took the form of horn-sounding in traffic jams, were ordinary people, often families, who wanted to register their dismay that so little of the change they have been voting for since 1997 has been brought about. [21aai]

4.28 About 4,000 people were arrested all over the country before and after the protests. Although many of those have since been released, there are still scores of students behind bars. [21aaj] Some of these have been in prison since they were arrested as a result of similar disturbances in 1999/2000/2001. For the moment however it appears that the various students' organisations can go about their business unperturbed. There has been a certain depoliticisation of the student population. Students are losing interest because the political situation is not changing, and the centre of gravity of their activities has shifted towards cultural and social initiatives. [43](pg17)

4.29 According to a Documentation, Information and Research Branch, Immigration and Refugee Board, Canada (DIRB) report of December 2000 it had been reported that some persons, including non-students, were still in danger of arrest because of their involvement in the student demonstrations of July 1999 and that police used published photographs and film to identify participants in these demonstrations. It was further stated that it was possible that persons involved with the July 1999 demonstrations could still be arrested. However, it was also stated that, if they were arrested, they would likely be charged with something else, such as a drug offence, rather than on the grounds of their involvement in the July 1999 demonstrations. [2u]

Parliamentary Elections - February 2004.

4.30 Iranians went to the polls on 20 February 2004 to elect a new parliament. Like previous elections, the battle was expected to be an ideological one between the elected reformists and the largely unelected hardliners who dominate the important institutions of the state. The reformists who form a majority in the parliament are led by President Mohammad Khatami, the hardliners control the judiciary, armed forces and constitutional oversight bodies such as the Council of Guardians. The hardliners, or conservatives, are led by Ayatollah Khamenei, who is the ultimate decision-maker and Supreme Leader. [21aaaf]

4.31 As part of the process leading up to the election Iran's Guardian Council failed to approve hundreds of reformist candidates in the parliamentary elections and by doing so provoked a political crisis. The move was generally seen as part of the power struggle in Iran between the conservatives who want to maintain a strict Islamic approach and reformers, backed by the elected government, who want greater liberalisation. While reformers control the parliament (Majlis), under Iran's constitution, a series of appointed supervisory bodies have the

ultimate say on questions of legislation and also have sanction on electoral nominations. These bodies are in the hands of the conservatives and the conservatives felt that this was a good moment to try to prevent further domination of the parliament by reformers after the elections. [21aaag]

4.32 Not surprisingly Iran's religious conservatives swept to victory in the parliamentary poll, [24c] conservatives made sweeping gains in the first round of the general election winning 156 of the assembly's 290 seats with nearly 60 to be decided in a second round of voting (in May 2004). [21aaah] According to An International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) report of July 2004,

"The Conservatives won the legislative election on 20 February, victory which was confirmed at the second ballot which took place on 8 May 2004. The Conservatives now have 195 seats on 290 in the Parliament (Majlis). Reformists, who held 190 seats in the outgoing assembly, won around 40. The new parliament is effective since 27 May 2004". [56c](pg5)

President Khatami remains President until 2005 when presidential elections take place. [1a](pg431)

4.33 According to the Center for Contemporary Conflict (CCC) in an article of June 2004,

"The parliamentary election held on February 20, 2004 in Iran was a key turning point in that country's political evolution. The election marked the conclusive end of the campaign for political and social reform initiated by Mohammad Khatami after he was elected president in a landslide vote in May 1997. However, while it is clear that Khatami's efforts have failed, it is not clear what will come next. Although Khatami's Conservative opponents decisively won the election, they have little popular support and it remains uncertain whether they can govern effectively. Moreover, the radical wing of Khatami's Reformist movement remains intact and could present a strong challenge to the Conservatives in the future. Therefore, while the February election essentially marked the end of the Khatami era, Iran's future remains very uncertain". [72a]

For further information on history, refer to Europa Yearbook, source [1a] [1b]

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5. STATE STRUCTURES

The Constitution

5.1 According to Europa 2004 Iran's Constitution was adopted in 1979, and was amended in 1989 to provide for the abolition of the post of Prime Minister and consequent increase in power of the Presidency . It states that the form of government of Iran is that of an Islamic Republic and that the spirituality and ethics of Islam are to be the basis for political, social and economic relations. Persians, Turks, Arabs, Balochis, Turkomans and others will enjoy completely equal rights. [1a](pg429)

Citizenship and Nationality

5.2 According to the US Defense Security Service in their 2001 report on citizenship criteria, citizenship is based upon the Iranian Civil Code which stipulates that in general, birth within the territory of Iran does not automatically confer citizenship. Some instances where birth does confer citizenship is when a child is born to unknown parents, children born to non-citizens, one of whom was born within Iran or a child born of a father of foreign nationality, if immediately after reaching the age of 18 the child continues to live within Iran for at least one year. [32] A child born to an Iranian father regardless of the country of birth is Iranian by descent. [32]

5.3 As reported by the BBC Monitoring Service on December 2002 Iran's laws allow a male national to acquire Iranian citizenship for his wife and children, while women are not entitled to the same privilege. In December 2002 it was announced that the Majlis were to debate a bill to grant Iranian citizenship to foreign spouses of Iranian women with a view to removing this discrimination. The bill sought to solve the problem of Iranian women who had married foreigners, particularly Afghan nationals. [21aw] In January 2003 according to Payvand News, the Majlis National Security and Foreign Policy Commission unanimously rejected the bill when the commission's rapporteur, Hamid-Reza Hajji-Babaei, was reported as saying that the sole article of the bill authorized the cabinet to issue permanent residence permits to Afghan nationals married to Iranian women whose marriages were solemnized within the period 21 March 1979 to 20 March 2002 and that "Under the bill, costs that may be incurred by the Interior Ministry in Afghan naturalization proceedings are to be paid by the applicants. However, given the results of expert studies into the issue, the commission thinks the costs and likely consequences of the plan would not be favorable to the country." [53a]

5.4 According to the US Defense Security Service in their 2001 report on citizenship criteria Iranian citizenship may be acquired upon

fulfillment of the following conditions: the person must have reached the full age of 18, have resided in Iran for five years, whether continuously or intermittently, not be a military service escapee and not have been convicted of a major or non-political crime in any country. [32] [68a] The wives and minor children under 18 of naturalised citizens are also considered Iranian citizens. [32] Dual citizenship is not recognised. [32] The British Embassy Consular Section in Tehran stated on August 2004 that "In Iran, if you are a holder of both Iranian and British passports, you are recognised only as an Iranian national and the level of assistance we can provide is very limited." [26b]

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Political System

5.5 According to the USSD 2004:

"The Islamic Republic of Iran is a constitutional, theocratic republic in which Shi'a Muslim clergy dominate the key power structures. The Supreme Leader of the Islamic Revolution, Ayatollah Ali Khamene'i, dominates a tri-cameral division of power among legislative, executive, and judicial branches. Khamene'i directly controls the armed forces and exercises indirect control over the internal security forces, the judiciary, and other key institutions. The executive branch was headed by President Mohammad Khatami, who won a second 4-year term in June 2001, with 77 percent of the popular vote in a multiparty election". [4ng](pg1)

The USSD Background Note of 2003 states that suffrage is universal at 15. [4j](pg1)

"The legislative branch featured a popularly elected 290-seat Islamic Consultative Assembly, Majlis, which develops and passes legislation. Reformist and moderate candidates won a landslide victory for 4-year terms in the 2000 Majlis election, gaining a clear majority of that body". [4ng](pg1)

According to Europa 2004 provision is made for the representation of Zoroastrians, Jews and Christians. [1a](pg429) The USSD 2004 goes on to state,

"However, the 12-member Guardian Council, which reviews all legislation passed by the Majlis for adherence to Islamic

and constitutional principles, blocked much of the reform legislation. The 34-member Expediency Council is empowered to resolve legislative impasses between the Guardian Council and the Majlis. The Constitution provides that "the judiciary is an independent power"; however, the judicial branch is widely perceived as heavily biased against pro-Khatami reformist forces". [4ng](pg1)

In March 2003 a BBC News Report stated that President Khatami walked out of a meeting of top Iranian policy makers, the Expediency Council, in protest at their decision to more than double the funding for the Guardian's Council. [21aj] The move by the council, in bypassing the Majlis, was seen by the hardliners as an attack on President Khatami's reform agenda. [21ak] In July 2004 the ultra conservative head of the Guardians Council was given another six years in charge. [42c]

5.6 On 24 September 2002 it was reported in a BBC News Report that in September 2002 Iran's frustrated reformist President Mohammed Khatami presented a new bill to parliament aimed at enhancing his powers. It was the second of two proposals which reformists hoped would clear the way for the enactment of changes which have been largely blocked by the entrenched hardline minority holding positions of power. [21ae] By 10 November 2002 the Iranian Parliament had ratified the outlines of the electoral reform bill which would put an end to the arbitrary vetting of political candidates by the Guardian Council [21ai] and also approved the draft of a bill which would give the President the right to suspend rulings by the conservative judiciary which he considers to be violations of the constitution. [21am] By the end of 2003 , not unexpectedly, this legislation remained unenacted, delayed as a result of Guardian Council deliberations. [21aj] [21ax] In March 2004 following on from the defeat of the reformers in the February 2004 parliamentary elections President Khatami officially withdrew both bills. [62a]

5.7 On 03 March 2003 it was reported in a BBC News Report that on 28 February 2003 Iran held only its second ever municipal council elections. They resulted in the worst electoral defeat in six years for Khatami and his reformist allies. These results were considered to be caused by voter apathy and low turn out at the polls caused by disenchantment with the slow progress of political reform. [21an]

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Political parties

5.8 According to Europa 2004 the Islamic Republican Party (IRP) was founded in 1978 to bring about the Islamic Revolution under Ayatollah Khomeini. After the Revolution the IRP became the ruling party in what was effectively a one-party state. In June 1987 Ayatollah Khomeini

officially disbanded the IRP at the request of party leaders, who said that it had achieved its purpose and might only 'provide an excuse for discord and factionalism' if it were not dissolved. [1a](pg371) A list of political organisations is at [Annex B](#).

5.9 According to the USSD 1998, during 1998 several new political parties, which applied for registration, were established. However, several other applications were rejected. [4f](pg9) According to a report issued by the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs in December 1998 in May 1998 a licence was granted to the "Servants of Construction", a party including leading members Kharbaschi, former mayor of Tehran, Culture Minister Mojaherani, Interior Minister Abdullah Nouri and Rafsanjani's daughter Faezeh Hashemi. [19a](pg16) On 7 July 1998 it was reported by the BBC Monitoring Service that the Solidarity Party of Islamic Iran was officially recognised as a new political party. It was set up by a group of Majlis' deputies and executive officials. The party stated that it had been formed "to create a healthy political climate", reinforcing society's needs for new political parties and groupings. The party was registered and its manifesto and constitution approved by the Interior Ministry. [6a]

5.10 According to a report from Reuters in July 1998, the Majlis committee on Article 10 of the law on political parties agreed that four further political groupings should be allowed to form associations, the "Society of Kermanshahi Students and Alumni", the "Yazd Almohsenin Society", the "Islamic Centre of Teachers of the Town of Borujen" and the "Association of Industrial and Economic Specialists and Managers. It was stated by the committee Secretary that 'These organizations can receive permits of activity after solving their problems.' One other group, the Society of Legal Experts Defending Human Rights, was given an activity permit. This was with the agreement of the Majlis and the Ministry of the Interior, [5a] setting the pattern for political parties seeking to establish themselves. According to the report issued by the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs in December 1998, in October 1998 a few Members of Parliament set up an "Islamic Worker's Party" and in December 1998 two brothers of President Khatami founded the "Islamic Partnership Front", [19a](pg16) and Keesings Record of World Events for December 1998 reported that Vice-President Masumeh Ebtekhari and four ministers founded the "Islamic Iran Participation Front" the same month. [17c]

5.11 According to a report on the Situation of Human Rights in the Islamic Republic of Iran, 28/12/98 issued by the United Nations: Economic and Social Council Commission on Human Rights, of the unregistered parties within Iran, some, such as the "Iran Nation Party" had been tolerated. [10m](pg11) However, in November 1998 the leader of that party, Dariush Forouhar, and his wife Parvaneh Forouhar, were murdered by unknown assailants. Three senior members of INP were arrested at the outbreak of the street riots in July 1999, accused of

provoking riots and using anti-Islamic slogans. [5s] Nine activists have reportedly been killed in the last decade. [10m](pg11)

5.12 The USSD Reports for 1998 and 1999 reported that prominent political dissidents who had disappeared in 1998 were Pirouz Davani in August and Javad Sharif in November. A spate of disappearances in late 1998 also included prominent writers and intellectuals, with Mohammad Mokhtari and Mohammad Jafar Pouyandeh later found dead. Several senior figures of the leadership blamed the disappearances and murders on “foreign hands,” but it was revealed that active-duty agents of the Ministry of Intelligence had carried out the killings. Minister of Intelligence Qorban Ali Dori-Najafabadi and several of his senior deputies resigned their posts following these revelations. In June 1999 the Military Prosecutor’s Office released an initial report on the investigation, identifying a cell from within the Ministry of Intelligence led by four “main agents” as responsible for the murders. The leader among the agents reportedly was a former Deputy Minister of Intelligence, Saeed Emami, who, the Government stated, had committed suicide in prison by drinking a toxic hair removal solution several days prior to release of the report. The report also indicated that 23 persons had been arrested in association with the murders and that a further 33 were summoned for interrogation. [4g](pg4) In the early part of the year 2000, the Government announced that 18 men would stand trial in connection with the killings. The trial began in late December in a military court. The proceedings were closed. [4h] The identity of the defendants is still unknown, but former Minister of Intelligence Dori-Najafabadi had not been charged. [4h]

5.13 According to the USSD 2002,

"Human Rights Watch (HRW) reported that in January 2001, a court convicted fifteen out of the eighteen defendants for the killings. However, HRW also reported that the trial did not clarify who actually ordered the murders. Several Ministry of Intelligence officials were mentioned as possible suspects in the press, but they were not charged, and the trial did not produce any incriminating information regarding their involvement. In August 2001, the Supreme Court reversed the convictions of the fifteen officials and sent the case back to the Judicial Organization of the Armed Forces (JOAF) for further review. In May 2002, the JOAF withdrew two of the three death sentences after the families of the victims pardoned the murderers. However, the court sentenced them to ten years in prison and banned them from service in the Intelligence Ministry. The court reduced the prison sentences of several other defendants believed to be complicit in the case while leaving the rest intact. None of the original fifteen were pardoned or set free by year's end

(2002). It is probable that all of the defendants will appeal the May 2002 verdicts". [4m](pg2)

The USSD Human Rights Report for 2003 issued February 2004 states that controversy is still being caused by what is seen as the government's continuing efforts at a cover up of high level involvement. [4n](pg2) Reform-oriented journalists and prominent cultural figures declared publicly their demands for a full accounting in the case and speculated that responsibility for ordering the murders lay at the highest level of the Government. Several citizens, including prominent investigative journalist Akbar Ganji, have been arrested in connection with statements they have made about the case. [4h] In 2002, the lawyer representing some of the victims, Naser Zarafshan, was also sentenced to five years in prison and 70 lashes. He was charged with leaking confidential information pertaining to the trial. [4n](pg5) According to a Payvand news report of July 2004 he was released on furlough. [53e]

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Judiciary

5.14 According to USSD Reports on Human Rights the court system is not independent and is subject to government and religious influence. [4k](pg6) The judicial system has been designed to conform, where possible, to an Islamic canon based on the Koran, Sunna, and other Islamic sources. Article 157 provides that the head of the judiciary shall be a cleric chosen by the Supreme Leader. Ayatollah Mohammad Yazdi resigned as the head of the judiciary in August 1999, and was replaced by Ayatollah Mahmoud Hashemi Shahrudi. The head of the Supreme Court and Prosecutor General also must be clerics. [4j](pg3) [4k](pg6) There are several different court systems. The two most active are the traditional courts, which adjudicate civil and criminal offences, and the Islamic Revolutionary Courts, established in 1979 to try political offences, narcotics crimes "crimes against God", economic crimes such as hoarding and overpricing and official corruption. A special clerical court examines alleged transgressions within the clerical establishment and a military court investigates crimes committed in connection with military or security duties by members of the army, police and Revolutionary guards. [4k](pg6) Defendants have the right to a public trial, may choose their own lawyer, and have the right of appeal [4g](pg7). Trials are adjudicated by panels of judges, advised by the Government to base their decisions on Islamic law. [4f](pg5) The Revolutionary Courts may consider cases that are normally in the jurisdiction of the civil and criminal courts, and may also overturn their decisions. [4a](pg5)

5.15 According to the USSD 2003,

"Trials in the Revolutionary Courts, in which crimes against national security and other principal offenses are heard, were notorious for their disregard of international standards of fairness. Revolutionary Court judges acted as both prosecutor and judge in the same case, and judges were chosen in part based on their ideological commitment to the system. Pretrial detention often was prolonged and defendants lacked access to attorneys. Indictments often lacked clarity and included undefined offenses such as "anti-revolutionary behavior," "moral corruption," and "siding with global arrogance." Defendants did not have the right to confront their accusers. Secret or summary trials of 5 minutes duration occurred. Others were show trials that were intended merely to highlight a coerced public confession". [4n](pg5)

5.16 According to the USSD 2003,

"The legitimacy of the Special Clerical Court (SCC) system continued to be a subject of debate. The clerical courts, which investigate offenses and crimes committed by clerics, and which are overseen directly by the Supreme Leader, were not provided for in the Constitution, and operated outside the domain of the judiciary. In particular, critics alleged that the clerical courts were used to prosecute clerics for expressing controversial ideas and for participating in activities outside the sphere of religion, such as journalism. The recommendations of the U.N. Working Group on Arbitrary Detention included a call to abolish both the Special Clerical Courts and the Revolutionary Courts, which were described as "responsible for many of the cases of arbitrary detention for crimes of opinion." [4n](pg7)

5.17 According to the USSD 1999,

"In April 1999 a branch of the SCC convicted Hojjatoleslam Mohsen Kadivar, a Shi'a cleric and popular seminary lecturer, to 18 months in prison for "dissemination of lies and confusing public opinion" in a series of broadcast interviews and newspaper articles. Kadivar advocated political reform and greater intellectual freedom and criticised the misuse of religion to maintain power. In an interview published in a newspaper, Kadivar criticised certain government officials for turning criticism against them into alleged crimes against the State. He also observed that such leaders "mistake themselves with Islam, with national interests, or with the interests of the system, and in this way believe that they should be immune from criticism." He also allegedly criticised former Supreme

Leader Ayatollah Khomeini and demonstrated support for dissident cleric Ayatollah Montazeri. Kadivar's trial was not open to the public". [4g](Pg8)

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5.18 According to Europa 2004, in August 1982, the Supreme Court, which has 16 branches, revoked all laws dating from the previous regime which did not conform to Islam. [1a](pg433) It has limited authority to review cases. [4f](pg5) In October 1982 all courts set up prior to the Islamic Revolution were abolished. In June 1987 Ayatollah Khomeini ordered the creation of clerical courts to try members of the clergy opposed to government policy. A new system of retribution (qisas) was established, placing the emphasis on speedy justice. Islamic codes of correction were introduced in 1983, including the dismembering of a hand for theft, flogging for fornication and violations of the strict code of dress for women, and stoning for adultery. [1a](pg433)

5.19 According to an AI report of 1996, since May 1994, judges had been responsible for prosecution in public and revolutionary courts. [9a] However as reported in Payvand News in April 2003 the judiciary adopted a key reform, appointing a high profile judge Saeed Mortazavi as the prosecutor general of public and revolutionary courts in Tehran in order to fend off criticism that the judge also acted as prosecutor in trials. [53c] The International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) is reported as stating that "The re-establishment of the function of Prosecutor in February 2003 in the judicial system was a positive step. However, the choice of Mr Mortazavi as the Attorney-General of Tehran clearly undermines this progress. Mr Mortazavi has been involved in the repression of intellectuals, journalists and peaceful demonstrators in June 2003. In addition, his responsibility in Mrs Khazemi's death has been clearly established by the Article 90 Commission. [10z](pg2) [Para 6.27] Amnesty International has reported regularly that trial hearings are often heard in camera and that political detainees have been denied access to legal counsel during judicial proceedings, despite official assurances to the contrary. [9a] [4b](pg5) [9b] Political trials which take place within prisons are sometimes conducted secretly. Where trials and summary proceedings of political prisoners deny the detainee access to legal counsel, they breach Iran's Constitution and also Article 14D of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), to which Iran is a signatory. [9c](pg41) [9a] [4b](pg5) Amnesty International cites detainees in Iran having described the use of ill treatment and torture to obtain forced confessions. [9c](pg32)

5.20 According to AI during 1996, at least 110 people, including political prisoners, were executed. [9a][4b](pg2) and 200 public executions were reported by the state media in 1997 according to the UN Economic and Social Council Commission. [10a](pg1)

5.21 According to AI during 2000 at least 75 executions and 16 death sentences were imposed, often in connection with murder charges. [9m](pg4) Death sentences continued to be carried out throughout 2002: for example it was reported in a news report from Reuters on 21 May 2002 that 5 drug smugglers were hanged in a prison at Mashad on 20 May 2002 and the previous week 4 people were hanged inside Tehran's Qasr prison, [5av] and according to a BBC report of 29 September 2002 on 29 September 2002 5 members of a band "the black vultures" convicted of rape were hung, in public. [21aa] According to Amnesty International there were at least 113 executions during 2002. [9t]

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5.22 According to the USSD 2002,

"In November 2002 reformist professor Hashem Aghajari was sentenced to death at a closed trial for the crime of blaspheming against Islam in a speech he gave in Hamedan in June. In addition to the death sentence, he was sentenced to 74 lashes, exile to a remote desert location, eight years in jail, and a ban on teaching for ten years. His attorney appealed the verdict. The death sentence was widely denounced across the political spectrum. President Khatami and hundreds of Majlis members questioned the verdict, noting that the death sentence should not be applied. As a result of protests caused by the case, Supreme Leader Khamenei instructed the Hamedan court to re-examine the case". [4m](pg7)

A BBC News report of 14 July 2003 reported that in June of 2003 the appeal court sentenced Aghajari to four years in jail. Mr Ahhajari filed an appeal against the new sentence stating that the verdict produced by the retrial was illegal because it was held behind closed doors. [21aak] Payvand News reported on 01 August 2004 that at his second retrial in early July 2004 he was given a five year term. He was released on bail on 31 July 2004 pending a further appeal of this five year sentence. [53d]

See also 6.24 and student demonstrations.

5.23 The USSD 1997 states that, "Although the Constitution prohibits arbitrary arrest and detention, it remains a problem. There is reportedly no legal time limit on incommunicado detention, nor any judicial means to determine the legality of detention. Suspects may be held for questioning in jails or in local Revolutionary Guards offices". [4b](pg4)

5.24 According to the UNHCR Country of Origin Information Seminar, Berlin Final Report the Law indicates a range of applicable punishments

for types of offences. For example, two to ten years imprisonment for a person found to have formed a political organisation deemed to be destroying the security of the country, although the definition of what destroys the national security is not made clear. Similarly, punishments of imprisonment, lashes or fines can be imposed for insults against Iranian leaders or government representatives, but effectively serve to limit freedom of speech as the Law does not define the term “insult”. [3c](pg78)

5.25 According to the UN Economic and Social Council Commission in a report dated 11 February 1997 four types of proof exist within the Iranian legal system. The application of confession, testimony, and oath and “the knowledge of the judge” remain unclear to those outside the Iranian judiciary. There is a marked concern that confessions are often gained by coercion and that the “testimony of righteous men” excludes women and members of religious minorities. [10g](pg8)

5.26 According to the UN, in 1998, the Iranian authorities have said that many of the executions conducted in Iran relate to drug trafficking offences, but no corroborative statistics or information on the protection of human rights policies in dealing with such offenders is available. Numbers of stonings and deaths as a consequence are unclear, though most take place in the larger cities such as Tehran, Hamedan, Isfahan and Kermanshah. All are endorsed by the Supreme Court [10b](pg5), including stoning of women found guilty of sexual relations outside marriage. [10h](pg12)

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5.27 The UN reported in 1998 that amputation has been used as a punishment, although the practice has been widely regarded as contravening Article 7 of the ICCPR. In September 1997 three Iranians had hands or fingers amputated for theft and forgery offences. [10b](pg5) During 2002, Amnesty International recorded nine amputations, although the true figure may be significantly higher. Of the recorded amputations, one was a cross amputation. Punishment by amputation is imposed often in connection with theft. [9u] Amputations were supposedly subject to a moratorium as of 2003. However, sentences of amputation have been issued and in several cases carried out. [69a]

5.28 According to the Human Rights Watch World Report 1998 arbitrary arrest and detention had been and remained a feature within Iranian society. In 1997 large numbers of people arrested for suspected espionage or other political activity remained in detention without charge or trial, said to have been denied access to a lawyer of their choice or any other legal counsel. [8b](pg2) According to UNHCR senior Shi'a religious leaders and their followers had also been arrested and detained over recent years, some of whom are still detained or under house arrest. However, in March 1997 a decree to prohibit pre-trial

detention of suspects, particularly the young, elderly, female or unwell, was issued by the Chief Justice Ayatollah Mohammed Yazdi. [3b]
According the Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade during 2003 Arbitrary arrests and detentions continued. Hundreds remain in detention, often without charge or trial and without access to an attorney or contact with their families. Last June up to 4000 people were arrested, and most later released, after pro-reform protests erupted in several cities. [69a]

5.29 An UN Report of 28 December 1998 reported that the President of the Central Bar Association in Iran has described the shortage of lawyers as a potential stumbling block if lawyers are to play their role in fulfilling President Khatami's vision of a civil society. However, in 1998 the Association admitted 800 new candidates to its Bar admission course; it has established a Legal Assistance Department to make legal advice and the services of a lawyer more accessible, including to groups such as Baha'is; and a disciplinary court for lawyers within the Bar Association has been active since 1997 and deals with complaints made against lawyers perceived as not having diligently represented their client's interests. The Bar Association published an open letter in August 1998 which set out the shortcomings of the present court system and lawyers and legal officials are beginning to speak out individually on changes needed. The changes are likely to impact on the future effectiveness of the role of lawyers as advocates for human rights. [10m](pg9)

5.30 According to the USSD 2001,

"In December 2000, Judiciary Chief Mahmoud Hashemi Shahroudi announced an initiative to reform the Iranian judicial system. He said that the country is "still a long way off from having a reformed and developed judicial organization." He also announced that 40 judges, clerks, and other officials had been arrested on corruption charges. Some sources outside the country claim that Shahroudi used this initiative to purge the judiciary of some of its more moderate elements in the guise of fighting corruption". [4k](pg8)

5.31 The United Nations Special Representative stated in his report of 16 January 2002 that the long awaited bill on the reform of the Judiciary had finally reached the Majlis. At the time of preparation of this report, he had not seen a detailed description of the bill. However, according to press reports, it stipulated that exceptional tribunals like the revolutionary courts would be able to deal only with cases explicitly referred to them by law. Officials and military personnel would be tried only by Tehran's Criminal Courts. If this worked out to be the case in practice, it would be a major improvement. [10p](pg7) On 3 September

2003 Parliament passed legislation to form a special commission to monitor performance of the judiciary. [21aaf]

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Court documentation

5.32 Both a Danish fact finding mission report of September 2000 and a Belgian mission report of 2002 noted that in the case of court summonses an attempt was always made to deliver a summons to appear before a court to the addressee in person. If the person concerned was not there, however, the summons might be delivered to a family member. If there was nobody present who could accept the summons, it was taken back to the court, where the judge decided whether an attempt should be made to arrest the person concerned. Such a decision depended on the nature of the case. However, a person might not be arrested without a written order from a judge. [41a](pg22) [43](pg17)

5.33 The Danish report went on to record that Public Courts have the power to issue arrest warrants in all types of cases unless the case in question falls under the jurisdiction of the Revolutionary Court. The report noted that the process was as follows: arrest warrant is sent by the Public Court to the relevant police station, which is responsible for arresting the person concerned. The arrest warrant is shown to the person under arrest but not served. It is subsequently returned to the issuing court. Forms used for issuing arrest warrants are printed at a special government printing house. The form is completed by hand and contains the following information about the person under arrest:

- First name and surname
- Address
- Occupation
- Father's name
- ID-card number

Once it has been completed, the form is stamped and signed by the court. Only one arrestee can be covered by the form. The reason for the issuing of the arrest warrant is not normally stated. [41a](pg23)

5.34 On the question of authenticity of documentation on 04 December 2000 it was reported by the Embassy in Tehran that,

"Outside every court in Iran any number of freelance typists can be found who produce all sorts of legal and bureaucratic documents at very low cost. Security features are most unlikely on any Iranian official

documents and with the exception of Passports, BC's and military documents there is little uniformity." [26g]

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Legal Rights and Detention

5.35 Amnesty International states in it's report "Iran:A legal system that fails to protect freedom of expression and association, 2001" that,

"The Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Iran contains many important safeguards of rights and freedoms that are guaranteed in the international instruments to which Iran is a state party including those relating to freedom of expression and fair trial. These seek to ensure that all individuals enjoy the same rights under law, and the human dignity that follows from this". [9j](pg1)

It goes on to say that, "Freedom of expression and association is curtailed by legal restrictions and by flaws in the administration of justice". These restrictions which go beyond both the Iranian Constitution and the international human rights treaties to which Iran is a state party have resulted in unfair trials and the imprisonment of prisoners of conscience. [9j](pg2)

5.36 Restrictive, contradictory and vaguely worded provisions contained in the Penal Code, the Theologians' Law - a body of law that deals with offences committed by clerics - and the Public and Revolutionary Courts' Procedural Law, undermine the right to freedom of expression. For example, the Penal Code prohibits a range of activities, such as those connected with journalism or public discourse, which do not amount to recognisably criminal offences. [9j](pg2)

5.37 According to the USSD 2001 no reliable information is available regarding the number of disappearances. In the period immediately following arrest, many detainees are held incommunicado and denied access to lawyers and family members. [4k](pg4)

5.38 On 19 July 2002 it was reported in a written statement by France Liberté, a non Governmental Organisation in special consultative status to the UN Commission on Human Rights, that Iranian cities have been the scene of an unprecedented spate of savage punishments including amputation of fingers and legs as well as floggings that have been carried out in public. [10s]

5.39 According to Reuters, in March 2002 the reformist parliament approved the outline of a bill banning the use of torture to gain information from detainees. Before becoming law, the Bill would go through a second reading and be approved by the Guardian Council. [5aa] On the 9 June 2002 the Guardian Council rejected and returned the Bill for more "clarification". [8g] The Bill was stuck in the legislative process due to the inability of all parties to agree on a suitable definition of torture. [21av] According to a HRW press release on 7 June 2004, "The Iranian government has intensified its campaign of torture, arbitrary arrests, and detentions against political critics, Human Rights Watch said in a report released today. Iran's outgoing reformist parliament in May passed legislation to prohibit torture, but without effective implementation, the law remains an empty gesture". [8j](pg1)

5.40 According to a FIDH report of July 2004,

" In April 2004, the Head of the Judiciary, Ayatollah Mahmoud Hashemi Shahroudi, issued instructions for the judiciary, the police and the security forces asking them to respect the law :“During arrests or questioning, blindfolding, restraining, pestering and insulting of detainees must be avoided. ... Agents carrying out interrogation should not hide their faces, nor stand behind the accused backs, nor take them to secret locations ... All forms of torture aiming to obtain confessions is banned, and confessions obtained in this way have no legal or religious value ...”. The directive added that arrests must be the exception, carried out within a legal timeframe and “where possible, families must be informed”. In May 2004, the Council of Guardians approved a bill banning torture. The legislation strengthens rights enshrined in Iranian law and the Constitution, by giving the force of law to the abovementioned directives. It should be noted, however, that the bill does not cover corporal punishments, although they are covered by the UN Convention against torture. In addition, there is no indication on how this new legislation will be respected in practice". [56c](pg11)

5.41 On 16 March 2003 some 107 MPs called for Iran's accession to the Convention against Torture. [21av] On 12 August 2003 the Guardian Council rejected the motion on joining the convention on banning torture arguing that it contradicted the constitution and would increase public expenditure. [21aam] After an amended version was resubmitted the Guardian Council again referred it back to Parliament on 9 September 2003 requesting that yet more changes be made. [21aan] In December 2003 it was reported by the Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs that Iran had agreed to sign up to the Convention Against Torture. [69a]

According to a report in the Guardian newspaper on 29 April 2004, on 28 April 2004 the head of the Iranian judiciary issued an order banning the use of torture and other abuses: an unprecedented acknowledgement of the regime's record of repression. [16e]

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Death Penalty

5.42 According to the UNHCR/ACCORD:7th European Country of Origin Information Seminar Berlin, 11 - 12 June 2001 - Final Report

"By law the death penalty can be carried out for offences such as espionage, murder, armed robbery, abduction, rape, adultery or incest, sexual intercourse between a non-Muslim man and a Muslim woman, homosexual intercourse, drug smuggling, the use of arms to spread fear or alarm among the people or deprive them of their freedom or security, or the spreading of corruption on earth (mofsed)". [3c](pg83)

According to AI in 2001 there was an instance in which a thirteen year old boy Azizullah Shenwari was sentenced to death for drug trafficking although this was later commuted to life imprisonment and is currently under appeal. [9k] On 28 September 2003 it was announced that the Judiciary had drafted a bill, to be presented to Majlis, raising the minimum age for capital punishment from 15 to 18 and excluding children under 12 from all punishment and excluding under 18s from being able to receive jail terms or lashes. [18b] However, according to an AI report on 23 August 2004,

"The execution of a girl who was believed to be 16 years old, Ateqeh Rajabi, in Neka in the northern Iranian province of Mazandaran, on 15 August, for "acts incompatible with chastity" (amal-e manafe-ye 'ofat). Ateqeh Rajabi was reportedly publicly hanged on a street in the city centre of Neka. Amnesty International was alarmed that this execution was carried out despite reports that Ateqeh Rajabi was not believed to be mentally competent, and that she reportedly did not have access to a lawyer at any stage". [9ah]

The Bill to raise the minimum age for execution to 18 was reportedly under consideration by parliament in December 2003. However, the Bill is not believed to have been ratified by the Guardian Council, Iran's highest legislative body. [9ah]

5.43 The number of executions recorded by Amnesty International in Iran until June 2001 was 44, [3c] and is recorded as having reached 139 by year's end, although the true figure may be much higher. [9n] According to a written statement submitted by France Liberté, a NGO, to the UN Commission on Human Rights the number of announced executions since the beginning of 2002 - in six months - amounted to 200, indicating a 50 percent rise compared with the same period in 2001. [10s] By February 2003 Amnesty International had recorded a total of at least 111 executions in Iran [9r] and by 28 May 2003, when the Annual Report for 2003 was published, they reported that at least 113 people, including six women, had been executed, many in public. At least two people were reportedly executed by stoning and at least one execution was broadcast on television. [9z] Late last year (2002) the head of the Supreme Administrative court announced a moratorium on the practice of stoning. [21ay] As in previous years, there was a surge in public executions and floggings between July and September. At least 84 people were flogged. The true numbers of executions and floggings may have been considerably higher. Political organizations, for example, reported that 450 people were executed in 2002. [9z](pg3) Amnesty International, in their death sentences and executions statistics for 2003 give a figure of at least 108 executions. [9ad]

5.44 According to the USSD 2001 human rights monitors alleged that many of those executed for criminal offences, primarily narcotics charges, may be political dissidents. [4k](pg3) The Iranian authorities do not permit visits to imprisoned dissidents by human rights monitors. [4f](pg4)

5.45 It was reported by BBC Monitoring on 22 June 2004 that,

"Minister of Justice Esma'il Shushtari said on Tuesday [22 June] that the ministry will forward a bill on political crimes to Majlis once again five years after the first bill to that effect. He told reporters that the justice ministry will study the bill already rejected by the Guardian Council once again and offer it to the parliament to become a law. Political activists and those accused of press charges are complaining that court hearing for them should be held in presence of a jury as stipulated by the constitution. But, the Judiciary says that it does not recognize political crime, because there is not a law to this effect and the constitutional provision should turn into an executive law by the parliament. The sixth parliament formulated a law to require the Judiciary to observe the need for presence of a jury in the court hearings for those accused of political crime, but, the Guardian Council rejected it saying that it goes contrary to interpretation of the constitution". [21aaan]

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Internal Security

5.46 The Constitution says that reputation; life, property and dwellings are protected from trespass except as “provided by law”. This is used to enable security forces to enter homes and offices, monitor telephone conversations and open mail without court authorisation. [4f](pg6)

5.47 According to the USSD 2001 there is shared responsibility for internal security. Agencies involved include the Ministry of Intelligence and Security, the Ministry of Interior and the Revolutionary Guards, a military force that was established after the revolution. Paramilitary volunteer forces known as Basijis, and gangs of thugs known as the Ansar-e Hezbollah Helpers of the Party of God, act as vigilantes, and intimidate and threaten physically demonstrators, journalists, and individuals suspected of counter-revolutionary activities. The Ansar-e Hezbollah often are aligned with particular members of the leadership. Both the regular and the paramilitary security forces have committed numerous serious human rights abuses. [4k](pg1)

5.48 According to AI 1996, the Sepah-e Pasdaran-e Enghelab-e Eslami Islamic Revolutionary Guards Corps IRGC, was created by the revolutionary regime suspicious of the regular military. Its ground forces are said to number 100,000. It operates as the principal arm of domestic security, although it has to apply for a search warrant before it can raid a private home. In August 1994 some Pasdaran units refused to intervene in riots in the city of Ghazvin. A Pasdaran commander was among four senior army officers who are said to have sent a letter to the country’s political leadership, warning the clerical rulers against “using the armed forces to crush civilian unrest and internal conflicts.” Nevertheless, the Pasdaran is reported to be continuing to disperse unauthorised gatherings by using violence. [9a]

5.49 In April 1998 according to the Human Rights Watch World Report 1999 the head of the Revolutionary Guards Corps, General Yahya Rahim Safavi warned reformers in April, “we are seeking to root out counter revolutionaries wherever they are. We have to cut the throats of some and cut off the tongues of others.” A few days later he threatened, “we will go after them when the time is ripe...fruit has to be picked when it is ripe. The fruit is unripe now.” [8d] (pg1)

5.50 The Mobilization of the Dispossessed, or *Sepah-e Basiji*, is a paramilitary force who are some 300,000 strong. The Basiji were created to help the military campaign against Iraq in the years 1980 - 1988. Members are reportedly recruited from farms, factories, schools and government offices, i.e. from all parts of the population. Their tasks include monitoring the daily lives of the citizens, combatting social corruption including ensuring that the clothing and behaviour of women conforms to strict Islamic rules. Structurally, the Basiji are part of the

Army, and comprise those conscripts with a more zealous religious agenda. It is not clear, however, if they are separated into special units or battalions solely on this basis. Concerning connections with the Pasdaran, it is quite plausible that a Pasdaran approached a Basij and gave him orders. Still, this would rather have to be seen along the lines of this person being a senior military officer, someone who is notionally superior to a conscript or low-ranking officer. [3c](pg65)

5.51 According to the Country of Origin Information Seminar. Final Report. Berlin June 2001 the Ashura Brigades were reportedly created in 1993 after anti-government riots erupted in various Iranian cities. In 1998 they consisted of 17,000 Islamic militia men and women, and were composed of elements of the Revolutionary Guards and the Baseej volunteer militia. [3b]

5.52 According to the Documentation, Information and Research Branch, Immigration and Refugee Board, Canada (DIRB) in a report dated 1997 and an UNHCR report dated 1998 the Hezbollahi "partisans of God" consist of religious zealots who consider themselves as preservers of the Revolution. They have been active in harassing government critics and intellectuals, have firebombed bookstores and disrupted meetings. They are said to gather at the invitation of the state-affiliated media and generally act without meaningful police restraint or fear of persecution. [2c](pg12)[3a](pg12)

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Prisons and Prison Conditions

5.53 According to the USSD 2003, "Prison conditions in the country were poor. Some prisoners are held in solitary confinement or denied adequate food or medical care in order to force confessions". [4n](pg3) USSD 2001 reported that female prisoners reportedly have been raped or otherwise tortured while in detention. [4k](pg5) and an UN Report of 2002 stated that it was alleged that there were suites available in the prison for that specific purpose. [10r](pg16) Prison guards reportedly intimidate family members of detainees and torture detainees in the presence of family members. [4k](pg5)

5.54 According to a January 2002 report by the UN Commission on Human Rights the press reported a statement by the head of the National Prisons Organisation stating that there were about 160,000 inmates of whom about two thirds were in prison for drug-related offences, that most of the inmates were aged between 22 and 38, and that 5,000 were women. Moreover, the prison population had increased over 40 per cent in the previous year, and the prisons were now housing more than 100,000 inmates beyond their capacity. Some commentators have questioned whether the figure of 160,000 includes

the inmates of the detention centres run by many of the security agencies which were supposed to have been integrated with the National Prisons Organisation; this has not yet been effected. [10p](pg8)

5.55 According to the USSD 2001 the dominant feature of Iranian prisons is their overcrowding and this seems to have had the inevitable results of prison disturbances on the one hand and breakouts on the other. It also noted that HIV/AIDS and other diseases were spreading rapidly throughout the prison population. [4k](pg5) A Centre for Harm Reduction Report (CHR) of January 2002 said that in 2000, drug users constituted more than half of the prison population and the number of inmates incarcerated for drug related crimes was 80,415. [34] By September 2002 it was being reported that up to two thirds of Iranian prisoners were in jail on drug related offences. [5a] Eighty per cent of prison authorities acknowledged that drug use took place inside prisons although not at a great rate. [34]

5.56 According to an UN Report of 2002 one of the main plans to deal with these problems seems to be the establishment of a parallel system of camps for drug related offences, to be located in remote parts of the country. The Director of the Prisons Organisation reports that eight such camps are now in existence. [10p](pg8) Human Rights Watch (2002) and Freedom House (2003) also reported on the proliferation of unofficial, illegal detention centres, such as the so-called Prison 59 in Tehran, administered by the Intelligence Ministry and the Revolutionary Guards, [47a] which also gave cause for concern. [8f](pg3)

5.57 The first UN human rights monitors to visit the country for seven years said on 26 February 2003 that Iranians suffer large-scale arbitrary detentions and some prisons operate outside the control of the judicial system. Although the head of the five-member team examining arbitrary detentions said the authorities had cooperated fully with its requests, he raised concerns about unaccountable prisons, detainees being held without access to legal defence, violations of freedom of expression and other abuses. [16d]

5.58 Some moves have been announced in response to concerns over prison conditions. In December 2003 President Khatami announced a government probe into prison conditions [63a] following on from announcements relating to the use of solitary confinement and the proposed closure of some of the older prisons. [61b] In February 2004 a Swiss Commission on Human Rights visited and held talks with officials in charge of administration of the prisons, the judiciary and Foreign Ministry they also visited and inspected some prisons and rehabilitation Centres. [52d]

5.59 According to the HRW in the June 2004 report "Like the Dead in their Coffins",

"The number of illegal detention centers not under the direct control of the National Prisons Office is unknown. They are not officially registered as prisons, do not record the names of their prisoners, and information about their budgets, administration, and management is not known even by relevant government authorities. There are reportedly many in and around Tehran, and they appear to be growing in number". [8j](pg14)

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Military Service

5.60 According to USSD 2002,

"Article 144 of the Constitution states that "the Army of the Islamic Republic of Iran must be an Islamic army," which is "committed to an Islamic ideology," and must "recruit into its service individuals who have faith in the objectives of the Islamic Revolution and are devoted to the cause of achieving its goals." However, members of religious minority communities sometimes served in the military". [4m](pg13)

In August 2002 the Regular Armed Forces numbered about 520,000, [1b](pg2111) including conscripts: army 325,000, Revolutionary Guard Corps Pasdaran Inquilab some 125,000, navy 18,000, and airforce around 52,000. There are some 350,000 reserves. [1b](pg2111) It is believed to have a few hundred thousand men in active service. [3c] The military is entrusted by the Constitution with the task of protecting the independence, territorial integrity and system of government of the Islamic Republic. [3a](pg10) Paramilitary forces comprise an estimated 300,000 volunteers of the Basij and some 40,000 under the command of the Ministry of the Interior. [1b](pg2111) Iranian men become eligible for conscription for a 21 month period of compulsory military service [1b](pg2111) on their 18th birthday although the voluntary recruitment age is sixteen. [30] Permanent military exemptions may be government-granted, or medically certified. There are a number of conditions for exemption, relating to age, disability, education and date of departure from Iran. The disabled, sole family guardians and support, and only sons, are exempted without cost. Men who left Iran after 1990 may purchase exemption for \$1,000 - 3,000. Those with PhDs or BAs who left Iran before March 1990 may pay up to \$16,600. [25] Men who are continuing graduate studies abroad who pay their own expenses will be granted a full exemption. Those who qualify are able to return to Iran periodically throughout their studies. Men born after 1958 who have degrees in fields deemed essential by the state, such as medicine, pharmacy, and dentistry, are not eligible for exemption. [2c](pg23) In a new

regulation passed by the Majlis in February 2004 young men who have successfully undergone military training in the Basij or other military centres will also be able to purchase exemption. [22b]

5.61 According to the DIRB the penalty for draft avoidance in peacetime is an extra 6 months -2 years service, and in wartime up to 10 years extra service or punishment at the discretion of the convicting judge. [2c](pg24) During 2001 it was reported in the Country of Origin Information Seminar. Final Report. Berlin June 2001 that a bill was submitted to the Majles and supported by the Army, suggesting that every year it would be possible to exempt 100,000 potential draftees provided that a sum of 10 million Rials (USD 5,700) was paid. The bill was passed by the Majles and approved by the Council of Guardians but vetoed by the Leader. At present there are new regulations with respect to temporarily postponing military service for those who wish to further their education abroad. A sum of 30 million Rials (USD 17,100) needs to be deposited by the applicant to the Military Service Department. If the applicant does not return the sum will be forfeited. In case of return the sum will be reimbursed but military service will still need to be completed. [3c] Time still to be served and prison sentences imposed for desertion may now be bought off. [19a](pg21)

5.62 War Resisters International 1998 reports that the right to conscientious objection is not legally recognised and there are no provisions for substitute service. [25] Iran appears as a co-signatory to a letter dated 24 April 2002 addressed to the UN Commission on Human Rights concerning the question of conscientious objection. In it, it states that Iran does not recognise the universal applicability of conscientious objection to military service. [10q]

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Medical Services

5.63 According to information from the UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office (F&CO) dated January 2002 there are two types of hospitals in Iran, private and governmental. To receive treatment in the governmental hospitals, one must belong to the Social Security Scheme whereby the employer pays the subscriptions for the employee, which would then entitle them to subsidised medical treatment and medication. In Tehran and other larger cities such as Shiraz and Isfahan there are many well-reputed hospitals. These are staffed by physicians and specialists, most of whom are very experienced and internationally trained. There is an extensive range of specialist care found in Tehran, both in the private and governmental sector. For complex medical conditions where treatment is not available locally, the patients can apply to the Supreme Medical Council for financial assistance towards payment of medical expenses overseas. The Supreme Medical Council

consists of a group of specialist doctors who assess and examine each case to determine whether such assistance in funding should be allocated. [26a]

Drugs

5.64 According to the World Health Organisation in 2002 most medications are available locally under various generic and company labels. [28b] The production of generic inhibitors for HIV/AIDS is also undertaken. [21aab] According to the F&CO those medicines not available, which are approved by the US Food and Drug Administration, can be ordered through the Red Crescent Society by presenting a doctor's prescription. The prices for medications bought in Iran are much cheaper than the UK prescription and dispensing charges. There has also been considerable development in the pharmaceutical industry in Iran during the last decade. The essential raw material for the majority of medicines is imported from overseas and then the medicine produced and packaged locally. This is again subsidised by the Government. There is also a black market for certain types of foreign medications and the cost of such medications is quite high in comparison to those readily available at pharmacies. [26a]

Drug Addiction

5.65 According to the Centre for Harm Reduction Report 2002 drug addiction is considered a crime but the authorities are ready to consider drug use as a medical problem. Drug users who are undergoing treatment are not meant to be persecuted, nor are the specialists offering treatment. The costs of diagnoses, treatment, medicines and rehabilitation are to be paid by the addicts according to the approved tariffs but the Government will finance the costs for those unable to pay. It is up to the judge to distinguish whether the person is an addict or a trafficker; a positive test to opium shows the person was an addict while possession was interpreted as being a trafficker. [34]

See also paragraph 6.219 for further information on the illegal drugs situation.

5.66 According to the CHR Report 2002 the State Welfare Organisation, affiliated to the Ministry of Health, is in charge of treatment and rehabilitation of drug users. Until recently there were 12 treatment and rehabilitation centres in the country with one centre for women. The centres were described as having the infrastructure of an overcrowded prison. These centres have now been closed and the new approach is the introduction of outpatient treatment centres. [34] In 2000, the number of out-patients centres in provincial capitals was 100 compared to 65 centres in 1999 and 40 in 1998. During 2000 it was anticipated that the treatment centres could offer services to over 100,000 volunteer addicts per annum. [5a] [34] In recent years a number of treatment facilities have

been established by the private sector and are openly advertised in the press. The qualifications of the people running these clinics, and the outcomes of their activities, still remain largely untested. [34]

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Psychiatric Treatment

5.67 According to a report in the Psychiatric Times in January 2002 in Iran, a village based primary care system serves over 60 regions of the country, with village centres linked to surrounding hospitals and medical schools. The national health program supports training in mental health care. The Government has also established four regional centres for the prevention of mental disorders. [27]

5.68 According to the WHO 2001,

"With a view to expanding mental health services in 2001 and beyond, Iran's national mental health programme was being revised, a new mental health act was in preparation, and efforts were being made to increase inpatient and outpatient mental health facilities and counselling services".
[28a]

5.69 On 05 October 1998 it was reported in the BBC News that a private members bill to make the administrative and technical affairs of the medical institutions in Iran consistent with the principles of holy Shari'ah was approved in 1998. The bill applied to all state and private medically related institutions set up with the permission of the Ministry of Health. [5g]

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Hiv/Aids

5.70 According to the CHR Report 2002 the first AIDS case was identified in 1986. The cumulative total to late 1997 was 1,297 cases of HIV infection and 192 cases of AIDS. The Iranian National Committee on AIDS had reported a cumulative total of 1,953 HIV/AIDS cases by April 2000. As of July 2001 there were 2,458 reported HIV infections and 357 AIDS cases. However, in 1999 it was estimated 25,000 people in Iran were HIV positive while in the same year the Ministry of Health estimated there were 60,000 people infected with HIV or AIDS. [34] In August 2002 it was announced that based on the latest available figures, over 3,912 people were HIV afflicted and that 3,680 had contracted AIDS, [5au] later adjusted upwards to 4,200 in November 2002. [21aaa] These figures had increased by November 2003 to 5,870 people with AIDS of which 53 had full blown AIDS and 694 people had died. [21aaak]

5.71 According to the CHR Report 2002 It appears there are scant HIV prevention programs in place among drug users or drug injectors in Iran and what is available is unlikely to be specific and/or explicit about the ways to avoid becoming HIV infected. It has been reported that there are no printed materials on HIV/AIDS for drug users and drug users are a hidden population and difficult to gain access to. Efforts to distribute needles and syringes to imprisoned drug users has met with strong objections [34] although efforts are now being made to try and contain the problem within the prison community by segregating addicts. [21az] In recent times, however, harm reduction pilot programs have been introduced in the three provinces most affected by injecting drug use Kermanshah, Shiraz and Tehran and the Ministry of Health has initiated these. [34]

5.72 Although a National Aids Policy (NAP) does exist, and HIV infections are highest among intravenous drug users IDUs, the coordination of activities between the NAP and the National Drug Control Headquarters is generally lacking. Brochures have been prepared for schools and families on the issues of HIV/AIDS but none have specifically been produced for drug users. The main focus of the policy appears to be to control the nation's blood supply and the prevention of HIV transmission through medical injections. Specific mention and/or activities aimed at drug users has been omitted. [34] On the 23 August the Government approved an anti AIDS/HIV Virus Directive to create a nationwide committee, which would include the head of the Iran Red Crescent Society, to combat the AIDS virus. The figures for 2002 issued by the Health Ministry gave the total number of those HIV positive as 23,000 - 25,000 and the number of deaths as a result of AIDS related illness as 674 with 50 still receiving treatment. [21aat] However the UNAIDS Global HIV/AIDS Report 2004 estimated the number of HIV cases at 31,000 and deaths at 800. [10e]

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People with Disabilities

5.73 According to USSD 2003,

"There is no available information regarding whether the Government has legislated or otherwise mandated accessibility for the disabled". [4n](pg13)

However, the Cable News Network reported in 1996 on the harsh conditions in an institution for retarded children who had been abandoned by their parents. Film clips showed children tied or chained to their beds, in filthy conditions, and without appropriate care. It is not known to what extent this represents the typical treatment of the disabled [4h] although one group, those who were disabled during the

Iraq-Iran war, have access to treatment provided by the State Social Welfare Organisation or some Foundations (Bonyads) where their medical charges are totally or partially paid. [see 3.4]

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Educational System

5.74 According to Europa 2003 and Europa 2004 primary education, beginning at age six and lasting five years, is compulsory for all children and is provided free of charge although this has not been fully implemented in rural areas. [1b](pg2112) Secondary education may last for a further seven years, divided into two cycles; one of three, and another of four years. [1a](pg440)

5.75 According to Europa 2004 in 1996 primary enrolment in schools included 90 per cent of children aged between 6 and 11 years - 91 per cent of boys, 88 per cent of girls. In 1996 the total enrolment at primary and secondary schools combined amounted to 86 per cent of the school-age population - 90 per cent boys, 83 per cent girls. In 1997/98 the illiteracy rate within the population over the age of 15 years was 20.3 per cent for males and 34.1 per cent for females. [1a](pg440)

5.76 Expenditure on education by the Government represented 17.7 per cent of total spending in 2001/2002. [1a](pg440)

5.77 According to Europa 2003 there were 37 Universities, including 16 in Tehran. There were 809,567 students enrolled at Iran's public colleges and universities in 2002/2003, in addition to the 864,190 students enrolled at the Islamic Azad University. [1b](pg2164) The USSD 2003 states that,

" The Government restricted academic freedom. Government informers were common on university campuses. Admission to universities was politicized; all applicants had to pass "character tests" in which officials screened out applicants critical of the Government's ideology. To obtain tenure, professors had to refrain from criticism of the authorities". [4n](pg8)

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6. HUMAN RIGHTS

6.A Human Rights Issues

General

6.1 The Secretary-General to the United Nations, Kofi Annan, defined human rights obligations in Iran when he spoke at the University of Tehran on 10 December 1997. He said that:

“Human rights are what make us human. They are the principles by which we create the sacred home for human dignity... Human rights are the expression of those traditions of tolerance in all cultures that are the basis of peace and progress. Human rights, properly understood and justly interpreted, are foreign to no culture and native to all nations.” [10b](pg2)

6.2 According to AI Iran is a signatory to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, and five other international instruments. [9j](pg1) It is not a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women or the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. [10c] On 12 August 2003 Iran's senior legislative body, the Guardian Council (Shoura-ye Negahban) refused to ratify Parliament's proposal of 23 July 2003 to accede to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. [21aar] [9y] Neither is it a signatory to the optional Protocols to the ICCPR including that aimed to abolish the death penalty. [9c](pg41) Amnesty International continues to raise Iran's continued use of the death penalty as a major concern. [9h][9i]

6.3 In 1996 the Government established a human rights committee in the Majlis and a human rights commission in the judiciary, but observers believe that they lack independence. Also, in 1996 the government allowed the first visit in 5 years of the UN Human Rights Commission Special Rapporteur. The UN Special Rapporteur and Human Rights Watch reported that the government was generally co-operative during their visits. However, the government continues to deny the universality of human rights and attempts to discredit critics. The UN Special Rapporteur for Religious Freedom and the UN Special Rapporteur for the Freedom of Expression also travelled to Iran in 1996. [4a](pg6) In July 2002 Iran's permanent representative to the United Nations in Geneva issued an open invitation to the representatives of the UN Human Rights Commission to visit Iran [5az] and the UN Working Group on Arbitrary Detention visited between 15 to 27 February 2003. [10i] The

UNSR's mandate ended during April 2002 with the defeat of the resolution at the Commission on Human Rights (CHR). [4m](pg2) His mandate had allowed him to report on the human rights situation there, in support of those striving for progress in human rights. However, the Iranian authorities had prevented him from visiting since 1996. [26h] Although this time the resolution narrowly failed, it led to the Iranians making a number of positive gestures. One of these was inviting the EU to engage in a dialogue on human rights. The first round of dialogue took place in mid-December 2002, followed by a second in mid-March 2003. [26i] In July 2003 the first-ever visit to Iran by the UN special rapporteur on freedom of expression and opinion was postponed at the Iranian Government's request. The reason given by officials was that there were difficulties in arranging the representatives schedule. The visit would have come at a moment when human rights were under strong pressure in Iran, with numerous recent arrests of liberal journalists and student leaders. [21aas] The visit eventually took place from 4 November to 10 November 2003. see 6.16. below [10y]

6.4 The Working Group on Arbitrary Detention which visited The Islamic Republic of Iran from 15 to 27 February 2003 visited a number of prisons, detention centres and police stations in Tehran, Shiraz and Esfahan and met government, legislative and judicial leaders, representatives of non-governmental organizations and families of prisoners. [10x](pg2)

6.5 The Working Group examined particularly the situation regarding detention pending trial and visiting rights, and reform of the public prosecution service and criminal procedure.

"In its recommendations the Working Group gives priority to the progressive transfer of authority from the revolutionary tribunals and clerical courts to the ordinary courts to reduce the proliferation of judicial decision-making bodies, review of the practice of solitary confinement, the progressive freeing of prisoners of conscience, guarantees of due process and reform of imprisonment for debt. The Working Group concludes with the hope that the current obstacles to the reforms needed will be removed with a view to strengthening the rule of law". [10x](pg2)

6.6 According to the USSD 2003

" The Constitution prohibits arbitrary arrest and detention; however, these practices remained common. There is reportedly no legal time limit for incommunicado detention, nor any judicial means to determine the legality of detention. In the period immediately following arrest, many detainees were held incommunicado and denied access to lawyers and family members. Suspects may be held for questioning in jails or in local Revolutionary Guard offices.

The security forces often did not inform family members of a prisoner's welfare and location. Authorities often denied visits by family members and legal counsel. In addition, families of executed prisoners did not always receive notification of the prisoners' deaths. Those who did receive such information reportedly were forced on occasion to pay the Government to retrieve the body of their relative". [4n](pg4)

The report continued,

"Continuing serious abuses included: summary executions; disappearances; torture and other degrading treatment, reportedly including severe punishments such as beheading and flogging; poor prison conditions; arbitrary arrest and detention; lack of habeas corpus or access to counsel and prolonged and incommunicado detention. Citizens often did not receive due process or fair trials. The Government infringed on citizens' privacy rights, and restricted freedom of speech, press, assembly, association and religion". [4n](pg4)

According to HRW 1999 an example of alleged human rights abuses is that of the ill treatment of a magazine editor released in May 1998, said to have included mock-execution. [8a] According to the Situation in Iran Report, Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, December 1988, following a prison inspection by President Khatami in 1997, the new Director-General for prisons, Morteza Bakhtiari, told the UN Special Representative that the prison system was going to be reorganised, including the elimination of illegal detention centres. [19a](pg10)

6.7 According to the USSD 1997 several Iranian dissidents who fled abroad were tracked down and killed throughout the 1980s and 1990s by Iranian government agents. [4b](pg3)

6.8 According to an UN Report of 28 January 1998 the prospect of improvement of the human rights situation in Iran initially appeared to grow stronger since Khatami was elected in 1997 and Iran appeared to be in the early stages of transition. [10b](pg3)

6.9 By 1998 progress was being made, particularly in the area of freedom of expression, [10m](pg4) but it faced considerable opposition. [10m](pg1) This included factional struggle and occasional violent tactics from hard-line elements opposed to change, [4f](pg7) within the security forces such as the Revolutionary Guards Corps as well as outside. [8d] A trend toward greater freedom of expression and thought was reversed late in the year through arbitrary arrests, the closure of reform-oriented publications, and the murders of several dissident writers. [10m](pg4) In a BBC News report of May 2003 it was reported that in May 2003 authorities banned the publication of an open letter to Khamenei -

signed by 127 members of the pro reform parliament - which warned that time was running out for a peaceful transition. [21aaU]

6.10 The US State Department Report of 2001 [4k] notes that the authorities in Iran restrict the work of local human rights groups. However, whilst international non-government organisations such as Human Rights Watch and Amnesty International are not permitted to establish offices in Iran or to conduct regular investigative visits there, [4f](pg13) In the context of strengthening civil society, the government is providing financial and organisational support for the creation of NGOs. [19a] HRW and members of an European judicial monitoring NGO were permitted to send representatives to Shiraz for the trial of 13 Iranian Jews on espionage charges. [4k](pg19) However, they were not allowed to monitor the trial proceedings.

6.11 According to AI throughout 2001,

"Scores of political prisoners, including prisoners of conscience, were arrested and others continued to be held in prolonged detention without trial or following unfair trials. Some had no access to lawyers or family. In a continuing clamp-down on freedom of expression and association, led by the judiciary, scores of students, journalists and intellectuals were detained. At least 139 people, including one minor, were executed and 285 flogged, many in public". [9q](pg1)

6.12 During 2002/2003 Iran engaged in a variety of discussions and bilateral meetings relating to the subject of Human Rights. For example, in October 2003, the European Union was engaged in the third meeting of a series which commenced in 2002. This dialogue is intended to facilitate improvements in the general human rights situation within Iran although views on the success of these meetings is at the moment mixed. [56a] Switzerland has also engaged in similar dialogue. [57] [58]

6.13 According to the Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs the human rights situation in Iran remained stable, but poor in 2003. Major areas of concern included Arbitrary arrests and Detentions (also reflected in the UN Report discussed at **6.4.** above) and Freedom of Opinion and Expression (this aspect is further discussed at **6.16.** below) concerns over Iran's human rights record led Canada to introduce a UN General Assembly resolution in November 2003. The resolution was adopted in both Third Committee and the General Assembly. [59] According to the US State Department's Country Report on Human Rights Practices - 2003 (released 25 February 2004) conditions within Iran worsened particularly in terms of arbitrary use of the law to incarcerate citizens and restrict adequate access to legal recourse. [4n](pg1)

6.14 The UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to freedom of opinion and expression was invited and visited Iran from 4 November 2003 to 10 November 2003. During his visit

"The Special Rapporteur notes the willingness for reform among civil society, members of Parliament and at the highest levels of the Government, and that in most of his discussions, an improved framework for the protection of human rights, and in particular of the right to freedom of opinion and expression, was identified as an essential initial step towards reform. In this respect, he acknowledges that the Government and the Majlis are very active at the legislative level, endeavouring to improve the existing legal framework, in particular in relation to a better protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms".

"However, the Special Rapporteur (also noted and commented in his January 2004 report) that a major impediment to reform consists of various institutional locks on governmental, parliamentary and judicial processes resulting from the control exercised thereon by unelected institutions and bodies that are not accountable to the people. In the view of the Special Rapporteur, these institutions and bodies hamper reforms at the legislative level and in the functioning of the institutions". [10y](pg2)

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Freedom of Speech and the Media

6.15 According to the USSD the Constitution provides for the freedom of the press, except when published ideas are "contrary to Islamic principles or are detrimental to public rights." In practice the Government does restrict freedom of speech and the press. [4f](pg7) The Government exerts control over the media by methods such as controlling television and radio broadcasting networks and access to newsprint. It owns all broadcasting facilities. [4f](pg7) However, since his inauguration President Khatami has stated his intention to loosen constraints on freedom of expression. [4b](pg6) Some signs of this were observed in 1997 and early 1998. In October 1997 a yearlong ban on the Iranian-Armenian monthly publication 'Araz' and the 2½ year ban on the 'Jahan-e Eslam' newspaper were lifted. [4b](pg6) However it remains the case that the basic requirements for freedom of the press remain absent and its independence remained under threat from hardline members of the regime, particularly the judiciary who viewed the use of the press to openly debate questions of reform as a threat. [4n](pg6)

6.16 It was reported in the AI 2002 that,

"In March and April of 2001, the Revolutionary Court ordered the arrest of at least 60 academics, journalists and intellectuals associated with the Milli Mazhabi national-religious trend, notably the Nehzat-e Azadi, Iran Freedom Movement. Some were released within days and many others between May and October 2001. In November 2001, at least 26 detainees were publicly accused by the judiciary of "acts against national security" and "seeking to overthrow the state by illegal means", vaguely worded charges which could attract long prison sentences. In November 2001, trial proceedings against at least 12 members of the Nehzat-e Azadi were initiated with the reading of a 500-page indictment. [9q](pg1) The trials had not started by the end of 2001, but at least six other detainees - including Dr Habibollah Payman and Dr Reza Raiss-Toussi - remained in detention without charge at the end of the year. The trial of Alireza Alijani and Ezzatollah Sahabi (see below) was scheduled to start in January 2002". [9q](pg1)

6.17 According to the HRW World Report 2003 in July 2002 the Friday prayer leader of Isfahan, Taheri, resigned. Friday prayer leaders are appointed by the Senior Leader of the Islamic Republic, and are the senior religious authorities in their districts. [8h](pg1)

"He accused Iran's clerical leaders of directing and encouraging "a bunch of club wielders" and of marrying the ill-tempered, ugly hag of violence to religion." He observed that the centers of power were "unchecked and unbridled ...neither reproached by the executors of justice nor reproved by the law." This criticism of lack of accountability, corruption and lawlessness, coming from someone of impeccable religious credentials at the heart of the establishment, struck a deep chord. The conservative establishment sought to limit the damage by ordering official news outlets to restrict their coverage of the Ayatollah's statement, an order that was only partially successful". [8h](pg1)

In July 2003, a BBC News Report said that in another incident, Iran's supreme leader Ali Khamenei had to deny rumours that his office was guilty of receiving illegitimate payments linked to the motor trade. [21aaw]

6.18 Reuters reported on 27 July 2002 that on 27 July 2002 Iran's Revolutionary Court sentenced more than 30 liberal dissidents to up to 10 years in jail. The court also ruled to dissolve the Freedom Movement. [5ay] and by early 2003 HRW reported that it was evident that a press crackdown had intensified. [8i]

6.19 According to the USSD 2002,

"In October (2002) the judicial authorities closed down the National Institute for Research Studies and Opinion Polls, which found in a poll commissioned by the Parliament that approximately three quarters of the population supported dialogue with the U.S., and close to half approved of U.S. policy towards their country". [4m](pg10)

Those involved with the poll were charged [21as]

"All were charged with a combination of spying for the U.S., illegal contacts with foreign embassies, working with anti-regime groups, and carrying out research on the order of the foreign polling organization; although government intelligence officials had publicly stated that the accused were not spies". [4m](pg10)

It was reported by the BBC on 2 February 2002 that the Iranian press had, on 2 February 2003, reported that two of the pollsters had been sentenced to seven and eight years respectively. [21at]

6.20 In November 2002 students nationwide protested at the death sentence imposed on Hashem Aghajari. A liberal journalist and academic, Hashem Aghajari, had been sentenced to death for apostasy - the renunciation of his belief. He was arrested in August 2002 after a speech in which he called for reform within the Islamic clerical establishment. [21aq] Protests subsided when senior clerical leaders threatened the students.

"On November 22, Ayatollah Khamenei issued an ultimatum stating that students should "return to their homes" or "the people will intervene" against them, a thinly veiled threat to unleash the same paramilitary forces that the authorities had used in July 1999 to crush student protests". [8h](pg5) (see [2u] for chronology)

According to a BBC News report on 26 November 2002 student leaders in Tehran were arrested following the demonstrations against the death sentence for apostasy and at least six student activists were detained by plainclothes police on the orders of a revolutionary court. [21ap]

6.21 According to BBC News reports in February 2003 the death sentence for apostasy was quashed and the case was sent back to be retried by the same court that ordered his execution [21aq] and in March 2003 more than 120 Iranian MPs signed an open letter demanding an end to the expulsion and suspension of students involved in November's demonstrations. [21ar]

6.22 According to an AI Press Release of 1 August 2003,

"On 23 June 2003 Canadian-Iranian photojournalist Zahra Kazemi, 54, was arrested for taking photographs outside Evin prison, in an area where photography is prohibited. According to a government enquiry, Zahra Kazemi died as a result of a blow to her skull, while under guard at the Baghiyetollah (or Baghiyeta'zam) Hospital in Tehran on 12 July 2003. The report recommended that the case be examined by a "special independent investigator" from the judiciary and that public information should be "swift". On 29 July judicial officials confirmed that five individuals had been arrested in connection with the case, of which three are said to be from Tehran's judiciary and two from the Ministry of Intelligence". [9aa]

On 30 July a government spokesperson stated that Zahra Kazemi was murdered. Three of the suspects were subsequently released and two were charged with murder. However, the charges were dropped by the Tehran prosecutions office and further investigations were ordered. [48a] According to CNN Report 23 September 2003 A result of which an agent of the Ministry of Intelligence and Security (MOIS) was charged with murder. [70a]

6.23 In October 2003 it was reported in a BBC News report that,

"The long-awaited report by the parliament's Article 90 Commission, which deals with press freedoms, was read out in the chamber despite objections from right-wingers. It recited a litany --of what it portrayed as irregularities and abuses by the Tehran prosecutor, Judge Saeed Mortazavi. It accused him of tampering with evidence, suborning witnesses and subverting the course of the investigation in many other ways. It said he had also refused to appear before the commission itself, which was a violation of the constitution. It concluded by referring its own report to the special disciplinary court for judges, calling for an investigation into what it called the violations by the Tehran prosecutor and by other judges who it said had acted illegally in the case". [21aaz]

6.24 According to the Iran Press Freedom Report 2003,

"Although Iran has 48 non-governmental newspapers which is quite an accomplishment for the Middle East Region, and some of these newspapers are often very critical, the existence of them is not enough to fully keep up with the press freedom ideals. And independent journalists often have to pay a high price for being critical". [54]pg3)

Iran Country Report October 2004

According to the Committee to Protect Journalists the regime continued to exercise control over the media by censorship, particularly in the area of the internet via the Supreme Cultural and Revolutionary Council [29b] and by suspending publications deemed unlawful as for example the dailies Yas e NO and Sharq on 18 February 2004, just before the February 2004 Parliamentary elections. [29c]

6.25 According to the RSF Iran Annual Report for 2004,

" Iran remains in a dramatic and paradoxical press freedom situation. It is the biggest prison for journalists in the Middle East, with harsh censorship but also a prolific and vigorous written press that is clearly helping the growth of civil society. This press mirrors the split between the regime's reformists and hardliners, who are part of a unique regime headed by the hardline Supreme Guide of the Republic, Ayatollah Ali Khamenei, and a reformist president, Mohammad Khatami, who does not have much power. The hardline press, inspired by Islamic revolution and backing Khamenei, coexists with the reformist newspapers, which emerged in 1997 after President Khatami was elected. There is no opposition media in the traditional sense but genuine debate goes on between the two sides. All written material is closely monitored, especially by the Supreme National Security Council (chaired by Khatami but controlled by the hardliners) which each week sends all newspapers a list of banned subjects, such as (in 2003) the 1999 student demonstrations, resumption of talks with the United States, the murder of photojournalist Zahra Kazemi and anything about nuclear weapons agreements. But reporting what Iranian politicians say about these topics is sometimes possible. However, any discussion of them is strictly forbidden. Many papers, including hardline ones, have been suspended by the Council". [38i]

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Press Law

6.26 According to the USSD 2001,

"Oversight of the press is carried out in accordance with a press law that was enacted in 1995. The law established the Press Supervisory Board, which is composed of the Minister of Islamic Culture and Guidance, a Supreme Court judge, a Member of Parliament, and a university professor who is appointed by the Minister of Islamic Culture and

Guidance. The Board is responsible for issuing press licenses and for examining complaints..." [4k](pg9)

and,

6.27 "The 1995 Press Law prohibits the publishing of a broad and ill-defined category of subjects, including material "insulting Islam and its sanctities" or "promoting subjects that might damage the foundation of the Islamic Republic." Generally prohibited topics include fault-finding comment regarding the personality and achievements of the late Leader of the Revolution, Ayatollah Khomeini; direct criticism of the Supreme Leader... questioning the tenets of certain Islamic legal principles... and advocating rights or autonomy for ethnic minorities". [4k](pg9)

6.28 According to a Reuters report of 8 July 1999 in July 1999, Majlis deputies voted in principle for a major overhaul of Iran's press law.

"Proposed changes in the law include compelling journalists to reveal their sources, barring journalists and editors linked to certain opposition groups from engaging in any form of press activity, and increasing conservative influence over the media". [5o]

and according to the USSD 1999,

"In August 1999 another amendment apparently directed at the independent press was proposed, which would define a new class of "political offences," including the "exchange of information with foreign embassies, diplomatic representatives, media, and political parties, that may be determined to put national interests in jeopardy." [4gpg11]

6.29 "In March 2000, immediately after the success of reformers to capture a majority of seats in Parliament in the February 2000 parliamentary elections, the outgoing Parliament passed amendments to the Press Law that gave the Press Court increased procedural and jurisdictional power"... The new Parliament, which was seated in May 2000, introduced a bill in August 2000 to reverse the restrictive amendments. However, Supreme Leader Khamenei intervened with a letter to the Speaker demanding that the bill be dropped from consideration... Despite some strongly worded objections from members, the bill was withdrawn". [4k](pg9)

6.30 Offending writers are often subject to trial, with fines, suspension from journalistic activities, lashings, and imprisonment being common punishments, if found guilty of offences ranging from propaganda against the State to insulting the leadership of the Islamic Republic. [4b](pg6)

6.31 It was noted in an UNHCR Background Briefing Paper in 1998 that frequent clashes between moderates and conservative clergy over the freedom of journalism and the press had been evident since 1995. [3a](pg29)

6.32 It was reported in the UNHCR Background Briefing Paper, 1998 that when the pro-Khatami newspaper "Jameah" was banned by the courts in June 1998 for publishing controversial remarks made by a senior military official as well as immoral and insulting material, [3a](pg28) the editor was convicted of libel. He was also banned from practising for one year by the special press court. [17a] The paper was immediately permitted to re-open under a new name "Tous", which publicly questioned the authority of Ayatollah Khomeini and was banned by the Justice Department a week later. The ban was revoked by the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance and a licence issued to re-open under the third name "Aftab-e Emrouz", or "Today's Sun" in August 1998. [3a](pg29)

6.33 According to the USSD 1999 many of the leading publications that represented the views of the reform movement were ordered closed during 1999, including Rah-e No, Jame'eh, Salaam, Iran-e Farda, Adineh, Neshat, and Khordad. In March the magazine Zan Woman was ordered closed by a Revolutionary Court for publishing part of a New Year's greeting to the citizenry from the former Empress, Fara Pahlavi, who is living in exile, and for printing a cartoon satirising an aspect of Shari'a Islamic law that is currently in effect, under which the "blood money" that is paid to the family of a murdered woman equals half that paid to the family of a murdered man. [4g](pg12)

6.34 According to an UN Reort on Iran dated 28 December 1998 Article 168 of the Iranian Constitution states that enquiry into press offences will be undertaken in open court before a jury. [10m](pg4)

6.35 According to a BBC News Report of 11 October 2003 following an amendment to the law on the establishment of public and revolutionary courts it was decided that the final verdict of the Press Court will be issued by three judges after they have asked the jury to express a view. The first session of the new format was held on 20 October 2003. [21aaaa]

6.36 According to the CPJ 2001 The repression continued throughout 2001. At least 20 newspapers and other publications were suspended by the courts on an array of vague charges such as "publishing lies" and "defamation." [29a](pg1) According to AI 2002,

"Publications were suspended for indeterminate periods by the judicial authorities, including the Special Court for the Clergy, and journalists were detained or sentenced to prison terms. Only two of the more than 50 publications closed in previous years were permitted to reopen". [9q](pg2)

By the end of 2001, at least five journalists were in jail on charges related to their journalistic work, while dozens more had been summoned to court, were appealing pending prison sentences, or had been fined and barred from practising their profession. [29a](pg1) On the 11 August 2002 it was reported by the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance that 85 publications had been banned since March 1998. [5aw] However by 07 August 2002 more than 5 Iranian news-based Web sites had been opened, 2 of them in place of recently banned daily newspapers. [5ax] By August 2003 however the plight of Iran's journalists was described as worsening, with further arrests, police summonses and threats. [38c] According to Reporters Without Borders by June 2004 Eleven journalists were currently in prison. [38e]

6.37 According to the CPJ 2002,

"The Tehran Press Court prosecuted reformist publications throughout 2001, despite vocal protests from journalists and members of the reform dominated Majlis, or Parliament. In December, three Iranian Parliamentarians were convicted of libel and other offences in connection with their scathing criticisms of the judiciary. Among them was Hossein Loghmanian, who was jailed for libelling the courts after he denounced the press crackdown". [29a](pg1)

6.38 A report from Amnesty International issued in May 2004 highlights the case of Siamak Pourzand.

"Siamak Pourzand (aged 74), Head of *Majmue-ye Farhangi-ye Honari-ye Tehran* (The Tehran Artistic and Cultural Centre) and an occasional newspaper correspondent, is a prisoner of conscience. He is serving an 11 year sentence imposed after a grossly unfair and politically motivated trial in connection with oral statements he allegedly made about Iran's political leaders; Amnesty International fears that the activities of his wife, Mehrangiz Kar, a human rights defender currently outside Iran, may have exacerbated the treatment of Siamak Pourzand. He has urgent medical requirements for which he recently started to receive specialist care. It remains to be seen whether this will be adequate". [9ae]

6.39 In a report on the situation of human rights in the Islamic Republic of Iran, submitted by the Special Representative of the Commission on Human Rights, dated 28 December 1998 it was stated that, "With regard to film and theatre, the Deputy Minister said there had been significant improvement. Ambiguities and personal taste had been removed from the clearance process which was now routine, a situation that the Special Representative confirmed with an Iranian film director. The problem now was the lack of theatre and film venues". [10m](pg5)

6.40 According to the DIRB owning and operating a print shop or reprography centre is controlled by the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance regulations governing the printing industry, namely under Article 4. [29]

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Internet and Satellite

6.41 According to The Internet under surveillance Report 2004 released on 09 July 2004 by Reporters Without Borders (RSF)

" The Iranian regime censors thousands of websites it considers "non-Islamic" and harasses and imprisons online journalists. Internet filtering was increased in the run-up to the February 2004 parliamentary elections, at which the hardliners strengthened their grip on the country. But despite this, the Internet is flourishing, with fierce debate and weblogs ("blogs") sprouting up all the time. The Internet has grown faster in Iran than any other Middle Eastern country since 2000 and has become an important medium, providing fairly independent news and an arena for vigorous political discussion for more than three million users. Websites, like the press, reflect the split between reformists and hardliners in the regime, which has a hardline Supreme Guide of the Islamic Revolution (Ayatollah Ali Khamenei) as head of state and a reformist president (Mohammad Khatami) whose power is quite limited. Though the authorities crack down hard on freedom of expression, civil society remains active and keen to debate the country's affairs. But the 20 February 2004 parliamentary elections, which gave all power to the hardliners, may reduce Internet users' freedom to discuss social issues." [38]

6.42 According to a report on Internet Content Filtering in Iran published by the OpenNet Initiative on 13 August 2004,

"Access to the Internet in Iran is presently subject to official censorship, although the precise scope and scale of the filtering is unclear. For many years, Iranian authorities allowed unencumbered access to the Internet, offering a departure from its own practices towards traditional media, such as newspapers, television, and radio, which are subject to government control. In early 2003, however, news and other reports indicated that Internet censorship would be introduced in Iran, with some reports indicating up to 15,000 websites to be filtered. Shortly afterwards, Iranian users of the Internet began reporting blocked websites,

including non-pornographic and increasingly popular blogging sites. It was also reported that access to Google's cache function was filtered in late 2003, although that appeared to be a temporary measure. Recent news coverage indicated a tightening of content controls had occurred leading up to the February 2004 parliamentary elections. One report claimed that 100 billion websites had been censored by Iran in the past year.

Typically reports such as these lack precision, referring instead to general trends and rounded-off numbers. Two recent reports have offered more specific details about what websites in Iran are filtered. One prominent Iranian activist site, "stop.censoring.us" reports that Iranian authorities issue official "blacklists" distributed to ISP operators, who are then responsible for putting in place the content filters. According to the report, the blacklists of banned sites are updated regularly, stored on CDs, and then distributed to each of the ISPs, some of whom do not always comply. Although the lists are said to include only pornographic sites, a recent blacklist acquired by stop.censoring.us and posted to their website is unique in that it contains a list of political, dissident, religious, and blogging sites. The second report is authored by the advocacy group Reporters without Borders (RSF). In their annual Internet Report, "The Internet Under Surveillance, 2004," the section on Iran contains a list of censored websites". [74a]

6.43 According to a report from RSF dated 03 August 2004,

"The authorities recently took a tougher line with online publications and we saw censorship being stepped up since the legislative elections in February," the organisation said. "Now they seem to be going a step further by directly targeting cyber-dissidents and by preparing a bill that would give a legal basis for cracking down." It was further stated that "It would create a legislative framework that would severely restrict free expression online". [38g]

6.44 On 28 August 2004 it was reported by RSF that three websites had been blocked and three cybercafés shut down by the Iranian authorities. [38h] According to a report from BBC News of 01 September 2004 the three Iranian reformist websites re-emerged - to some extent at different internet addresses.

"Their temporary disappearance had been blamed on the hardline conservative establishment in Iran trying to prevent the expression of any political opinion opposed to theirs. With the broadcast media in the hands of the state and controlled by hardliners, and most of the reformist and

independent press harried into submission by bans and closures, the internet had become a vital source of communication for Iran's reformists. It, too, has been targeted, with websites forced to close and independent bloggers silenced". [21aao]

6.45 According to the CPJ 2001,

" Television and radio remained in the hands of the conservative establishment and largely reflected its views. Satellite dishes remained popular, despite a 1995 ban on their use, allowing Iranians access to international programming. In late October, however, authorities confiscated some 1,000 dishes and arrested several owners. The dish crackdown was an apparent state response to provocative broadcasts by satellite channels affiliated with secular Iranian opposition groups based in the United States. Satellite broadcasts of Iranian soccer matches were introduced by commentators who condemned the Islamic regime and called on Iranian citizens to hold street demonstrations. They also broadcast footage showing soccer fans vandalizing property after the matches. The authorities later threatened to confiscate thousands more dishes". [29a](pg3)

According to a BBC Report in May 2002 it was reported by the authorities in Tehran Province that amongst other things they had confiscated 11,191 satellite dishes. [21ab] and by December 2002 a bill to reform the law banning the use of satellite receiving equipment was given its second reading at the Majlis. [21aac] By June 2003 it was reported by Albawaba.Com News that Iran's judiciary had set new strict rules governing Internet content and banning the publication of material deemed to be against the Islamic regime. [39b] According to the USSD 2003 the government undertook jamming of foreign satellite transmissions during the year by using powerful jamming signals. [4n](pg8) and in November 2003 a fresh wave of satellite dish confiscations took place as the result of a Revolutionary Court mandate. [4n](pg6)

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Freedom of Religion

6.46 According to the UNHCR Background Briefing Paper of 1995 religious freedom is set out in the 1979 Constitution of Iran. Jafari Shi'ite Islam is the official religion of Iran and accords full respect and recognition for other Islamic schools, including the Hanafi, Shafi'i, Maliki, Hanbali, and Zaydi. Shi'a Muslims make up 89 per cent of the population, Sunni Muslims amount to 10 per cent and non-Muslims

such as Zoroastrians, Christians, Jews make up the remaining 1 per cent. [3b]

6.47 According to the FIDH Report on Discrimination against religious minorities in Iran 2003,

"Article 13 of the Constitution gives a special status to three religious minorities named "recognized religious minorities ":

"Zoroastrian, Jewish, and Christian Iranians are the only recognized religious minorities, who, within the limits of the law, are free to perform their religious rites and ceremonies, and to act according to their own canon in matters of personal affairs and religious education ."

"Despite the existence of a specific status in the Constitution, these three recognized religious minorities face severe discrimination. First of all, they are being discriminated against by a number of legal provisions, which discriminate per se against all non-Muslims".

"Secondly, since Zoroastrians, Jews and Christians are only free to perform their religion "within the limits of the law " ,the authorities have imposed in practice important limits to their right to exercise their religion, a right that is being continuously restricted and interfered with.

Conversion from Islam to one of the three recognized religions (apostasy) may still be punishable by death. The government has been particularly vigilant in recent years in curbing proselytising activities by evangelical Christians, whose services are conducted in Persian. Moreover, all three minorities complain of discrimination in the field of employment, report clear limitations imposed upon their upward mobility and complain of being treated like "second-class citizens ". [56b](pg6)

According to the Danish Fact Finding Report Article 14 calls for the respect of the human rights of non-Muslims as long as they refrain from engaging in conspiracy or activities against Islam or the Islamic Republic of Iran. Article 15 protects the use of tribal and regional languages in the press, mass media and in schools. Article 64 provides for Majlis representation of the Zoroastrians, Jews and Christians to reserved Majlis seats. [41a](pg25) Further information on specific places of worship can be found at [1a] and [43].

6.48 Contrary to Article 19, which says that all people of Iran enjoy equal rights whatever their ethnic group or tribe, discrimination against religious minorities by the Government exists. [47](pg9) Members of religious minorities other than the Zoroastrians, Jews and Christians are

not elected to representative bodies. Senior government or military positions are also denied members of religious minorities. Although Zoroastrians, Jews and Christians are permitted to maintain schools, they experience disruptive interference of their administration by the Government. All public school students, including non-Muslims, must study Islam. [41](pg2) University and public sector employment applicants are screened for adherence to Islam. [4c]

6.49 Religious minorities suffer discrimination in the legal system, receiving lower awards than Muslims in injury and death lawsuits, and incurring heavier punishments. [41](pg3) However, the Majlis debated a Bill to equalize blood money for Muslims and non-Muslims and it was reported on 01 September 2002 that a Christian family received the same "blood money" as that of a Muslim in a murder case. [5aq] The bill was ultimately passed, according to a Payvand News report by the Guardian Council in December 2003. [53b] According to a report issued by the Federation Internationale des ligues des droits de l'Homme (Fidh),

"In November 2002, the Parliament adopted a bill equalizing the "blood money " compensation for male victims members of recognized religious minorities with that of Muslim men. This bill was received as a significant advance by human rights activists worldwide. However, to take effect, any bill must first be approved by the Guardian Council. In this case, the Council has already rejected the bill twice, in January 2003 and April 2003, citing certain discrepancies with the Constitution and the Sharia of Islam". [56b]

According to USSD International Religious Freedom Report 2002,

"Muslim men are free to marry non-Muslim women but marriages between Muslim women and non-Muslim men are not recognised". [41](pg3)

6.50 The Government is highly suspicious of any proselytising of Muslims by non-Muslims and intimidation is rife [41b](pg38) , in particular against Baha'is and evangelical Christians. [3c] [41](pg3)

6.51 The Government does not ensure the right of citizens to change or renounce their religious faith. Apostasy, specifically conversion from Islam, can be punishable by death. [3c] [41](pg3) The Government frequently charged members of religious minorities with crimes such as "confronting the regime" and apostasy, and conducted trials in these cases in the same manner as threats to national security. [4m](pg7) [41b](pg38)

6.52 According to the United States Committee for Refugees (USCR) SURVEY 2002 religious minorities, whose numbers have dwindled, remain particularly vulnerable. In August 2001, the UN Human Rights Commission's special representative on Iran reported that the number of individuals belonging to ethnic and religious minorities emigrating from Iran was estimated to be in the tens of thousands annually. [35a](pg5)

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Legal Framework

6.53 The COI Seminar Report 2001 states that Laws relating to religion have been used repeatedly to limit freedom of expression. These include, in particular, Art. 513 of the Penal Code and Art. 6 and 26 of the Press Code. [3c] Under Art. 513, offences considered to amount to "insult" to religion can be punished by death or imprisonment of [between] one to five years. Similarly, Art. 6 and 26 of the Press Code proscribe "writings containing apostasy and matters against Islamic standards "mavazin-e eslami" and "the true religion of Islam...", but state that such cases will be heard in a criminal court. [3c]

6.54 Both the Penal Code and Press Code do not specifically define what activities constitute insult to religion and have, indeed, been used to punish people for the expression of their opinion. [3c] Non-Muslim owners of grocery shops are required to indicate their religious affiliation on the fronts of their shops. [4l](pg2)

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Sunni Muslims

6.55 Sunnis are in theory the largest religious minority in Iran, but are not recognised as a minority as they are part of the same Islamic family as the majority, the Shi'a Muslims. [3b] Sunni Muslims are largely drawn from the Kurdish, Arab, Turkoman, Baluchi and other ethnic minorities. [3a](pg34) They live mainly in the southern provinces of Sistan/Baluchistan. The area is economically poor, with limited developmental prospects. Of the occasional clashes between the Sunnis and the Shi'as in areas of mixed population, most have been in west Azerbaijan and in Sistan/Baluchistan. [10m](pg7) According to the USSD 2001,

"Sunnis also have accused the state broadcasting company of airing programming insulting to Sunnis. Numerous Sunni clerics have been killed in recent years, some allegedly by government agents". [4k](pg13)

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Christians

6.56 According to the USSD Religious Freedom Report 2003, there were approximately 300,000 Christians in the country, according to U.N. figures, the majority of whom are ethnic Armenians and Assyro-Chaldeans. There also are Protestant denominations, including evangelical churches. The U.N. Special Representative (UNSR) reported that Christians are emigrating at an estimated rate of 15,000 to 20,000 per year. [4o](pg1) It is difficult however, to obtain a reliable estimate as there is the added complication of mixing ethnicity with religious affiliation. [10p](pg17) They are concentrated mainly in urban areas, and are legally permitted to practice their religion and instruct their children, but may not proselytise Muslims. [3a](pg32) The authorities have become particularly vigilant in recent years in curbing what is perceived as increasing proselytising activities by evangelical Christians, whose services are conducted in Persian. [4m](pg15) Further information on specific places of worship can be found at [1a] and [43]

6.57 According to the USSD 2003 "In 2001, the Special Representative for Iran of the Commission on Human Rights (UNSR) also reported claims that there were more than 80 killings or disappearances over a 10-year period as part of a wider campaign to silence dissent. Members of religious minority groups, including the Baha'is, evangelical Christians, and Sunni clerics were killed in recent years, allegedly by government agents or directly at the hands of authorities". [4n](pg2)

6.58 According to an UN Report of 16 January 2002 mistreatment of evangelical Christians continued during the period covered by this report. Christian groups have reported instances of government harassment of churchgoers in Tehran, in particular against worshippers at the Assembly of God congregation in the capital. Instances of harassment cited included conspicuous monitoring outside Christian premises by Revolutionary Guards to discourage Muslims or converts from entering church premises and demands for presentation of identity papers. [10p](pg18)

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Apostasy/Conversions

6.59 As stated above, proselytising Christian churches, especially Evangelicals, are likely to be regarded more suspiciously by the Iranian authorities. [3b] According to the UNHCR in a Background paper on Iranian refugees dated 2001,

"Apostasy, especially conversion from Islam to another religion, is not acceptable in Islamic law. An innate-apostate (one whose parents were Muslims and who embraced Islam but later left Islam), if a man, is to be executed. If a

woman, she is to be imprisoned for life, but will be released if she repents. A national apostate(a person converting from another faith to Islam, and then reconverting back to the other faith) is to be encouraged to repent and, upon refusal to repent, is to be executed. The most prominent cases of apostasy appear to occur from Islam to Christianity. Proselytizing apostates (converts who have begun preaching Christianity) are likely to face execution". [3g](pg22)

6.60 Apostate converts who have begun preaching Christianity are likely to face execution. According to the Danish fact finding mission to Iran Report, 2002,

"In that connection, a Western embassy said that there had been no reports of persons being executed on the grounds of conversion from Islam since 1994. In the source's opinion, although a convert may still be sentenced to a term of imprisonment if the authorities hear about his conversion, it is very rare nowadays for a criminal case to be brought against a convert. The source stressed that converts often remain Muslim for official purposes". [41a](pg26)

6.61 According to the Danish FFM Report,

"The source thought that converts who are known to the Iranian authorities are summoned to an interview at the Ministry of Information in order to be reprimanded. They are then allowed to go after being warned not to talk about what has taken place at the Ministry. If a criminal case is brought against them, they will be accused of something other than conversion. Many individuals try to convert with a view to emigrating, considering that the opportunities for obtaining asylum in the West are thereby greater. The Christian churches send letters of recommendation to converts and other persons belonging to the church on request. The source stressed that such letters are issued only to persons known to the church. The letters of recommendation may be authenticated by the individual churches. In that connection, the source considered that 80 to 90% of the letters of recommendation presented in the West by the Armenian church are false.
[41a](pg27)

6.62 According to the Dutch Report on the Situation in Iran, 2000,

"In practice, Muslim converts to Christianity may face obstacles such as not being admitted to university or not being issued a passport. Even Muslim converts, however, in reality appear able to practise their new faith up to a

point. On the other hand, those who actively display their new faith in public, in particular by proselytising, can expect to face severe repression, even if their conversion goes back decade"s. [41b(pg38)]

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Jews

6.63 Jews are a constitutionally recognised minority of 20,000-40,000, [2c](pg19) [3a](pg33) although this estimate varies, with one representative in the Majlis. Before 1979 the Jewish population of Iran was estimated at 100,000, most living in Tehran. After the revolution they were eased out of government positions as well as from some private sector employment. As a result they are engaged for the most part in small businesses and commercial pursuits. [4d](pg17) They are permitted to obtain passports and travel including to Israel, but they are normally denied multiple entry visas and permission for entire families to travel abroad together. [2c](pg19) [4d](pg17)

6.64 According to the USSD Religios Freedom Report 2002,

"Education of Jewish children has become more difficult in recent years. The Government reportedly allows the teaching of Hebrew, recognizing that it is necessary for Jewish religious practice. However, it strongly discourages teachers from distributing Hebrew texts to students, in practice making it difficult to teach the language. Moreover, the Government has required that several Jewish schools remain open on Saturdays, the Jewish Sabbath, in conformity with the schedule of other schools in the school system. Because working or attending school on the Sabbath violates Jewish religious law, this requirement has made it difficult for observant Jews to both attend school and adhere to important tenets of their religion". [4I](pg4)

6.65 According to the USSD 2003 "In principle, with some exception, there appears to be little restriction or interference with the religious practice of Judaism". [4K](pg16)

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Zoroastrians

6.66 According to the UNHCR 1998 the Zoroastrian (the pre-Islamic religion of Iran) population of several thousand includes South Asian Zoroastrians Parsis and is concentrated in the southern cities of Yazd and Kerman. [3a](pg34) [3b] The Government figures reported by the United Nations in 1996 place the size of the Zoroastrian community at

approximately 35,000 adherents although some recent (2003) figures are as low as 11,000. [64a] Zoroastrian groups cite a larger figure of approximately 60,000, according to the same U.N. report. Zoroastrianism was the official religion of the pre-Islamic Sassanid Empire and thus played a central role in the country's history. [41](pg1) Traditionally, Zoroastrians do not accept converts [26c] [64a] and favour marriage between blood relations; they do not proselytise. [64a] However, most of the anti-conversion sentiment in the Zoroastrian world comes from the Indian Parsis where the traditionalist view of the religion is most securely embedded. Iranian Zoroastrians are much more likely to accept converts, marriages to non-Zoroastrians (who are then welcomed into the community) and people of mixed ancestry. The problems with conversion in Iran are, as with any case of the conversion of someone away from Islam. It is considered an offence against the Islamic Republic and may be seriously penalised. Therefore, conversions in Iran, if undertaken are likely to be done very quietly. [65] They are free to practice and teach their religion and have one representative in the Majlis. [3b]

6.67 According to the USSD Religious Freedom Report 2003 there were no reports of government harassment of the Zoroastrian community during the period covered by the report. [4o](pg5)

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Sabeans (Mandeans)

6.68 According to UNHCR reports of 1995 and 1998 the Iranian Mandeans are included among the recognised religious minorities and live mainly in Khuzistan, near the Iraqi border. They work mainly in agriculture and with precious metals, are a low-profile group and are small in number. [3b] The small community faces discrimination similar to the country's other pre Islamic religious minorities. Mandeans enjoyed official support as a distinct religion prior to the revolution, but their legal status as a religion since then has been the subject of debate in the Majlis and never clarified. [41](pg4)

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Baha'is

6.69 According to the official Baha'i World web site in 2002 and the 1985 Minorities Rights Group (MRG) publication 'The Bahai's of Iran', the Baha'i faith was founded in the mid-19th century in southern Iran as an offshoot of Shi'a Islam. It has since developed into a separate religious faith. Baha'is believe in a God who is completely transcendent and unknowable, and that divine manifestations occur throughout the ages, in the form of prophets or messengers "Divine Educators", including Adam, Moses, Jesus, Zoroaster, Buddha and Mohammad.

They believe that the founder of their faith, Baha'ullah, was a divine manifestation, who will be followed by other manifestations as mankind develops, but that this will not happen for at least 1,000 years. Thus Baha'i doctrine accepts all prophetic religions as being true, but claim that theirs is the most suitable to the present age. They do not accept the Islamic belief that Mohammad is the 'seal' of prophets. Unlike Islamic practice, according to which the child of a Muslim is deemed automatically to be a Muslim, the Baha'is believe that each individual is responsible from the age of 15 for his/her own faith. [11][13]

6.70 According to the official Baha'i World web site in 2002 and the 1985 Minorities Rights Group publication 'The Bahai's of Iran' there is no priesthood in the Baha'i faith, but there is an administrative hierarchy of elected local and national Spiritual Assemblies, with considerable authority. The highest organ of administration is the Universal House of Justice in Haifa. Other institutions include the appointed bodies known as the Hands of the Cause of God and the Continental Board of Counsellors, both concerned with spreading the faith and protecting the Baha'i community. [11][13]

6.71 According to the UNHCR and also a statement to the UN by the Baha'i International Community of 1998 the Baha'i community in Iran is said to number 300,000 - 350,000. It is the largest religious minority in the country and traditionally has suffered discrimination. [3b] [3c] [10](pg1) Ayatollah Mohammed Yazdi, who resigned as head of the judiciary in August 2000, stated in 1996 that the Baha'i faith was an espionage organization. According to the USSD 2002 trials against Baha'is have reflected this view. [4m](pg8) Their religion is not acknowledged as a separate faith by Iranian Muslims, but is regarded as a heretical sect. Anti-Baha'i sentiment is rooted in the theological disapproval of the religious establishment; the perception that they co-operated with the Shah regime and opposed the revolution; [11][13] and the belief that they are agents of espionage activities, [3b] Zionism and imperialism. The Baha'i World Centre is in Haifa, Israel, and before 1979 many Baha'is made remittances and pilgrimages to Israel. Baha'i links with an area which is now in Israel lies in Baha'ullah's death in exile in what was at that time Ottoman Palestine. Participation in party politics is not permitted among Baha'is and anyone breaking this rule is liable to expulsion. [11][13] There is no evidence of Baha'is being involved in partisan politics, in Iran or elsewhere. [10](pg2) [11] [13]

6.72 According to various reports from UNHCR and the USSD, not being one of the protected religious minorities in Iran, Baha'is experience discrimination including extrajudicial executions [3b], arbitrary detention, dismissals from employment and confiscation of properties. [4k](pg14) Many have reportedly been denied retirement pensions and work permits, unemployment benefits, business and commercial licences. Some Baha'is dismissed from public sector jobs were required to return the salaries and pensions received while they were working,

[4k](pg21) and Baha'i farmers can be denied access to farm co-operatives, which deprives them of their only access to credits, seeds and fertilisers. Although Baha'is do have access to the courts and have used them on occasion to attempt to reverse specific decisions, almost invariably the court rules against them. Baha'is are refused entry to universities, [3b][13] A FIDH report of 2002 illustrates that the application form has four boxes for different religions, none of which is Baha'i. [56b](Appendix 1 and 2) [78a]

6.73 According to the USSD 2002, property rights of Baha'is are generally disregarded and both private and business properties may be confiscated. Blood money for Iranians killed is not enforceable where the victim is a Baha'i. A bill was passed by the Majlis early in the year (2003) which would equalize the "blood money" paid to the families of crime victims. [4m](pg14) Payvand News reported on 29 December 2003 that on 27 December 2003 the bill was approved by the Expediency Council. [53b] but since Baha'is were not a recognized religious minority, the change in the law does not apply to them. [4m](pg14) In 1996 the Head of the Judiciary stated that Baha'ism was an espionage organisation [4f](pg6) and Baha'is have since been strictly forbidden to seek probate. [10l](pg5)

6.74 Freedom of movement out of the country can be difficult for Baha'is. [2c](pg20) They are generally denied identity cards and passports [3b]. According to a written statement to the UN by the Baha'i International Community of 1998, The freedom of Bahá'ís to travel outside or inside Iran is often impeded by Iranian authorities or even denied. Although the last year (1997/98) witnessed an increase in the number of Iranian Bahá'ís given passports, this did not represent a change in policy on the part of the Iranian Government. [10l](pg5) Registration of Bahai's is a police function. [4l](pg2)

6.75 It was stated in the USSD 2001,

"However, it has become somewhat easier for Baha'is to obtain passports in order to travel abroad. In addition some Iranian embassies abroad do not require applicants to state a religious affiliation. In such cases, Baha'is more likely are able to renew passports". [4k](pg15)

6.76 According to the F&CO. Human Rights, Annual Report 2003, currently no Baha'i is on death row. [26l]

6.77 According to the USSD 2001,

"Over the past 2 years, the Government has taken some positive steps in recognizing the rights of Baha'is, as well as other religious minorities. In

November 1999, President Khatami publicly stated that no one in the country should be persecuted because of his or her religious beliefs. He added that he would defend the civil rights of all citizens, regardless of their beliefs or religion... Subsequently the Expediency Council approved the "Right of Citizenship" bill, affirming the social and political rights of all citizens and their equality before the law. In February 2000, following approval of the bill, the head of the judiciary issued a circular letter to all registry offices throughout the country, which permits any couple to be registered as husband and wife without being required to state their religious affiliation. This measure effectively permits the registration of Baha'i marriages in the country. Previously Baha'i marriages were not recognized by the Government, leaving Baha'i women open to charges of prostitution. Consequently children of Baha'i marriages were not recognized as legitimate and therefore were denied inheritance rights". [4k](pg15)

However according to a written statement submitted by the Baha'i International Community to the UN Commission on Human Rights on 12 March 2003 "... the relevant law has not been changed; neither Bahá'í marriage nor Bahá'í divorce is legally recognized in Iran". [10aa](pg3)

6.78 According to the USSD 2002,

"In September 2001, the Ministry of Justice issued a report that reiterated that government policy continued to aim at the eventual elimination of the Baha'is as a community. It stated in part that Baha'is would only be permitted to enroll in schools if they did not identify themselves as Baha'is, and that Baha'is preferably should be enrolled in schools that have a strong and imposing religious ideology". [4l](pg4) The report also stated that all those identified as Baha'is must be expelled from universities, either in the admission process or during the course of their studies whenever their identity as Baha'is becomes known". [4m](pg14)

6.79 Members of the Baha'i community continued to be denied the right to participate in religious gatherings and faced official discrimination in education, employment, travel, and housing. According to the UN Human Rights Commission's special representative on Iran, seven Baha'is remained in jail in Iran during the year 2002. [35a](pg5)

6.80 According to the USSD 2002,

"In what appeared to be a hopeful development, in 2002 the Government offered the Tehran community a piece of land for use as a cemetery. However, the land was in the desert, with no access to water, making it impossible to perform Baha'i mourning rituals. In addition the Government stipulated that no markers be put on individual graves and that no mortuary facilities be built on the site, making it impossible to perform a proper burial". [41](pg3)

6.81 According to the USSD 2003,

"Adherents of the Baha'i faith continued to face arbitrary arrest and detention. According to Baha'i sources, four Baha'is remained in prison for practicing their faith at year's end, one facing a life sentence, two facing sentences of 15 years, and the fourth a 4-year sentence. A small number of Baha'is were and have been in detention at any given time. Sources claimed that such arrests were carried out to "terrorize" the community and to disrupt the lives of its members. Others were arrested, charged, and then quickly released. However, the charges against them often were not dropped, generating continued apprehension".

6.82 According to a FIDH report of July 2004,

" Bahá'ís in many different localities in Iran are still subjected to arbitrary arrest, short-term detention, and persistent harassment, intimidation and discrimination. All attempts to obtain redress are systematically denied as officials continue to confiscate Bahá'í homes, deny them their rightfully earned pensions and inheritance, block their access to employment or impede their private business activities. The authorities also interfere with classes given to Bahá'í youth in private houses and persist in banning the sacred institutions that perform, in the Bahá'í Faith, most of the functions reserved to clergy in other religions". [56c](pg16)

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Freedom of Assembly and Association

6.83 According to the USSD 2003,

"The Constitution permits assemblies and marches "provided they do not violate the principles of Islam;"

however, in practice the Government restricted freedom of assembly and closely monitored gatherings to prevent anti-government protest. Such gatherings included public entertainment and lectures, student gatherings, labor protests, funeral processions, and Friday prayer gatherings". [4n](pg8)

6.84 According to a 2001 report from the DIRB there were reports of low grade conflict surrounding the events staged in July 2000 by students to mark the anniversary of the 1999 student demonstrations.

Contemporary reports conflict, but reformist events were countered by conservative student events, and confrontation between the two groups occurred. The riot police were usually on hand, sometimes dispersing demonstrators at the onset of violence, and in other instances standing by as the factions struggled and then broke away, intervening afterwards and arresting stragglers, several sources have discussed activities of collusion between the police and vigilante groups.[2i]

6.85 According to the USSD 2001 in August 2000, two leading reform intellectuals were prevented by semi-official vigilantes armed with clubs and knives from addressing a student convention in Khorramabad. Subsequent clashes between students and vigilantes resulted in the death of a police officer and injuries. The authorities arrested 150. [4k](pg11)

6.86 It was reported in the Financial Times on 24 October 2001 that in October 2001 riots and demonstrations broke out throughout the country after the national soccer team lost a match it had been heavily favoured to win. Many Iranians are convinced their team had been told to lose against Bahrain, because the government was afraid that the street celebrations and rioting that had followed previous victories were endangering stability. [66a] According to the USSD 2001 the main participants in the unrest were young persons, who appeared to use the situation to show their general displeasure with the restrictive lifestyle imposed on them by the Regime. The Government arrested hundreds. [4k](pg11) There were anecdotal reports that some demonstrators were killed; however, the Government denied this. [4k](pg11)

6.87 According to a July 2002 news report, in July 2002 several thousand people took to the streets of the Iranian capital, Tehran, to mark the anniversary of violent street protests in 1999. The protesters defied a government ban on any gathering to commemorate the riots, which were sparked by a police raid on a student dormitory. There were sporadic clashes and some demonstrators were arrested or beaten, but no serious injuries were reported. [21ad]

6.88 An AI report of 26 June 2003 reported that there were major disturbances in June 2003 when thousands of Iranians took to the streets on 10/11 June 2003 and again on the following 10 nights.

Ostensibly they were protesting against draft proposals to privatise universities in Iran. They were joined by local residents and the demonstration reportedly escalated and became increasingly politicised, with slogans being chanted against political leaders. [9w] see 4.38. for further details.

6.89 According to the HRW in the June 2004 report "Like the Dead in their Coffins",

" The "student movement" is a disparate group, without a coherent leadership or organizational structure. Some argue for reform within the current structure of the government, and others say that more drastic steps must be taken to create a democratic system. There have been several splits within student political groups, and fissures are likely to continue. The largest known student group, *Daftar-e Tahkim-e Vahdat* (the Office for the Consolidation of Unity), is the central office of various university-based *anjoman-e islami* [Islamic Societies]. Other groups of students affiliate themselves with particular intellectual leaders". [8j](pg32)

6.90 Various BBC News Reports of November/ December 2003 recorded that students continued to hold meetings and rallies for a variety of reasons, the authorities maintaining control by insisting that all such meetings should be held inside university compounds. [21aaac] In October 2003 students at Shahid Beheshti Medical College went on hunger strike protesting at the quality of their food; [21aaab] and in December 2003, despite intimidation from vigilante groups students commemorated the anniversary of the killing of a number of students in 1953. [21aaad] All of these events were heavily policed by the authorities.

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Employment Rights

6.91 According to the USSD 2003,

"The Labor Code empowers the Supreme Labor Council to establish annual minimum wage levels for each industrial sector and region; however, no information was available regarding mechanisms used to set wages. It was not known if the minimum wages were adjusted annually or enforced. The Labor Code stipulates that the minimum wage should be sufficient to meet the living expenses of a family and should take inflation into account. However, under poor economic conditions, many middle-class citizens must work at two or three jobs to support their families. The Labor

Code establishes a maximum 6-day, 48-hour workweek, with 1 weekly rest day, normally Fridays, and at least 12 days of paid annual leave and several paid public holidays. According to the Labor Code, a Supreme Safety Council, chaired by the Labor Minister or his representative, is responsible for promoting workplace safety and health. Labor organizations outside the country have alleged that hazardous work environments were common in the country and have resulted in thousands of worker deaths per year. It was not known how well the Ministry's inspectors enforced regulations. It was not known whether workers could remove themselves from hazardous situations without risking the loss of employment". [4n] (pg13)

According to the USSD 2003, during 2003 estimated inflation was 17 percent with economic growth at 6 percent during the year. [4n] (pg1)

6.92 The Labour Code allows for the establishment of unions: However, the Government does not allow independent unions to exist. [4k](pg21) There is one national, government controlled, labour organisation known as the Worker's House, founded in 1982. [4k](pg21) The Labour Code also allows employers and employees to establish guilds. The guilds issue vocational licenses and help members find jobs. [4k](pg22) The US State Department reported in its report on Human Rights practices (2003) that,

"According to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU), the role of the Worker's House changed in recent years, and there was more tolerance of workers' organizations, which included four nurses organizations, a health workers' union, and a textile workers' union. The report also notes that a 2000 law exempted companies with up to five employees from the need to comply with labor legislation for 6 years. This law affected approximately 3 million workers, making them easier to hire and fire". [4n](pg14)

6.93 According to the USSD 2003 the law prohibits public sector strikes and the Government did not tolerate any strike deemed to be at odds with its economic and labor policies; however, strikes occurred. In addition to strikes, there were also work stoppages and protests by oil, textile, electrical manufacturing, and metal workers, as well as by the unemployed. Many of these protests were due to non-payment of wage arrears, according to the ICFTU. In May, textile workers in Behshar staged a hunger strike to protest non-payment of overdue wages. Teachers staged demonstrations and sit-ins in several cities during the year for improved working conditions and wage benefits. [4n](pg14)

6.94 According to the USSD 2003,

"The law prohibits forced and bonded labor by children; however, there appears to be a serious problem with child labor. The Labor Law prohibits employment of minors less than 15 years of age and places restrictions on the employment of minors under age 18; however, laws pertaining to child labor were not enforced adequately. The law permits children to work in agriculture, domestic service, and some small businesses. The law prohibits the employment of women and minors in hard labor or night work. Information regarding the extent to which these regulations were enforced was not available". [4n](pg14)

6.95 There are no known affiliations with international labour organisations. [4n(pg14)]

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People Trafficking

6.96 According to the USSD 2003,

"The law does not prohibit specifically trafficking in persons. However people were reportedly trafficked to, through, and from the country during the year". [4n](pg15)

According to Child Soldiers.Org in March 2002t there have been regular but unconfirmed reports of the Mojahedin-e Khalq (MKO) trafficking children from camps in Iraq to Europe and North America. [30]

The USSD 2003 further states that,

"It was difficult to measure the extent of the Government's efforts to curb human trafficking, but national and international press reporting indicated that Tehran has taken action against bandits involved in abducting women and children. The regime has also reportedly arrested, convicted, and executed numerous human trafficking offenders. During the year, police reportedly arrested numerous members of prostitution rings and closed down brothels". [4n](pg15)

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Freedom of Movement

6.97 According to the DIRB in a 1997 report accessed in September 2003, Iranians enjoy freedom of movement within Iran. [2c](pg20)

"Citizens may travel to any part of the country, although there have been occasional restrictions on travel to Kurdish areas during times of heavy fighting". [4f](pg11)

However, leaving Iran may be difficult for certain Iranians, particularly women, Baha'is, Jews in some cases, certain government opponents, those thought to be members of the radical opposition groups [2c](pg20) and draft-age males. [4f](pg11)

6.98 A Danish report of a fact finding mission to Iran in September 2000 recorded that,

"The delegation met Mohammad Ali Mirkhani, Head of the Passport and Visa Department of the Iranian Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The conditions for issuing Iranian passports were also discussed with the Iranian police force's passport division (Law Enforcement Forces – LEF) at its head office in Tehran. According to Mohammad Ali Mirkhani, the Iranian police force (LEF) is the authority responsible for issuing passports. According to the LEF, the department has 9 passport-issuing offices in Tehran and a further 49 offices in other cities in Iran. According to Mr Mirkhani, any Iranian citizen above the age of 18 is entitled to an Iranian passport, but possession of such a passport does not mean that the holder is permitted to leave Iran. If it is established at the time a passport is issued that the passport applicant has matters to settle with the Iranian authorities, the person concerned will be informed accordingly. At the same time, the applicant will be requested to contact the relevant authority in order to solve the problem. Only once this has been done can the applicant be issued with a passport. An application form has to be completed when applying for a passport. The details provided on the form must be identical to those which appear on the applicant's Iranian identity card, which must be presented in conjunction with the application. In addition, Iranian men must present a military logbook certifying that they have completed military service. Any Iranian citizen applying for a passport must come in person to the LEF, both to submit the application form and to collect the passport when it is ready. A passport can be issued within 48 hours of the application form being submitted. Iranian passports are valid for five years. They

can be extended for a further five years. There are no periods of validity other than five years". [41a](pg6)

According to the USSD 1998, Government employees may need a letter of permission or to post a bond to travel abroad. Citizens who were educated at public expense and whose skills are in short supply are required to post bonds to obtain exit permits. [4f](pg11)

6.99 A Report from the DIRB dated 1997 states that women must have written, notarised permission from their father, husband or legal guardian, except in certain circumstances e.g. widows. No one under 18 is issued a passport, except under special circumstances where the minor is travelling without a parent or guardian. [2c](pg20)

6.100 According to the UNHCR Country of Origin Information Seminar. Final Report. Berlin June 2001,

"Exit formalities have considerably relaxed since the initial years after the revolution. While previously it was very difficult to obtain a passport, in recent years it has become much easier. However, departure procedures are still such that it would be highly improbable that anyone with a forged passport in which name and number do not tally would be able to leave the country. Security officials at the airport possess lists of suspected or wanted persons and it is not unusual that passengers wishing to leave are prevented from leaving and told to refer to the security department. In general, the security checks at Tehran airport are still very strict and it is doubtful that anyone with a security record and convictions in Iran for political offences would be able to leave the country legally by air. Yet, although the degree is hard to assess, corruption certainly exists and in individual cases people may be able to bribe their way out of the airport." [3c](pg107)"However, leaving the country across the border to Pakistan, but also to Turkey and Azerbaijan, is fairly easy and happens all the time".[3c](pg107) Counterfeit passports are, reportedly, uncommon in Iran. [2c](pg21)

6.101 According to the DIRB people seeking to leave Iran illegally do so most commonly overland through Turkey, Pakistan or Azerbaijan. [2c](pg21) [3c] The penalties for violating or attempting to violate exit regulations, such as leaving on an illegal or falsified document, range from 1 month - 3 years imprisonment and/or a fine. [2c](pg24) The actual penalty being dependant on the individual circumstances. [26e]

6.102 According to the USSD 2003,

"Citizens returning from abroad sometimes were subjected to searches and extensive questioning by government authorities for evidence of anti-government activities abroad. Recorded and printed material, personal correspondence, and photographs were subject to confiscation". [4n](pg10)

According to the COI Seminar Berlin Report 2001, on the basis of the information Amnesty International receives, usually a person who gets back will be asked why s/he was abroad. If the answer is along the lines of "I just tried to find a job", they will most likely be allowed to go home to their families. Generally speaking, it does depend on what kind of documentation exists on the returnee and what the actual practice of the country is in which the concerned individual applied for asylum. [3c]

6.103 According to the COI Seminar Berlin Report 2001, upon return, in recent years the practice has become more liberal with regard to possession and confiscation of items purchased abroad, such as CDs from Dubai and other Western products. It mostly depends on what the authorities are looking for. If they assume that a person has returned from a country like the USA this person certainly will be questioned and undergo stringent checks, but will normally not be detained for a longer period of time. [3c]

6.104 It was reported by the BBC Monitoring Service on 5 August 1998 that since 9 August 1998, British Airways had resumed direct flights to Teheran and stated the intention to station its flight crew there. [6b] As a result of the Immigration Transit Visa Amendment No.3 Order 1998, Iranian nationals need to obtain a visa to travel to, or through, the United Kingdom. [20b]

6.105 It was reported by the BBC Monitoring Service on 2 September 2002 that in September 2002 the deputy foreign minister announced that Iranians who have obtained the citizenship of foreign countries with Iran's prior agreement can, once again, become Iranian citizens. and further that the question of illegal exit had been resolved. [21aag]

6.106. According to the F&CO In the case of returned asylum seekers it has been reported by observers that they have seen no evidence that failed claimants, persons who have illegally exited Iran, or deportees face any significant problem upon return to Iran. [26f] According to the DIRB IN A July 1999 report ,

"Several times in the recent past, senior government officials have declared that all Iranians living abroad are welcome to return home without fear of reprisal. ... and the Foreign Ministry's Consular Department has confirmed that applying for asylum abroad is not an offence in Iran". [2f]

In contrast to this opinion it was also stated that in the same source that,

" The only exception to this, he stated, might be persons who are extremely critical and/or advocate the overthrow of the government through the use of force; he named the Mujahedin-e-Khalq Organization as an example. The representative stated that family members of these persons could face difficulties leaving the country, but added that the son of Massoud Rajavi, the leader of the Mujahedin, lives in Iran and goes to university there. And alsothat relatives of high profile refugee claimants outside Iran could face some difficulties." [21]

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Refugees in Iran

6.107 According to the USSD 2003,

"The law contains provisions for granting refugee status to persons who meet the definition in the 1951 U.N. Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol. There were no reports of the forced return of persons to a country where they feared persecution; however, there were reports that the Government deported refugees deemed "illegal" entrants into the country. In times of economic uncertainty, the Government increased pressure on refugees to return to their home countries. The Government generally cooperated with the U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and other humanitarian organizations in assisting refugees". [4n](pg10)

6.108 According to the United States Committee for Refugees World Refugee Survey 2003 (USCR 2003) The country hosts a large refugee population, mostly Afghans who fled during the Soviet occupation. The UNHCR estimates that there are approximately 1.4 million Afghan refugees in the country, though the Government puts estimates as high as 2.3 million and latest estimates from the United States Committee for Refugees gives a figure of some 2 million. [35b]

6.109 According to the USSD 2003, the UNHCR estimated at the end of 2003 that there were approximately 200,000 the majority of whom were Iraqi Kurds, but also included Shi'a Arabs. [4n](pg10) It was reported by the UN on 05 July 2004 that a new border crossing had been opened in the North at Haj Omran. This is intended to be used to allow Kurdish refugees easier access to their homes in Northern Iraq. [75b] Many of these Iraqi refugees originally were expelled by Iraq at the beginning of

the Iran-Iraq war because of their suspected Iranian origin. In numerous instances, both the Iraqi and Iranian Governments dispute their citizenship. Other Iraqi refugees arrived following Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in 1990. [4n](pg10) During 2003, the Government took substantial steps to prepare for the possibility of new Iraqi refugees, but significant outflows never appeared. In November 2003, UNHCR initiated a pilot repatriation of refugees from the country and had repatriated a few hundred to Iraq by early December 2003. According to press reports, refugee officials speculated that up to three-quarters of the 200,000 refugees in the country may have crossed back into Iraq without formal assistance since April 2003. [4n](pg10) Although the Government claimed to host more than 30,000 refugees of other nationalities, including Tajiks, Bosnians, Azeris, Eritreans, Somalis, Bangladeshis, and Pakistanis, it did not provide information about them or allow the UNHCR or other organizations access to them. [4n](pg10)

6.110 According to a RFE/RL News Service Report in March 2004, The Iranian Interior Ministry announced on the 30 March 2004 that the repatriation of Iraqi refugees had began after the ousting of Saddam Hussein. It was claimed that 70,000 had returned voluntarily leaving 125,000 still resident within Iran. [42b] The UNHCR News Stories Web Site reported on 9 February 2004 that the largest refugee camp, Ashrafi, which had originally held 12,000 Iraqi refugees had closed in February 2004 as a result. [3e]

6.111 According to Europa 2003 in early 2002 the Iranian authorities and UNHCR were co-operating in establishing registration centres for refugees wishing to return to Afghanistan; exit points were to be constructed at three points along the Iran-Afghanistan border in preparation for the commencement of voluntary repatriations. [1b](pg2110) The programme of voluntary returns under UNHCR auspices commenced in April 2002. It is claimed that some 500,000 refugees had returned to Afghanistan from Iran by the end of January 2003 and it is expected that the remainder will have been repatriated by 2004. [1b](pg2110) The UN ReliefWeb Web Site reported on 10 March 2004 that hundreds of thousands of Afghan refugees returned to Afghanistan during the year. Since the fall of the Taliban it is estimated by the Iranian Government that 706,000 Afghans have "voluntarily returned". [49b] The UNHCR expressed concern that the Government was pressing them to leave, a contention the Government denied. [4m](pg17)

6.112 According to a Reliefweb report of 10 March 2004 in a tough new move the Iranian Government announced that from 20 March 2005 Afghans will no longer be considered as refugees and that they would face heightened restrictions. These will include denial of access, unless a residency permit is held, to employment and to many of the social services infrastructure such as education and rental and banking facilities. This is seen as a move to accelerate repatriation. [49b]

6.B Human Rights - Specific Groups

Ethnic minority groups

6.113 According to the ACCORD - "7th European Country of Origin Information Seminar Berlin, 11 - 12 June 2001: Final Report - Iran"

"There are many ethnic minorities in Iran such as Arabs, Bakhtiari, Armenians, Baluchis, Azeris, Kurds, Lor, Qashghais, Torkomans and others. Art. 15 of the Constitution of Iran mentions Farsi as the official language of Iran, but adds that the "use of local and ethnic languages in the press and for the mass media and the teaching of their literature shall be allowed besides the Farsi language". Art. 19 of the Constitution mentions that the people of Iran belonging to whatever ethnic or tribal group shall enjoy equal rights." [3c](pg99)

Kurds

6.114 According to a 1995 UNHCR report the Kurds are believed to number about 6 million and live in the north west of the country, principally in the province of Kurdistan, along the borders with Iraq and Turkey. The Islamic regime deals harshly with rebellious Kurdish leaders seeking autonomy - notably those of the Kurdish Democratic Party of Iran (KDPI) and the Marxist Komalah - and their militant supporters. [3b] Iranian troops are permanently stationed in Kurdish areas and also monitor the activities of members of the Iraqi Kurdish Democratic Party in the areas. [3b] Both UNHCR and the USSD in a 1997 report however, that ethnic Kurds can be found in all walks of life in Iran both in the private and public economic sectors as well as in Iran's military and civilian establishments. [3a](pg30) [4d](pg22)

6.115 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, most Kurds are Sunni Muslims but there is a minority of Shi'i Muslim Kurds in Iran, primarily in the province of Kermanshah. While the Kurds in Iran traditionally had a nomadic component to their society, most have been settled due to government policy. The Kurds speak several dialects of the Kurdish language and are divided into many tribes. [33] The status of the Kurds in Iran remains basically unchanged since 1989. [33]

6.116 According to an UN report of May 2003 , in late 2000, a Kurdish Member of Parliament publicly alleged the existence of a campaign of repression and serial killings against the Kurdish community in Iran and in the following year, in October 2001, all six members of the Iranian

Parliament from Kurdistan province collectively resigned. Their joint letter to the Interior Minister claimed that the legitimate rights of the Kurds, especially the Sunni amongst them, were being denied. Whilst there are a number of Kurdish MPs they are not able to form a pro-Kurdish party and they hold their seats as independent candidates. [10u] (pg8) According to the USSD 2003 "In recent years, greater Kurdish cultural expression has been allowed and Kurdish publications and broadcasting have expanded. However, there was still no public school education in the Kurdish language". [4N(PG13)]

6.117 According to news reports from BBC Monitoring during October 2003, there had been sporadic civil disruption within the Kurdish area of Iran. On 17 October 2003 a demonstration was held in the town of Sardasht when security forces opened fire killing one and injuring at least two others. The demonstration was originally held in protest at the killing, by the security forces, apparently by accident, of three citizens on the road between Sardasht and Piran. [21a2ae] It was also reported by the Kurdish press in March 2004 that larger demonstrations were triggered by events within the Kurdish area of Iraq when as a result of the signing of the Iraqi constitution it transpired that Iraqi Kurdistan had gained considerable status within the Iraqi federal plan. The demonstrations followed as a result of Iranian Kurds showing solidarity and support with the Iraqi Kurds. The security forces reacted vigorously to the demonstrators. [55]

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Arabs

6.118 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, the Arabs in Iran probably date back to the Arab conquest during the 7th and 8th centuries which brought Islam to Iran. The main factor that differentiates them from Iran's Persian speaking majority is that they speak one of several dialects of Arabic. [33] UNHCR stated in 1998 that, at least two million Arabs, mainly Shi'a Muslims, live in Iran, chiefly in Khuzestan and in the south. The Sunni Arabs tend to live on the Gulf coastline. [3a](pg30) About 40% live in urban areas and the majority of these urban Arabs are unskilled workers. Some urban Arabs and most rural Arabs are tribally organized. These tribal loyalties can have a major impact not only on a societal level but also on political considerations. The rural Arabs of Khuzestan are mostly farmers and fishermen and many of those that live along the Persian Gulf coastal plains are pastoral nomads. These areas contain most of Iran's oil reserves. [33] Many are employed in the agriculture and oil industries. [3a](pg30)

6.119 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, both the urban and rural Arabs of Khuzestan are intermingled with the Persians, Turks and Lurs who also live in the province and often inter-marry with them.

Despite this, Iranian Arabs are regarded by themselves and by Iran's other ethnic groups as separate and distinct from non-Arabs. [33]

6.120 UNHCR stated in 1998 and, according to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, the Government of Iraq, both before and after Iran's 1979 revolution, accused Iran of discrimination against its Arab population. Despite this, the Arab population of Khuzestan sided with Iran during the Iran-Iraq war. [3a](pg30) [33] Outside of Khuzestan there is little ethnic solidarity among Iran's Arabs. The division between Shi'i and Sunni Muslims also hampers ethnic solidarity. [33]

6.121 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, the Arab Political Cultural Organization (APCO) was formed in 1979. It requested some concessions in April 1979 and was given the green light to form a provincial council with limited autonomy. Unrest occurred afterwards due to the presence of Revolutionary Guards, especially in the Khuzestani city of Khorramshahr. The unrest continued and escalated when the Arabs started bombing oil refineries and pipelines on "Black Wednesday" June 14, 1979. On April 30, 1980, they seized the Iranian embassy in London in order to free 91 Arabs imprisoned in Iran. [33]

6.122 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, however attempts to gain autonomy gave way to support for Iran during the Iran-Iraq war. [33]

6.123 According to the USSD 2003, foreign representatives of the Ahwazi Arabs of Khuzistan, whose numbers could range as high as 4 million or more, claimed that their community in the southwest of the country suffered from discrimination. They claimed that the Ahwazis were denied the right to study, speak, publish newspapers, and educate their children in Arabic, and that the use of Arabic names for babies was prohibited except for ordinary Shi'a religious names. They asserted that the Government has ignored their appeals to de-mine the vast stretches of Khuzistan which were mined during the Iran-Iraq War, and that consequently, many people, especially children, continued to be maimed by mines. [4m](pg21)

6.124 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001,

"Like every other group, (in terms of levels of discrimination), Arabs do not openly express their ethnic identity". [3c](pg101)

According to a Reuters Report of February 2000 however, during the February 2000 elections police fired at crowds of demonstrators protesting against alleged ballot rigging in two towns in southwestern Iran, Shush and Shadegan, killing eight and wounding scores more, [5aab] and according to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001,

"In terms of levels of discrimination there is some evidence of riots in Abadan that have been connected to the fact that Khuzestan as a province has been neglected by the central Government". [3c] (pg101)

According to the CEDOCA Mission Report of 2002, the riots in Abadan began on 5 July 2000 with a peaceful demonstration outside the office of the Governor of Abadan, Mr Nazemi, close to Bassij Square, which was formerly Taiib Square. Between 7,000 and 8,000 demonstrators (residents of Abadan) protested from 8 a.m. against the poor quality of the drinking water. The fact that the drinking water contained too much salt was a problem which was known to everyone. The first three hours of the demonstration went by peacefully. Riots then broke out on and around Bassij Square, and the tone of the demonstration became political rather than social. A total of around 300 people were arrested and it was rumoured that a few people were killed. [43](pg13)

6.125 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, there have been death sentences, although those convicted had been involved in violent acts such as the bombing of offices and liaisons, etc. [3c] According to an AI reports of March and June 2002, as recently as January 2002 five Arab activists were hanged in Ahvaz for arms smuggling. According to the Ahwazian Arab Peoples Democratic and Popular Front, an organisation based in Europe, another five men have recently been condemned to death in Ahvaz, apparently for opposing the Government's policy of land seizures in the region [9n] and on 10 June 2002, according to Amnesty International, a sixteen year old, a member of Iran's Arab minority, was reportedly detained without charge at Tehran's Mehrabad airport. Detained with other individuals, not specifically Arab, he was held in connection with passport and visa violations, though the arrest may have been politically motivated. [9o] Amnesty International has expressed concern in terms of possible torture and illegal detention. [9o]

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Baluchis

6.126 According to an UNHCR Background Paper of 1998, the Baluchis are Sunni Muslims, numbering between one and two million. [3a](pg30) and according to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, Iranian Baluch are not targeted as a group and not persecuted unless they are involved in some general opposition-related activities. They are mainly concentrated in Sistan and Baluchistan province at the border with Pakistan and Afghanistan. [3c] (pg100) There are large areas in these provinces that are not under the control of the Iranian authorities. In addition, the jails are overcrowded with Afghans and Baluchis who have been lured into the lucrative drug trade. [3c] (pg100)

6.127 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, the situation of the Baluchis since 1989 seems to have remained unchanged, both economically and politically. They still inhabit some of the poorest regions in Iran and still are denied autonomy by the Iranian government. [33] The Baluchi grievances have related to discrimination against them in the economic, educational, cultural and political fields. A number of Baluchi Sunni leaders have been killed, and it has been suggested that the circumstances could be taken to suggest the involvement of the authorities in their deaths. [10u](pg9) There are the occasional outbreaks of violence such as the reported clashes between demonstrators and police in Saravan, a result of the death of a motorcyclist shot by the police for refusing to stop. It was claimed that up to 5 people died as a result of the clashes. [21aaai]

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Azeris

6.128 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001,

"As has been the case since the mid-1980s, the Azeris have not had to deal with much repression or discrimination. The Iranian government prefers to emphasize the cultural similarities between the Persian speaking majority of Iran and the Azeris. The only repression or discrimination that occurred since the revolution has been immediately after the revolution in order to repress the stirring Azeri nationalism and demands for autonomy.

Thus, it is clear that as long as the Azeris are content to be part of the Iranian state, they will be treated more or less the same as the Persian speaking majority. However, the declaration of independence by the bordering state of Azerbaijan and its struggle with the Armenians is likely to arouse feelings of nationalism and demands for autonomy or even secession among Iranian Azeris. The only group political activity between 1990 and 1999 by Iranian Azeris was in support of their brothers across the border". [33]

The Azerbaijanis, also known as the Azeris, are the largest minority in Iran comprising between one quarter and one third of Iran's population estimates vary because the Iranian census does not count Azeris specifically. They are Shi'i Muslims and in most respects similar to the rest of the Iranian population. [33] Many prominent Iranian Shi'i clerics have been and are Azeris. The one factor that differentiates them from the rest of the Iranian population is that their native language is Azeri Turkish. They live in the north western provinces of East and West

Azerbaijan as well as in Tehran and scattered communities in between these provinces and Tehran. [33]

6.129 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, for a brief period after the revolution, the Azeri language press flourished. Also, with Soviet encouragement and support, Azeri nationalism and the desire for autonomy began to resurge. However, the Iranian Government considered this nationalism to be the result of Soviet interference in Iranian affairs and began to repress this resurgent nationalism in the early 1980s. After 1981, there were few reports of disturbances and by 1984, only one of the many Azeri language publications remained. The Azeris, particularly since the late 1980s, have participated in the Iranian government at a national level as much as any other group, including ethnic Iranians, up to the highest levels of government. [33]

6.130 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, the Azeris have no illegal or legal political parties or organizations. [33] Nevertheless, there have been complaints about discrimination against Azeris by the Iranian regime, particularly against Turkic speaking Azeris. One commentator writes of the dominance of a policy of 'Persian chauvinism' leading to the removal of the Azeri language from official use in all areas such as schools, courts, government structures and the army as well as the prohibition of some forms of Azeri cultural expression. [10u](pg7)

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Women

6.131 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, Iranian women were very much involved in the 1979 Revolution. Women were told to take to the streets and participate in the overthrow of the Shah and in the establishment of an Islamic State. While initially women in the Revolution were heralded as heroic militants, gradually the clerical elite has come to describe the ideal woman as an obedient wife and mother. [3c]

6.132 According to an UNHCR Report of 1995, both the Constitution and international conventions adopted by Iran grant men and women equal rights. This conforms to Islamic criteria. Further, Article 21 of the Constitution stipulates that the government shall guarantee women's rights in all respects and create a favourable atmosphere for restoring their material and spiritual rights. [3b]

6.133 According to the USSD 1999, this is not to say that women do not face social and legal discrimination. [4f](pg13) USSD 2001 reports that the view of women in a primarily familial context and motherhood role continues to be encouraged. Women may work or study, [4k](pg19) although, according to the DIRB paper on Women in the Islamic

Republic 1994, some areas of study are closed to women, female students are segregated from male teachers, and social constraints inhibit their opportunities. [2d] This said, the literacy level was more than 80 per cent among Iranian women in 1998 [14a] and may now be above 90 per cent. In a recent statement made by the adviser to the President on Women's Affairs, it was reported that the percentage of 6-14 year old girls attending school had increased from 94 per cent to 97 per cent and that the percentage of girls accepted at universities had increased to 64 per cent. [5aj] The choice of a woman's occupation depends on her husband, who may prevent her working if he deems it contrary to the family's interest, although he must prove this to the Special Civil Tribunal. [2d][3c] Women workers are subject to difficulties in the work place particularly as a result of entrenched cultural attitudes. [21aaq]

6.134 According to the USSD 2003 ,

"The Government enforced gender segregation in most public spaces, and prohibited women from mixing openly with unmarried men or men not related to them. Women must ride in a reserved section on public buses [4n(pg13) although the first woman bus driver has just taken to the roads, [21aae] and enter public buildings, universities, and airports through separate entrances. Women were prohibited from attending male sporting events, although this restriction did not appear to be enforced universally. While the enforcement of conservative Islamic dress codes varied, what women wore in public was not entirely a matter of personal choice. The authorities sometimes harassed women if their dress or behavior was considered inappropriate, and women may be sentenced to flogging or imprisonment for such violations). The law prohibits the publication of pictures of uncovered women in the print media, including pictures of foreign women. There are penalties for failure to observe Islamic dress codes at work". [4n(pg13)

In August 2002 the authorities banned women as well as youths under 25, from smoking the Middle Eastern Water Pipe, or Narguileh, in Tehran's restaurants and cafes, as part of a bid to maintain "social discipline". [5ap] It was announced in early January 2003 that a Tehran football club - Paykan - had started to allow women into its stadium to watch games. [17e]

6.135 In a news report from Albawaba.com dated January 30 2003, it was said that many of these restrictions were being eroded. [39a]

6.136 It was announced on 29 August 2002 that soon, in Zanjan Province, female police officers will carry out patrol duties and soon similar units will become active in other provinces. [5ai] It is anticipated

that by early 2003 there will be at least 400 qualified policewomen joining male colleagues on the streets of Tehran. [21aad] In May 2003 it was expected that Iran's first female police officers would graduate in August 2003 [21aap] and they did in fact graduate on 04 October 2003. [21aay]

6.137 According to Europa 2004, in the political field, women have been appointed to two positions of some responsibility by President Khatami, with Masumeh Ebtekar appointed as the first female vice president for environmental protection thereby giving a woman Cabinet rank for the first time since the founding of the Islamic Republic [1a](pg378) and Azam Nouri as Deputy Minister of Culture and Islamic Guidance, both in 1997. He has also appointed a woman to serve as Presidential Advisor in the Foreign Ministry's Department for Women and Social Affairs. One of the district mayors of Tehran is also female. However, women held only 13 of the 290 Majlis seats during the year 2002. [4h] [26i] Iran's new parliament (May 2004) has nine female legislators. [76a] On 27 May 2002 it was reported that the Government was planning to employ women in the Foreign Ministry as secretaries and charge d'affaires. [5ak]

6.138 According to UN and USSD reports from 1995, 1998 and 1999 Women have been appointed to four positions of family court judge by President Khatami. [3b] Their authority is limited principally to family law cases. [4f](pg12) Following the first female prosecutor appointment in 1996, twenty women were reported to be training as investigative judges. [3b] Women have also been appointed to senior diplomatic positions overseas. [10m](pg6)

6.139 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, women suffer discrimination in the legal code, [3c] (pg102) particularly in family and property matters. This is the area that affects women most badly. It is difficult for many women, particularly those living outside large cities, to obtain legal redress. According to an UN Report of 1998 under the legal system, women are denied equal rights of testimony and inheritance. [10j](pg3) According to a BBC News Report of 29 May 2002 however, a bill was passed by the Majlis on 22 May 2002 which gave divorced mothers the same custody rights over boys as girls. [5a] Payvand News reported that on 08 February 2003 the Expediency Council sided with the parliament after the bill was twice quashed by the supervisory Guardians Council on the ground that it went against the Islamic Sharia law and agreed to grant divorced Iranian mothers the right to the custody of their children up to the age of seven. [53f] A woman's testimony is worth less than that of a man's, making it difficult for a woman to prove a case against a male defendant. [9c](pg9)

6.140 According to the USSD 1998, violence against women in the family is recognised, with "blood money" - Diah. Although the award to a woman will be only half of that made to a man. In addition, families of female victims of violent crimes are reported to have to pay for an

assailant's court costs. [4f](Pg6) The "blood money" paid to the family of a female crime victim is half the sum paid for a man, and will remain so even if the new law passed by the Majlis equalizing "blood money" for Muslims and non-Muslims is accepted by the Guardian Council. On 27 December 2003 the bill was approved by the Expediency Council. [53b] According to the USSD 2002, any change would only pertain to men. [4m](pg20) According to the USSD 1998 and an UN Report of 17 December 1998, little detail is known of the degree of domestic violence in Iran, with no official statistics on abuse within the family [4f](pg13) although surveys (eg Tehran University surveys) indicate levels of domestic violence are very high, women have almost no legal redress, and there is a fair amount of social tolerance of domestic violence. Iran welcomed UN contributions to the drafting of a convention on the elimination of forced labour and trafficking in women for sexual and other exploitation. [10n](pg4)

6.141 According to an UN Report of 1998, a prominent Iranian scholar, Ayatollah Bojnourdi, spoke out in favour of the revision of laws, which are discriminating between men and women. In 1998 the judiciary's Bureau of Women's Affairs further said that legislation meant to reduce hardship for women in divorce and property cases had not yet properly implemented. [10b] In addition to the position of women regarding evidence of witness, inheritance, retribution and judgement in civil and penal codes, the continued arranged marriages of young girls by fathers and grandfathers was noted. [10b] On 10 May 2004 it was reported in a BBC News report that Iran's outgoing reformist parliament had approved a bill which would grant women equal inheritance rights to men. [21aaap] However according to the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs in a news report dated 22 June 2004 "the reformists have little chance of passing the bill". [75a]

6.142 According to an UN Report of 28 December 1998, women are given segregated medical treatment following the recent "Medical Religious Standard Conformity Act", other than where emergency wards are used. They also travel in segregated railway carriages unless travelling with a male companion; have access to separate parks within some cities; and can use separate facilities in a newly opened passport office. While the Iranian authorities have claimed such steps are for the safety and convenience of women, they do not represent gender equality according to international standards. [10m](pg6)

6.143 According to an UN Report of 28 January 1998 ,in December 1997 President Khatami called for a re-evaluation of religious attitudes towards women, to "purge practices that are considered religious but are not". [10b] HRW 1999 reported that Conservatives responded by trying to ban activism for women's rights. [8d](pg1) According to the USSD 1999, in June 1998, legal scholar Hojatoleslam Sayyid Mohsen Saidzadeh was convicted by the SCC for his outspoken criticism of the treatment women under the law. He was released from prison early in

1999. However, the Government banned him from performing any clerical duties for 5 years and prohibited him from publishing. [4g](pg9) A bill aimed at making defence of women's rights outside legal and Sharia frameworks illegal, passed its second reading in August 1998. This bill would also prevent pictures of unveiled women from appearing in the press. [8d](pg1)

6.144 According to a report on the situation of human rights in the Islamic Republic of Iran, submitted by the Special Representative of the Commission on Human Rights in December 1998 it was stated that.

" In one sense, gradual change has been under way for some time. For example, the illiteracy rate among women is said to have dropped from 22 to 9 per cent over the period since 1979. Indeed, according to a foreign press account, Population Action International in Washington reported recently that Iran was one of the 10 countries to have made the most progress in narrowing educational inequality between the sexes; 30 per cent of doctors are said to be women. The recruitment of women to work in the police force was recently approved, admittedly to work chiefly in women-related functions. A female journalists' association has been established. Women are beginning to be appointed to senior diplomatic positions overseas. The first female university chancellor has been appointed, albeit of a women's university. More appointments of women were made to the judicial service but none still to the position of presiding judge. Some of these developments are significant; some are symbolic". [10m](pg6) and also , "For his part the Deputy Speaker of the Majlis is reported in the press to have stated that there was a long way to go before women could enjoy their full rights. He acknowledged that there were laws to be amended in this regard." [10m](pg6)

6.145 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, the question of passport issuance still requires the husband's permission:

"With regard to passports, the requirements are usually checked when a person wanting to leave applies for a passport. If the criteria, one of them being the husband's permission, are not fulfilled the passport will not be issued. Once you are at the airport you should not have a problem. There does not seem to exist a special written permission by the husband for a woman to leave the country". [3c] (pg102)

6.146 On 10 March 2004 the United Nations Development Programme announced that it was to set up a Women's Information Centre in Iran to promote the conditions of women in the country. [3f]

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The Hijab

6.147 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, the Hijab modest dress code became mandatory in 1980 and is required to be worn in all public places regardless of a woman's religion or citizenship. [3c] The UNHCR reports that women's hair must be fully covered and their faces free of make-up. Contravention of the dress code is punishable by either a verbal reprimand, [3a](pg36) [3b] a fine, 74 strokes of the lash [3a](pg36) [3b] or a prison term of up to three months. [8b](pg3) According to the USSD 1998, enforcement has varied considerably since the death of Ayotollah Khomeini, and continues to be enforced arbitrarily. Thousands of women have been arrested and taken in for questioning and in some cases flogged; arrests are carried out by the morality police, the Revolutionary Guards and the Baseej. Detentions increase during periods such as the period of Moharram in May 1998, associated with mourning and piety. Failure to observe the Islamic dress code at work by government workers can result in prosecution under a law passed in 1993. [4f](pg15)

6.148 Reports in the Press have stated that the public attempts at loosening the Hijab are driven predominantly by those aged under 25 years, who make up 60 per cent of the population. [14a] There is some evidence that this rigidity, particularly in Tehran is loosening. [40a] While the battle between Khatami and the hard-line conservatives over relaxing the Islamic restrictions continued [14a] after winning parliamentary elections in February 2004, hardliners warned they would not tolerate what they described as social corruption and in July 2004 Iran's morality police made several raids in Tehran, in an apparent crackdown on women who flout the strict Islamic dress code. [21aaal]

6.149 According to a BBC News Report of 17 June 2002, the Web is providing a way for women in Iran to talk freely about taboo subjects such as sex and boyfriends. [21z] as a result of the increase in the number of weblogs (a form of chat or discussion sites) or online journals. [21z] [see also paragraph 6.52]

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Marriage

6.150 According to the DIRB (1994) and the USSD 1998, current law in Iran sanctions two types of marriage: permanent marriage and temporary marriage called sigheh or mut'a. Temporary marriage is

limited by a period of time, normally specified in the marriage contract, which may vary from 1 hour to 99 years. The husband may terminate the marriage at any time. Men are allowed up to four permanent wives and an unlimited number of concubines or temporary wives. [2d][4f](pg14) Muslim men are free to marry non-Muslim women, but marriage between Muslim women and non-Muslim men is not recognised. [4f](pg14)

6.151 According to the USSD 1998, the showing of the film "Leila" in Tehran in 1997 generated public debate about the status of married women, and of multiple marriage in particular. [10b] According to the USSD 1998, the minimum legal age for marriage is 9 years, [4f](pg14) According to the USSD 2000 "In October (2000) the Parliament passed a bill to raise the legal age of marriage for women from 9 to 15. However, the Council of Guardians in November (2000) rejected the bill as contrary to Islamic law, although even under current law, marriage at the minimum age is rare and according to the USSD 2000, all women must have the permission of the father or a living male relative to marry. [4h] (pg19)

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Mehriyeh

6.152 According to the an article "A Wedding, Tehrani Style" - By: B. Bagheri,

"One of the most important details to be agreed upon is to set a "mehriyeh". This is the amount of monetary compensation that the future husband will have to pay his wife in the unfortunate case of a divorce. Mehriyeh has proven to be a fairly effective insurance policy for the women in a society where there are limited options after a divorce. The process of setting the mehriyeh amount is sometimes the subject of much controversy and business-like negotiations, occasionally causing one side (or both) to call the whole thing off! For many aristocratic and modern Iranian families, a high mehriyeh is a status symbol, while many religious and orthodox families, as well as the intellectual types, express their confidence and faith in the future strength of the new marriage by setting the mehriyeh to be a very small token amount or simply a copy of the holy book of Ghoraan (The Moslem holy book of Qoran) and a couple of pieces of Iranian crystal sugar rocks! The sugar is to symbolise the sweetness and joy that is intended and sought from the marriage." [51]

6.153 It was reported in the Times on 17 May 1998, that following the 1979 Revolution in Iran, Islamic leaders told the populace to procreate and produce an army of 20 million. The population subsequently grew by up to 4

per cent per annum. However, the clerics now support the notion of contraception with teachings from the Koran, and the population growth rate has halved. [15a]

6.154 According to the BBC Monitoring Service on 27 August 2002, Iran's reformist parliament passed a bill on 27 August 2002 which would allow donation of fetuses for the first time since the 1979 Islamic Revolution but the bill needs approval by the conservative Guardian Council of Clerics to become law. [5an]

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Divorce

6.155 According to the DIRB Report, Women in the Islamic Republic of Iran [June 1994] divorce applies to permanent marriage only. A husband wishing to divorce is required to obtain court permission to register the divorce if his wife does not agree to the divorce, but registration can only be delayed by the court, not prevented. A husband is not required to cite a reason for divorcing his wife. The conditions under which a woman may divorce depend on the year that she married, and the legislation that was in effect at the time of her marriage. [2a] On 28 September 2002 it was reported in a Reuters News Report that the Guardian Council had returned, to the Majlis, for further consideration, a bill which would allow women greater rights to divorce their husbands for example on grounds of drug addiction, insanity, impotence or inability to financially provide for his family. [5am] In December 2002 a BBC News Report said that the Guardian Council approved this bill [21aa] which gives women the right to ask for divorce on 12 specific grounds eg addiction, imprisonment and emotional difficulties - although this does not constitute full equal rights. Divorced women, particularly in rural areas, may find themselves socially isolated and may face financial difficulty. [19a](pg19)

6.156 According to the USSD 1998, in 1986 the Government issued a 12-point model contract for marriage and divorce which limited the privileges traditionally accorded to men under Islamic law. A divorced woman's rights to a share of the matrimonial properties and to increased alimony rights were recognised. [4f](pg14)

6.157 In the event of divorce, the father traditionally has legal custody of his children [2a], unless a woman can show her spouse to be an unfit father and applies under legislation passed in November 1998 to obtain custody. [4f](pg14) [10b] According to Reuters on 22 May 2002 a bill was passed by the Majlis which gave divorced mothers the same custody rights over boys as girls [5a] and Payvand News reported that on 08 February 2003 the arbitative Expediency Council agreed to grant divorced Iranian mothers the right to the custody of their children up to the age of seven. The Expediency Council sided with the parliament

after the bill was twice quashed by the supervisory Guardians Council on the ground that it went against the Islamic Sharia law. Divorced mothers have already the custody right to their daughters up to the age of seven and the new law incorporates the same right to their sons. [53f] Women who remarry are forced to give up custody of children from earlier marriages to their father. [4f](pg14)

6.158 According to a DIRB report of July 1998, the position of a divorced woman and further relationships after divorce can be fraught, with accusations of “immoral behaviour” and possible “adultery” brought to the Ershad. [2m]

6.159 According to a July 2002 report the phenomenon of husband killing, punishable by death, is on the rise in the male dominated society, some point to abuse or philandering as factors. [5a0]

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Abortion

6.160 According to a DIRB report of February 2001, the position of whether it is legal to perform abortions is unclear in law, and many doctors are reluctant to proceed. This is irrespective of a fatwa by Ayatollah Ali Khamenei that abortion may be undertaken in cases of medical necessity, such as when thalassemia has been detected. Illegal abortion clinics have been prosecuted in recent years. [2e]

6.161 According to a report from the Feminist Daily News Wire on 22 July 2004,

"Iran's parliament on Tuesday (20 July 2004) approved a draft of a bill to legalize abortion in the first four months of pregnancy. According to the bill, an abortion can be performed only when the woman's life is in danger and/or when the fetus is malformed. According to Iran's *Payvand News*, a woman will also need the consent of both parents to receive an abortion. Another parliamentary vote is still required on the draft of the bill before it is made into law. In addition, Iran's conservative Guardian Council also has to approve the bill, as it does all legislation, before it can be made law. Abortion has been illegal on most grounds in Iran since the 1979 Islamic Revolution". [73a]

6.162 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, there are a number of women's organizations, semi-official as well as non-governmental, that have been created since the Revolution and in particular in the last few years such as the Cultural and Social Council for Women, the Women's Affairs Commission, Women's Affairs Bureau,

Women's Sports Department, International Office for Women, Bureau for Promotion of Rural Women's activities, Rural Women's Cooperative, Women's Solidarity Societies, etc. [3c](pg102)

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Children

6.163 According to Europa 2004, education is officially compulsory for five years, between 6 and 10 years of age, but this entitlement has not been fully implemented in rural areas. Secondary education from the age of 11 lasts for up to seven years, in blocks of three and four years. 16 of the 37 universities are in Tehran. [1a](pg440) All education is taught in Farsi/Persian with only the occasional and minimal use of minority languages. [10p](pg16)

6.164 According to the USSD 2000, the law prohibits employment of minors under 15 years of age and places special restrictions on the employment of minors under the age of 18. The law permits children to work in agriculture, domestic service and some small businesses, but minors may not normally be employed in night work or hard labour. [4h] [75c] Most children have access to some form of health care. [4b](pg12) There is no known pattern of child abuse. [4f](pg14)

6.165 According to the Iran: Child Soldiers.Org Report 2001, there are indications of under 18s in Government armed forces as the voluntary recruitment age is sixteen. There is also reportedly extensive child involvement in paramilitary organisations. Child soldiers, some as young as nine were used during the Iran - Iraq war of 1980 -1988. [30]

6.166 At a meeting of the United Nations General Assembly on Children on 10 May 2002 Dr. Kamal Kharrazi, Minister for Foreign Affairs, stated that the Iranian Parliament had been active in the promulgation of necessary legislation with the view to improving conditions for children and youth throughout the country. A new bill had been initiated in Parliament, which focused on child growth, protection and development. The aim of the bill is to tackle major causes of social and family problems that children may be subjected to. [31] As of 29 August 2002 the Bill had not yet been ratified by the Guardian Council. [5ah] It is also noteworthy to mention that the International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention of 1999 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor has recently been adopted by the Parliament and Iran has therefore become a party thereto. [31]

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Child Care Arrangements

6.167 Iran's initial report (CRC/C/41/Add.5, July 1998) was considered by the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child at its May/June 2000 session. The report prepared by the government contained information on subjects such as: material assistance and support programmes for poor parents; state protection and assistance for children deprived of their family environment and adoption. [10v] It went on to state that it "should be noted that separation from parents against the will of children rarely takes place in the Islamic Republic of Iran due to cultural and religious attachments. Children have a special attachment to their parents and this attachment is not severed under normal circumstances, except in rare cases such as those involving abuse of the child by parents (for example), narcotics trafficking, immoral activities, or neglect by parents of their children. In such cases parentless children are placed in the institutions managed by the Welfare Organisation, NGOs and charitable bodies. The Judiciary of the Islamic Republic of Iran plans to establish institutions for the care of parentless children". [10v]

6.168 "According to Islamic principles, if a child for whatever reason cannot remain with his or her parents, he or she is given to one of the relatives, and in (a) case (where) there is no paternal relative, there are private places where children can be placed:

(a) Nursery. This is a place where parentless children from infancy to five years of age are placed and cared for on a 24-hour basis. In the 10 nurseries operating in provincial centres there are more than 465 infants and children;

(b) Day and Night Protection Services Complex. This is a place within the Urban Protection Services Complexes where children above the age of five are cared for, on the basis of separation by gender and 24-hour service, until the time they reach the legal age of maturity and are qualified to be released. The ceiling for the number of children that can be accepted in these units is nine. There are 38 such units nationwide which protect about 500 children;

(c) Independent Day and Night Centre. This is an independent institution for children from 12 years to legal age that operates under the direct supervision of the Welfare Organisation for the purpose of providing for the physical, emotional and social needs of children. The ceiling for the number of children in these 24-hour units is 30. The total number of such independent units nationwide is 19 and they cover 561 children". [10v]

6.169 Some families in Iran volunteer to raise and care for three to five children under the protection of the Welfare Organisation like other

members of their own family. This method of foster parenting is mostly for girls up to 13 years of age who are without parents and relatives. About 10 to 14 children without guardians accepted by the Welfare Organisation are placed with a committed family and can acquire their personality development within a family environment. So far, 5 houses for 51 girls have been established. [10v]

6.170 In its response of 2 June 2000 to the Iranian Government's report the Committee noted that whilst the State party's report (CRC/C/41/Add.5) was prepared according to the Committee's guidelines for reporting, the Committee regretted that the report was essentially legalistic and did not provide a self-critical evaluation of the prevailing situation of the exercise of children's rights in the country. Moreover, the Committee noted that "the rights of the child were seen through a paternalistic lens; the child was not seen as an active subject of human rights. There were significant gaps in information relating to general measures of implementation, general principles, particularly non-discrimination and the best interests of the child, civil rights and freedoms and special protection measures". [10w](pg1)

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Homosexuals/ Transsexuals

6.171 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001, although homosexuality is never spoken about and thus a hidden issue, in practice it is not difficult to encounter homosexuals in Iran. There are special parks in Tehran, known as homosexual meeting places. There are also a large number of transvestites walking around in North Tehran. Furthermore, sex changes are permitted in Iran and operations are frequently and openly carried out. [77a] A different sexual orientation may, however, create problems. Still, homosexuality is practised every day, and as long as this happens behind closed doors within your own four walls, and as long as people do not intend to proselytise 'transvestism' or homosexuality, they will most likely remain unharmed. [3c](pg104)

6.172 According to the DIRB, technically, homosexual behaviour is sharply condemned by Islam, and the Islamic code of law Sharia law adopted by Iran. Sodomy is punishable by death if both parties are considered to be adults of sound mind and free will. [2b] It must be proven by either four confessions from the accused, the testimony of four righteous men who witnessed the act [2b][15b] or through the knowledge of a Sharia judge "derived through customary methods". If the accused repents before the witnesses testify, the penalty "will be quashed". [2c](pg15)

6.173 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001,

"From a legal point of view it is important to take a look at Iranian law particularly the Islamic Punishment Act, which carries the following provisions for homosexual acts:

Art. 110: The prescribed punishment for homosexual relations in case of intercourse is execution and the mode of the execution is at the discretion of the religious judge.

Art. 111: Homosexual intercourse leads to execution provided that both the active and passive party are of age, sane and consenting.

Art. 112: Where a person of age commits homosexual intercourse with an adolescent, the active party shall be executed and the passive party, if he has not been reluctant, shall receive a flogging of up to 74 lashes.

Art. 113: Where an adolescent commits homosexual intercourse with another adolescent, they shall receive a flogging of up to 74 strokes of the whip unless one of them has been reluctant.

Art. 114 to 126 establish how to prove homosexual intercourse.

Art. 127 to 134 relate to lesbian sexual relations. Punishment for sexual intercourse among lesbians is 100 lashes. If the offence is then repeated 3 times - the punishment is execution". [3c](pg105)

6.174 So far, no cases of execution only on the grounds of homosexual relations have been identified. In fact, the burden of proof is quite high and it would be difficult to prove homosexual liaisons or intercourse. According to some reports in local papers there have been instances of execution of homosexuals. It is not confirmed whether the homosexual act alone led to execution or whether the person was accused on other charges too. [3c](pg105)

6.175 According to a Reuters report of 18 July 2002, last year there were reports that a man accused of sodomising and then murdering his nephew was to be thrown over a cliff in a sack. This was given widespread publicity by the Iranian opposition in the UK and was taken up by other wires, but we have heard no reports that the sentence was ever carried out. [5aaa]

6.176 According to the Berlin COI Information Seminar Report 2001,

"However, jurisprudence, burden of proof notwithstanding, certainly has used accusations of homosexuality. Furthermore, it does happen that homosexuality is mentioned as one of the accusations amongst other offences held against the defendant. For instance, accusations of homosexuality have been used in unfair trials, such as the case of a Sunni leader in Shiraz in

1996/97, who was clearly prosecuted for political reasons. There have also been other political cases, although not in the recent past". [3c](pg105)

6.177 According to the Ta'azirat of November 1983 (valid to June 1996) sentences of imprisonment for between 1 and 10 years and up to 74 lashes are possible. The death penalty may also be incurred if the act is deemed to be an "Act against God and corruption on earth". Since June 1996 the revised Ta'azirat omits direct threat of lashes or the death penalty. The penalties of lashing and of death are, however, still judicial options, even though they are not mentioned within the revised Ta'azirat. Reports suggest that since 1996 they have rarely been used. [19a](pg18). The most recent report of execution is of the death by stoning of a man dating from 1995, on charges of repeated acts of "adultery and sodomy". [2c](pg15) Reports of use of the death penalty in cases where the only offence is sodomy/execution are extremely difficult to substantiate, and are held to be an unlikely sentence. More usually lashing is the punishment. [2j]

6.178 However, strict though the legal position is, expert opinion consulted by the Canadian IRB in 1998 stated that,

"Theoretically, homosexual behaviour is sharply condemned by Islam, but in practice it is present, and has been in the past, for the most part tolerantly treated and frequently occurring in countries where Islam predominates... In practice it is only public transgression of Islamic morals that is condemned and therefore Islamic law stresses the role of eye-witnesses to an offence." [2j]

6.179 The same source stated that the police are not empowered nor do they actively pursue homosexual activity of any kind that is performed behind the "veil of decency" of closed doors. [2j]

6.180 Sources indicate that there are held to be many differing levels of homosexual activity within Iranian society. In rural areas, even "lavat" - sexual activity can be considered socially to be compensatory sexual behaviour for heterosexual sexual intercourse, and the practitioners held not to be homosexuals. [2j] The key offensive practice is sodomy, or more particularly to be sodomised, as an unnatural inversion of God's creation, and some experts hold that "homosexuals" are understood in Iran to be willing passive partners. [2j]

6.181 According to a DIRB Report of 1999, lesbian cases rarely come before the courts, as the case usually fails the test of proof of four righteous witnesses. Sources hold that lesbian behaviour in public is impossible to distinguish from accepted social contact between women in Iran. [2o] The source concludes,

“Of female same-sex behaviour musahaqa almost nothing is known. Islamic law considers it sex outside marriage and therefore as adultery, with all the consequences already described. Yet because no penetration takes place, punishment is theoretically limited to one hundred lashes. In practice lesbian behaviour is regarded as relatively unimportant, because it usually takes place discreetly.” [20]

Other DIRB sources expand that lesbianism defined as genital contact between women is punishable by 100 lashes each and by death on the fourth offence. [2c](pg15)

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Political Dissent

6.182 According to the USSD 1998, the Constitution provides for the establishment of political parties and professional associations as long as they do not violate the principles of “freedom, sovereignty and national unity” or question Islam or the Islamic Republic. [4f](pg9)

6.183 According to the USSD Profile of country conditions 1996, open opposition to the Iranian Constitution’s principles of Islamic clerical supremacy is not tolerated. Most independent organisations have either been banned, co-opted by the regime, or are moribund. The regime follows closely the activities of prominent political opposition figures abroad, attempts to disrupt their activities, and occasionally carries out political assassinations of such leaders although this has not been the case since Khatami came to power in 1997. Inside Iran, militant political opponents are either executed or given long prison terms, particularly members of the Mojahedin-e Khalq MEK. [4c] A list of political organisations, including those operating abroad, is at [Annex B](#). Part C of the annex lists “registered ” parties.

6.184 According to the Ta’izarat and USSD Reports, there have been reports that many of those executed for alleged criminal offences, primarily narcotics charges, were actually political dissidents. Furthermore, a law passed in November 1995 criminalised dissent and applied sentences of imprisonment, or in extreme cases the death penalty, to offences such as “attempts against the security of the State”, including imprisonment terms of between three to ten years for assassination attempts against the Leader of the Islamic Republic or the chiefs of the three branches of state power or supreme religious authorities Marja’e Taqlid. Insults against high-ranking Iranian officials, against the memory of Imam Khomeini, and against the Leader of the Islamic Republic, carry the threat of execution if they fall under the “Sab-Onnabi” blasphemy category, or sentences to an imprisonment term of between six months and five years. [4a] [12]

6.185 According to a 1998 report from the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs on the situation in Iran, activities of opposition groups such as Tudeh, Iran Paad, Komala, and Fedayeen had not been evident in Iran in recent years. [19a](pg17) However, since then it has been reported that over 1,000 members of such dissident groups were executed in 1988/1989, including 38 named members of Tudeh [21] and the situation for the Kurds appears to have deteriorated recently. However, according to a March 2003 Amnesty International report a number of Kurds, including members of Komala, have been executed in recent months. [9v]

6.186 According to an AI Report of September 2001, Abbas Amir Entezam is Iran's longest serving prisoner of conscience. He was sentenced to life imprisonment in December 1980 after an unfair trial lasting only minutes. In 1998 he was charged with defamation, though the prison authorities would not release him to attend the trial, despite the judge's reportedly specific request. The charges were later dropped and even though his bail was reportedly paid, he was never released. In February 1999, a re-trial was set to review these charges. The International Commission of Jurors request to send an observer to the trial was reportedly denied. The case was then referred back to the Revolutionary Court, which has not set a date for a third trial. Over the last year and as recently as three months ago judicial officials reportedly told Abbas Amir Entezam that if he were to sign a confession with statements stating that he spied for the United States, and if he asked for a pardon, that it would be given. In reply, Abbas Amir Entezam is reported to have replied that he had spent 22 years in prison following an unfair trial and that all he wanted was a fair and open retrial. [9ab]

6.187 In September 2001 he was released for one month's "obligatory leave" on medical grounds, reportedly at the request of his doctor. [9i]

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Mojahedin-e Khalq MEK/MKO or PMOI (Peoples Mojahedin of Iran)

6.188 According to the DIRB and the USSD, the Mojahedin organisation is one of the most active militant opposition groupings with a worldwide network of members and supporters. Its ideology, based on Islam, emphasises the necessity of social change and incorporates many Marxist ideas. It advocates a two-pronged strategy of armed struggle and the use of propaganda to achieve its political objectives. During the 1970s, the MEK was at the forefront of opposition to the Shah. During the early phase of the Islamic revolution it was an uneasy ally with the clergy, was responsible for several assassinations and supported the take-over of the US Embassy and the holding of American hostages. However, the clergy's drive to consolidate power led to a final break in 1981. Since 1986, when the French Government

closed down its headquarters in Paris, the Mojahedin has been based in Iraq and has branches in Europe and North America. In 1987, MEK's leader Masud Rajavi announced the formation of the National Liberation Army, which conducted raids into Iran during the Iran-Iraq war. The Mojahedin have been responsible for acts of sabotage, violent attacks that victimise civilians, and violence against Iranian government targets in the West. [2a][4c] The MEK/PMOI is a proscribed organisation under the UK Terrorism Act 2000 and is a member of the National Council of Resistance Iran (NCRI). See [Annex B](#)

6.189 Popular support for the Mojahedin has declined in Iran, and Iraq's support of it has fluctuated with the level of hostility between the two regimes. The Iranian regime's treatment of the Mojahedin opposition has been extremely severe, with reports of large numbers of executions and torture although there have not been any recent reports. Known or suspected members of MEK face either execution or long prison terms if caught in Iran. [4c] According to the Situation in Iran, Report December 1988 from the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the organisation claimed responsibility for 2 attacks in June 1998, including one on a revolutionary court where three people died as a result. In August 1998 the MEK took responsibility for an attack on the former head of Evin Prison. Iran sporadically launches attacks in MEK bases in central Iraq. [19a](pg17)

6.190 According to the Project Ploughshares Armed Conflicts Report 2003, during 2003 there were no reported deaths due to fighting between Iranian government fighters and armed rebels for the second consecutive year. [60a(pg1)] The US-led invasion of Iraq in March 2003 resulted in the disarming of the Mojahedin Khalq rebels based in that country. The lingering conflict between the MKO opposition group and the Iranian government was deeply affected by the US-led invasion of Iraq in March 2003. In April 2003, the Mujahedeen Khalq surrendered to US forces following a bombing campaign targeting their bases in Iraq. [60a(pg4)] The Tehran Times reported on 25 November 2003 that, after the MKO disarmament, the Iranian government expressed interest in assisting the repatriation of rebel fighters and announced that they were proposing to issue an amnesty. [52b] In December 2003 it was reported in the Christian Science Monitor (CSM) that the amnesty offer from President Mohamed Khatami - coupled with relatively soft treatment of recently captured MKO operatives and the expulsion deadline - was sparking new hope. In Geneva in December 2003, Mr. Khatami said Iran was ready to accept MKO fighters who "are in Iraq and regret" past acts. "We will welcome them and judge them according to the law," he said. [67a] The government made clear that the proposed amnesty would not be extended to the leadership. [60a(pg4)] It was reported by the CSM in December 2003, that the views of a dozen former militants interviewed for a December 2003 article - often for several hours each, half of them still imprisoned by Iran's Revolutionary Court - was that the MKO is no longer deemed a critical threat by the Iranian regime. [67a]

According to Project Ploughshares, in December 2003, the Iraqi Governing Council indicated it would expel members of the MKO from Iraq possibly to Iran, [60a(pg4)] with the intention to have carried this out by 2005. [52c] However, in spite of this offer, the vast majority of Mujahedeen Khalq fighters remained in their camps in Iraq, supervised by US/UK coalition forces. [60a(pg4)]

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Rastakhiz Party and Monarchists

6.191 According to the USSD Country Profile of 1996, the Rastakhiz Party was established by the Shah in 1975 to run a one-party state and membership was viewed as a civic duty. All officials of the government, even those at the middle and lower levels of the bureaucracy were almost automatically made members of the party because of their government employment status. Iranians, particularly those in the professions or in business, regardless of their political views, usually joined to enhance their professional or business prospects. The Islamic regime has not in the past, nor does it now, act against Iranians simply because they or their relatives were members of the Rastakhiz Party. [4c]

6.192 According to a DIRB report of June 2001, a purported Monarchist organisation entitled Javid Iran was investigated by the Canadian IRB in June 2001. The organisation was alleged to have been active in Shiraz between March and October 2000. No information about this organisation could be found by the IRB and an expert source doubted its existence. [2h]

6.193 According to the USSD Country Profile of 1997, there is no evidence of any pattern of action by the regime today against Iranians simply because at one time they were middle-level or low ranking functionaries of the Shah's bureaucracy. [4d](pg11)

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SAVAK

6.194 According to the USSD Country Profile of 1996, the Islamic regime was especially harsh against very high officials of SAVAK, the Shah's security organisation, following the fall of the Shah. During the first months of the Revolution, high level SAVAK officials were either executed or given very long prison sentences. Many SAVAK employees - particularly those known or suspected of having an active role in repressing Muslim clergymen and secular opponents of the Shah - were punished severely. However, a number of highly trained SAVAK employees have become part of the new security apparatus set up to replace SAVAK. In general, most low level SAVAK functionaries who

found themselves detained for a short time during the initial stages of the Revolution were simply dismissed. [4c]

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Kurdish Democratic Party of Iran (KDPI)

6.195 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, there are two major Kurdish parties in Iran as well as many smaller ones, including Kurdish branches of other Iranian political parties. [33] The KDPI was originally formed as an illegal organisation after World War II during the Shah's reign, to seek cultural and local autonomy. It has maintained a constant policy of demanding democracy for Iran and autonomy for the Kurds. It has not demanded a separate state, perhaps because of the close historical and cultural ties between Iran and its Kurds. Most of its support comes from the urban middle class, intellectuals, merchants and government employees. Since 1981, it has formally been part of the Iranian National Resistance Council - a coalition of Iranian opposition groups based in Paris and has militarily opposed the Iranian Government. [33]

6.196 The regime deals harshly with its leaders and their militant supporters. There are reports of extra-judicial killings and questionable detentions of Kurdish militant activists. [4c] According to AI in November 1998 Karim Tuzhali a former member of the KDPI was sentenced to death following his forcible return to Iran from Turkey, [9f] and again according to AI was reportedly executed on 24 January 2002 at Mahabad prison. Karim Tuzhali was a former asylum seeker and recognised as a refugee by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR). [9ag] According to the USSD 2003 it was alleged by the KDPI that the Government executed party member Jalil Zewal in December 2003, after 9 years in prison during which he was reportedly subjected to torture. KDPI member Ramin Sharifi was also executed in December 2003 after his arrest in July 2003. KDPI reports also said that hard-line vigilante groups had killed at least seven other Kurdish civilians during 2003. [4n](pg2)

6.197 According to an Economist Report dated 21 December 2001, the KDPI had been driven into neighbouring Iraq. Iran's support for Jalal Talabani, the leader of the PUK which runs the chunk of the Iraqi enclave contiguous with Iran, has helped to prevent the KDPI from launching cross border attacks. [24b] It is not known whether the KDPI uses children as soldiers. [30]

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Komala

6.198 According to the Minorities at Risk Project 2001, the Revolutionary Organization of the Toilers of Kurdistan Komala is the other major Kurdish party. While there are claims that it has existed as an underground organization since 1969, it first appeared publicly in 1983 as the Kurdish branch of the Communist Party of Iran. While it has often violently disagreed with the KDPI, the Komala has supported the KDPI's stance for democracy and autonomy. [33] It was reported by AI in 2003 that it appeared that there had been a noticeable use of death sentences and executions by the authorities against Komala recently, an apparent attempt to intimidate the inhabitants of Khordestan. [9ac] According to the USSD 2003, two political activists associated with the outlawed Komala party, Sassan al-Kanaan and Mohammad Golabi, were executed in February and March 2003. [4n](pg2)

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6.C Human Rights - Other Issues

Adultery

6.199 According to a DIRB report of 1995, under the Islamic Penal Code adopted by the Majlis in November 1995, those found guilty of adultery, (the "Burden of Proof", this either by confession or the testimony of four just men or three just men and two just women, is outlined in more detail at [50]), are subject to execution by stoning. If a husband discovers his wife in an adulterous act he may kill her and her partner without legal consequence; a wife who discovers her husband with another woman does not have the same right. [2b] There have been several reports of execution for adultery in recent years. [2b][15b] According to a BBC News Report of 27 December 2002 it was announced that there would be a moratorium on stoning as a punishment for adultery, [21a] opening the way for women lawmakers to propose a bill banning stoning. [37a] However, according to the USSD 2003, the law has not been rescinded. [4n](pg3)

6.200 One 1997 IRB report has qualified understanding of the law regarding adultery, stating that the standard of proof and punishment concerning adultery reflects the contradictory practices and decisions of the Iranian Islamic courts. In essence, rural small town courts are more likely to inflict harsher sentences and perverse judgements than courts in Tehran. Reporting in 1997, the source stated that there were no recent cases of stoning in Tehran. Stoning for adultery is held not to be a widespread phenomenon. [2k] However, in July 2001, Amnesty international received a reported case of a stoning to death of a woman for adultery. The sentence undertaken in Evin prison, Tehran. [9h]

6.201 According to A RFE/RFL report of 4 July 2001, three cases in 2001 put execution by stoning back in the center of the human rights debate over Iran. Late in 2000, a woman named Maryam Ayoubi was sentenced to death by stoning for adultery and murdering her husband in collaboration with her lover. Then, in May 2001, a woman was stoned to death in Tehran's Evin prison. She had been convicted of acting in pornographic films and having sexual relationships outside marriage. Amnesty International states that in recent years Iran has imposed stoning sentences only sporadically. Before 2001, the last stonings were reported in 1997. "Amnesty International has recorded sentences for adultery and murder that have resulted in stoning. However, according to the information that Amnesty International has, there has not been a stoning carried out [for several years] until this year. The one before this was in 1997." [42a] According to an Agence France - Presse report of 11 November 2003 no executions by stoning had been reported by the Iranian Press for over a year, although Amnesty International reported at least two cases during 2002 and in November 2003 four men found guilty of a series of kidnappings and rapes were sentenced to execution by stoning. [61a]

6.202 According to a DIRB Report of 18 February 1997, temporary marriage Sigheh in Farsi is often used as a means of smoothing problems over; a woman's first temporary marriage requires her father's written permission. [2k]

6.203 As reported in a number of press reports at the time the sentencing to death by stoning in January 1998 of a German businessman for having been found guilty of intercourse with a Muslim woman was classed as punishment for adultery because he was not Muslim. [16a] The accused countered the charges by claiming his conversion to Islam. [14b] A Mehrabad Court of Appeal upheld the death sentence in October 1998. By February 1999 the case had been returned to the Tehran justice department for further review. [5j] [5k] He was eventually acquitted for lack of evidence but fined 20 million rials and allowed to leave Iran in January 2000. [21h]

6.204 According to a DIRB Report of 30 March 1999 the punishment for unmarried adulterers is not death, but flogging. [2n]

6.205 According to a DIRB Report of 8 May 1998 the penalties for attempting to entice a married person into committing adultery could range from lashing to death depending on the judge's discretion. The married person who is the unwilling object of such attention is not immune from legal consequences (normally lashing) and from social ostracism. [2j]

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Illegal Drugs Situation

6.206 According to Revisiting 'The Hidden Epidemic' A Situation Assessment of Drug Use in Asia in the Context of HIV/AIDS. - January 2002,

"Iran, which borders the largest opium producing country in world, Afghanistan, has become a major bridge linking the drug production zone to the lucrative consumer markets of the Persian Gulf, Turkey, Russia and Europe". [34] (pg100)

and,

"Currently the major trafficking routes into Iran can be found in the provinces of Khorassan, Sistan and Baluchestan, areas with harsh climatic conditions and rugged mountainous terrain. In these areas there are numerous border skirmishes with drug smugglers and in 2000 a total of 1,532 armed confrontations occurred. In the last two decades more than 3,000 law enforcement officials have been killed and 10,000 disabled. In 2000, 142 law enforcement personnel and 904 drug traffickers have been killed in armed clashes". [34] (pg101)

6.207 Drug use is on the rise in Iran and the country is increasingly vulnerable. Drugs are commonly bought from street dealers and ethnographic studies show that deserted buildings, gardens or parks in the suburban areas of cities are common sites for using drugs. Opium tends to be used in the privacy of people's homes and hashish is commonly used at parties, rolled as a cigarette and smoked. [34] (pg101) The Government of Iran estimates the number of drug addicts at over 1.2 million with an additional 600,000 drug users. [34] (pg103) According to a Reuters report of 20 September 2002, by September 2002 this figure had been further reported officially as 3 per cent of the population of nearly 70 million people. [5as]

6.208 According to Revisiting 'The Hidden Epidemic' A Situation Assessment of Drug Use in Asia in the Context of HIV/AIDS. - January 2002,

"The Anti-Narcotics Law of 1988 covers all aspects of drug control including cultivation, production, consumption, sales and distribution. In 1997 this law was amended in order to be more responsive to the internal drug problem. The age of criminal responsibility is 16 years. The possession and smuggling of opium and cannabis of up to 50 grams can result in a fine of 4 million rials and up to 50 lashes. The penalties become harsher according to the amount that is found on the person. The death penalty may be commuted

to life imprisonment and 74 lashes if the quantity does not exceed 20 kg and the perpetrator did not succeed in smuggling/distributing/selling. The execution of drug offenders is usually limited to drug lords, organised drug criminals and armed drug traffickers. Anyone who deals in, puts on sale or carries heroin or morphine is sentenced to various punishments, for example for more than five centigrams to one gram the fine is two to six million rials in cash plus 30 to 70 lashes". [34] (pg104)

6.209 It is up to the judge to distinguish whether the person is an addict or a trafficker; a positive test to opium shows the person was an addict while possession was interpreted as being a trafficker. [34](pg104)

6.210 According to the Report on the situation of human rights in the Islamic Republic of Iran, submitted by the Special Representative of the Commission on Human Rights on 28 December 1998 The issue (narcotics control) continued to be a major problem for the Government. The Director of the State Prison Organization was quoted in the Iranian press as stating that 60 per cent of the 160,000 prisoners in the State system were there for drug-related offences. Most of the women in the system were there for drug offences. The Iranian press also carried stories indicating that significant seizures of narcotics continue to occur. An Iranian daily reported that the number of youthful addicts doubled last year. The punishment for drug trafficking was reportedly increased more than tenfoldThe judiciary has had a free hand to deal with drugs traffickers, supported by new legislation. [3a](pg24) However, human rights monitors have alleged that many of those executed for criminal offences such as narcotics charges were political dissidents. [3b]

6.211 According to a report in Keesings Record of World Events the United States, in December 1998, removed Iran from its list of countries perceived to contribute to the international trade in illegal drugs in the USA. However, the US continues to regard Iran as a transit point for opiates heading for Europe. [17c]

6.212 According to an UN Report of 16 January 2002, the Government of Iran is now openly recognising the extent of the social problem generated by drugs in the country. Official estimates are that 2 million persons out of a population of 65 million are now addicts. The extent of smuggling has reportedly made soft drugs as accessible as cigarettes, especially in border cities. The efforts of the Iranian authorities to stop this traffic have been internationally recognised, but Iran is paying a high price in terms of human life and budgetary resources in this struggle. [10p](pg21)

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Exiles / Dissidents outside Iran

6.213 According to the UNHCR 1998 Background Paper on Refugees and Asylum Seekers from Iran, executions of exiled dissidents have taken place outside Iran in 1997. In separate cases in Turkey, Germany and Switzerland assassins were found guilty of having carried out executions of Iranians abroad on the orders of the Iranian authorities, including the Ministry of Intelligence and Security. [3a](pg15) According to the USSD 1999, the Istanbul Court of Appeal upheld in 1998 the conviction of an Iranian national for complicity in the 1996 murder of Zahra Rajabi and Ali Moradi, who were both associated with the National Council of Resistance (NCR), an exile group that has claimed responsibility for several terrorist attacks within Iran. The UN Special Representative reported in 1998 that Italian security authorities continued their investigation into the 1993 killing in Rome of Mohammad Hossein Naghdi, the NCR's representative in Italy. [4g](pg4) Reuters reported on 29 July 1999 that in July 1999, Germany said it had arrested an Iranian in Berlin on suspicion of spying on exiled dissidents. Iran denied that the man had links to its government. [5t]

6.214 According to the USCR 2002, the ascendancy of political moderates in parliamentary elections in February 2000 sparked a backlash by hard-liners that continued into 2001, resulting in a crackdown on freedom of expression and other human rights abuses, particularly directed against members of the reformist media, women, and minorities. The backlash continued to dissuade many Iranian expatriates from returning and convinced many Iranians to leave. [35a](pg4)

6.215 According to the UNHCR 1998 Background Paper on Refugees and Asylum Seekers from Iran, the 15 Khordad Foundation, a revolutionary charity linked with the conservative clerical leadership in Iran, has continued to offer Muslims and non-Muslims alike a reward to murder British novelist Salman Rushdie. [3a](pg29) News reports of February 1998 reported that the now fifteen year old threat of assassination to Rushdie followed the issue of a fatwa, or religious edict, in 1989 by Ayatollah Khomeini to punish blasphemy of Islam in "The Satanic Verses". [14c][15c] The wording of the Fatwa also included the phrase"and all those involved in its publication who are aware of its content are sentenced to death". [21aaaj] According to a Times newspaper report of 25 February 1998, on 24 September 1998 Robin Cook, the United Kingdom Foreign Secretary, obtained assurances from Kamal Kharazmi, Iranian Foreign Minister, that the Government of Iran had no intention to threaten or endanger the life of Rushdie. Neither would it encourage or assist others to do so. The Iranian assurances were seen as a major breakthrough and both countries upgraded their diplomatic links to ambassadorial level as a consequence. [15c]

6.216 This is not to say that the £1.2 million bounty raised to £1.5 million in 1997 [16c] and again to about £1.9 m in February 2002, [17d] offered on Rushdie, by the 15 Khordad Foundation can be realistically expected to be revoked. Both the UK Action Committee for Islamic Affairs [15c] and the leader of the Muslim Parliament for Great Britain [14d][16b] insist that the fatwa is irrevocable and stands, which is in line with the 1997 statement by the Chief Prosecutor in Iran. [16c] On 14 February 2004 the Foundation issued a statement saying that the Fatwa was still valid. [21aaa] At the same time an Iranian extremist Islamic group calling itself the General Staff for the Glorification of Martyrs of the Islamic World has offered a 100,000 dollars reward for the killing of British novelist Salman Rushdie. [21aaa]

6.217 According to a n UNHCR News Story of 13 May 2003, the UNHCR estimates 23,000 Iranian refugees are in Iraq. Some belong to armed groups hostile to the Iranian Government but many want to return home [3d] According to a Reliefweb report on 22 May 2003, more than 4,500 registered last year for the voluntary repatriation scheme. Most of the refugees have lived in Iraq for more than two decades, since the start of the 1980-88 Iran-Iraq war which uprooted them from their homes. Iraq and Iran launched a voluntary repatriation scheme last year, but it was thrown into disarray by the U.S.-led invasion of Iraq in March 2003. [49a]

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ANNEXES

ANNEX A

Chronology

1925 Reza Khan seized power in Persia by military coup. Subsequently elected Shah.

1935 Persia renamed Iran.

1941 British and Soviet forces occupied Iran; Shah forced to abdicate in favour of his son.

1946 Following end of war, occupying forces left.

1963 Shah launched 'White Revolution'. Reforms opposed by landlords and conservative clergy.

1964 Ayatollah Khomeini deported to Iraq for opposition activities.

1965 Prime Minister Mansur assassinated, reportedly by a follower of Khomeini.

1977-1978 Anti-government strikes and demonstrations.

1979 January: Shah forced to leave country.

February: Khomeini returned and took power.

April: Iran declared an Islamic republic. Supreme authority given to Walih Faqih appointed by clergy, initially Khomeini.

November: Students seized hostages in US Embassy in Tehran.

1980 February: Bani-Sadr elected President.

September: Iraq invaded Iran. Strongly resisted by Iran; outbreak of hostilities.

1981 January: US hostages released.

June: Fighting between MEK supporting Bani-Sadr and Revolutionary Guard Corps led to Bani-Sadr's dismissal and his departure for France.

July: Muhammad Ali Rajaei voted President. Muhammad Javad Bahonar became Prime Minister.

August: President and Prime Minister killed in bomb attack, MEK blamed.

October: Hojatoleslam Ali Khamenei elected President; Mir Hussein Moussavi appointed Prime Minister.

1979-1985 Fierce repression of anti-government elements.

1987 Islamic Republican Party dissolved.

20 July 1987 UN Security Council adopted Resolution 598.

1988 Cease-fire declared in Iran/Iraq war.

1989 3 June: Death of Ayatollah Khomeini. Replaced by Ayatollah Khamenei formerly President Khamenei.

July: Rafsanjani became President. Post of Prime Minister abolished.

1993 Rafsanjani re-elected with reduced margin.

1994 February: Rafsanjani survived assassination by BKO.

1997 May: Rafsanjani stood down. Seyed Mohammad Khatami won Presidential election by landslide.

June: Closure of the Iranian Embassy in Kabul, followed by a trade embargo with Afghanistan initiated by Iran.

August: Khatami inaugurated.

October: Khatami appointed former Prime Minister Moussavi as his senior advisor.

American vessels were present in the Persian Gulf to calm tension between Iran and Iraq over the September bombings in southern Iraq.

December: The Conference of the Organisation of the Islamic Conference was held in Tehran.

1998 March: The Iranian gas and oil industry was opened up to foreign investors for the first time.

June: The impeachment of the Interior Minister by the Majlis was followed by his immediate re-appointment by Khatami in a newly created Vice-President Cabinet post.

July: The former mayor of Tehran was found guilty on charges of corruption and embezzlement. He was sentenced to 5 years imprisonment and other punishments.

The Solidarity Party of Islamic Iran was recognised and registered as a new political party.

An amnesty was issued for 1,041 prisoners sentenced by the revolutionary and public courts.

August: Iranians were permitted to visit Shi'a Muslim shrines in Iraq for the first time in 18 years.

British Airways resumed direct flights to Tehran.

Iranians, including diplomats, were captured by the Taleban in northern Afghanistan.

September: The Government of Iran gave the United Kingdom assurances that it had no intention, nor would it take any action to threaten the life of Salman Rushdie or those associated with his work, nor would it encourage or assist others to do so. They also disassociated themselves from the bounty offered to carry out the fatwa and stated that they did not support it.

October: The deaths of Iranians captured in August by the Taleban led to Iranian troops amassing at the border with Afghanistan. Exchange of mortar and artillery fire has resulted.

1999. February: State and local elections held for the first time since the revolution.

July: A student demonstration for press reform resulted in a police raid on Tehran University dormitory complex. Six days of street riots followed, the worst since the revolution.

2000. February: Khatami and his liberal/reformist supporters win 170 of 290 seats in the Majlis. Conservatives lose control of Parliament for the first time since the revolution.

April: New Press Law adopted. Sixteen reformist newspapers banned.

August: Fatwa religious decree issued allowing women to lead religious congregations of female worshippers.

2001. June: Khatami re-elected for a second term after winning just under 77 per cent of the vote.

August: Khatami sworn in.

2002. January: US President describes Iraq, Iran and North Korea as an "axis of evil" in his State of the Union address. This is a reference to the proliferation of long range missiles said to be under development and a perceived threat considered to be as dangerous to the US as terrorism. This statement causes offence across the Iranian political spectrum.

February: Iran rejects the proposed new UK ambassador to Tehran.

September: Russian technicians begin construction of Iran's first nuclear reactor at Bushehr, despite strong objections from the United States.

Iran accepts Britain's nomination for a new ambassador, ending a diplomatic spat over the previous candidate's rejection.

UK Foreign Secretary, Jack Straw, is in Iran at the end of a Middle East tour for talks that are expected to focus on the Iraq crisis.

December: Richard Dalton, the new UK ambassador took up his post on 1 December 2002. Iran, Iraq consider resuming trade.

2003 February: A military aircraft crashes in the south-east of the country, killing all 302 people on board. It is Iran's worst air disaster.

March: Local elections in Iran appear to have swung in favour of conservative candidates, in a blow to reformist President Khatami.

Iran's Revolutionary Guards renew the death sentence on British author Salman Rushdie, passed 14 years ago by the late Ayatollah Khomeini. Iranian Foreign Minister Kamal Kharrazi says his country is not taking sides in the war in Iraq.

June: Thousands attend student led protests in Tehran against the clerical establishment.

August: Diplomatic crisis with UK over arrest of former Iranian ambassador to Argentina, sought by Buenos Aires on warrant alleging complicity in 1994 Jewish centre bombing.

September: UN nuclear watchdog gives Tehran weeks to prove that it is not pursuing atomic weapons programme.

October: Shirin Ebadi becomes Iran's first Nobel Peace Prize winner. The lawyer and human rights campaigner became Iran's first female judge in 1975 but was forced to resign after 1979 revolution.

November: Iran says it is suspending its uranium enrichment programme and will allow tougher UN inspections of its nuclear facilities.

IAEA report says Iran has admitted producing high-grade plutonium for peaceful purposes, but concludes there is no evidence of a nuclear weapons programme.

December: 40,000 people are killed in an earthquake in south-east Iran; the city of Bam is devastated.

2004: February: Conservatives gain control of parliament in controversial elections. Thousands of reformist candidates were disqualified by the hardline Council of Guardians ahead of the polls.

June - Iran is rebuked by the IAEA for failing to fully cooperate with an inquiry into its nuclear activities.

Three British naval craft and their crews are impounded after allegedly straying into Iranian waters. The eight servicemen are released four days later.

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ANNEX B

A list of Registered Parties appears at Part C

The following comprises a list of parties and movements listed by Iranian name with English translation.

a) Political Parties [Iranian Names]

- Affiliate of Nehzat-e Azadi (Liberation Movement of Iran)
- Ansar-e-Hizbollah (Helpers of the Party of God)
- Fedayin-e Khalq (Warriors of the People)
- Hezb Democrat Kordestan Iran (Democratic Party of Iranian Kurdistan)
- Hezb-e Hambastegi-ye Iran-e Islami(Islamic Iran Solidarity Party)
- Hezb-e Kargozaran-e Sazandegi (Servants of Construction Party)
- Hezb-e Komunist Iran (Communist Party of Iran)
- Hezb-e-sabz Hayeh Iran (Green Party of Iran)
- Hezbollah (Army of God)
- Jebbeh-ye Masharekat-e Iran-e Islami (Islamic Iran Participation Front)
- Komala-ye Shureshgari-ye Zahmat Keshan-e Kordestan-e Iran (Revolutionary Organisation of the Toilers of Iran)
- Majma-e Niruha-ye Khat-e Imam (Assembly of the Followers of the Imam's Line)
- Mudjahedin-e Khalq (Holy Warriors of the People)
- National Council of Resistance
- Nehzat-e Azadi (Liberation Movement of Iran)
- Do-e Khordad (Second Khordad Front)
- Rahe Azadi (Democratic People's Party of Iran)
- Rahe Kargar (Organization of Revolutionary Workers of Iran)
- Sarbedaran (Union of Communists of Iran)
- Tudeh Party of Iran (Party of the Masses)
- Worker-Communist Party of Iran

Monarchist groups:

- Babak Khorramdin Organization (BKO)
- Constitutionalist Movement of Iran-Front Line (CMI)
- Derafsh-e Kaviani (Organization of Kaviani Banner)
- Iran Paad
- Movement of National Resistance (MNR)
- Negahbanane Irane Djawid (NID) (Guardians of Eternal Iran)
- Shahin
- Shora-e Saltanat-talaban-e Iran dar Kanada (Iranian Monarchist Council of Canada) (IMCC)
- Sultanat Taliban

b) POLITICAL ORGANISATIONS

The following comprises a list of Organisations with a short description of their political leanings.

Ansar-e-Hizbollah (Helpers of the Party of God)

Formed 1995, seeks to gain access to the political process for religious militants, and includes vigilante activities. Has aligned with some members of the clergy. A public physical assault on two reformist government ministers in September 1998 was attributed to this group. Members were instrumental in the clashes with students in July 1999.

Ahwazian Arab Peoples Democratic Popular Front (various forms)

An Arabic group which is dedicated to the autonomy/independence of the mainly arabic province of Khuzistan in southwestern Iran.

Association for the Defence of Freedom and the Sovereignty of the Iranian Nation (ADFSIN)

Affiliate of Nehzat-e Azadi.

Babak Khorramdin Organisation

Monarchist, strongly anti-clerical. Has claimed responsibility for armed attacks within Iran, including an attempt to kill President Rafsanjani in February 1993.

Baluch National Movement

Seeks greater provincial autonomy.

Fedayin-e Khalq (Warriors of the People)

Urban Marxist guerrillas. Spokesman Farrakh Negahdar.

Fraksion-e Hezbollah

Formed 1996 by deputies in the Majlis who had contested the 1996 legislative elections as a loose coalition known as the Society of Combatant Clergy. Leader Ali Akbar Hossaini.

Hezb-e Komunist Iran (Communist Party)

Formed 1979 on grounds that Tudeh Party was Moscow-controlled. Sec. Gen. = Azaryun.

Iran Nation Party

An unregistered party previously tolerated by the Iranian authorities. Was led by Dariush Forouhar until he and his wife Parvaneh were murdered by unknown assailants on 22 November 1998. Current leader Bahram Namazi arrested with two other activists in July 1999.

Iran Paad

A self-proclaimed monarchist support organisation within the United Kingdom and other countries outside Iran. It is based in London and claims to have thousands of members. The group conducts meetings and has held some anti-Iranian regime demonstrations, mainly in London.

Islamic Iran Participation Front

One of a number of new political parties established in 1998. A reformist political group of cultural and political figures. Founded on search for freedom of thought, logical dialogue and rule of law in social behaviour.

Islamic Republican Party (IRP)

Formed 1978 to bring about Islamic revolution under Khomeini. Disbanded 1985.

Komala, or Komaleh, or Revolutionary Organisation of the Toilers of Iran

Established 1969, merged with Union of Communist Fighters in 1983 to form Communist Party of Iran. Two members of Komala reportedly executed 1992.

Kurdistan Democratic Party of Iran(KDPI)

Largest Kurdish opposition group, demanding autonomy. Based in Iraq. Gen. Sec. = Abdullah Hassan-Zadeh. Former Gen. Sec Sadiq Sharifkandeh assassinated Berlin 1992.

KDPI Revolutionary Command

Split from KDPI in late 1980s. Engages in military operations.

Majma-e Hezbollah

Formed 1996 by deputies in the Majlis who supported Rafsanjani and who had contested the 1996 legislative elections as a loose coalition known as the Servants of Iran's Construction. Leader = Abdollah Nouri.

Mojahedin-e Khalq (MEK)

Otherwise People's Mojahedin of Iran. Islamist/Marxist guerrilla group formed 1965. Member of National Council of Resistance. Leaders = Masud Rajavi and Maryam Rajavi, based in Iraq since 1986 with offices in Paris.

Movement of National Resistance

Monarchist, led by late Shapur Bakhtiar, forced into exile in Revolution 1978-1979. Paris-based. No longer very active.

Nehzat-Azadi (Liberation Movement of Iran/Iran Freedom Movement)

Nehzat-e Azadi (the Iran Freedom Movement). Nehzat-e Azadi descends from the movement that, in 1951, brought to power the democratic nationalist government of Mohammad Mossadegh, which was overthrown two years later by the Shah in a CIA-backed coup d'état. In 1979, the group was at the forefront of the Islamic revolution; tolerated by the Islamic regime, although it was declared "illegal" in 1991, after applying for registration in 1989. Supports constitutional rule by political parties within an Islamic framework; does not agree with a role for clerics in government. Led by Mehdi Bazargan and Gen. Sec. Dr Ibrahim Yazdi. Ten members of the Freedom Movement were arrested in April 2001 in the campaigns leading up to the June elections: The Freedom Movement was banned in March 2001 and officially dissolved in July 2002.

National Council of Resistance

Formed in Paris by former president Bani Sadr and Masud Rajavi in 1981, following failed uprising. Initially a broad coalition, including MEK, KDPI, National Democratic Front, Hoviyat Group offshoot of the minority Fedayin and several small leftist groups. Bani-Sadr left 1984. Now under control of MEK.

National Liberation Army of Iran

Armed militant wing of MEK. Established in Iraq 1985. In July 1988 briefly held Iranian towns of Kerand and Islamabad Gharb. Driven back into Iraq by Iranian troops within days. At least 2,500 political prisoners

executed in Iran as a result, not all linked to MEK. No other major military encounters with Iranian army.

Organisation of Kaviyani Banner/Kaviyani Flag or Derafsh Kaviani

Changed name in 1992 to Organisation for Human Rights and Fundamental Liberties for Iran. Emerged from defunct Iranian Salvation Front. Led by Manoucher Gandji, a former minister under the Shah. Main operation consists of broadcasts from radio station "Voice of Kaviyani Banner of Iran". Claims network of resistance cells and distributes audio and videotapes within Iran. Not involved in the armed struggle.

Peykar

Minor communist opposition group.

Rah-e Kargar Worker's Road

Minor communist opposition group.

Rastakhiz Party

Formed 1975 to run one-party state under Shah. Inoperative since 1979 revolution.

Sarbedaran

Minor communist opposition group.

Solidarity Party of Islamic Iran

A new political party officially recognised on 7 July 1998. It was set up by a group of Majlis deputies and executive officials. The party was registered in accordance with the provisions of the Interior Ministry's Article 10 pertaining to political parties. The Interior Ministry has approved the party manifesto and details of its founders. Sec.Gen. Ebrahim Asgharzadeh.

Tudeh Party

Communist. Formed 1941, banned 1949, came into open 1979, banned 1983. First Sec. central committee = Ali Khavari.

United Baluch Organisation

Seeks greater provincial autonomy.

Jebhe Ettihad E Melli Mihani Iran (United Front of Iranian Nationalists)

A European based political organisation (established December 1997) which is believed to be the result of the National Front Party and the National Unity Party joining forces after the revolution. It appears to be Nationalist in outlook broadly supporting democracy, gender equality, secularism and the defence of Iran's borders. It purports to have an active presence within Iran, but to date it has proved extremely difficult to obtain any corroborative evidence. It has an UK office and supports a web site which claims membership both within Iran and in some other countries. It produces a magazine called Bamdad.

c) List of Legally Registered Parties as at July 2000. [Not definitive]

All opposition groups in Iran have hitherto been proscribed. Since President KHATAMI's election in May 1997, several political parties have been licensed. Until the Solidarity Party of Islamic Iran was

registered in 1998, none of the groups were registered under the Political Parties Act 1981. So far 110 parties and political groups have received license from the Parties Article 10 Commission. The following is the list of 95 of them of which details are held. The date is the date of the license; the names are the members of the founding boards

1. Jam'iyat-e Zanan-e Jomhuri-e Elam-e Iran IR of Iran Women Society, 02/07/1989;

Sahara Mostafavi, Marziyeh Hadidchi Dabbagh, Robabeh Rafiei-Taari Fayyazbakhsh, Fatemeh Iranmanesh, Sediqeh Moqaddasi, Qodsiyeh Firoozan, Sheila Jelodarzadeh and Fatemeh Tabatabaei.

2. Majma-e Rowhaniyoun-e Mobarez Militant Clerics League, 02/07/1989;

Mahdi Karrubi, Seyed Aliakbar Mohtashami, Seyed Mohamadali Abtahi, Abdolvahed Mussavi-Lari, Majid Ansari, Assadollah Bayat, Seyed Mohammad Khatami, Rasul Montajabnia, Sadeq Khalkhali-Givi, Seyed Mahmoud Doaei, Seyed Mohamadreza Tavassoli.

3. Jam'iyat-e Fadaian-e Eslam Islam Devotees Society, 02/07/1989;

Mohadmehdi Abdekhodaei, Mohamadali Lavassani, Seyed Mohammad Mirdamad-Esfahani, Mohamadreza Niknam-Amini, Seyed Javad Vahedi-Bodla, Seyed Hassan Mortazavi, Asghari Omri, Ali Bahar-Hamedani, Mohadmehdi Farju.

4. Kanoon-e Honarmandan va Nevissandegan-e Mosalman Muslim Artists & Writers Center, 02/07/1989;

Morteza Heidari, Farzin Negaarestan, Seyed Mohamadbaqer Fadavi, Adham Zarqaam, Beitollah Saturation, Seyed Air Mansouri, Abulqassem Kaakhi, Alireza Noroozi-talab.

5. Jame-e Rowhaniat-e Mobarez-e Tabriz Tabriz Militant Clergy Association, 18/08/1989;

Seyed Hossein Mussavi-Tabrizi, Mohammad Imaani-Yaamchi, Mohammad Karimi, Seyed Razi Balaaghi, Qodrat Shojaie, Najaf Aqazadeh-Astarkaan, Esshaq Forootan, Mohammad Rohanizadeh, Ezzat Lahooti.

6. Hezb-e Hedayat-e Elam Islamic Guidance Party, 19/01/1990 [collapsed in 1996];

Aliakbar Khoshru, Seyed Hossein Abtahi, Ebrahim Heidari, Alireza Allahdaadi, Dariyoush Zargari, Ebrahim Shams, Mohamadrza Taalebian.

7. Kanoon-e Faregholtahsilan-e Shebhi Qarrehi Hend Center for Graduates From Indian Subcontinent, 19/02/1990;

Manouchehr Mottaki, Seyed Mehdi Nabizadeh, Abbasali Taslimi, Javad Salimi, Mehdi Mohtashami, Seyed Ahmad MirJafar-Tafti, Anosheh Gilaninejad, Massoud Mohamadzamani, Mohammad Assadi-Taari

8. Jam'iyat-e Mo'talefehi Elam Islamic Coalition Society, 11/12/1990:

Habibollah Asgarowladi, Assadollah Badamchian, Seyed Asghar Rokhsefat.

9. Kanoon-e Elam-e Mohandessin Engineers Islamic Center,

11/12/1990;

Gholamreza Abdollahi, Majid Habibian, Mokhtar Matinrazm, Aliasghar Khashehchi, Mostafa Noori-Latif, Mohamadhassan Najafi-Qodsi, Mohamadhassan Tavallaie, Ahmad Roshanfekar-Raad.

10. Kanoon-e Wali-e Asr Wali-Asr Center, 26/02/1991;

Ramazan Jannati-Razavi, Hassan Amiri-Qariyehali, Mohammad Sohrabi, Hassan Rashidi-Taashkuie, Mohamadali Khorassani, Aliakbar Amiri, Mohamadali Hakimi, Gholamreza Khorassani.

11. Anjoman-e Elam-e Mo'allemaan-e Iran Islamic Association of Iranian Teachers, 09/04/1991;

Morteza Katiraie, Asghar Noroozi, Movahednia, Abbas Douzdouzani, Goharolsharieh Dastgheib.

12. Jame-e Elam-e Mohandessin Islamic Association of Engineers, 28/05/1991;

Hassan Ghafoorifard, Mohamadreza Bahonar, Seyed Mohsen Behfar, Seyed Morteza Nabavi, Seyed Mojtaba Shohreh-hashemi, Gholamhossein Amiri.

13. Anjoman-e Mohandesan-e Iran Association of Iranian Engineers, 01/10/1991;

Rahmatollah Khosravi, Mohamadreza Behzadian, Alimohamad Ahmadi, Seyed Hassan al-Hosseini, Karim Malekasa, Ahmad Kabiri, Mohsen Nariman, Mohammad Qomi.

14. Saazeman-e Mojahedin-e Enqelab-e Elam-e Iran Islamic Revolution Mojahedin Organization, 01/10/1991;

Mohammad Salaamati, Behzad Nabavi, Hossein Sadeqi.

15. Anjoman-e Elam-e Modarressin-e Daneshgaha Islamic Association of University Tutors, 10/11/1991;

Najafqoli Habibi, Alireza Saffarian, Mahmoud Saremi, Davood Soleymani, Qorban Behzadinejad, Mirfazlollah Mussavi.

16. Jame-e Zeinab S, Zeinab S.A. Association, 10/11/1991;

Maryam Zaferani-Behrooz, Manizheh Noubakht, Nafiseh Fayyazbakhsh, Parvin Salimi, Shamsi Moetazed, Azam Nooshehghol, Nahidazam Ram-panahi, Massoumeh Rezaie-Nazari.

17. Khanehi Kargar Labor House, 04/01/1992;

Alireza Mahjoob, Hossein Kamali, Ali Rabi'i, Reza Mohamad Wali, Mohammad Daneshvar, Esrafil Ebadati, Mahmoud Assadi.

18. Markaz-e Elam-e Daneshgahian Islamic Center for University Academicians, 21/04/1992;

Reza Dehqani-Farzaam, Minoo Raastmanesh, Mohamadreza Shirzad, Asghar Zokaie, Majid Qaemian, Bahman Noori, Nasser Derakhshan, Ali Hosseinpour.

19. Anjoman-e Elam-e Mohandessan-e Zaminshenassi va Ma'dan-e Iran Islamic Association of Iranian Geologists and Mining Engineers, 26/05/1992;

Hossein Mozafarinejad, Mohamadbaqer Farhadian, Ebrahim Raastad, Mohamadhossein Ekhtiarabadi, Nematollah Rashidnejad, Mohamadtaqi Karehi, Mohamadjavad Vaezipour.

20. Jame-e Elam-e Bakhtiyariha Bakhtiyaris Islamic Association, 26/05/1992;

Assadollah Kian-ersi, Omidvaar Rezaie, Qassem Soleymani, Ali Yusefpour, Qoli Sheikhi, Ali Qanbari, Zabih Karimi, Mohamadreza Mirqaeab.

21. Anjoman-e Faregholtahsilan-e Uroupa, Amrica va Oqyanoussiyeh Association of Graduates From Europe, America and the Pacific, 04/08/1992;

Mehrdad Fooladinejad, Seyed Hossein Fassihi-Langarudi, Ali Khoshbaaten, Ebrahim Nematipour, Ali Asghari, Hamid Mehdiqoli, Hossein Raqamizadeh, Seyed Amireddin Sadrnejad.

22. Jame-e Elam-e Farhangian Educators' Islamic Association, 22/08/1992;

Ezzatollah Dehqani, Mansoureh Farahmandzad, Maryam Zaferani-Behrooz, Manizheh Noubakht, Seyed Abulqassem Raoofian, Ali Farahmandzad, Assadollah Badamchian, Mohammad Elahian.

23. Jame-e Zanan-e Enqelab-e Elam Women Association of Islamic Revolution, 24/11/1992;

Azam Alaei-Taleqani, Badrolmolouk Emampour, Parvindokht Yazdanian.

24. Anjoman-e Elam-e Mohandessin-e Khorassan Islamic Association of Khorassan Engineers, 24/11/1992;

Aliasghar Azami, Hassan Alijani-Moqaddam, Abbas Amiripour, Ahmad Sheikh-salim, Seyed Mohsen Banihashemi-Chaharom, Ahmad Yarahmadi-Khorassani, Seyed Hashem Banihashemi, Seyed Khalil Mehdizadegan.

25. Anjoman-e Elam-e Pezeshkan Islamic Association of Physicians, 20/01/1993;

Aliakbar Velayati, Abbas Sheibani, Dr. Shahrzad, Vahid Dastjerdi, Shahabeddin Sadr.

26. Anjoman-e Elam-e Jame-e Pezeshki-e Iran Islamic Association of Iranian Medical Community, 09/04/1993;

Mohammad Farhadi, Ahmadali Noorbaala-Tafti, Hassan Hosseini-Toodeshki, Seyed Mohammad Sadr, Mohamadreza Raahchamani, Omidvaar Rezaie-Mirqaed, Seyed Hossein Fattahi, Mohamadreza Vaez-Mahdavi.

27. Kanoon-e Elam-e Daneshgahian-e Khorassan Islamic Center of University Academicians of Khorassan, 01/10/1993;

Mehdi Hassanzadeh, Mohamadali Gandomi, Mehdi Parsa, Hassan Razmi, Seyed Mojtaba Sadat Na'Ichian, Mohamad-sadeq Javadihesar, Wali Niknaam-Shaahrak.

28. Anjoman-e Elam-e Farhangian-e Khorassan Islamic Association of Khorassan Educators, 01/10/1993;

Ahmad Yarahmadi, Nasrollah Mojtahedpour, Javad Aryanmanesh, Seyed Mohsen bani Hashemi, Seyed Ali Fayyazbakhsh, Gholamhossein Afzali, Gholamnabi Golestani, Aliasghar Khalilzadeh, Azizollah Tavakkoli.

29. Jame-e Anjomanha-ye Islami-e Asnaaf va Bazaar Association of Islamic Associations of Guilds and Traders, 31/10/1993:

Said Amani, Ahmad Karimi-Esfahani, Mashallah Javaherian, Mahmoud Faqih-Rezaie, Morteza Kashani-Zarrin, Massoud Zandiyeh,

Mohamadhossein Abdolkhaleqi, Ali Rahmani.

30. Anjoman-e Elam Faregholtahsilan-e Amrica va Canada Islamic Association of Graduates From America and Canada, 23/11/1993;
Reza Shiva, Farrokh Parsizadeh, Davood Bahrami-Siavoshani, Hamid Nasrollahizadeh, Nasser Soltani, Mansour Khodadadi.

31. Jame-e Islami-e Daneshgahian-e Iran Islamic Association of Iranian Academics, 30/11/1993;
Ali Abbaspour, Seyed Mostafa Mirsalim, Abbas Sheibani, Reza Maknoon, Karim Zaare'.

32. Jame-e Elam-e Karmandan Islamic Association of Employees, 06/06/1994;
Mohamad-sadeq Fayyaz, Nasrollah Mirzaie-Nasir, Hassan Kazempour-Dehkordi, Mostafa Biglar, Ahmadreza Bayat, Seyed Kamal Sajjadi, Mohammad Bokharaie, Rahim Alizadeh-Baarooq.

33. Ettehadiyehi Elam-e Daneshjooyan va Faregholtahsilan-e Daneshgaha va Mo'assesaat-e Amoozesh-e 'Ali Islamic Union of Students and Graduates From Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education, 09/12/1994:
Heshmatollah Tabarzadi, Mohamadhassan Alipour, Reza Sarafras, Mohamadhossein Zarei, Mohammad Salamati [not to be mistaken with Mr Mohammad Salamati of the Islamic Revolution Mojahedin Organization], Seyed Javad Emami.

34. Jame-e Islami-e Kargaran Islamic Association of Workers, 11/08/1995;
Alireza Saber-Kouchaksaraie, Mostafa Biglar, Abdullah Hamidi, Mohammad Eqbal, Massoud Berahman, Majid Afshari.

35. Jame-e Anjomanha-ye Elam-e Assnaaf-e Khorassan Society of Islamic Associations of Khorassan Traders, 15/06/1996;
Ali Shamqadri, Mohamadali Ghaffarian, Massoud Akhavizadeh, Seyed Ali Shoostari, Nasser Moqaddam, Mohamad-ebrahim Vahedian-Azimi, Mohamadhossein Niazmand.

36. Jame-e Elam-e Dandaanpezeshkan Islamic Association of Dentists, 12/06/1996;
Nasrollah Eshqyar, Abbas Monzavi, Mohamad-sadeq Ahmadakhondi, Ahmadhossein Nekoofar, Kazem Ashofteh-Yazdi.

37. Jam'iyat-e Elam-e Vokalaa-ye Daadgostari Islamic Bar Association, 04/07/1997;
Nabiollah Ahamadloo, Gholamreza Amini, Said Khorshidi, Abazar Mohebbi.

38. Jame-e Elam-e Daampezeshkan Islamic Association of Veterinarians, 27/06/1997
Alireza Sadiqi, Mohamadali Akhavizadegan, Mohamadkazem Kuhi, Mohamadali Rad.

39. Anjoman-e Rooznamehnegaaran-e Mosalman Association of Muslim Journalists, 02/08/1997;
Hossein Shariatmadari, Hossein Entezami, Seyed Mohammad Safizadeh, Seyed Jalal Fayyazi, Abbas Salimi-Namin, Seyed Morteza Nabavi, Mehdi Shojaie, Alireza Mokhtarpour, Mehdi Nasiri.

40. Jam'iyat-e Defaa' az Arzeshha-ye Enqelab-e Elam Association

for Defense of Values of the Islamic Revolution, 14/10/1997;
Mohammad Mohammadi-Nik, Seyed Ali Ghayouri-Najafabadi, Seyed Aliakbar Abotorabi, Ali Raazini, Ruhollah Hosseinian, Mohamad-sadeq Arabnia, Ahmad Pournajati, Mohammad Shariatmadari, Mohsen Soltani-Shirazi.

41. Anjoman-e Elam-e Kargaran-e Khorassan Islamic Association of Khorassan Labourers, 31/01/1998;

Ahmad Tavakkoli-Afshaar, Mahmoud Mohamadi-Thani, Hassan Sadeqi Fatthabaad, Hassan Saidizadeh, Gholamhossein Torkzadeh, Gholamabbas Hamidi, Mohammad Nejadi.

42. Kanoon-e Faregholtahsilan-e Azarbaijan-e Gharbi Center for Graduates From West Azarbaijan, 10/03/1998;

Ali Kamyar, Alireza Siavashpour, Qassem Moridi, Amir Eslamitabaar, Mohsen Baqerzadeh.

43. Anjoman-e Elam-e Faregholtahsilan-e Daneshkadehi Fanni-e Daneshgahi Tehran Islamic Association of Engineering Faculty Graduates of the Tehran University, 13/03/1998;

Ali Asghari, Reza Faraji-dana, Seyed Mehdi Fakhraie, Habibollah Bitaraf, Abdolmajid Shahidi.

44. Anjonman-e Elam-e Faregholtahsilan-e Daneshkadehi Oloom-e Qazaie va Khadamaat-e Edaari Islamic Association of Graduates of Law and Administrative Services, 13/03/1998;

Abdolhashem Yaqoobi, Mohamadhassan Pirzadeh, Abbasali Zaare', Safollah Faghanpour-Azizi, Mohamadhassan Mirzabeigi, Mansour Dastgoshadeh, Aliakbar Mollataba-Elahi.

45. Jame-e Elam-e Nassehin-e Qom Qom Islamic Society of Counsellors, 13/04/1998;

Hossein Irani, Mohamadali Shar'i, Asghar Abdollahi, Reza Ashtiani-Araqi, Mohammad Khalaj, Aliahmad Mianji, Jafar Emami.

46. Anjoman-e Elam-e Faregholtahsilan-e Daneshgah-e Tarbiat-e Mo'allem Islamic Association of Graduates From the Teachers Training University, 30/05/1998;

Yussef Nikimaleki, Yaqoob Siminrooy, Abbas Mirgalooie-Bayat, Kobra Alipour, Mostafa Monssef, Hossein Salehi.

47. Anjoman-e Elam-e Faregholtahsilan-e Filipin Islamic Association of Graduates From the Philippines, 01/06/1998;

Mohamadreza Nezamdoust, Ali Abedzadeh, Parviz Jeihooni, Ahmad Makhmali, Hojjatollah Bakhtiyary.

48. Anjoman-e Elam-e Faregholtahsilan-e Italia Islamic Association of Graduates From Italy, 01/06/1998;

Seyed Mohamadbaqer Hosseini, Mohamadhassan Qadiri-Abyaneh, Hojjat Bahrami, Qodratollah Karbalaie, Hassan Haaj-najjari, Hossein Madadi.

49. Majma-e Namaayandegan-e Advaar-e Mokhtalef-e Majles-e Shoraa-ye Elam League of All-Term Majlis Deputies, 01/06/1998;

Aliasghar Rahmani-Khalili, Mohsen Rahami, Asghar Faqih-Aliabadi, Gholamreza Ansari, Zabiollah Safaie.

50. Hezb-e Hambastegi-e Iran-e Elam Islamic Iran Solidarity Party, 10/07/1998;

Mohamadreza Raahchamani, Seyed Mahmood Mirlohi, Gholamreza Ansari, Elyass Hazrati, Qodratollah Nazarinia, Aliasghar Abde-ahmadi, Gholamheydar Ebrahimbai-Salami, Seyed Mohammad Hashemi, Qorbanali Qandehari, Seyed Waliollah Tavakkoli.

51. Jam'iyat-e Fadaian-e Rahbar Society of Devotees of Leader, 21/07/1998;

Nematollah Taqaa', Abbas Toobaie, Mohamadhossein Roozitalab, Mohamadreza Moshfeqian.

52. Jam'iyat-e Hoqooqdanaan-e Irani-e Modaafe-e Hoqoq-e Bashar Society of Iranian Lawyers Defending Human Rights, 30/08/1998;

Gholamreza Amini, Ghodratollah Noroozi, Fatemeh Hizomi-Araani, Mansour Alizadi, Nabiollah Ahmadloo, Ahmad Arabameri, Said Khorshidi, Abaazar Mohebbi, Hamidreza Dehqanboudeh.

53. Jam'iyat-e Elam-e Zanan Islamic Society of Women, 18/10/1998; Maryam Mohseni, Batool Rangbar-Kohan, Fatemeh Azizabadi, Sahara Azizabadi-Faraahani.

54. Kanoon-e Namaayandegan-e Advaar-e Majles-e Shoraa-ye Elam Center for Deputies of Various Terms of Majlis, 08/11/1998;

Ali Mobini-Dehkordi, Alinaqi [Seyed-] khamoushi, Mostafa Naseri, Mohamadhashem Rahbari, Abdollah Noroozi.

55. Jam'iyat-e Khedmatgozaaran-e Sazandegi-e Khorassan Khorassan Construction Servants Society, 08/11/1998;

Ahmad Yarahmadi-Khorassani, Ghafoor Helmi-Tarfi, Seyed Jalal Fayyazi, Abdollah Koopaie, Seyed Khalil Mehdizadegan, Mohsen Amirian, Mohamadreza Mohseni, Alireza Safari, Gholamhossein Heidari, Mostafa Yaqini, Javad Aryanmanesh, Abdolmajid Helmi, Aliasghar Azami.

56. Majma-e Elam-e Karmandan-e Khatt-e Emam Islamic League of Employees Following the Imam Line, 08/11/1998;

Ali Toohidloo, Seyed Hassan Kazemi, Mohamadali Safari, Ramazan Mirzaiepour-Shafi'i, Massoumeh Mohtarami.

57. Jame-e Elam-e Pezeshkan Islamic Association of Physicians, 10/11/1998;

Khossro Rahmani, Seyed Ahmadali Kazemi, Amirmahmoud Tafazzoli, Reza Sadeqi.

58. Majma-e Nirooha-ye Khatt-e Emam League of Imam Line Forces, 10/11/1998;

Seyed Hadi Khamenei, Rahmatollah Khossravi, Ahmad Hakimipour.

59. Jam'iyat-e Tarafdaraan-e Nazm va Qanoon Society of Advocates of Law & Order, 24/11/1998;

Hossein Tajarloo, Ali Bazm-azmoon, Yussef Sheikhinejad, Ali Movasheh

60. Kanoon-e Elam-e Ostadaan-e Daneshgahi Tehran Islamic Center of Tehran University Lecturers, 25/11/1998;

Behzad Moshiri, Karen Abrinia, Mojtaba Shariati-Niyasar, Mohamadhassan Panjehshahi, Hassan Farhangi, Nasser Soltani, Reza Shiva, Seyem Mohamadhossein Pishbin.

61. Jame-e Elam-e Fareqoltahsilan-e Honar Islamic Association of Arts Graduates, 25/11/1998;

Abdolhadi Qazvinian, Mohamadjavad Rassaie, Mirlatif Mussavi-Gargari.

62. Jame-e Elam-e Varzeshkaraan Islamic Association of Sportsmen, 25/11/1998;

Mahmoud Mashhoon, Seyed Mostafa Mirsalim, Mohamadreza Rahimi, Hassan Ghafourifard, Eidi Alijani, Mohammad Ansari, Seyed Amirahmad Mozafari, Ahmad Nateq-Noori.

63. Majma-e Elam-e Baanuan Women Islamic League, 20/12/1998;

Fatemeh Karrubi, Soheila Jelodarzadeh, Soussan Seif.

64. Jam'iyat-e Peirovan-e Velayat-e Faqihi Dashtestan Association of Followers of Guardianship of Supreme Jurisprudent in Dashtestan, 20/12/1998;

Ali Behbahani, Seyed Esmail Hosseininejad, Mohammad Abedi, Masoud Atashi, Akbar Mohajeri.

65. Anjoman-e Elam-e Karkonan-e Bimehi Alborz Islamic Association of Alborz Insurance Employees, 25/12/1998;

Davoodali Shirazi, Hedayat Sadeqi-Arsegah, Maryam Karimi, Alireza Moqarrab, Qorbanali Fatthi-Gerashini.

66. Hezb-e Tamaddon-e Elam Islamic Civilization Party, 03/01/1999;

Mohammad Honardoust, Mojtaba Haraati-Nik, Alireza Manzari, Morteza Mahmoudi, Mohammad Motevallian, Mirmehdi Najafi, Hamidreza Elmolhoda, Mohamadali Aqaie.

67. Majma-e Pooyandegan-e Andisheha-ye Elam League of Searchers for Islamic Schools of Thought, 09/01/1999;

Mohammad Ashrafi-Mahabadi, Mohamadali Khallaaqpour, Ali Daastaani, Ali Tirdaad, Massoud Shafeizadeh, Eivaz Tizjang, Manouchehr Ebaadi.

68. Anjoman-e Elam-e Farhangian-e Ostaan-e Qom Islamic Association of Qom Province Educators, 09/01/1999;

Seyed Yussef Pour-yazdanparast, Taqi Nazeri, Abbas Mohammadi, Gholamreza Rezaiean-Maleki, Seyed Aliasghar Borqei.

69. Anjoman-e Rooznamehnegaaran-e Zan-e Iran Association of Iranian Female Journalists, 09/01/1999;

Jamileh Kadivar, Ashraf Geraamizadegan, Homeira Hosseini-Yeganeh, Jaleh Faramazian-Borugeni, Parvaneh Mohhi.

70. Kanoon-e Elam-e Modaressan-e Marakez-e Tarbiat-e Mo'allem Islamic Center for Teachers of Teacher-Training Institutions, 14/01/1999;

Ayyoob Vahdatnia, Mohamadreza Hezaveh, Habibollah Jadidi, Tahereh Shaalchian, Mohammad Vakili-Mahallati, Ruhangiz Dorobaati, Tayyebbeh Yazdani.

71. Majma-e Daneshjooyan va Fareqoltahsilan-e Gilani League of Gilaki Graduates and Undergraduates, 19/01/1999;

Behzad Roohi, Seyed Saber Mir-ataie, Sirous Bahramzadeh, Ali Ferdowsi, Shahrokh Ramazan-nejad.

72. Jame-e Daneshjooyan va Fareqoltahsilan-e Kermanshahi Association of Kermanshahi Graduates and Undergraduates, 19/01/1999;

Hamidreza Samadi-shohreh, Marzieh Mahidashti, Nooshin Mohammadi, Hamid Fadaie, Morad Hosseini, Qodratollah Najafi, Mehdi

Rangbar.

73. Hezb-e Islami-e Kar Islamic Labor Party, 24/01/1999;

Alireza Mahjoob, Soheila Jelodarzadeh, Abdolrahman Tajeddin.

74. Majma-e Elam-e Fareqoltahsilan-e Daneshgahi Abu Reyhan Birouni Islamic League of Graduates From University of Abu Reyhan Birouni, 24/01/1999;

Mohammad Jariani, Seyed Abdolhossein Vahedi, Mohamadtaqi Shirkavand, Mohamadreza Sharifnia, Seyed Ahmad Mussavi, Seyed Morteza Sahri, Akbar Hakkakaan.

75. Kannon-e Tarbiat-e Elam Islamic Training Center, 24/01/1999;

Hossein Ahmadi, Alireza Baraati, Yussef Soltani, Mahmoud Farshidi, Nosratollah Taheri.

76. Jam'iyat-e Zanan-e Enqelab-e Elam Islamic Revolution Women Society, 24/01/1999;

Sahara Mazloomifard, Sediqehbeigom Hejazi-Taaqaanaki, Sediqeh Tajifard, Nayyereh Qavi, Minakhanoom Behzadi, Kobra Khaz-ali, Hakimeh Jafarinasab-Kermani.

77. Tashakkol-e Elam-e Fareqoltahsilan-e Lorestani Islamic Organization of Lorestani Graduates, 29/01/1999;

Ebrahim Baraani-Beiranvand, Ali Mikhak-Beiranvand, Mohammad Sharafi, Bahador Walizadeh, Majid Sabbah, Aliyar Rashidpour, Faroud Hashemi.

78. Majma-e Daneshjooyan va Fareqoltahsilan-e Yazdi League of Yazdi Graduates and Undergraduates, 18/02/1999;

Ali Afkhami-Fatthabad, Mohamadali Salmaninejad, Mohamadhossein Shariati-nasab.

79. Jam'iyat-e Javanaan-e Enqelab-e Elam Youth Society of Islamic Revolution, 18/02/1999;

Seyed Hossein Hosseini, Asghar Abulqassem-Pourkia, Aliasghar Mirzaie.

80. Jam'iyat-e Ansar ul-Mahdi Ansar ul-Mahdi Society, 19/02/1999;

Khanoom-ozra Ansari, Seyed Mostafa Hosseini, Abdorrahman Ansari.

81. Jam'iyat-e Mostaqel-e Iran-e Elam Islamic Iran Independent Society, 19/02/1999;

Qodratali Heshmatin, Javad Baqerzadeh, Ahmadali Amjadian, Ebadollah Fallahi, Fereshteh Heshmatian.

82. Hezb-e Farzandan-e Iran Children of Iran Party, 19/02/1999;

Jamshid Irani, Mohamadreza Abulhassani, Mohamadtaher Ahangari-Osbouie, Araasb Ahmadian, Behrooz Sabouri-Sobhani, Ali Javadi.

83. Jebhe-ye Mosharekat-e Iran-e Elam Islamic Iran Participation Front, 19/02/1999;

Mohamadreza Khatami, Hossein Kashefi, Hossein Nasiri.

84. Kanoon-e Elam-e Qozzat Islamic Center for Judges, 19/02/1999;

Mohamadhassan Mirzabeigi, Jamal Qezavati, Mohammad Mohammadi.

85. Kanoon-e Zendanian-e Siasi-e Mosalman-e Doran-e Qabl az Piroozi-e Enqelab Center for Muslim Political Prisoners Before Victory of Revolution, 08/03/1999;

Seyed Kazem Akrami, Mostafa Barzegar, Ahmadali Borhanifar, Ahmad Hatami-Yazd, Jalal Samsaami-Fard, Hossein Tousi, Mohamadreza

Alihosseini-abbasi, Javad Mansouri, Allahkaram Mirzaie.

86. Anjoman-e Modiran va Motekhassesin-e San'ati va Eqtesadi-e Iran Association of Iranian Industrial and Economic Specialists and Executives, 04/05/1999;

Mohsen Safaie-Faraahani, Morteza Alviri, Morteza Haji, Nourollah Abedi, Seyed Reza Norooz-zadeh.

87. Kanoon-e Hambastegi-e Farhangian-e Iran Center for Solidarity of Iran Educators, 04/05/1999;

Ali Fa'ezi, Mohsen Ashtiyani-Araqi, Mahmoud Kazemi-Bidhendi, Abbas Elam-Mofidabad.

88. Kannon-e Farhangi-e Missaq-e Shohada Cultural Center for Allegiance to Martyrs, 25/05/1999;

Bibiqodsiyeh Seyed-alavi, Zohreh Erfanian Zeirparvar-Javan, Nayyereh Pourjavad.

89. Jam'iyat-e Isargaran-e Enqelab-e Elam Society of Devotees of the Islamic Revolution, 26/07/1999;

Davood Danesh-jafari, Hossein Fadaie, Ali Yussefpour, Abdolhussein Ruholamin, Ali Darabi, Asghar Sabouri, Mojtaba Shakeri, Ahmadali Moqimi.

90. Hezb-e Islami-e Refahi Kargaran Islamic Labor Welfare Party, 15/08/1999:

Hossein Sarafranz, Abbas Allahyar, Hassan Faraji-Golhin.

91. Majma-e Daneshgahian-e Ostaan-e Golestan League of Golestan Province Academicians, 05/03/1999;

Hamid Haqshenas, Yahya Samadinejad, Ehsan Maktabi, Massoud Rahnamaie.

92. Hezb-e Kargozaran-e Sazandegi-e Iran Executives of Construction Party of Iran, 15/08/1999;

Mohammad Hashemi-Bahremani, Ataollah Mohajerani, Mohsen Noorbakhsh, Mohamadali Najafi, Faezeh Hashemi-Bahremani, Hossein Mar'ashi, Reza Amrollahi.

93. Anjoman-e Eslami-e Fareqoltahsilan Islamic Association of Graduates, 15/08/1999;

Vahid Ahmadi, Mahmoud Nili-Ahmadabadi, Adel Torkaman-Rahmani, Rahmatollah Qajar, Mohamadali Doostari, Seyed Hessameddin Zagardi, Ziaeddin Shoaie.

94. Hezb-e Sa'adat-e Iran Iran Prosperity Party, 19/05/1999;

Gholamreza Sediqi Ora'i, Hassan Jamshidi, Mohamadjavad Faza'eli-Akhlaqi, Nasser Mohammadi, Seyed Reza Vasse'i, Hossein Rathaie, Hamidreza Qandehariyoun.

95. Hezb-e Esteqlal-e Iran Iran Independence Party, 09/07/1999;
Secretary Sadeq Shams

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ANNEX C

PROMINENT PEOPLE

BANI-SADR Abolhasan President 1980-1981. Dismissed by Khomeini and exiled to France.

BAZARGAN Dr Mehdi Leader of Liberal Movement of Iran Nehzat-Azadi. Prime Minister in provisional government Feb-Nov 1979. Died in January 1995.

EBTEKAR Ma'sumeh One of seven vice presidents appointed in 1997 and the first woman appointed to such a senior government post since the Islamic Revolution.

HASHEMI-SHAHRUDI Mahmoud Head of the judiciary and close to both the president and the supreme leader. He has promised to co-operate with President Khatami in reforming the judiciary. He is broad-minded and relatively untouched by the factionalism which affects the ruling clerics in Tehran.

HASSAN-ZADEH Abdullah Gen. Secretary of KDPI.

KARBASCHI Gholamhossein Tehran's former mayor, convicted in 1998 on corruption and other charges.

KHAMENEI Hojatoleslam Ali President 1981-1989. Supreme Leader of the Islamic Revolution, Chief of State and Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, 1989-.

KHARRAZI Kamal Foreign Affairs Minister

KHATAMI Seyed Mohammad President August 1997- following landslide election victory in May 1995.

KHOMEINI Ruhollah Ayatollah. Exiled 1964-1979. Supreme leader 1979-1989. Died 03 June 1989. Traditionalist Muslim: issued fatwa against Salman Rushdie.

MONTAZERI Hussein Ali He is one of Iran's highest ranking theologians and has a mass following among religious reformists. He was once nominated to succeed Ayatollah Khomeini, but was sacked by him for disagreeing on policy issues including human rights on which he took a softer line. He was put under house arrest in the holy city of Qom after criticising Ayatollah Khamenei for interfering in secular matters. He was finally freed from house arrest on January 2003 amid concern over his deteriorating health.

MOUSSAVI Mir Hussein Prime Minister 1981-1989 post abolished. Senior advisor to President Khatami, October 1997-.

NATEQ-NURI Ali Akbar Majlis Speaker in 1997; unsuccessfully opposed Khatami in 1997 Presidential elections, despite backing of Khamenei.

NOURI Hojatolislam Abdollah Minister of Interior 1997-June 1998. Vice-President for Development and Social Affairs, June 1998-.

PAHLAVI Mohammad Reza Shah of Iran 1941-1979. Died in Egypt, July 1980.

RAFSANJANI Ali Akbar Hashemi President 1989-1995. One of seven vice-presidents appointed in 1997 [1997-].

RAJAVI Massoud Leader of MEK. Active in overthrow of Shah and led unsuccessful coup in 1981. Fled to France 1981.

RAHJAVI Maryam Wife of Massoud Rajavi; significant figure in MEK.

RAJANI Muhammad Ali Prime Minister 1979-1981. Elected President July 1981; assassinated late August 1981.

YAZDI Mohammad The former head of the judiciary, which he turned into a bastion of the right. One of his changes was to establish general courts which gave total power to the judge and did away with many of the safeguards for the defendant. He was deputy speaker in parliament under Rafsanjani for several years. He is now a member of the powerful Council of Guardians.

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