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F. A. : c. , s.

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## Guzgan

BY: PROF. ZAHMA

Re Produced from Influence of Mongols Invasion on khurasan and Herat

The unknown author of Hudud-al-Alam who himself was of Guzgan belives that it was a prosperous and pleasant province. Justice and equality, according to him, reigned there. (I) It was situated in longitude 98; and latitude 35° 20'. It had a tempertate climate and its water was from underground channels (Kariz) which came down from the mountains in its neghbourhood 2.

On the east, this province marched with the limits of Balkh, Turkistan and Bamiyan, on the south it bordered Ghor and touched the boundary of Bust; on the west, it marched within Ghurthisten and its chief place Bashan, and touched the limits of Mery; in the north, it was bordered by the Oxus. 3.4.

Die Natur- und Geheimwissenschaften im Islam, Leiden

1972, 229-31, 252-3. (F.C. de Blois) TUGHTIGIN, Zahīr al-Dīn Abū Manṣūr (d. 522/ 1128). Atabeg of Dukāk, son of the Saldjūkid Tutush [q.v.] and founder in Damascus of the Atabeg dynasty of Burids or Borids (497-549/1104-54 [see BURIDS]). He was a Turkish freedman of Tutush, who appointed him governor of Diyar Bakr and Atabeg of Dukāk before giving to him in marriage Dukāk's mother, Şafwat al-Mulk. When Tutush died in battle in 488/1095, he became regent for Dukāk in Damascus, but his real reign did not begin till the death of the young Saldjuk prince in 497/1104.

Tughtigin at first strove to preserve his power by refusing to give back Damascus to Ridwan [q.v.], Dukāk's brother and prince of Aleppo, and by installing on the throne there a brother and then a young son of Duķāķ, called Ertash and Tutush respectively. Within a few months, Ertash's flight and Tutush's death allowed the Atabeg to assume sole power. He recognised Ridwān's suzerainty in the khutba and sikka, but this recognition later disappeared whenever relations between Aleppo and Damascus became tense. Within a few years, Tughtigin managed to impose his authority on all the lands between the Hawran in the south and Ḥamāt in the north, so that henceforth he appeared as the most powerful ruler in Syria.

Unlike Ridwan, who showed no enthusiasm for djihād [q.v.], Ṭughtigin led several expeditions against the Franks to preserve the food supply of Damascus and communications with Egypt and Arabia. He combatted the Franks of Jerusalem in the regions of the Sawad and of Lake Tiberias, but the truces which followed these fights allowed the Crusaders to levy taxes on a part of the harvests of that region, which gradually passed under their control. He made similar agreements with the Count of Tripoli which gave the Franks a third of the harvests of the Bikā' [q.v.], at the same time losing several fortresses in Mount Lebanon. Despite his efforts, he was unable to save Tripoli in 1109 or Tyre in 1124, and towards 519/ 1125, Damascus itself was threatened for the first time. Tughtigin had insufficient forces and power to resist the Crusaders alone, and help from nearby principalities, themselves weak and divided, was insufficient and useless. Despite these checks, Tughtigin gradually acquired, in Muslim eyes, the image of a fighter for the faith, as attest his titulature and the poetry written in his praise after 513/1119. Nevertheless, when his interests were threatened, as in 509/1115 when he felt menaced by the Great Saldjuk sultan, he did not hesitate to ally with the Franks.

His relations with Muhammad b. Malik  $\underline{\operatorname{Sh}}\overline{\operatorname{ah}}$  [q.v.] were, in fact, difficult until 509/1116. Muḥammad probably reproached Tughtigin with having impelled Dukāk to support his brother and rival Berk-yaruk [see BARKYĀRŪĶ] and with having usurped power in 1104. The Atabeg tried on several occasions to regain the sultan's confidence. In 503/1109-10 he even had the intention of going to Baghdad, but rumours of the sultan's desire to remove him from power led him to renounce this. When Mawdud, amīr of Mawsil, was assassinated in the great Mosque of Damascus by Ismā'īlīs, Tughtigin was suspected of being behind the plot. Feeling threatened, he allied with the amīr  $II-\underline{Gh}\bar{a}z\bar{\imath}$  [q.v.], who was also on bad terms with the sultan. Then in 509/1115 Muḥammad sent an army into Syria under the command of the governor of Hamadhān, Bursuk b. Bursuk, with instructions to combat the two anirs and then turn to attacking the Franks. Tughtigin and Il-Ghāzī preferred to ally with

the Crusaders rather than lose their own power. The sultan's army was in the end defeated by the Crusaders without the intervention of the two amīrs, but in the next year, Tughtigin, regretting his attitude and disturbed by the Franks' advance, travelled to Baghdad and obtained the sultan's pardon and recognition of the government over his territories.

Within Damascus, Tughtigin's reign was marked by the rise of the Bāṭiniyya or Ismā'īlīs under their Persian dā'ī Bahrām. The Atabeg allowed them to have a centre for propaganda (dār al-da'wa) in the city and in 520/1126 handed over the fortress of Baniyas [q.v.] to the south of Damascus to them. It remains obscure why he favoured this Shī'ī sect; he probably thought that their support might be useful against the Franks and Saldjūkids. The Atabeg's death in 522/1128 coincided with Zangī's arrival in Aleppo, and from this time onwards it was northern Syria which was to be ahead of Damascus in the fight against the Crusaders. Tughtigin was buried near the musalla [q.v.] to the south of Damascus. His fighting skill and bravery made him, like Şalāh al-Dīn after him, a legendary figure in the epic Frankish literature of the 13th century. As the hero of the Ordene de chevalerie under the name of Huon of Tabarié, he was represented as a Muslim prince converted to Christianity who was said to have fought at the side of the Jerusalem Franks (J. Richard, Huon de Tabarié, in La chanson de geste et le mythe carolingien. Mélanges R. Louis, Saint-Père-sous-Vézelay 1982, 1073-8).

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TUKARŌ'Ī or Mu<u>chalmārī,</u> a place near Midnapūr in the southern part of West Bengal, the site of a battle in 982/1574 between Akbar's finance minister and commander Rādjā Ťodar Mal [q.v.] and the young ruler of Bengal, Dāwūd Khān Kararānī [q.v.], who had repudiated Mughal suzerainty. Dāwūd Khān was beaten by a ruse [see ḤARB. vi, at Vol. III, 202b] and forced to flee, allowing Akbar formally to annex Bihar, Bengal and Orissa.

Bibliography: See that to DAWUD KHAN KARARANI, and also J.F. Richards, The Mughal empire (= The New Camb. hist. of India, I. 5), Cambridge 1993, 33. (C.E. Bosworth)

TUKHĀRISTĀN, the name found in earlier mediaeval Islamic sources for the region along the southern banks of the middle and upper Oxus river, in the wider sense of the term (see below), with the ancient of the Balkh as the centre of its western part and such towns as Ţālaķān, Andarāb and Walwālīdj [q.vv.] as its centres in the narrower acceptation of the term, sc. the eastern part. It comprised in its wider sense the modern Afghan provinces of Fāryāb, <u>D</u>jūz<u>dj</u>ān, Bal<u>kh</u>, Sanangān, Kunduz, Takhār and Badakhshān.

The name of the region obviously preserves a memory of the people known to the Hellenistic Greek historians and geographers as Tokharoi, who may have pushed into this upper Oxus region from the luner

مبسوطه (نک: ه د، منازل قمر) می نامند، یعنی ذراع شیر (اسکد)، و برخی دیگر آن را ذراع مقبوضه دانسته اند. آن گاه می افزاید که هر کدام از ایشان از متقدمان خود روایت کرده اند و ستارگان را نه بر مذهب منجمان آموخته اند و نه بر مذهب عرب (ص ۲۰۹: نمیرالدین، ۱۵۴-۱۵۵؛ قس: بیرونی، التقهیم، ۱۰۳-۱۰۳). وی با استدلالهایی دو ستارهٔ سر جوزا را ذراع مبسوطه دانسته است. گفتنی است که در آن زمان برخی از عربها ستارهٔ شعرای شامی، واقع در صورت قلکی کلب اصغر (هم) را جزء ذراع مبسوطه می دانستند (نک: این قتیبه، ۵۲-۵۳)؛ زیرا ایشان نام اسد را به صورت قلکی بزرگی اطلاق می کردند که صورتهای جوزا، کلب اصغر، سرطان، اسک، سماک رامح و سماک اعزل را در بر می گرفت (التفهیم، همانجا؛ کونیج، «راهنما ..."»، 38).

در دورهٔ اسلامی این دو ستاره را رأس التوأم المتقدم و رأس التوأم التالی میخواندند و به گفتهٔ صوفی رأس التوأم المتقدم بر اسطرلابها نقش میشده است (ص ۲۰۳).

عربها دو ستارهٔ هفدهم و هجدهم این ضورت را که بسر پای تو أم متأخر قرار دارند، هَنعَة می نامیدنسد (همو، ۲۱۲) و یکی از آن دو زِر و دیگری میسان خوانده می شد (ابن قتیسه، ۴۶). ایس دو ستاره هفتمین منزل قمر نزد آنان به حساب می آمدند (نک: ه د، منازل قمر).

برخی از نامهای عربسی ستارگان ایسن صورت به زبانهای اروپایی راه یافته است، مانند Alhena که باید برگرفته از الهنعة باشد (کونیج، «نامها ... منالله اینکه).

در ردهبندی امروز صورت فلکی جوزا با صورتهای ممسک الاعنة، سرطان، کلب اصغر، روباه، تکشاخ، جبار و شور هم مسرز است و با مساحت تقریبی ۵۱۴ درجهٔ مربع ۲۷/۲۴۵ از سطح آسمان را تی پوشاند و ۴۷ ستارهٔ درخشان تر از قدر ۵/۵ دارد (بکنج، 210).

مآخذ: ابن قتیبه، عبدالله، الانواء، بغداد، ۱۹۸۸م؛ بیرونی، التفهیم، به کوشش جلال الدین همایی، تهران، ۱۳۵۲ش؛ همو، القانون المسعودی، حیدرآباد دکن، ۱۳۵۷ق/۱۹۵۶م؛ صوفی، عبدالرحمان، صور الکواکب، چ تصویری، فرانکفورت، ۲۵۸ق/۱۹۵۶م؛ گنابادی، مظفر، شرح بیست باب، چ سنگی، ۱۲۷۶ق؛ نصیرالدین طوسی، ترجمهٔ صور الکواکس، به کوشش سید معز الدین مهدوی، تهران، الاکاث، به نت:

Bakich, M. E., The Cambridge Guide to the Constellations; Cambridge, 1995; Kunitzsch, P.; Arabische Sternnamen in Europa, Wiesbaden, 1986; id, Short Guide to Modern Star Names and their Derivation, Wiesbaden, 1986; Ptolemy, Almagest, tr. and ed. G. J. Toomer, London, 1984.

جوزجان، جوزجان یا جوزجانان، سرزمینی کهن و ناحیه (کوره)ای در خراسان بزرگ، واقع در میان بلخ و مرو، و امروزه نام ولایتی (استانی) در شمال افغانستان.

این نام معرب گوزگان یا گوزگانان در زبان فارسی است.

مینورسکی گوزگان را برگرفته از واژهٔ «گوز» در زیبان فارسی به معنای گردو دانسته، و آن را «درختان گردو» معنی کرده است و در تأیید نظر خود نوشته است: تاکنون نام قبیلهای که بتواند دلیل و منشأ این نام باشد، شناخته نشده است. او همچنین نام جوزجان را با داستان حماسی آرش کمانگیر که از فراز کوهی تیری پرتاب کرد تا به وسیلهٔ آن مرز میان ایران و توران مشخص گردد، بی ارتباط نمی داند. بنابر تاریخ حماسی ایرانیان، این تیر در حدود سرزمین جوزجان بر تنه درخت گردویی بسر کنار رود جیحون فرود آمد (ص 330). در شاهنامهٔ فردوسی بیتی کنار رود جیحون فرود آمد (ص نام شود که این نام را فریدون، از پادشاهان اساطیری ایران که بر پایهٔ اسطورههای ایرانی بر جهان بادشاهی داشته، و فردوسی در آن بیت از او با نام «جهان جهان یادشاهی داد» «دگر گوزگانان کدخدای» یاد کرده، بر این سرزمین نهاده است: «دگر گوزگانان فرخنده جای/ نهاده ست نامش جهان کدخدای» (۲۷/۴).

از تاریخ جوزجان در پیش از اسلام آگاهیهای چندانی در دست نیست. در وندیداد از شهری به نام «نیسایه» (نیسا) واقع در میان بلخ و مرو به عنوان پنجمین شهر از شهرهای شانزده گانهای که اهورهمزدا برای ایرانیان آفریده، یاد شده است میانه» است و توماشک آن را با شهر میمنه که جغرافیانویسان میانه» است و توماشک آن را با شهر میمنه که جغرافیانویسان مسلمان از آن با نام یهودیه یا جهودان یاد کردهاند، یکی میداند (نک: مارکوارت، 78). به گزارش مؤلف حدود العالم (ص ۹۷) و مقدسی (ص ۲۹۸)، در سدهٔ ۶ق/ ۱۰م این شهر مرکز جوزجان بوده است. از نوشتهٔ وندیداد این گونه پیدا ست که سرزمین جوزجان از نخستین زیستگاههای آریاییان در کوچ بزرگشان به ایران بوده است.

تاریخ جوزجان در پیش از اسلام را باید در تاریخ نواحی شمال غربی پادشاهی کوشانیان و روابط ایسان با حکومتهای ایران تا پیش از افزوده شدن قلمرو کوشانیان به قلمرو ساسانیان در زمان شاپور یکم (سل ۲۴-۲۷۲م) جست وجو، و پس از آن را در تاریخ مرزهای شرقی ساسانیان بررسی کرد. موسی خورنی در کتاب جغرافیای خود، جوزجان را یکی از کورههای بیست و شش گانه کوست خاور (خراسان) در روزگار شاهنشاهی ساسانیان بر شمرده است (نک: مارکوارت، 16). اما باید توجه داشت که این سرزمین همواره در محدودهٔ مرزهای ساسانیان را نبوده است. مرزهای شرقی خراسان در روزگار ساسانیان را نبوده است. مرزهای شرقی خراسان در روزگار ساسانیان را نبوده این شاهنشاهان ساسانی با هپتالیان و سپس ترکان معین نبردهای شاهنشاهان ساسانی با هپتالیان و سپس ترکان معین می کرد و این نواحی میان آنان دست به دست می شد (نک:

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'Azza Abd al-Hamid Madian, Language-music relationships in al-Farabi's Grand book of music, Ph.D. diss., Cornell University 1992; Eckhard Neubauer, Die Euklid zugeschriebene "Teilung des Kanon" in arabischer Übersetzung, *ZĞAIW* 16 (2004–5), 309–85; Eckhard Neubauer, Musiker am Hof der frühen Abbäsiden, Ph.D. diss. J. W. Goethe-Universität, Frankfurt:am Main 1965; Eckhard Neubauer, Die Theorie von Iqā'. I. Übersetzung des Kītāb al-Iqā'āt von Abū Naṣr al-Fārābī, Öriens 21-2 (1968-9), 196-232, repr. with addendum, glossary, and facsimile in, Eckhard Neubauer, Arabische Musiktheorie von den Anfängen bis zum 6./12. Jahrhundert. Studien, Übersetzungen und Texte in Faksimile (Frankfurt am Main 1998), 128-84, 335-6; Eckhard Neubauer, Die Theorie von Iqa'. II. Übersetzung des Kitāb Iḥṣā' al-Iqā'āt von Abū Naṣr al-Fārābī, Oriens 34 (1994), 103-73, repr. with addendum, glossary, and facsimile in Eckhard Neubauer, Arabische Musiktheorie von den Anfängen bis zum 6./12. Jahrhundert. Studien, Übersetzungen und Texte in Faksimile (Frankfurt am Main 1998), 185-310, 335-6; George Dimitri Sawa, 'Abbāsid music, E13, forthcoming; George Dimitri Sawa, Baghdadi rhythmic theories and practices in twelfthcentury Andalusia, in John Haines and Randall Rosenfeld (eds.), Music and medieval manuscripts. Paleography and performance. Essays dedicated to Andrew Hughes (Burlington VT 2004), 151-81; George Dimitri Sawa, Bridging one millenium. Melodic movement in al-Fārābī and Kolinski, in Robert Falck and Timothy Rice (eds.), Cross-cultural perspectives on music. Essays presented to Dr. M. Kolinski (Toronto 1982), 117-33; George Dimitri Sawa, Fārābī. V. Music, Elr, George Dimitri Sawa, Al-Fārābī's theory of the Iqā'. An empirically derived medieval model of rhythmic analysis, Progress Reports in Ethnomusicology 1/9 (1983-4), 1-32; George Dimitri Sawa, Music performance practice in the early Abbāsid era. 132-320 AH / 750-932 AD, Toronto 1989, Ottawa 20042; George Dimitri Sawa, Paradigms in al-Fārābī's musical writings, in Nancy van Deusen and Alvin E. Ford (eds.), Paradigms in medieval thought. Applications in medieval disciplines (Lewiston NY 1990), 8I-92; George Dimitri Sawa, Rhythmic theories and practices in Arabic writings to 339 AH/950 CE. Annotated translations and commentaries, Ottawa 2009; George Dimitri Sawa, The survival of some aspects

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GEORGE DIMITRI SAWA

MACDE YAYIMLANDIKTAN **Farīghūnids** <sup>SONRA</sup> GELEN DOKÜMAN

The Farīghūnids (Āl-i Farīghūn, Banū Farīghūn) were the ruling dynasty of Güzgān (Güzgānān, Güzgānyān, Arabic al-Jūzjān), in present-day northern Afghanistan, and vassals of the Samanids from the late third/ninth century until the early fifth/eleventh century. The name is possibly derived from the legendary figure Farīdūn/Afrīdūn, as the author of the Ḥudūd al-'ālam argues (95; trans., 106). The dynasty may also be related to the Afrīghid line of Khwārazmshāhs (r. from 305 C.E. to 385/995). The geographer al-Muqaddasī mentions a Ribāṭ Afrīghūn in Güzgān, which may be connected with a founding Afrīghūn (al-Muqaddasī, 347).

The sources tie the history of the Farīghūnids closely to the Sāmānids and the rise of the Ghaznavids, so information on the rulers of Gūzgān is sparse and full of discrepancies. The most important sources for the history of the Farīghūnids are al-Utbī's al-Ta'nīkh al-Yamīnī, whose focus is the rise of the Ghaznavids but which includes a section on the Farīghūnids (al-'Utbī, ed. Manīnī, 2:101-5; ed. al-Hādī, 474-7), and the

covering the period 1550-77); R.R. Fitrat and B.S. Sergeev, Kazüskie dokumenti XVI veka, Tashkent 1937 (a selection of 65 kādī-court documents from Samarkand dated 997-8/1588-9 taken from a larger compilation of more than 700 documents from the court dating to the period 997-1000/1588-91 [the Madj-mū'a-yi wathā'ik, Tashkent IVAN, ms. no. 1386]).

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(R.D. McChesney)

SHIBARGHĀN, a town situated in Djūzdjān [q.v.] province of northern Afghānistān, in lat. 36° 35' N. and long. 65° 45' E. Arab geographers referred to it as Shaburkān or Sabūrkān. Excavations of graves at Tila Tepe, in 1978, 5 km/3 miles north of the town, have revealed the area was an important trade and cultural centre from as early as the Iron Age. Kushan-Sāsānid ceramics dating from 1st to 7th century A.D. have also been found in the area (V. Sarianidi, Raskopki Tillya-Tepe v severnom Afganistane, Moscow 1972; W. Ball, Archaelogal gazetteer of Afgharistane, Paris 1082; is 1070, 1100

nistan, Paris 1982, i, 1079, 1192).

In the 4th/10th century Ibn Hawkal states that Shibarghān, along with Yahūdiyya or Yahūdhān (now Maymana [q.v.]), Andkhūd (now Andkhuy [q.v.]) and Anbar (now Sar-i Pul [q.v.]) and other places was located in the district of Diūzdjān. In the early Islamic era, the main trade route between Harāt and Balkh [q.vv.] appears to have passed through Shibarghan. The anonymous author of the Hudūd al-'ālam, a native of the area, remarks that "Ushbūrkān" was "situated on a steppe (sahrā) on the high road. It abounds in amenities and has running waters" (tr. Minorsky, 107, comm. 335). Mustawfī states that the town's climate was temperate and grain was cheap (Nuzha, ed. Le Strange, 155, tr. 153). Indeed, throughout history, Shibarghān has had a reputation for the fertility of its loess dunes  $(\check{c}\bar{u}l)$  and soil which produces an abundance of fruit (grapes and melons in particular) and

Shibarghān seems to have experienced an economic and political decline following the demise of the Ghaznawids [q.v.] in the mid-6th/12th century. This was probably due to the rise of Ghūrid empire to the south and the increasing importance of the easier, Maymana-Andkhūy road for caravan trade. By the time of the Mongol conquest of the region (619/1221-2), the fortress towns of Fāryāb [q.v.] (near modern Dawlatābād), Tālaķān and Yahūdiyya, had eclipsed

the settlements which lay further east. <u>Shibarghān</u>, however, appears to have been spared by the Mongols and doubtless profited by the almost total destruction of its economic rivals, Fāryāb and Ṭālakān. Some fifty years after the Mongol invasion (1275), Marco Polo records that <u>Shibarghān</u> was a thriving market town and an important staging post on the caravan route. The famous melons of the town were dried and exported to India and China, where the fruit was considered a delicacy. It was also renowned for its wild fowl and game.

Under the Tukāy-Timūrid ruler of Balkh, Nadhr Muhammad Khān (1000-60/1591-1650 [q.v.]), Shibarghān and Andkhūy were regarded as a single iktā and its revenue assigned to his sixth son, 'Abd al-Raḥmān. Following the Moghul occupation of Balkh (1056-7/1646-7), Nadhr Muhammad withdrew to Shibarghan before fleeing to Persia. The latter half of the 11th/17th century saw the decline of the appanage system and the rise of amīrid power. The Mīng amīrs of Shibarghan and Maymana engaged in a long and bitter struggle with the eastern amīrs of Kataghān for control of Balkh. In 1164/1751, following the evacuation of Balkh by Nādir Shāh Afshār's [q.v.] garrisons, Hādiī Bī Mīng, hākim of Maymana, enlisted the support of Ahmad Shāh Durrānī [q.v.] and thus subjugated his Ķataghānid rivals. Ḥādjī Bī's unpopular alliance with the Afghans and his despotic rule, however, led Izbāsir, hākim of Shibarghān, to rebel. Though this uprising was suppressed, the dynasty Izbāsir founded (?) survived until the third quarter of the 19th century. During this era, the hākims of Shibarghān played an important part in resisting Afghān encroachment and annexation. Shibarghan's last independent ruler, Ḥakīm Khān, was deposed by Amīr Shīr 'Alī Khān in 1875. In 1865 the town was totally destroyed by a violent earthquake in which an estimated 3,000 people perished.

By 1934 Shibarghān was "a ruined place" (R. Byron, The road to Oxiana, London 1934). From 1960 onwards, however, it experienced an economic renaissance following the discovery of vast gas reserves in the vicinity. Shibarghān is presently (1995) the headquarters, and home town, of the amīr of the northern provinces (Wilāyat-i Shamāl-i Afghānistan), General Dūstam.

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(J.L. Lee)

<u>SHIBITHTH</u> (A., in popular parlance <u>shibitt</u>, <u>shabath</u>)
is dill (Anethum graveolens L., Umbelliferae).

Like Akkadian šibittu, the name goes back to Aramaic šābittā (W. von Soden, Akkadisches Hand-wörterbuch, iii, 1227b). The Greek name ἄνηθον (anīthūn), which lives on in Mozarabic anītū, was taken from the Materia medica of Dioscurides; the Berber synonym aslūlī circulated also. When blossoming, dill resembles the

expeditions in Gujarat and Berar while initially forming marriage alliances with the Bahmanids; Gujarati forces, however, compelled Nașīr Khan to accept vassal status, which continued until the reign of Mīrān Moḥammad I (d. 943/1537), who was granted the title "shah" and named heir to the throne of Gujarat by his uncle Bahador Shah, though he did not live to inherit. Incursions by Mughal generals into Khandesh in 970/1562 and by Akbar in 972/1564 led Mobārak Shah II (d. 974/1566) to offer his daughter in marriage to Akbar and to acknowledge Mughal overlordship, though the Fārūqīs were still able to maneuver among Gujarat and the kingdoms of the Deccan. The last effective ruler of Khandesh, Raja 'Alī Khan 'Ādel Shah I (d. 1005/1597), avoided confrontation with the Mughals and was persuaded by Abu'l-Fayż Fayżī (pp. 78, 94, 102, 138) to assist them against Ahmadnagar; Raja 'Alī Khan died in battle against the Deccanī armies. His successor, Bahādor Shah (d. Agra, 1033/1623-24), became alienated from Akbar and attempted to resist a Mughal siege of Āsīr but had to surrender the fortress on 22 Rajab 1009/27 January 1601. Although the Fārūqīs as a dynasty were thus extinguished in Khandesh, a member of the Fārūqī family was adopted by Anwār-al-Dīn Khan (d. 1162/1749), first nawwāb of Arcot in southern India, who thus claimed to continue the line of 'Omar Fārūq (Ernst, pp. 214-15).

Burhanpur was a center of learning under the Fārūqīs, with flourishing religious schools (madrasas) and a considerable population of Sufis (Qāderī, Češtī, Šattārī) under royal patronage, as can be seen from such hagiographies as Mohammad Gawtī's Golzār-e abrār (1022/1613) and modern compilations by Mocin-al-Dīn Nadvī and Rāšed Borhānpūrī; in particular, many scholars fleeing chaotic conditions in Sind caused by rivalries among members of the Argun dyansty after 962/1554 found a haven in Burhanpur. The Fārūqīs' library (later seized by Akbar) must have been considerable, for Fayzī hoped that Raja 'Alī Khan could supply him with a complete copy of Amīr Kosrow Dehlavī's Toglog-nāma (Fayzī, pp. 296-97). The repeated sacking of the city by invading armies despoiled it of many of its literary treasures, but a few isolated pre-Mughal texts survive, including a medical treatise on sex (Maţlab al-mobaššerīn, by Moḥammad Ḥakīm Gīlānī, dedicated to Mīrān Moḥammad Shah; Patna, Oriental Public Library, ms. 980, H.L. 1006) and a lengthy political treatise composed for the coronation of Raja 'Alī Khan (Nafā'es al-kalām wa 'arā'es alaqlām by 'Abd-al-Laţīf Monšī Nazīl-al-Ḥaramāyn, 984/1576; unique MS Patna, Oriental Public Library, no. 948, H.L. no. 946), in which are listed and described twenty scholars and Sufis who attended the coronation (fols. 66b-82a). Some Deccani-style paintings currently identified as products of Ahmadnagar or Awrangābād may have been produced at Burhanpur (Sherwani and Joshi, II, pp. 207-8). The architecture of the Färūqīs, still unstudied, was distinctive, as can be seen from royal tombs and a fort at Burhanpur and large mosques at Āsīr and Burhanpur (Beacon, pp. 120-21, 132-35), the latter featuring a bilingual inscription in Arabic and Sanskrit.

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(CARL W. ERNST)

(l'acon

FĀRŪOĪ, EBRĀHĪM. See FARHANG-E EBRĀHĪMĪ.

FĀRŪQĪ, MOLLĀ MAḤMŪD. See Supplement.

**FĀRYĀB** (also spelled Pāryāb, Bāryāb), a town in northern Afghanistan, now in the modern Afghan province of Faryāb.

i. In Pre-Modern Islamic Times.

ii. In Modern Times.

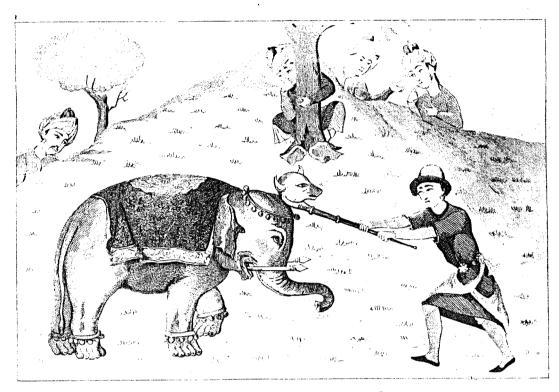
i. In Pre-Modern Islamiç Times

Early Islamic Fāryāb lay within the region of Gūzgān/
Jūzjān (q.v.). The town was probably situated some 16 km to the east of the Āb-e Qayṣār at the spot now called Kayrābād, where remains of an early Islamic settlement and a citadel have been noted (Ball, no. 542).

Fāryāb almost certainly had a pre-Islamic history, although we know virtually nothing of this, for it lay beyond the eastern frontiers of the Sasanian empire. Gardīzī (ed. Ḥabībī, p. 29) attributes its foundation to Fīrōz son of Yazdegerd, the Sasanian king. It was conquered by the Arab general 'Abd-Allāh b. 'Āmer (q.v.) in 32/652-53 during the course of fierce fighting in Gūzgān and Ṭokarestān; in 45/665-66 Qays b. Haytam was governor of Marv-al-rūd, Ṭālaqān, and Fāryāb. It nevertheless retained a local Iranian prince of its own, whose name (or title?) is corruptly written in Ṭabarī as T.r.s.l. The Hephthalite leader Ṭarkān Nīzak brought him out in rebellion against the Arab governor of

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## GORZ-GORZEVĀN



Rostam striking a white elephant with an ox-headed mace, from a Šāh-nāma manuscript.

gorz, gorza, gorzigorza-ye gāvsār gāv-sar, gorzigorzaye gāv-čehr/gāvrang/gāv-ruy/gāv-miš, gorz-e gerān, gorz-e yak zaķm (the latter epithet only for the gorz of Sām/Garšāsp; Wolff, Glossar, p. 699).

In the *Śāh-nāma*, prior to the reign of Ferēdun, the club/mace is mentioned only by its common designation, namely *gorz* or *gorz-e gerān*. It is only after the ascension of Ferēdun to the throne that, following his instructions, blacksmiths forged a *gorz* with the bull-shaped head made of iron; from then on the term *gorz-e gāvsār* etc. is used (*Śāh-nāma*, ed. Khaleghi, I. p. 71).

Gorz, as a symbol of chivalry, heroism, and dispensing justice is the heritage of great heroes in the Iranian national epic; it remains in the hero's family to be used later by his son and grandson. Garšāsp/Sām's single-blow mace (gorz-e yak zakm) was inherited by Zāl, and after him it became the choice weapon of Rostam in his fateful battles (Šāh-nāma, ed. Khaleghi, I, p. 347, II, p. 108).

The connection between *gorz* and the bull's head may have its roots in the significance of the cow in the life of Ferēdun and his family (Meskub. pp. 12-46). It may also be attributed to the story of the Farr (q.v.) that left Jam-šēd and was received by Mithra, Garšāsp, and Ferēdun (*Yt.* 19.34-38).

There is a number of bull-headed maces/clubs among the extant ancient weapons. Careful examination of these ancient war relics easily reveals why Iranians considered the mace the most decisive instrument of war. Included among them are two bronze maces kept at The Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, which are dated to the first millennium B.C.E., and another one, made of iron and bronze, kept in the Los Angeles Sub-province Museum of Art. Pictures of bull-headed clubs are also found on ancient bas-reliefs and coins.

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(JALIL DOOSTKHAH)

GORZEVĀN (thus in the *Ḥodud al-ʿālam*; Yaʿqubi, Qorzomān; Ebn Ḥawqal and Yāqut, Jorzovān; Moqaddasi, Jorzovān and Korzovān), a town in the medieval Islamic region of Guzgān (q.v.) in northern Afghanistan, It lay in the district of the headwaters of the Fāryāb

جوزجان

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مقدمه و فهرستها و اصطلاحات نجومی از جلیل اخوان زنجانی، تهران ۱۳۶۸ ش؛ عبدالرحمانین عمر صوفی، کتاب صورالکواکب، چاپ عکسی از نسخه خطی کتابخانهٔ بودلیان، ش ۱۹۴۴ Marsh ، فرانکفورت عکسی از نسخهٔ خطی کتابخانهٔ بودلیان، ش ۱۴۴ میدالرحمن صوفی، به قلم نصیراللین طوسی، چاپ معزاللین مهلوی، تهران ۱۳۵۱ ش؛ حسنین علی قمی، ترجمهٔ المدخل الی علم احکام النجوم: تألیف به سال ۱۳۵۵ هق، از مترجمی ناشناخته، چاپ جلیل اخوان زنجانی، تهران ۱۳۷۵ ش؛ مظفرین محمدقاسم گنابادی، شرح بیست براب مسلامظفر (دربارهٔ رسالهٔ بیست براب در معرفت تقویم اشر عبدالعلی بن محمد بیرجندی)، چاپ سنگی [بیجا] ۱۲۷۶ محمد بن مسعودی مروزی، منجمع الاحکام، چاپ علی حضوری، تهران ۱۳۷۹ ش؛ ابوالفضل مصفی، فرهنگ اصطلاحات نجومی، تهران ۱۳۶۶ ش؛

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/ حميدرضا گياهي يزدي /

**جـــوزْ جان**، نــاحیهٔ تــاریخی و ولایـتی (اسـتانی) در افغانستان.

۱) ناحیهٔ تاریخی. این ناحیه در ابتدای فلات ایران، در شمال غربی افغانستان قرار دارد و کمابیش مطابق با ولایات کنونی جوزجان و فاریاب است. جوزجان معرب واژهٔ فارسی گوزگان (گوز به معنای گردو +گان، پسوند اسم مکان ساز) است (برهان، ذیل «جوز» و «گوز»). نام آن به صورتهای جوزجانان و گورگانان هم ضبط شده است (به مقدسی، ص ۲۹۸؛ حدود العالم، ص ۹۵). فردوسی (ج ۵، ص ۱۴۹) تاریخ بنای جوزجان را به دورهٔ پیشدادیان نسبت داده و جوزجان را مستوده است.

ابن خرداذبه (ص ۴۰) پادشاه جوزجان را کُوزَکان خُذاه خوانده است. محدودهٔ این ناحیه در دوره های گوناگون متغیر بوده و گاهی از شمال به آمودریا (جیحون\*) و مرغاب محدود می شده است.

اَقْرَعِبن حابِس تمیمی، پس از جنگهای سخت، جوزجان را در زمان عثمان (حک: ۲۳ـ۳۵) فتح کرد (بلاذری، ص ۵۷۳). قیام یحیی بن زیدبن علی بن حسین علیه السلام و قتل وی در ۱۲۵ در قصبهٔ اینسو (امروزه امام خورد) به دست مسلمین احرز، از وقایع مهم سدهٔ دوم جوزجان است (طبری، ج ۷، ص ۲۲۸-۲۳۰؛ گردیزی، ص ۲۶۱ و پانویس ۴).

در سال ۲۰۳، زلزلهٔ بزرگی در مشرق خراسان روی داد که به ولایت جوزجان هم آسیب رساند (امبرسزا و ملویل ۲، ص ۷۳). در اواخر سدهٔ سوم و در سدهٔ چهارم فَریغونیان (حک: ح ۲۰۹-۲۰۹) بر جوزجان فرمانروایی میکردند (عتبی، ص ۲۰۲). جوزجان در سدههای سوم و چهارم از لحاظ موقعیت جغرافیایی اهمیت بسیار داشت (ے همانجا؛ نیز ب ادامهٔ مقاله)، بهویژه آنکه با بلخ در شمال مرتبط و گاهی تابع آن بود (ے مقدسی، همانجا)، گاهی هم جزو تُخارستان به شمار میرفت. جُرزوان / کرزوان، از شهرهای این ناحیه شهری آباد و پایتخت تابستانی فریغونیان بود و مانند شهر مکه میان دو کوه قرار داشت (ابن حوقل، ص ۴۴۳؛ یاقوت جموی، میان «جرزوان»).

در سدهٔ چهارم، جوزجان از شمال به رود جیحون، از مشرق به بلخ و تخارستان تا حدود بامیان، از جنوب تا انتهای نواحی غُور و بُست و از مغرب به نـاحیهٔ غَـرچـستان مـحدود میشد و مِهترانِ غور و غرچستان تابع مَلِک جـورجـان بـودند. گفته شده است که مَلِک جوزجان از فرزندان فریدون بود (حدودالعالم، همانجا). جغرافي نگاران اين دوره جوزجان را ناحیه ذکر کردهانید و از رشته کوههای آن که به کوههای تالقان در تخارستان متصل میشد، آبهای روان، بـناهای گِـلی، درختان بسیار (بمویژه گردو و بادام و درختی به نام خنج که چوبی بسیار نرم داشت)، صنایع آن (از جمله پوست بز دباغی شده به نام سختیان گوزگانی که به تمام خراسان صادر می شد و زیلو و پلاس و تَنگ اسب) یاد کرده اند (اصطحری، ص ٢٧٠-٢٧١؛ ابن حوقل، ص ۴۴٢-۴۴۲؛ حدو دالعالم، همانجا). در بیابانهای جوزجان در این سده بیست هزار عرب زندگی مى كردند كه گوسفند و شتر بسيار داشتند و از اين حيث از همه عربهای خراسان توانگرتر بودند (حدودالعالم، ص ۹۸). در همین سده، ابن حوقل (ص ۴۴۳) خراج جوزجان و توابع آن را

1. Ambraseys 2. Melville

فأقمنا « بِالجُرْجانِيَّةِ » أياماً ، وجمد « نهر جيحون » من أولـه [الجرجاني إلى آخره . وكان سمك الجَمْد سبعة عشر شبراً (١) ، وكانت الخيل والبغال والحمير والعجل تجتاز عليه كما تجتاز على الطرق . وهو ثابت لا يتخلخل . فأقامَ على ذلك ثلاثة أشهر .

فرأينا بلداً ما ظننّا إِلاَّ أَنَّ باباً من الزَّمْهِرِيرِ قَدْ فُتِحَ عَلَيْسا منه ، ولا يسقط فيه الثلج إلا ومعه ربح عاصف شديدة (٢٠ . وإذا أتحف الرجل مِنْ أَهْلِهِ صاحِبَهُ ، وأراد برَّه قال له : « تعال إِليَّ حتى نتحدثَ (٢٠ فإنَّ عندي ناراً طيبة » . هذا إذا بالغ (١٠ في برَّه وَصِلَتِهِ . إلا أن الله تَعالى قد لطف بهم في أخطب وأرخصه عليهم : حمل عجلة من حطب الطاغ (٥٠)

رُ ) . فَسَّر باقوت الكامة فقال : « الطاغ وهو الفضا » ، وهي تركية ممر"بة ، ولكن ياقوت بضيف ٢ / ٨٠ ٤ . « قلت : وهذا ايضاً كذب ، لأن العجلة اكثر ماتجر" عليها ما اختبرته وحملت قاشاً لي عليه ألف رطل »

رين الرفيزي والمارية

أحتكد بن فضلان بن ألعباس بن كاشد بن حكماد

- ( tzca) 402

في وصف الرحلة الى بلاد التركب والخزر والروسس والصقالبة سنة ٢٠٩ هـ - ٩٢١ م

> مفقها دعل عليها د فدم لها الدكتور سامي الترهيان عفد لبي لله إلدوبيش

> > الناشو مكتبة الثقافة العالمية بيسروت

> > > Makale 5.83-90 arasındadir.

<sup>(</sup>۱) وصف ياقوت نهر جبحون ؛ / ۱۷۱، ، وذكر تجمده فقالى : «حتى يصير ثخنه نحو خمسة أشبار » . ولذلك كذب ابن فضلان هنأ وقال : ٣ / ٤٨٤ « وهذا كذب منه فان أكثر مايجمد خمسة أشبار ، وهذا يكون نادراً ، فأما المادة فهو شبران أو ثلاثة . شاهدته وسألت عنه اهل تلك البلاد ـ والمجيب ان السمك عند ابن فضلان هنا هو «سبمة عشر شبراً » وينثل ياقوت فيقول : « تسمة عشر شبراً » .

 <sup>(</sup>٢) ويعاق ياقوت على هذا الكلام كذلك فيقول ٢/ ه ٨ : « قات : وهذا ايضاً كذب ، فانه لولا ركود الهواه في الثناه في بلادم لما عاش فيها احد » .

 <sup>(</sup>٣) في الأصل الخطوط : « حتى يتعدّث » وصوابها مارسمنا .

<sup>(</sup>ع) في الأصل : « بلغ في بره » وامل صوابها ما وضمناه .