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also wrote several medical and suff works, which have not yet been published. In the history of the Bayrāmiyya, Ak Shams al-Din seems to have played a fatal part, because a quarrel between him and some of his companions caused the great secession of the Malāmatiyya, which could not fail to hamper considerably the development of the whole order.

Bibliography: Tāshköprü-zāde, al-Shaķā'iķ al-Nu'māniyya (transl. O. Rescher, 145 ff.); Emīr Hüseyn, Menāķib-i Aķ Shams al-Din, Istanbul 1301 (also used, on the basis of a MS, by Unver); Gibb, ii, 138 ff.; Bursall Mehmed Tāhir, 'Othmānli Mü'ellifleri, i, 12 ff.; A. S. Unver, Ilim ve sanat bakimindan Fatih devri notlari, i, Istanbul 1947, 127 ff. ("Halk menakibine göre Ak-şemseddin ve Istanbul hakkinda"; on his miracles, sayings, etc.); H. J. Kissling, Aq Šems ed-Dīn. Ein türkischer Heiliger aus der Endzeit von Byzanz, Byzantinische Zeitschrift, 1951, 322 ff. (with detailed justification of statements differing from views of earlier authorities). (H. J. Kissling)

AK SHEHR, in modern Turkish orthography Akşehir, "White Town":

(î) Town in inner Anatolia situated at the foot of the Sultan Dagh. In antiquity it was known as Philomelium (see Pauly-Wissowa, s.v.). In old sources the name of the town occurs as Akshar, Akhshar or Akhshehir. It was under Saldjük and Karamān-oghlu dominion and was annexed by Bāyezīd I. In the 16th-17th centuries it is mentioned by the travellers Ghazzi, Makki and Ewliya Čelebi. The town, capital once of a sandjak, now of a kadā in the wilayet of Konya, gained its importance from its situation on the Istanbul-Baghdad road (now on the railway line), and is also an agricultural centre; in 1935 it had 10,335 inhabitants (some of them immigrants from Greece and Yugoslavia); the kadā 60,000. Its mosque was founded by Bayezid I, the Tash Medrese has an inscription of the Saldjūķid Kaykā'ūs I (613/1216) but is of a later time. Other monuments are a tekke with an inscription of Sahib 'Ațā from the time of Kaykā'ūs II (659/1260-9); the tomb of Sayyid Mahmūd Khayrānī, with an octagonal pyramid (621/1224; restored in the beginning of the 15th century); the Ulu Djami' (beg. of 15th century); Iplikči Djāmi (738/1337); and an imāret. The modern tomb of Nașr al-Din Khodja [q.v.] bears the date of 386/926.

Bibliography: V. Cuinet, La Turquie d'Asie, i, 803, 818; Cl. Huart, Konia, Paris 1897, 109-17; idem, Epigraphie Arabe d'Asie Mineure, Revue Sémitique, 1894, 28-34; Fr. Sarre, Reise in Kleinasien, 21 f.; Ch. Texier, Asie Mineure, 435; Ainsworth, Travels and Researches in Asia Minor, ii, 63; Hamilton, Researches, ii, 185; 'All Djewäd, Memālik-i 'Othmāniyyenin Ta'rikh we-Djoghrāfiyā Lughati, 21; Ewliyā Čelebi, ii, 15 ff.

(CL. HUART-F. TAESCHNER)

(ii) AĶ SHEHIR (also AKSHAR or ASHKAR; Pizzigani, 1367, writes Azcar), town in north-east Anatolia, on the Kelkit Irmaķ between Ķoylu Hişār and Sushehri; it is often mentioned by early authors, and occurs as late as in Kātib Čelebi's Dihān-nūmā, 627. It is probably identical with the modern village of Güzeller or Ezbider. The name was preserved, even longer than for the town, for the plain (Aķ Shehir Owasi), which is regularly mentioned in the iteneraries of the Ottoman armies on their campains against Persia and Georgia.

Bibliography: F. Taeschner, Das anatolische Wegenetz, ii, 2 (with further references).

(F. TAESCHNER)

AK SU (T.), "white water", (1) technical term for the original bed of a river (also ak daryā), from which a canal (kara su or kara daryā) is derived; (2) name of several rivers in Turkish-speaking countries; they are sometimes better known under other names. The following are some of the rivers that bear in Turkish the name of Ak Şu: (i) one of the source rivers of the Amu Darya [q.v.], also called Murghab [q.v.] or the "River of Kulab"; (ii) the "southern" Bug (in Ukrainian: Boh) in the Ukraine (so regularly in the Ottoman historians), which forms at its issue into the Black Sea a common estuary with the Dnieper; (iii) a rapid mountain stream in Eastern Turkistān (Sin-kiang), which, coming from the Tien-shan, flows in a S. E. direction towards the Tarim (Yārkand Daryā) and reaches it somewhat above its junction with the Khotan Darya near Sil. The town of Ak Su (see next article) receives (B. SPULER) its name from this stream.

AK SU, town in Eastern Turkistan (Sin-kiang), about 6 km. to the north of the river of Ak Su (see preceding article), approximately opposite to its junction with the Tawshkan Darya; 1006 m. above the sea, 41°14, 7' N, 80° E; on the northern caravan route, between Maralbashi and Kučá. A little upstream from the modern town lies another settlement called Ak Şu, and N. E. of both is the "Old Town", which possibly both correspond to older settlements with Chinese names of their own (see below). Ak Şu is first mentioned with its Turkish name in the 8th/14th century only; the usual identification (current since Deguignes) with Auzakia in Ptolemy is therefore more than doubtful. Its identification with various Chinese toponyms is not yet finally settled. W. Barthold had identified it (mainly on the basis of its present Chinese name, see below) with the Wön-su of the Han period and the B.nčul (B.nčūk?) of the Hudūd al-'Alam (ed. Minorsky, 98) and Gardizi (in Barthold's Otčet o poyezdkye v Srednyuyu Aziyu, St. Petersburg 1897, 91); later, however, he gave up this view. P. Pelliot identified Ak Şu with the Ku-mo of the Han period (Pa-lu-kia in Hsüan-tsang, Po-huan in the T'ang period; al-Idrīsī's "Bākhuwān"). Chinese merchants in Aķ Şu are mentioned already about 1400 (NizāmShāmī, Zafar-nāma), but even in 1475 its importance was small in comparison with other towns of Eastern Turkistan (W. Barthold, 12 Vorlesungen, Berlin 1935, 220); according to Haydar Mirzā's Ta'rikh-i Rashidi, however, it was about 1547 one of the capitals of the country. In modern times the importance of the town (which did not reach, however, that of Yarkand, Kāshghar and Turfān) lay in its role as a commercial centre and a junction of roads between China, Siberia, Eastern and Western Turkistan, Kashmir, Ladakh and India. It had also a military importance. It is said that at one time the town had 6000 houses, six caravansarays, five madrasas, and a wall with four gates. As the town was almost completely destroyed by an earthquake in 1716, no old buildings have been preserved. By the travellers of the 19th century (A. N. Kuropatkin, 1876-7; N. M. Prževal'skiy, 1885-6; Carey, 1885-6; F. E. Younghusband, 1886; Sven Hedin, 1895) it is described as having about 15,000 inhabitants and being about 2 km. in circumference. The livelihood of the inhabitants was based on metalwork, cotton materials of very good quality (bazz), saddles, bridles, jewellery and the breeding of camels, horses and cattle. Between 1867 and 1877 Ak Su belonged to Yackūb Beg [q.v.] of Kāshghar, since 1877 again to China (Chinese name: Wön-su-chow); the Chinese chose the town for the residence of the president (tao-tcai) of the "Four Eastern Towns" (Ak Su, Kučā, Kara Shahr and Uč Turfān). In the 20th century it shared the changing fortunes of Eastern Turkistan. The number of the inhabitants (presumably mostly Sunnī Eastern Turks) is at present given as between 20,000 and 40,000, who occupy themselves also with carpet weaving.

Bibliography: P. Pelliot, La ville de Ba-khouan dans la géographie d'Idríci, T'oung-pao, 1906, 553-6; idem, Notes sur les anciens noms de Kučā, d'Aq-su et d'Üċ-Turfān, T'oung-Pao, 1923, 126-32; the materials are put together in Ḥudūd al-ʿĀlam, 293-7, cf. also 27 f. and the map, 279; Brockhaus-Efron, Entsiklopedičeskiy slovar¹, St. Petersburg 1890, i, 307 f.; A. Herrmann, Atlas of China, Cambridge (Mass.) 1935, 24, 37, 58, 60; Bol'shaya Sovyetskaya Entsiklopediya², 1950, i, 617 f. (B. Spuler)

AĶ ŞU (AKH Şu), village near Shemākhī, (Russian Shemakhā) in Soviet Ādharbaydjān, with a mosque, a bazar and with the ruins of "New Shemākhī" [q.v.].

(B. Spuler)

AK SUNKUR, "White Falcon", the name of many Turkish officers, of whom the following are the most important:

I. ĀĶ SUNĶUR B. 'ABD ALLĀH ĶASĪM AL-DAWLA, known as AL-ḤĀDJIB, mamlūk of Malik-shāh [q.v.], who appointed him to the government of Aleppo in 480/1087. He at first supported the efforts of the Saldjūķ prince Tutush [q.v.] to establish himself in Syria, but after Malik-shāh's death he, with the other governors in northern Syria and the Djazīra, declared for Barkiyāruķ, and was defeated and executed by Tutush near Aleppo in Djumādā I, 487/May 1094. He was the father of Zankī [q.v.], afterwards atābeg of Moşul, and is highly praised for his justice and good government.

Bibliography: Ibn al-Kalānisī (Amedroz), 119-26, trans. Le Tourneau, Damas de 1075 à 1154, Damascus 1952, 15-27; Ibn al-Athīr, x, 98, 149-51, 157-8; Ibn Khallikān, no. 99; Ibn al-Adīm, Tarīkh Halab, ii, Damascus 1954, index.

2. ĀĶ Sunķur al-Ahmadīlī [see ahmadīlī].

(H. A. R. GIBB)

AK SUNKUR AL-BURSUKI (ABŪ SA'ID SAYF AL-DIN KASIM AL-DAWLA), originally a mamluk of Bursuk [q.v.], and one of the principal officers of the Saldjūķid sultans Muhammad and Mahmūd. He became prominent firstly through his activities as military governor (shihna) of al-Irak, and later, at the end of his life, as governor of Mosul, which office he held simultaneously with the former. Appointed shipna in 498/1105. his main task was to oppose the Mazyadite Arabs of Dubays [q.v.], who were infesting the environs of Baghdad. In his first government of Mosul (507/1113) his chief duty was the organization of the Holy War in the name of the sultan against the Franks in Syria, combining with this an effort to restore the Saldjuk authority in Diyar Bakr and up to the Mediterranean. After several setbacks, due essentially to the suspicions aroused by these ambitions, and which led to his spending the years 509-512/1116-8 in partial disgrace at his fief of al-Rahba on the Euphrates, he finally succeeded, after saving Aleppo from an attack by the Crusaders supported by Dubays, in taking over the government of the entire province (518/1125), by

agreement with the leading citizens of Aleppo. He thus realized that union of a part of the Diazlra with northern Syria which had served as the basis of Hamdanid power, and was to support that of Zankl [q.v.]. His life was cut short by the Băținis of Alamut, one of whose allies he had opposed in al. 'Irāķ, in 519/1126, before he could display his abilities, and it fell to Zanki to realize, with greater solidity, the task thus begun. But already al-Bursuki had combined, as Zanki was also to do, Saldjūkid legitimism, represented by his dignity as atabek of a prince, with an almost complete de facto autonomy at Mosul, and had effected that reinforcement of Muslim north Syria by the forces of the Diazlra which was to permit the former to break the Frankish encirclement and explains its readiness, despite its particularism, to accept his authority.

Bibliography: C. Cahen, La Syrie du Nord d'époque des Croisades, Paris 1940; R. Grousset, Histoire des Croisades, i, Paris 1934; S. Runciman, A History of the Crusades, ii, Cambridge 1952; Ibn al-Kalānisi (Amedroz; tr. Le Tourneau, index, s.v. al-Borsoqi); Ibn al-Athir, x, 272, 290, 350-3, 374, 378-80, 415, 439-40, 446-7; Ibn Khallikān, no. 100; Ibn al-'Adim, ii, Damascus 1954, index; Ibn Abī Țayy; and, among non-Muslim authors, Matthew of Edessa; other sources quoted by Cahen, op. cit., introduction. (Cl. Cahen)

AL-'AKABA, a mountain-road, or a place difficult of ascent on a hill or acclivity. There are many places of this name: the best-known is that between Minā and Mecca. Here, according to traditional accounts, Muhammad had secret meetings with men from Medina at the pilgrimages of the years 621 and 622 A. D. In 621, at "the first 'Akaba", twelve were present, and they gave to Muhammad an undertaking known as 'the pledge of the women' (bay'at al-nisa'); at "the second 'Akaba" seventythree men and two women promised to defend Muhammad, if necessary, by arms, in what is known as 'the pledge of war' (bay'at al-harb). Some Western writers have held that there was only one meeting at al-'Akaba, since only one is mentioned by al-Tabari (i, 1224 f.), and since the wording of "the pledge of the women" in the extant sources is based on Kur'an, lx, 12, which is admittedly later (cf. F. Buhl, Muhammed, Leipzig 1930, 186). It is likely, however, that the delicate negotiations involved would require more than one meeting. (For the stone-throwing that takes place at al-'Akaba as part of the pilgrimage, see AL-DIAMRA and HADIDI.)

Bibliography: Yāķūt, iii, 692 f.; Ibn Hishām, 288-300; Tabarī, i, 1209-27; G. Mélamède, in MO, xxviii, 17-58; Montgomery Watt, Muhammad al Mecca, Oxford, 1953, 144 ff.

(W. MONTGOMERY WATT)

AL-'AKABA, the sole seaport of the Hāshimite Kingdom of Jordan, lying on the eastern side of the head of the Gulf of 'Akaba at the foot of the Djabal Umm Nuşayla.

Al-'Akaba is the successor of Ayla [q.v.], from which it developed as the town grew further to the southeast. The name al-'Akaba is a shortened form of 'Akabat Ayla, "the Pass of Ayla", which refers to the pass through the Djabal Umm Nuşayla traversed by the route from al-'Akaba northeast to Ma'ān through the Wādi Ithm and the Wadi Ḥismā. This pass, which was improved under the Tūlūnid Khumārawayh (884-95), ultimately gave its name to the town itself. The term 'Akabat Ayla appears as early as the time of al-Idrīsī (d. 1166), but the town was still generally known as Ayla. Ibn Baṭṭūṭa

superseding both Karā and Djawnpūr in importance. Most of the Indian writers and European travellers visiting India during the 17th and 18th centuries testify to its importance. In 1736 the Mahrattās conquered it. After 1750 it changed hands several times, till the British garrisoned the citadel in 1798 and the town in 1801.

Monuments: The citadel built by Akbar (with Asōka's pillar and its famous inscription). and the Khusraw Bāgh, with the tombs of Prince Khusraw, his mother and his sister, are the chief monuments of the Mughal period.

Bibliography: Akbar-nāma (Bib. Ind.), ii, 296; iii, 88, 414, etc.; A'in-i Akbari (tr. Sarkar), ii, 94, 169; Țabaķāt-i Akbari (Bib. Ind.), ii, 211, 286, 379, etc.; De Laet 62; Bernier (1891), 457; Tavernier (1925), i, 15, 95; Thevenot, 92; Nevill, Allahabad, a Gazetteer. (Nurul Hasan)

ALLAHUMMA is an old Arabic formula of invocation: "Alläh!", for which also Lahumma is found (cf. Nöldeke, Zur Grammatik d. class: Arab., 6). Whether, as Wellhausen supposes in his Reste arabischen Heidentums², 224, it was originally meant for the god Allah, higher than and different from the old Arabian gods, is rather doubtful, because every god might be invoked as "the God" (just as "the Lord". It was used in praying, offering, concluding a treaty and blessing or cursing (see Goldziher, Abhandlungen z. arab. Philol., i, 35 ff.; cf. also the expression Allahuma hayyi = much good may it do you, al-Akhtal iii, 7). The phrase bi'smika 'llāhumma, said to have been introduced by Umayya b. Abi 'l-Şalt (according to a statement in Aghāni, iii, 187) and used as an introduction in written treaties, has been replaced by others by Muhammed as being a heathen expression (Ibn Hisham, i, 747; Wellhausen, Skizzen u. Vorarb., iv, 104, 128). The simple Allāhumma (Lāhumma), on the other hand, was retained as inoffensive (e.g. Kur'an, iii, 26; xxxix, 46; subhānaka 'llāhumma, x, 10), and in the same way allahumma na'am = "certainly!", being in fact the answer on being conjured to tell the truth (al-Tabarī, i, 1723). For the peculiar formula allāhumma minka wa-ilayka (or laka) used at the familyoffering, cf. Goldziher, in ZDMG, 1894, 95 f.

AL-CALLAKI, name of a wadi in Lower Nubia between the Nile and the shore of the Red Sea, 62 miles south of Aswan.

(FR. BUHL)

In the Middle Ages, this small valley resembled a large populous and flourishing town, because it was a gold mining area, using black slave labour. "The nuggets of gold", wrote al-Ya'kūbī, "appear in the form of sulphide of arsenic, and are made into bars". Al-Idrīsī gives more curious information. The prospectors, he tells us, took up their positions at night in order to see the gold dust glistening in the darkness and to mark the sites so that they could be recognised the next day. The prospectors then proceeded to collect and transport the auriferous sand and to wash it in tubs of water to extract the metal, which was then blended with mercury and smelted.

These gold mines, exploited in early times, were abandoned at the end of the Middle Ages. The old workings can still be seen. Gold mining has recently been resumed in the area (Umm Gharayāt).

Bibliography: Yackübi, Buldan, 33-336; Fr. trans. Wiet, 188-192; Ibn Rustah, 183, Fr. trans. Wiet, 211; Idrisi, (Dozy and de Goeje), 26-7; Mez, Renaissance, 415; Baedeker, Égypte, 1908 ed., 379, 381. (G. WIET)

'ALLÂMÎ [sec ABÛ 'L-PADL]. ALLÂN [sec ALÂN].

of the Soviet Socialist Republic of Kazakhistán since 1929 and administrative centre of the oblast (province) of the same name. Established in 1854 on the site of a Kazakh settlement called Almaty, in 1867 it became the administrative centre of the Russian military governorate of Semirechia. By 1871 it had been largely rebuilt on Russian lines and had become a thriving trade centre with a mixed population of 12,000 composed of Kazakhs, Dungans, Uyghurs, Tatars, Russians and Chinese. The population rose to 45,000 in 1926 and to 230,000 in 1939. Among the many educational and cultural establishments in the city are the Academy of Sciences, 50 schools, 4 theatres and 13 cinemas.

Bibliography: S. Djusunbekov and O. Kurnetsova, Alma-Ata², Alma-Ata 1939; D. D. Boragin and I. I. Beloretskovskiy, Alma-Ata, Moscow 1950; and see KAZAKHISTAN. (G. E. WHEELER)

ALMADA [see AL-MACDIN].

ALMADEN (see AL-MACDIN).

ALMAGEST [see BATLAMIYUS].

ALMALIGH, capital of a Muslim kingdom in the upper Ili [q.v.] valley, founded in the 7th/13th century by Ozār (Djuwaynī, i, 57) or Būzār (Djamāl Karshī, in W. Barthold, Turkestan, Russ. ed., i, 135 f.), who is said to have previously been a brigand and horse-thief. According to Djamāl, he assumed the title of Toghrll Khān as ruler. Almaligh is first mentioned as the capital of this kingdom, and later as a great and wealthy commercial city. We owe our information about its site mainly to the Chinese (Bretschneider, Med. Researches, i, 69 f., ii, 33 ff. and index); it lay south of Lake Sayram and the Talki pass, north of the Ili, probably northwest of the modern Kuldja.

Like other rulers of these regions, the king of Almaligh had dealings with Cingiz Khān, (whose hunting-ground was near Almaligh: Djuwayni, i, 21). He was surprised and killed while hunting by Küčlük, the governor of the kingdom of the Kara Khitāy [q.v.]; but Küčlük failed to capture the town of Almaligh. Uzār's son and successor Suķnāķ (or Sughnāk) Tigin married a granddaughter of Čingiz Khān (a daughter of Djuči). On his death (851/1253-4, cf. Djuwaynī, i, 58; 648/1250-1 in Djamāl Karshī) he was succeeded by his son whose name (Dānishmand Tigin) like the names of the other rulers of this line are given only by Djamal Karshī (Barthold, Turkestan, i, 140 f.). Almaligh in his time (beginning of the 8th/14th century) was still ruled by this dynasty. How long this line continued to reign is not known. The silver and copper coins struck at Almaligh in the 7th/13th century apparently belong to them. After Cingiz Khān's death the territory of Almaligh was under the suzerainty of Caghatay, cf. B. Spuler, Mongolen in Iran, 277, note 2. The whole province (to which belonged also the old Kuz Ordu = Balasaghun) was called in the 13th-14th centuries Il Arghū (cf. also the nisba Ilarghawi in Barthold, Turkestan, i, 138-40). Near Almaligh was situated the "hord" of Caghatay and his successors, such as Ergene Khātūn and Tarmashīrīn (Djuwaynī, ii, 241, 243, 272 f.; iii, 97; Wassaf, lith. Bombay, 50; Ibn Battūta, iii, 41, 49 f.

As a great commercial city on the main route through Central Asia to China, Almallgh is frequently mentioned by European travellers and missionaries (see I. Hallberg, L'Extrême Orient etc., Göteborg 1906,

17 f.: Almalech). In 1339 some Franciscan friars were murdered in the town (cf. A. van den Wyngaert, Sinica Franciscana, i, 510-1; G. Golubovich, Biblioteca Bio-Bibliografica, ii, 72, iv, 244-8, 310-1). Here was the seat of a Roman Catholic missionary bishop and, probably, of the Nestorian metropolitan (cf. Bretschneider, Med. Res., 38; Barthold, Očerk istorii Semiryecya, Vyerniy 1898, 64-7; V. Rondalez, in Neue Zeitschrift für Missionswissenschaft, 1951, 1-17; S. Dauvillier, in Mélanges F. Cavallera, Toulouse 1948, 305-7).

Like the towns on the Čū [q.v.], the Talas and elsewhere, Almaligh was completely ruined by the constant civil wars and other fighting in the 8th'14th century (cf. Bābur, ed. Beveridge, 1; Mīrzā Muḥammad Ḥaydar, Ta'rīkh-i Rashīdī, tr. E. D. Ross, 364). Muḥammad Ḥaydar mentions the ruins of the tomb with the tomb of Tughluk Tīmūr Khān (d. 764/1362-3; cf. Dughlat); these ruins (at present called Alimtu) lie between the Khorgos, the boundary river between the Soviet Union and China and the village of Mazār and have been fully described by N. Pantusov, Kaufmanskiy Sbornik, Moscow 1910, 161 ff. Inscriptions from graves of Nestorian Christians have also been found there (see especially P. Kokovtsov, in Zap., xvi, 190 ff.).

A. N. Bernstamm (Pamyatniki stariny almaatins-koy oblasti po materialam ekspeditsii 1939g., Izvestiya Akad. Nauk Kazakh. SSR, Archeol. series, i, Alma Ata 1948, 79-91) identifies Almaligh with a town (also called Alimtu = Chinese A-li-t'u) near the modern Alma Ata; but in reality this is another, different, town having the same name (as an appellative, "apple town"); it is mentioned in 1390 in connection with Timūr's campaign against Mughulistān (Yazdī, Zafar-nāma, i, 466 ff.; cf. F. Pétis de la Croix, Histoire de Timur-bec, ii, 66 ff.).

(W. Barthold-[B. Spuler and O. Pritsak])
ALMANAC [see anwä'; ta'rikh].
ALMANZOR [see al-manşūr].

ALMAS—frequently regarded as a noun defined by the article (al-mās; correctly al-Almās according to Ibn al-Athir, in LA, viii, 97: the 'l belongs to the root as in Ilyās), a corrupt form from the Greek άδάμας (l.c.: "wa-laysat bi-carabiyya"),—the diamond. According to the pseudo-Aristotelian Kitāb al-Ahdjār which, on the basis of cognate Greek sources, agrees in the main with the statements of Pliny, the diamond cuts every solid except lead, by which it is itself destroyed. On the frontier of Khurāsān is a deep valley in which the diamonds lie guarded by poisonous snakes whose looks alone are enough to kill. Alexander the Great procured some of them by a trick: he had mirrors made in which the snakes saw themselves and died; then he had the flesh of sheep thrown down into the ravine so that the diamonds stuck to it and were brought up by vultures who seized the pieces of flesh. This story, already found in Epiphanius De XII gemmis, is generally known in the East (Arabian Nights). Al-Birūni ridicules this story and asks why the snakes did not die when looking at one another, but only when seeing themselves in the mirrors. He takes the opportunity to make fun of other stories about the diamond, and also of stories recounting the death of people who looked at certain animals and stones. On the other hand, he has many valuable notices on the qualities, mining and use of the diamond. He also tells of a piece which Mu'izz al Dawla Ahmad b. Buya presented to his brother Rukn al-Dawla al-Hasan weighing 3 mithkal (12, 75 or even 14, 16 g). But al-Dimashki knows of no

diamonds heavier than I mithkal. The sources differ widely about the places where diamonds are found.—Al-Tifashī and al-Kazwīnī relate that the pieces obtained through smashing the stone are all triagonal (observation of the octagonal scissure?), and the former also says that the diamond attracts little feathers.—It is generally mentioned as being used for cutting and piercing other stones. Aristotle is said to have used it for destroying stones in the bladder. The powder of it must not touch the teeth; applied externally it is a good cure for colic and stomach-ache.

Bibliography: J. Ruska, Das Steinbuch des Aristoteles, 1912; Kazwini (Wüstenf.), i, 236-7; Tifāshi, Azhār al-A/kār, transl. by Reineri Biscia, 2nd ed., 53-4; Clément-Mullet, in JA, 6th series, xi, 127-8; Bīrūni, al-Djamāhir fi Ma'ri/at al-Djawāhir, 1355, 92-102; Ibn al-Akfāni, Nukhab al-Dhakhā'ir fi Aḥwāl al-Djawāhir, 1939, 20-25 (with many valuable remarks by the editor, P. Anastase-Marie de St.-Élie, transl. by E. Wiedemann, SB Phys. Med. Soz. Erlangen, vol. 44, 218 f.); Dimashki, al-Ishāra ilā Maḥāsin al-Tidjāra, 1318, 15 f. (transl. by E. Wiedemann, ibid., 233 f.); J. Ruska, Der Diamant in der Medizin, Festschr. f. Herm. Baas, 1908; B. Laufer, The Diamond, 1915; al-Machriq, vi, 865-78.

(J. Ruska-M. Plessner)

ALMEE [see 'ALIMA].
ALMERIA [see AL-MARIYYA].
ALMICANTARAT [see MUKANTARAT].
ALMODOVAR [see AL-MUDAWWAR].

ALMOGÁVARES, or Almugávares, a name, apparently derived from the Arabic al-mughāwir "one who makes hostile incursions", which was given at the end of the Middle Ages to certain contingents of mercenaries levied from among the mountaineers of Aragon, a tough, sober but undisciplined race. Zurita (Anales, iv, 24) gives a picturesque description of them. These were the troops, fighting on foot, in the service of the Kings of Aragon and Castille, who cut to pieces the French army of Philip III the Bold during his campaign of 1285, at Roussillon, and who later, under the name of the Grande Compagnie Catalane, made daring raids in the Eastern Mediterranean.

Bibliography: Dozy and Engelmann, Glossaire des mots espagnols et portugais dérivés de l'arabe, Leiden, 1869, 172, s.v.; R. Fawtier in Hist. du moyen âge of G. Glotz, vi/1, Paris 1940, 188-9, 283; P. Aguado Bleye, Manual de historia de España⁴, i, Madrid 1947, 908-9.

(E. Lévi-Provençal)

ALMOHADS [see AL-MUWAHHIDUN].
ALMORAVIDS [see AL-MURÄBITÜN].
ALMUÑECAR [see AL-MUNAKKAB].

ALP (T.), *hero*, a figure which played a great role in the warlike ancient Turkish society; synonyms: hatur (bahādur [q.v.], sökmen, čapar [qq.v.]). (Turkish heroic tradition survived in an Islamicized form and appears in Anatolia in the stories of Dede Korkud [q.v.] as well as in the poetry of 'Ashik Pasha and the history of Yazldiloghlu; cf. Fuad Köprülü, Bibl.). The word alp, used since ancient times among the various Turkish peoples either as an element in compound proper names or as a title, occurs frequently in proper names also of the Islamic period (cf. the various persons called Alp Tigin, the Saldjuk amirs Alp Kush, Alp Aghadil, Alp Argu, the Saldjūkid Alp Arslan, etc.). Another form is Alpl (cf. the Artukids Nadjm al-Din 'Ali Alpi, 'Imad al-Din Alpi); the word alpaghu (yilpaghu, return of Ulysses). The Özbek hero Alpamish of the Kungrat tribe repairs to Kalmik territory in search of his fiancée and cousin Barčin. Alpamish triumphs over his Kalmik rivals, marries Barčin and brings her back to his tribe. The second part is the account of a further expedition on the part of Alpamish to Kalmik territory to rescue his wife's father. Alpamish is captured and held prisoner for seven years by the Kalmik Khān, and is finally aided to escape by the Khān's daughter; he returns to his native land the very day on which his wife is about to marry—against her will—the son of a slave who has usurped his authority. Alpamish kills the usurper and regains his position as head of the tribe.

It is difficult to determine accurately the date of the composition of Alparnish, although it cannot be before the beginning of the 16th century, or later than the end of the 17th. In the dāstān, the Kungrat tribe lives a nomadic existence around Lake Baysun north of Tirmidh (now the Surkhan Darya district of southern Özbekistán). The Kungrat only moved into this area with the armies of Shaybani Khan, about 1500. Moreover, in the three versions, Özbek, Kazak and Karakalpak, Alpaniish and the Kungrat are called Özbek, which postulates an origin later than the Shaybanid conquests. On the other hand, the main theme of the epic, the struggle of the Muslim Turkish nomads against the "infidel" Kalmiks, places it between the 16th and the 17th centuries, the period when the Kalmiks of the Oyrat Empire were making a series of bloody raids in Central Asia.

Žirmunskiy and Zarisov believe that they can detect, beneath the existing versions of Alpamish, an older version, now lost, dating back to the 11th-12th century, a period when the ancestors of the Kungrat were nomads near the Aral Sea (analogy with the Oghuz poem Bamsi-Bayrek) or to still earlier times when they dwelt in the fringes of the Altai (analogy with the Mongol poem Khān Kharangui).

All the Central Asian versions of Alpamish are in verse, the prose passages serving only to mark the divisions between the various episodes of the poem. The versification is simplified. The repetition of the same rhyme divides the verses into stanzas of different length (2, 4, and up to 10 and 15 verses). This simple poetic form is perfectly suited to the way in which the poem is transmitted, whether recited by a bakhshi ("bard"), or chanted by a shā'ir ("minstrel") with accompaniment on the kobuz (two-string violin).

Several versions of Alpamish exist: Ozbek, Kazak, and Karakalpak, which correspond fairly closely to one another, but have occasional but obvious differences of detail. The best and the most popular is the Özbek version of the bakhshī Fādil (Fazyl) Yuldash (born in 1873 at Kishlak Layk in the district of Bulungur near Samarkand), the text of which was published for the first time by Hamid Alimdjan at Tāshkent in 1939, in a slightly abridged form, under the title "Yuldash oghly Fazyl: Alpamysh". The first part of this work in an abridged form has been translated into Russian verse by V. V. Deržavin and A. S. Kočetov, and the second, in extenso, by L. M. Pen'kovskiy. These two translations, based on 'Allmdjan's text and with a preface by V. M. Zirmunskiy, were published at Tāshkent in 1944 under the title: "Fazyl Yuldash: Alpamysh". Finally, in 1949, L. N. Pen'kovskiy published at Tashkent the first complete translation of the Yuldash version, with the title Alpamysh, uzbekskiy epos. There are other Ozbek versions, by other bakhshis, which are still unpublished, and which differ in certain details. The Kazak version (2nd part only) was published by Shaykh ul-Islamov at Kazan in 1896, and the complete text was edited by Divaev at Tashkent in 1922, and re-edited some years later at Alma-Ata in 1933. It appears under the title Alpamys Balyr in the anthology Balyrlar Zyry, Alma-Ata 1939, 249-96.

The Karakalpak version (1st part only, with Russian translation) is based on the text of Djiya Murād Bek Muḥammedov, bakhshi of Törkül (A. Divaev, Alpamys-Balyr, Etnografičeskie materyaly, fasc. vii in Shornik materyalov dlya statistiki Syr-Daryinskoy oblasti, ix, Tashkent 1901). The complete Karakalpak version was published in Moscow in 1937 and again in 1941 at Törtkül and Tāshkent, under the title "Aimbet uly Kally: Alpamys."

In addition there exist two prose versions, Bashkir and Altai, which are radically different from the central Asian versions. The Bashkir version, Alpamysh hem Barsyn Kh'yluu, was published by N. Dimitriev, with Russian translation by A. G. Bessonov, in Bashkirskie Narodnye Skazski, fasc. 19, Ufa 1941.

The text of the apparently earlier Altai version Alyp-Manash, established by N. U. Ulagashev, appears in Altay Bučay (the Oyrat national epic), published by A. Koptelev, Novosibirsk 1941, 79-126.

The longest version, that of Fazyl Yuldash, comprises 14,000 stanzas; the Kazak and Karakalpak versions are shorter and comprise 2,500 and 3,000 stanzas respectively.

Bibliography: V. M. Žirmunskiy and Kh. T. Zarisov: Uzbekskiy Narodniy Geroščeskiy Epos, Moscow 1947; Antologiya Uzbekskoy Poezis. edited by M. Aibek, etc., Moscow 1950.

(A. Bennigsen and H. Carrère d'Encausse)

ALPHABET [see AL-HIDJA', HURUF-].

ALPHARAS [see NUDJŪM].

ALPUENTE [see AL-BUNT].

ALPUJARRAS [see AL-BUSHARRAT].

ALRUCCABA [see RUKBA].

ALSH, now Eloche, a small town in the Spanish Levant (Shark al-Andalūs) 12 m. S-W of Alicante, noted for its palm groves, which still exist to-day, and which were described by Muslim authors such as Ibn Sa'id and al-Kazwini.

Bibliography: Ibn 'Abd al-Mun'im al Himyarī, Péninsule ibérique, no. 26, text, 31, trans., 39; H. Pérès, Le palmier en Espagne musulmane, in Mélanges Gaudefroy-Demombynes, Cairo 1938, 225-39; Lévi-Provençal, Hist. Esp. mus., iii, 283-4. (E. Lévi-Provençal)

ALTAI, mighty, ca. 1000 miles long mountain system in eastern Central Asia, stretching from the Saisan Sea in the southwest to the upper Selenga and the upper Orkhon, with the sources of the Ob, the Irtish and the Yenissei. Here, and in the adjacent country to the north-east as far as the present-day Mongolia, was the oldest home of the Turks and the Mongols and their ancestors. The Turks had here for a long time after their "refuge" in the Ötükān [q.v.] mountains. The oldest Turkish designation for the southern Altai, as it appears in the inscriptions of the Orkhon, is Altin-yish ("gold mountains"), in Chinese Kin-shan (same meaning). The name of Ektag, however, mentioned by the Greeks (probably Ak Tagh, "white mountain"), seems to refer to the T'ien-shan (E. Chavannes, Documents sur les Tou-kieu occidentaux, 236 f.). It is uncertain whether the modern name, which appears for the first time in the Kalmuck period, is connected with the Mongol altan, "gold"; the local population explains it by a false etymology as alti ay, "six month".

Bibliography: Cotta, Der Altai, Leipzig 1871;
J. Granö, Les sormes du reliess dans l'Altai russe,
Helsongsors 1917; P. Fickeler, Der Altai, 1925;
Bol'šaya Sovetskaya Entsiklopediya, ii, 136-51.
For its role in Turkish civilization, cf. A. von
Gabain, Steppe und Stadt im Leben der ältesten
Türken, Isl., 1949, 30-62 and Turk.

(B. SPULER)

ALTAIANS is the name of a Turkish tribe in the Altai mountains, partly professing, more or less nominally, Orthodox Christianity, partly Shamanistic; though Islam is not to be found amongst them, they had some contact, though possibly not an immediate one, with Islamic civilization (as attested by loan words such as kuday, "God"; shaytan, "the devil"). (Cf. for them G. Teich and H. Rübel, Völker . . . der UdSSR, Leipzig 1943, 28-43, 137 f., 142; W. Radloff, Proben aus der Volksliteratur der türkischen Stämme Süd-Sibiriens, i; idem, Aus Sibirien, i, 250 ff.; Bol'shaya Sovetskaya Entsiklopediya², 141 f.).

The name Altais has been substituted since about 1874, and more especially in the 20th century, following a proposal of M. A. Castrén, for the term Turanian [q.v.], coined by F. Max Müller, as the designation of the assumed community of the Turkish-Mongolian peoples; the even wider concept of Ural-Altaians comprises also the Samoyeds, Finno-Ugrians and Tunguses. (Cf. e.g. Ural-Altaische Jahrbücher, Wiesbaden, since 1952; J. Benzing, Einführung in das Studium der altaischen Philologie und der Turkologie, Wiesbaden 1953, with bibliography; W. K. Matthews, Languages of the URRS, Cambridge 1951). These peoples, however, with the exception of the Turks [q.v.], are not touched by Islam.

Bibliography: M. A. Castrén, Ethnologische Vorlesungen über die altaischen Völker, St. Petersburg 1857; the partly fanciful works of H. Winkler, the last being Die altaischen Völker und ihre Sprachenwelt, Leipzig 1921; O. Donner, Die uralaltaischen Sprachen, Finnisch-ugrische Forschungen, i/1, 1901, 128; M. Cohen, Les langues du monde, Paris 1924, 153-243; P. Melioranskiy in Brockhaus-Efron, Entsiklopedičeskiy Slovar', xxxiv /A 862 f.; IA, s.v. (by M. Fuad Köprülü); O. Pritsak, Stammesnamen und Titulaturen der altaischen Völker, Ural-altaische Jahrbücher, 1953-4. Maps: A. Hermann, Atlas of China, Cambridge (Mass.) 1935, 66-7; Völkerkarte der Sowjet-Union, Europ. Teil², Berlin 1941. (B. Spuler)

ALTAIR [see NUDJŪM].

ALTAMISH [see ILTUTMISH].

'ALTH, or AL-'ALTH, town, to the north of Baghdad, between 'Ukbara and Samarra, on the eastern bank of the old course of the Tigris. As the course of the Tigris has changed (cf. DIDJLA), Alth is today on the western bank, on al-Shutayta. The extensive ruins of the town are known as 'Alth up to the present day; they lie about 41/2 m. N.W. of the modern town of Balad. The town is already mentioned by Ptolemy (v. 20) under the name of Altha. According to the medieval geographers the northern limit of the Sawad or al-Irak was formed by Alth on the eastern, Harba on the western side of the Tigris. The town was a wakf for the benefit of the descendants of 'All b. Abi Tālib (Yākūt) and some distinguished traditionists of the 6th and 7th centuries A. H. came from it. A stone dam was built over the Tigris near Alth, but no trace of it remains. Near 'Alth lay the convent called Dayr al-'Alth or Dayr al-'Adhārā, described, among others, by the poet Djahdha al-Barmaki.

Bibliography: Makdisi, 123; Yākūt, iii, 711, ii, 679; Shābusti, Diyārāt (G. Awad), 62-3; Ibn Abd al-Ḥakk, Marāṣid, ii, 275; Umari, Masālik al-Abṣār, i, 258 ff.; Suyūṭi, Lubb al-Lubāb, 181; TA, i, 634; A. Sousa, Rayy Sāmarra, Baghdad 1948, 183-4, 218; J. F. Jones, Memoirs, Bombay 1857, 257; M. Streck, Babylonien nach d. arab. Geographen, ii, 224 f.; Le Strange, 50; M. Wagner, in Nachr. d. Göttinger Ges. d. Wissensch. 1902, 256. (G. Awad)

ALTI PARMAK ("the man with six toes"), Минаммар в. Минаммар, Turkish scholar and translator. He was born in Usküp, where he studied and joined the suff lariga of the Bayramiyya [q.v.], became a preacher (wāciz) and teacher in Istanbul and later in Cairo, where he died in 1033/1623-24. (1) His main work is the Dalā'il-i Nubuwwat-i Muhammadi wa-Shama'il-i Fuluwwat-i Ahmadi, a translation of the Persian Ma'aridi al-Nubuwwa by Mu'in al-Din b. Sharaf al-Din Farāhi, known as Mullā Miskin (d. 907/1501-02); there are numerous manuscripts in Istanbul, Cairo and elsewhere, and printed editions of Istanbul 1257 and Bulak 1271 (see Storey, i, 188; Brockelmann, S II, 661). For a detailed account of the contents of this work, see Flügel, Handschr. Wien, ii, no. 1231. (2) He also translated from the Persian the Nigāristān, not the work of Djāmī (as in Brockelmann, ii, 590), but that of Ahmad b. Muhammad Ghaffari (d. 975/1567-68; cf. Storey, i, 114); the translation bears the title Nuzhat-i Djahān wa- Nādirat-i Dawarān, and exists in several manuscripts in Istanbul. (3) A further work of his is the translation of the Kitāb-i sittīn, Djāmie Latā'if al-Basātīn, a mystical interpretation, in sixty "sessions", of sūra xii by Abū Bakr b. Ahmad b. Muhammad b. Zayd Tūsī, an author of uncertain date (cf. Storey, i, 29, no. 10); a manuscript exists in the Köprülü Library in Istanbul. (4) Finally, there is his translation of a "commentary on an extract on rhetoric" (Shark Talkhīs al-Ma'anī), with the title Kāshif al-'Ulūm wa-Fātih al-Funūn, preserved in a manuscript of the 'Umumī Library in Istanbul; this is presumably identical with his translation of the Mutawwal (Ḥādjdjī Khalīfa, ed. Flügel, ii, no. 3541) by al-Taftāzānī (cf. Brockelmann, i, 354).

Bibliography: al-Muhibbī, Khulāsat al-Athar, iv, 174; Brusall Mehmed Țāhir, Uthmānli Mü'ellifleri, i, 212 f.

(J. Schacht)

ALTI SHAHR, or ALTA SHAHR (the word "six" is always written alta in Chinese Turkistan), "six towns", a name for part of Chinese Turkistan (Sin-kiang) comprising the towns of Kuča, Ak Su, Uč Turfān (or Ush Turfān), Kāshghar, Yārkand and Khotan. It appears to have been first used in the 18th century (cf. M. Hartmann, Der Islamische Orient, i, 226, 278). Yangi Hişar, between Kashghar and Yārkand, is sometimes added as the seventh town (though it also frequently counted as one of the six, in which case either Kuča or Uč Turfān is omitted). On account of this the country is often called in modern sources Djiti (or Yiti) Shahr, "seven towns"; cf. e.g. Ta'rikh-i Amaniyye, written in 1321/1903 and printed by N. Pantasow, Kazan 1905. [See the articles on each of the towns and TURKISTAN.] (W. BARTHOLD *)

ALTILIK [see SIKKA].

ALTÎN or ALTUN (T.), Gold, also used of gold coins. The word is often met with in Turkish proper names of persons and places, e.g. Altin Köprü, Altintash (Altuntash). See also sikka.

ed. Wright-De Goeje, GMS, v, 331-333; Idrīsī, ed. Amari and Schiaparelli, L'Italia nel libro del Re Ruggero, Rome 1883, 22-23 (text); 25-27 (trans.); G. M. Columba, Per la topografia antica di Palermo, in Centenario Amari, Palermo 1910, ii, 395-426; U. Rizzitano, L'Italia nel Kitāb ar-Rawd almi'lar (Arabic text), Cairo 1958, 146-8.

(F. GABRIELI)

BALASAGHUN or BALASAĶŪN, a town in the valley of the Cu, in what is now Kirghizia.. The medieval geographers give only vague indications as to its position. Barthold, Otčet o poyezdke v Sredniya Aziyu, St. Petersburg 1897, 39, suggests its identity with Ak-Peshin in the region of Frunze. A. N. Bernshtam, Cuyskaya dolina in Materiali i issledovaniya arkheologii S.S.S.R., No 14 (1950), 47-55, agrees with Barthold and gives a description of the site. The town was a Soghdian foundation and in Kāshgharī's time, i.e., in the second half of the 11th century, the Soghdian language still survived alongside Turkish. According to Kāshgharī Balāsāghūn was also known as Kuz-Ordu or Kuz-Ulush. The former name is also found in the Chinese account of the Kara-Khitay, and a variant of Kuz-Ulush - Kuz-Baligh or Ghuz-Baligh, baligh like ulush meaning "town" - was according to Djuwayni still current in the 7th/13th century.

According to a story in the Siyāsat-nāma (ed. Schefer, 189) a religious war was planned about 330-1/942-3 against the "infidel Turks" who had conquered Balasaghun. These must have been the Kara-Khānids immediately prior to their conversion to Islam. Balāsāghūn afterwards became the headquarters of the first Kara-Khānid invasion of Mā warā' al-Nahr under Bughra Khān b. Mūsā (d. 382/992-3). Shortly after 416/1025-6 the ruler of Balasaghun, Toghan Khan, brother of the Kara-Khānid ruler of Mā warā' al-Nahr, 'Alī Tegin, was driven out of his territory by other members of the dynasty ruling in Kāshghar (Bayhaķī, ed. Morley, 98 and 655, ed. Ghani and Fayyad, 91 and 526). Balāsāghūn seems afterwards to have belonged to the same ruler as Kāshghar. The poet Yūsuf Khāşş-Ḥādjib, author of the Kutadghu Bilig, the oldest poem in the Turki language, was born in Balāsāghūn (462/1069-70); the Bughra Khan to whom it is dedicated must be Bughra Khān Hārūn, who ruled over Kāshghar, Khotan and Balāsāghūn, first with his brother Toghril Khān and then, for 29 years till 496/1102-3, alone.

About 1130 Balāsāghūn was conquered by the Kara-Khitay [q.v.] and the ruler of the town, who had appealed to their leader (the Gür-Khān) for help against the Kanghli and Karligh nomads, was deposed. The real seat of the Karā-Khitay still remained the territory on the Cu while native princes ruled as vassals of the Gür-Khān in Mā warā' al-Nahr and Kāshghar as well as in the districts of Semirechye north of the Ili.

When the army of the Gür-Khan was defeated by Muhammad Khwārazm-Shāh in Rabic I 607/ August-September 1210, on the Talas, the inhabitants of Balasaghun, expecting the speedy arrival of the victor, refused the defeated army admittance to the town. After a 16 days' siege it was taken by the Kara-Khitay and plundered for three days, during which time, according to Djuwayni, "47,000 of the chief notables were counted among the slain."

Balasaghun is seldom mentioned during the Mongol period. Barthold's assumption that it was taken without resistance by Čingiz-Khau's general Djebe in 1218, in the course of his operations against

Küclüg, the Nayman ruler of Kara-Khitay, is based on a misreading of the name Ghuz-Baligh as gho baligh "good town". In the account of Timur's campaigns Balasaghūn is never mentioned; like all the towns on the Cu, Ili and Talas it must have been destroyed during the endless wars and struggles for the throne in the 8th/14th century. Muhammad Haydar, writing about the middle of the 10th/16th century, knew about Balasaghun only from books; of the town itself no trace was then to be found.

Bibliography: In addition to the works quoted above: W. Barthold, Turkestan; idem, Histoire des Turcs d'Asie Centrale, Paris 1945; Käshgharl, Divanü Lagat-it-Türk Tercümesi, transl. B. Atalay, 3 vols. Ankara 1939-41; Djuwayni, The History of the World-Conqueror, transl. J. A. Boyle, 2 vols., Manchester 1958; Muhammad Haydar, The Ta'rikh-i Rashidi, ed. N. Elias, transl. E. Denison Ross, London 1895.

(W. BARTHOLD-[J. A. BOYLE])

BALAT (Ar.), a word with a number of varied meanings due to its dual etymology, Latin or Greek as the case may be. Deriving from palatium it means "palace" (Mas'ūdī, al-Tanbih, 167; Ibn al-'Adim, Zubda, ed. Dahan, i, 142 and 145; Mukaddasi, 147, and Ibn Hawkal', 195, mentioning the Dar al-Balat at Constantinople; cf. M. Canard, Extraits des sources arabes, ap. A. A. Vasiliev, Byzance et les Arabes, ii/2, Brussels 1950, 412, 423 and n. 2). Deriving from πλατεῖα (through the intermediary of Aramaic), it has two principal meanings corresponding to those of the Greek term, denoting "a paved way", an old Roman road for example (see Ibn al-'Adim, Zubda; i, 164), "flagging" or, in the form of the noun of unity balata, a "flag-stone" of any kind of material serving to pave the ground or to bear a monumental or memorial inscription (see for example, Mudjir al-Din al-Ulaymi, al-Ins al-Dialil, Cairo ed. 1253 AH., 372), whence the meaning of "stele", or "portico" or "colonnaded gallery", more especially the "nave" of a mosque (see for example Ibn Djubayr, Rihla, ed. de Goeje, 190).

The word balat occurs in various rural and urban toponyms, both in the Muslim West (see infra) and East, where it is especially frequent in Syria-Palestine. The following are the main occurrences: the town of al-Balāt in Northern Syria, which was adjacent to a Roman highway (M. Canard, Histoire des Hamdanides, i, Algiers 1951, 218),—the al-Balat quarter of Aleppo, the name of which recalled the old monumental thoroughfare (J. Sauvaget),—the former village of Bayt al-Balat in the ghūta of Damascus,—the village of Balāța or Bulāța in Palestine (the name of which could also derive from the Latin platanus),—the Bāb al-Balāt in Jerusalem (cf. J. Sauvaget, Les perles choisies, Beirut 1933, 99 n. 1),—the paved square of al-Balat in Medina,—the quarter of Balat in Istanbul [q.v.],—the village of Balat, adjacent to the ruins of ancient Milet in Asia Minor and corresponding to the Saldjūķid town of Palatia (see Pauly-Wissowa, under Miletos).

Bibliography: E. Quatremère, Histoire des sultans mamelouks, ii/1, Paris 1845, 277 n. 3, to be supplemented by J. Sauvaget, Alep, Paris 1941, n. 112 and La mosquée omeyyade de Médine, Paris 1947, 69, n. 2. For the toponyms, see Yāķūt, i, 709. (D. Sourdel)

BALAT, now a small village on the site of the ancient Miletos in Caria. The word Balat derives from "Παλάτια", the name used for this locality at least from the first years of the 13th century. Balat

separate treatment of the two groups continued under the Condominium until in 1928 a single chief (nāzir) was appointed over the whole tribe. The recent history of the Bishārīn has been uneventful.

Bibliography: G. E. R. Sandars, The Bisharin, in Sudan Notes and Records, xvi/2, 1933, 119-149, Khartoum. See also under BEDIA. (P.M. HOLT)

BISHBALIK, Beshballk, the Sogndian (?) Pandikath (both meaning 'Town of Five'), a town in eastern Turkestan frequently mentioned between the 2nd/8th and 7th/13th centuries (concerning the name cf. Minorsky in Hudud al-Alam, 271 f. and 2718). It was rediscovered in 1908 by Russian explorers, with the aid of information found in Chinese sources. Its position is 47 km. to the west of Kūshang (Chinese Ku-č'öng) which was founded in the 18th century, and 10 km. north of Tsi-mu-sa, near the village of Hu-pao-tse. Its ruins (known as P'o-c'ong-tse) have a circumference of 10 km. (B. Dolbežev in the Izv. Russk. Komiteta dlya izučeniya Sredney i Vostočnoy Azii IX, April 1909, 65 f.; Ed. Chavannes, Documents, 11; Zap. Ak. Nauk XXIII, 1915, 77-121; Sir Aurel Stein, Innermost Asia, 1928, 554-59).

From the 2nd century A.D. onwards, Bishballk was mentioned in Chinese sources as the residence of local princes. From 658 onwards, it was the centre of a Chinese administrative area (with a Chinese or Turkish governor). This was due to its position as capital of a 'Five-Town-Area', and as one of the Chinese 'Four Garrisons'. The town is also mentioned in the Orkhon inscriptions (II, E 28; Küli-Cur-Inscription; cf. Wilhelm Thomson in the ZDMG 1924, 153; A. N. Bernstamm, Social' no-ékonomičeskiy stroy orkhono-yeniseyskikh Tyurok VI-VIII vekov (The social and economic structure of the Orkhon and Yenisey Turks from the 6th to the 8th century), Moscow and Leningrad 1946, index. The Chinese names Kinman, and in particular, Pei-ting (northern court) for Bishbalik, appear from this time onwards.

According to the T'ang-schu (Chavannes, Doc., 96-99) the Scha-t'o ('people of the Sandy Desert'; cf. below) lived near Bishballk between 712 and 818. After long disputes (cf. Chavannes, Doc. 113 f.; Kāshgharī, Dīwān, i, 103, 317, (ed. Brockelmann 242); Marwazī, 73; Ḥudūd al- Alam, 227, 272) the town fell into the hands of the Tibetans in 791 (Chavannes, Doc., 305), and later it became the residence of the Turkish Basmil princes, whose inheritance was taken over (with the title of Iduk Kut, 'Holy Majesty') by the Uigurs in 860. According to a report by a Chinese mission in the year 982 (for list of translations cf. Wittfogel, 104), the town possessed more than 50 Buddhist temples, a Buddhist monastery, Manichaean shrines and one (artificial?) lake. Some inhabitants, making use of the artificial irrigation, made their living by growing vegetables, others bred horses and did metalwork. The only early Islamic mention of the town (in Hudud al-'Alam, 17 a, trans. 94) dates from the same year. It is mentioned as being the residence of the ruler of the Toghuzghuz [q.v.]. Concerning this, and a comparison between the Toghuzghuz and the Scha-t'o, cf. V. Minorsky in Hudud al-Alam, 266/72, 481. The mention of it made by Idrīsī, i, 491, 502, is presumably based on a different report, namely that of Tamim b. Bahr al-Muţawwi'i (cf. bibliography).

As the northern residence of the ruler (Iduk Kut, Idi Kut, or Idu'ut) of the western Uigur part of the state, Bishballk came under the Kara Khitay [q.v.] (there is mention of a Chinese work on this by Wang-

Kuo-wei in Wittfogel 615, bottom left). In 1209, the Uignr ruler handed the town over to the Mongols of his own free will, and took part in their campaigns. Bishballk came in close contact with the Islamic world within the Mongol Empire, and Islam gradually penetrated into the town in the 7th/13th century, despite the resistance offered by the Uigurs. who realised that they would thereby lose their spiritual leadership of the Mongol Empire. After the Mongol governor of Central Asia, Mascud b. Mahmud Yalavač ('Ambassador'), had taken up his office in Bishbalik in 1252/53, the Iduk Kut is said to have issued a secret order in September 1258, for the murder of all Muslims in the town. By order of the Grand Khān Möngke, he was taken and executed. but his dynasty remained (Djuwaynī, ii, 34 f., 88: iii, 60 f.; Rashid al-Din (ed. Blochet), ii, 304 f.; Hamd Allah Mustawsi Kazwini, Tarikh-i Guzida, 577; B. Spuler, Die Mongolen in Iran2, Berlin 1955, 239).

After 1260, the town appears to have enjoyed a period of independence between the empire of the Grand Khān and the Caghatay state. It repulsed an attack from the west in 1275. At that time, Bishballk was the starting point of the postal route from China to Central Asia (Bretschneider, Not. 208). The region of Bishballk then apparently belonged to the state of Caghatay. Nothing is known about the subsequent fate of the town itself. It apparently vanished at the same time as the dynasty of the Iduk Kut, in the 14th century. Thereafter, the Chinese used the name Pei-ting only as a regional designation for an area which (according to Muhammad Ḥaydar Dūghlāt, Ta'rīkh Rashīdī, trans. E. Denison Ross, London 1895, 365) was known as Moghūlistān in the 16th century, and in which Islam was now firmly established. There is no further mention of Bishbalik itself.

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AL-BISHR, scene of a battle in eastern Syria in 73/692-3 between the Arab tribes of Sulaym and Taghlib. Khālid b. al-Walīd campaigned here in 12/633 (Tabarī, i, 2068, 2072-3). Yāķūt describes it as a range of hills stretching from Urd near Palmyra to the Euphrates, corresponding to the modern Djebel el-Bishrī. The battle is also sometimes called after al-Raḥūb, a local water-course.

The "Day of al-Bishr" was the climax of several clashes between the two tribes. This strife lay to some extent outside the Kays-Kalb tribal feud of the period; both tribes were accounted North Arabian, and its immediate cause was Sulaym's encroachment on Taghlib's pastures in al-Djazīra.