public procession (mawkib) [see MAWĀKIB]. To the mawkib and madilis was soon added an official banquet (simāt), and the whole ceremony was known as khidma.

The khidma reached its most elaborate form under the early Mamlüks. Baybars I [q.v.] transferred the hearing of mazālim petitions to a new dār al-cadl in Cairo in 662/1264, just below the Citadel, and this also became the site for the khidma. The mawkib now included a growing number of military officers of state, and the madilis widened its functions to include most official public ceremonial, such as the reception of foreign emissaries, the publication of government decisions, the granting of royal favours, etc. Hearing mazālim cases soon became a minor formality, symbolised by the continuing presence of kādīs and kātib al-sirr and the new office of muftī dār al-sadl in the official seating order (cf. Subh, iv, 44 f.). Sultan Kalāwūn's move of the khidma to his new īwān kabīr and the demolition of Baybars's dar al-cadl a few decades later confirmed the position of mazālim as a function of the bureaucracy.

Throughout the early Mamlūk period, the identity of mazālim as a bureaucratic process meant that there was little definition of its jurisdiction. Al-Makrīzī's claim (Khitat, ii, 220 f.) that it was the forum for the implementation of the Mongol Yāsa can be discounted (cf. D. Ayalon, in SI, xxxiii [1971], 97-140). The sources report petitions dealing with every conceivable aspect of government activity, including requests for offices or iktā's, the suppression of particular 'culamā' and their teachings, the implementation of law and order, as well as appeals for justice and the application of kādīs' decisions. This situation prevailed in all the provinces of the Mamlūk state.

The confusion of mazālim and the general apparatus of government was common in other parts of the pre-Ottoman Arab world, but there were exceptions, such as Ḥafṣid Tunisia (R. Brunschvig, in SI, xxiii [1965], 27 ff.), where mazālim remained a more distinct jurisdiction. Towards the end of the 8th/14th century, measures were also taken by the Mamlūks to clarify the situation. In 789/1387, Sultan Barkūk detached mazālim from the khidma and moved it to the Royal Equerry (iṣṭabl al-sulṭān) [see AL-ĶĀHIRA]. The term dār al-cadl, however, remained synonymous with the khidma in the īwān. The jurisdiction of mazālim was likewise clarified, and in the 9th/15th century a distinction is made between petitions for justice in the face of injustice and oppression and petitions requesting iktācs or official posts (al-Sālihī, Copenhagen Royal Library ms. 147, fols. 32b-33a).

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138a-142a. On mazālim in Persia, see Маңкама. 3. (J. S. Nielsen)

MĀZANDARĀN, a province to the south of the Caspian Sea bounded on the west by Gīlān [q.v.] and on the east by what was in Kadjār times the province of Astarābād [q.v., formerly Gurgān); Māzandarān and Gurgān now form the modern ustān or province of Māzandarān.

1. The name. If Gurgan to the Iranians was the "land of the wolves" (vəhrkāna, the region to its west was peopled by "Mazaynian dews" (Bartholomae, Altir. Wörterbuch, col. 1169, under māzainya daēva). Darmesteter, Le Zend-Avesta, ii, 373, n. 32, thought that Māzandarān was a "comparative of direction" (*Mazana-tara; cf. Shūsh and Shushtar) but Nöldeke's hypothesis is the more probable (Grundr. d. iran. Phil., ii, 178), who thought that Māzan-dar = "the gate of Māzan" was a particular place, distinct from the part of the country known as Tapuristan. (A village of Mesderan (?) is marked on Stahl's map 12 km. south of Fīrūzkūh!). In any case, the name Māzandarān seems to have no connection with Τοῦ Μασωράνου ὄρος which, according to Ptolemy, vi, ch. v., was situated between Parthia and Areia (Häri-rūd) and was connected by Olshausen (Mazdoran und Mazandaran, in Monatsberichte Ak. Berlin [1877], 777-83) with Mazdūrān, a station 12 farsakhs west of Sarakhs; cf. Ibn Khurradādhbih, 24; al-Muķaddasī, 351 (cf. however the late source of 881/1476 quoted by Dorn, in Mélanges asiat., vii, 42).

The Avestan and Pahlavi quotations given by Darmesteter, *loc. cit.*, show to what degree the people of Mazandarān were regarded by the Persians as a foreign group and little assimilated. According to the *Bundahishn*, xv, 28, tr. West, 58, the "Māzandarān" were descended from a different pair of ancestors to those of the Iranians and Arabs. The *Shāh-nāma* reflects similar ideas (cf. the episode of Kay Kāwūs's war in Māzandarān, and esp. Vullers ed., i, 332, v, 290: the war is waged against Ahriman; 364, vv. 792-3: Mazandarān is contrasted with Iran; 574, v. 925: the bestial appearance of the king of Māzandarān).

Among historical peoples in Māzandarān are the Tapyres (Τάπυροι), who must have occupied the mountains (north of Simnān), and the Amardes (Ἄμαρδοι), who according to Andreas and Marquart, have given their name to the town of Āmul (although the change of rd to l is rather strange in the north of Persia). These two peoples were defeated by Alexander the Great. The Parthian king Phraates I (in 176 B.C.) transplanted the Mardes (Amardes) to the region of χάραξ (Κhwār to the east of Warāmin) and their place was taken by the Tapyres, whose name came to be applied to the whole province.

The Arabs only knew the region as Tabaristān (<Tapurstān, on the Pahlavi coins). The name Māzandarān only reappears in the Saldjūk period. Ibn al-Athīr, x, 34, in speaking of the distribution of fiefs by Alp Arslān in 458/1065, says that Māzandarān was given to the amīr Inandj Bīghū. Ibn Isfandiyār, 14, and Yākūt, iii, 502, 9, think that Māzandarān as a name for Ţabaristān is only of fairly modern origin (in Arabic?), but according to Zakariyyā' Kazwīnī, 270, "the Persians call Ṭabaristān Māzandarān". Ḥamd Allāh Mustawfī distinguishes between Māzandarān and Ṭabaristān. In his time (1340), the 7 tūmāns of the "wilāyat of Māzandarān" were Djurdjān, Mūrūstāk (?), Āstarābād, Āmul and Rustamdār, Dihistān, Rūghad and Siyāh-rustak (?); on the other hand, the diyār-i Kūmis wa-Tabaristān included Simnān, Dāmghān, Fīrūzkūh, a town of

Damāwand, Firrīm, etc. We find a similar distinction in Khwāndamīr, ed. Dorn. 83.

in Khwāndamīr, ed. Dorn, 83.

2. Geography: The actual extent of Māzandarān (Rabino) is 300 miles from east to west and 46 to 70 miles from north to south. Except for the strip along the coast—broader in the east than the west—Māzandarān is a very mountainous country. The main range of the Elburz forms barriers parallel to the south of the Caspian, while the ridges running down to the sea cut the country up into a multitude of valleys open on the north only. The principal of the latter ridges is the Mazārčūb, which separates Tabaristān from Tunakābun. The latter is bordered on the south by the chain of the Elburz in the strict sense, which separates it from the valley of the Shāhrūd (formed by the waters of the Alamūt and Talakān and flowing westward into the Safīd-rūd).

To the east of Mazār-čub, a number of ranges run out of the central massif of the Elburz: 1. to the east, the chain of Nūr, which cuts through the Hārāz-pay; and 2. to the south-east, the southern barrier which forms the watershed between the Caspian and the central plateau. Between the two rises in isolation the great volcanic cone of Damāwand [q.v.] (5,604 m./18,386 ft.).

To the east of Damāwand, the southern barrier rejoins the continuation of the Nūr and the new line of the watershed of eastern Māzandarān is marked by the ranges of Bānd-i-pay, Sawād-kūh, Shāh-mīrzād (to the south of Simnān), of Hazārdjarīb (to the south of Dāmghān), of Shāh-kūh (to the south of Shāhrūd), etc.

The rivers of Māzandarān are of two kinds. A hundred short streams run straight down into the sea from the outer mountains of Māzandarān. Much more important are the rivers which rise in the interior and after draining many valleys form a single great river when they break through the last barrier. Such are (from west to east); the Sard-ābrūd; the Čālūs; the Harāz-pay, which drains the region of mount Damāwand and then runs past Āmul; the Bābul (the river of Bārfurūṣh); the Tālār (river of ʿAlīābād); the Tīdjin (river of Sārī) and the Nīkā (or Āspayzā) which flows from east to west; its valley forms a corner between the southern chain (cf. above) and the mountains which surround the Gulf of Astarābād on the north.

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4. Language. Cf. Geiger, Die Kaspischen Dialecte, in Grundriss d. iran. Phil., i/2, 344-80, where the literature of the subject is given (esp. Dorn's works).

5. Historical geography. This is still full of difficulties, although Vasmer's very full study has considerably reduced their number. The matter is complicated by the fact that certain well-known names are used in different periods for more or less identical districts.

The eastern frontier of Māzandarān (Ṭabaristān) in the strict sense, with Astarābād (Djurdjān) seems to have always run near Kulbād (on the river Kirrind;

cf. Ptolemy's Xρίνδοι), where there used to be a wall (djar-i Kulbād) which barred the narrow strip of lowland between the Gulf of Astarābād and the mountains; cf. Ibn Rusta, 149, who speaks of the brick wall (ādjurr) and of the Gate of Tamīs through which travellers had to pass (cf. Ibn al-Faķīh, 303). To the west, the town of Shālūs (Čālūs) was situated on the frontier of Daylam (Ibn Rusta, 150: fī naḥw al-ʿaduww) but later the valley of the Sard-āb-rūd (Kalārdasht) seems to have been annexed to Tabaristān. Farther west, the coast of Tunakābun was governed sometimes with Māzandarān and sometimes with Gīlān.

The Arab geographers distinguished between the plain (al-sahliyya) and the mountains (al-djabaliyya) of Tabaristān (al-lṣṭakhrī, 211, 271). The important towns of Tabaristān were in the lowlands: Āmul, Nātil, Shālūs (Čālūs), Kalā (Kalār), Mīla, Tardjī (Tūdjī, Bardjī²), 'Ayn al-Humm, Māmtīr (= Bārfurūsh), Sārī, Tamīsha (cf. al-lṣṭakhrī. 207; cf. al-Mukaddasī, 353). The principal town (madīna) of Tabaristān in the time of al-Ya'kūbī, 276, was still Sāriyya [q.v.], but in the time of al-Mas'ūdī, Tanbīh, 179, Al-lṣṭakhrī, 211, and Ibn Ḥawkal, 271, the principal town (kaṣaba) and the most flourishing one in Tabaristān was Āmul (larger than Kazwīn).

The mountain area was quite distinct, and its connection with the plain is not very clear in the Arabic texts; cf. the confused summary in al-Istakhrī, 204. Al-Ṭabarī, iii, 1295, under the year 224/838, distinguishes three mountains in Tabaristan: 1, the mountain of Wanda-Hurmuz in the centre (wasat); 2. that of his brother Wandāsandjān (sie) b. Alandād b. Kārin; and 3. that of Sharwīn b. Surkhāb b. Bāb. Now according to Ibn Rusta, 151, [the Karinid] Wandā-Hurmuz lived near Dunbāwand. On the other hand, the same writer, 149, says that during the rule of Tabaristān by Djarīr b. Yazīd, Wandā-Hurmuz had bought 1,000 djarībs of domain lands (sawāfī) outside the town of Sārī. These alf diarīb seem to correspond to the region round the sources of the rivers Tīdjin and Nīkā, which in Persian is called Hazār-djarīb. Later, the lands of Wandā-Hurmuz included the greater part of eastern Māzandaran. *Wandāspdjān seems to have ruled over the greater part of Māzandarān, for his capital Muzn was the rallying point from which expeditions set out against Daylam. Finally, the mountain of **Sharwin** comprised the south-eastern part of Māzandarān, for according to Ibn al-Faķīh, 305, it was close to Ķūmis.

In the time of al-Iṣtakhrī, the three divisions of the mountains specified are: the mountains of Rūbandj, of Fādūsbān and of Kārin. "They are high mountains (djibāl) and each of them (djabal) has a chief".

Rūbandi, according to Ibn Ḥawkal, lay between Rayy and Tabaristan. Barthold, Očerk, 155, emends the name to *Rūyandj and identifies it with Rūyān. Ibn Rusta, 149, says that Rūyān, near the lands of Rayy, did not form part of Tabaristan but formed a special kūra with the capital Kadjdja, which was the headquarters of the wālī (cf. Kačarustāķ in the bulūk of Kudjūr). According to this, *Rūyand = Rūyān is to be located in the south-western part of Māzandarān (north of Tehrān). In the Mongol period, Ḥamd Allāh Ķazwīnī, 160, is the first to mention Rustamdār (on the Shāh-rūd). As Vasmer, op. cit., 122-5, has shown, Rustamdar later included all western Mazandarān between Sakhtasar (Gīlān) and Āmul. Rustamdar therefore included Rūyān, without the two terms being completely synonymous.

Djibāl Karīn had only one town, Shahmār, a day's journey from Sāriyya. The local chiefs of the

dynasty of Karin lived in the stronghold of Firrim [q, v] in Suppl.] which must have stood on the western branch of the river Tīdjin, which later flows past Sārī. The modern bulūk of Firrīm is in the Hazār-Djarīb (more accurately in its western half which is called Dudānga). According to Ibn Isfandiyār, 95, the possessions of the Karinids included the mountains of Wandā-ummīd (ibid., 25; the water supply of the mosque of Amul came from this mountain), Amul, Lafür (on the eastern source of the river Bābul which runs to Bārfurūsh) and Firrīm, "which is called Kūh-i Ķārin". According to Yāķūt, iii, 283, the lands of the Kārinids included Djibāl Sharwīn (cf. above) which I'timād al-Saltana, Kitāb al-Tadwīn, 42, identifies with Sawad-kuh i.e. the sources of the Talar (river of 'Alīābād between Āmul and Bārfurūsh); the pass leading to Sawādkūh is still called Shalfin < Sharwīn.

The Djibāl Pādūspān lay a day's journey from Sārī. The district had no Friday mosque; the chief lived in the village of Uram (Ibn Ḥawkal, 268, 17: Uram-khāst, Ārum). As Vasmer has shown, 127-30, this must be sought on the middle course of the rivers of Bārfurūsh and 'Alīābād (to the north of Lafūr and

near Shīrgāh).

Bibliography: BGA, s.v. Țabaristān, Amul, Sāriyya, etc. Ibn al-Faķīh, 301-14, in particular, gives very detailed information Tabaristān. Mas^cūdī, Murūdj al-dhahab, about index; Idrīsī, tr. Jaubert, ii, 169, 179-80, 333, 337-8 (of little originality); Zakariyyā' Ķazwīnī, Athār al-buldān (clime iv.): Āmul, 190; Bilād al-Daylam, 221; Rūyān, 260; Ṭabaristān; Yāķūt, cf. Dorn, Auszüge, 1858, 2-45, where are collected all the articles relating to Tabaristan (but the text of Wüstenfeld's edition is preferable); Hamd Allah Kazwīnī, Nuzhat al-kulūb, GMS, 159, 161; Dorn, Auszüge aus 14 morgenl. Schriftstellern betreffend d. Kaspische Meer, in Mélanges Asiatiques, vi, 658, vii, 19-44, 52-92; cf. also the Bibl. to section on History below. European works: Spiegel, Eran. Altertumskunde, 1871, i, 64-74; Dorn, Caspia, 1875 (a mass of rather undigested information); Geiger, Ostiranische Kultur, 1882, index; Brunnhofer, Von Pontus bis zum Indus, Leipzig 1890, 73-93: Alburs and Mazanderan (the author seeks to explain Iranian geography from Sanskrit texts); Barthold, Istor.-geogr. obzor Irana, St. Petersburg 1903, 158-161, Pers. tr., Tehran 1930, 289-95, Eng. tr. Princeton 1984, 115-20; Le Strange, The Lands of the eastern caliphate, 368-76; Vasmer, Die Eroberung, etc.

6. History. The local dynasties of Māzandarān fall into three classes: 1. local families of pre-Islamic origin, 2. the 'Alid sayyids, and 3. local families of

secondary importance.

I. At the coming of the Sāsānid dynasty, the king of Tabaristān and of Padashwārgar (Marquart, Ērānšahr, 130: "the district opposite the region of Khwār"; Farshuwādgar is a misreading of the name, which is also found in the Bundahishn, xii, 17) was Gushnasp, whose ancestors had reigned since the time of Alexander. In 529-36 Tabaristān was ruled by the Sāsānid prince Kāwūs son of Kawādh. Anūshirwān put in his place Zarmihr, who traced his descent from the famous smith Kāwa [see kāwah]. His dynasty ruled till 645 when Gīl Gawbara (a descendant of the Sāsānid Djamāsp, son of Pērōz) annexed Tabaristān to Gīlān. These families, on whom their coins might throw some light (cf. below), had descendants ruling in the Muslim period.

The Bāwandids [see Bāwand] who claimed descent from Kāwūs) provided three lines: the first 45-

397/665-1007 was overthrown on the conquest of Tabaristān by the Ziyārid Ķābūs b. Wushmagīr [q.v.]; the second reigned from 466/1073 to 606/1210 when Māzandarān was conquered by ʿAlā' al-Dīn Muḥammad Khwārazmshāh; the third ruled from 635/1237 to 750/1349 as vassals of the Mongols. The last representative of the Bāwandids was slain by Afrāsiyāb Čulāwī.

The Kārinids [q.v.] (in the Kūh-i Kārin) claimed descent from Kārin, brother of Zarmihr (cf. above). Their last representative Māzyār [see kārinids] was

put to death in 224/839.

The Pādūspānids or Bādusbānids [q.v.] (Rūyān and Rustamdār) claimed descent from the Dābūyids of Gīlān (their eponym was the son of Gīl Gawbāra; cf. above). They came to the front about 40/660 and during the rule of the 'Alids were their vassals. Later, they were vassals of the Būyids and Bāwandids, who deposed them in 586/1190. The dynasty, restored in 606/1209-10, survived till the time of Tīmūr; one of its branches (that of Kāwūs b. Kayūmarth) reigned till 975/1567 and the other (that of Iskandar b. Kayūmarth) till 984/1574.

II. Alongside of these native dynasties, the 'Alids were able to establish themselves, principally in Tabaristān. In 250/864 the people of Rūyān, rebelling against the governor, sent to Rayy for the Zaydī Sayyid Ḥasan b. Zayd, a descendant of the caliph 'Alī in the sixth generation. This (Ḥasanid) branch ruled in Tabaristān till 316/928. The Ḥusaynid branch ruled from 304/916-17 to 337/948-9 (?). Another dynasty of Mar'ashī Sayyids [q.v.] ruled in Māzandarān between 760/1358 and 880/1475. The founder of this dynasty was Kiwām al-Dīn, a descendant of 'Alī in the twelfth generation. A third family of Murtaḍā'ī Sayyids Is known in Hazār-Djarīb between 760/1359 and 1005/1596-7.

III. The noble families who enjoyed considerable influence, mainly in their fiefs, are very numerous. Rabino mentions the Kiyā of Čulāw (at Āmul, Talaķān and Rustamdār) between 795/1393 and 909/1503-4; the Kiyā Djalālī of Sārī in 750-63/1349-61; the house of Rūzafzūn of Sawādkūh, 897-923/1492-1517; the Dīw in the period of Shāh Tahmāsp in certain parts of Māzandarān; the Banū Kāwūs 857-957/1453-1550; the Banū Iskandār 857-1006/1453-1598 and the different princes of Tamīsha, of Miyāndūrūd, of Lāridjān, of Māmtīr, of Lafūr, etc.

Besides this confusion of feudal dynasties, a series of conquerors from outside has ruled in Māzandarān: the Arabs beginning in 22/644, the Ṭāhirids, the Ṣaffārids, the Sāmānids, the Ziyārids, the Ghaznawids, the Saldjūks the Khwārazmshāhs, the Mongols, the Sarbadārs, Tīmūr and the Ṣafawids. For the detailed consideration of the period of domination by outside powers from the Arab conquest to the suzerainty of the Saldjūks, during which Māzandarān appears in the historical sources as Ṭabaristān, see Ṭabaristān.

It is in the Saldjūk period, as already noted, that the name Māzandarān reappears in historical literature. Towards the end of the period of Great Saldjūk rule in eastern Persia, Māzandarān was ruled by the ambitious and expansionist Bāwandid prince Shāh Ghāzī Rustam I (534-58/1140-63) (see Bosworth, in Camb. hist. of Iran, v, 28-9, 156, 185-6). It then passed briefly, after the murder in 606/1209-10 of Shāh Ghāzī Rustam II, into the control of the Khwārazmshāhs, but in 617/1220 was devastated by Mongol incursions under either Dicbe or Şübetey (both commanders being mentioned by Djuwaynī as leading the Mongol forces). It was, of course, on an island off the

coast of Māzandarān that the fugitive Khwārazmian ruler 'Ala' al-Dawla Muhammad died in this same year [see KHWĀRAZM-SHĀHS]. Māzandarān in the Mongol and Il-Khānid periods was frequently a corridor through which Mongol armies passed, but it and Gīlān do not seem ever to have been directly governed by the Mongols, presumably because of their relative inaccessibility and their uncongenial climate. Māzandarān, however, often played a rôle as the winter camping-ground [see kīshlak] of such Khāns as Abaka, Chazan and Öldjeytü, in conjunction with Khurāsān, which was favoured as a summer pasture ground for the Mongol hordes and their flocks. In the later 8th/14th and the 9th/15th centuries we hear of governors appointed over Māzandarān by the Sarbadarids and then the Timurids, but in practice, the local princes seem largely to have been undisturbed. Also in the period of the Mongols and their successors, we know that trade was carried on across the Caspian Sea to South Russia and the lands of the Golden Horde from the port of Nīm Murdān off the coast from Astarābād (Mustawfi, Nuzha, 160, tr. 156).

Shāh Ismā^cīl Şafawī had failed to take over Māzandarān in 909/1503-4 from the local Shīcī prince Husayn Kiyā Čulawī, who had sheltered fugitive troops of Ismā^cīl's Aķ Ķoyunlu opponents. He also sent an expedition into Māzandarān in 923/1517, but it remained substantially independent under its native princes (a Şafawid governor ruled part of it 977-84/1569-76) until Shāh 'Abbās I's definitive annexation in 1005-6/1596-7; he claimed hereditary rights in Māzandarān through his family's connections with the Mar^ca<u>sh</u>ī Sayyid Ķiwām al-Dīn (see Iskandar Beg Munshī, Ta rīkh-i 'Ālam-ārā-yi 'Abbāsī, Tehran 1350/1971, i, 518-22, 534-7, 542-3, 579-86, tr. R. M. Savory, Boulder, Colorado 1978, ii, 693-8, 713-17, 722-3, 765-73). 'Abbās's mother Mahd-i 'Ulvā was the daughter of a local Mazandaran chief who claimed descent from the Fourth Shīcī Imām Zayn al-cĀbidīn, and the Shah showed a particular liking for the province, constructing there two winter palaces, which formed a kind of northern Isfahan for him. Farahabad was founded in 1020/1611 or 1021/1612, and Ashraf in 1021/1612; they were visited and described by European travellers like Pietro della Valle (1618) and Sir Thomas Herbert (1627), and it was at Farahabad that the Shah died in 1038/1629 (cf. Savory, Iran under the Safavids, Cambridge 1980, 96-100). It was Shāh Abbās who implanted in Māzandarān 30,000 Georgian and Armenian Christian families, many of whom proved unable to survive the unhealthy climate there.

Māzandarān was originally one of the mamālik, i.e. dīwānī or state land provinces, but under Shāh Abbās II (1052-77/1642-66), Māzandarān and Gīlān became khāṣṣa or royal domains. It suffered in 1668 from the attack of Stenka Razin and his Cossacks, and in the early decades of the 18th century Māzandarān and Gīlān were coveted by Peter the Great; this was of course the period when the Safawid state was falling into dissension and anarchy under pressure from the Afghāns in the east. Hence the two provinces were in 1723 in principle ceded to the Tsar by the fainéant Tahmāsp II (1135-45/1722-32) in return for the promise of help against his rival Ashraf. The plan was cut short by Peter's death in 1725, and the Empress Catherine I offered to abandon the Russian claim on the south Caspian provinces in return for recognition of Russian annexations in Dāghistān and Shirwān. Şafawid control over Māzandarān was however established by Tahmasp with the aid of the chief of the

Ķīzīlbā<u>sh</u> [q.v.] Turkmen chief of the Ķādjār tribe there, Fath ^cAlī <u>Kh</u>ān. The Ķādjārs now began to consolidate their power in the region, despite Tahmāsp's enforced grant of Māzandarān, <u>Kh</u>urāsān, Sīstān and Kirmān to Nādir <u>Sh</u>āh Afshār after the latter's expulsion of the Afghāns from Persia, and in 1744 the Ķādjārs of Māzandarān in fact rebelled against Nādir.

Under the Kādjār Shahs, Māzandarān and Gurgān continued to be of strategic importance against Turkmen incursions, and were royal governorates. The local economy seems to have flourished, with its staples of rice, cotton, sugar, timber and the fisheries of the Caspian, the latter however leased in the latter part of the 19th century to Russia in return for an annual rent. Curzon noted that the revenue of Māzandarān in 1888-9 was 139,350 tūmāns in cash. with government expenditure on public buildings, expenses of collection, etc., amounting to a mere 4,590 tūmāns (Persia and the Persian question, i, 354 ff.). The ancient town of Sarī declined in the 19th century, whilst Amul and above all Barfurush [q.v.] expanded commercially; much of the trade with Russia went from the port of Barfurush at Mashad-i Sar (later Bābul-i Sar) at the mouth of the Bābul river, and there was a Russian consul for trade in the town. In the middle years of the century, this district was a centre of Bābism, one of whose leaders was Mullā Muḥammad 'Alī Bārfurūshī [q.v.]. The convention of Badasht took place in Mazandaran, and a fortified site near Bārfurūsh called Shaykh Tabarsī was the centre of the Bābī rising of 1848-9, barbarously suppressed by government forces [see BABIS]. The father of Mīrzā Husayn 'Alī, the later Bahā' Allāh [q.v.], was a native of Nūr in Māzandarān. In 1889-90 there was a pioneer attempt at railway-building in Persia when a short line was built by Belgian engineers from Amul to the Caspian coast; a road over the Elburz Mountains from Amul to Tehran, 120 miles/190 km. long, had already been constructed by Nāṣir al-Dîn Shāh in 1877-8.

In the present century, with the confusion after the First World War, Māzandarān was, with Gīlān, involved in the Bolshevik rising of 1920-1 in the Caspian provinces under Kūčak \underline{Kh} ān [q.v.] and Amīr Mu²ayyad, in the ending of which the commander of the Cossack Brigade Ridā Khān, later Shāh, achieved prominence; he was himself a native of Māzandarān, having been born at Elasht in the Elburz mountains (see L. P. Elwell-Sutton, in Iran under the Pahlavis, ed. G. Lenczkowski, Stanford 1978, 4-6). After he was made Shāh (December 1925), much of Māzandarān became crown land (khāliṣa [q.v.]), actually in the form of personal estates (amlāk-i shāhī) of the Shāh himself; but these were returned to their original owners in 1941 and subsequently distributed to small proprietors under the land reform policy of Rida <u>Sh</u>āh's son Muḥammad Riḍā <u>Sh</u>āh (see A. K. S. Lambton, The Persian land reform 1962-1966, Oxford 1979, 11-12, 120-2, 218-21).

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found from the time of Fīrūz onwards are an abbreviation for Āmul, but this explanation is quite without proof.

The Dabwayhids and the earlier Arab governors of Țabaristān struck in the 2nd/8th century coins of the type of the Sāsānid dirhams of Khusraw II; on the obverse, with the bust of the ruler, his name is given in Pahlavi characters and on the reverse is the firealtar with its two guardians and on the right the mint Tpurstan and on the left the year in the Tabaristan era (began on 11 June 652). These silver coins average in weight 1.90 gr. = 29.3 grains and are hemidrachms. Of the Dābwayhid rulers, Ferkhwān, Dātbūrdimatūn and Khūrshīd are mentioned upon them. The coins of the first bear the years 60-77 (711-28), of the second 86-7 (737-8) and of the third 89-115 (740-66); these dates enable us to correct the chronology given by the historians. On some coins with the name Khūrshīd, earlier students read the dates 60-3, but this is to be explained by the similarity of shast and dehsat in the Pahlavi script and these coins are really of the years 110 and following. The assumption of a Khūrshīd I, who reigned in the sixties of the Tabaristan era (Mordtmann), is thus quite unfounded. As Khūrshīd died in 144 A.H. = 110 Tabaristan era, and there are coins with the names of Arab governors earlier than the year 116 Tab. era, it must be assumed that the Arabs continued to strike coins in the name of the earlier ruler of the land for a period after the conquest of Māzandarān, just as they did after the conquest of Persia under the caliph 'Umar.

It was not till after Khūrshīd's death in 144/761 that 'Abbāsid control was established over Tabaristan, and after a series of posthumous coins in Khūr $sh\bar{t}d$'s name 110-14 Țab. era = 144-8 A.H./761-5 A.D., we get the first coins of the Arab governors, Khālid b. Barmak (coins from 150/767, Pahlavi legend Halit), and then 'Umar b. al-'Ala' (coins from 155/772, Pahlavi legend Aumr). Küfic legends appear in 122 Tab. era = 157/774 under 'Umar b. al-'Ala', and thereafter, governors' names are exclusively in this script (for Sacīd b. Dacladi, Yaḥyā b. Mikhnāķ, etc.). See J. Walker, A catalogue of the Muhammadan coins in the British Museum, i. Arab-Sassanian coins, London 1941, pp. lxix-lxxx (list of Abbasid governors and their coins at pp. lxxiv-lxxv), 130-61. The issue of these coins with Sasanid types ended in the year 143 Tabaristān era (794, anonymous) but we have a coin of 161/812 on the obverse of which in place of the king's head-as earlier on the coins of the governor Sulayman (136-7)—there is a rhombus with the puzzling Arabic letters bh and on the margin al-Fadl b. Sahl Dhu 'l-Riyāsatayn (in Arabic) is named; on the reverse, instead of the altar with its guardians are three parallel designs like fir branches, between them an inscription in four lines giving the Muslim creed in Kūfic and the date and mint in Pahlavi (Tiesenhausen, in ZVOAO, ix, 224).

The mint name of these Arab-Sāsānid coins of the Arab governors of Tabaristān appears in Pahlavi script as *Tpurstan*, and the name of the actual town is not given. Presumably, it was mostly Āmul, but may have been at times other places, e.g. Sārī/Sāriyya, which was on occasion the capital of the province; only on one coin of the period, a *fals* of 168/784-5, is Āmul mentioned specifically. It should be noted, however, that odd Umayyad and Abbāsid *dirhams* of conventional type are known from 102/720-1 onwards with the Arabicised name of the mint *Tabaristān*.

In the 3rd/9th century, in addition to the coins of the caliphal governors, we begin to find coins of the c Alid $d\bar{a}^{c}\bar{\iota}s$, beginning with al-Ḥasan b. Zayd b.

Muḥammad, al-Dā^cī al-Kabīr [q.v.], from 253/867 onwards, and al-Hasan b. 'Alī al-Utrūsh al-Nāṣir li 'l-Hakk [q.v.] and his successor al-Hasan b. Kāsim al-Dā^cī ilā 'l-Ḥakk [q.v. in Suppl.], who controlled Amul at times. From 395/966 onwards, we possess coins of the Zaydī imām Abu 'l-Fadl Dja'far b. Muḥammad, al- $\underline{Th}\bar{a}^{\flat}$ ir fi 'llāh [q.v.] and his son al-Mahdī, minted at Hawsam or Rūd-i Sar on the borders of Gīlān and Daylam (see S. M. Stern, The coins of Amul, in Num. Chron., 7th ser., vii [1967], 210 ff., 269-77, and HAWSAM in Suppl.). Interspersed with these coins bearing Shīcī-type legends are found those of Sunnī type acknowledging the 'Abbasid caliphs, e.g. those minted by the Sāmānids, who held Āmul from 289/902, and then by the Ziyārid Wushmagīr b. Ziyār, who held it from 323/935, generally as a Sāmānid vassal. With the capture of Rayy in 334/945-6 by the Būyid Rukn al-Dawla, there began a long period of rivalry between the Būyids, the Sāmānids and the Ziyārids over possession of Gurgān and Tabaristān, reflected in coin issues of all three powers, sometimes with coins with more than one of them from the same year, e.g. 341/952-3 (Sāmānids, and unknown? Alid prince and Buyids) and 356/967 and 357/968 (Sāmānids and Ziyārids). Also in this period begins the series of coins (353-mid-6th century/964mid-12th century) of the Bawandid ispahbadhs or local rulers of Firrīm in the highlands of Tabaristān [see BAWAND, and FIRRIM in Suppl.], minted at first in Firrīm but latterly at Sārī, which bear Shī'i-type legends which nevertheless acknowledge other suzerains like the Būyids, the 'Abbāsid caliphs and the Saldjūķs, see G. C. Miles, The coinage of the Bawandids of Tabaristan, in Iran and Islam, a volume in memory of Vladimir Minorsky, ed. C. E. Bosworth, Edinburgh 1971, 443-60. No coins are extant of the Ziyārid amīr Kābūs b. Wushmagīr [q.v.] and his descendants (cf. Bosworth, in Isl., xl [1964], 25-6), and coins of the Saldjūk sultans who replaced them only appear under Berk-yaruk from 481/1095 onwards.

After the Mongol invasions, we find issues of Māzandarān by the Il-Khānids, Sarbardārids, Tīmūrids, Şafawids, Afshārids and Ķādiārs. In Amul, anonymous copper coins were struck from the 10th/16th century onwards. On several pieces of this period the mint Tabaristan occurs. As these are all very rare, the issue must have been an occasional one. The dates are not preserved on any specimens. More common are copper pieces of the value of 4 kāzbekī (18-22 grammes = 280-340 grains) with the lion and sun and mint Māzandarān, which belong to the 12th/18th century. During the Russian occupation of Gīlān in 1723-32, to meet the shortage of currency provoked by the financial crisis in Russia at this time, Persian copper coins were overstruck with a Russian die (double-eagle) and circulated in the occupied provinces in place of Russian money. These coins are often called Māzandarān pieces, but this is not correct, as only Gīlān and not Māzandarān was occupied.

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Suse, Paris 1938; idem, Supplementary notes on the coins of Tabaristan, in Jnal. Num. Soc. of India, vi (1944), 37-45; Zambaur, Die Münzprägungen des Islams, zeitlich und örtlich geordnet, i, Wiesbaden 1968, 34-5 (Āmul), 136 (Sārī/Sāriyya), 170 (Ţabaristān), 185 (Firrīm), 221 (Māzandarān); A. H. Morton, Dinars from western Māzandarān of some vassals of the Saljūq sultan Muḥammad b. Malik-Shāh, in Iran, JBIPS, xxv (1987), 77-90.

(R. Vasmer - [C. E. Bosworth])

MĀZĀR [see siķiliyya].

MAZĀR [see MAĶBARA, ZIYĀRA].

MAZĀR-Ī <u>SH</u>ARĪF, a town in northern Afghānistān, situated in lat. 36° 42' N. and long. 67° 06' E., at an altitude of 1,235 feet/380 m. in the foothills of the northern outliers of the Hindū-Kush [q,v].

The great classical and mediaeval Islamic town of Balkh [q.v.], modern Wazīrābād, lay some 14 miles/20 km. to the west of Mazār-i Sharīf, and until the Timurid period was the most important urban centre of the region. Previously to that time, the later Mazār-i Sharīf was marked by the village of Khayr, later called Khōdja Khayrān. On two different occasions, in the 6th/12th century after 530/1135-6 in the time of Sultan Sandjar [q.v.], and in 885/1480-1, in the reign of the Tīmūrid Sultan Ḥusayn, the tomb of the caliph 'Alī was "discovered" here and its genuineness declared to have been proved. A place of pilgrimage (mazār) at once arose around the tomb with a considerable market; the second tomb which is still standing (the first is said to have been destroyed by Čingiz-Khān), was built in 886/1481-2. The mazār does not seem to have been of any particular importance during the time of the Özbegs and is hardly mentioned, although several Özbeg sultans were buried there. In the first half of the 19th century, the place is usually simply called mazār by travellers, the name Mazār-i Sharīf seems only to have arisen within the last hundred years. Abd al-Karīm Bukhārī (ed. Schefer, 4) does not mention Mazar at all among the towns of Afghānistān; in 1832 when Alexander Burnes passed through it, it was a little town with about 800 houses. In 1866, the Afghān governor Na³ib ^cĀlim <u>Kh</u>ān, a <u>Sh</u>ī^cī, chose Mazār-i <u>Sh</u>arīf as his residence; since then Mazār-i Sharīf has been the capital of Afghān Turkistān. In 1878 it was described by the Russian general Marveyev as one of the best towns in Northern Afghānistān with about 30,000 inhabitants (L. F. Kostenko, Turkestanskiy kray, St. Petersburg 1880, ii, 157).

It was the selection of Mazār-i Sharīf as the administrative capital of northern Afghanistan which caused the town's fortunes to rise, so that in recent times, it has become a centre for local government as well as continuing to fulfill its old commercial role arising from its position on a route from Kābul to the ferry-point of Pata Kesar on the Oxus [see AMU-DARYA], by means of which goods have for long been exported to Russian Central Asia. In particular, it is a centre for the trade in karakol fur [see KARĀ-KÖL]. The visits of pilgrims seeking healing and blessing at the shrine are still important, as are the religious festivals there of the Nawrūz "raising of the standard" and that of its lowering 40 days or so later. Mazār-i Sharīf now has civil and military airfields, a power station and a fertiliser plant. It is the chef-lieu of the province (wilāyat) of Balkh; in ca. 1959, Humlum estimated its population at 75,000.

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(W. BARTHOLD - [C. E. BOSWORTH]) AL-MĀZARĪ, ABŪ ABD ALLAH MUḤAMMAD b. 'Alī b. 'Umar, jurist of Ifrīķiya who was surnamed "al-Imam" on account of his learning and his renown. His nisba refers to the Sicilian town of Mazzara (Māzar in Arabic), the native place of his family, but it is not known whether the latter had emigrated to Ifrīkiva before his birth, which may be dated at 453/1061 since he died in Rabī^c I 536/October 1141, at al-Mahdiyya [q.v.], at the age of 83 lunar years. It was in this last-named town that he settled after completing his traditional studies at Sfax as a pupil of al-Lakhmī (d. 478/1085), and at Sousse, under the guidance of Ibn al-Ṣāsigh. These two masters, who had left Kairouan (al-Kayrawan) after the Hilalian invasion, transferred to the Mediterranean coast the Ifrīķiyan Mālikī tradition, which was linked to the founder of the madhhab by a continuous chain; notable figures belonging to this chain include Sahnun, Ibn Abī Zayd, Abū (Imrān al-Fāsī, etc. (see the table in M. M. Ould Bah, La littérature juridique et l'évolution du Mālikisme en Mauritanie, Tunis 1981, 25). Al-Māzarī perpetuated this tradition by establishing it at al-Mahdiyya, where he became head of the local judicial school, while representing a link in the chain which came to its end with Khalīl b. Ishāķ $\{q,v\}$, the supreme authority of Maghribī Mālikism.

Although sympathetic to the doctrine of the Shāfīcīs, as well as to the opinions of the Ashcarīs in kalām, since he is said to have passed on to posterity the Tamhīd of al-Bākillānī (d. 403/1013 [q.v.]), he founded his numerous and henceforward renowned fatwās on strictly Mālikī doctrine, without feeling himself completely bound by the interpretations of his predecessors; in general, he opted for what was mashhūr, applied the principle according to which "of two evils, the lesser must be chosen", and, in a sense, tended towards a moderate practice of iditihad. Al-Māzarī attracted a considerable number of disciples and had dealings with other individuals who were to become famous, including Ibn Tumart (d. 534/1130 [q.v.]), whose life he saved when the latter was being chased by the governor of al-Mahdiyya after having broken jars of wine at a market in the town. Ibn al-Abbar (in the Takmilat al-Sila, ed. Codera, Madrid 1887-9) mentions prominent Andalusians who attended his lectures or corresponded with him, in particular, Ibn al-Arabī (Abū Bakr, d. 543/1148 [q.v.]); the $k\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ (Iyad (d. 544/1149 [q.v.]), who nevertheless gives no biography of him in the Madārik; Ibn Khayr al-Ishbīlī (d. 575/1179 [q.v.]; and Ibn Rushd (d. 595/1198 [q.v.]).

This jurist seems to have cultivated the humanities and poetry, and to have studied mathematics and medicine, but he does not appear to have excelled in these disciplines, even if the Kitāb fi 'l-tibb which is attributed to him is indeed his own work. In fact, his name remains linked specifically to the fatwās which