

الحادي عشر الميلادي ما عدا جزيرة أولى ومدينة الإحساء⁽⁸³⁾ اللتان ظل سلطانهم عليهما حتى منتصف القرن الخامس الهجري، بعدها خرجت جزيرة أولى عن طاعة القرامطة سنة 458 هـ وخلقت للعباسيين⁽⁸⁴⁾ وهكذا اضطر القرامطة إلى الارتداد إلى الإحساء. وكانت هذه الهزائم التي حلّت بالقرامطة دافعاً للعباسيين وحماتهم السلاجقة لإرسال الجيوش إلى الإحساء للاحتجاج على القرامطة في آخر معاقلهم بقيادة أمهر القادة، ونجحت الدعوة ضد القرامطة فأعلن كثير من أهالي البحرين انضمامهم إلى صفوف العباسيين حتى أحاطت الجيوش العباسية بالقرامطة في شمال الإحساء وانتصروا عليهم في موقعه الخندق سنة 470 هـ/1077 م وكان لهذا الموقعة أثر كبير في التاريخ الإسلامي حيث أنها أنهت سيطرة القرامطة على البحرين والإحساء بعد أن استمرت ما يقرب قرنين من الزمان أزعجوا فيها الدولتين العباسية والفاطمية⁽⁸⁵⁾.

على أن هزيمة القرامطة في البحرين والإحساء وغيابهم عن الساحة السياسية لم تثبت أن أحدث فراغاً أتاح المجال لبعض الأسر والقبائل العربية من سكان البلاد أن تستغل الفراغ الذي خلفه غياب القرامطة.

17 Kasım 2016

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İşgalü'l-mülteka'd-devliyyi'l-hamis havle'l-hareketi'l-ictimaiyye fi'l-alemi'l-Arabiyyi'l-İslami: İşgalü'l-Mülteka'd-Devliyyi'l-Hamis Havle'l-Hareketi'l-İctimaiyye fi'l-Alemi'l-Arabiyyi'l-İslami (V : 2008 : Tunis),
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العيارون والشطار في ظل التسلط الأجنبي

"بني بويه"

م 1055 - 945 هـ 334 - 447

أ. د. شكران خربوطلي (*)

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كان للسلطان الأجنبي المتمثل في بنى بويه والسلاجقة دور كبير في ازدياد الفجوة بين الحاكمين والمحكومين، ونتيجة لذلك التسلط الأجنبي ورداً عليه ازدادت حركة المقاومة الشعبية وعلى رأسها حركة العيارين والشطار.

في العصر البوبي 334-945 هـ/1055 م ألقى العيارون والشطار بالسلطات البوبيّة حيث كانوا يصطدمون بها دائمًا حتى إنهم أعيوهُم، ولم تسلم دور رجال الحكومة ولا أرواحهم من العيارين حيث قتلوا الكثيرين من رجالات الدولة ومن المتعاونين معهم.

وقد تركزت تحركات العيارين والشطار في المدن العباسية وخاصة بغداد عاصمة الخلافة العباسية، حيث تميز المجتمع البغدادي بتعقد حياته، وتطور سكانه، واستطاعت حركة العيارين والشطار استقطاب عناصر كثيرة من أصحاب المهن والصناعات الصغيرة والعاطلين والمتذمرين من السياسة القائمة.

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Madde Yayınlandıktan Sonra Gelen Doküman**21.08.2017**

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01 Haziran 2019

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The Ethics and Praxis of Mehr and Mithras and the Social Institution of the 'ayyārs in the Epic Romance of Samak-e 'ayyār*

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Abstract

Giving a very brief and introductory summary of the many avatars of the Iranian god, Mithra, throughout Eurasia, as well as the primordial functions of the god, this article proceeds to discuss the Iranian Mithraic world-view, as seen in the ethics and practices of the "chivalrous" brotherhoods and sisterhoods of the 'ayyārs. Through a preliminary examination of the Parthian epic romance of *Samak-e 'ayyār*, we shall argue here that this literary epic provides us with a fascinating template for decoding not only; 1) the ethics, "ideal" social mores and praxes and the ideological super-structures of the "chivalrous" brotherhood, or 'ayyārs, of Iran, but also; 2) what was in effect the ethics of Mithraic brotherhoods and sisterhoods of the Iranian world.

Keywords

Mithra, Mehr, 'ayyārs, *Samak-e 'ayyār*, Mithraism

Dear colleagues and friends, greetings! It is with great privilege that I stand before you today as the representative of an intellectual community whose ideals I have come to believe in with all my academic fervor. Thank you all for being here! For confirming that the vision of the ASPS, namely the culturally urgent task of further studying and promoting the interconnections of the Persianate world from the ancient period to the present, does in fact give due credence to an historical and contemporary reality, a contemporary reality that is underwritten by your very presence here.

I begin the term of my Presidency of the ASPS with a mandate from its Board of Directors to expand the historical reach and purview of the scholarly

* "Presidential Address" to the Fifth Biennial Convention of the *Association for the Study of Persianate Societies* I have been working on this ongoing project, the main theses of which I only touch upon in the present paper, for a long while. I hope to be able to publish a monograph on the topic in the near future. A small part of this research was incorporated in the author's work, *Decline and Fall*.

Hellenistic philosophy and Aristotelian thought upon its authors, as well as the involved Books VIII and IX – perhaps from CGC's pen?

For those who find themselves repelled by the harsh, telegraphic style of the Pahlavi of the priestly compilers, assurance is doubly assured by CGC throughout by giving full rein in his inimitable renditions to these ninth-century authorities to whom present-day Pahlavi studies are deeply indebted. With such felicitous translations at our disposal, we cannot urge strongly enough a faithful English re-translation, and the sooner the better. Pahlavi studies have yet a long way to go through new approaches, fresh reassessments and open attitudes. The texts encapsulate the wisdom of the post-Sasanian Mazdean sages, and Carlo Cereti's excellent volume has clearly marked out the routes for future students, historians of religions, and comparative theologians.

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VIOLENT ORDER: RELIGIOUS WARFARE, CHIVALRY, AND THE 'AYYĀR PHENOMENON IN THE MEDIEVAL ISLAMIC WORLD. By D. G. TOR. pp. 318. Würzburg, Orient-Institut Istanbul, Istanbuler Texte und Studien, 11, 2007.

doi:10.1017/S1356186308008389

Deborah Tor's book presents a fascinating study of the phenomenon of 'ayyār in the eastern Islamic world in the ninth to eleventh centuries. 'Ayyārī is a term that has generally been understood as having negative connotations, and has traditionally been associated with brigandage. Tor's book overturns our understanding of the term, and shows how the 'ayyārī were originally associated with religious warfare. The bulk of *Violent Order* analyses 'ayyārī with a particular emphasis on the first Saffarid dynasty that ruled Khurasan and Sistan in the ninth and early tenth centuries, before losing most of their territories to the Samanid rulers of Transoxiana. The Saffarids were the first and only 'ayyārī state of the Islamic world and at least two thirds of the book is devoted to them, making this a study of prime importance for our understanding of this little known state, which to date has been the subject of only one monograph in a western language, by C. E. Bosworth.

The first chapter of *Violent Order* is devoted to analysing the history of the term 'ayyārī, and Tor ably demonstrates that at least until the late tenth century it did not have any negative connotations, and gained chivalric connotations in the eleventh century with the involvement of 'ayyārī in the sectarian politics of Baghdad. Chapter Two discusses the origins of the 'ayyārī, and links the development of the 'ayyārī phenomenon to the proto-Sunni *mutatawwī'a*, an ascetic group devoted to pursuing jihad on the frontiers of the Islamic world against the unbelievers beyond. During the eighth and ninth centuries these *mutatawwī'a*, who were closely linked to the 'Traditionists', carried out warfare, especially against Byzantium and the Turks east of Transoxiana, as a group entirely separate from the 'Abbasid government, whom they regarded with some suspicion. As well as fighting the infidel, the *mutatawwī'a* fought Muslim heretics, and especially the Kharijites, who had gained considerable strength in the east, especially Sistan. It seems, as far as one can make out on the basis of the rather sketchy sources, that 'ayyārī was the name given to members of what were effectively *mutatawwī'a* bands who undertook jihad against the Kharijites of Sistan.

It was in this milieu that the Saffarid dynasty emerged, the subject of Chapters Three, Four, Five and Six of *Violent Order*. That the Saffarids originated as anti-Kharijite militia has long been known, but Tor demonstrates that the association of the dynasty with brigandage is the product of later historiography. Rather, she paints an entirely new picture for us of the founder of the Saffarid dynasty, Ya'qub b.

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al-Layth, as neither a brigand nor a Persian nationalist (as some scholars have assumed on rather slight evidence), but rather as an ascetic and devout figure motivated above all by the desire to promote Islam, both during his early career and later when he had developed a sizeable empire. Tor shows how the Saffarid dynasty was strongly supported by the Sunni scholars, and how Ya'qub drew widespread support, even from former Tahirid supporters, for his occupation of the Tahirid lands of Khurasan owing to that dynasty's failure to adequately combat religious dissent (from a Sunni 'Traditionist' point of view). Especially valuable is Chapter Five, dealing with the relationship between the Caliphate and the Saffarids, which casts new light on the caliphs' attempts to use the emergent dynasties of the eastern Islamic world to shore up their own position, and set them at odds with each other to weaken them to the caliphs' advantage.

Chapters Seven and Eight focus largely on 'ayyārī in the post-Saffarid period. Chapter Seven deals with the connection between 'ayyārī, *futuwā* (very roughly: chivalry) and Sufism, and Tor argues that by the tenth century, *futuwā* and 'ayyārī were starting to be linked, although the only references to support this are a brief reference in Tabari and one in Bal'ami – and it should be noted that the text of the latter's work is too problematic to allow us to attribute this phrase to the tenth century with certainty. The evidence from the eleventh century is much more convincing, with an unambiguous passage in the *Qabusnama* showing the existence, at least for some circles, of a clear connection between 'ayyārī and chivalrous behaviour. The final chapter of the book draws interesting comparisons between the 'ayyārī and the knights of mediaeval Europe. Tor argues that violence was as much of a part of the 'ayyārī ethos as it was for the western knight, and that the 'ayyārī use of force was often linked to power struggles in the elite or to disputes between the Sunnis and Shi'ites of Baghdad. Indeed, she ably demonstrates that the 'ayyārī often formed part of the elite themselves.

Tor's book is well researched and thoughtful, as well as being a pleasure to read. Her basic argument is convincing, but there are a few areas where this reviewer feels that she overstates her case. In particular, she argues that the negative image of the Saffarids is due to a deliberate programme in Samanid historiography to blacken their reputation which has then fed into later works, such as Ibn Khalikan's influential passage on the dynasty, which relied on a lost Samanid work by al-Sulami. However, very little Samanid historiography survives, and thus much of this argument is based on what she presumes Samanid historical works said, rather than what we know they did. Her argument is even less convincing when the work is extant. For example, she suggests that Bal'ami's tenth-century Persian history is silent on them because the author 'had nothing bad to say about the Saffarids, and therefore refrained from saying anything about them at all in order not to displease his Samanid master' (p. 91). Yet Bal'ami has nothing to say about the Samanids either, not for any superficial political reason, but because writing contemporary or near-contemporary history was not his purpose. Equally, al-Maqdisi's history, the *Kitab al-Bad' wa'l-Ta'rikh*, which was probably composed for a Saffarid⁸ (and is not mentioned by Tor), has nothing of interest to say about either the Samanids or the Saffarids, because it did not fit in with the author's historiographical project. This theory of a successful Samanid campaign to blacken the Saffarids leads the author into some further errors. For instance, Hamzah al-Isfahani's *Ta'rikh Sini Muluk al-Ard* is described as a "Samanid source" (p. 209, n. 157), whereas as far as we know Isfahani wrote for the Buyids and on the few occasions he left his native town, it was to visit Baghdad. A Samanid connection is completely lacking. Tor's argument is based partly on the fact that she believes the Samanids were competing with the Saffarids for legitimacy as *ghazi* leaders. Doubtless the Samanids did wish to act as *ghazi* leaders on occasion (although jihad in tenth-century Transoxiana evidently remained to a fair extent in private hands). However, she places far too much

⁸M. Tahmi, *L'Encyclopédisme musulman à l'âge classique: Le Livre de la création et de l'histoire de Maqdisi*, (Paris, 1998).

وسلم) له بوجوب مغادرته المدينة المنورة إذا بلغ العمران فيها سلماً على مسافة ثلاثة أميال من المدينة نفسها ، فاختار (رضي الله عنه) الذهاب إلى الربذة وتحقق نبوءة الرسول (صلى الله عليه وسلم) بشأنه ، يعيش وحيداً ، ويموت وحيداً ، ويبعث يوم القيمة وحيداً أمة واحدة وحده ، إذ توفي في الربذة في عام (٣٢ هـ / ٦٥٢ م) ودفنته عصبة من المؤمنين (رضي الله عنهم) .

اشكالية العلاقة بين العيارين والشطار

والسلطنة البوهيمية

١٠٥٥-٩٤٥ هـ - ٣٣٤ م

د. موفق سالم نوري

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ملخص البحث :

تناول البحث حركة العيارين والشطار بوصفها ظاهرة اجتماعية لافتة للنظر اهاطها الباحثون بقدر كبير من العناية ونتوتها بالمقاومة الشعبية المسلحة والثورة الشعبية التي تصنلت للغزو البوهيمي، فعرض البحث لهذه الفرضية، وقد تم التوصل إلى أنه لم يكن للحركة أية إبعاد سياسية . وإن هذه الفرضية انطلقت من قراءة أيديولوجية . وقراءة منهجية مختلطة لهذه الحركة أو وقائع تاريخها . فهي لم تكن أكثر من فرز طبيعي لواقع اقتصادي سيء عانى فيه القراء ظروفًا قاسية إلى حد كبير مع عدم وجود أية محاولات جادة وحقيقة لمعالجة هذه (الأوضاع) فكان من الطبيعي أن تولد عن ذلك ردود فعل سلبية خطيرة تمثلت بحركة العيارين والشطار .

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ابطر

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(21) المصدر السابق

(22) المصدر السابق

(23) المصدر السابق

(24) المصدر السابق

(25) حول هذه الملاحظات أثبات انظر :

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(26) المصدر السابق

(27) حول هذه الملاحظات الأربع مراجع

Richard C. Burke. «Some Questions ...»

(28) عن أساليب التعليم الاربعة هذه انظر

Elie Reboul. *Information et pedagogie*. (Casterman : Paris, 977). pp. 55 - 69.

(29) Richard C. Burke. «Some Questions.....»

(30) في هذا العدد انظر

خوان سومافيا ديموفراطية وسائل الاعلام في احتكار اجتماعي للأقلية إلى تمثيل اجتماعي تلاعنة . الثقافة العالمية ، عدد ٦ ، المجلد ١ سبتمبر (ابولو) ١٩٨٢ ، ص ٧ - ٢٨ .

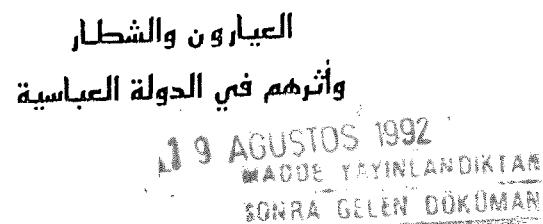
(31) James W. Carey and Albert Krelling. «Popular Culture and Uses and Gratifications : Not To-ward An Accommodation.» *The Uses of Mass Communications : Current perspective on Gratifications Research*. Vol. III. (Sage : Beverly Hills, 1974) P.244.

(32) Lawrence R. Whee Less and H. Thomas Hurt. «Instructional Communication Theory and Research :»

(33) حول جاهزيات اجهزة الاعلام انظر

C. Brown, T. Brown and W. Rivers. *The Media and The people*. (Holt, Rinehart and Winston : N. Y. 1978). pp.63 - 6.

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Makale "Söller" portakalı dedi.



الدكتور توفيق سلطان اليوزبكي
أستاذ مشارك
مكتب التربية العربي لدول الخليج

(العيارون)^(١) و (الشطار)^(٢)

لقد اختلف المؤرخون والباحثون في أصل تسميتهم وعوامل ظهورهم ، فكلمة ، (عيار) تعني المحنال أو الشحاذ أو المتشرد ، وقد اطلقت هذه الكلمة في أواخر القرن الثاني وأوائل القرن الثالث المجري على مجموعة من الأشخاص ، الذين تجمعوا تحت اسم الفتوة .^(٣)

أما الشطار : فهم طائفة ثانية من العامة ، كانوا أكثر انتشاراً من زملائهم العيارين في البلاد الإسلامية ، كما أنهم كانوا أطول بقاءاً منهم وكانتوا يمتازون بملابس خاصة بهم . فلهم متربيتهم به على صدورهم يعرف بأذرة الشطار .^(٤) ولقد اختلفت تسميتهم في الأمصار الإسلامية ، ففي العراق والجزيرة ، يعرفون بالعيارين والشطار ، وفي شرق الدولة العربية الإسلامية وفي خراسان يسمون بـ (سرايدران) وفي المغرب والأندلس ، يعرفون باسم (الصفورة) وسماهم ابن بطوطة بـ (الفناك)^(٥) نتيجة لسيطرتهم وانتشار شرورهم ، وعرفوا في الشام باسم (الفتيان) و(الأحداث) وفي مصر بـ (العياق)^(٦) و(الزعمار)^(٧) و(الحرافيش)^(٨)

the source of perpetual conflicts, even of actual civil wars. With the increase in the mystical forms of religion, prominent rôles were taken by the Sūfis, but in the classical period all the religious leaders and men of the law were important. There was an overlapping of the dividing-lines between doctrines and often between quarters of the town. Sometimes a cross-division could result from the inhabitants of two quarters sharing one ethnic or geographical origin; another time it might happen that the economic activities of the various quarters were not the same and gave rise to conflicts. It has to be admitted, however, that we know little about them.

This question is also related to another, which has received greater attention without being fully elucidated, that of the *futuwwa*. Here evidently there is a mixture of tradition and vocabulary, on the one hand Arabic, on the other Iranian. Arab tradition contributed the *fatā* (plural *fityān*), meaning a brave, generous, chivalrous individual. But in all the old Sāsānian cities there were groups of young men (Persian *iavānmardān*) whose community spirit led them to pool their resources in order to achieve the best possible life together, materially and sometimes morally. They had a religion, but it does not appear that religion was the factor which united them, and in any case they came from different religious groups. Almost all of them followed professions, but it would not seem, at any rate before the Turco-Mongolian period, that their union was based on a common profession: their co-operation was of other kinds. It so happened that some of them were poets and from half way through the Middle Ages onwards, the development of certain groups showed a deep appreciation of spiritual values. At the same time certain groups of Sūfis, now organized into communities, were becoming aware of the example of communal life presented by the *fityān*/*javānmardān*. Since clearly these were the circles more than any others which produced the writers, there came into existence a complete literature which hinged on the spiritual aspect of the *futuwwa* (literally "the youth"), a name which was given to their moral principle of cohesion, regardless of the fact that these *fityān* also had other activities of apparently quite a different kind. In fact they freely professed the legitimacy of theft, provided that it was executed with chivalry to the detriment of the rich and for the corporate benefit of the restricted community. Historians and other authors, in describing the *fityān* during periods of diminished authority, called them by contemptuous names (adopted as a matter of pride by those concerned), such as

'ayyār(ān), *aubāsh*, *shuttār*, etc. (that is, scoundrels, ragamuffins, outlaws) and alleged that they abandoned themselves to various kinds of disorderly behaviour and imposed their "protection" on merchants and on notables at a price. In the large towns the official police forces and the army garrisons held them more or less in respect; in other places, however, they themselves constituted the police, often even to the extent of imposing their own candidate as the head of the town. They frequently had as their leader a *ra'is*, whose position and functions it is difficult to describe precisely, because the term, which simply means a chief, can perhaps be applied in different ways: sometimes it signifies a kind of local mayor, to confront or oppose the political authority of the prince. Certainly the movements in question were substantial factions ('*asabiyāt*), broader than the communal groups of *futuwwa* in the strict sense. But there is no doubt that these latter represented both their kernel and their most conspicuous form, a fact which was to be grasped by those ambitious persons who tried to rally the groups of *futuwwa* in support of themselves. The Ṣaffārid dynasty in Sīstān owed its origin to them.

It is true that in the Semitic, non-Sāsānian, countries of the Near East, there also existed militias, often called *abdāth* – another Arabic word meaning "young people", while the *fityān*/*ayyārān* had an actual organization with initiation rites and special insignia (including the "futuwwa trousers"), as well as the moral complexities of their outlook. These features were not to be found among the *ahdāth*; indeed the latter were aggrieved with those of their number whom they suspected of wishing to develop along such lines. It is certain therefore that the *futuwwa* contained an element which, if not purely Iranian, was at least of Iranian-Iraqi and so of Sāsānian origin, representing the strong influence of an Iranian past. Examination of the subject is further complicated by the fact that certain texts appear to confront the reader with the existence not of urban and relatively democratic *fityān*/*javānmardān*, but of troops of young aristocrats, of "cavaliers", so to speak, who may have been unrelated to the '*asabiyāt* of the towns. Such questions could perhaps be resolved without much difficulty if anything comparable were known in the time of the Sāsānians.

Since the time of the Achaemenids there had been organizations of a similar kind in many other societies but having a purpose which was essentially religious, and it is difficult to form any idea of the manner in which they continued under the Sāsānians. They may have developed

Mohsen ZAKERI, *Sāsānid Soldiers in Early Muslim Society: The Origins of 'Ayyārān and Futuwāwa*, Wiesbaden, Harrassowitz, 1993, 391 p. avec bibliographie et index. DM 108.

Depuis les travaux pionniers de J. von Hammer-Purgstall, au milieu du siècle dernier, jusqu'à ceux de Cl. Cahen, bien des discussions et des hypothèses ont été avancées pour rendre compte de la nature et des origines de la *Futuwāwa* et de la *'Iyāra*. Jugeant ces travaux insuffisants, Mohsen Zakeri se propose de reprendre en détail la question en étudiant les premières formes de cette "institution socio-économique," son idéologie, sa fonction politique et son évolution depuis les Sassanides jusqu'aux Abbassides. La thèse principale de l'auteur est que les *'ayyārān* [sic] des premiers siècles islamiques sont les "descendants" des *asbarān*, troupes d'élite sassanides.

M. Zakeri commence par examiner la structure sociale de l'Empire, la nature du pouvoir central et ses rapports avec les *azādān*: petite noblesse constituée de *marzbānān*, *dihqānān* et *asbārān*, propriétaires terriens, agissant comme chefs de villages et collecteurs de l'impôt et fournissant une partie de l'entourage de l'Empereur et des cavaliers pour sa garde. Avec les grandes réformes économiques et militaires d'Anūsirwān et l'échec du mouvement mazdakite qui entraîna l'affaiblissement de l'ancienne aristocratie, ces *azādān* renforcent leur position sociale et politique et se constituent une éthique qui sera au fondement des vertus et des pratiques de la *Futuwāwa*. Ils seront l'agent déterminant de la "persanisation de la culture arabe bédouine."

Ensuite est étudié le rôle de ces mêmes *azādān* sous les Umayyades. Leur cohésion sera souvent source de désordre et de déstabilisation. Considérés comme "sujets de seconde zone," *mawāli*, ils iront grossir les rangs des révoltés *šī'ites* et *hāriqites*, avant de s'allier aux Abbassides, grâce auxquels ils retrouveront une partie de leurs priviléges.

Les membres de ce groupe ont servi, depuis les débuts de l'Islam, dans la garde califale, l'armée ou la police, aussi bien à Baṣra, à Kūfa que dans les principales villes de l'Empire naissant. C'est grâce à eux que les musulmans connaîtront les idéaux de la noblesse guerrière et que l'institution de la *Futuwāwa* verra le jour. La synthèse entre idéaux "persans" et vertus éthiques arabo-islamiques sera l'œuvre des *dihqānān*, des "intellectuels" qui étaient engagés non pas dans des conflits armés mais dans des mouvements comme ceux de la *Šū'ubiyya* ou du Mu'tazilisme. Ils feront ainsi ressusciter le passé glorieux de la Perse et propager les valeurs des *azādān* comme caractéristiques propres aux iraniens et aux hommes "libres." Cependant que la composante militaire sous-privilégiée rejoignait les milices urbaines ou les bandes des rebelles.

L'espace qui est imparti à ce compte rendu et notre incomptence pour ce qui est de l'histoire sassanide ne permettent guère de reprendre dans le détail tout ce qui est avancé par l'auteur et qui ne manque pas de soulever des questions. Aussi, laisserons-nous le soin aux spécialistes de l'Iran pré-islamique de se prononcer sur le bien fondé de ce qui est avancé concernant le système social de l'Iran au VI^e siècle (féodal ou non?), la place qui y est faite aux *azādān*, les rapports qui existaient, sinon l'identité, entre *dihqānān*, *marzbānān*, *asbārān*, *bandgān*, *ayyārān*, *jānbāzān*, et l'éventuelle existence d'un code d'honneur qui les unissait.

Pour ce qui est de la période islamique et des sources arabes, plusieurs caractéristiques de ce travail mettent en doute la validité de la thèse défendue:

On ne peut, sans le signaler, faire référence à deux éditions différentes d'un même ouvrage et n'en faire figurer qu'une seule dans la bibliographie². C'est le cas des *Futūh al-Buldān* d'al-Balādūrī. L'auteur renvoie tantôt à l'édition orientaliste³, qui est dans la bibliographie, tantôt à celle établie par S.-D. al-Munaqqid⁴). En voici deux exemples parmi un assez grand nombre:

p. 242, note 700: lire p. 66 de l'éd. M.J. De Goeje au lieu de 80;

p. 268, note 817: "al-Balādūrī, *Futūh*, p. 200; but on p. 237 he spells it *Qirmiz* [...] ; *ibid.*, 234." la p. 200 (199 en réalité) correspond à la p. 237 dans l'éd. al-Munaqqid et la p. 234 renvoie à cette dernière.

Certains renvois ne correspondent à rien. Nous avons consulté les éditions auxquelles l'auteur fait référence, mais en vain, comme pour:

p. 88, n. 360: *al-Aghānī*, 23:232 (alors que le renvoi de la n. 356 au même ouvrage, 15:216, est parfaitement correct);

p. 98, n. 4: *al-Aghānī*, 23:232 (lire 17:313);

p. 175: citant al-Mas'ūdi (*Muriq al-Ḍahab*, I, 309), l'auteur écrit: "The seal of *ma'ūna*, of deep blue hyacinth, with the engraving *al-hulli* [sic] (temperance)." Or le texte arabe donne: *wa ḥātam al-ma'ūna faṣṣuḥu yāqūt kuhli naqṣuḥu l-ta'annū*;

p. 228, nous lisons: "Arab settlement in Khurāsān was unique in that the Arab tribesmen were dispersed among the local population. Unlike in Iraq, they were not concentrated in the Arab garrison towns (*amṣār*). An important feature in the treaty of Marw was that the inhabitants had to make room for the Arabs in their houses. This was an unpopular measure and ignited a rebellion of the *dihqānān*, *'ayyārān*, and people of the market, who tried to prevent it without success." À l'appui de ces affirmations, l'auteur renvoie tour à tour à M. Sharon⁵, *Kitāb al-Futūh* d'al-Balādūrī, le *Ta'riḥ* d'al-Ya'qūbī, le *Zayn al-Āḥbār* d'al-Āṣdīzī, *The 'Abbasid Revolution* de M.A. Shaban⁶) et au *Ta'riḥ* d'al-Ṭabarī⁷). La vérification de ces références autorise les remarques suivantes. Les deux premières phrases (jusqu'à "garrison towns" sont la reprise textuelle de *Black Banners from the East*⁸), et l'on s'étonne qu'il n'y ait pas de guillemets. On relèvera que M.A. Shaban et M. Sharon ne parlent pas de "maisons," alors qu'al-Balādūrī, contrairement à al-Ṭabarī⁹, dit bien *wa kāna fi sulḥihim an yuwassi'ū li-l-muslimīn fi manāzilihim*¹⁰), tout comme d'ailleurs al-Ya'qūbī¹¹). Nous pensons enfin que c'est commettre un anachronisme que de rendre *manāzil* par "houses." Il s'agit, vu l'époque, des "lieux d'établissement" ou "de séjour," c'est-à-dire tout simplement les quartiers¹²) et les faubourgs de Marw ou qui en dépendent.

Plusieurs affirmations nous paraissent dénuées de fondement. Poser, par exemple, que *ghulām al-fatā*, *ghulām al-hadath*, *shāb al-hadath* désignent un jeune homme fort ou sans peur¹³) est proprement inacceptable. Non seulement la construction est syntaxiquement incorrecte (le premier terme doit être défini par l'article), mais *hadat* ne fait que préciser le très jeune âge, non une quelconque qualité physique ou morale.

L'usage qui est fait des citations ne manquera pas lui aussi de soulever des interrogations. Un exemple, parmi un très grand nombre. M. Zakeri commente ainsi ce passage d'al-Zabidi (*Tāq al-'Arūs*) *wa qāla Ibn al-A'rābi: wa l-'Arab tamdāhu bi-l-'ayyār wa tadummū bihi. Yuqālu gulām 'ayyār naṣīt fi l-ma'āsi wa gulām 'ayyār naṣīt fi tā'at Allāh*: "In the descriptions of Arab grammarians, and this is important, 'a young man or 'ghulām' is called 'ayyār when he is submissive to God. Or when they say 'so and so is a 'ayyār,' that means, he is bustling in subordination."¹⁴⁾ On aura remarqué que la deuxième partie de ce commentaire dit tout à fait le contraire de ce que rapporte al-Zabidi.

Plus fondamentalement, ce travail nous paraît sujet à caution, car orienté. L'auteur tient à tout prix à prouver que la culture arabo-islamique a été façonnée sous l'influence décisive de la Perse. Pour ce faire, il a fait feu de tout bois, allant jusqu'à solliciter parfois les textes qu'il cite et sur lesquels il fonde sa démonstration (nous pensons à tout ce qui est écrit sur les *Abnā'*, et à l'utilisation injustifiée de l'ouvrage d'al-Āṣdīzī sur les mérites des Turcs). Nous aurions préféré voir M. Zakeri s'interroger davantage sur les problèmes des influences culturelles, de l'acculturation, des rapports entre "groupes" dominés et groupes dominants.

A. CHEIKH-MOUSA

1) Nous avons reproduit la graphie de l'auteur qui est fort incohérente, car elle mêle l'arabe et le persan, ou le pehlvi. Par ailleurs, elle est très souvent fautive pour ce qui est de l'arabe. En voici quelques exemples: *sattāra* pour *sitāra*, *siyābağ/sayābiğā*; *jarrādat al-safrā'*/al-Āṣdīzī 'l-Safrā' (sobriquet de Maslama b. 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān); *Baṭīkhā*, *Baṭā'ikh/Baṭīha*, *Baṭā'iḥ*; *jalwāzī/jlwāzī*; *Ghulām al-fatā*, *ghulām al-hadath*, *shāb al-hadath/Ghulām fatā*, *ghulām hadath*, *shāb hadath*; *fatā'il/fatāya*; *su'ālik/ṣa'ālik*; *harrāsun/harrātūn*; *'Ikrama/Ikrima*; *ru'a/rā'a*.

تأثیر منش عیاری در تصوّف و آیین ملامتی

در این مقاله کوشش برآن است که تأثیر و تطوّر اصول اخلاقی عیاران در تصوّف و آیین ملامتی بررسی گردد، بهمین منظور نخست به آن اصول اشاره می‌شود و سپس از آنچه درباره جوانمردی در آثار صوفیان آمده است، سخن می‌رود و در پایان ضمن شناساندن آیین ملامتی، پیوند برخی از اندیشه‌ها و اصول ملامتیان با آیین عیاری نمایانده می‌شود.

اخلاق در آیین عیاران و جوانمردان

هر آن کس که به جمع عیاران می‌پیوست، موظّف بود که قوانین اخلاقی آنان را رعایت کند و اگر در این کار سستی می‌نمود، عیاران او را از خود نمی‌شماردند. نویسنده قابوس نامه قوانین اخلاقی عیاران را این‌گونه یاد می‌کند: «بدان که جوانمردی عیاری آن بود که او را از آن چندگونه هنر بود: یکی آنکه دلیر و مردانه و شکیبا بود به هر کاری، و صادق ال وعد و پاک عورت و پاک دل بود، و زیان کسی به سود خویش نکند و زیان خود از دوستان روا دارد، و بر اسریان دست نکشد، و اسیران و بیچارگان را یاری دهد، و بدبکنان از نیکان باز دارد، و راست شنود چنانکه راست گوید، و داد از آن خود بددهد، و برآن سفره که خورد، بد نکند، و نیکی زبده مکافات نکند، و از زنان ننگ دارد، و بلا راحت بیند.»^۴ پس از آنکه زهد و تصوّف با آیین عیاری درآمیخت و آیین «فتّوت» پدید آمد، بزرگان فیضیان برای اینکه اخلاق جوانمردی را به تازه جوانمردان بیاموزند، اصول عیاری را با عنوانهایی چون ارکانِ فتوّت، خصلتهای اهل فتوّت و شرایط فتوّت داری در فتوّتنامه‌ها یاد کردند؛ شمار این اصول در همهٔ فتوّتنامه‌هایی که امروزه در دست داریم، یکسان نیست^۵، مهمترین آنها همراه با شواهد از چند فتوّتنامه در ذیل ذکر می‌گردد:

تأثیر منش عیاری در تصوّف و آیین ملامتی

مهران افشاری

عیاری یکی از آیینهای طبقهٔ عامهٔ ایران بوده است^۶؛ پیروان این آیین به‌اصولی اخلاقی سخت پاییند بودند که برخی از آن اصول را، همچون اصل «رازداری»، در آیین ملامتیان نیز - که فرقه‌ای از صوفیه بودند - می‌توان دید. ظاهراً در سده‌های آغازین هجری عیاری و تصوّف از هم متاثر بوده است - شاید به‌سبب اینکه عیاران و صوفیان از یک طبقهٔ اجتماعی بوده‌اند - تأثیر تصوّف در آیین عیاری سبب گردید که عیاری باز هد درآمیز و به آیین «فتّوت» مبدل گردد^۷، همچنین از کتابهای کهن صوفیه می‌توان دریافت که برخی از عیاران چنان به تصوّف جذب شده بودند که عیارپیشگی را ترک گفته و به جماعت صوفیان پیوسته بودند، و طرفه این است که در تذکره‌های صوفیه این گروه هم صوفی و هم جوانمرد داشته شده‌اند.^۸ تصوّف نیز کمایش از عیاری متاثر بوده است، آنچه که در آثار متصوّفه از زبان صوفیان نخستین دربارهٔ فتوّت یا جوانمردی نقل شده است، همان اصول اخلاقی عیاران است و این نشان می‌دهد که آنان به‌اخلاقیات آیین عیاری عنايت داشته‌اند، در این باره اهمیت صوفیانی را که پیش از صوفی شدن عیارپیشه بوده‌اند نباید نادیده انگاشت و شواهد چنین می‌نماید که اساس فرقهٔ ملامتیه را نیز برخی از همین صوفیان جوانمرد بنیاد نهاده بودند.



131694

ISTITUTO ITALIANO PER IL MEDIO ED ESTREMO ORIENTE
 SOCIETAS IRANOLOGICA EUROPAEA
 OTTO-FRIEDRICH-UNIVERSITÄT BAMBERG
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FROM IRAN TO ISLAM: 'AYYĀRĀN AND FUTUWWA

PROCEEDINGS
 OF THE SECOND EUROPEAN CONFERENCE
 OF IRANIAN STUDIES

held in Bamberg, 30th September to 4th October 1991, by the
 Societas Iranologica Europaea

Edited by

Bert G. Fragner, Christa Fragner, Gherardo Gnoli,
 Roxane Haag-Higuchi, Mauro Maggi and Paola Orsatti



Türkçe Dîyanet Vakfı İslâm Araştırmaları Merkezi Kütüphanesi
Dem. No: 131694
Tas. No: 955 E.M.R.C.

ROMA

ISTITUTO ITALIANO PER IL MEDIO ED ESTREMO ORIENTE

1995

The study presented here argues that the militia known as *'ayyārān* (Persian pl. of *'ayyār*) in the early Islamic era were remnants of the Sāsānid warrior class and its élite troops called *asāwira*. These troops were recruited from the class of *āzādān* or independent small landlords who formed the lower level of nobility in the Sāsānid Empire and performed the function of tax-collectors and lords in their villages. By the middle of the 6th century, the social and moral values of the *āzādān* had crystallized into a set of ethical standards known as *āzādagī* or *jawānmardī*, which, under the early Muslims, formed the kernel of the ideals and practices gathered under the name *futuwwa*.

In the Arabic language the abstract notion of *futuwwa* (from *fatā*, pl. *fityān* 'young men'), which is not recorded before the beginning of the second century of *hijra*, refers to the idealization of the life and the manners of the Muslim warriors as well as a set of precepts current among the Muslim craftsman guilds. It is normally understood to be a moral, religious, and social code of manly conduct, variable in its details but generally upholding the virtues of courage, honor, and service. As such it has attracted the attention of modern researchers of religious sciences, philosophers and sociologists. A number of scholars have pointed to the origins of this institution in Sāsānid times,¹ but the history of its formation remains largely a blank at this time. The lack of material for the early history is paralleled by an even greater dearth of information on such matters as ideology, organization and political function. One clutches at straws, but it is nevertheless possible to utilize the existing sources in order to throw light on a number of aspects of these problems.

¹ Claude CAHEN: *Futuwwa*. In: Encyclopaedia of Islam. 2nd ed. 1960- , II, 962; Franz TAESCHNER: *Zünfe und Bruderschaften im Islam*. Zürich - Munich 1979, 14; Louis MASSIGNON: *La 'futuwwa' ou 'pacte d'honneur artisanal' entre les travailleurs musulmans au Moyen Age*. La Nouvelle Clio 4 (1952); reprinted in his *Opera Minora*. Beirut 1963. Ed. Y. MOUBARAC, I, 396-421; idem: *Guilds: Islamic*. In: Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences. 1942, 214-16; idem: *Sur la Futuwwa*. In: Proceedings of the XXII Congress of Orientalists, Istanbul 1951. Leiden 1957, 277-279; idem: *Shadd*. In: Encyclopaedia of Islam. 1st ed.; idem: *Salman Pâk et les prémices spirituelles de l'Islam iranien*. In: *Opera Minora*, I, 443-483; Muhammad Taqī BAHĀR: *Jawānmardī*. In: İhsān NARĀQĪ, ed.: *A'īn-i Jawānmardī*. Tehran 1363/1984, 112.

745-758

-A
-Ayyār
-šāṭer (181624)

DU ‘AYYĀR AU ŠĀTER : L’ÉVOLUTION DU PERSONNAGE
À TRAVERS LE ROMAN PERSAN EN PROSE

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Si la relation entre les professions de ‘ayyār et de šāṭer a plusieurs fois déjà été évoquée, elle n'a été qu'assez peu argumentée, et il n'a guère été accordé d'attention aux enseignements qu'apporte la prose romanesque des conteurs professionnels de l'Iran médiéval sur les dispositions physiques nécessaires aux activités respectives de ces deux personnages. De ce point de vue, le rapport entre ‘ayyārī et šāṭerī a essentiellement été abordé à travers l'étude du *zurhāne* (litt. : « maison de la force »), le gymnase où se pratiquent les sports traditionnels de l'Iran et où le šāṭer s'entraînait aux exercices indispensables au bon accomplissement de sa profession. De plus, c'est souvent sous l'angle des préceptes moraux présidant à la fréquentation du *zurhāne* que le sujet a été pris en considération,¹ l'entraînement sportif suivi dans le cadre de cette institution impliquant en effet le respect de diverses valeurs traditionnelles qui rappellent sous certains aspects l'esprit



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¹ Pour ces deux approches, voir Partow Beyzā'i, Hoseyn, *Tārih-e varzeš-e bāstānī-ye Īrān, Zurhāne* (Tehrān : Heydāri, 1337/1958) ; Mahjūb, Mohammad Ja'far, “Tārih-e varzeš-e bāstānī (zurhāne)”, *Rāhnemā-ye Ketāb*, II/5 (1338/1960) : pp. 681-9 ; Piemontese, Angelo Michele, “L’organizzazione della ‘Zurkhāne’ e la ‘Futuwā’”, *AION*, n.s., XIV (1964) : pp. 453-73 ; Kāzemeynī, Kāzem, “Tārih-e mohtasar-e zurhāne va varzeš-e bāstānī va müjedīn-e ān : pahlavānān va ‘ayyārān va šāṭerān”, *Honar va Mardom*, LV (1346/1967) : pp. 28-35 ; *idem*, “Zurhāne”, *Honar va Mardom*, LVI-LVII (1346/1967) : pp. 55-62 ; Ensāfpūr, Golāmreżā, *Tārih va farhang-e zurhāne va gorūh-hā-ye ejtemā'i-ye zurhāne-row* (Tehrān : Markaz-e Mardomšenāsi-ye Īrān, Vezārat-e Farhang va Honar, 1353/1974), dont pp. 13-36 ; Zakeri, Mohsen, *Sasanid Soldiers in Early Muslim Society, The Origins of Ayyārān and Futuwā* (Wiesbaden : Harrassowitz, 1995) : pp. 1, 310-11 ; Rochard, Philippe, “The identities of the Iranian Zurkhānah”, *IrSt*, XXXV/4 (2002) : pp. 313-40, dont pp. 317-8, 327-31 ; *idem*, “Les identités du zurkhāne iranien”, *Techniques et culture*, XXXIX (2002) : pp. 29-57 ; *idem*, “Les représentations du “beau geste” dans le sport traditionnel iranien”, dans Hourcade, Bernard, éd., *Iran. Questions et connaissances*, vol. III : *Cultures et sociétés contemporaines, Actes du IV^e Congrès européen des Études iraniennes organisé par la Societas Iranologica Europaea, Paris, 6-10 sept. 1999* (Cahiers de Studia Iranica 27, Paris : Peeters-Association pour l'Avancement des Études Iranianes, 2003) : pp. 161-70, dont pp. 166-7.

In the latter part of the fourth century, the position of the ulama appears to have gained even greater prominence. Abū Ḥāmid al-Isfārā’īnī was one of the most prominent men in the city, not by reason of learning alone, for he also had the control of alms. And the prestige which attached to the leading Alids, Raḍī and Murtadā, though partially due to wealth and lineage also derived from their learning. The same position was occupied for the Hanbalites and the Hanafites by Ibn Ḥāmid and Abū Bakr al-Khwārizmī. When the government, always considered a bit foreign to the majority of the people, was negligent or ineffective, it was the existing organization of the ulama that partially filled the void for the majority of the people.

The frictions between the legal schools, though conscious, were not all disruptive, still there was competition. The Shafi'ites under Abū Ḥāmid were anxious to gain political power by securing the chief judgeship of Baghdad for one of their own, and the traditionalist Hanbalites were equally anxious to stamp out the innovations of Hanafite-Mu'tazilism and Shafi'ite-Ash'arism, and to counter the favor which the Shiites enjoyed under the Buwayhids with a renovation of true Islam and a reassertion of the caliphate.

The pattern of power was intricate. The Hashimites could profit from supporting the Hanbalites against the Shiite Alids who had usurped their privilege, and the Shafi'ites could join the traditionalists in proscribing Mu'tazilism. And the Imamites also could assent to an attack on Mu'tazilism which they had identified in part with Zaidism. Consequently, the proclamation of Qādir's creed appears to be much more than a mere religious exercise. It involved a struggle for position and power among the ulama. This is not to say that the ulama saw the struggle merely in political terms. The position of the caliph and their position in relation to him was an important element in Sunnite ideology. But to the observer it seems clear that both the caliph and the orthodox ulama stood to profit in terms of power by the enforcement of orthodoxy.

The Ahdāth and the ‘Ayyārūn

During the period preceding Buwayhid rule of Iraq, and during the collapse of Buwayhid power, the lower classes of the urban population exerted power in the cities, especially in Baghdad. They took

over duties usually performed by the police of the city, exacted protection money from merchants in the suqs, and levied tolls on shipping coming into Baghdad. In the upset which came in the last part of the fourth century and the first half of the fifth century, the lower classes referred to sometimes as the mob (*‘āmma*), sometimes as vagrants (*‘ayyārūn*) are found in the midst of the riots, now on the side of the Sunnites, now on the side of the Shiites.

Some general lines for an appreciation of the social role of the *‘ayyārūn* and *ahdāth* have been set out by Cahen,¹²⁹ and a fairly complete list of the riots in the city during the fourth century has been published by Canard.¹³⁰ Here it will be sufficient to signify the general lines of organization of these groups and their connection with the other social groups of the period and with the ruling Buwayhids.

While the *‘ayyārūn* are the group most frequently mentioned in the sources, it is not clear from the sources that the *ahdāth* occupied a semi-official capacity in the lower levels of urban organization.

The term *ahdāth* can have a general meaning of “youth” or “crimes, reprehensible innovation.” Thus there has been some question of the meaning of the formula found in diplomas and mentioned in the sources, of authority over the *shurṭa wa'l-ahdāth* or *ma'āwin wa'l-ahdāth*.¹³¹

There is, however, a more general sense in which the term is used to refer to bands of men not officially attached to a government function. Izz al-Dawla refers to the *ahdāth* participating in the Turkish revolt against him in 363H.¹³² Another letter to a rebel accuses him of gathering bands of his *ahdāth* in order to put off obedience to the caliph.¹³³ And the people of Raqqa in another letter are warned to order their *ahdāth*.¹³⁴ In two instances there are specific mentions of the Alid *ahdāth* in Baghdad protecting the Vizier Sābūr, and attacking the Shafi'ite Abū Ḥāmid.¹³⁵ It is in this latter sense that the term is most frequently used, and does not appear to be completely distinct from the more general term *‘ayyārūn*. The one distinguishing

¹²⁹ “Mouvements populaires et autonomisme urbain dans l'Asie musulmane du moyen âge,” *Arabica*, V (1958), pp. 225–250, VI (1959), pp. 25–56, 223–265.

¹³⁰ “Bagdād au IV^e siècle de l'hégire,” in *Baghdad* (Leiden, 1962), pp. 267–287.

¹³¹ Cl. Cahen, *op. cit.*, pp. 25–26.

¹³² Sābūr (ed. Arslan), p. 245.

¹³³ *Ibid.*, p. 198.

¹³⁴ Sābūr (Paris), 217a. See also *Dhayl*, p. 176, where the leading people of Mosul are told to restrain their *ahdāth*.

¹³⁵ Hilāl, *Tārikh*, p. 336; *Muntazam*, VII, p. 238.

*Kāna fi-mā madā l-qitālū qitālan
fa-huwa l-yawma yā Aliyyu tiğāra¹⁰².*

Ce locuteur pourrait bien être 'Alī Farāhmard, l'officier chargé par al-Amīn de la défense des palais Ṣāliḥ et Sulaymān, du nom des fils d'al-Manṣūr, et de leurs environs¹⁰³. Battu, il s'était rendu à Tāhir b. al-Ḥusayn, en février 813 (ḡumādā II 197)¹⁰⁴. Comme 'Amr b. 'Abd al-Malik al-Warrāq le mentionne, dans une autre pièce¹⁰⁵, en même temps que deux officiers (*ra's ḡayr*) de Tāhir, [al-] 'Alā' [b. al-Waddāh al-Azdī] et Qurayš [b. Ṣibl al-Dandānī], il est fort probable que ce Farāhmard ait rejoint les troupes de Tāhir avec ses hommes¹⁰⁶. L'éloge funèbre d'al-Amīn par Ḥuzayma b. al-Hasan semble, lui aussi, aller dans ce sens, puisque les *ṣūrağīn*, avec les «villains»¹⁰⁷ et les «barbares»¹⁰⁸, sont présentés comme étant sous le commandement de Qurayš:

*Sārat ilayhi l-manāyā wa-hya tarhabuhu
fa-wāğhathu bi-augādīn dawī 'adadi
bi-ṣūrağīna wa agīāmin yaqūdūhūm
Qurayšu bi-l-biqi fi qumşin min al-zaradī¹⁰⁹.*

Tous les poètes cités par al-Tabarī étaient des partisans d'al-Ma'mūn¹¹⁰ et certains, al-Ḥuraymī¹¹¹, 'Amr b. 'Abd al-Malik et al-Qarātīsī¹¹², étaient ou avaient fréquenté des *mugğān* notoires,

¹⁰² Dans la traduction anglaise 'alī a été pris pour l'un des noms divins.

¹⁰³ Soit le quartier situé entre la Porte du Ḥurāṣān et le Tigre, au nord-est de la Ville ronde, voir G. Le Strange, *Baghdad during the Abbasid Caliphate*, Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1900, p. 107-108 et la carte qui suit la page 106.

¹⁰⁴ Al-Tabarī, VIII, 447, 454-455 = III, 871, 881; Miskawayh, *Taqārib al-umam*, à la suite de l'Anonyme, al-'Uyūn wa l-hadā'iq fi ḥabār al-ḥaqā'iq, éd. M.J. de Goeje & P. de Jong, Leyde, E.J. Brill, 1869, p. 412.

¹⁰⁵ Al-Tabarī, VIII 469 = III, 902, v. 7.

¹⁰⁶ Al-Tabarī dit d'ailleurs: *wa nhāza ilā Tāhir*, VIII, 455 = III, 881.

¹⁰⁷ *Wağd* veut dire à la fois simple d'esprit, sot, vil ou domestique n'ayant d'autre salaire que sa nourriture.

¹⁰⁸ C'est-à-dire des non-Arabes, comme les *Zang* ou les Abyssins!

¹⁰⁹ Al-Tabarī, VIII, 507 = III, 948: «La mort, craintive, pour l'affronter//alla à sa rencontre, //à grand renfort de vilains, //de terrassiers et de barbares, munis//de sabres et de cottes de maille//et conduits par Qurayš».

¹¹⁰ Al-Mas'ūdi (IV, § 2671) attribue à un partisan d'al-Amīn un poème cité par al-Tabarī comme étant l'œuvre de 'Amr b. 'Abd al-Malik al-Warrāq (VIII, 459-460). Or pour rendre plausible cette attribution, l'auteur des *Muriq* a dû non seulement modifier l'ordre des vers mais en omettre quatre.

¹¹¹ Il fréquenta dans sa jeunesse Hammād 'Ağrād, Muṭī b. Iyās, etc. *EI*², art. de Ch. Pellat.

¹¹² Ces deux derniers ont fait partie de la 'bande' d'Abū Nuwās. Voir Abū Hifṣān, *op. cit.*, p. 78-82 et 85-87; al-İṣfahānī, *Kitāb al-agānī*, XXIII, 195; Id., *al-Imā' al-ṣawā'ir*, éd. N.H. al-Qaysī & Y.A. al-Samimarrā'i, Beyrouth, 'Ālam al-kutub —

comme Abū Nuwās ou al-Ḥusayn b. al-Ḏahhāk, c'est-à-dire des poètes célèbres pour leurs mœurs dissolues et leur irrespect des valeurs de la société. On peut donc légitimement s'attendre à ce que, dans leurs poèmes, l'emploi de */ayyār* corresponde à celui fait par leurs confrères en *mugğān*, tels Wāliba b. al-Ḥubāb ou Abū l-Ṣamaqmaq dont il sera question plus loin.

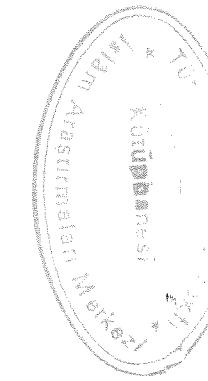
La première occurrence du terme *ayyār* dans la poésie citée par al-Tabarī, figure dans le poème d'al-Ḥuraymī (v. 70) décrivant la désolation de Bagdad¹¹³. A en croire al-Mas'ūdi qui ne cite que deux vers (70-71 et non 71-72 comme le donne l'édition de Ch. Pellat), ce poète aurait été un partisan d'al-Amīn¹¹⁴. Pourtant, il suffit de lire les vers 109 et 110 pour douter d'un tel parti pris. Al-Ḥuraymī y dit que le meilleur gouvernant est al-Ma'mūn et qu'il est le lieutenant de Dieu sur terre (*halīfa*). De plus, il désigne Tāhir, l'ennemi juré des défenseurs de Bagdad, par son titre honorifique de Dū l-Riyāsatayn («l'homme aux deux commandements», civil et militaire). Qu'il ait été un chaud partisan d'al-Amīn avant la victoire des troupes de Tāhir b. al-Ḥusayn, cela n'aurait rien de surprenant. En bon poète qu'il était, donc dépendant de la générosité du Prince, il se devait d'être du parti de celui qui tenait les rênes du pouvoir et qui pouvait ainsi assurer à ses panégyriques la récompense la plus grande. Il n'en demeure pas moins que son poème n'a pu être composé qu'après la défaite d'al-Amīn, du moins à un moment où, à ses yeux, la cause de ce dernier était définitivement perdue et où il devenait urgent de faire acte d'allégeance aux nouveaux maîtres de Bagdad. Aussi adresse-t-il à Tāhir des conseils de prudence et le prie-t-il d'épargner les habitants innocents de Bagdad tout en désignant à sa vindicte les fauteurs de trouble. Il faut bien sûr entendre par «innocents» les notables baghdadiens¹¹⁵ parmi lesquels devaient figurer en bonne place les grands négociants (*tugğār*) d'al-Karbālā, ceux-là même qu'al-Ḥuraymī mentionne dans ce vers 70, et qui avaient cherché à correspondre avec

Maktabat al-Nahḍa, 1984, p. 31-34; al-Marzubānī, *op. cit.*, 218; Pseudo-Ğāhīz, *Les Livres des Beautés et des antithèses*, éd. G. van Vloten, Amsterdam, Oriental Press, 1974 (réimp. Leyde, E.J. Brill, 1898), p. 194-196; Ibn Manzūr, *Abū Nuwās...*, p. 115-119.

¹¹³ Al-Tabarī, VIII, 448-454 = III, 873-880.

¹¹⁴ Al-Mas'ūdi, IV, § 2668. Voir *supra* note 62.

¹¹⁵ On retiendra que *nafīs*, dont il a été question plus haut, vient s'opposer à *bāriyya* dans une expression proverbiale: *tatabba' al-bāriyya wa l-nafīs*, al-Şarṭūnī, *op. cit.*, s.v.



+ العيارون والشطار

دورهم في العرب بين الأمين والمأمور

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ج. الامارات العربية المتحدة

العيارون والشطار لغة وأصطلاحاً :

العيارون جمع عيار ، والعيار لغة الشخص الكثير التجوال الذي يتربّد على الأماكن بدون عمل . ويقال عار الفرس يعير ، أي ذهب أو انقلبت بهم على وجهه لا يثنية شيء ، فهو عائر أي متربّد وجوال . كما يطلق العيار على الوزان أو الكيل(١) . وفي الفارسية يعني اللص الشريف . والشطار جمع شاطر و فعله الثلاثي شطر . ويقال شطر عن أهله أي نزح عنهم وهجرهم ، والشطارنة تعني الانفصال والابتعاد . والشاطر من عصا ولـي أمره وانشطر عن أهله وعاش في الخلعة . ويتصف الشاطر بالدهاء والمكر والخبث والذكاء والخيالة(٢) .

وأما العيارون والشطار أصطلاحاً فهم علم على طائفة من اللصوص الشرفاء المتمردين على واقعهم الاجتماعي ، داع صيthem وتردد ذكرهم في بعض حقب الدولة الباسية لاسيما في مرحلة التفكك السياسي ، وأيام الفتن الأهلية أو المذهبية أو الازمات الاقتصادية الخالقة ، او التفاوت الاجتماعي الطبقي البغيض .

ثمة قواسم مشتركة بين العيارين والشطار وبين من أطلق عليهم اسم الاحداث والزعار والدعارة والعياق والحرافيش ، أو أصحاب المهن المتدنية الوضيعة(٣) من المعدمين والجياع والعاطلين عن العمل الذين اعتزتهم البطالة وطحنتهم الفقر . إذ أن كلا منهم قد احترف اللصوصية وسبلة . ولكن مع اختلاف في النيات ، وتفاوت في الاهداف والرمي لهذه « الطوائف » .

وهذه الدراسة تمحور أولاً حول نشأة طائفة العيارين والشطار في العراق عامه وبغداد خاصة . وتفسير دوافع هذه الطائفة وغايتها ، وهل تتميز عن اللصوص العاديـن . وثانياً موقف هذه الطائفة من اجتياح جيوش المأمورون التي تأتـمـرـ باـسـرـ قـادـةـ

دراسات تاريخية ، العددان ٩ / ٥ ، ٦ - حزيران ١٩٩٤ / ١-٢ (Dnest)

- د. فالح حسين
 (٣٠) جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية ج ١
 من ٨٩ عقد رقم ٤١ لسنة ٢٧٩ سطر ١٠-٨
 Grohmann, Arabische Papyri..
 (٣١) Der Islam, (22), 1934, p. 30-31.
 مالك بن انس ، الموطاج ٢ ص ٥٣ .
 (٣٢) جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية ج ١،
 من ١١٢ رقم ٤٩ .
 جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية ج ١ ، من ١١٤ رقم ٥٠ انظر وثيقة رقم ٤٥ . سطر ٩-٧
 انظر جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية
 ج ١ من ٧٨-٧٧ .
 جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية ج ١
 من ٦٤-٦٦ رقم ٤٨ .
 (٣٣) الطحاوي ، كتاب الشروط الكبير ج ١
 من ٤٤ .
 انظر الرمذري ، جار الله ابو القاسم
 محمود بن عمر (ت ٥٣٨) المفصل ، تحقيق
 عبد الرحيم محمود او قشت دار المعرفة ،
 بيروت ١٩٧٢ ص ١٤٤ . الربيدي ، محمد
 مصطفى ، تاج العروس تحقيق عبد الكريم
 الفراوي ، وزارة الاعلام - الكويت سلسلة
 التراث العربي (١٢) ١٩٧٢ ط ١ ص ٣٧٩
 ابن منظور ، لسان العرب ، مادة ذكر ج ٤
 ص ٢١٠ .
 (٣٤) الطحاوي ، الشروط الكبير ج ١ ص ٦٥
 وانظر الشروط الصغير باب اذكار الحقوق
 والرهون ص ٥٥ - ٤٤ - ٤٦ . قارن مع سطر
 ٧-٦ من الوثيقة .
 جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية ج ١ ص
 ٢٧١ هـ ٨٦-٨٥ عقد زواج رقم ٤٠ سنة ٤٠ هـ
 وهو مكتوب على ورقة بردي (نود هنا ان
 نشير بوضوح ان الوثيقة او ناشرها لا تطبع
 الى كون الزوجين من النصارى وانما
 شجعنا على الظن على ما قلناه الاسماء
 النصرانية للزوجين وليس لدينا دليل واضح
 على ظننا الذي اقمناه على أساس عدم
 الاشارة الى سنة محمد (ص) او مسألة
 الامساك بمعروف او التبرير باحسان .
- انظر وثيقة رقم ٥٠ من ١١٤ ومضمونها : اقرار
 قطامة ابنة نصر القرآن الساكنة بمدينتة
- انظر جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية
 ج ١ من ٨٠-٨١ .
 جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية ج ١
 من ٨١-٨٠ .
 Grohmann, Arabische Papyri..
 (٣٧) Der Islam, (22), 1934. Nr. 10,
 p. 37 .
 وانظر ايضاً من ٤٠ سطر ٢٧٢-٢٥ حيث ابـتـ
 النـاـشـرـ كـلـةـ Hand Zeichenـ باـلـاـيـانـيـةـ
 وفـعـلـاـ يـظـهـرـ فـيـ الاـصـلـ (ـالتـوـقـيـعـ)ـ وـيـعـودـ تـارـيـخـ
 هـذـاـ عـقـدـ لـسـنـةـ ٢٩٥ـ .
 انظر مثلاً سطر ١٠ من الوثيقة رقم ٨
 Grohmann, Arabische Papyri..
 ورجـعـ النـاـشـرـ تـارـيـخـ العـقـدـ بـالـقـرـنـ الثـانـيـ
 الـبـرـجـيـ وـانـظـرـ اـيـضاـ رقم ١١ سـطـرـ ٥ـ صـ٨ـ
 اـذـ جـاءـ النـصـ (ـوـلـاـ يـمـنـعـهاـ مـنـ الدـخـولـ عـلـيـهـاـ)ـ .ـ وـيـفـيـ اـورـاقـ
 البرـديـ المـرـبـيـةـ جـ ١ـ ،ـ وـعـقـدـ زـوـاجـ رقمـ ٢٩ـ
 لـسـنـةـ ٢٦٤ـ هـ سـطـرـ ٧٨ـ ،ـ عـقـدـ زـوـاجـ
 رقمـ ٤١ـ لـسـنـةـ ٢٧٩ـ هـ سـطـرـ ١٠ـ منـ ٨٩ـ نـجـدـ
 نفسـ النـصـ المـشـارـ إـلـيـهـ (ـوـلـاـ يـمـنـعـهاـ مـنـ
 اـهـلـهـ وـلـاـ يـمـنـعـ اـهـلـهـ مـنـهـاـ)ـ .
 جروهمان ، اوراق البردي العربية ج ١ ص
 ١١٢ وثيقة رقم ٤٩ لسنة ٢٩٧ ورد في الأصل
 تاريخ الوثيقة ٢٩٩ هـ ونعتقد انه خطأ مطبعي .
 انظر وثيقة رقم ٥٠ من ١١٤ ومضمونها : اقرار
 قطامة ابنة نصر القرآن الساكنة بمدينتة

Samiha Sabri, *Mouvements Populaires à Bagdad
A l'Époque Abbasside IX^e-XI^e Siècles,*
Paris 1981, 9.77-100

BAGDAD TAYİSLANDIRMAK
SERRA GELEN DÜKKANAK

1973 EKİM 1982

Berig / Knop
Mémoires

III

Ayyar

LES 'AYYARŪN

Pendant plus de quatre cents ans le mouvement des 'ayyarūn' a marqué la vie publique de Bagdad. Son apparition remonte au 9ème siècle, au cours de la guerre entre Amīn et al-Ma'mūn, pendant le siège de Bagdad (812). Au fil du temps, il a parfois cheminé en profondeur dans la société, parfois survolé le terrain dans un grand bruit, atteignant des records dans ses soulèvements, comme cela se passa à la fin du 10ème siècle, dans les années trente du 11ème siècle et dans les années quarante du 12ème siècle. Après la réforme d'al-Nāṣir li-Din Allah (1180-1225) sur les organisations de futuwwa, le mouvement des 'ayyarūn reprit ses activités à l'époque de ses héritiers et, au début de la conquête mongole (1258), on entend encore parler de lui².

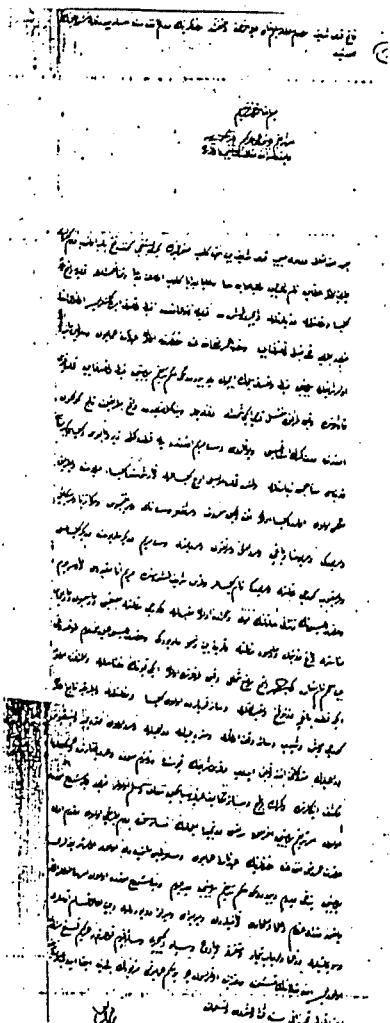
Parfois, les auteurs arabes associent le terme de "ayyarūn" à ceux de shuṭṭār (singulier shāṭir, signifiant dégourdi, courageux) et de fityān (singulier fata, signifiant jeune)³. Nous parlerons plus loin de l'attachement des 'ayyarūn à la futuwwa. Quant aux shuṭṭār, il est impossible de tracer la ligne les séparant des 'ayyarūn. Déjà, dès l'apparition des 'ayyarūn, les chroniqueurs se servent indifféremment des termes 'ayyarūn et shuṭṭār pour désigner ces va-nu-pieds⁴. Plus tard également, aux 10ème et 11ème siècles, quoique rarement, les deux termes sont accolés comme épithète, ou bien les activités caractéristiques des 'ayyarūn sont attribuées aux shuṭṭār⁵. En fait, les termes de: 'ayyarūn, shuṭṭār, fityān sont devenus dans une certaine mesure synonymes, comme nous le verrons plus loin. Néanmoins, c'est le terme 'ayyarūn qui était le plus courant et répandu à Bagdad.

Les 'ayyarūn n'ont laissé aucune littérature et aucun témoignage écrit sur eux-mêmes. En revanche, chroniqueurs et autres les désignent par une série de surnoms: racaille (awbāsh), canaille (ru'ā'), brigands de grand chemin (quṭṭā' turuq), révoltés (fussāq), pervers (dhu'ār), semeurs d'émeutes et de ruines (mufsidun), et autres épithètes du même genre⁶.

1. LES 'AYYARŪN EN ACTION

La guerre civile en 197/812 entre Amīn et al-Ma'mūn dura quatorze mois. Tout au long de cette guerre et du siège de Bagdad, les 'ayyarūn avaient en fait servi de troupes d'assaut de la résistance populaire contre les armées khorassaniennes. Al-Mas'ūdi décrit abondamment les cam-

(15)



The Proceedings of the International
Conference on Urbanism in Islam.

Oct. 22-28, 1989 (TOC 40-1989)

ICUIT Session 12

Vol: II, s. 197-217.

- FÜTÜVET oazinde
- AHÖAS
- AYYAŞ
- ZONCA p 16 MAYIS 1993

GUILDS IN ISLAMIC CITY DURING
THE ABBASID PERIOD (749-1258 A.D.)

FAROUK OMAR

c) Sunnites et shi'ites

Le mouvement des 'ayyarûn n'était teinté d'aucune idéologie politico-religieuse particulière. De ce point de vue, il avait un caractère "temporel" et incluait des 'ayyarûn sunnites et des 'ayyarûn shi'ites¹⁰².

En 402/1011, les 'ayyarûn organisent des cérémonies sunnites et shi'ites et elles se passent dans le calme¹⁰³. En 423/1031 et 424/1032, les 'ayyarûn shi'ites d'al-Karkh se trouvent à la tête des cérémonies shi'ites. Un an plus tard, les deux fils 'ayyarûn d'al-İsfahâni, qui s'étaient repenties et travaillaient pour l'Etat, organisent les cérémonies sunnites en opposition à celles organisées par les 'ayyarûn d'al-Karkh. La même année, ces cérémonies dégénèrent en rixes intersectaires¹⁰⁴.

En outre, on citait parfois les 'ayyarûn à propos des 'aşabiyat; les motivations de ceux-ci n'étaient pas toujours très claires. Mais dans la plupart des cas, d'après les contextes, ils avaient des motivations de caractère politico-religieux, et leurs actions s'exprimaient par des bagarres entre sunnites et shi'ites et par des actes de pillage dans le quartier d'al-Karkh. A ceci vient s'ajouter parfois le terme d'ahdâth qui apparaît conjointement à celui de 'ayyarûn pour désigner les émeutes de 350/961¹⁰⁵, et de 479/1086¹⁰⁶ opposant sunnites et shi'ites. De même, les ahdâth d'al-Karkh (shi'ites) sont mentionnés en 398/1007¹⁰⁷, ainsi que les 'ayyarûn shi'ites et sunnites, pendant les troubles de 361/971¹⁰⁸, et de 443/1051¹⁰⁹. En outre, dans un certain nombre de cas, les 'ayyarûn sont cités conjointement ou en relation avec les hanbalits¹¹⁰.

d) Hors-la-loi

Le mouvement des 'ayyarûn avait une existence combinant la vie publique et la vie secrète. L'expression "sont apparus" revient chez les chroniqueurs chaque fois que les 'ayyarûn exécutaient leurs opérations au grand jour, ou chaque fois qu'ils arrivaient de l'extérieur et étaient vus, en général dans le quartier commerçant d'al-Karkh. Les persécutions sévères dont ils étaient l'objet à la fin du 10ème siècle et dans les années vingt du 11ème siècle avaient obligé une partie de leurs militants et de leurs dirigeants à fuir et à s'installer hors de Bagdad ou dans ses environs proches ('Ukbara et 'Uwâna)¹¹¹.

Selon toute vraisemblance, les 'ayyarûn, tout comme divers mouvements de futuwwa de l'époque, tenaient leurs assemblées et leurs réunions dans la clandestinité¹¹².

Le pouvoir craignait de perdre le contrôle des événements et balançait tour à tour entre des mesures d'apaisement ou de répression à l'égard des 'ayyarûn. A plusieurs reprises, il avait essayé de les neutraliser en leur confiant des fonctions de police¹¹³. Les 'ayyarûn acceptaient parfois ces propositions, soit à cause du salaire payé pour ce service, soit parce que cela leur procurait la sécurité contre les poursuites du pouvoir, soit encore pour éloigner les patrouilles de l'armée de la ville. En réalité, ces propositions ne faisaient que confirmer les faits créés par les 'ayyarûn eux-mêmes¹¹⁴. En revanche, les 'ayyarûn repoussaient les offres d'emploi

au service du sultân, malgré quelques cas isolés de 'ayyarûn qui se repentaient¹¹⁵. Fondamentalement donc, les 'ayyarûn opéraient en dehors de la loi et les efforts des autorités pour les intégrer restaient en général vains: les troubles se renouvelaient toujours.

3. 'AYYARÛN ET FUTUWWA

a) Attachement aux valeurs

Divers témoignages rendent compte de l'attachement des 'ayyarûn à la Futuwwa et à ses valeurs: courage, aide au faible, générosité, endurance à la souffrance, amour de la vérité, hospitalité.

On nomme parfois les 'ayyarûn, fityân-'ayyarûn¹¹⁶; parfois, des opérations exécutées par les 'ayyarûn sont attribuées aux fityân¹¹⁷. Al-Qushayri rapporte qu'Ibn Khadrawayh souhaitait "inviter à sa table un 'ayyâr-shâti'r qui était le chef des fityân de Nisabûr". Le poète Ibn al-A'ma a chanté les prouesses du 'ayyâr-fata pour la défense de Bagdad¹¹⁸.

Selon Ibn al-Jawzi, Satan avait semé la confusion dans l'esprit des 'ayyarûn, car ils s'emparaient des biens des riches et donnaient à cette voie (tariqa) le nom de Futuwwa¹²⁰.

Les auteurs arabes soulignent l'attachement des 'ayyarûn aux valeurs de la futuwwa. Chaque fois qu'ils mêlent à la description de leurs actions, celles des silhouettes de certains 'ayyarûn, surtout des leaders, la nuance d'animosité se change en nuance d'appréciation des valeurs de la futuwwa qui s'incarnent en eux. Al-Tanûkhi cite les propos d'un commerçant bagdadien qui avait été pillé par Ibn Hamdûn dans les environs de Bagdad: "J'avais déjà entendu dire à Bagdad qu'Ibn Hamdûn était un homme de futuwwa, de culture et de bonnes manières, et qu'il ne molestait pas les femmes"¹²¹. Al-Tanûkhi cite également les propos d'un commerçant qui avait été dépouillé dans les montagnes par Ibn Siyâr al-Kurdi: "Al-Kurdi porte les vêtements d'un amir, et non d'un brigand de grands chemins. Je me suis approché de lui pour le regarder et l'écouter, et j'ai trouvé un homme intelligent et de bonnes manières, connaissant la grammaire et la poésie"¹²².

Ibn al-Jawzi raconte à propos du chef des 'ayyarûn Aswad al-Zubd: Il a acheté une servante à mille dinars. Lorsqu'il a essayé de s'approcher d'elle, elle l'a repoussé. Il lui a dit: que détestes-tu en moi? Elle dit: ce que tu es. Il dit: et que désires-tu? Elle dit: que tu me vendes. Il dit: je jure de faire mieux que cela. Il l'emmena chez le juge, lui rendit la liberté et lui donna mille dinars. Et les gens s'émerveillèrent de son grand coeur et de sa générosité¹²³.

Ibn al-Athîr remarque à propos d'al-Burjumi: il avait en lui futuwwa et murû'a. Il ne molestait ni les femmes, ni ceux qui se livraient à lui"¹²⁴. Et Ibn al-Jawzi ajoute: "il s'était rendu célèbre comme le défenseur des femmes et empêchait qu'on leur prenne quoi que ce soit"¹²⁵. Ailleurs, il

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SUBSCRIPTION AU VOLUME XXXVI (1989) (2 fasc. d'environ 134 p.
et 100 illustrations). Les frais d'expédition en plus; pour les Pays-Bas excl.

Les exemplaires sont reçus par MM. E. J. BRILL, Leiden (Pays-Bas), éditeurs

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OCAK 1991



DU FATA À ZARIF, OU COMMENT ON SE DISTINGUE*

012 383 AYYAR

PAR

SUSANNE ENDERWITZ

EN RÈGLE générale, le mot *fityān* évoque d'abord les *fityān-ayyārūn* qui tantôt se regroupent en bandes de pillards, tantôt exercent des fonctions de maintien de l'ordre, et sont caractéristiques des villes d'Irak et d'Iran du 9^e au 13^e siècles. Et en règle générale, le concept de *futuwāwa* évoque d'abord l'idéal de piété ascétique et d'amour agissant du prochain, prêché aussi depuis le 9^e siècle dans les cercles de mystiques et consigné depuis le début du 11^e siècle dans des traités soufis. Une relation des *fityān* et de la *futuwāwa* avec le *zarf*, ces règles tout à fait profanes qui régissent le comportement de l'homme du monde, et que l'on trouve à la cour abbasside et dans les couches supérieures de la société, semble a priori, exclue, tant du point de vue social que de celui de la conception même. Mais il y a des *fityān* antérieurs aux *fityān-ayyārūn*, de même qu'il y a, antérieur à la *futuwāwa* soufie, un autre code de comportement, qui présentent, de fait, des connexions avec les *zurafā'* et le *zarf*.

Je voudrais essayer de montrer dans les pages qui suivent, que les *fityān*, comme les *zurafā'*, mettent au centre de leurs préoccupations l'homme en tant qu'individu, c'est-à-dire dans sa relation à lui-même et aux autres, tandis que seuls les *zurafā'* développent un modèle de personnalité qui s'applique non seulement indépendamment de l'origine sociale et de la fortune, mais indépendamment de l'âge et du sexe.

I. *Les fityān*

Aussi bien Franz Taeschner que Claude Cahen ont montré dans leurs travaux que, dans les anciens ouvrages d'*adab* et dans les anciennes biographies de poètes, il est toujours question de *fityān* de

* I'd very much like to thank Jérôme Lentini for his enormous *futuwāwa* without which this translation would not have come about.

Mohsen Zakeri

Sāsānid Soldiers
in Early Muslim Society

The Origins of 'Ayyārān ✓
and Futuwwa

Türkçe Diyanet Vakfı İslam Araştırmaları Merkezi Kütüphanesi	
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Fas. No:	355 955 ZAK. S

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24 HAZİRAN

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روشنایی عیاری و نفوذ کار و کرد از عیاران در شاهنامه



دکتر محمد جعفر محجوب
استاد دانشگاه تهران

نام و شان عیار و خاصه عیاران حرفه‌ای در شاهنامه بگردیدم کمتر چیزی بدست می‌آوریم، لیکن اگر روش عیاران را که پنهان کاری و پوشیده‌رفتن و غافل‌گیر ساختن دشمن و واردشدن از راه‌های غیر مستقیم و فعالیت‌هایی غیر از برآز پهلوانی و نمودن زور بازو در میدان جنگ است در نظر بگیریم، صحنه‌های متعددی را در این کتاب می‌توانیم یافت که در آن‌ها گاه به تفصیل از یک داستان عیاروار — با صحنه‌های گوناگون — یاد شده و گاه فقط به بعضی روش‌ها و شکردهای عیاری که پهلوان برای توفیق یافتن در کار خویش بدان‌ها توسل جسته اشاره شده است.

بنابراین بی‌آن که بیش از این در کلیات سخن بگوییم وارد اصل مطلب می‌شویم. اما پیش از پرداختن به بحث اصلی باید عرض کنم که این مطالب فصلی است از کتابی که در باب شاهنامه توشته شده و مطالبی گوناگون از میان عرصه‌های بی‌شماری که این اثر عظیم برای پژوهش و تحقیق بدست می‌دهد مورد بحث قرار گرفته است و انبساط روش‌های عیاری با بعضی صحنه‌های شاهنامه یکی از فصل‌های این کتاب است که نوشتند آن به پایان آمدیه و اکنون در دست انتشار است و از خدا می‌خواهم که مرا در چاپ و نشر آن توفیق دهد.

* * *

یکی از این گونه صحنه‌های عیاری که البته همانندهایی

* این گفتار فصلی است از کتابی که درباره شاهنامه فردوسی نوشته شده و به صورت سخنرانی در جشن طوس عرضه گردیده است.

در این گفتار* و در محضر داشبورانی که بدان گوش فرا می‌دارند، سخن گفتن از کیفیت عیاری و آیین عیاران و جنبه‌های مختلف کار عیاری و حقایق تاریخی مربوط به این جماعت و صحنه‌های افسانه‌ای که تحت تأثیر دلیری‌ها و فداکاری‌های ایشان صفحات داستان‌هارا آکنده و بر دل پذیری و شیرینی آن‌ها افزوده است نه لازم است و نه مقنور و نه در حد موضع مورد بحث.

فقط بهطور اجمالی و در چند جمله می‌توان گفت که عیاران و جوان مردان گروهی بوده‌اند با راه و رسم و آداب و ترتیب و آیین‌های خاص که دلیری‌های ایشان در طی تاریخ زبان‌زد خاص و عام بوده و صفحات تاریخ از شرح کارهای ناموران این جماعت، قهرمانانی مانند یعقوب لیث و حمزه پسر آذرک خارجی مشحون است.

بی‌شك در کتاب‌های تاریخ، حتی در منابع قدیم و معتبر و نسخ اول عربی و فارسی از نوع طبری و مسعودی و کامل ابن اثیر و تاریخ سیستان و مجلل التواریخ والقصص وغیرآنها به حوالشی که زاده فعالیت عیاران است بسیار برمی‌خوریم لیکن در این مقام تأثیر این حوادث و انعکاس آنها در عرصه افسانه و عالم داستان‌سرایی مورد عنایت است و در این میدان وسیع نیز بیشتر یک کتاب، یعنی شاهنامه فردوسی موردنظر است و اگر از منبع و مأخذی دیگر — احیاناً مؤخر بر حمامه استاد طوس — یادی شود برای نشان دادن تأثیر شاهنامه بر آن اثر یا تأیید مطالب مندرج در شاهنامه است.

اگر بدققت در شاهنامه مطالعه نکنیم، یا فقط به دنبال

Ajjâh

للتاريخ في الجامعة الأردنية بين عامي ١٩٦٣ - ١٩٦٦، وكان خاتماً ما قام به من جليل الأعمال ما قاسم به زملاءه في الموسوعة الفلسطينية.

عاش عياد حياته كلها وفيها مبادئه، دعا إلى تحرير الإنسان من رقية الاستعمار والخوف والفقر والجهل، ونادي بالاشتراكية طريقة لإنصاف المستعبدين والمظلومين، وتعني الاشتراكية عنده: «الحرية، التضامن والارتباط العفوبي بين البشر، ورفض كل قهر وارغام، والثورة والنسمة على كل ظلم واستبداد، والإنسانية والتسامح وحب السلام» مؤكداً أن الثورة شرط للإصلاح.

نذر عياد نفسه لخدمة المثل والأفكار التي آمن بها، وتحمل ما تحمل من ضروب الأنذى في سبيلها. لقد كان القدوة البالغة بسلوكه قبل فكره، وإيمانه قبل منطقه، عزف عن كل مغريات الحياة وزينتها ليظل الداعية المخلص لتعليمه ومبادئه، وحاضر معاركه مشرع الراية أبداً حتى وافته المنية تاركاً وراءه أجيالاً وقراءً يذكرون فضله وعلمه.

أحمد علي كتعان

ألف عياد وترجم وحاضر وحرر المقالات الكثيرة في الصحف والمجلات، وشارك في المؤتمرات العلمية والوطنية والسياسية. وتبدو في مؤلفاته ومقالاته آثار التدقيق والتأنى، وإن المرء ليعجب لأناته وهو يتأمل خطه الجميل الأنثيق الذي كان يرسمه بعنابة فائقة.

اشترك عياد في تأليف سلسلة من الكتب المدرسية التاريخية، ولاسيما التاريخ القديم. ونشر بالاشتراك مع جميل صليباً «مختارات من ابن خلدون» و«حي بن يقطان» لابن طفيل و«المتقد من الضلال» للفزارى و«المنطق وطرائق البحث العلمي». ونشر في عام ١٩٤٢ كتاب «علم الأخلاق»، وفي عام ١٩٥٨ ترجم بتكميل من منظمة اليونسكو رسالته عن «كتب التاريخ المدرسية والتفاهم الدولي». وله: «أديب عربي وأديب سو菲ي»: عمر فاخوري ومكسيم غوركي. دمشق ١٩٤٦ و«تاريخ اليونان - الجزء الأول - دمشق ١٩٦٩». وترجم كتاب «رأي العام» لـ ألفريد سوфи، ونشر في دمشق سنة ١٩٦٢.

أحال عياد على التقاعد بجامعة دمشق في ٢١/١٢/١٩٦٠، وعمل أستاداً

١٩٣٣، وكان ميدانه الرحب فيها؛ إذ أقبل عليه واندفع بكل قواه وطاقاته يعلم طلابه، ويفتح لهم أبواب المعرفة، وينمي فيهم حب البحث والمتابعة للوصول إلى الحقيقة، وكان يؤلف لهم الكتب ويضمها اللباب المفيد. ويبث في نفوس طلابه القيم الوطنية والأخلاقية، ويندكي فيهم روح التقدم، ويهضهم على التمسك بمبادئه والمثل العليا لا يحيطون عنها. وبادله طلابه حبهم وتقديرهم، وكانوا يتحدون عنه باحترام في مجالسهم ويتناقلون كلماته. ويقول شاكر الصهام في محمد كامل عياد: «واني لأذكر كيف كنا نتدافع بالمناقب، نحن طلاب البكالوريا الثانية. قسم الرياضيات، لمشاركة زملاءنا قسم الفلسفة الحظوة بسماعه في قاعة الدرس والأخذ عنه، ونحس النشوة وهو يلقي دروسه في الأخلاق». وكان عياد نير الفكر، موسوعي المعرفة، منهوماً بالقراءة، يتبع كل جديد، يشارك في مختلف الأنشطة التي ترمي إلى تحرير المجتمع من قيوده، وتفسح له طريق التقدم والترقي، كانت تتملكه أبداً روح المعلم المربى، والثوري الخلاق.

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■ العيارون

تُعدُّ أخبار العياريين من الحكايات الشائعة في الأدب العربي، والعيار لغة: الذي يكثر التجوال والطواف ويتردد من غير عمل، والعيارون فئة من القراء المعدمين الذين خرجوا من قوانين المجتمع لما أصابهم من الظلم والعطل عن العمل، طحنتهم الفقر فأغاروا على الآخرين وسلبواهم أموالهم، وقد يدفعون ما يسلبونه إلى

الحرافيـشـ، جـمـعـ حـرـفـشـ، والـعـامـةـ تـقـولـ: حـرـفـوشـ، وـهـوـ ذـمـيـمـ الـخـلـقـ وـالـخـلـقـ، وـالـمـقـاتـلـ الـمـصـارـعـ، وـالـلـصـ الـذـي يـجـمـعـ ذـلـكـ.

وـهـؤـلـاءـ مـنـ الصـعـالـيـكـ وأـصـحـابـ المـهـنـ الـمحـقـرـةـ ضـاقـواـ ذـرـعاـ بـخـيـابـ الـقـانـونـ فـخـرـجـواـ عـنـهـ، وـضـاقـواـ ذـرـعاـ بـالـفـقـرـ وـالـبـطـالـةـ فـانـصـرـفـواـ إـلـىـ السـلـبـ وـالـنـهـبـ وـالـضـرـبـ وـالـاشـتـجـارـ، يـهـيمـونـ

غـيرـهـمـ مـنـ ذـوـيـ العـجزـ وـالـفـاقـةـ، وـتـعـدـ فيـ العـيـارـيـنـ فـئـاتـ أـخـرـىـ لـاتـخـافـ عـنـهـمـ كـثـيرـاـ مـنـ حـيـثـ السـلـوكـ، كـالـشـطـارـ وـهـمـ الـلـصـوصـ الـذـينـ يـحـتـالـونـ بـدـهـائـهـمـ، وـالـزـعـارـ جـمـعـ أـزـعـ، وـهـوـ الـذـيـ يـتـرـدـدـ مـنـ غـيرـ عـلـمـ وـيـخـلـيـ التـفـسـ وـهـوـاـهـاـ فـلـايـسـتـقـرـ بـهـ مـكـانـ، وـالـزـعـارـةـ شـرـاسـةـ الـخـلـقـ، وـقـيلـ الـأـزـعـ، الـلـصـ الـخـاطـفـ الـمـارـدـ، وـمـنـهـمـ

1941, pp. 37-41. H. Lacoste, "L'arc de Ctésiphon ou Taq Kesra (Mesopotamie)," *Sumer* 10, 1954, pp. 3-22. T. Madhloom, "Mada'in (Ctesiphon), 1970-71," *Sumer* 27, 1971, Arabic section, pp. 129-46. Idem, "Al-Mada'in," *Sumer* 31, 1975, Arabic section, pp. 165-70. Idem, "Restorations in al-Mada'in 1975-77," *Sumer* 34, 1978, Arabic section, pp. 119-29. O. Reuther, *Die Ausgrabungen der deutschen Ktesiphon-Expedition im Winter 1928-29*, Berlin, 1930. Idem, "The German Excavations at Ctesiphon," *Antiquity* 3, 1929, pp. 424-51. Idem, "Sasanian Architecture," in *Survey of Persian Art*, pp. 493-578. A. Saleh, "Al-Mada'in and its Surrounding Area in Arabic Literary Sources," *Mesopotamia* 3-4, 1968-69, pp. 417-39. F. Sarre and E. Herzfeld, *Archäologische Reise im Euphrat- und Tigris-Gebiet* II, Berlin, 1920. J. H. Schmidt, "L'expédition de Ctesiphon en 1931-1932," *Syria* 15, 1934, pp. 1-23.

(E. J. KEALL)

'AYYĀR, a noun meaning literally "vagabond," applied to members of medieval *fotowwa* (*fotūwa*) brotherhoods and comparable popular organizations.

i. General.

ii. 'Ayyār in Persian sources.

i. GENERAL

The history of 'ayyārs and 'ayyārī presents a paradox. On the one hand, there can be little doubt as to their pre-Islamic origin, not only because in later times they were said to have certain distinctively Iranian customs, but above all because in the Islamic period up to the Mongol invasion they were only to be found in territories which had once belonged to the Sasanian empire. On the other hand, our scanty documentation on that empire does not appear to contain anything about them. The early Islamic sources present difficulties because they combine different traditions—Arab, Iranian, urban, rural-aristocratic—under the same name.

In the pre-Islamic Arab tradition, the noun *fatā* (plur. *fetyān*), literally "young man," was applied to any individual claiming the specific qualities of youth (*fotowwa*). The latter noun also acquired the collective meaning of a group of such individuals, though this usage is not attested before the 2nd/8th century. The qualities were essentially courage, generosity, and chivalry. In the Iranian aristocratic tradition, the noun *javānmard*, also literally "young man," or its Arabic equivalent *fatā* meant a sort of knight-errant, in whom similar qualities were expected. The urban brotherhoods were evidently influenced by these ideas and words, but to what extent we do not know; in any case they were different in their recruitment, corporate organization, and confinement to towns.

Comprehension of the urban *fotowwa* movement is hampered by the fact that the sources are of two different kinds. As will be seen, the *fotowwa* brotherhoods at a certain stage of their development began to

absorb ideas of mystic origin, and this trend found expression in writings which prompted a long-held belief among modern scholars that the movement was essentially ideological. Although F. Taeschner, who collected almost all our documentation, and L. Massignon, who set Islamic socio-religious problems in the context of his personal understanding, did not ignore certain aspects of recruitment conducive to this ideology, neither could really explain the position of the *fotowwa* brotherhoods in the social contexts of their times. Research faces the difficulty that for the early Islamic period we possess no texts emanating from *fotowwa* circles, and that for later times we possess little except ideologically slanted writings. Our only information about social aspects of the *fotowwa* movement in early Islamic times comes in works by authors connected with aristocratic circles, who take no interest in it except in cases of its involvement in disorders, when they describe it as a bandit organization; they never credit it with ideological motives. Nevertheless it seems possible, if clear questions are asked, to extract sufficient evidence from the sources to permit the piecing together of an interesting social record.

The picture is one of groups of young men (*fetyān*) aspiring towards a better life. Although the members were not required to quit after growing older and acquiring wives and children, they were for the most part bachelors, which led their adversaries to accuse them of homosexuality. They lived more or less together, ate together, and held joint entertainments. In short they were "comrades," bound by a strong sense of group loyalty ('*asabiyā*), who saw themselves as "smarter" than other men and apparently had demanding notions of personal and group honor. Although it appears (contrary to some opinions) that they did not admit non-Moslems, who may have had similar groups of their own, religious belief waś clearly not the main bond. The evidence shows only that particular groups were associated with different persuasions. The *fetyān* have often been portrayed as artisans or proletarians, but it should be borne in mind that *fotowwa* groups were not organized on a craft basis before late medieval times, and then only in the Turco-Iranian lands; also that the *fetyān*, while clearly for the most part of humble origin, included and would increasingly include influential notables, who found membership useful in building up clientèles for furtherance of their ambitions.

In historical chronicles and other writings, the *fetyān* generally appear as trouble-makers, ready in times of breakdown of authority to harass rich merchants and other worthies by pillaging or threatening to pillage the shops or premises of any who would not pay them fixed sums of protection-money. Being subject to police surveillance even in undisturbed times, the *fetyān* pressed for appointments of police chiefs sympathetic to them and even applied for enrollment in the police, which would assure them of regular pay as well as impunity. At Baghdad they achieved these goals for a short time in the 5th/11th century, but never did so in the subsequent period of Turkish rule when urban

— Ayyār (fim)

"of its inner workings and organization, we know at present very little" [p. 25]); and a learned disquisition on the structure of the charters. This last provides an essential framework for an intelligent reading of the documents themselves. The authors wisely encase the term "feudal" in deflecting quotation marks: in this and other matters of speculation they go only as far as their sources allow.

The second section of the book comprises the translations themselves. These are divided into several parts, according to the concepts of land rights they illustrate. We are given examples of estates granted to holy men in return for their spiritual services, and as part of a policy to settle such men in the vicinity of the royal capital. The grant to high officials of rights over entire communities and over small groups of people is illustrated. Legal decisions of some complexity indicate the reasons for the extremely precise definition of rights and boundaries in the charters. The presentation of estates as royal dowries is illustrated, as is the granting of land to merchants at Korbai and its vicinity. The translations are supplemented by careful notes and give what may be a surprising insight into the complexity of land tenure systems in the sultanate and into the sophistication of the methods evolved to deal with this.

A third section of the book provides a short bibliography, the notes, and four indices that also serve as glossaries: to titles and honorifics, administrative and legal terms, botanical and topographical terms, and personal and place-names. As glossaries alone, the first three are of much interest and utility, occasionally even including brief bibliographical notes under the indexed terms.

Land in Dār Fūr is published in the *Fontes Historiae Africanae Series*. The publisher, Cambridge University Press, is to be congratulated for a book that entailed much careful and detailed work to produce in such an attractive form. The authors and translators themselves have performed a dual service: in presenting these translations and accompanying material they have helped to explain a difficult subject and, more fundamentally, given a signal reminder of the vast scope for research in the Arabic documentary sources for the history of Saharan and sub-Saharan Africa.

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M. W. DALY

SIMBA SABARI, *Mouvements populaires à Bagdad à l'époque abbâside, IX^e-XI^e siècles* (Paris: Maisonneuve, 1981). Pp. 164.

One of the most critical periods of medieval Islamic history was the time of the gradual, but ineluctable decline of the 'Abbāsid Caliphate: that is, the time of the disintegration of the Islamic universal state, which began during the third/ninth century and which was accompanied by major political, military and socioeconomic changes. One clear expression of these events was the formation and development of "popular movements" in the Near East, specifically in the cities of the Syrian, Iraqi, and Iranian provinces.

The present study deals with such popular movements in Baghdad from the beginning of the third/ninth until the end of the fifth/eleventh century. As the political, economic, and cultural metropolis of the 'Abbāsid empire, Baghdad was most strongly and directly affected by the all-embracing and radical changes produced by the disintegration of the Islamic empire: this seems to explain why most popular movements took place in Baghdad, partly as a reaction to these changes. In any case, the Arabic sources do not report on popular uprisings in any other city with the same frequency and detail as in the case of Baghdad.

Although some of the basic studies regarding both the general development of 'Abbāsid Baghdad and the popular movements in this city already exist—one must mention first of all the work of Jacob Lassner and Claude Cahen (who was also the supervisor of the present work, a doctoral thesis of 1972)—the author tries to reexplore to the utmost contemporary sources, mainly Arabic chronicles, and to reevaluate all relevant information. By limiting his study to popular movements in Baghdad, the author does indeed succeed in contributing to a better knowledge and understanding of the political and social development of the 'Abbāsid capital. Nevertheless, in this reviewer's opinion, there should have been at least a few remarks made concerning the existence of popular movements in other parts of the Islamic world (particularly the *ahdāth* movements in Syria) which took place at about the same time, but were in many respects quite different in character. [See Claude Cahen, "Mouvements populaires et autonomisme urbain dans l'Asie musulmane du Moyen Age I," *Arabica*, 5 (1958), pp. 225-50; Gerhard Hoffmann, *Kommune oder Staatsbürokratie?* (Berlin, GDR, 1975); Axel Havemann, *Riāsa und qadā'* (Freiburg, 1975)].

The book opens with a statement of the problem to be investigated, and an assessment of the primary sources. Sabari starts with the hypothesis that there existed three types of popular movements (those of the *'āmma*, the *qayrātūn* and the *Ḥanbalīs*) which were not isolated and momentary, but represented different expressions of popular discontent. In the author's view, although each movement had its specific features, viewed together, they all show common aspects and can be considered as variants of one great popular movement. The aim of the study is to display, in spite of all differences in detail, the homogeneity and unity of purpose of the various popular movements in Baghdad between the third/ninth and fifth/eleventh centuries.

The body of the work is divided into four chapters and a conclusion. The first chapter (pp. 7-55) deals with the social and political situation in Baghdad during this period, describing the city's topography, the social structure of its population, the role of handicraft and commerce, the general economic conditions, and finally, the transformation of the political (and, consequently, social and economic) power bases by militarization, that is, the taking-over and exercising of de facto rule by non-Arab military regimes, the Iranian Büyids (334/945-447/1055) and the Turkish Seljūqs (from 447/1055 onwards). This chapter serves as a background for an understanding of the popular movements which are discussed in the remainder of the book.

In the second chapter (pp. 57-75), the author examines common people (*al-'āmma*) as the originators of uprisings, and scrutinizes the social composition, the methods, the claims, and the antagonists of the *'āmma* movement. Having marshalled the chronology of events—which is itself a valuable aid to work in the field—the author goes on to analyse and interpret the historical data, observing a rather scholarly caution in drawing conclusions from such deficient materials. (The same can be said for the following chapters of this study.) Sabari comes to the conclusion that while some of the *'āmma*-led rebellions had a political-cum-religious character—which can be seen, for instance, in the practice of putting in their claims in the mosques during the Friday prayer and by interrupting the *khuṭba*—other *'āmma*-led movements had their origin in economic problems (price increases, famines). In principle, discontent was articulated in a purely defensive way, as a reaction to certain grievances, but often the *'āmma* and military functionaries of the government were engaged in violent clashes with each other. In some cases, the common people were supported by members of higher social classes, such as wholesale dealers and *'ulamā'*, but this never happened during purely economic uprisings because richer people, anxious about losing their social status and wealth, preferred "peaceful

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6058. 'Abd-al-Maulā, Muḥammad Aḥmad: Al-'Aiyārūn AYYĀR
wa-š-ṣūṭār al-bağādida fi 't-tārīḥ al-'abbāsī / Muḥammad
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Schrift, arab. 7 E 6814

MADDE YAYINLANMIŞTAN
SONRA GELEN DOKÜMAN

17 MART 1992

AYYĀR
'Ayyārūn : bī vīzhiq'hā-yi pahlavāni az tārīkh-i ijtimā'i
va qawmi-i İran / Kāzim Kāzimaynī. — [S.L. : s.n.],
1349 [1971] ; 22 cm.
317 p. ; 22 cm.
Persian
L. Kāzimaynī, Kāzim.
GR290.A94 81-472897 nef 9-28823
DLC MiU

913. GAILLARD, Marina. *Le livre de Samak-e 'Ayyār*. Structure et idéologie du roman persan médiéval. Paris, 1987, 181 p. (Travaux de l'Institut d'Études Iranien-nes de l'Université de la Sorbonne Nouvelle, 12).

Etude d'ensemble du livre de *Samak-e 'Ayyār* (éd. P. N. Xānlari, 5 vol.). M. G. part de l'idéologie qui sous-tend cet ouvrage et de l'étude formelle de celui-ci, mais aborde aussi l'analyse des personnages et de leurs rôles, des lieux communs et des croyances représentés dans le texte, le problème de l'origine et de la destination de ce récit. Après avoir défini les notions de *mardi*, *javānmardi* et *'ayyāri*, auxquelles on se réfère toujours dans le roman, M. G. s'attache à l'étude du récit. Le *Samak-e 'Ayyār* se présente comme une succession d'histoires et d'épisodes qui découlent les uns des autres : à la rupture de l'ordre initial succèdent laires qui tiennent toujours en haleine le consommateur de feuillets" (p. 88). Cette structure "modulaire" démarque le *Samak-e 'Ayyār* "des récits à cadre bien connus, dans lesquels s'insèrent histoires indépendantes les unes des autres, tels le *Sendbād-nāme* ou le *Baxtyār-nāme*, ainsi que des récits composés d'une succession de contes, tels *Kalile va Demne* ou le *Marzebān-nāme* (p. 169). À remarquer les observations de M. G. qui accréditent une origine orale du récit et sa destination à un auditoire populaire. Quand et pourquoi ce récit aurait-il été mis par écrit? La réponse doit être cherchée dans le message convoyé par le texte : l'apologie des notions de *mardi* et de *'ayyāri*; et dans le fait que "les 'ayyārān présentés ici s'engagent sur la voie complexe et exigeante de *javānmardi*" (p. 48). Un tel message ne devait pas déplaire aux gouvernants qui, entre le XII^e et le XIII^e siècle, s'ouvriraient aux valeurs de la *futuwwa/javānmardi*. On souhaite que des études de ce type soient conduites pour d'autres textes, afin de reconnaître, avec des méthodes modernes, les genres de la littérature persane.

A. M. P.

900. CAHEN, Cl. et HANAWAY, W. L. Jr. "Ayyār". *Encyclopaedia Iranica*, ed. E. Yarshater, vol. 3, fasc. 2 (1987) pp. 159-163.

Condensant et réorganisant son article "Futuwwa" de l'*E.I.*, Cl. Cahen reprend, dans la première partie de cet article, l'historique des "ayyār" dans le monde musulman : leur origine pré-islamique, la tradition arabe (*fatā*), la tradition persane "aristocratique" (*javānmardi*), les confréries urbaines de la *fotovat*. Il y discute notamment les différentes approches qui ont été faites de ce phénomène, relativement à la diversité de nature des textes qui s'y rapportent. Après un tableau général du mode de vie spécifique à ces jeunes gens, il retrace l'évolution de la composition sociale de leurs groupements à travers les siècles et sa répercussion dans la littérature qui leur est propre.

Dans la seconde partie, W. L. Hanaway Jr. centre son étude du mouvement sur l'Iran et en éclaire la compréhension à travers les sources persanes. Il y expose de manière évidente le rapport entre la valeur attribuée dans les textes au terme "ayyār" — tantôt péjorative, tantôt ambiguë, ou tout à fait positive — et le genre des œuvres dans lesquelles il est employé, ainsi qu'avec la position sociale de leurs auteurs. La variété des citations permet de bien saisir à la fois la complexité de ce phénomène, aux aspects contradictoires renforcés par la disparité des textes, et son caractère familier jusque chez les auteurs les plus célèbres. L'un des principaux intérêts de l'article, enfin, est la place faite à ces sources essentielles, et riches en détails d'ordre tant pratique qu'idéologique, que sont les romans populaires de la période pré-safavide, où "ayyār" et *javānmardi* sont donnés comme des termes équivalents. Sous cet aspect en particulier, et compte tenu également de la bibliographie fournie, il s'agit là d'un complément indispensable à l'article bien connu de Cl. Cahen et Fr. Taeschner dans l'*E.I.* M. Gd.

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(Travaux de l'Institut d'Études Iranien-nes de l'Université de la Sorbonne Nouvelle ; 12)
Literaturverz. S. 173 - 176
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Bestell-Nr.:
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11 NİSAN 1994

294. MAJUB, M. J. «Raveş-hâ-ye 'ayyāri vanofuz-e kâr-o kerdâr-e 'ayyārān dar Šâhnâme». *Šâhnâme-ye Ferdowsi va şokuh-e pahlavâni*, Madâ'eni M., éd., Téhéran, 1357, pp. 201-232.

X AYYĀR 1994 - SEHNAM

L'A., spécialiste des études sur les 'ayyārān (combattants réunis en conféries), pense reconnaître, dans le *Livre des Rois*, quelques-uns de leurs comportements typiques : déguisement en marchand pour s'introduire chez l'ennemi (exemples bien connus de Rostam, Esfandiyâr, Ardaşir, Eskandar), port du poignard dans la tige de la botte, usage de produits hypnotisants (pp. 219-226, note débordant le cadre du *Livre des Rois* sur ce sujet), voyages incognito. Dans le *Livre des Rois*, ce sont des agissements de chevaliers; Ferdowsi ne parle qu'une fois de 'ayyār, dans un sens péjoratif.

C. F.

20 TEMMUZ 1997
AYYĀR
SEHNAM

09 KASIM 1998
AYYĀR

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('Ayyārūn wa-äl-shuṭṭār al-Bağħādida
fi al-tārīḥ al-'abbāsī)
العيارون والشطّار البغدادي في التاريخ
العياري / محمد أجد عبد المؤمن .
اسكتندرية : مؤسسة شباب الجامعة ، 1987
190 p. ; 24 cm.
Title page dated: 1986.
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\$25.00
Egypt-Islamic West.

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89-933449 AGUSTOS 1992

Muntakhab al-Sādāt Yaghmā'ī, 1862 or 1931 or 2.
Hamāsh-i fatḥnāmā-i nāyebi ; faṣl az
tārīkh-i ṣabīr'ahudah-i 'Ayyār va Tughyān /
ṣaḡ-i ṭab'-i Muntakhab al-Sādāt Yaghmā'ī ; bā'.
muqaddamah va taqīb-i Malik al-Muarrizikhā
Sipīr ; ba ihrimām va taqīb-i 'Alī Dihbāshī.
-- Chāp-i 2. -- Tīhrān : Intishārāt-i Isparā,
1989.
194, [11] p. : ill., facsim., ports. ; 25 cm.
In Persian; romanized record.
Title on added t.p.: The epic of Farhānāme-ye
nāyebi : a chapter of the converted history of
Ayyārism and revolt.
Reprint of 1918 or 19 edition.
1800.00IR (\$16.98 U.S.)
For requesting libraries only.
(Verified account of the Iranian revolution,
late 19th century)

MADDE YAYINLANMIŞTAN
SONRA GELEN DOKÜMAN

308. SALIM, 'A. A. «Sowgand dar Šâhnâme va moqâyese-ye ân bâ sowgand dar
dâstân-e Samak-e 'ayyār». *Šâhnâme-ye Ferdowsi va şokuh-e pahlavâni*, Madâ'eni,
M., éd., Téhéran, 1357, pp. 149-163.

- SEHNAM
AYYĀR

Sowgand, on le sait, désigne d'abord l'ordalie et la boisson prise pour cette épreuve. Le *Livre des Rois* ne connaît que deux cas d'ordalie, par le feu (Siyāvouš) et par l'eau (Keyxosrow). Autrement, *sowgand* désigne le serment. L'A. analyse la notion de serment dans le *Livre des Rois* et *Samak-e 'ayyār*; ce dernier est choisi à cause de ses références au milieu des 'ayyārān, groupes fondés sur un code d'honneur. Étude sur les personnes et les autres entités invoquées pour le serment; les motifs des serments; les serments écrits; les obligations du serment.

C. F.

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3866. Baidā'ī, Bahram: 'Aiyārnāma / Bahram Baidā'ī. —
Cáp 2. — [Tīhrān] : Simûrg, [1986] = 1365 h.s. — 71 S.
Inhaltsang.: Theaterstück. — Pers., in arab. Schr. 8 E 4837

MADDE YAYINLANMIŞTAN
SONRA GELEN DOKÜMAN

25 KASIM 1993

Ayyār
012389

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(« MONDES IRANIEN ET INDIEN », IVRY-SUR-SEINE)

HÉROÏNES D'EXCEPTION : LES FEMMES 'AYYĀR DANS LA PROSE ROMANESQUE DE L'IRAN MÉDIÉVAL *

RÉSUMÉ

Les femmes 'ayyār sont des personnages d'exception dans tous les sens du terme : moins nombreuses que leurs homologues masculins, elles sont, pour certaines, remarquables tant par l'ampleur de leur rôle que par l'excellence dont elles témoignent dans l'exercice de 'ayyāri. Après un aperçu du rôle narratif des grandes héroïnes mises en scène par deux célèbres récits en prose (*Samak-e 'Ayyār*, Farāmarz b. Xodādād al-Arrājāni, ca. VI^e/XII^e s. ; *Abu Moslem Nāme*, Abu Tāher Tartusi, V^e/XI^e-VI^e/XII^e s.), on observera les rares passages où celles-ci s'expriment sur leur situation ainsi que la façon dont les hommes les considèrent, dans leur camp ou chez l'ennemi. Qu'elles veuillent échapper au mariage ou qu'elles aient épousé des 'ayyār de profession, elles font preuve d'une grande indépendance, mais mise à part leur activité, elles ne troubleront pas l'ordre social. Est-ce un hasard si ces femmes à la forte personnalité, aspirant à un mode de vie peu conformiste, se sont tournées vers le milieu 'ayyār où elles semblent bien admises ?

Mots clés: littérature persane médiévale ; romans en prose ; femmes 'ayyār ; *Samak-e 'Ayyār* (Farāmarz b. Xodādād al-Arrājāni) ; *Abu Moslem Nāme* (Abu Tāher Tartusi).

IRCICA *htp.*

SUMMARY

'Ayyār women are in all respects exceptional characters: although less numerous than their male counterparts, some of them play remarkably important roles and also practise 'ayyāri with the utmost excellency. The article first surveys the narrative role of great heroines appearing in two famous prose narratives (*Samak-e 'Ayyār*, Farāmarz b. Xodādād al-Arrājāni, ca. 6th/12th c.; *Abu Moslem Nāme*, Abu Tāher Tartusi, 5th/11th-6th/12th c.). Then it examines the few passages in which these women talk about their situation, and analyses how men consider them in both their and the enemy camps. Whether they want to avoid marriage or marry a professional 'ayyār, they show great independence, but apart from their 'ayyār activity they do not disturb the social order. Is it by chance that these strong-charactered women, longing for a non-conformist way of life, have turned to the 'ayyār milieu where they seem to be well received?

Keywords: Persian mediaeval literature; prose narratives; 'ayyār women; *Samak-e 'Ayyār* (Farāmarz b. Xodādād al-Arrājāni); *Abu Moslem Nāme* (Abu Tāher Tartusi).

- Communication présentée à la 5^e Conférence de la Societas Iranologica Europaea, Ravenne, 6-11 octobre 2003.

border of Armenia, before breaking through the Taurus. As for the Tigris, its two branches rise in the Taurus; the easterly, however, is in a southward-travelling sector of the range that lies on the east side of the upper Tigris basin (the east half of the later was nevertheless, as Ajnik¹, part of Armenia on the Late Classical definition). Finally, the Aras flows northward down from Bingöl Dağ into the plain of Basean/Pasinler (east of Erzurum) and through a winding valley into the Julfa-Nakchivan plain.

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THOMAS SINCLAIR

‘Ayyār

‘Ayyār (Ar. pl. ‘ayyārūn; Pers. pl. ‘ayyārān) is a term used historically to refer to a member of the paramilitary chivalric bands that constituted an important element in pre-modern Islamic society, primarily in the pre-Mongol Middle East (the Mashriq) and the eastern Iranian lands.

‘Ayyār literally means “errant,” derived from the Arabic root ‘y-r, “to journey; to wander hither and thither.” Because religious fervour formed part of the ideal of Islamic chivalry (Naraghi, 68–9), it is perhaps unsurprising that the ‘ayyārūn made their first appearance in the early third/ninth century, during the reign of the ‘Abāssid caliph Hārūn al-Rashīd (r. 170–93/786–809), as brotherhoods of Sunnī volunteer warriors for the faith (*muṭtawi'a*), battling infidels and Khārijī heretics in the eastern Iranian province of Sīstān (Anon., *Tārīkh-i Sīstān*, 151). Shortly thereafter they played a role in the Fourth Fitna, the civil war between Hārūn’s sons, the caliph al-Amīn (r. 193–8/809–13) and his brother al-Ma'mūn (r. 198–218/813–833), fighting during the siege of Baghdad in 196–8/812–3 on the side of the caliph (al-Tabārī, 3:881).

‘Ayyārs also played a major part in the political dissolution of the caliphate and the establishment of autonomous dynasties in the central Islamic lands: Ya'qūb b. al-Layth al-Ṣaffār (r. 247–65/861–79), the founder of the first such dynasty, permanently ended caliphal rule in all the lands east of Iraq. Similarly, the founder and other important members of the Sāmānid dynasty (r. 204–395/819–1005), as well as the founder of the Ghaznavid dynasty (r. 366–582/977–1186), are also reported to have been numbered among the ‘ayyārs of the third/ninth and fourth/tenth centuries (Qazvīnī, 376–7, 380; Jārbādhqānī, 20). The ‘ayyārs also formed an important component of the Sāmānid army (Ibn al-Zubayr, 145–8).

Futuwwa (Pers. *javānmardī*), or Islamic chivalry, as practised by the ‘ayyārs, involved, apart from the religious fervour noted above, adherence to a code of noble conduct. Contemporaneous descriptions