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INNER ASIAN HISTORY
(500-1800)



## WARFARE IN INNER ASIAN HISTORY (500-1800)

EDITED BY

NICOLA DI COSMO



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#### CONTENTS

Acknowledgments
Introduction: Inner Asian Ways of Warfare in Historical
Perspective
PART ONE
THE MEDIEVAL PERIOD (500–1200)
Strategy and Contingency in the Tang Defeat of the
Eastern Turks, 629–630
The Uighur-Chinese Conflict of 840–848
War and Warfare in the Pre-Činggisid Western Steppes of Eurasia
Peter B. Golden
PART TWO
THE MONGOL AGE (1200–1400)
The Battle of Herat (1270): A Case of Inter-Mongol Warfare
Michal Biran
Whither the Ilkhanid Army? Ghazan's First Campaign into Syria (1299–1230)  Reuven Amitai

CO:	NΤ	EN	IT	'S
UIU.	ГАТ	JL_40 A	1 ~	_

The Circulation of Military Technology in the Mongolian  Empire	265
Thomas Allsen	
The Mongol Conquest of Dali: The Failed Second Front  John E. Herman	295
PART THREE	
THE EARLY MODERN PERIOD (1400–1800)	
Military Aspects of the Manchu Wars against the Čaqars Nicola Di Cosmo	337
Fate and Fortune in Central Eurasian Warfare: Three Qing Emperors and their Mongol Rivals	. 369
Military Ritual and the Qing Empire  Joanna Waley-Cohen	405
	44

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#### THE BATTLE OF HERAT (12‡0): A CASE OF INTER-MONGOL WARFARE\*

#### Michal Biran

While Mongol campaigns of conquest in Asia and Europe have long caught the imagination of military historians, far less attention has been given to the inter-Mongol rivalries after the dissolution of the Mongol empire. This is not only because those conflicts seemed less engaging, but also because most of the inter-Mongol conflicts were engaging, but also because most of the inter-Mongol conflicts were merely raids or skirmishes which received only short notices in contemporary sources. In this context, the battle of Herat is an important exception.\(^1\)

When the armies of the Ilkhan Abaqa (r. 1265–1282) met the troops of the Chaghadaid Khan Baraq (r. 1266–1271) in 1270 at Herat in present-day Afghanistan, it was for a full-scale and decisive combat. Abaqa's victory secured Ilkhanid rule in Khurāsān and precluded any real threat to the Ilkhanate's eastern frontier for several decades. Baraq's defeat resulted in the loss of the independence of the Chaghadaids, who were obliged to submit to Qaidu (1236–1301), Ögödei's grandson. Considering the role of the Golden Horde behind the scenes, the battle thus involved the four Chingissid uluses, and was influential in shaping the borders of the independent Mongol khanates.

<sup>\*</sup> This study was undertaken during the spring of 2000, whilst I was a fellow at the Institute of Advanced Studies (IAS) at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem. I would like to thank the director and staff of the IAS for their assistance during this time. I would also like to thank my colleagues at the IAS, Prof. Reuven Amitai, Dr. Peter Jackson, Prof. David Morgan and Prof. Naomi Standen, as well as Prof. Dr. Peter Jackson, Prof. David Morgan and Prof. Naomi Standen, as well as Prof. Elizabeth Endicott (Middlebury VT) and Dr. Yuri Pines (Jerusalem) for their comments on earlier drafts of this paper.

Other major inter-Mongol battles include the wars between the Golden Horde and the Ilkhanate mainly in 1262 and 1265, about which see, e.g., Reuven Amitaian Hongols and Mamluks (Cambridge, 1995), pp. 86–91; and the battle between the Central Asian Mongols under Qaidu and the Yuan forces in 1301, about which see Michal Biran, Qaidu and the Rise of the Independent Mongol State in Central Asia (Richmond, Surrey, 1997), pp. 52–4. The description of the battle of Herat in contemporary sources is, however, far more detailed than the descriptions of the above-mentioned battles.

This unique battle left its mark in historical records, both medieval and modern. Yet, the military aspects of the battle have not yet been studied on the basis of the whole range of available sources. The works of the main Ilkhanid historians, Rashīd al-Din (d. 1318) and Wassāf (d. circa 1328), whose descriptions serve as the basis for most of modern scholarship, devoted most of their attention to the Central Asian Mongols, who initiated the battle. Only through their works can one get the full political framework in which the battle took place.<sup>3</sup> For the military aspects, however, the local chronicles and the Mamluk sources are no less useful. The most important local chronicle is Harawi's History of Herat, written c. 1330, which makes use of Rashīd al-Dīn's work but adds many details.4 Also valuable are the two chronicles of Kirmān, whose Sultan fought side by side with Abaqa,5 the more apocryphal Georgian chronicle,6 and the Arabic-Mamluk chronicles. As rivals of the Ilkhans, the Mamluks

showed interest in Abaqa's struggles in the east-struggles that kept him away from Syria-and their independent version of the conflict is therefore of interest. The most detailed Mamluk description of the battle of Herat appears in the work of the Syrian historian al-Yünini (d. 1326), which is repeated, with several changes, in the later works of Ibn al-Dawādārī (d. after 1335) and Mufaddal (d. after 1358).7 Another set of Mamluk sources provides many details about the Tegüder incident that preceded the battle, though not all of them connect it to the battle of Herat.8 One should bear in mind, however, that apart from Marco Polo's blurred version of this battle,9 all the sources originated in Herat or westward. The Chaghadaid version of the events therefore did not come down to us. 10

On the basis of a close comparison between Arabic and Persian sources, this essay aims to reconstruct the background and course of the battle of Herat. This is followed, after a short discussion of the battle's results, by an analysis of the military aspects of the battle, in which I have tried to explain the reasons for Abaqa's victory, as well as to compare this battle to Mongol wars against "foreign" (i.e., non-Mongol) rivals.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> For the research literature see: Constantine A.M. D'Ohsson, Histoire des Mongols (The Hague, 1834, rpt. Tientsin, 1940), vol. 3, pp. 428-54; Henry H. Howorth, The History of the Mongols from the 9th to the 19th Century (London, 1888, rpt. New York, 1965), vol. 3, pp. 228-40; John A. Boyle, "Dynastic and Political History of the Ilkhans," in The Saljuq and the Mongol Periods, ed. John A. Boyle, Vol. 5 of The Cambridge History of Iran (Cambridge, 1968), pp. 357-60; Bertold Spuler, Die Mongolen in Iran (Leiden, 1985), pp. 61-4; A.P. Martinez, "Some Notes on the Il-Xanid Army," Archivum Eurasiae Medii Aeivi, vol. 6 (1988), pp. 152-7; Biran, Qaidu, pp. 31-2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> For Rashīd al-Dīn see David O. Morgan, "Rashīd al-Dīn Ṭabīb," Encyclopedia of Islam, 2nd ed., vol. 8 (1995), pp. 458-9 and the references there; David O. Morgan, The Mongols (Oxford, 1986), pp. 13-14. For Wassaf see Ibid., pp. 14-15; Edward G. Browne, A Literary History of Persia (Cambridge, 1951), vol. 3, pp. 67-8. Shorter descriptions of the battle appear in other Ilkhanid sources: Ḥamdallāh Qazwīnī, Ta'rīkh-i Guzīda (Leiden, 1913), pp. 577, 582; and the Arabic chronicle ascribed to Ibn al-Fuwațī (Ibn al-Fuwațī, al-Ḥawādith al-Jāmi'a (Baghdad, 1932-3), p. 357). I have also made use of the later Persian chronicle of Mīrkhwānd (d. 1498). Mīrkhwānd, who wrote in Timurid Herat, used Rashīd al-Din, Waṣṣāf and Harawī or his sources (see below). Yet he also preserved details about the Central Asian Mongols which are not to be found in earlier works (W.W. Barthold, Turkestan down to the Mongol Invasion (4th edition, London, 1977), p. 58).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Sayf b. Muḥammad Harawī, Ta'rīkh nāmah-i Harāt, ed. M. Siddiqī (Calcuta, 1944), pp. 303-30. On Harawī see Ṣiddiqī's introduction to this edition, pp. 10-15. Martinez extensively used Harawi's work, though I am not in accord with his conclusions (see below, esp. pp. 202ff.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Simt al 'ulā, written c. 1317, and especially the Ta'nīkh i shāhī, written c. 1317 or earlier. About those works see Bāstanī-Parīzī's introduction to: Anonymous, Ta'rīkh-i shāhī-i Qara Khitā'iyyān, ed. M.I. Bāstanī-Parīzī (Tehran, 1966-7), pp. 1-19, 30 -32.

Histoire de la Georgie, trans. M. Brosset (St. Peterburg, 1850), Part 1, pp. 573-86 (hereafter, The Georgian Chronicle). This source is used by Howorth, Spuler and Martinez.

On al-Yūnīnī and his sources see the introduction of Li Guo, Early Mamluk Syrian Historiography (Leiden, 1998), vol. 1, pp. 6-21, 60-80. None of al-Yūnīnī's extant sources mentioned there (e.g., Ibn Khallikān) is identified as the source for his information on the battle of Herat. On the relationship between the three Mamluk writers (al-Yūnīnī, Ibn al-Dawādārī and al-Mufaḍḍal) see Donald P. Little, Introduction to Mamluk Historiography (Wiesbaden, 1970), pp. 10-11, 33-6, 53-61. Shorter notices on the battle appear in other Mamluk sources, e.g., Baybars al-Manşūrī (d. 1325), Zubdat al-fikra fī ta'rīkh al-hijra (ed. D.S. Richards, Beirut, 1998), pp. 116, 121; MS BL Add 23325, fol. 77a, hence Badr al-Dīn al-Aynī (d. 1451), İqd al-jumān fī ta'rīkh ahl al-zamān, MS Topkapi Sarayi, Ahmet III, 2912, fols. 100a, 104a; Shams al-Dīn al-Dhahabī (d. 1348), Ta'nīkh al-islām (Beirut, 1999), vol. 52, p. 51; Ibn Kathīr (d. 1373), al-Bidāya wa'l-nihāya (Cairo, 1939), vol. 13, p. 255.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Baybars al-Mansūrī, Zubdat al-fikra, p. 141, fols. 81b-82a; hence al-ʿAynī, Iqd, fol. 106a; Ibn al-Furāt, Ta'rīkh al-duwal wa'l-muluk (Beirut, 1942), vol. 7, p. 9; al-Nuwayrī, Nihāyat al-arab (Cairo, 1984), vol. 27, p. 396 (where Qaidu and not Baraq initiated the battle). Al-Yūnīnī and Ibn al-Dawādārī mention the incident as the background of the battle of Herat; Baybars and al-'Aynī mention it also before the battle but describe it in detail only after it, in 1274, and this later date is followed by al-Nuwayrī and Ibn al-Furāt.

<sup>9</sup> Marco Polo, The Book of Sir Marco Polo, trans. Henry Yule (London, 1903), vol. 2, p. 66; Marco Polo, The Description of the World, trans. Arthur G. Moulc and Paul Pelliot (London, 1935-1938), vol. 2, pp. 456-7. To the best of my knowledge, Chinese sources of the 13th-14th centuries do not mention this battle, being primarily preoccupied for those years with Qubilai's campaigns against the Song.

<sup>10</sup> The only Central Asian source of this period, Jamāl Qārshī, does not

#### The Background: The Coming of Baraq into Central Asia

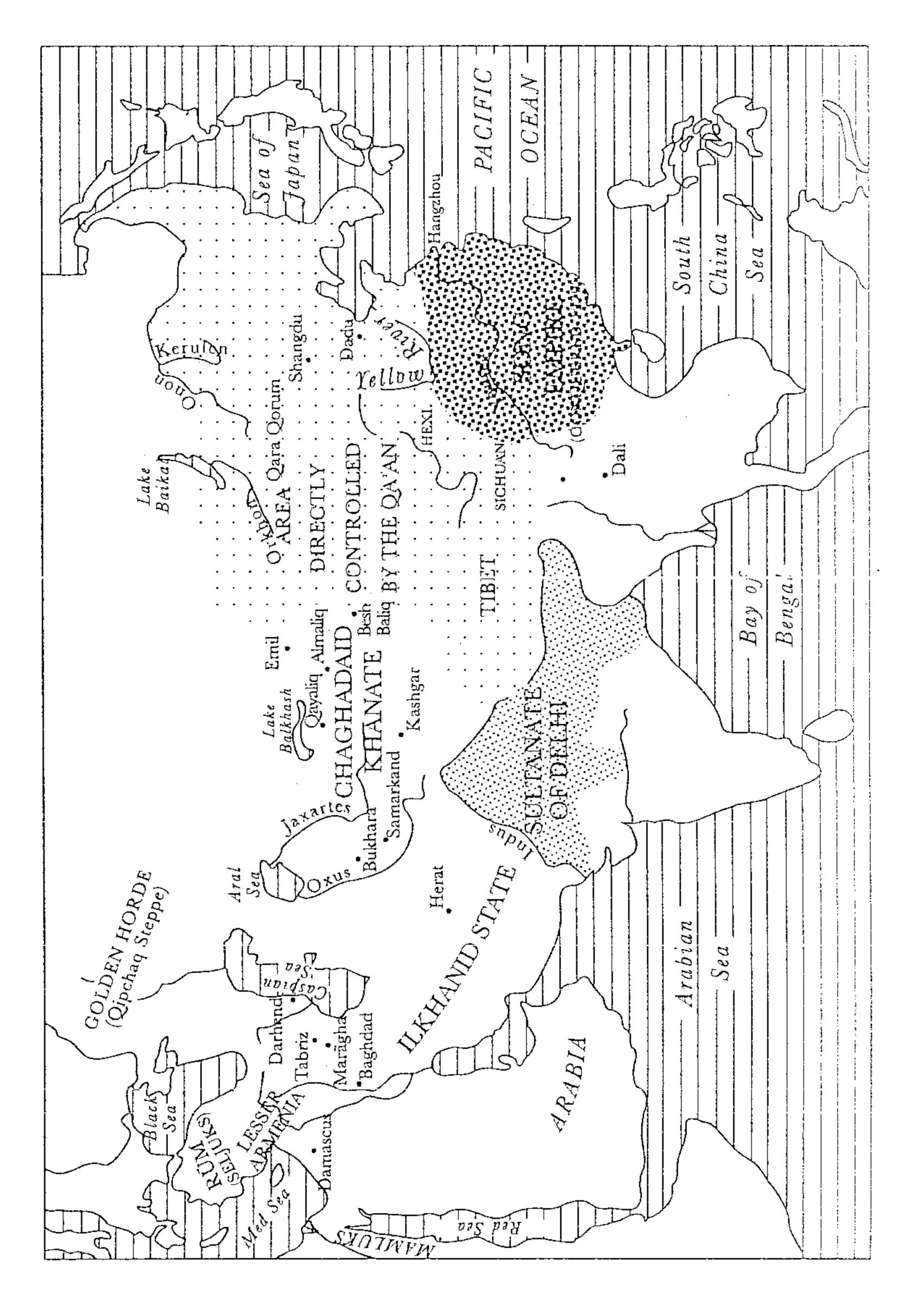
The battle of Herat was initiated by Baraq, the Chaghadaid khan who arrived in Central Asia only a few years before the battle took place. Yet the roots for Baraq's actions are to be sought not only in his immediate circumstances, but also in the two great Mongol succession struggles: the Toluid coup d'etat of 1251, which promoted Möngke to the throne of the Qa'an, the supreme leader of the Mongol empire, at the expense of his cousins the Ögödeids; and the inter-Toluid rivalry that followed Möngke's death (1259), when his two brothers Qubilai and Arigh Böke contested the Qa'anate. 11

Möngke's accession led to the dissolution of the Ögödeid ulus, and greatly harmed the Chaghadaids, who had been the Ögödeids' allies. The Jochids, khans of the Golden Horde, whose leader was instrumental in enthroning Möngke, quickly manipulated Chaghadaid weakness, taking over Transoxania and Western Turkestan, formerly under Chaghadaid control. The Chaghadaid share in the empire's revenues was also taken over by the Jochids and the Toluids. The Toluids were naturally the great beneficiaries of Möngke's rise. After his accession Möngke placed his two brothers Qubilai and Hülegü, Abaqa's father, in charge of China and Iran respectively. The two brothers expanded the empire's borders each in his own direction, thereby creating the basis for two new regional khanates. 13

The Qubilai-Arigh Böke struggle that followed Möngke's death gave the deprived uluses of Čentral Asia a chance to restore the for-

mention the battle, yet he supplies the chronological framework for Qaidu and the Chaghadaid's succession. On him see Peter Jackson, "Djamāl Ķarshī," *Encyclopedia of Islam, 2nd ed.*, Supp. 3-4 (1981), p. 240.

Peter Jackson, "From *Ulus* to Khanate: The Making of the Mongol States c. 1220–1290," *The Mongol Empire and its Legacy*, ed. Reuven Amitai and David O. Morgan (Leiden, 1999), p. 29; Biran, *Qaidu*, p. 16; Jackson, "Dissolution," p. 207; Barthold, *Turkestan*, pp. 483–5.



Map 1: The Mongol Empire after the Death of Möngke (1259) (After Biran, Qaidu [Richmond, Surrey: Curzon, 1997], 114).

Peter Jackson, "The Dissolution of the Mongol Empire," Central Asiatic Journal, Vol. 22, no. 2 (1978), pp. 186–244; for a detailed discussion of Möngke's accession and its consequences see also Thomas T. Allsen, Mongol Imperialism (Berkeley, 1987), pp. 18–44; for the struggle between Qubilai and Arigh Böke see Morris Rossabi, Khubilai Khan (Berkeley, 1988), pp. 34–5; Zhou Liangxiao, Hubilie (Jilin, 1986), pp. 46–65.

Thomas T. Allsen, "The Rise of the Mongolian Empire and Mongolian Rule in North China," Alien Regimes and Border States 907–1368, ed. Herbert Franke and Denis Twitchett, vol. 6 of The Cambridge History of China (Cambridge, 1994), p. 394; Biran, Qaidu, p. 17; for more details on the conquests in Möngke's time, see, e.g., Allsen, "The Rise," pp. 403–7.

tunes of their lineages. Taking advantage of the Golden Horde's preoccupation with the Ilkhanate in the early 1260s, the new Chaghadaid
Khan Alghu (r. 1261–66) took over the former Chaghadaid territories and much more, and consolidated his authority in the cities of
Samarkand and Bukhara, formerly under the Qa'an. Switching his
support from Arigh Böke to Qubilai, thereby largely facilitating the
latter's victory, Alghu also gained Qubilai's confirmation to his rule
over the territory stretching from the Altai to the Oxus. <sup>14</sup> Qubilai was
also obliged to confirm Hülegü's rule over the territory "from the
banks of the Oxus up to the gates of Egypt," in order to gain his
support. This confirmation was a major factor in the outbreak of
hostilities between, on one side, Hülegü and his descendants, the
Ilkhans, and, on the other, the Golden Horde, which had its own
claims on parts of Iran. <sup>15</sup>

The Qubilai-Arigh Böke conflict also prompted Ögödei's grandson, Qaidu, to restore the dissolved Ögödeid ulus, whose territories had become, after Qubilai's arrangements, part of Alghu's territory. Unable to cope alone with Alghu, Qaidu turned to the Golden Horde for help. The Golden Horde Khan, Berke (r. 1257–67) was willing to cooperate against their common enemy. With Berke's aid, Qaidu managed to vanquish Alghu once, but was badly defeated in his second attempt. Only Alghu's death in late 1265 or early 1266 prevented Qaidu from paying a heavier price for this defeat.<sup>16</sup>

Alghu's death set the stage for Baraq's activities. Starting his career in Qubilai's camp in China, where his father had been banished in 1251 due to his pro-Ögödeid tendencies, Baraq won Qubilai's favor by performing "praiseworthy services" for him. 17 Sometime

On Alghu see Barthold, *Turkestan*, pp. 488–92; Liu Yingsheng, "Ali Buge zhi luan yu Chahatai hanguo de sazhan," *Xinjiang daxue xuebao*, 1987, pp. 30–34.

Mirkhwänd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 201; W.W. Barthold, Four Studies on the History of Central Asia (Leiden, 1956–1962), vol. 1, pp. 123–4; Biran, Qaidu, p. 22.

'Alā' al-Dīn 'Aṭā'-malik Juwaynī, *Ta'rīkh-i jahān gushā*, ed. M.M. Qazwīnī (London, 1912–37), vol. 3, pp. 64–5; 'Alā' al-Dīn 'Aṭā'-malik Juwaynī, *History of World Conqueror*, trans. J.A. Boyle (Manchester, 1958), vol. 2, pp. 591–2; Rashīd/Blochet, pp. 7, 169, 188; Rashīd/Boyle, pp. 23, 139, 151; Barthold, *Four Studies*, vol. 1, p. 125; Biran, *Qaidu*, p. 24.

after 1263 Baraq received Qubilai's permission to return to Central Asia. 18 According to Rashīd al-Dīn, after Alghu's death Baraq gained from Qubilai a yarligh ('command' or 'order') appointing him as a joint ruler over the Chaghadaid ulus together with Mubārak Shāh (r. 1265-66). Mubārak Shāh was the son of Alghu's widow, Orghina, from her first marriage. She had chosen him to succeed Alghu, apparently without getting the Qa'an's permission.19 By sending Baraq, Qubilai hoped to secure his interests in the Chaghadaid ulus, and to have an ally against Qaidu, who refused to accept his authority.20 When Baraq arrived in Central Asia, and found out that Orghina and Mubārak Shāh had firmly established their power, he kept the decree in his possession a secret, and presented himself as a refugee seeking to return to his original appanage. Mubārak Shāh allowed him to settle on his patrimonial appanage in the Chaghāniyān region, near Tirmidh, on the banks of the Oxus. Baraq gradually won the loyalty of the members of Mubārak Shāh's army, and eventually deposed him, degrading him to the rank of a hunting inspector.21 Rashīd al-Dīn's description is, however, incompatible with Jamāl Qarshī's dates. According to Qarshī, the only Central Asian source for those events, Mubārak Shāh was enthroned in March 1266, and deposed by Baraq in September of the same year.22 If those dates are correct, then Baraq must have arrived in Central Asia before Alghu's death, and indeed Rashīd al-Dīn mentions that he asked Qubilai for permission to leave after the surrender of Arigh Böke, in 1264.23 It is hard to determine whether and when he received Qubilai's decree, which is not mentioned at all in the Yuan shi, the official history of the Yuan dynasty. Since Baraq turned against the

<sup>18</sup> Song Lian, Yuan shi (Beijing, 1976), vol. 1, chap. 5, p. 91.

Rashīd/Blochet, p. 189; Rashīd/Boyle, p. 151; Ibn Fadlallāh al-'Umarī, Das Mongolische Weltreich: al-'Umarī's Darstellung der mongolischen Reiche in seinem Werk Masālik al-abṣār fī mamālik al-amṣār, ed. and trans. K. Lech (Wiesbaden, 1968), p. 2.

Jamāl Qarshī, Mulkhaqāt al-Surāh in V.V. Bartold, Turkestan v epokhu 'mongol'skogo nashestiva (St. Petersburg, 1900), vol. 1 (texts), p. 138.

<sup>23</sup> Rashīd/Blochet, p. 189; Rashīd/Boyle, p. 151.

<sup>15</sup> Rashīd al-Dīn, Jāmi al-tawārīkh, vol. 2, ed. E. Blochet (London and Leiden, 1911), p. 398 (hereafter: Rashīd/Blochet); Rashīd al-Dīn, The Successors of Genghis Khan, trans. J.A. Boyle (New York and London, 1971), pp. 255–6 (hereafter: Rashīd/Boyle); Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat al-ṣafā (Tehran, 1961), vol. 5, p. 196; Biran, Qaidu, p. 23; Jackson, "Dissolution," pp. 208–35.

Rashīd/Blochet, p. 188; Rashīd/Boyle, p. 151; Barthold, Four Studies, vol. 1, p. 125; Biran, Qaidu, p. 24.

Rashīd/Blochet, p. 169; Rashīd/Boyle, pp. 139–40; 'Abdallāh b. Fadlallāh Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf (Tehran, 1959–60), pp. 16, 67; 'Abd Âl Muḥammad Ayātī, Taḥrīr-i ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf (Tehran, 1967), pp. 5, 37; Biran, Qaidu, p. 24. Mubārak Shāh's exact title was muqaddam bārschiyān, the inspector of those who hunt with cheetahs. See Gerhard Doerfer, Türkische und mongolische Elemente im Neupersichen (Wiesbaden, 1963–74), vol. 2, p. 238.

Qa'an's troops immediately after Mubārak Shāh's banishment, it is unlikely that the decree played a decisive role in his attaining the Chaghadaid leadership.<sup>24</sup>

If Qubilai expected Baraq to represent his interests faithfully, he was to be disappointed: Baraq's first action as the Chaghadaid Khan was to defeat Qubilai's garrison in Khotan, in east Turkestan, and plunder the city. Yet in 1268 Baraq received a grant from Qubilai, who probably still hoped to secure his alliance against Qaidu.25 Baraq, however, had his own reasons for confronting Qaidu. First, in trying to revive the dissolved territory of the Ögödeid ulus, Qaidu took over territories that were allocated by Qubilai to Alghu, i.e., the Chaghadaid lineage. More concretely, around 1268, after an abortive attempt to invade Besh Baliq, Qaidu was compelled to retreat westwards, evacuating Almaliq and withdrawing more than a thousand kilometers westwards. Having moved west of Talas, he was getting dangerously close to Baraq.26 Fearing that Qaidu had set his sights on Samarkand and Bukhara, Baraq decided to attack him. Setting an ambush for Qaidu's forces, Baraq inflicted a crushing defeat on Qaidu on the banks of the Jaxartes. Again Qaidu turned for assistance to the Golden Horde, whose new ruler, Möngke Temür (r. 1267-80), perhaps fearing the rise of a second Alghu, sent his uncle, Berkecher, to Qaidu's help with allegedly 50,000 men. With their support Qaidu was able to defeat Baraq near Khojand, on the banks of the Jaxartes, and apparently overran Transoxania.27

The descriptions of this battle in the sources are extremely terse, but the desperate steps that Baraq took in its aftermath imply that he had suffered a serious reverse. Baraq fled to Samarkand and Bukhara, plundered the cities and employed their craftsmen around the clock to prepare new weapons, as he was trying to rebuild his army.28 In the midst of his preparations, Qaidu's messenger, the Ögödeid prince Qipchaq, reached Baraq's camp with a peace proposal. The peace was offered in the name of the unity of the Chinggisid family, yet the sources stress that Qaidu's main motive for conciliation was his fear that the Chaghadaid Khan would trample Bukhara and Samarkand under the hooves of his horses.29 Perhaps aware of his inability to defeat Qaidu on the battlefield, and with the encouragement of his governors among his sedentary subjects, Baraq accepted the proposal. The two princes decided to hold a quriltai (an assembly of princes) in the spring, and this took place either in Talas in the spring of 1269, according to Rashīd al-Dīn, or in Qatwān near Samarkand at an earlier date, around 1267, as implied by Wassāf. 30 It was during this quriltai that Baraq presented his plan to invade Khurāsān.

At the quriltai, Qaidu appealed for unity in the name of the shared heritage of Chinggis Khan. Baraq claimed that, in the name of this same heritage, the Chaghadaids were also entitled to an appanage and pasture lands that others would not threaten. It was decided that two thirds of Transoxania (or its revenues) would be transferred to Baraq and one third to Qaidu and Möngke Temür, whose representative, Berkecher, also took part in the quriltai. The princes decided that henceforth they would dwell only in the mountains and plains and not in the cities; moreover, they would neither make exaggerated demands on their subjects nor graze their cattle in cultivated lands. The sedentary territories were entrusted to Mas'ūd Beg, the experienced administrator who served the Qa'an and afterwards the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Biran, *Qaidu*, pp. 24–5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> *Ibid*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 68; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 38; Song Lian, Yuan shi, Chap. 63, p. 1569. The Chinese text, translated in Emily V. Bretschneider, Medieval Researches from Eastern Asiatic Sources (London, 1988), vol. 2, p. 36, reads Beiting, which in Yuan times usually means Besh Baliq. Cf. Thomas T. Allsen, "The Yuan Dynasty and the Uighurs in Tursan in the 13th century," China among Equals, ed. Morris Rossabi (Berkeley, 1983), p. 254, who, following Abe Takeo, understood Beiting as referring to Qara Qorum. Allsen himself, however, recounts that due to this attack of Qaidu the Uighurs evacuated Besh Baliq, a measure they had no reason to take if Qaidu indeed attacked the much more northerly Qara Qorum. It is true that in Yuan times the name Beiting was also attached to a place in Mongolia in the vicinity of Qara Qorum (see the detailed discussion and references in Michal Biran, "China, Nomads and Islam: The Qara Khitai [Western Liao] Dynasty 1124-1218," [Diss., The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 2000], p. 52, n. 54), but this was quite an unusual use. See the very hesitant discussion of Abe Takeo on the location of Beiting in his Xi Huigu guo shi de yanjiu (Urumqi, 1986), pp. 359-61, in which he does not even mention Qara Qorum.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 107-8; Rashīd al-Dīn, Jami'u't-tawarikh [sic] Compendium

of Chronicles. Trans. Wheeler M. Thackston. Central Asian Sources IV (Cambridge, Mass, 1998-9), p. 521 (Hereafter: Rashid/Thackston).

<sup>28</sup> Wassāf, Tabrīkh-i Wassāf, p. 68; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 39; Biran, Qaidu, p. 25.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Ibid. <sup>30</sup> Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 109–10; Rashid/Thackston, p. 521; Waṣṣāf, Taʾrīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 69; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 39.

Chaghadaids, with the charge to restore Transoxania to prosperity.<sup>31</sup> Summer and winter pastures were assigned to Baraq's troops. Qaidu and Baraq divided the military "thousands" (units of one thousand men)<sup>32</sup> and the artisan workshops—including those devoted to the production of weapons—<sup>33</sup> of Samarkand and Bukhara between the two of them, and this was probably the reward Qaidu demanded for defeating Baraq. Qaidu also stationed forces in the region of Bukhara to prevent Baraq's army from encamping there.

MICHAL BIRAN

Dissatisfied with his expulsion from Bukhara and with his lot in the agreement, Baraq, who could not advance eastward or northward into his new allies' territories, proposed to traverse the Oxus the following spring. With this move, he intended to take possession of some of Abaqa's lands, which he declared to be areas that had been seized by force and not by virtue of inheritance. The Chaghadaids might have had some older grudges against the Toluid Ilkhans, the Khurāsān, with its rich pastures, was clearly the most convenient direction for Baraq's expansion. Qaidu accepted his plan, surmising that whatever the consequences of the battle, it would benefit him: If Abaqa were vanquished, Baraq would be occupied in Khurāsān and much less concerned about Transoxania; were Baraq to be vanquished, so much the better. Similar calculations probably also guided Möngke Temür, who approved of the quriltai's decisions, despite the fact that at that time he was apparently committed to

On Mas'ūd Beg see Thomas T. Allsen, "Mahmud Yalavach," In the Service of the Khan, ed. Igor de Rachewiltz et al. (Wiesbaden, 1993), pp. 128-30.

maintaining a "peace" or "truce" with the Ilkhanate.<sup>37</sup> The qurillai was concluded with the princes exchanging gold cups with one another and addressing each other as anda (blood brothers).<sup>38</sup>

Yet despite the solemn ceremonies, the *quriltai*'s decisions were disregarded soon after it was held. Möngke Temür's army moved towards Transoxania, probably to take possession of the part to which he was entitled by the agreement (if not more). Qaidu sent his troops against Möngke Temür, and thereupon evacuated Bukhara. Baraq, who "saw the arena of his desires empty," rushed to reoccupy Bukhara. Determined to invade Iran, and disregarding the *quriltai*'s other decisions, Baraq resumed the oppression of his subjects. He confiscated the local cattle, prohibited his subjects to ride horses, and killed all the oxen in order to use their skins for shields. Feeding his horses wheat and barley from the sown fields, eight *mann* per horse daily, Baraq soon caused a major depletion of the city's stock of foodstuffs. Only with great difficulty did Mas'ūd Beg manage to convince him not to plunder Samarkand and Bukhara, pointing out that he had to secure his rear in case the Iranian campaign failed. He

#### The Chaghadaid Invasion

Yet Baraq had made preparations for his invasion of Iran even before entering Bukhara. Soon after the quriltai,<sup>42</sup> or perhaps earlier, in the

The units mentioned are probably the forces which were stationed in those cities in Möngke's time and subordinated to the Qa'an or to other Mongol princes. See Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 51.

For the workshops (kārkhānah) see I.P. Petrushevski, "The Socio-Economic Condition of Iran under the Mongold," The Saljuq and Mongol Periods, ed. John A. Boyle, vol. 5 of The Combridge History of Iran (Cambridge, 1968), pp. 512–13.

Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 69; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 39; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 109–10, 113; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 521–2, 523; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, pp. 266–8. For the problems of Ilkhanid legitimacy see Thomas T. Allsen, "Changing Forms of Legitimation in Mongol Iran," Rulers from the Steppes, eds. Gary Seaman and Daniel Marx (Los Angeles, 1991), pp. 223–41.

Though this did not prevent Alghu from cooperating with Hülegü against the Golden Horde. Peter Jackson, "Chaghatayid Dynasty," *Encyclopedia Iranica*, vol. 5 (1992), p. 344.

Mirkhwand, Rawdat, vol. 5, pp. 289, 293; see also Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 70; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 40; Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, pp. 113–14; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523; Rashīd/Blochet, pp. 173, 192; Rashīd/Boyle, pp. 142, 150.

On this "peace" see Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, p. 89.

For a detailed description of the Talas' quriltai see Liu Yingsheng. "Lun Talasi huiyi," Yuanshi luncong, vol. 4 (1992), pp. 256–65; Biran, Qaidu, pp. 26–30. See the later source also for a refutation of the claim that this quriltai was an anti-Toluid alliance that enthroned Qaidu.

<sup>39</sup> Wassāf, Ta'rīkh-i Wassāf, p. 69.

Wassaf, Ta'rīkh-i Wassāf, p. 71; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 39; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 289. See also Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 114; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523, according to which Baraq took over all the animals "from the provinces that belonged to Qubilai Khan and Abaqa khan" (east of the Oxus), not sparing even plow oxen. Unfortunately, mann is a unit of weight which has different values in different places (from 1/485 kg to 128 kg), and therefore the amount of fodder per house cannot be determined. See Muhammad Mu'īn, Farhang-i fārisī (Tehran, 1963), vol. 4, p. 366 for a list of the different weights.

Waṣṣāf, *Taʾn̄kh-i Waṣṣāf*, p. 71; Ayātï, *Taḥrīr*, p. 39; Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 113; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 522; Mīrkhwānd, *Rawḍat*, vol. 5, p. 289.

Thus according to Wassaf's description of the events (Wassaf, Ta'rikh-i Wassaf, p. 69). Rashīd al-Dīn dated Mas'ūd's visit to winter 665/1266-7, i.e. before the

summer of 1268, he sent Mas'ūd Beg to Abaqa, apparently to take care of matters relating to the appanages of Qaidu and Baraq in Iran, as well as to express friendship and loyalty. Mas'ūd's real mission, however, was to spy out the land, especially the roads and the size of Abaqa's armies. After a short stay at the Ilkhanid court, fearing that the real motive of his visit had been discovered, he asked permission to leave. Abaqa regretted this permission soon after he gave it, but Mas'ūd, who had taken the precaution of leaving two horses at each post station through which he had passed, managed to cross the Oxus before Abaqa's troops could reach him. After hearing his envoy's report, Baraq's eagerness to invade Iran grew considerably.

Another step Baraq took in 1267–8 was to contact Tegüder—the Chaghadaid prince who had accompanied Hülegü when the latter went to Iran and had stayed in the Ilkhanate ever since—who was the commander of a tümen, a military unit of nominally 10,000 men. During the mission of Mas'ūd Beg or shortly afterwards, Baraq's envoys presented to Tegüder a special hollow arrow, in the middle of which a letter was hidden. In the letter, Baraq informed Tegüder of his intention to invade Iran and asked for his help, perhaps even proposing to reward Tegüder by appointing him over Khurāsān and Māzandarān after they had vanquished Abaqa. 46

According to Harawī, during the same mission Baraq also informed Abaqa that he planned to arrive in Khurāsān, and promised to be

quriltai, but he claimed that Mas'ūd came as an envoy of Baraq and Qaidu (Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 105; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 519). Since the cooperation between the two began only after the quriltai, it seems much probable that it took place after it. Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 289 gives 660/1261-2 as the date of Mas'ūd's visit, which is certainly too early.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 105; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 519. For the rights and appanages of Chinggisid princes in the different Mongol uluses see Jackson, "From Ulus to Khanate," pp. 12–38.

44 Waşşāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waşşāf, p. 69.

Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 70; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 105; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 519.

his loyal vassal if Abaqa assigned him an appanage in Khurasān.<sup>47</sup> According to Rashid al-Dīn, after this mission Baraq contacted Tübshin, Abaqa's brother and his viceroy in Khurāsān, and demanded that he evacuate the region of Bādghīs up to Ghazna and the Indus River, which he defined as his forefathers' realm. Baraq had a point there: the region of Ghazna and Afghanistan as far as Sind was taken away from the Chaghadaids and annexed to Hülegü's realm only in Möngke's time. Tübshin transmitted the message to Abaqa, who fiercely declined the offer, stating that he had inherited this territory from his father and was ready to defend it. According to Harawī, Abaqa offered Ghazna to Baraq, on the conditions that he remitted half of its income to the Ilkhanate's treasury and that Abaqa still owned half of its artisans. Whatever Abaqa replied, it did not satisfy Baraq, who was determined to fight.

As for Tegüder, after reading Baraq's letter, he asked permission from Abaqa to return to his appanage in Georgia, intending to join Baraq via Darband, crossing through the Golden Horde's domains. He spent enough time there to outrage the Georgians and the Armenians by pillaging villages and caravans and especially by harassing the local Christian clergy. Due to the Armenians' complaints, or to his discovery of Tegüder's correspondence with Baraq, or perhaps as a result of the reports about Baraq's deploying his armies near the Oxus, Abaqa summoned Tegüder to his court several times. When Tegüder refused to comply, Abaqa decided to attack him first, despite Baraq's impending threat. He sent two of his senior commanders, Shiremün and Abatai, to pursue Tegüder with their armies. According to the Mamluk sources, Abaqa also summoned his troops from Anatolia, and both the Mamluk historian al-Yūnīnī and the

<sup>46</sup> Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 111; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 522 (who translated tümen as a division); Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 290; Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, pp. 71-2; Harawī, Herat, p. 306. Baybars al-Manṣūrī, Zubda, fol. 81b estimated Tegüder's forces as 30,000 men; The Georgian chronicle, p. 576 gives him 20,000 men; Grigor of Akanc' (should be Akner), "History of the Nation of Archers," trans. Richard N. Frye and Robert P. Blake, Haward Journal of Asiatic Studies, vol. 12, no. 2 (December, 1949), p. 375, speaks of 40,000 men and lots of wealth. Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz aldurar (Freiburg-Cairo, 1971), vol. 8, p. 140, claims that Baraq asked Tegüder to join him in obeying Möngke Temür, the Khan of the Golden Horde.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>+7</sup> Harawī, *Herat*, pp. 307–8.

J. Aubin, "L'ethnogenese des Qaraunas," Turcica, vol. 1 (1969), p. 79; see also Rashīd/Boyle, p. 139, recording the death of Baraq's grandfather in Bāmyān.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 112; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523.

Harawī, Herat, p. 309; the artisans' main function was making weapons.

 $<sup>^{51}</sup>$  Ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>52</sup> Grigor of Akner, p. 375.

Ibid. Ibn al-Dawädārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, pp. 140-41; al-Yünīnī, Dhayl mir'āt al-zamān (Hyderabad, 1954-61), vol. 2, pp. 410-11; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 112; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 522; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, pp. 290-1.

Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 112; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 522; Waṣṣāf, Taʾrīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 72; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 41; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, pp. 290–1; Al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, pp. 410–11; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 140.

Al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, pp. 410–11; Ibn al-Dawādārī, *Kanz al-durar*, vol. 8,

Armenian chronicler Grigor of Akner mention the participation of

Georgian and Armenian units in the Ilkhanid force.<sup>56</sup> The incident

was therefore a clash of a wider scale than can be gleaned from the

Ilkhanid sources alone. After a bad start, the Ilkhanid troops had

defeated Tegüder and blocked his way to Darband. Tegüder retreated

into the mountains of Georgia, but got lost in the forest. He found

a temporary refuge with the Georgian King David, but soon after-

wards decided to beg for Abaqa's mercy.<sup>57</sup> Alternatively, Tegüder

was brought to Abaqa by Shiremün, who defeated him in a second

battle.<sup>58</sup> According to Rashīd al-Dīn, Tegüder surrendered in April-

May, 1270, but was brought to Abaqa only later,<sup>59</sup> after having been

exiled to the Kibūdān isle in lake Urmīyah, west of Tabriz. After

he defeated Baraq, Abaqa pardoned Tegüder but deprived him of

any real power. Tegüder's commanders, who according to Tegüder

had persuaded him to rebel, were executed, and his troops, divided

into units of tens and hundreds, were incorporated in the Ilkhanid

army. Tegüder was not allowed to hold a bow or to ride a mature

but certainly the engagement of part of Abaqa's troops in the west

facilitated his next moves. Having declined Abaqa's proposals and

being determined to fight, Baraq asked for Qaidu's assistance despite

his blatant breaches of the quriltai's decisions. Qaidu agreed to Baraq's

request, hoping to push him into Abaqa's hands, as the sources

clearly indicate. He sent to his assistance two Ögödeid princes, the

This was not perhaps the help Baraq had anticipated from Tegüder,

aforementioned Qipchaq as well as Chabat, grandson of Güyüg Qa'an, with 2000 horsemen each, and possibly, according to Waṣṣāf, a few more princes. At the same time Qaidu ordered his men to find an excuse and return to him before the battle actually started. Baraq placed Qaidu's troops in his vanguard and crossed the Oxus in late 1269-early 1270 (according to Rashīd al-Dīn) or sometimes between September 1268 and August 1269 (according to Waṣṣāf, Harawī and the Mamluk sources). This was shortly after the quiltai took place, if Rashīd al-Dīn's chronology is reliable, and while Abaqa was still engaged with Tegüder.

Baraq advanced to Marūchaq, between Balkh and Herat, where Tübshin and Arghun Aqa, the administrator of Khurāsān, were waiting for him. After a short battle, the Ilkhanid troops were defeated and chose to retreat to Māzandarān, informing Abaqa of Baraq's advance.65 During this fight, a commander of thousand from Tübshin's army, named \*Sechektu, whose family formerly served Qipchaq's house (i.e., the Ögödeids) defected to Baraq's ranks, and joined Qipchaq, presenting him with fine Arabian horses. Qipchaq's keeping most of those horses to himself instead of offcring all of them to Baraq annoyed Jalayirtai, one of Baraq's senior commanders. This dispute gave Qipchaq the excuse he needed to return to Qaidu. Baraq sent first his brother and then Jalayirtai with 3000 horsemen to pursue him, but they were unable to catch him. Soon afterwards, Chabat also found a chance to withdraw, although he lost most of his troops when he ran into Baraq's son in Bukhara. Baraq protested to Qaidu at the desertion of his forces.66 Qaidu ignored Baraq, but

horse, limitations he dutifully observed. 60

pp. 140–1; Bybars al-Manṣūrī, *Zubda*, fols. 81b–82a; al-ʿΛynī, ʿIqd, fol. 106a; Ibn al-Furāt, Taʾrīkh, vol. 7, p. 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>56</sup> Ibid. Grigor of Akner, p. 377.

The Georgian Chronicle, p. 583; Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 72; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 42; al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, loc. cit.; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, loc. cit. This was either because he had found that the Georgians plotted to kill him, or because his remaining horses were poisoned in the Georgian woods.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 112-3; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523; Harawī, *Herat*, p. 309 retained a different version, according to which Tegüder declined Baraq's offer to support him, and warned him against challenging Abaqa's numerous army.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 112-13, where he said Tegüder was brought to Abaqa in Rabī' al-awwal of that year, i.e., six months earlier. Rashīd must have been referring to Rabī' al-awwal of the following year (October-November, 1270), as indeed given in Thackston's translation (Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523).

Baybars al-Manşūrī, *Zubda, loc. cit.*; al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl, loc. cit.*; Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 113; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523; Mīrkhwānd, *Rawḍat*, vol. 5, p. 291; Waṣṣāf, *Taʾrīkh-i Waṣṣāf*, p. 72; Ayātī, *Taḥrīr*, p. 42.

Wassāf, Ta'rīkh i Wassāf, p. 70; Ayātī, Tahrīr, p. 40; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp.

<sup>113–14;</sup> Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523; Rashīd/Blochet, pp. 173, 192; Rashīd/Boyle, pp. 142, 150; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 293.

Waṣṣāf, Taʾrīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 71; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 40; Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 114; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdal, vol. 5, p. 293; Biran, Qaidu, p. 30.

Harawī, Herat, p. 309.

Harawī, Herat, p. 309.

Waṣṣāf, Ta'nīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 70; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 40; The Georgian Chronicle, p. 582.

According to al-Yūnīnī and Ibn al-Dawādārī, Baraq crossed the Oxus after he had heard that Abaqa caught Tegüder. They understood the whole battle of had heard that Abaqa caught Tegüder affair. al-Yūnūnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 434; Ibn Herat as a by-product of the Tegüder affair. al-Yūnūnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 434; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 148.

ai-Dawadau, nanz ar aana, von o, p. 13. Wassāf, p. 12; Rashīd/Alīzādah, p. 114; Rashīd/Thackston, Wassāf, Ta'nīkh-i Wassāf, p. 72; Rashīd/Alīzādah, p. 114; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523; al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 411. Harawī, Herat, pp. 309-10 claimed that Tübshin and Arghun Aqa retreated without taking the field.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 115-19; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 523-5; Mīrkhwänd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 299; Waṣṣāf, Ta'nīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 71; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 40.

he did send a message to Abaqa, informing him of Qipchaq's return. Subsequently, friendship existed between Qaidu and Abaqa, who called each other ortaq (friend, ally).<sup>67</sup>

Despite the defection of Qaidu's troops, Baraq managed to take over and devastate large parts of Khurāsān, overrunning Badakhshān, Shaburghān, Täliqān and Merv up to the borders of Nishapur, which his forces plundered on May 19, 1270, evacuating it on the following day.68 Baraq continued to oppress his subjects in his newly conquered territories,69 and even planned to plunder Herat. He became convinced, however, that it would be more useful to gain the support of its ruler, Shams al-Dīn Kart, who could help him win the assistance of other Khurāsāni rulers and subjects. Shams al-Dīn Kart, up to then an Ilkhanid vassal, was obliged to arrive at Baraq's camp and accept Baraq's authority. Baraq promised to appoint him as the governor of Khurāsān when Baraq troops continued further westwards. In the meantime, Baraq appropriated money, weapons and cattle from the city, and appointed his tax collectors and inspectors in its markets, workshops and mints. 70 Unimpressed by Baraq's destructive policies, however, Shams al-Dīn Kart managed to return to Herat, allegedly to collect auxiliary troops and provisions for Baraq. Actually, what he did was to take refuge in his castle at Khaysār, south-east of Herat, and wait for the arrival of Abaqa.71

Meanwhile, Baraq allocated pasturelands to his commanders: Bādghīs, the pastureland north of Herat, originally allocated to Qipchaq, was given to either Yasaur or \*Misu-Mengu. Margha'ul, Baraq's leading commander, received the western area of Tūs in the direction of Nishapur, along the Herat river and its tributaries, near the bridge of \*Chaghchaghān. Since he knew the roads, Margha'ul was supposed to lead the vanguard troops in the invasion of Iran. Baraq himself stayed on the rear at Tāliqān. Although he boasted that after Khurāsān he intended to conquer Iraq and Azerbaijan<sup>72</sup>—

<sup>67</sup> Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 117; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 525; see Biran, *Qaidu*, p. 31. Wassaf, Ta'rīkh i Wassaf, p. 71; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 119; Rashīd/Thackston,

p. 526; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 294 (26th Ramadān, 668).

<sup>69</sup> Mirkhwänd, *Rawdat*, vol. 5, p. 294.

<sup>10</sup> Harawi, *Herat*, pp. 314–16; Biran, *Qaidu*, p. 98.

л Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 119-20; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 526; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, pp. 296–7.

<sup>12</sup> Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 119; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 526; Harawī, *Herat*, pp. 304, 312, 313; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, pp. 288, 295, 296.

that is to take over the Ilkhanate--he was in no hurry to do so. In the meantime, he ordered his troops to let their horses graze in the meadows and to ride oxen and donkeys, so his army had been idle for a few weeks when the rumors about Abaqa's arrival began to spread.<sup>73</sup>

### The Coming of Abaqa and the Battle

Abaqa made serious preparations to deal with the Chaghadaid threat. He ordered his chief minister to prepare arrows, bows and lances,74 and sent the commanders to assemble their troops and auxiliary forces.75 Abaqa also ordered his brother, Yoshmut, who was stationed on the border with the Golden Horde, to join him with 10,000 soldiers.76 According to Waṣṣāf, Yoshmut was sent earlier to the aid of Tübshin while Abaqa was engaged with Tegüder. After Baraq occupied Khurāsān, Yoshmut ran into him several times and suffered heavy losses.77

Abaqa left Azerbaijan on April 27, 1270.78 According to Rashīd al-Dīn he ordered his army not to pluck a single stalk from the fields,79 yet the Mamluk sources assert that his troops grazed their horses in the sown fields throughout their way.80 Abaqa's troops went from Azerbaijan to Müghān, Ardabīl, and Sharūyāz, the future site of Sulțāniyya. There Abaqa met a messenger sent to the Ilkhanid court by Qubilai Qa'an. The messenger, who had just managed to escape from captivity in Baraq's hands, reported that Baraq's men were constantly drunk, and that their horses had become useless (qadaq). Hearing this, Abaqa passed on.81 His troops reached Rayy,

75 Ta'rīkh-i shāhī, p. 287.

Mirkhwand, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 299.

77 Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, pp. 72, 73; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, pp. 41, 42.

81 Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 120; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 526-7; Mirkhwānd, Rawdat,

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 119; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 526; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, pp. 288, 295, 296. See also Wassāf, Ta'rīkh-i Wassāf, p. 71.

<sup>74</sup> Mirkhwand, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 299.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 120; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 526 (The 4th of Ramadán, 668).

al-Yünīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, pp. 434, 435; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 148; Mufaddal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, ed. and trans. E. Blochet, Patrologia Orientalis, vols. 12, 14, 20 (Paris, 1919–28), p. 521.

and then Qūmis, where they were accompanied by the troops of Tübshin and Arghun Aqa, whom Baraq had driven away from Khurāsān. They continued to Rādkān and Nishapur, where the Sultan of Kirmān, Ḥajjāj, as well as other auxiliaries (apparently from Yazd) joined them. Together they continued southwards to Bākharz,<sup>82</sup> and were joined near Herat by the Georgian contingents.<sup>83</sup> Throughout the march, Abaqa concealed his presence among the troops, and gave orders to kill whoever divulged it.<sup>84</sup> This policy seems to have worked well, since Baraq doubted the arrival of Abaqa almost until

After having traveled for fifty-five days from Mughān, Abaqa's troops were only at 5 days' distance from Baraq's. Abaqa and his commanders decided that the troops would carry their supplies for the five days' march already cooked in order not to light fire. 86 Then ten out of every hundred horsemen were ordered to move, half a day in advance of the main body, to collect information. 87 This vanguard, estimated at 5000 men, included also the Georgian troops of King David, and was headed by the Ilkhanid commanders Abatai and Shiktur. 88 Abaqa ordered them to kill every Chaghadaid soldier that they found on their way. They did so, until they closed in on Baraq's vanguard. Abaqa's advance troops caught the enemy contingent by surprise at dawn and annihilated it completely. They returned and reported to Abaqa that the distance between their

the beginning of the battle.85

troops and Baraq's was a day and a half's journey. This perhaps corresponds to Rashīd al-Dīn's report that when Abaqa was at Bākharz, he sent a small group of 100 horsemen from Fāryāb, much further to the northeast, to check the enemy's movements. This group clashed with some of Baraq's troops, but managed to overcome them and to report back to Abaqa. O

Abaqa then divided his troops into the standard three divisions—right, left and center—and sent Tübshin to \*Chaghchaghān, on the Herat river, against Baraq's vanguard commander Margha'ul, who headed 3000 men. Tübshin ran into Margha'ul's troops, defeated them, and took back the booty the Chaghadaid army had previously collected from Khurāsān. Margha'ul managed to escape and inform Baraq, who withdrew his forces.<sup>91</sup>

According to Harawī, Baraq heard from Margha'ul about the arrival of the Ilkhanid troops, rode towards them and the battle began. 22 Elsewhere, like Mīrkhwānd, Harawī also cites Rashīd al-Dīn's detailed and beautiful version. Margha'ul indeed reported to Baraq on the arrival of the Ilkhanid army, but (since it was headed by Tübshin), Baraq was not sure whether Abaqa himself had also arrived in Khurāsān. Baraq then received a messenger from Abaqa, who suggested that he take over the area of Ghazna as far as the Indus river, i.e., the area that Baraq had formerly demanded from Tübshin. Baraq considered the offer for a while, but after consulting his commanders finally declined it, and decided to fight, despite the contrary advice of his astrologer. He sent three spies (jawāsis) to find out whether Abaqa had indeed arrived in Khurāsān, as claimed in the message. 23

Abaqa advanced to Herat and sent his commanders to choose the battlefield, which goes to show that he was less than confident that Baraq would accept his peace proposal. While there, they caught

vol. 5, p. 300, where the messenger reported only about Baraq's actions in Khurāsān, not about their being unprepared for battle. al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, p. 434; Ibn al-Dawādārī, *Kanz al-durar*, vol. 8, p. 148; Mufaḍḍal, *al-Nahj al-sadīd*, p. 521 for the road. For *qadaq* see Doerfer, *Neupersischen*, vol. 3, p. 420.

Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, pp. 120-l; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 527; *Tarikh-i shāhī*, p. 288; cf. Mīrkhwānd, *Rawḍat*, vol. 5, p. 300.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>83</sup> The Georgian Chronicle, p. 580.

al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, p. 434; Ibn al-Dawādārī, *Kanz al-durar*, vol. 8, p. 148; Mufaddal, *al-Nahj al-sadīd*, p. 521.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 122; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 528.

al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, p. 434; Ibn al-Dawādāri, *Kanz al-dwar*, vol. 8, p. 148; Mufaddal, *al-Nahj al-sadīd*, p. 521. For the use of this means by earlier Mongol forces see Henry D. Martin, "The Mongol Army," *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, no. 1 (1943), p. 50.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>87</sup> Al-Yūninī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, p. 434; Ibn al-Dawādārī, *Kanz al-durar*, vol. 8, p. 149; Mufaddal, *al-Nahī al-sadīd*, pp. 521–2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>88</sup> Ibid.; The Georgian Chronicle, p. 580; This king David was not the one who gave refuge to Tegüder, but "The Big David" (David Ulugh), Abaqa's ally, who died soon after the battle. See W.E.D. Allen, A History of the Georgian People (London, 1932), pp. 114–18.

al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, loc. cit.; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, loc. cit.; Musaddal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, loc. cit.

Naiy ai-saata, tot. ett.
90 Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 121; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 527.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 121; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 527; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 300. According to Harawī, Herat, p. 317, Margha'ul was stationed in Qarābāgh in Bādghīs; Abaqa's army was sent from Jām, north of Bākharz, and was apparently led by Abaqa. This is also implied by al-Yūnīnī and Ibn al-Dawādārī (loc. cit.), according to whom Abaqa rode by night and suddenly found himself facing Margha'ul.

Harawī, *Herat*, p. 317.
Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 122; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 527–8; Mīrkhwānd, *Rawḍat*, vol. 5, pp. 300–301.

Baraq's spies and brought them back to Abaqa, who decided to manipulate them. After discussing the plot with a trusted Mongol soldier, he sat on his throne, feasting with his commanders, and made sure that the spies, bound to the tent's pillar, could hear him. After a few hours, the man with whom Abaqa conspired arrived, and reported that the Golden Horde had used Abaqa's absence from Azerbaijan to invade his domains in great numbers. "If you don't hasten to return," added the messenger, "you will not find your camps or people." Abaga declared that he would withdraw immediately and suspend the fight with Baraq until after the Qipchaq threat had been eliminated. He ordered his people to return at once to Māzandarān, leaving their tents behind. He then ordered the three spies killed, but made sure that one of them was able to escape. Then he and his troops decamped and moved to the \*Jina (or \*Khanbeh) plain, which was chosen to be the battlefield.

The spy who had managed to escape rushed to report the good news to Baraq. Baraq was overjoyed and the next morning rode towards Abaqa's deserted camps. Even the refusal of the people of Herat, following Abaqa's commands, to open their gates to the Chaghadaid army did not change his good mood. Baraq and his troops crossed the Herat river, pillaged the deserted tents of Abaqa's troops and camped south of Herat. Only the next morning, after riding some twelve kilometres (two farsakhs) did they suddenly see the plain full of Abaqa's army, and understood they had been tricked. Baraq camped next to the Herat river, on the banks of one of its tributaries, the (unidentified) Qara Su (black water).94

Although the use of disinformation was not uncommon among the Ilkhans and their contemporaries,95 this story is almost too convenient to be true. If one accepts it, however, it is worth noticing that to both Abaga and Baraq a large-scale attack of the Golden Horde in spite of the "peace" between it and the Ilkhanate seemed quite plausible. Interestingly, the Mamluk sources also report that

Baraq came to attack the Ilkhanid troops only after he was convinced that Abaqa had already withdrawn. This rumor, according to this version, was spread by a Chaghadaid turncoat, at Abaqa's request. The man, an expert in scapulomancy, escaped to Abaqa's ranks after his divinations revealed Abaqa's future victory. Abaqa was encouraged by this prospect, and promised to give the diviner a village if his prediction turned out to be true. He also asked him to spread the rumor that he (i.e., Abaqa) had retired, thereby encouraging Baraq to attack.96

When he found out that Abaqa's forces were still in Khurāsān, Baraq considered retreat, but was persuaded by his generals to resume fighting, despite his obvious disadvantages, namely Abaqa's choice of the battlefield, the poor condition of Baraq's horses, and the fact that the Ilkhanid army had cut the Chaghadaid access to water.97 Despite all this, Abaqa's victory did not come easily. The battle began in the following day, July 22, 1270,98 near the Qara Su river. Abaqa encouraged his troops, and again divided them into three divisions—left, right and center—whose composition, however, is far from clear.

Most sources agree that the right flank was held by Tübshin and Hindu Noyan,99 who were accompanied also by Samaghar, the Ilkhanid commander of Anatolia. 100 According to the Georgian Chronicle, however, Shiktur, Arghun Aqa and Ias Bugha (the Christian 'Abdallāh of the Arabic and Persian sources) as well as the unidentified \*Togha-Bogha Djini manned the right flank,101 while Yoshmut held the left flank, whose composition is uncertain. According to Rashīd

<sup>97</sup> Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 127; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530.

<sup>99</sup> Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 127; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530; Harawī, Herat, p. 326; Mīrkhwänd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 305.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 127; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530; Baraq indeed camped on the banks of the Qara Su, but the Ilkhanid troops to his west probably blocked his way to the main Herat river.

The Georgian Chronicle, pp. 580-1. According to the Mamluk source "Abdallah the Christian" brought to the battlefield "churches and bells on strong camels." al-Yünīnī, Dhayl, loc. cit.; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, loc. cit.; Mufaclejal, al-Nahj al*sadīd*, p. 524.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>94</sup> Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 124-5; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 528-9; Harawī, *Herat*, pp. 320-23; Mirkhwänd, Rawdat, vol. 5, pp. 303-5; Boyle, "Dynastic and Political," p. 359; for the Qara Su (Mongolian: Black water) see also Wassāf, Ta'rīkh-i Wassāf, p. 73 (Åb-i siyāh, Persian: black water); al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 435; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 149; Mufaddal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, p. 523 (al-nahr al-aswad, Arabic: the black river).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>95</sup> See Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, pp. 139-55; and see his article in this volume: Reuven Amitai, "Whither the Ilkhanid army? Ghazan's first campaign into Syria, 1299–1300," p. 238.

al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 435; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 149; Mufaddal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, pp. 522-3. For Mongol scapulomancy see William of Rubruck, The Mission of Friar William of Rubruck, ed. and trans. P. Jackson, ed. D. Morgan (London, 1990), p. 193 and n. 2.

<sup>98</sup> Harawī, Herat, p. 330; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 130; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 531 (The first of Dhū al-Hijja, 668).

units. 109

al-Dīn, the left flank was huge, as it comprised Arghun Aqa, to

whom the armies of Kirmän under Sultan Hajjāj and of Yazd under

the atabeg Yūsuf Shāh were subordinated, as well as Sonitai, Shiktur,

Buriltai and 'Abdallāh Aqa.102 Harawī mentions only Yoshmut and

Boriltai, Mīrkhwānd records Yosmut and Sonitai Noyan, and Waṣṣāf

only reports the names of Shiktur and Arghun Aqa. 103 The Georgian

Chronicle, according to which most of the aforementioned people

were on the right, cites only Abatai and Shiremun on the left flank. 104

According to Harawi, Mirkhwänd, and the Ta'rīkh-i-shāhī, Arghun

Aqa and the Kirmānid forces were positioned in the center, 105 which,

according to Rashīd al-Dīn, was held by Abatai Noyan and a group

of commanders.106 Abaqa himself was in the center, according to

Mīrkhwānd and Harawī, but was persuaded to stand back, since he

was supposed to be the target of the Chaghadaid attack. 107 For this

same reason, according to the Ta'rīkh-i shāhī, Abaqa chose to be on

the left flank. 108 It seems as if Baraq's forces were also divided, but

there is no reference to the composition of the different Chaghadaid

battle, although all of them agree that at one point Baraq was close

to winning. According to the Ta'rikh-i shāhī, Baraq started the bat-

tle with a dense barrage of arrows, which left many people wounded. 110

This might be identical with Margha'ul's attack, which most sources

described as opening the battle. Margha'ul, leading a thousand men,

The different sources also differ with regard to the course of the

galloped left and right, attacking and retreating and causing great havoc. With this force he managed to overcome 3000 Ilkhanid horsemen and even to attack some of the Ilkhanid commanders with his sword. Eventually, he was hit by an arrow and killed. 111 Margha'ul's death came as a major blow to the Chaghadaid army. Yet Jalayirtai offered to avenge his death, and Baraq, after warning him not to let Abaqa's troops ambush him, allowed him to go. With 4000 horsemen wearing mailcoats, who waged repeated attacks, Jalayirtai was able to defeat either Abaqa's powerful left flank112 or his central division.113 At this point, Abaqa considered retreat,114 but was encouraged by Sonitai, his oldest commander, to continue fighting. Whether Sonitai simply told Abaqa that having 70,000 warriors at his disposal, he could spare 10,000 and still win the day,115 or whether Sonitai stirred the troops, asking them to fight for the sake of Chinggis Khan<sup>116</sup>—a cliche not very well suited to the battle's circumstances or for their patron, Abaqa,117 in any case, Sonitai's intervation was

Abaqa took the field himself, coordinating his left flank, which he sent Yoshmut to redeploy, and the other undamaged parts of his army. According to Rashīd al-Dīn, it took the Ilkhanid forces three assaults before they could defeat Baraq, and Waṣṣāf also mentions repeated Ilkhanid attacks on the Chaghadaids. According to Harawī,

Harawī, Herat, p. 326; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 305; Waṣṣāf, Taʾrīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 74.

The Georgian Chronicle, p. 580.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 127; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530.

Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 74; The Georgian Chronicle, p. 580; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 305. Yet all those references are rather general. It is still possible that the Chaghadaid force was not divided, as implied, for example, by describing Margha'ul attacking "from left and right" (e.g., Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5,

110 Ta'rīkh-i shāhī, p. 289.

p. 306).

P. 75, Maigha in 3 deann occurred at a fast of the property of

p. 74.

113 Harawī, Herat, p. 328; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 306; Ta'rīkh-i shāhī,
p. 290

p. 290.

Rashīd al-Dīn is the only source who plays down Abaqa's desperate situation at this stage. Waṣṣāf, Harawī, Mīrkhwānd and the Mamluk source all suggest that Baraq's forces nearly won the battle.

Harawī, Herat, p. 328; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 307.

Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 74; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 43.

117 Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 129; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 307.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 128; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530.

119 Wassāf, Tarīkh-i Wassāf, p. 75.

crucial to embolden the Ilkhanid army.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 125, 127; Rashīd/Thackson, pp. 527, 530, where the translation is not accurate regarding the affiliation of the Kirmāni and Yazdi troops.

Ta'rīkh-i shāhī, p. 290; Harawī, Herat, p. 326; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 305; Nāṣir al-Dīn Munshī Kirmānī, Simt al-ʿula (Tehran, 1949), p. 47 says that Arghun Aqa was with the Kirmānid troops.

Harawī, Herat, p. 326; Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 155; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 305. He differentiates between the center's vanguard (muqaddima-i qūl), manned by Arghun Aqa and the Kirmāni forces, and the "regular" center.

108 Ta'rīkh-i shāhī, p. 290.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 127–8; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530; Harawī, Herat, p. 327; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 306; al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 435; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 149; Mufaḍḍal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, pp. 523–4. Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 153 claims that Margha'ul was shot by a crossbow. The Persian text of both Rashīd and Harawī has tīr-i charkh. Charkh means crossbow, but also the celestial wheel, fortune and misfortune (F. Steingass, Persian English Dictionary (eighth ed., London and New York, 1988), p. 390), and indeed Thackston translated it as "an arrow of misfortune". According to Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 75, Margha'ul's death occurred at a later stage of the battle.

troops perished in the battle, while Abaqa's losses were smaller, but still significant. 127

#### Results and Political Implications

Baraq's defeat sealed his destiny. In addition to his crushing defeat, soon after he reached Bukhara he was struck by paralysis, and had to be carried in a litter. Some of his commanders chose to join Abaqa, while two princes decided to ride eastward. Baraq sent loyal princes after the deserters, and dispatched his brother, Basar, to ask for Qaidu's assistance, describing his desperate situation and attributing his defeat to the desertion of Qipchaq and Chabat. Qaidu imprisoned the messenger, but informed Baraq that he would send troops to his aid. He then led 20,000 men westward, hoping to take advantage of the Chaghadaid weakness, and to prevent Baraq from joining Qubilai. Baraq learnt about Qaidu's approach only after his

al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, pp. 435-6; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, pp. 149-50; Mufaddal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, p. 525, according to whom Baraq lost more than 40,000 men, and Abaqa either 370, 390 or just "many many troops", part of them due to a disease; Harawī, Herat, pp. 329-30, where Abaqa lost 5000 men and Baraq most of his army.

Abaqa attacked from left and right, but Jalayirtai managed to hold out, pursuing the Ilkhanid troops, killing and wounding them. When, however, he tried to return to Baraq, he could not make it, having been encircled by another division of Abaqa's troops. Due to this ambush, Jalayirtai's troops dispersed. When Baraq saw that the situation was desperate, he entered the battle himself, attacking and retreating for a while before he was hit and left horseless. His desperate position, as he was lying on the ground and crying "I am Baraq, give me a horse," was missed by neither Rashīd al-Dīn nor Harawī. Eventually somebody recognized Baraq, and gave him a horse. "With eyes full of tears and a heart full of ire," Baraq rode all the way back to Bukhara. 121

Thereupon, Abaqa's troops pursued the Chaghadaids for two days. <sup>122</sup> Some of them surrendered to Abaqa, some sought refuge in Herat and were killed by its population, and a few other were burned alive by Abaqa's troops. <sup>123</sup> The only Chaghadaid who was still fighting at this stage was Jalayirtai. He assembled the routed Chaghadaids, drove them eastwards towards the sands of Amuya, near the Oxus, and held his ground till the remnants of the Chaghadaids got away. <sup>124</sup> But while he was able to save some people, most of the Chaghadaids were in dire straits, and many of them drowned when they tried to cross a river, which may have been that of Herat or, more likely, the Oxus. <sup>125</sup> The Mamluk sources also claim that when the fleeing Chaghadaids dismounted, each of them hamstrung his horse with his sword, so that the enemy could not make use of it, unique behaviour which is neither known from other Mongol battles, nor corroborated by any other source. <sup>126</sup> Many or even most of Baraq's

al-Ṭabarī, Ta'nkh al-nusul wa'l-muluk, ed. DeGoege (Leiden, 1879–1901), series 1, pp. 1476, 1614; M. Fishbein, trans, The Victory of Islam, vol. 8 of The History of al-Tabarī (New York, 1997), pp. 19, 156, relating to the years 626-7 and 629-30). A horse was hamstrung when its rider resolved not to attempt escape but to fight to the death, as is documented in a 9th century episode: During the struggle between the Caliph Harūn al-Rashīd's two sons, al-Amīn (r. 809–813) and al-Ma'mūn (r. 813–833), al-Amīn's governor of al-Ahwāz fought a losing battle against a strong contingent of al-Ma'mūn's army. When he realized that everything was lost, he offered the clients (mawālī) to run and save their life and let him fight alone till the bitter end. The loyal clients refused, pointing out that they owe him too much to abandon him at this stage. They therefore dismounted and hamstrung their horses so that they would not be able to change their mind (Tabarī, Ta'nīkh, series 3, p. 853; M. Fishbein, trans. The War between Brothers (New York, 1992), p. 117 quoted in David Ayalon, Enuchs, Caliphs and Sultans: A Study of Power Relations (Jerusalem, 1999), p. 26. I am indebted to Prof. Reuven Amitai for this reference). However, already the late 10th century scholar, Khaṭṭābī (d. 998), commenting on the hamstringing of the horse of Ja'far b. 'Ahd al-Tālib, the Prophet Muḥammad's cousin in the battle of Mu'ta (in 629-30, see the first reference from Ṭabarī above) explained the hamstringing as meant to prevent the enemy from making use of the horses of his defeated enemies. Khattābī also cited several Muslim legal opinions on the subject of hamstringing. Abū Sulaymān Khaṭṭābī, Ma'ālim al-sunan (Allepo, 1933), vol. 2, pp. 253-4; partially cited in 'Azīm Ābādī, al-'Awn al-ma'būd (Medina, 1968), vol. 8, p. 240; I am indebted to Prof. Michael Lecker and to Ms. Vardit Tokatli for those references.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 129; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 530-1; Harawī, *Herat*, p. 330.

<sup>121</sup> Ibid.; Waṣṣāf, Ta'nīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 75; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 307.

The Georgian Chronicle, p. 580.

Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, pp. 130-1; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 531; Harawī, *Herat*, p. 329.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 129-30; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 531. Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 155 describes Jalayirtai's actions as a second battle, in which the Chaghadaids won.

al-Yünīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, pp. 435-6; Ibn al-Dawādārī, *Kanz al-durar*, vol. 8, pp. 149-50; Mufaddal, *al-Nahj al-sadīd*, p. 525, according to whom there was a large-scale drowning; Harawī, *Herat*, pp. 329-30.

al-Yünīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, pp. 435-6; Ibn al-Dawādārī, *Kanz al-durar*, vol. 8, pp. 149-50; Mufaddal, *al-Nahj al-sadīd*, p. 525. Hamstringing horses was, however, known in pre-Islamic Arabia and in the early Islamic period (see e.g. Muḥammad b. Jarīr

princes had already caught the rebels. He tried to convince Qaidu

to go back, to no avail. Qaidu's troops surrounded Baraq's camp,

planning to attack him on the following day. In the morning, how-

ever, they discovered that Baraq had passed away during the night.

Most of Baraq's troops, estimated as 30,000 men, chose to submit to

Qaidu, who granted them pasturelands and shares of Baraq's wealth. 128

According to Wassāf's alternative version, most of Baraq's troops

chose to enter into Qaidu's service, while Baraq was still alive. Baraq

was then obliged to seek refuge with Qaidu, who poisoned him. 129

was enthroned as khan at Talas. 130 Apart from being the Ögödeid

khan, Qaidu was also empowered to appoint the head of the

Chaghadaid ulus. In Central Asia, the battle of Herat thus led to

the accession of Qaidu and to the loss of independence of the

Chaghadaid ulus, which became subordinate to Qaidu. 131 This did

not happen without opposition: Baraq's and Alghu's sons rebelled

against Qaidu, and so also did the newly appointed head of the

Chaghadaids, Negübei. Yet after being defeated by Abaqa, and hav-

ing their troops divided between Abaqa's and Qubilai's army, the

Chaghadaids could not challenge Qaidu for long. Du'a, Baraq's son,

acknowledged this fact and chose to ally himself with Qaidu. In

1282, Qaidu appointed him head of the Chaghadaid ulus, and their

cooperation, which lasted till Qaidu's death (1301), enabled Du'a to

organize the Chaghadaid ulus and regain its independence after

Qaidu's death. 132 Yet even before Du'a's accession, from the mid

1270s, Qaidu, thanks to the battle's outcome, was able to assert him-

self as the ruler of the independent Mongol khanate in Central

Asia. 133 Another important advantage that Qaidu gained from Baraq's

defeat was the alliance of Mas'ūd Beg, who after the battle moved

into Qaidu's service. The cooperation between the two lasted till

Mas'ūd's death (1289), after which his sons continued to serve Qaidu.

Baraq died in August 1271, and less than a month later Qaidu

Together they presided over the gradual recovery of Qaidu's sedentary territories. 134

Abaqa's victory confirmed Ilkhanid control over Khuräsän, and for the remaining years of his rule, his castern frontier remained quiet. Later on the Ilkhanids had to cope with local raids by Qaidu, the Chaghadaids, and the Qara'unas against Khurāsān and Herat, but apart from the invasions during Oljeitü's reign, the eastern border of Iran remained safe until the rise of Temür Lang (1370-1405). 135 Abaqa also took several steps that were meant to secure his eastern border. He was dissuaded from his original intention of destroying the disloyal city of Herat, but its ruler, Shams al-Dīn Kart, who had flirted with Baraq, remained suspect in Abaqa's eyes. In 1275, after several delays, Shams al-Dīn Kart was persuaded to go to Tabriz, the Ilkhanid capital, where he was detained and finally poisoned in 1278.136 Even before that, a Chaghadaid appointee, who coveted Bukhara, reported to Abaqa that Qaidu and the Chaghadaids were fighting in the city, and claimed, apparently from his own imagination, that they were planning to cross the Oxus again. Abaqa sent his troops to invade and destroy Bukhara, so that nobody would wish to fight for it again. 137 The Ilkhanid force, which allegedly came to avenge the harm inflicted by Baraq on Khurāsān, reached Bukhara on January 29, 1273. Although they did not find in the city any Chaghadaid or Ögödeid troops, Abaqa's troops burned and pillaged for a week, reducing the city to ashes. 138 After this week, however, Abaqa's troops evacuated Bukhara. Despite their victory, the Ilkhanids did not try to expand beyond the Oxus, which remained their eastern border. <sup>139</sup>

Another step that Abaqa took was to entrust the region of Ghazna to those Chaghadaids who joined his troops after the battle. This step was meant to curb the power of the Qara'unas, who inhabited

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 131-8; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 531-5; Rashīd/Boyle, p. 153; Biran, *Qaidu*, pp. 31-2.

Wassāf, Ta'rīkh-i Wassāf, p. 76; Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 44; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 309; Biran, Qaidu, p. 32.

Qarshī, Mulkhaqāt, p. 138; Biran, Qaidu, p. 32.

<sup>131</sup> Ibid.; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 130.

For the relationship between Du'a, Qaidu and Qaidu's sons see Biran, Qaidu, Chs. 2, 3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>133</sup> Biran, *Qaidu*, p. 33.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>134</sup> Biran, *Qaidu*, p. 32.

<sup>135</sup> Boyle, "Dynastic and Political," p. 360.

Peter Jackson, "Abaqa", Encyclopedia Iranica, vol. 1 (1985), p. 62, and see Harawi, Herat, pp. 330ff. for a detailed description of those events.

Waṣṣāf, Taʾnkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 77; Ayātī, Taḥnīr, p. 45; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, pp. 311–12.; Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, pp. 140-2; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 536-7.

pp. 511-12., Rasing Mazadan, pp. 110-2, Reading Sp. 110-2, Reading Sp. 110-2, Reading Sp. 138 Biran, Qaidu, p. 33. Sacked again in 1276 by Alghu's sons, Bukhara remained in ruins till 1282, when Qaidu sent Mas'üd Beg to restore it.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>139</sup> Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 152.

For the Qara'unas, a group of Mongols who ruled over most of modern

this area, and to check further Chaghadaid pressure on Khurāsān. Abaga, who had formerly offered this region to Baraq, after the battle appointed Mubārak Shāh, the former head of the Chaghadaids, to command the Qara'unid army of Ghazna. It is unclear to what extent the "Ilkhanid" Chaghadaids managed to rule the Qara'unas effectively. In the late 1290s, however, Du'a's troops took over the Qara'unas. 141

Abaqa's victory cost him already, however, on his western front, against the Mamluks. Being busy in the north and east in 1268-70, Abaga did not send troops to the help of Antioch, an Ilkhanid vassal state that in 1268 passed into the hands of the Mamluk Sultan Baybars. The Ilkhanid troops of Anatolia were by then busy with Tegüder in Georgia. For the same reason Abaqa also did not take steps to prevent Baybars's advance against the Crusaders in 1269. 142 Moreover, Abaqa's involvement in Herat, and his attention to the eastern front, probably contributed to his failure to implement a real joint campaign with the Franks against the Mamluks. When the crusade of Edward, shortly to become Edward I of England, reached Acre in spring 1271, Abaqa sent to his help only a small and ineffective force that raided north Syria in October 1270, only to withdraw at the first indications of a Mamluk approach. 143 Taking all this into account, it is clear why the Mamluk sources chose to describe the battle of Herat.

What was the reaction of the other Mongol khanates to the battle's result? Soon after the battle, Qubilai's emissaries arrived in Marāgha to enthrone Abaqa,144 reconfirming his rule over Iran, and demonstrating at least the nominal authority of the Qa'an there. Although he was mostly preoccupied in 1268-73 with the siege of Xianyang, in Central China, Qubilai was also aware of Qaidu's

Afghanistan and attempted to remain independent of both the Ilkhans and the Chaghadaids see Aubin, "Qara'unas," passim; Shimo, "The Qara'unas in the Historical Materials of the Ilkhanate," Memoires of the Research Department of the Toyo Bunko, vol. 35 (1977), Passim; Jackson, "Dissolution," pp. 242ff.

Aubin, "Qara'unas," pp. 83-4; Jackson, "Dissolution," p. 242; Peter Jackson, "Chaghatayid Dynasty," Encyclopedia Iranica, vol. 5 (1992), p. 345.

<sup>142</sup> Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, pp. 119-20.

144 Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 138-9; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 535.

strengthening and took precautions. Already in 1271 he sent a coalition of princes headed by his fourth son Nomuqan to Almaliq, in the uper Ili valley, to guard against Qaidu. The serious threat this coalition posed to Qaidu, however, collapsed in the middle of the 1270s, when the princes rebelled against Nomuqan and some of them even found their way into Qaidu's ranks.145 Throughout his rule, Qubilai was unable to enforce his authority over the Central Asian Mongols. 146

Möngke Temür's messengers also came to greet Abaqa's victory. 147 Although he approved of Baraq's plan to conquer Khurāsān, and despite his diplomatic efforts to forge an alliance with the far away Mamluks against Abaqa, when the latter was faced by a real threat, that of Baraq, Möngke Temür remained neutral, choosing only to congratulate Abaqa after his victory. This was not only because in 1270 much of Möngke Temür's attention was concentrated on the troubles in Novgorod, the northern outlet of the Golden Horde trade,148 but also because Baraq was no less a threat to Möngke Temür than Abaqa himself. The war, resulting in the curbing of the Chaghadaid force and the temporarily weakening of the likhans, certainly suited Möngke Temür's interests. Nor did he have a reason to be worried by Qaidu's accession. Despite the tension between them after the Talas quriltai, Qaidu remained Möngke Temür's protégé at least till the mid-1270s.149 Soon after his greetings to Abaqa, however, Möngke Temür renewed his attempts to ally with the Mamluks against the Ilkhans, though these never materialized. 150

The battle of Herat was therefore a major event that shaped the borders of the emerging independent Mongol Khanates and their international relations. Let us now turn to our analysis of the reasons for Abaqa's victory.

146 See Biran, *Qaidu*, pp. 37-57.

Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, pp. 98-9; L. Lockhart, "The Relations between Edward I and Edward II of England and the Mongol Ilkhans of Persia," Iran, vol. 6 (1968), p. 24; John A. Boyle, "The Ilkhans of Persia and the Princes of Europe," Central Asiatic Journal, vol. 20, no. 1 (1976), pp. 30-1.

<sup>145</sup> For Nomuqan and the princes' rebellion see Biran, Qaidu, pp. 37-41.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 139; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 535; Mīrkhwand, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 308.

Bartold Spuler, Die goldene Horde (Wiesbaden, 1965), p. 59; George Vernadsky, The Mongols and Russia (New Haven, 1953), pp. 170-1.

<sup>149</sup> Biran, *Qaidu*, pp. 63-4.

<sup>150</sup> Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, pp. 89-91.

#### The Military Implications: Why did Abaqa win?

A.P. Martinez has claimed that "the battle of Herat was decided by the Ilkhanid heavy cavalry," and considers the Ilkhanids' better weaponry, lances mostly, that allegedly distinguished them from the Chaghadaid "light" archers, as the main reason for their victory. 151 This conclusion, however, can be disputed. 152

The Mongol army had used lances already at the time of Chinggis Khan<sup>153</sup> and certainly in the early 1240s, when Carpini and Thomas of Spalato described it.<sup>154</sup> Therefore, being armed with lances does not necessarily justify the classification of its users as "heavy cavalry." Moreover, Baraq's troops also carried lances during the battle of Herat, and their use continued to be common later on among Central Asian Mongols. 155 However, Baraq's insistence on making weapons around the clock in Bukhara, his confiscation of cattle for their skins as well as plundering weapons before and during the battle<sup>156</sup> indeed suggest that his armament was inferior to that of Abaqa, at least in quantity. This makes sense: after all Abaga had a much larger and better organized kingdom at his disposal than Baraq had during his short rule in Transoxania. Yet I doubt whether the difference in the armament of the two sides was that great, or whether it was this alone that decided the battle. A close reading of the different sources suggests that the two armies used a number of weapons besides bows and arrows. Abaqa's forces indeed had lances, knives, javelins, and swords, 157 but Baraq's troops were also equipped

with swords, lances, and daggers. 158 Four thousand of them also wore mailcoats (jawshan-i pūsh). 159 Martinez concluds that less than five percent of the Chaghadaid force used armor. 160 I do not think that the numbers given in the sources (see below) enable one to calculate percentages with any hope of accuracy. Yet it is no less significant that, to the best of our knowledge, none of Abaqa's troops wore armor. Indeed, the 4000 armored Chaghadaid warriors managed to break up an important Ilkhanid division.

Despite all that, however, it is clear that the main weapon was still bows and arrows, and this is true for both sides. The barrage of arrows from Baraq's troops is well attested, and the Chaghadaids repeated attacks (or attacks and retreats) also suggest the use of arrows and not of hand to hand combat. The Ilkhanid forces, however, also made good use of arrows, with which, for example, they managed to kill Margha'ul, and with which Tübshin and others damaged the Chaghadaids in the later stages of the battle. 161 Only at the end of the battle did the Ilkhanid army turn to hand to hand combat, slaying the Chaghdaids with swords, as had also been common among the Mongols at the time of Chinggis Khan. 162 During the battle, the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>151</sup> Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 155.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>152</sup> In general, cf. Martinez's evaluations of the Ilkhanid army cited above with those of J.M. Smith (J.M. Smith, "'Ayn Jālūt: Mamluk Success or Mongol Failure?" Harvard Journal of Asiatic Studies, vol. 44, no. 2 [December, 1984], pp. 307-345; J.M. Smith, "Mongol Society and Military in the Middle East: Antecedents and Adaptations," War and Society in the Eastern Mediterranean, ed. Y. Lev [Leiden, 1997], pp. 249-266) and R. Amitai-Preiss (Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, esp. Ch. 10; Amitai, "Whither the Ilkhanid army," p. 253ff.).

See e.g., Juwaynī, Jahān gushā, vol. 1, p. 107; Juwaynī, World Conqueror, vol. 1, p. 134 (Chinggis Khan's army using lances against Jalāl al-Dīn); Robert W. Reid, "Mongolian Weaponry in The Secret History of the Mongols," Mongolian Studies, vol. 15 (1992), pp. 88-9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>154</sup> Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, p. 216; Reid, "Weaponry," pp. 88–9. Kirmānī, Simt al-'ulā, p. 47; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 287; Biran, Qaidu,

pp. 86-7. <sup>156</sup> Ta'rīkh-i shāhī, p. 290; Harawī, Herat, p. 314; Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 68;

Ayātī, Taḥrīr, p. 38.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>157</sup> Wassāf, *Ta'rīkh-i Wassāf*, pp. 74, 75; Harawī, *Herat*, pp. 326, 328, 329; Mīrkh-

wand, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 299; The Georgian Chronicle, p. 582; al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2,

Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 71; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, pp. p. 435. 148–9; al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 435; Kirmānī, Simt al-ulā, p. 47; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 293. Amitai-Preiss (Mongols and Mamluks, p. 255) had questioned the reliability of Wassāf's descriptions of arms, defining them as mainly poetical. There might be some truth in this accusation (though Wassaf certainly demonstrates a rich collection of metaphors describing bows and arrows), but the mentioning of diverse weapons in the different sources suggests that at least some of them were real, not imaginative.

Harawī, Herat, p. 328. For later examples of Chaghadaid forces using armor see Harawī, Herat, p. 630; Ibn Baṭṭūṭa, Voyages d'Ibn Baṭṭūṭa, ed. and trans. C. Defremery and B.R. Sanguinetti (Paris, 1969), p. 49; Ibn Battūta, The Travels of Ibn Battuta, trans. Hamilton A.R. Gibb (Cambridge, 1958-1994), vol. 3, p. 566.

<sup>160</sup> Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 155. Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 127, 131; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 530, 531; Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Wassāf, pp. 74, 75; Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 307; Harawī, Herat, p. 326; al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, p. 435; Ibn al-Dawādārī, *Kanz al-durar*, vol. 8, p. 149 and see also the poetic description of the battles in which bows and arrows have a central position. Waṣṣāf, Tasīrīkh-i Waṣṣāf, pp. 74, 75; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 305; Harawī, Herat, pp. 328-9.

al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 435; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 149; Mufaddal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, p. 524; for earlier examples from Chinggis Khan's time see, e.g., Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 44, 243; Bar Hebraeus, The Chronography of Gregory Abū 'l-Faraj, ed. and trans. E.A.W. Budge (London, 1932), vol. I, p. 376; also Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, p. 223.

or 100,000<sup>170</sup>—correspond with contemporary assessments of the Ilkhanid troops sent against the Mamluks,171 and are therefore quite plausible. It is much harder to accept the numbers given for Baraq's troops: 90,000,172 100,000173 or even 150,000.174 The Mamluk sources do not emphasize Baraq's numerical superiority, although they report 40,000 Chaghadaid dead. 175 According to the Kirmānid chronicle, however, Baraq crossed the Oxus with 20,000 horsemen, while Abaqa's troops (even without the Kirmānid auxiliaries) are estimated at 100,000.176 One wonders how Baraq, ruling only in Transoxania, deserted by Qaidu's troops, and unsupported by any auxiliary troops, 177 could bring to the field more troops than Abaqa. Estimates of the whole Central Asian armies (i.e., not only of Transoxania) are usually much smaller in comparison to the estimates of the other Mongol khanates. Marco Polo, for example, attributed 100,000 horsemen to Qaidu's army (including the Chaghadaid troops) and 300,000 horsemen to the Ilkhanate.178 One can also mention that except for Harawi's generous descriptions, the actual fighting forces mentioned in the sources do not exceed a few thousands. 179 Moreover, the desertion of Qipchaq and Chabat with their 4000 horsemen was taken

Ilkhanids also conducted repeated attacks in order to break the Chaghadaids' force. More important, their final victory was achieved after they had managed to drag Jalayirtai into an ambush, and this testifies to their mobility, not to their "heavy" qualities.

Martinez claimed that the "heavier" quality of the Ilkhanid army caused Abaqa to chose as the battlefield "an agricultural area where irrigation channels restricted cavalry movements." In fact, Harawī states (immediately after the lines cited by Martinez) that due to the multiple quantities of buildings and irrigation canals the "agricultural" area was found unsuitable by the Ilkhanid commanders, who therefore elected an open plain as the battlefield,164 a fact which is clearly confirmed by Rashid al-Din. 165 Apparently what is most striking about this battle of Herat, when compared to battles fought in the region in the pre-Mongol period—mainly among the Khwārazmians and the Ghūrids—or even to later Mongol clashes in the region, is the complete absence of siege warfare and hydraulic warfare (i.e. flooding the river in the face of the enemy). 166 This is not only because the issue at stake in 1270 was not the control of Herat but of Khurāsān, but also because none of the Mongol troops seemed to have mastered those techniques, and they therefore preferred to fight outside the city.

If not exclusively because of his army's better weaponry, why did Abaqa win? This was due to a combination of several factors, which I shall examine here.

Size: I certainly agree with Martinez that both forces struck contemporary observers as unusually large, and they probably were. At least the lowest estimates of Abaqa's troops—50,000<sup>168</sup> 70,000<sup>169</sup>

170 Ta'rīkh-i shāhī, p. 287.

as a great blow to the Chaghadaid troops. 180 The only group that

might have fought side by side with Baraq was the Qara'unas, since

Rashīd al-Dīn maintains that the man who eventually gave Baraq

a horse after his fall was Sali, the Qara'unas.181 Yet it is hard to

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>163</sup> Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," pp. 155-6.

Harawī, Herat, pp. 319-20; Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, p. 225.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 123, 125; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 528, 529; Boyle, "Dynastic and Political History," p. 360.

See, e.g., Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil fī al-ta'rīkh (Beirut, 1966), vol. 12, pp. 190, 393; Harawī, Herat, p. 406. Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 155, claimed that one unit of Abaqa's troops was equipped with arbalests, but I did not find any reference to that.

Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 154; see, e.g., Harawī, *Herat*, pp. 309, 317, 325; Mīrkhwānd, *Rawḍat*, vol. 5, pp. 293, 304. Most of those descriptions refer to Abaqa's troops.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>168</sup> al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, p. 435; Harawī, *Herat*, p. 324.

Harawī, Herat, p. 326, cited in Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 154.

Amitai-Preiss, *Ilkanid and Mamluks*, pp. 228 (60,000); 189 (50,000); Amitai, "Whither the Ilkhanid army," pp. 234–5 (65,000; 70,000; 90,000; 100,000).

Harawī, Herat, p. 329.
Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 71; Harawī, Herat, pp. 313, 321, 329; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, p. 293.

Harawī, Herat, p. 310.

175 al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 436; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 150; Mufaddal, al-Nahj al-sadīd, p. 525.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>176</sup> Ta'nīkh-i shāhī, pp. 287-8.

Shams al-Dīn Kart indeed went to Herat to enlist such troops, but he never came back. Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 120.

Polo, Marco Polo, trans. Yule, vol. 2, pp. 457–8; Biran, Qaidu, p. 85.

179 See, e.g., Mīrkhwānd, Rawdat, vol. 5, p. 293; Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 115;
Rashīd/Thackston, p. 524; al-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 435; Harawī, Herat, p. 329;
cf. Harawī, Herat, pp. 310–11.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 131-2; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 532.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 131; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 532, though previously this Sali is defined as one of Baraq's bodyguards (kejīktānān), Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 129; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 531; Harawī, Herat, p. 330 also described him only as a

likely.

assert how many of the Qara'unas, if any, indeed came to fight for

Baraq, and since they were not punished by Abaqa after the battle

(unlike others among Baraq's collaborators, such as Shams al-Dīn

Kart) their presence in Baraq's ranks was probably not massive. 182

The Ilkhanid troops, on the other hand, included most of Abaqa's

senior commanders, whose troops arrived not only from Khurāsān

but also from Azerbaijan, Darband and Anatolia and were rein-

forced by the auxiliary troops of Kirmān, Yazd and Georgia. 183 It

is hard to determine the weight of these auxiliary troops, but Martinez

certainly overemphasizes the role of the Georgian contingent, which

the Ilkhanid sources do not even mention. 184 One should bear in

mind that enlarging the numbers of the defeated enemy could be a

device used by Ilkhanid chroniclers to magnify Abaqa's victory, and

that we have no pro Chaghadaid sources to balance this tendency.

On the basis of our sources it is hard to claim unequivocally that

Baraq's forces were numerically inferior, but this seems to have been

Horses: Rashīd as-Dīn stresses the unreadiness of Baraq's horses as

a main reason for his defeat. 185 Baraq's continuous compalints about

his shortage of pasture lands, his confiscatous of horses in Transoxania

and Herat, his feeding the horses with grain at the expenses of the

city dwellers, and his ordering his troops in Khurasan to ride don-

keys and asses till the horse got fat, 186 all suggest that he had some

difficulties with his supply and preparation of horses, though he cer-

Two deferences suggest that Abaqa's troops also used "local" Arabian horses, stronger than the regular Mongol ponies. Before the battle Baraq impudently asked Abaqa for tafchaq horses, a term usually referring to Arabian or Turkmenian horses; 187 and when \*Sechektu defected to Qipchaq, he brought a present of fine Arabian horses, which became a bone of contention between Qipchaq and Jalayirtai. 188 It is however impossible to determine how widespread was the use of such horses among Abaqa's troops or how significant it was. My impression is that it was more a matter of prestige than a true military asset.

Intelligence and knowledge of the terrain: Throughout the battle the two sides ascribed great importance to acquiring information on the enemy and on the terrain, through spies, scouts or diplomatic messengers, while at the same time trying to keep this information from reaching the enemy through subterfuge and disinformation. Abaqa had a certain advantage in this respect, not only because he caught the three spies (if he did), but mostly because his troops knew the terrain much better than the Chaghadaids. This enabled them to choose the battlefield and to block the Chaghadaid access to water. 189

Leadership and discipline: The importance of personal leadership is stressed throughout the descriptions of the battle: Abaqa's presence or absence was a major question for the Chaghadaids, and he himself was their chief target during the battle. Both Abaqa and Baraq took the field themselves rather late, when they were either winning (in Abaqa's case) or desperate (in the case of Baraq). Many reports stress the boldness of certain commanders on both sides: Abatai and Tübshin on the Ilkhanid side, Margha'ul and Jalayirtai on that of the Chaghadaids. Indeed, the killing of Margha'ul greatly harmed the Chaghadaids both practically and in terms of morale, and Baraq described it as a major reason for his defeat. Moreover, Abaqa's commanders seemed to have had firmer control over their troops: Yoshmut managed to redeploy his troops after the Chaghadaids

182 Cf. Shimo, "Qaraunas," 140, where he claimed that most of the Qaraunas

tainly attempted to overcome it.

fought with Abaqa.

<sup>1</sup> Martinez, "Il-Xanid Army," p. 156; see Amitai-Preiss, Mongols and Mamluks, p. 225.

<sup>\*</sup> Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, pp. 122, 127; Rashīd/Thackston, pp. 377, 527, 530; Harawī, *Herat*, p. 326.

<sup>188</sup> See n. 66 above.

191 Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 133-5.

Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 127; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530.

Mongol, one of Baraq's intimates. See also Aubin, "Qara'unas," 82 (based on Harawī, Herat, pp. 311-12, but not very convincing).

Rashīd/ Alīzādah, p. 127; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 530; Mīrkhwānd, Rawḍat, vol. 5, pp. 305, 306, 317; The Georgian Chronicle, pp. 580–81. Rashīd mentioned 10 commanders of Abaqa, while the Georgian chronicle mentions 8; Harawī, Herat, p. 326 mentions 6; Waṣṣāf, Ta'rīkh-i Waṣṣāf, p. 73 mentions 7 princes, 3 commanders and 6 "commanders of Argun Aqa"; the Mamluk sources mention 5 commanders (Λl-Yūnīnī, Dhayl, vol. 2, p. 435; Ibn al-Dawādārī, Kanz al-durar, vol. 8, p. 150).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>186</sup> Mīrkhwānd, *Rawḍat*, vol. 5, p. 298; Rashīd/ʿAlīzādah, p. 118; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 526.

Rashīd al-Dīn, Jāmi al-tawārikh, ed. B. Karīmī (Tehran, 1959), vol. 1, p. 49; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 38; Doerfer, Neupersischen, vol. 2, p. 601.

See, e.g., al-Yūnīnī, *Dhayl*, vol. 2, p. 435; *The Georgian Chronicle*, pp. 581-2; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 129-30; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 531.

of the rights of the Qa'an in the sedentary territories, and of the rights of absentee princes in different places. 195

Another tendency, already present in Möngke's time but reinforced when the dissolution of the empire hampered the Mongols' ability to recruit and mobilize troops throughout the empire, was the increase in the importance of the sedentary territories. Baraq and Qaidu fought mainly over Bukhara and Samarkand and their workshops and troops, and Abaqa chose to reduce Bukhara to ashes. In this respect Baraq, who declared he would take over Iraq and Azerbaijan, and was therefore willing to plunder Transoxania and Khurāsān, perhaps showed some remnant of the old Mongol spirit. His contemporaries understood that the name of the game was now the consolidation of rule in the existing territories, rather than conquering new ones. 196

In contrast with their battles against non-Mongol troops, when fighting against each other the Mongols could not use their imperial ideology to legitimize their actions, and the general theme of the Chinggisid lineage was not sufficient to secure Mongol loyalty. In shaping the new borders of the khanates, the Mongols tried to find allies along lineage lines (as in the cases of Tegüder and \*Sechektu). Yet realpolitik, which temporarily connected, for example, Qaidu and Abaqa, was no less useful as a basis for alliance.

The battle of Herat was thus an important stage in defining the borders of the independent khanates. The Central Asian Mongols, however, remained a thorn in the side of the other Mongol khanates. This is not only because they lost the battle, but because two imperial lineages, the Chaghadaids and the Ögödeids, were stuck together there, and their struggles stirred trouble even beyond their own territories. 197 Moreover, the relatively poor territory of Central Asia was squeezed between the other Mongol khanates, with no convenient scope for expansion other than at the expense of the neighboring khanates. Even as a way of keeping their troops busy, the Central Asian Mongols were likely to harass the other khanates. Yet they

harmed the Ilkhanid flank, while Jalayirtai was unable to rearrange his dissolving troops in a similar situation. The desertion of Qaidu's troops, of which Abaqa was informed in good time, also contributed to his victory, and in turn undermined Baraq's leadership. 192

The Ilkhanids won the battle not because they employed heavy cavalry, but because their troops were light, mobile cavalry, just like the Chaghadaids. Yet they had a somewhat better supply of horses and weaponry, had better knowledge of the terrain of the battle and were better organized under a more capable leadership. In fact, it was exactly the Ilkhanid mobility that allowed the westernmost side to defeat its eastern rival, in contrast to former battles in the regions, such as the battle of Dandānqān (1040), the battle of Qatwān (1141), or the battle of Andkhūd (1204), in which the more mobile, eastern party won. 193

How was the battle of Herat different from Mongol battles fought against non-Mongol troops? In terms of tactics and armament, the battle of Herat had a lot in common with former Mongol encounters with non-Mongol rivals.<sup>194</sup> The main difference, however, is that in the battle of Herat both sides used the same "Mongol" methods. They were therefore more or less evenly matched, and the fight was difficult for both of them.

Moreover, unlike most of the former Mongol battles, this battle did not end in conquest. Not only did Baraq not conquer Khurāsān, but Abaqa also evacuated Bukhara soon after his invasion, retreating back to the western side of the Oxus. The battle of Herat, like the battles between the Ilkhanate and the Golden Horde, was a battle fought in order to determine the borders of the separate Mongol khanates that gradually emerged after Qubilai's accession. The enormous size of the empire at the end of Möngke's reign, Qubilai's weakness due to his struggle with his brother, and his transferring the Mongol capital to north China—all these developments contributed to a situation in which the major Chinggisid lineages were trying to assert their local authority. This was done at the expense

<sup>192</sup> E.g., Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 134-5.

For Dandānqān see David O. Morgan, *Medieval Persia* (London, 1998), pp. 22, 26; for Qatwān and Andkhūd see Biran, "China, Nomads and Islam," Chs. 1, 3, 5.

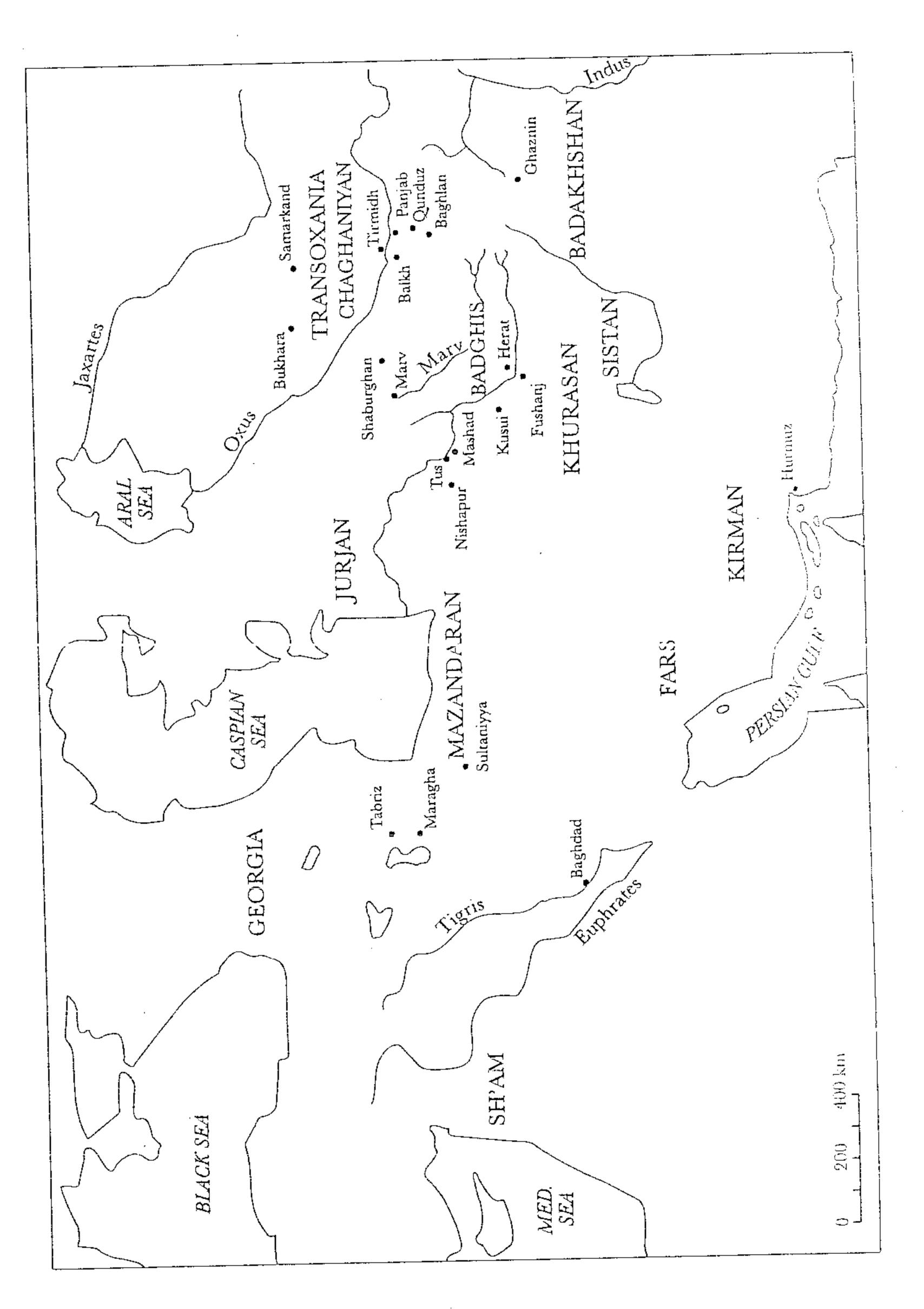
For general assessments of the Mongol armies see Martin, "The Mongol Army," passin; Morgan, The Mongols, pp. 89-95.

<sup>195</sup> See Jackson, "From *Ulus* to Khanate," passim; Biran, Qaidu, p. 27; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, p. 114; Rashīd/Thackston, p. 523.

Rashīd al-Dīn stresses the apparent difference between Baraq's "oppressive" rule and Abaqa's benevolence. One should bear in mind however that in his dealing with Bukhara Abaqa was not less furious than Baraq was in Khurāsān.

See, e.g., the struggles in Central Asia between 1270-82 and after Qaidu's death in the first two decades of the 13th century.

were unlikely to challenge them in large battles. The Central Asian Mongols, at least between Baraq and Temür Lang, probably realized they were unable to eliminate any of the other Mongol states. Nor were they necessarily interested in doing so. The rhetoric of the Chinggisid unity, so prevalent in the descriptions of the battle of Herat, 198 did not prevent the different Chinggisid lineages from fighting each other, but it proved that they all acknowledged the rights of the other Chinggisids to rule over parts of the empire. Besides, the other Mongol khanates did not prove easy rivals, as the Chaghadaids found out at Herat. It is therefore not surprising that the Central Asian Mongols chose raids, not battles, as their main form of future warfare,199 thereby leaving the battle of Herat as a rather unique example of inter-Mongol warfare on the grand scale.



Map 2: Greater Iran in the 13th Century (After Biran, *Qaidu* [Richmond, Surrey: Curzon, 1997], 117).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>198</sup> See, e.g., Waṣṣāf, *Taʾrīkh-i Waṣṣāf*, pp. 69, 74; Rashīd/'Alīzādah, pp. 109–10; Mīrkliwānd, *Rawdat*, vol. 5, pp. 286–8; Harawī, *Herat*, p. 305.

199 See, e.g., Biran, *Qaidu*, pp. 81–92.

Chinggis Khan

(died 1227)

Ögödei (1229–41)

Güyüg (1246–48)

Hülegü

Ilkhans

Tolui

(died 1233)

Arigh Böke

Chaghadai (died 1242)

Chaghadaid

Khans

Qubilai

(1260-94)

Yuan

Emperors

Figure 1: The Main Chinggisid Branches and the Great Khans

(After Biran, Qaidu [Richmond, Surrey: Curzon, 1997], 120).

(died 1227)

Batu

Khans of the

Golden Horde

Möngke

(1251-59)

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