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SYRIAC INSCRIPTIONS NEAR URGUT, UZBEKISTAN ¹

SUMMARY

This article examines a collection of inscriptions in Syriac script left by Christians on the cliffs near a recently excavated church building located near Urgut, Uzbekistan. The text and translation of more than 160 inscriptions are given. The vast majority of these are onomastic in nature. The article concludes with a discussion of the names involved, which reflect the cultural melting pot that was medieval Central Asia.

Keywords: Syriac; Christian; Central Asia; Sogdiana; inscriptions.

RÉSUMÉ

Cet article examine plus de 160 inscriptions en écriture syriaque laissées par des chrétiens sur des falaises à proximité d'une église récemment fouillée située près d'Urgut (Ouzbékistan). Il en donne le texte original et la traduction ; la grande majorité d'entre elles est de nature onomastique. L'article se termine par une analyse des noms en question, qui reflètent le creuset culturel que constituait l'Asie centrale médiévale.

Mots clés : syriaque ; chrétien ; Asie centrale ; Sogdiane ; inscriptions.

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Christianity had a presence in Central Asia for over a millennium, beginning with references in the *Book of the Laws of the Countries* by the Syriac writer Bardaisan (d. 222/23) to Christians in the realm of the

¹ In addition to my colleague Alexei Savchenko, without whom I would not have been able to produce this article, I also want to express my gratitude to Abdusobir Raimkulov of the Archaeological Institute of Uzbekistan (Samarkand), who first showed me the inscriptions in 2003, when I was living in Uzbekistan. I am particularly grateful to Nicholas Sims-Williams for his very helpful input in sorting out possible Sogdian and Persian material in the inscriptions. I would also like to thank Christoph Baumer, Thomas Carlson, Frantz Grenet, Erica C. D. Hunter, Yury Karev, Pavel Lurje, Salam Rassi, Mar Awa Royel and Peter Zieme for help in preparing this article for publication. Finally, my thanks to the many helpful suggestions from the anonymous reviewers of this article, suggestions which I have tried to incorporate wherever possible.

Kushans in Bactria and extending up to the time of the Timurids, when the Armenian historian T'ovma Metsobets'i describes events which likely led to the end of Christianity in Samarkand during the rule of Ulugh Beg (r. 1411-1449).² The major challenge in reconstructing this history consists of synthesizing the various historical and archaeological sources available to us, many of them very fragmentary. In particular, it is difficult to gain insights into the day-to-day life of Central Asian Christians in Late Antiquity and the Middle Ages, given the relative paucity of archaeological and textual evidence. Although we are fortunate to have significant numbers of Christian manuscripts from Turfan,³ along with smaller collections from Dunhuang and Qara-Khoto, in Eastern (Chinese) Turkestan, there are no Christian manuscripts extant in Western Turkestan, the current territory of the Central Asian republics of Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

In light of this, the following statement by the Muslim geographer Ibn Ḥawqal (fl. 988) – also mentioned by his earlier contemporary al-Isṭakhrī (d. 957) – is of crucial importance:

On al-Sāwadār [the Shāwdār mountain range south of Samarkand] there is a monastery of the Christians where they gather and have their cells. I found many Iraqi Christians there who migrated to the place because of its suitability, solitary location and healthiness. It has inalienable properties (*wuqūf*), and many Christians retreat to it; this place towers over the major part of Sogd and is known as Wazkird.⁴

As a result of the definitive linking of the place name in the Arabic text with Urgut—located 30 km. SE of Samarkand, Uzbekistan—excavations began in the area in 1995, eventually uncovering a Christian church (initially identified as such in 1999) located at the confluence of two streams, on Suleyman-tepa, a promontory just below the foothills of the Zarafshan Mountains, a location which matches Ibn Ḥawqal's description. Alexei Savchenko, who conducted the archaeological excavation of the

² Drijvers 1965, p. 61; Bedrosian 1987, §19. See also Savchenko & Dickens 2009, p. 123. For more on the history of Christianity in Central Asia, see Dickens 2015.

³ The Syriac and Christian Sogdian manuscript fragments from Turfan have recently been catalogued: Hunter & Dickens 2014; Sims-Williams 2012. For an overview of the Christian texts, see Dickens 2013a. On Christian Sogdian biblical and other texts, see Sims-Williams 2014 and Barbati 2016.

⁴ Savchenko 1996, p. 333, translating from de Goeje 1873, p. 373. Compare Savchenko & Dickens 2009, p. 126; Kramers & Wiet 1964, p. 478; Ouseley 1800, p. 257. For an argument regarding the probable form of the original toponym, see Savchenko 2006. For a possible connection of the location with the demise of Dēw-āshtīch (the last Sogdian ruler of Panjikent) in the early 8th century, as a result of the Arab conquest of Central Asia, see Grenet & de La Vaissière 2002, pp. 162-163.

site, has identified the building as the monastery described by the Arab geographers,⁵ although this identification has been questioned by others.⁶ Equally significant are the Syriac inscriptions found nearby on cliffs and in caves,⁷ the subject of the present article. As the only extensive collection of Christian inscriptions extant in Central Asia apart from the large corpus of Christian gravestones found in Semirechye (modern-day northern Kyrgyzstan and southern Kazakhstan) in the late 19th century,⁸ the Urgut inscriptions are an invaluable source in our attempt to understand medieval Christianity in Central Asia.

The historical presence of a Christian community near Urgut, in the heart of the former territory of Sogdiana, should not be surprising. The area, known as *Suguda* in Old Persian, *Σογδιανή* in Greek and *السغد* (*al-Sugd*) in Arabic and New Persian, was located between the Oxus (Amu Darya) in the south and the Jaxartes (Syr Darya) in the north, centred on the Zarafshan and Qashqa Darya river valleys (in modern-day Uzbekistan and Tajikistan). Traditional Sogdiana encompassed the settled areas of Paykent, Bukhara, Samarkand, Panjikent, Khojand, Kesh (Shahrisabz) and Nakhshab (Qarshi), but the Sogdian *diaspora* spread northward into the steppe region and eastward into China; as a result, Sogdian merchants controlled much of the trade on the middle section of the Silk Road.⁹ In the process, they trafficked in not only commercial goods, but also religious ideas, whether those of Zoroastrianism, Buddhism, Manichaeism, Christianity or Islam.¹⁰

As documented elsewhere by Alexei Savchenko, the Christian building excavated near Urgut was likely inhabited on a continual basis from the late 7th to the 13th centuries.¹¹ This period was an extremely eventful one for Sogdiana, as the Sogdian city-states were subject before the Arab conquest to the influence of the Western Türk Qaghanate, the Chinese Tang Dynasty and the Türgesh, a Turkic group which inherited power on

⁵ For background information on Ibn Ḥawqal's text and the excavation of the monastery mentioned here and elsewhere in this article, the reader is referred to the articles by Alexei Savchenko listed in the Bibliography below.

⁶ See the commentary on the archaeological site in Ashurov 2015, pp. 165-174.

⁷ Although they are referred to throughout this article as inscriptions, to call them graffiti would not be inaccurate.

⁸ On which, see Chwolson 1890 and Chwolson 1897. An overview of the gravestone corpus can be found in Dickens 2009.

⁹ See de La Vaissière 2005. The phrase "Silk Road" was coined, of course, in the nineteenth-century and refers not to a single road, but rather a vast network of trade routes connecting China with the Mediterranean via Central Asia, along which were traded not just silk, but many other commodities, as well as artistic, technological, philosophical and religious concepts.

¹⁰ See Foltz 2010.

¹¹ Savchenko 2010, p. 75.

the steppe north of Sogdiana ca. 700. The Muslim conquest of the area began in the late 7th century, continued through the 8th century (when most of the major Sogdian urban centres, like Bukhara and Samarkand, were captured), and was completed by the 9th century, after which ما وراء النهر *Māwarā' al-nahr*, “that which is across the river”—as the Arabs called the territory beyond the Oxus, known in the West as Transoxiana—became an integral part of the Muslim world. Successive centuries saw the area ruled directly by the ‘Abbasid Caliphate (8th-9th c.), the Iranian Samanids (10th c.), the Turkic Qarakhanids (early 11th c.) and Seljūks (late 11th c.), the Buddhist Qara-Khitai (Western Liao) (early 12th-early 13th c.) and the Mongols, who controlled *Māwarā' al-nahr* from their conquest in 1220 until the disintegration of the Chaghatāy Ulus (Khanate) in 1347, which facilitated the subsequent rise of Timur.

These diverse historical influences during the six or seven centuries that the Christian site was in use help to explain the variety of names found amongst the inscriptions, whether Syriac, Arabic, Middle and New Persian, Turkic or Sogdian. Of particular relevance is Ibn Ḥawqal’s reference to “many Iraqi Christians... who migrated to the place because of its suitability, solitary location and healthiness,”¹² which highlights both the appropriateness of the location for establishing a monastic community and the presence in that community of Christians who were bilingual in both Syriac and Arabic (typical of Christians from the Iraqi heartland of the ‘Abbasid Caliphate when Ibn Ḥawqal was writing in the 10th century), as well as speakers of the local language (initially Sogdian, which was supplanted by New Persian in the wake of the Arab conquest of Central Asia and more particularly Samanid rule in Sogdiana).

Until the Mongol era, when the area opened up to other confessions (specifically Latin and Armenian Christians), the Christian presence in Central Asia was almost exclusively connected with the Church of the East, the branch of Syriac Christianity which has gone down in history under the misleading epithet “Nestorian.”¹³ Although there were a few Christian communities in Central Asia from two other churches that originated in a Syriac milieu, namely the Syrian Orthodox Church and the Melkite Orthodox Church (who used Greek more than Syriac in their liturgies),¹⁴ it was the Church of the East that dominated the territory.¹⁵

¹² See above fn. 4.

¹³ On which, see Brock 1996.

¹⁴ On the presence of these two Churches in Central Asia, see Dauvillier 1956; Dauvillier 1953; Klein 1999; Parry 2012.

¹⁵ For popular histories of the Church of the East, see Wilmshurst 2011 and Baumer 2016. On the former, see my review in Dickens 2013b.

There is abundant evidence for the presence of Christianity in Sogdiana. Samarkand received a metropolitan (archbishop) from the Church of the East sometime between the 6th and 8th centuries.¹⁶ Coins with crosses on them dating from the 6th-8th centuries found in Bukhara, Samarkand, Panjikent and Tashkent suggest that the rulers of some Sogdian city-states were Christians at this time, both before and during the Arab conquest of Central Asia.¹⁷ During the rule of the Muslim Samanid dynasty (819-999) based in Bukhara, when most of Sogdiana was converted from Zoroastrianism to Islam, Christianity flourished to the north amongst the Qarluq Turks.¹⁸ Despite this gradual conversion to Islam, when the Muslim bibliophile al-Nadīm describes “the land of al-Ṣughd” in his *Fihrist* (written in 990), he notes that “its people are dualists [Manichaeans] and Christians.”¹⁹ Samarkand continued to play an important role in Central Asian Christianity up to Mongol and Timurid times.²⁰

THE CHRISTIAN COMMUNITY OF URGUT

The Russian scholar Vasiliy Bartol’d suggested in 1894 that the location of the monastery described by Ibn Ḥawqal might be near modern-day Urgut.²¹ The Syriac inscriptions and inscribed crosses on a nearby cliff called Qizil Qāya (“Red Rock”) which are the subject of this article, discovered by university students from Tashkent studying the Tajik language and local lore in Urgut in 1920,²² supplied tangible evidence of a forgotten Christian past in the area. Further evidence of Urgut’s Christian heritage surfaced in 1955, when some local secondary school students exploring

¹⁶ Hoenerbach & Spies 1956, p. 123; Mai 1838, pp. 141-142, 146. See the discussion on the establishment date of the metropolitanate in Colless 1986.

¹⁷ Naymark 1996; Savchenko 1996, p. 338; Savchenko & Dickens 2009, p. 124. For images of such coins, see Savchenko & Dickens 2009, Pl. 2; Savchenko 2010, Abb. 3a, 3b. It has also been suggested that an ostrakon discovered in Panjikent with portions of Psalm 1-2 in Syriac (Paykova 1979) and two Christian gravestones with Syriac inscriptions in the Ashkhabad Museum (Masson 1978) may be from Urgut (Savchenko 1996, pp. 335, 339-340; Savchenko & Dickens 2009, p. 131), but these speculations have not been decisively verified yet. Both Savchenko 1996 and Savchenko & Dickens 2009 contain provisional summaries of the archaeological finds relating to the presence of Christianity in Sogdiana; see also the plates in the latter work.

¹⁸ See Dickens 2010.

¹⁹ Dodge 1970, p. 33. On the identification of “dualists” with Manichaeans, see Tardieu 2012, pp. 491-494.

²⁰ Again, see Colless 1986 and Savchenko & Dickens 2009, p. 123.

²¹ Bartol’d 1894. On Urgut in general, see Savchenko 2008. On the history of attempts to identify the location of the monastery, see Savchenko 2006.

²² Bartol’d 1973, pp. 391f; Meshcherskaya & Paykova 1981. For images of Qizil Qāya, see Savchenko 1996, fig. 5-7; Savchenko 2010, Abb. 1b.

with their teachers in the area discovered a cave with intriguing contents, which they communicated to the Russian archaeologist G. Parfionov in a letter. Their explorations were in part a response to an earlier exhortation by Parfionov, published in a local newspaper, for schoolchildren from Urgut to look for archaeological artefacts in the area, an exhortation in which he specifically referred to the Syriac inscriptions from Urgut.²³ Parfionov described several months later in the same newspaper what the students had written to him:

Having entered the cave, we saw some writing (inscriptions) on/in the entrance and wrote them down. Inside the cave we also found bones and all sorts of stones. There were also 17 books there written in the Arabic alphabet. We took all of them to the school and organized a museum (display). We will give all the artefacts that we found to our scholars.²⁴

After recounting this report from the schoolchildren, Parfionov went on to explain the importance of their discovery:

These inscriptions that you found and copied are the first Syriac Christian-Nestorian inscriptions known in Uzbekistan. These inscriptions were written on the rock in the Gulbogh cave about 600-700 years ago. I sent copies of the Gulbogh inscriptions to Academician V. V. Struve to study, check and translate. There are Syriac inscriptions like this in Central Asia, in the Kyrgyzstan SSR. These inscriptions are gravestones that give the personal name, family name and date of death of the deceased who is buried. You wrote that you found the inscriptions not on the rock overhead, but on/in the entrance to the cave, as well as stones lying inside the cave. In addition, you saw quite a few bones in the cave. You did not know and others did not explain that you were at a Nestorian graveyard. What you discovered has great scientific importance, because you have verified the first Nestorian graveyard in Central Asia.²⁵

²³ Parfionov 1955a.

²⁴ My translation from the Uzbek text of Parfionov 1955b, kindly supplied to me by Alexei Savchenko: "Ғорға кириб борар эканмиз, кираверишдаги ёзувларни кўрдик ва ёзиб олдик. Ғорнинг ичидан суяклар ва ҳархил тошлар ҳам топдик. Шунингдек, бу ёрда араб алифбесида ёзилган 17та китоб бор экан. Биз буларнинг ҳаммасини мактабга олиб келдик ва музей ташкил қилдик. Барча топган ёдгорликларимизни олимларимизга совға қиламиз." See also Savchenko 1996, p. 335.

²⁵ My translation from the Uzbek text of Parfionov 1955b: "Топганингиз ва нусхасини кўчириб олганингиз бу сирия, христиан-несториан ёзувлари Ўзбекистонда маълум бўлган биринчи ёзувлардир. Бу ёзувлар Гулбоғ ғоридаги қояга тахминан бундан 600-700 йил илгари ёзилган. Гулбоғ ёзувларининг нусхасини академик В. В. Струвега ўрганиш, текшириб чиқиш ва таржима

In the process of excavating the Christian site near Urgut, a search was conducted for the cave with inscriptions mentioned by the schoolchildren in 1955. Although the cave, which was identified by two of those involved in the original school expedition, now retired, was thoroughly searched, no trace of any inscriptions was found (and the current whereabouts of the "bones" and "books" allegedly found in the cave is unknown). However, the ten-year search of approximately 100 caves in the area led to the discovery in 2006 of three other caves in the cliffs above the monastery site (across the valley from the inscriptions discovered in 1920), all of which contained Syriac inscriptions.²⁶

THE SYRIAC INSCRIPTIONS OF URGUT

The Syriac inscriptions of Urgut have received relatively little scholarly attention since their discovery in the early 20th century, largely due to difficulties in accessing and deciphering them. The rock surface on which many of the inscriptions have been written is often rough and marred by flaking surface layers;²⁷ in some places it is covered with mould, lichen and/or various mineral deposits. The writing is often layered, with some inscriptions scratched into the rock on top of others, frequently at right angles to each other so that horizontal and vertical inscriptions often co-exist together. Furthermore, not many of those leaving inscriptions seem to have been trained scribes; thus, the writing is frequently haphazard and unclear.²⁸ Compounding these challenges is the fact that very few familiar

килиш учун юбордим. Бундай сирия ёзувлари Ўрта Осиёда, Қирғизистон ССРда ҳам бор. Бу ёзув кўмилган мурданинг исми, фамилияси ва вафот этган вақтини кўрсатучи эпиграфия-кабристон ёзувидир. Сиз, ёзувларни қоянинг устида эмас, балки ғорға кираверишда, шунингдек ғорнинг ичида ётган тошларда ҳам топганингизни ёзгансиз. Бундан ташқари ғорда кўпгина суякларга кўзингиз тушган. Сизнинг несториан ғор мазорида бўлганингизни ўзингиз ҳам билмагансиз, бошқалар ҳам тушунтирмаган. Сизнинг топганингиз катта илмий аҳамиятга эга. Чунки сиз Ўрта Осиёда биринчи бўлиб, несториан ғор мазорини аниқлангансиз." See also Savchenko 1996, pp. 341-342. Parfionov's comment that they had "verified the first Nestorian graveyard in Central Asia" is curious, since the gravestones found in Semirechye (now in Kyrgyzstan) in the late 19th century which he mentions were clearly from the first such graveyard discovered in Central Asia.

²⁶ For images of the caves and a sample inscription, see Savchenko & Dickens 2009, Pl. 13-14; Savchenko 2010, Abb. 9a, 9b.

²⁷ As Alexei Savchenko notes (personal correspondence, July 4, 2014), "the rock is limestone interspersed with shale."

²⁸ Very helpful in deciphering the Urgut inscriptions is the extensive chart by Julius Euting at the end of Chwolson 1890, which provides numerous examples of how each letter in the Syriac alphabet is formed on the Semirechye gravestones.

with Syriac palaeography have visited the site, resulting in only two previous articles that do more than just mention the inscriptions.²⁹

I initially viewed the cliff inscriptions in 2003 with Abdusobir Raimkulov of the Archaeological Institute of Uzbekistan, but I did not have the means to work on them until several years later, after having made the acquaintance of Alexei Savchenko, who kindly supplied me with digital images. After excavations at the monastery location were completed, I went back to the area with Savchenko in September 2009 to photograph and transcribe the cliff and cave inscriptions. In the process, new inscriptions were discovered and readings of some previously published inscriptions were revised.³⁰

Before describing the inscriptions, a few notes on the Syriac palaeography encountered at Urgut are in order. As will be seen, all the decipherable inscriptions (with one notable exception) are in the Syriac script. More specifically, they are in what we might call the East Syriac version of the Estrangela script (the latter originally shared by East and West Syriac Christians before theological and political factors from the fifth century on tended to differentiate the pronunciation and orthography of Syriac between the two communities). Eventually, the Estrangela script used by the Church of the East evolved into what is now called the Nestorian or East Syriac script, but this transition is not yet evident in either the Urgut inscriptions or the Christian texts from Turfan.³¹

The Syriac script was also used to write other languages, usually with adapted characters for sounds in the source language not present in Syriac; from Central Asia, we have examples of this phenomenon in Sogdian, New Persian and Turkic.³² Although several extra letters were introduced to write these three languages, one letter shared by all three and evident in a number of the Urgut inscriptions (most notably Inv. № A-308-2 from the Samarkand Museum, discussed below) is 𐤀, modified from either 𐤁 or 𐤂 to write the Sogdian or New Persian sound /x/ (as well as the Turkic

²⁹ The only inscriptions published thus far are one in Tardieu, 1999 (discussed below) and several in Savchenko 1996 (fig. 2-3, 8-19); the latter article is based on black and white images taken in 1995.

³⁰ Even the caves, comparatively easy to document given their limited area, yielded new inscriptions that had been missed when they were originally discovered and photographed in 2006. The process of documenting the cliff inscriptions was much more complicated, since they are scattered across a fairly large area at the bottom of the cliffs.

³¹ See Dickens 2013a, p. 11. On the evolution of Syriac writing, see also Briquel Chatonnet, forthcoming.

³² See Kiraz 2012, Part III on Garšūnography, particularly section 11.9 on Syro-Sogdian and Syro-Persian by Nicholas Sims-Williams.

sounds /k/, /q/ or /x/³³) in Syriac script; it is found frequently in Christian texts from Turfan in these languages.³⁴ Another letter, 𐤁,³⁵ modified from 𐤂 to render the sound /f/, may also be in evidence in the Urgut inscriptions (unless it is just a variant form of 𐤂 itself, with the loop formed to the right of the upright, rather than the left). Thus, in names or other words which cannot be clearly identified (rendered in CAPITAL LETTERS), it is unclear whether this character represents /p/ or /f/.³⁶

Additionally, some Syriac letters normally used for sounds found in Syriac but not Sogdian, New Persian or Turkic, have been repurposed to represent sounds found in those languages but not Syriac, notably 𐤁 for /γ/ and 𐤂 for /č/. Words or names in the Urgut inscriptions containing these letters which are not demonstrably Syriac are glossed using Γ/γ and Č/č respectively. Finally, native Sogdian words tend to use 𐤁 for /t/ and 𐤂 for /k/ (following the system of representing Greek τ and κ in Syriac by 𐤁 and 𐤂), as discussed below. This can sometimes lead to misspelling of Syriac words and names in the corpus.

The Urgut inscriptions can be divided into five locations: Cave 1, Cave 2, Cave 3, the upper cliff face and the lower cliff face. There are also two inscriptions that were sawed off the cliff by A. Y. Kaplunov of the Samarkand Museum of History, Culture and Art in 1936 and taken back to the Museum, where they reside to this day;³⁷ both are addressed below. Sadly, there is evidence that other inscriptions may have been removed in more recent years; the careful manner in which this was done suggests not random vandalism, but intentional removal for sale on the antiquities black market.³⁸

CAVE 1 INSCRIPTIONS

Cave 1 is accessed by a narrow opening in the rock face and provides just enough room to stand up in. It contains more than 20 inscriptions, most virtually illegible, so that some which appear to consist of several lines may actually be two or more inscriptions written on top of each other

³³ There often seems to be phonological confusion in the use of this character on the Syro-Turkic texts in the Semirechye gravestone corpus.

³⁴ See Hunter & Dickens 2014, entry 117 for SyrHT 122, entry 156 for SyrHT 161, entry 243 for SyrHT 249.

³⁵ My thanks to George Kiraz for supplying me with this character from his modification of one of the Meltho fonts.

³⁶ For example, *MWŠTP*, *BWRPL/QWRPL/SWRPL* or *PŠYDN/PŠYRN*.

³⁷ Savchenko 1996, p. 335, fig. 1. The museum is currently called the Samarkand Museum of History and Art of the Uzbek People.

³⁸ This undoubtedly accounts for the fact that some inscriptions documented in 1995 by Savchenko were not located and photographed in 2009, when the majority of images accompanying this article were taken.

by more than one person, something which occurs frequently elsewhere in the corpus. There are several crosses in the cave, both inscribed and written in black ink.

On the south wall of the cave, opposite the entrance, are a set of inscriptions scratched into the cave wall in a space roughly 10×4 cm.³⁹

[1]⁴⁰ At the top is the name ܝܫܢܐ, *Yuhannan* (the most common name in the corpus, discussed in the Conclusions below), under which is an indecipherable word. [2] Further down is another word found often (in various forms) in the corpus, ܠܝܠܐ, “vigil, place to stay the night,” below which is either an indecipherable word or a crude attempt at a cross. [3] Underneath is the word ܠܝܠܐ, “Hosanna,” which appears here as either an expression of praise or the Syriac name *Awša’nā*.⁴¹ Below yet another illegible word, a cross has been scratched into the cave wall. [4] Finally, at the bottom, is a poorly-written word which could be any of the following: 1) ܠܝܠܐ, “comfort, consolation”; 2) ܠܝܠܐ, “in/with life”⁴²; 3) ܠܝܠܐ, “with the venerable/reverend”; 4) ܠܝܠܐ, “in/with sackcloth”; 5) ܠܝܠܐ, “with the eye” or even 6) the Turkic name ܠܝܠܐ, *Buqa* “bull”⁴³; without more context, it is difficult to know which of these options is most likely. Of these inscriptions, perhaps the most significant is that containing the word ܠܝܠܐ, which may refer to an ecclesiastical dignitary (or perhaps their representative), either a bishop or (given the likely presence of a monastery below) a monastic superior. If that reading and interpretation are correct, this gives interesting insight into the presence of members of the ecclesiastical hierarchy in the area (or perhaps visiting from a larger centre, like Samarkand). Interestingly, the title ܠܝܠܐ is found on one of the Syro-Turkic gravestone inscriptions from Quanzhou, China.⁴⁴

[5] Under this, two more words are visible—ܠܝܠܐ, “with us”—and another word beginning with ܠܝܠܐ but ultimately illegible.⁴⁵ It is highly likely that mineral deposits to the left of these inscriptions have obscured what was once an intelligible phrase or sentence. Nonetheless, one can imagine

³⁹ All dimensions are given in the order height × width.

⁴⁰ Inscription numbers are given in square brackets. Where several lines can be confidently grouped together, they are considered one inscription.

⁴¹ The name ܠܝܠܐ occurs six times in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 287).

⁴² The plural *seyāmē* marker is not visible.

⁴³ See Clauson 1972, p. 312; for its use as a name, see Rásonyi & Baski 2007, pp. 171–172. This name occurs five times in the gravestone corpus, spelled both ܠܝܠܐ and ܠܝܠܐ (Chabot 1906, pp. 288, 292 – note that Chabot reproduces the names with the letter ܠܝܠܐ, not ܠܝܠܐ).

⁴⁴ Lieu *et al.* 2012, pp. 189–190, on which see my commentary in Dickens 2014, p. 417.

⁴⁵ Perhaps a name preceded by the preposition ܠܝܠܐ to signify “with (name)”?

a Christian monk or pilgrim writing what is visible after staying overnight in this cave as a means of penance or renunciation of some physical appetite.

[6] On the north wall of the cave, near the entrance, is what appears to be a single word crudely carved into the rock, ܠܝܠܐ, *Nāšir*, either representing the Arabic name ܠܝܠܐ⁴⁶ or a badly spelled attempt at the Syriac word ܠܝܠܐ, “Nazarene, Christian.” Alternatively, could it be an even more defective spelling of ܠܝܠܐ, “Nazirite,” used for one following a lifestyle of abstinence, celibacy and asceticism, thus a term often applied to monks? Either way, perhaps the spelling with *aleph* following *nun* indicates Arabic influence in pronunciation amongst those using the site, not surprising given Ibn Ḥawqal’s aforementioned reference to “Iraqi Christians” who migrated to the monastery. [7] Above, on the roof of the cave in an area roughly 4×6 cm., are two lines of faded writing in black ink; visible characters on the second line suggest they may have included the word ܠܝܠܐ, “our vigil” or ܠܝܠܐ, “your vigil” (if the first line contained a name or names, the remnants suggest it may have included ܠܝܠܐ, *Yuhannan*).

There are possibly two other instances of the name ܠܝܠܐ in Cave 1, although both are obscured by mineral deposits (as well as lichen) that seem to have accumulated over the original inscriptions. [8] One of these could equally be another word ending in the letter ܠܝܠܐ; it is followed by a second illegible word beginning with ܠܝܠܐ or ܠܝܠܐ (visible portions of these two words are roughly 4 cm. long). [9] The second possible occurrence, contained in a small area roughly 3×6 cm., appears to be ܠܝܠܐ, “to/by *Yuhannan*,” although it could also be ܠܝܠܐ, “of the Greeks” (with the plural *seyāmē* marker either missing or illegible), in which case the other remnants of characters visible to the right of this word could represent a date in the Seleucid era dating system used by Syriac speakers and found commonly in the Semirechye gravestone corpus mentioned above.⁴⁷

⁴⁶ The presence of Arabic names in the corpus (admittedly a minority relative to Syriac names) is not surprising, whether due to the “Christians of Iraq who had migrated to the area” mentioned by Ibn Ḥawqal or to the general influence of Arabic in the wake of the Islamization of Central Asia. The Semirechye gravestone corpus contains examples of the Arabic male names ܠܝܠܐ (منصور), *Manšūr*, “victorious,” ܠܝܠܐ (مسنود), *Mas’ūd*, “fortunate, happy, lucky” and the female names ܠܝܠܐ (دولت), *Dawlet*, “government, state, wealth” (Chabot 1906, pp. 288, 291), as well as ܠܝܠܐ (ملیكه), *Malika*, “queen, princess” (Chwolson 1890, № 73) and ܠܝܠܐ (سميرة i.e. سميرة), *Samīra*, “entertaining companion” (Chwolson 1897, № 6).

⁴⁷ The use of the Seleucid era dating system in the Syriac gravestones is discussed in both Dickens 2009 and Dickens 2016. ܠܝܠܐ, an abbreviated version of the phrase ܠܝܠܐ, is found in the dating formula on at least two gravestones from Almaliq, currently located just inside the Chinese side of the Sino-Kazakh border, about 1200

There are several other inscriptions inside Cave 1. [10] One is an instance, contained in an area roughly 3×3 cm., of ܐܠܝܠܐ, “he kept vigil/stayed the night” or ܐܠܝܠܐ, “my vigil,” above which can be seen ܠܐ, probably an abortive attempt to write the same word before the writer realized there was inadequate room. [11] Another, about 3 cm. long, begins with the letters ܠܐ, which may represent the Sogdian name *Vōr*, meaning “brown”⁴⁸ (this word/name is possibly encountered elsewhere in the corpus, as noted below); these three letters are followed by either two poorly-formed Syriac letters or a symbol which is not recognizably Syriac. Possible readings of this word include Syriac ܠܐܝܠܐ, “keeper of the bath,” ܠܐܝܠܐ, “barren,” ܠܐܝܠܐ, “in severe weather” or ܠܐܝܠܐ, “by/in necessity” [fig. 1]; if the first option is correct, this inscription could possibly be connected with inscription [111], which possibly mentions another word for “keeper of the bath,” ܠܐܝܠܐ.⁴⁹

Two additional inscriptions in Cave 1 were discovered in 2010 by Alexei Savchenko. [12] One clearly reads ܝܘܗܢܢܐܢ, “Yuhannan has discerned,” with a poorly-formed word preceding this which is possibly ܐܠܐܝܠܐ, “O God.” [13] The other consists of a line to the left of an inscribed cross and another below it; although the beginning of the upper line is unclear, the rest of the inscription appears to be ܠܐܝܠܐ, “and hear/answer my voice,” perhaps a partial (slightly garbled) quotation from Psa. 27:7 – ܠܐܝܠܐ ܝܗܘܐ ܠܐܝܠܐ ܝܗܘܐ ܠܐܝܠܐ, “Hear, O Lord, my voice when I call to you; have mercy on me and answer me.” Such a sentiment would not be unusual in the context of a prayer vigil.

There are several inscriptions outside and to the right of the cave entrance. [14] Perhaps the most obvious is another occurrence of the name ܝܘܗܢܢܐܢ, *Yuhannan*, along with illegible attempts to scratch two words the same size (both of which seem to begin with the letter ܐ or ܡ) underneath and a smaller word above, all contained in a space roughly 3×3 cm. [15] Another phrase scratched into the rock here contains just two words. The second (which might be a name) begins with ܝܠܐ, but is so poorly

km. NE of Urgut. One has been published in Niu 2008, pp. 60-62: ܝܘܗܢܢܐܢ ܕܥܠܝܐ ܕܥܠܝܐ ܕܥܠܝܐ, “Yamghur the Priest departed and left this world in the year 1654 [1342/43 CE] of the Greeks.” The other has been published in Dickens 2016, pp. 107-108. Similarly, a recently-deciphered Syriac inscription located in Mongolia contains a date (curiously, in Arabic numerals) followed by the word ܕܥܠܝܐ, “of the Greeks” (Osawa *et al.* 2015, pp. 193-194).

⁴⁸ Lurje 2010, № 326.

⁴⁹ Fig. 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 13, 17, 19, 21 by Alexei Savchenko, fig. 3, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 22 by Mark Dickens, fig. 20 by Yuriy Karev.

formed that it is unintelligible; the word above it appears to be ܐܠܝܠܐ, representing the Middle and New Persian name ܐܠܝܠܐ, *Tahm*, “brave.”⁵⁰

[16] Written near the faded remnants of some writing in black ink outside the cave entrance is a very clear word that seems to read ܐܠܝܠܐ, BWS, but this has no meaning in Syriac, so it may be an ill-formed (or possibly phonetically spelled) instance of ܐܠܝܠܐ, “he kept vigil/stayed the night.”⁵¹ Alternatively, though not much more logically, could this be a transcription of Persian ܐܠܝܠܐ, the imperative of “to kiss”? A larger collection of inscriptions contains seven lines of very poorly formed words, some of them scratched on top of others, in an area roughly 8×4 cm.; discernible words include [17] ܐܠܝܠܐ, “the sinner” or ܐܠܝܠܐ, “sin” (the illegible line above this may be a name); [18] ܐܠܝܠܐ, “he tested us”; [19] ܐܠܝܠܐ, “*Henanišo*”⁵² (other lines are largely illegible due to the quality of handwriting and natural lines in the surface of the rock) [fig. 2].

Yet another set of inscriptions outside the cave entrance is written in an area roughly 6×6 cm. scratched into bare spots on the rock. Unfortunately, mineral encrustations obscure most of the writing; [20] only the word ܐܠܝܠܐ, “blessing/benediction” is clearly visible, along with the ending ܐܠܝܠܐ of another word and the beginning ܐܠܝܠܐ or ܐܠܝܠܐ of a third. [21] A smaller area of rough rock, perhaps 1×1 cm., contains one complete word with the beginning of a second (the letter ܐ) below it. The first and last letters of the complete word are clear, but the letters in between are open to multiple interpretations. The most logical (although still tentative) reading is ܐܠܝܠܐ, perhaps a misspelling of Syriac ܐܠܝܠܐ “let him keep vigil/stay the night.”⁵³ Unfortunately, in the absence of more text and therefore context, no more can be said about the intended meaning of this inscription.

[22] A final group of Syriac inscriptions outside the cave entrance, including a cross, are contained in another space roughly 3×3 cm. and are all in black ink, but unfortunately the combination of fading ink and mineral encrustations on the rock have rendered this group all but illegible,

⁵⁰ I am indebted to Nicholas Sims-Williams for this suggestion (personal correspondence, Feb. 4, 2015); on this Persian name, see Gignoux *et al.* 2009, № 410-414; Justi, 1895, pp. 318-319. The name *Tahm* does not occur in the gravestone corpus.

⁵¹ A native Persian speaker would almost certainly substitute /s/ for /θ/. Note the possibly related occurrence below of a word which appears to be ܐܠܝܠܐ, BWSL.

⁵² The name ܐܠܝܠܐ (meaning “mercy of Jesus”) occurs once in the gravestone corpus (Chabot, 1906, p. 288) and is also mentioned on the Xi’an Stele, in a specific reference to Patriarch *Henanišo* II (773-780) of the Church of the East (Hunter, 2010, p. 358).

⁵³ Admittedly, this orthographic error would be odd, given the many correctly spelled occurrences of the verb ܐܠܝܠܐ in the corpus. It could only be possible if someone with very little knowledge of Syriac had left this inscription.

The first word on line 1 is unclear, but seems to be ܐܚܕ (or possibly ܐܚܕܐ, which fits the suggested name better), representing the Arabic name رفيق, *Rafiq*, “friend, companion, kind.”⁶² The name of the father is similarly unclear; the most likely option is simply the title ܡܪܝܬܐ “priest”; less likely is the name ܡܫܥܐ, *Moše*.⁶³ The first word on line 2 is again very unclear, consisting of scribble-like writing, similar to that on a ceramic pot with a cross unearthed in Gus, near Urgut, in the mid-20th c. (Inv. № A-610-1 in the Samarkand Museum), which seems to be an attempt to imitate Syriac writing by someone who did not know the language or the script, resulting in palaeographic gibberish; the proposed ܫܡܐ, “I recovered,” seems most logical.⁶⁴

The next word is open to multiple interpretations, but given the final group of letters on line 2, ܡܬܐ, which seems to represent the date 1064, the second word must be ܠܫܢܐ, a misspelling of ܠܫܢܐ, “in the year.” The first word on line 3 seems to be ܡܠܝܚܐ, perhaps an orthographic error for ܡܠܝܚܐ, “anthem sung at Nocturns.” The words ܐܬܠܝܬܐ, “the crown of” are followed by an illegible word or words. The crown is associated with various experiences and rituals in Syriac Christianity, including martyrdom, the wedding ceremony and the monastic practice of tonsuring. Thus the meaning is still somewhat unclear; was the writer giving the date when he experienced some sort of physical or spiritual revival and then equated the *qaltā* anthem with the crown that features so prominently in Syriac spirituality?

References to the self as a “sinner” (prominent not only in the caves, but throughout the whole Urgut corpus) are extremely common in the Syriac tradition, especially amongst monastics and scribes. Two more Central Asian examples of this can be found in the Christian texts from Turfan. On the blank side of SyrHT 287, a fragment from a liturgical (Hudra) manuscript found at Turfan, someone (presumably a monk from the monastery where these texts were found) has written the same sentence in both Syriac and Syriac transliterated into Uyghur script. By combining the legible portions of the two sentences – ܡܠܝܚܐ ܠܫܢܐ ܐܬܠܝܬܐ and ܡܠܝܚܐ ܠܫܢܐ ܐܬܠܝܬܐ – the original sentence can be reconstructed: “Yuhannan, the sinner; pray for me.”⁶⁵ A second example can be found on U 5545, a small

⁶¹ SE = Seleucid Era, CE = Common Era.

⁶² Although we would expect Arabic ܦ to be transliterated by Syriac ܦ, it is commonly pronounced as /ɣ/ in Persian, a sound which is represented by ܦ when Persian is written in Syriac script (as noted above). The second letter appears to be the modified character ܦ used for representing /f/ in Persian words.

⁶³ The name ܡܫܥܐ occurs twice on the Xi'an Stele (Hunter 2010, p. 362) and once in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 291).

⁶⁴ Another less likely option is ܡܫܥܐ, *nhet*, “I rested.”

⁶⁵ Hunter & Dickens 2014, entry 281 for SyrHT 287.

fragment containing a marginal note which proclaims ܡܠܝܚܐ ܠܫܢܐ ܐܬܠܝܬܐ, “Yuhannan the sinner – I wrote the word.”⁶⁶

Cave 3, the highest, is inaccessible without climbing ropes for all but the most seasoned rock-climbers. Fortunately it contains only one complete inscription, one of the clearest in the whole corpus. [32] Written vertically, it consists of a cross and the name ܐܒܕܝܫܐ, *Abdišo*⁶⁷ [fig. 6]. Elsewhere in the cave is evidence of someone having practiced scratching in the first two letters of that same name (ܐܒ). Considering the difficulty in getting to this cave, the inscription is strong testimony to the dedication of the person who left it.

UPPER CLIFF INSCRIPTIONS

The upper cliff contains three sets of inscriptions. The first set is found on a section of red rock (similar to the rock making up most of the lower cliff), the second set in a small grotto where the rock is black and the third set written in black ink on red rock. The first set, covering an area of roughly 20×14 cm., includes writing in a relatively large hand that was perhaps inscribed initially, overlain with several lines in much smaller writing, roughly scratched into the rock, both horizontally and vertically. [33] The writing in the large hand (2-3 cm. high), relatively neat but incomplete, seems to be ܡܠܝܚܐ ܠܫܢܐ ܐܬܠܝܬܐ, “In the name of Marqu[s] of the herd.”⁶⁸ What is meant in this context by the last word is unclear, unless it is a nickname that the writer was well-known by. Alternately, and perhaps more logically, the final word could be read as ܡܠܝܚܐ, possibly indicating where the writer was from (although one would usually expect the Syriac gentilic ending or the word ܡܠܝܚܐ, “from” to express this concept). If ܡܠܝܚܐ is the correct reading, it could represent the beginning of the following toponyms: Rāmand, a district near Bukhara, or Rāman, a village near Bukhara, which would give us “In the name of Marqu[s] of Rāman (Rāmand).”⁶⁹

[34] One of the inscriptions in smaller hands in this set is written in Uyghur script in black ink, consisting of just one word: *Alp*, “hero, coura-

⁶⁶ Hunter & Dickens 2014, Appendix XV, entry 31 for U 5545.

⁶⁷ The name ܐܒܕܝܫܐ (meaning “servant of Jesus”) occurs twice on the Xi'an Stele (Hunter 2010, p. 362) and three times in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 292). This name would be pronounced *Avdišo* / *Awdišo* by native Syriac-speakers, but we do not know if this pronunciation was used by those who left the Urgut inscriptions.

⁶⁸ This collective noun should be marked with the *seyāmē* double dots, but such omissions are not uncommon in informal inscriptions such as these, especially if those who left them had minimal facility in writing Syriac.

⁶⁹ On these place names, see Barthold 1968, pp. 117, 129.

geous warrior, champion,”⁷⁰ an element commonly found in Turkic names, such as the Uyghur ruler Alp Qutlugh Bilga Qaghan (779-789), Alp-Tegin, founder of the Ghaznavid dynasty (962-963), and Alp Arslan, the second Seljūk Great Sultan (1063-1073).⁷¹ We have at least one recorded instance of a Christian with this name, on a Sogdian inscription in Syriac script from Turfan, written in plaster and seemingly set up as a memorial to Alp, whose name is written in Sogdian script.⁷² The presence of this inscription in Uyghur script at Urgut is curious; given its distance from traditional Uyghur territory—whether the Uyghur Empire on the Mongolian steppe or the Turfan oasis and other locations around the Tarim Basin, in Chinese Turkestan—the script was not commonly used in Sogdiana. Perhaps it results from a visit to the site of an Uyghur member of the Mongol occupying forces in the wake of the 1220 invasion (Uyghurs played a key role in the Mongol administration and military). [35] Adjacent to and below the name are remnants of more text in black ink, now illegible except for the Uyghur letter representing the vowel a/e.

Most lines in smaller hands in this first set of inscriptions are very difficult to read and open to multiple interpretations [fig. 7]. They include the following legible words or phrases written horizontally: [36] ܠܚܝܬܐ, “he visited” (followed by an illegible name); [37] ܠܫܢܝܫܐ ܒܐܪܝܬܐ, “to/by *Henanišo Bar Yuhannan*” (above and to the left of a cross); [38] ܒܫܠܐ, *BWSL*, possibly representing *Boz-ul*, a Turkic name formed from the elements *boz*, “grey” and *ul*, a variant form of *oyul*, “son”⁷³; [39] ܝܘܗܢܢܐ, *Yuhannan*; and [40] ܝܘܒ ܕܝܠܕܐ ܕܝܠܕܐ ܕܝܠܕܐ, “*Yob Bar Yaldā* and his son... cried out” – ܕܝܠܕܐ is perhaps a corruption of the name ܕܝܠܕܐ, *Iyob*.⁷⁴ The following words or phrases written vertically are

⁷⁰ This inscription was initially identified by Nicholas Sims-Williams, as noted on the website of *The Society for the Exploration of Eurasia* (http://www.exploration-eurasia.com/EurAsia/inhalt_english/projekt_2.htm). The name *Alp* does not occur in the gravestone corpus. On the Turkic word, see Clauson 1972, p. 127; for its use as a name, see Rásonyi & Baski 2007, pp. 53-55.

⁷¹ Other Uyghur *qaghans* with the name include: AyTängriḡä Ülüg Bulmish Alp Qutlugh Ulugh Bilgä Qaghan (795-808), Kün Tängriḡä Ülüg Bulmish Alp Küchlüg Bilgä Qaghan (821-824), AyTängriḡä Qut Bulmish Alp Bilgä Qaghan (824-832) and AyTängriḡä Qut Bulmish Alp Külüg Bilgä Qaghan (832-839).

⁷² Sims-Williams, 1992, p. 58.

⁷³ On the Turkic words, see Clauson 1972, pp. 388-389, 83-83; for their use in names, see Rásonyi & Baski 2007, pp. 164, 815. Note that there is sometimes confusion between /s/ and /z/ in writing some Turkic languages.

⁷⁴ The name ܕܝܠܕܐ does not occur in the gravestone corpus, but it does occur once on the on the Xi'an Stele (Hunter 2010, p. 362). This name would be pronounced *Iyov* by native Syriac-speakers, but we do not know if this pronunciation was used by those who left the Urgut inscriptions. ܕܝܠܕܐ (or its orthographic variant ܕܝܠܕܐ), meaning “Nativity,” occurs five times in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 290).

also visible: [41] ܠܠܡܢܐ, “in peace” and [42] ܠܠܡܢܐ, “pastor, disciple.” [43] A long vertical inscription on the right side of the other inscriptions in this set appears to be little more than random scratching, although a few Syriac characters are legible.

The second set of inscriptions on the upper cliff [fig. 8] consists of 15-20 short lines scratched in all directions into the roof of a small grotto (covering about 18×25 cm.) which may have functioned as a place of vigil, similar to the caves across the valley; the following are reasonably legible. Not surprisingly, there are several occurrences of the word ܠܠܡܢܐ:

[44] ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “the sinner *Yawnan*”⁷⁵;

[45] ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “the sinner *Nāšir*”⁷⁶;

[46] ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “the sinner *Manšūr*” (Arabic منصور)⁷⁷ followed by a word which seems most likely to be ܠܠܡܢܐ, “Bukhārī,” indicating that the writer originated from Bukhara, some 300 km to the west⁷⁸;

[47] ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “the sinner *SGWNTL* (*SNWNTL?* *SIWNTL?*)”⁷⁹; this name does not appear to be Syriac, so is likely of Iranian origin, hence the transliteration of ܠܠܡܢܐ and ܠܠܡܢܐ as /t/ and /γ/ respectively (however, if the reading of word-final L is correct, it cannot be Sogdian);

[48] ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “may the sinner *Yuhannan* obtain mercy through peace.”

There are also several other occurrences of the name ܠܠܡܢܐ, *Yuhannan*, in this second set:

[49] one written vertically;

[50] another which seems to read ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “*Yuhannan*. Have pity on our vigil”;

[51] one written upside-down: ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “vigil with *Yuhannan*.”

Other discernible inscriptions include:

⁷⁵ The name ܠܠܡܢܐ occurs once (or possibly twice, if ܠܠܡܢܐ is a misspelling or an erroneous reading) in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 290).

⁷⁶ See discussion of this name in inscription [6] above.

⁷⁷ The name ܠܠܡܢܐ occurs once in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 291).

⁷⁸ However, we would normally expect the spelling ܠܠܡܢܐ. The word could possibly be read as ܠܠܡܢܐ, “the *baxšī*,” referring to a long-standing profession in Central Asia with two distinct functions which were originally closely connected: musical recitation of oral epics and performance of healings and exorcisms; for more on the role of the *baxšī* in contemporary Central Asian culture, see Centlivres *et al.* 1971; Levin 1996, pp. 146-156, 173-180, 242-259. It would not be unusual for a Christian to be involved in either profession; for an example of a musician commemorated on one of the Semirechye gravestones, see Chwolson 1897, № 69; Dickens 2016, pp. 109-112. One of the Semirechye gravestones (Chwolson 1890, № XXI) seems to commemorate ܠܠܡܢܐ ܠܠܡܢܐ, “Baršabba the exorcist,” unless the second word is an error for a word commonly found on these gravestones, ܠܠܡܢܐ, “believer”; see discussion in Klein 2000, pp. 248-249.

[52] ܠܬܢܐ (BTN) (possibly a misspelling of ܠܬܢܐ, “concept-
tion”?),⁷⁹ followed by an illegible word and, on the next line, another ille-
gible word which may be Syriac ܠܬܢܐ, “he/it divided” or ܠܬܢܐ, represent-
ing New Persian 𐭮𐭲𐭭, “sky, heaven” or Syriac ܠܬܢܐ, “so-and-so, a certain
person”⁸⁰;

[53] ܠܬܢܐ, *Abū ZNRY*;

[54] a clearer instance of ܠܬܢܐ;

[55] ܠܬܢܐ, *Eliya*⁸¹;

[56] ܠܬܢܐ, “*Baršabbā* kept vigil/stayed the night.”⁸²

Notes on two of the names found in the second set of inscriptions are in
order. *Baršabbā* recalls the legendary founder of Christianity in Merv,⁸³
mentioned in several Syriac texts from Turfan; the presence of this name in
the gravestone inscriptions and at Urgut is not surprising.⁸⁴ *Abū ZNRY* is
the first of several occurrences in the corpus of names with the Arabic *kunya*
Abū (literally “father of”), which can be used to indicate either literal
fatherhood or possession of a certain quality. In this instance, it is unclear
exactly what name or word *ZNRY* represents,⁸⁵ so it is difficult to verify
whether the *kunya* is used in a literal or metaphoric sense. This is impor-
tant in determining whether those who left inscriptions with a *kunya* were
members of a monastic community or pilgrims from elsewhere. If the
former, the literal sense is ruled out, but the metaphorical sense is entirely
likely; if the latter, either sense is possible. Indeed, a number of important
Syriac clerics who were celibate⁸⁶ were known by various *kunyas*,

⁷⁹ Since the sounds represented by the Syriac letters ܬ and ܢ are not distinguished in
Iranian languages, such an orthographic error would not be unusual for a Persian or
even Sogdian speaker.

⁸⁰ Alternatively, this may represent the cognate Arabic word ڤلان, *falān* (a loan-word
into Persian).

⁸¹ The name ܠܬܢܐ occurs twice on the Xi'an Stele (Hunter 2010, p. 362) and six times
in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 287).

⁸² Admittedly, the verb should precede the name here; since it is written below the
name, it was perhaps an afterthought. The name ܠܬܢܐ occurs four times in the
gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 288, where it is erroneously listed as ܠܬܢܐ;
Klein 2000, № 27).

⁸³ On whom, see Sims-Williams 1988 [1989]; Brock 1995. The Syriac and Sogdian
texts of his hagiography can be found in Müller & Lentz, 1934, pp. 559-564.

⁸⁴ Hunter & Dickens 2014, entry 45 for SyrHT 45 & 46; entry 389 on MIK III 45;
Appendix XV, entry 9 for n164.

⁸⁵ An alternate reading of ܠܬܢܐ, *Abū ZKRY* is unlikely; if the notion “father of
Zachariah” were intended, it would be spelled ܠܬܢܐ.

⁸⁶ As noted above, not all clerics are required to be celibate in the Church of the East
(or the Syrian Orthodox Church, for that matter); apart from monastics, celibacy is
only required of bishops, metropolitans and patriarchs.

including *Abū Bishr Mattā b. Yūnus*,⁸⁷ *Abū al-Faraj Grigorios Bar*
‘Ebroyo,⁸⁸ *Abū al-Faraj ‘Abd Allāh Ibn al-Ṭayyib*,⁸⁹ *Eliya III Abū Ḥalīm*⁹⁰
and *Theodoros Abū Qurra*.⁹¹

In this case, could *ZNRY* in ܠܬܢܐ, *Abū ZNRY* be a reference to the
zunnar, the girdle worn by Jews, Christians and Zoroastrians at
various times in Islamic polities to differentiate them from Muslims?⁹²
Indeed, the word has a monastic origin and undoubtedly reflects the pre-
Muslim practice of monks, priests and other clerics wearing a girdle
known as ܠܬܢܐ, *zunnārā* in Syriac (from Gr. ζωνάριον).⁹³ Moreover, the
zunnārā/zunnar is referred to in Syriac and Christian Arabic literature as a
symbol of the monk’s commitment to celibacy, worship and ministry, to
the separation of the base passions from the higher goal of serving God and
to general spiritual preparation, perhaps reflecting the biblical injunction
ܠܬܢܐ ܠܬܢܐ ܠܬܢܐ “gird up the loin(s) of your mind.” (I Peter
1:13)⁹⁴ Thus, if the reading *Abū ZNRY* is correct, *ZNRY* may be a reference
to the writer’s piety as a monk or possibly ascetic.

[57] Sadly, the third set of inscriptions on the upper cliff, located under
a very small overhang and comprising two lines written in black ink with a
few words inscribed at right angles to this, may no longer be extant;
although it was photographed in 1995, it was not located in 2009. Due to
being written in ink which subsequently faded, it was largely illegible,
except for some scattered letters and words:

⁸⁷ A member of the translation movement in Baghdad (d. 940) who initially studied
and taught in the Monastery of Mar Mari (Church of the East); see “*Mattā b. Yūnus*”
in *EF*.

⁸⁸ A famous Syriac polymath and writer (d. 1286) who, as *maphrian* of the Syrian
Orthodox Church, was second in rank to the patriarch of that Church; see “*Ibn al-*
Ibrī” in *EF*.

⁸⁹ A physician, philosopher, theologian and secretary to the Catholicos-patriarch of the
Church of the East (d. 1043) who was also a life-long monk; see “*Ibn al- Ṭayyib*” in
EF.

⁹⁰ Catholicos-patriarch of the Church of the East (1176-90).

⁹¹ Melkite Bishop of Ḥarrān (d. ca. 820) and a famous Christian apologist who wrote
in Syriac, Greek and Arabic; see “*Abū Qurra*” in *EF*. My thanks to Thomas Carlson
(personal correspondence, July 26, 2014) for this list, gleaned from the Syriaca.org
list of Syriac authors (not publicly available at the time of writing).

⁹² The transliteration from Arabic is not strictly correct; one would expect ܠܬܢܐ to
represent Ar. زنار.

⁹³ The inscription in question clearly does not include the Syriac word ܠܬܢܐ.

⁹⁴ Syriac text from <http://dukhrana.com/peshitta/>. References to both literal and symbol-
ic uses of the *zunnārā/zunnar* by monastics and clerics can be found in the *Chro-
nicle of Seert* (Scher 1919, p. 630), the *Book of the Fathers* (Parisot 1890, p. 35) and
‘*Abdisho’ Bar Brikha’s Book of the Pearl* (Badger 1852, p. 418). I am indebted to
Salam Rassi (personal correspondence, July 29, 2014) for this information and these
references.

off, including [69] ܣܠܝܚܐ, “the sinner X...”¹²⁴; [70] ܐܠܝܝܐ, *Eliya Bar* (the rest of the name is illegible); [71] ܠܠܐ, “above” or the beginning of ܠܠܡ, “forever”; and [72] ܕܝܘܪܝܝܫ, likely the beginning of the name ܕܝܘܪܝܝܫ, *Giwardis*. Other inscriptions located just above and below these, one of which was published in Savchenko’s 1996 article, are addressed below.¹²⁵ [73] Another inscription published in the same article contains the name ܣܝܪܝܝܫ, *Sargis*¹²⁶ written twice, one above the other and each preceded by what appears to be a crude triangle; above this are the remnants of an otherwise illegible inscription ending in ܐܠܝܝܐ [fig. 14].

Elsewhere, amidst a number of vertically-written inscriptions in various states of legibility and to the left of a cross, we find [74] another instance of the Middle and New Persian name ܒܝܬܝܝܐ, *Baxtiyār* and, [75] immediately to its left in a smaller hand, is the word ܠܐ, “he comforted” or ܠܒ, “he built” (perhaps originally part of a longer phrase). [76] Below this can be seen either ܝܠܐ (as noted above, this may represent the Sogdian name *Vōr*, meaning “brown”) or ܝܠܐ, representing the Middle Persian name *Bōd*, probably meaning “perception, consciousness”; this was the name of the translator of the Old Syriac version of *Kalilah and Dimnah*, according to ‘Abdisho bar Berikha’s *Catalogue of Syriac Writers* (ca. 1318).¹²⁷ [77] Underneath is another occurrence of the word ܠܝܫܢܐ, “Hosanna” (or the name *Awša’nā*). [78] Below this, barely visible, are traces of characters in which one is tempted to see another instance of the name ܩܘܪܝܐܩܘܫ, *Quriaqus*.¹²⁸

¹²⁴ The letter ܐ indicates that the following illegible name must be of Iranian origin (Persian or possibly Sogdian). Possible Persian names include *Khosrau* (ܚܝܫܪܐ), although this is usually rendered as ܚܝܫܪܐ in Syriac), *Khorshid* (ܚܝܫܝܕ) or a compound name beginning with *Khodā* (ܚܕܐ), “Lord,” such as *Khodādād* (ܚܕܐܕܐܕ), “given by the Lord”; cf. those monks and bishops in the Church of the East during the 5th-7th centuries whose names contained the Middle Persian onomastic element *Xvadāy*, “lord, ruler, master,” spelled with an initial ܕ in the sources that have come down to us (Gignoux *et al.* 2009, № 434-437).

¹²⁵ With reference to Savchenko 1996, Fig. 18.

¹²⁶ Savchenko, 1996, Fig. 15, also read there as ܣܝܪܝܝܫ, the name occurs five times on the Xi’an Stele (Hunter 2010, p. 362) and 15 times in the Semirechye gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 292; Kokovtsov 1904-1905 [1906], № 6) and is also found on one of the Öngüt Turkic gravestones from Inner Mongolia (Halbertsma 2015, № 29). Sergius was a popular saint in Central Asia, as discussed in Hunter, 1989/1991, pp. 154-155; one of his namesakes rose to prominence under Kublai Khan according to Marco Polo (Latham 1958, pp. 210-211; see also Pelliot 1959, pp. 774-776; Ligeti 1972).

¹²⁷ Assemani 1725, p. 219; see also Gignoux *et al.* 2009, № 123; Justi 1895, p. 71. For a discussion of the name, see de Blois 1990, pp. 2-3. *Bōd* is given the ecclesiastical title “Periodeutes” (Syr. ܒܝܬܝܝܐ, from Gr. *περιδευτής*), referring to “a visiting priest acting as the bishop’s representative in visiting villages and monasteries” (Payne Smith 1903, p. 460).

¹²⁸ Savchenko 1996, Fig. 16, read there as ܠܝܫܢܐ.

Yet another group of inscriptions (most of which are only partially legible), includes [79] the name ܐܠܝܝܐ ܒܝܬܝܝܐ, *Išo Bar Henanišo*¹²⁹ (misspelled as ܐܠܝܝܐ), with crosses preceding and following ܐܠܝܐ on the first line and preceding ܐܠܝܝܐ ܒܝܬܝܝܐ on the second line; [80] below is what appears to be another cross incorporating the abbreviated word ܐܠܝܐ (ܐܠܝܐ), “grace” along the horizontal axis.¹³⁰

Above the inscription mentioned earlier which begins “*Yuhannan* the sinner obtained mercy,” several lines are scratched—as noted above, the surface layer has flaked off in numerous places, making it difficult to interpret many of the inscriptions—including the following, reading from top to bottom, which seem to be written in the same hand and may be intended to be read together¹³¹:

[81] ܣܠܝܚܐ, “the sinner”;

[82] ܠܐ, “he answered”;

[83] ܐܠܝܐ, perhaps a misspelling of the name ܐܠܝܐ, *Yoel*¹³²;

[84] ܐܠܝܐ ܒܝܬܝܝܐ ܐܠܝܐ, “the sinner *Quriaqus* kept vigil/stayed the night” (underneath a cross);

[85] ܐܠܝܐ ܒܝܬܝܝܐ, “*Yuhannan* with us”;

[86] ܐܠܝܐ ܒܝܬܝܝܐ ܐܠܝܐ, DW_G’R/RW_G’R, perhaps a Middle or New Persian word containing the agent noun suffix ܓܪ, *-gar*, in which case it may indicate the profession of *Yuhannan* or one of the others listed above it – an obvious possibility is *durgar*, “carpenter”¹³³;

[87] ܣܠܝܚܐ ܐܠܝܐ, “the sinner *Yuhannan*”;

[88] ܐܠܝܐ ܒܝܬܝܝܐ, *BRXLF*, which seems to be a name of the type ܐܠܝܐ, *Bar*, “son of,” with ܐܠܝܐ, *RLF* possibly representing the Arabic loan-word into Persian ܠܝܐ, “successor,” in which case it may be a Syriac calque of Persian ܠܝܐ, “son worthy of his father, good son”¹³⁴;

[89] ܐܠܝܐ, “they departed” or ܐܠܝܐ, “they gained strength, prevailed.”

Although not published in Savchenko’s 1996 article, it is appropriate here to mention another group of inscriptions located below those just described, which include the following:

¹²⁹ The name ܐܠܝܐ occurs ten times in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 290; Klein 2000, № 1).

¹³⁰ Savchenko 1996, Fig. 17, read there as ܐܠܝܐ ܐܠܝܐ. The form ܐܠܝܐ is likely an abbreviation for ܐܠܝܐ, the emphatic state of this word. Again, this inscription was not located and photographed in 2009.

¹³¹ Savchenko 1996, Fig. 18, read by Savchenko only as ܣܠܝܚܐ ܐܠܝܐ.

¹³² The name ܐܠܝܐ does not occur in the gravestone corpus.

¹³³ This would be the Middle Persian word (MacKenzie 1971, p. 28); New Persian has ܕܪܝܕܓܪ, *durūdgār*.

¹³⁴ The letter ܐ indicates that the language cannot be Syriac; since Sogdian does not have the sound /l/, it is most likely Persian. A less likely reading is ܐܠܝܐ, *BRX’F*.

[90] ܐܝܬܐ (ܐܝܬܐ) ܐܝܬܐ, “the sinner ...išo”¹³⁵, underneath which is an illegible word ܐܝܬܐ(ܐܝܬܐ);

[91] ܐܝܬܐ (ܐܝܬܐ) ܐܝܬܐ, BWZKRY... Bar N...; no initial ܐ is visible, the first word is unlikely to be a name like ܐܝܬܐ, at the end of word, *Abū ZKRY*, but it may be a transliteration of Arabic بذكرى, “in memory of,” in which case there may be an illegible name between it and ܐܝܬܐ(ܐܝܬܐ), which is written on the line below (and this sentiment can be tentatively connected with the two requests in inscription [62] that individuals be remembered);¹³⁶

[92] ܐܝܬܐ, *Yawseph*;¹³⁷

[93] ܐܝܬܐ ܐܝܬܐ ܐܝܬܐ, “may the sinner *Raphael* be loved” (followed by an illegible word); note the contrast with the standard spelling of ܐܝܬܐ;¹³⁸ the letter ܐ is inserted in other names of Hebrew origin in the corpus also, namely ܐܝܬܐ, *Yoel* and ܐܝܬܐ, *Mikhael*;

[94] Below this is what appears to be ܐܝܬܐ ܐܝܬܐ, “the builder/founder loves...”;

Also somewhat visible in places under the patina on the rock are scattered words such as [95] ܐܝܬܐ, “the sinner” and [96] ܐܝܬܐ, “to you”.

LOWER CLIFF INSCRIPTIONS (PREVIOUSLY UNPUBLISHED)

There are numerous other inscriptions from the lower cliff that are not included in Savchenko’s 1996 article; in the discussion below, those occurring in groups are treated before those that occur on their own.¹³⁹ Those that could be located in 2009 are addressed in this section; those which could not be located but were previously photographed in 1995 are addressed in the next section.

Part of the cliff where the rock has a pinkish hue contains a large number of inscriptions interspersed with several small crosses. Numerous individual letters are visible, but many inscriptions are indecipherable due to both fissures in the rock and the layering of inscriptions on top of each other. Moreover, it is very difficult to discern which visible words belong

¹³⁵ This is likely a compound name ending in -išo, with the meaning “the ___ of Jesus.” Possibilities include ܐܝܬܐ, ‘*Abdišo*, ܐܝܬܐ, *Henanišo* and ܐܝܬܐ, *Malekišo*, all found elsewhere in the corpus.

¹³⁶ This would be odd to have an Arabic non-onomastic element in these inscriptions, where such words are by and large Syriac, with the exception of a few Persian examples.

¹³⁷ The name ܐܝܬܐ does not occur in the Semirechye gravestone corpus, but there is one occurrence of it on the Öngüt Turkic gravestones from Inner Mongolia (Halbertsma 2015, № 8).

¹³⁸ The name ܐܝܬܐ does not occur in the gravestone corpus.

¹³⁹ Otherwise, these previously unpublished lower cliff inscriptions are not presented in any particular order.

with each other, if any. However, the following can be made out (from top to bottom):

[97] A simple cross to the right of two figures, each resembling the Chinese character 山, “mountain,” one of which is over a third such figure;¹⁴⁰

[98] ܐܝܬܐ, “may he/it depart,” immediately to the left of what looks like ܐܝܬܐ, “we see/perceive” (due to the layered nature of inscriptions in this section, it is unclear if these are all part of one inscription or not);

[99] Another instance of ܐܝܬܐ, “may he/it depart,” (unless it should be read with several characters to the right as the name ܐܝܬܐ, ‘*Abdišo*), a little above and to the left of ܐܝܬܐ ܐܝܬܐ, “*Yuhannan* the priest, vigil”;

[100] To the right, ܐܝܬܐ ܐܝܬܐ, “the sinner *Yuhannan*,” underneath which can be seen ܐܝܬܐ and then ܐܝܬܐ, although the meaning of these two words is unclear¹⁴¹;

[101] To the left of this, ܐܝܬܐ, “he cried out”;

[102] Lower down, the words ܐܝܬܐ (ܐܝܬܐ) ܐܝܬܐ, “may... *Hagar* grow cool” are visible, with ܐܝܬܐ (ܐܝܬܐ) perhaps referring to ܐܝܬܐ, lit. “the house of *Hagar*,” a reference to the Arabs.¹⁴²

The occurrence twice of ܐܝܬܐ, “may he/it depart,” evokes images of a pilgrim, penitent or celibate monastic praying for deliverance from some form of temptation or demonic presence, a common theme in writings concerned with Christian asceticism. A smaller and more distinct group of inscriptions (along with a simple cross and modern graffiti in the form of the Cyrillic initials A. A. II.) contains the following names and words [fig. 15]:

[103] ܐܝܬܐ, “my prayer,” below which appears to be another attempt at writing the same word, with the first letter obscured by encrustations on the rock: ܐܝܬܐ;

¹⁴⁰ This is not to suggest that these are in fact Chinese characters. Although there were strong historical ties between the Sogdians and the Chinese, there was rarely more than a nominal allegiance in Sogdiana to the Chinese emperor. Once it became obvious that he was unable or unwilling to intervene in the Arab conquest of Sogdiana, Chinese influence to the west of the Tien Shan diminished even more, vanishing altogether in the wake of the Arab victory at the Battle of Talas (751). However, since this is one of the easier Chinese characters to write, it is possible that someone who had travelled to Chinese Turkestan (or even a member of the Mongol invasion force in 1220) could have left these marks. Alternatively, the resemblance to the Chinese character may be purely coincidental.

¹⁴¹ Both words call to mind Syr. ܐܝܬܐ, “family, race, nation, order, sort, kind, gender.”

¹⁴² If this reading and interpretation are correct, the inscription seems to be an expression of dissatisfaction with Arab (or more generally Muslim) rule. Alternately, the second word could be read as ܐܝܬܐ or ܐܝܬܐ, perhaps representing a name?

[118] ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ, “the sinner *Bar Yuhannan*,” below which are traces of various Syriac characters.

The following are individual inscriptions which are not part of larger groupings:

[119] ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ, “*Henanišo*... calling, vocation,” followed by a very poorly written word (ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ?)¹⁵⁰;

[120] ܐܠܗܐ, “the sinner,” followed by an illegible name that might be ܐܠܗܐ, *Yuhannan*, and on the line below ܐܠܗܐ (ܐܠܗܐ), *Bar ...iel*; typical Syriac names ending in ܐܠܗܐ which might fit in the lacuna caused by the surface layer of the rock flaking off include ܐܠܗܐ, *Daniel* or ܐܠܗܐ, *Mikhael*¹⁵¹;

[121] ܐܠܗܐ, “he led into sin”; this makes little sense without more context, unless it refers to the devil¹⁵² [fig. 17];

[122] ܐܠܗܐ, “to/by *Yuhannan*”; with one or two traces of what may be ܐܠܗܐ, “the sinner” above; this name and others written on the same piece of rock are written on long baselines;

[123] ܐܠܗܐ, “have pity on us,” followed by what appears to be another occurrence of ܐܠܗܐ, “the sinner”;¹⁵³ [124] underneath is written ܐܠܗܐ, representing the Turkic name *Qut*, “soul, spirit, vitality, life, fortune, chance, luck, mercy, success”¹⁵⁴; [125] to the lower right is another instance of ܐܠܗܐ, *Yuhannan* [fig. 18];

[126] ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ, “the sinner ‘*WQN/WKYN*,” adjacent to a Maltese-style cross; this might possibly be a variant spelling of the Syriac name ܐܠܗܐ, *Awgen*,¹⁵⁵ but it is not attested elsewhere (and indeed is not necessary in Syriac script)¹⁵⁶;

¹⁵⁰ A line above the name ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ is all but illegible.

¹⁵¹ Given other occurrences of names in the Urgut corpus ending in ܐܠܗܐ (e.g. ܐܠܗܐ, Raphael; ܐܠܗܐ, Mishael?), it is possible that these names were not spelled with the orthographically-correct ending that included an *aleph* (i.e. ܐܠܗܐ).

¹⁵² Alternately, it could be an incorrectly spelled attempt at ܐܠܗܐ, “I will boast” or the standard ܐܠܗܐ, “the sinner”, with ܐܠܗܐ mysteriously moved to the beginning of the word.

¹⁵³ If this word indeed follows on from “have mercy on us,” one would expect the plural form ܐܠܗܐ, “the sinners”, but (as indicated elsewhere) the plural *seyame* marker is rarely found in the Urgut inscriptions, another indication that those leaving the inscriptions were not well versed in Syriac grammar.

¹⁵⁴ On the Turkic word, see Clauson 1972, p. 594; for its use as a name, see Rásonyi & Baski 2007, pp. 505-506.

¹⁵⁵ On Mar Awgen, the traditional founder of monasticism in Mesopotamia, see Brock *et al.* 2011, p. 48. The name ܐܠܗܐ does not occur in the Semirechye gravestone corpus, but there is one occurrence of it on the Öngüt Turkic gravestones from Inner Mongolia (Halbertsma 2015, № 16).

¹⁵⁶ The spelling of the names ܐܠܗܐ, *Sargis* and ܐܠܗܐ, *Givargis* in Sogdian script as *srkys* and *yw'rkys* respectively (Lurje 2010, № 1097 and № 1524) is irrele-

[127] ܐܠܗܐ, “he plundered me” (possibly a reference to an ascetic experience with the divine?), surrounded by illegible traces of numerous words, many of which are obscured by mineral encrustations;

[128] ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ, *BWRPL/QWRPL/SWRPL*—the fourth letter looks similar to the Sogdian letter ܐ, /f/ and the fifth letter may be followed by a faint ܐ—written to the left of a simple cross and probably a name, based on the next line ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ, *Bar Gabriel*¹⁵⁷ (ܐܠܗܐ in *Gabriel* is inscribed over top of ܐܠܗܐ as if the letter was initially missed and had to be inserted after the name was written);

[129] slightly above and to the left, in a smaller hand, a name beginning with ܐܠܗܐ, *Abū*, is visible (the two or three subsequent letters are illegible) [fig. 19];

[130] ܐܠܗܐ (ܐܠܗܐ), one or two very crudely written words inscribed next to a simple cross and above later graffiti (another occurrence of the Cyrillic initials A. A. U.);

[131] ܐܠܗܐ, possibly a mixture of the two Hebrew names ܐܠܗܐ, *Moše*, and ܐܠܗܐ, *Mišael*, or a misspelling of the latter, the original Hebrew name of the companion of Daniel renamed Meshach (Dan. 1:6-7)¹⁵⁸; various individual or pairs of characters can be seen above (ܐܠܗܐ), to the right (ܐܠܗܐ) and below (ܐܠܗܐ);

[132] ܐܠܗܐ, “vigil, place to stay the night” (preceded and followed by unintelligible words);

[133] ܐܠܗܐ, “the sinner,” followed by an illegible name ending in ܐܠܗܐ ... 'B or ... 'V, [134] below which is what appears to be another instance of the name ܐܠܗܐ, *Eliya*;

[135] ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ, “the sinner *Mikhael*”¹⁵⁹ written vertically, with what seems like an alternative spelling of the name ܐܠܗܐ; if so, then the substitution of ܐܠܗܐ for ܐܠܗܐ may indicate a native Sogdian speaker, since (as noted above) the sound /k/ is written with the former character when

vant, since Sogdian script lacks a letter for the sound /g/, whereas Syriac script does not.

¹⁵⁷ The name ܐܠܗܐ occurs twice on the Xi'an Stele (not included in Hunter 2010), but does not occur in the gravestone corpus. This name would be pronounced *Gavriel/Gawriel* by native Syriac-speakers, but we do not know if this pronunciation was used by those who left the Urgut inscriptions.

¹⁵⁸ The name ܐܠܗܐ does not occur in the gravestone corpus, but it occurs in the Syriac *History of John the Short*, which mentions a church built in the name of the three Hebrew youths cast into the furnace by Nebuchadnezzar: ܐܠܗܐ ܕܥܠܡܐ, “Hananiah, ‘Azariah and Mišael” (Nau 1913, pp. 295 [Syriac], 305-306 [French]).

¹⁵⁹ The name, spelled ܐܠܗܐ, occurs once on the Xi'an Stele (not included in Hunter 2010) and once in the gravestone corpus (Chabot 1906, p. 291).

As we find elsewhere in Central Asian Christian texts, particularly on the gravestones, the names above reflect a mixture of ethnic influences. However, the majority are typical Syriac names, whether commemorating biblical characters (*Eliyā, Gabriel, Iyob, Yuḥannan, Yawnan, Yawseph, Yoel, Ya'qob, Išo, Moše, Mikhael, Marqus, Stephanus*), saints and angels (*Awgen, Giwargis, Sargis, Quriaqus, Raphael* and the specifically Central Asian saint *Baršabbā*) or attributes (*Awša'nā, Henanišo, Yaldā, Malekišo, 'Abdišo, Šliḥa*). Readers will have noticed the seemingly ubiquitous presence of the Syriac name *Yuḥannan* in the Urgut corpus, occurring more than 25 times, including in patronymic forms. It is also the most common name on the Xi'an "Nestorian" Stele found in China and dating to 780/81 CE,¹⁸⁵ occurring 11 times (along with one occurrence of its Greek variant Ἰωάννης , *Yuhannis*), and the Semirechye gravestone corpus, where it occurs 35 times.¹⁸⁶ Thus, it seems to have been very popular amongst Christians in Central Asia and China (most of whom were speakers of Iranian or Turkic languages). One does wonder, however, if there really were that many members of the community named "John" and whether so many of them struggled with a sense of their own sinfulness, as suggested by the high occurrence of the phrase "the sinner *Yuḥannan*" (at least five times in the corpus)!

Although Syriac names are clearly in the majority, the presence of Arabic, Iranian and Turkic names is also significant. As noted above, Arabic names—such as *Abū Nazar, Maṣṣūr, Nāṣir, Nūr* and *Rafīq*—can be seen as an indication of the spread of Arab and Muslim influence after the Arab conquest of Central Asia, particularly during the period of Samanid power, as well as possibly the influence of Christians from Iraq, many of whom came to use Arabic names as well as or instead of Syriac ones. At the same time, names of Middle and New Persian origin—like *Bāmar, Buxt, Baxtiyār, Māh-dōk, Tahm, Nawrūz* and *Sher*—are to be expected more than Arabic names, given the location of Sogdiana in the Iranian-speaking world. However, there is a marked lack of demonstrably Sogdian names; the only two mentioned above—*Bōč* and *Vōr*—are both tentative readings. The relative scarcity of Turkic names—*Alp, Mangu, Qut* and possibly *Boz-ul*—is not surprising, in contrast to locations further north

by the Turkic name *Bōgā Totoq* would be given a new name (sadly, the text breaks off precisely at this point): see Hunter & Dickens 2014, entry 156 for SyrHT 161. On the practice of replacing Middle Persian names with Syriac ones in Sassanid Iran, see Gignoux & Jullien 2006.

¹⁸⁵ See Hunter 2010, p. 362, where it is said to be "cited no less than 11 eleven [*sic*] times" (referring to both spellings); images of the stele show that ܝܫܐܢܢܐ occurs 11 times and ܝܫܐܢܢܐ once.

¹⁸⁶ Chabot 1906, p. 290; Klein 2000, № 28, where it is incorrectly read as ܝܫܐܢܢܐ , YWNYNN. On its use in Sogdian texts, see Lurje 2010, № 1534.

(Semirechye) or east (Turfan and the Tarim Basin in general) where Turkic speakers were predominant at the time. Finally, it is striking that none of the names found in the inscriptions are female, perhaps lending weight to the notion that those who left their imprint in the rock just above the excavated church building were indeed majoritively members of a monastic community (if they were primarily pilgrims, one would expect at least some females to have recorded their visit).¹⁸⁷

Discussion of the names in the Urgut corpus in turn raises the issue of the linguistic status of the community – what language did the Christians of Urgut use outside of the liturgy, which was invariably recited in Syriac? Although we cannot know for sure in the absence of solid evidence, it is possible that the presence of native speakers of Syriac from Iraq determined that the liturgical language was also the *lingua franca* of the community; this would have depended on the prestige of Syriac outside a liturgical context, which in turn may have affected attitudes of the Syriac-speakers and the native Persian-speakers towards learning each other's language.¹⁸⁸ However, the general poor quality of writing and apparently frequent orthographic and grammatical errors in the Syriac inscriptions suggest that there were few who were knowledgeable in the language amongst those who left their mark, whether they were monastics or otherwise. Finally, the remnants of words in Uyghur script, suggesting that a visitor from Chinese Turkestan was on the site at some time, perhaps during or after the Mongol invasion of 1220, remind us that visitors came to the area from both west and east.

As noted above, the range of non-onomastic words is typical for such a community. In addition to the frequent references to vigils, we also find definite or possible references to such notions as 1) seeking, discerning and perceiving (the calling, guidance or will of God?); 2) sin, sinfulness and sinners (in various different grammatical forms); 3) blessing, grace, peace and recovery (presumably in relation to both physical or spiritual ailments); 4) crying out, being heard and being answered (likely references to prayer); 5) asking for and obtaining pity or mercy; 6) asking to be remembered; 7) making the sign of the cross; 8) being tested; and 9) asking for something (perhaps a trial or temptation) to depart. There may even be references to severe weather, a reminder that spending the night in the mountains without appropriate shelter can be a daunting experience, especially in winter. Most of these references are fragmentary and difficult to

¹⁸⁷ This in stark contrast to the aforementioned Christian gravestones from Semirechye, as well as those from Inner Mongolia mentioned elsewhere in the notes to this article, where females make up a significant percentage of the corpus.

¹⁸⁸ On the historical relationship between Syriac and Persian in the Church of the East, see Wilmshurst 2011, pp. 44, 80 and, more generally, Payne 2015.

decipher without a larger context, although we are fortunate to have a small number of inscriptions that run longer than just a few words. Finally, the proposed dates found on two inscriptions, 752/53 CE and 1247/48 CE (or the three other possible readings of this latter date), fit roughly within the chronological spectrum dictated by the archaeological finds associated with the monastery, although the 13th century date, coming as it does after the Mongol invasion of 1220, is slightly later than the latest dateable artefact.

Sadly, unlike the analogous situation with the Christian documents found at the monastic site of Bulayīq near Turfan, Chinese Turkestan, we have no texts at Urgut (apart from the inscriptions) to give us further insights into the specific nature of the Christian community there. But the inscriptions nonetheless bear witness to a group of Christians who, during a time which saw the rise and fall of numerous dynasties, including the Samanids, Qarakhanids, Seljūk Turks, Qarakhitai, Khwarezmshahs and Mongols, maintained their faith in the middle of the many upheavals that occurred during the 600 or more years that they inhabited the site.

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TABLE OF PERSONAL NAMES FOUND IN URGUT INSCRIPTIONS¹⁸⁹

Syriac script ¹⁹⁰	Transcription	Origin	No.
ܐܠܦ = 𐰆𐰪	<i>Alp</i>	Turkic	1
ܐܒܐ	<i>Abū...</i>	Arabic	2
ܐܒܐܝܢܝܐ	<i>Abū ZNRY</i>	Arabic	1
ܐܒܐܢܐܝܪ	<i>Abū Nazar</i>	Arabic (أبو نذر)	1-2?
ܐܒܐܢܐܝܪ?	<i>Abū Nur?</i>	Arabic (أبو نور)	1?
ܐܘܓܝܢ / ܐܘܓܝܢܐ	<i>Awgen (Eugene)</i>	Syriac	1-2?
ܐܘܫܐܢܐ	<i>Awša'nā (Hosanna)</i>	Syriac	2
ܐܠܝܐ	<i>Eliyā (Elijah)</i>	Syriac	3-5?
ܐܣܝܝܐ?	<i>Asiy?</i>	Turkic	1?
ܐܡܐܪ	<i>Bāmar</i>	Middle Persian	1
ܐܚܢܐܝܪܐܠܢܐ	<i>B'ČRNWRBLNZ</i>	unknown	1
ܐܕܐ?	<i>Bōd?</i>	Middle Persian	1?
ܐܠܐܝܢܐ ܐܠܐܝܢܐ ܐܠܐܝܢܐ	<i>BWRPL/QWRPL/SW RPL</i>	unknown	1
ܐܡܢܐ	<i>BWNS</i>	unknown	1
ܐܡܠܐ	<i>BWSL = Boz-ul?</i>	Turkic?	1
ܐܕܐ?	<i>Bōc?</i>	Sogdian	1?
ܐܡܐܐ?	<i>Buqa?</i>	Turkic	1?
ܐܕܐ?	<i>Vōr?</i>	Sogdian	3?
ܐܡܐܐ	<i>Buxt</i>	Middle Persian	1
ܐܡܐܐܝܐ & ܐܡܐܐܝܐ	<i>Baxtiyār</i>	Middle/New Persian (بختیار)	3-4?
ܐܡܐܐܝܐ?	<i>BRXLF?</i>	Syr. ܐܡܐܐ + Ar. خلف?	1?
ܐܡܐܐܐ	<i>Baršabbā</i>	Syriac	2-3?
ܐܡܐܐܐ	<i>Gabriel</i>	Syriac	1
ܐܡܐܐܐܐ	<i>Giwargis (George)</i>	Syriac	1-2?
ܐܡܐܐܐܐ	<i>Henanišo</i>	Syriac	4-6?
ܐܡܐܐܐ	<i>Tahm</i>	Middle/New Persian (تهم)	1
ܐܡܐܐ?	<i>Iyob (Job)?</i>	Syriac	1?
ܐܡܐܐܐ	<i>Yuhannan (John)</i>	Syriac	26-33?

¹⁸⁹ Not including names not used as personal names, e.g. ܐܡܐܐ, *Hagar*.

¹⁹⁰ With the exception of the first entry, which is in Uyghur script.

ܝܠܢ	<i>Yawnan (Jonah)</i>	Syriac	1-2?
ܝܘܨܬ	<i>Yawseph (Joseph)</i>	Syriac	1
ܝܘܠ	<i>Yoel (Joel)?</i>	Syriac	1
ܝܠܕܐ	<i>Yaldā</i>	Syriac	1
ܝܥܩܒ	<i>Ya'qob (Jacob)?</i>	Syriac	1?
ܝܫܘܥ	<i>Išo (Jesus)</i> ¹⁹¹	Syriac	2-4?
ܡܕܝܢܬܐ	<i>Māh-dōk?</i>	Middle Persian	1?
ܡܘܨܝ	<i>Moše (Moses)</i>	Syriac	1-3?
ܡܡܫܬܦ	<i>MWŠTP</i>	unknown	1
ܡܝܚܐܝܠ	<i>Mikhael (Michael)</i>	Syriac	1
ܡܝܫܐܝܠ	<i>Mišael?</i>	Syriac	1?
ܡܠܟܝܫܐ	<i>Malekišo</i>	Syriac	1
ܡܢܓܘ	<i>Mangu</i>	Turkic	1
ܡܢܫܘܪ	<i>Manšur</i>	Arabic (منصور)	2
ܡܪܩܘܣ	<i>Marqus (Mark)</i>	Syriac	2-3?
ܢܐܫܝܪ	<i>Nāšir</i>	Arabic (ناصر)	2
ܢܘܪ	<i>Nur?</i>	Arabic (نور)	1?
ܢܘܪܘܝܝܐ	<i>Navruz</i>	New Persian (نوروز)	1-2?
ܫܓܘܢܬܐ/ܫܢܘܢܬܐ/ ܫܦܘܢܬܐ	<i>SGWNTL/SNWNTL/ SFWNTL</i>	unknown	1?
ܫܪܓܝܫ	<i>Sargis (Sergius)</i>	Syriac	2
ܫܦܠܥܝܢܐ	<i>Stephanus (Stephen)?</i>	Syriac	1?
ܫܒܕܝܫܐ	<i>'Abdišo</i>	Syriac	1-2?
ܦܫܝܕܢ or ܦܫܝܪܢ	<i>PŠYDN or PŠYRN?</i>	unknown	1?
ܕܝܫܒܢܗ	<i>ČYŠBNH?</i>	unknown	1?
ܫܠܒܐ	<i>Šlibā?</i>	Syriac	1?
ܩܘܪܝܐܩܘܫ	<i>Quriaqus</i>	Syriac	2-4?
ܩܘܬ	<i>Qut</i>	Turkic	1
ܪܫܝܩ or ܪܫܝܩܐ	<i>Rafiq?</i>	Arabic (رفيق)	1?
ܪܫܫܐܝܠ	<i>Raphael</i>	Syriac	1
ܫܝܪ	<i>Sher</i>	New Persian (شير)	1
ܫܠܝܗܐ	<i>Šliha</i>	Syriac	1

¹⁹¹ Only instances when ܝܫܘܥ is likely a personal name (as opposed to a reference to Jesus Christ) are included here.

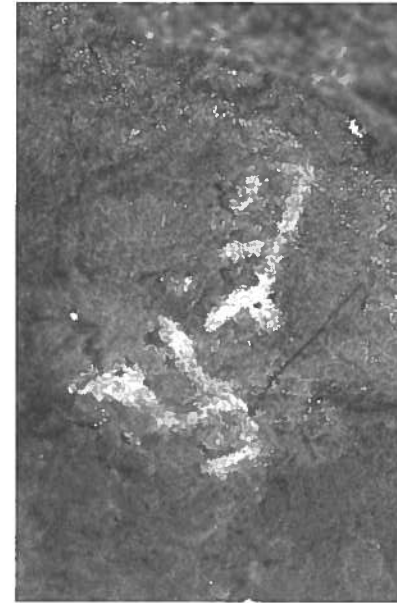


Fig. 1. Urgut Syriac inscription 011.
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Fig. 2. Urgut Syriac inscription 017-019.
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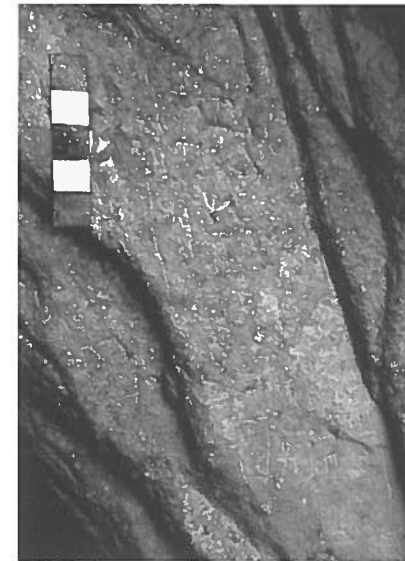


Fig. 3. Urgut Syriac inscription 023-024.
© M. Dickens, 2009.

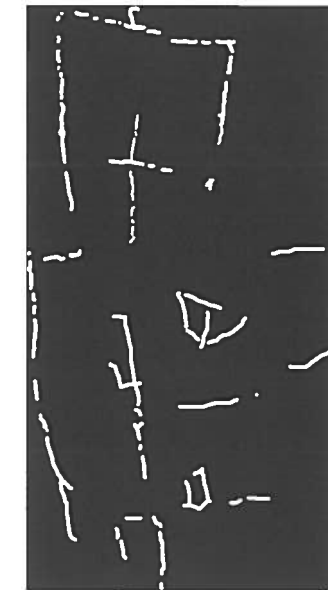


Fig. 4. Urgut Syriac inscription 24.
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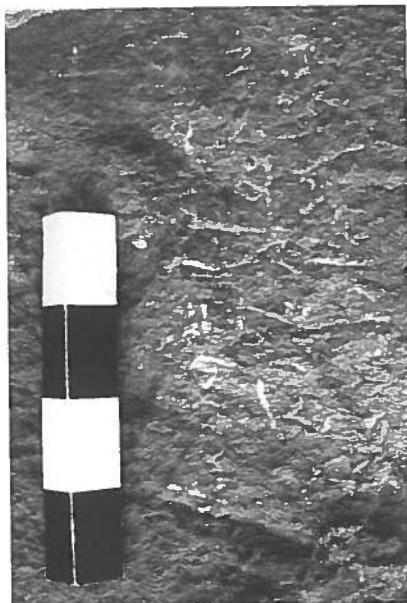


Fig. 5. Urgut Syriac inscription 031.
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Fig. 6. Urgut Syriac inscription 032.
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Fig. 7. Urgut Syriac inscription 036-043.
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Fig. 8. Urgut Syriac inscription 044-056.
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Fig. 9. Urgut Syriac cross.
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Fig. 10. Urgut Syriac inscription 058.
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Fig. 11. Urgut Syriac inscription 061.
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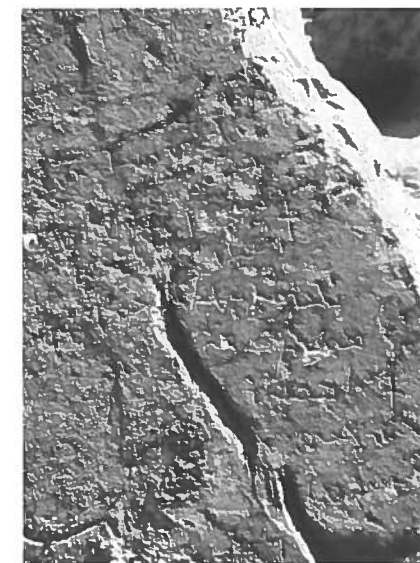


Fig. 12. Urgut Syriac inscription 062.
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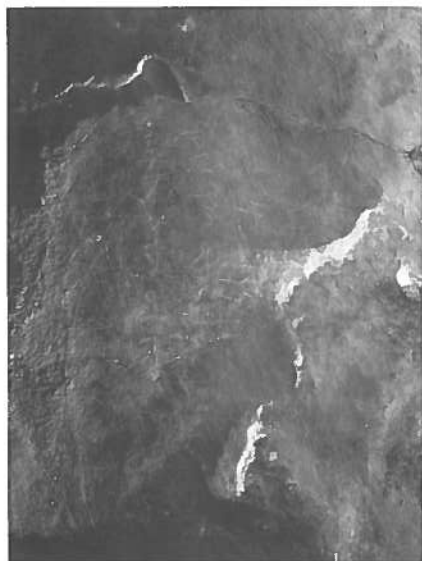


Fig. 13. Urgut Syriac inscription 063.
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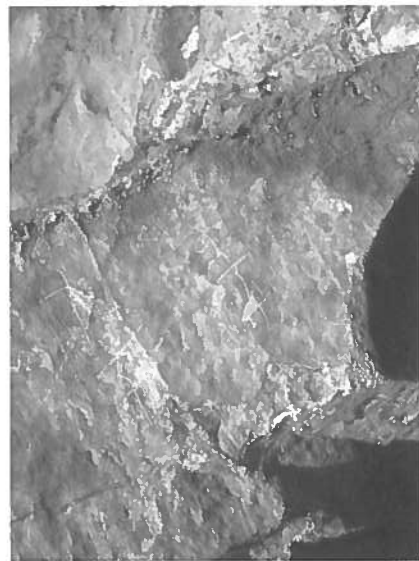


Fig. 14. Urgut Syriac inscription 073.
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Fig. 15. Urgut Syriac inscription 097-102.
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Fig. 16. Urgut Syriac inscription 116-118.
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Fig. 17. Urgut Syriac inscription 121.
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Fig. 18. Urgut Syriac inscription 123-125.
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Fig. 19. Urgut Syriac inscription 128-129.
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Fig. 20. Urgut Syriac inscription 138.
© Y. Karev, 1996.



Fig. 21. Urgut Syriac inscription 166.
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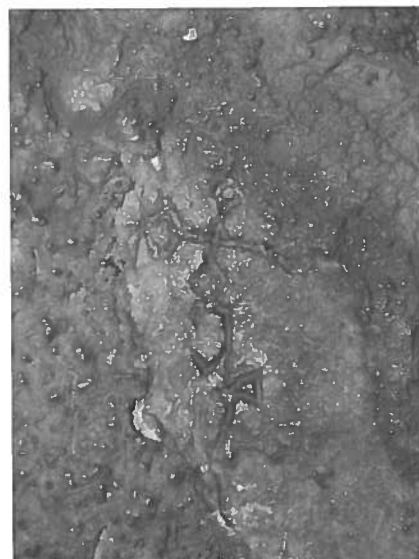


Fig. 22. Urgut Syriac inscription 167.
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