Caliphate and Kingship in a Fifteenth-Century Literary History of Muslim Leadership and Pilgrimage

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Caliphate and Kingship in a Fifteenth-Century Literary History of Muslim Leadership and Pilgrimage

al-Dahab al-masbūk fī dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḫulafā' wa-l-mulūk

Critical Edition, Annotated Translation, and Study by

Jo Van Steenbergen



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Abbreviations

AI Annales islamologiques
AJAMES Annals of Japan Association for Middle East Studies

BSOAS Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies

E12 Encyclopædia of Islam, Second Edition, ed. H.A.R. Gibb et al. (Leiden:

E.J. Brill, 1960–2009), 13 vols.

E13 Encyclopædia of Islam, THREE, ed. K. Fleet, G. Krämer et al. (Leiden, Boston:

Brill, 2007-).

EIr Encyclopædia Iranica, ed. E. Yarshater (Winona Lake, IN: Eisenbrauns,

1982-), 15 vols. published

EQ Encyclopædia of the Qur'ān, ed. J. Dammen McAuliffe (Leiden, Boston: Brill,

2001-2006), 6 vols.

Brockelmann, C., Geschichte der arabischen Litteratur, 2 vols. & 3 supple-

ments (Leiden: Brill, 1943-1949 [2nd edition]).

IJMES International Journal of Middle Eastern Studies

JAL Journal of Arabic Literature

JAOS Journal of the American Oriental Society

JESHO Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient

JNES Journal of Near Eastern Studies

JRAS Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society

JSAI Jerusalem Studies on Arabic and Islam

JSS Journal of Semitic Studies

MSR Mamlūk Studies Review

QSA Quaderni di Studi Arabi

RSO Rivisti degli Studi Orientali

SI Studia Islamica

Acknowledgements

This analytical study, critical edition, and annotated translation of al-Magrīzī's al-Dahab al-masbūk, a summary history of caliphs and other Muslim rulers who performed the hağğ, the annual pilgrimage to Mecca, has been in the making for a long time. In the autumn of 2006 the Bibliotheca Magriziana series editor and initiator, Frédéric Bauden, invited me to engage with this particular text and with the manuscript version that is preserved in the Leiden autograph collection of al-Magrīzī's opuscules (Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek, Ms Or. 560, fol. 115^b-135^a). As the relatively short text and chronographical narrative of al-Dahab al-masbūk appeared at first sight as allowing for the set-up of a manageable, pretty straightforward and clearly defined project, I happily accepted the invitation, assuming that it was an enterprise that could easily be accomplished on the side, without interfering too much with other, larger projects and commitments. As time went by, however, it transpired that this was an utterly wrong assumption and that any such liminal treatment would do grave injustice to any attempt to disclose and represent the rich complexity of this text and its meanings, and of the history and materiality of its production, reproduction and consumption. The result is that it has taken many more years and much more time than at first envisaged to accomplish the task of editing, translating, and studying this text of only 40 manuscript pages. In those years, however, this relatively brief text has compelled me to engage with a wide and highly stimulating variety of topics, debates, readings, and ideas. For this reason, this turned out to be not just a more time-consuming but also an intellectually far more rewarding enterprise than I ever could have imagined. It moreover increasingly appeared as tying in—sometimes in surprising and often also in extremely enriching ways—with my other projects, helping me to gain much better insights into how late medieval Syro-Egyptian social and cultural histories are intricately interconnected, and how the one cannot, and should not, be understood without the other. I am therefore extremely grateful to the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk, to its author Ahmad b. 'Alī l-Magrīzī, and evidently also to Frédéric Bauden, for drawing me so deeply into this world of late medieval Arabic literature, Islamic historiography, Muslim political ideology, codicology, and the ḥaǧǧ. I genuinely hope that readers and users of Caliphate and Kingship in a fifteenth-century literary history of Muslim leadership and pilgrimage will be able to share at least some of these experiences. I also hope that they will not need so much time to wrestle through a book that is as much the generalising outcome of my personal explorations into various areas of Arabo-Islamic medieval specialisation as an attempt to make al-Maqrīzī's early fifteenth-century text

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accessible in meaningful ways to a variety of specialist and non-specialist readers in the twenty-first century.

Having been in the making for such a long time, this book owes a great deal to several institutions that hosted me while I was working on it, and to many friends and colleagues who engaged in various ways with my work on al-Magrīzī's *al-Dahab al-masbūk*. First, very preliminary steps were taken when I was finishing my position as lecturer at the School of History at the University of St Andrews (UK). The main bulk of the editing, translating and annotating work for the second part of this book was done at Ghent University (Belgium), especially after I became a research professor in late 2009. A number of shorter research visits to the Netherlands-Flemish Institute in Cairo (Egypt) in 2010, 2012, and 2013 also contributed to this. The first part, presenting contextual, textual, and material analyses for al-Dahab al-masbūk, as a kind of 'cultural biography', were mainly written during my October 2014–June 2015 fellowship at the Annemarie Schimmel Kolleg 'History and Society during the Mamluk Era, 1250-1517', Bonn University (Germany). In each and every one of these institutions I had the fortunate opportunity to present my research in progress to and discuss it with a substantial host of graduate students, colleagues, and friends. I am grateful to each and every one of them. At the risk of forgetting someone, the following colleagues certainly deserve to be mentioned, for more than pleasant academic (and other) conversations and exchanges along this long road, and for the (often unconscious) contributions they made to my thinking about late medieval history and culture in general, and about al-Maqrīzī's hağğ text in particular: Angus Stewart, Rob Hoyland, Hugh Kennedy, Jan Dumolyn, Kristof D'hulster, Patrick Wing, Malika Dekkiche, Urbain Vermeulen, Clément Onimus, Julien Loiseau, Konrad Hirschler, Reuven Amitai, Kate Raphael, Stephan Conermann, Mohammed Gharaibeh and Tariq Sabraa. Ideas that eventually ended up in the first part of this book were also presented at various stages of their development in different conference papers, seminar talks and lectures between 2010 and 2014 (IMC Leeds, CHESFAME Ghent, ISAP Tunis, NVIC Cairo, ASK Bonn, École française de Rome); I am grateful to organisers and audiences alike for these opportunities to receive most valuable feedback. I furthermore owe another word of gratitude to the Bibliotheca Magriziana series editor, Frédéric Bauden, for identifying the extant manuscripts and the modern editions of al-Dahab al-masbūk, for providing me with electronic copies of all relevant manuscripts and of two editions, and for allowing me to work with a draft of a relevant part of his first volume of the series, on the Leiden manuscript. I finally also am most grateful to him for his valuable feedback on a full draft of this book; this has helped me a lot to finetune my arguments and to prevent me from making too many mistakes and XIV ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

infelicities. In the same vein, I would like to thank Brill's anonymous reader, whose detailed comments allowed me to produce a text that may hopefully be read more smoothly. Any remaining errors are of course my own.

A final word of gratitude I owe to my family: to my daughters Anna and Marie, to my sons Elias and Jonas, and, of course, to my wife, colleague, best friend and life partner, Maya Termonia. For all these years this book has been one among several projects that while in progress always seem to continue to grow larger, more time-consuming and more intrusive than anticipated. Even though I think that over the years I have learned to at least try and not get completely lost anymore in my late medieval worlds of texts, people and ideas, I realise that those worlds can yet remain very tough and annoying competition for them all. I am therefore extremely grateful for their endurance, and for time and again making me feel proud, happy and immensely lucky for being a member of this family. I thank Maya above all for bearing the often frustrating fact that from time to time I still get lost, for making my engagement with projects such as this one overall possible, and for her continued willingness to share this and all kinds of other worlds with me.

ألف شكر وبموت فيكي

Jo Van Steenbergen Antwerpen, September 2015

Introduction

Number 14 in al-Maqrīzī's autograph collection of opuscules preserved in the Leiden University library (Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek, Ms Or. 560, fols. 115^b–135^a) is a copy of the author's *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, The Moulded Gold, a summary history of the annual pilgrimage to Mecca since the days of the Prophet. This is a relatively short text of 40 handwritten pages, also known under the longer title that was later added in the header of this manuscript's fol. 115^b: "The Book of Gold Moulded in the Format of the Report of the Caliphs and Kings Who Performed the Ḥaǧǧ" (Kitāb al-Dahab al-masbūk fī dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḥulafā' wa-l-mulūk).

Discussing issues of caliphate, kingship and Mecca pilgrimage, this *al-Dahab* al-masb $\bar{u}k$ is in many ways a curious and highly intriguing little text that has so far only attracted limited scholarly attention. In accordance with the longstanding status and reputation of the Egyptian scholar, administrator, and judge Ahmad b. 'Alī l-Maqrīzī (766–845/c. 1365–1442) as one of the most important historians of his age,2 this attention has mainly considered the text for its historiographical value and for the convenience of its collection of diverse material concerning pilgrimages of illustrious caliphs and many other Muslim rulers. In a carefully organised chronographical manner this kind of collection allows this "report" to live up entirely to the promise of its longer title and to present all kinds of stories about a substantial list of rulers and their engagements with the hağğ, the annual Muslim pilgrimage to Mecca. Starting with the Prophet's *haǧǧ* of 10/632 and ending with the story of the Mecca journey in 778/1377 of the Egyptian sultan al-Malik al-Ashraf Sha'bān (r. 764-778/1363-1377), al-Dahab al-masbūk moves from the time of the Prophet, over that of the Caliphs, to that of non-caliphal rulers' pilgrimage engagements from the eleventh century onwards. Due to the work's limited size, however, the added historiographical value of its information about pilgriming Prophet, caliphs, and kings is only very limited, and the relative neglect of the text in historical research of the Mecca pilgrimage and of the history of the caliphates and of its successor polities is therefore perfectly understandable. The booklet is rather more remarkable for other reasons, not in the least from a wider literary

 $^{{\}scriptstyle 1} \quad Al-\check{G}\bar{a}sir\ (1952);\ al-\check{S}ayy\bar{a}l\ (1955);\ al-\check{S}ayy\bar{a}l\ (2000);\ Faraḥ\bar{a}t\ (2009).$

² See the biography of al-Maqrīzī by his student Ğamāl al-Dīn Yūsuf b. Taġrī Birdī in his al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 1:415-420, p. 417 ("His reputation in history and in other subjects became well-known during his life and after his death, so that he came to be referred to as a model").

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point of view as the very first to claim to offer a more or less focused stand-alone narrative of Muslim leadership of the pilgrimage.³

As will be argued in this study, the disappointing historiographical nature of al-Dahab al-masbūk is actually only one residual dimension of a text that was constructed in this unique manner for far more complex purposes. It is the complexity of these particular purposes and their concomitant literary construction that makes the text so curious, intriguing, and valuable. This has to do with an author who tries to consciously communicate through his text with changing audiences. It also has to do with the larger contexts within which all three communicative partners—author, text and audiences—operated. In the early decades of the fifteenth century these contexts were defined by substantial political, socio-economic, and cultural transformations. They were also shaped by ongoing intellectual debates about the proper social order that should accommodate such transformations. At moments such as these, stories about pilgriming rulers represented very useful material for a scholar-author such as al-Maqrīzī. Many centuries of Muslim rulers' engagements with the annual pilgrimage to Mecca turned out to have produced powerful symbolic literary tools to speak about much wider issues of Muslim leadership duties and privileges. Al-Dahab al-masbūk and its particular engagement with the metaphorical options that its subject matter offered were therefore certainly also about al-Maqrīzī's personal experience of the transformations of his time, his participation in at least some of the debates that were raging, and his pursuance of some kind of impact on various people around him.

All of these issues matter for a proper understanding of the full complexity of a literary text such as al-Maqr $\bar{z}z$'s al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$. This book, consisting of a detailed analysis, a new critical edition, and an annotated translation of the text, wishes to present this type of comprehensive understanding. Its first part presents the first thorough study of the text, conceptualised here as the reconstruction of a kind of cultural biography of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$, in its changing material and immaterial manifestations from its early fifteenth-century conception onwards. It will first pursue a reconstruction of those contexts that

³ Brockelmann's claim—following a note in the entry for *al-Dahab al-masbūk* in the *Kašf al-zunūn* by the seventeenth-century Ottoman bibliographer Ḥāǧǧī Ḥalīfa/Kātib Çelebī (1017–1067/1609–1657)—that the copy in the Leiden manuscript "only represents an excerpt from a more substantial text in five parts, completed in 841/1437 (nur ein Auszug aus einem grösseren Werk in 5 Teilen, voll. 841/1437)" was never endorsed or substantiated (*GAL*, 2:50).

⁴ This objective of reconstructing a cultural biography of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* of course refers to Kopytoff's "cultural biography of things"; this study will—even though for practical reasons mostly implicitly—take on board as key analytical tools and research questions Kopytoff's

defined the author and the production of his text as well as its reception by various audiences. The intricacies of the *haǧǧ* tradition, the dynamic practices of Muslim leadership and scholarship, al-Magrīzī's own eventful life and times, and the century-old traditions of *haǧð* writings are like a rich canvas that serves as an indispensable background for readings and studies of this literary text to fully appreciate the depth of its forms, functions, and meanings. This first chapter therefore first discusses the Muslim pilgrimage ritual and its long and intricate history, the late medieval social and cultural worlds that connected Mecca to Cairo, and the place of al-Magrīzī and his scholarship, his *al-Dahab al-masbūk* in particular, in these worlds. The second chapter moves from these defining contexts to the actual text of al-Dahab al-masbūk, set again within its wider framework of *haặặ* writings in Arabic up to the later medieval period, but focusing above all on the detailed analysis of the textual aspects of those forms, functions, and meanings and reconstructing how in the textual interaction between author and audiences al-Dahab al-masbūk was a recipient, a transmitter, and an agent of old and new claims to historical truth. These intertextual, narratological, and semiotic readings are followed in the third and final chapter of this study by the analysis of the external, material factors of those forms, functions, and meanings that defined the life of al-Dahab al-masbūk as text and object, in al-Magrīzī's time and beyond. This chapter consists basically of a descriptive study of the ten extant manuscript copies of al-Dahab al-masbūk. But it also moves beyond that. Tying together some of the insights gained from the other two chapters with this physical and paratextual manuscript mate-

explanation that "In doing the biography of a thing, one would ask questions similar to those one asks about people: What, sociologically, are the biographical possibilities inherent in its "status" and in the period and culture, and how are these possibilities realized? Where does the thing come from and who made it? What has been its career so far, and what do people consider to be an ideal career for such things? What are the recognized "ages" or periods in the thing's "life", and what are the cultural markers for them? How does the thing's use change with its age, and what happens to it when it reaches the end of its usefulness?" (Kopytoff (1986): 66-67). A parallel and similarly leading cultural biographical approach has above all been pursued in archaeology, such as proposed in a special issue of the journal World Archaeology, where Gosden and Marshall explain that "the central idea is that, as people and objects gather time, movement and change, they are constantly transformed, and these transformations of person and object are tied up with each", they are "social interactions involving people and objects [that] create meaning" (Gosden & Marshall [1999]: 169). Pursuing the cultural biography of al-Dahab al-masbūk as a thing, as an object, and as a literary text is then asking about its various transformations (as 'singularity' and as 'commodity'), its involvement in all kinds of social interactions, and its role in various processes of meaning-making.

rial, this final chapter actually aims to reconstruct in as much—occasionally necessarily speculative and hypothetical—detail as possible the history of the making and remaking of the text by author, copyists, readers, and all kinds of other users between the fifteenth century and today.

In this summing up of the history of al-Dahab al-masbūk's production, reproduction, and consumption this short text's cultural biography presents itself as extremely rich and complex indeed. Rather than merely an unsatisfying fifteenth-century summary history of the pilgrimage of Muslim rulers, it appears as one literary manifestation of the many vibrant gateways that can lead modern researchers to better understandings of the social and cultural worlds that defined its life. This was a long life full of opportunities, encounters, and transformations, only a handful of which can actually be reconstructed. At every turn, however, the text appears and re-appears above all as a node in networks of people, ideas, practices, texts, and related cultural forms, which it connects and with which it is connected in ever changing configurations. Reconstructing all of these networks, connections and configurations is a much needed but also daunting task that lies far beyond the reach of this particular study of al-Dahab al-masbūk. Some of them will nevertheless make their appearances here in some relevant detail, and the contours of many others will come into sight at the horizons of this book's first part. It is hoped that in the future, this particular study's embedding within the wider scope of al-Magrīzī's rich scholarly legacy as it is being studied in this Bibliotheca Magriziana will become possible. It is only through comprehensive approaches of embeddedness, connectivity, and contextuality that these details may be further refined and that these contours may acquire more concrete shapes. It is therefore above all the combination of different cultural biographies and partially reconstructed social lives of al-Maqrīzī's many extant texts that may yield ever better and more nuanced insights into the different intellectual and practical universes that this fifteenth-century author and his regularly changing memories came to inhabit.

One important condition to achieve such enhanced understanding of arguably one of the most influential historians of pre-modern Islamic history is that we have access to his texts as he had intended them to be. As will be detailed in the third chapter of this first part, there are only a handful of modern editions of the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* and these all display in various ways important shortcomings in their relationship with the original versions of the text. The retrieval in the context of the *Bibliotheca Maqriziana* of all relevant manuscript copies and of authoritative manuscript traditions as well as the deepened understanding of the complexity of this text and of the contexts in which it operated also mean that the time certainly has come to start mov-

ing beyond current editions. Above all they all rely mainly on the same, much later copy of the text, and the only extant autograph of al-Dahab al-masbūk in the manuscript Ms Or. 560 (Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek) has so far never been the object of any critical edition. There are therefore many good reasons to present such an edition of this text as it appears in Or. 560 in the second part of this book. In order to assure the widest possible accessibility and intelligibility of al-Magrīzī's text, also for the non-specialist reader, this second part simultaneously presents the first English translation of al-Magrīzī's summary history of the pilgrimage that has ever been published. A detailed reference apparatus accompanies this translation, identifying whenever possible names, places, and other phenomena that appear in the text and that continue to define in many ways its literary, historiographical and wider cultural meanings and values. A photographic reproduction of the autograph of al-Dahab al-masbūk in Or. 560 (Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek) follows at the end of the book, as well as a series of indexes that further supports the aim of achieving the greatest accessibility and intelligibility, both of the text and of its cultural biography.

PART 1

Study—The Cultural Biography of a Fifteenth-Century Literary Text

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Contexts: Introducing the haǧǧ, al-Maqrīzī, and al-Dahab al-masbūk (Seventh – Fifteenth Centuries)

1 The haǧǧ Ritual: Forms, Function, and Religious Meanings

Q 3: 97 "Pilgrimage to the House is a duty owed to Allah by all people who can make the journey."

Ever since the dawn of Islam, the Qur'ānic injunction to perform the <code>haǧǧ</code> or pilgrimage to God's House has encouraged ever more Muslims from ever more places across the globe to come to the West-Arabian region of the Hijaz. Today, more than two million male and female pilgrims every year partake in the series of prescribed acts in and near the sanctuary of Mecca that make up this pilgrimage ritual. They do so in an environment that has substantially altered since the middle of the previous century. Modernisation, particular views of Muslim orthodoxy, and various incidents with and concerns for pilgrims' health, safety and comfort, have had such a gigantic impact on pilgrimage facilities and infrastructures that conditions of travel and performance have radically changed from what they had been like for more than 1300 years. Yet the form of the <code>haǧǧ</code> ritual itself, its function, and its meanings are not considered to have been affected by these or any other changes, ever since the days of the prophet Muhammad.

For Muslims, Muḥammad performed the ritual acts of the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ in their most pure, authentic, and correct way shortly before his death in 11/632, setting an example that ever since that time every individual pilgrim continues to have to abide by. The remembrance of this final prophetic pilgrimage, known as the Farewell Pilgrimage ($hi\check{g}\check{g}at\ al\text{-}wad\bar{a}^c$), was transformed into an authoritative model by the early Muslim community of the Prophet's companions, their successors, and their followers. In these early years of Arab expansion, of confrontation with other rich and powerful socio-cultural traditions, and of variegating searches for Muslim political leadership, religious authority, and social identity, the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage entered the community's social memory through the institutionalisation of its annual repetition in practice and through the entrenchment of its story in the community's early biographical, historical, and religio-legal textual production.

As with so many rules of good Muslim practice, this development did not prevent the survival or emergence of differences in remembrance of and in opinion on particular details of pilgrimage practice. Many of these eventually fed into the wider legal differences that marked the distinct but interconnected traditions of the Sunni schools of law, the *madāhib*. One of the bigger debates that continued to rage well into the later medieval period certainly concerned the distinction between the two types of pilgrimage to Mecca, the haǧǧ and the 'umrah. Whereas the 'umrah is not defined by any time restrictions and only involves a series of ritual acts in and near the Mecca sanctuary, the dimensions of time and space that make for a valid *haǧǧ* are very different. The correct timing of the performance of the different *hağğ* rituals is absolutely crucial, for they can only be executed in a particular sequence on the eighth, ninth and tenth days of the twelfth month of the Muslim lunar calendar (appropriately known therefore as Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah, the month of the haǧǧ). Furthermore, despite its incorporation of the 'umrah rituals of circumambulation of the Ka'bahstructure in the centre of the Mecca sanctuary $(taw\bar{a}f)$ and of running between the elevations Safa and Marwa just outside the sanctuary $(sa^{\varsigma}y)$, the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$'s main ritual components are staged many kilometers away from Mecca, on the plain of 'Arafah at the foot of the Mountain of Mercy, and then midway between 'Arafah and Mecca, at a place called Miná, where the emblematic ritual slaughter $(adh\bar{a})$, the laying down of the pilgrim's consecrated state $(ihr\bar{a}m)$, and the shaving of the head take place. The relation between these rituals of hağğ and 'umrah—whether they may be combined in an integrated fashion (qirān), have to be performed subsequently (tamattu'), or are carried out one without the other (*ifrād*)—has been the object of doctrinal debate and differing legal opinions, opposing scholars, schools, and remembrances of prophetic sayings and actions as recorded in reports of the Farewell Pilgrimage. However, these and other such discussions never really affected the general performance and sequence of the hağğ's main ritual components. Ever since the seventh century, these have always consisted of the taking on of the consecrated state upon entry of the larger Mecca region, of the circumambulation and running in Mecca, of waiting in contemplation—or 'standing' (wuqūf)—at 'Arafāt on the ninth of Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah, and of throwing pebbles (ramy ǧamarāt) and ritual slaughter at Miná on the tenth, followed by a few more days of celebrations, including opportunities for more pebble throwing at Miná and for further circumambulations at Mecca.

More than thirteen centuries of remembrance and re-enactment of the Farewell Pilgrimage have made it so that these main ritual forms of the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ (and of the `umrah) have acquired an appearance of timelessness. This is also true for the basic function and meanings of the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ and of its differ-

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ent ritual components. In fact, for Muslims the ritual forms, function, and meanings of the hağğ are all indeed to be understood as transcending any worldly notions of time and change. Obtaining redemption from sins and access to paradise are mentioned among the most tangible rewards that await those who successfully complete the hağğ. But performing these hağğ rituals connects pilgrims not just with the divine meaning of their individual destinies in this world and in the hereafter. Above all, it also connects them with all other pilgrims performing exactly the same sacred rituals at exactly the same sacred time at exactly the same sacred place in past, present and future. As such, these rituals remind the community of Muslims (ummah) of its sacred monotheist history, as progressing towards the Day of Judgement (at which all are believed to appear before God in the same simple and egalitarian capacity of the consecrated state of their hağğ, the ihrām) and as following in the divinely guided footsteps of a long range of prophets and messengers, including Muḥammad's, but also above all Abraham's (Ibrāhīm). In fact, the entire hağğ ritual (as well as the wider sacred history of Mecca) is geared towards this commemoration of Abraham's engagements with the divine (and of Islam's direct descent from and reconnection with his monotheist legacy).

Considered to be the first monotheist who submitted to God's will, the first muslim, Abraham, his Egyptian consort Hagar, their son Ismail and their adventures in the Arabian desert are present in each and every one of the hağğ's ritual components. The original Ka'bah is believed to have been built more than 4,000 years ago by Abraham and Ismail, with divine guidance and assistance; the nearby source of Zamzam is thought to have been miraculously found by Hagar when she was running in despair between Safa and Marwa to look for a bit of water for her son; and at Miná the devil is claimed to have been chased away by the pebbles that Abraham threw at him when he tried to persuade him not to sacrifice his son, upon which Abraham abided by God's command to sacrifice Ismail (and not Isaac of Biblical history) and God rewarded him for his commitment by sending down a ram for slaughter instead. Eventually, Islam believes that it was Abraham himself who, upon divine instruction, set the proceedings of the hağğ. The symbolism of an individual's performance of the hağğ therefore transcends the particular case of Muḥammad by far, his paradigmatic Farewell Pilgrimage being no more than a restoration of the correct ritual, just as his wider mission is considered to be no more than a restoration of the natural, monotheist order of things, as also advocated by Abraham and many other prophets before.

It is these powerful, transcendent meanings, reminding believers of their communal place in monotheist history and of their timeless relationship with

divine Will, that have always informed the Qur'anic injunction to every individual *muslim* able to do so to perform the *haǧǧ* at least once. The obligatory nature of this ritual, as already formulated in the Qur'an, makes that together with the proclamation of faith ($\check{s}ah\bar{a}dah$), daily prayer ($sal\bar{a}t$), fasting during the month of Ramadān (sawm) and the alms tax (zakāt), the haǧǧ is considered one of the five 'pillars' of Islam. It may even be argued that among these five obligatory rituals—each of which is meant to confirm a believer's relationship with the divine and each of which actively partakes in organising the monotheist rhythm of time, space, and community—the hağğ stands out as special, owing to the deep commitment that speaks from a pilgrim's achievement of its demanding requirements, as well as due to the very public nature of its performance. Every year since the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage, the *haǧǧ* has brought all kinds of people together in public spaces in Mecca, 'Arafah and Miná in a shared performance of their religious duties. Every year, too, the particular and general nature of this performance has been a matter of such wider solidarity, concern, and interest that all kinds of reports, treatises, and stories have continued to be produced about it, ranging from the textual recordings of the Farewell Pilgrimage in early Islamic history, to widespread coverage in the traditional and social media of the contemporary world.1

2 Pilgriming Rulers and the hağğ's Political Meanings in Islamic History

The Prophet's leadership of the Farewell Pilgrimage did not just set an example that allowed individual Muslims to reconnect with monotheist history and ritual practice. It soon also acquired more direct political meanings of legitimate Muslim rule in the Prophet's footsteps. In the decades that followed Muḥammad's death in 11/632, succession to leadership over the rapidly expanding community of believers (ummah) remained a vexed issue. Discussions over rules of legitimate succession were never really resolved and continued to pit supporters of different leaders and definitions of legitimate leadership against each other. In the historical reality of the regular conflicts and clashes

¹ Further on these religious forms, function and meanings of the hağğ, see Hawting (2001); "Ḥadidi. iii The Islamic ḥadidi", in E1² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hadidi-COM_0249); Armstrong (2012); Abdel Haleem (2012); Id. (2013); Peters (1994); Pearson (1994); Gaudefroy-Demombynes (1923).

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through which this repeated competition for Muslim rule and sovereignty was fought out, as much as in their later explanations and remembrance by winners and losers, religious meanings of divine sanction, intervention, and guidance played important symbolic roles. As time evolved and the formulation of Muslim religious identities became more explicit, the functionality of these meanings was expanded to underscore a particular trajectory in the sacred history of a religious community and its leadership, that, in mainstream accounts, connected rulers and dynasties (the first four so-called Rightly-Guided caliphs Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Utmān and 'Alī in Medina [11–41/632–661], the Umayyad caliphs in Damascus [41–132/661–750], the 'Abbāsid caliphs in Baghdad [132–656/750–1258] and in Cairo [659–922/1261–1517], and the Ottoman sultan-caliphs in Constantinople/Istanbul [c. 922–1342/1517–1924]), as though in a continuous and unbroken sequence with the leadership of Muḥammad and with his guidance along the divinely ordained path of monotheistic history.

Successful claims and performances of the leadership of the annual pilgrimage were one of the most effective, visible, and powerful ways by which this aura of legitimacy through continuity with the Prophet's example tended to be operationalised. The annual pilgrimage caravan from the Arab-Muslim empires' successive main centers (from Medina in the Hijaz, from Damascus in Syria, from Baghdad in Iraq, from Cairo in Egypt, and from Constantinople on the Bosphorus) was therefore always led by the caliph, or by one of his formally appointed representatives, and just as the Prophet had done in 10/632, the caliph or his representatives always led all pilgrims through the different stages of the pilgrimage ritual. Conflicts and competition over Muslim sovereignty therefore were often reflected in the appearance in the Mecca area of opponents' caravans and opposing claims to ritual leadership. One of the best-known and most devastating occasions of this sort occurred in 73/692, when the Meccan caliphate of 'Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr (r. 64-73/683-692) was violently subdued by its Umayyad rival in Damascus and the Umayyad siege of Mecca prevented rival Umayyad and Zubayrid caravans of pilgrims to complete all required rituals. Twice during this decade of Umayyad-Zubayrid competition for the caliphate the Ka'bah itself was so severely damaged that it had to be completely rebuilt. On both occasions this happened under close political supervision. Many centuries later, in the 1040s/1630s, a third and final round of Ka'bah reconstruction—this time occasioned by extreme flooding rather than war—was similarly pursued under close political watch, now from the Ottoman sultan of Istanbul and a specially appointed representative. All three cases illustrate how the Mecca sanctuary and the maintenance of its public buildings and services have always continued to be extremely important for those claiming some form of legitimate Muslim political leadership, often

even irrespective of the distance and political realities separating them from remote Mecca.²

In the seventh and eighth centuries, most early caliphs still managed to personally perform their natural duty as <code>haǧǧ</code> leader, often even more than once during their tenure. After the 'Abbāsid caliph Hārūn al-Rašīd (r. 170–193/786–809), however, the number of regional Muslim leaders who personally led the pilgrimage and performed the <code>haǧǧ</code> became surprisingly limited.³ Over time, as safe access to Mecca became more complicated and as the religious dimension of mainstream Muslim leadership got increasingly defined in more abstract terms, priority was given to representation through symbolic acts and appointed agents and to indirect patronage through all kinds of material support, including via public construction works such as those performed on the Kaʿbah.

The contraction of caliphal power from the ninth century onwards and the concomitant realities of devolution, fragmentation, and rapid transformation of Muslim political power between the Atlantic Ocean and the Oxus and Indus valleys generated a huge increase in the need for local and regional political legitimation. This created a particular context of conflicting ideologies of power within which the hağğ often became even more than ever before one of the arenas of competition for legitimate Muslim leadership. Rulers' sovereignty continued to be represented by such symbolic forms as precedence of one's representatives in the pilgrimage's rituals, providing the annually renewed richly embroidered veil (kiswah) for the Ka'bah, and mentioning one's name at the Friday huṭbah in the Sanctuary or Ḥarām Mosque. In the competitive search for legitimate Muslim leaderships, the successful acquisition of such universally accepted symbolic forms of representation-cum-precedence in the hağğ's trans-regional value system became a truly performative characteris-

² For more on these political meanings of pilgrimage leadership in early Islamic history, see Sijpesteijn (2014); Munt (2013); Kennedy (2012): 76–92; McMillan (2011); Marsham (2009): 91, 124–125, 189, 268—Marsham explains most explicitly how "lists of leaders of the ḥaǧǧ and annual campaigns [...] reveal that these poles of the religio-political calendar were kept in the control of the ruling dynasty throughout the Umayyad (and early Abbasid) period: they were assigned to the caliph himself, a relative by blood or marriage, or to the walī al-ʿahd; leadership of the ḥaįj was closely associated with leadership of the umma, and appears to have been a prerequisite for the nomination of the walī al-ʿahd' (124–125); Robinson (2007): 95–100; Hawting (1993). For later Islamic history, see Faroqhi (2014) (incl. 113–120 for the Ottoman rebuilding of the Ka'bah in the 1630s); Irwin (2012).

³ For a useful descriptive survey of Muslim leaders performing the pilgrimage up to the fifteenth century, see Möhring (1999).

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tic of sovereignty, which could be effectively claimed, challenged, won, and awarded in Mecca and elsewhere along the *ḥaǧǧ* routes.⁴

Competition among local and regional Muslim rulers for these symbolic forms was furthermore exacerbated when the Ḥasanid family was established as a dynasty of local rulers (Sharifs) in Mecca in the course of the mid-tenth century. The Ḥasanid Sharifs of Mecca managed to retain their local leadership for almost a millennium, during which, at recurrent moments of political fragmentation, they took full advantage of their ability to "sell" their recognition to the highest bidder. When real and acclaimed sovereignties as well as physical control over pilgrimage routes and over the region of Mecca became extremely dispersed, localised, complicated, and often also intricately layered and diffuse, there always remained the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$'s political dimension of treading in the Prophet's footsteps. When the Saudis conquered Mecca in 1926, for them this was also one of the many incentives to act against their Ḥasanid rivals.⁵

But the total and continued fragmentation of Muslim political communities created not just new ideological contexts that infused this trans-regional value system with adapted political meanings. It also created enormous logistical challenges for pilgrimage caravans to safely travel to Mecca, with similar political consequences. Throughout Islamic history, reports and stories of pilgrims suffering from natural disasters, famine, Bedouin attacks, or other worldly problems have always reflected badly on the reputation of their leaders. But the opposite was also always true. Whatever the time and place, assuming responsibility for the pilgrimage and for one or more of its main caravans of pilgrims has always offered huge symbolic opportunities for Muslim leaders, vis-à-vis local as well as regional audiences. It also presented them with equally huge political liabilities when things did not run smoothly. Despite the radical transformation of material circumstances, even in the contemporary globalising world this same political meaning of legitimacy in remembrance of the Farewell Pilgrimage continues to inform the connection between the local, regional, and international reputation of the Saudi patrons of the hağğ's modern logistics and the mass public event which the pilgrimage has become. From this infrastructural political perspective too, therefore, ancient as well as mod-

⁴ On the *kiswah* and other *ḥaǧǧ*-related symbols of sovereignty, see Sardi (2013); Nassar (2013); Mortel (1988); Gaudefroy-Demombynes (1954).

⁵ For the Ḥasanid Sharifian dynasty of Mecca, see "Makka, 2. From the 'Abbāsid to the Modern Period", EI² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/makka -COM_0638); Meloy (2010a); Mortel (1987); Ota (2002). See also Peters (1994): 352–362.

ern reports, treatises, stories, and other representations of pilgrimage success and failure have always continued to matter.⁶

3 Cairo Sultans, Meccan Sharifs, and the Late Medieval hağğ

In 656/1258, the ephemeral remnants of the ancient 'Abbāsid caliphate were annihilated by the Central-Asian Mongols, when they executed the 37th and last caliph of Baghdad, al-Musta'sim (r. 640-656/1242-1258). By that time, for most Sunni Muslims the figure of the caliph was no longer a real political leader, but rather a divinely ordained mediator for human action, who safeguarded the connection between his community, the Prophet's example, and divine Will. The cutting of this connection by the caliph's disappearance in 656/1258 therefore generated throughout Sunni Muslim communities various challenges of legitimacy, in moral and legal as well as in political terms. These challenges, however, certainly also created a variety of opportunities, especially on the Levantine frontier of Mongol westward expansion, where that expansion forced local military leaders to close ranks behind one of theirs who had acquired the sultanate of Egypt. When in 658/1260 this partnership proved successful in pushing back the Mongol troops beyond the Euphrates and eventually also in re-integrating various Syrian and Egyptian elites and resources into the Cairo sultanate's orbit, these opportunities were intensively explored to underscore and communicate the legitimacy of the new leadership. One of the many transformative ways in which this happened was in fact by a kind of re-invention of the 'Abbāsid caliphate in the Muslim world's new centre of gravity, Cairo. A surviving scion of the 'Abbāsid family was proclaimed the new caliph by sultan Baybars (r. 658-676/1260-1277) and his entourage. Despite ongoing debates about the validity of the 'Abbāsid lineage of this caliph al-Ḥākim (r. 661-701/1262-1302), his descendants maintained their position, under the sultan's continued patronage and control, until the early sixteenth century, when the Ottoman conquest of Egypt ended the sultanate as well as the Cairo caliphate.⁷

The long-standing sultanate of Cairo, thus given new military, geographical, and ideological impetus by mid-thirteenth-century military leaders such as sultan Baybars, is best known in today's academic and popular discourse as

⁶ See Faroqhi (2014); Peters (1994); Bianchi (2004).

⁷ Heidemann (1994); "'Abbāsids", in E1² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/abbasids-COM_0002).

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the Mamluk Sultanate, or also as the Mamluk Empire. This Mamluk label is inspired by the continued particular social origins of the majority of its militarypolitical elites, including of many of its sultans. Baybars was brought to Egypt a young Turkish slave (mamlūk) from north of the Black Sea region, and nineteen of the Cairo sultans after him shared similar mamlūk Central-Asian servile origins, local Arabo-Islamic and martial socialisation in the barracks of the Cairo citadel, and upward social mobility through manumission, military service, and court careerism. However, the sultanate was never the exclusive playground of any one continuous so-called Mamluk project, and this was mainly caused by the ongoing practice of slave trade and *mamlūks*' importation, and by the recurrent pattern of the subsequent newcomer status of many of the sultans and of most of the military-political elites between the thirteenth and early sixteenth centuries. Throughout the sultanate's long history, various distinct lineages (as opposed to one Mamluk continuity) of sultans and their supporters and descendants actually tried to impose their continued control, and especially in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries some were quite successful in this process. One of the most well-known manifestations of the latter phenomenon certainly is the century-long sultanate of Qalāwūn (r. 678–689/1279– 1290) and his descendants (r. 689–784/1290–1382), including the very long reign and extremely successful rule of his son al-Nāṣir Muḥammad (r. 693-741/1293-1341, with two intervals). Such dynastic continuities, however, and their concomitant reproductive constructions of a particular dynastic political order of ideas, relationships, and things, never stopped to be challenged by rival individuals, groups, practices and ideas, resulting in continuously returning moments of elite fragmentation and transformation, when succession had to be resolved through factionalism and war, and continuities threatened to be disrupted. In this context of ongoing political complexity, of repeated competition between dynastic and non-dynastic agents, of ongoing clashes between newcomers and vested interests, and of dominance by successions of freedmen and freemen, contemporaries tended to define the various and dynamic Syro-Egyptian political environments within which they had to operate by the very generic common denominator of the dawlat al-atrāk, the Rule of the Turks, the latter referring in the most general terms to the inclusive and open political identity of some martial form of 'turkishness' that distinguished the urban political elites of the Cairo sultanate until, at least, the early sixteenth century.8

⁸ For a recent generalising impression of the sultanate's long and complex political history, carefully combining standard Mamluk narratives with more nuanced approaches, see

With power and authority in such a state of flux, sultans and their entourages were more than ever in a constant need for every kind of ideological support to explain and cement their rule. In this respect, the void left by the sudden disappearance of the 'Abbāsids of Baghdad also created unexpected ideological space beyond the issue of caliphal authority. Soon after 658/1260, and throughout the sultanate's further existence, Cairo sultans' appropriation from the 'Abbāsid caliphs of the symbolic forms of representation-*cum*-precedence in the *haǧǧ*'s trans-regional value system remained highly appreciated as another very important and effective tool to stake out claims for legitimate leadership. This included long-standing traditions such as the annual production and dispatch of a new Ka'bah veil (kiswah) and the precedence of the sultan's standard in the different pilgrimage rites. But there were also wider privileges of local sovereignty involved, such as the invocation of the sultan's name at the Friday sermon (hutbah) in the Sanctuary Mosque and the minting of Meccan coins in the sultan's name (sikkah). At the same time, sultans in Cairo continued to very proudly use the title of 'Servant of the two Sacred Places' (Hādim al-haramayn al-šarīfayn), confirming their role as the main patron and protector of Mecca and Medina and of their sanctuaries (the Ḥarām Mosque with the Ka'bah and the Prophet's Mosque with Muḥammad's grave, respectively). In 667/1269, sultan Baybars even performed the pilgrimage in person. Baybars only performed his pilgrimage in absolute secrecy though, with priority being given to an almost hagiographic remembrance rather than to public display. How this royal pilgrimage actually happened, therefore, remains unclear. The story in itself, however, already sufficed to direct the hağğ's empowering ideological effect to Baybars' royal personality. Before that, in 664/1266, similar effect had certainly already been obtained by the re-invention of a caliphal practice that was soon to develop into a highly symbolic institutional component of the annual regional hağğ caravans. In that year, there was sent for the first time at the head of the Egyptian caravan the so-called maḥmal, a luxuriously decorated empty palanquin, raised on a camel, and symbolically representing the sultan's pilgrimage leadership along the caravan route to Mecca as well as throughout the different pilgrimage rituals. This maḥmal tradition was continued by Baybars' successors in Cairo, multiplied in the different caravans that departed from the sultanate's main urban centres in Syria, integrated in elaborate departure ceremonials that symbolically connected the court to the ritual performances in and around Mecca, challenged and copied by rival rulers

Loiseau (2014). For the contemporary use of $dawlat \, al$ - $atr \tilde{a}k$, see Van Steenbergen (forthcoming); Yosef (2012); Ayalon (1990).

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from Iraq and Yemen, maintained beyond 922/1517 under the supervision of the Ottoman sultan's representative in Cairo, and only discontinued when the Saudis acquired full control of the Mecca sanctuary in the 1920s.⁹

Whenever opportunities arose, Baybars' successors in Cairo pursued various similar and other engagements with Mecca and the *haǧǧ*. Already from the sultanate's early days onwards this particular privileged relationship between Cairo and Mecca had been institutionalised by the emergence of the official position of Commander of Mecca (amīr Makkah), a title conferred with befitting robes, gifts, and honours by the sultan upon the Hasanid Sharif. Although hardly ever representing any real control from Cairo over Mecca, the tradition of conferring this political title was continued throughout the sultanate's existence because it was mutually beneficial. For the sultan, it was a symbolic act that confirmed his sovereignty over the sacred place that Mecca was, and that time and again re-integrated the Hasanid rulers of remote Mecca at least theoretically into the political framework of positions and functions that were emanating from the court in Cairo. For the Sharifs, it was an official title and a formal recognition of local authority that awarded local leverage and that created distinction from other local rulers in the Hijaz and from Hasanid pretenders in Mecca. For both rulers, concomitant mutual oaths and arrangements furthermore provided some clarity in the rights, duties, and privileges that they owed each other. This certainly also had to do with Mecca's socio-economic subordination to Egypt. Pilgrimage brought in substantial wealth that could be easily tapped by taxation. But natural resources in the Hijaz were extremely limited so that, despite such regular income from pilgrimage, local social and political organisation depended first and foremost on the importation of staple food. For centuries, therefore, the supply of grain from Egypt had been crucial to Mecca, the Hijaz, and the annual pilgrimage, and the practice of providing for this

⁹ On these engagements of Cairo sultans and others after them with the <code>hağǧ</code> and its symbolic forms, see Porter (2013); Meloy (2006); Behrens-Abouseif (1997); Ankawi (1974); Jomier (1953); Dekkiche & Van Steenbergen (forthcoming). For Meloy and Jomier the <code>mahmal</code> ritual was a tradition originating with Baybars, whereas for Behrens-Abouseif and Porter it derived from earlier symbolic practices that had originated with the later caliphs of Baghdad. On Baybars' secret pilgrimage in late 667/1269 see also Thorau (1987): 197–199; epigraphic evidence confirms that this pilgrimage, and especially its commemoration, indeed was considered a very important political event by the sultan and his entourage: a politically highly stylised (and revealing) inscription at the shrine of the Prophet Moses (<code>Maqām Nabī Mūsá</code>) in Palestine explains that it was constructed on Baybars' command in "one of the months of 668", "after the return of his noble mount from the pious <code>haǧǧ</code> and his setting out to visit holy Jerusalem" (Mayer [1933]; Amitai [2006]; Eddé [2012]).

through special arrangements with Cairo and through the set-up of religious endowments in Egypt persisted during and also after the sultanate's existence. Sultans, members from their courts, and other elite groups continued to endow yields from villages and estates that they owned in Egypt for consumption by Hijazi inhabitants and visitors, thus ensuring sufficient supplies to the Hijazi leaderships, but at the same time also furthering particular ties of patronage, reciprocity, power, and sovereignty.¹⁰

This privileged relationship between Cairo and Mecca and the many opportunities that it offered was of course also acknowledged by other real or wouldbe Muslim rulers, including by many rivals and opponents of the sultan of Cairo within and outside the sultanate's territories. A handful of rulers from the Rasūlid dynasty of Yemen (632-858/1235-1454) were notably ambitious in trying to appropriate this relationship for themselves. But most active in such respects were undoubtedly various Mongol and post-Mongol Muslim leaders in West Asia, who controlled in varying degrees populations and resources to the north and east of the sultanate. Throughout the thirteenth to early sixteenth centuries, they were regularly involved in an intense competition for regional sovereignty and for local control with, amongst others, different sultans of Cairo, and the symbolic forms of *haǧð* representation-*cum*-precedence certainly constituted one among various arenas where such competition was fought out. This happened in particular during the first half of the fourteenth century, when this symbolism came to dominate more than anything else sultan al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's scramble for sovereignty and regional supremacy with Mongol Ilhanid leaders. As a result of this particular competition for representation-cum-precedence, al-Nāsir Muhammad was actually pushed to personally lead the pilgrimage three times, in 712/1312, in 719/1320, and in 732/1332. These were truly unprecedented personal and very public engagements of the Cairo sultan with the hağğ, every time accompanied by ever more lavish displays of his court's luxury, wealth, prosperity, and organisational capacity, by demonstrations of his generosity towards all kinds of local Hijazi elites and rulers as well as towards a diverse array of hağğ participants, and by impressive manifestations of the expanding range and integrative force of his power. The elaborate representations of these royal pilgrimages in contemporary reports and texts reveal how at that time and place it almost seemed to many as though the long-forgotten glory of the classical caliphal era was finally being restored in the Islamic heartlands through the accomplished royal per-

For further details, see Meloy (2010a); Behrens-Abouseif (1999); Morisot (1998); Mortel (1997); Faroqhi (2014): 146–173; Mortel (1985); Darrag (1961): 190–194.

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sona and authority of the sultan. In spite of the obvious hyperbolic nature of such literary reproductions, they were perhaps not entirely wrong either. Above all, these three pilgrimages of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad were extremely successful and effective in consolidating for many decades to follow the Cairo sultanate's supremacy in the $ha\check{q}\check{q}$, in the Hijaz, and in regional politics.¹¹

It was only a century later, in the 830s/1430s, that this priority of the Cairo court in the hağğ rituals was once more seriously challenged, and again similar aims and strategies were employed. At that time, both the Rasūlid ruler of Yemen and the Tīmūrid ruler of Herat tried to obtain or even appropriate the right to provide a Ka'bah veil (kiswah). The sultan of Cairo at that time, Barsbāy (r. 825–841/1422–1438), responded negatively, eventually managing to safeguard the rights that he had inherited from his predecessors.¹² But these were really very different times from those foregone days of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, on the regional scene of rulers and regimes as much as locally. From a time of West-Asian crises and chaos for most of the first decade of the fifteenth century, Timurids, Ottomans, and various Turkmen dispensations had emerged as the sultanate's renewed competitors for regional supremacy and for control over political and economic resources. But simultaneously, the nature and organisation of those resources were also radically transformed, above all by the rapid growth in size, scale, and relative value of commercial interactions connecting the Indian, West-Asian, Red Sea, and Mediterranean trade systems. In the regions of the Cairo sultanate, these new commercial circuits and expanding flows of objects, commodities, and money generated all kinds of new socio-political practices and their institutionalisation, as well as unprecedented opportunities for various groups and individuals in the sultanate's centre and on its many peripheries, for new or renewed integration into the court's political orbit, for the empowering acquisition of local leverage from the court, or for a renegotiation of existing relationships with that court in Cairo. The political rise of new commercial and other economic agents of the sultan; a commercialisation of the tributary mode of surplus extraction; the installation of new types of devolved taxation via the sale of offices and similar ad hoc tax farming strategies; the monetisation of urban social relations; and the court's withdrawal from Egypt's and Syria's countrysides and non-urban peripheries, which was only occasionally reversed, and then mostly in a symbolic or punitive manner only: these are but some of the most currently visible interlocking

See Broadbridge (2008): 99–114. On Rasūlid engagements with Mecca and the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ see Vallet (2010): 425–469.

¹² Dekkiche (2014–2015); Meloy (2010a): 138–139; Darrag (1961): 381–385.

processes of change, reform, and accommodation that made for a fifteenth-century Cairo sultanate that was very different from before, not just in political, but also in social, economic, and spatial terms.¹³

The re-imagination of political projects was certainly also part and parcel of these processes. In the 820s/1420s and 830s/1430s, sultan Barsbay and his entourage in particular showed themselves very ambitious and active in this respect, trying to expand their political and economic reach and to renegotiate local arrangements on various frontiers, even beyond many traditional boundaries. The sultanate's conquest of Cyprus in 829/1426 was a function of this imperial policy, but so were the new engagements of Barsbay's agents with local and regional leaderships in Syria, Southeast Anatolia, and the Hijaz. Attempts throughout the 820s/1420s at a more direct political integration of the latter West-Arabian region into Barsbāy's sultanate met with stiff and successful resistance from local elites, including most importantly from the Hasanids of Mecca. Instead, a policy of economic integration benefitting the court in Cairo was more successful. In their negotiations with the Hasanids and with other local leaders, Barsbāy's agents managed to obtain direct access to the seasonal Indo-Mediterranean commercial circulation, which in the 820s/1420s had found a new hub at Mecca's harbour of Jeddah. These mostly fiscal and tributary arrangements proved extremely effective and profitable, on local Hijazi levels as well as for Cairo's court. As a result, this economic engagement of the Cairo sultanate with the Hijaz would remain active until the sultanate's end, even under Sharif Muḥammad b. Barakāt (r. 859-903/1455-1497), when Mecca witnessed a phase of unprecedented regional empowerment, when political balances between Cairo and Mecca shifted again, and when arrangements had to be renegotiated.14

At such times of renegotiation, that other ongoing symbolic engagement of the sultan with Mecca through the <code>hağğ</code> continued to prove its value. In <code>Dū</code> l-Ḥiǧǧah 884/February 1480, almost 150 years after al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, a sultan again managed to perform in person the leadership of the Egyptian <code>haǧǧ</code> caravan and of the rituals in and near Mecca. Sultan Qāytbāy (r. 872–901/1468–1496)

For identifications and discussions of various aspects of these radical political, economic, and social transformations marking the turn of the fourteenth century, see, amongst others, Garcin (2005): 411–567: "Troisième Partie: la désurbanisation"; Garcin (1973–1974); Apellániz (2009); Rapoport (2005); Id. (2007); Loiseau (2010); Levanoni (2004); Stilt (2011); Meloy (2004); Miura (1997); Sabra (2004); Abū Ġāzī (2000); Walker (2011); Elbendary (2012); Id. (2015); Van Steenbergen, Wing & D'hulster (2016).

On these issues, see especially Meloy (2010a); Id. (2005); Id. (2003a); Wing (2014). For southeast Anatolia, see Wing (2015); Adriaenssens & Van Steenbergen (2016).

would actually turn out to be the last sultan in history to achieve this personal participation and leadership during his tenure. As with al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's pilgrimages before, for Qāytbāy's reign, too, this unusual royal ḥaǧǧ served as an impressive illustration of the accomplished nature of his long-lasting power and authority, to contemporary rivals for regional supremacy such as the Turkman leader of Tabriz, to ambitious partners such as the Sharif of Mecca, and to modern observers. This image of supreme leadership and actual control was confirmed by Qāytbāy's unprecedented patronage of endowed religious monuments in and near Mecca and in Medina, including the construction of an impressive *madrasah* adjacent to the Sanctuary Mosque and the reconstruction of the Prophet's Mosque after its complete destruction by a fire in 886/1481. Since the thirteenth century, sultans of Cairo had continued to regularly invest in Meccan and wider Hijazi real estate, public services, and religious monument construction, but never in any similar quantities or qualities as those generated by Qāytbāy's investments.¹⁵

A few years before Qāytbāy's pilgrimage of 884/1480, his privilege of hağğ representation-cum-precedence had actually already been claimed through yet another tradition, when in 879/1475 his wife, the princess Fāṭimah (d. 909/1504), made the *haǧǧ*, sitting in a richly decorated palanquin and accompanied by her own personal caravan, which was even claimed to have included a private orchestra. As with her husband's pilgrimage five years later, Fāṭimah was actually following in Qalāwūnid footsteps, in her case those of the princess Ṭuġāy (d. 749/1349). In 721/1321, Ţuġāy, al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's senior wife, had performed for the first time in the sultanate's history this unusual kind of royal pilgrimage by spousal proxy, setting an example in religio-political practice as well as in the flowery literary representation and commemoration thereof, as moments of extremely luxurious display and of widespread awe for her husband, the sultan. A handful of other female royal pilgrimages followed, but this example was picked up most explicitly from 819/1416-1417 onwards. In that year, the leading royal spouse herself again made the pilgrimage, in splendid pomp and circumstance, and every successful sultan thereafter sent his wife, occasionally accompanied by sons and other members of his family, at least once on pilgrimage to Mecca. In some of these cases of spousal pilgrimage, the link with regional rivalry and competition for supremacy was obvious. In other cases, more local concerns for legitimacy and for the acceptance of the sultan's power, authority, and policies were in play. What this suggests above all is that in due course the traditional symbolic objects of representation-

¹⁵ Meloy (2010a): 184–187; Behrens-Abouseif (1999); Faroqhi (2014): 30.

cum-precedence, such as the kiswah and the maḥmal, were no longer deemed sufficient, especially when Cairo's economic interests in Red Sea commerce increased. Whereas personal participation in and leadership of the pilgrimage proved impractical for most sultans, the sending of distinguished representatives from their immediate entourage appeared as a more useful substitute to effectively continue to tap into the ḥaǧǧ's networks and meanings, serving religious and political ends in Cairo, in Mecca, and everywhere in between. 16

This pilgrimage leadership by spousal proxy happened a last time in 920/ early 1515. This was a last grand occasion of royal splendour displayed from Cairo all the way to Mecca, amidst regional rivalry and competition, especially between the sultan and his very ambitious peer in Constantinople, Selim (r. 918–926/1512–1520). At the occasion of this pilgrimage, the ruler of the Hijaz, the Ḥasanid Sharif Barakāt (r. c. 903-931/1497-1525), made the unusual effort to accompany his royal guests back to Cairo. For years, this Sharif had been negotiating and fighting with local members of his family to consolidate his authority, while Mecca's (and Cairo's) profitable shares in the Red Sea commerce had been seriously affected by the arrival of the Portuguese in the Indian Ocean and in the Red Sea. In 920/1515 therefore Cairo was considered to have as much political leverage to offer to Barakāt as Mecca had to sultan Qāniṣawh al-Ġawrī (r. 906–922/1501–1516). When Selim took Cairo in January 1517, however, and sultan Qāniṣawh's successor was hanged from one of the city's gates, Barakāt had no problem switching his allegiance, including the privilege of hağğ representation-cum-precedence, to the new supreme Muslim ruler who could offer him much needed support in his many Hijazi concerns. By this simple transfer to Ottoman sovereignty, the Sharif safeguarded his Hasanid family's tenure for four more centuries. 17

4 Military Commanders and Religious Scholars between Late Medieval Mecca and Cairo

In Dū l-Qaʻdah 850/January 1447, a royal hağğ caravan left from Cairo, led by members from the entourage of sultan Ğaqmaq (r. 842-857/1438-1453), including two of his wives, the princess Muġul bt. al-Bārizī (d. 876/1472) and the princess Nafīsah bt. Mehmed b. Dūlġādir (d. 853/1449). As contemporary reports suggest this was another typical occasion of making good royal use

¹⁶ Behrens-Abouseif (1997); Johnson (2000); Dekkiche & Van Steenbergen (forthcoming).

¹⁷ Meloy (2010a): 205–232; Faroqhi (2014): 30–31.

of the empowering integrative forces inherent in the <code>hağǧ</code> value system. This royal caravan again confirmed the sultan's political sovereignty and Cairo's economic gravity through the spousal caravan's strong claim to precedence and through its lavish display and largesse in and between Cairo and Mecca.¹8 An informant arriving at the court on Saturday 23 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah 850/11 March 1447 allegedly reported that in this particular haǧǧ season, however, the sultan's caravan had been confronted with challenging competition from various other regional players, an occasion remembered by the Egyptian historian al-Saḫāwī (d. 902/1497) as follows:

The <code>hağğ</code> had been performed by a <code>mahmal</code> from Baghdad in a caravan of about 1,000 camels [...], by a sizeable caravan of West-Africans, by a crowd of Maghribians, and by the Ottoman vizier. [The vizier] had brought a lot of money with him for distribution among some of the needy and the poor in the two Sacred Places. He had melted 360 Egyptian sugar cones in the drinking fountain of the dome of al-'Abbās, to which he had added various <code>qintars</code> of bee's honey. Waterskins had been filled with this, and it had been carried around during the running ceremony (sa'y) to quench the pilgrims' thirst. ¹⁹

For several years throughout the 840s/1440s, $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ reports inform us of how caravans from Muslim West-Africa (Takrūr) and from the Maghrib were passing more frequently through Cairo than ever before, even culminating in 849/1446 in a pompous formal visit to \check{g} aqmaq's court by a princess from the Ḥafṣid dynasty of Tunis (627-982/1229-1574). One year later, in 850/1447, these two African caravans once again linked up with the Egyptian caravans, at a time when after a substantial period of interruption the Iraqi caravan was also being re-established by the Turkman ruler of Tabriz, and when also Meccan chroniclers confirm the presence of the Ottoman vizier bringing many gifts and providing both food and water for pilgrims. In this year, the sultan of Cairo therefore had very good reasons to be excessively well represented in the pilgrimage, if he wished to retain the image of his sovereignty and Muslim superiority. Various reports about sultan \check{g} aqmaq's very high profile Egyptian caravan, however, reveal more than just how the 850/1447 $ha\check{g}$ was noted by this culminating interregional dialectic of gift giving, displays of power, and competing claims to

¹⁸ Johnson (2000): 110-114.

¹⁹ Al-Saḥāwī, al-Tibr al-masbūk, 1:306.

²⁰ Al-Saḥāwī, al-Tibr al-masbūk, 1:179, 252, 262; Ibn Fahd, Itḥāf al-wará, 4:223, 238, 245.

Muslim sovereignty. The spelling out in some contemporary chronicles of the distinguished identities of Egyptian and non-Egyptian participants in this particular pilgrimage is actually highly revealing. It reminds us of how, despite—or in addition to—its local and translocal political meaning, the $ha\ddot{g}$ remained above all a religious event dominated by varieties of Muslims, including most notably all kinds of religious scholars (' $ulam\bar{a}$ ') who combined the religious duty of pilgrimage to Mecca with their long-standing tradition of searching for intellectual company and acquaintance and for knowledge, beyond any political boundaries. Al-Sa $ha\bar{a}$ again in particular provides a unique insight into the intricate networks of royals, commanders, administrators, and scholars that participated in this particular $ha\ddot{g}$.

Those who travelled in this year are the senior princess Mugul, [who is] the daughter of the judge $(q\bar{a}d\bar{t})$ Nāṣir al-Dīn al-Bārizī, the sister of the current head of the royal chancery (kātib al-sirr), and the wife of the sultan. The same goes for the princess who is the daughter of Ibn [Dūlġādir]. With the former came her daughter, and her sister, the wife of the pilgrimage's main commander. [The princess Mugul's] brother, the head of the royal chancery (kātib al-sirr), similarly travelled as a companion for her, together with his wife and with his daughter, the wife of al-Ğammālī, the supervisor of the royal fisc (nāzir al-hāṣṣ), and with a group that included [the esteemed administrators and scholars] al-Zaynī Abū Bakr b. Muzhir [...], al-Šarafī b. al-ʿAṭṭār, al-Kamāl Abū l-Faḍl al-Nuwayrī, just mentioned [as newly appointed chief judge of Mecca], al-Šihāb b. Sālih, Asīl al-Dīn al-Hudarī, the poet, our friend [the Meccan scholar and chronicler] Ibn Fahd [...], and Abū l-Waqt 'Abd al-Awwal al-Muršidī l-Ḥanafī, who was in Cairo in this year [...]. They displayed pomp and circumstance that is beyond description, and along the roads and elsewhere they were extremely benevolent and generous [...]. When they arrived in Mecca, the lord Barakāt, its ruler, walked before the litter of the princess and of the other princesses, from the gate of al-Ma'lāh onwards. This was an arrangement considered as beautiful among those surrounded by luxury.21

²¹ Al-Saḥāwī, *al-Tibr al-masbūk*, 1:304–305. The particulars of the *ḥaǧǧ* of 850/1447 and of its diverse and competitive participation are also detailed by the Meccan contemporary chronicler Ibn Fahd, who seems to have travelled in this season's Egyptian caravan (Ibn Fahd, *Itḥāf al-wará*, 4:258–262). A summary account may be found in Ibn Taǵrī Birdī, *al-Nuǵūm al-zāhirah*, 15:372.

The great variety of pilgrims who annually departed from Egypt certainly were not always accompanied by such splendour. But they did always proceed in a rather similarly organised fashion, travelling mostly in two or three Egyptian caravans (rakb), the first of which always included the mahmal and possibly also other royal passengers, and each of which was always led, managed, and protected by a military commander (*amīr al-rakb*) and his military troops and administrative assistants, under the general supervision of the pilgrimage's main commander (*amīr al-haǧǧ*). The role of these commanders was actually crucial, not only for the individual pilgrims and the success of their religious enterprise, but also for the sultan, whose credibility as a legitimate Muslim sovereign also derived from his duty vis-à-vis pilgrims' fulfilment of their religious obligation of pilgrimage. These commanders were annually appointed by the sultan, and it was their personal responsibility to safely accompany the pilgrims to and from Mecca. They were expected to provide especially the needy among them with sufficient supplies of water and food, and they had to make arrangements with Bedouin tribes along the overland caravan route that connected Cairo over the Sinai and 'Agabat Aylah, to Medina and Mecca, so as to secure safe passage, access to sources, reliable guides, and in some cases also riding animals. Similarly organised but mostly more modest caravans departed from Damascus and from other Syrian towns, and possibly also from Baghdad and from Yemen, the latter two of course remaining beyond the sultan's authority and responsibility. Pilgrims and caravans from further away, such as from Anatolia and the North, from Iran and the East, and from Africa almost always linked up with the Syrian, Iraqi, and Egyptian caravans respectively.²² Just as in the hağğ season of 850/1447, this closely watched organisation of the main pilgrimage travel could result occasionally—in years of regional political stability and socio-economic prosperity in particular—in the arrival in Mecca of eight to ten different caravans and in the overcrowding of the town's basic facilities, as is also suggested by al-Sahāwī for the unusually busy season of 845/1442:

[After the arrival of the Cairo caravans], the caravan from Gaza entered [Mecca], followed by the [caravans] from Aleppo, from Damascus, from Karak, from Safad, from Baghdad, and then from with the Turkmen. As

Faroqhi (2014): 32–53; Irwin (2012): 142–161; see also al-Ġabbān (2011). The organisation and administration of the Egyptian hağğ caravan was recorded in minute historical detail by a sixteenth-century Egyptian hağğ caravan official, see al-Ğazīrī, Durar al-farā'id. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries Crusader presence in Syria made the hazardous maritime passage through the Red Sea from the Egyptian ports of Aydhab or Quṣayr the main route for the Egyptian pilgrimage.

a consequence, Mecca's houses, mountain paths, and mountains were filled up, and [pilgrim encampments] were stretched out all the way up to Miná.²³

As he did for the year 850/1447, al-Saḥāwī, who displays in his chronicle *al-Tibr al-masbūk* a particular interest in reporting about pilgrimages and their participants, added to his description of the 845/1442 pilgrimage season another explicit reference to some of those who

performed the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$, including the judge $(q\bar{a}d\bar{\iota})$ Bahā' al-Dīn b. Ḥiǧǧī, together with his young son amidst a group from his family, the master $(\check{s}ayh)$ Ṭāhir al-Mālikī, Walī l-Dīn, the son of our master $(\check{s}ayh)$ al-Sirāj al-Fahmī, and his brother; they sojourned $(yu\check{g}\bar{a}wir\bar{u})$ during the following year.²⁴

These and similar rudimentary lists of important pilgrims drafted by al-Saḥāwī remind us above all of how each of these caravans was first and foremost populated by several tens or sometimes even hundreds of pilgrims of diverse social, economic, cultural, and regional backgrounds, who were physically and financially capable—or at least bold enough—to temporarily leave their homes for the hazardous trip to Mecca. Obviously, these practical as well as motivational conditions made going on pilgrimage easier for some people, for successful scholars and merchants in particular, than for others. Every year various religious scholars of often towering regional reputation within and beyond their Šāfiʿī, Hanafī, Mālikī or Hanbalī schools of legal thought again travelled to Mecca for the hağğ. In many cases, they combined the effort of the long and dangerous pilgrimage journey with the ambition of sojourning for some time near the Sanctuary Mosque. In that case, they acquired the particular status of muǧāwir, of non-resident sojourner remaining in Mecca to benefit from its many opportunities to acquire and transmit religious knowledge, and to perform the lesser pilgrimage, the 'umrah.25

The often unparalleled size and diversity of Cairo's late medieval pilgrimage caravans, populated by many others besides royal representatives and military commanders, actually reflected not just the Cairo sultan's claim to Muslim

²³ Al-Saḥāwī, al-Tibr al-masbūk, 1:67.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Irwin (2012): 163–164; "Ḥadjdj", in EI² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hadjdj-COM_0249); "Mudjāwir", in EI² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/mudjawir-SIM_5307); Gellens (1990).

sovereignty. Above all, every year these caravans also epitomised the equally unparalleled metropolitan size, diversity, and efflorescence of Cairo's many urban groups and communities, and they illustrated then and now how Cairo had become a crossroads of all kinds of intersecting, competing, and overlapping cultural and economic networks that connected individuals, social groups, and cultural communities across Africa and Asia. This meant that there were many good reasons for Sunni religious scholars of all sorts of specialisation and intellectual allegiance, for Sufi masters, pupils, and practitioners, and for merchants of a variety of trades from across that wide area to continue to converge in Cairo throughout the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, irrespective of any political or other boundaries and transformations. Cultural efflorescence, socio-economic prosperity, migration, and natural demographic growth had propelled Cairo's population to at least a quarter of a million by the first half of the fourteenth century, making it the second largest city of the Mediterranean world, and perhaps even of Eurasia, after Constantinople. From the middle of that century onwards, the Black Death pandemic and subsequent recurrent epidemics, local and regional politico-military turmoil, and economic transformation took a heavy toll on Cairo's urban constellation, but never on its regional and wider appeal and status.26

In Cairo, just as in any other of the deeply interconnected towns and cities of West Asia and North Africa, resident and visiting scholars and other men of religion were mostly organised along the lines of particular knowledge communities, as defined by their allegiance to one of the four dominant schools of legal thought, the Sunni madhabs, to one of the congregations of mystic learning and practice, the Sufi tarīgahs, or—as mostly was the case—to any combination of both. These scholarly communities and their diverse and dynamic urban memberships were locally and trans-locally interconnected, and often also intersected, by scholarly friendships, lineages, and teacher-student networks, by institutionalised educational, legal, and religious practices derived from scholars' monopolisation of jurisprudence and of ethico-religious authorities, and by the reproduction and transmission of particular sets of knowledge and of knowledge practice. These were therefore all extremely amorphous as well as truly imagined communities, conscious and defining components of a global community of Muslims (ummah), but existing in the social reality of things in the particularity of their local manifestations through relevant scholars, ideas, institutions, and practices only. That historical particularity, as it may be reconstructed today, was defined above all by the interaction between a variety

²⁶ Berkey (1998); Raymond (2001).

of specific institutions (judgeships, teaching posts, studentships, government offices, textual traditions) and widespread social practices, of knowledge and of patronage and competition in particular. Patronage, or the intricate process of exchange of benefit for service, connected particular scholars to other scholars, as well as to varieties of other social groups, through complex webs of vertical relationships of reciprocity, confirming, establishing, or challenging social hierarchies and identities. Competition, or the equally intricate process of distinguishing the social self in the pursuance of status, authority, and legitimacy, forced the majority of horizontal relationships consciously and unconsciously into a framework of particular binary moral discourses and constructions of social order and of its continuation, protection, or rehabilitation through various sets of strategies, tools, and ideas. Above all, these vertical and horizontal practices of patronage and competition regulated access to scarce resources in the context of West-Asian and North-African late medieval redistributive political economies, where the practice of patronage generated the wider circulation of symbolic and economic assets beyond the military and political elites, and where the practice of competition organised that circulation and stimulated ongoing social transformation. For the scholarly communities, these complex practices of patronage and competition defined the particular interaction of their members with those specific ranges of institutions and with the wider circulation of resources; it regulated the local dynamics of their internal social and intellectual organisation; and it secured scholars' integration within wider West-Asian and North-African social formations, such as in the cosmopolitan urban context of late medieval Cairo.²⁷

With its enormous resource flows, its rich intellectual and commercial transregional networks, and its unrivalled magnitude and diversity of social groups, including above all the sultan and his court, Cairo's social environment throughout the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries continued to display a unique cumulative intensity in these social practices of patronage and competition, affecting all, and stimulating among many other things a remarkable cultural efflorescence. Even the aforementioned radical socio-political transformation of the early fifteenth century, in many ways rooted in the accommodation of these urban practices of patronage and competition to the effects of pestilence and war, did not meaningfully interrupt that intensity nor that cultural efflorescence. ²⁸ In the early 1990s, Carl Petry summarized the full scope,

²⁷ Berkey (2003): 177–257 (Part IV: Medieval Islam, 1000–1500); Lapidus (1967); Chamberlain (1994).

²⁸ Berkey (1998); Petry (1981); Berkey (1992); Martel-Thoumian (2001); Behrens-Abouseif (2007).

particular detail, and remarkable result of this intensity of patronage and competition in late medieval Cairo so aptly and powerfully that his impression deserves to be quoted here in a slightly updated, full version, as an extremely telling concluding generalisation of how that particular interaction between commanders and scholars was not just extremely successful, but also pivotal for the future of Islamic societies in the East and West:

The majority of [the sultanate's] wealth was recycled back into civil society via maintenance of great households [of military commanders, including the sultan] with swarms of retainers and artisans, requisition expenditures to outfit military campaigns, and massive endowments (awqāf) made to found religio-academic institutions. By the fifteenth century, this latter propensity had created a network of more than two hundred mosques, colleges, and Sufi hospices in the capital alone, each supporting a core staff of clerics or faculty, instructional deputies of various specialties, and students whose needs were met out of waqf proceeds. The senior faculty, who held chairs (karāsī) in the Koranic sciences, Prophetic traditions (hadīt), or Shari' jurisprudence (figh), delivered formal lectures and certified the expertise of advanced students who presented themselves for disputation and examination. Their mentors signed authorizations (*ijāzas*) attesting to textual proficiency, which facilitated a novice's entry into the courts and/or academies. Since junior instructors handled the bulk of routine pedagogy, these senior scholars, most of whom had achieved prior renown as clerics or jurists, were left free to pen the corpus of treatises which rendered the [...] era a "Silver Age" of Islamic scholarship.²⁹

5 Introducing a Scholar between Late Medieval Cairo, Damascus, and Mecca

The scholarly tradition to pursue religious duty and knowledge was certainly what drove the scholar Aḥmad b. 'Alī l-Maqrīzī (b. 766/c. 1365; d. 26 Ramaḍān 845/7 February 1442) to join on several occasions the Egyptian caravans and to exchange from time to time the intense urban environment of his hometown of Cairo for the remote and much quieter surroundings of Sacred Mecca's Sanctuary mosque. Just as was true for any other scholar, however, whether

²⁹ Petry (1993): 324.

in Mecca or in Cairo, metropolitan practices of competition and patronage also defined al-Maqrīzī's life, career, thinking, and scholarly production, and perhaps they even did so in even more intense and defining ways than has so far been acknowledged.

Al-Magrīzī was born in the early 1360s in a family with a long tradition and reputation for religious status and scholarship. In the fourteenth century the different members of al-Magrīzī's pedigree were especially highly valued in the family's hometown of Baalbek and in the nearby Syrian urban centre of Damascus. Al-Magrīzī's father had however moved to Egypt before the 1360s to take up employment there, including as a scribe at the royal court, so that the young boy Ahmad was born in Cairo. Ahmad received a standard education and training in the skills and scholarship of his time, such as befitting young male members of reputed families such as his. Al-Maqrīzī's family, however, was marked by a particular regional and intellectual complexity, connecting not just the local scholarly communities of Cairo, Damascus and Baalbek, but also the intellectual madhab communities of Hanbalis, of Hanafis and—eventually also—of Šāfi'īs. The latter was due to the fact that al-Magrīzī's father and father's father were Ḥanbalīs, whereas his other grandfather was a well-known Hanafī scholar, and al-Maqrīzī himself switched from Ḥanafī to Šāfiʿī allegiance in the later 1380s. Although this complex family situation was certainly not entirely unusual in scholarly circles of the time, it did create a particular social and cultural context for al-Maqrīzī to grow up in. The young al-Maqrīzī would prove an eager and ambitious student of hadit, figh (jurisprudence), grammar, qirā'āt (Qur'ān readings), adab (literature) and—especially—tārīḥ (history). Eventually some of his biographers claimed that he personally boasted of having studied with no less than 600 teachers, in Cairo, in Damascus, and in Mecca.30

Al-Maqrīzī's particular family background somehow created relatively straightforward access to a range of patronage and employment opportunities for the young scholar. According to most of his biographers, he started off in the late 780s/1380s in his father's footsteps, as a scribe in the royal chancery, and from there he quickly moved on to various salaried positions of considerable standing, reputation, and impact in royal service. He served as an assistant

For modern biographies of al-Maqrīzī, see, amongst others, Ziyādah (1971b); Faraḥāt (2009): 5–26; Rabbat (2003); Bauden (2014). For biographies by fifteenth-century Egyptian contemporaries, see, amongst others, Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 1:415–420; al-ʿAynī, *Iqd al-ǧumān*, 574; Ibn Ḥaǧar, *Inbāʾ al-ġumr*, 9:170–172; al-Saḥāwī, *al-Tibr al-masbūk*, 1:73; Id., *al-Ḍawʾ al-lāmi*', 2:21–25; al-Ṣayrafī, *Nuzhat al-nufūs*, 4:242–244. See also further references in Bauden (2014): 161–162.

Šāfi'ī judge in Cairo, and he was for some time preacher in the ancient congregational mosque of 'Amr b. al-'Ās in Fustāt and in the gigantic Sultan Hasan madrasah below the Cairo citadel. On three brief occasions between 801/1399 and 807/1405, he was appointed by the sultans Bargūg (r. 784–801/1382–1399) and his son Farağ (r. 801–815/1399–1412) to the position of *muhtasib* of Cairo and Lower Egypt. It is generally assumed that al-Maqrīzī actually took a particular and personal interest in the latter position, sometimes translated as 'market inspector', but in fact a religio-political office of much wider local representation of the ruler in the management of urban social spaces and practices, with as a particular duty the official performance of the collective religious responsibility of 'commanding right and forbidding wrong' (al-amr bi-l-ma'rūf wa-l-nahy 'an al-munkar'). This interest appears above all from the unusual socio-economic detail and from the regular expression of related expert views and personal opinions on urban practice and organisation that mark some of his writings. Much to al-Maqrīzī's own frustration, however, his own known tenures of this important position of *muhtasib* never were very successful. They lasted between one and seven months only, and none left any clear traces of policy, practice, or impact—not even in al-Maqrīzī's own writings—except for brief references to his appointments and replacements by rival candidates. In fact, al-Magrīzī's last referenced appointment to the position of *muhtasib*, in Šawwāl 807/April 1405, is his last known appointment to any position of similar—or any other—standing and responsibility in Cairo.³¹

Some two years later, there was yet a new episode of appointment, as teacher of <code>hadīt</code> in the Ašrafiyyah and Iqbāliyyah <code>madrasahs</code> in Damascus. It seems, however, that this concerned at best an ephemeral episode of tenure only, which unlike the Cairo <code>muhtasibship</code> was even left entirely unreferenced in al-Maqrīzī's own writings. Al-Saḥāwī, in his biography of al-Maqrīzī, explains that from these years onwards, "he relinquished all that (i.e. his salaried positions) and abided in his home city, obsessed by the occupation of history, so that he acquired a well-known reputation for it, his fame in it spread wide, and he got a series of writings in it." The reality of al-Maqrīzī's life in the 1410s, '20s and '30s may have been more complex than al-Saḥāwī's summary suggests here, if only because al-Maqrīzī is known to have spent considerable time away from his home in Cairo's Barǧuwān area, in Damascus and in Mecca. Throughout these many years, he actually performed three more pilgrimages to Mecca (in

On these specific points, see the afore-mentioned biographies and also: Broadbridge, (1999): 88–91; Stilt (2011): 65; Allouche (1994): 3–7, 120. The three appointments to the position of *muḥtasib* are also referred to by al-Maqrīzī himself in his *al-Sulūk*, 3:930, 970, 1155.

825/1422, in 834/1431, and in 838/1435), and also sojourned there regularly, twice between 834/1431 and 840/1436 in particular. But there is little reason not to accept the bottom-line of al-Saḥāwī's assessment of this second phase in al-Magrīzī's life, as very different from before, and as prolific and successful in scholarly terms. Nor is there much reason to doubt the general feeling that emerges from contemporary biographies as well as from modern studies that the data, theories, and opinions that fed the more than two hundred works of history, which he eventually claimed to have authored, created a particular reputation and profile for this professional historian that deeply divided his widening audiences of students, readers, and colleagues into either admirers or opponents. When al-Maqrīzī eventually died an old man nearing his eighties in Ramadan 845/February 1442, he was buried in the so-called Cemetery of the Sufis immediately outside Cairo's Northern wall, but only few people seem to have taken much notice. By that time and age, the construction of the ivory tower of his scholarship had been successfully completed; his books and essays rather than his person aroused, and would continue to arouse, attention and debate.32

The puzzling issue of this remarkable transformation that Ahmad b. 'Alī l-Maqrīzī went through, from a very active and relatively successful career in the political, socio-economic and cultural limelight of city and sultanate, to a life of critical observation, detached contemplation, even unrelenting frustration, and widening yet mixed public reception, has continued to intrigue scholars since al-Saḥāwī. In current scholarship, there is a general consensus that this was indeed a rather slow process, of gradual withdrawal to the background of elite social life, beginning in the eventful years of sultan al-Nāsir Faraǧ's reigns (r. 801-815/1399-1412), and taking a decisive turn in the days of his successor, sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayh (r. 815–824/1412–1421). Whether it really was a voluntary process and whether al-Saḥāwī's suggestion of an obsession with history sufficiently explains it are questions that continue to arouse debate. Some modern scholars, such as Bauden, Ziyādah and Faraḥāt, follow al-Saḥāwī's explanation of consciously giving in to the appeal of a life of intellectual scholarship. They present this transformation moreover as enabled by a liberation from material concerns, when, by 813/1410, al-Maqrīzī would have inherited sufficient property and income from his parents and grandparents to become

These issues are detailed in the afore-mentioned biographies; for the quote by al-Saḥāwī, see al-Saḥāwī, al-Tibr al-masbūk, 1:73; Id., al-Daw' al-lāmi', 2: 22. For al-Maqrīzī's sojourning in Mecca, see especially Bauden (2014): 165, fn. 12, and also al-Maqrīzī, Daw' al-sārī, 12, 47.

financially independent.³³ Anne Broadbridge, however, made a very different analysis, from the perspective of a socio-economic reality within which patronage and competition were the main social practices defining relationships of power, flows of resources, and individuals' lives. Broadbridge demonstrates how during the reign of al-Nāsir Farağ al-Magrīzī gradually lost contacts and patrons among the political elites, and how he, after 815/1412, proved incapable of attracting new patronage and of obtaining new access to income, whereas the very opposite happened to some of his peers. "In terms of the competitive arena and Mamluk patronage practices", Broadbridge concluded, "al-Magrīzī seems to have died a failure."34 Nasser Rabbat, finally, agrees with this latter view of socio-economic isolation, but also qualifies it further by adding an emotional perspective of despair and reclusion. In doing so, he suggests an even more gloomy picture, of a middle aged man's intentional resignation that was inspired on the one hand by al-Maqrīzī's gradual "leaning toward zuhd, the 'mild ascetism' professed by a number of ulama in the medieval period", but on the other hand also by "a feeling of despondency", caused by the endless political intriguing, by the ongoing military confrontations, and by the unusually bloody violence that had plagued Egypt and Syria in the first dozen years of the fifteenth century and that had cost him his patrons and friends.³⁵

6 Contextualising al-Maqrīzī's Authorship

A further contextualisation of this transformatory process in al-Maqrīzī's life actually enables an even better understanding of how these three interpretations of scholarly pursuit, of social failure, and of asceticism and despair connect to each other and to this particular epoch of the early fifteenth century, with important repercussions for current assessments of al-Maqrīzī's writings, not in the least of his <code>hağǧ</code> treatise <code>al-Dahab al-masbūk</code>.

As explained above, the early years of the fifteenth century in Egypt and Syria were marked by processes of radical change, reform, and accommodation that, even despite the long-term continuation of social practices and cultural efflorescence, made for the emergence of an entirely different Cairo sultanate, in political as much as in any other terms of organisation, discourse,

³³ Bauden (2014): 166; Ziyādah (1971b); Faraḥāt (2009).

³⁴ Broadbridge (1999) (quote p. 105).

Rabbat (2003) (quotes p. 16). Bauden equally refers to "the loss of most of his relatives" as an additional reason for al-Maqrīzī to decide "to retire from public life and to devote himself full-time to his passion for writing history" (Bauden [2014]: 166).

and memberships. Al-Magrīzī's career was very much confronted with those radical changes, which really started to set in just after his first appointment to the position of muḥtasib in 801/1399, when sultan Barqūq died. At that time dynastic arrangements around Barqūq's royal household proved strong enough to enable his succession by his young son al-Nāsir Farağ. Simultaneously, however, a whole range of phenomena and events and their direct and indirect effects turned into an explosive cocktail that proved destructive for all kinds of social formations in the Asian hemisphere. These ranged from the post-Mongol Central-Asian military leader Tīmūr's (r. 771–807/1370–1405) ruthless and unstoppable campaigns of Asian conquest and booty, hitting Syria and Anatolia shortly after Farag's accession; over the gradual but total reconfiguration of West-Asian leaderships in Timūr's wake, including the fragmentation of Cairo's political elites into an unstable and uncontrollable range of military factions from 807/1405 onwards, spreading over Egypt and Syria in increasingly lethal cycles of confrontation and violence; to the deep and systemic crises of traditional socio-economic systems, when political-military upheaval coincided with the cyclical effects of epidemics (the plague) and of natural disasters and when as a consequence century-old urban-rural balances were gravely disturbed.³⁶ This is not the place to expand on any of these transformative local and trans-local phenomena that pushed West-Asian social groups and formations onto a road of no-return towards adaptation. It is however clear that the impact on traditional social and economic resources in Egypt and Syria and on the different urban elites that had for at least two centuries relied and thrived on such resources was substantial.37

As with anyone around him, al-Maqrīzī was also therefore forced to deal with these socio-economic changes on a daily and very personal basis. This did not just involve direct confrontations with disease and death through the loss of almost all of his relatives and children, including in 826/1423 his last surviving daughter Fāṭimah.³⁸ In al-Maqrīzī's unfortunate case, these radical changes moreover occurred just when, by the turn of the century, after careful preparation and with the help of family, friends, and patrons, he was about to firmly establish his person, his reputation, and his access to resources among the Cairo sultanate's ruling circles. Changes in patronage structures regularly

³⁶ On these issues, see especially Onimus (2013); Manz (1999); Borsch (2005): 40–54.

For various appreciations of these impacts and accommodations, see Walker (2011): 233–271; Loiseau (2010); Apellániz (2009); Meloy (2005); Bacharach (1973); Garcin, (1973–1974); Elbendary (2015).

³⁸ Bauden (2014): 166; Rabbat (2003): 17; Ziyādah (1971b): 16.

accompanying the accession of a new sultan and the natural dynamics of competition with peers may well help to explain initial adverse turns in this career, after sultan Barqūq's death in 801/1399. But when al-Magrīzī himself added a rare personal note that he had only accepted his short-lived re-appointment to the position of *muhtasib* in Šawwāl 807/April 1405 "reluctantly, and after the sultan's threefold repeated insistence", it becomes clear that by 807/1405 this wariness may have had most to do with growing political tension that was about to culminate in two military confrontations in and near Cairo in Dū l-Higgah 807/June 1405 and in sultan Farag's temporary abdication between Rabī' I and Ğumādá 11 of the next year (September-November 1405).³⁹ The same contextuality needs to be taken into account when considering al-Maqrīzī's surprising refusal in 810/1407 of sultan Farag's offer of the leadership over Šāfi'ī court justice in Syria, which according to most observers was his last known engagement with salaried positions.⁴⁰ This actually occurred when he had travelled in the royal entourage to Syria, during the sultan's fourth Syrian expedition against rival amirs (Muḥarram-Rabī' 11 810/July-September 1407). This expedition ended with sultan Farag's victory at the battle of Baalbek and with the death of one of his opponents, his former tutor Yašbak al-Šaʿbānī. But this outcome did nothing at all to end a competition for power that was gradually spiralling out of anyone's control and that was causing chaos and havoc in Syria, uncertainty in Egypt, and a radical reconfiguration of the sultanate's political landscapes, all of which was to culminate in 815/1412 in the public execution of sultan Farağ in Damascus.⁴¹ Although this unprecedented outcome

On the events of 1405, see Onimus (2013): 463–481 ("la fragmentation du milieu émiral"), 747. For the quote, see al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 3:1155. On this moment in the life of al-Maqrīzī and in the history of the position of the *muḥtasib* of Cairo, see also Meloy (2003b): 190; Allouche (1994): 3–4, 120; 'Abd al-Rāziq (1977): 153. Al-Maqrīzī's deep political involvement is suggested by Meloy's speculative claim that one of his earliest treatises, the *lġāṭat al-ummah*, may well have been written as a piece of economic advice for Faraǧ's young brother 'Abd al-'Azīz, who briefly sat on the throne as al-Malik al-Manṣūr (r. September–November 1405) (Meloy (2003b): 190).

⁴⁰ See Broadbridge (1999): 91 (where confusion over the reasons for this refusal is expressed), 92 (where al-Saḥāwī's claim that al-Maqrīzī was appointed to a teaching post in the Mu'ayyadī mosque complex in the 1410s is shown to have been unlikely); Rabbat (2003): 15–16 (who assigns the refusal to "weariness" and "the traditional pious alim's fear of inadvertently committing injustice while holding the position of judge").

On these events and their consequences, see the detailed analyses in Onimus (2013): 481–512 ("Entre concentration et fragmentation: le second règne de Faraǧ"), 649–657 ("La radicalisation des pratiques guerrières"). See also Bauden (2014): 166 (where al-Maqrīzī's direct exposure to these events is suggested by the explanation that after being "part of

was anything but evident to al-Maqrīzī and his colleagues in 810/1407, by then the ongoing violent political tension and lack of local control surely already offered very good reasons for his not wanting to accept the position of Šāfiʿī chief judge of Syria, and for not showing much obvious ambition for any other function of import in these and in subsequent years.

Personal loss, anxieties, and fears in times of political violence and socioeconomic upheaval had a substantial impact on al-Magrīzī's career. But as both Anne Broadbridge and Nasser Rabbat demonstrate, this withdrawal of course also had to do with the gradual disappearance of a range of patrons and powerful close friends, just as al-Magrīzī was reaching middle age, leading to social bereavement, stimulating an attitude of asceticism, and possibly even causing despondency. This emergence of a new, adverse social reality around al-Magrīzī however also deserves further contextualisation, especially since his known patrons and friends in high places all belonged to a particular group of political, administrative, and cultural elites who were all greatly affected by the crises of the early fifteenth century. So far, four political patrons have been clearly identified in contemporary biographies and in modern studies. These included of course first and foremost the royals Barquq and his son Farag. In the former's case, al-Magrīzī is even claimed to having been one of the sultan's boon companions (nadīm), whereas his membership in Farağ's entourage on the latter's various expeditions to Syria between 810/1407 and 815/1412 also suggests a certain, yet much more qualified, closeness. Al-Saḥāwī's biographies of al-Maqrīzī furthermore suggest a very close and beneficial friendship with the abovementioned military commander Yašbak al-Šaʻbānī, a former mamlūk of sultan Barqūq and sultan Farag's tutor, who had however a very complex relationship with the latter sultan, ranging from moments of support and Yašbak's de facto rule in Farag's name, to equally regular moments of competition for power and of military confrontation, culminating in Yašbak's death at the battle of Baalbek on 13 Rabī' II 810/17 September 1407.42 Caught between the often opposing interests of these two high-profile patrons, al-Maqrīzī finally also seems to have nurtured more stable good relations with the head of the chancery at

a group which accompanied the sultan on a trip to Damascus in 810/1407 [...] it seems likely that he did not remain in the town continuously and returned to Cairo each time the sultan did."), 168 (where the same suggestion follows from the statement that "[al-Maqrīzī's] ties with the sultan al-Nāṣir Farağ were to increase two years later, when he accompanied the latter in his various sojourns in Damascus").

⁴² See Broadbridge (1999): 88 (Yašbak & Barqūq, including reference to Ibn Tagrī Birdī's booncompanionship claim), 89 (Barqūq), 91 (Yašbak). See also al-Saḫāwī, *al-Tibr al-masbūk*, 1:73; Id., *al-Ḍawʾ al-lāmi*ʿ, 2:22.

the royal court in Cairo, the royal secretary (*kātib al-sirr*) Fath Allāh al-Tabrīzī (d. 816/1413), who, according to Rabbat, "was both a dependable and resourceful patron and a faithful friend for more than twenty years". This converted Jew from Tabriz, who was actually a doctor and who had been the official chief of doctors in Cairo (ra'īs al-atibbā') when sultan Barqūq transferred him, despite his lack of qualifications, to the position of royal secretary, had remained in office for many years under Barquq and Farag, until his dismissal and murder in 815-816/1413 by order of Farag's executioner and successor, sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayh.⁴³ What each of these latter two patrons Yašbak and Fath Allāh have in common is their close connections to Barquq, and to the royal household that was constructed around this sultan from the 1380s onwards, and that continued to be dominant—albeit eventually in an extremely fragmented and destructive way—until the execution of its leader Farağ in 815/1412.⁴⁴ Al-Magrīzī's loss of his patrons between Barquq's death in 801/1399 and Fath Allah's murder in 816/1413 were therefore not isolated events or unfortunate co-incidences. This rather was symptomatic of the gradual implosion and total disappearance of a particular power constellation and of a particular socio-political order during the first decade of the century, and of how this anything but premeditated outcome also deeply affected scholars such as al-Magrīzī.

Al-Maqrīzī's personal history of social transformation and withdrawal is then not merely a story of mild asceticism, frustration, and failure. It is also the story of much wider changes that affected the political, economic, and social worlds in which he lived, and that had a huge impact on traditional social structures and elites in Cairo and beyond. It is above all the story of how he—willingly or not—chose to deal with these changes. With traditional socio-economic conditions in an unprecedented state of flux, and with the social field of politics undergoing rapid and violent transformation, old routes and trodden paths for social advancement were dwindling for people such as

See Rabbat (2003): 16 (also describing al-Maqrīzī as "suddenly jolted by the dismissal and then brutal killing of his last confirmed patron, Fatḥ Allāh the *kātib al-sirr*, which took place after a painful six-month imprisonment (Šawwāl 815–Rabī' al-Awwal 816/January–June 1413)"). See also the biography of Fatḥ Allāh by Ibn Tagrī Birdī (*al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 8:375–377), where it is explained that "he was an eager collectioner of precious books", a particularity that might be somehow related to the wide range of al-Maqrīzī's scholarship. See Onimus (2013): 316–514 ("Quatrième partie: *al-bayt wa l-ḥizb*, l'ascension de la maison sultanienne face au factionnalisme émiral"); and Loiseau (2010): 179–214 ("4. Refondation de l'état, redistribution du pouvoir: vers un nouvel ordre mamelouk"), 287–330 ("6. Le sultan et les siens. Usages politiques et stratégies sociales dans la fondation de la maison du sultan [al-Zāhir Barqūq, al-Nāṣir Faraǧ]").

al-Magrīzī. Simultaneously, however, new opportunities certainly also continued to arise, but they required new skills and assets, new friends and roads to patronage, and new dealings with old and new competitors. These were new circumstances that turned out to be more favourable for some than for others, including for some of al-Maqrīzī's peers, such as the great Šāfi'ī judge and specialist of *hadīt* Ibn Ḥaǧar al-'Asqalānī (773–852/1372–1449) or the *muḥtasib* and historian Mahmūd al-'Aynī (762–855/1361–1451). The former's membership in an ancient wealthy family of spice merchants may have proven an incredible asset when traditional income from land came under immense pressures, whereas the latter's southeast-Anatolian origins, professed Hanafism, and cultural proficiency in Turkish secured his direct access to the new rulers and their patronage.⁴⁵ In al-Maqrīzī's case nothing much is known indeed of further advancements in terms of salaried positions, nor of any explicit ambitions in that respect; on the contrary, his attitude, as expressed through his writings, rather has been reconstructed so far as one of regular criticism of the ruling sultans and their representatives (eventually even including his former patron Barqūq),46 of total abandonment of his former activism (though not of his political and socio-economic interest and concern), and of occasional frustration and despair with his personal circumstances, often even expressed as a longing for a better past, when things would have been—in the eyes of a historian such as him at least—much clearer and much better organised.⁴⁷

7 Contextualising al-Maqrīzī's al-Dahab al-masbūk

The preceding micro-historical contextualisation undoubtedly enables a more nuanced understanding of Anne Broadbridge's assertion that "in terms of the competitive arena and [...] patronage practices al-Maqrīzī seems to have died a failure." She however also added to this assessment that "in terms of academic endeavour, [he died] a resounding although not unqualified success with at least his followers, although not his detractors." Considering that this second phase in al-Maqrīzī's life coincided with what Bauden, Ziyādah, and Faraḥāt, after al-Saḥāwī, have also identified as a consciously constructed high-point in his scholarly production, it was clearly not just all melancholy, depression,

⁴⁵ Broadbridge (1999): 86–87, 89–91, 94–97.

⁴⁶ Ibid., 93-94. See also Levanoni (2001); Massoud (2003).

⁴⁷ Rabbat (2003): 16–18; Id. (2000); Id. (2012).

⁴⁸ Broadbridge (1999): 105.

⁴⁹ Ibid.

isolation, and frustration that made him—in the words of one of his students and successors as a historian, Čamāl al-Dīn Yūsuf Ibn Taġrī Birdī (813-874/1411-1470)—into "the historian of his time whom no one could come near"; 50 neither can it have been simply a story of mild asceticism and aloofness that made al-Magrīzī himself explicitly write down that in 833/1429 an ambassador from the Tīmūrid court in Herat came to Cairo requesting the sultan for a copy of his Kitāb al-Sulūk, his ongoing project of chronicling the late medieval Cairo sultanate. ⁵¹ Obviously, the reality of al-Magrīzī's professional life in the 810s/1410s, '20s and '30s was more complex than any one explanation can account for. Whereas changing times and contexts, past experiences, personal intellectual developments, and ongoing encounters with loss and despair continued to inform and define al-Maqrīzī's personality and mindset, it should also be made clear that in those decades his personal ambition had definitely moved away from direct participation in the newly composed post-815/1412 ruling establishments and its institutions, towards a life of observation and teaching, of describing that new organisation of the Cairo sultanate of his days from various longue durée perspectives, and even of connecting with its practices of patronage and competition in equally new ways.

As is well known, al-Maqrīzī mainly engaged in the production of historiographical scholarship in two different ways. On the one hand, he produced a number of carefully constructed and deeply interconnected grand works of Egyptian topography, biography, and history, in which he collected, surveyed, and preserved the history of Egypt, its Muslim capitals, and its changing elites from the seventh-century Arab conquest until his own days; apart from the above mentioned *Kitāb al-Sulūk*, which was itself a continuation of two other works by al-Maqrīzī dealing with Egypt's history up to the emergence of the Cairo sultanate in the later twelfth century, these works include the famous *Ḥiṭaṭ* on the history of the city of Cairo, and the *Kitāb al-Tārīḥ al-Kabīr al-Muqaffá li-Miṣr* with biographies of people who lived in Egypt or visited the region.⁵² On the other hand, al-Maqrīzī also produced simultaneously with these multi-volume works a high number of short books, topical essays, and

⁵⁰ Ibid., 92–93, referring to Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *History of Egypt*, 8:143.

⁵¹ Ibid., 103, referring to al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 4:818, and adding that Ibn Ḥaǧar's and al-ʿAynī's references to this embassy make no mention of a request for al-Maqrīzī's *al-Sulūk*. The ongoing nature of this chronographical project is explained in Ziyādah, "Aḥmad b. 'Alī l-Maqrīzī", and it is further qualified in Bauden (2014):181.

Bauden (2014): 167–196; Ziyādah (1971a): 18–19; al-Šayyāl (1971): 23–24. To these grand works should certainly also be added a biography of the prophet Muḥammad (*Imtā' al-asmā' li-mā li-l-rasūl min al-anbā' wa-l-aḥwāl wal-ḥafadah wa-l-matā'*) and a more

little treatises, on various socio-economic, cultural, or political subjects, and almost always including a perspective of identifying precedents, continuities, and changes for precisely defined historical phenomena from past or present; these undoubtedly made up the majority of the alleged number of more than 200 works by al-Maqrīzī, even though today only about twenty-five opuscules of this undoubtedly optimistically counted set have survived.⁵³

The production of most of al-Maqrīzī's grand works of history was a long-term project that was only more or less completed in the years immediately before his death.⁵⁴ Yet, the conception, set-up, and writing of most of them clearly fitted in some sort of coherent plan of scholarly action that he must have started to think of seriously in the course of the 810s/1410s, if not earlier.⁵⁵ These works were therefore never directly connected to any obvious form of commissioning or cultural patronage, even though through their size, subject matter, and detailed scholarship they obviously attracted a substantial level of high-profile attention. This is certainly suggested for the *Kitāb al-Sulūk*, when in 833/1429 this Arabic chronicle's fame already turned out to have travelled all the way to the Persianate Tīmūrid court in Herat, many years before it was actually completed.⁵⁶ Similar stories of renown and possibly also reward may

traditional universal history of mankind since Creation (*al-Ḥabar ʿan al-Bašar*), both of which were written during the final decade of al-Maqrīzī's life (see Bauden [2014]: 171, 196–199).

Bauden (2014):168; al-Šayyāl (1971): 25–37; Faraḥāt (2009):19–25 (listing an overall number of 34 extant or known books by al-Maqrīzī—some of the titles listed by Faraḥāt may however only refer to parts from other works, such as number 8, the unpublished *Tārīḥ al-Ğarākisah* [Oxford, Bodleian Library, MS Or. 458], which upon inspection turns out to be a copy from a part of the *Kitāb al-Sulūk* covering the years 807–830 AH). Al-Saḥāwī claimed to have read "in [al-Maqrīzī's] own handwriting that his compositions consisted of more than two hundred large volumes" (al-Saḥāwī, *al-Daw' al-lāmī*', 2: 23).

See, in general, Bauden (2014): 173 (*Ḥiṭaṭ*), 181 (*al-Sulūk*), 191–192 (*al-Muqaffá*). For the *Ḥiṭaṭ*, see also Sayyid (1979): 240; Broadbridge (1999): 100; Bauden (2008): 99. Al-Maqrīzī's major annalistic chronicle *Kitāb al-Sulūk* runs up to the end of the year 844AH (May 1441), which means that he continued adding material to it until shortly before his death (Ziyādah [1971a]: 11; Bauden [2014]: 181). In the bibliographical section that Ibn Taġrī Birdī added to al-Maqrīzī's biography, he stated that the latter had confided to him that "if this history [i.e. *Kitāb al-Tārīṭ al-kabīr al-muqaffá*] had been completed the way I prefer, it would have consisted of more than eighty volumes", suggesting that it was indeed never completed (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 1: 419; also referred to in al-Šayyāl (1971) 24); al-Saḥāwī, who repeated the same statement, claims that eventually only sixteen volumes were completed (al-Saḥāwī, *al-Daw' al-lāmi'*, 2: 22).

⁵⁵ Bauden (2008): 71–72; Id. (2010); Id. (2014): 168–169, 176; Ziyādah (1971b): 18–19.

⁵⁶ Broadbridge (1999): 103, referring to al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 4: 818; Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Nuǧūm*

surely be true for the reception of al-Maqrīzī's other, equally highly admired works, such as his multi-volume *al-Muqaffá* and his *al-Ḥiṭat*.⁵⁷

This matter of the production, reproduction, and consumption of al-Magrīzī's written word is obviously more diverse and complex for those many smaller texts. There are a few patterns that may be reconstructed here too, though, and that above all have some relevance for the historical contextualisation of one of these texts, which is this study's main subject, the *Kitāb al-Dahab* al-masb $\bar{u}k$. In the case of a number of these texts, at least the perception of a genuine personal scholarly interest is created as the main reason for writing them. Thus, a short treatise on the history of Arab tribes in Egypt, the *Kitāb* al-Bayān wa-l-i'rāb 'ammā bi-arḍ Miṣr min al-A'rāb, begins with the clear statement that "I noted down [this treatise] for myself (li-nafsī) and for whom God wants from my brethren (abnā' ǧinsī)."58 Other treatises, such as the monetary history Šudūr al-'uqūd and the legal inquiry of a Hebron endowment, the Daw' al-sārī li-ma'rifat habar Tamīm al-Dārī, make explicit claims to having been commissioned for particular purposes, in these two cases respectively by sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayh (r. 815–824/1412–1421), soliciting monetary advice from al-Magrīzī, and by the heirs of a Companion of the Prophet, Tamīm al-Dārī, seeking some form of support for their appeal to justice.⁵⁹ A third and final category of treatises seems to have been conceptualised by al-Maqrīzī for similar particular occasions and purposes, but with the explicit aim of soliciting or confirming relations of cultural patronage and impact. This is suggested to have been the case with one of the first known historical texts produced by al-Maqrīzī, the economic treatise *Iġāṭat al-ummah*, which seems to have been written as an advice text for the sultan 'Abd al-'Azīz b. Barqūq when he briefly replaced his brother Farag on the throne in the autumn of 1405.60 This motive of socio-cultural promotion and of soliciting royal patronage also seems to have

al-zāhirah, 14:336. The seminal contemporary status of the *Kitāb al-Sulūk* is certainly also illustrated by the fact that it was explicitly continued by at least two mid-fifteenth-century chronicles, one by Ibn Taġrī Birdī (*Ḥawādiṭ al-duhūr fī madá l-ayyām wa-l-šuhūr*; see also Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 1:418) and the other by al-Saḥāwī (al-Tibr al-masbūk fī dayl al-Sulūk). Bauden similarly concludes that "the work was hugely successful, as demonstrated by the large number of manuscripts preserved in libraries across the world" (Bauden [2014]: 182).

For Ibn Taġrī Birdī, the Hitat managed to attain "extreme beauty (fi gayat al-husn)" (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣaft, 1: 419).

⁵⁸ Al-Maqrīzī, *Bayān*, 6. See also Al-Šayyāl (1971): 25–26.

⁵⁹ Meloy (2003b): 197; al-Maqrīzī, *Daw' al-sārī*, 47–49.

⁶⁰ Meloy (2003b): 190 ("... al-Maqrīzī may have taken advantage of the interregnum of al-Malik al-Manṣūr 'Abd al-'Azīz ibn Barqūq ... to submit his recommendations to be put into practice").

caused, almost thirty years later, the production of al-Maqrīzī's treatise on the legal rulings and historical practice of circumcision, the *al-Iḥbār 'an al-i'dār*; this is at least suggested by the author himself in an autobiographical note in his *Kitāb al-Sulūk*, added to a brief report of festivities organised for the circumcision of sultan Barsbāy's son, Ğamāl al-Dīn Yūsuf (827–868/1424–1463, r. 841–842/1438), in mid-Ša'bān 837/late March 1434:

At that occasion, I wrote a book ($kit\bar{a}b^{an}$) which I entitled 'The Report on the Feast of Circumcision' (al- $Ihb\bar{a}r$ 'an al- $i'd\bar{a}r$). As far as I am aware nothing similar has ever been produced before, [considering] what it contains of stories and traditions, of rulings by the authoritative pioneers of Islam, of deeds of caliphs and rulers, and of memorable events and impressive cases. 61

This combination of occasion, of promotion, and of seeking, confirming, or abiding by the rules of cultural patronage is even more explicitly suggested by al-Maqrīzī as the main ground for his writing of the short history of the pilgrimage to Mecca, which is the focus of this study. In the opening lines of this 'Book of Moulded Gold' ($Kit\bar{a}b$ al-Dahab al-masb $\bar{u}k$) al-Maqrīzī actually makes a number of extremely informative and useful statements, enabling an unusually precise historical contextualisation of this text and its production. In this very personal literary reflection, the author dedicates his booklet directly to an individual whom he identifies clearly as a person of high standing and as his patron; he then explains at length that he wrote it as a present befitting the occasion of the latter's preparation for the $ha\check{g}$; and he finishes his introduction with some good wishes for his patron's safe journey.

I demand God—supplicating Him and stretching out my hand to Him—to cause the days of the noble lord to be followed by similarly good and additionally abundant ones ever after, such that every fortune that he anticipates and [every] expectation that he nurtures will come true, outdoing anyone who preceded him and unmatched by anyone who follows him. [...] The word has spread that the high-born intention was set on undertaking the <code>haǧǧ</code> and to be endowed with the noise and blood of rituals. It has become common practice for servants to present a gift to their masters, for which reason I considered the situation of clients that owe presents on the occasion of an event like this, and I decided to

⁶¹ Al-Maqrīzī, al-Sulūk, 4:913.

follow their example. [...] Since knowledge is the most precious and most valuable of treasures, the most glorious and the longest remembered of deeds, I collected for the benefit of the esteemed library of our lord—may God support it with long life for its owner—a volume that comprises the report of those caliphs and kings who performed the <code>hağğ</code>. [...] May God protect our lord whenever he does not expect it and may He guard him whenever he does not think of it; may He be with him as a guardian when traveling, and as a supporter and helper when he is staying somewhere.⁶²

As the long version of the title of the booklet already announces—"The Book of Gold Moulded in the Format of the Report of Those Caliphs and Kings Who Performed the *Ḥaǧǧ*"—, the text that follows this dedicatory introduction is organised around the hağğ. Instead of approaching this subject from a traditional didactic or religio-legal perspective of the pilgrimage's religious forms, function, and meanings, al-Magrīzī decided to focus first and foremost on "those caliphs and kings who performed the *haǧǧ*", on pilgriming rulers. This focus, however, was not meant to offer its dedicatee any sort of guidance on or historical examples of the *haǧǧ* journey, of good pilgrimage practice, or on ritual rules and regulations. As will be explained in detail in the next chapter, the combination of the subject of the hağğ with that of rulers of caliphal or royal standing allowed al-Maqrīzī first and foremost to inform his audience about the haǧǧ's political meanings, and about how those meanings had been, and could or should be, operationalised throughout Islamic history. Al-Dahab al-masbūk is therefore not a religious or merely historiographical text, but rather above all a political didactic text, which would certainly have been entertaining and instructive for a larger readership, but which was meaningful first and foremost to a political audience, and which was therefore perhaps even as programmatic as some of al-Maqrīzī's socio-economic texts, such as the *Iġāṭat al-ummah* and the *Šudūr al-'ugūd*, had been.

This brings up the issue of the nature of that political audience, of the identity of the booklet's dedicatee and of al-Maqrīzī's patron, of the occasion and time of its composition, and finally also again of al-Maqrīzī's radically changed but clearly yet ongoing engagement with the social practice of patronage beyond the 1410s. Some scholars, such as the booklet's first editor Ğamāl al-Dīn al-Šayyāl and then also Karam Ḥilmī Faraḥāt more recently, claimed that al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$ was written in May 1438.⁶³ This is however the result

⁶² See below, §§ 1, 2, 4, 5.

⁶³ Al-Šayyāl (1955): 24–26; Id. (2000): 25–27; Faraḥāt (2009): 27–29. See also al-Šayyāl, (1971): 27; *GAL*, 2:50.

of a misinterpretation of the reference to this date ($D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah 841) in some manuscript colophons, as a reference to the work's composition, whereas in fact it only refers to the moment when al-Maqr $\bar{z}z$ collated, corrected, and finalised a copyist's copy of the text.⁶⁴ $D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah 841/May 1438 can therefore only serve as a *terminus ante quem*. Furthermore, there is one clear internal reference in the text to the author's own time, which is explicitly situated after Ša'bān 815/November 1412, a date that therefore can serve as a *terminus post quem*.⁶⁵ This leaves a substantial level of doubt regarding the actual time of production of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, at some undefined moment between 815/1412 and 841/1438. Contextualising the text's production from the perspective of patronage may actually help to offer some more clues to resolve this issue.

Most scholars who have looked at the question of dedication and patronage for this text have felt extremely frustrated by the combination of, on the one hand, al-Maqrīzī's explicitness in dedicating the text and explaining the occasion for its production and, on the other hand, his silence on the actual identity of the patron whom he was writing it for, only referred to in the introduction by generic titles and epithets such as "the noble lord" (al-maqarr al-maḥdūm), "the high-born intention" (al-'azm al-sarīf), "for the benefit of the esteemed library of our lord" (bi-rasm al-ḥizānah al-sarīfah al-maḥdūmiyyah), "the highborn mind" (al-ḥāṭir al-sarīf), and "the lord" (al-maḥdūm). Ge On the basis of the prominent appearance of the first title in particular, al-Šayyāl, and Faraḥāt after him, concluded that this patron had to be a high-ranking amir, who performed the pilgrimage in 841/1438, but whose identity could not be further established. There are however good reasons, both internal and external to

⁶⁴ These issues are discussed in more detail in Chapter 3 of this study.

See p. 61 ("Until today, the situation has remained like that, the Friday sermon in Mecca never being spoken in the name of any of the 'Abbāsid caliphs of Egypt, except for [the name of] the caliph al-Mustaʿin bi-llāh Abū l-Faḍl al-ʿAbbās b. Muḥammad, [which was mentioned] for a few days in the year 815.") Al-Mustaʿin reigned as sultan between March and November 1412 ("al-Mustaʿin", in E1² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mustain-SIM_5620)).

⁶⁶ The first reference, *al-maqarr al-malıdūm*, appears three times, the others only once (see below, §§1–5).

⁶⁷ See al-Šayyāl (1955): 24–26; id. (2000): 25–27; referring to the formal classification of titles such as *al-maqarr*, including *al-maqarr al-šarīf* and *al-maqarr al-maḥdūmī*, in the sultanate's chancery practice, as recorded in al-Qalqašandī, Ṣubḥ al-a'šá, 5:494; 6:130–133, 146–148, 154–155, 161. This argument is repeated word-for-word by Faraḥāt (2009): 27–29. The other editor of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, Ḥamad al-Ğāsir, suggests that this amir was al-Maqrīzī's former patron Yašbak al-Ša'bānī, referring to a similar statement in the entry for *al-Dahab al-masbūk* in the seventeenth-century bibliography *Kašf al-zunūn* (al-

the text, to develop some more precise ideas about the identity of this patron, moving beyond the formal question of titulature and introducing two rather different potential dedicatees of an engaged political booklet such as this $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ history. One option is that it was dedicated in about 834/1431 to \check{G} amāl al-Dīn Yūsuf, the aforementioned son of al-Ašraf Barsbāy. Another option is that a first version of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$ was already written at a much earlier date, in 821/1418, for sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayh. An argument can actually be made in favour of each of these two options.

Both potential dedicatees concern persons of royal status, and this tallies well with the text's obvious royal set-up, with its focus on caliphs and other Muslim rulers and their political patronage of the <code>haǧǧ</code>. These are subjects befitting a sultan or a sultan's heir, but they are highly unsuitable or at least hazardous to dedicate in a similarly programmatic way to a senior amir from a sultan's entourage. ⁶⁸ The first suggested option of the dedication of <code>al-Dahab al-masbūk</code> to Yūsuf would also be in line with al-Maqrīzī's aforementioned composition in 837/1434 of another treatise on the occasion of the same Ğamāl al-Dīn Yūsuf's circumcision. A similar occasion for the production of another dedicated text, but then on the politics of the <code>haǧǧ</code>, certainly would have presented itself to al-Maqrīzī three years earlier, in the summer of 834/1431, when the author himself had been sojourning in Mecca, and when sultan

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Ğāsir [1952]: 5-6); as suggested above, however, Yašbak died at the battle of Baalbek on 17 September 1407, making it highly unlikely—given the explicit reference to the 1412 sultanate of caliph al-Musta'īn—that al-Maqrīzī would have dedicated it to him posthumously; the dedication rather suggests the text's mediation of a patron-client relationship that is still active. The entire argument in favour of a high-ranking amir, however, is rather weak and follows from the conclusion that *al-maqarr* cannot formally be used in this combination with al-maḥdūm for the sultan, nor for a non-military member of the court, so that it can only have been meant for an amir (even though the combination does not entirely match chancery usage for high-ranking amirs either, and the other titles and epithets that were mentioned do not match such known usage at all); for an alternative potential explanation for the generic nature of these titles and epithets, and for their non-representative character for that patron, from the perspective of wider socioliterary tradition rather than from chancery practices, see chapter three of this first part. Another potential dedicatee that at least should be suggested here—even though a strong case cannot really be made for him—is the amir Qurqmās al-Ša'bānī (d. 842/1438), deeply engaged in the affairs of the Hijaz as sultan Barsbāy's main local agent and eventually, in 842/1438 (shortly after the production of the Leiden manuscript), Ğaqmaq's main rival for Barsbāy's succession, in which context he was considered a valuable "candidate for the sultanate" (taraššaḥa li-l-salṭanah) in al-Maqrīzī's al-Sulūk (4:1105) (see Van Nieuwenhuyse & Van Steenbergen [forthcoming]).

Barsbāy's senior wife, the princess Ğulbān al-Hindī (d. 839/1436), had been sent on the first of the two spousal pilgrimages that were organised during Barsbāy's reign. Confirming or re-establishing her royal husband's privilege of representation-*cum*-precedence and his sovereignty along the road and in Mecca at a time of growing regional competition, Ğulbān travelled in full royal splendour, bringing her entourage and family with her. Her only male son with sultan Barsbāy, Ğamāl al-Dīn Yūsuf—at that time a boy of about seven years old, living with his mother in the royal harem—was most certainly among those family members who participated in this 834/1431 haǧǧ with her.⁶⁹ This particular context of the first royal pilgrimage from Cairo since 819/1417 obviously would have befitted the production of a text constructed around the history and political symbolism of this kind of meaningful royal engagement with the Hijaz,⁷⁰ and its dedication by the author to the only living son of sultan Barsbāy, who was at that occasion following in the royal footsteps of many an illustrious predecessor of his father, would then evidently have imposed itself.

But there are also good reasons to follow a second option, of the book-let's dedication to an actual sultan of Cairo: al-Malik al-Mu'ayyad Šayḫ. As with Yūsuf, this would certainly also be in line with another known textual enterprise that similarly connected al-Maqrīzī to Šayḫ: the case of the Šuḍūr al-ʿuqūd, which was, as explained, a text of advice commissioned by this sultan. As with Yūsuf, an occasion for the production of this particular type of text certainly also presented itself, when in Šaʿbān 821/September 1418 al-Mu'ayyad Šayḫ's plans to go on pilgrimage to Mecca were made public. By

For al-Maqrīzī's 'sojourning' in Mecca at this time, see Ibn Fahd, *Itḥāf al-wará*, 4:55–56 (I am grateful to M. Dekkiche for providing me with this reference); al-Maqrīzī, *Daw' al-sārī*, 12; Bauden (2014): 165. On the *ḥawand al-kubrā* Ğulbān al-Hindī and her pilgrimage, "accompied by her family and relatives (*wa-ma'ahā ahluhā wa-aqāribuhā*)", see Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 5:15; also al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 4:858; Dekkiche & Van Steenbergen (forthcoming). On growing regional competition and the symbolical role of the *ḥaǧǧ* and of Mecca, see Dekkiche (2014–2015).

⁷⁰ For the ḥaǧǧ of sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayḥ's *ḥawand al-kubrā* Ḥadīǧah (d. 833/1430) in 819/1417 (coinciding with the wife [*ḥātūn*] of the ruler of the Mongol Golden Horde joining the Damascus caravan for the *ḥaǧǧ* and with a sizeable caravan from Takrūr joining the Egyptian caravan), see al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 4:368, 371; Ibn Ḥaǧar, *Inbāʾ al-ġumr*, 7:223.

⁷¹ Meloy (2003b): 197–203; Broadbridge (1999): 92; Id. (2003): 239–240.

⁷² See al-Maqrīzī, al-Sulūk, 4:458–459 (parading in Cairo of the sultan's camels selected for the trip to the Hijaz [li-l-safar ma'ahu ilá l-Ḥiǧāz] and Syrian troubles urging for the abortion of the plans [intaná 'azm al-sultān 'an al-safar ilá l-Ḥiǧāz]); similarly reported in Ibn Ḥaǧar, Inbā' al-ġumr, 7:315 (but reformulated as "he gave up his intention to perform the ḥaǧǧ [intaná 'azmuhu 'an al-ḥaǧǧ]"); Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Nuǧūm al-zāhirah,

this, Šayh would actually follow in the footsteps of only three other sultans who are claimed to have undertaken this journey from Cairo—al-Zāhir Baybars, al-Nāsir Muhammad, and al-Ašraf Ša'bān. Each of them was given an entry in al-Dahab al-masbūk and al-Ašraf Ša'bān's pilgrimage story even closed the booklet, creating then the impression of Šayh—if indeed he was the dedicatee pursuing or stepping into a historical sequence that was reconstructed for him by al-Maqrīzī. There are also two more internal reasons that make this a very valid option. One has to do with an explicit reference in the text to the fact that the inner *kiswah* of sultan al-Nāsir Hasan "is still present today"; this inner *kiswah* of sultan Hasan was actually replaced by sultan Barsbāy's in the course of 826/1423, which would then move back the text's terminus ante quem substantially (provided at least that al-Magrīzī would have known about this new inner kiswah arrangement), making a 821/1418 date of composition more likely.⁷³ This relatively early date would certainly also help to explain one puzzling auto-referential feature in the text, which is then the second internal reason for linking the text to al-Mu'ayyad Šayh's patronage. As will be detailed in the next chapter, there are a handful of explicit references throughout the text to other writings by al-Maqrīzī, explaining how more information on this or that ruler may be found in one or more of his other texts. However, the chronologically last ruler to receive this kind of references is sultan al-Zāhir Baybars, for whom al-Maqrīzī adds that more may be found in "his biography in the Kitāb al-Tārīḥ al-Kabīr al-Muqaffá and the Kitāb Aḥbār Mulūk Miṣr."⁷⁴ The abrupt ending of this pattern of auto-referencing in the narrative of Baybars may then be explained by the simple fact that by 821/1418 the production of works such as that *Kitāb Ahbār Mulūk Misr*—better known to later generations as the annalistic chronicle *Kitāb al-Sulūk li-ma'rifat duwal al-mulūk*—had not yet advanced nor perhaps even been conceptualised beyond Egypt's history in the thirteenth century, making similar auto-references in the narratives of the next four fourteenth-century rulers simply impossible.⁷⁵

^{14:68 (}adding to a detailed parading report that by that act "it was confirmed to everyone that the sultan was going to travel for the <code>haǧǧ</code>"). In a personal communication Nasser Rabbat informed me that he has also developed in his forthcoming biography of al-Maqrīzī a similar argument for <code>al-Dahab al-masbūk</code>'s dedication to al-Mu'ayyad Šayḫ on the occasion of this 821/1418 pilgrimage project.

See p. 81; the particular history of the decoration with Barsbāy's new inner *kiswah* in 826/1423 was certainly known to al-Maqrīzī's Meccan student, colleague, and friend Ibn Fahd (see Ibn Fahd, *Itḥāf al-wará*, 3:596); Dekkiche (2014–2015).

⁷⁴ See p. 82

⁷⁵ This suggestion of al-Dahab al-masbūk's predating the composition of most of the Kitāb al-

This factor of royal dedication then finally brings up again the issue of al-Magrīzī's asceticism, despair, and alleged failure to engage with new patronage in the second phase of his live, or at least his withdrawal from active participation in the sultanate's new, post-1412 ruling establishments. This attitude certainly may have been the case as far as salaried positions, court privileges, and government duties were concerned. The above presentation and historical contextualisation of his writings suggests, however, that things may have been rather different with his involvement in socio-cultural patronage. As is generally accepted, al-Magrīzī certainly persevered with actively pursuing royal attention and patronage during the reign of al-Mu'ayyad Šayh, and it may well be that al-Dahab al-masbūk was part and parcel of that social strategy (even though the text soon lost its direct value when Sayh's pilgrimage was aborted due to Syrian troubles).76 Whether effective and successful or not, the same practice of a particular cultural production aimed at the sultanate's political elites may have been continued by al-Magrīzī during the reign of Šayh's successor Barsbāy, and in the 1430s it may even have engaged with the entourage of the sultan's wife Ğulbān al-Hindī (d. 839/1436) and of their only son Yūsuf.⁷⁷ Past

Sulūk would certainly also help to explain three obvious dating mistakes in two narratives from the post-Baybars era (the dating of al-Hākim's pilgrimage to the year 699AH rather than to 697 AH, of al-Mujāhid 'Alī's second pilgrimage to 752 AH rather than to 751 AH, and of the same ruler's death to 769 AH rather than to 767 AH); in al-Sulūk the correct dates are mentioned in all three cases, which makes for a remarkable inconsistency between both texts that can only be explained by the fact that for the production of these narratives in *al-Dahab al-masbūk* the *al-Sulūk* and the material used for it were not yet available to the author for easy reference. It has to be admitted, however, that this argument on the basis of internal suggestions in the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk does not agree well with Bauden's conclusion that "by 820/1417 [al-Maqrīzī] had already written the whole part [of al-Sulūk] covering the years 567/1171-791/1389, the equivalent of three volumes, as there is a comment that a practice which he described is still current at the time he wrote the passage, that is to say the year 820/1417" (Bauden (2014): 181); in the latter case the absence of further references to and the dating discrepancies with the al-Sul $\bar{u}k$ remain rather enigmatic. From the reference to the al-Sulūk as Kitāb Aḥbār Mulūk Miṣr it is anyway clear that al-Dahab al-masbūk was written before the al-Sulūk was awarded the more poetic title by which it has become known to later generations.

⁷⁶ See al-Maqrīzī, al-Sulūk, 4:459; Ibn Ḥaǧar, Inbāʾ al-ġumr, 7:315 Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Nuǧūm al-zāhirah, 14:68.

An illustration of that entourage's status and position in the 1430s is the fact that Ibn Taġrī Birdī was quite impressed by the charisma of Ğulbān and by her empowerment in her son's slipstream, as suggested by his claim that "if she had lived until her son al-'Azīz became sultan, she would have managed his reign most efficiently" (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 5:16).

experiences with radical socio-political transformation and with personal loss, and stark or even controversial personal opinions about social order, justice, and socio-economic policy surely continued to inform his writings in various direct, indirect, and above all dynamic ways, which certainly require further exploration. But neither this particular mindset nor the choice for a life of scholarship from the 810s/1410s onwards meant that al-Maqrīzī—as he himself also explains in the introduction of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*—ever really wished, tried, or would have been able to escape from the context of patronage and competition that defined the field of socio-cultural practice for any fifteenth-century Egyptian scholar and his audiences. In this social reality of things, and despite his own death in solitude, al-Maqrīzī may even be claimed to have been quite successful, given the long survival of his post-815/1412 scholarship's fame, remembrance, and textual production among patrons, peers, and pupils, and among admirers as well as among opponents.

The suggestion of the existence of an aspired or even actual bond of scholarship and cultural patronage between al-Maqrīzī and Ğamāl al-Dīn Yūsuf in the 1430s of course remains tenuous and speculative, standing on one explicit textual leg only (the reference in *al-Sulūk* to the reason for writing *al-Iḥbār 'an al-i'dār'*). The full picture nevertheless begs the final question whether it was really merely a coincidence that—as will be explained below—the careful preparation for publication of a selection of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts, including *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, happened at about the same time as the illness that confined sultan Barsbāy to his deathbed and that caused his son Yūsuf's official nomination as heir apparent soon thereafter, in late 841/mid-1438.⁷⁹ This particular publication project had of course everything to do with an old man's general concern to preserve his scholarly legacy and to organise the orderly

One issue demanding further exploration certainly is the afore-mentioned fact that quite a few of these sultans, from Barqūq over Šayḫ to Barsbāy, receive a very negative press from al-Maqrīzi, albeit apparently always posthumously (Bauden [2014]: 182; Broadbridge [1999]: 93–94; but also Id. [2003], offering a didactic purpose as an explanation).

The Leiden autograph, including *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, was produced by a copyist at some time between early 1437 and early 1438, and it was corrected by al-Maqrīzī between February–March and June–July 1438 (see chapter 3). Sultan Barsbāy's fatal illness apparently started to manifest itself from Rajab 841/January 1438 onwards (al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 4:1027); he officially installed his son Yūsuf as heir apparent in early Dū l-Qa'dah 841/Jate April 1438, when it became clear that an epidemic was decimating the membership of the sultan's household (al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 4:1040, 1041–1042, 1042–1045); Barsbāy died 12 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah 841/6 June 1438, and was succeeded by his son the next day (al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 4:1051, 1053–1054, 1065–1066).

and authentic transmission of the various kinds of knowledge that over time he had been engaging with. But even in the ivory tower of al-Maqrīzī's scholarly pursuit such concerns betray an ongoing interest in the impact of his writings and in issues of readership and of his own status and identity as an authoritative member of the scholarly community. Al-Maqrīzī may then actually also have seen a good occasion in the events, changes, and re-alignments affecting the sultanate's elites in 841/1438 and coinciding with his publication project to draw (renewed) attention to the many merits of his scholarly production.

From this perspective of ongoing scholarly communication and performance in a socio-cultural context that is rooted in practices of patronage and competition the two dedicatory options suggested above for *al-Dahab almasbūk* may not even be mutually exclusive. ⁸⁰ It seems sound to claim that the case for dedication to al-Mu'ayyad Šayh is quite strong, but also that at the same time the aborted plan of this sultan's hağğ in 821/1418 must have made the text somewhat meaningless. It may then well be that it was never published in this original form, and that it was recycled many years later by its author, when new contexts arose that re-aligned with at least some of the text's meanings and that justified renewed investments in its preparation for publication. The 834/1431 pilgrimage of Ğulbān al-Hindī and her family as well as the accession of al-'Azīz Yūsuf on 13 Dhū l-Ḥiǧǧah 841/7 June 1438 certainly provided for occasions that tallied well with the political text that *al-Dahab al-masbūk* was meant to be.

At the same time, however, Yūsuf's extremely short-lived tenure of the sultanate, between 13 $D\bar{u}$ l-Ḥiǧǧah 841 and 18 Rabīʻ I 842/7 June and 8 September 1438 only, as well as Šayḥ's aborted pilgrimage twenty years earlier may have added yet other moments of disappointment and despair to al-Maqrīzī's long life, moments of despondency for more lost channels of access to his audiences indeed, perhaps even inviting for unhappy musings similar to the ones that Nasser Rabbat identified to have been added in al-Maqrīzī's hand at the bottom of the cover page of the autograph manuscript of the first volume of the al-Sulūk:

I have been afflicted by such bad fortune, that whenever it goes up, it immediately comes down, and whenever it stands up, it inevitably falls down, and whenever it goes straight, it surely bows down again, and

⁸⁰ A similar suggestion was made for the textual history of al-Maqrīzī's Šudūr al-'uqūd and its changing dedication from al-Mu'ayyad Šayḫ in the 1410s to "Barsbāy's successor" in 1438, see Meloy (2003b): 197, fn. 54.

whenever it runs smoothly, it at once encounters obstacles, and whenever it becomes alert, it soon sleeps again. [...]

By your life, I do not lack a banner of glory
Nor did the horse tire of competing
Instead, I am afflicted with bad fortune
Just like a beautiful woman is inflicted with divorce.⁸¹

⁸¹ Rabbat (2003): 17.

Texts: *al-Dahab al-masbūk* between Narratives, Stories, and Meanings

1 The ḥaǧǧ in Arabic Writing and Literature: Between fiqh and tārīḥ

Just as the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage of 10/632 (higgat al-wadā') had established itself as a normative paradigm in the social and cultural realities of the performance and leadership of the annual pilgrimage, so did its remembrance and reproduction in Arabic writings on the haggar from the seventh century onwards. Already at an early date in the Islamic community's complex socio-cultural history the Farewell Pilgrimage was singled out as a separate and important subject of more or less coherence among the many stories (ahbar) of the Prophet's life and of the early Muslim community's history. These stories of Muḥammad's actions and sayings during the Farewell Pilgrimage, transmitted in various and often also conflicting versions, soon acquired with many others of these reports much larger moral, political, and religious meanings. Moulded in this particular context, the Farewell Pilgrimage account started a life in Arabic writing and literature as one of those bundles of codified prophetic narratives that continued to provide guidance, food for debate and conflict, and a powerful model for emulation, into the contemporary period.

Between the seventh and ninth centuries, all these prophetic reports of varying size, detail, origins, value, and reliability underwent a substantial transformation towards becoming an integral component of the emerging community's social memory. The variety of Farewell Pilgrimage reports fully shared in this transformatory process of transmission, from stories' collection through oral and written practices, over their reproduction in comprehensive books, to their selective incorporation and organisation as authoritative traditions (hadīt) in specialist genres, emerging simultaneously with the rise of particular branches of Islamic learning. In that process, the Farewell Pilgrimage made its way as a valid subject to write on—as did so many aspects of the Prophet's biography—into two increasingly distinct but never fully disconnected branches: jurisprudence (fiqh) and history ($t\bar{a}r\bar{i}h$). These interlocking traditions in the field of Arabo-Islamic culture and literature—the one looking to the past in order to retrieve normative precedents for individual guidance towards a predetermined future, the other searching the past for points of reference to imagine and explain a community and its varied memberships in

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a temporal continuum that gave meaning to the present—have continued to write about the $ha\ddot{g}\ddot{g}$ for many centuries, arguably even until today.¹

The reports about the Prophet's pilgrimage experience, as well as about similar experiences of those in his early community who followed in his footsteps, were successfully and in a formative manner integrated into more or less coherent narratives in the first chronographies of Muḥammad's life and of the exploits of the first generations of Muslims that were produced in the eighth and early ninth centuries. The biography of Muḥammad by Ibn Isḥāq (d. 150/767), as preserved in its edition by Ibn Hišām (d. 218/833), and the accounts of the events and of the generations of people involved in the Muslim community's first two centuries or so by al-Wāqidī (d. 207/823) and by Ibn Sa'd (d. 230/845), all produced deeply interrelated versions of the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage that were to be preserved and reproduced in legal as well as in historical texts from the ninth century onwards.²

Islamic legal thought and writing, which acquired their first distinct intellectual and cultural identities simultaneously with these chronographies and in competitive and often even conflicting socio-cultural and political contexts, incorporated these and related reports about the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage in legal texts that were meant to produce, preserve, and communicate authoritative rules, regulations, and guidelines for good Muslim behaviour. A 'book of the haặǧ' (Kitāb al-haǧǧ), informed by reports of the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage and related texts, became a standard component of all seminal works of hadīt and of legal rules, regulations, and categorisations that were composed since the ninth century. The great and widespread diversity in legal views in these early centuries of Islamic jurisprudence, however, also reflected in the varieties of opinions on the particularities of various pilgrimage rules, as expressed in different 'books of hağğ' and as supported by differing interpretations of reports of the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage. From the eleventh century, at latest, onwards, some of these legal works, their 'books of hağğ', and their particular opinions about pilgrimage rules acquired seminal status, within the much larger context of the crystallisation of religio-legal differences and debates into a mainstream consensus around particular knowledge practices—with priority being given to the normative example of the Prophet, or Sunnah, as embodied in the hadīt—and around the valid (although not

¹ See especially Khalidi (1994): 1–82 ("1. The birth of a tradition"; "2. History and *Hadith*"); Robinson (2003); McMillan (2011): 167–179.

² See Ibn Hišām, al-Sīrah, 1091–1095; al-Wāqidī, al-Maġāzī, 3:1088–1116; Ibn Sa'd, al-Ṭabaqāt, 2/1:124–136.

always uncontested) co-existence of only a handful of distinct knowledge communities of Sunni legal thought and practice—the *madāhib* or schools of law. Differences of opinions, including about *ḥaǧǧ* rules and regulations, were thus accepted, codified, and furthered in thought, debate, and writing within the increasingly impermeable intellectual boundaries of the different Sunni legal traditions.³

On an individual rather than on a communal level, simply accepting the validity of these differences continued to prove difficult for many members of these scholarly communities. Even though over time inter-*madhab* competition and polemics gradually shifted from sometimes violent confrontations to much more peaceful and mostly intellectual interactions and disagreements, this generalising diachronic picture needs to be qualified by the particular cases of quite a few individual legal scholars who continued to try and transcend or challenge in varieties of ways emerging institutional boundaries. The conscious shift early in his life to the Šāfiʿī *madhab* of the author of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Maqrīzī, has been mentioned before. In the latefourteenth-century case of the young al-Maqrīzī there were surely sound pragmatic reasons for making this intellectual and socio-cultural switch in the Šāfiʿīdominated Egyptian context. Nasser Rabbat, as well as some of al-Maqrīzī's

³ On the formation and crystallisation of differing socio-legal views and practice in general, see Berkey (2003): 141–151, and Melchert (1997); for books of the hağğ and the related codification of differences of scholarly opinion in particular, see Adang (2005): 114-115. A 'book of hağğ' may be found in each of the six canonical hadīt collections: in the Ṣaḥīḥs of al-Buḥārī (d. 256/870), of Muslim (d. 261/875) and of al-Tirmidī (d. 279/892), and in the Sunans of Abū Dāwūd (d. 275/888), al-Nasā'ī (d. 303/915) and of Ibn Māgah (d. 273/887). It may also be found in each of the madhabs' seminal texts: in Saḥnūn b. Sa'īd's (d. 240/854) al-Mudawwanah and in al-Qayrawānī's (d. 386/996) al-Risālah for the Mālikīs, in al-Marģinānī's (d. 593/1197) al-Hidāyah for the Ḥanafīs, in al-Šāfiʿī's (d. 204/820) Kitāb al-Umm, and in Ibn Qudāmah's (d. 620/1223) al-Muġnī for the Ḥanbalīs. Many specialist legal ḥaǧǧ manuals, or manāsik books, have furthermore been produced and preserved, such as by al-'Adawī (d. c. 156/773) (Kitāb al-Manāsik), by al-ʿUtbī (d. 255/869) (Kitāb al-Ḥaǧǧ), and by al-Nawawī (d. 677/1277) (Kitāb al-Īǧāz fi l-Manāsik); by Ibn Taymiyyah (d. 728/1328) (Ahamm al-aḥkām fī manāsik al-ḥaǧǧ wa-l-'umrah 'alá hady ḥayr al-anām; Šarḥ al-'Umdah fī bayān manāsik al-ḥaǧǧ wa-l-'umrah), by al-Tabrīzī (fl. 737/1337) (Kitāb al-Ḥaǧǧ min Miškat al-maṣābīḥ), by Ibn Ǧamāʿah (d. c. 767/1366) (Hidāyat al-sālik ilá l-maḍāhib al-arba'ah fī l-manāsik), by al-Ğundī (d. c. 766/1365) (Manāsik 'alá madhab al-imām Mālik), by Ibn Farḥūn (d. 799/1397) (Iršād al-sālik ilá af ʿāl al-manāsik); by Ibn al-Diyā' (d. c. 855/1451) (al-Baḥr al-ʿamīq fī manāsik al-muʿtamir wa-l-ḥāǧǧ ilá bayt Allāh al-ʿatīq), by Ibn Zuhayrah (d. 889/1484) (Kifāyat al-muḥtāǧ ilá l-dimāʾ al-wāǧibah ʿalá l-muʿtamir wa-l-ḥāǧǧ; Ġunyat al-faqīr fī ḥukm al-ḥaǧǧ al-aǧūr), by al-Kirmānī (d. c. 883/1478) (al-Masālik fī l-manāsik), by al-Suyūṭī (d. 911/1505) (Kitāb al-Ḥaǧǧ), and by many others.

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contemporaries and biographers suggest that this however may also have been part of a much longer intellectual process, related to those emerging institutional boundaries, and in which this scholar developed an increasingly critical attitude vis-à-vis some dominant interpretative and accommodating applications of legal sources and ideas of justice. "Al-Maqrīzī was known later in his life", so Rabbat explains, "for his bias against, even his antipathy toward, the Hanafis, ostensibly because of his unconfirmed leaning toward the by-then uncommon Zāhirī maḍhab."⁴

The latter *madhab* actually was one of those religio-legal traditions of Islamic thought that would prove intellectually too strict and socio-culturally too narrow to survive the above-mentioned process of Sunni crystallisation, even though it seems to have retained some limited popularity and acquaintance with individual scholars into the early fifteenth century.⁵ One of the main reasons for this temporary survival certainly was the fact that the main written formulations of this uncompromising literalist approach to understanding Qur'an and *hadīt* had been produced by a formidable and highly influential intellectual personality from eleventh-century al-Andalus: the man of letters, philosopher, religious scholar, and polemicist Abū Muḥammad 'Alī b. Aḥmad b. Saʿīd Ibn Ḥazm (d. 456/1064). Among the different works by Ibn Ḥazm that codified Zāhirī religio-legal thought, there actually also figures a unique and remarkable piece of writing, entitled "The Farewell Pilgrimage" (hiǧǧat al $wad\bar{a}^{\circ}$), in which the author isolated the topic of the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage from traditionally much wider legal or historical discussions. Ibn Hazm's aim with this treatise was indeed to transcend boundaries, and to resolve once and for all the disagreement on the rules for the proper performance of the haǧǧ, by imposing a clean, clear, and easily accessible version of the Farewell Pilgrimage, explained by an explicit literalist Zāhirī reading of relevant hadīt and by an equally explicit refutation of diverging interpretations. Despite the work's highly polemic approach and its subsequent failure to actually resolve madhab disagreements, its particular and easily accessible nature proved very influential for later religio-legal writings about the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage. At least, in the fourteenth century prominent Syrian scholars such as Ibn Taymiyyah (d. 728/1328) and Ibn Katīr (d. 774/1372) praised the quality of the work, even though they did not entirely agree with its arguments.⁶

⁴ Rabbat (2003): 12; referring to, among others, Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 2: 417. Also Bauden (2014): 164–165.

⁵ On the Zāhirīs in fourteenth- and fifteenth-century Egypt and Syria, see especially Wiederhold (1999): 204–206.

⁶ Adang (2005): 113-116.

In the early fifteenth century, al-Maqrīzī equally considered Ibn Ḥazm's contribution to the scholarship of the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage a moment of the utmost importance in that Pilgrimage's intellectual trajectory. This emerges from the fact that in his own pilgrimage book, the *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, he decided to open his summary discussion of it by referring his readers to Ibn Ḥazm's work and to his own discussion, in another (now lost) book, of some of the debates that had arisen around Ibn Hazm's *hiǧðat al-wadā*':

The books of hadit are full of reports of the pilgrimage of the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation. Out of all of these the jurist and $h\bar{a}fiz$ Abū Muḥammad 'Alī b. Aḥmad b. Sa'īd Ibn Ḥazm al-Andalusī created an important single volume ($muṣannafan \check{g}alīl^{an}$). I responded in the book $\check{S}\bar{a}ri$ 'al- $na\check{g}\bar{a}t$ (The Road to Deliverance) to certain passages in it to which objections were raised.

As mentioned above, the formative collections and chronographies of Ibn Isḥāq, al-Wāqidī, and Ibn Sa'd also had a defining impact on the Farewell Pilgrimage's representations in Arabo-Islamic historiography. The multifarious textual production of what today tends to be considered under that label gradually developed into a more or less separate branch of learning simultaneously with the emergence of other specialisms. A clear distinction in aims, scope, and material between *hadīt* scholarship, *figh*, and other cultural modes such as adab, however, only emerged very slowly, not in the least because many of its practitioners continued to pursue many if not all branches of traditional scholarship. Among the different genres and categories that emerged within this only loosely definable historiographical tradition, chronography in particular attached some importance in its writings to the annually returning event of the pilgrimage to Mecca. The fixed and genuinely Islamic time-space dimensions of the hağğ provided a useful and very meaningful point of reference for writing about and imagining a newly emerging transregional political and socio-cultural community. Especially the genre of annalistic chronography, which emerged in the course of the ninth century and which remained a dominant form of Arabic historiography until modern times, incorporated hağğ reports as a useful pattern for closing its annual cycles of variously recorded events. In doing so, these particular types of memory texts obviously also looked beyond the increasingly codified stories about the particular engagements of the Prophet and his early community with the annual hağğ. The latter

⁷ See below, § 6.

stories continued to be incorporated in manners that closely mirrored their representations in *hadīt* and *figh* texts. However, historiography's growing presentist concerns in the increasingly consolidated spatial and social contexts of Islamic caliphate and cultural order also stimulated the incorporation of a variety of reports about subsequent generations' regular and occasionally equally eventful engagements with the same rituals. Recording reports about caliphs' literally stepping in the Prophet's footsteps, about their or their representatives' engagements with haǧǧ caravans and infrastructures, and eventually even about the experiences of growing varieties of pilgrims en route and in Mecca, contributed in important ways to the pre-dominant purpose of a long range of such historiographical works to explain their present as meaningfully connected to an expanding community's glorious past. In this process of the historiographical production and reproduction of hağğ and hağğ-related reports in annalistic and other types of Arabic chronography, and eventually also in biographies and in related prosopographical and hagiographical genres, many of these reports became fixed in form to particular plots and related stories, in ways reminding us of the codified reproductions of the Farewell Pilgrimage. From the eleventh century onwards, therefore, if not earlier already, historians seeking to incorporate hağğ reports in their works of communal or individual history were always bound by the particular choices, framings, and models imposed on this as on any other similarly valuable material by earlier generations of textual producers and consumers, if at least these post-1000 historians truly wished to participate in and meaningfully contribute to the textual discourses of the Arabo-Islamic historiographical genre and its audiences.8

A key moment in this standardisation of, amongst other things, annual $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ reports was undoubtedly represented by the $magnum\ opus$ of pre-1000 CE Arabo-Islamic historiography: the voluminous $History\ of\ Messengers\ and\ Kings\ (Tārīh\ al-rusul\ wa-l-mulūk)$ by the Iraqi scholar Muḥammad b. Ğarīr al-Ṭabarī (d. 310/923). This expansive composition of Muslim world history from the moment of creation until the Muslim year 302 (/915) was so comprehensive in the reports that it managed to integrate and so tuned in to the meticulous transmission methods of hadīt scholarship that it became a crucial point of reference for the remembrance of almost any historical phenomenon from the formative period of Islam. In the annalistic representation of the first 300 years of the Muslim era in the final part of this chronicle, focus is really on the whereabouts of the leading characters of the community, which obviously includes

⁸ For comprehensive accounts of the formation of the Arabo-Islamic historiographical genre, see, amongst others, Khalidi (1994); Robinson (2003).

their annual engagements with the $ha\check{g}$. A few other works of history, such as the entirely different but equally impressive Meadows of Gold ($Muru\check{g}$ aldahab) by al-Ḥabari's near-contemporary al-Mas'udī (d. 345/955), also include detailed lists of $ha\check{g}$ -leaders. But none set the standards for future representations as al-Ḥabarī did.

Beyond the eleventh century, the achievement of al-Tabarī was above all transformed into a normative standard representation of the formation of Islam by the work of a scholar from Mosul, in the historical region of the Jazira (Northern Iraq), 'Izz al-Dīn Ibn al-Atīr (d. 630/1233). His *Complete History* (al-Kāmil fī l-tārīh) is an equally impressive multi-volume annalistic chronicle of Muslim world history, incorporating the work of al-Tabarī and also of others, accommodating this material to the requirements of his time, and complementing it with annalistic reports up to the Muslim year 628 (/1231). By Ibn al-Atīr's time, the production of historiography had actually moved much closer to the circles of rulers and their courts than ever before, in the urban socio-cultural realities of patronage and competition as much as in its authors' overwhelming interest in politics, in lineages of Muslim leaderships, and in the relationships that connected individuals across time and space. The growing pre-dominance of a so-called siyāsah-oriented trend in an Arabic historiography that no longer needed to justify the religious past, but that rather was meant to try to understand, connect, and legitimate the complex socio-political present, manifested itself in particular in a booming production. From the time of Ibn al-Atīr onwards, annalistic chronicles, but also individual biographies, impressive prosopographical collections of biographical dictionaries, multi-volume encyclopaedic works of history and geography, and combinations of these and of similar works of historiographical interest started to be written, published, consumed, and reproduced in unprecedented numbers, first mostly in Syria and in the Jazira, but from the fourteenth century onwards increasingly predominantly by cultural elites who convened in Cairo or who had at least strong connections with this trans-regional metropolis.10

⁹ Khalidi (1994): 73–81; McMillan (2011): 168–173; Marsham (2009): 91, 124–125. Marsham in particular explains how "lists of leaders of the hajj and annual campaigns [...] form two of the earliest strands in Islamic historiography".

¹⁰ See especially Khalidi (1994): 182–231 ("Chapter 5: History and *Siyasa*"); Robinson (2003): 97–102 ("Chapter 5: Historiography and traditionalism—1000 to 1500: New directions"). For Ibn al-Atīr's *al-Kāmil*, see also Ibn al-Atīr, *Chronicle*; Richards (1982).

This—as Konrad Hirschler phrased it—"veritable explosion that history writing experienced in Syria and Egypt from the thirteenth century onwards" went hand in hand with other, deeply related cultural processes of transformation. Thomas Bauer has argued convincingly that there occurred a general literarisation of communication among educated (and increasingly also noneducated) individuals and groups, with poetry and ornate prose becoming widespread accepted forms and norms of socio-cultural interaction, resulting in a huge production of anthologies as well as of new literary material of all sorts (most of which remains to be discovered and fully appreciated). According to Hirschler, this happened simultaneously with a process of textualisation of cultural life, when the consumption of texts gradually became possible for more and more people as general reading skills and availability of texts improved. Expanding from what Carl Petry—as quoted in the previous chapter—described as the emergence of a huge "corpus of treatises which rendered the era a 'Silver Age' of Islamic scholarship", Hirschler even identified this efflorescence as part and parcel of a much wider socio-cultural trend: the popularisation of textual production, a growing active participation in bustling literary life from the course of the fourteenth century onwards by increasing numbers of people who are not regularly considered among the cultural elites. When al-Maqrīzī therefore re-oriented his life in the 810s/1410s to that of an active historian, he did so in a context that was not only remarkable for its many historiographical engagements with a complex present and with set precedents—including a continued interest in the Farewell Pilgrimage and in many other leadership engagements with the hağğ—, but that was also particular because of the widespread literarisation of the forms and channels of communication that made up its culture in general.¹¹

See Bauer (2005); Id. (2013a); Hirschler (2013) (quote p. 161); Id. (2012); Petry (1993): 324. Apart from *fiqh* and historiography, other genres of Arabo-Islamic culture and literature also obviously engaged with the memories and representations of the <code>haǧð</code>, including Arabic poetry and travel writings (most famously the texts associated with the pilgrimages and travels of Ibn Ğubayr [d. 614/1217] and Ibn Baṭṭūṭah [d. c. 779/1377]), but they will not be considered here because they are not directly relevant for contextualising al-Maqrīzī's <code>al-Dahab al-masbūk</code> (see e.g. Van Gelder [1998]: "Large portions of the famous travel accounts by Ibn Jubayr and Ibn Baṭtuta describe the holy sites of Islam. The pilgrimage, a major theme already in the poetry of 'Umar b. Abi Rabi'a, remained the source of literary inspiration, for frivolous poets like Abu Nuwas as well as pious ones. In the poems and prose writings of the great mystics such as the Egyptian Ibn al-Farid and Ibn al-ʿArabi from Spain, the Hijaz is very much present"; Netton [2008]; Waines [2010]).

2 Introducing al-Dahab al-masbūk: Prophet, Caliphs, and Kings between Narratives and Stories

When Ahmad b. 'Alī l-Maqrīzī composed and recomposed al-Dahab al-masbūk fī dikr man haǧǧa min al-hulafā' wa-l-mulūk between 821/1418 and 841/1438, he straightforwardly engaged with the different traditions of Arabic writing that had emerged over time around the memory of the Prophet and that continued to define the historiography-of-pilgrimage discourse of his time. Legal texts' representations of the Farewell Pilgrimage, early historiography's interest in the precedents of pilgriming caliphs, and the booming business of siyāsahhistoriography and its presentist concerns for questions of non-caliphal pilgrimage leadership all received their due attention in this booklet. Starting with the Prophet's hağğ of 10/632 and ending with the story of the hağğ in 778/1377 of the Cairo sultan al-Ašraf Ša'bān (r. 764-778/1363-1377), al-Dahab al-masbūk moved from the time of the Prophet, over that of the Caliphs, to that of non-caliphal rulers' pilgrimage engagements from the eleventh century onwards. Due to the work's limited size, however, the added legal or historiographical value of the diverse material about pilgriming Prophet, caliphs, and kings is only very limited. The booklet is rather more remarkable for other reasons, not in the least, from a wider literary point of view, as the very first—at least, by the present state of acquaintance with the field of Arabic literary production up to al-Maqrīzī's time—to claim to offer a more or less focused narrative of Muslim leadership of the pilgrimage. In order to try and come to some level of understanding of what this means, it is this chronographical material, the language, styles, and narrative forms in which it was cast, and the precise literary context of historiographical precedents and antecedents with which it interacted that first require a more detailed explanation.

Following the minimalist literary conventions of *siyāsah*-historiography, the adoption in most parts of the text of a language and style that seem to aim at straightforwardness, accessibility, and clarity rather than at any sort of complexity is entirely in line with al-Maqrīzī's writing practice in his other known works of history. It is a practice that prioritises chronography over literary aesthetics as a guiding principle, and that is therefore deeply embedded in the historiographical genre's process of formation and crystallisation out of the many individual reports of varying size, length, value and authenticity, the *ḥabars*, that informed and defined the early Muslim community's social memory. Ornate prose is largely absent from the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, and only at four particular occasions a handful of lines of poetry are included, when quotes from others' poetic repertoires were considered relevant for the plotting

of a story. La with many texts of this type, however, this booklet opens with a general introduction that stands as an exception to this general rule of literary sobriety. Unbound by restrictions of genre and tradition, al-Maqrīzī used this introduction to explain his motives for writing this particular kind of history in a far more belletrist and personalised prose, also embellished by four lines of poetry. Dedicating—as discussed in the previous chapter—the work in the best of Arabic literature's panegyric tradition to an unnamed patron, the author describes in flowery language how his personal quest for finding a gift that befitted the occasion of this patron's $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ eventually resulted in his "collecting for the benefit of the esteemed library of our lord [...] a volume that comprises the report of those caliphs and kings who performed the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ ", a history of pilgriming Muslim rulers which he then decided to entitle "The Moulded Gold" ($al-Dahab\ al-masb\bar{u}k$). La

The main storyline of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* is indeed just this "report of those caliphs and kings who performed the <code>haǧǧ</code>": a simple identification of all the Muslim rulers who, according to al-Maqrīzī, had meaningfully and actively engaged with the <code>haǧǧ</code> during eight centuries of Muslim history. Starting from the Prophet's Farewell Pilgrimage, a comprehensive chronological list

¹² See below, §§ 27, 31, 66, 129.

See below, § 4. In the Leiden autograph, the actual title page of this text is missing (as 13 explained in chapter 3 of this study) and in the text itself only al-Dahab al-masbūk was explicitly mentioned by al-Maqrīzī and his copyist as the booklet's title. The second part of the longer title by which it is now generally known (al-Dahab al-masbūk fī dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḥulafā' wa-l-mulūk) only appears in the lines preceding this short title, as an explanation of its contents rather than as any part of its intended title ("ğuz'an yaḥtawī 'alá dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḥulafā' wa-l-mulūk sammaytuhu l-Dahab al-masbūk"). That longer title is present in the header of the text's first page in the Leiden autograph, but this is an addition by a different, later hand (see Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek, MS Or. 560, fol. 115b). By the early seventeenth century, however, the longer, two-tiered title had become the standard way to refer to the text, including in the manuscript copies that were then and later produced (see chapter 3). In al-Maqrīzī's biographies by Ibn Taġrī Birdī and al-Saḥāwī, however, it is only this explanatory addition to the title that is used to identify this text (Ibn Tagrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 1:419: kitāb fī dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḥulafā' wa-l-mulūk; al-Saḥāwī, al-Tibr al-masbūk, 1:73; Id., al-Daw' al-lāmi', 2:23: dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-mulūk wa-l-hulafā'). Yet another version of the title may be found in al-Ğazīrī's sixteenth-century manual and history of the hağğ, Durar al-farā'id, where it is claimed that al-Maqrīzī "called [his text] (sammāhu) l-Dahab al-masbūk fī tārīḥ man ḥaǧǧa min al-mulūk" (al-Ğazīrī, Durar al-farā'id, 2:325); this 'non-caliphal version' of the title is also the one by which the text was listed in the Kašf al-zunūn by the seventeenth-century Ottoman bibliographer Ḥaǧǧī Ḥalīfah/Kātib Çelebī (1017-1067/1609-1657) (Kātib Çelebī, Kašf al-zunūn, 1:828).

of twenty-seven leaders is presented and combined with twenty-seven equally diverse leadership narratives, consisting of simple or complex strings of variegated stories about some of their leadership experiences that were mostly somehow related to the Mecca sanctuary. Before looking at the complex issue of how al-Magrīzī squeezed all this material into his al-Dahab al-masbūk, however, it is the complexity of this particular list that deserves a few comments. At first sight, this list of twenty-seven appears not just as constructed along a chronographical plan, but also as conveying a sequential vision of Muslim rule since the Prophet's time. Upon further inspection, this apparent sequence is quite remarkable for certain choices that were made by the author, mostly to include certain rulers, but also to exclude some others. Among the latter there were at least one 'Abbāsid caliph and a handful of mostly African rulers who did not make it to al-Maqrīzī's final selection.¹⁴ Among the former al-Maqrīzī's unquestioning inclusion of the caliphate of 'Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr (r. 64-73/683-692) stands out as a remarkable counter-narrative to certain assumptions about the end of the Hijazi caliphate in the late 30s/650s and

From the late medieval 'Abbāsid caliphs of Cairo, only the pilgrimage in 1298 of al-Ḥākim 14 was recorded; according to al-Maqrīzī's own historiographical texts, however, another of these caliphs, al-Mu'tadid bi-llāh (d. 763/1362), also performed the hağğ twice, in 1354 (754АН) and in 1359 (760АН) (al-Sulūk, 2:903; 3, 77; al-Ḥiṭaṭ, 3:785; Durar al-ʿuqūd alfarīdah, 2:210—I am grateful to Dr Mustafa Banister (Univ. Toronto) for providing me with these references). According to al-Ğazīrī, the 'Abbāsid caliph al-Ma'mūn (r. 197-218/813-833) performed the hağğ in 212/828, but he adds his doubts since this was a story acquired from the early-fourteenth-century Syrian scholar al-Dahabī only (al-Ğazīrī, Durar al-farā'id, 2:345-346); al-Maqrīzī himself anyway makes the explicit claim that after al-Ma'mūn's father, Hārūn al-Rašīd, no 'Abbāsid ever performed the hağğ again from Baghdad (§82). Apart from the West-African ruler Mansā Mūsá (r. 712-738/1312-1337), al-Dahab al-masbūk also makes explicit reference to three of his predecessors— Sarbandānah, the legendary first Muslim ruler of Mali; Mansá Ulī (r. 653-668/1255-1270, son of the legendary Māri Čātā [also known as Sundjata Keïta, r. 627-653/1230-1255]), and the usurper Sākūrah (r. 684-699/1285-1300)—who would have already performed the pilgrimage before Mansā Mūsá; they were not however awarded any separate narratives in the text, but fully integrated into that of Mansā Mūsá (see § 203) (see also al-Ğazīrī, Durar al-farā'id, 2:359–364 [dikr man ḥaǧǧa min mulūk al-Takrūr]; Möhring [1999]: 326). Al-Ğazīrī mentions a handful of other pilgriming rulers that did not make it into al-Maqrīzī's list, even though they were not really dissimilar from those that were included: "Mawlay al-Sultān Ḥillī 'Abd al-'Azīm, the sultān al-Maġrib", performing the haǧǧ in 766/1365, the Marīnid "Ṣāḥib Fās" sultan 'Abd al-'Azīz shortly before 774/1372, the Ayyūbid "Ṣāḥib Ḥiṣn Kayfā" al-Malik al-Ṣāliḥ in 776/1375 and the East-African "Ṣāḥib Kilwa" Ḥasan b. al-Mu'ayyad Sulaymān b. al-Ḥusayn in 813/1411 (al-Ğazīrī, Durar al-farā'id, 2:367; see also Möhring [1999]: 327, listing even a few more cases).

about the continuity of the Syrian Umayyad caliphate between 41/661 and 132/750. Another remarkable moment occurs in the text when it suddenly leaps forward by almost 500 years, from the glorious days of the 'Abbāsid Hārūn al-Rašīd (r. 170-193/786-809)—after whom "there was no other caliph who performed the pilgrimage from Baghdad"—to the thirteenth and last caliph in the list, al-Ḥākim (r. 661-701/1262-1302), the second 'Abbāsid caliph of Cairo whose lineage would continue to represent the caliphate throughout the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. In al-Ḥākim's case, it is above all al-Maqrīzī's plotting of the story of this caliph's 697/1298 pilgrimage against a background of powerlessness and defunct authority that reads as an anticlimactic moment in the text, after the great deeds and exemplary exploits of al-Ḥākim's twelve caliphal predecessors. 16

In many ways, this moment then announces and explains the transition of the author's focus from the caliphs to the kings of the booklet's title. Actually, al-Maqrīzī's concluding sentence of this caliphal part of the text is auspiciously programmatic in this particular respect. Connecting the sequence of caliphs to his own time, he subtly explains this transition by zooming in on the long-standing tradition of mentioning the ruler's name in the Friday sermon (hutbah) in the Mecca sanctuary:

Until today, the situation has remained like that, the Friday sermon in Mecca never being delivered in the name of any of the 'Abbāsid caliphs of Egypt, except for the caliph al-Musta'īn bi-llāh Abū l-Faḍl al-'Abbās b. Muḥammad, [in whose name the Friday sermon was delivered] for a few days in the year 815 [1412].¹⁷

On these assumptions of Umayyad continuity, constructed in modern scholarship rather than by premodern Muslim historians, see esp. Robinson (2007): 31–35. On this discussion among historiographers of how to record in Arabic chronography the complex turmoil of the second *fitnah* (c. 60–72/680–692), see also Robinson (2003): 76 (from which al-Maqrīzī's pragmatic approach in *al-Dahab al-masbūk* appears indeed as historiographically less unusual than might be expected from modern scholarship). This particular portrayal of the caliphate of Ibn al-Zubayr as a legitimate and integral part of Muslim sacred history does not just transpire from what al-Maqrīzī mentions in the narrative that goes by this Meccan leader's name. It is also made explicit in the next narrative, where al-Maqrīzī explains that the Umayyad 'Abd al-Malik (r. 65–86/685–705) "remained in the office of caliph after Ibn al-Zubayr for 13 years and 4 months less 7 nights", thus presenting Ibn al-Zubayr's death as the real starting point for the caliphate of 'Abd al-Malik. See below, 25–27, 28.

¹⁶ For Hārūn, see below, §§ 82–107; for al-Ḥākim, see below, §§ 108–110.

¹⁷ See below, § 110.

Al-Ḥākim's scion al-Mustaʿīn (r. 808–816/1406–1414) was indeed briefly awarded this supreme Muslim rulership privilege. This, however, derived from al-Mustaʿīn's accession to Muslim kingship rather than from his caliphal authority, when during a short span of time in 815/1412 al-Mustaʿīn was made sultan, uniquely combining the by now empty shell of the ʿAbbāsid caliphate with the sovereignty of the Cairo sultanate.¹8 Non-caliphal Muslim kingship, including the sultanate of Cairo, is therefore what al-Maqrīzī focused on in the next part of the booklet. In general, this part confronts the reader with far less coherent narratives than the previous caliphal part, mainly due to the fact that at first sight this chronological list of 'kings' seems to be made up merely by those non-caliphal local or regional Muslim leaders who shared the privilege of having *al-malik*, 'the king', in their titles. What was already true for the sequence of caliphs is therefore even more so relevant for al-Maqrīzī's chronological listing of these 'kings': any first appearance of historical sequence is qualified by remarkable, even disruptive textual moments.

The first ruler on the list, 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Ṣulayḥī (d. 473/1081), is almost as surprising a character as his immediate caliphal precedecessor on the list. 'Alī is immediately identified as "one of the world's revolutionaries ($aḥad tuww\bar{a}r$ al-' $\bar{a}lam$)" and as an agent of the anti-'Abbāsid Shiite Fāṭimid caliphate of Cairo (358–567/969–1171), who briefly gained control over Yemen and over Mecca in the Fāṭimids' name. In the staunchly Sunni and anti-Shiite environment of fifteenth-century Cairo this is a surprising—if not indeed revolutionary—way for any author to start a list such as this one. ¹⁹ The second and third rulers are then also surprising, but this is for the simple reason that their actual engagements with the hagg is tenuous rather than for the fact that these two unmistakable champions of Sunni Islam, Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd (r. 541–569/1146–1174) and Saladin's brother Tūrān Šāh (d. 576/1178), represent a strong and explicit symbolic counterbalance to the Shiite case of 'Alī l-Ṣulayḥī. ²⁰ Then there is the fifth ruler, Tūrān Šāh's nephew al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf (d. 626/1229), whose case

On this caliph, see "al-Mustaʿīn", in *Et*² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mustain-SIM_5620).

On al-Maqrīzī's own link with the Fāṭimids, his stance towards Shiism in general, and the discussions and debates that arose around these issues in fifteenth-century Cairo, see Rabbat (2003): 6–10; Walker (2003). On the anti-Shiite climate in late medieval Egypt and Syria in general, see Winter (1999).

The alleged pilgrimage of Nūr al-Dīn in 556/1161 does not feature at all in the narrative, but is rather tucked away and pushed to the very end, where it suddenly appears in the format of the shortest possible reference only (see below, § 122); substantial doubts

stands out as one of wrongful violence and of violation of the sacred character of the hağğ rituals and of the Mecca sanctuary.21 Finally, after the prodigious cases of the Rasūlid ruler of Yemen al-Muzaffar Yūsuf (r. 647–694/1249– 1295), of the Egyptian sultans al-Zāhir Baybars (r. 658-676/1260-1277) and al-Nāsir Muhammad (r. 693-694/1293-1294; 698-708/1299-1309; 709-741/1310-1341), and of the West-African Mansā Mūsá (r. 712-738/1312-1337), unlawful violence and violation of sacred rules return as defining the twelfth and the thirteenth cases of this list of non-caliphal rulers, of the Rasūlid al-Muǧāhid 'Alī (r. 721–764/1322–1363) in the pilgrimage season of 1352, and of the Qalāwūnid sultan al-Ašraf Ša'bān in 778/1377. The story of Ša'bān is actually told here in as anticlimactic a manner as that of the caliph al-Hakim was presented before. This last ruler of the entire list left his seat of government in Cairo for the pilgrimage, but he never made it to Mecca due to a series of rebellions in his own royal entourage. This then appears as a final moment of political failure and chaos that contrasts in dark ways with the redemptive theme of pilgrimage and that provided the booklet with a rather fatalistic end. In this rather negative line of thought, al-Maqrīzī aptly concluded both Ša'bān's case and *al-Dahab al-masbūk*'s text with the claim that "the last that is known about [sultan Ša'bān] is that he was killed by strangulation—God knows best".22

What can be made out of this complex general whole of particular arrangements that define the organisation of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$? The meanings that are conveyed through this text, the authorial decisions and choices by which it was created, and the morality that it bespeaks will be discussed in some detail below. Suffice it to claim here already that for all the winding roads that the text seems to be taking along a very mixed variety of stories about Muslim leaders

have indeed been raised about the veracity of Nūr al-Dīn's pilgrimage, which was left unnoticed by his own chroniclers and which seems to have been recorded in the early fifteenth century only, in al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$ and—in an equally very brief reference—in the writings of al-Maqrīzī's Meccan contemporary al-Fāsī (d. 832/1429) (see Möhring [1999]: 318). For Saladin's brother Tūrān Šāh reference is only made to his performance of the lesser pilgrimage, the 'umrah, which means that technically speaking he did not deserve to be included in this list of non-caliphal rulers performing the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ (see below, § 125). These rulers' Sunni championship speaks from the explicit references to Nūr al-Dīn's active restoration of Sunni Islam in Shiite dominated Aleppo, and to Tūrān Šāh's leading role in Saladin's victories over the Fatimid black troops in Cairo and over a $Hari\check{g}\bar{i}$ ruler in Yemen (see below, §§ 117, 123, 125).

As al-Maqrīzī explains, he spilled the blood of pigeons in the sacred mosque and he got drunk from drinking wine during his stay in Mecca (see below, §142).

²² See below, § 221.

great and small, there is more that connects those stories than just the issue of pilgrimage. Formally, it transpires at least that clear and conscious choices were made about the general lay-out of the text, when it is realised that it has a structural unity that transcends any issues of chronographical organisation.²³ Al-Dahab al-masbūk actually is made up of three parts that were each demarcated by explanatory titles that define these parts as three separate chapters, one on the Prophet, one on caliphs, and one on kings.²⁴ By sheer size, the second and third chapter clearly function as the text's main structural blocks, and this is not in the least also suggested by the fact that these two chapters are symmetrically aligned in two units of exactly thirteen Muslim leaders. Thirteen pilgriming caliphs (Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Utmān, Mu'āwiya, 'Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr, 'Abd al-Malik, al-Walīd, Sulaymān, Hišām, al-Mansūr, al-Mahdī, Hārūn al-Rašīd, and al-Ḥākim) are thus succeeded by thirteen pilgriming 'kings' ('Alī al-Ṣulayḥī, al-ʿĀdil Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd, al-Muʿazzam Tūrān Šāh, al-Muʿazzam ʿĪsá, al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf, al-Mansūr 'Umar b. 'Alī b. Rasūl, al-Nāsir Dāwūd, al-Muzaffar Yūsuf, al-Zāhir Baybars, al-Nāsir Muhammad, Mansā Mūsá, al-Muǧāhid 'Alī, al-Ašraf Šaʿbān). The first, much shorter chapter on the Farewell Pilgrimage then

At three occasions in the text al-Maqrīzī also clarifies how he himself considered the 23 overall structural nature of the entire booklet, identifying it as representing a 'guz", a comprehensive volume (a term that is mostly used in hadīt studies to identify a selection of hadīt by one transmitter—I am grateful to F. Bauden for this clarification). In the introduction, the author thus clarifies the nature of his textual endeavour by explaining that he "collected for the benefit of the esteemed library of our lord [...] a volume ($\check{g}uz^{n}$) that comprises the report of those caliphs and kings who performed the hağğ"; in the first chapter on the Prophet, he similarly opens the text with the personal statement that "I began this volume (hādā l-ǧuz') with [the Prophet's pilgrimage]"; and in the narrative of the 'Abbāsid caliph Hārūn al-Rašīd he hints at certain rules regulating the composition of such a *ğuz*' when he explains the summary nature of a story by suggesting that "its report does not fit within the parameters of this volume (*min šarṭ hāḍā l-ǧuz*')" (see below, §§ 4, 6, 91). The confusion and wrong expectations that a term such as *ǧuz*' may cause (as does 'volume' in English) appears from the statement in the entry for al-Dahab al-masbūk in the Kašf al-zunūn by Ḥāǧǧī Ḥalīfah/Kātib Çelebī that the text had been produced by al-Maqrīzī "in five volumes (fī ḥamsat ağzā')" (Kātib Çelebī, Kašf alzunūn, 1:828; see also GAL, 2:50) (see also chapter 3 for further explanations of the latter confusion).

[&]quot;Chapter on the pilgrimage of the Messenger of God", "Chapter with the report of the caliphs who went on pilgrimage during their caliphate", and "The report of the kings who went on pilgrimage when they were king". Just as the Farewell Pilgrimage, also the caliphal part was explicitly identified as a full-fledged "chapter" (faṣl), suggesting that—although the term was not explicitly used there—the third part was also considered as such. See below, pp. 185, 201, 303.

clearly was constructed by al-Maqrīzī as a sort of textual axis and as a touchstone for each of the other two chapters of thirteen rulers, reminding of the way in which the example of the Prophet was referential for Muslim rulers in general.

This clearcut structure of three chapters and two sets of thirteen Muslim rulers emanating from the Prophet surely goes a long way toward explaining al-Maqrīzī's sometimes surprising choices for or against the inclusion of particular rulers. But there may be much more than meets the eye, even structurally. If some of the most remarkable moments in the text—the powerless caliph al-Hākim, the revolutionary 'Alī l-Sulayhī, and the doomed al-Ašraf Ša'bān—are mapped on to this larger structural perspective of two times thirteen Muslim rulers, it transpires that these moments coincide with particular structural junctures in the text. These representations of Muslim rule at its nadir really come across as repeating each other in their parallel anticlimactic tones at beginning or end, and as thus confirming and explaining the structural boundaries of the booklet's two main narrative blocks. On both occasions, they immediately follow reconstructions of particularly glorious moments of Muslim rule, such as under the 'Abbāsid caliphs al-Manşur, al-Mahdī, and al-Rašīd, and under the Egyptian sultans al-Zāhir Baybars and al-Nāṣir Muḥammad. In this structural combination, then, al-Ḥākim's, 'Alī's and Ša'bān's stories all bespeak the idea of a cycle of rise, decline, and fall, as manifested in the caliphal line, and then again in the non-caliphal line of Muslim rulers and their multiple engagements with pilgrimage.

In this literary construction of Muslim caliphal and non-caliphal rulership as bound, even doomed, by the internal logic of successive historical cycles of rise, decline, and fall, the separate prophetic chapter again stands out as entirely different, in many ways reminding of the notion that the Prophet's example escapes from the particular historical logic of mankind and of its rulers. This brief first chapter follows its own literary construction, thus indeed remaining far removed from the numerical and cyclical symmetries of the following chapters two and three. In fact, it displays its own particular internal logic of two distinct narratives, the one primarily historical and the other mainly jurisprudential. On the one hand, there is a summary chronography of the prophet's performance of the farewell pilgrimage in 10/632, presented in the spirit of Sunni traditionalism as setting the historical norm for a Muslim future. On the other hand, there are embedded into this narrative four separate moments when in the best of Sunni *figh* traditions certain points of legal debate (the relationship between hağğ and 'umrah, the bringing of oblational animals, the noon prayer of 10 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah, the timing of the call to pilgrimage) are discussed. Deeply intertwined in the chapter's text, these two narra-

tives are clearly separated in various micro-structural ways. The frame narrative of the farewell pilgrimage is told in a quick and summarising chronological manner from a bird's eye outsider perspective. The embedded legal debate narrative—especially concerning the first two issues of 'umrah and of oblational animals—develops in much slower and much more detailed ways and is told from constantly moving perspectives and points-of-view that include those of various contemporary or later participants in those debates. This particular plotting enabled above all the introduction of particular views, opinions, and some Shāfi'ī partisanship into the set text of the Farewell Pilgrimage. It also made it possible for al-Magrīzī to even construct another remarkable end note to this legal narrative, and to the first chapter as a whole, surprisingly connecting this prophetic example to one of the eponymous non-caliphal rulers of his own days, sultan al-Zāhir Baybars (r. 658-676/1260-1277). Just as the Prophet—according to an explanatory note at the opening of the chapter— "showed to the people the milestones of their religion" by preceding them in their pilgrimage rituals, so was Baybars alleged to have shown the way by installing another great and longstanding hağğ tradition: the parading of the mahmal. In its structural relationship with that opening reference this final note at least seems to suggest in all but subtle ways that al-Maqrīzī thought of this parallel when he ended this prophetic chapter by stating summarily and quite unexpectedly that "the first one to organise the parading of the maḥmal was al-Malik al-Zāhir Baybars al-Bunduqdārī—may God's mercy be upon him."25 By this kind of ritual closure as much as by its particular internal structure, the first chapter indeed remains firmly separate from the two very differently organised chapters that follow. The presence of Prophet and Baybars as pioneers of hağğ rituals at the beginning and end of the chapter, however, make it so that, for the reader, this structural separation happens without the chapter being entirely out of touch with the caliphal successors of the Prophet and the royal peers of Baybars who populate the narratives that follow.

Beyond their larger structural definition along numerical and cyclical symmetries these narratives of chapters two and three also deserve further brief consideration from more particular, micro-structural perspectives. This is not in the least so because the latter perspectives demonstrate how internally these chapters are both much more different as well as alike than so far might appear. Each of these two chapters' twenty six individual ruler narratives are more or less similar in their general framing within opening contexts that share an inter-

²⁵ See below, §§ 6, 15.

est in naming and lineage, and in most cases also in oaths of allegiance or other accession-to-power particulars, often expanded with term-of-office highlights or with references to when or how these terms came to an end.²⁶ The focus of the individual narratives themselves is then in most cases not directly derived from these general introductory frames of legitimate rulership, but rather from subsequent summary chronologies of pilgrimage participation that identify how many and what pilgrimages the narrative's ruler actually participated in. Thus, for Hārūn al-Rašīd, the narrative is structured along the nine pilgrimages that he performed. The same happened for al-Nāsir Muhammad and his three pilgrimages, for Baybars and his secret pilgrimage of 667/1269, for 'Alī l-Sulayhī and his two pilgrimages, for the caliph 'Umar and three of the nine or ten pilgrimages that he performed, and in parallel ways for most of the other listed rulers and their singular or multiple pilgrimage engagements. This actually created a generally shared internal narrative hierarchy of introductory rulership frame, pilgrimage chronography, and stories that were mostly occasioned by the latter, but that often also continued to refer to the former. In some cases, however, the disturbance of this hierarchy by the oscillating of different stories between rulership and pilgrimage—both acting in those cases as two extremes in a structural continuum rather than as hierarchical partners—leave disparate and confusing overall impressions on a reader.²⁷ For the author, this kind of flexible structuring, wavering between hierarchy and continuum, clearly enabled the inclusion of a great variety of material, and hence the creation of a complex, multilayered text. It even enabled the inclusion of absolute outsiders to

This general rule can be observed for all caliphal narratives, but not for all non-caliphal ones, where the accession-to-power factor is missing from the Mansā Mūsá (ruler n° 11) and the al-Muǧāhid 'Alī (12) narratives. The non-caliphal narratives for al-Muẓaffar 'Īsá (4) and to some extent also al-Nāṣir Dāwūd (7) are also different due to the inclusion of educational data (references to the study of particular texts and with particular teachers) that remind of a religious scholar's biography (tarǧamah); in the non-caliphal cases of al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf (5), al-Muǧāhid 'Alī (12) and al-Ašraf Ša'bān (13) this type of rulership framing has been expanded beyond an introductionary functionality, structuring the entire narrative instead.

This is especially the case for the caliphs Ibn al-Zubayr (caliph n° 5) (whose regular pilgrimage leadership is mentioned, but not as a cause for the two rulership stories that are recorded here) and al-Walīd (7) (whose narrative also includes stories about public works in and around Medina that are entirely devoid of any pilgrimage connection), and for the non-caliphal rulers Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd (ruler n° 2) and Tūrān Šāh (3) (see next footnote), and al-Masʿūd Yūsuf (5) and al-Nāṣir Dāwūd (7) (whose pilgrimages are merely included among the strings of stories that are occasioned by a structurally dominant rulership chronography).

the general theme of pilgriming rulers, such as the non-caliphal rulers Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd and Tūrān Šāh, whose pilgrimage engagements were, as mentioned before, rather tenuous. For both of them, al-Maqrīzī could legitimately reduce any necessary pilgrimage references to a bare and marginalised minimum, without really jeopardising the structural unity and coherence of his booklet on pilgriming rulers.²⁸

This complex and flexible micro-structure of the twenty-six individual ruler narratives enabled al-Maqrīzī to include accounts of or references to more than 120 different stories that he considered relevant for *al-Dahab al-masbūk*'s topic and purpose.²⁹ They are all spread in a rather amorphous way over the different ruler narratives, some reproducing one story only, and others really consisting of strings of stories, connected through the frames of rulership or pilgrimage. Two narratives—of the caliphs Abū Bakr and Muʻāwiyah—actually have no stories attached to them at all, consisting of rulership and pilgrimage frames only.³⁰ At the other end of this quantitative scale, there are a handful of narratives that are the complete opposite in having not just complex frames, but also large numbers of intricate stories attached to them. For the sake of clarifying the above argument and its relation with these stories, the diverse yet parallel structures of these narratives of the caliphs al-Manṣūr, al-Mahdī and Hārūn, and of the non-caliphal rulers Baybars and al-Nāṣir Muḥammad deserve to be schematically reconstructed here.

The al-Mansūr narrative (n° 10)

- rulership frame
- pilgrimage frame (6 pilgrimages)
 - pilgrimage 1: story 1pilgrimage 2: story 2pilgrimage 6: story 3

These references were limited to the following statements: "[Nūr al-Dīn] died on 11 Šawwāl of the year 569 in Damascus, after he had performed the pilgrimage in the year 556" (see below, §122); "[Tūrān Šāh] came to Mecca and performed the lesser pilgrimage, and he moved on to Zabīd" (see below, §125).

I counted 126, but this can only be an approximate number, due to the fragmented nature of some stories, and the blurred boundaries between others, making this counting impossible to claim any authority of exactness. Rather than any mathematical exactness, it is of course their numerous presence and participation in this textual construction that is the point here.

³⁰ See below, §§16-20, 35-36.

- pilgrimage 6: story 4 - story 5 - story 6 - story 7 - story 8 The al-Mahdī narrative (n° 11) - rulership frame pilgrimage frame (1 pilgrimage) - story 1 - story 2 - story 3 - story 4 - story 5 - rulership + pilgrimage frame - story 6 - story 7 - story 8 The Hārūn al-Rašīd narrative (n° 12) - rulership frame pilgrimage frame (9 pilgrimages) - pilgrimage 1: story 1 - pilgrimage 2: story 2 - pilgrimage 3: story 3 pilgrimage 4: story 4 - pilgrimage 5 - story 5 - story 6 - story 7 - story 8 - story 9 pilgrimage 7 - story 10 - story 11 pilgrimage 9: story 12

pilgrimage frame (bis)

- story 13

- rulership + pilgrimage frame
 - story 14/version a
 - story 14/version b

The Baybars narrative $(n^{\circ} 9)$

- rulership frame
- pilgrimage frame (1 pilgrimage)
 - story 1
 - story 2
 - story 3
 - story 4
 - story 5
 - story 6
 - story 7
 - story 8
 - story 9

The al-Nāṣir Muḥammad narrative (n° 10)

- rulership frame
 - pilgrimage story 1
- pilgrimage frame (3 pilgrimages)
 - pilgrimage 1
 - story 2
 - story 3
 - pilgrimage 2
 - story 4
 - story 5
 - story 6
 - story 7
 - story 8
 - story 9
 - story 10
 - story 11
 - pilgrimage 3
 - story 12
 - story 13
 - story 14
 - story 15

- story 16
- story 17
- story 18

The actual workings of factors of micro-structural variation and flexibility within and between narratives clearly transpire from this very schematic reconstruction of the booklet's five most sizeable and most complex narratives. Elicited by issues of rulership, pilgrimage, or both, all the stories themselves moreover also vary enormously in contents and size, some merely referring to well-known stories in one or two sentences only, others explaining in much and often dramatised detail what the story was all about. Whereas many stories are thus retold in summarised or more panoramic ways and from bird's-eye perspectives, some thirty-five stories are rather differently plotted, sometimes taking up much more space within the narratives as a result. These stories—or at least certain parts of them—are staged for the reader to slowly and sometimes quite dramatically unfold in front of his or her reading eyes. To this effect they often also include vivid dialogues that contain direct speech that is explicitly put in the mouth of named speakers. The story of the caliph 'Umar assigning shares in Egyptian supplies thus develops through his dialogue with an entrepreneurial merchant, whereas the story of 'Umar's humble origins is told through his monologue about the memories that his passage through a valley of his youth evokes.³¹ The narrative of the Umayyad caliph Sulaymān develops through one story only, a relatively detailed account of the construction, inauguration, and eventual gradual deconstruction of a watering system that he commissioned for the Mecca sanctuary.³² For the 'Abbāsid caliph al-Mahdī, a prophecy story for his accession is included that is constructed around an opponent retelling in scenic fashion a dream that he had about an epigraphic inscription in the mosque of Medina.³³ Another such story is told in similarly appealing ways about the non-caliphal ruler Tūrān Šāh, for whom one Ibn al-Haymī is brought up saying that in a dream he had seen him giving away his burial shroud from the grave.³⁴ Then there also is the narrative of the Cairo sultan al-Nāsir Muhammad, which actually really stands out as full of this kind

³¹ See below, §§ 24, 30. 'Umar's narrative contains seven different stories in all; two more stories of this dramatised type both have to do with prophecies of his murder.

³² See below, §§ 51-52.

³³ See below, § 80. Al-Mahdī's narrative consists of eight stories; these include one other of this dramatised type, about his overhearing a bedouin woman bewailing the fate of her kin (see below, § 81).

³⁴ See below, §§ 128, 129. This is the only story told about Tūrān Šāh.

of slowly developing and highly dramatised stories, such as how his very good relationship with the bedouin causes confusion among his courtiers, how he refuses special treatment in the sanctuary mosque, how his pilgrimage is prepared with minute care by his agents, how a storm causes havoc and fear in his camp, or how his return to Cairo is an occasion for festivities and splendour.³⁵

There is thus substantial internal variation between these thirty-five slowly plotted and therefore relatively longer stories 36 and the many others that are presented in much more rapid modes throughout the different narratives. Even among the former, however, there is substantial variation between dialogues that run on for pages—such as between Hārūn al-Rašīd and the ascetic al-Fuḍayl b. Tyāḍ $(d.187/803)^{37}$ —and other scenic stories that only take up a paragraph at most. From this feature another complex and potentially confusing structural dimension emerges for the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, as developing along speeds that continuously varied between the different narratives, and also on many occasions within them. Again, therefore, the overall impression that remains is that of stories being pitched by the author on a continuum, but this time one of modes of speed, oscillating between very rapidly and very slowly developing plots.

See below, §§ 191, 193, 195, 200, 202. Al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's narrative of 18 stories has, apart from the five mentioned here, three more stories that include this kind of dramatised material, about the sultan's entry in Damascus in 1313, about his arrival in Cairo in 1320, and about his conflict with an amir in 1332 (see below, §§ 189, 197, 199–201).

The 19 other not yet mentioned stories concern the following events and occasions:
'Utmān's ritual prayer at Miná (see below, § 33), 'Abd al-Malik's Friday sermon in Medina (see below, § 44), al-Walīd's meeting with Saʿīd b. al-Musayyab in the mosque of Medina (see below, § 48), the prophecy of al-Manṣūr's death and his encounters with the Medinan judge Muḥammad b. 'Imrān (see below, § 65–67, 68–70), Hārūn's encounters with Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ (see below, § 97–105, 106–107), al-Nāṣir Dāwūd's conflict with the caliph of Baghdad (see below, § 158), different events, encounters and adventures happing during al-Zāhir Baybars' secret pilgrimage (see below, § 165–182), Mansā Mūsá's reception by al-Nāṣir Muḥammad (see below, § 204), and al-Muǧāhid 'Alī's confrontations with Hijazi and Egyptian amirs in Mecca and his reception by al-Nāṣir Muḥammad in Cairo (see below, § 212–213, 214).

See below, §§ 97–105. There also is a second version of this al-Fuḍayl story, much shorter but equally scenic and including a dialogue with the caliph (§§ 106–107). The al-Fuḍayl story is moreover among the few, in the caliphal narratives only, in which there is a narrator identified who even actively participates in the story (also in the three last stories about 'Umar involving amongst others 'Ā'išah and 'Alī, and in the stories about Hišām and Abū l-Zinād and about al-Mahdī and his dreaming competitor for the caliphate) (see below, §§ 26–28, 29; 54; 80).

Between the structural continuum that connects frames and stories and the modal continuum that connects stories and the way they are being presented, chronology continues to figure as an organising principle to hold on to for the author and his audiences. Years, dates, and chronography continued to be important tools on the micro-structural level of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* too, and al-Maqrīzī pursued a chronological arrangement of his stories wherever the available material allowed for such a set-up. As on the macro-structural level also micro-structurally the order of time is taken seriously for the order of telling stories. There are the more general rulership and pilgrimage participation statements, providing not just for a narrative macro-structure but also for a temporal frame of terms-of-office, years of pilgrimage participation, and times of death for situating, arranging, and connecting stories. Although again never applied rigidly or similarly, this frame is obstructed only very rarely by references that suddenly move time forward or backward between or within stories.³⁸

It is rather a very different kind of disruption that occasionally interferes in this congruence of time and telling and that actually tends to transcend plots, stories, and narratives and connect them with metatextual and other realities. On a number of occasions, short references appear in the narratives that subtly introduce al-Maqrīzī's own early fifteenth-century experiences into the text. In the list of caliphs, this happened when he explains that al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ made the Kaʿbah "as it still is today", that in the time of al-Mahdī the *kiswa* was not annually removed "as it is the practice now", that after al-Ḥākim "the caliphate has remained with his offspring to this day", and finally that since

³⁸ In two cases, stories within other stories occur that seem to disrupt the orderly flow of time: a story about the death of the caliph al-Manşūr is followed by a story of the miraculous announcement to al-Manşūr of his approaching death and then by three more stories about his encounters with Muḥammad b. Imrān (see below, §§ 63, 65-67, 68-70); the story of how one of Hārūn al-Rašīd's pilgrimages was performed on foot is followed by references to how the Byzantine emperor Heraclius once similarly performed the pilgrimage, and to how the caliph's earlier marriage with his brother's widow had been the reason for this particular behaviour (see below, §§88, 89). A rare example of time disruptions in the arrangement of stories may be found in the caliph Ibn al-Zubayr's narrative, where the story of his execution by al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ is followed by that of the different reconstructions of the Ka'bah, first by the caliph and then by his executor (see below, §§ 39-41). Time disruptions within stories may be found in the kiswahstory of the caliph al-Mahdī, where his removal of the kiswah introduces a story about kiswah practices going back to the time of the Umayyad Hišām and before (see below, § 73); and in the story about 'Alī l-Ṣulayḥī's conquest of Mecca, generating safety for its population and visitors "such as they had not experienced before him" (see below, §114).

the days of al-Hākim "until today [...] the Friday sermon [is] never being delivered in the name of any the 'Abbāsid caliphs of Egypt, except for the caliph al-Musta'īn bi-llāh Abū l-Fadl al-'Abbās b. Muhammad, [in whose name the Friday sermon was delivered] for a few days in the year 815 [1412]."39 In the list of non-caliphal rulers, this includes such brief and isolated references as "the Darb Šams al-Dawlah in Cairo was named after" Tūrān Šāh and "the Mas'ūdī dirhams in Mecca are named after" al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf, but also the more elaborate explanations that "the Friday sermon [...] continued to be delivered from the *minbar* of Mecca in the name of the rulers of Yemen until our own days, [but then nowadays only] after the sermon [is delivered] in the name of the sultan of Egypt", and—in the same narrative of al-Muzaffar Yūsuf of Yemen—that "the kiswah of al-Muzaffar, which he had the inside of the Ka'bah covered with, continued to be present until in the year 761 [1360] al-Malik al-Nāṣir Ḥasan b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn covered it with this kiswah which is still present today."40 These sudden intrusions of these carefully and consciously constructed narratives and stories by chronologically atypical and highly disconnected symbolic and ritual practices are one more remarkable characteristic of this text, obviously operating as points of direct contact for readers who shared the same frameworks of cultural reference with al-Magrīzī and for whom kiswah practices, Cairo's Darb Šams al-Dawlah, Meccan Mas'ūdī dirhams, and political dedications of sermons were equally meaningful.

A similar, but even more complex, process seems at work with another type of such metatextual material that also disturbs the strict chronological flow of narratives and stories in notable ways. In the above cases, as well as in quite a few others, references are often also included to other works of literature and history, not just to occasionally indicate sources for particular stories, but also to situate narratives or stories explicitly within their wider historiographic, jurisprudential, and literary contexts as these had developed up to the early fifteenth century. Just as the first prophetic chapter was explicitly linked up with discussions arising around Ibn Ḥazm's Farewell Pilgrimage text, 41 so did al-Maqrīzī also add a reference to one of his own books, the *Kitāb Šāri' al-naǧāt*, apparently a work of religious history and jurisprudence that has furthermore

See below, §§ 41, 73, 109, 110; similar, but less explicit, occasions concern the discussion of differences in naming (eg. Ibn al-Zubayr's *kunyah*: "Abū Bakr—and it was said Abū Bukayr", see below, p. 229) or the explanation of the spelling and genealogy of the Banū Lihb in one story in the 'Umar narrative ("Lihb—with the vowel i after the *lām*—is one of the clans of al-Azd, known for harbouring feelings of aversion and reprimand"), see below, § 25.

⁴⁰ See below, §§ 130, 146, 160, 161.

⁴¹ See below, § 6.

remained unknown. 42 The wording of this reference actually suggests that this opening chapter is really only a summary of the relevant passages in that text. This particular inter-textual arrangement is made even more explicit for a number of other references to texts of al-Magrīzī elsewhere in the narratives. For the Ka'bah story of Ibn al-Zubayr's narrative, al-Magrīzī thus adds that he has "reported that in great detail in the book al-Išārah wa-l-i'lām bi-binā' al-ka'bah al-bayt al-harām [Advice and Information Regarding the Construction of the Ka'bah, the Sacred House]"; for 'Abd al-Malik, he explains in the context of a summarily reported story about rebels that "the stories about them were recorded in their proper place", whereas he also added in the general narrative frame that this caliph's term-of-office was also "reported in his biography and in the biography of his father in al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr li-Miṣr [the Great History (in Continuation) of Egypt]".43 Similar references occur elsewhere, as in the narrative of Tūrān Šāh, which was concluded by the author's personal statement that "I [= al-Magrīzī] reported his biography in detail in the book *al-Mawā'iz wa-l-i'tibār* bi-dikr al-hitat wa-l-ātār [Admonitions and Reflections on the Quarters and Monuments (in Fustat and Cairo)] and in the book al-Tarīḥ al-kabīr al-muqaffá li-Miṣr [The Great History of Egypt in Continuation]",44 and in the narrative of Baybars, where it was written by al-Maqrīzī that "there is a long story (habar tawīl) of that which I have reported in his biography (fī tarğamatihi) in the book al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr al-muqaffá [The Great History in Continuation] and the book Ahbār Mulūk Misr [The Stories of the Kings of Egypt]".45 The primary literary, jurisprudential, and historiographical contexts that readers are referred to by this meta- and—at the same time—intertextual material was therefore first and foremost the fruit of al-Magrīzī's own productive pen, in the format of both his grand works of Egyptian history and of any other books that he had already began to write at the time of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*'s initial composition.

⁴² According to al-Maqrīzī's biographer al-Saḥāwī (who is the only one to refer to this text) this *Kitāb Šāri* al-naǧāt "consisted of all the differences in the principles and substance of mankind's religions, including an exposition on their proofs and on their guidance towards the truth" (al-Saḥāwī, al-Daw' al-lāmī', 2: 23; see also Faraḥāt [2009]: 23).

⁴³ See below, §§ 41, 42, 43.

⁴⁴ See below, § 131.

See below, § 163. Other similar references are found in the narratives of Hārūn (see below, § 93), of al-Muʻazzam ʻĪsá (see below, § 139), of al-Masʻūd Yūsuf (see below, § 145), and of al-Nāṣir Dāwūd (see below, § 157), in each of these four cases referring to the "Kitāb al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr al-muqaffá"; the 'Umar narrative, finally, includes another reference to al-Maqrīzī's Ḥiṭaṭ (see below, § 23); in all, there are twelve auto-references, seven of which refer to the Kitāb al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr al-muqaffá, in the narratives of a total of nine rulers (four caliphs and five non-caliphal rulers).

However, a few other historiographical contexts and literary texts were also included explicitly in particular narratives or stories in this chronologically disturbing, metatextual manner. For the caliphs 'Umar, 'Utmān, Mu'āwiyah, Ibn al-Zubayr and Sulayman, al-Magrīzī included references to discussions that had arisen in later scholarly circles around their pilgrimage and rulership stories. 46 The identity of only one of those scholars involved in these discussions is revealed, when al-Magrīzī explains for the caliphate of 'Utmān that unlike others the historian "Ibn al-Atīr reported that 'Utmān led the people on the pilgrimage in the first year [of his term of office]".47 This type of naming external textual origins also happens in one of the stories about the caliph 'Umar, which is explicitly linked to the writings of al-Wāqidī and of the Andalusian scholar Ibn 'Abd al-Barr al-Namarī l-Qurṭubī (d. 463/1070). 48 A reference to Ibn Ḥazm returned in the narrative of Hārūn al-Rašīd, where the story of the caliph's marriage to his brother's widow is explained as stemming from Ibn Hazm's work of Arabic genealogy, the *Šamharat al-ansāb*. ⁴⁹ In the same narrative, the two final stories about the caliph's encounter with the ascetic al-Fudayl b. 'Ivad are moreover referenced as being taken from the Kitāb al-Ḥilyah, a biographical dictionary of ascetics and mystics by Abū Nu'aym al-Işfahānī (d. 430/1038).⁵⁰ But these are all the references there are, and they are really only minor exceptions

For 'Umar, al-Maqrīzī explains that "he performed the pilgrimage in all of [these years], except for one year only, [...] It was [also] said that 'Umar rather performed the pilgrimage every year of [his caliphate]." (see below, § 21); for 'Utmān, he details to some extent the discussions on what pilgrimages the caliph had actually participated in (see below, § 33); for Muʿāwiyah, al-Maqrīzī refers to discussions on the year of the main oath of allegiance to him (see below, § 35) and on the exact number of pilgrimages which he actually participated in (see below, § 36); for Ibn al-Zubayr mention is made of discussions on his *kunyah* (Abū Bakr or Abū Bukayr) (see below, p. 229); and for Sulaymān, al-Maqrīzī explains that it was unclear whether he reigned for two years and eight months "and 5 days" or "less 5 days" (see below, § 50).

See below, § 33. For Ibn al-Atīr and the importance of his *al-Kāmil fī l-tārīḫ*, see above (Chapter 2, 1).

⁴⁸ See below, § 28. For al-Wāqidī, see above (Chapter 2, 1); Ibn 'Abd al-Barr was an Andalusian scholar whose scholarly portfolio included *al-Istīāb fī ma rifat al-aṣḥāb*, a compendium of biographies of Companions (see "Ibn 'Abd al-Barr", in *E1*² [http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-abd-al-barr-SIM_3027]).

⁴⁹ See below, § 89.

⁵⁰ See below, § 97. The religious scholar Abū Nuʻaym Aḥmad al-Iṣfahānī (336–430/948–1038) is best known as the author of this *Kitāb Ḥilyat al-awliyā' wa-ṭabaqāt al-aṣfiyā'*, a biographical encyclopaedia of individuals from the earliest days of Islam onwards, who, at least according to the author, were to be regarded as ascetics and mystics ("Abū Nuʻaym

of external interferences in a text that is clearly first and foremost constructed around a conscious authorial persona and his very intricate and particular narrative methodologies.

3 The Sources of al-Dahab al-masbūk: Between habar and tarǧamah

Explicit references such as to the writings of Ibn al-Atīr, Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Ibn Hazm or Abū Nu'aym illustrate how al-Magrīzī constructed the narratives of al-Dahab al-masbūk employing a fully conscious acquaintance with the Arabic literary heritage of his age. As detailed above, the environment of textual and literary forms within which he and his peers operated was one of longstanding as well as more recent historiographical antecedents and precedents, many of which had been set to paradigmatic basic forms and meanings that by the standards of early fifteenth-century social norms and cultural aesthetics could not be simply discarded. Al-Maqrīzī's literary environment constituted, as it were, a historically socialised as well as socialising matrix of meanings embodied in literary forms, defined by and defining authors and scholars as well as their production, reproduction, and consumption of knowledge. This is not at all particular to early fifteenth-century Cairo, of course. But for its booming business of historiography it meant that it was above all through reproductive strategies of selection, re-organisation, or reformulation of this extant literarised material that textual communication, authorial identities, and innovative ideas had to be constructed.⁵¹ This was certainly the case for the different traditions of Arabic writing that had emerged over time around the memory of the Prophet and that continued to define the historiographyof-pilgrimage imagination into al-Maqrīzī's own time. At least, that is what is

al-Iṣfahānī", in EI^3 [http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/abu-nuaym-al-isfahani-COM_23648]).

For this particular nature of al-Maqrīzī's literary environment and related issues of understanding intertextuality, communication and literary aesthetics of 'medieval' Arabic literary texts, see especially Bauer (2005); Id. (2007); Id. (2013a); Id. (2013b). On the idea of a matrix of cultural forms and meanings, and of how also issues of social identity and social performance are related to this literary matrix, see Van Steenbergen (2012). The substantial textual interdependence of Arabic historiographical texts from late medieval Egypt and Syria has been demonstrated in some of its technical detail in the following: Haarmann (1969); Little (1970); Massoud (2007). On al-Maqrīzī's engagement with his literary environment—in particular the technicalities of his "working method"—and with intertextuality, see the detailed analyses by Frédéric Bauden in his Maqriziana series of articles, in particular Bauden (2008); Id. (2009); Id. (2010).

suggested when *al-Dahab al-masbūk* is approached from this perspective of its inevitable embeddedness in a longstanding and socio-culturally disciplined Arabic historiographical tradition, and in this tradition's discourse on rulership and pilgrimage in particular. As will be reconstructed in some detail here, explicit and implicit intertextual relationships with this discursive tradition provided al-Maqrīzī with the necessary material for the creative process of constructing particular narratives, awarding the text at the same time the aura of historiographical authority and authenticity that it aspired.

A first level of intertextuality is perhaps the most obvious and conspicuous one, at least to the text's learned contemporary readership. This level derives from the booklet's title that was clearly specifically chosen to position the text—or at least educated readers' expectations about it—in one very particular and rather surprising web of texts and authors, usually considered under the literary rubric of the Mirrors-for-Princes genre (*naṣīḥat al-mulūk*). The booklet's title, as identified by the author himself in the opening chapter—"I entitled it: 'The Moulded Gold' (al-Dahab al-masbūk)"—,52 clearly entered into direct communication with similar titles of seminal status by well-known authors from eleventh- and twelfth-century Iraq. This was the case in particular with a work by the Baghdadi Ḥanbalī scholar Ibn al-Ğawzī (d. 597/1201), similarly entitled al-Dahab al-masbūk fī siyar al-mulūk (The Gold Moulded around the Conduct of Kings), and above all with the epitome of this genre, a work of princely advice in Persian attributed to the towering scholarly authority of Abū Ḥāmid Muḥammad al-Ġazālī (d. 505/1111) and known in Arabic in a late twelfthcentury translation as al-Tibr al-masbūk fī nasīhat al-mulūk (The Gold Moulded around the Advice to Kings). The latter text in particular was widely known and read in late medieval Egypt and Syria, making the relationship between al-Tibr al-masbūk and al-Maqrīzī's choice of title real, conspicuous, and discursively meaningful. The interaction with titles such as these may at least have raised particular textual expectations with al-Dahab al-masbūk's readership. Beyond this very particular level of a repeated literary wordplay in the title, however, there appears no further direct relationship whatsoever between the booklet's contents and these popular works of political advice, at least not as far as any other textual similarities and intertextualities are concerned.53

⁵² See below, § 4, and see also above fn. 13, for a discussion of the different formats and versions of this title.

On these Mirrors-for-Princes texts, the *al-Tibr al-masbūk* in particular, see Marlowe; Crone (1987); Hillenbrand (1988). For Ibn al-Ğawzī's *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, see *GAL*, 1:661; *GAL* s 1:915; this text currently only seems to be available in the format of a summary repro-

The actual nature of the material with which al-Magrīzī constructed al-*Dahab al-masbūk*, of the building blocks of the micro-structural components of his text, are quite different. They are identified most explicitly in one passage that refers unusually explicitly to the origins of the lines of text that tell the story of a jinn's elegy for 'Umar. "This story (hādā l-habar)", al-Maqrīzī explains, "was thus transmitted by the hāfiz Abū 'Umar Yūsuf b. 'Abd Allāh b. 'Abd al-Barr al-Namari."54 The passage that preceded is indeed a literal reproduction of how this story was plotted in al-Istī'āb fī ma'rifat al-ashāb, a compendium of biographies of Companions of the Prophet by the Andalusian scholar Ibn 'Abd al-Barr al-Namarī (d. 463/1070). 55 As mentioned above, there are a few other explicit references to such intertextual connections, especially to Ibn Hazm's work of Arabic genealogy, the *Šamharat ansāb al-'Arab*, for the story of Hārūn's marriage to his brother's widow,56 and to the Hilyat al-awliyā', a biographical compendium of ascetics and mystics by the Isfahani traditionist Abū Nu'aym (d. 430/1038), for two versions of the story of Hārūn's encounter with the ascetic al-Fudayl b. 'Iyād. 57 In both cases, again the relevant passages concern identical textual reproductions from the *Ğamharat ansāb al-Arab* and Ḥilyat al-awliyā' respectively. In the latter case, al-Magrīzī actually stated very frankly that he was merely copying Abū Nu'aym's selected versions of the story, when he opened the passage with the announcement that "among the qualities of [Hārūn] al-Rašīd, there was what the great transmitter Abū Nu'aym selected (ahrağa) in the Kitāb al-Hilvah." What it was that had been selected first by Abū Nu'aym in *Hilyat al-awliyā*', and that had been faithfully reproduced by al-Magrīzī in al-Dahab al-masbūk, obviously was a habar, a story, as made clear in the fragment from Ibn 'Abd al-Barr al-Namarī. In all three cases, habarlike versions of stories, transmitted in classics such as al-Istī'āb, Čamharat ansāb al-'Arab and Hilyat al-awliyā', were infused into the particular narrative structures of al-Dahab al-masbūk, without any authorial interference, but with due acknowledgement.

duction that presents a short biographical history of the caliphate from al-Walīd b. 'Abd al-Malik (r. 86–96/705–715) to al-Musta'ṣim (r. 640–656/1242–1258) (see Ibn al-Ğawzī/al-Irbīlī, Ḥulāṣat al-ḍahab al-masbūk). Al-Tibr al-masbūk fī tawārīḥ al-mulūk by the scholar and Ayyubid prince/sultan from Hama Abū l-Fidā' (672–732/1273–1331) may represent another possible point of this type of intertextual reference (see Abū l-Fidā', al-Tibr al-masbūk).

⁵⁴ See below, § 28.

⁵⁵ See "Ibn 'Abd al-Barr", EI²; Wasserstein (1998).

⁵⁶ See below, § 89. For Ibn Ḥazm, see "Ibn Ḥazm", EI2; and also Adang et al. (2012).

⁵⁷ See below, § 97. For Abū Nu'aym, see "Abū Nu'aym al-Iṣfahānī", E12.

As is well known to scholars of Islamic history, these handful of habars belong to an enormous repertoire of such reports of varying size, value, and authenticity, in which stories and anecdotes about individuals, places, or events from Muslim history were set to particularly constructed and often juxtaposed, overlapping, or dispersed forms. Habars formed, informed, and defined the Muslim community's social memory since the early days of the Arabic historical tradition, and they continued to represent the basic building blocks of that memory through the centuries. When from the tenth century onwards annalistic chronography and siyāsah-oriented historiography became dominant macro-structural formats of historiographical communication, habars retained, within those larger formats, normative status for the transmission of knowledge about early Islamic history. As a literary form, the self-contained textual unit of the habar arguably even seems to have retained some level of micro-structural appeal for the recording of contemporary history in certain literary historiographies such as al-Dahab al-masbūk.⁵⁸ This genealogical process, which physically connects the different generations of Arabic historiographical and related texts through the growing body of *habars* that informed their stories, is in fact central for any understanding of al-Dahab al-masbūk. It is present in direct and explicit ways in the handful of habars that connect al-Dahab al-masbūk with al-Istīʿāb, Čamharat ansāb al-ʿArab, and Ḥilyat al-awliyāʾ. It is equally present in direct but implicit ways in dozens of similar types of habars that were reproduced in many of the more than 120 stories of al-Dahab *al-masbūk*, positioning the text in a web of very meaningful (and discursively inevitable) textual ties with a handful of other classics of Arabic historiography. This was a textual reality especially for the first and second chapters, with its stories about Prophet and caliphs really mainly being made up of habar material that throughout the centuries had been thoroughly codified in form and meaning by the increasingly shared social memory of mainstream Muslim communities from east and west (a process of transregional communitybuilding that is also exemplified by the explicit presence in this Egyptian text

See Khalidi (1994): 137–151; Robinson (2003): 92–97. Al-Maqrīzī occasionally is very explicit about his qualification of the textual units with which he constructed al-Dahab al-masbūk, as well as some of his other texts, as habar/ahbār, as in the following cases: kamā qad dakartu habarahu (see below § 23); fa-kāna min ahbārihim mā qad dukira fī mawdi'ihi (see below, § 43); wa-qad dakartu habar dālika mabsūṭan fī tarğamat al-Ma'mūn (see below, § 93); wa-qad istawfaytu ahbārahu (see below, § 145); wa li-dālika habar ṭawīl qad dakartuhu fī tarğamatihi (see below, § 163). Other similar terms were sometimes also used (dikr, qiṣaṣ, anbā'), but they occur far less frequently than terms related to habar do (throughout the text, habar and derived verbal forms occurr no less than fifteen times).

of material from Ibn Ḥazm's and Ibn 'Abd al-Barr's al-Andalus and from Abū Nu'aym's Persia). But also for the third chapter on non-caliphal rulers, intertextuality of its stories along *ḥabar*-lines may be reconstructed, even though that material was far less burdened by transcendent and translocal communal meanings.

As suggested above, two key moments in the genealogical process of habar transmission and codification were the *History of Messengers and Kings (Tārīh* al-rusul wa-l-mulūk) by the Iraqi scholar al-Tabarī (d. 310/923) and the Complete History (al-Kāmil fī l-tārīh) by Ibn al-Atīr (d. 630/1233). For the majority of the second chapter's stories for which so far a genealogy could be reconstructed, the normative historiographical status of these works of history is reflected in al-Magrīzī's heavy reliance on habars that can be traced back to these texts.⁵⁹ In fact, it is always Ibn al-Aṭīr's version of a *ḥabar* that al-Maqrīzī is reproducing, with occasionally only slight adaptations in wording, phrasing, or detail, but without ever identifying this textual relationship.⁶⁰ For six caliphal narratives this canonical *habar* tradition even is the sole source for all related stories. 61 In four narratives, however, this habar tradition is entirely absent, either because there are no stories, as with the caliph Mu'awiyah, or because the narrative post-dates Ibn al-Atīr's time, as with al-Ḥākim, or because other *habar* traditions were prioritised. In the narrative of Ibn al-Zubayr it thus seems to have been al-Maqrīzī's own history of the Ka'bah, al-Išārah wa-l-i'lām, that was followed (and explicitly named as such), whereas

For the second chapter of the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, we counted 34 moments of direct textual interdependence between *habars* in the text and other texts; 24 of these moments have been identified as connecting directly with the Ibn al-Atīr/al-Ṭabarī tradition (further details are provided in the footnotes that follow). Each of these moments has been duly referenced in the critical apparatus of the edition of the Arabic text.

On three occasions, a <code>habar</code> could be traced back to Ibn al-Atīr's <code>al-Kāmil</code> only, and not to al-Ṭabarī's <code>Tārīḥ</code> (Abū Bakr's pilgrimage leadership in 12AH [not a story as such, but only a brief reference to the conflicting reports about the leadership of that year's <code>haǧǧ</code>], 'Abd al-Malik's public Friday sermon in Medina, and Hārūn's confronting the <code>hariǧi</code> rebellion of al-Walīd b. Ṭarīf in 177AH; see below, §§ 19, 44, 86–87). Slight variations in the wording, phrasing or detail of the <code>habar</code> texts may have to do with al-Maqrīzī's working method of first taking notes from other texts in a personal notebook, sometimes slightly adapting or summarising them for his personal use, and then quoting from the notebook rather than from the actual texts when drafting his own texts (see the detailed analysis in Bauden [2008]; Id. [2009]).

⁶¹ All *ḥabar*s (or pilgrimage/rulership references) making up the narratives of Abū Bakr (no.1), 'Utmān (3), 'Abd al-Malik (6), al-Walīd (7), Hišām (9) and al-Mahdī (11) stem directly from the Ibn al-Atīr/al-Ṭabarī tradition.

the narrative of Sulayman is entirely constructed (again, however, without any explicit reference) around a single habar from the Reports of Mecca (Ahbār Makkah), attributed to the ninth-century Meccan historian al-Azraqī. 62 The caliphal narratives of 'Umar, al-Mansūr, and al-Rašīd, finally, were also made up of substantial material from the Ibn al-Atīr habar tradition, but added to that there are *habar*s from other traditions, either explicitly identified, such as with the aforementioned five stories from al-Istī'āb, Čamharat ansāb al-'Arab, and *Hilyat al-awliyā*', or on two other implicit occasions in the 'Umar narrative from Ibn 'Abd al-Hakam's ninth-century Conquest and Other Reports Concerning Egypt (Futūḥ Miṣr wa-aḥbāruhā).63 The latter actually was as authoritative a habar tradition for Egyptian local history as the Ibn al-Atīr/al-Ṭabarī tradition was for the history of the caliphate, and al-Azraqī's for that of Mecca and its sanctuary, which is then possibly one of the reasons why there was no need for al-Magrīzī to make these particular genealogies explicit. Unlike in the case of al-Istī'āb, Ğamharat ansāb al-'Arab, and Hilvat al-awlivā', habars from the latter three codified traditions simply identified themselves, plugging al-Dahab al-masbūk almost automatically into a web of textual ties and authorities that were well-known, widely acknowledged, and historiographically normative.

This issue of intertextuality is far more difficult to establish for the third chapter. Its narratives of non-caliphal rulers are even richer in story material than the second chapter, and many of these stories continue to present themselves <code>habar</code>-wise as self-contained textual units of varying size and detail. Identifying this chapter's <code>habar</code> genealogy, however, turns out to be less evident. The non-caliphal rulers around whom the narratives and their stories were constructed simply were far less transcendent politico-cultural characters than many of their caliphal predecessors continued to be. By the early

⁶² See below, §§ 40–41, 51–52. On the Meccan historian Abū l-Walīd Muḥammad b. 'Abd Allāh b. Aḥmad al-Azraqī and his unique history of Mecca and its sanctuary, see "al-Azraķī", in EI² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-azraki -SIM_0958).

See below, §§ 23–24 (related, without acknowledgment, with Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥakam's Futūḥ), §§ 25–28 (with Ibn 'Abd al-Barr's al-Istī'āb), §89 (with Ibn Ḥazm's Ğamharah), §§ 97–105, 106–107 (with Abū Nu'aym's Ḥilyah) and §§ 68, 70 (demonstrating some indirect textual relationship with the Baghdadi scholar Wakī's [d. 306/918] The Reports of the Judges (Aḥbār al-qudāt) [see "Wakī', in Ei² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/waki-SIM_7834)]). On 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Abd Allāh Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥakam (d. 257/871) and his Futūḥ Miṣr, see Khalidi (1994): 65–67; "Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥakam', Ei² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-abd-al-hakam-SIM_3028).

fifteenth century time had moreover not yet allowed specific memories to crystallise into equally authoritative *habar* traditions. But memories and traditions there undoubtedly were, and even if they had not yet been—nor ever would be—crystallising into anything resembling the globally meaningful al-Ṭabarī/Ibn al-Atīr tradition, they were yet already forming into something that was at least as meaningful for Egyptian elites' localising social memory as the Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥakam tradition was.⁶⁴ Obviously, al-Maqrīzī's own prolific historiographical production represented an important moment in this particular (but not necessarily intentional) genealogical process, which was then continued or challenged by colleagues and students alike (and extremely successful up to this day).⁶⁵ Chapter three of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* was very much part and parcel of this, which explains why it is set within al-Maqrīzī's own growing production of works of Egyptian history even more explicitly than was done in the second chapter.⁶⁶ This may also be one of the reasons why, unlike in

Conermann interestingly explains this 'natural' process of crystallisation in pre-modern history writing as "a willingness to reduce the complexity of human experience into stereotypes according to 'literary canons' which could be utilized easily to make a moral point" (Conermann [2008]: 3). On the question of whether or not there were in late medieval siyāsah-oriented Arabic historiography distinct local/regional traditions of historiographical production, including thirteenth-to-fifteenth-century Syrian and Egyptian 'schools', referring for the latter even to some form of "court culture" that may have had a substantial formative impact, see Guo (1997): 29–33, 37–41; see also Id. (2010): 450–451. For a general appreciation of late medieval Syro-Egyptian Arabic historiographical writing, see Little (1998). For detailed micro-historical analyses of particular sets of intertextual historiographical traditions, see especially Little (1970); Massoud, (2007).

⁶⁵ Little, however, approached this characteristic rather more from a negative perspective: "... until such time as the annals of *al-Sulūk* have been compared with those of other historians, [...] al-Maqrīzī's significance as a historian will remain as a compiler and preserver of the work of others" (Little [1998]: 436–437, esp. 437).

The second chapter has four references to al-Maqrīzī's own production: one to the aforementioned Ka'bah history, one to the <code>Hitat</code> (referring any reader interested in how a canal between the Nile and the Red Sea was famously redug to this topographical work of history of his), and two to the biographical collection <code>al-Tārīḥ</code> <code>al-kabīr</code> <code>al-muqaffá</code> (referring to his biographies of 'Abd al-Malik and of his father Marwān, and to his account of the story of Hārūn's problematic succession in the biography of the caliph <code>al-Ma'mūn</code>) (see below, §§ 41, 23, 42, 93). The third chapter has seven similar references: five to the biographical collection <code>al-Tārīḥ</code> <code>al-kabīr</code> <code>al-muqaffá</code> (for each of the Ayyubid and Mamluk rulers Tūrān Šāh, <code>al-Mu'azzam '\bar{1}sa'</code>, <code>al-Mas'ud</code> Yūsuf, <code>al-Nāṣir</code> Dāwūd and <code>al-Zāhir</code> Baybars, but not for the fourteenth-century sultans <code>al-Nāṣir</code> Muḥammad and <code>al-Ašraf</code> Ša'ban), one to the <code>Hitat</code> (for Tūrān Šāh) and one to the chronicle <code>Kitāb</code> <code>al-Sulūk</code> (for Baybars) (see below, §§ 131, 139, 145, 157, 163). Whereas for chapter two these references have to do with particular

the second chapter, the author did not feel any need to identify explicitly any other textual ties beyond those rather more forward looking ones with his own scholarly production in full progress. Either there simply were no ties considered valuable enough by him for the establishment of the text's authority, or there were such ties, but then rooted in local habar traditions that had already become so dominant and well-known by the early fifteenth century that they too could do without any explicit reference. The latter must certainly have been the case with the 667/1269 secret pilgrimage habars that were used to construct al-Zāhir Baybars' narrative, and that all referred directly—with the occasional omission of some details only—and without any acknowledgement back to the panegyric biography that Baybars' personal secretary, Muḥyī al-Dīn Ibn 'Abd al-Zāhir (d. 692/1292), wrote for his sultan, al-Rawd al-zāhir fī sīrat al-Malik al-Zāhir.67 For three Yemeni rulers—'Alī l-Şulayḥī and the Rasūlids Nūr al-Dīn 'Umar and his son al-Muzaffar Yūsuf—some habars can similarly be traced back to one of the Meccan histories by a contemporary of al-Maqrīzī, Taqī l-Dīn Muḥammad al-Fāsī (775–832/1373–1429), the Šifāʾ al-ġarām bi-aḥbār al-Balad al-Ḥarām.68 No further similarly clear textual ties have so far come to light, but if these two cases suggest anything already, it certainly is that in the third chapter al-Magrīzī also continued to root his stories within a web of habar intertextualities, that these ties represented distinct recent and localised habar genealogies that were gradually being codified in their own locally meaningful ways, and that further publication and exploration of thirteenth- and fourteenth-century historiographical texts may reveal much more about the genealogies and impact of these emerging later historiographical traditions for situating al-Dahab al-masbūk as well as for understanding the wider cultural field of the era's exploding historiographical production.

With a second chapter that is directly plugged into heavily codified globalising *habar* traditions, and a third chapter that does the same with localising

stories within the narratives only, for chapter three they often concern the entire narrative and the clarification that much more comprehensive accounts about these five particular rulers may be found in one of al-Maqrīzī's other works.

⁶⁷ See below, §§ 164–181. For Ibn 'Abd al-Ṣāhir and his panegyric of al-Ṣāhir Baybars, see Holt (1982): 20–24; Id. (1985): 129–133; "Ibn 'Abd al-Ṣāhir", in EI² (http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-abd-al-zahir-SIM_3034).

⁶⁸ See below, §§114, 152–153, 160. For the Meccan scholar al-Fāsī and his history of the city of Mecca, see "al-Fāsī", E1² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia -of-islam-2/al-fasi-SIM_2311); "al-Fāsī, Taqī al-Dīn Muḥammad", E13 (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/al-fasi-taqi-l-din-muhammad-COM_27018).

habar traditions in formation, the first chapter stands out as as distinct in intertextual ways, as it also was structurally. As mentioned before, the chapter opens explicitly with references to Ibn Hazm's Farewell Pilgrimage text, and to al-Magrīzī's own work of comparative theology, the Road to Deliverance (Šāri' al-naǧāt). In terms of intertextuality, however, its text does not seem to be related to either one but rather to the relevant passage in a separate text of prophetic biography by the Damascene *hadīt* specialist and historian Ibn Katīr (700–774/1300–1373).⁶⁹ The entire chapter turns out to be reproduced without hardly any variation from Ibn Katīr's al-Fusūl fī sīrat al-rasūl, and most of it eventually figured in very similar but more elaborate fashion in another, later work by al-Maqrīzī on prophetic biography, the multi-volumous *Imtā* 'al-asmā' bi-mā li-l-nabī min al-ahwāl wa-l-amwāl wa-hafadah wa-l-matā:70 This ties al-Dahab al-masbūk up with yet another web of textual production, this time of a particular *habar* tradition of longstanding Syro-Iraqi *hadīt* scholarship, widely known and respected for its contribution to the articulation of Sunni Islamic socio-cultural identities and memories.71

These very deeply rooted multiple intertextualities surely endowed *al-Dahab al-masbūk* with particular types of textual authority and socio-cultural meaning. But first and foremost they clearly had a very strong impact on the contents of the three chapters of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, nuancing the intentionality of their structural organisation. At least aforementioned micro-structural elements such as the plotting of stories along a modal continuum, their continued chronological organisation, and even the first chapter's embedded legal debate narrative, were then imposed rather by the particularities of different extant *habar* traditions than merely by the author's intentions. Authorial decisions mainly played on the macro-structural level of selecting particular stories and related *habars*, of devising particular rulership-pilgrimage frames for each

⁶⁹ Ibn Katīr, al-Fuṣūl, 214–217. For Ibn Katīr, see "Ibn Katīr", EI² (http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-kathir-SIM_3237).

Al-Maqrīzī, *Imtā' al-asmā'*, 2:102–120. This extensive work on the Prophet's biography was produced between 832/1429 and 836/1433 (Bauden [2014]: 196–197). The idea that the Farewell Pilgrimage text in the Šāri' al-naǧāt (the production date of this now lost text remains unclear) was somehow different and predated that in al-Dahab al-masbūk is suggested by explicit references in the latter's chapter one, such as "I responded in the book Šāri' al-naǧāt to certain passages in [Ibn Ḥazm's text] ..." and, especially, that an argument for the combination of ḥaǧǧ and 'umrah "has also been transmitted ... by sixteen successors, whom I have mentioned in the book Šāri' al-naǧāt" (see below, §§ 6, 9).

On this particular genealogical tradition of *ḥadīt̄* scholarship, see Lucas (2004): 109–112. For this tradition's central role in the articulation of a particular historiographical genre in Mamluk Syria and Egypt, see Guo (1998): 82–87.

and every narrative—formally directly related to the *tarǧamah* or individual biography of the biographical genre⁷²—, and of wrapping those narratives in an equally particular three-tiered structure of communicating chapters. Microstructurally reproduction is the key word to understand *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, situating the text within rich and discursively even inevitable intertextual contexts of global and local *ḥabar* traditions. Macro-structurally, however, production rather is the key word, al-Maqrīzī creating something entirely new within the textual webs that connect those traditions. It was this authorial creative process of the production of particular, innovative kinds of *tarǧamah*s and chapters that endowed the text with its most obvious meanings.

4 The Meanings of al-Dahab al-masbūk: Between Author and Ruler

The construction of a historical text such as al-Dahab al-masbūk along particular structural dynamics and its positioning within particular genealogical webs of Arabic literary canons are obviously part of a set of authorial decisions, some consciously taken and others rather more imposed by the conventions of genre, of discourse, and of the author's wider contexts of time and space. These decisions actually define the text's intersubjectivity, connecting particular social memories and claims to veracity to discursive imaginations of the author's present and generating the communication of particular cultural and social meanings. As this kind of authorial construct al-Dahab al-masbūk is actually one among many remnants of the growing body of textual 'makers' in the cultural and social realities of late medieval Egypt that were all participating in this socio-cultural agency in remarkable and widely penetrating ways. Indeed, the historiographical partners in the aforementioned double process of expanding textual consumption and production were not merely representing, reconstructing, transmitting, or preserving some externalised and objective real world. On the contrary, they all actively contributed to making that world, in all the subjectivity of its many social and cultural manifestations.⁷³ In

On the set formalities of the *tarǧamah* (with its textual references organised in subcategories of name, of dates, of social and textual relations, and of *aḥbār* and similar anecdotes), see al-Qāḍī (1998): 151–152. In *al-Dahab al-masbūk* the technical term *tarǯamah* occurs several times (see below, §§ 42, 93, 131, 139, 163), but always to refer the reader to the full-blown biographical entries for caliphs and kings that al-Maqrīzī had produced elsewhere, explaining that the material in *al-Dahab al-masbūk* were topical derivatives of such full *tarǯamah*s only.

⁷³ For more on these issues of the historical agency of late medieval Arabic historiographical

many ways they were even that world, constituting some of the hard facts that not just reproduced but also produced late medieval Egyptian realities, along the diverse, changing, and segmented pathways by which their growing bodies of authors and readers experienced, imagined, and tried to make sense of these realities.

Al-Dahab al-masbūk is part and parcel of these formative and performative socio-cultural processes, operating in the general context of late medieval Egyptian social practices and value systems as well as in the specific contexts of al-Magrīzī's authorship and life. It reproduced and produced meaningful relations for both contexts, and to some extent, a glimpse of these can still be grasped, even though the passage of time has obviously radically transformed or even annihilated contexts and relations alike. As suggested above, it is the authorial creative process of the production of particular innovative kinds of chapters and narratives for selected sets of reproductive historical material that endowed the text with its most relevant meanings. Considering al-Dahab al-masbūk's core business of pilgriming Prophet, caliphs, and noncaliphal rulers, these meanings obviously operated first and foremost on the level of making the past of Muslim kingship meaningful for the present of al-Maqrīzī's early fifteenth-century readership. Before considering those relational meanings of Muslim kingship, however, another level also needs to be briefly contemplated, directly related to the latter present of al-Magrīzī's readership, and made explicit by the author himself on various occasions, above all in his ornate introduction of the text.

As mentioned before, in this introduction al-Maqrīzī dedicates the text to an anonymous patron, describing how his personal quest for finding a gift that befitted the occasion of this princely patron's hağğ eventually resulted in his production of al-Dahab al-masbūk.⁷⁴ Although this is nothing unusual for this type of literary dedication, the explicit presentation of the text as a gift and—above all—of the author's skills and knowledge as special and relevant for such an exchange certainly reveals some of his intentions and therefore deserves to be reproduced here:

and other texts, see Hirschler (2006); Id. (2013): 167–180; Conermann (2008): 1–4 ("With the aid of such 'literary canons', the chroniclers could use past figures and events as explanations and modes of legitimizing present political life", p. 4), 21–24. See also Bauer (2013a): 53 ("Literature, especially poetry and ornate prose, was central, it permeated every field of life and was an important medium of educated communication [...]. It was always also a means of distinction as well as a means of creating group identity."); Van Steenbergen (2012).

The word has spread that the high-born intention was set on undertaking the <code>hağğ</code> and to be endowed with the noise and blood of rituals. It has become common practice for servants to present a gift to their masters, for which reason I considered the situation of clients that owe presents on the occasion of an event like this, and I decided to follow their example. But then I thought: I could offer my soul as a present, but it already belongs to the noble lord; I could offer my property, but that is his already; I could offer my love and gratitude, but they already are his full and undivided due. I abhored [the idea of] draining this intention [of my lord] from its habitual practice and of becoming as a result one of those that are considered negligent, or [the idea of] claiming to possess what can meet the noble lord's due and becoming as a result one of those that are considered liars.

I cannot present my soul, because he already owns it, so I am only guarding it as the most precious sort of noblesse;

Nor can I present any wealth, because he has donated it, so I am the one who owes him thankfulness.

Nor can I present my gratitude, because it is a pawn until the end of time for your comeliness.

When the sun rises, she does not need to be lit by the full moon's highness.

Since knowledge is the most precious and most valuable of treasures, the most glorious and the longest remembered of deeds, I collected for the benefit of the esteemed library of our lord—may God support it with long life for its owner—a volume that comprises the report of those caliphs and kings who performed the hağğ. I entitled it: 'The Moulded Gold', as a reminder to the high-born mind that what comes from me is better informed, more entitled to be considered useful, and more appropriate. In what I do and compose, I am like someone who presents drops of water to the sea, or who sends light to the moon, and fragrance to flowers, or even better, like someone who sends the rays of light to the sun, and the breath of life to the soul: apart from the fact that there is sinlessness in such a man's noble manners and that there is a satisfying aspect in the purity of his sweat, what is given is little but also surpasses things that are a fault and a shortcoming.

A remarkable concern to display the individuality, speciality, and authenticity of al-Maqrīzī's authorship appears from these opening statements. This con-

cern finds confirmation throughout the text in various aforementioned metaand intertextual references by which al-Dahab al-masbūk and al-Magrīzī's authorial person and wider authorship became explicitly and tightly interwoven. Already the very first word of this introduction—"I demand" (fa-as'al)—leaves no doubt about this authorial presence, as it immediately introduces al-Magrīzī into the text through a first person reference. 75 This is also repeated at the very start of the actual text, where the first prophetic chapter begins with a similar auto-reference—"I began" (iftatahtu)—that leaves no doubt about the author's personal textual agency.⁷⁶ This decisive authorial authority is also emphasised in the many first-person references in the above passage from the introduction, making clear how the text is intended by its author "as a reminder to the highborn mind that what comes from me is better informed, more entitled to be considered useful, and more appropriate" (li-yakūna tadkirat^{an} li-l-hāṭir al-šarīf bi-mā huwa minnī adrá wa-aḥaqq bi-ifādatihi wa-aḥrá). The relation between author and patron is then not just simply hierarchical⁷⁷ but also reciprocal, and the text is meant to mediate this dyadic relationship as a confirmation of its validity, or at least as an agent of the author's related claims to distinction, identity, and socio-cultural entitlement.

This mediation of the relation between the author and his wider socio-cultural environment also appears from various other meta- and intertextual occasions. In the opening chapter, al-Maqrīzī makes very clear not just that the text's macro-structural organisation was his own conscious decision ("I began this volume with [the Prophet's pilgrimage] because ..."), but also that he had much more to say about this in another work of his.⁷⁸ Similar auto-references appear in chapters two and three. For two particular stories in the second chapter—al-Manṣūr's will and the pilgrimage of Hārūn al-Rašīd's wife Zubaydah—al-Maqrīzī intrudes into the text to explain explicitly how he limits himself to summary references for practical reasons only, suggesting at the same time that space and time allowing he indeed would have had much more

⁷⁵ See below, § 1.

⁷⁶ See below, § 6.

A hierarchy that is also quantitatively represented in the introduction, with 31 direct references to this patron ('he', 'him', 'his', and once in a more direct manner 'your' ["for your beautiful acts"]), compared to only 18 references to al-Maqrīzī himself ('I', and once 'me').

⁷⁸ See below, §§ 6, 9. ("I responded in the book *The Road to Deliverance*"—"It has also been transmitted ... by sixteen successors, whom I have mentioned in the book *The Road to Deliverance*").

to say.⁷⁹ A similar connotation emerges from ten further auto-references,⁸⁰ equally spread over both chapters and each allowing the author to intrude in parallel authoritative ways and to explain that more has been said about many of these particular narratives and stories in his other literary works.⁸¹ To this meta- rather than intertextual kind of material should certainly also be added the aforementioned short references to kiswah practices, Cairo's Darb Šams al-Dawlah, Meccan Mas'ūdī dirhams, and political dedications of sermons.82 In subtle ways these similarly introduce al-Magrīzī's own early fifteenth-century experiences into the text, operating not just as recognizable points of direct contact for his readers, but also as points of reference for displaying his own knowledgeability about these and similar cultural practices. The primary literary, jurisprudential, historiographical, and heuristic contexts that readers are referred to by this metatextual material were therefore first and foremost the fruits of al-Magrīzī's own mind and productive pen. Wrapped in carefully constructed narratives, stories, and habars, these fruits are displayed here as legitimate, authoritative, and comprehensive containers of knowledge about Muslim history, from the days of the Prophet until al-Maqrīzī's own time and

See below, § 63 ("... if it were not for its length, I would mention it [here]"); § 91 ("... its report does not fit within the parameters of this volume [min šarṭ hāḍā l-ǧuz'], and therefore, I will leave out this report").

^{80 &}quot;As I have reported" (kamā qad dakartu ḥabarahu) (see below, § 23); "as I have reported that in great detail" (kamā qad dakartu dālika dikr^{an} šāfiy^{an}) (see below, § 41); "as I reported in his biography" (kamā qad dakartu tarğamatahu) (see below, § 42); "stories about them were recorded in their proper place" (fa-kāna min aḥbārihim mā qad dukira fī mawdi'ihi) (see below, § 43); "I have extensively reported the story of that in the biography of al-Ma'mūn" (wa-qad dakartu ḥabar dālika mabsūṭan fī tarğamat al-Ma'mūn) (see below, § 93); "I reported his biography in detail" (wa-qad dakartu tarğamatahu mabsūṭatan, wa-qad dakartu tarğamatahu mustawfātan) (see below, § 131, 139); "I have recorded his stories in much more detail" (wa-qad istawfaytu aḥbārahu) (see below, § 145); "there are tales and tidings about him which I have reported" (wa kānat lahu qiṣaṣ wa-anbā dakartuhā) (see below, § 157); "there is a long story of that which I have reported in his biography" (wa li-dālika habar tawīl qad dakartuhu fī tarğamatihi) (see below, § 163).

As explained in the previous chapter these auto-references end with al-Zāhir Baybars, fourteenth-century rulers such as al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, Mansā Mūsá, al-Muǧāhid ʿAlī and al-Ašraf Šaʿbān surprisingly not receiving any similar notes (even though al-Maqrīzī does deal with them extensively in other works of his); as suggested, this may hint at the early date of composition of the work's first draft, as predating al-Maqrīzī's treatment of any of these later rulers in any of his texts.

⁸² See below, §§ 110, 130, 146, 161, 160.

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from Rasūlid Yemen to Muslim West-Africa. This highly functional translation of communal past to authorial present then generates nothing less than a textual performance of al-Maqrīzī's mastery of historical knowledge, announced in the introduction as "the most precious and most valuable of treasures, the most glorious and the longest remembered of deeds" and presented throughout the text as though monopolised by its author. *Al-Dahab al-masbūk* thus pursues a very particular and highly personalised social and cultural mediation, exchanging the hierarchy of material patronage for a reversed immaterial one of knowledge and making strong and effective claims to wider socio-cultural entitlement.

Against this background of the assumption of an authorial and then sociocultural authority that transcends al-Dahab al-masbūk as a text but not as an agent, other relations become apparent that are similarly hierarchical in reversed order, that derive their full meaning from that reversal, and that communicate in didactic ways particular moral values from the author via the agency of the text to his royal audiences. It is at this level above all that the particular past of Muslim kingship could be made meaningful for the author's early fifteenth-century present and that the creative process of the production of particular, innovative kinds of chapters and narratives for selected sets of codified and authoritative historical material acquired its true meanings. Not surprisingly the author's selection of particular stories about caliphal and noncaliphal rulers and their framing in narratives of rulership and pilgrimage participate above all in the communication of the grand old theme of legitimate Muslim kingship. Throughout the chapters, the narratives, and the stories that make up the text, its audience learns from a kaleidoscope of examples what it means to be a good ruler, from 'Umar securing Egyptian supplies for the Hijaz, over 'Abd al-Malik fighting rebels, al-Manşūr submitting to the law, and al-Mahdī making kiswah arrangements and organising the Arabian postal system, to Hārūn heroically performing the pilgrimage on foot and seeking moral advice from pious men of learning; from 'Alī l-Şulayḥī spreading justice in the Hijaz, over al-Mu'azzam 'Īsá distributing alms in Mecca and Medina, Nūr al-Dīn 'Umar abolishing unlawful taxes, Baybars performing a secret pilgrimage, and al-Nāsir Muhammad being welcomed with pomp and circumstance, to Mansā Mūsá exchanging royal gifts. Ritual precedence and distinction, public works and patronage, generosity and largesse, order and justice, victory and sovereignty, piety and knowledge, modesty, lineage and charisma: they all are there one way or another, emerging as the main qualities of good rule from this incongruous wealth of material.

The kaleidoscope, however, occasionally also takes strange or surprising turns that make connections with legitimate Muslim kingship less obvious

and rather suggest the opposite. The non-Umayyad 'Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr is portrayed as a legitimate caliph, because he received the oath of allegiance (bay'ah); at the same time it is his public execution that restores political order, after "the earth had been covered in warfare" and when "fortune was on the side of $(s\bar{a}'adat \, al-agd\bar{a}r)$ 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān, and all those who opposed him were killed".83 The lineage of the Cairo caliph al-Ḥākim is the object of "disagreement" ('alā hilāf fī nasabihi), and his claims to legitimacy are simply not accepted in Mecca.⁸⁴ 'Alī b. Muhammad is "one of this world's revolutionaries" (ahad tuwwār al-'ālam) and an agent of the Shiite Fātimid dynasty (ahad du'ā' al-dawlah al-fātimiyyah), who dies at the hand of an opponent.⁸⁵ Tūrān Šāh dies leaving an enormous debt, due to "the wealth of his generosity and the wide extent of his benevolence" (wa-sabab hādā l-dīn katrat ğawdihi wasa'at 'aṭā'ihi).86 Al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf "committed gravely sinful deeds of insolence towards God" (wa-azhara min al-ǧar'a 'alá llāh qabā'ih), including shooting pigeons and drinking wine in Mecca's sacrosanct area. 87 Al-Nāsir Dāwūd, ruler of Damascus, "began to oppress the populace, seizing their property and abandoning himself to amusements" (wa-aḥada l-Nāṣir fī zulm al-ra'iyyah wa-aḥd amwālihim wa-l-inhimāk fī l-la'ib), and he experienced the loss of Damascus, of family and supporters, and eventually even of any principality to rule.⁸⁸ Due to misfortune and bad weather en route, Mansā Mūsá lost two-thirds of his enormous West-African royal entourage and was forced to borrow money (iḥtāǧa ilá qird māl katīr), after first having brought "impressive gifts and lots of gold" (hadāyā ğalīlah wa-dahab katīr).89 Al-Muğāhid 'Alī overplayed his hand when he tried to gain control over Mecca, "contriving a despicable innovation" (tabtadi'u bid'ah fāhišah) by bringing weapons into the sanctuary, and only managing to return to Yemen after much trouble, including even a period of captivity in Cairo.⁹⁰ Al-Ašraf Ša'bān, finally, failed to deliver his entourage's travel allowance (nafaqah) and to command sufficient loyalty, resulting in rebellion, defeat, and violent death.91

⁸³ See below, § 42.

⁸⁴ See below, p. 297, § 110.

⁸⁵ See below, §§ 111–112, 115.

⁸⁶ See below, § 127.

⁸⁷ See below, §142.

⁸⁸ See below, §§ 156–157.

⁸⁹ See below, §§ 204, 207.

⁹⁰ See below, §§ 212–217.

⁹¹ See below, § 221.

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These are all but examples of good, legitimate Muslim rule. At the same time, however, their selection and inclusion in the text clearly also served related didactic purposes, illustrating in often graphic ways the opposites of good rule, as well as the consequences of such unwelcome behaviour. Therefore the negative counterparts of those qualities of good rule found almost metaphorical expression in these stories: defunct authority (vs. charisma), faulty lineage (vs. lineage), excesses (vs. modesty), sinfulness and ignorance (vs. piety and knowledge), defeat and loss (vs. victory and sovereignty), disorder and injustice (vs. order and justice), indulgence and shortage (vs. generosity and largesse), and negligence (vs. public works and patronage). Even the royal need for ritual precedence and distinction is similarly highlighted through opposition, such as in the story of the Rasūlid al-Mansūr 'Umar, who wanted to provide a new kiswah for the Ka'bah in 643/1246, but was allowed only a rudimentary restoration of the old *kiswah* when the *šayḥ al-ḥaram* insisted on this being an exclusively caliphal prerogative; in the story of 'Umar's descendant al-Muǧāhid 'Alī in 742/1342 being denied outright the right to provide any kiswah, making him "leave in anger"; or in the story of al-Hākim, requesting in vain for the privilege of having his name mentioned in the Friday prayer in Mecca. 92 These very different cases thus present some of the many pitfalls and temptations that Muslim rulers may also find on their way, illustrating by doing so in again incongruous metaphorical ways a well-known wisdom about the many moral dangers involved in being a Muslim ruler in this world. This wisdom was actually expressed most explicitly in one of Hārūn's stories, about the mystic al-Fuḍayl b. 'Iyād's advice to the caliph, such as in the following greeting: "Never have I seen anyone with a face more beautiful than yours; if you are able not to blacken this face with the heat from the fire [of Hell], then do so."93

Most selected stories thus contributed along a winding, kaleidoscopic road of didactic examples to making the very same moral point of what a good ruler should and should not do, with pilgrimage representing in this a secondary thematic tool only for selecting stories and for providing the kaleidoscope with some coherence. What that winding kaleidoscope moreover suggests—

⁹² See below, §§ 153, 211, 110.

⁹³ See below, § 107. See also Crone (1987): 172–173. For al-Maqrīzī's stance on such issues of rulership and social order, see also more in general Anne Broadbridge's extremely pertinent assessment that "indeed, al-Maqrīzī does demonstrate a marked interest in [...] the connections among royal authority, justice, and the maintenance of order in society. In al-Maqrīzī's hands, however, the concept is most frequently shown in reverse as the weakening of royal authority, the proliferation of injustice and the resultant spread of societal disorder." (Broadbridge [2003]: 236).

or at least what impression it produces—is that al-Maqrīzī presents history in al-Dahab al-masbūk not as a simple Whiggish and black-and-white process, but rather as developing along similarly winding roads, where being a ruler is serious business and hard work with limited hope for future reward and positive recompense. Rulers are then portrayed in stories and narratives alike not just as a human kind apart, but also as always qualified by the transcendent reality of divine sovereignty. Even they cannot escape their larger destiny, as suggested in several prophecy stories announcing the deaths of the caliphs 'Umar and al-Mansūr,94 in the ways 'Alī l-Sulayhī and al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf are presented as dying *en route* to or in Mecca, in the ways Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd and Tūrān Šāh are presented as passing away in peaceful circumstances after rich lives of conquest and warfare, and in the booklet's final line, where al-Ašraf Ša'bān is made to leave the scene "killed by strangulation", a passage tellingly ending in the fatalist mode of divine providence with the well-known saying "God knows best". 95 This separate secondary theme of the absolute sovereignty of divine will finally certainly also explains the inclusion in the al-Mansūr narrative of three stories about the caliph's encounters with the Medinese judge Muḥammad b. 'Imrān (fl. 2nd/8th c.), each illustrating rulers' absolute subordination to God's Law and its human agents, the qādīs.96

These universal themes of good Muslim rule and divine sovereignty are paired by at least three related but more particular moral themes, similarly communicated from the author via the agency of the text to his royal audiences. For a number of non-caliphal rulers, the author constructs his narrative so as to also make room for a conspicuous set of recurrent statements about the proper political relationship between Cairo and Yemen. This set of Cairo-Yemen statements begins in the narrative of 'Umar al-Ṣulayḥī, who upon his conquest of Yemen is presented as "publicly proclaiming allegiance to the Imam al-Mustanṣir bi-llāh Abū Tamīm Maʻadd b. al-Ṭāhir b. al-Ḥākim, one of the Fāṭimid caliphs in Cairo". It is continued in the narrative of Saladin's brother Tūrān Šāh, who "took control of the territories of Yemen, assumed

⁹⁴ See below, §§ 25, 65–67.

⁹⁵ See below, 116, 145, 123, 128, 222.

⁹⁶ See below, §§ 68–70. This emphasis on "the ephemeral character of power and the [pre-eminence of] divine will which makes and destroys rulers, seemingly on a whim" appears also elsewhere in al-Maqrīzī's writings as a recurrent and powerful subtext (see Bauden [2014]: 184).

⁹⁷ See below, § 113.

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the honorific al-Malik al-Mu'azzam and had the Friday sermon delivered in his own name, after [that of] the 'Abbāsid caliph."98 Then it moves to the narrative of Tūrān Šāh's nephew, al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf, which explains that he was appointed by his father, the ruler of Egypt, over Yemen in 611/1214-1215, that "he occupied it and he acquired control over Tihāmah, Ta'izz, Sanaa and all the territories of Yemen", and that in 622/1225 he "left Nūr al-Dīn 'Umar b. 'Alī b. Rasūl al-Kurdī as his agent to govern it" when he travelled to Egypt. 99 This 'Umar (d. 647/1249), the eponymous founder of the ruling dynasty of Yemen up to al-Magrīzī's time, the Rasūlids (632–858/1235–1454), and two of his successors, his son al-Muzaffar Yūsuf and a later descendant al-Muǧāhid ʿAlī, are then all accorded separate narratives. In each one, however, the same theme of Yemen's particular relationship with the sultan of Egypt returns. 'Umar is presented as having "sent a precious gift to al-Malik al-Kāmil [in Egypt], saying 'I am the representative of the sultan over the lands'." Yūsuf "had the inside of the Ka'bah covered with [a kiswah, which] continued to be present until in the year 761 [1360]", when it was replaced by that of the sultan of Cairo. And the Cairo-Yemen statements really culminated in the narrative of al-Muǧāhid 'Alī, which explains that he was defeated by the sultan's agents in Mecca and that he was eventually brought to Cairo as the sultan's captive twice, each time to be scorned for his insubordination and to be reminded of his proper place in the sultan's shadow; this included that he was made "to kiss the ground before the sultan al-Malik al-Nāsir Hasan b. Muhammad b. Oalāwūn", that "he was chided and seriously reprimanded by the amirs", and that "he was obliged to annually transfer money [to the sultan], as was the habit". 100 Meanwhile, the same theme of Cairo's sovereignty over Yemen appeared in the narrative following that of al-Muzaffar Yūsuf and dedicated to his Egyptian contemporary, sultan al-Zāhir Baybars, in the format of the story of a letter sent by Baybars reproaching Yūsuf for falling short of his leadership duties and urging him to follow in Baybars' pilgriming and warring footsteps:

I have composed [this letter] from glorious Mecca, which I have travelled to in seventeen steps' [...] 'the ruler is he who performs for God the duty of his $\check{g}ih\bar{a}d$, and who exerts himself in defending the territory of Islam. If I were a ruler, I would go out and confront the Mongols!¹⁰¹

⁹⁸ See below, § 125.

⁹⁹ See below, §§ 141, 143.

¹⁰⁰ See below, §§ 147, 161, 212–216.

¹⁰¹ See below, § 175.

Egypt's sovereignty over Yemen (and thus also over other similar polities) emerges from all these story lines and recurrent statements not just as historically qualified since at least the early eleventh century, but also as morally defined, and therefore as the only proper way of cultivating the relationship between Cairo sultan and Rasūlid ruler into the early fifteenth century. In the al-Muẓaffar Yūsuf narrative this idea of Egypt's regional sovereignty is indeed brought up to al-Maqrīzī's own time, by the explanation that "the sermon [...] continued to be delivered from the *minbar* of Mecca in the name of the rulers of Yemen until our own days, [but then nowadays only] after the sermon [is delivered] in the name of the sultan of Egypt'. 102

It is al-Magrīzī's construction of chapters rather than that of the tarǧamahlike narratives within them, however, that endowed the text with what may be considered its most particular, imminent, and programmatic meanings. It was already explained before that some of the most remarkable moments at the extremes of the text's two main chapters—the powerless caliph al-Ḥākim, the revolutionary 'Alī l-Şulayhī, and the doomed al-Ašraf Ša'bān—bespeak the idea of a rise, decline, and fall, as manifested in the caliphal line, and then again in the non-caliphal line of Muslim rulers and their multiple engagements with pilgrimage. As suggested, the separate and very differently constructed prophetic chapter then reminds in many ways of the prevalent idea in Sunni Islam that the Prophet's example escapes from the particular historical logic of mankind and its rulers. Together with the other two chapters' internal logic of successive historical cycles of rise, decline, and fall a particular historical appeal is made by the author, not just to support a particular communal understanding of sacred history, but above all to promote a much more localised, political vision of past, present, and future. Against the background of the interlocking moralising themes of divine sovereignty, of the challenges of good Muslim rule, and of the realities of Egyptian sovereignty, the text was actually communicating in subtle and discursively grounded ways two powerful political ideas to its royal audiences that emerge in particular from situating their reproduction within the larger socio-cultural and ideological contexts that made them meaningful.

These ideas appear above all in the remarkable, anticlimactic, and therefore surprising ways by which chapters two and three end, with the defunct authority of the 'Abbāsid caliph of Cairo, al-Ḥākim, and with the violent murder of sultan Ša'bān in $D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah 778/March 1377 respectively. As mentioned before, the former issue of defunct caliphal authority was extended to al-

¹⁰² See below, §160.

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Magrīzī's own time at the very end of the al-Hākim narrative, and thus of the entire caliphal chapter, when the text explains not just that "until today" the authority of the 'Abbasid caliph of Cairo was never accepted in Mecca, but also that one exception to this general picture had to be made "for the caliph al-Musta'īn bi-llāh Abū l-Fadl al-'Abbās b. Muhammad, [in whose name the Meccan Friday sermon was delivered for a few days in the year 815 [1412-1413]."103 As was undoubtedly still fresh in the memories of al-Maqrīzī's readers it had not been al-Musta'īn's caliphal authority that had thus been acknowledged in 1412, but rather the authority of the sultanate of Cairo, which the caliph had briefly been made to occupy at that time, smoothening the disruptive and violent transition between the public execution of sultan al-Nāṣir Faraǧ (r. 801–815/1399–1412) and the accession of the emerging new strong man Šayh al-Maḥmūdī (r. 815-824/1412-1421). In this peculiar reference's closing combination with the cyclical nature of the caliphal chapter—including also al-Maqrīzī's explicit statement that the soundness of the lineage of al-Musta'īn's ancestor al-Hakim remained debated—the transition from the caliphate to non-caliphal rule is legitimated, not just in the author's construction of the text, but also in his consideration of Muslim history's moral order in general.¹⁰⁴ In fact, what al-Maqrīzī seems to suggest through the balanced double chapter structure of 13 caliphs and then 13 non-caliphal rulers is that as far as good Muslim rule is concerned the rulers of his days inhabit the same universe as the caliphs of old did. By taking this stance the author was actually tapping into a local ideological discourse on the relationship between caliphate and sultanate that remained much debated, that was highly accommodating to Syro-Egyptian political circumstances, and that had been promulgated most explicitly by towering scholars such as the early fourteenth-century Šāfi'ī chief judge Ibn Ğamā'ah (d. 733/1333) and al-Maqrīzī's own teacher Ibn Ḥaldūn (d. 808/1406).¹⁰⁵ Participants to this powerful discourse claimed that over time the divinely ordained political role of the caliphs to lead Muslims in accordance with God's will had indeed been taken over by other local rulers, or, as Ibn Ḥaldūn formulated it when discussing the conditions of the caliphate,

¹⁰³ See below, § 110.

¹⁰⁴ If Šayḫ was the text's original dedicatee, as was put forward as a hypothesis in the preceding chapter, it may even be read as also directly underscoring, via this set-up of its chapters, the particular transition from al-Musta'īn the caliph to Šayḫ the non-caliphal ruler in 815/1412.

For more details and relevant references, see especially Hirschler (2006): 109–113; "Khalīfa. (ii) in political theory", in EI² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/khalifa-COM_0486).

we consider it a [necessary] condition for the person in charge of the affairs of the Muslims that he belong to the people who possess a strong group feeling, superior to that of their contemporaries, so that they can force the others to follow them and the whole thing can be united for effective protection. [...] Qurashite [= including 'Abbāsid] [group feeling] was all-comprehensive, since the mission of Islam, which the Quraysh represented, was all-comprehensive, and the group feeling of the Arabs was adequate to that mission. Therefore, [the Arabs] overpowered all the other nations. At the present time, however, each nation has people of its own who represent the superior group feeling [there]. ¹⁰⁶

This pragmatic idea of the demise of the caliphate and its replacement or absorption by more localised rulers such as the sultans of Cairo and, related to that, of the appropriation of local power itself as sufficient to provide legitimacy, 107 is then also clearly propagated through the general authorial construction of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* in three chapters that consider Prophet and caliphal and non-caliphal rulers on an equal footing of legitimate Muslim leadership. 108 It appears as an overarching organisational mechanism rather than as an explicitly formulated ideological stance, first and foremost, but it never-

¹⁰⁶ Ibn Ḥaldūn, *al-Muqaddimah*, 1: 401 (Chapter III/24: 'The differences of Muslim opinion concerning the laws and conditions governing the caliphate').

For this particular phrasing, referring to Ibn Ğamā'ah's ideas as formulated in his advice text <code>Taḥrīr</code> <code>al-aḥkām</code> <code>fī</code> <code>tadbīr</code> <code>ahl</code> <code>al-islām</code>, see Hirschler (2006): 111: "The sultan took the caliph's position, or, more precisely the sultanate absorbed the caliphate. The sultanate was now directly subordinate to God without the intermediary position of the caliph. Most importantly, Ibn Jamā'a argued that the seizure of power itself was sufficient to detain legitimate authority."

The idea, dominant in Sunni circles of relevant scholarship, that any ruler, even an unjust one, is better than rebellion, discord, and *fitnah* in the community, may then also explain al-Maqrīzī's rather unproblematic inclusion in his list of legitimate Muslim rulers of some characters that were apparently lacking in proper Muslim conduct, such as al-Masʿūd Yūsuf (n° 5) (see Crone [2004]: 255–256). It needs to be noted here, however, that this sub-text of the legitimacy of post-caliphal rule in *al-Dahab al-masbūk* squarely contradicts Bauden's suggestion, derived from his preliminary study of the *al-Sulūk*, the *Imtāʿal-asmāʿ* and *al-Ḥabar ʿan al-bašar*, that "it is also possible to infer here an expression of the wish that the Arabs should be the holders of power and that the caliph, who should come from the family of the Prophet (the Banū Hāshim), should regain his rightful power" (Bauden [2014]: 184); given the fact that the production of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* seems to predate these three works, this difference may well suggest that throughout the 1420s and '30s there occurred a radical shift in al-Maqrīzī's thinking about political legitimacy.

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theless clearly positions the text within this particular political discourse that explained and underscored the Cairo sultanate and its political order from the perspective of its main religious communities.

Finally, this propagation of the end of the caliphate closing chapter two and, more generally again, the balanced cyclical chronological construction of both chapters suggest that the end of chapter three, with its rebellion against and murder of a Muslim ruler, is similarly pitched as the end of an era, and thus that the post-778/1377 time of writing al-Dahab al-masbūk belonged to another era at which a new cycle was unfolding. Of course, nowhere in the actual text is this idea really explicitly formulated, and it may even have been an unintentional consequence of the author's infusion of the text's many complex narratives with codified historical material. But this textual construction's coinciding with a turn of the century that was a time of personal, political, and socioeconomic crises for the author and his audiences alike—as also reminded by the reference to al-Musta in's unorthodox tenure of the sultanate in 815/1412 at least suggests that the readership of al-Dahab al-masbūk may have been highly susceptible to ideas of causality through moral decay (that is, rebellion and murder in 778/1377), of restoration of good and legitimate Muslim rule, and of revival of Egyptian sovereignty that may also be read between the booklet's many lines.¹⁰⁹ In the specific context of the royal patronage relationship that the text mediated, generating that reversed hierarchy of the knowledgeable author and his susceptible audiences, it makes a lot of sense then to consider al-Dahab al-masbūk as participating not just in a more passive tradition of

¹⁰⁹ These ideas of moral decay, its causality, and its resolution by the restoration of a traditional order certainly also emerge as important themes in some of al-Maqrīzī's other texts, such as in the Iġātat al-ummah (See Meloy [2003b]: 188-197), and in the ongoing project of his grand history of Egypt, the Kitāb al-Sulūk, where the account of the event that ended al-Dahab al-masbūk, the murder of al-Ašraf Ša'bān, was actually concluded with a remarkable personal comment that reveals how al-Maqrīzī indeed considered this a matrix moment in recent social and political history, a beginning of the end, related to the collapse of proper social order and political hierarchy that followed from the sudden collapse of al-Ašraf Ša'bān's rule: "There occurred a rise of the lowest (irtifā' al-asāfil) which was such that there is a lesson to be learned from it for those who care to contemplate such matters (mā fīhi 'ibrah li-man i'tabara). The junior mamlūks (al-mamālīk al-aǧlāb), who only yesterday had been too trivial to be noticed (agall al-madkūr), but [who] then pursued a path of murder, eviction, and all kinds of torture, became rulers (mulūk) for whom the fruits from everything were collected and who reigned over the realms of the land as they saw fit. From then onwards, the region's situation changed because of its people's transformation (wa-min hīna'id taġayyarat ahwāl al-bilād bi-taġayyur ahlihā)" (al-Maqrīzī, al-Sulūk, 3:289).

history-writing to explain a political present, but also in another ancient literary tradition of pursuing an impact in that political present by offering advice to the ruler. 110

The themes of legitimate and good Muslim rule in general and of the Egyptian sultanate's supremacy in particular, set within a wider theme of acknowledging divine sovereignty, certainly obtain a coherence, relevance, and deeper meaning when viewed from this contextualised 'advice-to-rulers' perspective. The cure that al-Magrīzī then suggests to his readership to overcome their present predicaments is that of a moral political programme of connecting again with the line that had begun with the Prophet, that had been furthered by the caliphs first and then, for better or worse, by a series of non-caliphal rulers, and that had materialised in—among many other things—their continued physical and symbolic leadership of the pilgrimage to Mecca.¹¹¹ In the text, this historical line actually culminated in the reign and political morality of the sultans of Cairo, a process that, as mentioned above, was already announced in the first prophetic chapter's sudden ending with an explicit reference to sultan Baybars stepping in the Prophet's foundational footsteps. There is then a complexity of meanings that are reproduced and communicated by al-Dahab al-masbūk, some undoubtedly more intentionally constructed by its author than others, and some more readily acceptable to its audiences than others. But they all seem to converge in these prophetic footsteps, or perhaps even more in the vexed political road of legitimate, sovereign, and good Muslim leadership along which these prophetic footsteps were meant to be leading.

¹¹⁰ For a parallel interpretation of al-Maqrīzī's *Iġāṭat al-ummah* and his *Šuḍūr al-'uqūd* as advice-for-rulers texts, see Meloy (2003b): 186–187, and Broadbridge (2003): 238–239. This would also help to explain the afore-mentioned textual relationship that is suggested by *al-Dahab al-masbūk's* title with advice texts attributed to Ibn al-Ğawzī and to al-Ġazālī.

¹¹¹ Al-Dahab al-masbūk actually communicates, seen from this advisory perspective, a politico-religious programme that nicely pairs with and complements the economic agenda of similarly constructed texts such as the *lġāṭat al-ummah* and, especially, the potentially more contemporary *Shuḍūr al-'uqūd*, summarised by John Meloy as follows: "For al-Maqrīzī, sound economics then was based on the excellences of predecessors, which required a review of previous monetary exempla. By using the notion of such *faḍāʾil* to present his case, al-Maqrīzī in effect composed in the *Shudhūr* a monetary mirror for princes. As with the other branches of Islamic statecraft, such knowledge required a grounding in the excellent examples of predecessors. History in the *Shudhūr* comes across clearly as a didactic subject and its role here was to provide advice for sound economic policy." (Meloy [2003b]: 197–198).

Production, Reproduction, and Consumption: al-Dahab al-masbūk's Life and Times (Fifteenth – Twentieth Centuries)

 $Al ext{-}Dahab\ al ext{-}masbar{u}k$ is an extremely complex text, made up of many layers that were not just defined by its internal construction and meanings but also by its social history as a cultural product that went through many different hands, from its author's and copyists' to its readers' and users'. It is in this materiality of production, reproduction, and consumption that the intricate textual structures and semiotics of $al ext{-}Dahab\ al ext{-}masbar{u}k$ and the rich socio-cultural contexts within which it existed connected, interacted, and engaged with each other. It is there that a text such as $al ext{-}Dahab\ al ext{-}masbar{u}k$ acquired, and re-acquired time and again, its value and that it lived its complex social life, from its inception in the fifteenth century until its study, re-edition, and translation some six centuries later.

1 Producing al-Dahab al-masbūk (821–841/1418–1438)

Some scholars, such as the booklet's first modern editor Ğamāl al-Dīn al-Šayyāl and then also its more recent editor Karam Ḥilmī Faraḥāt, claimed that $al\text{-}Dahab\ al\text{-}masb\bar{u}k$ was written in Dū l-Qa'dah 841/May 1438.¹ As explained before, this assumption is actually the result of a misinterpretation of the reference to this date in the colophons of the two oldest extant manuscript versions of the text. In Ms Escorial árabe 1771 (E)—a codex dated to the sixteenth century and containing a copy of two of al-Maqrīzī's shorter treatises (see below)—the colophon on fol. 75^b explains that this copy

"was written down from an original [that was] handwritten by its composer; its author—may God have mercy upon him—said:

¹ Al-Šayyāl (1955): 24–26; Id. (2000): 25–27; Faraḥāt (2009): 27–29. See also al-Šayyāl (1971): 27; *GAL*, 2:50.

It was corrected by me—its author Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Maqrīzī—to the best of [my] abilities, so that it is correct, in Dū l-Qa'dah of the year 841"

Kutiba min aşl bi-haṭṭ muşannifihi qāla muʾallifuhu raḥimahu llāh ḥarrar-tuhu ǧuhd al-qudrah fa-ṣaḥḥa muʾallifuhu Aḥmad b. ʿAlī l-Maqrīzī fī Dī l-Qaʿdah sanat 841.²

In MS Leiden Universiteitsbibliotheek Or. 560 (L)—a fifteenth-century codex mainly containing twenty shorter texts and notes on a variety of subjects by al-Maqr $\bar{z}z\bar{i}$ (see below)—the colophon on fol. 135 r similarly states that

"It was corrected to the best of [his] abilities by its author Aḥmad b. ʿAlī l-Maqrīzī, so that it is correct, in Dū l-Qaʿdah of the year 841"

Ḥarrarahu ǧuhd al-qudrah fa-ṣaḥḥa muʾallifuhu Aḥmad b. ʿAlī l-Maqrīzī fī Dī l-Qaʿdah sanat 841.³

These colophons—added in the latter case by al-Maqrīzī himself—clearly suggest that L was actually the "original [that was] handwritten by its composer" in 841/1438 from which E was then copied about a century or more later. Just as several colophons of other texts in L (and various other features) equally explain (see below), these colophons confirm above all the key status of L as an autograph manuscript for the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk, created by a professional copyist who had probably been hired for the task by al-Maqrīzī, and copy-edited in Dū l-Qa'dah 841/May 1438 by the author himself. What these colophons finally also clarify, however, is that there must have been an earlier holograph draft of the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk for the copyist to produce his copy from and for al-Maqrīzī to collate that copy with. As the author complained in another colophon elsewhere in the manuscript, the copying of this and of all other texts in this codex turned out to have been poorly done, requiring a lot of editorial work, which in different colophons and revision notes al-Maqrīzī explicitly claimed to have carried out between Ramaḍān 841/February-March 1438 and Muharram 842/June-July 1438. As suggested before, the date of Dū l-Qa'dah 841/May 1438 can therefore have been no more than a terminus ante quem for the actual production of the text of al-Dahab

² Ms. Escorial árabe 1771, fol. 75b.

³ Ms. Leiden Universiteitsbibliotheek Or. 560, fol. 135a.

al-masbūk and for its draft from which the copy in L was produced in particular. It has furthermore been suggested that the copyist of L did his work some time earlier, between al-Maqrīzī's known completion in the course of the second half of the year 840/the first half of 1437 of another text that was copied into L, and the start of his editorial activities in Ramaḍān 841/February—March 1438. The terminus ante quem for the production of this now lost holograph draft of al-Dahab al-masbūk should therefore be slightly moved further back in time, to the beginning of 841/mid-1437, when the copying of L seems to have started, at the very latest.⁴

In the preceding chapters of this study I developed the argument that al-Maqrīzī actually may have produced a first version of the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* already in 821/1418, when the sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayḥ intended to perform the pilgrimage and when the complex construction of the text around the theme of legitimate, sovereign, and good Muslim leadership made a lot of sense. The premature abortion of the sultan's pilgrimage plans may have resulted in the parallel abortion of al-Maqrīzī's plans, leaving the text at the draft stage of its production. This may then have been the same holograph draft that was eventually brought to some proper use when al-Maqrīzī in the early 840s/the second half of the 1430s decided that there were good reasons to collect and publish in one single codex most of the shorter literary works that he had written in the course of the 810s/1410s, '20s and '30s.

It can however also be suggested that before this reproduction in L the history of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* may have been a bit more complex than that. Dedicated to a ruler such as, perhaps, sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayḫ, with powerful didactic and moral as well as very personal socio-cultural objectives in mind, the titles and epithets that were explicitly used in the introduction to identify

⁴ A similar suggestion for the staged production process of another one of the different texts in L has recently been formulated by Fabian Käs (al-Maqrīzī, *al-Maqāṣid al-saniyyah*, 4, 7; referring also to Dozy [1847–1851]: 17–27, esp. 18); the suggestion of the author's production of a pre-publication draft copy conforms also with al-Maqrīzī's general working method as that has been reconstructed by Frédéric Bauden (Bauden [2008]). L is described and analysed in the fullest detail in Bauden [2017] (I am grateful to F. Bauden for providing me with a draft copy of relevant parts of this forthcoming publication); the codicological presentation and analysis in the current volume of the *Bibliotheca maqriziana* will therefore remain limited to a minimum that is relevant for the present study, as informed by Bauden's study. For the suggested dating of the copying and correction of L, see Bauden (who demonstrates that the copyist had a draft of all of al-Maqrīzī's texts available when he started his copying work) and al-Maqrīzī, *Daw' al-sārī*, 38–39, 47–49 (where it is demonstrated by Frenkel that the work on *Daw' al-sārī li-ma'rifat ḥabar Tamīm al-Dārī* must have started in Raǧab 84o/January 1437).

the dedicatee as a patron and the text as a mediator in a particular authorpatron relationship stand out as remarkably generic. "The noble lord" (almagarr al-maḥdūm), "the high-born intention" (al-ʿazm al-šarīf), and their like appear as surprisingly neutral signifiers of intended audience for a text that is otherwise extremely explicit in very subtle ways about any other aspect of the communicative relationship that it was meant to mediate. In line with a wider literary practice to functionally adjust dedications in the reproduction of texts, it may therefore well be that the draft that was used to copy L from was only a neutralised later version of the original 821/1418 draft. In the latter, original draft the dedicatee would have been explicitly identified in a full and flowery style that was the only correct way to represent a sultan's high social status as well as the hierarchical relationship between such a patron and the text's author. At some point between 821/1418 and the late 840s/mid-1430s perhaps even, as suggested above, at the occasion of the pilgrimage in 834/1431 of sultan al-Ašraf Barsbāy's wife Ğulbān al-Hindī and her family—a new, more generic version of the text must then have been produced by al-Maqrīzī. In this hypothetical textual scenario, the revision of at least parts of the introduction actually redirected the text and its meanings from the very particular context and relationships of 821/1418 to a more general—or certainly more flexible and accommodating to ever changing circumstances—level of communication, performance, and author-audience interaction. This transformation also made the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk more fit for wider publication, as seems to have been the intention when this allegedly second version of the text became the draft from which the copy in L was made.5

Manuscript L, produced between early 841/mid-1437 and early 842/mid-1438 by an anonymous copyist and then by Aḥmad b. 'Alī l-Maqrīzī himself, consists of a codex with 205 leaves of oriental laid paper. It entered the library of Leiden University already in 1668, as part of a uniquely rich collection

This practice of producing two versions of a text, one explicitly dedicated and the other rewritten in more generic and publishable terms, has been identified as a common socioliterary tradition by Thomas Bauer (Bauer [2013a]: 26–29.) For the particular case of al-Maqrīzī's texts and their reproduction in 841/1438, John Meloy also notes similar corrections to the introduction of the text of the Šudūr al-'uqūd (Meloy [2003b]: 197, fn. 54: "Note that some of the manuscripts of the Šudūr include the name of al-Mu'ayyad Shaykh: 'Inspire our master the sultan [al-Mu'ayyad Šayḫ] with the ...,' while others simply state 'the sultan'. But there is ambiguity to the imperative appeals to 'Our master the sultan,' which suggests that perhaps al-Maqrīzī's corrections to the text in Ramaḍān 841 [February–March 1438] eliminated these so that the text could be used as an appeal to Barsbāy's successor. Barsbāy fell ill in Ša'bān 841 and died by the end of the year.").

of Oriental manuscripts bequeathed to his alma mater by a Dutch scholar, merchant, and diplomat to the sultan of Istanbul, Levinus Warner (1619–1665). Nothing much seems to be known of the manuscript's whereabouts between the mid-fifteenth and the mid-seventeenth centuries. Most of the different texts in L, including al-Dahab al-masbūk, were copied in the same clear and legible nash handwriting, using the same creamy paper, text frame, mistarah or ruling board of 25 lines per page, black carbon ink, and red ink for specific text markers. The current binding of the text is a European one, done after the arrival of the manuscript in Leiden. It has been demonstrated that in the course of this (or an earlier) binding a rearrangement of the different texts of the manuscript occurred, for unknown reasons. The copied text of al-Dahab al $masb\bar{u}k$, occupying 34 pages (fol. 115^b–135^a, minus fols. 122, 123, 126 [see below]), therefore is currently number fourteen of the collection, whereas originally it had been copied by the copyist as one of the last texts of the codex. In both bindings it immediately follows al-Maqrīzī's treatise on the family of the Prophet, *Ma'rifat mā yağib li-āl al-bayt min al-ḥaqq*, and in the original set up it was followed by al-Magrīzī's history of the Ka'bah, al-Išārah wa-l-i'lām bi-binā' al-ka'bah al-bayt al-harām. In the current binding the first page of al-Dahab al-masbūk is on the verso of the last leaf of the preceding text, the Ma'rifat (fol. 115). The verso of the final leaf of al-Dahab al-masbūk itself was left blank. The latter physically separating arrangement of beginning a new text's copy on a new separate leaf actually seems to have been the copyist's standard practice, and al-Dahab al-masbūk's copy starting on another text's verso really stands out as unusual in the manuscript. The reason for this is that when correcting the preceding text of the *Ma'rifat* al-Magrīzī decided to make substantial final additions, for which he eventually also had to use a slip of paper that was inserted after fol. 114 in the manuscript, and that was eventually pasted on the recto of fol. 115. Originally, however, this fol. 115 had indeed been reserved for copying al-Dahab al-masbūk only.6

These general features of the copyist's writing practices, as applied between mid-840/early 1437 and mid-841/early 1438, created a physically coherent, uniform, and polished outlook for these copies of al-Maqrīzī's different texts throughout this single codex. All that was left for the author himself to do was to complete the titles of some texts, to emend any inevitable copying errors, and to add colophons and correction notes confirming and closing this process of careful and authoritative preparation for publication. This was all

⁶ For this codicological information and for further detailed analyses and discussions, see Bauden (2017).

done by al-Magrīzī between Ramadān 841/February-March 1438 and Muharram 842/June-July 1438, the chronological order of his authorial proofreading as documented in the different colophons diligently following the original arrangement of text copies in L. The copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk was thus identified as one of the five text copies in L that were collated and re-appropriated by their author in Dū l-Qa'dah 841/April-May 1438. However, as just explained, the recto of this particular copy's first leaf, which in the case of other texts in L was consistently used for the addition of title and authorship details, is no longer visible. Another later user or owner (perhaps Muhammad al-Muzaffarī, one of L's first owners after al-Magrīzī, according to a note on L's title page) therefore briefly added details of title and author on the text's actual first page, currently fol. 115^b, above the first line of the *mistarah*. As in many other copies, on this first line, left blank on purpose by the copyist, a typical opening basmalah invocation was added in a carefully executed, ornate, and vowelled version of al-Magrīzī's own peculiar handwriting ("In the name of God, the Merciful, the Compassionate. My Lord, ease [my task], o Noble One"). Just as in the other copies of texts in L al-Maqrīzī then also collated the copyist's version of the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk, making more than 200 textual corrections and providing more than 100 additions of words or phrases, in both cases apparently making up for at least part of the copy's large number of scribal errors, omissions, or inaccuracies. As detailed above an appropriate authorial colophon was eventually also added at the end of the text, on the last line of the *mistarah* of fol. 135r—again left blank on purpose by the copyist—, explaining to anyone consulting L the particular status of this copy, as corrected and authenticated by its author.

As a collection of at least sixteen of al-Maqrīzī's texts, all made uniform, polished, and upgraded, L was thus fully prepared and finalised by the author for disclosure to a wider readership in early 842/the summer of 1438. This entire

⁷ In the introduction of the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* al-Maqrīzī only identifies this text with the short title of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* ("I entitled it 'The Moulded Gold' [...]", see below, § 4, L fol. 115b), rather than with the longer twofold title that was added to the top of fol. 115b of L ('The Gold Moulded in the Format of the Report of Those Caliphs and Kings Who Performed the *Ḥaǧǧ*'), that made its appearance in this same passage in the introduction in later manuscript copies of the text ("I entitled it 'The Gold Moulded in the Format of the Report of Those Caliphs and Kings Who Performed the *Ḥaǧǧ*", see e.g. Y fol. 27^a), and by which the text is generally known today. It remains therefore unclear to what extent *al-Dahab al-masbūk* fī dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḥulaŷā' wa-l-mulūk was indeed the title that al-Maqrīzī had intended for this text (see also chapter 2, fn. 13, for different references to this text's title from the fifteenth century onwards).

complex process of many months of copying and editing therefore indeed cannot have been anything less than the carefully planned publication by the author of a consciously constructed, unified collection of a range of different shorter texts of his. In this publication project, however, the forms, functions, and meanings of these individual texts—including those of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$ —were radically re-imagined and re-directed from the varied particular contexts, which had defined the production of each, to a very different setting, in which it was their combination and relative arrangement rather than their particularity that was considered most meaningful by al-Maqrīzī. Those transformed forms, functions, and meanings that made for L transcend the particularity of any of these individual texts, including that of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$, and can therefore only be accounted for in their joint study as full and complementary partners in the particular communicative act that, in early 842/the summer of 1438, gave shape to L.8

L, however, does not just consist of 205 leaves with clearly produced and critically annotated text. Fifteen slips of paper of different sizes, types, and qualities were also inserted at various locations throughout the manuscript. They all bear varying numbers of irregular lines of text, and they were all written—or rather scribbled—in black ink in al-Magrīzī's own cursive and difficult to read handwriting. These inserts all contain additions by al-Magrīzī that were apparently too large or too extensive to be put in the margins of the copyist's text. In the case of the copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk three inserts were added by al-Maqrīzī (fols. 122, 123, and 126), leaving reference marks (signesde-renvoi) in the text at the exact places where these inserted texts should be added. At some point in the history of L-most probably at the moment of rebinding—these three inserts were actually misplaced so that the connection between them and the original copy was lost. 9 Most importantly, it remains unclear whether these inserts were produced during al-Maqrīzī's revision work between Ramadan 841/February-March 1438 and Muharram 842/June-July 1438 or whether they were later additions. 10 Whatever may have been the case, the three inserts (fols. 122, 123, 126) that he added in L to this copy of the text

⁸ For further detailed analyses and discussions, see Bauden (2017). For the original list and arrangement of al-Maqrīzī's opuscula, and for the chronology of his work on L, see also al-Maqrīzī, *al-Maqāṣid al-saniyyah*, 8–9.

⁹ The text of 19 and 13 lines on fol. 126 is an addition that was marked for insertion in the copy on fol. 121^b; the proper order of fols. 122 and 123 was even reversed and their text, starting on fol. 123^b and ending on fol. 122^a and written in 16, 15, 16, and 10 lines respectively, was marked for insertion on fol. 125^b.

¹⁰ For further detailed analyses and discussion of these inserts, see Bauden (2017).

of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* were definitely more than mere authorial emendations in the proofreading process. To a certain extent these notes actually produced a new version of that same text that al-Maqrīzī may have first written in very different circumstances twenty years earlier, that in the same scenario must have been revised a first time before early 841/mid-1437, and that had been meant to be finally published as part of this larger collection in early 842/mid-1438. These inserted notes now added a handful of new stories to the original text, suggesting indeed that they were most probably only inserted some time after al-Maqrīzī's collation of the copy with his draft of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* in Dū l-Qa'dah 841/May 1438. They seem to confirm also that by that later time L indeed continued in its entirety to be revised by him, as though a work-in-progress consisting of this unique selection, combination, and collection of his texts, to which notes from various sources could still be added.

In the case of al-Dahab al-masbūk, such notes were added at the end of two caliphal narratives, the one of al-Manşūr and the other of al-Rašīd. Both narratives had been brought to a perfect structural close in the earlier draft, ending with the story of the death and burial of al-Manşūr en route to Mecca and with the story of the mythical riches and benevolence of al-Rašīd after that of his last pilgrimage, respectively. In the latter case, apart from inserting a reference mark al-Maqrīzī made no real attempt at creating any explicit structural connection between this old text and the new addition. He simply began the added text on the insert with the statement that "among the qualities (faḍāʾil) of al-Rašīd, there was what the great transmitter Abū Nuʿaym selected in the *Kitāb al-Ḥilyah*." This introduction of the nature and source of this piece of text was then followed by a word-by-word reproduction of two versions of the same story from Abū Nu'aym al-Isfahānī's work. In the former case of the al-Manşūr narrative, a more explicit connection was made, at least physically, when the last line of the original version of the narrative was erased and replaced by a new line of text in al-Maqrīzī's own handwriting, making an introductory statement similar to the one for al-Rašīd that "among the unusual things $(bad\bar{t})$ that were told about him, [there was the following:] When he had performed the pilgrimage and was about to reach the Prophet's Medina". This introduction and first line of the newly inserted text was then again followed by a mark referring to the inserted slip, where the text simply continues with three stories about the caliph's encounters with the Medinan judge Muḥammad b. Imrān.11

¹¹ See below §§ 68-70, 97-107 for these passages in the text, and fols. $121^b + 126$ (al-Manṣūr) and fols. $125^a + 123-122$ (al-Rašīd) of L.

To sum up, the argument about the production history of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* that has been developed here on the basis of material remains, textual and paratextual characteristics, and historical contexts suggests that al-Maqrīzī produced at least three different versions of his text: one in 821/1418, a second one before early 841/mid-1437, and the third one after early 842/mid-1438. It also suggests that at least on two occasions, in 821/1418 and in 841–842/1438, al-Maqrīzī saw good reason to try and publish a final, polished version of the text. It is finally also argued that the 841–842/1438 publication project substantially changed *al-Dahab al-masbūk*'s function and meaning due to that project's ambitious nature of collecting and combining more than a dozen different texts in one coherent whole, perhaps meant above all to transmit as well as to speak of al-Maqrīzī's achievements after a lifelong career of scholarship.

L undoubtedly represents an important if not crucial material node in this complex web of versions, drafts, and publication projects. It began its life as the object of al-Magrīzī's ambitious publication project in the final months of sultan Barsbāy's reign, and it contains as a consequence an emended and authenticated copy of the second version of al-Dahab al-masbūk. But it soon transformed again when the author continued to make revisions, so that it also contains yet another version of the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk, and perhaps even of some of the other texts too. The latter fact of al-Maqrīzī's continued work on different texts in L (with a potentially negative impact on the legibility of the text, as appears from the eventually wrong arrangements of the three inserts in this copy of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$) suggests that between mid-842/late 1438 and his death about three years later, in Ramadan 845/February 1442, the possibility should not be ruled out that the publication of another fine version of this collection of texts was at least considered. It may of course well be that the changed arrangement of texts in later manuscript versions of this collection no longer had anything to do with al-Maqrīzī's editorial work. It may also well be that the faithful and correct reproduction of the very latest version of the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk—including, without any notice and in their proper place, the texts from the three inserts—in each one of these later manuscripts was entirely due to later scribes' diligent and careful copying from L. But it is certainly also possible that that changed arrangement and correct and full reproduction sprang from a final published and now lost version of the collection that was made from the revised L shortly before al-Maqr \bar{z} r's death. 12

A similar possibility of the author's drafting of a final post-L version is briefly referred to as an equally hypothetical option for al-Maqrīzī's *al-Maqāṣid al-saniyyah* by Käs ("unklar ob weitere Korrektur je durchgeführt—keine Belege") (al-Maqrīzī, *al-Maqāṣid al-saniyyah*, 6).

2 Reproducing *al-Dahab al-masbūk* (Sixteenth – Twentieth Centuries)

Al-Magrīzī's conscious production of L in the course of 841/1437-1438 and beyond created a different, new work of literature in his scholarly portfolio, which would prove much larger than the sum of its individual constituents. At least as far as the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* is concerned, the importance of this transformation is suggested by the fact that no separate copies of it have been preserved. In the manuscript reproduction of al-Magrīzī's work texts such as this one were mainly considered relevant, interesting, or meaningful in their combination with other shorter texts by the same author, in the tradition that was established by al-Maqrīzī himself with his production of L. It is therefore only in the comprehensive study of these different extant collections of al-Magrīzī's shorter texts that that history of textual reproduction, stretching between the sixteenth and nineteenth centuries, can be fully accounted for. This study's necessary focus on the manuscript reproduction of one of these texts only, al-Dahab al-masbūk, is by default distorted, can only purport to contribute to lifting a small tip of a much larger and far more complex veil, and will as a result be of a restricted nature only.13

Today there are—apart from L—nine more extant and known manuscripts that have preserved a copy of the text of al- $\underline{D}ahab\ al$ - $masb\bar{u}k$ in their collection of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts. ¹⁴ Three of these are fragmentary remnants of such collections, having preserved in their current status two or three of such texts only. The others all tend to follow more or less, with recurrent exceptions, the selection of texts that was already made in L, even though none adopted these texts' original arrangement from L. A collation of the different copies of al- $\underline{D}ahab\ al$ - $masb\bar{u}k$ in these manuscripts enables the preliminary reconstruction of a rudimentary $stemma\ codicum\ that$ —with the caveat of distorting partiality—will be presented below. But first, the material and paratextual features of these different manuscripts and of al- $\underline{D}ahab\ al$ - $masb\bar{u}k$'s copies in them will be briefly introduced in a chronological description. ¹⁵

For this history of manuscript reproduction from the only correct and full perspective of L, see Bauden (2017).

¹⁴ This full set of manuscripts containing a copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk has been identified by the editor of the series Bibliotheca maqriziana, Frédéric Bauden; I am grateful to him for sharing this information with me and for providing me with a high-resolution digital copy for each of these manuscripts.

¹⁵ For further details and references, see Bauden (2017); unless otherwise stated the information in this entire section has been taken from Bauden.

Madrid/San Lorenzo de el Escorial, Real Biblioteca del Monasterio, Ms Árabe 1771, fols. 22^{b} – 75^{b} [E] (Sixteenth Century?) Plates 1–2

E is a codex of 76 paper leaves, containing a copy of two of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts: Šudūr al-'ugūd fī dikr al-nugūd and al-Dahab al-masbūk. The texts are written in a careful *nash* by the same hand throughout the manuscript, applying a mistarah of 15 lines on each page. The copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk begins on the verso of fol. 22 and is reproduced on 53 leaves. These have no marginal notes, corrections, or any other addenda, apart from three cases only where words were added or completed that fell outside of the text frame (fols. 24a, 36a). The entire copy successfully and faithfully integrates into the text all the marginal, interlinear, and inserted corrections and additions that al-Maqrīzī had made in L. A full title page on fol. 2^r introduces the first text, but this is not the case for the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, which is only introduced by its title and by a brief reference to its author (*li-l-Magrīzī*) on the first four lines of the *mistarah* of its first page (fol. 22^b, plate 1). As explained above, a scribal colophon (fol. 75^b) explicitly identifies this manuscript as a direct copy from the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk in L, the authorial colophon of which was copied into this scribal colophon; it does not however provide any details about E's own origins (plate 2).

As a result of these characteristics the fragmentary manuscript E turns out to contain a very fair copy of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, which very closely resembles what that copy should have looked like in a final re-published version of L's collection of texts. Unfortunately, however, very little is known about E's own history. Fol. 1^r contains several different Arabic and Persian notes, but they appear as aphorisms rather than as any more revealing statements. Another note added to the left top corner of fol. 2^r is more useful as it makes the following statement in clear Maghribi script:

Glory to God.

It was in the possession of the servant of God the Exalted, Zaydān, the Commander of the Faithful.

son of Aḥmad al-Manṣūr, the Commander of the Faithful, al-Ḥasanī, may God grant him long life.

al-ḥamd li-llāh

tamallakahu 'abd Allāh ta'ālá Zaydān amīr al-mu'minīn

Ibn Aḥmad al-Manṣūr amīr al-muʾminīn al-Ḥasanī ḫallada llāh lahu

Mawlāy Zaydān al-Ḥasanī (r. 1016–1036/1608–1627) was a member of the Saʻdians, a Sharifian dynasty that ruled as sultans of Morocco from 961/1554 to c. 1070/1659. His ownership mark places E in early-seventeenth century Morocco, while the Arabic and Persian notes in Oriental scripts suggest that the manuscript had had a life in the East before arriving in Morocco. E was therefore most probably produced in the course of the sixteenth century, if not before. It undoubtedly ended up in Spain in the course of 1021/1612 already, as part of the 73 boxes of Arabic books that Zaydān is said to have sent ahead when he tried to leave Morocco in the face of rebellion and that were declared warbooty when intercepted by the Spanish. 16

b New Haven, Yale University, Beinecke Rare Book and Manuscript Library, MS Landberg 111, fols. 26^a-62^b [Y] (1018/1609) (Plates 3-5)

Y is a codex of 108 paper leaves, containing a copy of three of al-Magrīzī's shorter texts: Daw' al-sārī li-ma'rifat ḥabar Tamīm al-Dārī, al-Dahab al-masbūk and al-Nizā' wa-l-taḥāṣum fīmā bayna Banī Umayyah wa-Banī Hāšim. The text is written by the same hand throughout the manuscript, in what has been defined as a scholar's nash, making consistent use of a mistarah of 19 lines. The copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk begins on the recto of fol. 26 and it was reproduced on 39 paper leaves, 37 of which are still extant and in fairly good condition (there are two lacunae of one leaf between fols. 41-42 and 61-62). Again there are no marginal notes, corrections, or any other addenda in this copy of the text, apart from the different subtitles that were repeated by the copyist in the margins for easy reference, and apart from different notes and scribbles that were added by the manuscript's late-nineteenth-century owner. Apart from the introduction of a number of scribal errors (see below) the entire copy again stands for a rather faithful representation of al-Maqrīzī's last known version of the text. Y has furthermore preserved the first extant copy of a proper title page introducing the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* (fol. 26^a) (but unusually omitting the author's ism and nasab, only naming him as "Taqī l-Dīn al-Maqrīzī l-Šāfī'ī") (plate 3). A scribal colophon (fol. 62b) clarifies that this was actually one of five copies that had so far been made of this text by one and the same scribe, 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Mallāḥ, and that this one was done on 5 Ğumādá 11 1018/5 September 1609 (plate 5).17

^{16 &}quot;Sa'dids", in *EI*² (http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/sadids-SIM_6417).

Perhaps there is a direct link between this early-seventeenth-century reference to five copies being made of the text, and the afore-mentioned puzzling note in the entry for *al*-

This reproduction of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* again very closely resembles what the text should have looked like in a final re-published version of L's collection. It has indeed been established that the fragmentary Y with its three texts originally had been part of such a larger codex containing al-Magrīzī's texts, all produced by al-Mallāh in 1018/1609. Parallel scribal references in the colophons of the other extant text copies as well as one other remaining fragmentary manuscript (Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek, Ms Or. 3019, dated 20 Shawwāl 1017/27 January 1609 and explicitly identified in its colophon as "the fourth copy" prepared by 'Alī b. Muhammad al-Mallāh) confirm that Y was part of the fifth copy in a series of at least five full copies that had all been prepared by the same copyist. The colophon of the *Daw'* al-sārī on Y's fol. 25^b even claims that the copying of this and the other texts had happened from "a copy that has been emended in the author's handwriting (nushah muşahhahah bi-hatt mu'allifihā)". Al-Mallāh's early-seventeenth-century reproductions of al-Maqrīzī's collection of shorter works, including al-Dahab al*masbūk*, thus claimed an authoritative status that paralleled that of the copy to which E had once belonged. The son of this scribal entrepreneur, Yūsuf b. 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Mallāḥ, is furthermore identified by Bauden as the scribe of another fragment of al-Magrīzī's work (Riyadh, Maktabat Ğāmi'at al-Malik Sa'ūd, MS 2170). This manuscript's colophon states that it was produced at about the same time as his father's fifth copy (15 Ğumādá I 1018/16 August 1609). This fragment then was presumably also part of yet another copy of al-Maqrīzī's collection that was produced by Yūsuf in circumstances very similar to those defining his father's copies, suggesting that there may even have been more copies that were made at that time. The first decade of the seventeenth century and father and son al-Mallāḥ thus represent an important moment in the history of the reproduction of al-Maqrīzī's collection, from which obviously also the reproduction of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* benefited.

c Istanbul, Atıf Efendi Kütüphanesi, MS 2814, fols. 84^a–107^a [Ia] (1041/1632) (Plates 6–8)

Ia is a codex of 216 paper leaves, containing a copy of fifteen of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts, most of which are also to be found in L (but in a different order). The text is written by the same hand throughout the manuscript, in a *nash* script making consistent use of a *misṭarah* of 25 lines. The copy of *al-Dahab*

 $[\]underline{D}$ ahab al-masbūk in the Kašf al-zunūn by the Ottoman bibliographer Ḥāǧǧ̄ Ḥalīfah/Kātib Çelebī (1017–1067/1609–1657) that it was "a report involving 26 people ... in five volumes (fī ḥamsat aǧzā'), which [al-Maqrīzī] completed in \underline{D} ū l-Qa'dah of the year 841" (Kātib Çelebī, Kašf al-zunūn, 1:828; see also GAL, 2:50).

al-masb $\bar{u}k$ is the sixth text in this collection, preceded by Daw, al-s $\bar{a}r\bar{t}$ and followed by al-Nizā' wa-l-tahāsum, an arrangement that parallels that of the fragmentary Y. The text of al-Dahab al-masbūk begins on the recto of fol. 84 and it was reproduced on 24 leaves. Again there are no marginal notes, corrections, or any other addenda in this copy of the text, apart from the different titles that were—as in Y—repeated by the copyist in the margins for easy reference, and apart from one marginal note in another hand (fol. 87^a) that emends a scribal omission that was also present in Y (Y fol. 31^a1, Ia fol. 87^a17: *Lihb maksūr gabīlah* min qabā'il al-Azd; emended Ia fol. 87ª left margin: h Lihb bi-lām maksūrah fahā'sākinah gabīlah min gabā'il al-Azd; the original in L fol. 117^b15–16, E fol. 29^a14: Lihb maksūr al-lām qabīlah min qabā'il al-Azd). Apart from such scribal errors (see below) the entire copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk in Ia again represents a rather faithful representation of al-Magrīzī's last known version of the text. Just as in Y, Ia also begins with a proper title page introducing the text of al-Dahab almasbūk (fol. 84^r) and naming its author as "Taqī l-Dīn al-Maqrīzī l-Šāfi'ī" (plate 6). A scribal colophon (fol. 107^r) explains that the unnamed copyist finished his work "on Thursday 20th of the noble [Dū] l-Ḥiǧǧah", without however mentioning the year (plate 8). Following the colophon of the third text in this collection (Kitāb Naḥl 'ibar al-naḥl)—completed on "Tuesday 11th of the noble [Dū] l-Ḥigǧah of the months of the year 1041 of the prophetic higˇrah" (fol. 62b) this should refer to 20/12/1041, corresponding to Thursday 8 July 1632. For five texts (8 to 12) in this collection's copy in Ia an exact reproduction of authorial colophons from L preceded these scribal colophons, suggesting some link with the latter autograph. This explicit authorial reference was however not copied at the end of this copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk.

d Istanbul, Nuruosmaniye Kütüphanesi, M8 4937, fols. 145^a–186^a [In] (1085/1674) (Plates 9–11)

In is a codex of 363 paper leaves, also containing a copy of fifteen of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts in exactly the same order as they appear in the preceding Ia (and—presumably—in the original of Y). The text is written by the same hand throughout the manuscript, in a careful and conspicuous nasta'līq script making consistent use of a misṭarah of 17 lines. The copy of al-Dahab almasbūk is again the sixth text in this collection, preceded by Daw' al-sārī and followed by al-Nizā' wa-l-taḥāṣum. It begins on the recto of fol. 145 and it was reproduced on 42 leaves. There are no marginal notes, corrections, or any other addenda in this copy of the text (not even marginal titles), apart from one marginal note in another hand (fol. 158a: fī ǧamā'ah ṣaḥḥa) that corrects a scribal omission. Interestingly, the scribal omission that was also present in Ia and Y (Lihb maksūr qabīlah min qabā'il al-Azd) has also been reproduced

in In (fol. 150^a2-3). Apart from some more scribal errors (see below) the entire copy of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$ in In once again makes up a rather faithful representation of al-Maqrīzī's last known version of the text. Just as in Y and Ia, In also begins with a proper title page introducing the text of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$ (fol. 145^a) and naming its author as "Taqī l-Dīn al-Maqrīzī l-Šāfi'ī" (plate 9). The scribal colophon (fol. 186^a) only consists of a brief religious final formula, devoid of any paratextual data (plate 11). The more detailed scribal colophons of four other texts in this collection situate the production of In between 24 Ša'bān 1085/23 November 1674 and 4 Shawwāl 1085/1 January 1675. The scribal colophon of In's last text (Hall luġz al-ma') moreover identifies its copyist as one Abū l-Ṣalāḥ Muḥammad al-Ḥanafī, "known as al-Qaṭarī (al- $Sah\bar{u}r$ bi-l- $Qaṭar\bar{u}$)" (fol. 363^a). Similar to what was found in Ia, finally, in In, seven texts (8 to 14)—but not the copy of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$ —have an exact reproduction of authorial colophons from L preceding their scribal colophons.

e Istanbul, Beyazıt Devlet Kütüphanesi, MS Veliyüddin 3195, fols. 64^a-85^a [Iv] (1101/1690) (Plates 12-14)

Iv is a codex of 201 paper leaves, again containing a copy of the same fifteen shorter texts of al-Maqrīzī, but this time differently arranged from how these same texts appeared in Ia, In, and—presumably—Y. The text is written by the same hand throughout the manuscript, again in a careful and conspicuous nasta'līq script making consistent use of a mistarah of 25 lines. The copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk is now the fifth text in this collection and it is preceded by the Kitāb Naḥl 'ibar al-naḥl and followed by the Kitāb al-Bayān wa-l-i'rāb 'ammā fī arḍ Miṣr min al-A'rāb. It begins on the recto of fol. 64 and it was reproduced on 22 leaves. There are only four marginal notes and corrections in this fair and carefully made copy of the text, and all four are in the copyist's own hand (fol. 79a: maţlab šarāfat Makkah al-musharrafah, fol. 80a: maţlab; and fol. 65^b: muḥaqqiqī ṣaḥḥa, fol. 85^b: yawm al-aḥad ṣaḥḥa, in the latter two cases correcting a scribal omission). Again the scribal omission that has been identified above for In, Ia, and Y (Lihb maksūr qabīlah min qabā'il al-Azd) was also reproduced in Iv (fol. $67^{a}5-6$). Apart from this and quite a few other scribal errors (see below) the entire copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk in Iv once again represents rather faithfully al-Maqrīzī's last known version of the text. Just as Y, Ia, and In did, Iv also begins with a proper title page introducing the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk (fol. 64a), but now referring to its author as "Taqī l-Dīn al-Maqrīzī" only (plate 12). As in In, the scribal colophon of this copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk in Iv (fol. 85a) only consists of a brief religious final formula, devoid of any paratextual data (plate 14). Similar to what was found in Ia and In also in Iv seven texts (the same as in In, here numbered 6, 8–10, 12–14)—but

not the copy of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*—have an exact reproduction of authorial colophons from L preceding their scribal colophons.

A number of more detailed scribal colophons of other texts in this collection situate the production of Iv between 19 Šaʻbān and 17 \bar{D} ū l-Qaʻdah 1101/28 May and 22 August 1690 (fols. 27ª, 201ª). They furthermore repeatedly name its copyist as Muḥammad al-Qaṭarī, who is identified explicitly on various occasions as $im\bar{a}m$ and $haṭ\bar{i}b$ of a mosque in Jedda and as producing this copy in the town of Jedda. This confirms that In and Iv were produced by the same religious scholar/copyist, who clearly was able to make money out of copying al-Maqrīzī's collection in the 1080s/1670s as he still did in 1101/1690. In due course, however, it also seems that Muḥammad al-Qaṭarī had learned to do so in creative ways, changing the order of the texts from how they had been arranged in most of the extant seventeenth-century manuscripts.

f *Cambridge, University Library, Ms Add.* 746, fols. 78^a–105^b [Ca] (1112/1701) (Plates 15–17)

Ca is a codex of 260 leaves of different qualities and paper types (some dyed in red, yellow, and green), containing a combination of copies of only ten texts from al-Magrīzī's collection of opuscules (fols. 1–164) and of five other unrelated texts that were added to the textblock at some later date. The copies of al-Maqrīzī's ten texts were all done in the same hand, in a clear *nash* script making consistent use of a *mistarah* of 25 lines. The copy of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* is now the fourth text in this collection of ten (which in its current arrangement does not seem to follow that of any other manuscript), and it is preceded by the Kitāb Naḥl 'ibar al-naḥl and followed by the Kitāb al-Nizā' wa-l-taḥāṣum. It begins on the recto of fol. 78 and it was reproduced on 28 leaves. There are more than 35 marginal notes in this copy of the text, mostly addenda of scribal omissions written in the scribe's own hand. Five technical marks (balaġa) in the outer margins of fols. 82^a, 86^a, 92^b, 101^b, and 104^a suggest that most of those marginal notes were the result of the copyist's careful collation of his copy with one or more other copies; three of these marginal notes actually explicitly identify alternative readings from such a copy (referred to as nushah) (fols. 82a, 94b, 103a). Apart from such scribal errors (see also below) the entire copy in Ca once again is a rather faithful representation of al-Maqrīzī's last known version of the text. Just as in Y, Ia, In and Iv, Ca also begins with a proper title page introducing the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk (fol. 78a), but in the case of Ca its author is fully named as "Taqī l-Dīn Aḥmad b. 'Abd al-Qādir al-Maqrīzī". These title and author references are inserted in an inverted triangle in red ink. On the lower half of the same title page a royal pilgrimage habar that is absent from any other manuscript has been inserted. It starts with the explanatory

phrase that "al-Ṭaʿālabī in his book $Lat\bar{a}$ 'if al-maʿārif reported about Ğamīlah bt. Nāṣir al-Dawlah b. Ḥamdān that she performed the pilgrimage in the year 366 [977], which then became an exemplary and remembered act (fa-ṣāra ḥaǧǧuhā matalan wa-tārīhan)." (fol. 78a, plate 15)

The scribal colophon (fol. 105^a) only consists of the briefest possible note ("The book is done; glory to God alone") (plate 17). Two more detailed scribal colophons of two other texts in this collection (fols. 18^a , 77^a) identify its copyist as one Yūsuf b. Muḥammad "known as Ibn al-Wakīl al-Mallawī" and they situate the production of al-Maqrīzī's ten texts in Ca around January and February 1701 (Ša'bān and Ramaḍān 1112). The last of these two colophons actually refers to the earliest of these two dates, suggesting that the original arrangement of these texts was changed at some point in this manuscript's history.

g Paris, Bibliothèque nationale de France, MS arabe 4657, fols. 101^{b} – 131^{a} [P] (Mid-Eighteenth C.) (Plates 18–19)

P is a codex of 266 leaves of two types of paper. It again contains a copy of the full set of fifteen shorter texts of al-Maqrīzī, arranged in the same order as in Ia, In, and—presumably—Y. The text is written by the same hand throughout the manuscript, in a clear nash making consistent use of a mistarah of 25 lines. The copy of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* is the sixth text in this collection and it is preceded—as in Ia, In, and Y—by the Daw' al-sārī and followed by al-Nizā' wa-l-taḥāṣum. It begins on the verso of fol. 101 and it was reproduced on 31 leaves. There are no marginal notes, corrections, or any other addenda in this copy of the text, apart from a number of titles that were repeated by the copyist in the margins for easy reference, without however pursuing this as a systematic and consistent practice. On more than twenty pages, moreover, the copyist had to make up his repeated failures to fully fit a line's final word within the page's text frame by adding remaining letters or word parts in the relevant line's direct margin. Interestingly, the scribal omission that was also present in Iv, In, Ia and Y (Lihb maksūr qabīlah min qabā'il al-Azd) has been reproduced once again in P (fol. 105a11-12). A paragraph was furthermore lost when in the turning of leave 120 the copyist mistakenly substituted two references to the year 600 (wa-sittimi'ah) and the text in between was not copied. Apart from some more of these old and new scribal errors (see also below) the entire copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk in P consists of another rather faithful representation of al-Magrīzī's last known version of it. The text is not identified by any title or authorial reference (nor is any of P's other texts),

For this paradigmatic story of royal female patronage, see also Behrens-Abouseif (1997): 93; Meloy (2006): 407.

even though fol. 101^r was probably left blank by the copyist for the purpose of their later addition. As in Iv and In, the scribal colophon of this copy of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* in P (fol. 131^a) only consists of a brief religious formula, devoid of any paratextual data (plate 19). Actually, none of the scribal colophons in P provide any information about the identity of P's copyist or about its date of production. However, a datable paper filigree and owner's stamp make clear that the latter must have happened some time between 1749 and 1781. Finally, also in P five texts (the same as in Ia, 8 to 12)—but not the copy of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*—have a reproduction of authorial colophons from L preceding their scribal colophons.

h Cambridge, University Library, Ms Qq. 141, fols. 1^a-37^a [Cq] (1232/1817) (Plates 20-22)

Cq is a codex of 86 paper leaves, containing a copy of three of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts only: al-Dahab al-masbūk, Nahl 'ibar al-nahl, and al-Turfah alġarībah min aḥbār Wādī Ḥaḍramawt al-ʿaǧībah. The text is written by the same hand throughout the manuscript, in what may be defined as a scholar's nash, making consistent use of a mistarah of 19 lines. The copy of al-Dahab al-masbūk begins on the recto of fol. 1 and it was carefully reproduced on 37 leaves. There are no marginal notes, corrections, or any other addenda in this copy of the text. Interestingly, the scribal omission that has been identified above for Iv, In, Ia, and Y (*Lihb maksūr qabīlah min qabā'il al-Azd*) was also reproduced in Cq (fol. 5^b17–18). Apart from a number of such scribal mistakes (see also below) the entire copy again makes for a rather faithful representation of al-Maqrīzī's last known version of the text. Just as in Y, Ia, In, Iv, and Ca, Cq also begins with a proper title page introducing the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk (fol. 1a), but in the case of Cq its author is now only referred to as "Aḥmad b. 'Alī l-Maqrīzī" (plate 20). A scribal colophon (fol. 37a) clarifies that this copy was finished by an unnamed scribe on 15 Şafar 1232/4 January 1817 (plate 22). This manuscript entered Cambridge University Library two years later already, in 1819, as part of the bequest of the Swiss traveller J.L. Burckhardt. Burckhardt must have acquired this manuscript shortly before his death in Cairo in October 1817. This tight timing between Cq's production and Burckhardt's death make it likely that it was especially copied in Cairo for Burckhardt and for the newly emerging Orientalist markets that he represented.¹⁹

¹⁹ Browne (1900): 82, no. 442.

i Ḥurayḍah, Maktabat al-ʿAṭṭās [Ḥ]

This codex, preserved in a Yemeni private collection, has so far remained inaccessible. It has been identified as containing a copy of a set of thirteen of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts. These include that of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, as well as most other texts featuring in the complete sets of Ia, In, Iv, P and L. Unfortunately, no further material, textual, or paratextual information about this copy is currently available.

To sum up, these nine manuscripts with fragmentary or complete sets of copies of the shorter texts that al-Maqrīzī had chosen to publish as one collected volume in L span a substantial timeframe, ranging between the sixteenth and the early nineteenth centuries. Despite the substantial temporal, material, and also geographical distances that separated these specimens of an ongoing reproduction, and despite the fact that some copies (E, L, Cq, and also P) were all removed from local flows of circulation and reproduction at rather early dates in their material lives (ending up in European libraries in the early seventeenth [E, L] and early nineteenth centuries [Cq, P] respectively), many of these manuscripts, and of the copies of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$ in them, share certain features that deserve to be repeated here.

- Four manuscripts (Ia, In, Iv, P) have a full set of fifteen texts, and three of them (Ia, In, P) share the same arrangement of these texts. There are good reasons to suggest that Y represents a fragmentary remnant of a similar manuscript, and that also Ca and H originally had followed this tradition, or at least somehow derived from it.
- Six manuscripts (E, Y, Ia, In, Iv, P) include authorial colophons or related paratextual claims to authenticity in at least a number of their texts, referring to or repeating word-for-word al-Maqrīzī's authorial colophons in L. Two manuscripts (In, Iv) include such colophons for seven texts and two (Ia, P) do so for five texts. E uniquely has such reference for *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, whereas the equally fragmentary Y only hints at this claim indirectly in another text.
- Five manuscripts (Y, Ia, In, Iv, Ca) may be roughly dated to the same seventeenth century. Y in particular represents a specimen of an important moment in this history of reproduction, being one of at least six copies that were produced in the early seventeenth century by father and son al-Mallāḥ. The reproduction of In and Iv by the same copyist al-Qaṭarī in Jedda in the last quarter of this century represents a similar cluster of scribal entrepreneurship organised around al-Maqrīzī's collection of texts.
- Six copies of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$ (in Y, Ia, In, Iv, Ca, Cq) begin with a genuine title page (which is missing in E and also in P), with some slight variations in

the references to the author's name: Taqī l-Dīn al-Maqrīzī l-Šāfiʿī (Y, Ia, In); Taqī l-Dīn al-Maqrīzī (Iv); Taqī l-Dīn Aḥmad b. ʿAbd al-Qādir al-Maqrīzī (Ca); Aḥmad b. ʿAlī l-Maqrīzī (Cq).

- Three copies of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* (in Y, Ia, P) have subtitles that are repeated in the margins of the text, for easy reference. In P, however, this practice was not pursued consistently.
- All copies of al-Dahab al-masbūk in all manuscripts faithfully represent the very last version of al-Maqrīzī's text as copied, collated, and revised in L, but they do so in remarkably uncritical ways. None display any clear signs of systematic collation with L or with any other copy, because none of these copies bear any relevant number of scribal marks or other notations to that effect (even though scribal errors did occur; see below). The only exception to this general rule is the copy in Ca, but the absence of reproductions of authorial colophons in this manuscript (as in E, Y, Ia, In, Iv, P) and its incomplete nature and complex material history (consisting of ten texts by al-Maqrīzī only, which were combined with later copies of an unrelated set of texts) make it impossible to say much more about its relationship with other copies.
- The copies of al-Dahab al-masbūk in six manuscripts (Y, Ia, In, Iv, P, Cq) all display a remarkable reproduction of the same scribal omission (Lihb maksūr). This attests to this shared practice of uncritical copying and lack of collation (in Ia, there is a marginal note to correct this, but this correction seems not to have happened after collation because this scribal suggestion [Lihb bi-lām maksūrah fa-hā' sākinah] differs from what L says [Lihb maksūr al-lām]). This also suggests that these manuscripts were somehow all connected to the eldest among them, Y, rather than to L directly. Further collation actually confirms this and allows in combination with the above for a more precise preliminary reconstruction of those connections.

This collation of all the currently known manuscript copies of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* from L, as corrected and revised by al-Maqrīzī in and beyond early 842/mid-1438, and from the eight codices that are currently available for study, has resulted in the identification of many dozens of scribal errors across the entire field of reproduction. As may be expected for a field spread out between substantial temporal, material, and geographical ranges, these errors represent all of the traditional types that are well-known in Arabic manuscript studies: omissions, additions, substitutions, transpositions, corrections, variations, and cacography.²⁰ None had any relevant impact on the meanings of the text of *al-*

²⁰ Gacek (2009): 234-235.

Dahab al-masbūk, but they do provide further suggestions about relationships between these different manuscript copies and about the relative distances separating these copies from L and from each other. In order to get a better sense of these relationships and distances a selection has been made of the 58 most relevant scribal errors across the reproductive field. These were listed in a table in which every column details how these 58 textual moments appear in one of these nine manuscript copies and in which every row identifies continuities and changes across the different copies in the reproduction of one of these 58 moments. Changes in these rows, representing the appearance of a scribal error in a copy, were highlighted with different colours, every colour identifying a particular copy of the text and, if relevant, the reproduction of its error across the other manuscripts (table 1).

Even though this collation table is biased towards the identification of errors and limited by its working with a relevant sample only, this visualisation does provide further strong suggestions about how at least the texts within these different manuscript copies were related. Thus, the 1018/1609 copy of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$ by 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Mallāḥ, Y, introduces into the table a total of 19 of these 58 scribal errors. Ten of these errors were fully reproduced in all of the six later copies and five more errors were fully reproduced in three, four or five copies. As was already suggested by the reproduction of the Lihb $maks\bar{u}r$ error mentioned above, Y therefore clearly stands as a representative of a particular and powerful tradition in the reproduction history of the text of al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$. This tradition, coinciding with the scribal entrepreneurship of the al-Mallāḥ family in the early seventeenth century, acquired archetypal status for most of the manuscripts that followed at a time when al-Maqrīzī's autograph, L, was acquired by the Dutch diplomat Warner and disappeared from local circulation.

The opposite appears to be the case for manuscript E. It remains unclear whether its two texts originally did or did not belong to a codex with the full set of al-Maqrīzī's shorter texts, as in L. The close relationship between E's copy of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$ and that in L is nevertheless obvious, also from this collation. But so is the fact that in the text's circulation E was first sidelined in Morocco and then isolated in Spain, therefore leaving no relevant traces in a reproduction history of this text that seems to have focused on eastern Arabic regions first and foremost.

Manuscripts In and Iv, both produced by the scholar and scribe Abū l-Ṣalāḥ Muḥammad al-Ḥanafī l-Qaṭarī in the last quarter of the seventeenth century, fully engaged with the archetypal tradition represented by Y. But they also represent their own tradition of reproducing the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*, which not only reproduced most of Y's errors but also introduced 17 new ones.

The latter can be found in In and Iv only, establishing—in this table at least—al-Qaṭarī's scribal activities in Jedda as a particular and separate enterprise. In the 1101/1690 manuscript Iv al-Qaṭarī introduced even more new errors (11 in the table) that were not reproduced in any other extant copy.

One of the more puzzling manuscripts in the list certainly is Ca, mainly consisting of substantial remnants of copies made in 1112/1701 by Yūsuf b. Muḥammad Ibn al-Wakīl al-Mallawī. On the one hand, Ca clearly participated in the reproduction of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* from the archetypal tradition represented by Y. On the other hand, it also followed its own very particular dynamics of reproduction, adding its own scribal errors to the list and—as mentioned above—being far more critical in its reproduction than any of the other manuscripts (avoiding thus even the *Lihb maksūr* error). As the product of collation with more than one model (which cannot have been L or E, since these had disappeared to Europe in the course of the seventeenth century) Ca probably derives from two different archetypal traditions, only one of which has actually been preserved in Y.

These particular relationships, clustering, and grouping of the extant manuscript copies of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$ are finally also suggested in very illustrative ways when these same continuities and changes for L and the nine other copies, for Y and the seven later copies, and for In and Iv are calculated and expressed in percentages of reproduction (Table 2).

The close relationship, or short textual distance, between L and E speaks very strongly from this table, as does the short distance between Y and Ia-Cq-P-Ca and between In and Iv. At the same time, this table reveals that as far as these scribal errors are concerned Iv is farthest removed from L, and it gives an indication of the substantial relative distance separating L from Y, as well as Y from In. With due acknowledgement of the very particular and partial nature of these data and of the chosen parameters from which they emerge, L, Y, and In again appear as representatives of particular moments in the history of the reproduction of the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*.

Above all, many parallel appearances of relationships and distances and of clustering, and grouping emerge from these different sets of qualitative and quantitative descriptions. A genuine *stemma codicum* defining precise connections between individual copies cannot be constructed from what remain above all appearances of similarity and dissimilarity that may be explained in multiple ways.²¹ Nevertheless, particular relationships and distances between scribal versions of the text and particular clusters and families of manuscript copies there most certainly were (see also figure 1):

²¹ See also Gacek (2009): 268.

- The autograph L was part of an authorial cluster of mostly non-published versions, and with E this cluster represents an important early family of copies of the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*. Specimens of this family of copies seem to have survived by chance only when they were variously removed from local flows of consumption, reproduction, and circulation in the course of the seventeenth century.
- Y represents an early seventeenth-century cluster of at least half a dozen manuscripts, produced within a particular context of entrepreneurship, as though participating in a process of commodification of al-Maqrīzī's collection of 15 texts.²² This cluster soon transformed into an archetypal tradition of substantial reproductive impact of its own, to which all other known manuscripts are related. The Y-cluster itself was somehow closely related to the L-E family, if only because explicit references to the latter awarded textual authority and value to the former. The exact nature of this relationship remains unclear, however, and given the distance between L and Y it is not unlikely that one or more other copies interfered as models for the production of this cluster.
- In and Iv represent a third deeply related cluster of copies, produced within another particular context of entrepreneurship and commodification. It stands out above all as a highly independent and distant cluster within the larger family of manuscripts that emerged around the Y-cluster.
- The 1112/1701 manuscript Ca finally is part of this larger family too, but it reveals at the same time that parallel archetypal traditions may have also been reproduced, at least into the early eighteenth century, either directly from lost remnants of the L-E-cluster, or indirectly from a now lost archetypal tradition that existed side by side with that of the Y-cluster.

In the post-World-War-II period the survival of the text of al-Maqr \bar{z} zi's *al-Dahab al-masbūk* in this complex multitude of copies resulted in its renewed reproduction in four printed editions. Most important among these are the two editions that were done independently from each other in the early 1950s, by Ğamāl al-D \bar{z} n al-Šayy \bar{z} l in Cairo and by Ḥamad al-Ğ \bar{z} sir in Riyadh. The

On the process of commodification (or also 'commoditization'), that is, of the transformation of 'singularities' into commodities, or of the acquisition by things and relations of market values instead of or in addition to their social values, see Kopytoff (1986); Van Binsbergen (2005).

I am again grateful to the series editor, Frédéric Bauden, for sharing his information about these four editions with me, and for providing me with a copy of the al-Šayyāl 2000 and the al-Šayi 1952 editions.

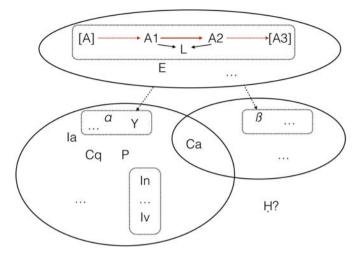


FIGURE 1 Visual representation of apparent mss. relationships and distances.

symbols: A = 821/1418 version [hypothetical] / A1 = pre-841/1437 version in

autograph L/A2 = post-842/1438 version in autograph L/A3 = revised published version [hypothetical] / α = archetype 1/ β = archetype 2/L, E, Y, Ia, In, Iv, Ca, P, Cq, H: mss. (see above) / ... =

other unknown and lost mss.

arrows: red = production / black = reproduction / full line

= direct attested relationship / broken line = indirect attested relationship (via lost intermediaries) / dotted line = hypothetical

relationship

 $\textit{Venn diagrams: full line = family (related group of \textit{mss.}) / dotted \textit{line = cluster}}$

(related mss. of a particular shared quality appearing closely

together at a particular time and place)

 $Distances\ between\ mss.\ are\ represented\ by\ their\ relative\ positioning$

in the diagram.

other two editions, published in 2000 and in 2009, are actually no more than reproductions of al-Šayyāl's 1955 edition, in the format of a complete and unchanged reprint in one case and of an update in quantitative rather than in qualitative terms in the second case.²⁴ Al-Šayyāl's edition, which was first published in 1955, was part of a larger publication project—the *Maktabat al-Maqrīzī al-Ṣaġīrah* series—in which it was the third (and apparently also the last) to be published. As is explained by the al-Maqrīzī specialist al-Šayyāl in a brief study preceding and introducing the text and his work on it, his edition was first done from P and Iv, and he had considered Iv as the *aṣl* to work from because it was the oldest of the two. Al-Šayyāl then details how, after finishing

²⁴ Al-Maqrīzī, al-Dahab al-masbūk³; al-Maqrīzī, al-Dahab al-masbūk⁴.

the edition, he discovered a third ms., which was E and which proved much more authoritative because it was a stated copy from an autograph; his edition was therefore collated with E, and variations were noted in footnote or added in the text. Nevertheless, the heavy reliance on Iv for this edition of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$ left many traces and certainly not all of them were effaced in this process of collation. 25

Three years earlier, in 1952, Ḥamad al-Ğāsir, "member of the Academy for the Arabic Language in Damascus", had published his own work on the same text of al-Maqrīzī, in a serial edition in seven monthly instalments as an annex to volume six of the *Mağallat al-Ḥağğ* ('The Pilgrimage Journal'), appearing between Rağab 1371AH and Muḥarram 1372/April—September 1952. In his brief introduction, this editor al-Ğāsir explains that he had relied for his work on microfilmed copies in Cairo and in Mecca from Iv and Ca, and that he had chosen Iv as his *aṣl* to work from as he considered it to be of better quality than Ca.²⁶ Unlike al-Šayyāl's work, which was reprinted and re-edited in the early twenty-first century, al-Ğāsir's edition does not seem to have had much of a long-lasting impact.

More generally, considering—as detailed above—the distance separating Iv, and the cluster to which it pertains, from L, it appears as highly problematic that this handful of modern textual reproductions of al-Maqrīzī's *al-Dahab al-masbūk* continue until today to rely first and foremost on this Iv. In their critical readings, reproductions, and explanations of the text, these two editions have had substantial merit; the identification of other relevant copies and authoritative manuscript traditions as well as the deepened understanding of the complexity of this text and of the contexts in which it was produced and reproduced simultaneously also demonstrate their limitations.

3 Consuming al-Dahab al-masbūk: From Memory to History

The conscious communicative act that al-Maqrīzī's *al-Dahab al-masbūk* was did not just involve the participation of its author and of scribal reproducers, but obviously also of the audiences and recipients of its message. Producing and reproducing any text is only meaningful if it is also provoking interest,

Al-Maqrīzī, *al-Dahab al-masbūk*². We so far identified more than 60 variant readings of words or phrases between this al-Šayyāl edition and the L-E Mss. family. The collation with E seems to have resulted above all in referring to it in footnote rather than in making any textual amendments.

²⁶ Al-Maqrīzī, al-Dahab al-masbūk1.

read, studied, thought about, debated, and preserved. It is from this variegated consumption above all that webs of people, of things, and of ideas continued to be woven around texts and that all kinds of intended, unintended, and changing meanings became effective nodes in those webs. Given its long social life in various forms, shapes, and contexts this must certainly also have been the case for al-Dahab al-masbūk. However, available textual, paratextual, and material data for this other side of this text's life prove rather limited, allowing for making no more than a few general assumptions only. The transfer of al-Dahab al-masbūk in the early 840s/later 1430s from being a separate text of moral-didactic purpose to becoming only one particle in the large and complex whole of al-Maqrīzī's collection as it appeared in L has a lot to do with that silence. This story of consumption again appears first and foremost as one that can and should only be told for the full complexity of that collection. At the same time, however, the early 840s/later 1430s represent a moment of such radical transformation in the consumption as much as in the production of al-Dahab al-masbūk, that this change in communication certainly offers some powerful clues for this particular text too.

It has been argued above that *al-Dahab al-masbūk* was first and foremost produced as a programmatic text of moral-didactic purpose, which used the formats of pilgriming ruler narratives and leadership stories to communicate ideas of good Muslim rule, Egyptian supremacy, and divine sovereignty. Its first intended audience was therefore the ruler and his court, most likely the sultan al-Mu'ayyad Šayḥ and his advisors. However, when the plans for the sultan's 821/1418 pilgrimage had to be cancelled, the casting of this message in the format of an innovative pilgrimage text proved futile and the text was therefore probably never published for nor received by its originally intended audience.

As a consequence, when the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk* entered the collection of L some twenty years later, it may have done so in a slightly altered, more generic and less specific form, taking into account the new audiences whose interests it still might serve. These audiences were certainly still members of the political and other elites, and they possibly even included Barsbāy's son and short-lived successor al-'Azīz Yūsuf and his entourage.²⁷ At that same time, however, political circumstances had substantially changed and the imminent relevance of the text's original meaning of political restoration after the deep crisis that had ended the Barqūqid era (784–815/1382–1412) was for ever lost.

See—as mentioned before—also John Meloy's parallel suggestion for the Šudūr al-'uqūd, another treatise in the same collection, that "al-Maqrīzī's corrections to the text in Rama-dān 841 (February–March 1438)" perhaps made possible "that the text could be used as an appeal to Barsbāy's successor" (Meloy [2003b]: 197, fn. 54).

Due to the lack of any reading notes or external references it remains unclear how the text was actually read by its new readership in the 830s and 40s/1430s, if not for its political message. The inclusion of al-Dahab al-masbūk in al-Magrīzī's collection of texts covering a wide range of subjects is nevertheless quite suggestive, as is this text's constant featuring along many others in long lists of al-Maqrīzī's scholarly production that were drafted by contemporary biographers such as Ibn Tagrī Birdī and al-Sahāwī. ²⁸ A particular expectation is at least created about one of the meanings that may have been intended by the author and perhaps even understood by most of his fifteenth-century audiences. The latter lists, as well as the former collection, certainly speak of al-Maqrīzī's authoritative achievements in a wide range of related fields of scholarship. It was demonstrated above how the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk certainly was also meant to mediate such more personal socio-cultural meanings of the author's claims to distinction, identity, and entitlement. It could be argued then that despite the loss of the acuteness of its political meanings the text continued to be relevant (and continued to be redrafted) for the more personal sociocultural meanings that it communicated. What remained was its textual performance of al-Maqrīzī's mastery of historical knowledge, announced in the introduction as "the most precious and most valuable of treasures, the most glorious and the longest remembered of deeds" and presented throughout the text by inter- and metatextual means as though monopolised by its author. In the particular combination with the other texts in the collection, al-Dahab al-masbūk thus continues to attest above all to the accomplished scholarship of its author.

However, as time went by and al-Maqr $\bar{z}z\bar{z}$ as well as those scholars who derived some level of socio-cultural authority from his status gradually disappeared from the scenes of textual consumption, this level of personalised socio-cultural meanings evidently retreated to the background too. Al-Maqr $\bar{z}z\bar{z}$ and his texts obviously retained an authority that is exemplified by the temporal, geographical, and material dimensions of the field of reproduction of the collection that includes $al-\bar{D}ahab$ $al-masb\bar{u}k$. But in the ongoing consumption of this collection and of different other products of al-Maqr $\bar{z}z\bar{z}$'s pen, texts such as $al-\bar{D}ahab$ $al-masb\bar{u}k$ increasingly derived their meanings from that authority rather than that they were merely meant to perform it. Their consumption thus transformed from accepting them (or not) as presenting particular social

²⁸ Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 1:418–419; al-Saḥāwī, *al-Ḍawʾ al-lāmi*', 2:22–23. One reference in a recently published bibliography suggesting that al-Saḥāwī even would have produced a text with the same title as al-Maqrīzī's turns out to be an unfortunate bibliographic conflation of *al-Ḍahab al-masbūk*'s title with that of al-Saḥāwī's continuation of the *al-Sulūk*, *al-Tibr al-masbūk fī dayl al-Sulūk* (see al-Musawi [2015]: 418).

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claims about historical knowledge to understanding them as privileged carriers and transmitters of that knowledge. As far as *al-Dahab al-masbūk* is concerned, this process made that eventually its historical character was prioritised over the different other meanings that it communicated, and that an understanding of the particular ways in which it had been constructed to pursue the latter communication was side-lined for retrieving names, data, and *ḥabar*s of pilgriming Muslim rulers.

Already in the sixteenth century, this changed pattern of consumption had become the norm for the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*. In those early modern Ottoman times, as Suraiya Faroqhi explained, the historical example of predecessors of the Ottoman rulers in affairs of the pilgrimage had become a matter of political exigency.

Sixteenth- and seventeenth-century authors dealing with the Ottoman sultans in their role of protectors to the pilgrimage, have often measured Ottoman performance against the yardstick of what had been done, really or presumably, by their Mamluk predecessors. This explains why Ottoman sultans adhered as closely as they could to the practices connected with the names of Qāytbāy (r. 878–901/1468–1496) and Qāniṣawh al-Ġawrī (r. 906–922/1501–1516).²⁹

This context certainly explains why reproductions of texts such as that of $al\text{-}Dahab\ al\text{-}masb\bar{u}k$ and its accounts of Ottoman predecessors found fertile ground in sixteenth- and seventeenth-century Ottoman times. Substantial reference is actually even made to al-Maqrīzī's text in a unique account of the pilgrimage that was written by a mid-sixteenth-century Egyptian scholar who had been employed in the Ottoman administration of pilgrimage caravans from Egypt. This 'Abd al-Qādir al-Ğazīrī (d. c. 977/1570) wrote an extensive text on that administration of the hağğ and its history, including an account of "notable men and women" performing the pilgrimage to Mecca in the seventh and last part $(b\bar{a}b)$ of this book.³⁰ At the start of that chapter, al-Ğazīrī explains metaphorically that

some of the later [historians] such as al-Maqrīzī have spoken about similar things as there are in this part; he entitled it The Gold Moulded in the Format of the History of Those Kings Who Performed the Pilgrimage [al-Dahab al-masbūk fī tārīḥ man ḥaǧǧa min al-mulūk (sic)]. I consulted

²⁹ Faroqhi (2014): 33.

³⁰ Al-Ğazīrī, *Durar al-farā'id*, 2:325. On al-Ğazīrī (also known as al-Ğazarī) and his text, see also Faroqhi (2014): 33–35.

it, stripped off that product of smelting, and added it as a purifier to this silver [= this seventh part]. Whoever reads my book, may he say: there is no further trail [to follow] after [being quenched by] a source [such as this one].³¹

Throughout the text of this last part of his book then, al-Ğazīrī appeals to the authority and information of al-Maqrīzī's booklet to produce his own chronography of rulers performing the pilgrimage. Unlike al-Maqrīzī, however, al-Ğazīrī wants this to be a comprehensive historical account, and he therefore also has to come to some terms with how *al-Dahab al-masbūk* is lacking in that respect. He thus explicitly notes textual lacunae and interdependencies, such as between al-Maqrīzī's *habar* about Hārūn's barefoot pilgrimage and that of Ṣibṭ Ibn al-Ğawzī (d. c. 654/1256) in the *Mir'āt al-zamān*. Al-Ğazīrī provides more material from other sources, and eventually also adds many more names of caliphs and, especially, of non-caliphal rulers to al-Maqrīzī's limited list of 26.33 In all, one may claim that for al-Ğazīrī al-Maqrīzī's text on the matter clearly stands as the main authority and point of reference, but that his purely historiographical approach to it proved all but straightforward when it came to the details.

It remains nevertheless this historiographical approach of al-Ğazīrī that seems to have continued to dominate the textual consumption of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$. 34 In the twentieth century, at least, similar readings from the perspective of useful "summary biographies of selections of rulers" still provided the main types of meanings and values that were prioritised in any specific study of the text, such as by al-Šayyāl in the 1950s, and by Faraḥāt in his adapted introduction to the re-edition of the text in 2009. 35 Parallel to what was concluded about the current state of the reproduction of al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$, therefore, it should be acknowledged that also as far as its consumption is concerned current appreciations certainly have their merits, but that the deepened understandings of the complexity of this text and of the contexts in which it was produced, reproduced, and consumed simultaneously also demonstrate that much more can and should be read in al-Maqrīzī's al- $\underline{D}ahab$ al- $masb\bar{u}k$.

³¹ Al-Ğazīrī, Durar al-farā'id, 2:325.

³² Ibid., 2:345.

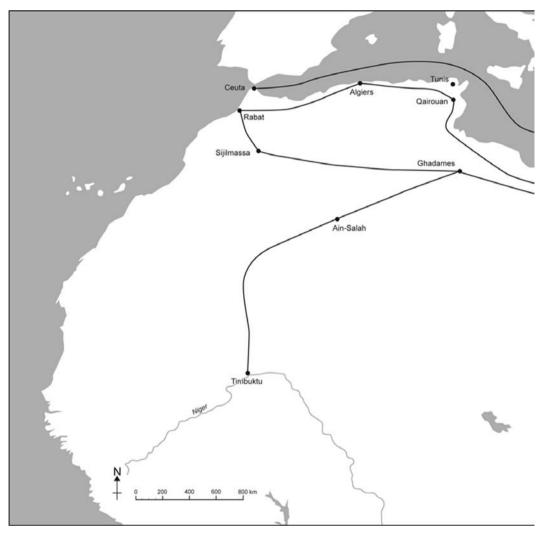
³³ Ibid., 2:345-374.

³⁴ Al-Dahab al-masbūk was also referred to and used in this historicising manner by the Ottoman Egyptian historian al-Ğabartī (1167–1241/1753–1825) (as suggested by Ayalon [1960]: 221).

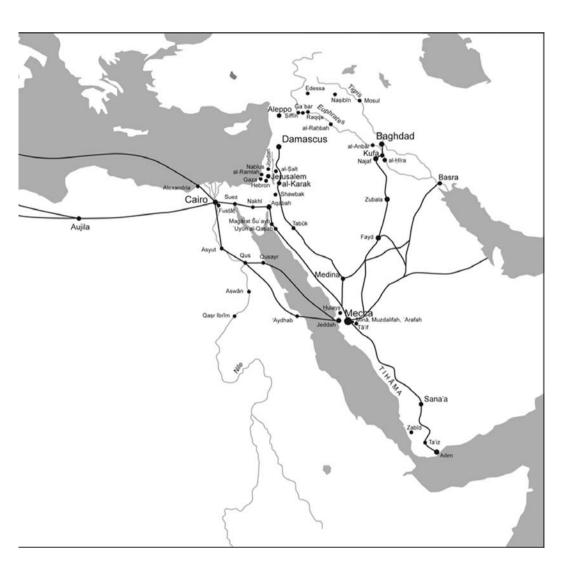
See al-Šayyāl (1971): 25 (al-tarǧamah al-muḥtaṣarah li-maǧmūʻah min al-mulūk); see also al-Šayyāl (1955): 10–24; Faraḥāt (2009): 29–34.

Map, Plates and Tables

Map



Map of the Middle East and North Africa, with the main medieval hağğ routes and the most important cities, towns, and places mentioned in this book (map drawing courtesy of Erik Smekens, 2016)



عيما

PLATE 1 Madrid/San Lorenzo de el Escorial, Real Biblioteca del Monasterio, Ms Árabe 1771, fol. 22^b

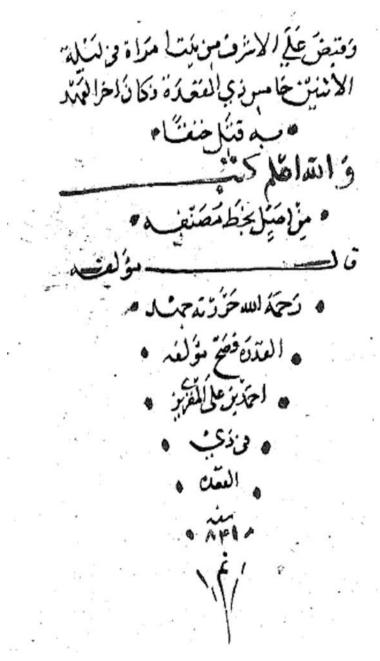


PLATE 2 $Madrid/San\ Lorenzo\ de\ el\ Escorial,\ Real\ Biblioteca\ del\ Monasterio,\ Ms\ Árabe\ 1771,$ fol. 75^b



PLATE 3 New Haven, Yale University, Beinecke Rare Book and Manuscript Library, MS Landberg 111, fol. 26^a

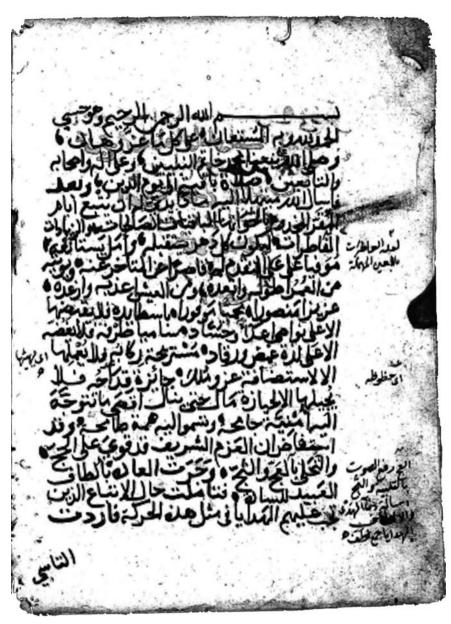


PLATE 4 New Haven, Yale University, Beinecke Rare Book and Manuscript Library, MS Landberg 111, fol. 26^b

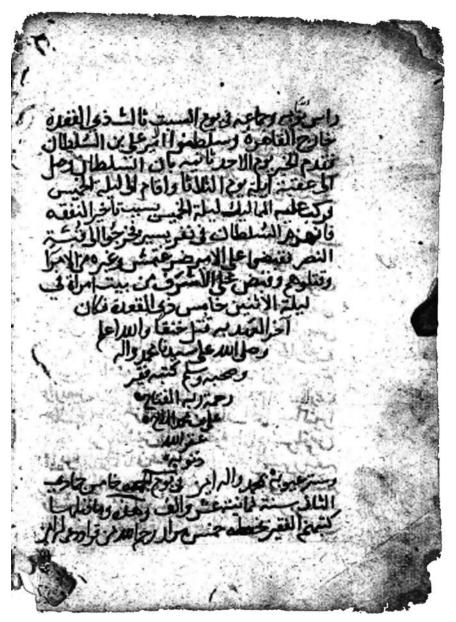


PLATE 5 New Haven, Yale University, Beinecke Rare Book and Manuscript Library, MS Landberg 111, fol. 62^b

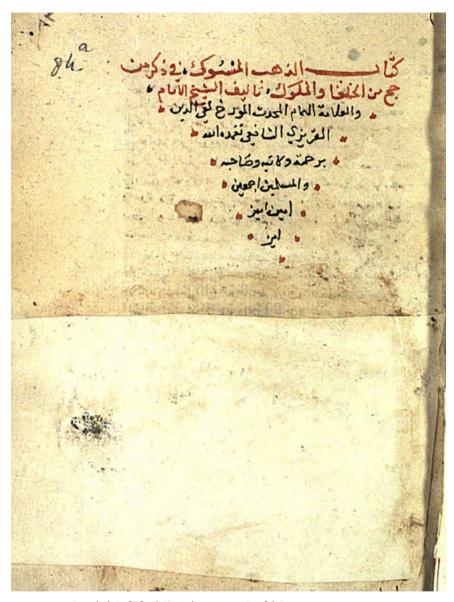


PLATE 6 Istanbul, Atıf Efendi Kütüphanesi, MS 2814, fol. 84ª

PLATE 7 Istanbul, Atıf Efendi Kütüphanesi, MS 2814, fol. 84^b

PLATE 8 Istanbul, Atıf Efendi Kütüphanesi, MS 2814, fol. 107^a

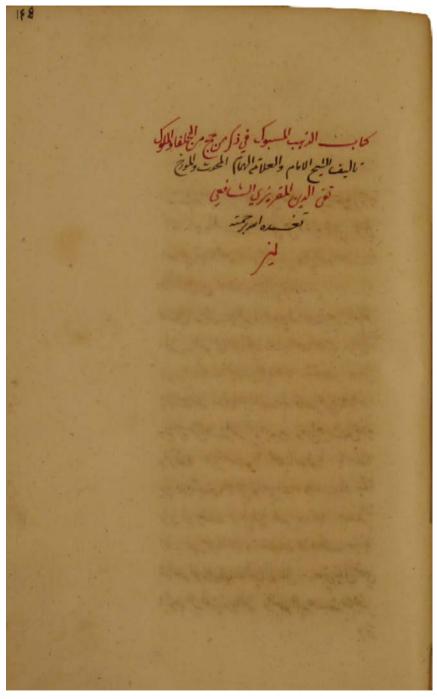


PLATE 9 Istanbul, Nuruosmaniye Kütüphanesi, MS 4937, fol. 145ª

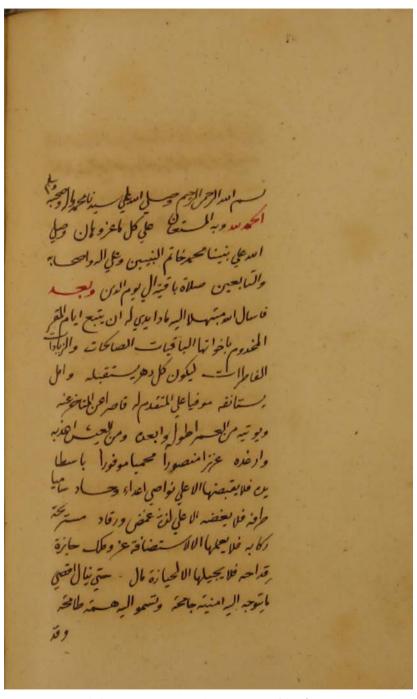


PLATE 10 Istanbul, Nuruosmaniye Kütüphanesi, MS 4937, fol. 145^b

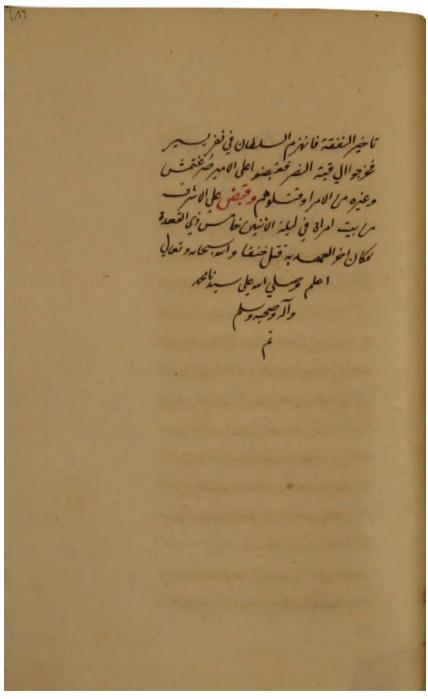


PLATE 11 Istanbul, Nuruosmaniye Kütüphanesi, Ms 4937, fol. 186ª

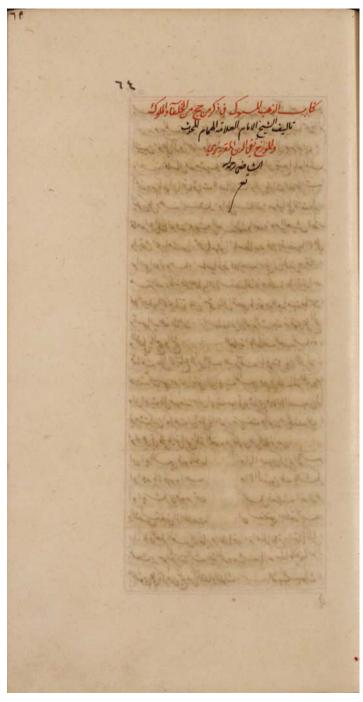


PLATE 12 Istanbul, Beyazıt Devlet Kütüphanesi, MS Veliyüddin 3195, fol. 64^a



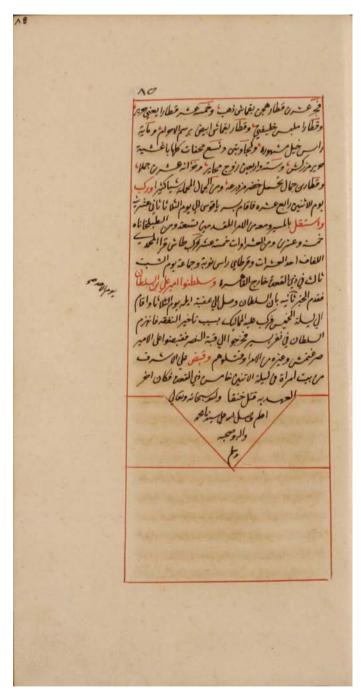


PLATE 14 Istanbul, Beyazıt Devlet Kütüphanesi, M
s Veliyüddin 3195, fol. 85^a

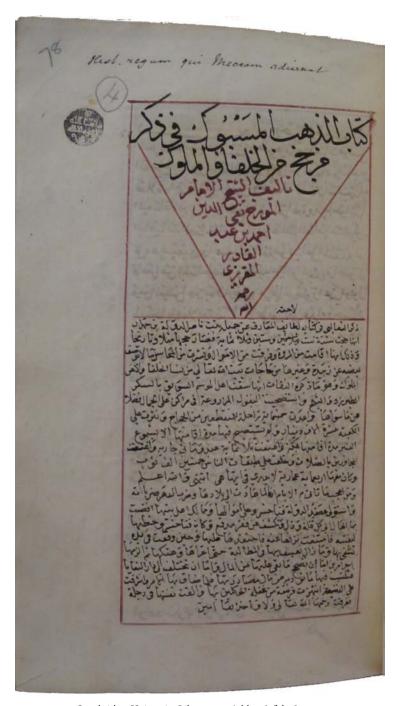


PLATE 15 Cambridge, University Library, Ms Add. 746, fol. 78^a



PLATE 16 Cambridge, University Library, MS Add. 746, fol. 78^b



PLATE 17 Cambridge, University Library, Ms Add. 746, fol. 105^b



PLATE 18 Paris, Bibliothèque nationale de France, MS arabe 4657, fol. 101^b

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PLATE 19 Paris, Bibliothèque nationale de France, MS arabe 4657, fol. 131ª

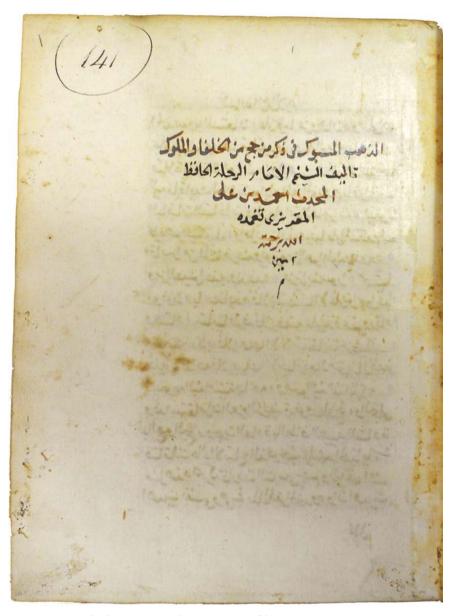


PLATE 20 Cambridge, University Library, Ms Qq. 141, fol. 1^a

36

PLATE 21 Cambridge, University Library, MS Qq. 141, fol. 1b

PLATE 22 Cambridge, University Library, Ms Qq. 141, fol. 37^a

TABLE 1	Collation table of 58 scribal errors in mss. L (white [= scribe]/orange [= author]), E (yellow), Y (light blue), Ia (purple), In (grey), Iv (dark blue), Ca (red), P (dark green),
	Cq (light green)

Leiden UB MS Or 560, ff. 115^{b} – 135^{a} $(a div l) ightarrow L [A1 + A2] / 1438$	Escorial, MS Ar. 1771, ff. $22^{b}-75^{b} \rightarrow$ E / 16th c.	New Haven, Yale UL, MS Landberg 111, ff. 26–62 → Y / 1609	
عيته الذهب المسبوك (١١٥ب)	"	عيته الذهب المسبوك ب ذكر من حج من لحلفاء والملوك (١٢٧)	في
مره عن ربه تعالى (١١١٦)	یا		
اِمر من كان معه هدي (١١٦ب)	و		
مال له صلى الله عليه وسلم بما اهللت قال هلال كاهلالِ النبي صلى الله عليه وسلم ١١٦ب)	با)	
م حل من كل شي حَرُم منه صلى الله عليه سلم وخطب ثاني يوم النحر (١١٦)		ر حل من كل شي ترم منه صلى الله ليه وسلم ثاني يوم نحر ثم خطب ۱۲۹)	- c JI
ي تلك الحجة (١١١٩)	. 93		
لنصف (۱۱۹ب)	LI	نصف (۳۶ب)	JI

Ist., SK, MS Nuruosmaniye 4937, ff. 145 ^a – 186 ^a →In / 1674–1675	Ist. SK, MS Veliüddin 3195, ff. 64–85 → Iv / 1690	Cambridge UL, MS Add. 746, ff. 78–105 → Ca / 1701	Paris, BnF, MS arabe 4657, ff. 101^{b} – 131^{a} \rightarrow P / mid-18th c.	Cambridge UL, MS Qq. 141, ff. 1−37 → Cq / 1817
		مميته بالذهب سبوك في ذكر رحج من الخلفاء لملوك (١٧٩)	الم مون	
	ىرە عن ربە عن جل (١٦٥)	یام و-		
مر من کان معه ۱٤۱ب)				
		حل من كل شيء رم منه صلى الله به وسلم ثاني يوم حرثم خطب ۱۸-ب)	علب الن	
تلك السنة (١١٥٣)	ڣۣ			

Leiden UB MS Or 560, ff. 115 ^b	-135ª
$(a \pm l) \rightarrow L [A1 + A2] / 1438$	

Escorial, Ms Ar. E / 16th c.

New Haven, Yale Ist. SK, MS Atıf 1771, ff. 22^{b} – 75^{b} \rightarrow UL, MS Landberg Efendi 2814, 1609

111, ff. $26-62 \rightarrow Y$ / ff. $84^{b}-107^{b} \rightarrow Ia$ / 1632

وبعث الوليد الى ملك الروم بما عزم عليه (۱۱۹پ)

بَجُزُرٍ (۱۲۰۱)

بجزور (۳۵ب)

الذي سقاكم المآ العذب الزلال النُقَاخَ العَذْب (117.)

(۱۲۰س) /

من بغداد إلى مكة (١١٢١)

ومن بديع ما حكى ومن بديع ما يحكي عنه (١٢١ب-١٢٦)

عنه ... (۳۹ب)

وعن حَيْبك (٤١) وعن حسبك (١٢٦ب)

ولما دخل الرشيد مكة (١٢٤ب)

والكسوة الظاهرة (١١٢٥)

Ist., SK, MS Nuruosmaniye 4937 , ff. 145^{a} – $186^{a} \rightarrow In /$ 1674-1675	Ist. SK, MS Veliüddin 3195, ff. 64–85 → Iv / 1690	Cambridge UL, MS Add. 746, ff. 78–105 → Ca / 1701	Paris, BnF, MS arabe 4657, ff. 101^{b} – 131^{a} \rightarrow P / mid-18th c.	Cambridge UL, MS Qq. 141, ff. 1–37 → Cq / 1817
بعث الوليد بما عزم لليه الى ملك الروم ١١٥٤)	c			
	لذي سقاكم المآ لعذب الزلال النقاخ (۲۹ب)			
		الله المعين (۱۸٦)	الله المعين الهادي و لى طريق الارشاد ١١١٠)	الى طريق الرشاد ا
	ىن بغداد الى الكوفة ١٧٠)			
لِما دخل الرشيد مكة هِو خليفة (١٦٦٢)	=			
لكسوة الطاهرة ١٦٢ب)				

Leiden UB MS Or 560, ff. 115^{b} – 135^{a} $(a\$l) \rightarrow L [A1 + A2] / 1438$	Escorial, MS Ar. 1771, ff. $22^b-75^b \rightarrow$ E / 16th c.	New Haven, Yale U.I., MS Landberg III, ff. $26-62 \rightarrow Y / 1609$	Ist. SK, MS Atıf Efendi 2814, ff. 84^b – $107^b \rightarrow Ia$ / 1632
من فضايل الرشيد (١٢٣ب)	و		1
، قال له (۱۱۲۳)	ĉ		
۱۲۰) /)		
سيم الدولة بن اقسنقر (١٢٥ب)	ē		
المارستان (١٢٥ب)	و		
ستماية (١١٢٧)	و	خمسماية (٤٦ب)	و
لحرمين (١١٢٧)	l,		
يالغ في الاحسان (١١٢٧)	و		
کفنی (۱۲۷ب)	5		
ىزىلة (١٢٧ب)	÷	مليلة (١٤٨)	÷
الجنايات (١٢٨ب)	و	لجبايات (٤٩ب)	-1

Ist., SK, MS Nuruosmaniye 4937, ff. 145^{a} – $186^{a} \rightarrow In /$ 1674– 1675	Ist. SK, MS Veliüddin 3195, ff. $64-85 \rightarrow \text{Iv} /$ 1690	Cambridge UL, MS Add. 746, ff. 78–105 → Ca / 1701	Paris, BnF, MS arabe 4657 , ff. $101^b-131^a \rightarrow P$ / mid-18th c.	Cambridge UL, MS Qq. 141, ff. 1–37 → Cq / 1817
		قال (۹۱ب)	و	
	لله سبحانه وتعالى لم (١٧٥)	وا اع		
			سيم الدولة بن آق ۱۱۱ب)	قب (/
والبيمارستان (١٦٧)		البیمارستانات ۹۳ب)		
لحرمين الشريفين ١٩٦)				
الغ في الاحسان تمه الله تعالى ١١٦)				
کفن (۱٦۸ب)	Ül			
			۱۲ب) /	•)

Leiden UB MS Or 560, ff. 115^{b} – 135^{a} $(asl) \rightarrow L [A1 + A2] / 1438$	Escorial, MS Ar. 1771, ff. $22^{b}-75^{b} \rightarrow$ E / 16th c.	New Haven, Yale UL, MS Landberg 111, ff. $26-62 \rightarrow Y / 1609$	Ist. SK, MS Atıf Efendi 2814, ff. 84^b – $107^b \rightarrow Ia$ / 1632
الجنايات (١٢٨ب)	وا	لجبایات (۴۹ب)	-1
۱۲۸ب) /	\)		
لمطنة مصر (١٢٨ب)	u.		
ن الشتته (۱۲۸ب)	ن التشتت (۱۵۷)	ن تشتت (٥٠٠))
لم تزل كسوة المظفر التي كساها للكعبة ١١٢٩)			
فوار (۱۱۳۰)	ننوار (٦٠ب) الا	فور (۱۵۳) اا]]
م الخميس خامس شهر شوال (۱۱۳۰)	ي .		
بلاد الشام (۱۳۱)	و		
بابة السلطان (١٣٣١)	r		
نل اخيه الملك الأشرف صلاح الدين خليل ن قلاوون (١٣١ب)			

Ist., sk, ms Nuruosmaniye 4937, ff. 145 ^a – 186 ^a →In / 1674–1675	Ist. SK, MS Veliüddin 3195, ff. $64-85 \rightarrow \text{Iv} /$ 1690	Cambridge UL, MS Add. 746, ff. 78–105 → Ca / 1701	Paris, BnF, MS arabe 4657, ff. 101^{b} – 131^{a} \rightarrow P / mid-18th c.	Cambridge UL, MS Qq. 141, ff. 1−37 → Cq / 1817
	لله سبحانه وتعالى للم (۷۷ب)	وا اء		
لطنته (۱۷۱ب)	uu			
م تزل كسوة الكعبة ني كساها المظفر ١١٧١)	يا ا		لم تزل كسوة المظفر تي كساها الكعبة ١٢١ب)	الإ
	م الخميس خامس وال (۱۷۹)	يو ش		
	لشام (۱۸۰)	وا		
	ابته (۱۸۰)	**		
		نيه الملك الاشرف للاح الدين خليل ، قلاوون (١٠٠)	<i>∞</i>	

Leiden UB MS Or 560, ff. 115^{b} – 135^{a} $(a \sl l) \rightarrow L [A1 + A2] / 1438$	1771, ff. $22^{b}-75^{b} \rightarrow$ E / 16th c.	New Haven, Yale UL, MS Landberg 111, ff. 26–62 → Y / 1609	Ist. SK, MS Atıf Efendi 2814, ff. 84^{b} – $107^{b} \rightarrow Ia$ / 1632
شلون بنت شکناي (۱۳۱ب)	سَلُون بنت شكراي ا (۱۹۶)		
قدم (۱۳۱ب)	ۏ		
يقطاي الساقي (١٣١ب)	,	نِقطاي الساقي ١٥٦)	
يسلمهم (۱۳۱ب)	,		
منهم من له خمسون عليقة (١٣٢ب)	,		ومنهم من له خمسین علیقة (۱۰۳ب)
هد ما کان سلوکها مشقا (۱۳۲ب)	ñ		
تِقدم اليه قاضي القضاة بدر الدين ابن جماعة ۱۳۲ب)			
ىدة سنين (١١٣٣)	٥		
صاروا یَدِلون علیه ادلالا زائدا (۱۱۳۳)	,		
الاحمدي مستمر عليه زرديه وسيفه ١٣٣ب)		کل احد مشتمل لیه زردیه وسیفه ۵۹ب)	c
رِمعه مایة حجارا (۱۳۳ب)	,	معه مایة حجار (۱۲۰)	,

Ist., SK, MS Nuruosmaniye 4937, ff. 145 ^a – 186 ^a →In / 1674–1675	Ist. SK, MS Veliüddin 3195, ff. 64–85 → Iv / 1690	Cambridge UL, MS Add. 746, ff. 78–105 → Ca / 1701	Paris, BnF, MS arabe 4657, ff. 101^{b} – 131^{a} \rightarrow P / mid-18th c.	Cambridge UL, MS Qq. 141, ff. 1–37 → Cq / 1817
		لمون بنت سكناي ۱۱۰)	اس	
	ندم (۸۰ب)	iri		
	سلمهم (۱۸۱)	وار		
دما کان سلوکه عب (۱۱۸۰)	بعد ص			

Leiden UB MS Or 560, ff. 115 ^b –135 ^a $ (a sl) \rightarrow L \left[A1 + A2\right] / 1438 $	Escorial, MS Ar. 1771, ff. $22^b-75^b \rightarrow$ E / 16th c.	New Haven, Yale UL, MS Landberg 111, ff. $26-62 \rightarrow Y/$ 1609	Efendi 2814,
سًّا (۱۳۳ب)	á	نسا (۲۰ب)	A
ا رجل مالكي المذهب (١١٣٤)	از		
قربه اليه (۱۱۳٤)	و		
م يمكنه امير مكة من ذلك (١١٣٤)	فا	لم يمكنه من ذلك مير مكة (١٦١)	ا
عنف تعنیفا کثیرا (۱۱۳۵)	و		?
قام بامر المملكة (١١٣٥)	و	قام بامر الملك (١٦٢)	و
هو محفات کلها باغشیة حریر مزرکش ۱۱۳۵)	_	کلها باغشیة حریر زرکش (۱۹۲)	
اش تمر المحمدي اللفاف (١١٣٥)	ط		
لة الخميس (١١٣٥)	لي		
الله اعلم (۱۱۳۰)	و	الله اعلم وصلى الله لى سيدنا محمد واله صحبه وسلم (٦٢ب)	_

Ist., sk, ms Nuruosmaniye 4937, ff. 145 ^a – 186 ^a →In / 1674–1675	Ist. SK, MS Veliüddin 3195, ff. 64–85 → Iv / 1690	Cambridge UL, MS Add. 746, ff. 78–105 → Ca / 1701	Paris, BnF, MS arabe 4657, ff. 101^b – 131^a \rightarrow P / mid-18th c.	Cambridge UL, MS Qq. 141, ff. 1–37 → Cq / 1817
مالكي المذهب ۱۱۸)				
ربه (۱۱۸۳)	وق			
ىنف تعنيفا كبيرا ۱۱۸) ؟				وعنف تعنيفا (١٣٦)
ش قرا المحمدي ماف (١٨٥ب)				
۱۸ب) /	•)			
لله سبحانه وتعالى لم وصلى الله على بدنا محمد وآله وصحبه سلم (١١٨٦)	اعا سی	همه الله تمت الكتاب لحمد لله وحده ۱۰۰ب)	<u> </u>	واليه المرجع والمآب و وصلى الله على و سيدنا محمد والال مح والاصحاب (١٣٧) و

TABLE 2 Calculation of the reproduction from L, Y, or In in other relevant manuscripts (Y only has data for 55 errors due to missing pages in the manuscript) (number of cases of exact reproduction in one of the manuscripts/58 cases selected as comparative model in L, Y [only 55] or In)

	L [A1 + A2] 1438	E 16th c.	Y 1609	Ia 1632	In 1674–1675	Iv 1690	Ca 1701	P mid-18th c.	Cq 1817
L	58/58	51/58	36/55	40/58	24/58	9/58	34/58	37/58	39/58
% reprod.	100	87,95	64,45	68,97	41,38	15,52	58,62	63,8	67,24
Y			55/55	52/55	38/55	28/55	43/55	46/55	47/55
% reprod.			100	94,55	69,09	50,91	78,18	83,63	85,45
In					58/58	44/58			
% reprod.					100	75,86			

PART 2

Critical Edition and Annotated Translation of al-Maqrīzī's al-Dahab al-masbūk fī dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḫulafā' wa-l-mulūk

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Introduction

As explained in the third chapter of this monograph's first part, the four modern editions of the text of al-Dahab al-masbūk that have so far been published are all rooted one way or another in the early 1950s, when almost simultaneously but independently from each other two editions were produced, by Čamāl al-Dīn al-Šayyāl in Cairo and by Hamad al-Ğāsir in Riyadh. The retrieval in the context of the Bibliotheca Magriziana of all relevant manuscript copies and of authoritative manuscript traditions as well as the deepened understanding of the complexity of this text and of the contexts in which it operated also mean that the time certainly has come to revisit these editions. Above all this has made clear that this handful of modern textual reproductions relies on one of the more distant manuscript clusters in the material history of the text, and that the only extant autograph of al-Dahab al-masbūk in the manuscript L (Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek, MS Or. 560, fol. 115b-135a) has so far never been the object of any critical edition. There are therefore many good reasons to present such a new edition of this text as it appears in L in this second part of this book. This new critical edition tries to faithfully reflect the text as al-Maqrīzī continued to add some material to it during and after late 841/mid-1438 (A2), and as it eventually also would be reproduced in the course of the sixteenth century in E, and thereafter in all known other manuscripts. The nature and extent of these collations, emendations, and additions by al-Maqrīzī are indicated and clarified in the critical apparatus (in Arabic), so that al-Maqrīzī's substantial corrections of the copyist's work as well as his additions to the pre-841/-1437 version of the text (A1) continue to stand out, as they do in L. Wherever relevant this Arabic critical apparatus also clarifies where the orthography of L (especially regarding the writing and/or support of the hamza) was aligned with modern standards, and where for reasons of legibility L's many orthographic idiosyncrasies and particularities (especially regarding the presence/absence of consonantal diacritics) had to be adjusted. The critical apparatus finally also identifies references to al-Magrīzī's and others' texts, parallels with other texts, and the text's handful of Qur'anic verses.

Side by side with this new critical edition, this second part also presents the first ever English translation of al-Maqrīzī's summary history of the pilgrimage and of his identification of all the Muslim rulers who, according to the author, had meaningfully and actively engaged with the $ha\check{g}$ during eight centuries of Muslim history. This also enables non-specialist readers to engage directly with al-Dahab al- $masb\bar{u}k$'s twenty-seven diverse leadership narratives and with their simple or complex strings of variegated stories about some of

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these rulers' leadership experiences that were mostly somehow related to the Mecca sanctuary. In order to enhance the accessibility and intelligibility of this convoluted literary construct a detailed reference apparatus accompanies this translation, identifying whenever possible names, places, and other phenomena that appear in the text and that continue to define in many ways its literary, historiographical, and wider cultural meanings and values. Published English translations of parallel passages in other texts (especially from *The History* of al-Ṭabarī) are also identified in this reference apparatus.

Abbreviations and Symbols

⟨…⟩ […] {…}	Qur'ānic Verses Interpolation Correction Used in the Arabic text to indicate the passage to the next folio (number
L/الأصل أ/E	indicated in the left margin) Leiden, Universiteitsbibliotheek, Ms Or. 560, fols. 115 ^b –135 ^a Madrid/San Lorenzo de el Escorial, Real Biblioteca del Monasterio, Ms Árabe 1771, fols. 22 ^b –75 ^b

Edition and Translation of al-Maqrīzī's

al-Dahab al-masbūk [fī dikr man ḥaǧǧa min al-ḫulafā' wa-l-mulūk]

كتاب الذهب المسبوك [في ذكر من حج من الخلفاء والملوك]

The Book of Gold Moulded [in the Format of the Report of Those Caliphs and Kings Who Performed the Haǧǧ]

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كَتَابُ الذَّهَبِ المَسْبُوكِ في ذكر مَنْ حَجَّ من الخُلُفاءِ وَالمُلُوك

تأليف المقريزي

_____ 1-٣ كتابُ ... المقريزي : في الهامش الأعلى بخط مختلف عن خط الناسخ.

The Book of Gold Moulded in the Format of the Report of Those Caliphs and Kings Who Performed the *Ḥaǧǧ*

by al-Maqrīzī

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

بِسمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحمن الرَّحِيم رب يسِّريا كريم

الحمد لله، وبه المستعان، على كل ما عز وهان، وصلى الله على نبينا محمد خاتم النبيين، وعلى آله وأصحابه والتابعين، صلاة باقية إلى يوم الدين.

وبعد فأسأل الله مبتهلا إليه مادا يدي له أن يتبع أيام المقر المخدوم بأخواتها الباقيات الصالحات والزيادات الغامرات، ليكون كل دهر يستقبله وأمل يستأنفه، موفيا على المتقدم له قاصرا عن المتأخر عنه، ويؤتيه من العمر أطوله وأبعده ومن العيش أعذبه وأرغده، عزيزا منصورا محميا موفورا، باسطًا يده فلا يقبضها إلا على نواصي أعداء وحساد، ساميا طرفه فلا يغضه إلا على لذة غمض ورقاد، مستريحة ركابه فلا يَعمِلها إلا لإستضافة عز وملك، حائزة قداحُه فكلا يَجيلها إلا لحيازة مال حتى ينال أقصى ما نتوجه إليه أمنية جامحة، وتسمو إليه همة طامحة.

وقد استفاض أن العزم الشريف قد قوي على الحج والتحلي بالعج والثج. وجرت العادة بإلطاف العبيد السادة، فتأملت حال الأتباع الذين يجب عليهم الهدايا في مثل هذه الحركة، فأردت التأسي بهم، ورأيتني أن أهديت نفسي فهي في ملك المقر المخدوم، وأن أهديت مالي فهو منه، وأن أهديت مودتي وشكري فهما خالصين له غير مشتركين. وكرهت أن أخلي هذا العزم من سُنته وأكون من المقصرين، أو أدعى في ملكي ما يفي بحق المقر المخدوم فأكون من الكاذبين: [الكامل]

٣ كل: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ⁷ بعد كلمة "على". ٥ مبتهلا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٦ قاصرا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٨ يده: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. الم عده: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. الم عداء: "اعداء : "اعدا" في الأصل. ٩ حائزة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("حايرة"). الموسود: "تسموا" في الأصل. الهمة: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ⁷ بعد كلمة "إليه". الطامحة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. 10 تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

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In the name of God, the merciful, the compassionate

O Lord, make it easy, o Noble One!

Praise be to God, who is being sought for help against all that overpowers and humiliates. May God bless our Prophet Muḥammad—the seal of prophets—, his folk, his companions, and the generation that followed them, and may He continue to do so until the Day of Judgment.

§1 I demand God—supplicating Him and stretching out my hands to Him—to cause the days of the noble lord to be followed by similarly good and additionally abundant ones ever after, such that every fortune that he anticipates and [every] expectation that he nurtures will come true, outdoing anyone who preceded him and unmatched by anyone who follows him. [I demand God that] He gives him the longest and most extensive lifetime, a life of the utmost sweetness and pleasance, in circumstances of high standing, victory, protection, and opulence; [a life during which he] spreads out his hand, only to close it for grasping enemies and enviers by the forelock; [a life during which he | raises high his look, only to bring it down for the pleasure of sleeping and lying down; [a life during which] his riding camels find rest, only to be used by him for welcoming majesty and kingship; [a life during which] his divining arrows are well-arranged, only to be moved about by him for collecting wealth. [I demand God all of this] so that he achieves the highest that untamable aspiration can pursue and that high-aiming ambition can reach for.

§ 2 The word has spread that the high-born intention was set on undertaking the $ha\check{g}\check{g}$ and to be endowed with the noise and blood of rituals. It has become common practice for servants to present a gift to their masters, for which reason I considered the situation of clients that owe presents on the occasion of an event like this, and I decided to follow their example. But then I thought: I could offer my soul as a present, but it already belongs to the noble lord; I could offer my property, but that is his already; I could offer my love and gratitude, but they already are his full and undivided due. I abhorred [the idea of] draining this intention [of my lord] from its habitual practice and of becoming as a result one of those that are considered negligent, or [the idea of] claiming to possess what can meet the noble lord's due and becoming as a result one of those that are considered liars. [$K\bar{a}mil$ meter]

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

إن أهد نفسي فهو مالكها ولها أصون كرائم الذخر أو أهد مالاً فهو واهبه وأنا الحقيق عليه بالشكر أو أهد شكري فهو مرتهن بجيل فعلك آخر الدهر والشمس تستغني إذا طلعت أنْ تستضيئ بطلعة البدرا

ولما كان العلم أنفس الذخائر وأعلاها قدرا وأعظم المآثر وأبقاها ذكرا، جمعت برسم الخزانة الشريفة المخدومية —عمرها الله ببقاء مالكها—{جُزءا} يحتوي على ذكر من حج من الخلفاء والملوك سميته الذهب المسبوك، ليكون تذكرة للخاطر الشريف بما هو مني أدرى وأحق بإفادته وأحرى. وإني فيما فعلت وصنعت — كمن أهدى القطر إلى البحر، أو بعث النُور إلى القمر والأرَج إلى الزهر، بل كالذي أرسل الضياء إلى الشمس وروح الحيوة إلى النفس، غير أن في كريم أخلاقه الزكية، وزاكى أعراقه المرضية ما يقبل اليسير ويتجاوز عن الخطأ والتقصير.

رعى الله المخدوم من حيث لا يرتقب، وحرسه من حيث لا يُحْتَسِب. وكان له في سفره خفيرا، أو في حضره عونا وظهيرا بمنه.

¹ وله ا... الذخر: ناقصة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة، مضافة هنا من أ، ص. ٢٣ ب ("لها اَصُون كرايم الذخر"). ٦ ببقاء: "ببقا" في الأصل. الله جُزءا: "جُزا" في الأصل. الالخلفاء: "الخلفاء الأصل. الأصل. الإأصل. الإأصل. الإأصل. الإأصل. الإصل. القصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمن ابعد كلمة "حرسه". المحقودة في الأصل بخط المقريزي. الخفيرا: "حفير" في الأصل. المحتودة في الأصل بعد كلمة الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة عند آخر السطر بعد كلمة "حضره". الوظهيرا: "ظهير" في الأصل، الواو والألف لتنوين الفتح من إضافة المقريزي.

اراجع خبرا مساويا عن الشاعر العباسي أبي عثمان سعيد بن حميد بن سعيد (ت. ٨٧٣/٢٥٩)، على شكل مختلف ولكن بمفردات وجمل ومعان متشابهة، في الخالديان، التحف والهدايا، ص. ٢٨، ٣٣. هذه البيوت الأربعة كلها لسعيد بن حميد الا الكلمتان الأخيرتان اللتان في شعر سعيد "بسنة البدر".

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§ 3 I cannot present my soul, because he already owns it, so I am only guarding it as the most precious sort of noblesse;

Nor can I present any wealth, because he has donated it, so I am the one who owes him thankfulness.

Nor can I present my gratitude, because it is a pawn until the end of time for your comeliness.

When the sun rises, she does not need to be lit by the full moon's highness.¹

§ 4 Since knowledge is the most precious and most valuable of treasures, the most glorious and the longest remembered of deeds, I collected for the benefit of the esteemed library of our lord—may God support it with long life for its owner—a volume that comprises the report of those caliphs and kings who performed the <code>haǧǧ</code>. I entitled it: 'The Moulded Gold', as a reminder to the high-born mind that what comes from me is better informed, more entitled to be considered useful, and more appropriate. In what I do and compose, I am like someone who presents drops of water to the sea, or who sends light to the moon, and fragrance to flowers, or even better, like someone who sends the rays of light to the sun, and the breath of life to the soul: apart from the fact that there is sinlessness in such a man's noble manners and that there is a satisfying aspect in the purity of his sweat, what is given is little but also surpasses things that are a fault and a shortcoming.

§5 May God protect our lord whenever he does not expect it and may He guard him whenever he does not think of it; may He be with him as a guardian when traveling, and as a supporter and helper when he is staying somewhere.

¹ This poem, as well as the preceding discussion of the reciprocal obligations between patrons and clients, demonstrates an obvious (for the poem even almost word for word) intertextual relationship with reports about the poet Saʿīd b. Ḥumayd (d. 259/873) writing a letter to his patron at the 'Abbāsid court, as these may be found, amongst others, in the section on gifts (al-hadāyā) in al-Ḥālidiyyān, al-Tuḥafwa-l-hadāyā, 28, 33. The latter tenth-century belletrist text on gift-giving has been identified as a source for al-Maqrīzī's Ḥiṭaṭ, which makes it highly likely that it also informed the current passage (I am grateful to Frédéric Bauden for this suggestion).

فصل في حجة رَسُول الله ﷺ

افتتحت بها هذا {الجزء} إذ كان ﷺ هو الذي بين للناس معالم دينهم وقال: "خُذُوا عني مناسككم." وقد امتلأت كتب الحديث بذكر حجة رسول الله ﷺ، وأفردَ فيها الفقيهُ الحافظ أبو محمد علي بن أحمد بن سعيد بن حزم الأندلسي مُصنَفًا جليلا٢، قد اعتُرض عليه في مواضع منه، أجبتُ عنها في محاب شارع النجاة."

وملخص حجة الوداع؛ أن رسول الله ﷺ لما دخل ذو القعدة تجهز للحج، وأمر الناس بالجهاز له، وأذن فيهم، فاجتمعوا. ثم صلى الظهريوم الخيس لست بقين من ذي القعدة سنة عشر من الهجرة بالمدينة أربعاً، وخرج منها بمن معه من المسلمين من أهل المدينة ومن تجمع من الأعراب

٢ الجزء: "الجزو" في الأصل. || هو: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ اعتُرض: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.
 ٧ وأذن: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || عشر: كشط المقريزي تاء مربوطة.
 ٨ أربعاً: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

٢ راجع ابن حزم، هجّة الوداع، ص. ١٣٩-١٦٥ (ذكر حجة الوداع وترتيبها وصفتها) خصوصا. ٣ كتاب "شارع النجاة" للمقريزي مذكور في ترجمة المقريزي للسخاوي (الضوء اللامع، ج. ٢، ص. ٢٣: "يشتمل على جميع ما اختلف فيه البشر من أصول دياناتهم وفروعها مع بيان أدلتها وتوجيه الحق منها")، ولكنه حسبما عرف مفقود. ٤ هذا الملخص كله موجود على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن كثير، الفصول، ص. ٢١٤-٧ (فصل حجة الوداع). وأكثر أخبار حجة الوداع المذكورة هنا موجودة أيضا على شكل مساو في كتاب آخر للمقريزي: راجع المقريزي، إمتاع الأسماع، ج. ٢، ص. ١٠٠-١٢٠.

² Abū Muḥammad 'Alī b. Aḥmad b. Sa'īd Ibn Ḥazm (384–456/994–1064) was an Andalusian poet, historian, jurist, philosopher, and theologian; he is especially renowned for his codification of the literalist Ṭāhirī doctrine and the application of its method to all the religious sciences (see R. Arnaldez, "Ibn Ḥazm", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-hazm-COM_0325). For Ibn Ḥazm's discussion of the Prophet's farewell pilgrimage, see in particular Adang (2005).

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Chapter on the Pilgrimage of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation

§ 6 I began this volume with [the Prophet's pilgrimage] since he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—is the one who has shown to the people the milestones of their religion, saying: "learn your pilgrimage rituals from me". The books of <code>hadīt</code> are full of reports of the pilgrimage of the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation. Out of all of these the jurist and <code>hāfiz</code> Abū Muḥammad 'Alī b. Aḥmad b. Saʿīd Ibn Ḥazm al-Andalusī² created an important single volume. I responded in the book Šāriʿ al-naǧāh [The Road to Deliverance] to certain passages in it to which objections were raised.³

§7 The farewell pilgrimage⁴ can be summarised [as follows]: The Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation—prepared for the pilgrimage when [the month of] Dū l-Qa'dah began, and he ordered the people to prepare for it as well. He called [to prayer] among them, so they gathered. Then, on Thursday 24 Dū l-Qa'dah of the tenth year since the *hiğrah* [20 February 632], while still in Medina, he prayed the midday prayer in four [*rak'ahs*],⁵ and he left from there, together with the Muslims from among the people of Medina and with those Bedouins that had assembled—

³ Al-Maqrīzī's "Road to Deliverance" is mentioned by his biographers, such as by al-Saḥāwī (d. 902/1497) (al-Paw' al-lāmi', 2:23), but no copy of the work is so far known to have been preserved.

⁴ This name is derived from the fact that this pilgrimage occurred only a few months before Muḥammad's death, bidding his community 'farewell' by taking the lead in the rituals of the pilgrimage to Mecca; these rituals are believed to have obtained their definite form at this particular occasion, and the farewell pilgrimage has therefore acquired a referential status for any discussion of the rituals and meanings of the <code>haǧǧ</code>, one of the five 'pillars' of Islam (see D.J. Stewart, "Farewell Pilgrimage", <code>EQ</code> http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-the-quran/farewell-pilgrimage-SIM_oo151).

⁵ The word *rak'ah* refers to a fixed sequence of specific positions and movements of the body, always in combination with set phrases and words in Arabic, that make up the substance of the Islamic ritual prayer (*ṣalāt*); every ritual prayer consists of at least two successive *rak'ahs* (see G. Monnot, "Ṣalāt", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/salat-COM_o983).

وهم عشرة آلاف—، بعدما استَعْملَ على المدينة أبا دُجَانة الساعدي—ويقال سِبَاع بن عُرْفُطَة الغِفَاري. فصلى العصر بذي الحُلِيُفة ركعتين وبات بها.

وأتاه آت من ربه عز وجل في ذلكَ الموضع—وهو وادي العقيق—يأمره عن ربه تعالى أن يقول في حجته: "هذه حجة في عمرة." ومعنى هذا أن الله سبحانه أمره بأن يقرن الحج مع العمرة.

°راجع ابن حنبل، المسند، ج. ١، ص. ٢٩٩-٣٠٠ (مسند عمر بن الخطاب، ١٦١: سمعتُ رسول الله ﷺ وهو بالعقيق يقول: "أتاني الليلة آتٍ من ربّي فقال: صَلّ في هذا الوادي المبارك وقُلْ: عمرةً في جَّة")، وراجع أيضا البخاري، الجامع الصحيح، ج. ٢، ص. ١٣٥-١٣٦ (كتاب الحج، باب قول النبي ﷺ العقيق واد مباركُ، ١٥٣٤: سمعتُ النبي ﷺ وادي العقيق يقول: "أتاني الليلة آتٍ من ربّي فقال: صَلّ في هذا الوادي المبارك وقُلْ عمرةً في جَّة")، وج. ٣، ص. ١٠٧ (كتاب الحرث والمزارعة، ٢٣٣٧: قال: "الليلة أتاني آتٍ من ربّي وهو بالعقيق أنْ صَلٍّ في هذا الوادي المبارك وقُلْ عمرةً في جَّة")، وراجع أيضا أبو داود، السنن، ص. ٢٩٤ (كتاب المناسك، باب في الإقران، ١٨٠٠: سمع رسول الله ﷺ يقول: "أتاني الليلة آتٍ من عند ربّي عز وجل، وقال: المناسك، باب في الإقران، ١٨٠٠: سمع بالعمرة إلى الحبّ، ٢٤٢٨ / ٢٤٢١ سمعتُ رسول الله ﷺ يقول وهو بالعقيق، فقال: "صَلّ في هذا الوادي المبارك وقُلْ: عمرةً في جَةٍ")، ورأجع أيضا ابن ماجة، السنن، ج. بالعقيق: "أتاني الليلة آتٍ من ربّي فقال: صَلّ في هذا الوادي المبارك وقُلْ: عمرةً في جَةٍ").

⁶ Abū Duǧānah Simāk b. Ḥarašah was a respected companion from one of the Arab tribes of Medina who had welcomed and supported the Prophet after his departure from Mecca; Abū Duǧānah was especially known for his courage and horsemanship (see his short biographical note in al-Ḥabarī, History XXXIX, 286, fn. 1297).

Sibā' b. 'Urfuṭah al-Ġifārī was a member of the Ḥiǧāzī tribe of Ġifār that are remembered for their alliance with the Prophet in the course of the 620s, and most of whom converted to Islam before 8/630. Sibā' is believed to have been left as a representative in Medina during a number of the Prophet's expeditions (J.W. Fück, "Banū Ghifār." in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/banu-ghifar-SIM_2501).

Dū l-Ḥulayfah: until today, this site—today's Abar ʿAlī, about ten kilometers from Medina—marks one of the *mīqāt*, the place where people performing the pilgrimage from Medina assume the *iḥrām*, a pilgrim's state of temporary consecration (J. Jomier, A.J. Wensinck, "Iḥrām", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ihram-SIM_3506).

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they numbered 10,000. Before that, he had appointed over Medina Abū Duǧānah al-Sāʿidī,⁶ and it was said [that the appointee rather was] Sibāʿ b. ʿUrfuṭah al-Ġifārī.⁷ He prayed the afternoon prayer in two *rakʿah*s at Dū l-Ḥulayfah,⁸ and he stayed there for the night.

5 §8 At that place—Wādī l-'Aqīq⁹—there came to him from his Lord—may He be strong and lofty—the instruction, on authority of his Lord, the exalted, to say regarding this pilgrimage of his: 'this is a pilgrimage within a lesser pilgrimage.' The meaning of this is that God—may He be praised—ordered him to integrate¹¹ the pilgrimage with the lesser pilgrimage. The next morn-

⁹ Wādī l-'Aqīq: a valley passing just West of Medina, along which in the Prophet's time the first stage of the route from Medina to Mecca ran (up to Dū l-Ḥulayfah) (G. Rentz, "al-'Aķīķ", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/al-akik-SIM_0477). See also Eskoubi (2006).

¹⁰ The lesser pilgrimage or visitation ('umrah) refers to a set of rituals in and around Mecca that are very similar or even identical to those of the pilgrimage $(ha\check{q}\check{q})$, but that are fewer in number and that are therefore considered to make up a separate, lesser type of ritual visitation to Mecca; unlike the pilgrimage—which is one of the five 'pillars' of Islam, and therefore obligatory-, the lesser pilgrimage is an act of devotion and piety that is not obligatory; it may be performed simultaneously with the pilgrimage (the timing of which is fixed in the Muslim calendar) or at any other moment. As transpires from this issue of timing as well as from the current passage, the relationship between pilgrimage and lesser pilgrimage has been a point of vehement discussions ever since the time of the Prophet; in due course, however, scholarly consensus has accepted the idea of a threefold relationship: qirān (integration, without breaking the *ihrām* between their performance), *tamattu* (combination, with a break in the *iḥrām* between them) and *ifrād* (completely separate performance) (R. Paret, E. Chaumont, "'Umra", in E12 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/ encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/umra-COM_1292). As the hadīt referred to here occupies an important position in these discussions, it is remarkable to note that al-Maqrīzī, following Ibn Katīr (and probably also Ibn Ḥazm [see below]), reversed the original word order of this passage authorising integration ($qir\bar{a}n$), for in the main hadith collections this phrase—attributed to God, and therefore part of a hadit qudsi, an instance of extrascriptural divine revelation—is preserved as stating: "say: [there is] a lesser pilgrimage in a pilgrimage (wa-qul: 'umratun fī ḥiǧǧatin)" (see Ibn Ḥanbal, al-Musnad, 1:299–300; al-Buḥārī, al-Ğāmi' al-ṣaḥīḥ, 2:135–136, 3:107; Abū Dāwūd, al-Sunan, 294; Ibn Māǧah, al-Ṣaḥīh, 3:33). For a detailed discussion of this point of contention in Ibn Ḥazm's text (with reference to the actual context of this short passage: the discussion whether women on pilgrimage who get their periods should put off ihrām or not, thus going for combination or integration of 'umra and hağğ), see Adang (2005): 114, 120, 135-144. *Qirān* or integration of *haǧð* with *'umrah* (see previous footnote). 11

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

فأصبح ﷺ فأخبر الناس بذلك. وطاف على نسائه يومئذ بغسل واحد—وهُنَّ تسعُّ وقيل إحدى عشرة. ثم اغتسل وصلى عند المسجد ركعتين، وأهَلَّ بحجة وعمرة معًا.

هذا الذي رواه بلفظه ومعناه عنه ﷺ ستة عشر صحابيا، منهم خادمه أنس بن مالك رضي الله عنه. وقد رواه عنه ﷺ ستة عشر تابعيًا قد ذكرتهم في كتاب شارع النجاة. وهذا صريح لا يحتمل التأويل وقد رواه عنه ﷺ منا عدا ذلك مما جاء من الأحاديث الموهمة التمتع أو ما يدل على الإفراد، فليس هَذا محل ذكرها. والقران في الحج هو مذهب إمامنا أبي عبد الله محمد بن إدريس الشافعي رحمة الله عليه، وقد نصره جماعة من محققي أصحابه، وهو الذي يحصل به الجمع بين الأحاديث

١ نسائه: "نسآيه" في الأصل. || يومئذ: "بوميذ" في الأصل. || إحدى: "احدي" في الأصل، والياء مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانه في السطر. ٢ عشرة: "عشر" في الأصل، والتاء المربوطة مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانه في آخر الكلمة. ٤ تابعيًا: "تابعا" في الأصل، وحرف الياء مضافة في مكانها في الكلمة بخط المقريزي.
 ٥ مما: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمن ¬ بعد كلمة "ذلك". || جاء: "جآ" في الأصل.

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ing, he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—informed the people of that. On that same day, he went around among his wives—they were nine, or some say eleven—, performing one single ritual ablution. Thereafter he performed [another] ritual ablution, prayed two *rak'ah*s at the mosque, and entered into *iḥrām* for the pilgrimage and the lesser pilgrimage together.

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§ 9 This is what has been transmitted in letter and spirit about him—may God bless him and grant him salvation—by sixteen companions, including his servant Anas b. Mālik¹²—may God be pleased with him. It has also been transmitted about him—may God bless him and grant him salvation—by sixteen successors, whom I have mentioned in the book Šāriʿal-naǧāh [The Road to Deliverance]. This is therefore unambiguous and does not allow for interpretation, for that could only be far-fetched. This is not the place either to mention those ḥadīṭs that have come down and instill the delusion of the principle of combination¹³ [of the pilgrimage and the lesser pilgrimage] or those that point at the principle of complete separation.¹⁴ The principle of integration during the pilgrimage is the doctrine of our imām Abū ʿAbd Allāh Muḥammad b. Idrīs al-Šāfiʿī¹⁵—may God's mercy be upon him—, supported by a group of authoritative adherents of his, for he is the one who managed in this matter to collate all the hadīts. Some scholars say that it is obligatory.

Anas b. Mālik was a young servant of the Prophet in Medina, who became an important transmitter of *hadīt* and an authoritative figure in later collections; he died in Basra in the early years of the second/eighth century (A.J. Wensinck, J. Robson, "Anas b. Mālik", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/anas-b-malik-SIM_0654).

¹³ Tamattu' or combination of hağğ and 'umrah (see footnote 10).

¹⁴ *Ifrād* or complete separation of *ḥaǧð* from *'umrah* (see footnote 10).

Muḥammad b. Idrīs al-Šāfiʿī is the well-known eponymous pioneer of a method of jurisprudence (fiqh) that was to crystallise over time in a coherent intellectual community of legal thinkers and practicioners, the Šāfiʿī madhab, one of the four 'schools of law' that acquired authoritative status in matters of Islamic law; al-Šāfiʿī was born in 150/767 and he died in Egypt in 204/820; his main contributions to the field of Islamic jurisprudence concern his narrowing down of the definition of authoritative custom to the Sunna of the Prophet, and his systematisation of analogical reasoning (see E. Chaumont, "al-Shāfiʿī", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-shafii-COM_1020; Kecia [2011]).

كلها. ومن العلماء | من أوجبه، وممن قال بأفضليته الإمام أبو حنيفة النُعمْن بن ثابت رحمه الله، طاقه من الله الله الله عن الإمام أبي عبد الله أحمد بن حنبل الشيباني رحمه الله.

وساق ﷺ الهدي من ذي الحليفة، وأمر من كان معه هدي أن يُهل كما أهل ﷺ. وسار ﷺ والناس بين يديه وخلفه وعن يمينه وشماله أمما لا يُحصون كثرةً، كلهم قدم ليأتم به ﷺ. فلما قدم ﷺ مكة لأربع ليال خلون من ذي الحجة طاف للقدوم. ثم سعى بين الصفا والمروة، وأمر الذين لم

Abū Ḥanīfah al-Nuʿmān is another eponymous pioneer of a method of jurisprudence (fiqh) that crystallised over time into the Ḥanafī madhab; he lived in Iraq, where he died in 150/767; his legal thought, only transmitted via the writings of his pupils, is especially known for its high degree of reasoning using personal judgment and analogy (see J. Schacht, "Abū Ḥanīfa al-Nuʿmān", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/abu-hanifa-al-numan-SIM_0194).

Among those that say that it is preferable there is the *imām* Abū Ḥanīfah al-Nuʿmān b. Ṭābit¹⁶—may God have mercy upon him—, as transmitted on the authority of the *imām* Abū ʿAbd Allāh Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal al-Šaybānī¹¹—may God have mercy upon him.

§ 10 He—may God bless him and grant him salvation—drove the oblational animals on from Dū l-Ḥulayfah, and he ordered who had brought an oblation animal with him to enter into iḥrām just as he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—had. When he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—moved on, an innumerable amount of people from all nations were before and after him, and to his right and left. All of them came to follow his—may God bless him and grant him salvation—example. When he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—reached Mecca on 4 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah [1 March], he performed the circumambulation [of the Kaʿbah] for the occasion of the arrival. Thereafter he performed the ritual of running between al-Ṣafā and al-Marwah. He commanded to those who

Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal is yet another eponymous pioneer of a method of jurisprudence (fiqh), which crystallised over time into the Ḥanbalite madhab; he lived in Baghdad, where he died in 241/855; Ibn Ḥanbal is especially associated with the triomph of traditionalism in the formation of Sunni Islamic thought and practice (see H. Laoust, "Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ahmad-b-hanbal-COM_0027; Melchert [2006]).

¹⁸ Hady is an ancient Arabic term meaning 'oblation'; in the context of Islamic pil-grimage it refers to the animals that are to be offered to God as part of the pilgrimage rituals (J. Chelhod, "Hady", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hady-SIM_2611).

¹⁹ *Ṭawāf* refers to the ritual of walking or running seven times counterclockwise around the Ka'bah at Mecca; it is one of the rituals that must be performed for the pilgrimage to be valid; there are three sets of *ṭawāf*: that of 'the arrival' (*al-qudūm*), that of 'the overflowing' (*al-ifāḍah*) or of the visitation on 10 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah—marking the end of *iḥrām* restrictions—, and the non-obligatory one of the departure (*wadā*') (U. Rubin, "Circumambulation", in *Et*³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/circumambulation-COM_25135).

Sa'y is the ritual of running between al-Şafā and al-Marwah, two hills to the south and north-west of the Ka'bah, connected by a 300-meter-course which pilgrims have to travers seven times in all; this ritual is obligatory at the arrival and recommended at the departure of all pilgrims; it symbolises the prophetic story of Hagar's running in search for water for her son Ismā'īl (T. Fahd, "Sa'y", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/say-SIM_6675).

يسوقوا هَدْيا أن يفسخوا حجهم إلى عمرة ويتحللوا حِلَّا تاما، ثم يُهلوا بالحج وقت خروجهم إلى منى. وقال ثمَ: "لو استقبلت من أمري ما استدبرت ما سقت الهدي، ولجعلتها عمرة." وهذا دليل ظاهر أنه ﷺ لم يكن متمتعا كما ذهب إليه بعض أصحاب الإمام أحمد وغيرهم.

وقَدِم علي بن أبي طالب رضي الله عنه من اليمن، فقال له ﷺ: "بما أهللت؟" قال: "بإهْلالِ كإهْلالِ النبي ﷺ: "إني سقت الهدي وقَرَنْتُ." روى هذا اللفظ أبو داود وغيره من الأئمة

ه الأئمة: "الايمة" في الأصل.

آراجع أبو داود، السنن، ص. ٣٠٧ (كتاب المناسك، باب صفة حجّة النّبيّ، ١٩٠٥: "إنّي لو استقبلتُ من أمري ما استدبرتُ لم أَسُقِ الهَدْيَ ولجعلتُها عمرةً")؛ وراجع أيضا أبو داود، السنن، ص. ٢٩٠ (كتاب المناسك، باب في إفراد الحجّ، ١٧٨٤: "لو استقبلتُ من أمري ما استدبرتُ لما سُقْتُ الهَدْيَ")، والنسائي، السنن، ج. ٥، ص. ١٤٧ (كتاب مناسك الحجّ، الكراهية في الثيّاب المصبّغة للمحرم، ٢٧١٢: "لو استقبلتُ من أمري ما استدبرتُ لم أُسُقِ الهَدْيَ وجعلتُها عمرةً")، وابن حنبل، المسند، ج. ٢١، ص. ٣٢٠ (مسند أنس بن مالك، السمالية، الواستقبلتُ من أمري ما استبدتُ لجعلتُها عمرةً ولكن سُقْتُ الهَدْيَ وقَرنتُ الحجّ والعمرة").

Miná is a town in the hills east of Mecca on the road to 'Arafah, where on 10 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah part of the pilgrimage rituals are performed, such as the throwing of pebbles, the sacrifice, and the shaving or cutting of the pilgrims' hair; it is also the site for the three-day-celebration after the conclusion of the pilgrimage, on 11, 12 and 13 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah (Fr. Buhl, "Minā", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/mina-SIM_5201).

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had not brought along an oblational animal to rescind their pilgrimage [and to transform it] into a lesser pilgrimage, to completely end their state of *iḥrām*, and to enter into *iḥrām* [again] at their departure for Miná. ²¹ He said: "Had I known at the beginning of my case what I knew at the end thereof, I would not have driven on the oblation animal and thus would have made it a lesser pilgrimage." ²² This is a clear proof that he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—was not combining [pilgrimage and lesser pilgrimage], as was believed by some companions of the *imām* Aḥmad²³ and by others.

10 §11 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib²⁴—may God be pleased with him—arrived from Yemen, and he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—said to him: "How did you enter into *iḥrām*?" He said: "In the way the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation—entered into *iḥrām*." The Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation—said to him: "Verily, I led on the oblation animal and integrated [the pilgrimage with the lesser pilgrimage]." This wording was transmitted by Abū Dāwūd²⁵ and by other *imāms*, via

For the translation of the more detailed parallel passage in Ibn Ḥazm's text, regarding this discussion of the requirements following from bringing along sacrificial animals, see Adang (2005): 121–122.

²³ For Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal, see above, note 17.

^{&#}x27;Alī b. Abī Ṭālib is the nephew and son-in-law of the Prophet; he was married to the Prophet's daughter Fāṭimah, with whom he had two sons: al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn; he was one of the first believers in Muḥammad's mission, and succeeded in 36/656 to the leadership of the Muslim community as the fourth successor to Muḥammad, or caliph, in a context of general upheaval, discord, and competition (the first fitnah) that prevented his authority from ever being generally accepted; he was murdered in the mosque of Kufa, Iraq, in 40/661; his lineage, the 'Alids, and their various supporters eventually crystallised into a separate religious community, the šī'at 'Alī ('Alī's party) or the Shiites, who believe in the transhuman nature and mission of 'Alī and his designated descendants, the imāms (L. Veccia Vaglieri, "'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ali-b-abi-talib-COM_0046).

Abū Dāwūd al-Siǧistānī (d. 275/889) is the compiler of one of the six collections of ḥadīt that are considered canonical in Sunni Islam (Christopher Melchert, "Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistānī", in EI³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/abu-dawud-al-sijistani-SIM_0024; Melchert [2008]).

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بإسناد صحيح، وهو صريح في القِرَان.٧ وقدم مع علي رضي الله عنه من اليمن هَدَايا. فأشركه ﷺ في هَدْيه أيضا، فكان حاصلهما مائة بدَنَة.

ثم خرج ﷺ إلى منى، فبات بها، وكانت ليلة الجمعة التاسع من ذي الحجة. ثم أصبح، فسار إلى عرفة، وخطب بنَمْرَة خطبة عظيمة شهدها من أصحابه نحو من أربعين ألفا رضي الله عنهم أجمعين. وجمع بين الظهر والعصر. ثم وقف بعرفة، فحج على رَحْل، وكانت زاملته. ثم بات بالمزدلفة وجمع بين المغرب والعشاء ليلتئذ. ثم أصبح، فصلى الفجر في أول وقتها. ثم سار قبل طلوع الشمس إلى مِنى، فرمى جمرة العقبة، ونحَر وحلق. ثم أفاض، فطاف بالبيت طواف الفرض، وهو طواف الزيارة.

١ صريح: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ مائة: "ماية" في الأصل. ٦ والعشاء ليلتئذ: "والعشآ ليلتيذ" في الأصل. || الشمس: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

٧ راجع أبو داود، السنن، ص. ٢٩٢ (كتاب المناسك، باب في الإقران، ١٧٩٧: فلما قدم عليّ من اليمن على رسول الله على أو داود، السنن، ص. ٢٩٢ (كتاب المناسك، باب في الإقران، ١٧٩٧: فلما قدم عليّ من اليمن على رسول الله على على النبيّ على قال: "فانيّ السنن، ج. ٥، ص. ١٤٩ (كتاب مناسك الحج، القران، ٢٧٢٥: فلمّا قدم على النبيّ على قال على: "فأ تيتُ رسول الله على ققال لي رسول الله على "كيف صَنعْت؟" قلتُ: "أهللتُ بإهلالكَ." قال: "فانيّ سُقْتُ الهَدْي وَقَرَنْتُ")، وص. ١٥٨ (كتاب مناسك الحج، الحج بغير نية يقصده المحرم، ٢٧٤٥: فلمّا قدم على على النبيّ على قال على: "... فأ تيتُ المَدْي وَقَرَنْتُ").

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an authentic chain of transmission, being very clear about the principle of integration. 'Alī—may God be pleased with him—brought oblational animals from Yemen, and he also gave him—may God bless him and grant him salvation—a share of his oblational animals. They jointly received 100 head of cattle.

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§12 Then he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—left for Miná, where he spent the night. This was the night of Friday 9 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah [6 March]. The next morning he went to 'Arafah.²⁶ He delivered a sublime sermon at Namirah,²⁷ witnessed by about 40,000 of his companions—may God be pleased with all of them—, and he combined the noon and afternoon prayer. Then he performed the standing [before God] at 'Arafah. He performed the pilgrimage on a mount which was his pack camel. Then he spent the night at Muzdalifah,²⁸ combining there and then the sunset and evening prayer. At early dawn of the next morning, he performed the morning prayer [at Muzdalifah], and before sunrise he went to Miná, where he performed the throwing at Ğamrat al-'Aqabah, the sacrifice, and the shaving of his hair. Then he ran back in an enthusiastic manner, and performed around the house [of God] the obligatory circumambulation, which is the circumambulation of the visitation.²⁹ There is disagreement on where exactly he

^{26 &#}x27;Arafah or Mount 'Arafāt refers to a wide plain with an isolated hill on it, situated about 21 kilometers east of Mecca, where pilgrims perform the "standing before God" (wuqūf) from noon to sunset of 9 Dū l-Ḥiǧgah, after a public sermon (hutbah) and a combination of the noon and afternoon prayer; it is one of the rituals that must be performed for the pilgrimage to be valid, and it is generally believed that the sins of pilgrims performing it are forgiven (Uri Rubin, "'Arafāt", in EI³ http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/arafat-COM_22903).

Namirah is claimed to be the name of a site near 'Arafah, with a cave in which the Prophet is believed to have stayed before beginning the ritual at 'Arafah (Rubin, "'Arafāt").

Muzdalifah is—next to 'Arafah—the second place outside Mecca's *ḥaram*-area which pilgrims are to visit during the pilgrimage; it is on the route between Mecca and 'Arafah; pilgrims combine the sunset and evening prayer and then spend the night between 9 and 10 Dū l-Ḥiğǧah at this site, finishing with another but much shorter standing before God (*wuqūf*) and the morning prayer (A.J. Wensinck, J. Jomier, "Ḥaddjdj," in *Ei*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hadjdj-COM_0249).

²⁹ *Ṭawāf al-ifāḍah* or *ṭawāf al-ziyārah*, see above note 19.

واختلف أين صلى الظهريومئذ، وقد أشكل ذلك على كثير من الحفاظ. ثم حل من كل شيء حُرُم منه ﷺ. وخطب ثاني يوم النحر خطبة عظيمة أيضا، ووصى وحذر وأنذر، وأشهدهم على أنفسهم بأنه بلغهم الرسالة. فنحن نشهد أنه بلغ الرسالة، وأدى الأمانة، ونصح الأمة ﷺ تسليما كثيرا إلى يوم الدين. ثم أقبل ﷺ منصرفا إلى المدينة، وقد أكمل الله | له دينه.

١ يومئذ: "نوميذ" في الأصل. إلشيء: "شي" في الأصل. ٢ ثاني ... وحذر: ناقصة في الأصل،
 مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة
 "خطب". إلى وأشهدهم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

TRANSLATION § 12

performed the noon prayer on that day—this has been a source of confusion for many experts. Then everything that had been forbidden for him—may God bless him and grant him salvation—became lawful again. On the day after the Day of Immolation, he delivered another sublime sermon, and he gave counsel, cautioned, and admonished. He called upon them as a witness for themselves that he had told them about [God's] message. We similarly testify that he—may God bless him and grant him total salvation until Judgement Day—told about [God's] message, led to [God's] faithfulness, and gave good counsel to the community. Thereafter he—may God bless him and grant him salvation—began to return to Medina. Thus God had made his religion complete for him.

10

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

لطفة

النداء بالحج سُنة للمسلمين. ويُنادى بديار مصر في رجب، وهو قياس ندائه عليه السلام أول ذي القعدة لأن مسافة الحج من المدينة عشرة أيام فقدم النداء بثلاثة أمثالها، ومسافة الحج في البر من مصر أربعُونَ يومًا، فقدم النداء بثلاثة أمثالها، فكانت الجملة من أول رجب إلى انقضاء عشر ذي الحجة خمسة أشهر وعشرة أيام.

وكذلك بدمشق.

وأول من أدار المحمل الملك الظاهر بيبرس البندقداري رحمه الله.

النداء: "النداء" في الأصل. || ندائه: "ندآيه" في الأصل. ٣ النداء ا: "النداّ" في الأصل. ٤ النداء ٢: "النداّ" في الأصل. || انقضاء: "انقضاء: "انقضاً" في الأصل. ١ البندقداري: مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة بعد كلمة "بيبرس". || رحمه الله: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ٦ بعد كلمة "البندقداري."

Brief note

§13 The public call for the pilgrimage is a binding tradition for Muslims. In the regions of Egypt, the call is done in Rağab. This is by analogy with the call by him—peace be upon him—on 1 Dū l-Qa'dah: the distance for the pilgrimage from Medina is 10 days, whereas the call is done 3 times the same amount [of days] before; the distance for the pilgrimage over land from Egypt is 40 days, whereas the call is done 3 times the same amount [of days] before, there being in all 5 months and 10 days between 1 Rajab and the end of 10 Dū l-Hiğǧah.

10 §14 The same is true [for the public call for the pilgrimage] in Damascus.

§ 15 The first one to organise the parading of the *maḥmal*³⁰ was al-Malik al-Zāhir Baybars al-Bunduqdārī³¹—may God's mercy be upon him.

Since the mid-thirteenth century the *mahmal* was a central component of rulers' pilgrimage paraphernalia, consisting of an empty palanquin covered with an elaborately decorated cloth that accompanied the main pilgrimage caravans (from Egypt, from Syria, from Iraq ...) to Mecca; it symbolised the presence and (aspired) reality of a ruler's authority along the route and in Mecca, as well as his patronage of the caravan and pilgrimage rituals; *mahmal*s were in use into the twentieth century (see Jomier [1953]); on the legendary origins of the *mahmal* parade, see Behrens-Abouseif (1997).

³¹ Al-Ṣāhir Baybars was sultan of Egypt and Syria between 658/1260 and 676/1277 (P. Thorau, "Baybars I, al-Malik al-Ṣāhir Rukn al-Dīn", in E1³ http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/baybars-i-al-malik-al-zahir-rukn-al-din -COM_23709; Thorau [1987]).

فصل في ذكر من حج من الخلفاء في مدة خلافته

أبو بكر الصديق رضي الله عنه.

اسمُهُ عبد الله بن أبي قحافة عثمان بن عامر بن عمرو بن كعب بن سَعْد بن تَيْم بن مُرة بن كعب بن لُؤَى بن غالب بن فهر بن مالك القرشي التيمي، خليفة رسول الله ﷺ:

ه بويع له بعد وفاة رسول الله ﷺ بيعة العامة يوم الثاثاء ثالث عشر شهر ربيع الأول سنة إحدى عشرة من الهجرة.

فحج بالناس في هذه السنة عَتَّابُ بن أُسِيْد، وقيل: عبد الرحمن بن عوف رضيَ الله عنهما.

١ الخلفاء: "الخلفآ" في الأصل. ٥ له: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة فوق السطر. | العامة: "العآمة" في الأصل. | الثلثاء: "الثلثاء: "الثلثاء في الأصل. ٦ عشرة: التاء المربوطة ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها في السطر.

Chapter with the Report of the Caliphs Who Went on Pilgrimage During Their Caliphate

1. Abū Bakr al-Ṣiddīq³²—May God be pleased with him.

§ 16 His name is 'Abd Allāh b. Abī Quḥāfah 'Utmān b. 'Āmir b. 'Amr b. Ka'b b. Sa'd b. Taym b. Murrah b. Ka'b b. Lu'ayy b. Ġālib b. Fihr b. Mālik al-Qurašī l-Taymī, Successor of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation.

§17 The public oath of allegiance was sworn to him after the passing of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation—on Tuesday, the 13th of the month Rabīʿ al-Awwal, of the year 11 since the *hiğrah* [9 June 632].

§ 18 In this year 'Attāb b. Asīd³³—it was said 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf,³⁴ may God be pleased with both of them—led the people on the pilgrimage.

Abū Bakr al-Ṣiddīq was the first to succeed the Prophet as leader of Muḥammad's community, as 'Commander of the Faithful' and 'Caliph'; he is remembered as a long-standing close companion of Muḥammad and as the father of his favourite wife, whose main achievement during his brief caliphate was the continuation and consolidation of Muḥammad's achievement in the Hijaz and on the Arabian peninsula; he died in 13/634 (W.M. Watt, "Abū Bakr", in *Et*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/abu-bakr-SIM_0165; Madelung [1997]: 28–56).

^{33 &#}x27;Aṭṭāb b. Asīd b. Abī l-ʿĪṣ b. Umayyah was a member of the Umayyad clan, the leading clan of pre-Islamic Mecca, who changed sides upon Muḥammad's capture of Mecca in 8/630 and who was made governor of Mecca shortly afterwards; he continued to hold this post during the caliphate of Abū Bakr, and died between 12/634 and 23/644 ("Attāb", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/attab-SIM_0856).

^{&#}x27;Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf was an early convert and companion of Muḥammad, with considerable standing in Muḥammad's community; he was a close advisor of Abū Bakr and eventually he also was a member of the council (šūrá) that arranged the succession to the caliph 'Umar in 23/644; he died in about 31/652 (M. Houtsma; W.M. Watt; "'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/abd-al-rahman-b-awf-SIM_o13).

وحج أبو بكر رضي الله عنه بالناس سنة اثنَتي عشرة، واستخلف على المدينة عثمان بن عفان رضي الله عنهما، والأول الله عنه، وقيل: حج بالناس عمر بن الخطاب أو عبد الرحمن بن عَوْف رضي الله عنهما، والأول أصح.^

وتوفي أبو بكر رضي الله عنه على رأس سنتين وثلثة أشهر واثني عشر يومًا، وقيل غير ذلك.

[^]راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٢، ص. ٢٥١.

§19 Abū Bakr—may God be pleased with him—led the people on the pilgrimage in the year 12 [634]. He left as his deputy over Medina 'Utmān b. 'Affān³5—may God be pleased with him. There was said that 'Umar b. al-Ḥaṭṭāb³6 or 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf—may God be pleased with both of them—led the people on the pilgrimage. But the first statement is the most authentic.

§ 20 Abū Bakr—may God be pleased with him—passed away after exactly two years, three months, and twelve days [in office]—it was said otherwise.

^{&#}x27;Utmān b. 'Affān was a member of the Umayyad clan of pre-Islamic Mecca, but also an early convert and a close companion and son-in-law of Muḥammad, and therefore a highly respected member of his community; in 23/644 he was chosen to succeed 'Umar in the caliphate, which he held—with mixed success—until 35/656; he was murdered in Medina by tribal groups dissatisfied with his centralising policy vis-à-vis recently acquired rich provinces such as Egypt and Iraq (G. Levi Della Vida, R.G. Khoury, "'Utmān b. 'Affān", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia -of-islam-2/uthman-b-affan-COM_1315; Madelung [1997]: 78–140).

^{&#}x27;Umar b. al-Ḥaṭṭāb was one of the closest companions to Muḥammad, who was married to his daughter; upon Muḥammad's death, he undoubtedly was one of the community's most charismatic leading members, which resulted in his succession to Abū Bakr in 13/634; his leadership until his death in 23/644 was a pivotal moment in the community's early history, taking a defining course that included its successful expansion beyond the Arabian peninsula and the set-up of embryonic organisational structures that were soon to transform into the basic features of the early Islamic empire (G. Levi Della Vida; M. Bonner, "'Umar (I) b. al-Khaṭṭāb", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/umar-i-b-al-khattab-SIM_7707; Madelung [1997]: 57–77).

عُمر بن الخطاب

ابن نُفَيل بن عبد العُزّى بن {رياح} بن عبد الله بن {قُرط} بن رَزاح بن عَدي بن كعب القرشي العدوي، أبو حفص، أمير المؤمنين رضي الله عنه.

ولي الخلافة بعد أبي بكر الصديق رضي الله عنه. بويع له بها باستخلافه له في جمادى الآخرة سنة ثلث عشرة، واختلف في اليوم كما اختلف في يوم وفاة أبي بكر رضي الله عنه. وقتل مطعُونًا بيدِ أبي لُؤلؤة —غلام المغيرة بن شعبة —لثلاث بقين من ذي الحجة سنة ثلث وعشرين. فكانت خلافته عشر سنيْنَ ونصف، حج في جميعها إلا السَّنة الأُولى فقط، فإنه حج بالناس فيها عتاب بن أسيد، وقيل: بل حج عمر بالناس سِنيه كلها.

وفي سنة سبع عشرة اعتمر رضي الله عنه و بنى المسجد الحرام ووسع فيه، وأقام بمكة عشرين ليلة. ١٠ وهدم على قوم أبوا أن يبيعوا دورهم وعوضهم أثمانها من بيت المال. وجدد أنْصَابَ الحَرَم على يد

٢ العُزّى: "العُوّي" في الأصل. || {رياح}: "رَباح" في الأصل وهو خطأ. || {قُوط}: "قُوَظ" في الأصل وهو خطأ ومن الظاهر أن المقريزي صحح الظاء. || بن∘: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ باستخلافه: الفاء والهاء في الهامش الأيسر على نفس السطر بخط الناسخ. ٨ بل: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || سِنيه: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٩ رضي ... عنه: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة على آخر السطر في الهامش الأيسر.

2. 'Umar b. al-Ḥaṭṭāb

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b. Nufayl b. 'Abd al-'Uzzá b. Riyāḥ b. 'Abd Allāh b. Qurṭ b. Razāḥ b. 'Adī b. Ka'b al-Qurašī l-'Adawī, Abū Ḥafṣ, Commander of the Faithful—may God be pleased with him.

§ 21 He occupied the position of caliph after Abū Bakr al-Ṣiddīq—may God be pleased with him. The oath of allegiance was sworn to him for [this position], following his appointment as successor by [Abū Bakr] in Ğumādá II of the year 13 [August 634]. There are different opinions on the exact date, just as there are different opinions on the day of the demise of Abū Bakr—may God be pleased with him. ['Umar] was stabbed to death by Abū Lu'lu'ah, the slave of al-Muġīrah b. Šu'bah,³⁷ on 27 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah of the year 23 [4 November 644]. His caliphate lasted for ten years and a half. He performed the pilgrimage in all of [these years], except for one year only, because in [that year] 'Attāb b. Asīd led the people on the pilgrimage. It was [also] said that 'Umar rather performed the pilgrimage every year of [his caliphate].

§ 22 In the year 17 [638] he—may God be pleased with him—performed the lesser pilgrimage. He carried out building works on the sacred mosque,³⁸ creating more space inside. He stayed in Mecca for twenty nights. He had [the properties] demolished of people who refused to sell their [neighbouring] houses and he compensated them with their market values from the public treasury. He had the stones that stake out the sacrosanct area (*ḥaram*)

On the murder of 'Umar by Abū Lu'lu'ah, a Christian slave of the then governor of Basra and companion al-Muġīrah b. Šu'bah (d. c. 51/671), and a refused appeal against a tax as its main motive, see Levi Della Vida; Bonner, "'Umar (1) b. al-<u>Kh</u>aṭṭāb", E1²; Madelung (1997): 68–70.

The Meccan sanctuary of *al-masğid al-ḥarām*, the sacred mosque, was originally constructed as a place of Muslim worship in 8/630 by Muḥammad, on the small open space around the Ka'bah and incorporating the related sacred sites of the Maqām Ibrāhīm and the well of Zamzam; soon proving too small for its purpose, this mosque has continuously been enlarged, embellished, and added to by a long list of political rulers, from the days of the caliph 'Umar until contemporary engagements by the Sa'ūdī kings (A.J. Wensinck, "al-Masdjid al-Ḥarām", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/al-masdjid-al-haram-SIM_4999; see also Grabar [1985]: 4–7; al-Harigi [1994]).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

عُخْرَمة | بن نوفل في آخرين. واستأذنه أهل المياة في أن يبنوا منازل بين مكة والمدينة، فأذن لهم - 117b وشرط عليهم أن ابن السبيل أحق بالظل والماء.٩

ثم خرج من المدينة عام الرمادة ١٠ حاجاً أو معتمراً، فأتى الجار ليرى السفن التي قدمت من مصر في الخليج الذي احتفره عَمرو بن العاص، كما قد ذكرت خبره في كتاب المواعظ والاعتبار بذكر

٢ أحق: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل الى الأعلى + صح؛
 يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "السبيل". || والماء: "والمآ" في الأصل. ٣ معتمرا: ناقصة في الأصل،
 مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة على آخر السطر في الهامش الأيسر. || فأتى: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ الذي: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.
 ٤ الذي: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || ذكرت: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

وراجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٢، ص. ٣٨٢، وفي الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك, ج. ١٥، ص. ٢٥٢٩-٢٥٢٩.
 ١٠ عام الرمادة هو سنة ١٨ (ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٢، ص. ٣٩٦).
 ٣٩٦، الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٥٠١، ص. ٢٥٧٠).

renewed by Maḥramah b. Nawfal,³⁹ amongst others. The overseers of the wells asked for his permission to build way stations [on the route] between Mecca and Medina. He gave them permission, but made it conditional upon them that the wayfarer⁴⁰ would always be entitled to shelter and water.⁴¹

5 § 23 Then he left Medina in the Year of the Drought,⁴² either performing the pilgrimage or the lesser pilgrimage. He came to al-Ğār⁴³ to view the ships that came from Egypt via the canal which 'Amr b. al-ʿĀṣ⁴⁴ had dug out—as I have reported in the book *al-Mawāʿiẓ wa-l-iʿtibār bi-dikr al-ḥiṭaṭ wa-l-āṭār*

³⁹ Maḥramah b. Nawfal b. Uhayb b. 'Abd Manāf (d. 54/673–674) was a member of the Quraysh of Mecca who converted to Islam in 8/630; he is remembered in particular by later authorities for his knowledge of Quraysh traditions, of their geneaology, and of these stones that demarcated the sacrosanct area of Mecca and that are believed to have been put there by the prophet Ibrāhīm under the supervision of the angel Ğibrīl (see his biography in al-Ṭabarī, *History XXXIX*, 42–43).

⁴⁰ In pre-Islamic and early Islamic society, the term 'wayfarer' (*Ibn al-sabīl*) referred to a specific social group that enjoyed a particular protected social status among settled people (see al-Ṭabarī, *History XIII*, 109, fn. 375).

⁴¹ For the translation of the parallel text in al-Ţabarī's History, see al-Ṭabarī, History XIII, 109.

In his history, al-Ṭabarī explains that "in this year, I mean 18 (639), the people were afflicted by a severe famine and a drought of catastrophic proportions. This is the year that is called the Year of the Drought (ramādah)" (al-Ṭabarī, History XIII, 151); he furthermore explains the use of the specific Arabic noun ramādah (derived from ramād, meaning ashes) as follows: "In the reign of 'Umar the people in Medina and its surrounding territory were afflicted by a drought in which the world was awhirl with dust when the wind blew, as if it rained ashes. That is why this year was called the Year of Drought" (al-Ṭabarī, History XIII, 154).

Al-Ğār was Medina's supply port on the Red Sea until the eighteenth century; from the days of the caliph 'Umar until the middle of the second/eighth century, this supply consisted predominantly of grain brought from Egypt (A. Dietrich, "al-Djār", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-djar-SIM_1999).

^{&#}x27;Amr b. al-ʿĀṣ was a Meccan leader and companion of the Prophet, who acquired his fame especially in his leading involvement in the Arabic conquests of Palestine and of Egypt; he consolidated Arab authority over Egypt and became Egypt's first Muslim governor; he was dismissed by the third caliph, 'Utmān, but returned to the governorship of Egypt after successfully siding with the Umayyad Muʻāwiyah against the caliph 'Alī in 36–38/656–658; he died in office at an allegedly very advanced age in 42/663 (A.J. Wensinck, "'Amr b. al-ʿĀṣ", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/amr-b-al-as-SIM_0633).

الخطط والآثار.١١ وقال للناس: "سيروا بنا ننظر إلى السفن التي سيرها الله إلينا من أرض فرعون." وأكل في سفره هذا وهو محرم لحم ظبي أصابه قوم حلال. فلما نزل على البحر قال: "إغتسلوا من ماء البحر فإنه مبارك."

ثم صك للناس بذلك الطعام صكوكا، فتبايع التجار الصكوك بينهم قبل أن يقبضوها. فلقي عمر العلاء بن الأسود، فقال: "كم ربح حكيم بن حِزَام؟" فقال: "إبتاع من صكوك الجار بمائة ألف درهم، وربح عليها مائة ألف." فلقيه عمر، فقال: "يا حكيم، كم ربحت؟" فأخبره بمثل خبر العلاء. قال: "فبعته قبل أن تقبضه؟" قال: "نعم." قال: "فإن هذا بيع لا يصلح، فاردده." قال: "ما علمت أن هذا لا يصلح وما أقدر على رده." قال: "ما بد." قال: "والله، ما أقدر على ذلك، وقد تفرق وذهب، ولكن رأس مالي وربحى صدقة." ١٢

٣ ماء: "ما" في الأصل. ٤ صك: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ العلاء: "العلاّ" في الأصل. | بن ا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. | فقال: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي الأصل. | بن ا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل الى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمن تبعد كلمة "الاسود". || بمائة: "بماية" في الأصل. ٦ مائة: "ماية" في الأصل. ٩ ورِجْي: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

۱۱ راجع المقريزي، الخطط، ج. ١، ص. ١٩١؛ ج. ٣، ص. ٣٧٦. ١٦ راجع خبر عام الرمادة على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن عبد الحكم، فتوح مصر، ص. ١٦٦.

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[Admonitions and Reflections on the Quarters and Monuments (in Fusṭāṭ and Cairo)].⁴⁵ He said to the people: "Come along with us to watch the ships that God has sent to us from the land of Pharao." During this trip of his, he ate the meat of a gazelle shot by respectable people, while he was in the state of *iḥrām*. When he came down to the sea, he said: "Perform the ritual ablution with water from the sea, for it is blessed."

§ 24 Then he assigned to the people fixed shares in that food [that was brought from Egypt to Arabia via al-Ğār]. He merchants sold the shares among each other before they had actually acquired [the food]. So when 'Umar met with al-'Alā' b. al-Aswad, He said: How much profit did Ḥakīm b. Ḥizām make?" He said: He purchased the shares of al-Ğār for 100,000 dirhams and made a profit on them of 100,000 [dirhams]." 'Umar met with him and said: "Ḥakīm, how much profit have you made?" He reported to him just as al-'Alā' had reported. ['Umar] said: "Did you sell it before you had acquired it?" He said: "Yes." ['Umar] said: "This is a sale that is not permitted, so return [the money]." He said: "I did not know that this is not permitted, and I cannot return it." ['Umar] said: "There is no other way." He said: "By God, I cannot do that, because [the money] has been distributed and spent. But my capital and my profit are charitable gifts [that should make up for this]."

⁴⁵ See al-Maqrīzī, *al-Ḥiṭaṭ*, 1:191; 3:376.

Vehement discussions on the permissibility of trade in fixed shares, or assignments (\$\sin uk\bar{u}k\$), for grain from the storehouses in al-Ğar are well-attested from the earliest extant writings of Islamic legal discourse (Dietrich, "Al-Dj\bar{a}r", \in \bar{t}^2\$); today, the term \$\sin uk\bar{u}k\$ continues to be used in Islamic banking for a specific type of bonds that complies with Islamic requirements, with the prohibition of interest in particular (see eg. Suhaib [2009]).

⁴⁷ Al-ʿAlāʾ b. al-Aswad: His name appears in the chain of transmitters of a hadīt reported by al-Buḥārī as al-ʿAlāʾ b. al-Aswad or al-Aswad b. al-ʿAlāʾ b. Ğāriyah who transmitted the tradition from ʿĀʾišah (al-Buḥārī, al-Taʾrīḥ al-kabīr, 7:209). Apart from that, I have so far not been able to retrieve any further information on this person.

⁴⁸ Ḥakīm b. Ḥizām b. Ḥiuwaylid b. Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzzá b. Quṣayy was an old member of the Meccan clan of Quraysh and a nephew of the Prophet's first wife Ḥadīǧah; he is believed to have converted to Islam with his four sons in the year 8/630, and they were therefore all considered to belong to the Prophet's Companions; Ḥakīm is said to have died in Medina in the year 54/674, at the highly advanced age of 120 (see his biographies in al-Ṭabarī, *History XXXIX*, 40–42).

واتفق في آخر حجة حجها عمر رضي الله عنه أنه لما رمى الجمرة أتاه حجر فوقع على صلعته، فأدماه. وثُمَ رجل من بني لهُب، فقال: "أُشْعِر أميرَ المؤمنين لا يحج بعدها." ثم جاء إلى الجمرة الثانية، فصاح رجل: "يا خليفة رسول الله." فقال: "لا يحج أمير المؤمنين بعد عامه هذا." فقتل عمر رضي الله عنه بعد رجوعه من الحج. لهُب—مكسور اللام—قبيلة من قبائل الأزْد تُعرَف فيها العيافة والزَّجْر. ١٣

ه وعن عائشة رضي الله عنها أن عمر أذن لأزواج النبي ﷺ أن يحججن في آخر حجة حجها. قالت: "فلما ارتحل من الحصنة، أقبل رجل متلثم، فقال وأنا أسمع: "أين كان منزل أمير المؤمنين؟" فقال قائل وأنا أسمع: "هذا كان منزله،" فأناخ في منزل عمر، ثم رفع عَقِيْرتَه يتغنى: [الطويل]

¹ عمر ... عنه : ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل الى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "حجها". ٢ جاء: "جآ" في الأصل. ٥ عائشة: "عايشة" في الأصل. ٦ قائل: "قايل" في الأصل.

١٣ راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تماما في ابن عبد البر، الاستيعاب، ج. ٣، ص. ٢٤٠.

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§ 25 During the last pilgrimage which 'Umar—may God be pleased with him—performed, it so happened that while he was throwing at the [first] Ğamrah, 49 a stone flew at him and fell on a wen he had, making him bleed. There was a man from the Banū Lihb who said: "I sense that the Commander of the Faithful will not make another pilgrimage." Then 'Umar came to the second Ğamrah, where a man shouted: "O Successor of the Messenger of God", and he said: "The Commander of the Faithful will not perform the pilgrimage beyond this year." 'Umar—may God be pleased with him—was indeed killed after his return from the pilgrimage. Lihb—with the vowel i after the $l\bar{a}m$ —is one of the clans of al-Azd, known for harbouring feelings of aversion and reprimand. 50

§ 26 [It is transmitted] on the authority of 'Ā'išah⁵¹—may God be pleased with her—that during the last pilgrimage that 'Umar performed he allowed the wives of the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation—to perform the pilgrimage. She said: "When I departed from the pebble throwing, I ran into a veiled man. He said, while I heard him: "Where is the dwelling of the Commander of the Faithful?" Someone else said, while I heard him: "This was his dwelling." He dismounted at the dwelling of 'Umar, and then he raised his voice and started singing: [Tawīl meter]

The three sites at Miná where pebbles are to be thrown as part of the pilgrimage rituals, are each referred to as al-Ğamrah ("the pebble"), the first one to be encountered on the way back from 'Arafah being known as al-Ğamrah al-Ūlà ("The First Ğamra"), the second one some 150 metres further as al-Ğamrah al-Wuṣṭà ("The Middle Ğamra"), and the third one 115 metres on as Ğamrat al-'Aqabah (the Ğamrah of the mountain pass) (F. Buhl, J. Jomier, "al-Djamra", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-Djamra-SIM_1977).

⁵⁰ The name for two ancient Arab tribal groupings, the Lihb belonging to the largely settled Azd Sarāt of the highlands of 'Aṣir (see G. Strenziok, "Azd", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/azd-SIM_0946).

^{&#}x27;Ā'išah was the daughter of the caliph Abū Bakr and one of the Prophet's wives; it is generally believed that she was the Prophet's favourite wife; in the field of the transmission of stories and traditions about the Prophet and the first caliphs, 'Ā'išah is considered an important and authoritative source of information due to her highly respected status that continued up to her death in 58/678 (W.M. Watt, "'Ā'isha Bint Abī Bakr", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/aisha-bint-abi-bakr-SIM_0440).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

عليك سلام من أمير وباركت يد الله في ذاك الأديم الممزّق فن يَجْرِ أَوْ يركَبْ جناحَيْ نعامة ليدرك ما قدمت بالأمس يُسْبَق قضيتَ أُمُورًا ثم غادرت بعدها بوائج في أكمامها لم تُفتَتق "

قالت عائشة: "فقلت لبعض أهلي: "أعلموا لي من هذا الرجل؟" فذهبوا، فلم يجدوا في مناخه أحدًا."

ه قالت عائشة: "فوالله، إني لأحسبه من الجن." فلما قُتل عمر نحل الناس هذه الأبيات للشماخ بن ضرار أو لأخيه مُزَرِّد. هكذا روى هذا | الخبر الحافظ أبو عُمر يوسف بن عبد الله بن عبد البر ١١٥٥ النَمري.١٤ وذكر محمد بن عمر الواقدي في كتاب الفتوح هذه الأبيات بزيادة في عدتها.١٥

1 وباركت: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ عائشة: "عايشة" في الأصل. ٥ عائشة: "عايشة" في الأصل. ١ بن: "ابن" في الأصل والالف مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الكلمة فوق السطر وبيمينها خط قلم يشير إلى شطبها. ٦ الحبر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

١٤ راجع ابن عبد البر، الاستيعاب، ج. ٣، ص. ٢٤٤. ٥٠ كتاب الفتوح للواقدي مفقود.

In Islam, the *ğinn* are conceived of as intelligent beings just as mankind and angels, with bodies composed of vapour or flame; Muḥammad was sent to them just as he was sent to mankind; they cannot be perceived as such by human senses, but they can appear under different forms; their relationship with the devil remains somewhat ambiguous, and in particular in popular thought and folklore there has always existed a rich tradition of how *ğinn* interfere in man's life and vice versa (see Lebling [2010]).

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§ 27 May there be upon you a peace that is a commander's due May this torn skin by God's hand be blessed

One who runs ahead or rides the wings of an ostrich surely realises that what you forwarded yesterday will be passed

You accomplished things whereafter you departed [leaving behind] calamities the sleeves of which could not be unstitched."

§ 28 'Ā'išah said: "So I said to some of my folk: 'Let me know who this man is', so they left, but they did not find anyone where he had dismounted." 'Ā'išah said: "By God, I truly think he is one of the *ğinn*." "52 When 'Umar was killed, the people attributed these verses to al-Šammāḥ b. Dirār or to his brother Muzarrid. "53 This story was thus transmitted by the *ḥāfiẓ* Abū 'Umar Yūsuf b. 'Abd Allāh b. 'Abd al-Barr al-Namarī. "54 Muḥammad b. 'Umar al-Wāqidī mentioned these verses in the *Kitāb al-Futūḥ* [Book of Conquests], "55 augmenting their number.

Al-Šammāḥ b. Dirār is the name of a poet of the northern Dubyān tribe, who converted to Islam, actively participated in the Arab conquests and died in the course of them, allegedly in 30/650; he belonged to a family of well-reputed pre-islamic and early islamic poets, that also included his brother al-Muzarrid, and he is known for the superb quality of his poetry (hence his nickname al-Šammāḥ—the proud one) (see A. Arazi, "al-Shammākh b. Dirār", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-shammakh-b-dirar-SIM_6806).

See Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *al-Isti'āb*, 3:240. Abū 'Umar Yūsuf Ibn 'Abd al-Barr (368–463/978–1070) was a highly reputed Andalusian scholar of *ḥadīt*, law, and genealogy, and a *qādī*, who left a considerable number of scholarly works, including *al-Istī'āb*, a compendium of biographies of Companions (see Ch. Pellat, "Ibn 'Abd al-Barr", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-abd-al-barr-SIM_3027).

Muḥammad b. 'Umar al-Wāqidī (130–207/747–822) was an Islamic scholar and historian from Medina, whose writings are considered of paramount importance for the construction and transmission of knowledge about the first decades of Islamic history; his work only survived in part in the *Kitāb al-Maġāzī*, and through all kinds of references in later historical writings (M. Leder, "al-Wāķidī", in EI² http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-wakidi-SIM_7836). The passage in the *Kitāb al-Futūḥ* referred to here does not seem to have survived.

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وقال أبو عثمان النهدي: "رأيت عمر يرمي الجمرة وعليه إزار مرقوع بقطعة جراب." وقال علي بن أبي طالب: "رأيت عمر يطوف بالكعبة وعليه إزار فيه إحدى وعشرون رقعة فيها من أدم."

وعن سعيد بن المسيب، قال: "جج عمر، فلما كان بضَجْنان قال: "لا اله الا الله العلي العظيم المعطي من شاء ما شاء، كنت أرعى إبل الخطاب بهذا الوادي في مدرعة صوف، وكان فظا يتعبني إذا عملت، ويضربني إذا قصرت، وقد أمسيت وليس بيني وبين الله أحد." ثم تمثل: [الكامل]

لا شيء مما تَرى تَبْقى بشاشَتُه يبقى الإلهُ ويُودَى المَالُ والولَـدُ لم تغن عن هرمُزِ يومًا خزائنه والخلدَ قد حاولت عَادُّ فما خلَدُوا

٢ إحدى: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || وعشرون: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.
 ٤ من: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || شاء ا: "شآ" في الأصل. || ما: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || شاء ۲: "شا" في الأصل. | ٦ شيء: "شي" في الأصل. || والولدُ: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. المقريزي. المناب المقريزي. المناب المناب المناب المناب المناب المناب المناب الأصل المناب المناب المناب المناب المناب المناب المناب المناب الأصل. | والمناب المناب المن

Abū ʿUtmān al-Nahdī, from the clan Nahd b. Zayd, only converted to Islam during the reign of ʿUmar; he came to live in Kufa and Basra, and he died in 83/702–703 (al-Ṭabarī, *History XXXIX*, 214–215).

§ 29 Abū 'Utmān al-Nahdī⁵⁶ said: "I saw 'Umar throwing at the Ğamrah, wearing a cloak patched with a piece of leather bag." 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib said: "I saw 'Umar circumambulating the Ka'bah, wearing a cloak made up of twenty-one pieces of cloth, some of which were of leather."

§ 30 [It was transmitted] on the authority of Saʿīd b. al-Musayyab,⁵⁷ who said: "Umar went on pilgrimage. When he was at Þaǧnān⁵⁸ he said: 'There is no god but God, the Great, the Sublime, the Giver to whomever He wishes of whatever He wishes. I used to graze the camels of al-Ḥaṭṭāb in this valley, wearing a woollen cloak; [my father] was a rude [man] who wearied me when I was working and who beat me when I fell short [of doing my work properly]. Now, however, my situation has become thus that there is no one between me and God.' Then he recited: [Kāmil meter]

§ 31 There is nothing of what you see whose joy lingers on [only] the divine lingers on, whereas wealth and offspring will be destroyed.

The treasures of Hurmuz⁵⁹ have been of no avail to him, [not even] for a day;

[The people of] ${}^{\dot{}}$ Ad 60 have tried to achieve eternity, but they did not abide:

⁵⁷ Saʿīd b. al-Musayyab was a highly respected early Muslim scholar and genealogist from Medina, who died in 94/712-713 (al-Tabarī, *History XXXIX*, 316, fn. 1462).

⁵⁸ Dağnān: a small mountain close to Mecca, on the route to Medina (see al-Ṭabarī, History XIV, 131, fn. 648).

Hurmuz is a name that was borne by five rulers of the Sassanid dynasty of late antique Persia; the most well-known in history and in Arabic literature was Hurmuz IV (r. 579–590), who was executed following a successful rebellion against his rule (Cl. Huart, H. Massé, "Hurmuz", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hurmuz-SIM_2963; A. Shapur Shahbazi, "Hormozd IV", in EIr, 12:466–467).

^{&#}x27;Ād is the name of an ancient Arab tribe, known from pre-Islamic poetry and Arabic mythology; they are referred to in the Qur'ān as the people to whom the Arabian prophet Hūd was sent, but who rejected him and who were then destroyed by a violent wind, which is referred to in the next verse of this poem (A. Rippin, "'Ād.", in E1³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/ad-COM_26300; R. Tottoli, "'Ād", in EQ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-the-quran/ad-SIM_00008).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

ولا سليمان إذْ تجري الرياح له والإنس والجن فيما بينها بَـــرد

أين الملوك التي كانت نوافلها من كل أوب إليها راكب يَفِدُ

حوض هناك مورود بلا كـدر لا بُدَّ مِنْ وردِه يومًا كما ورَدُوا١٦

١٦ راجع هذا الخبر عن ابن المسيب على نفس الشكل إلا لبعض التفاصيل في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٢، ص. ٤٥٦-٢٧٦٤؛ وراجع هذا الخبر على شكل مختصر في ابن عبد البر، الاستيعاب، ج. ٣، ص. ٢٤٣.

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And neither did Sulaymān,⁶¹ despite the fact that the winds blew for him and that man and $\check{g}inn$ were made weak among themselves.

Where are the kings to whose gifts from every direction a rider used to come?

[At the end of life] there is a pool which is like a watering place that can be reached without having to wade through mud:

It is unavoidable that one day [we] will reach it, just as [others already] have reached [it]." 62

The Muslim Sulaymān is identical with the biblical king Solomon, known in Islam as one of the most powerful rulers on earth, with deep knowledge, unparalleled wisdom, and great powers of magic and divination; he is frequently mentioned in the Qur'ān, where he is presented as a messenger of God and as a prototype for Muḥammad, and where it is also claimed that a strong wind was subjected to him (J. Walker, P. Fenton, "Sulaymān b. Dāwūd", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/sulayman-b-dawud-SIM_7158; P. Soucek, "Solomon", in EQ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-the-quran/solomon-COM_00188).

⁶² For the translation of the parallel text of this story transmitted on account of Saʿīd b. al-Musayyab in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XIV*, 131.

عثمان بن عفان

ابن أبي العاصي بن أُمَيَّة بن عبد شمس بن عبد مناف بن قُصَي القرشي الأُمَوي، أبو عبد الله وأبو عمرو، ذُو النورَيْن، أمير المؤمنين رضي الله عنه.

بويع له بالخلافة يوم السبت غرّة المحرم سنة أربع وعشرين، بعد دفن عمر بن الخطاب رضي الله عنه بثلاثة أيام، بإجتماع الناس عليه. وقتل بالمدينة يوم الجمعة لثمان عشرة أو سبع عشرة خلت من ذي الحجة سنة خمس وثلثين، وذلك على رأس إحدى عشرة سنة وأحد عشر شهرا واثنين وعشرين يوما من مقتل عمر رضي الله عنه.

جج فيها كلها إلا السنة الأُولى والاخيرة. وذكر ابن الأثير أنه حج بالناس في السنة الأولى وقيل: بل حج بالناس عبد الرحمن بن عوف بأمر عثمان. ١٧ ولما حج في سنة تسع وعشرين ضرب فسطاطه بمنى، فكان أول فسطاط ضربه عثمن بمنى. وأتم الصلاة بها وبعرفة. فكان أول ما تكلم به الناس في عثمان ظاهرا حين أتم الصلاة بمنى، فعاب ذلك غير واحد من الصحابة، وقال له على رضي

⁷ عبد ٢: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "بن". || القرشي: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ الخطاب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ - ٥ رضي ... عنه: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجلمة على آخر السطر في الهامش الأيسر. ٨ الأولى: "الأولى" في الأصل. || الأولى: "الاولى" في الأصل. المحلة على آخر السطر في الهامش الأيمن من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "على".

١١٧ بن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٢، ص. ٤٧٥؛ وراجع أيضا خبرا مساويا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٥/١، ص. ٢٨٠٩.

3. 'Utmān b. 'Affān

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b. Abī l-ʿĀṣī b. Umayyah b. ʿAbd Šams b. ʿAbd Manāf b. Quṣayy al-Qurašī l-Umawī, Abū ʿAbd Allāh and Abū ʿAmr, Dū l-Nūrayn [Possessor of the two lights⁶³], Commander of the Faithful—may God be pleased with him.

§ 32 The oath of allegiance was sworn to him for the office of caliph on Saturday, the first day of Muḥarram of the year 24 [6 November 644], three days after the burial of 'Umar b. al-Ḥaṭṭāb—may God be pleased with him—, as a result of the people's consensus on [the succession by] him. He was killed in Medina on Friday, the 18th or 17th of Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah of the year 35 [17 June 656], exactly 11 years, 11 months, and 22 days after the murder of 'Umar—may God be pleased with him.

§ 33 He went on pilgrimage in each of those years, apart from the first and the last. Ibn al-Atīr⁶⁴ reported that he led the people on the pilgrimage in the first year, whereas it was said that rather 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf led the people on the pilgrimage by order of 'Utmān. When he performed the pilgrimage in the year 29 [650], he set up his tent at Miná—it was the first tent 'Utmān set up at Miná—and he fulfilled the ritual prayer there and at 'Arafah [with two additional *rakʿahs*]. It was the first thing about 'Utmān that the people openly spoke about, when he fulfilled the ritual prayer at Miná. More than one of the Companions⁶⁵ found fault with that. So 'Alī—may God

^{63 &#}x27;Utmān's epithet Dū l-nūrayn ("possessor of the two lights") is traditionally explained as referring to his consecutive marriages with two of the Prophet's daughters, Ruqayyah and Umm Kultūm.

See Ibn al-Atır, al-Kāmil, 2:475. 'Izz al-Dīn Abū l-Ḥasan 'Alī Ibn al-Atır (d. 630/1233) was a scholar from Mosul who gained a towering socio-cultural reputation, above all as a historian recording the history of the local Syro-Mesopotamian dynasty of the Zangids as well as that of the wider Muslim community of his time, in Arabic works of mainly annalistic history that soon acquired authoritative historiographical status; his grand work is the multi-volume al-Kāmil fī l-tārīḥ [The Complete History] (see F. Rosenthal, "Ibn al-Athīr", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-al-athir-SIM_3094).

The Companions (saḥābah) refers to the first generation of Muslims who are distinguished from other generations by their direct contact with the Prophet; they are as a result key authoritative figures in early Islamic history as well as for the development of Muslim thought and practice (M. Muranyi, "Ṣaḥāba", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/sahaba-SIM_6459).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

الله عنه: "ما حدث أمر، ولا قدم عهد، ولقد عهدت النبي على وأبا بكر وعمر يصلون إركعتين، وأنت صليت ركعتين صدرا من خلافتك." فما درى ما يرجع إليه، وقال: "رأي رأيته." وبلغ الخبر عبد الرحمن بن عوف رضي الله عنه وكان معه، فجاءه وقال له: "ألم تصل في هذا المكان مع رسول الله على وأبي بكر وعمر ركعتين {وصليتها} أنت ركعتين؟" قال: "بلى ولكني أُخبرت أن بعض من حج من اليمن وجُفاة الناس قالوا إن الصلاة للمقيم ركعتين، واحتجوا بصلاتي، وقد اتخذت بمكة أهلا ولي بالطائف مال." فقال عبد الرحمن بن عوف: "ما في هذا عُذر. أما قولك "اتخذت بها أهلا،" فإن زوجك بالمدينة تخرج لها إذا شئت وإنما تسكن بسكاك. وأما مالك بالطائف فبينك وبينه مسيرة ثلث ليال. وأما قولك عن حاج اليمن وغيرهم، فقد كان رسول الله على ينزل عليه الوحي والإسلام قليل، ثم أبو بكر وعمر فصلوا ركعتين وقد ضرب الإسلام بجرانه." فقال عثمن: "هذا رأي رأيته." ففرج عبد الرحمن، فلقى عبد الله بن مسعود، فقال: "أبا محمد، قد غير ما تعلم."

١ حدث: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ عهد: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ الخبر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٣ رضي ... عنه: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل الى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "عوف". ∥ فجاءه: "فجاه" في الأصل. ٤ وصليتها: في الأصل "صليتهما"، والتصحيح من السياق ومن ابن الأثير، الكامل في التاريخ، ج. ٢، ص. ٤٩٤. ॥ أُخْبرت: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٦ بالطائف: "بالطايف" في الأصل. ٧ شئت: "شيت" في الأصل. ॥ بالطائف: "بالطايف" في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

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be pleased with him—said to him: "Whenever something new happens that is without any precedent, I adhere to [the example of] the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation—, of Abū Bakr and of 'Umar, [just as in this case, where they used to] perform the prayer in two rak'ahs, just as you performed it in two rak'ahs at the beginning of your term as caliph." ['Utmān] did not know what he could base [his changes] upon, so he said: "[This is] a personal opinion that I have." The story reached 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf—may God be pleased with him—, while he was in [the caliph's] entourage. So he came to him and said to him: "Did you not perform the prayer at this spot together with the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation—, with Abū Bakr, and with 'Umar in two rak'ahs? [I'm sure that] you did perform it in two rak'ahs!" ['Utmān] said: "Surely, but I learned that some from Yemen who went on pilgrimage and [other] uncouth people said that for someone permanently residing [at Mecca] the ritual prayer is to be performed in two rak'ahs, and they advanced as an argument my ritual prayer, because I have become connected [by marriage] to a family in Mecca and I have property in Tā'if."66 But 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Awf said: "This is no excuse, not your saying 'I have become connected to a family there', because your wife in Medina [only] leaves it when you want her to, and she merely lives where you do; nor is your property in Ta'if [an excuse], because there are three nights of travel between you and [Ta'if]; nor is your saving about the pilgrims of Yemen and others. Revelation descended upon the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation while Islam was small, whereas Abū Bakr and 'Umar performed the prayer in two rak'ahs when Islam had become firmly established." 'Utmān said: "[This is] a personal opinion that I have." So 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Awf left, and he met 'Abd Allāh b. Mas'ūd⁶⁷, saying: "O Abū Muḥammad, whatever

The town of Tā'if in the Arabian Hijaz was dominated in the early days of Islamic history by the tribe of Taqīf; it is situated to the southeast of Mecca, and it was known for its pleasant climate and for the fertility and prosperity of its mountainous environment, for which reason various members of the Meccan elite are recorded to have developed, already before Muḥammad's prophetic mission, estates in the valleys around Ṭā'if and to have had close connections with the town and its inhabitants (M. Lecker, "al-Ṭā'if", in EI², http://brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/alTaif-SIM_7324).

^{&#}x27;Abd Allāh b. Mas'ūd was a widely respected Companion, Qur'ān transmitter and early scholar; he is believed to have died in 32/652–653, either in Medina or in Kufa (J.-C. Vadet, "Ibn Mas'ūd", *in E1*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/Ibn-masud-COM_0338).

قال: "فما أصنع." قال: "إعمل بما ترى وتعلم." فقال ابن مسعود: "الخلاف شر، وقد صليت بأصحابي أربعا." فقال عبد الرحمن: "قد صليت بأصحابي ركعتين، وأما الآن فسوف أصلي أربعًا." وقيل: كان ذلك سنة ثلثين. ١٨

وَلَم يحج أمير المؤمنين علي بن أبي طالب في خلافته لاشتغاله بحرب الجمل وصِفّين.

[·] الخلاف: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

١٨راجع هذا الخبر كله على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٢، ص. ٤٩٤؛ وراجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو أيضا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٥/١، ص. ٢٨٣٥-٢٨٣٥.

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you know has been changed." He said: "How should I then proceed?" He said: "Do as you see fit and [as] you know [to be right]." Ibn Mas'ūd said: "Disagreement is an evil thing, so I have performed prayer in four [rak'ahs] with my companions [following 'Utmān's example]." 'Abd al-Raḥmān said: "I have been performing prayer in two rak'ahs with my companions, but from now on I shall perform prayer in four [rak'ahs]." It was said that this happened in the year 30 [651].⁶⁸

§ 34 The Commander of the Faithful 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib did not perform the pilgrimage during his caliphate, due to his preoccupation with the Battle of the Camel⁶⁹ and with [the Battle of] Ṣiffīn.⁷⁰

For the translation of the parallel text of this story, transmitted by al-Wāqidī on account of Ibn 'Abbās and of 'Abd al-Malik b. 'Amr b. Abī Sufyān al-Ṭaqafī, in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History xV*, 38–40; 39, fn. 65, explains the reasoning behind 'Utmān's changes to the ritual prayer as follows: "'Uthmān's point is twofold: (1) Many ordinary Muslims were ignorant of the different numbers of ritual prostrations (*rak'as*) connected with the act of prayer at different times. Hence, they would assume that all prayers were to be performed with two *rak'as*, although in fact only those who were travelling or on pilgrimage were permitted to abbreviate the usual four *rak'as* in that manner. (2) 'Uthmān's property holdings and family ties made him a permanent resident in Mecca and al-Ṭā'if as well as Medina; hence, he felt obligated to observe the complete rite of four *rak'as* even during the Pilgrimage season."

The Battle of the Camel is the name given to the 36/656 military confrontation near Basra in Iraq between 'Alī and his supporters on the one hand, and the Companions Ṭalḥah and al-Zubayr with their associates—including the Prophet's widow 'Ā'išah— on the other, in which the latter were defeated; this was the culmination of a conflict over the succession of the caliph 'Utmān, that had begun in the aftermath of his murder, when 'Alī had assumed the caliphate without consultation of Companions such as Ṭalḥah and al-Zubayr; the name 'Battle of the Camel' is derived from the fact that tradition claims that the worst fighting occurred around the camel that carried 'Ā'išah in a litter on its back (A. Afsaruddin, "'Ā'isha bt. Abī Bakr", in Et³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/aisha-bt-abi-bakr-COM_23459).

The Battle of Şiffin refers to the 37/657 confrontation in Syria between the Iraqi forces of the caliph 'Alī and the Syrian forces of the Syrian governor Mu'āwiyah b. Abī Sufyān, generated by the fact that Mu'āwiyah—an Umayyad kinsman of the murdered caliph 'Utmān—was denied the right to avenge the murder of his kinsman; the outcome of the battle of Şiffīn, near Raqqa by the Euphrates, was inconclusive, but it did set several historical processes in motion that generated, by 40/661, the murder of 'Alī and the general acceptance of Mu'āwiyah's caliphate from Damascus (M. Lecker, "Ṣiffīn", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/siffin-SIM_7018); see also Hinds (1972); Humphreys (2006).

مُعَدوية بن أبي سُفيَـن

واسمه صَغْر بن حَرْب بن أُمية بن عبد شمس بن عبد مناف القرشي الأموي، أبو عبد الرحمن، أمير المؤمنين.

كان أميرًا بالشام نحو عشرين سنة. وبايع له أهل الشام خاصة بالخلافة سنة ثمان أو تسع وثلثين، واجتمع الناسُ عليه حين بايع له الحسنُ بن علي وجماعَةُ مَنْ معَهُ في ربيع [الآخر] أو جمادى [الأولى] سنة إحدى وأربعين، وقيل سنة أربعين. وأقام في الخلافة تسع عشرة سنة وتسعة أشهر وثمانية وعشرين يومًا، وقيل غير ذلك.

وحج بالناس عدة سنين أولها سنة أربع وأربعين. ولم يحج سنة خمس وأربعين، فحج بالناس مروان

٢ صَغْر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ عبدا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ خاصة:
 "خاصة" في الأصل. ٥ الآخر: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة من السياق. ٦ الأولى: ناقصة في الأصل،
 مضافة من السياق. ٨ خمس: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

Mu'awiyah was the son of one of pre-Islamic Mecca's leaders; upon his conversion to Islam in about 8/630, he was allowed to retain his privileged position, but now in the Prophet's entourage at Medina. Mu'awiyah participated in the Arab conquest of Syria, and eventually, in 18/639, he became this former Byzantine province's first Muslim governor, who managed to transform Syria into a powerful Arab-Muslim powerbase; after the inconclusive confrontation with 'Alī at Ṣiffīn, Mu'awiyah obtained supreme leadership over the caliphate, which he retained from 41/661 until his demise in 60/680; in doing so he shifted the Arab empire's headquarters to Syria and initiated what is considered to be the first dynasty of Islam: the Umayyad caliphate (41–132/661–750) (see M. Hinds, "Mu'awiya", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/muawiya-i-SIM_5279; Humphreys [2006]).

4. Muʻāwiyah b. Abī Sufyān⁷¹

His name is Ṣaḥr b. Ḥarb b. Umayyah b. ʿAbd Šams b. ʿAbd Manāf al-Qurašī l-Umawī, Abū ʿAbd al-Raḥmān, Commander of the Faithful.

§ 35 He was a governor in Syria for about 20 years. [Then,] in the year 38 or 9 [659], mainly the people of Syria swore the oath of allegiance to him for the office of caliph. [Most of the other] people only agreed on him [as their caliph] once al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī⁷² and a group of his associates swore the oath of allegiance to him in Rabī' [II] or Ğumādá [I] of the year 41 [August–September 661], and it was said: of the year 40 [660]. He remained in the office of caliph for 19 years, 9 months and 28 days; and it was said otherwise.

§ 36 He led the people on the pilgrimage during several years, the first of which was the year 44 [665]. He did not perform the pilgrimage in the year 45 [666], when Marwān b. al-Ḥakam⁷³ led the people on the pilgrimage.

Al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī was born in 3/624–625; he was the grandson of the Prophet, through his mother, the Prophet's daughter Fāṭimah; his father was the caliph 'Alī. Upon his father's murder in Kufa in 41/661, al-Ḥasan was proclaimed caliph by the Iraqis; eventually, however, in the face of renewed hostilities with the Syrians, he renounced his office in favour of Muʿawiyah and returned to a quietist life in Medina, where he died in the year 49/669–670. Al-Ḥasan is considered by all Shiite groups alike as the second divinely inspired *imām*, designated by his father to succeed him as the only legitimate leader of the faithful (see L. Veccia Vaglieri, "(al-)Ḥasan b. 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-hasan-b-ali-b-abi-talib-COM_0272).

Marwān b. al-Ḥakam (c. 2–65/ 623–685) was a well-respected Companion and a cousin of caliph 'Utmān, who acted as a governor on several occasions during the reign of caliph Muʻāwiyah. By the time of Muʻāwiyah's death in 60/680, Marwān was considered the most senior of the Umayyad clan in the Hijaz; when by 63/683 the Umayyads were on the defense on several fronts, Marwān and his family were forced to flee to Syria. In 64/684 he emerged victoriously from a major confrontation among Syrian Arab tribes, and was proclaimed the Umayyad caliph in Damascus. Marwān died in 65/685, and was succeeded in the Umayyad caliphate by his son 'Abd al-Malik. All Umayyad caliphs after Marwān were from his lineage, and they are therefore known as the Marwānids (C.E. Bosworth, "Marwān I b. al-Ḥakam", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/marwan-i-b-al-hakam-SIM_4979).

ابن الحكم. ثم حج معوية سنة خمسين، وقيل: بل حج بالناس ابنه يزيد بن معوية. وقيل: حج معوية عدة سنين أكثر من هذه.

Thereafter Muʻāwiyah again went on pilgrimage in the year 50 [670-671], and it was said [that in that year] rather his son Yazīd b. Muʻāwiyah⁷⁴ led the people on the pilgrimage. There was said [that] Muʻāwiyah went on pilgrimage for several more years than these.

Yazīd b. Muʻāwiyah succeeded his father to the Umayyad caliphate in 6o/68o; although as capable a leader as his father, he is remembered especially for the fact that his agents slaughtered the Prophet's grandson al-Ḥusayn and his family at Karbalā' in Muḥarram 61/October 68o. Yazīd died in 64/683, while his armies were confronting opposition against his rule in the Hijaz (G.R. Hawting, "Yazīd (I) b. Muʻāwiya", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/yazid-i-b-muawiya-SIM_8000).

عبد الله بن الزبير

ابن العوام بن خويلد بن أسد بن عبد العُزى بن قصى القرشي الأسدى، أبو بكر—وقيل: أبو بكير— وأبو حبيب، أمير المؤمنين رضي | الله عنه. 119^a

بويع له بالخلافة سنة أربع—وقيل: خمس—وستين، بعد موت معاوية بن يزيد بن معُوية بن أبي سفين. وكان قبل ذلك لا يدعى بالخلافة. واجتمع على طاعته أهل الحجاز واليمن والعراق وخراسان.

وحج بالناس ثماني حجج.

وقُتُل رحمه الله على يد الحجاج بن يوسف الثقفي في أيام عبد الملك بن مروان بن الحكم، يوم الثلثاء

٧ الثلثاء: "الثلثا" في الأصل.

^{&#}x27;Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr was a renowned Companion, who became leader of the Hijaz 75 group that contested the legitimacy of the succession of the caliph Mu'āwiyah in 60/680 by his son Yazīd. This opposition was locally successful, giving rise to the socalled second civil war (fitnah); when the Umayyads of Syria got into disarray after Yazīd's early death in 64/683, Ibn al-Zubayr successfully claimed the caliphate and his leadership was established over most of the Arab empire; eventually, however, the Syrian Umayyads, led by Marwan b. al-Ḥakam and his son 'Abd al-Malik, fought back, generating the siege of Mecca and the murder of the caliph Ibn al-Zubayr in 73/692, and the recreation of the Umayyad caliphate (H.A.R. Gibb, "Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr", in E12 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/abd-allah-b-al-zubayr-SIM_0069).

5. 'Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr⁷⁵

b. al-'Awwām b. Ḥuwaylid b. Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzzá b. Quṣayy al-Qurašī l-Asadī, Abū Bakr—and it was said Abū Bukayr—and Abū Ḥabīb, Commander of the Faithful, may God be pleased with him.

- § 37 The oath of allegiance for the office of caliph was sworn to him in the year 64 [684]—and it was said: [in the year 6]5 [685]—, after the death of Muʿāwiyah b. Yazīd b. Muʿāwiyah b. Abī Sufyān. He did not use to make any claims for the office of caliph before. The people of the Hijaz, of Yemen, of Iraq, and of Ḥurāsān agreed to submit to him.
- 10 § 38 He led the people on the pilgrimage eight times.

§39 He—may God's mercy be upon him—was killed by the hand of al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ b. Yūsuf al-Ṭaqafī⁷⁷ in the days of 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān b. al-

Muʻawiyah b. Yazīd b. Muʻawiyah b. Abī Sufyān, or Muʻawiyah II, was the son and successor of the Umayyad caliph Yazīd; he reigned very briefly in 64/683–684 amidst great turmoil in Syria and beyond; Muʻawiyah II moreover died, probably from a disease, before he had been able to nominate a successor. His shortlived reign, which was never widely accepted anyway, and thus presaged the temporary collapse of Umayyad power (C.E. Bosworth, "Muʻawiya II", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/muawiya-ii-SIM_5280).

Al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ b. Yūsuf al-Ṭaqafī was one of the main military agents and commanders for the Umayyad caliph 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān. After bringing a violent end to the caliphate of Ibn al-Zubayr in Mecca and after a brief governorship over the Hijaz, al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ was appointed governor of Iraq in 75/694, from where he successfully consolidated Umayyad Syrian authority over Iraq and further East; he remained in charge of the whole of the Islamic East in name of the Umayyad caliph of Syria until his death in 95/714 (A. Dietrich, "al-Ḥadjdjādj b. Yūsuf", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-hadjdjadj-b-yusuf-SIM_2600).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

لسبع عشرة خلت من جمادى الأولى—وقيل: جمادى الآخرة—سنة ثلث وسبعين، وصلب بعد قتله مكة.

وبدأ الحجاج بحصاره من أول ليلة من ذي الحجة سنة اثنتين وسبعين. وحج بالناس الحجاج في ذلك العام، ووقف بعرفة وعليه ذرع ومغفر. ولم يطوفوا بالبيت في تلك الحجة. فحاصره الحجاج ستة أشهر وسبعة عشر يوما إلى أن قتل.

ولما غزاه أهل الشام في أيام يزيد بن معوية احترقت الكعبة في سنة أربع وستين فتركها ابن الزبير ليشنع بذلك على أهل الشام. فلما مات يزيد واستقر الأمر له، هدمها إلى الأرض وبناها على قواعد إ براهيم عليه السلام، وأدخل فيها الحجر وجعل لها بابين. فلما قتل الحجائج عبد الله بن الزبير هدم بناء ابن الزبير من الكعبة في سنة أربع وسبعين وجعلها على ما هي عليه الآن، كما قد ذكرت ذلك في كتاب الإشارة والإعلام ببناء الكعبة البيت الحرام ذكرا شافيا. ١٩

¹ الأولى: "الاولي" في الأصل. • يوما: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. • ٧ ليشنع: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. • ٨ عليه السلام: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح؛ يشير إليها الرمز ت بعد كلمة "إبراهيم". • ٩ هدم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || عليه الآن: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، على نفس السطر + صح؛ يشير إليها الرمز ت بعد كلمة "هي". • ١٠ ببناء: "بننا" في الأصل.

١٩ راجع المقريزي، بناء الكعبة، ص. ١٥٦-١٥٨.

Ḥakam,⁷⁸ on Tuesday 17 Ǧumādá I—and it was said Ǧumādá II—of the year 73 [4 October/3 November 692]. After his murder in Mecca [his body] was exposed on a cross.

§ 40 Al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ began besieging him from the first night of Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah of the year 72 [24 April 692]. In that year, al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ led the people on the pilgrimage. At 'Arafah, he performed the ritual of standing while he was wearing a coat of mail and a helmet. During that pilgrimage, they did not circumambulate the house [of God]. Al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ besieged him for 6 months and 17 days, until [Ibn al-Zubayr] was killed.

10 §41 When the Syrians attacked [Ibn al-Zubayr] in the days of Yazīd b. Muʻāwiyah, the Kaʻbah was burnt down. [This happened] in the year 64 [683]. Ibn al-Zubayr left it [untouched] so as to defame the Syrians by that. But when Yazīd died and leadership was vested in him, he destroyed it to the ground and built it on the foundations of Abraham⁷⁹—may there be peace upon him. He included the hijr⁸⁰ into it and he made two doors for it. When al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ killed ʻAbd Allāh b. al-Zubayr, he demolished Ibn al-Zubayr's construction of the Kaʻbah—[this happened] in the year 74 [693]—and he made it as it still is today, as I have reported that in great detail in the book al-Išārah wa-l-iʻlām bi-bināʾ al-kaʻbah al-bayt al-ḥarām [Advice and Information Regarding the Construction of the Kaʻbah, the Sacred House].⁸¹

^{&#}x27;Abd al-Malik b. Marwān b. al-Ḥakam was Umayyad caliph between 65/685 and 86/705; he managed to restore Umayyad power throughout the Arab empire and to consolidate his authority East and West in unprecedented Arabo-Islamic imperial fashion (H.A.R. Gibb, "Abd al-Malik b. Marwān", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/abd-al-malik-b-marwan-SIM_0107; Robinson [2007]).

In Islam, the prophet Ibrāhīm—Abraham of the Judeo-Christian tradition—is accredited with building, together with his son Ismāʿīl, the Kaʿbah in Mecca by direct order from God, as the cosmic centre of the original monotheistic cult of mankind; upon completing the Kaʿbahʾs construction, Ibrāhīm and Ismāʿīl are furthermore believed to have established the rites of pilgrimage to it, which were then only revived by Muḥammad (R. Paret, "Ibrāhīm", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibrahim-SIM_3430; see also Cook [1983]: 36–37).

⁸⁰ The <code>higr</code> or <code>higr</code> Ismāʿīl refers to a small open area between the Kaʿbah's north-west wall and a semi-circular low wall of white marble, which is believed to contain the graves of Ibrāhīm's son Ismāʿīl and of Ismāʾīl's mother Hagar (Wensinck, Jomier, "Kaʿbah", <code>EI</code>²).

⁸¹ Al-Maqrīzī, *Binā' al-Ka'bah*, 156–158 (*Dikr binā' al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ b. Yūsūf al-Ka'bah* ['Report of al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ b. Yūsūf's construction of the Ka'bah']).

عبد الملك بن مروان

ابن الحكم بن أبي العاص بن أمية بن عبد شمس بن عبد مناف بن قُصَي.

قام بدمشق بعد موت أبيه في شهر رمضان سنة خمس وستين، وبمكة عبد الله بن الزبير يدعى له بالخلافة، وعلى العراق المختار بن أبي عُبيد الثقفي يدعو لمحمد بن الحنفية. والأرض تستعر حربا منذ قتل الحسين بن علي بن أبي طالب رضي الله عنهما. فساعدت الأقدار عبد الملك بن مروان، وقتل جميع من خالفه. وأقام في الخلافة بعد ابن الزبير ثلث عشرة سنة وأربعة أشهر إلا سبع ليال، كما قد ذكرت ترجمته وترجمة أبيه في التاريخ الكبير لمصر، فإنهما دخلاها. ٢٠

يدعو: "يدعوا" في الأصل. ٥ رضي ... عنهما: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش
 الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح؛ يشير إليها الرمز "بعد كلمة "طالب". ٦ عشرة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

٢٠ هتان الترجمتان ناقصتان من المخطوطات المعروف وجودها لهذا الكتاب. راجع المقريزي، المقفى، ج. ٨، الفهار س العامّة.

Al-Muḥtār b. Abī 'Ubayd al-Ṭaqafī was the leader of a movement that controlled Kufa in 66–67/685–687 in the name of Muḥammad b. al-Ḥanafiyyah, a son of 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib whom they claimed to be the only legitimate heir to the caliphate; eventually al-Muḥtār and his supporters were defeated by the agents of Ibn al-Zubayr, al-Muḥtār being killed in battle on 14 Ramaḍān 67/3 April 687 (G.R. Hawting, "al-Muḥtār b. Abī 'Ubayd", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mukhtar-b-abi-ubayd-SIM_5473).

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6. 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān

b. al-Ḥakam b. Abī l-ʿĀṣ b. Umayyah b. ʿAbd Šams b. ʿAbd Manāf b. Quṣayy.

§ 42 He came to power in Damascus after the demise of his father in the month Ramaḍān of the year 65 [April 685]. [At that time] there was in Mecca 'Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr for whom the office of caliph was claimed, and over Iraq there was al-Muḥtār b. Abī 'Ubayd al-Ṭaqafī,⁸² who claimed [the office of caliph] for Muḥammad b. al-Ḥanafiyyah.⁸³ [At that time also] the earth had been covered in warfare, ever since the killing of al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib⁸⁴—may God be pleased with them both. But fortune was on the side of 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān, and all those who opposed him were killed. He remained in the office of caliph after Ibn al-Zubayr for 13 years and 4 months less 7 nights, as I reported in his biography and in the biography of his father in *al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr li-Miṣr* [The Great History (in Continuation) of Egypt]⁸⁵ (because both of them entered [Egypt and were therefore recorded in that history]).

Muḥammad b. al-Ḥanafiyyah was the son of 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib by a woman of the Banū Ḥanīfah; he lived a politically quietist life in the turbulent days of the early Muslim community; but when the leadership of his half-brothers, the Prophet's grandsons al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn, had become impossible by the early 6os/68os, some supporters of the leadership of 'Alī's lineage—al-Muḥtār in Kufa in particular—briefly turned to him to lead their cause; after the failure of al-Muḥtār's movement, Muḥammad continued to try and live his quietist life in the Hijaz until his death in 81/700–701 (Fr. Buhl, "Muḥammad b. al-Ḥanafiyya", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/muhammad-ibn-al-hanafiyya-SIM_5351).

Al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib was the youngest son of 'Alī and Fāṭimah, the Prophet's daughter; he is especially remembered for the unfortunate fate he encountered near Karbalā', in Iraq, in 6o/68o, when after accepting an invitation from an anti-Umayyad movement to come to Kufa and assume leadership over the community, he was stopped on the road by Umayyad troops and killed (L. Veccia Vaglieri, "(al-)Ḥusayn b. Abī Ṭālib", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-husayn-b-ali-b-abi-talib-COM_0304).

⁸⁵ Both biographies seem to have been lost, as they are not mentioned in any of the extant fragments of this voluminous biographical history of Egypt by al-Maqrīzī (see al-Maqrīzī, *al-Muqaffá*). For a detailed discussion of this compilation's title and its translation (*al-Tūrīḫ al-kabīr al-muqaffá*—The Great History in Continuation), see Witkam (2014): 96–101. I am grateful to professor Witkam for drawing my attention to this publication.

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وحج عبد الملك في خلافته سنتين، {إحداهما} سنة خمس وسبعين. فهم شبيب بن يزيد—أحد الخوارج—أنْ يفتك به، فبلغه ذلك، فاحترس وكتب إلى الحجاج بن يوسف بعد انصرافه يأمره بطلب صالح بن مسرح وغيره من الخوارج. فكان من أخبارهم ما قد ذكر في موضعه.٢١

وخطب عبد الملك الناس بالمدينة النبوية، فقال—بعد حمد الله | والثناء عليه: "أما بعد فإني الهوية، ولا الست بالخليفة المداهن—يعني معوية، ولا الله عنه، ولا بالخليفة المداهن—يعني معوية، ولا بالخليفة المأبون—يعني يزيد بن معوية، ألا وإني لا أداري هذه الأمة إلّا بالسيف، حتى تستقيم لي قناتكم وإنكم تكلفونا أعمال المهاجرين الأولين ولا تعملوا مثل أعمالهم، وإنكم تأمروننا بتقوى الله

إحداهما: "إحديهما" في الأصل. ٤ والثناء: "الثنا" في الأصل. ٥ رضي ... عنه: ناقصة في الأصل،
 مضافة بخط المقريزي فوق كلمة "عثمن" رأسا على عقب.

٢١ راجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٤، ص. ١٥٠؛ وأيضا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٢/٢، ص. ٨٨١.

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§ 43 During his caliphate, 'Abd al-Malik went on pilgrimage in two years. One of them was in the year 75 [695], when Šabīb b. Yazīd,⁸⁶ one of the *Ḥāriǧīs*,⁸⁷ intended to murder him. But he was informed of that, so he took his precautions. He wrote to al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ b. Yūsuf—after his departure [from the Hijaz for the governorship of Iraq]—ordering him to summon Ṣāliḥ b. Musarriḥ⁸⁸ and other *Ḥāriǧīs*. The stories about them were recorded in their proper place.

§44 'Abd al-Malik delivered a public Friday sermon to the people in the Prophet's Medina. After praising and lauding God, he said: "Now then, I am not like the weakling caliph, that is 'Utmān—may God be pleased with him—, nor [am I] like the sycophant caliph, that is Muʿāwiyah, nor [am I] like the catamite caliph, that is Yazīd b. Muʿāwiyah; on the contrary, I will only treat this community with the sword, so that your lances will be correctly lined up for us again. You charge us with following the actions of the first emigrants, 89 but you do not act according to their actions; and you

Šabīb b. Yazīd b. Nuʻaym al-Šaybānī (c. 25–78/c. 646–697) was an Arab leader from the region of Mosul who participated in some of the many Iraqi uprisings against the Syrian Umayyads, traditionally referred to as Hāriğī rebellions; between 76/695 and 77/696 Šabīb lead one such rebellion himself in Northern and Central Iraq (K.V. Zettersteen, C.F. Robinson, "Shabīb b. Yazīd", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/shabib-b-yazid-SIM_6728).

⁸⁷ The term *Ḥāriǧī* is used to denote a member of the earliest of the religious sects of Islam, which emerged in the mid-seventh century as a result of ongoing competition and conflicts for legitimate leadership over the young Muslim community; *Ḥāriǧī*s appeared especially in the sources for the early Islamic period in the context of continunous rebellions against central Muslim authorities (G. Levi Della Vida, "Khāridjites", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/kharidjites-COM 0497).

⁸⁸ Şāliḥ b. Musarriḥ was another rebel against Umayyad authority; he was killed in battle in Northern Iraq shortly after this caliphal pilgrimage, in 76/695, whereupon the above-mentioned Šabīb b. Yazīd continued his rebellion, or at least recuperated Ṣāliḥ's forces for his own rebellion (Robinson, "Shabīb b. Yazīd", in Et2).

⁸⁹ The term 'First Emigrants' refers to the group of people from Mecca who accepted Muḥammad's call to prophetic leadership and who converted before his migration (hiġrah) to Medina in o/622; they all migrated with him—hence their name; their early conversion in the adverse circumstances of polytheist Mecca and their closeness to the Prophet have awarded them a special status in the remembrence of the early days of the Muslim community.

وتنسون ذلك من أنفسكم. والله، لا يأمرني أحد بتقوى الله بعد مقامي هذا إلا ضربت عنقه!" ثم نزل.٢٢

٢٢ راجع هذه الخطبة على نفس الشكل في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٤، ص. ١٥٠.

order us to fear God, but you forget that for yourself. By God, no one will order me anymore to fear God after this rise in rank of me, or I will have his head cut off." Then he came down [from the *minbar*].

الوليد [بن] عبد الملك بن مروان

بويع بعد موت أبيه بعهده إليه المنصف من شوال سنة ست وثمانين، وكانت خلافته تسع سنين وسبعة أشهر.

وعمر مسجد رسول الله ﷺ في سنة ثمان، وكان على يد عمر بن عبد العزيز وهو على المدينة. فكتب اليه في ربيع الأول يأمره بإدخال حجر أزواج النبي في مسجد رسول الله ﷺ، وأن يشتري ما في نواحيه حتى يكون مائتي ذراع في مثلها، وأن يقدم القبلة. فقوم عمر الأملاك قيمة عدل، وأعطى الناس أثمانها، وهدم بيوت أزواج النبي ﷺ، وبنى المسجد، وأنته الفعلة من الشام. وبعث الوليد إلى ملك الروم بما عزم عليه، فبعث له مائة ألف مثقال ذهبا ومائة عامل وأربعين حملا من الفسيفساء، فحمل الوليد ذلك إلى عمر بن عبد العزيز. فحضر عمر ومعه الناس فوضعوا أساس من الفسيفساء، فحمل الوليد ذلك إلى عمر بن عبد العزيز. فحضر عمر ومعه الناس فوضعوا أساس

¹ الوليد ... مروان : بالرغم من العناوين الأخرى في الأصل، عنوان باب الخليفة الوليد هذا بالمداد الأسود. | بن ا : ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة من السياق. ٢ المنصف : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. | يشتري : ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز بعد كلمة "ان". ٦ مائتي : "مايتى" في الأصل. | قيمة : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٧ وأعطى : "واعطا" في الأصل. | على اناقصة في الأصل بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز بعد كلمة "النبي". | وبنى : "وبنا" في الأصل. ٨ مائة : "ماية" في الأصل. | ومائة : "ماية" في الأصل.

٣٣راجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٤، ص. ٣٤٦-٢٤٧؛ وراجع هذا الخبر بتفاصيله في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٢/٢، ص. ١١٩٢-١١٩٤.

7. Al-Walīd b. 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān⁹⁰

§ 45 The oath of allegiance was sworn to him after his father's death, by designation from him, on 15 Šawwāl of the year 86 [9 October 705]. His term of caliph lasted for 9 years and 7 months.

§ 46 He had the mosque of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation—built in the year 88 [707]. That happened by the hand of 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, 91 while he was [governor] over Medina. [Al-Walīd] wrote to him in Rabī' I [February] ordering him to incorporate the apartments of the Prophet's wives into the mosque of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation—, to acquire what was 10 surrounding it so that it would measure 200 cubits on each side, and to move the *qiblah* forward. So 'Umar assessed the value of the properties in a fair manner and he gave the people their prices. He pulled down the rooms of the wives of the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation—and he built the mosque. [Soon afterwards] workmen came to him from Syria. Al-15 Walid sent [word] to the ruler of the Byzantines [informing him] of what he intended. [The Byzantine emperor] sent to him 100,000 mitqāls 92 of gold, 100 workers, and 40 loads of mosaic. Al-Walīd had [all] that transported to 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz. Then 'Umar came [to the site] while the leading people [of Medina were with him. They laid the foundations of the mosque and started 20 its construction.93

⁹⁰ Al-Walīd succeeded his father 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān b. al-Ḥakam in the Umayyad caliphate in 86/705 without opposition; he remained in office until his death in 96/715, continuing his father's policies and generating a period of internal peace and external expansion (R. Jacobi, "al-Walīd", in *E1*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-walid-SIM_7846).

^{91 &#}x27;Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz b. Marwān b. al-Ḥakam was the son of caliph 'Abd al-Malik's brother; he was governor of Medina on behalf of al-Walīd between 87/706 and 93/712. In 99/717 he succeeded al-Walīd's brother Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Malik in the Umayyad caliphate, and he remained in office until his death in 101/720 (P.M. Cobb, "'Umar (II) b. 'Abd al-'Azīz", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/umar-ii-b-abd-al-aziz-COM_1282).

⁹² A measurement of weight, equalling about 5 grams, one silver coin and a half, or one gold coin.

⁹³ For the translation of the parallel text of this story, transmitted by Muḥammad b. 'Umar, in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIII*, 141–142.

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وكتب أيضا إلى عمر أن يُسَهِل الثنايا ويحفر الآبار ويعمل الفوارة بالمدينة. فعملها وأجرى ماءها. فلما حج الوليد ورآها أعجبته، فأمر لها بقوام يقومون عليها، وأمر أهل المسجد أن يستقوا منها. وكتب إلى جميع البلاد بإصلاح الطرق وعمل الآبار بطريق الحجاز ومنع المجذمين من الخروج على الناس وأجرى لهم الأرزاق.٢٢

و كان حجه في سنة إحدى وتسعين. فلما دخل المدينة، غدا إلى المسجد ينظر إلى بنائه، وأخرج الناس منه، ولم يبق غير سعيد بن المسيب، فلم يجسر أحد من الحرس يخرجه. فقيل له: "لو قمت." فقال: "لا أقوم حتى يأتي الوقت الذي كتب أقوم فيه." فقيل: "فلو سلمت على أمير المؤمنين." قال: "والله، لا أقوم إليه." قال عمر بن عبد العزيز: "فجعلت أعدل بالوليد في ناحية المسجد لئلا يراه." فالتفت الوليد إلى القبلة، فقال: "من ذلك الشيخ؟ أهو سعيد؟" قال إعمر: "نعم، ومن حاله كذا وكذا، ولو مو الوليد إلى القبلة، فقال: "من ذلك الشيخ؟ أهو البصر." قال الوليد: "قد علمت حاله، ونحن نأتيه." فدار في المسجد، ثم أتاه، فقال: "كيف أنت، أيها الشيخ؟" فوالله، ما تحرك سعيد، فقال: "بخير، والحمد للله. فكيف أمير المؤمنين وكيف حاله؟" فانصر ف الوليد وهو يقول لعمر: "هذا بقية الناس."٢٥

¹ يُسَهِل: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || ماءها: "ماها" في الأصل. ٢ يستقوا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ وأجرى: "اجري" في الأصل. ٥ بنائه: "تنايه" في الأصل. ٨ لئلا: "ليلا" في الأصل. ٩ ولو: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ١٠ علمت: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صحى يشير إليها الرمز وعد كلمة "قد".

¹⁴راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٤، ص. ٢٤٧؛ وراجع هذا الخبر على نفس بتفاصيله في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٢/٢، ص. ١١٩٥-١١٩٦. من راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٤، ص. ٢٦٢-٢٦٣؛ وأيضا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٢/٢، ص. ١٣٣٢-١٣٣٣.

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§ 47 [Al-Walīd] also wrote to 'Umar [instructing him] to facilitate [passage through] the narrow mountain passes [around Medina], to dig out wells and to construct a drinking fountain in Medina. ['Umar] constructed it and caused its water to flow. When al-Walīd performed the pilgrimage and saw [the fountain], he was impressed by it. He assigned caretakers for it who had to look after it, and he ordered that the people of the mosque should be given to drink from it. He wrote to all the regions [instructing them] to repair the roads and to dig wells along the road of the Hijaz, and he prevented lepers from going out among the people, arranging for allowances to be allocated to them.⁹⁴

§ 48 His pilgrimage happened in the year 91 [710]. When he entered Medina, he immediately went to the mosque to inspect its construction. The people were cleared out of it, no one remaining behind except for Saʿīd b. al-Musavyab.95 None of the guards dared to make him leave, so it was said to him: "if only you stood up." But he said: "I will not stand up until the time has come that was written for me to stand up." Then it was said: "and if only you greeted the Commander of the Faithful." He said: "By God, I shall not stand up for him." 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz said: "I began making al-Walīd turn towards the [other] side of the mosque so as not to see him." But al-Walīd turned his face towards the *qiblah* and said: "who is that elderly man? Is he not Sa'īd?" 'Umar said: "Yes, but his condition is so-and-so, and if he had known that you are standing here, he certainly would have stood up and greeted you; but [he did not because] his sight is weak." Al-Walīd said: "I already know about him; let us go towards him." So he went around the mosque and then came to him. He said: "How are you, šayh?" But, by God, Saʿīd did not move. He said: "I'm well, praise to God; and how is the Commander of the Faithful and how is his condition?" Al-Walīd left, saying to 'Umar: "This is the last remaining one from the [first generation of the community's leading people."96

⁹⁴ For the translation of the parallel text of this story, transmitted by Muḥammad b. 'Umar and by Ibn Abī Sabrah, in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIII*, 144.

The Medinan scholar Saʿīd b. al-Musayyab (d. 94/712–713) was remembered for refusing to swear allegiance to al-Walīd, for which he ended up in prison (al-Ṭabarī, *History XXXIX*, 316, fn. 1462 [see also fn. 57]).

⁹⁶ For the translation of the parallel text of this story, transmitted by Muḥammad b. 'Umar, in al-Ṭabarī's History, see al-Ṭabarī, History XXIII, pp. 179–180.

وقسم بالمدينة أموالا كثيرة، وصلى بها الجمعة. فخطب الناس الخطبة الأولى جالسا، ثم قام فخطب الثانية قائمًا. فقال رجل لرجاء بن حَيْوَة: "أهكذا يصنعون؟" قال: "نعم، وهكذا صنع معوية، وهلم جرا." فقيل له: "ألا تكلمه؟" فقال: "أخبرني قبيصة بن ذؤيب أنه كلم عبد الملك في القعود، فلم يتركه، وقال: "هكذا خطب عثمان." قال: "فقلت: والله، ما خطب إلا قائمًا." قال رجاء: "روى لهم شيء، فأخذوا به."

الأصل. الله عنه عنه الأصل بخط المقريزي. الأولى: "الأولى" في الأصل. ٢ لرجاء: "لرجاً" في الأصل. الرجاء: "لرجاً" في الأصل. الرجاء: "رجاً" في الأصل. الرجاء: "رجاً" في الأصل. « شيء: "شي" في الأصل. ٥ شيء: "شي" في الأصل.

٢٦راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٤، ص. ٢٦٤؛ وأيضا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٢/٢، ص. ١٢٣٤.

§ 49 He distributed a lot of riches in Medina, and performed the Friday prayer there. He delivered the first public Friday sermon before the people while he was sitting down. Then he stood up and delivered the second Friday sermon while he was standing up. A man said to Raǧā' b. Ḥaywah: 97 "Is this the way [the caliphs] perform [the sermon]?" He said: "yes, for this is how it was done by Muʿāwiyah and so on." But it was said to him: "Aren't you going to speak to him [about it]?" He said: "Qabīṣah b. Duʾayb 98 reported to me that he spoke to 'Abd al-Malik on the matter of sitting down, but he did not [want to] refrain from it, saying: 'This is how 'Utmān performed the Friday sermon.' [Qabīṣah] said: 'I said: By God, 'Utmān only delivered the Friday sermon while standing up.'" Raǧā' said: "They just follow anything that is transmitted to them."

⁹⁷ Raǧāʾ b. Ḥaywah b. Ḥanzal al-Kindī was an influential religious and political adviser at the Umayyad court from the reign of 'Abd al-Malik up to 'Umar's; it is said that he had a hand in 'Umar's succession of his nephew Sulaymān in 99/717. Raǧāʾ is also known as a man of piety and religious learning. He died in 112/730 (C.E. Bosworth, "Radjaʾ b. Ḥaywa", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia -of-islam-2/radja-b-haywa-SIM_8865).

Qabīṣah b. Du'ayb (d. 86/705) was a jurist and traditionist, who worked as a leading figure in the administration of 'Abd al-Malik (see al-Ṭabarī, $\it History xxxix$, 317, fn. 1469).

For the translation of the parallel text of this story, transmitted by Muḥammad b. 'Umar, in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIII*, 180–181 (according to this account, the man who spoke to Raǧā' was known as Isḥāq b. Yaḥyá).

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سليمان بن عبد الملك بن مروان

بويع بعد موت أخيه الوليد في نصف جمادى الآخرة وهو بالرملة. فاقام في الخلافة سنتين وثمانية أشهر وخمسة أيام—وقيل: إلا خمسة أيام.

وحج بالناس سنة سبع وتسعين، وكتب إلى خالد بن عبد الله القَسْرِي—وهو على مكة—أن "أجر على عينا يخرج من مائها العذب الزلال حتى تخرج بين زمزم والمقام." فعمل خالد بركة بأصل ثُمِيْر

٥ من: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح؛ يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "يخرج". ॥ تُبيْر: كذا في الأصل (أشكال الحركات مضافة بخط المقريزي).

Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān succeeded his brother al-Walīd in the Umayyad caliphate in 96/715 without opposition; his reign ended abruptly in 99/717 when he died in Northern Syria, leading a campaign against the Byzantine empire that included an unsuccessful siege of Constantinople (R. Eisener, "Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Malik", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/sulayman-b-abd-al-malik-SIM_7156).

8. Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān¹⁰⁰

§ 50 The oath of allegiance was sworn to him after the death of his brother al-Walīd on 15 Ğumādá 11 of the year 96 [25 February 715], while he was at al-Ramlah. He remained in the post of caliph for 2 years, 8 months, and 5 days—it was said: less 5 days.

§ 51 He led the people on the pilgrimage in the year 97 [716]. He wrote to Ḥālid b. 'Abd Allāh al-Qasrī¹⁰²—he was [governor] over Mecca: "Make me a spring producing sweet and cold water [and make it thus] that [its water] wells up between Zamzam¹⁰³ and the *Maqām*."¹⁰⁴ So Ḥālid created a rock

The coastal town of al-Ramlah was founded and developed as the new capital of the *ğund Filastīn*, the Umayyad province of Palestine, when Sulaymān was governor there during the caliphate of al-Walīd; Sulaymān alledgedly also continued to live in al-Ramlah when he became Umayyad caliph (E. Honigmann, "al-Ramla", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-ramla -SIM_6215).

Hālid b. 'Abd Allāh al-Qasrī was an Umayyad governor, first of Mecca and later of the province of Iraq; he finally fell from office and favour in 120/738 and died under torture in 126/743-744; there is an unresolved discussion in historiography about whether Hālid remained governor of Mecca under Sulaymān, and hence whether this fountain, intended to supplant Zamzam, was constructed on the orders of Sulaymān or rather of al-Walīd before (as al-Ṭabarī suggests) (G.R. Hawting, "Khālid b. 'Abd Allāh al-Kasrī", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/khalid -b-abd-allah-al-kasri-SIM_4145).

Zamzam is the name of the well inside the Ḥaram mosque of Mecca, east of the Kaʿbah, from which water is believed to have welled up for the first time in the days of the prophet Ibrāhīm and which is then believed to have been rediscovered by the grandfather of the prophet Muḥammad in the sixth century; as a result of these mythic origins, water from Zamzam is traditionally considered to possess particular qualities (J. Chabbi, "Zamzam", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/zamzam-SIM_8112).

The *maqām Ibrāhīm* refers to a little building close to Zamzam and to the northeast façade of the Kaʿbah; inside there is preserved a stone with the prints of two human feet, which are believed to have remained when the prophet Ibrāhīm stood on it for building the Kaʿbah (M.J. Kister, "Maķām Ibrāhīm", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/makam-ibrahim-SIM_4815).

من حجارة، وأحكمها وأنبط ماءها وشق لها فلجا يسكب فيها من شعب في الجبل، ثم شق من البركة عينا تخرج إلى المسجد الحرام تجري في قصب من رصاص حتى أظهره من فوارة تسكب في فسقينة من رخام بين زمزم والمقام. فلما جرت وظهر ماءها، أمر القسري بجُزُر، فنُحِرت بمكة وقسمت بين الناس وعمل طعاما دعا إليه الناس. ثم أمر صائحا، فصاح: "الصلاة جامعة." وأمر بالمنبر فوضع في وجه الكعبة، ثم صعد فحمد الله وأثنى عليه، وقال: "أيها الناس، إحمدوا الله وادعوا لأمير المؤمنين الذي سقاكم الماء العذب الزلال النُقاخ العَذْب." فكانت تفرغ تلك الفسقينة في سَرْب من رصاص يخرج إلى موضع (وضوء) كان عند باب الصفا وفي بركة كانت في السوق. وكان الناس لا يقفون على تلك الفسقينة ولا يكاد أحد يقربها، وكانوا على شرب ماء زمزم أحرص وفيه أرغب. فصعد خالد المنبر وأنّب الناس وأقذَع في كلامه.

. ١ فلم تزل البركة حتى هدمها داود بن علي بن عبد الله بن عباس في خلافة أبي | العباس السفاح، 120 وصرف العين إلى بركة بباب المسجد. وبقى السرْب من الرصاص حتى قدم يُسْر الخادم من بغداد

1 ماءها: "ماها" في الأصل. ٣ بجُزُر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || فنُحِرت: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إلى فنُحِرت: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ صائحا: "صايحا" في الأصل. ٦ الماء: "المآ" في الأصل. ٨ الفسقينة: تصحيح في الأصل الأصل بخط المقريزي (من "الفسقية"). || وضوء: "وضو" في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || ماء: "مآ" في الأصل بخط المقريزي (من "الفسقية"). || شرب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || السرب: السرب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي، المقريزي، السرب السطر في مكانها الصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي، مضافة في السطر في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة ولكن مكتوبة من الأسفل إلى الأعلى.

¹⁰⁵ Tubayr is the name of a mountain near Mecca.

¹⁰⁶ Bāb al-Ṣafā is the name for one of the many gates that traditionally regulated access to the Meccan sanctuary of the sacred mosque, *al-masğid al-ḥarām*.

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basin at the foot of Tubayr, 105 he made it solid and he made its water rise, by cutting a fissure in it through which [water] could pour in it from a canyon in the mountain. Then he cut through [the other side] of the basin, [creating] a spring from which [water] poured down to the sacred mosque. It ran through a pipe of lead until it appeared again through a jet of water that poured into a marble drinking fountain between Zamzam and the *Magām*. When it was all set up and its water appeared, al-Qasrī ordered camels to slaughter. They were slaughtered in Mecca and distributed among the people, and he organised a banquet to which he invited the people. Then he ordered with a loud voice, shouting: "all to prayer." He ordered for the *minbar* [to be brought]. It was put in front of the Ka'bah, whereupon he mounted [it]. He praised and lauded Allah, and said: "O people, praise God and pray for the Commander of the Faithful, who has given you sweet, cold, and fresh water to drink." This drinking fountain poured out in a conduit of lead that ran to a place for ritual ablution which used to be at the Bāb al-Safā', 106 as well as in a basin that was at the market. The people did not take up the habit of stopping at this fountain, and in fact hardly anyone came near to it, for they were more intent on and longing for drinking the water of Zamzam. So Hālid mounted the *minbar* and blamed the people, speaking in a slanderous way.

§ 52 The basin [at the market] remained until Dāwūd b. 'Alī b. 'Abd Allāh b. 'Abbās¹⁰⁷ destroyed it, during the caliphate of Abū l-'Abbās al-Saffāḥ.¹⁰⁸ The spring was transformed into a basin at the mosque's gate. The conduit of lead remained until Yusr al-Ḥādim¹⁰⁹ came from Baghdad to Mecca in the year

Dāwūd b. 'Alī b. 'Abd Allāh b. 'Abbās was one of the most respected uncles of the first two 'Abbāsid caliphs; he died in 133/750–751 (al-Ṭabarī, *History XXXIX*, 277, fn. 1258).

¹⁰⁸ Abū l-ʿAbbās ʿAbd Allāh b. Muḥammad b. ʿAlī b. ʿAbd Allāh b. al-ʿAbbās was the first caliph of the ʿAbbāsid dynasty; he was proclaimed as caliph with the title al-Saffāḥ in 132/749 and died in 136/754 (S. Moscati, "Abū ʾl-ʿAbbās al-Saffāḥ", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/abu-l-abbas-al-saffah-SIM_0150).

Yusr al-Ḥādim (also sometimes referred to as Bišr al-Ḥādim, Yusr al-Afšim, or Bišr al-Afšīnī) was a member of the 'Abbāsid court in the second half of the ninth century who supervised the restoration of the mosques of Mecca and Medina in 256/870, at which occasion he was also involved in the restoration of the *maqām Ibrāhīm* (see Kister [1971]: 485) and—as explained here—of Zamzam. See also al-Ṭabarī, *History XXXVIII*, 164; Id., *History XXXIV*, 219–220; Id., *History XXXVI*, 31.

إلى مكة في سنة ست وخمسين ومائتين، فعمل القبة بجانب بيت الشراب، وأخرج قصب خالد فجعلها في سَرْب الفوارة التي يخرج منها الماء إلى حياض زمزم، فتصب في هذه البركة.٢٧

¹ ومائتين: "مايتين" في الأصل. ٢ الماء: "المآ" في الأصل. || فتصب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || في: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

٢٧ خبر البركة والفسقينة موجود على شكل مساو ولكن بتفاصيله في الأزرقي، أخبار مكة، ص. ٣٣٩-٣٤٠.

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256 [870]. He had the dome constructed next to the drinking place and he removed the pipe of Ḥālid and used it for the conduit of the jet of water that poured into the cisterns of Zamzam, [enabling it] to overflow into this basin [at the mosque's gate].

هشام بن عبد الملك بن مروان

استخلف بعد موت أخيه يزيد بن عبد الملك لليال بقين من شعبان سنة خمس ومائة. فقام في الخلافة تسع عشرة سنة وتسعة أشهر وأحد وعشرين يوما، وقيل: وثمانية أشهر ونصف.

ج فيها مرة واحدة سنة ست ومائة. وكتب له أبو الزناد سُنَ الحج. قال أبو {الزناد}: "لقيت هشاما. فإني لفي الموكب إذ لقيه سعيد بن عبد الله بن الوليد بن عثمان بن عفان، فسار إلى جنبه فسمعته يقول له: "يا أمير المؤمنين، إن الله لم يزل ينعم على أهل بيت أمير المؤمنين وينصر خليفته المظلوم، ولم يزالوا يلعنون في هذه المواطن أبا تراب. فإنها مواطن صالحة وأمير المؤمنين ينبغي له أن يلعنه فيها." فشق على هشام قوله وقال: "ما قدمنا لشتم أحد ولا للعنه. قدمنا حجاجا." ثم قطع كلامه وأقبل

٢ ومائة: "ماية" في الأصل. ٤ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل. || الزناد: "الزياد" في الأصل، وهو خطأ.

Hišām b. 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān succeeded his older brother Yazīd in the Umayyad caliphate in 105/724 without opposition; he reigned in relative peace, stability and prosperity for 19 years, until his death in 125/743, which made him the longest reigning of the Syrian Umayyad caliphs (F. Gabrieli, "Hishām", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hisham-SIM_2901).

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9. Hišām b. 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān¹¹⁰

§ 53 He was appointed as caliph after the death of his brother Yazīd b. 'Abd al-Malik¹¹¹ in the course of the last ten days of Ša'bān of the year 105 [late January 724]. He performed the office of caliph for 19 years, 9 months, and 21 days—it was said 8 months and a half.

§ 54 During [his term], he went on pilgrimage once, in the year 106 [725]. [On the caliph's request] Abū l-Zinād¹¹² wrote up for him the traditions of the pilgrimage. Abū l-Zinād said: "I have met Hišām [as follows]: I was in the procession [behind the caliph], when Saʿīd b. 'Abd Allāh b. al-Walīd b. 'Utmān b. 'Affān¹¹³ encountered him. He came riding beside him, and I heard him saying to [Hišām]: 'O Commander of the Faithful, God has not ceased his benevolence toward the house of the Commander of the Faithful, and He [has not ceased] to stand by his ill-treated caliph; likewise] have they not ceased to curse Abū Turāb¹¹⁵ in these lands; as they are virtuous lands, the Commander of the Faithful ought to curse him [too while he is] in them.' His talk troubled Hišām, so he said: 'We have not come to vilify nor to curse anyone; we have come as pilgrims.' Then he stopped talking and turned

Yazīd b. 'Abd al-Malik succeeded his nephew 'Umar in the Umayyad caliphate in 101/720 without opposition; he reigned until his death in 105/724 (H. Lammens, Kh.Y. Blankinship, "Yazīd (II) b. 'Abd al-Malik', in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/yazid-ii-b-abd-al-malik-SIM_8001).

Abū l-Zinād (sometimes also referred to as Abū l-Zanād) is the nickname of 'Abd Allāh b. Dakwān, an Umayyad administrator in Iraq who died in 130/747–748; together with his three sons, Abū l-Zinād is considered an important transmitter of *hadīt*, and one of these sons, known as Ibn Abī l-Zinād (d. 174/790–791), also gained fame as an early specialist of Medinan jurisprudence (*fiqh*) (Ed., "Ibn Abī 'l-Zinād", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-abi-l-zinad-SIM_8635).

¹¹³ Saʿīd b. 'Abd Allāh b. al-Walīd was a great-grandson of the third caliph 'Utmān, and also a great-grandson of the first caliph Abū Bakr (al-Ţabarī, History XXV, 19, fn. 19).

That is, Sa'īd's great-grandfather, the caliph 'Utmān, who was murdered in 35/656.

¹¹⁵ Abū Turāb is a pejorative nickname for the fourth caliph 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib ("Abū Turāb", in EI^2 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/abu-turab-DUM_0104).

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علي فسألني عن الحج، فأخبرته بما كتبت له، قال: "وشق على سعيد أني سمعتُه تكلم بذلك، فكان منكسرا كلما رآني."٢٨

وكلم إبراهيم بن محمد بن طلحة هشاما وهو في الحِبْر بمكة، فقال له: "أسألك بالله وبحرمة هذا البيت الذي خرجت معظما له ألا رددت على ظلامتي." قال: "أي ظلامة؟" قال: "داري." قال: "فأين كنت عن أمير المؤمنين عبد الملك؟" قال: "ظلمني." قال: "فالوليد وسليمان؟" قال: "ظلماني." قال: "فعمر؟" قال: "إير حمه الله، ردها علي." قال: "فيزيد بن عبد الملك؟" قال: "ظلمني وقبضها مني بعد قبضي لها وهي في يدك." فقال هشام: "لو كان فيك ضرب لضربتك." فقال: "في والله ضرب بالسيف والسوط." فانصرف هشام وقال لمن معه: "كيف سمعت هذا اللسان؟" قال: "ما أجوده!" قال: "هي قريش وألسنتها، ولا يزال في الناس بقايا ما رأيت مثل هذا."

١٠ ولم يحج بعد هشام أحد من بني أمية وهو خليفة.

⁷ فعمر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || يرحمه: "يرحمة" في الأصل.

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towards me. He asked me about the pilgrimage, and I informed him about what I had written for him." [Abū l-Zinād] said: "It troubled Saʿīd that I had heard him saying that, so he was broken-hearted every time he saw me." 116

§ 55 Ibrāhīm b. Muhammad b. Talhah¹¹⁷ spoke to Hišām when he was in the *hiğr* in Mecca. He said to him: "By God and by the sacredness of this house for which you have gone out expanding its greatness, I supplicate you not to bring over me once again my injustice." [Hišām] said: "What injustice?" He said: "my house." [Hišām] said: "Where were you with respect to the Commander of the Faithful 'Abd al-Malik?" He said: "He treated me unjustly." [Hišām] said: "What about al-Walīd and Sulaymān?" He said: "They both treated me unjustly." [Hišām] said: "What about 'Umar?" He said: "May God have mercy upon him, he returned it to me." [Hišām] said: "What about Yazīd b. 'Abd al-Malik?" He said: "He treated me unjustly, taking it from me just after I had taken it, so that it is [now] in your possession." Hišām said: "If you could bear a beating, I would beat you." He said: "By God, I can stand a beating with the sword and with the whip!" Hišām went away, saying to whoever was with him: "What did you make of hearing this tongue?" [The other person] said: "How skilful it is!". [Hišām] said: "It is the tongues of Quraysh, and among the people there continue to be remnants similar to this which I just noticed."118

§ 56 After Hišām, no one from the Banū Umayyah went on pilgrimage while he was caliph.

¹¹⁶ For the translation of the parallel text of this story, transmitted by al-Wāqidī on authority of Ibn Abī al-Zinād, in al-Ţabarī's History, see al-Ṭabarī, History XXV, 19.

¹¹⁷ Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad b. Ṭalḥah (also known as al-A'rağ) was a grandson of Ṭalḥah b. 'Ubayd Allāh, an early convert and prominent Companion of Muḥammad who was killed in 36/656 in the Battle of the Camel near Basra, when he rose with other companions against the succession to the caliphate of 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib (W. Madelung, "Ṭalḥa", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/talha-SIM_7362; al-Ṭabarī, History XXV, 19–20, fn. 99).

¹¹⁸ For the translation of the parallel text of this story in al-Ṭabarī's History, see al-Ṭabarī, History XXV, 20.

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

ثم كانت دولة بني العباس. فأول من حج منهم وهو خليفة:

أبو جعفر المنصور

واسمه عبد الله بن محمد بن علي بن عبد الله بن عباس بن عبد المطلب، أمير المؤمنين، العباسي الهاشمي.

ه بُويع بعد موت أخيه أبي العباس | السفاح عبد الله بن محمد—وهو بطريق مكة—سنة ست وثلثين 121^a ومائة.

فقدم الكوفة، ثم حج في سنة أربعين ومائة، فأحرم من الحيرة، ولما قضى حجه، توجه إلى بيت

٦ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل. ٧ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل.

Then there was the reign of the 'Abbāsids. The first of them to go on pilgrimage while he was caliph was:

10. Abū Ğa'far al-Manşūr¹¹⁹

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His name is 'Abd Allāh b. Muḥammad b. 'Alī b. 'Abd Allāh b. 'Abbās b. 'Abd al-Muṭṭalib, Commander of the Faithful, al-'Abbāsī l-Hāšimī.

§ 57 The oath of allegiance was sworn [to him] after the death of his brother Abū l-ʿAbbās al-Saffāḥ ʿAbd Allāh b. Muḥammad, while he was on the road to Mecca, in the year 136 [754].

§ 58 He came to [live in] Kufa. ¹²⁰ In the year 140 [758] he went on pilgrimage. He entered into *iḥrām* from al-Ḥīrah¹²¹ onwards. Once he had concluded

Abū Ğaʻfar al-Manṣūr was the second caliph of the ʻAbbāsid dynasty, succeeding his brother al-Saffāḥ in 136/754 and reigning until his death in 158/775; the successful longevity of his rule consolidated the 'Abbāsid take-over of the caliphate and meant the starting point of many decades of 'Abbāsid imperial prosperity emanating from Iraq and integrating elites and regions from North Africa to Transoxania (H. Kennedy, "al-Manṣūr", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/al-mansur-SIM_4935).

Kufa (al-Kūfah) was established in Iraq—together with Basra to the south—as a military encampment (*miṣr*) and control center in the course of the Arab conquest of the region in the 63os; it soon transformed into a regional capital for, as well as a hotbed of regional (especially pro-'Alid) dissent with, caliphal authority as emanating from the Hijaz and then from Syria; in the mid-eighth century, it briefly became the centre of the new 'Abbāsid caliphate, before its transfer to Baghdad in the course of the reign of al-Manṣūr; throughout the caliphal era, Kufa (and Basra) operated as key centers of Arabo-Islamic cultural formation and efflorescence (H. Djaït, "al-Kūfa", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-kufa-COM_0536).

Al-Ḥīrah was a settlement in Iraq that was the most important Arab city in the region before the rise of Islam, due its being the political and cultural capital of the pre-Islamic Lakhmid dynasty, a bulwark in the Sasanid protection system against nomads and Byzantines, and a crucial caravan stop in the transit trade between Persia and Arabia; with the advent of Islam, the Christian city of al-Ḥīrah was gradually eclipsed by new settlements in the region, especially by Kufa (A.F.L. Beeston, I. Shahîd, "al-Ḥīra", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-hira-SIM_2891).

المقدس وسار منها إلى الرقة ومضى إلى الكوفة.

وحج ثانيا سنة أربع وأربعين. فلما حج بالناس ورجع، لم يدخل المدينة ومضى إلى الربَدة وأحضر بني حسن بن علي إليه في القيود والأغلال. فسار بهم إلى الكوفة، وعتا عتوا كبيرا في ظلمهم.

ثم حج بالناس في سنة سبع أربعين ومائة.

______ ٢ الربَدة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل.

his pilgrimage, he headed for Jerusalem,¹²² and from there he traveled to Raqqa¹²³ and [then] he proceeded to Kufa.

§ 59 He went on pilgrimage a second time in the year [1]44 [762]. When he had led the people on the pilgrimage and returned, he did not enter Medina but went to al-Rabadah. He had the descendants of Ḥasan b. Alī 125 brought to him in chains and shackles, and he took them to Kufa, mistreating them in an extremely violent way.

§ 60 Then he led the people on the pilgrimage in the year 147 [765].

Jerusalem, the third sacred city of Islam after Mecca and Medina, was identified here by the name of "al-Bayt al-Muqaddas", often encountered in Arabic sources as a corruption of the early Islamic name "Bayt al-Maqdis" ("[The City of] the Temple"—a shorthand for "Îlyā' Madīnat Bayt al-Maqdis", "Aelia, the City of the Temple") and as an equivalent for the common Arabic name of Jerusalem until today, "al-Quds" (S.D. Goitein, "al-Kuds", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-kuds-COM_0535).

Raqqa (al-Raqqah) on the left bank of the Euphrates is an ancient town on the route connecting Syria with northern Mesopotamia (the Jazira) and Iraq; after the Arab conquest, it was gradually transformed into an important regional metropolis, especially in the early 'Abbāsid period, under the caliph al-Manṣūr and his successors; it lingered on thereafter as a regional urban centre until its destruction in the mid-thirteenth century (M. Meinecke, "al-Rakṣka", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-rakka-COM_0907).

Al-Rabadah was the name of a settlement in early Islamic Arabia, at the eastern foot of the Hijaz mountain chain some 200 kilometers east of Medina; it lay on the main pilgrimage route from Kufa to Mecca, providing all kinds of facilities to pilgrims (S.'A.'A. Rashid, "al-Rabadha", in Ei² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-rabadha-SIM_6152).

In 145/762–763 al-Manṣūr was confronted with a last 'Alid rebellion against his rule, led by the brothers Muḥammad—also know as al-Nafs al-Zakiyyah ("the Pure Soul")—and Ibrāhīm, who claimed on the basis of their direct descent from the Prophet's grandson Ḥasan b. 'Alī that they had better rights to the caliphate than al-Manṣūr had; an important phase in the build-up of tension concerned this arrest and maltreatment in 144/762 of several members of their family (here referred to as "descendants of al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī", the Prophet's grandson) by al-Manṣūr (F. Buhl, "Muḥammad b. 'Abd Allāh b. al-Ḥasan al-Muthannā b. al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib, called al-Nafs al-Zakiyya", in Ei² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/muhammad-b-abd-allah-b-al-hasan-al-muthanna-b-al-hasan-b-ali-b-abi-talib -called-al-nafs-al-zakiyya-SIM_5331).

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وحج رابعا في سنة ثمان وأربعين.

وحج خامسا في سنة اثنتين وخمسين.

وسار في سنة أربع وخمسين إلى الشام وبيت المقدس. ثم سار في سنة ثمان وخمسين ومائة من بغداد إلى مكة ليحج. واستخلف ابنه محمد المهدي ووصاه وصية بليغة جدا لولا طولها لذكرتها، وودعه، وبكى وأعلمه أنه ميت في سفره هذا. ثم سار إلى الكوفة، وجمع بين الحج والعمرة، وساق الهدي وأشعره وقلده لأيام [خلت] من ذي القعدة. فعرض له—وهو سائر—وجع اشتد به حتى مات في بئر ميمون خارج مكة لست خلون من ذي الحجة. فكتم الربيع الحاجب موته حتى بايع للمهدى.٣

٣ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل. ٦ خلت: ناقصة في الأصل مضافة من السياق. ∥ سائر: "ساير" في الأصل. ٧ بئر: "بير" في الأصل. ∥ خلون: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ الحاجب: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ٢ بعد كلمة "الربيع".

٣٠ راجع خبر موت المنصور بكماله—الذي اختصره المقريزي هنا—في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج.٥، ص. ٢١٦- ٨. راجع أيضا الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٣٨٧-٣٩٠.

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§ 61 He went on pilgrimage a fourth time in the year [1]48 [766].

§ 62 He went on pilgrimage a fifth time in the year [1]52 [769].

§ 63 In the year [1]54 [771] he travelled to Syria and Jerusalem. Thereafter, in the year 158 [775] he travelled from Baghdad¹²⁶ to Mecca for the performance of the pilgrimage. He appointed his son Muḥammad al-Mahdī¹²⁷ as caliph, commissioning him by a most eloquently produced will of his—if it were not for its length, I would mention it [here]. He bid him farewell, wept, and informed him that he would die on this trip of his. Then he left for Kufa. He combined the pilgrimage and the lesser pilgrimage, and he drove the oblational animals [towards Mecca], marking them for sacrifice by stabbing them in the hump and by hanging something upon their necks.¹²⁸ [This happened] in the course of early Dū l-Qa'dah [September]. But when he was travelling, a pain befell him that became unbearable, until he died at Bi'r Maymūn,¹²⁹ outside Mecca, on the 6th of Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah [7 October]. Al-Rabī' the Ḥāǧibl³³0 concealed his death until allegiance was sworn to al-Mahdī.

Baghdad was constructed on the Tigris in Iraq as the new capital of the new 'Abbāsid dynasty in the reign of al-Manṣūr, and it retained its status as one of the most important centres of the Islamic world until the 7th/13th century (A.A. Duri, "Baghdād", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/baghdad-COM_0084).

¹²⁷ Muḥammad al-Mahdī succeeded his father al-Manṣūr without opposition as the third 'Abbāsid caliph in 158/775; his reign, which lasted until his death in 169/785, was very much a continuation of the long and prosperous reign of his father's (H. Kennedy, "al-Mahdi", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/al-mahdi-SIM_4779).

For the translation of a parallel but more detailed text of this fragment on the 158/775 pilgrimage, including reference to the combination with the lesser pilgrimage and to the slaughter animals, in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History xxix*, 88–89.

¹²⁹ Bi'r Maymūn is the name of an oasis just outside Mecca, mostly known for being the place where al-Manṣūr died (see al-Ṭabarī, History XXIX, 88).

¹³⁰ Al-Rabī' b. Yūnus b. 'Abd Allāh b. Abī Farwah (d. c. 169–170/785–786) was a manumitted slave who served in various capacities under the first four 'Abbāsid caliphs; al-Manṣūr first made him his chamberlain (hence the title 'the Ḥāǧib', the Chamberlain) and then his vizir, reflecting al-Rabī's powerful position at his court; as a result, he is often also very present in stories about al-Manṣūr as the caliph's righthand (A.S. Atiya, "al-Rabī' b. Yūnus", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/al-mahdi-SIM_4779).

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فكانت خلافة أبي جعفر اثنين وعشرين سنة تنقص أياما قد اختلف في عدتها.٣١

واتفق أنه لما نزل آخر منزل بطريق مكة نظر في صدر البيت فإذا فيه بعد البسملة: [الطويل]

أبا جعفر، حانت وفاتك وانقضت سنوك وأمر الله لا بد واقع أبا جعفر، هل كاهـن أو منجـم لك اليوم من حد المنية مانع؟

فأحضر متولي المنازل وقال له: "ألم آمرك: لا يدخل المنازل أحد من الناس؟" وكانت الخلفاء يبنى لهم في كل منزلة ينزلونها بطريق مكة دار، ويعد لهم فيها سائر ما يحتاج إليه من الستور والفرش والأواني وغير ذلك. فقال: "والله، ما دخله أحد منذ فرغ." فقال: "إقرأ ما في صدر البيت." فقال: "ما أرى شيئا." فأحضر غيره فلم ير شيئا. فقال: "يا ربيع، قف بيني وبين الحائط." فقام الربيع بينه وبين الجدار، فرأى البيتين كما كان يراهما قبل وقوف الربيع، فعلم أنه قد نعيت إليه نفسه. فقال: "يا ربيع، إقرأ آية من كتاب الله." فقرأ: ﴿وَسَيَعْلَمُ ٱلَّذِينَ ظَلَمُوا أَيّ مُنْقَلَبٍ يَنْقَلْبُونَ﴾ ٢٠٠ فرحل من المنزل، وقد تطير، فسقط عن دابته فاندق عنقه—وقيل: بل مات | من مرضه. ودفن ببئر ميمون. ٣٣.

٣ حانت: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || وفاتك: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "حانت". ٥ الخلفاء: "الحلفا، "الحامل. ٦ سائر: "ساير" في الأصل. ٦ سائر: "ساير" في الأصل. ٩ فرأى: "فراي" في الأصل. المات: تصحيح في الأصل. ٩ فرأى: "فراي" في الأصل. ١١ مات: تصحيح في الأصل. ٩ فرأى: "فراي" في الأصل.

٣ راجع تفاصيل الاختلاف في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٢١٨، وفي الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٣٩٠-٣٩٠. ٣٦ القرآن، سورة الشعراء، الآية ٢٢٧. ٣٣ راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٢١٨-٢١٩، وراجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو أيضا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٤٤٩.

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§ 64 The caliphate of Abū Ğa'far lasted for 22 years less some days—their number is disputed.

§65 It so happened that when he halted at the last stop on the road to Mecca, he looked inside the lodge, 131 and behold [he saw verses written on its main wall], which—after the *basmalah*—went as follows: [*Ṭawīl* meter]

§ 66 Abū Ğaʿfar: your demise is drawing near and your years are coming to an end—God's command: there is no escape from its reality.

Abū Ğa'far: is there a sorcerer or astrologer with you today who can push back the limits of mortality?

§ 67 [Al-Manṣūr] had the caretaker of the halting places brought and said to him: "Did I not order you not to let anyone of the people enter [the caliphal lodges at] the halting places?" The caliphs had constructed for themselves at every halting place along the road to Mecca a house in which everything necessary was prepared for them, including curtains, carpets, dishes, and the like. [The caretaker] said: "By God, no one has entered it since it was finished." [Al-Mansūr] said: "Read what is [written on the wall] inside the lodge." He said: "I don't see anything." Then he summoned another one, but he did not see anything either. So he said: "O, al-Rabī', stand between me and the wall." So al-Rabī' stood between him and the wall, but he still saw the two verses as he had seen them before al-Rabī' came to stand there. So he knew that his soul was announcing his own death to himself. He said: "O, al-Rabī', recite a verse from the Book of God." So he recited: "Those who do wrong shall surely know by what overturning they will be overturned."132 He left from the halting place after he had seen the evil omen, and he fell from his riding animal and broke his neck. There was said that he rather died from a disease he had. He was buried at Bi'r Maymūn. 133

The author is playing here with the double meaning of the Arabic phrase *fī ṣadr al-bayt*, which can mean both 'inside the lodge' and 'at the first hemistich of the verse'.

¹³² Qur'ān, s. 26: 227. Translation from Arberry (1955).

For the translation of a parallel, only slightly diverging story, transmitted by Mūsá b. Hārūn on authority of 'Īsá b. Muḥammad, in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 155–156.

ومن بديع ما يحكى عنه أنه لما حج وأشرف على المدينة النبوية | ترجل الناس له لما استقبلوه إلا محمد ابن عمران—قاضي المدينة. فقال المنصور: "يا ربيع، ما له لا يترجل لي؟ يتجالد علي ويمتنع مما فعله بنو عبد المطلب وبنو علي، فلم ينزل إلى الأرض لما بصر بي؟" فقال الربيع: "يأمير المؤمنين، لو رأيته على الأرض، لرحمته ورثيت له من ثقله وعظمه." فأمره بالدنو، فدنا منه را كبا عند تمهيد الربيع له العذر، فسأله عن حاله. ثم قال: "يابن عمران، أيمًا رجل أنت؟ لولا خصال فيك ثلاث كنت أنت الرجل." قال: "وما هن، يأمير المؤمنين؟" قال: "قعودك عن الصلاة في مسجد رسول الله يكلم إنسانا في الطريق تيها وعظمة. وثالثة أنك رجل

١ ومن ... النبوية : تصحيح في الأصل، مضافة في السطر في مكانها في النص بخط المقريزي. ॥ النبوية : بقية نص المنصور ناقصة في الأصل ومكتوبة بخط المقريزي على جزازة منفردة مضافة في هذه المخطوطة في المكان الغلطان (صفحة ١٢٦أ-ب)؛ يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد الكلمة "النبوية".

¹³⁴ Muḥammad b. 'Imrān b. Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad al-Taymī was the last Umayyad qāḍī of Medina (Judd [2014], Appendix 2: Qāḍīs of Medina, 159); Judd explains that little is known about his life, tenure in office, and scholarship, referring to Wakī's entry on him, which mainly consisted of reports of several incidents in which Muḥammad met al-Manṣūr (see Wakī', Aḥbār al-quḍāt, 1:181–199).

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§68 Among the unusual things that were told about him, [there was the following]. When he had performed the pilgrimage and was about to reach the Prophet's Medina, [all] the people dismounted for him when they went out to meet him, [all] except for Muhammad b. 'Imrān, 134 the judge of Medina. Al-Mansūr said: "O, al-Rabī', what is it about him that he does not dismount for me? Does he want to engage in a fight with me, and abstain from what [even] the descendants of 'Abd al-Muttalib¹³⁵ and the descendants of 'Alī¹³⁶ have done, by not dismounting to the ground when he saw me?" Al-Rabīʿ said: "O, Commander of the Faithful, if you had seen him [standing] on the ground, you would have had compassion with him and you would have felt sorry for him, due to his greatness and importance." [Al-Manṣūr] commanded him to come closer, so he approached him, but he remained mounted as a result of al-Rabī's providing him with an excuse. [Al-Manṣūr] asked him how he was. Then he said: "O, Ibn 'Imrān, what kind of a man are you? If it were not for three of your characteristics, you would have been a great man." [Ibn 'Imrān] said: "What are they, O Commander of the Faithful?" He said: "Your abstinence from the communal prayer in the mosque of God's Messenger—may God bless him and grant him salvation—for you pray on your own; secondly, that you do not talk to anyone on the road, which is a token of haughtiness and pride; thirdly, that you are a greedy man who lives

^{&#}x27;Abd al-Muṭṭalib b. Hāšim was the grandfather of the prophet Muḥammad; the 'Abbāsids claimed the legitimacy of their rule on the basis of the fact that they descendend from the same ancestor—'Abd al-Muṭṭalib, via his son al-'Abbās—as the prophet Muḥammad did—via another son, 'Abd Allāh; this passage then alludes to this particular claim to legitimacy as residing in and accepted by the broad group of descendants of 'Abd al-Muṭṭalib (see U. Rubin, "'Abd al-Muṭṭalib b. Hāshim", in EI³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/abd-al-muttalib-b-hashim-SIM_0156).

As referred to above (fn. 125), in 145/762-763, al-Manṣūr overcame a last rebellion against his rule from partisans for and supporters of a more narrow definition of legitimate claims to rule, as residing only in the direct descendants of the prophet Muḥammad, via his daughther and his nephew 'Alī, rather than in the broader clan that also included the 'Abbāsids; as referred to in this passage, throughout the remainder of al-Manṣūr's reign and for some time thereafter, these 'Alids seem to have accepted—or at least they posed no further threat to—'Abbāsid political authority.

كتاب الذهب المسبوك كتاب الذهب المسبوك

بخيل فيك ضيق شديد." فقال: "يأمير المؤمنين، أما الأولى فإني أكره أن أصلي بصلاة الإمام، فما يدخل علي من فسادها أعظم عندي من تركي إياها لشغلي. وإني لا أدرك معهم ركوعا ولا سجودا، فأرى أن أصلي وحدي أفضل. وأما الثانية فإني قاض ولا يجوز أن أعطي من نفسي التسليم عليهم والابتذال لنفسي، فيكون في ذلك مفسدة للخصوم. وأما الثالثة فإني لا أجْمُد في حق ولا أذوب في باطل." قال: "خرجت منهن، يابن عمران؟ يا ربيع، إدفع إليه ثلاثة آلاف درهم."

قال: "يأمير المؤمنين، بالباب مستعدون عليك يذكرون أن في يدك حقا من دار كذا." قال: "فأنصفهم مني." قال: "وكل وكيلا يقوم مقامك أو احضر معهم مجلس القضاء." قال: "قد وكلت الربيع." قال: "أشهد على وكالتك إياه عيسى بن علي والعباس بن محمد." ففعل. ثم أخرج حدود الدار التي ينازعونه فيها. ودعا بالربيع وخصمائه، وأحضر شهادته على الوكالة وأنفذها. ثم سأل القوم عن دعواهم وعن شهودهم. ثم قضى لهم عليه.

واستعدى | أيضا الجمالون على المنصور بالمدينة. فقال القاضي محمد بن عمران للشبلي: "أكتب إليه 126b في ذلك." فأبى عليه وقال: "تعفيني." فقال: "لتكتبن." فكتب. فلما استتم الكتاب وختمه، قال له:

٧ القضاء: "القضآ" في الأصل. ٩ وخصمائه: "خصمايه" في الأصل.

٣٤راجع هذا الخبر، على شكل مختلف تماما، في وكيع، أخبار القضاة، ج. ١، ص. ١٩٣-١٩٤.

¹37 [°]Isá b. ʿAlī (d. 163/780) was one of al-Manṣūr's paternal uncles; he was a powerful, well-known, and influential character at the early 'Abbāsid court (see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 7, fn. 14).

¹³⁸ Al-ʿAbbās b. Muḥammad was another well-known protagonist of the early ʿAbbāsid ruling circle, a brother of the caliphs al-Saffāḥ and al-Manṣūr who was last recorded at the ʿAbbāsid court in 170/786–787 (see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 21, fn. 58).

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in grave poverty." He said: "O, Commander of the Faithful, as far as the first [characteristic] is concerned, I abhor to pray the prayer of the prayer leader, because the imperfection which this would cause with me would be more distressing for me than my abstaining [from prayer] for some preoccupation. I therefore do not pursue any bow nor any prostration with them, but I rather consider it better to pray on my own. As for the second [characteristic], I am a judge and it is not permitted that I myself would greet them and hence debase myself, because therein would be a cause of [accusations of] corruption for opponents. As for the third [characteristic], I do not freeze for the truth and I do not melt for deception." [Al-Manṣūr] said: "You have freed yourself from them, O, Ibn 'Imrān. O, al-Rabī', pay him 3,000 dirhams."

§69 [Ibn 'Imrān] said: "O, Commander of the Faithful, there are people at the gate appealing for assistance against you, claiming that you have a [disputed] right of property for such and such a house." He said: "See that justice is done to them on my behalf." [But Ibn 'Imrān] said: "Appoint a representative to stand in your place or appear with them in the court of justice." He said: "I have appointed al-Rabī'." [Ibn 'Imrān] said: "Call upon 'Īsá b. 'Alī¹³ and al-'Abbās b. Muḥammad¹³ as witnesses for your appointment of him." [This] he did. Then [Ibn 'Imrān] established the borders of the house which they were challenging his rights to, and he summoned al-Rabī' and his adversaries. [Al-Rabī'] produced [al-Manṣūr's] document for the appoinment of a representative and he acted accordingly. Then [Ibn 'Imrān] asked the people about their claim and about their witnesses. Eventually, he passed judgement in favour of them against him.

§ 70 In Medina, the cameleers also appealed for assistance against al-Manṣūr. The judge Muḥammad b. 'Imrān said to al-Šiblī:¹³⁹ "Write to him on that." But he refused that, saying: "Excuse me [from this task]." But [Ibn 'Imrān] said: "You have to write!" So he wrote. When the letter was completed

This al-Šiblī remains to date unidentified; in Wakī's version of this report, however, the scribe (and transmitter of this story) is identified differently, as one Numayr al-Šaybānī, who explains the wider context of this event: "I was a scribe for Muḥammad b. 'Imrān while he was occupying the post of qāqā in Medina. [One day] Abū Ğa'far performed the pilgrimage, and he wanted to take away the carriers [al-ḥammālīn, as opposed to al-ǧammālīn in Maqrīzī's text] to Syria. They appealed to Muḥammad b. 'Imrān for assistance against him..." (Wakī', Aḥbār al-quḍāt, 1:193). There is thus a likely possibility that the nisbah al-Šaybānī was corrupted to al-Šiblī in the transmission process of this story.

"لا يمضي به سواك." فمضى ووافى إلى باب المنصور وسلم الكتاب إلى الربيع فأوصله إلى المنصور، فقرأه. وعاد الشبلي إلى محمد بن عمران، فعرفه أنه سلم ما كتب إلى الربيع، فأوصله، فقرأه المنصور، وأجاب إلى الحضور. ثم خرج المنصور مؤتزرا ببردة، مرتديا بأخرى، ومشى إلى أن قارب مجلس محمد بن عمران، ووقعت عينه عليه—والربيع بين يديه—فقال له: "يا ربيع، نُفيت عن العباس. لئن تحرك محمد بن عمران من مجلسه هيبة لي، لأولى ولاية أبدا." ثم صار إلى محمد بن عمران. فلما رأى المنصور—وكان متكا—أطلق رداءه على عاتقه، ثم اجْتَبَى ودعا بالخصوم، فيكم لهم عليه وأمره بإنصافهم، وانصرف أبو جعفر. وأمر الربيع بإحضار محمد بن عمران. فلما دخل عليه، قال له: "يابن عمران، جزاك الله عن دينك وعن نبيك وعن حسبك وعن خليفتك أحسن الجزاء." وأمر له بعشرة آلاف درهم."

٣ ومشى: "ومشي" في الأصل. ٥ لئن: "لين" في الأصل. ٦ رأى: "رأي" في الأصل. || متكنا: "متكيا" في الأصل. || رداءه: "رداه" في الأصل. ٨ الجزاء: "الجزآ" في الأصل.

٣٠راجع هذا الخبر، على شكل مختلف تماما، في وكيع، أخبار القضاة، ج. ١، ص. ١٩٣.

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and he had sealed it, [Ibn 'Imrān] said to him: "There is no one but you who should deliver it." So he went, arrived at the gate of al-Mansūr and handed the letter to al-Rabī'. He brought it to al-Mansūr, who read it. Al-Šiblī returned to Muḥammad b. ʿImrān, and he informed him that he had delivered what had been written to al-Rabī', who had brought it, and that al-Mansūr had read it and had agreed to appear. Thereafter, al-Mansūr left [for Ibn 'Imrān], wrapping a shawl against the cold over the other one he was already wearing. He walked until he approached the court of Muhammad b. 'Imrān and he caught sight of it, while al-Rabī' was in front of him. He said to him: "O, al-Rabī', I have been excluded from [the lineage of] al-'Abbās, because if Muhammad b. Imran had left from his court out of respect for me, I would have been entrusted with sovereignty for ever." Then he came to Muḥammad b. 'Imrān. When [Muḥammad] noticed al-Manṣūr taking a seat, he took off his cloak. Then he selected [the witnesses], he called for the opponents, and he passed judgement in favour of them against him. [Ibn 'Imrān] ordered him to see that justice is done to them, and Abū Ğa'far [al-Manṣūr] left. He ordered al-Rabī' to summon Muḥammad b. 'Imrān. When he came to him, he said to him: "O, Ibn 'Imrān, may God award you the best possible reward for your religion, your prophet, your noble descent, and your caliph." He ordered [to pay] him 10,000 dirhams.

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المهدي المهدي

أبو عبد الله محمد بن أبي جعفر عبد الله بن محمد المنصور، أمير المؤمنين.

ولي بعد وفاة أبيه بعهده إليه، فقام في الخلافة عشر سنين {وتسعة} وأربعين يوما.

وهج في سنة ستين ومائة، واستخلف ببغداد ابنه موسى، ومعه خاله يزيد بن منصور. وحج معه ابنه هرون بن محمد في جماعة من أهله.

فلما قدم مكة، نزع الكسوة عن الكعبة عندما رفع إليه سدنة البيت أنهم يخافون على الكعبة أن تنهدم لكثرة ما عليها من الكسوة. فوجد كسوة هشام بن عبد الملك من الديباج الثخين، وكانت

٢ الله : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٣ وتسعة : "وتسعا" في الأصل. ٤ ومائة : "وماية" في
 الأصل. || وحج : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

11. Al-Mahdī

Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad b. Abī Ğa'far 'Abd Allāh b. Muḥammad al-Manṣūr, Commander of the Faithful.

§ 71 He was appointed after the demise of his father, by his designation of him. He performed the office of caliph for ten years and forty-nine days.

§72 He went on pilgrimage in the year 160 [777]. He appointed his son Mūsá 140 as his representative in Baghdad, while his uncle Yazīd b. Manṣūr 141 remained with him. His son Hārūn b. Muḥammad 142 went on pilgrimage with him, in a group of his folk. 143

§ 73 When he arrived in Mecca, he removed the *kiswah*¹⁴⁴ from the Ka'bah. This was because the custodians of the [sacred] house raised the issue before him that they feared that the Ka'bah would be damaged due to the great number of *kiswah* covers that were on it. The *kiswah* of Hišām b. 'Abd al-Malik, made from thick brocade, was found: the *kiswah* was not annually

¹⁴⁰ Mūsá b. al-Mahdī succeeded his father in 169/785 as the fourth 'Abbāsid caliph al-Hādī; this succession was however contested, especially by his brother Hārūn, a conflict which was resolved by the sudden death of Mūsá l-Hādī in 170/786, an event in which according to some Hārūn's mother had a hand (D. Sourdel, "al-Hādī Ilā 'l-Ḥakk", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-hadi-ila-l-hakk-SIM_2587).

¹⁴¹ Yazīd b. Manṣūr (d. 163/779–780) was the brother of Arwá, wife of the caliph al-Manṣūr and mother of the caliph al-Mahdī; he came from Yemen, acted at one point as 'Abbāsid governor of Yemen, and also became a respected member of al-Mahdī's court (see al-Ţabarī, *History XXIX*, p. 62, fn. 163).

¹⁴² Hārūn b. al-Mahdī succeeded his brother al-Hādī in 170/786 as the fifth 'Abbāsid caliph al-Rašīd; his long, successful, and eventful reign until 193/809 marked an important stage in early 'Abbāsid history (F. Omar, "Hārūn al-Ra<u>sh</u>īd", in *E1*² http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/harun-al-rashid-SIM_2747).

¹⁴³ For the translation of a parallel, slightly more detailed, version of this fragment in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 193—194; there remains some ambiguity on Yazīd's role, rendered by Kennedy's translation of al-Ṭabarī's report as follows: "with him [= al-Mahdī] left Yazīd b. Manṣūr, the maternal uncle of al-Mahdī, as his vizier and administrator of his affairs" (194).

The *kiswah* is the richly decorated veil that covers the four walls of the Ka'bah in Mecca; until today, the privilege of providing the *kiswah* is considered a powerful political symbol of islamic sovereignty (see Wensinck & Jomier, "Ka'bah"; Mortel [1988]).

الكسوة لا تنزع عن الكعبة في كل سنة كما هو العمل الآن، بل تلبس كل سنة كسوة فوق تلك الكسوة. فلما تكاثر العهد وكثر ذلك خافت السدنة على الأركان أن تنهدم لثقل ما صار عليها من الكسوة — وكانت كسوة الكعبة تعمل من الديباج المذهب.٣٦

وأنفق المهدي في هذه الحجة مالا عظيما قدم به معه من العراق مبلغ ثلثين ألف ألف درهم سوى ما وصل إليه من مصر—وهو مبلغ ثلثمائة ألف دينار عينا—ومن اليمن مبلغ مائتي ألف دينار عينا. فرق ذلك كله، ومعه مائة ألف وخمسون ألف ثوب.٣٧

ووسع مسجد رسول الله ﷺ. وأخذ خمسمائة من الأنصار جعلهم حرسا له، وأقطعهم بالعراق الإقطاعات وأجرى عليهم الأرزاق.٣٨

وحمل إليه محمد بن سليمُن الثلج إلى مكة—وهو أول خليفة حمل إليه الثلج إلى مكة.٣٩

١٠ وأمر ببناء القصور بطريق مكة أوسع من القصور التي بناها السفاح، وأمر باتخاذ المصانع في كل
 منهل منها وتجديد الأميال وحفر الركايا.

٥ مائتي : "مايتي" في الأصل. ٦ مائة : "ماية" في الأصل. ٧ خمسمائة : "خمس ماية" في الأصل. ١٠ ببناء: "ببناً" في الأصل.

٣٦ راجع مثل هذا الخبر تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٣٦، وفي الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٤٨٣. ٧٣ راجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٣٦؛ وراجع أيضا خبرا مساويا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٤٨٣. ٣٨ راجع نفس الخبر تماما في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٣٦؛ وراجع هذا الخبر بتفاصيله في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٤٨٣. ٣٠ راجع نفس الخبر تماما في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٣٦-٢٣٧؛ وراجع أيضا هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٤٨٤.

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removed from the Kaʿbah, as it is the practice now, but every year a *kiswah* rather was draped over this *kiswah*. When the decades grew in number and that [number of *kiswahs*] increased, the guardians feared that the pillars would collapse from the heaviness of the *kiswahs* that were coming to rest on them. The *kiswah* of the Kaʿbah was made from [very heavy] gilded silk brocade. 145

§ 74 For this pilgrimage al-Mahdī spent an enormous sum of money, which he brought with him from Iraq, amounting to 30,000,000 *dirhams*, not taking into account what arrived with him from Egypt—an amount of 300,000 $d\bar{n}a\bar{n}$ in cash—and from Yemen—an amount of 200,000 $d\bar{n}a\bar{n}$ in cash. He distributed all of that. There also came with him 150,000 garments. ¹⁴⁶

§75 He extended the mosque of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation. He took 500 from the $Ans\bar{a}r^{147}$ and made them guardians for him. He granted them allotments in Iraq and he assigned salaries to them. 148

 $\S\,76\,$ Muḥammad b. Sulaymān^{149} brought ice to him in Mecca; he is the first caliph to have ice brought to him in Mecca. ^{150}

 \S 77 He ordered the construction of palaces along the road to Mecca, more extensive than the palaces which al-Saffāḥ had constructed. He ordered the construction of reservoirs at every watering place along it, the renewal of the milestones, and the digging of watering troughs. ¹⁵¹

¹⁴⁵ For the translation of a variant version of this story, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 194.

¹⁴⁶ For the translation of a variant version of this report, see ibid.

The *Anṣār* refers here to a particular social group in Medina; the descendants of the original inhabitants of the oasis of Yatrib (Medina), known as the *Anṣār* or Helpers because they welcomed the Prophet and his Meccan supporters in 622 in their midst, accepted his leadership, and supported him until his death in 10/632 (W.M. Watt, "al-Anṣār", in *E1*2 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/al-ansar-SIM_0678).

¹⁴⁸ For the translation of a more expanded version of this report, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 194.

¹⁴⁹ Muḥammad b. Sulaymān b. 'Alī (d. 173/789–790) was a wealthy and important member of the 'Abbāsid family who served several terms as governor of Basra and Kufa (see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 12, fn. 29).

¹⁵⁰ For the translation of this same report, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 195.

¹⁵¹ For the translation of a slightly more expanded version of this report, see al-Ṭabarī, History XXIX, 198.

وبعث ابنه موسى الهادي فحج بالناس سنة إحدى وستين.

وأمر في سنة ست وستين ومائة بإقامة البريد بين مكة والمدينة واليمن بغالا وإبلا، ولم يكن هناك بريد قبل ذلك.

وحكى محمد بن عبد الله بن محمد بن علي بن عبد الله بن جعفر بن أبي طالب، قال: "رأيت فيما يرى النائم — في آخر سلطان بني أمية — كأني دخلت مسجد رسول الله ﷺ، فرفعت رأسي، فرأيت الكتاب الذي بالفُسَيْفسَاء، فإذا فيه: "مما أمر به أمير المؤمنين الوليد بن عبد الملك،" وإذا قائل يقول: "يحى الكتاب ويُكتب مكانه اسم رجل من بني هاشم يقال له محمد." قلت: "فأنا محمد، فابن من؟" قال: "ابن عجد الله." قلت: إ "فأنا ابن عبد الله، فابن من؟" قال: "ابن محمد." قلت: فأنا {ابن} محمد، فابن من؟" فابن من؟" قال: "ابن عبد الله." قلت: "فأنا ابن علي، فابن من؟" قال: "ابن عبد الله." قلت: "فأنا ابن فابن من؟" قال: "ابن عبد الله." قلت: "فأنا ابن علي، فابن من؟" قال: "ابن عبد الله." قلت: "فأنا الله." قلت: "فأنا الله." قلت: "فابن من؟" قال: "إبن علي، فابن من؟" قال: "إبن عبد الله." قلت: "فابن من؟" قال: "إبن عبد الله." قلت: "في صاحب الأمر. فتحدث بها ذلك الزمان ونحن لا نعرف المهدي حتى ولي المهدي، فدخل مسجد رسول الله فتحدث بها ذلك الزمان ونحن لا نعرف المهدي حتى ولي المهدي، فدخل مسجد رسول الله

¹ الهادي: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل. ٤ قال رأيت: ناقصتان في الأصل ومضافتان بخط المقريزي إلى آخر السطر في مكانهما الصحيح في الجملة، مكتوبتان من الأسفل إلى الأعلى. إفيما يرى: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ سلطان: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ بالفُسيْفساء: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إقائل: "فايل" في الأصل. ٨ قلت المضافة هنا في الأصل جزارتان منفردتان مكتوبتان بخط المقريزي [١٦٦أ-١٢٣] ولكنهما في المكان الغلطان في النص حتى يتم نص المهدي (و تتم المخطوطة الأصلية، كما أشارت إليه كلمة الإشارة "فأنا" المضافة تحت نص صفحة ١٢١ب بخط الناسخ) في صفحة ١٢٤أ. إ ابن ت: "بن" في الأصل. ٩ ابن ت: الألف من إضافة المقريزي. إ ابن ت: الألف من إضافة المقريزي. إ ابن تا الألف من إضافة المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمن تا بعد كلمة "فدخل".

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§ 78 He sent his son Mūsá l-Hādī to lead the people on the pilgrimage in the year [1]61 [778].

§ 79 In the year 166 [782–783] he ordered the set up of the $bar\bar{\iota}d^{152}$ between Mecca and Medina and Yemen, by mule and by camel. There was no $bar\bar{\iota}d$ there before.

§80 Muhammad b. 'Abd Allāh b. Muhammad b. 'Alī b. 'Abd Allāh b. Ğa'far b. Abī Tālib¹⁵³ narrated, saying: "By the end of the rule of the Banū Umayyah, I saw as a sleeper sees [the following vision]: it was as if I was entering the mosque of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation—, and when I raised my head, I saw the writing which is done in mosaic; and behold, there stood in it: '[This] is part of what the Commander of the Faithful al-Walīd b. 'Abd al-Malik has ordered'. Then there was someone saying: 'The writing should be erased and there should be written instead of it the name of a man from the Banū Hāšim, known as Muhammad'. I said: 'But I am Muhammad, but the son of whom?' He said: 'The son of Ibn 'Abd Allāh'. I said: 'But I am the son of Ibn 'Abd Allāh, but the son of whom?' He said: 'The son of Muhammad'. I said: 'But I am the son of Muhammad, but the son of whom?' He said: 'The son of 'Alī', I said: 'But I am the son of 'Alī, but the son of whom?' He said: 'The son of 'Abd Allāh'. I said: 'But I am the son of 'Abd Allāh, but the son of whom?' He said: 'The son of 'Abbās'. If al-'Abbas had not been reached, I would not have doubted that I should be the lord of the command. I spoke about it at that time, while we did not know al-Mahdī until al-Mahdī was appointed. [When that had happened] he entered the mosque of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and

The *barīd* is the term used for the postal communication system of routes, relays, riding-mounts, and couriers, that was especially well organised in the early 'Abbāsid period, connecting the different regions and elites of the realm. See A. Silverstein, "Barīd", in *EI*³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -3/barid-COM_23475.

¹⁵³ Muḥammad b. 'Abd Allāh b. Muḥammad b. 'Alī b. 'Abd Allāh b. Ğa'far b. Abī Ṭālib was a descendant of 'Alī's brother Ğa'far who, indeed, shared identical names for five generations with al-Mahdī (al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 254, fn. 831).

عَلَيْقُ، فرأى اسم الوليد، فقال: "أرى اسم الوليد إلى اليوم." فدعا بكرسي، فألقى في صحن المسجد، وقال: "ما أنا ببارح حتى يمحى ويكتب اسمى مكانه." ففعل ذلك وهو جالس."

وطاف بالبيت مرة ليلا، فسمع أعرابية تقول: "قومي مُقْتِرون، نَبَتْ عنهم العيون، وَفَدَحَتْهم الديون، وعَضَّتْهم السُنون، بادَتْ رجالهم وذهبت أموالهم، وكثرت عيالهم أبناء سبيل وأنضاء طريق وصية الله ووصية الرسول. فهل من آمر لي بجَبْر كلأه الله في نفسه، وخَلَفه في أهله؟" فأمر لها بخسمائة درهم. ١٤

١ فرأى: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ أبناء: "أبنا" في الأصل. || وأنضاء: "وانضا" في الأصل.
 ٥ آمر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || بجبر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || كلأه: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي في آخر السطر بعد كلمة "الله". || وخلفه: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٦ بخمسمائة: "بخمس ماية" في الأصل.

^{&#}x27; واجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تماما في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٢٦٢؛ وراجع أيضا هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في الطبري، تاريخ، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٥٣٥. اثر الجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تماما في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٢٦٢؛ وراجع أيضا هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ١، ص. ٥٣٥-٥٣٦.

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grant him salvation—, he saw the name of al-Walīd, and said: 'Until today, I see the name of al-Walīd.' He called for a chair, had [it] put in the court of the mosque, and said: 'I will not leave until it is erased and my name is written in its place.' That was done while he was sitting down."¹⁵⁴

§81 One time, he circumambulated the [sacred] house at night, and he heard a Bedouin woman saying: "My people are living in poor circumstances: eyes look at them with repugnance, debts burden them, the years make them suffer, their men pass away, their wealth dissolves, and their dependents multiply, [becoming] vagabonds and wanderers, as a result of the instruction of God and of the Messenger: is there anyone who can give me advice on a decree of fate [such as this]—may God watch over him and his soul and may He appoint him as his successor over His people?" [Al-Mahdī] ordered to [give her] 500 dirhams. 155

For the translation of a slightly more expanded version of this report, narrated on the authority of 'Alī b. Muḥammad b. Sulaymān al-Nawfalī via his father, see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 254–255.

For the slightly diverging translation of a similar report, narrated on the authority of Aḥmad b. al-Haytam al-Qurašī via 'Abd Allāh b. Muḥammad b. 'Aṭā', see al-Ṭabarī, *History XXIX*, 255.

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

، هرون الرشيد

ابن محمد المهدي بن أبي جعفر المنصور عبد الله بن محمد بن علي بن عبد الله بن عباس رضي الله عنهم.

بويع بالخلافة بعد موت أخيه موسى الهادي في ليلة الجمعة للنصف من ربيع الأول—وقيل لأربع مشرة خلت منه—سنة سبعين ومائة. فأقام في الخلافة ثلثا وعشرين سنة وشهرين وثمانية عشر يوما، يغزو سنة ويحج سنة. فحج تسع حجج، ولم يحج بعده خليفة من بغداد.

فأول ما حج—وهو خليفة—سنة سبعين، وقسم في أهل الحرمين عطاء كثيرا، وقيل إنه غزا أيضا فيها بنفسه.

وحج ثانيا في سنة ثلث وسبعين، وأحرم من بغداد.

١٠ وحج بالناس سنة أربع وسبعين، وقسم في الناس مالا كثيرا.

ثم حج في سنة سبع وسبعين، وخرج عليه الوليد بن طَرِيف الشاري—أحد الخوارج من بني تُغْلِب—بنَصيبين، وأخذ أرمينية، وحصر خلاط، وعاث في بلاد الجزيرة. فسير إليه الرشيد يزيد

٣ عنهم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل. ٧ عطاء: "عطآ" في الأصل.

12. Hārūn al-Rašīd

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b. Muḥammad al-Mahdī b. Abī Ǧaʿfar al-Manṣūr ʿAbd Allāh b. Muḥammad b. ʿAlī b. ʿAbd Allāh b. ʿAbbās—may God be pleased with them.

§ 82 The oath of allegiance for the caliphate was sworn [to him] after the death of his brother Mūsá l-Hādī, during the night of Friday, 15 Rabī' I—it was said the 16th of it—of the year 170 [14–15 September 786]. He remained in the office of caliph for 23 years, two months and 18 days, carrying out military expeditions in one year and performing the pilgrimage in the other. He went on pilgrimage nine times, and after him there was no other caliph who performed the pilgrimage from Baghdad.

§83 The first time he went on pilgrimage when he was a caliph was in the year [1]70 [787]. He distributed a lot of gifts among the people of the two sacred places. It was said that he then also personally led a military expedition.

§ 84 He went on pilgrimage a second time in the year [1]73 [790], entering into *iḥrām* from Baghdad onwards.

§85 He led the people on the pilgrimage in the year [1]74 [791], and he distributed a lot of money among the people.

§ 86 Then he went on pilgrimage in the year [1]77 [794]. Al-Walīd b. Ṭarīf al-Šārī, one of the *Ḥāriǧī*s from the Banū Taġlib, 156 rebelled against him in Naṣībīn, 157 taking Armenia, besieging Ḥilāṭ 158 and causing havoc in the

Al-Walīd b. Ṭarīf al-Taġlibī l-Šaybānī l-Šārī was a famous *Ḥāriǧī* rebel, who successfully confronted Hārūn's agents and armies in 178–179/794–795, until he was defeated and killed; his own verses and elegies for him by his sister Laylá (see also below) have been preserved in collections of Arabic poetry (H. Eisenstein, "Al-Walīd b. Ṭarīf", in *E1*2 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-walid-b-tarif-SIM_7849).

Naṣībīn was an ancient town in upper Mesopotamia, now known as Nusaybin, in modern Turkey close to the Syrian border (E. Honigmann, C.E. Bosworth, "Naṣībīn", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/nasibin -SIM_5818).

¹⁵⁸ Ḥilāṭ, or Aḥlāṭ, is an Armenian town near Lake Van, on the road between upper Mesopotamia and eastern Armenia (V. Minorsky, "Akhlāṭ", in E1² http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/akhlat-COM_0036).

ابن مزيد بن زائدة الشيباني—وهو ابن أخي معْن بن زائدة—على العساكر، فلم يزل يحاربه حتى قتله. وفيه تقول أخته ليلي بنت طريف ترثيه بالأبيات المشهورة التي فيها قولها: [الطويل]

فيا شجر الخابور، ما لك مورقا كأنك لم تجزع على ابن طريف

الأبيات.٤٢

ه فاعتمر الرشيد في شهر رمضان سنة تسع وسبعين ومائة شكرا لله تعالى على قتل الوليد، وعاد إلى المدينة، فأقام بها إلى وقت الحج. فحج بالناس، ومشى من مكة إلى منى إلى عرفات، وشهد المشاعر كلها ماشيا، ورجع على طريق البصرة. ٣٠ ولا يعرف | من ملوك الدنيا ملك حج ماشيا ط24 سوى ملكين: هرقل بن هرقل بن أنتونيش—من أهل صلوقيا—حج من حمص إلى إيليا—التي

ا بن: الألف من إضافة المقريزي. ٣ ابن: الألف من إضافة المقريزي. ٥ ومائة: "وماية" في الأصل.
 ٢٤ راجع هذا الخبر بتفاصيله في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٠٢-٣٠٣. ٣٤ راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٠٦، وكذلك في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/، ٥٠. ص. ١٣٠٨.
 ١، ص. ١٣٥- ٣٣٠.

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Jazira region.¹⁵⁹ Al-Rašīd sent Yazīd b. Mazyad b. Zā'idah al-Šaybānī, the nephew of Ma'n b. Zā'idah,¹⁶⁰ at the head of the army against him. He continued fighting him until he killed him. His sister, Laylá bt. Ṭarīf, lamented him in famous verses, including the following: [*Ṭawīl* meter]

§ 87 O elder tree, how green are your leaves! It is as though you do not mourn for Ibn Ṭarīf.

[and many similar] verses.

§ 88 Al-Rašīd performed the lesser pilgrimage in the month Ramaḍān of the year 179 (November–December 795), thanking God the exalted for the killing of al-Walīd. He returned to Medina and stayed there until the time of the pilgrimage. He led the people on the pilgrimage, he walked from Mecca to Miná to 'Arafah, and he attended on foot all the pilgrimage sites and rites. He returned via the road of Basra. ¹⁶¹ Among the rulers of the world, there is no ruler known to have performed the pilgrimage while walking, except for two: Hercules, son of Hercules, son of Antonius, from the people of Seleucia, ¹⁶² who went on pilgrimage from Ḥimṣ¹⁶³ to Aelia—which is the [the City of]

The Jazira is the name used in Arabic sources to denote the rich and fertile northern part of the area between and beyond the rivers Tigris and Euphrates (M. Canard, "al—Djazīra", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam—2/al-djazira-SIM_2054).

¹⁶⁰ Yazīd b. Mazyad b. Zā'idah al-Šaybānī and his uncle Ma'n b. Zā'idah al-Šaybānī (d. 152/769–770) were famous Arab Bedouin chiefs and military commanders who led the tribe of Shaybān and acquired important court positions in the late Umayyad and early 'Abbāsid periods (H. Kennedy, "Ma'n b. Zā'ida", in E1² http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/man-b-zaida-SIM_4899; Kennedy (2001): 103).

¹⁶¹ For the translation of the same report of the 179/795 pilgrimage, in al-Ṭabarī's *History*, see al-Ṭabarī, *History xxx*, 154.

¹⁶² This is the standard way for Arabo-Muslim tradition to refer to the Byzantine emperor Heraclius (r. 610–641); on the functionality and meaning of reports of a correspondence between Heraclius and Muḥammad, see Conrad (2002).

The ancient town of Ḥimṣ (Homs, Latin: Emesa) in Syria, on the east bank of the Orontes river, has a longstanding history at or near the crossroads of empires, as an important site for early and late antique Christianity, and, since its integration in the early Arabo-Islamic polity in 16/637, as a well-known regional or local center of Muslim government (N. Elisséeff, "Ḥimṣ", in EI², http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/Hims-COM_0289).

هي بيت المقدس—ماشيا، ووافاه كتاب رسول الله ﷺ في سفرته هذه يدعوه إلى الإسلام، كما وقع في الصحيحين وغيرهما، والملك الثاني هرون الرشيد.

وذكر أبو محمد بن حزم في كتاب جمهرة الأنساب أن موسى الهادي بن محمد المهدي كان له أم ولد تسمى أمة العزيز تزوجها أخوه هرون من بعده، وهي التي كان حَلَف الرشيد لأخيه بالمشي إلى الكعبة أن لا يتزوجها. فلما مات الهادي تزوجها. ومشى راجلا من بغداد إلى مكة—وهو خليفة. فولدت له عليا، وكان أقبح الناس صورة. ٤٤

ولما دخل الرشيد مكة، كان يطرح له الرمل حول البيت—ومقدار عرضه {ذراعان}—، ويرش بالماء، ويقوم الحرس بينه وبين الناس، وكان يطوف بين المغرب والعشاء ثلثة عشر أسبوعا، ولا يطيق ذلك أحد ممن كان معه. وكان إذا سعى شمر إزاره وجعل له ذنبين، فكان يفتن من يراه.

١٠ وكذلك حجت زبيدة — أم جعفر — بنت جعفر بن أبي جعفر، زوج هرون الرشيد، ماشية أيضا،
 وكانت حجة عظيمة غير أن ذكرها ليس من شرط هذا الجزء، فلذلك تركت ذكرها.

◊ له : كشط المقريزي نهاية الكلمة وأثبتها كما هي الآن. || حول : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المؤلف. || ذراعان: "ذراعين" في الأصل، وهو خطأ. م بالماء: "بالمآء" في الأصل. || والعشاء: "والعشآ" في الأصل. ٩ ممن كان: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || فكان: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المؤلف.
 ١١ الجزء: "الجزو" في الأصل.

٤٤ راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تماما في ابن حزم، جمهرة أنساب العرب، ص. ٢٣.

¹⁶⁴ The phrase "the two Ṣahīḥs" refers to the two most authoritative—compiled by the scholars Muslim and al-Bukhārī—of the six canonic collections of Sunni Hadīt.

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the Temple [Jerusalem]—while he was walking. The letter of the Messenger of God—may God bless him and grant him salvation—came to him during this journey of his, calling him to Islam, as that is reported in the two Ṣaḥīḥs and elsewhere;¹64 the second ruler is Hārūn al-Rašīd.

§89 Abū Muḥammad Ibn Ḥazm reported in the book *Ğamharat al-ansāb* [The Collection of Genealogies]¹⁶⁵ that Mūsá l-Hādī b. Muḥammad al-Mahdī had a slave concubine known as Amat al-ʿAzīz, whom his brother Hārūn married after him. This is the one for whom al-Rašīd had sworn to his brother to walk to the Kaʿbah or else he could not marry her. So when al-Hādī died, he married her and walked on foot from Baghdad to Mecca, while he was caliph. She gave birth for him to ʿAlī, and by appearance he was the ugliest of [all] people.

§ 90 When al-Rašīd entered Mecca, the dust was removed for him [in a zone of] two cubits wide around the House, water was sprinkled, and a guard was stationed between him and the people. For thirteen weeks in a row he [daily] performed the circumambulation between the evening prayer and the night prayer. No one of those who were with him was able to do that. When he performed the ritual of running, he rolled up his shawl, making two tails from it. He used to charm everyone who saw him.

§ 91 Zubaydah, ¹⁶⁶ the mother of Ğaʿfar, the daughter of Ğaʿfar b. Abī Ğaʿfar, the wife of Hārūn al-Rašīd, equally performed the pilgrimage [in this year], while she too was walking. It was an impressive pilgrimage, although its report does not fit within the parameters of this volume, and therefore, I left out this report.

See Ibn Ḥazm, Ğamharat ansāb al-ʿArab, 23. Abū Muḥammad ʿAlī b. Aḥmad b. Saʿīd b. Ḥazm (384–456/994–1064) was an Andalusian poet, historian, jurist, philosopher, and theologian of great renown; his Ğamharat al-Ansāb is a work of Arabic genealogy (R. Arnaldez, "Ibn Ḥazm", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-hazm-COM_0325; see also Adang et al. [2012]).

Zubaydah bt. Ğa'far (145–210/763–831) was a granddaughter of al-Manşūr, a niece of Hārūn al-Rašīd, his wife, and the mother of his son and successor Muḥammad al-Amīn; she was remembered for her beauty, intelligence, and generosity, for her patronising of scholars, poets, and musicians, and for her public works, in Mecca in particular; she also became a famous literary figure in Arabic prose and in popular stories (R. Jacobi, "Zubayda bt. Dja'far", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/zubayda-bt-djafar-SIM_8187).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وحج الرشيد أيضا بالناس في سنة إحدى وثمانين ومائة.

وجج في سنة ست وثمانين ومائة من الأنبار ومعه ابناه عبد الله المأمون ومحمد الأمين. فبدأ بالمدينة، فأعطى فيها ثلث أعطية: أعطى هو عطاء وكل من ولديه عطاء، وسار إلى مكة فأعطى أهلها ألف ألف دينار وخمسين ألف دينار، وكان قد ولى الأمين العراق والشام إلى آخر الغرب وجعله ولي عهده، وضم إلى المأمون من همدان إلى آخر المشرق وعهد إليه بعد الأمين. ثم بايع لابنه القاسم بولاية العهد بعد المأمون ولقبه المؤتمن وضم إليه الجزيرة والثغور والعواصم. فجمع بمكة القضاة والفقهاء، وكتب كتابا أشهدهم فيه على الأمين بالوفاء للمأمون، وكتب كتابا أشهدهم فيه على الأمين بالوفاء للمأمون، وكتب كتابا أشهدهم فيه على المأمون بالوفاء للأمين، وعلق الكتابين بالكعبة. فوقد ذكرت خبر ذلك مبسوطا في ترجمة المأمون من تاريخ مصر الكبير المقفى. فإنه قدم مصر في سنة سبع عشرة ومائين. ٢٤

١ ومائة: "ومايه" في الأصل. ٢ وثمانين ومائة: "ومماس ومايه" في الأصل. ٣ عطاء: "عطآ" في الأصل. || عطاء: "عطآ" في الأصل. || عطاء: "عطآ" في الأصل. || بالوفاء : "بالوفاء : "بالوفاة في الأصل. || ومائين : "ومايين في الأصل.

٥٠ راجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٢٦-٣٢٦؛ راجع هذا الخبر بتفاصيله في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ٢، ص. ٦٥١-٣٦٧. ٢٠ ترجمة المأمون مفقودة في المخطوطات المعروف وجودها لكتاب المقفى للمقريزي. راجع المقفى، ج. ٨.

Al-Anbār was an ancient strategic town on the left bank of the Euphrates, some 60 kilometers west from Baghdad; it had strong connections with the early 'Abbāsid caliphs, who regularly resided there (M. Streck, A.A. Duri, "al-Anbār", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-anbar-SIM_0659).

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§ 92 Al-Rašīd led the people on the pilgrimage in the year 181 [798].

§ 93 He went on pilgrimage in the year 186 [802] from al-Anbār, 167 and his two sons 'Abd Allāh al-Ma'mūn¹⁶⁸ and Muhammad al-Amīn¹⁶⁹ were with him. He began in Medina, presenting there three gifts, one given by himself and one by each of his two sons. He went to Mecca and presented to its people 1,050,000 dīnārs. He had already appointed al-Amīn over Iraq and Syria, until the far end of the West, and he had made him his heir apparent; he had brought together [the region] from Hamadan until the far end of the East for al-Ma'mūn [to rule], and he had made him his heir after al-Amīn; then he had pledged allegiance to his son al-Qāsim¹⁷⁰ as heir apparent after al-Ma'mūn, giving him the title of al-Mu'taman, and he had brought together for him [to rule] the Jazira and the Anatolian frontier zone. In Mecca, he gathered the judges and the jurisprudents, and he wrote a letter in which he confirmed their witnessing for al-Amīn the pledge to al-Ma'mūn, and he wrote a letter in which he confirmed their witnessing for al-Ma'mūn the pledge to al-Amīn, and he had the two letters hung up in the Ka'bah. I have extensively reported the story of that in the biography of al-Ma'mūn in the *Tārīḥ Miṣr al-kabīr al-muqaffá* [The Great History of Egypt in Continuation], because he came to Egypt in the year 217 [832]. 171

^{&#}x27;Abd Allāh al-Ma'mūn succeeded his brother Muḥammad al-Amīn, after several years of internecine warfare, as seventh 'Abbāsid caliph in the period 196–198/812–813; begun in difficult circumstances, al-Ma'mūn's caliphate was eventually succesful in regaining control over most of, and then pacifying, his father's empire; he reigned until his death in 218/833 (M. Rekaya, "al-Ma'mūn", in £1² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mamun-SIM_4889).

Muḥammad al-Amīn succeeded his father Hārūn al-Rašīd as 'Abbāsid caliph in 193/809, but he was ousted from the caliphate by his brother 'Abd Allāh; he was executed by his brother's agents in 198/813 (M. Cooperson, "al-Amīn, Muḥammad", in EI³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/al-amin-muhammad-COM_22995).

¹⁷⁰ Al-Qāsim al-Mu'taman (d. 208/823) was another son and third designated heir of Hārūn al-Rašīd, but he never succeeded to the caliphate (see Rekaya, "al-Ma'mūn"; al-Ṭabarī, *History XXX*, xx, 181, 327).

The meaning of this passage is that it was a result of this Egyptian connection that al-Ma'mūn's biography was recorded in this "Egyptian" biographical dictionary (al-Maqrīzī, *al-Muqaffá* [but the entry for al-Ma'mūn does not seem to have survived]).

وفي عود الرشيد من هذه الحجة نكب البرامكة النكبة المشهورة بالأنبار سلخ المحرم سنة سبع | وثمانين 125^a ومائة.

ثم حج الرشيد في سنة ثمان وثمانين راجلا، وقسم أموالا كثيرة، وهي آخر حجة حجها.٧٠

وكان إذا حج حج معه مائة من الفقهاء وأبنائهم. فإذا لم يحج أحج ثلثمائة رجل بالنفقة السابغة والكسوة الظاهرة. ولم ير خليفة قبله أكثر عطاء منه، ويقال: "لو قيل للدنيا: متى أيام شبابك، لقالت: أيام هرون الرشيد." |

ومن فضائل الرشيد ما أخرجه الحافظ أبو نعيم في كتاب الحلية: ٢٠ ثنا سليمن بن أحمد ـــ يعنى

⁻ ٢-١ وثمانين ومائة: "وبمامن وماية" في الأصل. ٤ مائة: "ماية" في الأصل. ∥ الفقهاء: "الفقها " في الأصل. ٥ عطاء: "عطا" في الأصل. ٦ الرشيد: بقية نص هارون الرشيد ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة على جزازتين منفردتين مكتوبتين بخط المقريزي ومضافتين في هذه المخطوطة في المكان الغلطان في النص (ص. ١٢٢ منفردتين موفي الترتيب الغلطان (الترتيب الصحيح هو ١٢٣ب-١٢٣أ-١٢٢٠)؛ يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "الرشيد". ٧ فضائل: "فضايل" في الأصل.

الجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن الأثير، الكامل، ج. ٥، ص. ٣٣٧؛ وراجع أيضا خبرا
 مساويا في الطبري، تاريخ الرسل والملوك، ج. ٣/ ٢، ص. ٧٠١.

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§ 94 On the return of al-Rašīd from this pilgrimage, the Barmakids¹⁷² were afflicted by their famous calamity at al-Anbār, towards the end of Muḥarram of the year 187 [January 803].

§ 95 Thereafter al-Rašīd performed the pilgrimage in the year [1]88 [804], on foot and distributing great wealth. It is the last pilgrimage that he performed.

§ 96 It used to be so that if he performed the pilgrimage, 100 from the jurisprudents and their sons would perform the pilgrimage with him; and if he did not perform the pilgrimage, he would make 300 men perform the pilgrimage, [bringing along as always] the full charitable gift and the external *kiswah*. There was no caliph before him who was known to have given more than he did. It is said: "if it were said to the material world: "When were the days of your youth?", it would reply: '[In] the days of Hārūn al-Rašīd."

§ 97 Among the qualities of al-Rašīd, there was what the great transmitter Abū Nu'aym selected in the book *al-Ḥilyah* [The Ornament].¹⁷³ There was transmitted to us by Sulaymān b. Aḥmad—that is, al-Ṭabarānī¹⁷⁴—, via

The Barmakids were a powerful and influential family of non-Arab origins, supplying viziers, administrators, and advisors to the courts of the first 'Abbāsid caliphs, until their leading members were suddenly removed from power in 187/803; this sudden fall of the Barmakids has become a powerful trope for the fickleness and transient nature of power and authority (K. van Bladel, "Barmakids", in *E1*3 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/barmakids-COM_24302).

¹⁷³ See Abū Nuʻaym, *Ḥilyat al-awliyā*', 8:105–108. Abū Nuʻaym Aḥmad al-Iṣfahānī (336–430/948–1038) was a religious scholar and traditionist from Isfahan, who is best known as the author of this *Ḥilyat al-awliyā*', a biographical encyclopaedia of individuals from the earliest days of Islam onwards, who, at least according to the author, were to be regarded as ascetics and mystics (J. Chabbi, "Abū Nuʻaym al-Iṣfahānī", in *Et*³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/abu-nuaym-al-isfahani-COM_23648).

¹⁷⁴ Abū l-Qāsim Sulaymān b. Ayyūb b. Muṭayyir al-Laḥmī l-Ṭabarānī (260–360/873–971) was one of the most important traditionists of his age; after many years of travelling in search for knowledge, he spent most of his life in Isfahan, where Abū Nuʿaym was one of his many students (M. Fierro, "al-Ṭabarānī", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-tabarani-SIM_7246).

الطبراني، نا محمد بن زكرياء الغلابي، نا الغلابي، نا أبو عمر الجرمي النحوي، نا الفَصْل بن الربيع، قال:

"جج أمير المؤمنين—يعني هرون الرشيد—فأتاني، فخرجت مُسْرعا، فقلت: "يأمير المؤمنين، لو أرسلت إلي أتيتك." فقال: "و يحك! قد حاك في نفسي شيء، فانظر لي رجلا أسأله." فقلت: "هاهنا سفين بن عيينة." فقال: "إمض بنا إليه." فأتيناه، فقرعت الباب، فقال: "من ذا؟" قلت: "أجب أمير المؤمنين، لو أرسلت إلي أتيتك." فقال له: "خذ لما جئناك له رحمك الله." فحدثه ساعة، ثم قال له: "عليك دين؟" قال: "نعم." قال: "أبا عباس، إقض دينه."

فلما خرجنا قال: "ما أغنى عني صاحبك شيئا. أنظر لي رجلا أسأله." قلت: "هاهنا عبد الرزاق بن همام." قال: "إمض بنا إليه." فأتيناه، فقرعت الباب، فقال: "من هذا؟" قلت: "أجب أمير المؤمنين!"

٤ شيء: "شي" في الأصل. ٦ جئناك: "جيناك" في الأصل. ٨ شيئا: "شيا" في الأصل.

Muḥammad b. Zakariyyā' al-Ġallābī,¹⁷⁵ via al-Ġallābī, via Abū 'Umar al-Ğarmī the Grammarian,¹⁷⁶ from al-Fadl b. al-Rabī',¹⁷⁷ who said:

§ 98 "The Commander of the Faithful—that is, Hārūn al-Rašīd—performed the pilgrimage, and he came to me. I quickly went out and said: 'O Commander of the Faithful, if you had sent me [word], I would have come to you.' He said: 'Woe onto you. Something has come up in my mind. Look for me for a man whom I may question.' So I said: 'Sufyān b. 'Uyaynah¹⁷⁸ [lives] over there.' So he said: 'Let us go to him.' So we came to him, and I knocked at the door. He said: 'Who is it?' I said: 'Accede to the request of the Commander of the Faithful.' So he quickly came out and said: 'O Commander of the Faithful, if you had sent me [word], I would have come to you.' He said to him: 'Behold what we have come to you for, may God's mercy be upon you.' He spoke with him for an hour. Then he said to him: 'Do you have a debt?' He said: 'Yes.' He said: 'Abū 'Abbās, settle his debt.'

§ 99 When we left, he said: 'Your friend has not been of any benefit to me; look for me for a man whom I may question.' I said: "Abd al-Razzāq b. Hammām¹⁷⁹ [lives] over there.' He said: 'Let us go to him.' So we came to him, and I knocked at the door. He said: 'Who is this?' I said: 'Accede to the request of the Commander of the Faithful.' So he quickly came out and said: 'O

¹⁷⁵ Muḥammad b. Zakariyyā' b. Dīnār al-Ġallābī (d. 298/910) was a traditionist and historian from Basra (al-Ziriklī [2002], 6:130).

¹⁷⁶ Abū 'Umar al-Ğarmī was a scholar from Basra, especially known as a key figure in the early grammatical tradition (see Bernards [1990]).

¹⁷⁷ Al-Faḍl b. al-Rabī' (138–208/757–824) was the son of al-Manṣūr's chamberlain al-Rabī' b. Yūnus (see above, fn. 130); just as his father, he was a person of status and influence at the early 'Abbāsid court, and he served as vizier to the caliphs Hārūn al-Rašīd and al-Amīn (D. Sourdel, "al-Faḍl b. al-Rabī'", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-Fadl-b-al-rabi-SIM_2227).

¹⁷⁸ Sufyān b. 'Uyaynah b. Maymūn al-Hilālī (107–196/725–811) was a famous traditionist who lived and studied for most of his life in Mecca (S.A. Spectorsky, "Sufyān b. 'Uyayna', in *E1*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/sufyan -b-uyayna-SIM_7131).

^{&#}x27;Abd al-Razzāq b. Hammām b. Nāfiʿ al-Ṣanʿānī l-Ḥimyarī (126–211/744–827) was a leading Yemeni scholar and specialist of <code>hadīt</code> and history (H. Motzki, "al-Ṣanʿānī", in <code>EI²</code> http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-sanani-SIM_6597).

خُرج مسرعا، فقال: "يأمير المؤمنين، لو أرسلت إلي أتيتك." فقال: "خذ لما جئناك له." فحادثه ساعة ثم قال له: "عليك دين؟" قال: "نعم." قال: "أبا عباس، إقض دينه."

فلما خرجنا قال: "ما أغنى عني صاحبك شيئا. أنظر لي رجلا أسأله." قلت: "هاهنا الفضيل بن عياض." قال: "إمض بنا إليه." فأتيناه، فإذا هو قائم يصلى، يتلو آية من القرآن يرددها. فقال: "وقرع الباب!" فقرعت الباب، فقال: "من هذا؟" قلت: "أجب أمير المؤمنين!" فقال: "ما لي ولأمير المؤمنين؟" فقلت: سبحن الله، أما عليك طاعة؟ أليس قد روي عن النبي على أنه قال: "ليس للمؤمن أن يذل نفسه؟" فنزل ففتح الباب. ثم ارتقى الغرفة فأطفأ السراج. ثم التجأ إلى زاوية من زوايا البيت. فدخلنا، فجعلنا نجول عليه بأيدينا. فسبقت كف هرون قبلي إليه، فقال: "يا لها من كف! ما ألينها إن نجت غدا من إعذاب الله عز وجل." فقلت في نفسي: ليكلمنه الليلة بكلام من قلب تقي. "فتال أنه: "خذ لما جئناك له رحمك الله." فقال: "إن عمر بن عبد العزيز لما ولي الخلافة دعا سالم بن عبد الله ومحمد بن كعب القرظي ورجاء بن حَيْوة، فقال لهم: "إني قد ابتليت بهذا البلاء. فأشيروا عبد الله ومحمد بن كعب القرظي ورجاء بن حَيْوة، فقال لهم: "إني قد ابتليت بهذا البلاء. فأشيروا

١ جئناك : "جيناك" في الأصل. ٣ شيئا : "شيا" في الأصل. ١٠ جئناك : "جيناك" في الأصل. ١١ ورجاء : "رجا" في الأصل. ∥ البلاء : "البلا" في الأصل.

¹⁸⁰ Al-Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ al-Tamīmī l-Yarbū'ī (d. 187/803) was a leading religious scholar and transmitter of ħadīṭ; he lived and worked in Kufa and then in Mecca, where he acquired a reputation as an exemplary ascetic; he appears in various bigraphical anecdotes—such as those preserved in the Hilyah—demonstrating his superiority and authority

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Commander of the Faithful, if you had sent me [word], I would have come to you.' He said: 'Behold what we have come to you for.' So he talked with him for an hour. Then he said to him: 'Do you have a debt?' He said: 'Yes.' He said: 'Abū 'Abbās, settle his debt.'

§100 When we left, he said: 'Your friend has not been of any benefit to me; look for me for a man whom I may question.' I said: 'Al-Fudayl b. 'Iyād¹⁸⁰ [lives] over there.' He said: 'Let us go to him.' So we came to him. But he was just beginning his prayer, reciting a verse from the Qur'an which he repeated all the time. [Al-Rašīd] said: 'Knock at the door.' So I knocked at the door. He said: 'Who is this?' I said: 'Accede to the request of the Commander of the Faithful.' He said: 'What is my business with the Commander of the Faithful?' I said: 'Praise God! Do you not owe allegiance? Is it not transmitted about the Prophet—may God bless him—that he said: It is not up to the believer to submit himself [to a trial]?' So he came down and opened the door. Then he ascended to the room [which he had been praying in], put out the lamp, and then he resorted to one of the corners of the house. We entered and we tried to [follow him by] laying our hands on him, Harūn's hand palm preceding mine [in our movement] towards him. He said: 'What kind of a hand palm is this? How can I soften it so that it may be rescued tomorrow from the punishment of God, may He be great and exalted.' I said to myself: '[I hope] that he may speak with him overnight with words from a devout heart.' [Harūn] said to him: 'Behold what we have come to you for, may God's mercy be upon you.' He said: 'When 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz¹⁸¹ performed the office of caliph, he called for Sālim b. 'Abd Allāh, ¹⁸² Muhammad b. Ka'b al-Qurazī, 183 and Raǧā' b. Haywah. 184 He said to them: I have been afflicted by this tribulation, so give me advice—he considered

over Hārūn al-Rašīd (D. Tor, "al-Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ", in $\it E1^3$ http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/al-fudayl-b-iyad-COM_27202).

^{181 &#}x27;Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz was Umayyad caliph between 99/717 and 101/720 [see fn. 91].

This may well refer to a grandson of the second caliph 'Umar, Sālim b. 'Abd Allāh b. 'Umar b. al-Ḥaṭṭāb (d. 107/725–726) (Ḥalīfah b. Ḥayyāṭ, *al-Ṭabaqāt*, 427 [n° 2113]; al-Maqrīzī, *al-Ḍahab al-masbūk*⁴, 119, fn. 7).

This may well refer to Muḥammad b. Ka'b al-Qurazī (d. 117/735) (Ḥalīfah b. Ḥayyāṭ, al-Ṭabaqāṭ, 459 (n° 2344); al-Maqrīzī, al-Dahab al-masbūk⁴, 119, fn. 8).

Raǧā' b. Ḥaywah b. Ḥanzal al-Kindī (d. 112/730) was an influential advisor at the courts of the Umayyad caliphs 'Abd al-Malik, al-Walīd, Sulaymān, and 'Umar [see footnote 97].

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

علي، فعد الخلافة بلاء، وعددتها أنت وأصحابك نعمة." فقال له سالم بن عبد الله: "إن أردت النجاة من عذاب الله فصم الدنيا وليكن إفطارك منها الموت." وقال له محمد بن كعب: "إن أردت النجاة من عذاب الله فليكن كبير المسلمين عندك أبا وأوسطهم عندك أخا وأصغرهم عندك ولدا. فوقر أباك وأكرم أخاك وتحنن على ولدك." وقال له رجاء بن حيوة: "إن أردت النجاة من عذاب الله فأحب للمسلمين ما تحب لنفسك وأكره لهم ما تكره لنفسك. ثم مت إذا شئت." وإني أقول لك: فإني أخاف عليك أشد الخوف يوم تزل فيه الأقدام. فهل معك رحمك الله مثل هذا أو من يشير عليك بمثل هذا؟"

فبكى هُرون بكاء شديدا حتى غشي عليه. فقلت له: "إرفق بأمير المؤمنين!" قال: "يأبن أم الربيع، تقتله أنت وأصحابك وأرفق به أنا؟" ثم أفاق فقال له: "زدني رحمك الله." فقال: "يأمير المؤمنين، المغني أن عاملا لعمر بن عبد العزيز شكا إليه، فكتب إليه عمر: يابن أخي، أذكرك طول سهر أهل النار في النار مع خلود الأبد، وإياك أن ينصرف بك من عند الله إلى عذاب الله، فيكون آخر العهد وانقطاع الرجاء." فلما قرأ الكتاب طوى البلاد حتى قدم على عمر بن عبد العزيز، فقال له: "ما أقدمك؟" فقال: "خلعت قلبي بكتابك. لا أعود إلى ولاية حتى ألقى الله."

فبكى هرون بكاء شديدا، ثم قال له: "زدني رحمك الله." فقال: "يأمير المؤمنين، إن العباس— مم المصطفى ﷺ: "إن الإمارة حسرة وندامة يوم القيامة. فإن استطعت أن لا تكون أميرا فافعل."."

١ بلاء: "بلاّ" في الأصل. ٣ عندك : تصحيح بخط المقريزي في الأصل. ٤ رجاء: "رجا" في الأصل.
 ٥ شئت: "شيت" في الأصل. ٨ فبكي: "فبكي" في الأصل. || بكاء: "بكا" في الأصل.
 ١٦ الرجاء: "الرجا" في الأصل. || له: تصحيح بخط المقريزي في الأصل.
 ألقى: "القا" في الأصل.
 أمرْني: "امرْني" في الأصل.

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the caliphate a tribulation and you and your companions consider it a gift. Sālim b. 'Abd Allāh said to him: If you want to be rescued from the punishment of God, abstain from this world so that death may be as your fast-breaking. Muḥammad b. Ka'b said to him: If you want to be rescued from the punishment of God, make the elder of the Muslims like a father with you, the intermediate of them like a brother with you, and the junior of them like a son with you; respect your father, honour your brother, and feel compassion for your son. Raǧā' b. Ḥaywah said to him: If you want to be rescued from the punishment of God, love for the Muslims what you love for yourself and dislike for them what you dislike for yourself, and then die if you want. Now I [= al-Fuḍayl] say to you [= Hārūn] that I greatly dread for you the day on which the feet will slip; is there with you—may God's mercy be upon you—anyone like this or who advises you anything like this?'

§101 Hārūn wept heavily until he lost consciousness. I said to him: 'Be kind 15 to the Commander of the Faithful'. He said: 'O son of the mother of al-Rabī', you and your companions will kill him and I should be kind to him?' Then [Hārūn] regained consciousness. He said to him: 'Give me more, may God's mercy be upon you.' He said: 'O Commander of the Faithful, I was informed that an agent of 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz complained to him, so 'Umar wrote 20 to him: O my nephew, let me remind you of the people of the fire [= the unbelievers] who have to stay awake in the fire for as long as the infinity of time; be careful that you are not made to move away from [being] with God to [undergoing] God's punishment, for that is the end of time and the cutting off of hope. When he read the letter, he traversed the lands to come to 'Umar 25 b. 'Abd al-'Azīz. He said to him: What has made you come? He said: My heart is wrenched by your letter; I will not return to a governorship until I have met with God.'

§ 102 Hārūn wept heavily. Then he said to him: 'Give me more, may God's mercy be upon you.' He said: 'O Commander of the Faithful, al-'Abbās, the uncle of the chosen one—may God bless him and grant him salvation—said to the Messenger of God: Appoint me to a command. But the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation—said to him: The command is the grief and regret of the Day of Resurrection; if you can manage not to be a commander, then do so.'

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فبكى هُرون بكاء شديدا، وقال: "زدني رحمك الله." | قال: "يا حسن الوجه، أنت الذي يسألك الله 122 عز وجل عن هذا الخلق يوم القيامة. فإن استطعت أن تقي هذا الوجه من النار فإياك أن تصبح وتمسي وفي قلبك غش لأحد من رعيتك. فإن النبي ﷺ قال: "من أصبح لهم غاشا لم يرح رائحة الجنة"."

فبكى هرون وقال له: "عليك دين؟" قال: "نعم، دين لربي لم يحاسبني عليه. فالويل لي إن ساءلني، والويل لي إن ناقشني، والويل لي إن لم ألهم حجتي." قال: "إنما أعني من دين العباد." قال: "إن ربي عن وجل لم يأمرني بهذا. إنما أمرني أن أصدق وأطيع أمره." فقال: ﴿وَمَا خَلَقْتُ ٱلْجِنَّ وَٱلْإِنْسَ إِلَّا لِيعْبُدُونِ. مَا أُرِيدُ مِنْهُم مِّن رِّزْقِ وَمَا أُرِيدُ أَن يُطْعِمُونِ. إِنَّ اللهَ هُوَ ٱلرَّزَّاقُ ذُو ٱلْقُوَّة ٱلمْتِينُ ﴾. "٤٤ إلَّا لِيعْبُدُونِ. مَا أُرِيدُ مِنْهُم مِّن رِّزْقِ وَمَا أُرِيدُ أَن يُطْعِمُونِ. إِنَّ ٱللهَ هُو ٱلرَّزَّاقُ ذُو ٱلْقُوَّة ٱلمْتِينُ ﴾. "٤٤ فقال له: "هذه ألف دينار. خذها فأنفقها على عيالك، وتقوبها على عبادتك." فقال: "سبحن الله، أنا أدلك على طريق النجاة وأنت تكافيني بمثل هذا؟ سلمك الله ووفقك!" ثم صمت فلم يكلمنا. فخرجنا من عنده. فلما صرنا على الباب، قال هرون: "أبا عباس، إذا دللتني على رجل، فدلني على مثل هذا. هذا سيد المسلمين!"

فدخلت عليه امرأة من نسائه، فقالت: "يا هذا، قد ترى ما نحن فيه من ضيق. فلو قبلت هذا المال فتفرجنا به." فقال لها: "مثلي ومثلكم كمثل قوم كان لهم بعيرياً كلون من كسبه. فلما كبر نحروه فأكلوا لحمه." فلما سمع هرون هذا الكلام، قال: "ندخل. فعسى أن يقبل المال." فلما علم الفضيل، خرج فجلس في السطح على باب | الغرفة، فجاء هرون وجلس إلى جنبه، فجعل يكلمه، فلا يجيبه. "عينا نحن كذلك إذ خرجت جارية سوداء، فقالت: "يا هذا، قد آذيت الشيخ منذ الليلة. فانصرف وحمك الله." فانصر فلا يكلمه، فلا يكلمه،

١ بكاء: "بكا" في الأصل. ١٣ نسائه: "نسايه" في الأصل. ١٦ فجاء: "فجآ" في الأصل. ١٧ سوداء: "سودآ" في الأصل.

٤٩ القرآن، سورة الذريات، الآيات ٥٦-٥٨. • راجع خبر الفضل بن الربيع وهارون الرشيد هذا كله (من "حدثنا سليمان بن أحمد" إلى هنا) وعلى نفس الشكل تماما في أبو نعيم، الحلية، ج. ٨، ص. ١٠٥-١٠٨.

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§ 103 Hārūn wept heavily, and said to him: 'Give me more, may God's mercy be upon you.' He said: 'O beautiful one, you are the one whom God—may He be great and exalted—will ask about this creation on the Day of Resurrection; if you want to protect this [handsome] face against the fire, take care not to have in your heart from morning to evening deception towards anyone from your flock; the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation—said: He who tends to treat them with deception will not smell the fragrance of paradise.'

§ 104 Hārūn wept and said to him: 'Do you have a debt?' He said: 'Yes, a debt to my Lord which He has not yet settled with me. Woe onto me if He asks me, and woe onto me if He discusses with me, and woe onto me if He does not direct my argument with inspiration.' But he said: 'But I mean a debt of the human beings.' He said: 'My Lord—may He be great and exalted—did not command me to such a thing; rather He commanded me to believe and to obey His command, saying: I have not created *ğinn* and mankind except to serve Me. I desire of them no provision, neither do I desire that they should feed Me. Surely, God is the All-Provider, the Possessor of Strength, the Ever-Sure.'185 He said to him: 'These are 1,000 $d\bar{l}n\bar{d}r$ s; take them, spend them on your family, and strengthen your worship with it.' He said: 'Praise God! I guide you along the road of deliverance, while you recompense me in this way? May God grant you salvation and may he give you success.' Then he became silent and he did not speak to us. So we left from him. When we reached the door, Hārūn said: 'Abū 'Abbās, when you bring me to a man, bring me to someone like this; this one is the best of the Muslims.'

§ 105 A woman from his wives went to him [= al-Fuḍayl] and said: 'You there, you know the need we are in. If you took this money, we would be relieved by it.' But he said to her: 'Me and you, we are just like people who have a camel [that produces] a surplus which they eat from; but when it grows old, they slaughter it so as to eat its meat.' When Hārūn heard this talk, he said: 'Let us enter; maybe he will accept the money.' When al-Fuḍayl was informed, he came out and sat on the floor at the door of the room. Hārūn came and sat next to him. He began to speak to him, but he did not reply. While we were in the midst of this, a black slave girl suddenly came out and said: 'You there, you have troubled the old man all night, so leave now—may God's mercy be upon you.' So we left."

¹⁸⁵ Qur'ān, s. 51: 56–58. Translation from Arberry (1955), 2:239–240.

نا إبرهيم بن عبد الله، نا محمد بن إسحٰق، حدثني إسمٰعيل بن عبد الله أبو النضر، نا يحيى بن يوسف الزَّمَّى عن فضيل بن عياض، قال:

"لما دخل علي هرون أمير المؤمنين —قال: "أيكم هو؟" فأشاروا إلى أمير المؤمنين. فقال: "أنت هو، يا حسن الوجه. لقد كلفت أمرا عظيما. إني ما رأيت أحدا أحسن وجها منك. فإن قدرت أن لا تسود هذا الوجه بلفحة من النار فافعل." فقال لي: "عظني." فقلت: "ماذا أعظك؟ هذا كتاب الله تعالى بين الدفتين. أنظر ماذا عمل بمن أطاعه وماذا عمل بمن عصاه." وقال: "إني رأيت الناس يعرضون على النار عرضا شديدا ويطلبونها طلبا حثيثا. أما والله! لو طلبوا الجنة بمثلها أو أيسر لنالوها!" فقال: "عُد إلي." فقال: "لو لم تبعث إلى لم آتك. وإن انتفعت بما سمعت منى عدت إليك"." ه

٣ إلى: "الي" في الأصل.

٥١ راجع خبر فضيل بن عياض وهارون الرشيد على نفس الشكل تماما في أبو نعيم، الحلية، ج. ٨، ص. ١٠٥.

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§ 106 There was transmitted to us by Ibrahīm b. 'Abd Allāh,¹⁸⁶ via Muḥammad b. Isḥāq,¹⁸⁷ via Isma'īl b. 'Abd Allāh Abū l-Naḍr,¹⁸⁸ via Yaḥyá b. Yūsuf al-Zammī,¹⁸⁹ from Fuḍayl b. 'Iyāḍ, who said:

§ 107 "When Hārūn, the Commander of the Faithful, entered to me, he said: 'Which one of you is it? Advise the Commander of the Faithful.' [Fuḍayl] said: 'It is you, O handsome one. You have been entrusted an important command; never have I seen anyone with a face more beautiful than yours. If you are able not to blacken this face with heat from the fire, then do so.' He said to me: 'Caution me.' So I said: 'What should I caution you for? This is the book of God, the Elevated One, between the two covers: look at what happened to who obeyed Him and at what happened to who opposed Him.' He said: 'I saw the people submitting themselves eagerly to the fire and aspiring to it hastily; truly, by God, if they aspired to paradise in a similar or lesser way, they would attain it.' He said: 'Come back to me.' [Fuḍayl] said: 'If you had not sent [word] to me, I would not have come to you, and if you take advantage of what you heard from me, I will come back to you.'"

Abū Isḥāq Ibrāhīm b. 'Abd Allāh b. Muḥammad b. Ḥurrašīd Qūlah al-Iṣbahānī was a ḥadīt transmitter and merchant from Isfahan, who lived and worked in Baghdad, where he died in 400/1009 (al-Dahabī, Siyar, 17:69–71).

¹⁸⁷ Abū l-ʿAbbās al-Sarrāǧ Muḥammad b. Isḥāq b. Ibrāhīm b. Mihrān al-Taqafī was a *ḥadīṭ* scholar and transmitter of towering importance who lived and worked in Nishapur and Baghdad, and who died in 313/925 (al-Dahabī, *Siyar*, 14:388–398).

¹⁸⁸ Abū l-Naḍr Ismaʿīl b. ʿAbd Allāh: I have so far not been able to establish any information on the identity of this transmitter.

¹⁸⁹ Abū Zakariyyā' Yaḥyá b. Yūsuf b. Abī Karīmah al-Zammī was an important *ḥadīṭ* scholar and transmitter from Baghdad, who died in 229/844 (al-Dahabī, *Siyar*, 11:38–39).

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الحاكم بأمر الله أبو العباس أحمد

ابن محمد بن الحسن بن أبي بكر بن أبي على القُبِيّ بن الحسن الخليفة الراشد بالله، على خلاف في نسبه، ثاني خلفاء بني العباس بديار مصر.

خرج من بغداد في واقعة هولاكو، وجمع طائفة من الناس ولقي الإمام المستنصر بالله أبا العباس أحمد بن الخليفة الناصر لدين الله العباسي المجهز من ديار

٣ خلفاء: "خلفاً" في الأصل. ٤ أبا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

The refugee 'Abbāsid scion al-Ḥākim (d. 701/1302) was installed as 'Abbāsid caliph in Cairo by the sultan Baybars, after the violent termination of the 'Abbāsid caliphate of Baghdad by the Mongols in 656/1258—when in the sultanate the wish to re-establish the caliphate arose for reasons of legal and, especially, political exigency—, after al-Ḥākim's earlier proclamation as caliph in Aleppo by an opponent of sultan Baybars, and after the violent death of his shortlived predecessor and 'Abbāsid rival in Cairo al-Mustanṣir (see below). See B. Lewis, "'Abbāsids'', in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/abbasids-COM_0002; for a detailed discussion of this transition of the caliphate from Baghdad to Cairo, see Heidemann (1994).

Al-Rāšid bi-llāh briefly performed the caliphate in Baghdad between 529/1135 and 530/1136; after him, the caliphate moved back to the line of his father's brother, al-Muqtafī (r. 530–555/1136–1160); some accounts claim al-Ḥākim's descent from al-Rāšid, others from al-Rāšid's father, the caliph al-Mustaršid (r. 512–529/1118–1135), via a brother of al-Rāšid (mostly identified as al-Ḥusayn, but here by al-Maqrīzī as al-Ḥasan) (Lewis, "Abbāsids", in EI²; Heidemann [1994]: 71–75 [for a detailed discussion of the debate on al-Ḥākim's contested lineage]).

13. Al-Hākim bi-Amr Allāh Abū l-ʿAbbās Ahmad¹⁹⁰

b. Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan b. Abī Bakr b. Abī ʿAlī l-Qubbī b. al-Ḥasan, [who was] the caliph al-Rāšid bi-llāh;¹⁹¹ there is, however, disagreement on his pedigree. [He was] the second caliph of the descendants of al-ʿAbbās in Egypt.

§108 He left Baghdad during the event involving Hülegü.¹⁹² He gathered a group of people, and encountered the *Imām* al-Mustanṣir bi-llāh Abū l-ʿAbbās Aḥmad,¹⁹³ son of the caliph al-Ṭāhir bi-Amr Allāh Abū Naṣr Muḥammad,¹⁹⁴ son of the caliph al-Nāṣir li-Dīn Allāh al-ʿAbbāsī,¹⁹⁵ who was sent

Hülegü (1217–1265) was a grandson of the Mongol conqueror Jinghiz Ḥān (d. 1227), who successfully extended Mongol control over Iran, Iraq, Azerbaijan, and Anatolia, in a long military campaign that lasted from 1253 to 1260; his successors ruled over this wide area until 1335, as the Mongol dynasty of the Īl-Ḥāns; in Muslim sources, Hülegü's name remained infamously connected with one event in particular: the conquest and sack of the ancient Islamic capital of Baghad in 656/1258, and with the subsequent execution of the last 'Abbāsid caliph of Baghdad, al-Musta'ṣim (W. Barthold, J.A. Boyle, "Hūlāgū", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/abbasids-SIM_2940; A.A. Duri, "Baghdād", in E12 http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/baghdad-COM_0084).

Abū l-Qāsim Aḥmad b. al-Ṭāhir Muḥammad, known by his caliphal title al-Mustanṣir bi-llāh (r. 659–660/1261), was an 'Abbāsid scion from Baghdad who managed to escape to Egypt, where he was proclaimed the new 'Abbāsid caliph in 659/1261; he was sent on an expedition to reclaim his ancestral dominions from the Mongols in Iraq, but he was defeated and killed in battle (P.M. Holt, "al-Mustanṣir", in £1² http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mustansir-SIM_5628; Heidemann [1994]: 91–107, 145–157).

Abū Naṣr Muḥammad, known by his caliphal title al-Ṭāhir bi-Amr Allāh (r. 622—623/1225—1226), succeeded his father al-Nāṣir, but only reigned for nine months due to his untimely death (A.M. Eddé, "al-Ṭāhir bi-Amr Allāh", in £1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-zahir-bi-amr-allah-SIM_8079).

Abū l-ʿAbbās Aḥmad, reigning with the caliphal title al-Nāṣir li-Dīn Allāh from 575/1180 to 622/1225, is best known for (re-)establishing ʿAbbāsid local and regional authority and power in Baghdad and Iraq, and for restoring the primacy of ʿAbbāsid sovereignty over the entire Sunni Muslim world (A. Hartmann, "al-Nāṣir Li-Dīn Allāh", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-nasir-li-din-allah-COM_0854).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

مصر لقتال الططر، وصار في جملته. فلما قتل المستنصر في وقائع الططر قدم إلى القاهرة في سابع عشرين ربيع الأول سنة ستين وستمائة، فبايعه الملك الظاهر ركن الدين بيبرس البندقداري في يوم الخميس ثامن المحرم سنة إحدى وستين وستمائة.

فلم يزل خليفةً لا أمر له ولا نهي ولا نفوذ كلمة حتى مات بمناظر الكبش خارج القاهرة ليلة الجمعة ثامن عشر جمادى الأولى سنة إحدى وسبع مائة. فكانت خلافته أربعين سنة، وهو أول خليفة عباسي مات بمصر. واستمرت الخلافة في عقبه إلى اليوم.

إن الأولى: "الأولى" في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ الأولى: "الاولي" في الأصل.

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from Egypt to fight the Mongols. He joined his group, but when al-Mustanṣir was killed during the confrontations with the Mongols, he came to Cairo, [arriving] on 27 Rabīʿ I of the year 66o [19 February 1262]. Al-Malik al-Ṭāhir Rukn al-Dīn Baybars al-Bunduqdārī¹⁹⁶ swore the oath of allegiance to him on Thursday 8 Muḥarram of the year 661 [23 November 1262].

§ 109 He remained a caliph, without any [power to] command and forbid and without any effective authority, until he died at Manāẓir al-Kabš, 197 outside Cairo, in the night of Friday, 18 Ğumādá 1 of the year 701 [19 January 1302]. His caliphate lasted for 40 years, and he was the first 'Abbāsid caliph to die in Egypt. The caliphate has remained with his offspring to this day. 198

¹⁹⁶ Al-Zāhir Baybars (r. 658–676/1260–1277) was the first successful *mamlūk* sultan of Egypt and Syria; he was especially remembered for successfully staging the consolidation and (re-)organisation of the realm (P. Thorau, "Baybars I, al-Malik al-Zāhir Rukn al-Dīn", in *E1*³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/baybars-i-al-malik-al-zahir-rukn-al-din-COM_23709; Thorau [1987]).

¹⁹⁷ Manāzir al-Kabš, the "Pavillions of Kabsh Hill", refers to the residences that had mostly been constructed by Ayyūbid princes on a hilly platform some two kilometers south of historic Cairo, behind the Ibn Ṭūlūn mosque; in the course of the thirteenth century this pleasant area overlooking the Elephant Lake to the North became a residential district for royals and also, in alternation with the Cairo Citadel, for the 'Abbāsid caliphs of Cairo (Raymond [2001]: 98, 133–135).

¹⁹⁸ That is, up to the time of al-Maqrīzī's writing of the text of *al-Dahab al-masbūk*.

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وجج في سنة تسع وتسعين وستمائة ٢٥ والسلطان يومئذ الملك المنصور لاجين، وأعطاه مبلغ سبع مائة ألف درهم فضة. ولما قدم مكة أراد من الشريف أبي نُمي —أمير مكة —أن يدعو له على منبر مكة، فامتنع من ذلك وجرت {بينهما} مفاوضة ترفع فيها عليه أبو نمي تفاخرًا بنسبه الشريف. واستمر الأمر على ذلك إلى اليوم لم يخطب قط بمكة لأحد من خلفاء مصر العباسيين سوى الخليفة ملاحد من عشرة وثماني مائة.

١ يومئذ: "يوميذ" في الأصل. ٢ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. || نُمي أمير: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || يدعو: "يدعوا" في الأصل. ٣ بينهما: "ينها" في الأصل. ٤ خلفاء: "خلفاً" في الأصل. ٥ وثماني مائة: ناقصة في الأصل مضافة بخط المقريزي ("ومماني مايه") في السطر على آخر نص الحاكم بعد كلمة "عشرة".

٥٠ كذا في الأصل، وهو خطأ لأن سلطنة المنصور لاجين انتهت في ربيع الآخر سنة ٢٩٨، والأصح أن حجة الحاكم كانت في سنة ٢٩٧ ولا في سنة ٢٩٩ (راجع نفس الملاحظة في المقريزي، الذهب المسبوك، تحقيق الشيال، ص. ٢٦، وتحقيق فرحات أحمد، ص. ١٢٥).

§ 110 He went on pilgrimage in the year 699 (1300), 199 the sultan at that time being al-Manṣūr Lāǧīn. 200 He gave him an amount of 700 silver *dirhams* [for distribution in Mecca]. When he wanted from the Sharif Abū Numayy, 201 the amir of Mecca, that the Friday sermon would be delivered in his name from the *minbar* of Mecca, [Abū Numayy] refused that. So there was a discussion between them, in which Abū Numayy declared himself of higher birth than [al-Ḥākim], boasting about his noble descent. Until today, the situation has remained like that, the Friday sermon in Mecca never being delivered in the name of any of the 'Abbāsid caliphs of Egypt, except for the caliph al-Musta'īn bi-llāh Abū l-Faḍl al-'Abbās b. Muḥammad, 202 [in whose name the Friday sermon was delivered] for a few days in the year 815 [1412].

This is an obvious mistake in the text, because sultan Lāǧīn's sultanate ended in early 698/1299; al-Ḥākim rather participated in the haǧǧ season of the year 697/1298: on this caliphal haǧǧ and the conflict with Abū Numayy, see especially Heidemann (1994): 190–191.

²⁰⁰ Al-Manşūr Lāğīn was sultan over Egypt and Syria between 696/1296 and 698/1299 (see Holt [1973]).

Muḥammad Abū Numayy was a member of a local dynasty of rulers or Sharifs of Mecca, which came to power in the course of the tenth century, and which only lost its power with the rise of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in the mid-1920s; they supported their successful claims to rule by their descent from the Prophet via his grandson al-Ḥasan; the Sharif Abū Numayy (r. 652–700/1254–1301) was one of the more energetic and successful rulers of this longlasting dynasty (A.J. Wensinck, C.E. Bosworth, "Makka, 2. From the 'Abbāsid to the Modern Period", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/makka-COM_0638; Meloy [2010a]: 15–16, 47–48; Mortel [1987]: 461–462).

Al-Musta'īn bi-llāh, regnal title of Abū l-Faḍl al-'Abbās, was the tenth 'Abbāsid so-called "shadow" caliph in Egypt, reigning from 808/1406 to 816/1414; he died from the plague in 833/1430; al-Musta'īn's name is especially remembered for the fact that for six months in 815/1412, he was also endowed with the sultanate in Cairo, an unusual arrangement that did not arise from any renewed 'Abbāsid empowerment, but rather from the contingent need to organise and legitimate the transition from the murder of the preceding sultan to the enthronement of one of his murderers as the next sultan (P.M. Holt, "al-Musta'īn", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mustain-SIM_5620).

[فصل في] ذكر من حج من الملوك وهو ملك

الصُليْحي

واسمه علي بن محمد بن علي—أحد ثوار العالم—، كنيته أبو الحسن بن أبي محمد.

كان أبوه على قضاء اليمن ومن أهل السُنة، وكان في عشيرة من قومه. فصحب عليَّ داعيَ اليمن عامرَ بن عبد الله الزواحي—أحد دُعاة الدولة الفاطمية—، ومال إلى مذهب التشيع، وتضلع من علوم الشيعة حتى صار إماما فيه.

٣ كنيته: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ قضاء: "قضا" في الأصل.

[Chapter with] the Report of the Kings Who Went on Pilgrimage When They were King

1. Al-Şulayhī²⁰³

5

§111 His name is 'Alī b. Muḥammad b. 'Alī, [and he is] one of this world's revolutionaries; his *kunyah* is Abū l-Ḥasan b. Abī Muḥammad.

§112 His father held the judgeship of Yemen. He belonged to the adherents of the Sunna and lived amidst a clan of his people. 'Alī became a companion of the missionary of Yemen, 'Āmir b. 'Abd Allāh al-Zawāḥī,'204 one of the missionary agents of the Fāṭimid dynasty.'205 [As a result] ['Alī] started sympathising with the path of Shiism and he became proficient in the sciences of Shiism, until eventually he [himself] became a leading figure in it.

^{203 &#}x27;Alī b. Muḥammad al-Ṣulayḥī (d. 473/1081) was the first ruler of the Ṣulayḥid dynasty of Yemen, a Shii Ismā'īlī dynasty that ruled over the southern highlands and the Tihāmah region of the Yemen between approximately 439/1047 and 532/1138 (G.R. Smith, "Ṣulayḥids", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/sulayhids-COM_1112).

^{&#}x27;Āmir b. 'Abd Allāh al-Zawāḥī was a missionary agent from Fāṭimid Egypt, sent to his native region of Yemen to spread the Fāṭimid Ismāʿīlī cause; his first name is mostly rendered as Sulaymān, however, and that of his son—a powerful Ṣulayḥid—as Sulṭān 'Āmir (Smith, "Ṣulayḥids"; I. Poonawala, "Shahriyār b. al-Ḥasan", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/shahriyar-b-al-hasan-SIM_6777).

The Fāṭimids were an Ismāʿīlī dynasty that emerged in North Africa in 297/909, from where they successfully established their rule over Sicily, Egypt, the Hijaz, and southern Syria; from 358/969 they reigned over their empire from Egypt, where they founded a new capital, al-Qāhirah (Cairo); with Ṣulayḥid support, their sovereignty was eventually also acknowledged in Yemen. The Fāṭimid rulers asserted direct descent from the Prophet's daughter Fāṭimah and her husband, 'Alī, generating divine inspiration and special status, to support their claims to Muslim leadership; as a result of these claims, they assumed the title of caliph and developed an amibitous anti-'Abbāsid policy of eastward military expansion and Ismāʿīlī missionary activities; this was only succesful until the early decades of the eleventh century; the dynasty was brought to an end in 567/1171 by the Sunni military leader Saladin (M. Canard, "Fāṭimids", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/faṭimids-COM_0218; Halm [1996]).

ثم ثار سنة تسع وعشرين | وأربع مائة بستين رجلا—أصحاب عشائر—، فصار في عشرين ألف طارب سيف من يومه. ودعا للإمام المستنصر بالله أبي تميم معد بن الظاهر بن الحاكم—أحد الخلفاء الفاطمية بالقاهرة—، وملك اليمن كله—سهله وجبله ووعره وبره وبحره—وخطب بنفسه، وكانت قاعدة ملكه صنعاء.

ه وحج سنة خمس وخمسين وأربع مائة، وملك مكة في سادس ذي الحجة منها ونشر بها العدل وأكثر فيها من الإحسان، ومنع المفسدين وأمن الناس أمنا لم يعهدوه قبله. ورخصت بها الأسعار لكثرة ما جلب اليها بأمره، فأحبه الناس حبا زائدا. وكسا الكعبة الديباج الأبيض—وهو كان شعار الدولة الفاطمية—وأقام بها دعوتهم.

١ مائة: "ماية" في الأصل. || عشائر: "عشاير" في الأصل. "٢ الخلفاء: "الخلفاة" في الأصل. ٤ صنعاء: "صنعاة" في الأصل. ٥ وأربع: الكلمة غير واضحة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة. ٦ المفسدين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٧ زائدا: "زايدا" في الأصل. ٩ وأربعمائة: "واربعمايه" في الأصل. ٥ وأربعمائة: "واربعمايه" في الأصل. ١٠ وأربع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو ولكن بعدة تفاصيل زائدة في الفاسي، شفاء الغرام، ج. ٢، ص. ٢٧٣.

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§113 Then he revolted in the year 429 [1037–1038], with 60 men, all clan chiefs. Soon thereafter, he got 20,000 swordsmen, and he publicly proclaimed allegiance to the *imām* al-Mustanṣir bi-llāh Abū Tamīm Maʿadd b. al-Ṭāhir b. al-Ḥākim, one of the Fāṭimid caliphs in Cairo. He took control over all of Yemen, its coasts, mountains, and wildness, and its land and its sea. He delivered the Friday sermon in his own name. The seat of his reign was Sanaa.

§ 114 He went on pilgrimage in the year 455 [1063]. He took control of Mecca on the sixth of $D\bar{u}$ l-Ḥiǧǧah of this year [30 November 1063], and he spread justice in it. He increased the performance of good deeds in [Mecca], hindered the evil doers, and provided safety for the people such as they had not experienced before him. Prices in it got cheap because of the multitude of what was imported to it by his order. People loved him enormously. He covered the Kaʿbah with a *kiswah* of white brocade, which is one of the symbols of the Fāṭimid dynasty, and he established their religious cause there.

§115 Then he went on pilgrimage in the year 473 [1081]. When he settled down outside al-Mahǧam,²⁰⁷ he was killed, on the twelfth of Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah [24 May], by the hand of Saʿīd al-Aḥwal b. Naǧāḥ,²⁰⁸ [who] took power after him.

²⁰⁶ Al-Mustanşir bi-llāh, regnal title of Abū Tamīm Maʻadd b. ʻAlī al-Ṭāhir b. al-Ḥākim, was the eighth Fāṭimid caliph (b. 420/1029, r. 427–487/1036–1094); his reign of some 60 years is the longest recorded of any Muslim ruler, and it witnessed substantial changes in the nature and extent of Fāṭimid authority (H.A.R. Gibb, P. Kraus, "al-Mustanṣir", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mustansir-COM_0817).

²⁰⁷ Today Mahjamm, in the Yemeni Hajja governorate.

Saʿīd al-Aḥwal b. Naǧāḥ (d. 481/1088) was a member of a dynasty of former Abyssinian slaves, the Naǧāḥids, that ruled over the Yemenite city of Zabīd and over the northern Tihāmah for most of the period between 412/1022 and 553/1158; the murder of the dynasty's founder Naǧāḥ by ʿAlī b. Muḥammad in 452/1060, the subsequent Ṣulayḥid occupation of Zabīd, and the murder of ʿAlī by Naǧāḥ's sons, Saʿīd and Ğayyāš, near the Tihāmah town of al-Mahǧam in 473/1081, marked a first and defining phase in the long competition of the Naǧāḥids with the Ṣulayḥids for control over the Tihāmah (R. Strothmann, G.R. Smith, "Nadjāḥīds", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/nadjahids-SIM_5717).

ثم جج

الملك العادل نور الدين محمود

ابن عماد الدين أتابك بن زنكي بن أبي سعيد قسيم الدولة بن آقسنقر—المعروف بالحاجب—بن عبد الله.

ه كان جده آقسنقر مملوكا تركيا للسلطان ملك شاه بن ألب أرسلان السلجوقي، وترقى إلى أن استنابه تاج الدولة نتش بن أرسلان في حلّب لما ملكها في سنة ثمان وسبعين وأربع مائة. فعصى عليه وحاربه. فقتل في جمادى الأول سنة سبْع وثمانين وأربع مائة. وصار ابنه عماد الدين زنكي من

١ ثم حج: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح؛ يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "بعده". ٦ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. || فعصى: "فعصا" في الأصل. ٧ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل.

Then there went on pilgrimage

2. Al-Malik al-'Ādil Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd²⁰⁹

b. ʿImād al-Dīn [the] Atābak, [i.e.] b. Zankī b. Abī Saʿīd Qasīm al-Dawlah, [i.e.] b. Āqsunqur, known as al-Ḥāǧib, b. ʿAbd Allāh.

§116 His grandfather Āqsunqur²¹⁰ was a Turkish military slave of the sultan Malik Šāh b. Alp Arslān al-Salǧūqī.²¹¹ He rose in the ranks until Tāǧ al-Dawlah Tutuš b. Arslān²¹² appointed him as his representative in Aleppo, when he took hold of it in the year 478 [1085–1086]. [But then] he rebelled against [Tutuš] and engaged into battle against him. [Āqsunqur] was killed in Ğumādá I of the year 487 [May–June 1094]. His son 'Imād al-Dīn Zankī

Al-Malik al-ʿĀdil Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd (d. 569/1174) ruled from 541/1146 until his death over most of Northern Mesopotamia and Syria; the main components of these domains first had been brought together by his father Zankī's military campaigning and they had then been divided among Maḥmūd and his Zankid brothers; from his appanage in Aleppo Maḥmūd succeeded to gradually extend his authority over family, friends, and foes in the region and thus to transform into the uncontested Muslim leader West of the Tigris; under the banner of *ğihād* he was regularly engaged in warfare against Crusaders of the Levantine coast, and eventually he even obtained control over Egypt (N. Elisséeff, "Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd b. Zankī", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/nur-al-din-mahmud-b-zanki-SIM_5988).

Qasīm al-Dawlah Āqsunqur al-Ḥāǧib (d. 487/1094) was a *mamlūk* or military slave in Salǧūq service who eventually served as Salǧūq governor in Aleppo; he was executed in the course of a Salǧūq succession conflict; his son Zankī (d. 541/1146) followed in his footsteps (H.A.R. Gibb, "Āķ Sunķur", in *E1*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ak-sunkur-SIM_0451).

Žalāl al-Dawlah Mu'izz al-Dīn Abū l-Fatḥ Malik Šāh b. Alp Arslān (b. 447/1055, r. 465–485/1072–1092) was the greatest of all Salğūq rulers (sulṭāns), a Turkish dynasty different branches of which dominated the eastern Islamic world for most of the eleventh and a great part of the twelfth centuries (C.E. Bosworth, "Malik-Shāh", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/malik-shah-COM_0651); Peacock (2015).

Tāǧ al-Dawlah Tutuš b. Arslān (458–488/1066–1095) was the brother of sultan Malik Šāh, who was given Syria as his Salǧūq appanage; he was killed in a prolonged conflict for the succession of his brother (C.E. Bosworth, "Tutush (I) b. Alp Arslan." in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/tutush-i-b-alp-arslan-COM_1267).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

الأمراء ببغداد، ثم ولي الموصل سنة {اثنتين} وعشرين وخمسمائة، وأخذ الرها. وقتل على جعبر في ربيع الآخر سنة إحدى وأربعين وخمس مائة—وهو على فراشه.

ووُلِد نور الدين محمود في سابع عشر شوال سنة إحدى عشرة وخمسمائة. فقام بعد قتل أبيه، وأخذ قلعة حلب وجد في قتال الفرنج—وبيدهم حينئذ من الرها إلى السوادة من محرود أرض مصر—وافتتح عدة حصون. وأظهر بحلب مذهب أهل السنة—وكان أهلها

¹ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. || اثنتين: "اثنين" في الأصل. || وخمسمائة: "وخمسمايه" في الأصل. ٢ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. ٢ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. ٢ مائة: "حينيد" في الأصل.

became [one] of the amirs in Baghdad. Then he was appointed over Mosul²¹³ in the year 522 [1128]. He took Edessa [from the Crusaders].²¹⁴ He was killed near Ğaʿbar²¹⁵ in Rabīʿ II of the year 541 [September–October 1146], while he was in his bed.

- § 117 Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd was born on 17 Šawwāl of the year 511 [11 February 1118]. He rose [to power] after the murder of his father, taking the citadel of Aleppo [as his seat]. He made every effort in fighting the Franks,²¹⁶ who controlled at that time [an area stretching] from Edessa to al-Sawwādah,²¹⁷ near the frontier of the territory of Egypt. He conquered several fortresses.
 He made the path of the people of the Sunna dominant in Aleppo, [where most of] its people had belonged to the *Rāfiḍah*.²¹⁸ He abolished the [Shiite]
 - Mosul, or al-Mawşil, is an old city in Northern Mesopotamia, or the Jazira, on the west bank of the Tigris, in present-day Iraq (P. Sluglett, "al-Mawşil", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mawsil-COM_0717).
 - Al-Ruhā, traditionally known as Edessa in European sources and today as Urfa (also Şanlıurfa) in the southeast of modern Turkey, is the Arabic name of a city with ancient roots in Eastern Anatolia; between 1098 and 1144, following the first crusade, it was the capital of the Latin "County of Edessa", until its conquest and sack by Zankī; this event gave Zankī and his offspring the empowering aura of champions of Islam and holy war, but it also triggered the second crusade (E. Honigmann, C.E. Bosworth, "al-Ruhā", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-ruha-COM_0936).
 - 215 Ğa'bar, better known as Qal'at Ğa'bar, is situated on the east bank of the upper Euphrates, to the west of the regional center of Raqqa; it is a fortified site on a hill, overlooking the river valley and controling its passage since pre-Islamic times (see Tonghini [1998]).
 - "Franks" (*firanğ*, *ifranğ*) is the generic name used in medieval Muslim sources to refer to Latin Christians, including those coming or originating from Europe in the context of crusading and the set-up of Levantine crusader principalities (A. Mallett, "Franks", in *EI*³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/franks -COM_27178).
 - Al-Sawwādah was the name of one of the stops on the postal route connecting Cairo with Gaza; it was the fourteenth station from Cairo, the second from Qaṭyā, and the third before al-Arish (see al-Qalqašandī, Ṣubḥ al-ašá, 14:378).
 - Rāfiḍah ('those who reject' [the first three caliphs]) is a term used in medieval Sunni Muslim sources to refer to Twelver-Šī'ah, mostly with an antagonistic and pejorative undertone (E. Kohlberg, "al-Rāfiḍa", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-rafida-SIM_6185).

من الرافضة—، وأبطل الأذان بحي على خير العمل، وأنشأ بها المدارس على مذاهب الأئمة الأربعة. الأربعة.

ثم ملك دمشق بعدما أشرف الفرنج على أخذها، وضبط أمورها وأنشأ بها المدارس والمساجد والمارستان، وعمرها، وأبطل المكوس كلها ومنع المنكرات بأسرها وعاقب عليها.

واستنقذ من الفرنج عدة معاقل، وبنى في أكثر ممالكه دار العدل وأحضرها القضاة والفقهاء
 وجلس فيها بنفسه | لإزالة المظالم.

وبالغ في الإحسان لأهل مكة والمدينة، وبعث العساكر لحفظ المدينة النبوية، وأقطع أمير مكة إقطاعا، وأقطع أمراء العربان إقطاعات لحفظ الحاج فيما بين دمشق والحجاز، وأكمل سور المدينة النبوية، واستخرج لها العين، فدُعي له بالحرمين على منبريهما.

1 الأئمة: "الايمة" في الأصل. ٥ وبنى: "وبنا" في الأصل. || القضاة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || والفقها: "الفقهآ" في الأصل. ٦ بنفسه: أضيفت هنا في الأصل جزازة منفردة مكتوبة بخط المقريزي [١٢٦] ولكنها في المكان الغلطان في النص حتى يتم نص نور الدين (و تتم المخطوطة الأصلية، كما أشارت إليه كلمة الإشارة "لازاله" المضافة بخط الناسخ تحت نص ص. ١٢٥٠) في ص. ١٢٧أ. ٨ أمراء: "امرآ" في الأصل. || فيما ... والحجاز: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "الحاج". ٩ بالحرمين: تصحيح في الأصل. || منبريهما: تصحيح في الأصل.

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The call to prayer of Sunni Muslims consists of seven formulas; that of the Shiites differs in that it has an eighth formula: "Come to the best of works" (hayya 'alā ḥayr al-'amal) (Th.W. Juynboll, "Adhān", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/adhan-SIM_0302).

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call to prayer [that includes the phrase:] 'Come to the best of works',²¹⁹ and he erected there *madrasas* for the four schools of [Sunni] law of the four eponyms [Abū Ḥanīfah, Mālik b. Anas, al-Šāfi'ī and Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal].

§ 118 Then he gained possession of Damascus, after the Franks had been about to take it.²²⁰ He inspected its affairs, he erected *madrasas*, mosques and a hospital in it, and he developed [the city]. He abolished all the non-shar $\tilde{\iota}$ taxes,²²¹ he prevented all reprehensible things, and he had [people] punished for [committing] them.

§ 119 He recovered several strongholds from the Franks. He built houses of justice in most ruling centres of his realm, and he had judges and jurisprudents brought to them. He himself presided over sessions in them to remove injustices.

§ 120 He went to the greatest lengths to perform good deeds for the people of Mecca and Medina, sending the armies to protect the Prophet's Medina, assigning an *iqtā*^{c222} to the ruler of Mecca, and assigning *iqtā*'s to the amirs of the Bedouin Arab tribes for guarding the pilgrimage [route] between Damascus and the Hijaz. He completed the wall of the Prophet's Medina and he had a well dug for it. His name was proclaimed in the two august places, from their *minhars*.

Between 541/1147 and 549/1154, Damascus was a bone of contention in the competition for regional hegemony in southern Syria between the Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem, Nūr al-Dīn, and local military and urban leaders; in the end, Nūr al-Dīn emerged victoriously as a result of successful military operations and shrewd diplomacy (Elisséeff, "Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd b. Zankī", in E1²).

Non-šar ī taxes (*mukūs*) are levies on rural and urban goods and services that are not prescribed or condoned by Muslim scripture, and that therefore—despite their ubiquitousness and importance for the region's political economies—tend to be negatively perceived.

An *iqtā* ('apportionment') refers to a distinctive form of tributary remuneration in return for—mostly—military service; it was dominant in the Islamic world between the tenth and the eighteenth centuries and consisted basically of the assignment to its holder of the usufruct of designated rural estates; the actual nature and conditions of the assignment varied greatly according to time and place (Cl. Cahen, "Ikṭā", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ikta-SIM_3522).

وبعث الأمير أسد الدين شيركوه بالغُزّ إلى مصر، واستنقذ القاهرة من الفرنج بعد ما حصرها مُري لعنه الله بعساكر الفرنج أياما. ولم يبق إلا أن يملكها. فلما استولى شيركوه على القاهرة، دعي لنور الدين على منا بر القاهرة ومصر.

ومات في حادي عشر شوال سنة تسع وستين وخمسمائة بدمشق، بعدما حج في سنة ست وخمسين و إوخمسمائة}. وأكثر من فعل الخير بالحرمين وبالغ في الإحسان.

١ واستنقذ: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٣ على٢: "علي" في الأصل. ٤ وخمسمائة: "وخمسمايه"
 في الأصل. ٥ وخمسمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل وهو خطأ واضح من السياق.

10

§121 He sent the amir Asad al-Dīn Šīrkūh 223 with the Ġuzz [Turks] 224 to Egypt and he recovered Cairo from the Franks, after [King] Amaury 225 —may God curse him—and the armies of the Franks had besieged it for some days and [after he] had almost taken control of it. When Šīrkūh took control over Cairo, the name of Nūr al-Dīn was proclaimed from the *minbar*s of Cairo and of Misr [al-Fustāt]. 226

§ 122 He died on 11 Šawwāl of the year 569 [15 May 1174] in Damascus, after he had performed the pilgrimage in the year 556 [1161]. He did a lot of good in the two august places and he went to the greatest lengths to perform benevolent deeds.

Asad al-Dīn Šīrkūh (d. 564/1169), belonging to a Kurdish family from Armenia, was a military leader and agent of Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd, active in Syria and then in Egypt; he secured Egypt for Nūr al-Dīn in 564/1169, by rescuing Fāṭimid Egypt from an attack from the Kingdom of Jerusalem and by becoming the vizier of the last Fāṭimid caliph; he died shortly afterwards, leaving his role in Egypt as Fāṭimid vizier and agent of Nūr al-Dīn to his nephew Saladin (D.S. Richards, "Shīrkūh", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/shirkuh-SIM_6966).

²²⁴ Ġuzz is the form that is generally used by medieval Arabic authors to refer to the Turkish Oghuz people, a grouping of western Turkish tribes in Central Asia that entered the Muslim world through migration and conquest in the 5th/11th century, led by the Saljuq family; in later times, the term is also used to refer to Turkman mercenary troops (Cl. Cahen, "Ghuzz: I.-Muslim East", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ghuzz-COM_0240).

Murī is the Arabic name used to refer to one of Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd's most formidable opponents for hegemony in Syria and in Egypt, the king of the Kingdom of Jerusalem, Amaury (or Amalric) I of Jerusalem (r. 1163–1174) (Elisséeff, "Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd b. Zankī", in EI²).

Miṣr al-Fuṣṭāṭ is the name of the city that predated Cairo as the Muslim capital of Egypt, lying some kilometers to the south, along the Nile's eastern shore; it first emerged at the time of the Arab conquest of Egypt, soon transformed into a thriving Mediterranean metropolis, and remained an important urban centre when Cairo took over its role as regional political and commercial center from the twelfth century onwards (J. Jomier, "al-Fuṣṭāṭ", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-fustat-SIM_2409; Raymond [2001], 7–30, 98–102, 162–164).

الملك المعظم شمس الدولة تُورَان شاه

ابن والد الملوك نجم الدين أيوب بن شادي بن مروان الكردي.

نشأ بدمشق وقدم إلى القاهرة مع أهله في سنة أربع وستين وخمسمائة، وقد تقلد أخوه الملك الناصر صلاح الدين يوسف بن أيوب وزارة مصر للخليفة العاضد لدين الله أبي محمد عبد الله بن الأمير يوسف بن الحافظ لدين الله. فكان من أعظم الأسباب في نصرة أخيه صلاح الدين يوم

¹ تُورَان: تصحيح في الأصل بخط الناسخ. ٣ وخمسمائة: "وخمسمايه" في الأصل. ٥ من: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "فكان".

3. Al-Malik al-Mu'azzam Šams al-Dawlah Tūrān Šāh²²⁷

Son of the father of kings, Nağm al-Dīn Ayyūb b. Šādī b. Marwān al-Kurdī.²²⁸

§123 He was raised in Damascus and in the year 564 [1169] he came to Cairo with his family, when his brother al-Malik al-Nāṣir Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn Yūsuf b. Ayyūb²²⁹ had been invested with the post of vizier of Egypt for the caliph al-ʿĀḍid li-Dīn Allāh Abū Muḥammad ʿAbd Allāh b. al-Amīr Yūsuf b. al-Ḥāfiẓ li-Dīn Allāh.²³⁰ [Tūrān Šāh] was one of the foremost reasons for the victory

- Al-Malik al-Muʻazzam Šams al-Dawlah Faḥr al-Dīn Tūrān Šāh b. Ayyūb (d. 576/1178) was the older brother of Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn (Saladin), who is mainly remembered for his conquest of the Yemen in 569/1173 and its addition to his Ayyūbid family's territorial control over Syria and Egypt (G.R. Smith, "Tūrānshāh b. Ayyūb", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/turanshah-b-ayyub-COM_1258).
- Nağm al-Dīn Ayyūb b. Šādī b. Marwān al-Kurdī was the eponym of the Ayyūbid dynasty, which was established after Şalāḥ al-Dīn's taking control over Egypt in 564/1169, and which remained in power in Egypt and Syria into the later thirteenth century; Ayyūb (and his brother Šīrkūh) was of Kurdish origins, born in Armenia in the early twelfth century, and he served as a local agent and governor to various Saljuq and post-Salǧūq rulers, including Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd (A.-M. Eddé, "Ayyūbids", in Et³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/ayyubids-COM_0164).
- Al-Malik al-Nāṣir Abū l-Muẓaffar Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn Yūsuf b. Ayyūb (b. 532/1138, r. 564–589/1169–1193), better known as Saladin, was the first ruler of the Ayyūbid dynasty; he began his career as an agent in Egypt of Nūr al-Dīn Maḥmūd and as a vizier to the Fāṭimid caliph; shortly afterwards, he ended the Shiite Fāṭimid caliphate in Egypt, established Sunni Islam as its main creed, and transformed Egypt into a powerbase and stronghold for his own family and followers; from Egypt he engaged in a successful project of the expansion of his authority over Syria, Yemen, and northern Mesopotamia, culminating in the 583/1187 conquest of the capital of the Crusader Kingdom of Jerusalem, which catapulted him to the eternal status of a Muslim hero; in the last years of his life, his territorial successes were somewhat mitigated by the impact of the Third Crusade (1189–1192) (D.S. Richards, "Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/salah-al-din-SIM_6517; Eddé, "Ayyūbids", in E13; Lyons & Jackson [1982]; Mouton [2001]; Eddé [2008]).
- 230 Al-ʿĀḍid li-Dīn Allāh, regnal title of Abū Muḥammad ʿAbd Allāh b. Yūsuf b. al-Ḥāfiẓ li-Dīn Allāh (b. 546/1151, r. 555–567/1160–1171), was the fourteenth and last Fāṭimid caliph of Egypt; upon his death (at the age of twenty), Saladin formally restored the authority of the ʿAbbāsid caliph in Cairo (M.J. Salih, "al-ʿĀḍid li-Dīn Allāh", in EI³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/al-adid-li-din-allah-COM_22734).

وقعة السودان حتى هزمهم وأفناهم بالسيف. فأقطعه قوص وأسوان وعيذاب، وعِبْرتها يومئذ مائتا ألف دينار وستة وستون ألف دينار مصرية في كل سنة.

ثم {غزا} النوبة في سنة ثمان وستين، وأخذ قلعة إ بريم، وعاد غانما.

١ وقعة : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || وعبرتها : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || يومئذ : "وميذ" في الأصل.
 "وميذ" في الأصل. || مائتا : "مايتا" في الأصل.

of his brother Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn on the day of the confrontation with the blacks, 231 in which he managed to defeat them and to wipe them out with the sword. [Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn] assigned Qus, 232 Aswan 233 , and Aydhab 234 as an $iqt\bar{a}$ to him, its estimated income at that time being 266,000 Egyptian $d\bar{i}n\bar{a}rs$ annually.

§124 Then he invaded Nubia 235 in the year [5]68 [1172–1173]. He took Qal'at Ibrīm 236 and returned plundering.

This refers to a critical episode in the beginning of Saladin's take-over of power from the Fāṭimids, in 564/1169, when the Sudanese regiments of the Fāṭimid caliphate revolted and Tūrān Šāh was reported to have taken charge in subduing the revolt and destroying the regiments after two days of fighting (Eddé, "Ayyūbids", in $\it Et^3$; Lyons & Jackson [1982]: 34-36).

The ancient town of Qus (Qūṣ) in Upper Egypt, on the Nile's east bank, became a strategic local site in late antiquity, and developed into an important regional centre of trade, agriculture, and government especially from the fourth/tenth century onwards, reaching its zenith in the eighth/fourteenth century (Garcin [2005]; Id., "Kūṣ," in EI², http://brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/Hims-SIM_4555).

The town of Aswan (Uswān) in the south of Egypt, on the Nile's east bank, grew into an important regional center of Muslim government and trade from the first/seventh century onwards, controling Egypt's connections with Nubia and operating as a stop on the pilgrim routes; it fell in decay in the later eighth/fourteenth century (J.-C. Garcin & M. Tuscherer, "Uswān," in E1², http://brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/uswan-COM_1314).

Aydhab ('Aydāb) was a port town on the African coast of the Red Sea, which was used by pilgrims to Mecca and as a central hub in the commercial networks that linked Yemen to Egypt; the port and its town flourished in particular between the eleventh and fourteenth centuries, but they were both destroyed in the early fifteenth century (H.A.R. Gibb, "'Aydhāb", in ${\it EI}^2$ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/aydhab-SIM_0900).

Nubia, or al-Nūbah in medieval Arabic sources, refers to the land and its people south of Egypt, beyond Aswan and the first cataract of the Nile and into the Land of the Blacks (al-Sūdān) ("Nūba", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/nuba-COM_0870).

²³⁶ Qal'at Ibrīm, better known as Qaṣr Ibrīm, is an ancient fortified site on the Nile's east bank between the first and second Cataract, in the frontier region between Muslim Egypt and the Nubian Christian kingdoms in the south (S. Munro-Hay, "al-Marīs," in EI², http://brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/almaris-SIM_4967).

ثم سار إلى بلاد اليمن في سنة تسع وستين، وعلى مُلك زبيد أبو الحسن علي بن مهدي الملقب عبد النبي. وقدم مكة معتمرا، وتوجه إلى زبيد واستولى على ممالك اليمن، وتلقب بالملك المعظم وخطب لنفسه بعد الخليفة العباسي.

ثم توجه في سنة إحدى وسبعين إلى الشام، فملكه أخوه صلاح الدين دمشق في ربيع الأول سنة ه اثنتين وسبعين.

ثم جهزه إلى القاهرة في ذي القعدة سنة أربع وسبعين، وأنعم عليه بالإسكندرية، فأقام بها إلى أن مات هناك أول صفر سنة ست وسبعين وخمسمائة. فوجد عليه مبلغ مائتي ألف دينار مصرية دينا قضاها عنه السلطان صلاح الدين، وسبب هذا الدين كثرة جوده وسعة عطائه.

ومن غريب ما يحكى عنه أن الأديب الفاضل مهذب الدين أبا طالب محمد بن علي—ابن الخيمي— ١٠ قال: "رأيت في النوم المعظم شمس الدولة | توران شاه، وقد مدحته وهو في القبر ميت، فلف كفنه 127^b ورماه وأنشدني: [البسيط]

٤ ثم: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "العباسي". || إحدى: "احدي" في الأصل.
 ٧ وخمسمائة: "وحمسمايه" في الأصل.
 ٨ قضاها: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || عطائه: "عطايه" في الأصل. ٩ ابن: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

20

§125 Then he went to the land of Yemen, in the year [5]69 [1173–1174], when Zabīd²³⁷ was controlled by Abū l-Ḥasan 'Alī b. Mahdī,²³⁸ whose honorific was 'Abd al-Nabī. He came to Mecca and performed the lesser pilgrimage, and he moved on to Zabīd and took control of the territories of Yemen. He assumed the honorific al-Malik al-Mu'azzam and had the Friday sermon delivered in his own name, after [that of] the 'Abbāsid caliph.

§126 Then, in the year [5]71 [1175–1176], he travelled to Syria. His brother Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn put him in charge of Damascus in Rabīʻ I of the year [5]72 [September 1176].

10 §127 Then [Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn] sent him to Cairo, in Dū l-Qa'dah of the year [5]74 [April 1179], and he granted him Alexandria [as an *iqṭā'*?]. He lived in [Alexandria] until he died there, on the first of Ṣafar of the year 576 [27 June 1180]. He was found to be in debt for an amount of 200,000 Egyptian *dīnār*s and the sultan Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn settled it in his stead. The reason for this debt was the wealth of his generosity and the wide extent of his benevolence.

§128 A curious thing that is told about him is that the excellent man of letters Muhaddab al-Dīn Abū Ṭālib Muḥammad b. 'Alī Ibn al-Ḥaymī²³⁹ said: "I saw al-Mu'azẓam Šams al-Dawlah Tūrān Šāh in a dream. I had written a eulogy to him, while he was [lying] dead in his grave; he took off his burial shroud and threw it [at me], reciting [the following] verses to me: [Basīṭ meter]

²³⁷ The town of Zabīd, in the Tihāmah plain on Yemen's Red Sea coast, was founded in 204/820 by the 'Abbāsid representative in the region, upon which it remained a regional seat of government, a prosperous centre of commerce, and an important station for pilgrims travelling to Mecca until the late ninth/fifteenth century (N. Sadek, "Zabīd," in *E1*², http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/zabid-COM_1372).

Abū l-Ḥasan ʿAlī b. Mahdī, known as ʿAbd al-Nabī, was a ruler of Ḥāriḡī reputation from the Mahdid dynasty of Zabīd, who pursued a violent policy of expansion in the Yemen, against other local rulers, that may actually have triggered the Ayyūbid invasion by Tūrān Šāh; he was arrested and executed by the Ayyūbids in 571/1176 (G.R. Smith, "Mahdids", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/mahdids-COM_0620).

²³⁹ Muhaddab al-Dīn Abū Ṭālib Muḥammad b. 'Alī Ibn al-Ḥaymī (549–642/1155–1245) was a well-known littérateur and linguist from Cairo (Ibn Ḥallikān, Wafayāt al-a'yān, 2:342).

لا تستقلن معروفا سمحت به ميا وأمسيت منه عاريا بدني

ولا تظنــن جودي شــأنه بخــل مــن بعد بذلي ملك الشـــام واليمــن

إني خرجت من الدنيا وليس معي من كل ما ملكت كفي سوى كفني

وإليه ينسب درب شمس الدولة بالقاهرة.

وقد ذكرت ترجمته مبسوطة في كتاب المواعظ والاعتبارات بذكر الخطط والآثار وفي كتاب التاريخ
 الكبير المقفى لمصر.³⁰

١ تستقلن: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إ وأمسيت: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إ منه: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، على نفس السطر + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "أمسيت". ٥ ترجمته: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إ والاعتبارات: كذا في الأصل.

٤٠ راجع المقريزي، الخطط، ج. ٣، ص. ١٠٩-١١١؛ وترجمة شمس الدولة توران شاه مفقودة في المخطوطات المعروف وجودها للتاريخ الكبير المقفى للمقريزي. راجع المقفى، ج. ٨.

§ 129 You should really not underestimate a recompense which I grant while being dead and of which I have deprived my body.

You should really not consider my generosity as a case of greed, after my renunciation of the rule of Šām and of Yemen.

Because I left from the world only taking with me from all that I possessed in abundance my burial shroud!"

§130 The Darb Šams al-Dawlah²⁴⁰ in Cairo was named after him.

§ 131 I [= al-Maqrīzī] reported his biography in detail in the book *al-Mawā'iẓ wa-l-i'tibārāt bi-dikr al-ḥiṭaṭ wa-l-āṯār* [Admonitions and Reflections on the Quarters and Monuments (in Fusṭāṭ and Cairo)] and in the book *al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr al-muqaffá li-Miṣr* [The Great History of Egypt in Continuation].²⁴¹

²⁴⁰ For the neighbourhood of Darb Šams al-Dawlah in late medieval Cairo, see al-Maqrīzī, *al-Ḥiṭaṭ*, 3:108–111.

²⁴¹ See al-Maqrīzī, *al-Ḥiṭaṭ*, 3:109–111; Id., *al-Muqaffá* (but the entry for Tūrān Šāh does not seem to have survived).

الملك المعظم شرف الدين أبو الفتح عيسي

ابن الملك العادل سيف الدين أبي بكر محمد بن نجم الدين أيوب بن شادي بن مروان الكردي الأيوبي، الفقيه الحنفي النحوي الأديب الشاعر.

ولد بدمشق في خامس رجب سنة ست وخمسين وخمس مائة. وتفقه على مذهب الإمام أبي حنيفة بالشيخ {جمال الدين} أبي المحامد محمود بن أحمد الحَصِيْري البخاري الحنفي، وأخذ العربية عن التاج أبي اليُمن زيد بن الحسن الكندي، وكان يسعى إلى منزليهما على قدميه لأخذه العلم عنهما، وأفرط في العصبية لمذهب الحنفية.

٤ وخمس مائة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("وخمس مايه").
 ٥ جمال الدين: "جمالدين" في الأصل بخط المقريزي.
 ٢ منزليهما: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

4. Al-Malik al-Mu'azzam Šaraf al-Dīn Abū l-Fath 'Īsá²⁴²

§ 132 [He is] the son of al-Malik al-'Ādil Sayf al-Dīn Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. Naǧm al-Dīn Ayyūb b. Šādī b. Marwān al-Kurdī l-Ayyūbī;²⁴³ [he was] a Ḥanafī jurisprudent, a grammarian, a man of letters, and a poet.

§ 133 He was born in Damascus on 5 Rajab of the year 556 [30 June 1161]. He was trained in the jurisprudence of the rite of the *imām* Abū Ḥanīfah by the *šayḥ* Ğamāl al-Dīn Abū l-Maḥāmid Maḥmūd b. Aḥmad al-Ḥaṣīrī l-Buḥārī l-Ḥanafī.²⁴⁴ He read Arabic with al-Tāğ Abū l-Yumn Zayd b. al-Ḥasan al-Kindī.²⁴⁵ He used to hurry walking to the places where they live, so as to obtain knowledge from them. He was quite excessive in his partisanship of the Ḥanafī rite.

Al-Malik al-Muʻazzam ʻĪsá (b. 576/1180, r. 594–624/1198–1227) was an Ayyūbid ruler of Damascus, with a substantial role in and impact on the organisation of the Ayyūbid dynastic political formation dominating Egypt, Syria, Armenia, and northern Mesopotamia in the first half of the 7th/13th century; he is also remembered as an active jurisprudent and staunch supporter of the Ḥanafī school of law (R.S. Humphreys, "al-Muʻazzam", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-muazzam-SIM_5288).

Al-Malik al-ʿĀdil Sayf al-Dīn Abū Bakr (b. 540/1145, r. 596–615/1200–1218), known in Western sources as Saphadin, was a younger brother of Saladin, who emerged victoriously from the long power struggle within the Ayyūbid family that followed Saladin's death; with his sons performing his power and authority as royal princes in Egypt, Syria, northern Mesopotamia, and Armenia, and he himself moving from place to place as circumstances required, he firmly controlled the Ayyūbid territories, thus managing to consolidate his brother's Ayyūbid legacy; al-ʿĀdil died while preparing for the defense of Egypt against the forces of the Fifth Crusade (H.A.R. Gibb, "al-ʿĀdil", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-adil-SIM_0312).

čamāl al-Dīn Maḥmūd b. Aḥmad al-Ḥaṣīrī (546-636/1151-1239) was an eminent Ḥanafī scholar from Bukhara, who spent a large part of his life teaching in Damascus (Ibn Ḥallikān, *Wafayāt al-aʿyān*, 4:259).

²⁴⁵ Al-Tāğ (or Tāğ al-Dīn) Abū l-Yumn Zayd b. al-Ḥasan al-Kindī (520–613/1126–1217) was a *littérateur* and scholar from Baghdad, who came to Syria in 563/1168, entered the service of the Ayyūbid family, and eventually settled down in Damascus as a scholar of widespread reputation (Ibn Ḥallikān, *Wafayāt al-a'yān*, 2:339–342).

وشرح الجامع الكبير في الفقه وصنف السهم المصيّب في الرد على الحافظ أبي بكر الخطيب. وَرُوِّي بخطه على كتاب النكت في الفقه على مذهب بخطه على كتاب النكت في الفقه على مذهب أبي حنيفة أنه: قطعته حفظا—وهو في مجلدين.

واعتنى بالعلم وأهله عناية تامة، وسمع الحديث من حنبل وعمر بن طبرزد وغيره وحدث.

٣ قطعته: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

§ 134 He wrote a comment on al-Ğāmi' al-kabīr fī l-fiqh [The Great Compilation in Jurisprudence] and he composed al-Sahm al-muṣīb fī l-radd 'alá l-ḥāfiz Abī Bakr al-Ḥaṭīb [The Arrow that Hits Its Target Responding to the hāfiz Abū Bakr al-Ḥaṭīb]. The following] was seen [to have been written] in his handwriting on [a copy of] the Kitāb Sībawayhi [The Book of Sībawayhi]: Alawe entirely absorbed it, learning it by heart with my mind", and on [a copy of] the Kitāb al-Nukat fī l-fiqh 'alá madhab Abī Ḥanīfah [The Book of Anecdotes Concerning the Juridsprudence Following the Rite of Abū Ḥanīfah]: Alawe entirely absorbed it, learning it by heart"—this one consists of two volumes.

§ 135 He was deeply concerned for knowledge and for its people. He studied $had\bar{t}$ with Hanbal, $had\bar{t}$ with Hanbal, $had\bar{t}$ with Hanbal, $had\bar{t}$ with Hanbal, $had\bar{t}$.

²⁴⁶ *Al-Ğāmi' al-kabīr* is a work of jurisprudence attributed to a student of Abū Ḥanīfah, al-Šaybānī (d. 189/805); it is considered a cornerstone for the thought and practice of the Ḥanafī school (E. Chaumont, "al-<u>Sh</u>aybānī", in *E1*² http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-shaybani-COM_1051).

Al-Sahm al-muṣīb fī l-radd 'alá l-Ḥaṭīb is a polemical work written by al-Mu'azzam 'Īsá to counter the partial biography of Abū Ḥanīfah by the Šāfi'ī scholar al-Ḥaṭīb al-Baġdādī (d. 463/1071), in his voluminous Tārīḥ Baġdādī (GAL S. 1:563).

²⁴⁸ *Kitāb Sībawayhi* is one of the most important, founding texts of the Arabic grammatical tradition, composed by the grammarian Sībawayhi (d. c. 180/796) (M.G. Carter, "Sībawayhi", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/sibawayhi-COM 1068).

²⁴⁹ Kitāb al-Nukat fī l-fiqh ʿalá maḍhab Abī Ḥanīfah probably refers to al-Šaybānī's Nukat al-Ğāmiʿ al-kabīr (also known as Išārāt al-Ğāmiʿ al-kabīr) (GAL S. 1:289) (see fn. 246).

²⁵⁰ Abū 'Alī Ḥanbal b. 'Abd Allāh b. Faraǧ b. Sa'ādah was a ḥadīṭ transmitter, of the *Musnad* of Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal in particular, who lived and worked in Iraq and Syria and who died in 604/1207 (al-Dahabī, *Siyar*, 21:431–433).

²⁵¹ Abū Ḥafṣ ʿUmar b. Abī Bakr Muḥammad b. Ṭabarzad (actually: Ṭabarzad) al-Baġdādī l-Dāraquzī (516–607/1123–1210) was a renowned ḥadīṭ scholar from Baghdad, who visited Syria to transmit ḥadīṭ there towards the end of his life (Ibn Ḥallikān, Wafayāt al-a'yān, 3:452–453).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وأعطاه أبوه الملك العادل دمشق وجعل في ولايته غزة والكرك والشوبك، وذلك سنة ست وتسعين وخمسمائة، فلم يزل حتى مات بدمشق آخر ذي القعدة سنة أربع وعشرين وستمائة.

وجج، فخرج من دمشق في حادي عشر ذي القعدة سنة إحدى عشرة وستمائة على الهجن، وسار على طريق تبوك، وبنى البركة وعدة مصانع، وتصدق على أهل الحرمين بصدقات جزيلة:

ه وقدم منها إلى القاهرة وافدى على أبيه ومعه الشريف سالم بن قاسم —أمير المدينة —شافعا فيه، فأكرمه الملك العادل وبعث معه عسكرا إلى المدينة، وعاد المعظم إلى دمشق.

٢ وخمسمائة: "وخمسمايه" في الأصل. || وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ٣ وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل.
 ٥ وافدى: "وأفدا" في الأصل ويبدو أن المقريزي كشط ياء وحولها إلى ألف. ٦ الملك: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || المعظم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.
 المقريزي.

The placement of the ancient Mediterranean town of Gaza in southern Palestine, on the junction of overland roads and routes that connect Egypt, Syria, and the Arabian peninsula, and amidst rich agricultural lands, has defined its destiny as a major commercial centre, as a bone of political contention, and as a meeting place for learning and scholarship, since immemorial times; integrated in the Crusader Kingdom of Jerusalem throughout the sixth/twelfth century, it remained an object of competition between Ayyubid and 'Frankish' leaders from the 560s/1170s until 642/1244 (J. Büssow, "Gaza", in EI³).

§ 136 His father al-Malik al-ʿĀdil gave him Damascus [to rule] and he put Gaza, 252 Karak 253 , and Shawbak 254 under his authority. That happened in the year 596 [1200]. [This] did not change until he died in Damascus by the end of $D\bar{u}$ l-Qaʻdah of the year 624 [November 1227].

- § 137 He went on pilgrimage, leaving from Damascus on camels on 11 Dū l-Qa'dah of the year 611 [14 March 1215]. He followed the Tabūk²⁵⁵ road. He constructed the pond and several installations. He gave abundant alms to the people of the two august places.
- §138 From there, he came to Cairo, coming to see his father, and with him there was the Sharif Sālim b. Qāsim, the amir of Medina,²⁵⁶ whom he interceded for. Al-Malik al-ʿĀdil honoured him and sent an army with him to Medina. Al-Muʿazzam returned to Damascus.

²⁵³ Karak (al-Karak) is the name of another stronghold with adjacent settlement in Transjordan, east of the Dead Sea, with ancient origins but appearing in Muslim sources only from the mid-twelfth century onwards, in a Crusader context; its strategic location derived from its commanding the route to Egypt as well as the pilgrimage route from Damascus; it was taken by Saladin's brother, al-Malik al-ʿĀdil, in 584/1188, after which it also became an important site and occasional bone of contention for the Ayyūbid dynasty (D. Sourdel, "al-Karak", in Et² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-karak-SIM_3906; Milwright [2008]).

Shawbak (al-Šawbak) is the name of a fortified place with adjacent settlement, originally constructed by the Crusaders (as Montréal), in Transjordan, on a strategic position commanding the route to Egypt; it was conquered by Saladin in 585/1189, after which it became an important site and an occasional bone of contention for the Ayyūbid dynasty (M.A. Bakhit, "al-Shawbak", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-shawba-SIM_6872).

Tabūk is an ancient town in northwestern Arabia that was an important station of the Syrian *ḥaǧǧ* route (M.A. al-Bakhit, "Tabūk", in *EI*², http://brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/tabuk-SIM_7267).

The Sharif Sālim b. Qāsim (d. 612/1215) was *amīr* of Medina after his father Qāsim b. Muhannā b. al-Ḥusayn; they were members of the Ḥusaynid dynasty that had founded the amirate of Medina early in the last third of the tenth century, legitimating their rule by successfully claiming direct descent from the Prophet's grandson al-Ḥusayn b. 'Alī; Sālim is especially remembered for his successful resistance, with Ayyūbid assistance (referred to in this passage), of the attempts by the Sharif of Mecca to incorporate Medina into his domains (Mortel [1991]: 69–71).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وقد ذكرت ترجمته مستوفاة في التاريخ الكبير المقفى لمصر.°°

٥٠ ترجمة المعظم عيسى مفقودة في المخطوطات المعروف وجودها للتاريخ الكبير المقفى للمقريزي. راجع المقفى، ج. ٨.

 $\S139$ I [al-Maqrīzī] reported his biography in detail in al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr almuqaffá li-Miṣr [The Great History of Egypt in Continuation]. ²⁵⁷

²⁵⁷ Al-Maqrīzī, *al-Muqaffá* (but the entry for al-Muʻazzam ʻĪsá does not seem to have survived).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

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الملك المسعود صلاح الدين أبو المظفر يوسف—ويقال له أطسز |

ويقال أقسيس—بن السلطان الملك الكامل ناصر الدين أبي المظفر محمد بن السلطان الملك العادل سيف الدين أبي بكر محمد بن والد الملوك نجم الدين أبي الشكر أيوب بن شادي بن مروان الكردي الأُيُوبي.

ه ولد في ربيع الآخر سنة سبع وتسعين وخمسمائة، وولاه أبوه مملكة اليَمن في أيام جده سنة إحدى عشرة وستمائة. فسار إليها في ألف فارس، ومن الجاندارية والرماة خمسمائة وقدم مكة وتوجه منها إلى زُبيد، وملكها واستولى على تهامة وتعِزّ وصَنْعاء وسائر ممالك اليمن.

وحج في سنة تسع عشرة وستمائة، وقاتل أمير مكة الشريف حسن بن قتادة الحسني، وهزمه ونهب مكة. فلما كان يوم عرفة منع أعلام الخليفة من التقَدُم على أعلام أبيه. وأظهر من الجرأة على

٣ أبي: تصحيح في الأصل بخط الناسخ. ٥ وخمسمائة: "وخمسماية" في الأصل. ٦ وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ॥ وسائر: "وسآير" في في الأصل. ॥ إلى وسأئو: "وسآير" في الأصل. ٨ وسمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ٨ وسمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ٩ مكة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

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5. Al-Malik al-Mas'ūd Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn Abū l-Muẓaffar Yūsuf,²⁵⁸ known as Aṭsiz

§ 140 [He was also] known as Aqsīs; [he was] the son of the sultan al-Malik al-Kāmil Nāṣir al-Dīn Abū l-Muẓaffar Muḥammad, 259 [who was] the son of the sultan al-Malik al-ʿĀdil Sayf al-Dīn Abū Bakr Muḥammad, [who was] the son of the father of kings, Naǧm al-Dīn Abū l-Šukr Ayyūb b. Šādī b. Marwān al-Kurdī l-Ayyūbī.

§141 He was born in Rabī' II of the year 597 [January 1201]. In the year 611 [1214–1215], in the days of his grandfather [al-Malik al-'Ādil], his father appointed him over the territory of Yemen. He went there amidst 1,000 horsemen and 500 [men] from the armour bearers and the bowmen. He came to Mecca and from there he proceeded to Zabīd. He occupied it, and he acquired control over Tihama, Ta'izz, Sanaa and all the territories of Yemen.

§ 142 He performed the pilgrimage in the year 619 [1223]. He fought the amir of Mecca, the Sharif Ḥasan b. Qatādah al-Ḥasanī. He overcame him and plundered Mecca. When it was the Day of [the standing at] 'Arafah, he prevented the standards of the caliph from preceding his father's standards. He publicly committed gravely sinful deeds of insolence towards God, among

Al-Malik al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf (d. 626/1229) was the son of al-Malik al-Kāmil Muḥammad, the Ayyūbid ruler of Egypt, and the grandson of the Ayyūbid ruler al-Malik al-ʿĀdil; he is mostly remembered for his rule over Yemen in his father's name, between 612/1215 and 626/1229 (Eddé, "Ayyūbids", in E13).

Al-Malik al-Kāmil Muḥammad (b. 573/1177, r. 604–635/1207–1238) was the eldest son of Saladin's brother al-Malik al-ʿĀdil, who was given Egypt to rule by his father, and who managed after his father's death in 615/1218 and after a prolonged struggle with his brothers to have his authority acknowledged over the entire Ayyūbid polity of Egypt, Syria, Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Yemen (H.L. Gottschalk, "al-Kāmil", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/sibawayhi-COM_1068).

⁴⁶⁰ Ḥasan b. Qatādah al-Ḥasanī was ruler or amir of Mecca after his father Qatādah b. Idrīs (r. 597–619/1201–1221), who according to some reports was one of the greatest of the long line of Ḥasanid Sharifs of Mecca (see also fn. 201); Ḥasan took power by killing his father in 618/1221, ushering in a period of internecine warfare that culminated in the Ayyūbid occupation of Mecca in 620/1223 (referred to here) and the loss of Ḥasanid effective control until 652/1254 (A.S. Wensinck, S. Zakkar, "Ķatāda b. Idrīs", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/katada -b-idris-SIM_4015; Mortel [1987]: 461).

الله قبائح منها أنه كان يصعد أعلى زمزم فيرمي حمام الحرم بالبُنْدق، ويستخفُ بحُرْمة الكعبة، وأكثر من سفك الدماء. وكان إذا نام في داره بالمسعى ضربت الجاندارية الطائفين بالمسعى بأطراف السيوف لئلا يشوشوا عليه وهو فى نوم من شدة سكره بالخمر.

ثم عاد إلى اليمن، وخرج منها بعدما استخلف عليها نور الدين عمر بن علي بن رسول الكردي في سنة اثنتين وعشرين، وقدم القاهرة بهدايا جليلة، ونزل بالقصر وأقام لأبيه حرمة وافرة. فخافه الأمراء والأجناد، وخشوا سطوته.

ثم توجه إلى اليمن بعدما أتاه التشريف الخليفتي من بغداد، فأقام بها إلى أن بلغه ان أباه أخذ دمشق. فتاق إلى أخذها عوضا عن اليمن، وخرج بأمواله وأثقاله. فمات بمكة في ثالث عشر جمادى الأولى سنة ست وعشرين وستمائة. فدفن بالمعلا. وقام بأمر اليمن بعده نائبه عمر بن علي بن رسول.

١ قبائح: "قبآيم" في الأصل. || أعلى: "أعلا" في الأصل. ٢ الدماء: "الدما" في الأصل. || كان: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "الدماء و". ٥ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. | وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. || نائبه: "نايمه" في الأصل.

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which [the following]: he took the habit of hunting from atop Zamzam, shooting bullets at the pigeons of the sacred mosque, and thus not taking the sacrosanctity of the Kaʿbah seriously and causing a lot of bloodshed; it used to be so that when he was asleep in his house at the time of the ritual of running [between al-Ṣafā and al-Marwah], the armour bearers would hit the two groups at the running course with the tips of their swords to make them not disturb him while he was asleep [and recovering from] his heavy drunkenness from wine.

§ 143 Then he returned to Yemen. In the year [6]22 [1225] he left from it, leaving Nūr al-Dīn 'Umar b. 'Alī b. Rasūl al-Kurdī²⁶¹ as his agent to govern it. He came to Cairo with fine presents and he settled down in the palace. Due to his father he obtained lofty status, the amirs and soldiers fearing him and dreading his influence.

§ 144 When there came to him from Baghdad the caliphal robe of honour, he moved back to Yemen. He remained there until he was informed that his father had taken Damascus and he wished to take it instead of Yemen. He left with his possessions and goods, but he died [on his way North,] in Mecca, on 13 Ğumādá I of the year 626 [9 April 1229]. He was buried at al-Maʿlāh. ²⁶² After him, Yemen was ruled by his representative 'Umar b. 'Alī b. Rasūl.

²⁶¹ Al-Malik al-Manṣūr ʿUmar b. ʿAlī (r. 626–647/1229–1249) started as an Ayyūbid deputy in Yemen, but soon transformed into an independent ruler and became the eponymous founder of the Sunni Rasūlid dynasty of Yemen (632–858/1235–1454) (G.R. Smith, "Rasūlids", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/rasulids-COM_0912). See Vallet (2010).

Al-Ma'lāh is the name of the place that houses the main historical graveyard of Mecca, the Ma'lāh cemetery, also known as the cemetery of al-Ḥaǧūn, north of the Ḥaram; several members of the Prophet's family as well as prominent Companions and early Muslims are buried here (S. Ory, "Makbara: 1. In the central Arab lands", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/makbara -COM_0636; R.B. Winder, "Makka: 3. The Modern City", in EI² http://referenceworks .brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/makka-COM_0638).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وقد استوفيت أخباره في تاريخ مصر المقفى.٥٦

وإليه تُنسب الدراهم المسعودية بمكة.

٣٥ ترجمة الملك المسعود يوسف مفقودة في المخطوطات المعروف وجودها لكتاب المقفى للمقريزي. راجع المقفى، ج. ٨.

§145 I have recorded his stories in much more detail in the $T\bar{a}r\bar{l}h$ Misr $almuqaff\acute{a}$ [The History of Egypt in Continuation]. ²⁶³

§146 The Masʿūdī *dirham*s²64 in Mecca are named after him.

²⁶³ Al-Maqrīzī, *al-Muqaffá* (but the entry for al-Mas'ūd Yūsuf does not seem to have survived).

These Mas'ūdī *dirhams*, struck by order of al-Malik al-Mas'ūd, marked an important stage in the monetary history of the Hijaz, to the extent that they continued to provide the standard for the striking of new *dirhams* in the area into the sixteenth century (Meloy [2010b]).

الملك المنصورنور الدين عمر

ابن علي بن رسول الكُردي

ملك اليمن بعد موت الملك المسعود، وبعث الملك الكامل هدية جليلة وقال: "أنا نائب السلطان على البلاد." فأقره عليها.

وغُمر هذا أول من ملك اليمن من بني رسول.

وبويع له بها سنة تسع وعشرين، وخطب له بمكة فيها أيضا، ودامت مملكته إلى أن قتل في سنة سبع وأربعين وستمائة. وملك بعده ابنه الملك المظفر شمس | الدين يوسف.

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وحج نور الدين هذا في سنة إحدى وثلثين وستمائة على النجب.

وبعث في سنة {اثنتين} وثلثين إلى الكعبة قناديل من ذهب وفضة.

١٠ وحج أيضا في سنة تسع وثلثين، وأبطل المكوس والجنايات من مكة، وكتب ذلك تجاه الحجر الأسود. فاستمر ذلك حتى إزالة ابن المسيب لما ولي مكة سنة ست وأربعين وستمائة، وأعاد المكوس والجنايات، وصام شهر رمضان بمكة.٧٥

٣ نائب: "مايب" في الأصل. ٧ وستمائة: "وستمانه" في الأصل. ٨ وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ٩ اثنتين: "ثمى" في الأصل. ١١ ابن: الألف من إضافة المقريزي. || وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل.

[°] راجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو تماما في الفاسي، شفاء الغرام، ج. ٢، ص. ٢٨٦.

6. Al-Malik al-Manṣūr Nūr al-Dīn ʿUmar

[He was] the son of 'Alī b. Rasūl al-Kurdī.

§147 After the death of al-Malik al-Masʿūd he acquired control over Yemen. He sent a precious gift to al-Malik al-Kāmil [in Egypt] and he said: "I am the representative of the sultan over the lands." [Al-Malik al-Kāmil] confirmed his [authority] over it.

§ 148 This 'Umar is the first of those who were in control of Yemen from the Rasūlids.

§ 149 The oath of allegiance was sworn to him there in the year [6]29 [1232]. In [this year], the sermon in Mecca was also said in his name. His reign continued until he was killed in the year 647 [1249]. His son al-Malik al-Muzaffar Šams al-Dīn Yūsuf²⁶⁵ ruled after him.

§ 150 This Nūr al-Dīn performed the pilgrimage in the year 631 [1234], [travelling there] on especially bred she-camels.

15 §151 In the year [6]32 [1235] he sent lamps made from gold and silver to the Kaʿbah.

§152 He also performed the pilgrimage in the year [6]39 [1242]. He abolished the non-shar' $\bar{\imath}$ taxes and [removed other] illegal customs from Mecca. He had that written down [on a slab] opposite the [Ka'bah's] black stone; that [writing] remained until Ibn al-Musayyab²⁶⁶ had it removed when he took control over Mecca in the year 646 [1248] and [when] he reinstated the non-shar' $\bar{\imath}$ taxes and [other] illegal customs. [Nūr al-Dīn] performed the ritual of fasting during the month of Ramaḍān in Mecca.

Al-Malik al-Muzaffar Yūsuf (r. 647–694/1249–1295) was the second Rasūlid ruler of Yemen, who reaped the fruits of his father's territorial and political achievements and whose longstanding and stable rule represents a high point in Rasūlid history (Smith, "Rasūlids", in E1²).

Aḥmad b. al-Musayyab al-Yamanī was appointed as local representative in Mecca by Nūr al-Dīn 'Umar in 646/1249, but he was taken prisoner later in the same year by the Ḥasanid Ḥasan b. 'Alī b. Qatādah, who thus resumed full control over Mecca for the Banū Ḥasan (al-Fāsī, Šifā' al-ġarām, 2:240; Mortel [1985]: 50).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

واتفق في سنة ثلث وأربعين وستمائة—وقيل أربع وأربعين—أن هاجت ريح شديدة مزقت كسوة الكعبة وألقتها، وبقيت الكعبة عارية. فأراد عمر بن رسول أن يكسوها، فامتنع من ذلك شيخ الحرم عفيف الدين منصور بن منعة البغدادي، وقال: "لا يكون ذلك إلا من الديوان"— يعني الخليفة—، وكساها ثيابا من قطن مصبوغة بالسواد، وركب عليها الطرز القديمة.^٥

١ وستمائة: "وسمانه" في الأصل.

١٦٨. واجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو تقريبا في الفاسي، شفاء الغرام، ج. ١، ص. ١٦٨.

§ 153 It so happened in the year 643 [1246]—it was said [6]44 [1247]—that a strong wind was stirred up and tore apart the *kiswah* of the Ka'bah, throwing it off, the Ka'bah remaining uncovered. 'Umar b. Rasūl wanted to cover it [with a new *kiswah*]. But the *šayḥ al-ḥaram* 'Afīf al-Dīn Manṣūr b. Man'ah al-Baġdādī²⁶⁷ prevented him from doing that, saying: "That can only come from the *dīwān*", that is, [from] the caliph. So [Ibn Man'ah] had it covered with a cloth made from cotton dyed in black, on which he mounted the old embroidered inscription bands.

^{&#}x27;Afīf al-Dīn Manṣūr b. Manʿah al-Baġdādī was supervisor of the Mecca sanctuary (*šaylp al-ḥaram*) in the mid-thirteenth/mid-seventh century; not much is known about him, apart from the fact that after his death (at an unknown date) he was succeeded in this position of *šaylp al-ḥaram* by his nephew, the Baġdādī *ḥadīt* scholar Ḥahīr al-Dīn Abū ʿAbd Allāh Muḥammad b. ʿAbd Allāh b. Abī l-Faḍl b. Manʿah al-Baġdādī (d. 708/1308–1309) (Ibn Katīr, *al-Bidāyah*, 14:49).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

الملك الناصه

أبو شادي داود بن الملك المعظم أبي الفتح عيسى بن الملك العادل سيف الدين أبي بكر محمد بن نجم الدين أبي الشكر أيوب بن شادي بن مروان الكردي الأيوبي.

ولد في تاسع عشر جمادى الآخرة سنة ثلث وستمائة، وحفظ القرآن وعمره تسع سنين، وقال الشعر وهو ابن عشر سنين، وبرع في كل فن من علوم الأدب والحكمة وغير ذلك.

وولي سلطنة دمشق بعد موت أبيه—وهو في السنة {الحادية والعشرين} من عمره—أول ذي الحجة سنة أربع وعشرين وستمائة، وأقبل على اللهو.

فطلب منه عمه السلطان الملك الكامل قلعة الشوبك، فامتنع. فتنكر عليه وعزم على المسير إليه ونزعه من سلطنة {دمشق}. وأخذ الناصر في ظلم الرعية وأخذ أموالهم والانهماك في اللعب، واستدعى عمه الملك الأشرف شاه أرمن موسى، فقدم عليه من الشرق وحكمه في المملكة. فآل الأمر أن حاصر الملك الكامل دمشق حتى أخذ الناصر، وعوضه عن دمشق بالكرك والشوبك

[﴾] وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. || القرآن: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ ابن: الألف ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة فوق السطر. || وبرع: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٦ سلطنة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || الحادية والعشرين: "الحادي عشر" في الأصل، والتصحيح من السياق. ٧ وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ٩ دمشق: في الأصل "من سلطنة مصر"، وهو خطأ لأن الناصر ما ولي سلطنة مصر أبدا، والتصحيح من السياق. ١١ أخذ: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

7. Al-Malik al-Nāșir

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Abū Šādī Dāwūd b. al-Malik al-Muʻazzam Abū l-Fatḥ ʻĪsá b. al-Malik al-ʿĀdil Sayf al-Dīn Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. Naǧm al-Dīn Abū l-Šukr Ayyūb b. Šādī b. Marwān al-Kurdī l-Ayyūbī.²⁶⁸

§ §154 He was born on 19 Ğumādá II of the year 603 [21 January 1207]. He memorised the Qur'ān at the age of nine. He said poetry at the age of ten. He excelled in every branch of the sciences of literature and wisdom and their like.

§155 Upon the death of his father, on the first of Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah of the year 624 [12 November 1227], he was appointed sultan of Damascus. [At that time] he was twenty-one years old, and he devoted himself to amusement [instead of government].

§ 156 His uncle, the sultan al-Malik al-Kāmil, demanded the citadel of Shawbak from him. But he refused. So [al-Malik al-Kāmil] turned against him, making plans to march against him and to take the sultanate of Damascus from him. Al-Nāṣir began to oppress the populace, seizing their properties and abandoning himself to amusements. His uncle [al-Kāmil] summoned al-Malik al-Ašraf Šāh Arman Mūsá, 269 who came to him from the East and who confirmed him [= al-Kāmil] as ruler over the realm. Eventually, the matter came to al-Malik al-Kāmil besieging Damascus until he took [the city from] al-Nāṣir and he compensated him for [the loss of] Damascus with Karak,

Al-Malik al-Nāṣir Dāwūd (603–656/1207–1258) succeeded his father al-Muʻazzam ʻĪsá as Ayyūbid ruler of Damascus in 624/1227, but he soon lost the city to his uncles al-Kāmil Muḥammad and al-Ašraf Mūsá, in Raǧab 626/June 1229, and after that he was mainly left with the region of Transjordan to rule, eventually ending up deeply embroiled in squabbles and conflicts for control over land with other members of his family until he lost all (K.V. Zettersteen, "al-Nāṣir: i. al-Malik al-Nāṣir Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn Dāwūd b. al-Malik al-Muʻazzam", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-nasir-COM_0851).

Al-Malik al-Ašraf Mūsá (d. 635/1237) was another son of Saladin's brother al-Malik al-'Ādil, who controled parts of Armenia and northern Mesopotamia and eventually, from 626/1229 onwards, Damascus, under the suzerainty of his brother in Egypt (Gottschalk, "al-Kāmil", in $\it EI^2$).

والصلت والبلقاء والأغوار جميعها ونابلس وأعمال القدس وبيت جبريل. وكانت هذه الأعمال يومئذ عامرة جليلة القدر. ثم نزل الناصر عن الشوبك لعمه الكامل، وتسلم الكامل دمشق أول شعبان سنة ست وعشرين.

فأقام بالكرك، وكانت له قصص وأنباء ذكرتها في التاريخ الكبير المقفى آلت به أن التشتت في البلاد. وموته في إحدى قرى دمشق يوم السادس عشرين من جمادى الأولى سنة است وخمسين 129^a وستمائة، فدفن بصالحية دمشق.^{٥٥}

¹ والبلقاء: "البلقا" في الأصل. || هذه: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ يومئذ: "يوميذ" في الأصل. || عامرة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ وأنباء: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("وانبا"). ٥ جمادى: "حمادي" في الأصل. || سنة: في الأصل الكلمة مكتوبة مرتين، مرة في آخر ص. ١٢٨ب ومرة أخرى في أول ص. ١٢٩أ. ٦ وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. || بصالحية: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

٥٥ رجمة الملك الناصر داود مفقودة في المخطوطات المعروف وجودها للتاريخ الكبير المقفى للمقريزي. راجع المقفى، ج. ٨.

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Shawbak, al-Ṣalt,²⁷⁰ al-Balqā',²⁷¹ the entire Jordan valley, Nablus,²⁷² the districts of Jerusalem, and Bayt Ğibrīl.²⁷³ At that time, these districts consisted of cultivated lands of high value. Only then did al-Nāṣir renounce Shawbak in his uncle al-Kāmil's favour. Al-Kāmil took hold of Damascus on the first of Šaʿbān of the year [6]26 [25 June 1229].

§157 He [= al-Nāṣir] remained in Karak; there are tales and tidings about him which I have reported in *al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr al-muqaffá* [The Great History in Continuation], and in which he ended up moving from one region to another. His death occurred in a village near Damascus, on 26 Ğumādá I of the year 656 [31 May 1258]. He was buried at the Ṣāliḥiyyah [cemetery] of Damascus.²⁷⁴

The ancient town of al-Ṣalt (or al-Salt), in the Balqā' region, west of Amman, is known for the rich agricultural production of its orchards; a bone of contention in Crusader times, in 588/1192 it came in the hands of Ayyūbid kinsmen, who had the town's citadel constructed; it remained, next to Ḥiṣbān and Amman, a local centre of trade and government into the Ottoman period (M.A. Bakhīt, "al-Salt,", in E1², http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-salt-SIM_6562).

Al-Balqā' is the name given to the relatively fertile limestone plateau of the middle-Transjordanian region, which had, depending on the period, Ḥisbān, Amman, or al-Ṣalt as its main center; it often also appeared as an administrative unit in the southern Bilād al-Šām, dependent either on the leadership of Damascus, or on that of Karak (J. Sourdel-Thomine, "al-Balkā'", in E1², http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/ encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-balka-SIM_1151).

Nablus (Nābulus) is a town of Roman origins in a very fertile valley in central Palestine, with a complex history related to Judaism, Samaritanism, late antique Christianity, and the Crusades; it remained disputed territory between the latter and the Muslim rulers of the region until the mid-seventh/mid-thirteenth century (F. Buhl & C.E. Bosworth, "Nābulus", in EI², http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/nabulus-SIM_5706).

Bayt Ğibrīl, also known as Bayt Ğibrīn (and as Beth Gebrim, or also as Gibelin, in Crusader times), is a town of ancient origins in central Palestine, southwest of Jerusalem; it was a local commercial center and, from the sixth/twelfth century onwards, a fortified seat of government that acted as a local satellite for the leaderships of Gaza and Damascus (J. Sourdel-Thomine, "Bayt Djibrīn", in E1², http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/bayt-djibrin-SIM_1336).

Al-Ṣāliḥiyyah refers to a settlement north of Damascus, on the slopes of Mount Qāsyūn, known for containing many saints' tombs and a majority population of Ḥanbalī scholars ("al-Ṣāliḥiyya", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-salihiyya-COM_0986).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

وجج في سنة ثلث وخمسين وستمائة، وسبب حجه أنه لما تنكر له الملك الصالح نجم الدين بن أيوب بن الكامل وبعث إليه الأمير فخر الدين يوسف بن شيخ الشيوخ صدر الدين بن حموية على العساكر، فهزمه وأوقع الحوطة على بلاده ونازل الكرك حتى طلب منه الأمان. فرحل عنه وقد ضاقت الأمور بالناصر، فخرج إلى حلب ومعه جواهر جليلة قيمتها ما ينيف على مائة ألف دينار، فبعثها إلى الخليفة المستعصم بالله ببغداد لتكون عنده وديعة، فقبضت من رسوله، وكتب الخط الشريف بقبضها، فشق ذلك على أولاده وخرجوا عن طاعته ولحق بعضهم بالملك الصالح نجم الدين أيوب بمصر، وسلمه الكرك. فجرت أمور آلت بالناصر إلى مسيره إلى بغداد لطلب وديعته. فنعه الخليفة من الدخول إليها ومظله بالجوهر. فلما إلى مسيره إلى بغداد لطلب وديعته. فنعه الخليفة من الدخول إليها ومظله بالجوهر. فلما

___________ 1 وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ه مائة: "ماية" في الأصل. ٨ إليها: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

Al-Malik al-Ṣāliḥ Ayyūb (603–647/1206–1249) was the son and successor of al-Malik al-Kāmil in Ayyūbid Egypt, who was first given Ayyūbid territories in Northern Mesopotamia and Armenia to rule, but who managed to obtain control over southern Syria and eventually also of Egypt after the death of his father, in 635/1238;

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§158 [Al-Nāsir Dāwūd] performed the pilgrimage in the year 653 [1256]. The cause for his pilgrimage was [the following:] When al-Malik al-Sālih Nağm al-Dīn Ayyūb b. al-Kāmil²⁷⁵ turned against him, he sent the amir Fahr al-Dīn Yūsuf b. Šayh al-Šuyūh Sadr al-Dīn Hammūyah²⁷⁶ at the head of the armies against him. He routed him and occupied his lands, [eventually] getting into a fight over Karak, until [al-Nāsir] demanded a safe-conduct [for his departure] from him. [Thus being forced] to leave from [Karak], things had gotten into dire straits for al-Nāsir. He went away to Aleppo, and he took splendid jewels with him, their value exceeding 100,000 dīnār, which he sent on to the caliph al-Musta'sim bi-llāh²⁷⁷ in Baghdad, entrusting them to his custody. But they were taken from his envoy, [after] an official letter [from the sultan of Egypt] was written [ordering] their confiscation. That troubled his sons, and they left his dispensation, one of them joining up with al-Malik al-Ṣāliḥ Naǧm al-Dīn Ayyūb in Egypt, who handed him [the rule over] Karak [in return]. [Many] things then happened that ended with al-Nāsir's going to Baghdad to request his deposit. But the caliph refused to let him enter [Baghdad] and the place where he preserved the jewel. When he despaired

this appears as a long, complex, and violent process of re-establishing Ayyūbid coherence under al-Ṣāliḥ's authority, as the sultan of Egypt, that was all but finished when he died (D.S. Richards, "al-Malik al-Ṣāliḥ Nadjm al-Dīn Ayyūb", in EI^2 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-malik-al-salih-najm-al-din-ayyub-SIM_6543).

Faḥr al-Dīn Yūsuf b. Šayḥ al-Šuyūḥ (580–647/1184–1250) was a military commander in Ayyūbid service and one of the main political advisors of al-Malik al-Kāmil and al-Malik al-Ṣāliḥ; he stemmed from a Syrian branch of an Iranian family of mystics and Šāfiʿī jurisprudents, the *Awlād al-Šayḥ* or Banū Ḥammūyah/Ḥammawayh, that monopolised the position of head of the mystics of Damascus (*Šayḥ al-Šuyūḥ*) for more than a century; Faḥr al-Dīn served as al-Kāmil's ambassador to the Holy Roman emperor Frederick II Hohenstaufen, in the context of the conclusion of the sixth crusade; when al-Ṣāliḥ assumed power in Egypt, Faḥr al-Dīn was made commander-in-chief of the Egyptian armies, in which capacity he was killed when leading his armies to repell an attack by the armies of Louis IX of France at al-Manṣūra (A.-M. Eddé, H.L. Gottschalk, "Awlād al-Shaykh", in *EI*³ http://referenceworks.brillonline .com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/awlad-al-shaykh-COM_23034).

Al-Mustaʻṣim bi-llāh (r. 640–657/1247–1258) was the last ʻAbbāsid caliph of Baghdad; he was put to death after his surrender of the city of Baghdad to the Mongol ruler Hülegü (K.V. Zetterstéen, "al-Mustaʻṣim Bi'llāh", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-mustasim-bi-llah-SIM_5632).

أيس من ذلك سار إلى مكة من طريق العراق، وحج. فلما قدم المدينة النبوية تعلق بأستار الحجرة بحضرة الناس، وقال: "إشهدوا أن هذا مقامي من رسول الله داخلا عليه مستشفعا به إلى ابن عمه المستعصم في أن يرد علي وديعتي." فأعظم الناس ذلك وجرت عبراتهم وارتفع ضجيجهم بالبكاء. وكتب بصورة ما جرى مكتوب في يوم السبت ثامن عشرين ذي الحجة تسلمه أمير حاج العراقي، ومضى الناصر معه إلى بغداد. فعوض الجوهر بشيء تافه، وعاد إلى الشام مقهورا.

ا إلى: "الي" في الأصل. ٢ مستشفعا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٣ بالبكاء: "بالبكا" في الأصل. ٤ بصورة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ إلى١: "الي" في الأصل. ١ بشيء: "بشي" في الأصل.

of [retrieving] that, he left for Mecca via the Iraq route, and he performed the pilgrimage. When he arrived in the Prophet's Medina, he hung on to the curtains of the sacrosanct area in the presence of the people, saying: "Bear witness that this is where I am standing vis-à-vis the Messenger of God, entering his house and appealing for his mediation with his cousin al-Musta'sim, so as to make him return my deposit to me." People found that distressing, their tears running [down their cheeks] and their cries rising in loud wailing. A report of what had happened was written on Saturday 28 of Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah [29 January], which was handed to the amir of the Iraqi pilgrimage caravan. Al-Nāṣir left with him to Baghdad, and in compensation for the jewel something was given that still made him mutter in complaint; humiliated, he returned to Syria.

الملك المظفر شمس الدين يوسف

ابن الملك المنصور نور الدين عمر بن علي بن رسول.

قام بعد أبيه بملك اليمن في سنة سبع وأربعين وستمائة، وحج سنة تسع وخمسين، وغسل الكعبة بنفسه وطيبها وكساها من داخلها وخارجها.

وهو أول من كسا الكعبة بعد قتل الخليفة المستعصم ببغداد من الملوك، وذلك أن الحاج انقطع من العراق عن مكة من سنة خمس وخمسين وستمائة إلى سنة ست وستين، فلم يرد من هناك حاج في هذه المدة. وقام المظفر بمصالح الحرم وأهله، وأكثر من الصدقات، ونثر على الكعبة الذهب والفضة، وخطب له بمكة واستمر يخطب بعده لملوك اليمن على منبر مكة إلى يومنا هذا بعد الخطبة لسلطان مصر. ٢٠

١٠ ولم تزل كسوة المظفر التي كساها للكعبة من داخلها باقية إلى | أن كساها الملك الناصر حسن 129^b
 ابن محمد بن قلاوون هذه الكسوة — الموجودة اليوم — في سنة إحدى وستين وسبعمائة.

٣ وأربعين وستمائة: "واربعين وستمايه" في الأصل. ٥ كسا: "كسى" في الأصل. ٦ وستمائة: "وستمايه"
 في الأصل. ١٠ إلى: "الي" في الأصل. ١١ وستين وسبعمائة: "وسسن وسبعمايه" في الأصل.

٦٠ راجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في الفاسي، شفاء الغرام، ج. ٢، ص. ٢٨٨.

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8. Al-Malik al-Muzaffar Šams al-Dīn Yūsuf

[He was] the son of al-Malik al-Manṣūr Nūr al-Dīn 'Umar b. 'Alī b. Rasūl.

§159 In the year 647 [1249], he took up rule over Yemen, succeeding his father. He performed the pilgrimage in the year [6]59 [1261]. [On that occasion], he washed the Ka'bah by himself, perfumed it, and covered it with a *kiswah* on the inside and on the outside.

§ 160 He is the first of the rulers who covered the Kaʻbah with a *kiswah* after the killing of the caliph al-Mustaʻṣim in Baghdad. The reason for that was that pilgriming between Iraq and Mecca was interrupted from the year 655 [1257] until the year [6]66 [1268]. During this period there did not come from there any pilgrim anymore. As a result, al-Muzaffar took responsibility for the wellbeing of the Ḥaram and its people, increasing the alms that were given and sprinkling gold and silver over the Kaʻbah. The Friday sermon in Mecca was delivered in his name, and the sermon thus continued to be delivered from the *minbar* of Mecca in the name of the rulers of Yemen until our own days, [but then nowadays only] after the sermon [is delivered] in the name of the sultan of Egypt.

§ 161 The *kiswah* of al-Muẓaffar, which he had the inside of the Kaʿbah covered with, continued to be present until in the year 761 [1360] al-Malik al-Nāṣir Ḥasan b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn²⁷⁹ covered it with this *kiswah* which is still present today.

For the events involving the execution of the last 'Abbāsid caliph of Baghdad, al-Musta'ṣim, in 656/1258 by the Mongol ruler Hülegü, see fn. 192, 277.

Al-Malik al-Nāṣir Ḥasan b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn (r. 748–752/1347–1351; 755–762/1354–1361) was sultan of Egypt and Syria and a member of the Qalāwūnid dynasty; he was made sultan twice, first as a minor and then again when he was about twenty; during his second term of office, he eventually managed to impose his authority more firmly than before, but he yet failed to hold onto power and was killed by members of his own entourage; he is remembered especially for his impressive public works, especially his huge religio-economic complex at the foot of the Cairo citadel (known as the sultan Ḥasan mosque or madrasah) (J. Wansbrough, "Ḥasan", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hasan-SIM_2752).

السلطان الملك الظاهر ركن الدين أبو الفتح بيبرس البندقداري الصالحي النجمي

اشتراه السلطان الملك الصالح نجم الدين أيوب بن الملك الكامل ناصر الدين محمد بن الملك العادل سيف الدين أبي بكر محمد بن نجم الدين أيوب، وعمله أحد المماليك البحرية بقلعة الروضة. فترقى في خدمته واستفاد من أخلاقه وتنقلت به الأحوال حتى ملك مصر بعد قتل الملك المظفر سيف الدين قطز، وتسلم قلعة الجبل ليلة الاثنين تاسع عشر ذي القعدة سنة ثمان وخمسين وستمائة. واستمر ملكه حتى مات بدمشق في سابع عشرين المحرم سنة ست وسبعين وستمائة. وقد ملك مدة سبع عشرة سنة وشهرين واثني (عشر) يوما.

وحج سنة سبع وستين وستمائة، ولذلك خبر طويل قد ذكرته في ترجمته من كتاب التاريخ الكبير المقفى وكتاب أخبار ملوك مصر.١١

٥ وتسلم: تصحيح في الأصل. || وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ٦ سنة ١: تصحيح في الأصل. || وسبعين: تصحيح في الأصل. || وسبعين: تصحيح في الأصل. ١٠ عشرة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ١٠ عشرة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ١٠ وستمائة: "وسمايه" في الأصل. ١٠ وستمائة: "وسمايه" في الأصل. ١٠ التأخيار ملوك مصر "—يعني السلوك—راجع المقريزي، السلوك، ج. ١، ص. ٥٧٣-٥٨٣. وترجمة الملك الظاهر بيبرس مفقودة في المخطوطات المعروف وجودها لكتاب المقفى للمقريزي. راجع المقفى، ج. ٨.

 The sultan al-Malik al-Zāhir Rukn al-Dīn Abū l-Fatḥ Baybars al-Bunduqdārī l-Ṣāliḥī l-Nağmī²⁸⁰

§162 The sultan al-Malik al-Ṣāliḥ Naǧm al-Dīn Ayyūb b. al-Malik al-Kāmil Nāṣir al-Dīn Muḥammad b. al-Malik al-ʿĀdil Sayf al-Dīn Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. Naǧm al-Dīn Ayyūb bought him and he made him one of the Baḥriyyah *mamlūk*s²⁸¹ in the citadel of al-Rawḍah.²⁸² [Baybars] advanced in his service, benefitting from his noble character. All kinds of things happened to him, until he took power over Egypt after the murder of al-Malik al-Muṇaffar Sayf al-Dīn Quṭuz.²⁸³ [Baybars] was handed over [Cairo's] citadel of the mountain in the night of Monday, 19 Dū l-Qa'dah of the year 658 [25 October 1260]. His rule lasted until he died in Damascus on 27 Muḥarram of the year 676 [30 June 1277], [after] he had ruled for a period of 17 years, two months, and 12 days.

§163 He went on pilgrimage in the year 667 [1269]. There is a long story of that which I have reported in his biography in the book *al-Tārīḥ al-kabīr al-muqaffá* [The Great History in Continuation] and the book *Aḥbār Mulūk Misr* [The Stories of the Kings of Egypt].²⁸⁴

²⁸⁰ For sultan al-Malik al-Zāhir Baybars (r. 658–676/1260–1277), remembered as a pioneering ruler of the sultanate of Egypt and Syria, see fn. 196.

²⁸¹ The Baḥriyyah *mamlūk*s were a corps of elite military slaves of the last Ayyūbid ruler of Egypt, stationed on the island of al-Rawḍah in the Nile (*al-Baḥr*) (D. Ayalon, "al-Baḥriyya", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-bahriyya-SIM_1075).

The citadel of al-Rawḍah was constructed by the last Ayyūbid ruler of Egypt between 637/1240 and 641/1243 on the island of al-Rawḍah in the Nile, East of Fusṭāt; it consisted of palaces for the sultan and his family and retainers, and of barracks for his *mamlūks*; after the sultan's death, this citadel was abandonned by Egypt's new rulers (Raymond [2001]: 101–102).

Sultan al-Muzaffar Quṭuz (r. 657-658/1259-1260) was a $maml\bar{u}k$ commander who ruled Egypt at the time of the Mongol invasion of Syria; he is remembered for the victory that his armies won near the town of 'Ayn Ğālūt in 658/1260 against the hitherto invincible Mongols; shortly afterwards, Quṭuz was murdered by a band of peers that included his successor, sultan al-Zāhir Baybars (Thorau, "Baybars I, al-Malik al-Zāhir Rukn al-Dīn", in EI^2).

²⁸⁴ See al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 1:573–583 (= *Kitāb Aḥbār Mulūk Miṣr*); al-Maqrīzī, *al-Muqaffá* (but the entry for al-Zāhir Baybars does not seem to have survived).

وملخص ذلك أنه أجلس ابنه الملك السعيد محمد بركة خان في مرتبة الملك وحضر الأمراء فقبلوا الأرض بين يديه، وجلس الأمير عز الدين أيدمر الحِلي—نائب السلطنة—وجلس الأتابك والصاحب بهاء الدين علي بن حنا وكتاب الإنشاء والقضاة والشهود، وحلف له الأمراء وسائر العساكر في تاسع صفر منها، وركب في ثالث عشره الموكب كايركب والده، وجلس في الإيوان وقرئت عليه القصص، وقرئ في العشرين منه تقليد بتفويض السلطنة له في الإيوان، واستمر جلوسه فيه لقضاء الأشغال، ووقع وأطلق وركب في المواكب.٦٢

وأقام السلطان الأمير بدر الدين بيليك الخازندار نائبا عنه عوضا عن الحلي. وسار الى الشام في ثاني عشر جمادى الآخرة بحِصة من العساكر، وترك أكثرها مع ولده الملك السعيد. ونزل بخربة اللصوص—خارج دمشق—، وسار منها متنكرا إلى القاهرة ليشاهد أحوال ولده: فخفى

الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ٣ بهاء: "بهآ" في الأصل. || الإنشاء: "الانشآ" في الأصل. || الأمراء وسائر: "الامرآ وساير" في الأصل. ٥ منه: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "العشرن". ٦ جلوسه: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || فيه: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "جلوسه". || لقضاء: "لقضآ" في الأصل. ٧ الأمير: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "السلطان". || نائبا: "نايبا" في الأصل. ٩ متنكرا: تصحيح في الأصل.

٦٢ راجع هذا الخبر على نفس الشكل تقريبا في ابن عبد الظاهر، الروض الزاهر، ص. ٣٣٨.

Sultan al-Saʿīd Barakah Ḥān (also Berke Ḥān) (658–678/1260–1280) was the son of al-Zāhir Baybars, who co-ruled with his father since 662/1264 and who succeeded him briefly upon his death in 676/1277, without however ever managing to impose his authority against that of his father's entourage; he was forced into exile in 678/1279 (Stewart [2007]: 49–51).

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§ 164 The short version of that [story] is [the following]: He made his son al-Malik al-Saʿīd Muḥammad Barakah Ḥān²85 sit on the seat of the ruler, in the presence of the amirs. They kissed the ground before him, and the amir 'Izz al-Dīn Aydamur al-Ḥillī, the viceroy,²86 sat down, as did the commander of the army,²87 the lord Bahā' al-Dīn 'Alī Ibn Ḥinnā,²88 the scribes of the chancery, the qāḍīs, and the legal witnesses. The amirs and the entire army swore an oath to him [= al-Malik al-Saʿīd Barakah] on 9 Ṣafar of [667] [18 October 1268]. On 13 [Ṣafar] [22 October] he rode in the public procession—just as his father used to ride—, he held session in the audience hall, and the petitions were read to him. On 20 [Ṣafar] [29 October] an official diploma was read out in the audience hall for the delegation of the sultanate to him. [Thereafter] he continued to hold session there to deal with royal business, [including] putting his signature [on documents and decrees], expressing [his will] without restriction, and riding in the public processions.

§165 The sultan [Baybars] installed the amir Badr al-Dīn Bīlīk al-Ḥāzin-dār²⁸⁹ as his representative [in Egypt] instead of al-Ḥillī. [Baybars] left for Syria on 12 Ğumādá II [667] [16 February 1269] with a small part of the army, leaving most of it behind with his son al-Malik al-Saʿīd. He settled down at Ḥirbat al-Luṣūṣ²⁹⁰ outside Damascus and he went from there to Cairo in disguise, so as to see with his own eyes how his son was doing. That remained

[°] 1zz al-Dīn Aydamur al-Ḥillī (d. 667/1269) was a senior commander and peer of Baybars, who acted as *nāʾib al-salṭanah* or vice-gerent in Egypt for some time (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāf*ī, 3:170–171; Amitai [1997]: 293, no. 9).

²⁸⁷ The commander of the army, or *atābeg*, at that time was the senior commander Fāris al-Din Aqṭāy al-Ṣāliḥī (d. 672/1273–1274) (Amitai [1997]: 292, no. 1).

²⁸⁸ Bahā' al-Dīn 'Alī b. Muḥammad b. Ḥinnā (603–677/1206–1278) was the highly respected right-hand and vizier of al-Ṭāhir Baybars, who arranged the sultan's affairs throughout his reign (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 8:150–151).

Badr al-Dīn Bīlīk al-Ḥāzindār (d. 676/1278) was a *mamlūk* of al-Ḥāhir Baybars from before the time he became sultan; he became Baybars' vice-gerent and the right-hand of his son Barakah Ḥān (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 3:512–514; Amitai [1997]: 292–293, no. 4).

²⁹⁰ Ḥirbat al-Luṣūṣ: I have so far not been able to retrieve any more specific information on this site, apart from that, obviously, it lay south of Damascus, on the road to Cairo, and that—given its name, Ḥirbah, 'The Ruins'—it may have been connected to the remains, along the Damascus-Cairo road, of some ancient construction.

ذلك على جميع من معه من العسكر حتى عاد إليهم، وفي حكاية ذلك هنا طول ليس من قصد هذا {الجزء}.٣٣

فاتفق الاختلاف بين الشريف نجم الدين أبي نمي وبين عمه الشريف {بهاء} الدين إدريس—
أميري مكة—، فرتب السلطان لهما عشرين ألف درهم نقرة في كل سنة عوضا | عما يؤخذ بمكة من المكوس وأن لا يُمنَع أحد من دخول الكعبة وأن يُخطَب له بمكة والمشاعر وتضرَب السكة باسمه. فأجاباه، وكتب لهما تقليد الإمارة، وسلمت أوقاف الحرم بمصر والشام لنوابهما.

وسُلم للشريف قاضي المدينة النبوية وخطيبها ووزيرها، عندما حضر برسالة الأمير عز الدين جماز، أمير المدينة — وهي ثلثة آلاف جماز، أمير المدينة الجمال التي نهبها الأمير أحمد بن حجى لأشراف المدينة — وهي ثلثة آلاف

¹ هنا: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ⁷ بعد كلمة "ذلك". 1-7 هذا الجزء: "هدا الجزو" في الأصل. ٣ الشريف ا: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، على نفس السطر + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ⁷ بعد كلمة "بين". || بهاء: "بهاي" في الأصل. ٤ عما: في الأصل الكلمة مكتوبة مرتين، مرة في آخر ص.١٢٩ب ومرة ثانية في بداية ص.١٣٩.

٦٣ راجع هذا الخبر بتفاصيله كله في ابن عبد الظاهر، الروض الزاهر، ص. ٣٤٦-٣٤٣.

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hidden for all who were with him from the army, until he returned to them. The narrative of that [story] is so long that it does not suit the purpose of this volume to tell it here.

§ 166 There occurred discord between the Sharif Nağm al-Dīn Abū Numayy²⁹¹ and his uncle, the Sharif Bahā' al-Dīn Idrīs, the two amirs of Mecca. The sultan assigned to both of them 20,000 high quality *dirhams*²⁹² annually, instead of the non-*šar'ī* taxes that used to be collected in Mecca, and [on the condition] that no one would be prevented from entering the Ka'bah, that the sermon in Mecca and at the ceremony shrines would be said in his name, and [that] the coin would be struck in his name. They both accepted and the official diploma for the amirate was written for both of them. The [responsibility for the] pious foundations for the *Ḥaram* in Egypt and Syria was handed over to their representatives.

§ 167 Upon the arrival [in Ḥirbat] of the Sharif [Šams al-Dīn]—[who was] the $q\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}$, the $hat\bar{\iota}b$ and the vizier of the Prophet's Medina—with a letter from the amir 'Izz al-Dīn Ğammāz,²⁹³ the amir of Medina, there were handed over to him the camels which the amir Ahmad b. Higgī²⁹⁴ had looted from the

²⁹¹ On the Sharif Abū Numayy (r. 652–700/1254–1301) and his family of Ḥasanid rulers of Mecca, see fn. 201.

The actual meaning of the Arabic numismatic terminology used here, *dirham nuqrah*, remains an issue of debate; it either refers to a particular type of *dirhams* of higher than standard silver purity, or to a fixed-weight money of account used to determine the actual, weighed value of silver coins of irregular weight (Schultz [2004]: 231–234).

^{&#}x27;Izz al-Dīn Ğammāz b. Šīḥah (d. 704/1304) was a member of the Ḥusaynid ruling family of Medina (see also fn. 256); Ğammāz seems to have shared the amirate of Medina with his brother Munīf from 649/1251 until the latter's death in 657/1259; thereafter Ğammāz continued as the independent and ambitious ruler of Medina until 700/1301 or 702/1303; in the period 665–667/1266–1268, however, his authority was successfully albeit only briefly challenged by his brother's son, Mālik b. Munīf, who received the support for this from the sultan Baybars (Mortel [1994]: 99–103).

Aḥmad b. Ḥiǧǧī b. Yazīd (d. 682/1283) was a leader of the Āl Murrah tribal group, a powerful tribe of nomadic pastoralists still present in contemporary Saudi Arabia, which in the later medieval period controled much of the region in the triangle between Syria, lower Mesopotamia, and the central Arabian Najd (E. Landau-Tasseron, "Murra", in Ei² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/murra-SIM_5546; al-Kutubī, Fawāt al-wafayāt, 1:425).

بعير—ليوصلها لأربابها. وأنعم على الطواشي جمال الدين محسن الصالحي—شيخ الخدام بالحجرة الشريفة—بمائتي ألف درهم، وأعاده مع القاضي صحبة الركب الشامي.٢٠

وجهز الكسوة لمكة والمدينة.٦٥

وقَدم الأمير شرف الدين عيسى بن مهنا إلى الدهليز بالخربة، فأوهم السلطان أنه يريد الحركة إلى العراق، وأمره بالتأهب ليركب إذا دعي، ورده إلى بلاده، وكان السلطان في الباطن إنما يريد الحركة للحجاز، لكنه وَرَّى بالعراق.٦٦

فلما دخل شوال أنفق في العساكر جميعها وجرد طائفة مع الأمير آقوش الرومي السلاح دار ليكونوا صحبة الرِكاب السلطاني، وجرد طائفة مع الأمير شمس الدين آق سُنقر الفارقاني أسْتادار إلى دمشق

١ جمال الدين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ بمائتي: "بمايتى" في الأصل. ٧ طائفة: "طايفه" في الأصل. ٨ السلطاني: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمن ٦ بعد كلمة "الركاب". | طائفة: "طايفه" في الأصل. | شمس: ناقصة في الأصل مضافة بخط المقريزي فوق كلمة "الامير" على آخر السطر. | الدين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. | أستادار: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

¹⁴ راجع هذا الخبر بتفاصيله في ابن عبد الظاهر، الروض الزاهر، ص. ٣٥١. ٣٥٠. ٥٠ راجع هذا الخبر بتفاصيل لتاريخ الكسوة في ابن عبد الظاهر، الروض الزاهر، ص. ٣٥٣. ٢٦ راجع هذا الخبر على شكل مساو في ابن عبد الظاهر، الروض الزاهر، ص. ٣٥٨.

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nobles of Medina—they were 3,000 camels—, so that he could lead them back to their owners. To the eunuch Ğamāl al-Dīn Muḥsin al-Ṣāliḥī, the *šayh* of the eunuch servants in the noble enclosure, ²⁹⁵ [who had also come to Ḥirbat,] there were granted 200,000 *dirhams*. [Al-Ṭāhir Baybars] sent him as well as the $q\bar{a}d\bar{t}$ [Šams al-Dīn and his camels] back [to Medina] with the Syrian pilgrimage caravan.

§168 [Baybars] sent the kiswah to Mecca and Medina.

§169 The amir Šaraf al-Dīn ʿĪsá b. Muhannā²⁹⁶ came to the royal tent at Ḥirbat [al-Luṣūṣ]. The sultan made believe that he wanted to proceed to [Mongol] Iraq and he ordered him to be prepared to ride out if he is summoned. [Thereupon] he sent him back to his lands. Secretly, the sultan only wanted to move to the Hijaz, but he pretended [to march] for Iraq.

§170 When Šawwāl [667] [June 1269] began, he disbursed a sum of money over the entire army. He sent a party ahead with the amir Āqqūš al-Rūmī l-Silāḥdār²⁹⁷ to accompany the sultan's caravan. He sent a party ahead to Damascus with the amir Šams al-Dīn Āq Sunqur al-Fāriqānī l-Ustā-

Since the twelfth century, a corps of eunuchs guarded the access to the Prophet's tomb and to the noble enclosure (*al-ḥuǧrah al-šarīfah*, the structure that enclosed the tombs of the Prophet and of the first two caliphs) in Medina; the leader of this eunuch community, the *šayḥ al-ḥuddām*, always combined this position with that of *šayḥ* of the Prophet's sanctuary (*šayḥ al-ḥaram*), which made him one of the most powerful figures in Medina; this situation lasted until the mid-nineteenth century; the eunuch Ğamāl al-Dīn Muḥsin al-Ṣāliḥī (d. 668/1269–1270), who had been a powerful member of the Egyptian court since the days of the last Ayyubid ruler al-Ṣāliḥ Ayyūb, occupied this position of high status at the time of Baybars' pilgrimage (Marmon [1995]: 31–53, 93–112; al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 1:342, 356, 512, 580, 588).

Šaraf al-Dīn 'Īsá b. Muhannā (d. 683/1284) was the leader of the Arab clan of the Āl Faḍl in Syria; his charismatic leadership over the Arab Bedouin clans and groupings in Syria was acknowledged by the sultan Baybars through his appointment as *amīr al-ʿArab* in 663/1264; as a widely respected and successful local leader, 'Īsá always managed to negotiate a reasonable autonomy vis-à-vis the sultan's suzerainty, including via occasional rapprochements to the Mongol Īlḥānids (M.C. Şehabeddin Tekindağ, "'Īsā b. Muhannā", in *E1*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/isa-b-muhanna-SIM_3599; Hiyari [1975]: 516–517).

²⁹⁷ Ğamāl al-Dīn Āqqūš al-Rūmī l-Silāḥdār was a peer of Baybars from the time of their membership in the corps of the last Ayyūbid ruler of Egypt; in the 650s/1250s they had continued their partnership in Syria; Āqqūš remained an important supporter for Baybars throughout his reign (Amitai [1997]: 299, no. 57).

ليقيموا ظاهرها. وتوجه السلطان إلى الحج ومعه الأمير بدر الدين الخازندار وقاضي القضاة صدر الدين سليمن الحنفي وفخر الدين إبراهيم بن لقمان — كاتب السر—وتاج الدين بن الأثير ونحو ثلثمائة مملوك وعدة من أجناد الحلقة. وسار من الفواريوم الخميس خامس شهر شوال كأنه متوجه إلى الكرك كأنه يتصيد، ولم يجسر أحد يتحدث بأنه متوجه إلى الحجاز، وذلك أن الحاجب جمال الدين بن الداية كتب إلى السلطان يسأله: "إني أشتهي أن أتوجه صحبة السطان إلى الحجاز." فأم بقطع لسانه، فلم يتفوه أحد بعدها بذلك.

فوصل إلى الكرك أول يوم من ذي القعدة، وكان قد دبر أموره في خفية من غير أن يطلع أحد على شيء مما فعله، بحيث أنه جهز البشماط والدقيق والروايا والقرب والأشربة، وعين العربان المتوجهين معه والمرتبين في المنازل من غير أن يشعر أحد من الخاصة فضلا عن العامة بذلك.

٣ من ٢: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ الفوار: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ أن: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "ذلك". ٤-٥ جمال ... بن: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٨ شيء: "شي" في الأصل.

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dār,²⁹⁸ to set up camp outside it[s walls]. The sultan proceeded to perform the pilgrimage, together with the amir Badr al-Dīn al-Ḥāzindār, the chief judge Ṣadr al-Dīn Sulaymān al-Ḥanafī,²⁹⁹ the chancery chief Faḥr al-Dīn Ibrāhīm b. Luqmān,³⁰⁰ Tāǧ al-Dīn Ibn al-At̄ur,³⁰¹ about 300 *mamlūk*s and a number of rank-and-file troops. He left without delay on Thursday the fifth of the month Šawwāl [6 June], pretending to proceed towards Karak to go hunting. No one dared to talk about his proceeding towards the Hijaz. [The reason for] that was the doorkeeper Ğamāl al-Dīn Ibn al-Dāyah's³⁰² writing to the sultan, asking him: "I would like to go with the sultan to the Hijaz": it was ordered to cut his tongue [for this disclosure of the sultan's secret], and afterwards no one dared to speak about that again.

 \S 171 He arrived in Karak on the first day of $D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah [2 July]. He had already secretly arranged his affairs [for the journey to Mecca], without informing anyone of what he was doing. In this way, he had sent ahead biscuits, flour, camels that carry water, waterskins, and drinks; he had appointed Bedouins to proceed with him as well as to be in charge of the halting places; [he had organised all this] without anyone from his entourage, let alone from the commoners, realising that.

Šams al-Dīn Āq Sunqur al-Fāriqānī l-Ustādār (d. 677/1278) became an important agent of al-Zāhir Baybars' royal authority, after a career of *mamlūk* service in Syria and then in Egypt, where Baybars eventually made him his main steward (*ustādār*) and one of the leading men in his entourage; after Baybars' death, he was caught by his opponents and remained in prison until he died (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 2:494–496).

²⁹⁹ Şadr al-Dīn Sulaymān b. Abī l-ʿIzz al-Ḥanafī (d. 677/1278) was a highly respected scholar of the Ḥanafī creed; he was a teacher and chief judge in Damascus, and also in Egypt (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 6:57–58).

³⁰⁰ Faḥr al-Dīn Ibrāhīm b. Luqmān al-Šaybānī l-Isʻardī (612–693/1215–1293) was a well-known and widely respected scribe in the royal chancery in Cairo, with a long-standing track record that had started in the reign of the Ayyūbid ruler al-Kāmil Muḥammad (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 1:136–138).

Tāǧ al-Dīn Aḥmad b. Saʿīd b. al-At̄ɪr al-Ḥalabī (d. 691/1291) was a leading scribe in the chancery in Damascus, and then in the royal chancery in Egypt, during the reign of al-Ṭāhir Baybars and during those of his successors (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 1:300–302).

Nothing further is known about this Ğamāl al-Dīn Ibn al-Dāyah, apart from the fact that he was one of the sultan's doorkeepers (<code>hāǧibs</code>) at this particular moment (thus, he is merely referred to as "some person from [the group of] doorkeepers known as Ğamāl al-Dīn Ibn al-Dāyah" in the version of this story by the early-fourteenth-century historian Baybars al-Manṣūrī, <code>Zubdat al-fikrah</code>, 121).

ففرق في المجردين معه الشعير، وبعث الثقل في رابعه، وتبعه في سادسه، فنزل الشوبك، ورسم بإخفاء خبره، واستقل بالمسير في حادي عشره، وأنفذ | البريد إلى قلعة الجبل لمهمات له. فجهزت مالكتب مع العربان وقدم المدينة النبوية في خامس عشرينه، فلم يقابله الشريف جماز ولا مالك— إأميرا} المدينة—، وفرا منه، فأعرض عنهما.

ورحل في سابع عشرينه، وأحرم، فدخل مكة في خامس ذي الحجة، وأعطى خواصه جملة أموال لتفرق في الناس سرا، وعم أهل الحرمين بالكسوة التي فرقها فيهم، وصار كآحاد الناس لا يحجبه أحد ولا يحرسه إلا الله تعالى، وبقي منفردا يصلي وحده ويطوف وحده ويسعى وحده، فلا يعرفه إلا من يعرفه. وغسل الكعبة بيده بماء الورد، وصار بين جميع الناس على اختلاف طبقاتهم وتباين أجناسهم، وما منهم إلا من يرمي إليه إحرامه، فيغسله بيده ويناوله صاحبه. وجلس على باب الكعبة وأخذ بأيدي الناس ليطلعهم إليها، فتعلق بعض العامة بإحرامه ليطلع فقطعه، وكاد يرمي السلطان عن العتبة إلى الأرض وهو مستبشر بجميع ذلك، وعلق كسوة الكعبة بيده ومعه خواصه، وتردد إلى من بمكة والمدينة من أهل الخيريلتمس بركتهم ويسأل دعاءهم.

هذا وقاضي القضاة صدر الدين معه طول طريقه يستفتيه ويتفهم منه أمور دينه.

⁷ بإخفاء: "باخفا" في الأصل. ٣ الشريف: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز " بعد كلمة "يقابله". ٤ أميرا: "امبرى" في الأصل، والتصحيح من السياق. ٨ بماء: "بما" في الأصل. || الورد: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || جميع: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمن " بعد كلمة "بين". ٩ من: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأطلى إلى الأعلى إلى الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز " بعد كلمة "الا". ١٢ دعاءهم: "دعآهم" في الأصل.

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§ 172 He distributed the barley among those that were proceeding with him, and he sent the supplies ahead on 4 [$D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah] [5 July], and he followed them on 6 [$D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah] [7 July]. He set up camp at Shawbak, and he gave the command to conceal any news about him. On 11 [$D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah] [12 July] he set out alone. [In the course of this] he set the postal service to the citadel of the mountain in operation for some business of his, sending the letters with Bedouins. He arrived in the Prophet's Medina on the 25 [$D\bar{u}$ l-Qa'dah] [26 July]. Neither the Sharif Ğammāz nor Mālik—the two amirs of Medina—received him. They fled away from him, and he left them alone. 303

§173 He departed on 27 [Dū l-Qa'dah] [28 July] and entered into iḥrām. He entered Mecca on 5 Dū l-Hiǧǧah [5 August], providing his retainers riches to secretly distribute among the people, and many of the inhabitants of the two august places were dotted with the garments that he had distributed among them. He became like one of the people, not sheltered nor guarded by anyone unless by God the Exalted. He remained alone, praying on his own, making the circumambulation on his own, and running on his own, without anyone recognising him, except for those who knew him. With his own hands he washed the Ka'bah with rose water, and he got among all the people, with all the differences of their classes and the variety of their ethnic backgrounds. One of them even threw his ritual garb to him, which he washed with his own hands and which he then handed back to its owner. He sat down at the gate of the Ka'bah and took the people's hands to help them climb it; one of the commoners clung to his ritual garb to climb up, tearing it and almost throwing the sultan from the step to the ground; but [Baybars] only rejoiced in all that. He hung up the *kiswah* of the Ka'bah with his own hands, together with his retainers. He frequented those in Mecca and Medina that belonged to the people of goodness to request their blessing and to ask for their supplication.

§ 174 So far [this story of the pilgrimage of sultan Baybars]. The chief judge Ṣadr al-Dīn [Sulaymān] was with him all along his route, so that [Baybars] could ask his counsel and could try to understand from him the issues of his religion.

³⁰³ It is very likely that this refusal of the two Ḥusaynid amirs of Medina at that time, Ğammāz b. Šīḥah and his nephew Mālik b. Munīf b. Šīḥah, to welcome the sultan was due to a dispute in the previous year on revenue generated from the collection of taxes in Medina (Mortel [1994]: 101).

ولم يغفل مع ذلك عن تدبير الممالك، وكتاب الإنشاء تكتب عنه في المهمات، وكتب إلى صاحب اليمن ينكر عليه أمورا ويقول: "سطرتها من مكة المشرفة وقد أخذت طريقها في سبع عشرة خطوة"—يعني بالخطوة المنزلة—ويقول: "الملك هو الذي يجاهد في الله حق جهاده ويبذل نفسه في الذب عن حوزة الدين. فإن كنت ملكا، فاخرج والق الططر!"

و أحسن إلى إميرَيْ مكة وإلى أمير ينبع وأمير خُليَص وأكابر الحجاز، وكتب منشورين لأميري مكة، ورتب معهما الأمير شمس الدين مروان—نائب أمير جاندار—يقيم معهما بمكة حسب سؤالهما ليكون مرجع الأمور إليه والحل والعقد على يديه. وزاد أميري مكة مالا وغلالا في كل سنة لأجل تسبيل الكعبة للناس.

وسار من مكة بعد قضاء النسك في ثالث عشره، وقدم المدينة النبوية ثانيا في عشرينه، فبات بها وسار من غده، فجد في السير ومعه عدة يسيرة. فقدم الكرك بكرة يوم الخميس سلخه من غير أن يعلم

1 عن: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ⁷ بعد كلمة "ذلك". || الإنشاء: "الاشآ" في الأصل. ٢ عشرة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. الله في الله: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || مكة: اقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة، في آخر السطر بعد كلمة "أميريْ". التأثب: "نايب" في الأصل. الإعشره: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة، في الأصل. الإعشره: تاقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في الجملة، في آخر السطر فوق كلمة "ثالث". || وقدم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

Yanbu' is the name of a port town on the Red Sea coast of the Hijaz; it was the ancestral home of the branch of the Ḥasanid family that controlled Mecca from the early thirteenth century onwards, but it was ruled more or less independently from Mecca by its own amir in this period and beyond (E. van Donzel, "Yanbu", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/yanbu-SIM_7979).

§175 Despite that [pre-occupation with the pilgrimage rituals], [Baybars] did not neglect the government of his realms, [since] the scribes of the chancery wrote down on his behalf [documents] concerning weighty affairs. [An example of this is that] he wrote to the ruler of Yemen reproaching him for certain things. He said: "I have composed [this letter] from glorious Mecca, which I have travelled to in seventeen steps"—by step he meant halting place—and he said: "the ruler is he who performs for God the duty of his *ğihād*, and who exerts himself in defending the territory of Islam. If I were a ruler, I would go out and confront the Mongols!"

10 §176 He was benevolent towards the two amirs of Mecca, towards the amir of Yanbu^c, 304 the amir of Ḥulayṣ, 305 and the chiefs of the Hijaz. He had two diplomas of investiture written for the two amirs of Mecca, and he assigned next to them the amir Šams al-Dīn Marwān, Nā'ib Amīr Ğāndār, 306 to stay with them in Mecca, following the request of both of them, so as to be consulted in the affairs and so that the authority to rule would be in his hands. He increased the annual amount of money and crops to the two amirs of Mecca, for the facilitation of the people's access to the Ka'bah.

§177 He left Mecca after the completion of the ceremonies on 13 [$D\bar{u}$ l-Hiğğah] [13 August], and he arrived again in the Prophet's Medina on 20 [$D\bar{u}$ l-Hiğğah] [20 August]. He spent the night there and left the next morning. He made every effort in going on, together with a small band, and he arrived in Karak in the morning of Thursday, the last day of [the month], without

Hulays is the name of a settlement in the Hijaz on the coastal road between Mecca and Medina, set back some distance from the coast; in the later medieval period period this cultivated area was also ruled by its own amir (*G.* Rentz, "al-Ḥidjāz", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-hidjaz -SIM_2857).

šams al-Dīn Marwān, an assistant (nā'ib) of the amir 'Izz al-Dīn Amīr Ğāndār, was appointed by Baybars as his local representative in Mecca, to rule in his name and to confirm the sultan's local sovereignty; by lack of military resources Marwān's local authority remained very limited and the arrangement was more symbolic than real; within a year after Marwān's appointment the two amirs of Mecca removed him from Mecca, took matters again in their own hands, and were acknowledged as Mecca's sole rulers by the sultan in Cairo (Ibn Fahd, Ithāf al-wará, 3:98–99; Mortel [1985]: 56).

أحد بوصوله حتى نزل مشهد جعفر بقرية مُؤتَة. فتلقاه الناس بها، ودخل المدينة وعليه عباءته التي سار بها—وهو راكب راحله—فبات بها.٧٠

ورحل من الغد، بعدما | صلى الجمعة مستهل المحرم سنة ثمان وستين وستمائة، ومعه مائة فارس بيد كل فارس منهم فرس، وساق إلى دمشق وسائر من في بلاد مصر وبلاد الشام مِن الأمراء ومَن دونهم لا يعرفون شيئا من خبر السلطان، هل هو في الشام أو الحجاز أو غير ذلك من بلاد الله. ولا يجسر أحد، لشدة مهابة السلطان والخوف منه، أن يتكلم بشيء من خبره ولا يسأل عنه. فلما قارب دمشق بعث أحد خاصته على البريد بكتب البشارة إلى دمشق بالسلامة بعد قضاء الحج. فلما دخل على الأمير جمال الدين النجيبي—نائب دمشق—جمع الأمراء لقراءة الكتب السلطانية، فبينا هم في القراءة إذ قيل لهم: "قد نزل السلطان بالميدان!" فتبادروا إلى لقائه، فإذا به وحده وقد أعطى فرسه لبعض دلالى سوق الخيل لينادى عليه وهو لا يعرفه أنه السلطان. فعندما شاهدوه

ا عباءته: "عبآته" في الأصل. ٣ ما: في الأصل الكلمة مكتوبة مرتين، مرة في آخر ص ١٣٠ب ومرة ثانية في بداية ص. ١٣١أ. إوستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. إمائة: "مايه" في الأصل. ٤ وسائر: "وساير" في الأصل. إفي: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل بحبه يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "من". إا الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ه شيئا: "شيا" في الأصل. إهو: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، على نفس السطر + صحب يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "هل". ٦ لشدة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إبشيء: "بشي" في الأصل. ٧ خاصته: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إنائب: "نايب" في الأصل. إا الأمراء لقراءة: "الامرآ لقراءة: "الامرآ لقراءة: "الامرآ بغط المقريزي. إنائب: "نايب" في الأصل. إلى الأمل. إلى: "الي" في الأصل. إلى الأصل، إلى الأصل، إلى الأصل، إلى الأصل، الإمراء لقراءة والأصل، مضافة الأصل. إلى الأسل مضافة في الأصل، القراءة والأصل، المنافذة والأصل، عضافة الأصل. المنافذة الأصل، المنافذة المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صحب يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "أعطى".

٧٧ راجع خبر حج السلطان بيبرس من "فلما دخل شوال" (356، ٧) إلى هنا على شكل مساو في ابن عبد الظاهر، الروض الزاهر، ص. ٣٥٤-٣٥٧.

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anyone knowing about his arrival, until he set up camp at Mašhad Ğaʿfar, at the village of Muʾtah.³⁰⁷ The people came to see him there. He entered the town, while he was wearing the cloak which he had left with, and while he was mounted on his riding camel. He spent the night there.

§178 He left the next morning, after he had prayed the Friday prayer of 1 Muharram of the year 668 [30 August 1269]. With him were 100 horsemen, every horseman among them having a horse in his hand. He moved on to Damascus, while all those who were in Egypt and Syria, from the amirs and from those lower in status than them, were unaware of any news about the sultan: was he in Syria, or in the Hijaz, or at any other place of God's lands? Because of the strong reverence and fear for the sultan no one dared to say anything about his whereabouts nor ask after him. When he approached Damascus, he sent one of his retainers via the postal system with letters of good news to Damascus, [announcing] the safe return after the completion of the pilgrimage. When he entered with the amir Čamāl al-Dīn al-Naǧībī, the governor of Damascus, 308 the amirs had gathered to read the sultan's letters. While they were reading, there suddenly was said to them: "The sultan has set up camp on the hippodrome [outside the city wall]". They hurried to meet with him. There he was all by himself, having given his horse to one of the stewards of the horse market, who had been called for [by Baybars] without knowing that he was the sultan. When they sighted him,

Mu'tah is the name of a village south of Karak, on the Syrian hağğ route, in the centre of a fertile plain in the lower Transjordan region; Mašhad Ğa'far refers to the mausoleum that was built over the tombs of the Arab leaders, including the Prophet's nephew, Ğa'far b. Abī Ṭālib, who, in 8/629, fell at Mu'tah, defeated by Byzantine forces (F. Buhl, "Mu'ta", in E1², http://brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/muta-SIM_5637).

Ğamāl al-Dīn Āqqūš al-Naǧībī (d. 677/1278) was a peer of Baybars since the time of the last Ayyūbid ruler of Egypt, al-Ṣāliḥ Ayyūb; after having been steward (ustādār) in Egypt, he was governor in Syria from around 660/1262 until 670/1271 (Amitai [1997]: 294, no. 13). His name and tenure of office in Syria are also mentioned in the Maqām Nabī Mūsá inscription that includes an explicit reference to Baybars' haǧǧ: "[the construction of this shrine in the course of 668/late 1269 happened during] the governorship of his slave and agent, the great amir, the frontier warrior, Ğamāl al-Dīn Āqqūsh al-Naǧībī, governor of the Syrian provinces" (Amitai [2006]: 46–49).

قبل النائب الارض وتلاه الأمراء، وحضر الأمير آق سنقر الفارقاني ومن معه من عسكر مصر، فأكل السلطان شيئا، وقام ليستريح، وانصرف الناس.

فركب في نفريسير وتوجه في خفية يريد حلب. فلما حضر الأمراء خدمة العصر لم يجدوا السلطان ولا عُرِف له خبر. فبينما نائب حلب والأمراء في الموكب تحت قلعة حلب وإذا بالسلطان قد ساق ولا عُرِف له خبر. فبينما نائب حلب والأمراء في الموكب تحت قلعة حلب وإذا بالسلطان قد ساق ووقف ساعة، فلم يعرفه أحد حتى فطن به بعضهم. فنزل عن فرسه وقبل له الأرض، فبادر الجميع ونزلوا وقبلوا الأرض، وساروا في ركابه حتى دخل دار نائب حلب. ثم كشف القلعة وخرج من حلب ولم يعرف أحد به.

فدخل دمشق في ثالث عشره على حين غفلة، ولعب بالكرة، وسار ليلا إلى القدس، وسار إلى الخليل، وتصدق بعدة صدقات.

ا وكان الأمير آق سنقر قد سار بمن معه من عسكر مصر، ونزل تل العجول، فوافاه السلطان هناك وعليه عباءته لم يغيرها، وسار من تل العجول بالعسكر في حادي عشرينه، وقدم القاهرة أول صفر وعليه عباءته التي حج بها لم يغيرها نحو خمسة وسبعين يوما. فخرج الملك السعيد إلى لقائه، وصعد قلعة الجبل.

¹ النائب: "النايب" في الأصل. $\|$ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. T شيئًا: "شيا" في الأصل. T الأمراء: "الامرا" في الأصل. T نائب: "نايب" في الأصل. T نائب: "نايب" في الأصل. T نائب: "نايب" في الأصل. T معين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. T إلى: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الأصل. T معين: من الأعلى إلى الأسفل T معين يشير إليها الرمز T بعد كلمة "سار". T عباءته: "عباته" في الأصل. T عباءته: "عباته" في الأصل. T عباءته: "عباته" في الأصل. T عباءته: "الأصل. T الأصل. T الأص

١٨ راجع خبر زيارات السلطان السرية في دمشق وحلب والقدس والخليل من "ورحل من الغد" (354، ٣) إلى هنا على شكل مساو في ابن عبد الظاهر، الروض الزاهر، ص. ٣٦٠-٣٦٠.

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the governor kissed the ground and the amirs followed him. The amir Āq Sunqur al-Fāriqānī and those who were with him from the army of Egypt were present. The sultan ate something and stood up to take a rest and the people left.

§ 179 He mounted with a handful of people and headed secretly for Aleppo. When the amirs [in Damascus] attended the evening public audience, they did not find the sultan, and no news was known about him. While the governor of Aleppo and the amirs were in the midst of the ceremonial procession below the citadel of Aleppo, there suddenly appeared the sultan, who had come riding and who stood for an hour without anyone recognising him, until one of them became aware of him. [This one then] dismounted from his horse and kissed the ground to honour [the sultan], and all [thereupon] hastened to dismount and to kiss the ground. They proceeded in his escort until he entered the residence of the governor of Aleppo. Then he inspected the citadel and left from Aleppo.

§ 180 No one knew about him, and then he entered Damascus unnoticed on 13 [Muḥarram] [11 September], he played [a game of] polo and left at night for Jerusalem. He went to Hebron and he made several charitable donations.

§ 181 The amir Āq Sunqur had left with who was with him from the army of Egypt and he had set up camp at Tall al-'Ağūl. 309 The sultan joined him there, wearing his cloak which he had not changed. From Tall al-'Ağūl he left with the army on 21 [Muḥarram] [19 September], and he arrived in Cairo on 1 Ṣafar [29 September], wearing the cloak which he had performed the pilgrimage in, without changing it for about 75 days. Al-Malik al-Saʿīd came out to meet him and he ascended the citadel of the mountain.

Tall al-'Ağūl is a place in Palestine, near Gaza; it is best known for the fact that a Fāṭimid army gained a victory there against the Crusader Kingdom of Jerusalem, in 553/1158 (See M. Canard, "Dirghām", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/dirgham-SIM_1874).

السلطان الملك الناصر ناصر الدين أبو المعالي محمد بن الملك المنصور سيف الدين قلاوون الألفي الصالحي النجمي

ولد يوم السبت نصف المحرم سنة أربع وثمانين وستمائة، وأقيم في السلطنة بعد | قتل أخيه الملك 131^b الأشرف صلاح الدين خليل بن قلاوون في رابع عشر المحرم سنة ثلث وتسعين، وعمره تسع سنين ه تنقص يوما واحدا. فأقام سنة إلا ثلثة أيام، وخلع بمملوك أبيه زين الدين كتبغا—الملك العادل—

١ قلاوون: "قلاون" في الأصل. ٣ ولد: كلمة غير واضجة بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ
 (ص. ٦٤أ). || وستمائة: "وستمايه" في الأصل. ٥ بمملوك: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

10. The sultan al-Malik al-Nāṣir Nāṣir al-Dīn Abū l-Maʿālī Muḥammad b. al-Malik al-Mansūr Sayf al-Dīn Qalāwūn al-Alfī l-Sālihī l-Naǧmī³¹⁰

§ 182 He was born on Saturday 15 Muḥarram of the year 684 [23 March 1285], and he was installed in the position of sultan after the murder of his brother al-Malik al-Ašraf Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn Ḥalīl b. Qalāwūn³¹¹ on 14 Muḥarram of the year [6]93 [15 December 1293], at the age of nine years minus one day. He remained in office for one year less three days, and he was deposed [and replaced] by the *mamlūk* of his father, Zayn al-Dīn Kitbuġā, al-Malik

Al-Nāṣir Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn (684–741/1285–1341; r. 693–694/1293–1294, 698–708/1299–1309, 709–741/1310–1341) was the third Qalāwūnid sultan of Egypt and Syria; he was made sultan twice at a young age by prominent amirs from his father's entourage, but in the first case he was soon deposed as a result of this entourage's fragmentation, and in the second instance he resigned from office to escape the impotence of his nominal rule; he eventually returned to power a third time by his own doing, embarking upon three decades of increasingly stable, powerful, and successful rule, marking a high point in the sultanate's history, a remarkable era of economic and cultural efflorescence for Egypt and Syria, and the formation of a Qalāwūnid dynastic state that survived him by many decades (P.M. Holt, "al-Nāṣir.1. al-Nāṣir Muḥammad b. Ķalāwūn", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-nasir-COM_0852; Levanoni [1995]; Flinterman & Van Steenbergen [2015]).

Al-Ašraf Ḥalīl b. Qalāwūn (r. 689–693/1290–1293) was the second Qalāwūnid sultan of Egypt and Syria; he succeeded his father upon the latter's untimely death, bringing to a victorious end the campaign which his father had begun against the Latin Crusaders, the city of Acre and a handful of other remaining crusader strongholds on the Syrian littoral falling into his hands in 690/1291; his reign and fame are therefore especially remembered in this context of the final expulsion of the Crusaders; but Ḥalīl never really managed to fully impose his authority on his father's former entourage of senior amirs, and he was killed by some of them eventually (U. Haarmann, "Khalīl", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/khalil-SIM_4163).

في حادي عشر المحرم سنة أربع وتسعين، وأخرج مع أمه أشلون بنت شكناي إلى الكرك.

فثار الأمير حسام الدين لاجين المنصوري—نائب السلطنة—على العادل كتبغا، وتسلطن عوضه. فثار عليه {طغجي} وكرجي، فقتلاه، وقتلا أيضا، واستدعى الناصر من الكرك. فقدم إلى قلعة الجبل، وأعيد إلى السلطنة مرة ثانية في سادس جمادى الأولى سنة ثمان وتسعين.

٢ نائب: "نايب" في الأصل. ٣ طغجي: "طغي" في الأصل وهو خطأ، والتصحيح من السياق.

al-ʿĀdil,³¹² on 11 Muḥarram of the year [6]94 [1 December 1294]. He was removed to Karak with his mother Ašlūn bt. Šaknāy.³¹³

§183 The amir Ḥusām al-Dīn Lāǧīn al-Manṣūrī,³¹⁴ who was viceroy, revolted against al-ʿĀdil Kitbuġā, and he became sultan instead of him. [The amirs] Ṭuġǧī and Kurǧī³¹⁵ revolted against him, and they killed him, but they were also killed. [Thereupon] al-Nāṣir was summoned from Karak. He came to [Cairo's] citadel of the mountain and he was reinstated in the position of sultan a second time, on 6 Jumāda I of the year [6]98 [9 February 1299].

Al-ʿĀdil Kitbuġā l-Manṣūrī (r. 694–696/1294–1296) was a former *mamlūk* of Oirat Mongol origins in the service of sultan al-Manṣur Qalāwūn; as a senior member from Qalāwūn's entourage, he managed to become vicegerent and the strong man behind the throne of the child-ruler al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, until he deposed him and took the throne and position of sultan for himself; his short reign was marked by dearth and famine in Egypt, and by the settlement in Palestine of Mongol refugee warriors with their families; eventually, he was deposed by a party headed by his own vicegerent, Lāǧīn al-Manṣūrī, who succeeded him as sultan (P.M. Holt, "Lādjīn", in El² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ladjin-SIM_4611; Elham [1977]).

Ašlūn was the daughter of a Mongol notable, Šaknāy (more commonly known as Šaktāy), who moved with his family from Anatolia to Egypt in 675/1276; Ašlūn's marriage to sultan Qalāwūn was concluded in 680/1281–1282 (Holt [1995]: 314).

Husām al-Dīn Lāǧīn l-Manṣūrī (r. 696–698/1296–1299) was a former *mamlūk* in the service of sultan al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn, in whose name he successfully performed the position of governor of Syria for many years; as one of the strong men from Qalāwūn's entourage, he continued to dominate the political theatre of Cairo after Qalāwūn's death throughout the 690s/1290s; he became vicegerent of sultan al-ʿĀdil Kitbuġā, and upon his deposition Lāǧīn was himself installed as sultan al-Manṣūr; he however equalled failed to fully impose his authority on his fellow amirs, and when he tried to reform and re-organise the allocation of fiscal resources to the realm's elites in an attempt to strengthen his position as sultan, he was murdered (Holt, "Lādjīn", in *E1*2; Id. [1973]; Elham [1977]).

The amirs Kurǧī and Ṭuǧǧī l-Ašrafī were two former *mamlūk*s of al-Ašraf Ḥalīl, who promoted them to high status and office; they retained their positions after Ḥalīl's murder, but in the reign of al-Manṣūr Lāǧīn they got into conflict with the sultan's vicegerent and organised a successful conspiracy as a result; in the days following their murder of the sultan and his vicegerent their plan to usurp their victims' power and positions failed and they were both killed (Ibn Taǧrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 6:414–415; 9:125–126; Holt [1973]: 529–531).

فأقام عشر سنين وخمسة أشهر وستة عشر يومًا محجورا عليه لا يملك التصرف في أكلة طعام يشتهيه، والقائم بتدبير الدولة الأميران بيبرس الجاشنكير—أستادار السلطان—وسلار—نائب السلطنة—، فدبر لنفسه في سنة ثمان وسبعمائة، وأظهر أنه يريد الحج بعياله. فوافقه الأميران على ذلك، وشرعوا في تجهيزه، وكتب إلى دمشق والكرك برمي الإقامات، وألزم عرب الشرقية بحمل الشعير. فلما تهيأ ذلك أحضر الأمراء تقادمهم من الخيل والجمال في العشرين من شهر رمضان. فقبلها، وركب في خامس عشرينه من القلعة، ومعه الأمراء، إلى بركة الحاج وتعين رمضان. فقبلها، وركب في خامس عشرينه من القلعة،

١ فأقام: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ والقائم: "القايم" في الأصل. || بيبرس: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || نائب: "نايب" في الأصل. ٣ وسبعمائة: "وسبعمايه" في الأصل. ٥ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ٦ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل.

§184 He remained in office for ten years, five months, and 16 days, while he was placed under guardianship, without even possessing the authority to eat the food that he desired, the state being run by the two amirs Baybars al-Ğāšnikīr,³¹⁶ who was the steward of the sultan, and Sallār,³¹⁷ who was the vicegerent. Therefore, he hatched up a plan for himself in the year 708 [1309]. He made it look as though he wanted to perform the pilgrimage with his family. The two amirs agreed with him on that, and they began to prepare for it. There was written to Damascus and Karak to sent forth supplies, and the Bedouin of al-Šarqiyyah³¹⁸ were obliged to provide barley. When that was prepared, the amirs presented their ceremonial gifts, consisting of horses and camels, on the 20th of the month Ramaḍān [3 March]. He received them and rode from the citadel on 25 [Ramaḍān] [8 March], together with the amirs, until the Birkat al-Ḥāǧǧ.³¹⁹ To accompany him on

Baybars al-Manṣūrī l-Ğāšnikīr (r. 708–709/1309–1310) was a former *mamlūk* in the service of sultan al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn, who acted as taster (ǧāšnikīr) in Qalāwūn's household, and who rose to prominence after Qalāwūn's death, eventually obtaining the position of royal steward (*ustādār*); after the killing of al-Manṣūr Lāǧīn, and together with his peer Sallār, Baybars emerged as one of the new leading amirs behind al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's throne, establishing a *duumvirate* that lasted until al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's abdication; the widely respected Baybars was then proclaimed sultan al-Muẓaffar, but support for his unexpected rule soon proved fickle and eventually he was deposed by al-Nāṣir Muḥammad and strangled (L. Fernandes, "Baybars II, al-Malik al-Muẓaffar Jāšnikīr", in EI³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -3/baybars-ii-al-malik-al-muzaffar-jashnikir-COM_24315).

The amir Sayf al-Dīn Sallār (d. 710/1310) (also known as Sālār) was a former *mamlūk* of Oirat Mongol origins in the service of al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn, who had been captured by Qalāwūn during a military expedition in Anatolia; just as his peer Baybars, he rose to prominence after Qalāwūn's death, and he eventually obtained the position of vicegerent (*nā'ib al-salṭanah*) when he took power with Baybars behind al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's throne; he retained the viceregency when Baybars was enthroned, but when al-Nāṣir Muḥammad marched on Cairo, Sallār delivered the city to him; eventually, he was arrested and starved to death (Holt [1986]: 110–112).

Al-Šarqiyyah was (and still is) the name of one of the largest provinces of the eastern part of lower Egypt, with the town of Bilbays as its administrative centre (al-Qalqašandī, Şubḥ al-a'šá, 3:400–401).

Birkat al-Ḥaǧǧ, the Pond of the Pilgrim (also known as Birkat al-Ḥaǧǧ, the Pond of the Pilgrimage, or Birkat al-Ḥuǧǧāǧ, The Pond of the Pilgrims), refers to a small lake northeast of Cairo, formed by the waters of the ancient Canal (Ḥalīǧ) that had been blocked there; it was the first station on the Muslim pilgrimage to Mecca from Egypt (Raymond [2001]:16).

معه للسفر أيدمر الخطيري والحاج أنْ مَلِك الجوكندار وقرا لاجين—أمير مجلس—وبلبان— أمير جاندار—وأيبك الرومي—أمير سلاح—وبيبرس الأحمدي وسنجر الجمقدار وتقطاي الساقي

²⁰ Aydamur al-Ḥaṭīrī (d. 737/1337) was a former *mamlūk* of al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn, who rose to prominence during the successive reigns of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 3:180–182; Amitai [1990]: 161, no. 1).

the voyage, there were appointed Aydamur al-Ḥaṭīrī,³²⁰ the ḥājj Āl Malik al-Ğūkandār,³²¹ Qarā Lāǧīn,³²² who was master of the audience, Balabān,³²³ who was master of the reception, Aybak al-Rūmī,³²⁴ who was master of arms, Baybars al-Aḥmadī,³²⁵ Sanǧar al-Ğamaqdār,³²⁶ Tuqṭāy al-Sāqī,³²⁷ Sunqur al-

- Āl Malik al-Ğūkandār (d. 747/1346) was a former *mamlūk* of al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn, acquired from the spoils of war of a campaign in Anatolia by sultan Baybars; he rose to prominence during the successive reigns of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, becoming a highly venerated and widely respected veteran amir in the 730s/1330s and 740s/1340s; he was known as *al-ḥāij* as a token of his piety and interest in the pilgrimage (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 3:85–88; Amitai [1990]: 162, no. 12; Van Steenbergen [2005]: 197).
- Qarā Lāǧīn al-Manṣūrī (d. 715/1315) was a former *mamlūk* of al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn who rose to prominence after the latter's death, eventually obtaining the position of steward (*ustādār*) under al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, apparently after also having served as his master of the audience (*amīr maǧlis*) (Ibn Taǧrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 9:53; Amitai [1990]: 162, no. 9).
- Balabān (d. 734/1333), also known as Balabān Ṭurnā,—whose origins remain unclear—was an amir and master of the reception (amīr ǧāndār) in Egypt until al-Nāṣir Muḥammad made him governor of Karak in Syria; shortly afterwards, in 714/1315, he was arrested and forced to spend a decade in the prison of the governor of Syria; he ended his days as a senior amir in the retinue of the same governor (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 3:421–422; al-Ṣafadī, A'yān al-'aṣr, 2:44–45).
- 324 Aybak al-Rūmī l-Manṣūrī (d. ?) was a former *mamlūk* of al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn who rose to prominence after the latter's death, apparently eventually obtaining the position of master of arms (*amīr silāḥ*) at al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's court; he fell from favour in 713/1314, after which all traces of him are lost in extant sources (Amitai [1990]: 162, no. 14; al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 2:128).
- Baybars al-Aḥmadī (d. 746/1345) was a senior amir who soon after al-Nāṣir's third accession became master of the reception (amīr ǧāndār), which he remained throughout the rest of the sultan's reign; as one of the Qalāwūnid state's most longstanding agents, he became a highly respected and powerful veteran amir in the 730s/1330s and 740s/1340s (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 3:479–481; Amitai [1990]: 163, no. 19; Van Steenbergen [2005]: 197–198).
- Sanǧar al-Manṣūrī l-Ǧamaqdār (d. 745/1345) was a former *mamlūk* of al-Manṣūr Qalāwūn who rose to prominence after the latter's death; he remained a senior amir in Egypt until al-Nāṣir Muḥammad transferred him to a position of senior amir in Damascus in 730/1330 (al-Ṣafadī, *A'yān al-ʿaṣr*, 2: 465; Amitai [1990]: 161, no. 5).
- No information has been retrieved for this amir; he obviously had been a member of one of the preceding sultans' household corps of cupbearers $(s\bar{a}q\bar{\iota})$, and he had risen to rank and prominence in the first decade of the eighth/fourteenth century, but nothing further is known about him.

وسنقر السعدي—النقيب—وخمسة وسبعين مملوكا. وعاد بيبرس وسلار من غير أن يترجلا له عند نزوله بالبركة.

فرحل من ليلته وعرج إلى الصالحية وعيد بها، وتوجه إلى الكرك. فقدمها في عاشر شوال، وبها الأمير جمال الدين آقوش الأشرفي نائبا. فنزل بقلعتها وصرح بأنه قد انثنى عزمه عن الحج واختار الإقامة بالكرك وترك السلطنة ليستريح. وكتب إلى الأمراء بذلك وسأل أن ينعم عليه بالكرك والشوبك. وأعاد من كان معه من الأمراء وسلمهم الهجن—وعدتهم خمسمائة هجين—والمال والجمال وجميع ما قدمه له الأمراء، وأخذ ما كان من المال بالكرك—وهو ستمائة ألف درهم فضة وعشرون ألف دينار—، وأم نائب الكرك أيضا بالمسير عنه، فسار إلى مصر.

النقيب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ جمال: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || نائبا: "نايبا" في الأصل. || بأنه: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "صرح". ٥ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ¬ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. || ستمائة: "ستمايه" في الأصل. || نحمسمائة: "نحمسمايه" في الأصل. من نائب: "نايب" في الأصل.

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Saʻdī,³²⁸ who was parade officer, and 75 *mamlūk*s. When he had set up camp at the pond, Baybars and Sallār returned, without having dismounted for him [as protocol demands].

§185 He left the same night, and halted at al-Ṣāliḥiyyah,³²⁹ where he celebrated the Feast [of Fast-breaking]. [Then] he headed for Karak. He arrived there on 10 Šawwāl [23 March], and the amir Ğamāl al-Dīn Āqqūš al-Ašrafī³³⁰ was there as a governor. [The sultan] settled down in its citadel, and declared that he no longer wished to perform the pilgrimage, and [that] he prefered to stay at Karak, renouncing the post of sultan so as to find some rest. He wrote about that to the amirs and asked that Karak and al-Shawbak would be granted to him. He sent back those from the amirs who were with him, handing over to them the dromedaries—their number was 500 dromedaries—, the money, the camels, and everything that the amirs had presented to him. He took the money that was in Karak—600,000 high quality silver *dirhams* and 20,000 *dīnārs*. [Finally] he ordered the governor of Karak to also leave him alone, so [Āqqūš al-Ašrafī] left for Egypt.

Sunqur al-Saʻdī (d. 728/1328) was an amir in the entourage of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, and a parade officer (naqīb) of the royal mamlūks, until his removal to Tripoli in 723/1323, where he remained until his death; he is remembered especially for the peculiar madrasah for women with attached domed mausoleum which he had constructed south of Cairo, between 715/1315 and 721/1321 (and which is still standing there) (al-Maqrīzī, al-Sulūk, 2:246; Id., al-Ḥiṭaṭ, 4:598–602; Behrens-Abouseif [1989]: 107–108; Warner [2005]: 137, no. 263).

Al-Ṣāliḥiyyah refers to the name of a settlement on the north-eastern fringe of al-Šarqiyyah province of Egypt, on the route connecting Cairo with Syria, via Bilbays and Gaza; it was founded by the last Ayyūbid ruler of Egypt, al-Ṣāliḥ Ayyūb (hence its name), as a strategic stopping place for caravans and troops travelling from and to Egypt (al-Qalqašandī, Ṣubḥ al-a'šá, 3:400; 14:377).

³³⁰ Ğamāl al-Dīn Āqqūš al-Ašrafī (d. 736/1336) was a former mamlūk of al-Ašraf Ḥalīl, who rose to prominence during the successive reigns of al-Ašraf Ḥalīl and of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, securing throughout his long career various high positions in Egypt and Syria, including the governorships of Karak (which he retained for 18 years, until 708/1309, hence his nickname 'the Governor of Karak' [Nāʾib al-Karak]), and—briefly—of Damascus and of Tripoli; he died in the prison of Alexandria, after having been arrested in 734/1333 (Ibn Tagrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 3:27—30).

وتسلطن بيبرس الجاشنكير | وتلقب بالملك المظفر، وكتب للناصر تقليدا بنيابة الكرك وجهزه مع الحاج أل ملك. فأظهر الملك الناصر البشر وخطب باسم المظفر على منبر الكرك، وأنعم على الحاج ألْ ملك وأعاده. فلم يتركه المظفر، وأخذ يناكره ويطلب منه من معه من المماليك الذين اختارهم للإقامة عنده والخيول التي أخذها من قلعة الجبل والمال الذي أخذه من الكرك، وهدده بتجهيز العساكر إليه وأُخْذِهِ. فحنق لذلك وكتب لنواب الشام يشكو ما هو فيه. فحثوه على القيام لأخذ ملكه ووعدوه بالنصر. فتحرك لذلك وسار إلى دمشق، وأنته النواب، وقدم إلى مصر، ففر بيبرس وطلع الناصر القلعة يوم عيد الفطر سنة تسع وسبعمائة.

فأقام في الملك اثنتين وثأثين سنة وشهرين وعشرين يوما. ومات في ليلة الخميس حادي عشرين ذي الحجة سنة إحدى وأربعين وسبعمائة، وعمره سبع وخمسون سنة وأحد عشر شهرا وخمسة أيام.

١٠ ومدة سلطنته في المدد الثلاث ثلاث وأربعون سنة وثمانية أشهر وتسعة أيام. حج فيها ثلث مرات:

الأولى في سنة اثنتي عشرة وسبعمائة، وسببها أن خربندا تحرك لأخذ الشام ونزل على الفرات. فخرج السلطان بعساكر مصر في ثالث شوال، وسار إلى الصالحية، فقدم البريد من حلب ودمشق

¹ الجاشنكير: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || تقليدا: "تقليد" في الأصل، والألف لتنوين الفتح مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها فوق السطر. ٢ الملك الناصر: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز عبد كلمة "فأظهر". ٣ الذين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ وأُخْذِه: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ١ التي : تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. المشكو: "يشكوا" في الأصل. ٧ وسبعمائة: "وسبعمايه" في الأصل. ٨ اثنتين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٩ وأربعين وسبعمائة: "واربعين وسبعمايه" في الأصل. || وأحد: تصحيح في الأصل. || اثنتي : الأصل. ١ اثلاث: تصحيح في الأصل. || اثنتي : الأصل. المؤريزي في الأصل. || واسبعمائة: "وسبعمائة : الأصل. || اثنتي : الأصل. || واسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : الأصل. || الأولى : تصحيح في الأصل. || واسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : الأصل. || الأولى : تصحيح في الأصل. || واسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : الأصل. || الأولى : تصحيح في الأصل. || واسبعمائة : "وسبعمائة : الأصل. || والأصل. || والأصل. || والأصل. || والمنائم نائم الأصل. || والمنائم نائم الأصل. || والمنائم نائم الأصل. || والمنائم نائم الأصل. || والمنائم المنائم الأصل. || والمنائم المنائم الأصل. || والمنائم الألى المنائم المنائم

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§ 186 Baybars al-Ğāšnikīr assumed the position of sultan, with the royal style of al-Malik al-Muzaffar. He had a diploma of investiture written for al-Nāṣir for the position of governor of Karak, and he had it sent over with the $h\bar{a}\check{g}\check{g}$ Āl Malik. Al-Malik al-Nāsir made the glad tidings public [in Karak], and he had the Friday sermon delivered in the name of al-Muzaffar from the minbar of Karak. He showed his benevolence towards the $h\bar{a}ij$ Āl Malik and then he sent him back. But al-Muzaffar did not leave him alone. He began to distrust him and to demand from him the *mamlūk*s who were with him and whom he had chosen to stay with him, the horses which he had taken from the citadel of the mountain, and the money that he had taken from Karak. [Al-Muzaffar] threatened him with sending the armies against him and with his arrest. [Al-Nāṣir] became angry because of that, and wrote to the governors of Syria to complain about his situation. They prompted him to rise and take his realm, and they promised him victory. Therefore, he started to organise his campaign and he proceeded towards Damascus, [where] the governors came to him. [When he marched on and] arrived in Egypt, Baybars fled, and al-Nāṣir ascended to the citadel on the day of the Feast of Fast-breaking of the year 709 [4 March 1310].

§ 187 He continued to rule for 32 years, two months, and 20 days. He died in the night of Thursday 21 Dū l-Ḥiǧǧah of the year 741 [7 June 1341], at the age of 57 years, 11 months, and five days.

§ 188 The period of his sultanate over the three terms is 43 years, eight months, and nine days, during which he went on pilgrimage three times.

§ 189 The first one was in the year 712 [1313]. The reason for it was that Ḥarbandā³³¹ was organising a campaign to take Syria, and [that] he was setting up camp near the Euphrates. The sultan left with the armies of Egypt on 3 Šawwāl [1 February 1313], proceeding up to al-Ṣāliḥiyyah. The postal system then brought message from Aleppo and Damascus that Ḥarbandā had left

Harbandā refers to the penultimate Mongol ruler of the Īlḥānid realm in Iraq and Persia, Ġiyāt al-Dīn Muḥammad Ḥarbandā (later changed to Ḥudābandā) Öljeytü (r. 704–716/1304–1316); he is remembered in particular in Arabic sources for mounting the last but unsuccessful Īlḥānid campaign against the Syro-Egyptian sultanate, in 712/1312–1313 (D.O. Morgan, "Öldieytü", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/oldjeytu-SIM_6018).

برحيل خربندا عن الرحبة يوم عيد الفطريريد بلاده. فسر السلطان بذلك وعزم على الحج. ودخل دمشق في ثالث عشرينه، وفرق العساكر في الجهات، وركب في أربعين أميرا وستة آلاف مملوك على الهجن في أول ذي القعدة، وأخذ معه مائة فرس. فقضى نسكه وعاد إلى دمشق بعد مروره بالمدينة النبوية ودخوله الكرك. فدخل في حادي عشر المحرم سنة ثلث عشرة وهو راكب ناقة لطيفة القد بعمامة مدورة ولئام وعليه بشت من أبشات العرب وفي يده حربة، وتلقاه شيخ الإسلام تقي الدين أحمد بن تيمية وسائر الفقهاء وجميع الناس. فكان يوما مشهودا بلغ كراء دار للتفرج على السلطان ستمائة درهم فضة. ثم سار إلى مصر وصعد قلعة الجبل في ثاني عشر صفر.

ثم حج في سنة تسع عشرة وسبعمائة. فلما تحرك لذلك أنته تقادم الأمراء وسائر نواب الشام وأمراء دمشق وحلب، وأول من بعث تقدمته الأمير تنكز—نائب—وفيها الخيل والهجن بأكوار الذهب

٣ مائة: "ماية" في الأصل. ٥-٦ شيخ ... أحمد: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "تلقاه". ٦ وسائر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("وساير"). || الفقهاء: "الفقهآ" في الأصل. || كراء: "كرآ" في الأصل. ٧ ستمائة: "ستمايه" في الأصل. ٨ وسبعمائة: "وسبعمائة: "وسبعمائة: "والمرآ" في الأصل. || الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. || وسائر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("وساير"). || وأمراء: "وامرآ" في الأصل. ٩ نائب: "نايب" في الأصل. || بأكوار: كلمة غير واضحة بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص. ٦٦ب).

Al-Raḥbah, or Raḥbat al-Šām is the name of a town with a citadel on the right bank of the middle Euphrates; in the later medieval period it functioned both as a strategic military stronghold and as an important caravan station, on the natural frontier between Syria and Mongol/post-Mongol Iraq (E. Honigmann, Th. Bianquis, "al-Raḥba", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-rahba-SIM_6190).

Aḥmad b. Taymiyyah (661–728/1263–1328) was a Ḥanbalī theologian and jurist from Damascus, whose charismatic personality and controversial thinking had a substantial impact—during and after his own lifetime—upon the social and intellectual life of Damascus, of Syria, of the Syro-Egyptian sultanate, of the Ḥanbalī socio-intellectual

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from al-Rahbah³³² on the day of the Feast of Fast-breaking, heading back to his lands. The sultan was happy with that, and he set his mind on performing the pilgrimage. He entered Damascus on 23 [Šawwāl] [21 February], and he spread the armies over the different regions [in the Damascus province]. He then rode off amidst 40 amirs and 6,000 mamlūks, on dromedaries, on 1 Dū l-Qa'dah [28 February], taking 100 horses with him. He fulfilled his pilgrimage rituals, and returned to Damascus, passing by the Prophet's Medina and entering Karak on the route. He made his entry [into Damascus] on 11 Muharram of the year [7]13 [8 May 1313], riding a she-camel of fine stature, [wearing] a round turban with a veil and one of the Bedouin's cloaks, and [holding] a spear in his hand. The šayh al-Islām Taqī l-Dīn Aḥmad b. Taymiyyah,³³³ all the jurisprudents, and the entire population came out to meet him. It was a memorable day, the rent for a house from which one could watch the sultan reaching [no less than] 600 silver *dirhams*. Then he proceeded to Egypt, and he ascended the citadel of the mountain on 12 Safar [8 June].

§ 190 Then he went on pilgrimage in the year 719 [1319–1320]. When he started organising that campaign, there came to him ceremonial gifts from the amirs, from all governors of Syria, and from the amirs of Damascus and Aleppo. The first who sent his ceremonial gift was the amir Tankiz, 334 the governor of Syria. It consisted of horses and dromedaries with

community, and beyond; the polemicist Ibn Taymiyyah clashed regularly with the authorities of his day, to the extent that he was persecuted and enjailed on various occasions; at first, sultan al-Nāṣir Muḥammad sympathised with Ibn Taymiyyah, but as a consequence of the latter's uncompromising attitude, their relationship soon changed for the worse, and eventually Ibn Taymiyyah died in the citadel of Damascus, after having been imprisonned for more than two years by order of the sultan (H. Laoust, "Ibn Taymiyya", in EI^2 http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ibn-taymiyya-SIM_3388; Bori [2003]).

Tankiz al-Ḥusāmī (d. 740/1340) was a former *mamlūk* of Lāǧīn and of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, who rose to prominence during al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's second reign, and who became the sultan's right hand in Syria in 712/1312; as governor of Damascus his authority stretched over the entire region of Syria, and as the prime regional agent of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's state, also related to the sultan through various marriages, Tankiz remained in power until 740/1340, over time increasingly transforming into a semi-autonomous Syrian ruler; eventually, al-Nāṣir Muḥammad had his overpowerful agent Tankiz arrested and executed (S. Conermann, "Tankiz", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/tankiz -COM_1168; Conermann [2008]).

والسلاسل من الذهب والفضة وجميع المقاود والمخاطم والآلات | من الحرير الملون المحكم الصنعة، ﴿ 132b ثم تقادم الملك المؤيد عماد الدين—صاحب حماة—، ثم تلاه الأمراء.

وشرع القاضي كريم الدين عبد الكريم—ناظر الخاص—في تجهيز ما يحتاج إليه، وخرج إلى ناحية سرياقوس، وصاريقف—وهو مشدود الوسط—أو يجلس على كرسي وسائر أرباب الوظائف

ا والآلات: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ تقادم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ٣ القاضي كريم الدين عبد الكريم: مضافة بخط المقريزي في الأصل في مكانها الصحيح في السطر. ٤ هو: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. الا مشدود: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "هو".

golden camel saddles and chains of gold and silver, and all the reins, halters, and equipments were of coloured silk, constructed in a solid fashion. Then [came] the ceremonial gift of al-Malik al-Mu'ayyad 'Imād al-Dīn, the lord of Ḥamāh;³³⁵ thereafter followed [the gifts of] the amirs.

5 §191 The judge Karīm al-Dīn 'Abd al-Karīm,³³⁶ who was controller of the privy purse, began to prepare what was necessary. He left for Siryāqūs,³³⁷ and he began to organise things, either standing up as the central point of intense [hustle and bustle], or sitting on a chair, while all the officials

Al-Malik al-Mu'ayyad ʿImād al-Dīn Abū l-Fidā' Ismāʿīl b. ʿAlī b. Maḥmūd (672–732/1273–1331) was a scion of the Ayyūbid family, who also obtained fame as a historian and a geographer; as the only remaining Ayyūbid in Syria, he was proclaimed lord of Ḥamāh and beyond upon his father's death; soon loosing his authority to the sultan, Abū l-Fidā' always maintained close and constructive relationships with rulers in Cairo and their representatives in Ḥamāh; as a result, in 710/1310 Ḥamāh was restored to him by al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, and in 720/1320 Abū l-Fidā' was even made sultan of Ḥamāh, an unusual title and position that were inherited by his son after him; this local restoration of the Ayyūbid sultanate came to an end upon the latter's death in 742/1341 (D.J. Talmon-Heller, "Abū l-Fidā', al-Malik al-Mu'ayyad 'Imād al-Dīn", in E1³ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-3/abu-l-fida-al-malik-al-muayyad-imad-al-din-SIM_0286).

Karīm al-Dīn Ibn al-Sadīd (c. 654–724/c. 1256–1324), also known as Karīm al-Dīn al-Kabīr, was a member of the Egyptian Coptic scribal class, who converted to Islam during his career as a scribe, taking the name 'Abd al-Karīm; a scribe in the royal financial administration, Karīm al-Dīn rose to prominence and to remarkable influence during the first decade of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's third reign; he was the first to occupy the position of controller of the privy purse (nāẓir al-ḥāṣṣ) in its new capacity as supreme financial administrator of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's state; in 723/1323, he fell from royal favour and was tried for embezzlement, and he ended up strangled (W.M. Brinner, "Ibn al-Sadīd", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/ibn-al-sadid-SIM_3345; Eychenne [2012]).

Siryāqūs was the name of a village to the North of Cairo, where there appeared between 723/1323 and 725/1325 by order of the Qalāwūnid sultan al-Nāṣir Muḥammad (d. 741/1341) an enormous hospice (hānqāh) for the housing of 100 mystics, a hippodrome for the polo game, and palaces for the sultan and his amirs, surrounded by lush gardens; Siryāqūs allegedly remained a royal resort and a place of elite entertainment until the end of the eighth/fourteenth century, after which the place was left to ruin (Levanoni [1995]: 160).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

في خدمته وهو يرتب الأمور، فعمل عدة قدور من فضة ونحاس تحمل على البخاتي ليطبخ فيها، وأحضر الخولة لعمل مباقل وخضراوات ورياحين ومشمومات في أحواض خشب لتحمل على الجمال وتسقى طول الطريق ويؤخذ منها كل يوم ما يحتاج إليه. ورتب الأفران وقلائي الجبن وصناع الكماج والسميد وغير ذلك مما يحتاج إليه. وأعطى العربان أجر الجمال التي تحمل الشعير والبشماط والدقيق، وجهز مركبين في البحر إلى ينبع ومركبين إلى جدة بعدما اعتبر كلفة العليق بأوراق كتب فيها أسماء اثنين وخمسين أميرا منهم من له في اليوم مائة عليقة ومنهم من له خمسون عليقة وأقلهم من له عشرون عليقة. فكانت جملة الشعير المحمول مائة ألف إردب وثلثين ألف إردب وجهز من الشام خمسمائة جمل تحمل الحلوى والسكردانات والفواكه، وحضرت أيضا حوائج خاناه على مائة وثمانين جملا تحمل الحب رمان واللوز وما يحتاج إليه في المطبخ سوى ما حمل من الحوائج خاناه من القاهرة، وجهز ألف طائر إوز وثلاثة آلاف طائر دجاج.

فلما تهيأ ذلك ركب السلطان مستهل ذي القعدة ومعه المؤيد —صاحب حماة —وقاضي القضاة

٣ وتسقى: "وتسقا" في الأصل. ٤ وأعطى: "واعطا" في الأصل. ٦ أسماء: "اسماً" في الأصل. ١ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. ٧ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. ٨ خمسمائة: "خمسمايه" في الأصل. ١ وحضرت: تصحيح في الأصل. ٩ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. ٩ مائة: "مايه" في الأصل. ١ ألف طائر: تصحيح في الأصل. ١٠ ألف طائر: تصحيح في الأصل. كخط المقريزي ("الف طاير"). | طائر: "طاير" في الأصل.

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were in his service. He arranged for several silver and copper kettles to be carried on Bactrian camels for cooking purposes, and he had servants brought to arrange herbs, vegetables, aromatic plants, and sweet-smelling plants in wooden containers that were to be carried on camels, that were to be watered along the road, and from which there was to be taken daily what was needed. He organised the ovens, the cheese pans, and the hard bread and semolina makers, and similar things that were needed. He gave the Bedouin the rent for the camels that were to carry the barley, the biscuits, and the flour. He arranged for two boats to sail to Yanbu' and two boats to sail to Jeddah, after assessing the expenditure for the fodder [that was transported on the boats] on sheets of paper. The names of 52 amirs were written [on these sheets]: among them there were those who had 100 daily fodder rations, among them there were those who had 50 fodder rations, and the lowest among them were those who had 20 fodder rations. The total amount of the barley that was transported was 130,000 irdabb. 338 From Syria, there were sent 500 camels carrying sweets, sugar pots, and fruits. There were also brought containers for provisions on 180 camels, containing pomegranate seeds, almonds, and what is needed for cooking. On top of [all that], provision containers were also brought from Cairo, and there were sent along 1,000 geese and 3,000 chickens.

§ 192 When all that had been prepared, the sultan rode out on 1 Dū l-Qa'dah [14 December 1319], together with al-Mu'ayyad, the lord of Ḥamāh, and

³³⁸ *Irdabb* is an ancient measure of capacity for grain, used in Egypt in particular; its actual weight varied according to time and place, and is therefore difficult to reconstruct; in general, one *irdabb* is equaled to five bushels or about 200 litres ("irdabb", in *EI*², *Glossary and Index of Terms*. http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia -of-islam-2-Glossary-and-Index-of-Terms/irdabb-SIM_gi_o1803).

بدر الدين محمد بن جماعة الشافعي، بعدما مهدت عقبة أيلة من الصخور ووسع مضيقها بعدما كان سلوكه مشقا، وفتح مغارة شعيب.

فلما قدم مكة أظهر من التواضع والذلة والمسكنة أمرا زائدا، وسجد عند معاينة البيت سجود عَبد ذليل. ثم التفت إلى الأمير بدر الدين جنكلي بن البابا وقال: "لا زلت أعظم نفسي حتى رأيت البيت. فذكرت تقبيل الناس الأرض لي، فدخل قلبي مهابة عظيمة لم تزل حتى سجدت لله تعالى شكرا،" وتقدم إليه قاضي القضاة بدر الدين ابن جماعة وحسن له أن يطوف راكبا. فإن النبي على طاف راكبا. فقال: "يا قاضي، ومن أنا حتى اتشبه بالنبي على والله لا طفت إلا كما يطوف الناس." فطاف من غير أن يكون معه أحد من الحجاب، فصار الناس يزاحمونه ويزاحمهم كواحد منهم حتى قضي طوافه وسعيه.

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٣ زائدا: "زايدا" في الأصل. ٦ قاضي ... الدين: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح (بدون رمز إشارة). || ابن: "بن" في الأصل، والألف مضافة بخط المقريزي قبل كلمة "بن" في مكانها الصحيح فوق السطر. || جماعة: كلمة غير واضحة بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص. ٦٨أ). || على: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "النبي". ٧ على: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، على نفس السطر والتالي + صح، يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "النبي". ٩ طوافه: في الأصل الكلمة مكتوبة مرتين، مرة في آخر ص. ١٣٢٠ ومرة أخرى في بداية ص. ١٣٣٠أ.

Badr al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Ğamāʻah (639–733/1241–1333) was a member of a notable family of Šāfiʻī scholars in late medieval Syria and Egypt; he became chief judge of Egypt three times, and twice of Damascus, thus making the fortune of his family and establishing it among the leading families of scholars of the period, especially during the eighth-/fourteenth-century period of the Qalāwūnid sultanate (K.S. Salibi, "Ibn Djamāʻa", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/ibn-djamaa-SIM_3133; Salibi [1958]).

The town of Aylah, also known as 'Aqabat Aylah, on the Gulf of 'Aqabah, was an ancient commercial port at the crossroads of various overland and maritime routes; it also served since early Islamic times as an important station on the Egyptian overland hağğ route; when over time the town developed further to the southeast, its name shifted along to that of 'Aqabat Aylah, 'the Pass of Aylah' (referring to the mountain pass that served as the town's overland access) and, ultimately, to the

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with the Šāfiʻī chief judge Badr al-Dīn Muḥammad Ibn Ğamāʻah.³³⁹ [They proceeded over the land-route only] after the pass at Aylah³⁴⁰ had been cleared from rocks, [after] its narrowness which used to hinder traffic had been widened, and [after the passage to] Maġārat Šuʻayb³⁴¹ had been opened for traffic.

§193 When he arrived in Mecca, he displayed a great amount of modesty, submissiveness, and humbleness, and when he saw the House [of God] with his own eyes, he prostrated just as a humble servant would do. Then he turned to the amir Badr al-Dīn Čankalī b. al-Bābā³⁴² and he said: "I have always considered myself important, until I saw the House. I remembered people kissing the ground for me, an enormous [feeling of] dignity entering my heart and continuing to do so, until I prostrated for God, the Exalted, out of gratitude." The chief judge Badr al-Dīn Ibn Šamā'ah came to him and presented as good to him that he would circumambulate riding his mount, "because the Prophet-may God bless him and grant him salvation—circumambulated riding his mount". But he said: "O, judge, who am I to imitate the Prophet—may God bless him and grant him salvation. By God, I will only circumambulate just as the people circumambulate." So he circumambulated without any of the guardians being with him, and the people crowded around him and he joined their ranks as one of them, until he completed his circumambulation and his running.

shortened form of al-'Aqabah (M. Lecker, "Ayla", in E13; H.W. Glidden, "al-'Aḥaba", in E12, http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/al-akaba -SIM_0454).

Maġārat Šuʻayb (the 'Cave of Šuʻayb', better known locally as Maġā'ir Šuʻayb, the 'Caves of Šuʻayb') refers to a large necropolis with tombs carved into limestone (mainly Nabataean, just as the much better preserved Petra to the north), near the northwest Arabian town of Madyan Šuʻayb; this town and necropolis were lying in the Wādī l-Abyaḍ, a valley lying inland from the eastern shore of the Gulf of Aqaba which hosted the ancient pilgrimage route from Aqaba to Mecca that ran inland there to avoid the mountainous coast of the Gulf (F. Buhl, C.E. Bosworth, "Madyan Shuʻayb", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam -2/ibn-djamaa-SIM_3133).

Badr al-Dīn Ğankalī b. al-Bābā (675–746/1276–1346) had been a high-ranking officer in Ilḥānid Persia before fleeing to Egypt in 704/1304; he was welcomed with great respect and allowed to become a highly revered senior amir in Cairo, which he remained throughout the rest of his career (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 5:22–25; Amitai [1990]: 163, no. 22; Van Steenbergen [2005]: 198).

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وكان قد حج جماعة من المغل، فأحضرهم وأنعم عليهم إنعاما زائدا. وأمر أن تكسى الكعبة بالحرير الأطلس، وأخرج الثياب للصناع فعملوها. وفرق في أهل مكة مالا عظيما، وأفاض التشاريف على أمراء مكة وأرباب وظائفها وأمير ينبع وأمير خليص. وأنعم عليه بخمسة آلاف درهم برسم عمارة عين خليص، وكان لها مدة سنين قد انقطعت، وجعل ذلك مقررا له في كل سنة برسم عمارة.

واجتمع عند السلطان من العربان [من] لم يجتمع لملك قبله وهم: سائر بني مهدي وأمرائها، وشطي وأخوه عساف وأولاده، وأمراء مكة وأشرافها، وأمراء المدينة، {وصاحبا} ينبع وخليص، {وبنو} لام، وعَرب حَوْران وكبارها، وأولاد مهنا. وصاروا يدِلون عليه إدلالا زائدا بحيث قام في بعض الأيام ابن لموسى بن مهنا وقال للسلطان: "يأبا على، بحيات هذى"—ومد يده إلى لحية

١ زائدا: "زايدا" في الأصل. $\|$ تكسى: "تكسا" في الأصل. $\|$ بالحرير: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صحب يشير إليها الرمز 7 بعد كلمة "الكعبة". 8 أمراء: "امراً" في الأصل. $\|$ وظائفها: "وظايفها" في الأصل. $\|$ درهم: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صحب يشير إليها الرمز 7 بعد كلمة "آلاف". 7 من ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة من السياق. $\|$ سائر: "ساير" في الأصل. $\|$ وأمرائها: "وامرايها" في الأصل 8 وأمراءا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("وامرا"). $\|$ وأمراء تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("وامرا"). $\|$ وصاحبا: "صاحبي" في الأصل وهو خطأ، والتصحيح من السياق. $\|$ وبنو: "وبني" في الأصل وهو خطأ، والتصحيح من السياق. $\|$ وصاروا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. $\|$ مهنا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. $\|$ مهنا: تصحيح ومن الظاهر أن الناسخ كتب "يَدِلوا" وكشط المقريزي الألف فأضاف نونا ولكن لم يصحح الفتحة في بداية ومن الظاهر أن الناسخ كتب "يَدِلوا" وكشط المقريزي الأصل بخط المقريزي.

The Banū Mahdī was a tribal grouping that mainly dominated the Balqā' region, the eastern plateau of the Jordan valley; its leaders were integrated into the sultanate via the installation of the amirate of the Banū Mahdī, usually divided among four tribal leaders and an important vehicle for the negotiation of relationships between tribe and sultanate (al-Qalqašandī, Şubḥ al-a'šá, 4:212–213, 12:135–140).

§ 194 A group of Mongols turned out to have made the pilgrimage, so he had them brought to him and he gave them a lot gifts. He commanded that the Ka'bah be covered with satin silk and he had the textiles brought to the artisans, who prepared them. He distributed among the people of Mecca a lot of money and he overwhelmed the amirs and officials of Mecca, the amir of Yanbu', and the amir of Ḥulayṣ with ceremonial gifts and robes. He granted to the latter 5,000 *dirhams* for the benefit of constructing the well of Ḥulayṣ, which for many years had been cut off. He made that into a regular annual stipulation for him, for the purpose of its upkeep.

10 § 195 There gathered with the sultan from the Bedouin who had not gathered for any ruler before him: all the Banū Mahdī and its amirs;³⁴³ Šaṭī, his brother 'Assāf, and his sons,³⁴⁴ the amirs and notables of Mecca, the amirs of Medina, the lords of Yanbu' and of Ḥulayṣ, the Banū Lām,³⁴⁵ the Bedouin of Ḥawrān³⁴⁶ with their chiefs, and the sons of Muhannā. They got on increasingly amiable terms with him, to the extent that one day a son of Mūsá b. Muhannā³⁴⁷ rose and said to the sultan: "O, Abū 'Alī, by the life of this

³⁴⁴ Šāṭī, his brother 'Assāf, and his sons: I have so far not been able to retrieve further information on these Bedouin leaders from the Hijaz.

The Banū Lām is the name of a sizeable and varied Arab tribal grouping that long time dominated the area East of the lower Tigris region in Iraq and Iran; its exact origins and its whereabouts in the later medieval period remain obscure, however (V. Minorsky, R.M. Burell, "Lām", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia -of-islam-2/lam-SIM_4629).

Hawrān refers to the region between the Damascus plain and the Yarmūk river, which separates Syria from Transjordan; in the fourteenth century, nomad groups belonging to the Banū Rabī'ah and led by the Āl Muhannā gradually settled in this region, which they came to share with the Āl Murrah (D. Sourdel, "Hawrān", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hawran-SIM_2817).

Mūsá b. Muhannā (d. 742/1341) was a son of the Syrian Āl Faḍl tribal leader Muhannā b. ʿĪsá b. Muhanná (d. 735/1334), the *amīr al-ʿArab* who experienced very mixed relations with al-Nāṣir Muḥammad and who on various occasions therefore moved from Syria to Īlḫānid Iraq; Mūsá performed the position of *amīr al-ʿArab* between c. 735/1334 and his sudden death at Tadmur (Palmyra) in 742/1341 (M.A. Bakhīt, "Muhannā", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/muhanna-SIM_5423; Hiyari [1975]: 519–520; al-Ṣa-fadī, *A'yān al-ʿaṣr*, 5:490).

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السلطان ومسكها—"إلا أعطيتني الضيعة الفلانية." فصرخ فيه الفخر—ناظر الجيش—فقال: "يا "إرفع يدك قطع الله يدك! والك، يا ولد زناء، تمد يدك إلى السلطان!" فتبسم السلطان وقال: "يا قاضي، هذه عادة العرب. إذا قصدوا كبيرا في شيء يكون عظمته عندهم مسك ذقنه—يعني أنه قد استجار به—فهو عندهم سنة." فقام الفخر مغضبا وهو يقول: "والله، إن هاؤلاء مناحيس وسنتهم أنحس منهم، لا بارك الله فيهم!"

وصلى السلطان الجمعة بمكة، فدعي له وللشريف فقط ولم يدع لصاحب اليمن تأدبا مع السلطان. وقضى نسكه، وسار إلى المدينة النبوية وصلى بها الجمعة أيضا، وأقام يومين حتى قدم الركب، وبعث المبشرين إلى مصر والشام، وسار إلى ينبع، فلم يجد المراكب وصلت. فحصلت مشقة زائدة من قلة العليق، ومشى أكثر المماليك لوقوف الجمال حتى أتت الإقامات من مصر والشام.

ا ونزل السلطان بركة الحاج في ثاني عشر المحرم سنة عشرين وسبعمائة، فعمل له سماط عظيم جدا، وركب في موكب جليل إلى القلعة. فكان يوما مشهودا. وجلس يوم الخميس نصف المحرم بدار العدل وخلع على سائر الأمراء وأرباب الوظائف وأمراء العربان.

وحج ثالثا في سنة {اثنتين} وثلثين وسبعمائة، ورسم بسفر الخواتين وبعض السراري، وكتب لنائب الشام بتجهيز ما يحتاج إليه. فوصلت التقادم على العادة من النواب وأمراء الشام وأمراء العربان، وطلب سائر صناع مصر لعمل الاحتياجات.

٢ زناء: "زنا" في الأصل. ٣ شيء: "شي" في الأصل. ٤ مغضبا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. | هاؤلاء: "هاولا" في الأصل. ٨ زائدة: "زايده" في الأصل. ٩ ومشى: "ومشا" في الأصل. ١٠ عشرين وسبعمائة: "عشرين وسبعمايه" في الأصل. ١١ المحرم: أداة التعريف من إضافة المقريزي. ١٢ سائر الأمراء: "ساير الامرآ" في الأصل. || الوظائف وأمراء: "الوظايف وامرآ" في الأصل. || لنائب: "لنايب" في الأصل. || بنائب: "لنايب" في الأصل. || وأمراء : "وسبعمائة: "وسبعمائة: "وسبعمائة منا من أ (ص. ٢٩٠)
 في الأصل. ١٤ وأمراء : كلمة غير واضحة بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص. ٢٩٠)
 ("وامرآ"). || وأمراء : "وامرآ" في الأصل. ١٥ سائر: "ساير" في الأصل.

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one"—and he stretched out his hand to the beard of the sultan and grasped it—"[I will consider you in default] if you do not give me estate such-and-such." Al-Faḥr, the controller of the military bureau, called out to him, saying: "Remove your hand—may God cut off your hand—, woe onto you, o son of adultery, for stretching out your hand to the sultan." But the sultan smiled and said: "O judge, this is the custom of the Bedouin: when they go to see someone important on an issue, his high status with them is [indicated] by grasping his beard, meaning that his patronage is being sought; it is a tradition with them." Al-Faḥr stood up angrily, while he was saying: "By God, these are ill-fated ones and their tradition is even more ill-fated than they are; may God not give his blessing to them."

§ 196 The sultan prayed the Friday prayer at Mecca. It was delivered in his name and in the name of the Sharif only, and not in the name of the lord of Yemen, out of courtesy for the sultan. He fulfilled his pilgrimage rituals, and then he proceeded to the Prophet's Medina. He prayed the Friday prayer there as well, and remained for two days, until the caravan arrived. He sent the messengers to spread the good news [of his successful pilgrimage] in Egypt and Syria, and he proceeded to Yanbu'. [There] he did not find any ships arriving, so that great calamity occurred due to the shortage of fodder. Most of the *mamlūks* had to walk [back] on foot, due to the camels' having to wait [near Yanbu'] until the supplies would come from Egypt and Syria.

§ 197 The sultan settled down at Birkat al-Ḥāǧǧ on 12 Muḥarram of the year 720 [25 February 1320]. A huge banquet was organised for him, and he rode in a splendid procession to the citadel. It was a memorable day. On Thursday 15 Muḥarram [28 February] he held session in the Palace of Justice, and he gave a robe of honour to all the amirs, to the officials, and to the amirs of the Bedouin.

§ 198 He went on pilgrimage a third time in the year 732 [1332]. He ordered the royal ladies and some concubines to travel along. He wrote to the governor of Syria to prepare what he needed. As usual, the ceremonial gifts from the governors, from the amirs of Syria, and from the amirs of the Bedouin arrived. He required from all the artisans of Egypt to make everything necessary.

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وخرج | المحمل على العادة وأمر الركب الأمير عز الدين أيدمر الخطيري، فرحل في عشرين فرول شوال. وركب السلطان في سبعين أميرا من قلعة الجبل يوم الخامس والعشرين منه، وسفر الحريم مع الأمير سيف الدين طقزتمر. فلما قارب عقبة أيلة بلغه أن الأمير بكتمر الساقي على نية المخامرة، فهم بالرجوع وبعث ابنه آنوك وأمه الى الكرك. ثم قوي عزمه على المسير، فسار وهو محترز، ورسم أن كلا من الأمراء يحضر على باب الدهليز بثلثين مملوكا، فصار الجميع ينامون وعددهم تحت (رؤوسهم)، والأحمدي مستمر عليه زرديه وسيفه متقلد به وترسه على كتفه، وترك السلطان النوم في مبيته.

⁷ أميرا: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ آنوك: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٥ الأمراء: "الامرا" في الأصل. || وعددهم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || تحت: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح؛ يشير إليها الرمز تبعد كلمة "عددهم". 7 رؤوسهم: "روسهم" في الأصل. ٧ في: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

§ 199 The *maḥmal*³⁴⁸ left as usual, and the commander of the caravan was the amir Tzz al-Dīn Aydamur al-Ḥaṭīrī. He set out on 20 Šawwāl [15 July], and the sultan rode from the citadel of the mountain, amidst 70 amirs, on 25 [Šawwāl] [20 July]. The women travelled with the amir Sayf al-Dīn Ṭuquztamur. When [al-Nāṣir Muḥammad] approached ʿAqabat Aylah, he was informed that the amir Baktamur al-Sāqī intended to revolt. He wanted to return, and he sent his son Ānūk and his mother to Karak. Then his determination to go along was strengthened, so he proceeded while he was on his guard. He ordered that each of the amirs should be present at the entrance of the royal tent, with 30 *mamlūk*s. All took the habit of going to sleep with their gears under their heads; [the amir Baybars] al-Aḥmadī continued to have his chain mail on, his sword girded, and his shield [hanging] from his shoulders; the sultan forsook to sleep in his sleeping quarters.

³⁴⁸ The *maḥmal* or empty palanquin in the pilgrimage caravan was a central component of rulers' pilgrimage paraphernalia from the mid-thirteenth to the early twentieth centuries (see fn. 29).

Sayf al-Dīn Ṭuquztamur al-Ḥamawī (d. 746/1345) was a former *mamlūk* of Abū l-Fidā', the sultan of Ḥamāh (see fn. 319), who had offered him as a gift to al-Nāṣir Muḥammad; Ṭuquztamur rose to prominence in the latter's service, eventually becoming one of the leading figures at court; after al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's death, he remained an important and highly respected senior amir, and he secured various leading positions in Egypt and Syria (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 6:420–422; Van Steenbergen [2005]: 198).

For the town of 'Aqabat Aylah, also known as Aylah, on the Gulf of 'Aqabah, see fn. 340.

For the town of 'Aqabat Aylah, also known as Aylah, on the Gulf of 'Aqabah, see fn. 340.

Baktamur al-Sāqī (d. 733/1333) was a former *mamlūk* of Baybars al-Ğāšnikīr and then of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad; as a privileged member of the latter's private retinue, he soon earned the sultan's close friendship and great esteem, becoming a high-ranking amir as well as the recipient of all kinds of exceptional royal privileges that made him be remembered as one of the closest and most prestigious intimates of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad; eventually, however, for a combination of political and personal reasons, the sultan had Baktamur and his twenty-year old son Aḥmad—also a high-ranking amir—poisoned (Behrens-Abouseif [2000]: 55–60).

فلما وصل إلى ينبع تلقاه الشريف أسد الدين رميئة —أمير مكة —بينبع ومعه القواد والأشراف، فأكرمه ورحب به، وتوجه حتى نزل خُليْص. ففر عند الرحيل ثلاثون مملوكا، فاهتم السلطان لذلك وسار حتى قدم مكة، وجرى على عادته في التواضع لله تعالى وكثر الصدقات على أهل مكة والإنعام على الأمراء والأجناد، وقضى نسكه. وبعث الأمير أيتمش المحمدي ومعه مائة {حجار} إلى العقبة، فوسعها ونظفها. ودخل السلطان المدينة النبوية، فهبت بها رياح عاصفة قلعت الخيم وأظلم الجو وصار كل أحد يهجم على غير خيمته ولا يعرف موضعه. فا نزيج السلطان ا نزعاجا زائدا، وخاف من أن يفتك به أحد أو يغتاله، ووقع الصياح في الوطاقات، فكان أمرا موهولا طول الليل، حتى طلع الفجر. فانجل ذلك، وحضر أمراء العربان بالمماليك الهاربين عن آخرهم، ورحل من المدينة.

فتوعك أحمد بن الأمير بكتمر الساقي، ومات بعد أيام، ولم يقم بعده بكتمر سوى ثلثة أيام، ومات أيضا بالقرب من عيون القصب. فتحدث الناس أن السلطان سقاهما. فدفنا بعيون القصب، ثم نقلا الى تربة كتم بالقرافة.

٧-٣ حتى ... وسار: ناقصة في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، على نفس السطر وعلى السطور الأربعة التالية + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "توجه". ٣ وكثر: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. || مائة: "ماية" في الأصل. || حجار: في الأصل "حجارا" وهو خطأ، والتصحيح من السياق. ٦ زائدا: "زايدا" في الأصل. ٧ الصياح: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٨ أمراء: "امرآ" في الأصل. ٩ الساقي: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "بكتمر". || أيام: "امام" في الأصل.

Rumaytah b. Abī Numayy (d. 746/1346) was a member of the Banū Ḥasan, and a son of the great Sharif Muḥammad Abū Numayy (see fn. 201); throughout the first and second decades of the eighth/fourteenth century Rumaytah and his brothers continuously competed for the amirate over Mecca, trying to play out against each other the Īlḥān and the sultan in their various bids for power; eventually, al-Nāṣir Muḥammad managed to impose his authority, establishing Rumaytah and a brother of his as joint amirs, but the relationship between Rumaytah and al-Nāṣir Muḥammad remained vexed (Mortel [1987]: 462–466; Meloy [2010a]: 47–48, 245).

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§ 200 When he arrived at Yanbu', the Sharif Asad al-Dīn Rumaytah, 352 the amir of Mecca, came to meet him at Yanbu', with the commanders and notables, and he honoured him and welcomed him. He moved on until he settled down at Hulays. En route, 30 mamlūks fled, and the sultan was worried because of that and he proceeded until he arrived at Mecca. He acted as usual in humbling himself before God the Exalted, in the multitude of alms for the people of Mecca, and in giving gifts to the amirs and the soldiers. He fulfilled his pilgrimage rituals. He sent the amir Ayitmiš al-Muhammadī³⁵³ with 100 stonemasons to 'Agabah to make it[s passage] wider and to clean it up. The sultan entered the Prophet's Medina. Stormy winds raged there, tearing down the tents and darkening the sky. Every one started to enter without permission into another tent than his own, not knowing his location. The sultan got extremely upset, and feared that someone would slay or murder him. There was clamour in the pavilions, and it was a frightening situation all night long, until dawn rose and that cleared up. The amirs of the Bedouin came [bringing] every single one of the *mamlūk*s who had fled. [Thereuon, al-Nāṣir Muḥammad] departed from Medina.

§ 201 Aḥmad, the son of the amir Baktamur al-Sāqī, was unwell and died after a couple of days. After him, Baktamur only remained for three days, and he also died, close to 'Uyūn al-Qaṣab.' The people were saying that the sultan had poisoned both of them. They were both burried at 'Uyūn al-Qaṣab; later they were transferred to the mausoleum of Baktamur at the Oarāfah.'

Ayitmiš al-Muḥammadī l-Nāṣirī (d. 755/1354) was a former *mamlūk* of al-Nāṣir Muḥammad, who became an amir during al-Nāṣir Muḥammad's third reign, and who obtained various leading positions in Egypt and Syria after the latter's death (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 3:137–138; al-Ṣafadī, *A'yān al-'aṣr*, 1:648–649).

^{&#}x27;Uyūn al-Qaṣab is the name of an oasis settlement near the North-Arabian Red-Sea coast, where the Egyptian haǧǧ route coming from 'Aqabat Aylah turns southwest and starts following the coastal line.

This so-called mausoleum actually was a richly endowed and lavishly furnished Sufi hospice with attached mausoleum, built in 726/1326 at the foot of the Muqattam hill, a desert area southeast of Cairo also known (until today) as the small cemetery (al-Qarāfāh al-Ṣughrá) (Behrens-Abouseif [2000]: 56–57).

وسار السلطان وقد اطمأن بعدما كان خائفا فزعا، فقدم بركة الحاج يوم السبت ثاني عشر المحرم سنة ثلث وثلثين وسبعمائة، وصعد القلعة في موكب عظيم لم ير مثله، ومشى على شقاق الحرير بفرسه وهو ضارب اللثام، وفرح الناس به فرحا زائدا، ودقت البشائر وطبلخاناة الأمراء ثلثة أيام، وعملت الأفراح، وجلس في يوم الاثنين وخلع على سائر الأمراء والمقدمين وأنعم إنعاما عظيما.

١ خائفا : "خايفا" في الأصل. ٢ وسبعمائة : "وسعمايه" في الأصل. ٣ زائدا : "زايدا" في الأصل. | البشائر : "البشاير" في الأصل. | الأمراء : "الامرآ" في الأصل. ٤ الأفراح : كلمة غير واضحة بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص. ٧١أ). | سائر الأمراء : "ساير الامرا" في الأصل.

§ 202 The sultan proceeded, having become at ease after having been terribly afraid. He arrived at Birkat al-Ḥājj on Saturday, 12 Muḥarram of the year 733 [3 October 1332]. He ascended the citadel in a magnificent procession, the likes of which have not been seen. He walked over strips of silk with his horse, while he was [showing his face to the people by] striking off the veil [that was covering the lower part of his face]. The people were extremely happy with [his safe return]. For three days, the royal drums and the orchestras of the amirs played, and feasts were organised. On Monday, he held a public session, awarding robes of honour to all the amirs and commanders, and giving lavish gifts.

{مَنسًا} مُوسَى ملك التكرور

ثم حج مَنْسَا موسى لما قدم إلى مصر سنة أربع وعشرين وسبعمائة بهدايا جليلة وذهب كثير. فأرسل السلطان الملك الناصر محمد بن قلاوون المهمندار لتلقيه، وركب به إلى القلعة في يوم الخدمة. فامتنع أن يقبل الأرض، وقال للترجمان: "أنا رجل مالكي المذهب ولا أسجد لغير الله." فأعفاه السلطان

١ مَنسًا: "مَسَّا" في الأصل، والتصحيح من كتابة الاسم في الصفحة التالية (١٣٤أ، سطر ٢) ومن أ (ص. ا/١).
 ١٧أ). ٢ سَرْبندانه: كلمة غير واضحة بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة، متممة هنا من أ (ص. ١٧١أ). ٣ الظاهر: في الأصل الكلمة مكتوبة مرتين، مرة في آخر ص. ١٣٣٠ب ومرة أخرى في بداية ص. ١٣٤أ. ٤ وعشرين وسبعمائة: "وعشرين وسعمايه" في الأصل.

11. Mansā Mūsá, 356 the ruler of Takrūr 357

§ 203 The first to undertake the pilgrimage from the rulers of Takrūr was Sarbandānah—it was said: Barmandānah. Then Mansā Walī b. Mārī b. Ğāẓah performed the pilgrimage, in the days of al-Malik al-Ṭāhir Baybars. Then Sākūrah performed the pilgrimage. He had subdued their ruler and he had conquered the lands of Kawkaw.³⁵⁸

§ 204 Then Mansā Mūsá performed the pilgrimage, arriving in Egypt in the year 724 [1324], with impressive gifts and lots of gold. The sultan al-Malik al-Nāṣir Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn sent the *mihmandār*³⁵⁹ to meet him, and he rode with him to the citadel on the day of the public audience. [When he entered the sultan's public audience, Mansā Mūsá] refused to kiss the ground, saying to the interpreter: "I am a man of Mālikī creed and I prostrate

Mansā Mūsá (r. 712–738/1312–1337 [alternative reign dates that are also encountered are 707–732/1307–1331]), also known as Kankan Mūsá, was a Muslim ruler (*mansa*) of the kingdom of Mali, reigning at the height of this polity's prosperity; his 724/1324 pilgrimage, which took him and the enormous entourage that accompanied him via Timbuktu to Cairo, made him into one of the most famous of all royal West African pilgrims, firmly establishing the fame of Mali as an immensily wealthy Muslim polity (D.C. Conrad, "Mansa Mūsā", in *E1*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/hasan-SIM_2752; Lewis, *Islam* ["7. The Pilgrimage of Kankan Mūsā (1324–1325)"]; Schultz [2006]: 430–431).

Takrūr is the Arabised form of an African ethnonym that by the later medieval period tended to be used as a name for Muslim West Africa, either in part or in whole, and for its inhabitants (J.O. Hunwick, "Takrūr", in EI² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/takrur-SIM_7348).

Sarbandānah, Mansā Walī (= Mansā Ulī) (r. 1255–1270), and Sākūrah (r. 1285–1300) are the names of the first set of rulers who, in the course of the thirteenth century, created through expansion and trade (including in the region of Kawkaw, the commercial settlement of Gao on the left bank of the Niger), and through conversion to Islam, the kingdom of Mali in West Africa; as a token of their power and of their piety, they each participated in the tradition of royal pilgrimage from West Africa to Mecca, thus creating important connections with the central lands of the Muslim world (N. Levtzion, "Mali", in \$E1^2\$ http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/mali-SIM_4860; Möhring [1999]: 324–326).

The *mihmandār* is the name of a court position commissioned to receive and to provide hospitality for guests, including foreigners and envoys (C.E. Bosworth, "Mihmān", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/mihman-SIM_8826).

من ذلك وقربه إليه وأكرمه وسأله عن سبب مجيئه، فقال: "أردت الحج." فرسم للوزير أن يجهزه بكل ما يحتاج إليه.

ويقال إنه قدم معه أربع عشرة ألف جارية برسم خدمته خاصة. فأقبل أصحابه على شراء الجواري من الترك والحبوش والمغنيات والثياب، فانحط سعر الدينار الذهب ستة دراهم.

ه وقدم هديته، وخرج مع الركب بعدما أوصى به السلطان الأمير سيف الدين أيتمش—أمير الركب—، فسار ركبا وحده ساقة الحاج حتى قضى حجه.

وتأخر بمكة بعد الموسم أياما وعاد. فهلك كثير من أصحابه وجماله بالبرد حتى لم يصل معه إلا نحو الثلث منهم. فاحتاج إلى قرض مال كثير من التجار.

واشترى عدة كتب من فقه المالكية، وأنعم السلطان عليه بخيول وجمال.

١٠ وسافر إلى بلاده بعدما تصدق في الحرمين بمال كثير.

وكان إذا حدثه أصحابه في أمر، كشفوا {رؤوسهم} عند مخاطبته عادة لهم.

١ من: كتب الناسخ "عن" وكشط المقريزي العين وكتب في مكانها ميما. إلى مجيئه: "محيه" في الأصل.
 ٣ عشرة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إلى شراء: "شرا" في الأصل. ٤ الدينار: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي ("الدينار"). إلى الذهب ستة: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز "بعد كلمة "الدينار". ٧ بمكة: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. إلى اناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، على نفس السطر + صح، يشير إليها الرمز " بعد كلمة "روسهم" في الأصل.
 إليها الرمز " بعد كلمة "حق.". ٩ فقه: تصحيح في الأصل.

to none but God." The sultan forgave him for that. He made him come nearer to him, he honoured him, and he asked him about the cause for his coming. He said: "I want to perform the pilgrimage." [The sultan] ordered the vizier to send him everything that he needed.

- 5 § 205 It is said that there came with him 14,000 slave girls for the benefit of his service alone. His companions began to purchase Turkish and Abyssinian slave girls, female singers, and textiles. The price of the gold dinar was lowered by six *dirhams*.
- § 206 [When] he had presented his gift [to the sultan], he left with the [reg10 ular pilgrimage] caravan after the sultan had entrusted him to the care of
 the amir Sayf al-Dīn Ayitmiš, the commander of the caravan. He proceeded
 along the pilgrim's itinerary, riding alone, until he had completed his pilgrimage.
- § 207 After the [pilgrimage] season, he remained behind in Mecca for a couple of days, and then he returned [to Egypt]. But [on the road back] many of his companions and of his camels perished from the cold, so that only a third of them arrived [in Cairo] with him. [As a result of his misfortune] he needed to borrow a lot of money from the merchants [for his home journey].
- § 208 [In Cairo] he bought a number of books of Mālikī jurisprudence. The sultan gave him horses and camels.

§ 209 He travelled back to his homeland after he had left a lot of money for almsgiving in the two august places [Mecca and Medina].

§ 210 It was customary for them [that] when his companions would talk to him about anything, they would uncover their heads while addressing him.

الملك المجاهد على

ابن الملك المؤيد داود بن الملك المظفر يوسف بن الملك المنصور عمر بن علي بن رسول، صاحب اليمن.

حج في سنة اثنتين وأربعين وسبعمائة، وأطلع علمه جبل عرفة وقد وقف بنو حسن في خدمته حتى قضي حجه. وعزم على كسوة الكعبة، فلم يمكنه أمير مكة من ذلك، فسار وهو حنق.

ثم حج ثانيا في سنة اثنتين وخمسين وسبعمائة، وقد قدم عليه الشريف ثقبة بن رميثة، وأغراه بأخيه عجلان، وأطمعه في مكة وكسوة الكعبة. فسار في عسكر كبير. فبلغ ذلك الشريف عجلان. وكان الأمير طاز قد حج في جماعة من الأمراء. فبلغهم قدوم صاحب اليمن في جحفل عظيم وأنه يريد

٤ اثنتين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ وسبعمائة: تصحيح في الأصل ("وسبع مايه"). ∥ قد: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد حرف "و". ٦ اثنتين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ وخمسين وسبعمائة: "وخمسن وسبعمايه" في الأصل. ٨ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ∥ في جحفل: غير واضحة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص. ٧٧ب).

³⁶⁰ Al-Malik al-Muǧāhid 'Alī (r. 721–764/1322–1363) was the fifth of the Rasūlid rulers of Yemen (Smith, "Rasūlids", in E12).

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12. Al-Malik al-Muǧāhid 'Alī³⁶⁰

[He was] the son of al-Malik al-Mu'ayyad Dāwūd b. al-Malik al-Muẓaffar Yūsuf b. al-Malik al-Manṣūr 'Umar b. 'Alī b. Rasūl;'³⁶¹ [he was] lord of Yemen.

§ 211 He performed the pilgrimage in the year 742 [1342]. He raised his banner on the mountain of 'Arafah, and the Banū Ḥasan³⁶² remained in his service until he completed his pilgrimage. [But when] he wished to cover the Ka'bah with a *kiswah*, the amir of Mecca did not enable him to do that, so he left in anger.

§ 212 Thereafter he performed the pilgrimage a second time in the year 752 [1352]. The Sharif Taqabah b. Rumaytah had come to him [in Yemen] and had set him up against his brother 'Ağlān [b. Rumaytah], 364 making him covetous for Mecca and for covering the Ka'bah with a *kiswah*. [Al-Malik al-Muğāhid] left [for Mecca] with a great army, but that reached the ears of the Sharif 'Ağlān [just when] the [Egyptian] amir Ṭāz³⁶⁵ had been performing the pilgrimage amidst a group of [Egyptian] amirs. He informed them of the coming of the lord of Yemen with an enormous host, and that he wanted to

³⁶¹ Al-Malik al-Mu'ayyad Dāwūd (r. 696-721/1296-1322) was the fourth Rasūlid ruler of Yemen, son and successor of the long-reigning al-Muzaffar Yūsuf (Smith, "Rasūlids", in EI^2).

³⁶² Banū Ḥasan refers to the ruling elite of Mecca, the sharifian family that claimed to be descended from the Prophet's grandson al-Ḥasan b. 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib and that was therefore collectively known by this name (Meloy [2010a]: 47; Mortel [1987]: 455). See also fn. 201, 352.

³⁶³ Although the Arabic text has clearly been corrected by al-Maqrīzī to refer to the year 752, the story's continuation, as well al-Maqrīzī's own discussion of the same event in his chronicle *Kitāb al-Sulūk*, make amply clear that this second pilgrimage actually happened towards the end of 751 [early 1351] (see al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 2:831–832).

^{&#}x27;Ağlān b. Rumaytah (r. 747–776/1346–1375) was a member of the Banū Ḥasan (see fn. 362), a son of the Sharif Rumaytah (see fn. 352), and a grandson of the great Sharif Muḥammad Abū Numayy (see fn. 201); his rule as Sharif over Mecca was highly contested, including by his brother Taqabah (d. 762/1362) (A.J. Wensinck, C.E. Bosworth, "Makka. 2. From the 'Abbāsid to the Modern Period"; Meloy [2010a]: 245, 246).

⁷āz al-Nāṣirī (d. 763/1362) was a high-ranking military commander ($am\bar{u}r$) in Cairo; in the early 7508/13508, he was one of the most powerful political leaders at the court of Cairo (Wansbrough, "Ḥasan", in EI^2 ; Van Steenbergen [2006]: 187).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

يدخل مكة بلامة الحرب وحوله سلاح داريته وطبرداريته ليقيم فتنة. فبعثوا إليه أنه "من يريد الحج إنما يدخل مكة بذلة ومسكنة، وأنت تريد تبتدع بدعة فاحشة، ونحن لا نمكنك من الدخول على هذه الصفة. فإن اردت السلامة، فابعث إلينا الشريف ثقبة يكون عندنا حتى | تقضي الحج." فلم يجد بدا من الإذعان، وبعث ثقبة. فأكرمه الأمراء وبعث الأمير طاز إلى صاحب اليمن بالأمير فلم يجد بدا من الإذعان، وبعث ثقبة. فأكرمه الأمراء وبعث يقضي حجه. فساروا إليه وأبطلوا السلاح دارية وحمل الغاشية وسائر ما كان قد اهتم به، ومشوا في خدمته حتى دخل الحرم، وسلم على الأمراء واعتذر إليهم وأضمر أنه يصبر حتى يرحل الأمير طاز ويثور—هو وثقبة—على من بقي مع أمير الركب و يأخذا عجلان و يملكا مكة.

فلما كان يوم منى ركب الأمير بزلار—أمير الركب—من مكة، فرأى خادم صاحب اليمن، المستدعاه إليه. فامتنع من الحضور، وضرب مملوك بزلار بعض جنده بحربة. فوقع الصوت في الركب، وركب بزلار إلى طاز وثار أهل اليمن بالسلاح. فركب أمراء مصر وقت الظهر واقتتلوا مع اليمنيين وهزموا بزلار هزيمة قبيحة، وأقبل عجلان—أمير مكة—بجيش كبير. فأمره طاز أن

¹ مكة: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صحب يشير إليها الرمز ٢ بعد كلمة "يدخل". || وحوله: كلمة غير واضحة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص.٧٧ب). ٢ بذلة: كلمة غير واضحة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص.٧٧ب). ٤ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. || إلى: "الى" في الأصل. ٥ إليه: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٢ وسائر: "وساير" في الأصل. || ومشوا: الألف من إضافة المقريزي. ٧ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. || هو: تصحيح في الأصل. || بقي: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٨ ويأخذا: "ياخذ" في الأصل، والألف مضافة بخط المقريزي إلى آخر الفعل فوق السطر. ١٠ فامتنع: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الأصل في الأسل، والألف مضافة بخط المقريزي إلى آخر الفعل فوق السطر. ١٠ فامتنع: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي الأصل من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ٦ بعد كلمة "اقتتلوا".

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enter Mecca in a wartime cuirass and surrounded by his corps of weaponsbearers and axe-bearers, so as to arouse chaos. So they sent [a message] to him, [stating] that: "whoever wants to perform the pilgrimage can only enter Mecca in submissiveness and humbleness. You, you want to contrive a despicable innovation, but we will not make it possible for you to enter in this fashion. If you want safety, then send to us the Sharif Tagabah to stay with us until you have finished the pilgrimage." [Al-Malik al-Muǧāhid] saw no other option than to yield, so he sent Tagabah. The amirs treated him honourably, and the amir Taz sent the amir Tuqtay³⁶⁶ with a group of mamluks to the lord of Yemen, to be in his service until he completed his pilgrimage. They went to him and they abolished the corps of armsbearers, the carrying of the saddle blanket,³⁶⁷ and everything that he had been attaching importance to. They walked in his service until he entered the *haram*. He greeted the amirs and apologised to them. He kept a secret that he was really only waiting his time until the amir Taz would leave and he and Tagabah could rise up against whoever remained with the commander of the [Egyptian] caravan and [until] they both could take 'Ağlān and take possession of Mecca.

§ 213 When it was the day of Miná, the amir Buzlār,³⁶⁸ the commander of the caravan, rode from Mecca. He saw the servant of the lord of Yemen, and he called him to him. But he refused to appear and the *mamlūk* of Buzlār hit one from [al-Muǧāhid's] army with a spear, and there occurred noise in [Buzlār's] following. Buzlār rode to Ṭāz [to complain], and the people of Yemen revolted in arms. The amirs of Egypt rode out at the time of the midday prayer, and they clashed with the Yemenites. Buzlār was defeated in a disgraceful way, but then 'Aǧlān, the amir of Mecca, arrived with a large

³⁶⁶ Țuqțāy al-Nāṣirī (719–760/1319–1358) was a *mamlūk* amir in the entourage of the amir Ṭāz; he was married to one of the latter's daughters (Van Steenbergen [2006]: 59, 83).

³⁶⁷ The *ġāšiyah* or covering for the saddle was one of the insignia of royal status in the medieval Nile-to-Oxus region; it used to be carried before the ruler during public processions ("<u>Ghāshiya</u>", in *EI*² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia-of-islam-2/ghashiya-DUM_1422).

Buzlār al-Nāṣirī (d. 756/1355) was a high-ranking *mamlūk* amir who led the Egyptian pilgrimage caravan in this particular pilgrimage season (al-Ṣafadī, *A'yān al-'aṣr*, 1:689).

يحفظ الحاج، واستمرت الحرب إلى العصر فانكسر جيش اليمن وقتل منهم جماعة وقطع دهليز المجاهد وقبض عليه ونهبت أثقاله.

وقضى الناس حجهم وسار الأمير طاز بالمجاهد معه ورتب في خدمته جماعة من مماليكه، وبالغ في إكرامه ووصى الأمير عجلان بأمه وحرمه، وكتب إلى السلطان يعرفه بما وقع، وتوجه إلى مصر. فقدم به في العشرين من المحرم سنة اثنتين وخمسين وسبعمائة، وصعد به إلى القلعة مقيدا في يوم الخدمة. فأوقف تجاه النائب، والأمراء قعود، حتى خرج أمير جاندار ودخل الأمراء إلى الخدمة بالإيوان وهو معهم. فقبل الأرض بين يدي السلطان الملك الناصر حسن بن محمد بن قلاوون. ثم فك قيده وأنزل بالأشرفية من القلعة، وأطلق له راتب وأقيم له من يخدمه.

ثم رسم بسفره إلى بلاده، فخرج معه الأمير قشتمر—شاد الدواوين—، وكتب للشريف معلان—أمير مكة—أن يجهزه، وخلع عليه أطلسين وركب في الموكب واستأنس السلطان به وتردد إليه الناس، واقترض مالا كثيرا، واشترى المماليك والخيل والجمال، وأنته الإنعامات من السلطان والتقادم من الأمراء والتزم بحمل المال في كل سنة على العادة. وسار أول ربيع الأول.

٣ ورتب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. • اثنتين: تصحيح في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + صحب يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "سنة". ∥ وخمسين وسبعمائة: "وحمسن وسبعمايه" في الأصل. ∥ مقيدا: "مقيد" في الأصل، والألف لتنوين الفتح مضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها بعد كلمة "مقيد" في السطر. ٦ والأمراء: "والامرآ" في الأصل. ∥ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ٨ وأطلق: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٩ إلى: "الي" في الأصل. ١١ واشترى: "واشترا" في الأصل. الوائته: كلمة غير واضحة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص. ٣٧٠). ١٢ والتقادم من: تصحيح في الأصل، مضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيسر، من الأسفل إلى الأعلى + على بشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "و". ∥ الأمراء: "الامرا" في الأصل.

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army, and Ṭāz commanded him to protect the pilgrims. The battle went on until the afternoon prayer, [when] the army of Yemen was defeated and a group of them were killed. The tent of al-Muǧāhid was torn, he was caught, and his baggage was looted.

§ 214 The people completed their pilgrimage and the amir Taz left, [tak-5 ing] al-Muǧāhid with him. He assigned a group from his mamlūks to [al-Muǧāhid's] service and did his utmost to treat him honourably. He entrusted [al-Muǧāhid's] mother and his wives to the care of the amir 'Aǧlān. He wrote to the sultan to inform him of what had happened, and he headed for Egypt, which he reached on 20 Muharram of the year 752 [19 March 1351]. On the 10 day of the [sultan's] public session, [Tāz] entered the [Cairo] citadel with him, in chains. [Al-Malik al-Muǧāhid] was made to wait standing in front of the viceroy, while the amirs were sitting down, until the commander of the bodyguard came out [to summon them to enter]. The amirs entered the public session in the great hall together with him. He kissed the ground before 15 the sultan al-Malik al-Nāṣir Ḥasan b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn³⁶⁹ and then his chains were undone. He was made to stay in the Ašrafiyyah-palace of the citadel,³⁷⁰ there was awarded a stipend to him, and there were installed for him those who were to serve him.

§ 215 Then it was ordered that he should travel to his land. The amir Qaštamur, the controller of the financial departments, ³⁷¹ left with him. There was written to the Sharif 'Ağlān, the amir of Mecca, that he should equip him. Two robes of honour of black satin were granted to him, he rode in the [sultan's] public procession, the sultan got on friendly terms with him, and the people frequented him. He borrowed a lot of money, and he bought *mamlūk*s, horses, and camels. Grants from the sultan and ceremonial gifts from the amirs came to him, and he was obliged to annually transfer money [to the sultan], as was the habit. He left on 1 Rabī' I [28 April].

³⁶⁹ For al-Malik al-Nāṣir Ḥasan b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn (r. 748–752/1347–1351; 755–762/1354–1361), see fn. 279.

The Ašrafiyyah-palace was one of the main palaces in the southern enclosure of the citadel of Cairo, constructed by order of the Qalāwūnid sultan al-Ašraf Ḥalīl (r. 689–693/1290–1293) (Rabbat [1995]: 36–38, 156–180; Warner [2005]: 185).

The *mamlūk* amir Qaštamur al-Manṣūrī (710–770/1310–1369) was *šādd al-dawāwīn* or controller of the financial departments, involved in issues of tax collection, in the late 740s/134os and early 750s/135os (Ibn Ḥaǧar, *al-Durar al-kāminah*, 3:249).

فبعث قشتمر بالشكوى منه، فرسم له أن يقبض عليه ويسيره إلى الكرك. ففعل ذلك وقبض عليه بالينبع وبعث به إلى الكرك، وأقام بالكرك قليلا. إثم أفرج عنه وأحضر إلى القاهرة، ووبخ وعنف تعنيفا كثيرا من الأمراء. ثم خلع عليه وجهز في النيل ليتوجه إلى بلاده من عيذاب في البحر، وأنعم عليه الأمراء والسطان بأشياء كثيرة.

فوصل إلى بلاده وقد ضبطت له أمه المملكة، وأقام بها حتى مات في سنة تسع وستين وسبعمائة،
 وملك بعده ابنه الملك الأفضل عباس.

كالمة غير واضحة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضافة هنا من أ (ص. ٤٧أ). إ ثم: في الأصل الكلمة مكتوبة مرتين، مرة في آخر ص. ١٣٤ب ومرة اخرى في بداية ص. ١٣٥أ. ٣ من: تصحيح في الأصل الكلمة مكتوبة في الأمراء: "الامرا" في الأصل. ٤ الأمراء: "الامرا" في الأصل. ١ بأشياء كثيرة: "باشيا كبيرة" في الأصل. ٥ وسبعمائة: "وسبعمائه" في الأصل. ٦ بعده: تصحيح في الأصل.

§ 216 But [on the road] Qaštamur sent [an envoy to Cairo] to complain about him. There was ordered to him that he should arrest him and bring him to Karak. He did that, arresting him at Yanbu' and sending him to Karak. He remained in Karak for a little while. Then he was set free and brought to Cairo. He was chided and seriously reprimanded by the amirs. Then a robe of honour was given to him and he was sent along the Nile, so as to head towards his land by sea, via Aydhab. The amirs and the sultan awarded a lot of things to him.

§ 217 He arrived in his land, [where] his mother had held the realm for him.

He remained there until he died in the year 769 [1368]. After him, his son al-Malik al-Afdal Abbās 773 reigned.

The Arabic text here clearly refers to 769 as the year of al-Muǧāhid's death; there is however considerable confusion on this issue: in his chronicle *al-Sulūk* al-Maqrīzī himself mentions al-Muǧāhid among those that died in the year 767 (al-Maqrīzī, *al-Sulūk*, 3:125); other sources and studies, however, rather refer to the year 764 in this context (see Smith, "Rasūlids", in *EI*²).

³⁷³ Al-Malik al-Afḍal 'Abbās (r. 764–778/1363–1377) was the sixth of the Rasūlid rulers of Yemen (Smith, "Rasūlids", in E12).

الملك الأشرف شعبان بن حُسَين بن محمد بن قلاوون

جلس على تخت الملك—وعمره عشر سنين—في نصف شعبان سنة أربع وستين وسبعمائة، وقام بأمر المملكة الأمير يلبغا العُمري الخاصكي إلى أن قتل في ربيع الآخر سنة ثمان وستين وسبعمائة، فقوي أمره قليلا، ثم قتل أسندمر بعد يلبغا، واشتد أمره، وأوقع باليلبغاوية الأجلاب.

ه وشرع في الاهتمام بالحج في سنة ثمان وسبعين، وخرج أطلاب الأمراء للسفر في يوم السبت ثاني عشر شوال، وخرج طلب السلطان يوم الأحد ثالث عشره. فجر عشرين قطار هجن بقماش ذهب

١ قلاوون: "قلاون" في الأصل. ٢ وسبعمائة: "وسبعمايه" في الأصل. ٣ وسبعمائة: "وسبعمايه" في الأصل.
 الأصل. ٥ في ١: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. || الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل.

13. Al-Malik al-Ašraf Šaʻbān b. Ḥusayn b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn³⁷⁴

§ 218 He sat on the royal throne at the age of ten, on 15 Šaʻbān of the year 764 [30 May 1363]. The command over the realm was performed by the amir Yalbuġā l-ʿUmarī l-Ḥāṣṣakī,³75 until he was killed in Rabīʿ 11 of the year 768 [December 1366]. [Thereupon] his [= Šaʻbān's] authority slightly increased. Then, after Yalbuġā, [the new powerholder] Asandamur³76 was killed. His [= Šaʻbān's] authority became strong, and he brought down the young Yalbuġāwiyyah mamlūks.³77

§ 219 [Sultan Ša'bān] began to take an interest in the pilgrimage in the year [7]78 [1377]. The regiments of the amirs went out [of the city in preparation] for the voyage on Saturday 12 Šawwāl [21 February], and the regiment of the sultan left on Sunday 13 [Šawwāl] [22 February]. He took along twenty

Al-Malik al-Ašraf Šaʻbān b. Ḥusayn b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn (r. 764–778/1363–1377) was sultan of Egypt and Syria and a member of the Qalāwūnid dynasty, made sultan at a young age by prominent amirs from his father's entourage; after a number of years of mere nominal rule, from 1366 onwards he increasingly managed to impose his effective authority, eventually sitting firmly on the throne for about a decade, until he was deposed and killed in a rebellion against his rule (P.M. Holt, "Shaʻbān. 2. al-Malik al-Ashraf", in E1² http://referenceworks.brillonline.com/entries/encyclopaedia -of-islam-2/shaban-SIM_6718).

Yalbuġā l-ʿUmarī l-Ḥāṣṣakī (d. 768/1366) was a *mamlūk* amir and one of the leading figures at the Qalāwūnid court of Cairo in the 1360s; he was one of the main instigators of the fall of the Qalāwūnid sultan al-Nāṣir Ḥasan in 762/1361, and his empowerment thereafter was only thwarted in 768/1366 by a rebellion, which began in his own entourage and which ended in 769/1367 with the rather unexpected victory of sultan al-Ašraf Shaʿban b. Ḥasan (Van Steenbergen [2011b]).

³⁷⁶ Asandamur al-Nāṣirī (d. 769/1368) was a *mamlūk* amir who emerged from the entourage of Yalbuġā l-Ḥāṣṣakī after the latter's murder in 768/1366: he became one of the new leaders in Cairo in the subsequent year, but he was eventually arrested and equally murdered (Van Steenbergen [2006]: 179–180).

The young Yalbuġāwiyyah *mamlūks* (*al-Yalbuġāwiyyah al-Aġlāb*) is a term used to refer to the mass of young and unemancipated *mamlūks* in the military corps of the amir Yalbuġā l-Ḥāṣṣakī, many of whom played a role in the murder of their master in 768/1366: they caused havoc and chaos in Cairo for some months thereafter, until in 769/1368 they were subdued and punished for this by sultan al-Ašraf Šaʻbān; many of those that survived this purge (including the later sultan al-Ṭāhir Barqūq) re-emerged from the second half of the 770s/1370s onwards, to dominate Syro-Egyptian politics into the 790s/1390s (Van Steenbergen [2011a]).

وخمسة عشر قطارا بعُبي حرير وقطارا ملبس خليفتي وقطارا بقماش أبيض برسم الإحرام ومائة رأس خيل مشهرة وكحاوتين وتسع محفات—وهو محفات كلها بأغشية حرير مزركش—وستة وأربعين زوج محاير وخزانة عشرين جملا وقطارين جمال تحمل خُضَر مُزدَرعة ومن الجمال المحملة شيئا كثيرا.

ه وركب يوم الاثنين رابع عشره، فأقام بسرياقوس إلى يوم الثلثاء ثاني عشرينه، واستقل بالمسير— ومعه من الأمراء المقدمين تسعة ومن الطبلخاناه خمسة وعشرون ومن العشراوات خمسة عشر.

فركب طاش تمر المحمدي اللفاف—أحد العشرات—وقرطاي—رأس نوبة—وجماعة في يوم السبت ثالث ذي القعدة خارج القاهرة، وسلطنوا أمير علي بن السلطان. فقدم الخبريوم الأحد

 ¹⁻⁷ ومائة رأس: "وماية راس" في الأصل. ٢ محفات: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ كلها: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٣ جمال: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ شيئا: "شيا" في الأصل. ٥ يوم الاثنين: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ∥ بسرياقوس ... الثاثاء: جزء غير واضح في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة ومضاف هنا من أ (ص. ٧٥أ) ("بسرياقوس الى يوم الثاثا"). ∥ بالمسير: تصحيح في الأصل. ٢ الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. ٧ فركب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.

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convoys of dromedaries with gold cloth, fifteen convoys with packs of silk, a convoy with caliphal clothing and a convoy of white cloth for *iḥrām*; [he also took along] 100 head of thoroughbred horses, two camel litters,³⁷⁸ and nine stretchers, all of them with covers of silk embellished with brocade embroidery; [he took with him] 46 pairs of water tanks, a treasury [carried by] 20 camels, and two convoys of camels that carried freshly sown vegetables; [and finally,] there also was a great lot of pack camels.

§ 220 [The sultan] rode out on Monday 14 [Šawwāl] [23 February]. He stayed in Siryāqūs until Tuesday 22 [Šawwāl] [3 March]. He went ahead alone, together with nine from the [group of] amirs commanders, with 25 from the amirs of 40, and with 15 from the amirs of ten.

§ 221 On Saturday 3 Dū l-Qaʻdah [14 March] Ṭāštamur al-Muḥammadī l-Laffāf³⁷⁹—one of [the amirs of] ten—, Qaraṭāy³⁸⁰—the head of the royal guard—, and a group rode out [in rebellion] and left Cairo, and they proclaimed sultan the amir 'Alī, the son of the sultan.³⁸¹ The news arrived [in

³⁷⁸ According to Ğamāl al-Dīn al-Šayyāl the unfamiliar word al-kağāwah that is used here in the text comes from Persian and is used to refer to a camel litter for women (al-Maqrīzī, al-Dahab al-masbūk², 119, fn. 6).

Ţāštamur al-Muḥammadī l-Laffāf (d. 779/1377) was one of the small-time amirs who rose to prominence after a successful rebellion against sultan al-Ašraf Šaʿbān in 778/1377; Ṭāštamur however succumbed to the plague before he could reap the fruits of his sudden empowerment (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, al-Manhal al-ṣāfī, 6:394).

Qaraṭāy al-Ṭāzī (d. 779/1378), a mamlūk and a member of the personal household of sultan al-Ašraf Šaʻbān's son ʻAlī, appears to have been one of the instigators of the successful rebellion against the sultan in 778/1377, whereupon he immediately rose to prominence, to high income and status, and to the effective leadership in Cairo; within less than two months, however, he was defeated by one of his rivals for power and sent off to Syria, where, eventually, he was put to death (Van Steenbergen [2006]: 165, 184, 195).

³⁸¹ Al-Malik al-Manṣūr 'Alī b. Ša'bān b. Ḥusayn b. Muḥammad b. Qalāwūn (r. 778—783/1377–1381) was one of the last Qalāwūnid sultans of Egypt and Syria; in 778/1377, he was made to succeed his deposed father at a very young age and subsequently throughout his short reign he never managed to have more than nominal authority, the amir and later sultan Barqūq rising to power behind his throne and soon ruling in his name (Van Steenbergen [2006]: 164–168).

كتاب الذهب المسبوك

ثانيه بأن السلطان وصل إلى عقبة أيلة يوم الثلاثاء وأقام إلى ليلة الخميس، فركب عليه المماليك ليلة الخميس بسبب تأخير النفقة، فانهزم السلطان في نفر يسير، فحرجوا إلى قبة النصر. فقبضوا على الأمير صرغتمش وغيره من الأمراء وقتلوهم، وقبض على الأشرف من بيت إمرأة في ليلة الاثنين خامس ذي القعدة. فكان آخر العهد به. قتل خنقا. والله أعلم.

حرره جهد القدرة فصح مؤلفه أحمد بن على المقريزي في ذي القعدة سنة ٨٤١.

الى: "الى" في الأصل. || الثلاثاء: "الثلاثا" في الأصل. || فركب: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي.
 على ١: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في الهامش الأيمن، من الأعلى إلى الأسفل + صح، يشير إليها الرمز ¬ بعد كلمة "فقبضوا". || الأمراء: "الامرآ" في الأصل. || وقتلوهم: تصحيح في الأصل بخط المقريزي. ٤ والله أعلم: ناقصة في الأصل ومضافة بخط المقريزي في مكانها الصحيح في النص في آخر السطر بعد كلمة "خنقا". ٥ حرره: كلمة غير واضحة في الأصل بسبب ثقب في المخطوطة مصححة هنا من السياق ووفقا للشكل المستقل الواضح لحرف الهاء الأخير، ولكن هذه الكلمة كتبت "حَرَّرته" في آخر أ (ص. ١٥٠). || حرده ... ١٨٤: هذه الجملة كلها مضافة بخط المقريزي تحت النص في السطر الأخير للصفحة.

Cairo] on the next [day,] Sunday, that the sultan had arrived at 'Aqabat Aylah on Tuesday, [where] he had stayed until Thursday night. But in the night of Thursday [—this news said—] the *mamlūk*s had ridden against him, because of the delay of the travel allowance; the sultan had been routed, [remaining only] with a few people, and they had left for Qubbat al-Naṣr [near Cairo]. The new rulers in Cairo then] caught the amir Ṣarġitmiš and others from the amirs [while they were at Qubbat al-Naṣr], and they killed them. Al-Ašraf [escaped, but then he] was taken from [his hiding place in] the house of a woman, in the night of Monday 5 Dū l-Qa'dah [15 March]. The last that is known about him is that he was killed by strangulation.

God knows best.

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[This Book of Moulded Gold] was corrected to the best of [his] abilities by its author Aḥmad b. 'Alī al-Maqrīzī, so that it is correct, in Dū l-Qa'dah of the year 841 [May 1438].

³⁸² Qubbat al-Naṣr refers to a domed commemorative monument outside Cairo, of unknown origins (Mouton & Dayoub [2013]: 520).

Sarģitmiš al-Ašrafī (d. 778/1377) was a leading *mamlūk* amir in the entourage of al-Ašraf Šaʿbān, until he, his peers, and the sultan were brutally murdered outside Cairo (Ibn Taġrī Birdī, *al-Manhal al-ṣāfī*, 6:341–342).

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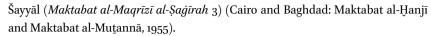
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Index of Qur'anic Verses

Page and line numbers between parentheses refer to the translation.

الذريات [51] وَمَا خَلَقْتُ ٱلْجِنَّ وَٱلْإِنْسَ إِلَّا لِيَعْبُدُونِ. مَا أُرِيدُ مِنْهُم مِّن رِّرْقٍ وَمَا أُرِيدُ أَن يُطْعِمُونِ. إِنَّ ٱللَّهَ هُوَ ٱلرَّزَّاقُ ذُو ٱلْقُوَّةِ ٱلْمَتِينُ [58–56]

292:7-8 (293:15-18)

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عامرع عنه واحصرالح القاهره ووع وعنف تعديفاكنها عليه وحموزي النيل لينوجه الى بلاده من عبداب في البحر والع عليه الام ف والسلطان باشياكس ووطرائ الاده وتدضيطت له امه الملكه واقام عا حتى الدن يسده نس وستن و بعايه وكد بعدابنه الاصل عاس الملك الانشوف متعبان برخسين مرون قلاوت جلس على تمت الملك ف وعرع عشرسنين في لصف شعبان سنة ادم وسند وسيعاده وقام ارس يد الملكة الامير لمبغا الغرى الخاصكي الحان قبل في والاخرسيد عان وستيف مة وسعماده فقرى اس قليلام قئل استدمر بعربليغا واشتداس واوقسع م الملىغاويه الاحلام وشرح والاهمام بالح في سنه عان وسيون وخرج : · الملاب الامر السفر ف مع السبت ا في عشوشوا ل وحرح طلب السلطان يع يوم الاحد المتعشر فرعشون قطار مجز بقماش ذهب وخستهعش من وَعُارا لِعُنى مرد وقطا والملس خليفتى وقطارا لقاش اسف برسم الاحرام وماية راس خيل مشهرة وكادين وتسم عدفات وهر معانكها باغشية · مرومزركش وسدة وارسي روح معار وخزامه عشور جلاو وظارب م جدال تعمل خصو مزدرعة ومن العمال المحمله شمال ورك رو الاسر ي. طبع عشره فا عام بسر المرائل عشو منه واستقل المسيو · ومعه من الاسر المقدمين السعة ومن الطبلخاماه خسة وعشرون ومن ف العشراوات حسة عشو فرك طاش غرالمجرى اللفاف احد العشوات وقرطا ير داس كوبة وجاعه في وم السبت مالف دى القعل خارع الفاهن وسلطن ا اسرعلي ف السلطان ففرم الخريوم الاحد تاسيه بان السلطان وصل الي عقبه المحكوم المثلاث واقام الح لللة الخميس وك علمه الماليك ليله الخميسة بسبب أخرا انفقه فالمزم السلطان ف افراسبر فزجوا الى قبنة النصوب لسفوا الاسرصريتيش وعلى والاسرارة تلوع وقيص على الاسرف وندي امراة في لله الاشن عاسل وى العول فكان اخرالعمد و فل حقا والعلم و جدالعده في مراه العروزية العدة سنه اعمه

نفضى الخط بداس الاذعان وبعث تقدة فاكرمه الاسراويوف الاسر لهازاك صاحب المن بالاسرطقطاى عجماعة سي الماليك ليكونوا في حرمته حة بقعي جمه فساروا السب والطلوا السلاح داريه وكثيل الغانيرة وسآ ماكان قداهم به وسسوان خدمته حتى دخل الحرم وسلم الاسرا واعتداد البهم واضمرانه يصبرحتى رحل لاميرطان ديثورهو وتعبه على ريقي مع امير الركبورا خداعيلان وعلى مكه فلاكان لام مئ ركب الاسور لاراسوالرك سنكه فراى خاوم صاحب اليمن فاستدعاه البه فاشع من الحقق روصوب علوك بزلاد معن حدل عدية مؤتع الصوت في الركب وركب برلاد الحطاف وناراهل المن بالسلاح ورك الرآمصر وفت الظهر وانسلوا وهزموا نولاد مزيدة نبعة واقتل عيلان اسرمكه يحنش كبر فاسره طازان عفط لكاع واستمرت العرب الى العصر فانكسر حيش اليمن وصل مزيم حماعة وقطع دهليزالحاهدوقيص علىه وتهبت انقاله وتض الناس عمم وسارالاسر كازبالجاهدمه ورسب فنخدشه جاعة سنالله والغفكرامه وومن الاسرعيلان بامه وحرمه وكتب الى السلطان بعرفه عاوته وتوجه الى مصو نفذم به في العشون من المحرم سنه وجمسان وسيعايه وعد بهالى القلعه مقدران ومالحندمة فاوقف تجاه الناب والامراقعود حتى فسرح اسما تدارود خل الاسرال الحرمة الأبوان وهوعه فقيل الارضيان يدى السلطان الملك الناصوحسن من موسن قلاوون غ فك فيك والزا بالاشرونية من القلعة واللق لدات واقيم له من عدمه م رسم بسعره إلى بلاده مخرج معه الاميرة شنمرشاد الدوادين وكت الشريف عيلان المرحله ان بجهن و خلع عليه اطلسين ورك في الموكب واستانس السلطان موزدد اليه الناس واعترض ما لا كنيرا واشترا المليك فالحنيل والجمال والنوالا في الماليك في الماليك والجمال والنواما في من السلطان والاسواو المزم عمل المالية كل سما على العاده وساراوك ربيع الاول فبعث فشمر بالسكرى منه ورسم لدان تعبض عليه وسوع الى الرك معدد لك وتبض عليه بالبنبع وبعث بدالي الكرك واقام باللرك فليت ويرشع

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الطاهرسرسم بخساكول وكان در تغلب على ملكم وفتح بالادكوكو توجع مستاموسي لماقدم الى مصوسته ادبع وعشوى وسيعاره معدالا حليلة هب كأ فارسل السلطان اللك الناصر عدى قلادون المهندار للقيمه وركببه الالقلعه فينوم الحدمه فامتنع الانغبل الارص وقال للنزحان ازارجل مالك إلمدهب ولا اسير لغبراله فاعفاه السلطان من دلك وقريه اليه وأوم وساله عنسب عجمه فعال اردت الح مزسم للوزيران عيمن كل ما حساج المعودوال المقدم معه ادبع عشر والعدارية وسم حرمته خاصة فاجل معامه على شرا الحوادي من الترك والحبوش والمختبات والشاب فانحطسهم الرينا ر دراه و تدم هديته وحرح مو الركب مورمااوص بدالسلطان الاسير سمف الدن التمش اسيرالركب وسار ركباوحك ساده الحاع حتى ففي يحد والخر تمله بعدا لموسم الاما وعا دوه لك كمروس اجعابه وجها لما البرد حتى تصل بعد الا غواللف منه فاسداع الى قرص مال كثيرمن التجار واسترى عن كند مزفقة المالكيه وانع السلطان عليه مخبول وحال وسا فزالي الاده بورمانفدت 2 الحريبن عالكبر وكان اداحدتما صابه فالمركشفواروسم عند عاطنته عادة لحم الملك المجاهب على بن الملك المويد داود من الملك المطاف السفائ الملك المنصور عمرت على رسول صاحب اليمزي في سدة استر وارس وسيعايه والملع علم حيل وقه والف بنو حسن في حدمته حتى تضى يجه وعزم على كسوة الكعبه فلم مكنه امير مكه من ذلك فسار وهوحنق يم يمانيا فيسنه است وخسس وسواره و قدقدم عليه الشويف تقدمي رسته ن واغراه باخيه عبلان واطمعه ف كهوكسون الكعيه فساد فاعسكركس فبلزدلك السريف عبلان وكأوالاميرطاد قدج فيجاعة من الاسكا إه فبلغم والمماحد المن المع فلعظم وانه وبديد خل بلامة الحرب رحوا اسلاح دارتيه وطبردارية القيم فتنه فبعنوا اليه انه من برما كخ المارك مكور الومسكنه واسترد ببدع برعة فاحشه وتعن لا غلنك بن الدخول مل من الصفه كان ارد ته السلامة فا بعث البنا الشريف تقدم كون عندناحتي

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المحداعلى العاده والمرالدك الاسرعز الدين الدمر الخطس وزحل عيشين شوال وركب السلطان في سبعين ام إمن قلعه الحمل موم الخامس والعشون منه وسمرالحرم والاسرسيف الدن طفرتنر فلاقارب عقبة اللة بلدهان الاسرمكتم ال في على بية المخاس فيم بالرجوع وبعث ابنه انور وامد الحالكرك ع في كاعزمه على المسروسار وهو معتر ن ورسم ان كالمن الاسرا كصرعلات : الدهلن شاميز علوكا فضار الجميع بناحت وعدد عر وسه والاجرى بتمر علمه زرديه وسيفه مقلابه وترسه على كنفه وترك السلطان النوم فرسيته فلاوط الى بنيع اللغاه الشريف اسدالدى رميته اسركه عنع ودوه الغواد ف والانشراد فاكمه و رخب مه و ترجه مكه وجرى على عادته في التواضرية مرتيك نعالى وكرزالصدوات على اهل مكه والانكام على لاسرا والاجناد وتضيعكه وبدئ مطعات الاسرائيش المحدى ومعهمانة جارا الحالعقيه ووسعها وتطفها ودخل 1 2 السلطان المدينة النبو مفهدت بهارباع عاصفه قلعت الخيمواظم الجووصان كل احد معم على عد حمله ولا يعرف موضعه فانزع السلطان انزعا جازايدا وعاف من ال نفتك مع احداد نفتاله ووقع الصاحق الوطاقات وكان اس موهوالاطول الليل حتى لملح الغير فالجلح ذكه وحصراس الوران الماليك المان عناخره ورحلون المدينة فتوعك احمد بن الاسركمة ومات بعدايام ولمنق بعدى مكترسوى الده الم وماك بها بالفرج من عبون القصب مقرت الناس ان السلطار سماعا وزننا بعيون القصب منعلا الى تربة بكم لفافه وسارا اسلامان وقد أطمان بعدما كان خابف فرعا فقدم بركه الحاع اوم السب اليعشو المحرم سنهلك وطمن وسعوا القلعه في موك عطيم إرمنله ومشى على سفاق العربو بفرسة وهوصار واللثاء وفرح الناس به مزحازابداو دقت السايروط بلخاماة الاسلامة أيام وعملت الاراحلي في دم الاسان وخلع على سابر الاسرا والمقدمين وإنع العاماعطيما مسامويتي ملك التكروب اولسن ع س لموك التكرورسو الداره ويعلك برسندانه ع ح منسا و ك ب ما رى بن جاطم في انام الملك العاص

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طواذه وسعيه وكاين فدج حماعة سن المعل فالحصره وانع عليم العاسا زايدا واسران كسا الكعدة الاطلس واحزج النباب الصناع فعلوها وفرق في اصل مله سالاعظيما وافاص الساريف على مرامكه وارباب وظايفها واسريسع والموخليص وانع عليه مخسته الاكرسم عبهان عبن خليص وكان طامات سنين قدانقطعت وحمل ذلك مقرراله في كل سنه برسم عمارتها واحتمع عند السلطان من العربان م عنم لملك تبله وهم ساير عي مهلي وامرابها وشطى والمذم عساف واولاده وأوامكة واشرافها وزوا المدشه وصاحي شع وخليص وسى لام وتمريخوران وكارها واولازمنها ودسا روابد لوزعلها دلالازابدا عتقام في بعض الالم الركوس ومهنا وواله السلطان بالعلى عيات هذى ومدياه الىكمة السلطان ومسلها الااعطبتي المبيعة الفلانيه فصوخونه الغر الطرالديش فقال ارفع مرك قطح العدبرك والكيا ولدرنا غديدك الحالسلطا فنسم السلطان وفالسامامئ هندعال العرب ادافصد والسرافي شيكو عظمته عدده مسكدتنه ليئ ابه تداستعاربه فعوعده سنه نقام الغدر معضرا وهونعتول والمدان هاد لاسناحيس وسنتنها تحسونه لابالكاله فيه وصلى لسلطان الجيعه عله فرى له والمستريف وقط و إسع لها حب المن اردام السلطان ونهي تسكه ميدارالى لمدينه البنوية وصلى عالمعداليف واقام ومن حتى قدم الركب والجث المبشرن اليصرو الشام وسارالينع فلمعد المراكب وصلت فعصال سشقة زايل من قله العليق ومشدا اكتزالماليك لونؤف الجمالحق ات الاقامات من مصروالشام ونزل السلطان ركه الحاج فى الى عشر الحرم سنه عشرى و بعليه فعل له سماط عطيم مراورك ح موك حليل الى العلوه فكان لوما شهود اوحلس بوم الخديس بفف لمحدم بدارا الدل وخلح على سابق الاسراوارمات الوظائف واسرا العربان وتح بالشا ني النه اسن ولمن وجعله ورسم بعدالخواتين وبعض السراري وكنب السايرة الشام تعمير ماعتاح اليه مؤصلة النقادم على العادة من المواب إمراالشام وامرا العدان وطلب سايرصناع مصراحل لاختياجات وحرح

سن الحرو الماون الحكم الصنعة عنوا والملك الحريد عماد الدي صادب حماه علاه الامراوسوع الماع كرم المرعبوالكرم ناظرالخاص في تجعيدما عماح اليه وخرج الى ناحية سراق وصاريقف وهر الومط او بعلس على كرسي وسابراريات الوطائف فيخدمته وهويرت الاسور فغيل عن قدورسن فضه ويخاس تغمل على البغاني ليطبخ فيها واحتصر المؤله احمل مباقل وخف وراحين ومشمومات فالحواض خشد التمراعلى الجمال وتسقاطول الطراق والدخرمها كلام ماعتاج اليهورت الافران وقلاى الحن وصناع الكماع والسميد وعبردلك ماعتاج البهواعطا العربان اجوالحمال الني تمل الشعير والشماط والدقيق وجهز سركمين في البحرالي بسو وسركين الىجالة بعدما اعتبركلفة الليق باورافكت مهااسما انتن وخسين اسرامهم من لهي البوم مانة علىقه وسم من له خسون عليقه واقلم من له عشرون عليقه كات جلة الشعرالجيول مايه العذاردب وتلين الفذاددب وحطوس الش نمسمايه حل تعلل الحلوى والسكودانات والعواكه وحضرت الصاحواج عاناه على ما به وعادات جملا تحمر الحدرمان واللوز و ما عناج البه 2 المطيح سوي ما حل المواع خاناه من الفاهن وجهز العظ مراد زولام الان طابردجاج فلانهما ولك ركي السلطان مست مل ذي القعل ومعه المويد صاحب حمام في القضاه بدر الدن مرس ماعد الشامع بعدما مهرت عقبنة ايلد معفر ووسع مضيقها بعدما كان سلوكه مشقا وفتي معان شعيب فلاقد ملة المهوف النواضع والذله والمسكنه امرازابدادسود عندمعابينه البيت سحود عدير دليل تم المفت الح الاسورو الدن حكل زالبا با وطاللا زات اعظ نفسي حتى أت البيت وركوت تعبيل الناس الارض وفيرط تلى مهابة عظمه الراحين سورت سانعالى شكراودقدم الباس الماعه محسن لدان طوق راكا وال المنظاف راكا فعالى اقاص وساانا حل النشيه البنى والعدلاطف الاكالطوف الناس فطاف عيراف كو ن اعد احدس الحجاب فضارا لناس بزاجونه وسراحهم كواحد بتهم منى قفى طواف

132 ولقب الملك المظفر وكتب للناصر تفليدا نسامه الكرك وجهن والحساج آل ملك فاظهر الشروخطب ماسم المطفر على منبر الكرك وانع على الحاج آل بالدواعاده فلمتركه المطفرواخد بناكن ويطلب مدك ومعه من الماليكالر المتارم الاقامه عندوالحنول الن اخدهامن قلعد الجبل والمال الذي اخل من اللوك وهدده سخهيز العساكر البه وكذيف لذلك وكتب لؤاب الشام سكواما هدونه محنوه على القيام لاخد - لكه ووعدو بالنصو فيمر للالك وسار الدوشق واسته النؤاب وقدم الى مصر فعر يمرس وطلو الناصر العلعم يوم مدالفظرسنه تسعوسيعايه فاقام في الملك بنير وتلين سنه وشهرت وعشون وماومات في لله الجيس حادى عشرى ذى الحد مسنة احدى واردين وسياره وعرم سيع وجسو ناسنه واحد عشرشهرا وحسة الام ومرق سلطتنه في المده اللات ال والعون سنه وعاسه المرواسعة ايام ع درات الاولى ف سنه منى عشر وسعابه وسبها ان خربندا عرك لاعدالشام وترك على لعزات مخرج السلطان بعساكرمصرع الث شوالد وسارالي الصالحية وقدم البريد منحل ودمشنى رحيل وسداعن الرحمه دم عدل الفطر بر مديلاده فسر السلطان مرك وعزم على الح و دخل دمشق في الك عسوية و وز قرالعساكر في الجهات ورك في اربعين اسراويم الان ملوك على فين اول دى المعنى والمد معهماية ورس تعنى بالدوعاد الى دشتى بعربرول بالمرينة السويد وحوله الكرك ورخل في حادى عشص المحرمسنه ملتعشره وهوراك ناقه لطيفه القديجامه مدون ولثام وعليه ﴿ لِشَّت من الشات العرب وفيد حربه وبلعاء من منه وساس العقها وجيع الناس وكان وما مشهودا ملوكوآدا وللتفزح على السلطان بستمايه دره فضه لأسارا ومروصونة ولعة الجبل عالى عشرصفرم ح فى سنه تسع عشس وبعداله و فلما يحرك لذكك إنه تعاكم الاسراو البريواب الشام واسرأ دمشف وحلم الواولي من بعث تقدمته الاميونكرياب المنتاع وفيها الخيل والمحن المرالدهب والسلاع لم من الذهب والعضة وحميع المقاود والمخاطير والا

فالاحيه الماك الاسرف صلاح الدين عليل فاتلادون في دابع عشرالحدم سنة لت وتسعين وعرم لسعسنين تعفى لوما واحدا فاقام سنه الالك امام وحلوتماوك اسه زين الدين كيتما الملك العادل في هادي عشوالحرم سنه اربوه نسعين واخدح مع امه اشاوف بنت شكاى الى الكرك فنار الاسسر حسام الدن لاحين المنصوري ناب السلطنه على لعادل كسفا وتسلمن عوضه فارعليه طعى وكرجى تقيلاه وقبلا ايما واستدعى الناصومي الكرك فقد م الخاطة الحبل واعبدال السلطنة مرة ناشه في سادس جدادى الاوليسنه عا ن ولسعن افام عشرسنين وخسدة التهروسنية عشولومًا محوراعليه لايرك النصرف في اكلة طعام بشتاميه والقاع مندس الدوله الاسران مرس الحاشتكيراسنادار السلطان ومعلادناب السلطن ورسراروسه فيسية غان وسيعايه واظهرانه ربداع بعياله فوافقه الاسران على دلك وشرعوا ويجهاى وكتهالى ومنشق والكركبرمي الاقامات والزم عرب الشرقيه محمل الشعير وباتهاذك احضرالا سرآنقادم من الخيل والجمال فالعشون منشهو رمضان فقبلها وركب في خايس عشرية من القلقة ومعه الامرآ أليرك الحاج ونعن معه السعراس الخطيرى والحاج أز ملك الجوكندار وفرالاجن المبر تعلس وللبان المبرجانداد واسكوالروي المرسلاج وبمنوس الاحدى وسنخ المحقدار وتفطى الساق وسنقر السعدي التمسد وخمسد وسيدان علوكا وعاد بيس وللدس عنران بترجلاله عنديزوله بالبركه وزحراس ليلته وعرح الح الصالحية وعيد بهاو توجه الى الكرك ودرمها في عاشرسوال وبها الاسرحالادن اقدش الاشرف نابيا فعزل تفلصهاوصوح فدانشي عزمه عناع واختاد الانامه بالكركوترك السلطنه لبسترع وكتب الحالاموآ وال وسالان بنع عليه مالكوك والشوكب واعادس كالمعدس الامراوس الجعين وعدتم خسمايه هين والمال والجمال وحمعما قدمه له الاسراوا خدم كان من المال مالكرك وهوسمايه العادرهم فضه وعشرون العدديدار والمراب نابعه الكرك ايضا بالمسير عنه فسارالي بصر ولسلطول سرس الحاشف

ما صلى الجمعة مس مه اللحرمسة ثان وسنس و تمايه ومعه ماية فارس في سدك فارس مهم فرس وساق الى دمشق وسايرمي بالاد مصر وبالاد الشاع ين الاسراوس دونم لابعرون شياس خبر السلطان هل الشام اولحان عوم ادعير دلكس الاداسولا بعسرا حداث عقمها بقالسلطان والمؤف منه ان سكايسي من خين ولايسال عنه فلاقارب ديشق بعث احدخاصت على البريد بكتب البننان الى دمشق مالسلامة بعد قضا المج فيا دخل على الاسرجا البرالنجيئ نابد دستق جمع الاسرآ لقراة اكتد السلطانية بيباح ف القراه ادقيل طورور له السلطان بالميدان متادروا الحلقايه فاداب وحاه دقداعطي لبعص دلالي سوق الخل لينادى عليه وهولا بعروه ان السلطان فعندما شاهدو قبل لنابع الاص وتلاه الآمرا وحضوالاسراف سنفرالفارقا ف ومن معه من عسكرمصر فاكل السلطان شيا وفام السترى والصرف الناس مركب في لعنولسير وتوجه في دفية بريد حلي فلاحسر الاسرا مدمة العصرم عدوا السلطان ولاعرف لهخبر فسنزا باب حلب وكامرا فالوكب تعتلعه حلب واذابا لسلطان تدساق ووقف ساعه فإبعرفه احدحني فطن به بعض فئل لعن مؤسه وقبل له الارض منادر الحبيع و ولواوتبلوا الارض وسارواني ركابه حتردها والاستعلام كشف العلقة وحرح من حلب والعرف احد بدور حل دمسق في الدعس على حيث غفله ولعب بالكروار اللاال القدس وسارًا لخليل وتصدق مدقات وكان الامراز سنقر ترسارىن معه من عسك مصرون لتل العول واناه السلطان مناك وعليه عمائه لم بعير هاوسالون تل العول بالعسكر في حادى عسريت وقرطا المص أول صفر وعليه عمانه التي عما ابعرها موحسه وبعين يور المخرج الملك السعيد الحلقارة وصعد فلعه العبل المطان الملك الداصر بأصوالات أبو المعالي ميوين الملك المت العيادة قلاون الالعي الصالحي الني بوم السب بعث المحرمسة اربح وغاس ي تماية وانم فالد

البريدالى قلعة الجبل مهات له مجهزت الكتب مع العربان وفدم المدس البنوية فئ خامس عشرينه فلم بقائله جمان ولاما لك اميرى المدينة وفرامنه فاعرض عهما ورحليد سابع عشرشه واحرم ودخلكه فيخامس ذى الخيه واعطى مؤاصه جدلة اموال لنفوق الناس سزاوع اهل الحرمين بالكسوه التى وتهافهم وصا ركاءا دالناس لاعبد احدو لاعرسه الااسمنعالي ولتى منفرد المحل وحال ويطوف وحل واسعى وحاله فلا يعرفه الاس يعرفه وغسل الكعبدس مآ الورد وصارس الناس على اختلاف طبقا تموسان اجاسم وماسن الابرى المهاحرامه وبغسله بياى وبناوله صاحمه وحلس على ال الكدمة واخربا درى الناس ليطلعهم اليها فنعلق بعص العامم الحرامه ليطلع فقطعه وكاديرى السلطان عن المقدم الحالا بض وهوستلشي عمود لك وعلق كسورة الكريمسان ومعه خواصه وتزددالى من مكه والمدينه من المسل الخير الفسر بركتم وسال دعا همدا وقاض القضاة صدر الدن معه طول طريقه يستفييه وينفهم منه اموردينه ولم بغفل ح دك تدس المالك وكاب للانشآ نكن عدى المهات وكنب الحصاحب الهن تتكوعلمه اموراونقوك سطرتهاس مكه المشوذه وقداحد تطريقها فيسبع عشرخطور بدى للخطي المنزله ويقول المرك موالذي بعاهد في المدحق جهاده وسذل نفسه فالدب عن حول الدين فانكد مذكا فاحرح والق الططر واحيز الي استرك بم و الى اميرينبه وامير خليص وا كايرا كاز وكت منشور لاميرى مه ورت معهماالامير شمسوالدن مرواف نايد إميرجاندار تقيم معما عكه حسب سوالها ليكون مرجع الاموراليه والحل والعقدعلى مديه وراداميرى مكه مالاوغلالا في كل سند لا حل تسميل اللعبة للذاس وسارة ومله معدوضاً النسك فيات وقدر المدينه البنوية تالماني عشريه فيان فهادسار مؤغال فحدا السبر ومعدعان بسيرى فقدم الكرك بكن اوم الخنس سلمه وعنران بعلم احداد بوصوله حتى ترك تهدجعفر نفريه موتة فيلقاه الناس مهاود خراط المان وعليه عباته التي ساريها وهوراك راحله فعات جاؤر حرمن الفد بودوا

130. عما بوخد مكه من المكوس وان لا يُنتوا مدسن دمول الكورة وان عُما له عكه والمشاعر وتصرب السكه باسمه فاجاباه وكت لهما تقليد الاسان وسلت اوفاف الحرم بصر والشام لنواءماوسم للشريف قاص المدينه النبو وخصهاووزرهاعندما حضورسالة الاسرعن الدينجاز اسرالمرشه الحالالتي نهبها الاسيرا خمدس يح لاشراف المدينه وهي تلثه الاونسير ليوصلها لاربابها وانع على الطوائس خياالا مرعسن الصاعي سنخ الخسام بالجن الشريفة عابتي الف دوخ واعاده مع القاصى صعبد الركالشام وحمن الكسوت ملكه والمدينه وقدم الاسبوسر والدن عبس ينمهنا الح الدهل بز ماندرة فادهم السلطان المريدالحركه الحالفواق واموم بالتاهب ليركب ادا دع ورده الى الاده وكان السلطان في الباطن ايما و مد الحرك للحياز لكنه ورى بالعراق فادخل شوال انفق في العساكر جمعها وجردطايقه سع والديرا قوش الرومي السلاح دار ليكونوا عصة الركات وجرد طالعة موالاتير الدر أنسنقوا لغارقا فاستا وادالي دمشق لتقمواظاهرها وتوجه السلطان الحالج ومعد الاسرد رالدى الخازمان وقامي القصاه صدرالدن سلمن الحنفي ومخرالدن ابراهم فالقبان كأنب السوورا والدرب الانروعولماله ملكوء اوس المواد الحلقة وسارم الغوار والمخيس خامس شهرشوال كامه متوجه آقى اللول كانه بنصدوم بحسوا حد يخدث مانه متوجه الى المحار وذاك الحاحب حمال الابر الدايه كتب الى السلطان لسالة ائ اشتهيان الوجه صعد السلطان الي الجار فالمرتقطولسانه فلم تنعوه احدىعدها بذلك مؤصل الحالكرك ادلىومن ذى الفعدموكان قددير امواره فنخفية من غيران يطلوا حدعى شي ما معلى محت انه جنرالشياط والدتاف والروابا والغرب والاشرمه وعنى الدربان المتوجمين معه والنبس ف المنازل من عُمران لشعرا حدس الخاصه فضلاع العامة مراك ففر والحروس معه الشعير وبعث النقل عرابعه وسعه في ساوس والشوك ورسم باخفآ خبن واستعل بالسيرع عادى عشوروا نف

s; mis les our ours for السلفان الملك الطاعد ركن الدين الوالفتي سوس السدقداري المعالج النجي استراه السلطان الملك الصاكر بخ الدي الوب من الملك الخاط ناصوالد في ان الملك العادل سيف الدين أى برميد سن بنم الدين إبوب وعصله المدا لماليك الهربة بقلعه الروصة فترقير فيخدمته واستفادمن اخلافه وتتعلقه الاحوال حتى ملك مصوبور تعلى الماك المنطفر سيعة الدى فطر وتسا فلعيه الحمل ليله الكاسي تاسو عشودى العقل سنة عان وخسين وستماسه والمنز ملكه مني مات برمشق عسابع عشوت المحرس منهست ويجي وتمامه وتدكرمل سبع عشرسنة كهدن والني عشره لوما ويحسف سبووستن وسمابه ولدلك خبرطويل قددكرته في نزيجته من كأف السارع الكسرالمقفى وهاب اخبار ملوك مصروملت ذلك انداحلس ساه الملك السعيد محرس كة خان في مرسه الملك وحديث الامر أفضلوا الارص من مدي وحلسو الامتوعز الدف الدسرا لعلى تاب السلطنة وحلس الاتابك والصاحب بهآ الدى على نجفاوكا والانشآ والقضاة والشهود وحلف له الاسرآ وسابر العساكر في تاسع صفر منها وركب 3 الشيعشين الموكب كها مركب والله وطلس فاللانوان وترب عليه القصص وترى في العشرى تفليد بتقولف السلطينه له في الايوان واسترحلوسه لقضا الاشفال ووقوطلف وركدى المواكب وافام السلطان مرالدين بسلبك الخاز مدارنابيا عنه عوضا عن الحلي وسارالي الشام في تا ي عشرهادي الاض يحصة من العساكر ال وترك اكثرها مع واله المله السعيد وتزلد غرية اللصوص خارج دميشف وسارمنها فمنكرا الى القاهن ليشا هداحواله والدفيني داك على جيبية من معه سن العسك حتى عاد الهم و في حكامة دال طول ليس من قصدهدا الحريرو في كانفق الاحتلاف من نخ الديداى من وس عبه الشريف بهاى البن الريس السرى مله فرب السلطان إما عشرت الف درج نفرق في كل سنه عوضا الم

سنهست وحسين وستما يمفرفن مما كمنة دمشق وج في سنه لك وسين وستماده وسب جيمانه لمانتكوله الملك الصاغ نج الدى الوب سالكامل وبعث اليه الاسر مخرالدين يوسف فاشيخ الشبوخ مدرالدين فرجتوكه على العسالرفهزمه واوقو الموطع على الاده ونازل الكرك حتى طل منه الاما وحليفه وقدضاقت الاموربالناصر نعروال حلد ومعه جواهرجليلة فهتها ماندف على مارة الف دينا رفيعتها الى الخليفة المستعصم بالد ببغراد لتكون عنله وديعه وقنضت من رسوله وكتب الخط الشريف تقيضها فشق ولك على اولاده وحربوا عن طاعته ولحق عضم ما لملك الصالح بخ المزاوب عصور المدالكرك فيرت اموراك بالناصرالي مسيره الي بعداد لطلب ود فعفه الحليفة من الدخول الهاو مطلق الحوهر ولما ابس من زاك سار الي مكه من طريق العراق وج ولا اقرم المرشه النبوية تعلق باستار الجري ضوه الناس ودال اشهدوا ال هذامقاى سن رسول الله داخالاعليم ستبشغوا به الحانعه المستعصم في ان يرد على و ديعني فأعظم الناس دلك وجوت عبراته وارتغع ضجيعهم بالبكاوكتب بمصورة ماجرى مكنودى وم السبن مامن عنترن دى الجحيد تسماء المور حاج العراقي ومصى الناصومعة الح بغراد تعوض الموهرسة تاوم عادالي الشام مقهورا مهم اللك المطفى شمس لدى توسعف أن الملك المنصور ورالدى عرب على رسول قام معراسه بلك المنع سنةسبع وارمعن وستمايه وح سنة أسخ وخمسين وعسل الكعبه بنفسه وطبها وكساهامن داخلها وخارجها وهو اول س كسى الكعبة بعد فعل لخليفه المستحصم بمغدادمن الملوك وذلك ان الماج القطوس العراق عن يركه سن سنه خس وخسين وستمايه الحسنه ست وسنين فإردس مناك حاج ف هده المن وفام المطعر ممال الحدم واهله واكترب الصدقات وننرعلى الكعية الذهب والعضه وخطبله عكه واستريخط بغده للوك المن على منبومكه الى يومناهذا بعد الحط ف الملطان مصروم ولككسوة المطفرالتي كساها للكعيد واخلها باقدالي

الدين نوسف ويح نورالدي هدا في سنه احدى وللثين وسنفاره على الني وبعث فيسنه تسى وللبين الى الكعبدة فادبل من ذهب وفضة وج الصافيسنة نسووتلين وابطل المكوس والحنايات من مكه وكت ذلك تجاه الحي الاسور فاستردك دن إذاله زالمسب لمادى مله سنه ست واربعين وسناله واعاد المكوس والحنامات وصام شهر رمقيان مكه وانفق في سنه ملت واربعين وياح وملآدح واربعت انهاجت ريح شدمله مزقت كسوق الكعمد والفتها وبقت الكدية عادية فارادعم نررسول الكسوهافا مننو من ذلك شيئ المرعفين الدن منصور ترمنعه البغدادي وعال لالكون ذلك الامل الربوان بعن الحالفه وكسارها شاما من قطن مصوعه مالسواد ورك علمها المطرز القديمه الملك الناصر ابوشا دى داود من الملك المعظم الدالفتح عبسى من الملك العادل سعدالات المسترجون بنم الدين الدالشكرابوب شادي معدان الكردي الابوى ولدى تاسع عشرجادك الاخ وسنفلت وستمايه وحفط الفراز وعري تسعسنين ووال الشعر وهون عش سنن ويم في كلف منعادم الادب والعكمه وعمرذلك ود العلطند دعشق بعدموت اسه وهو فالسنه الحادى عشرمن عرو اولدك الحمه سنهاديج وعشرت وستمامه واقبل على اللهو فطلب مده عده السلطان المركم الكامل قلعة الشويل فاختنه فتكرعليه وعزم على المسير البيه وتزعه س سلطنة مصر واخذ الناصر في طلم الرعية واخدا والع والانماك ف اللعب واستدع عدم اللك الاشوف شاه ارمن موسى فقدم عليه من الشرق وحكمه في الملكه والرالا مران حاصرالملك الحامل دمشق حتى اخسله الماصر وعوضه عن دمشق بالكرك والشورك والصلت والبلقا والاعوار حبيها ونابلس واعمال القدس وبب حبرال وكات عن الاعال توميذ عامر حليله القدر أن لاالماصوعن الشويك عيده الخامل وتسم الحامل دنشق اول شعبان سندست وعشري فاقام بالكرك وكات لونصص والبا وكرتها في المارع الكبير المقفى آلت به ان الشتندي البلاد وموته في احرى قرى دمشق لوم السادس عشرين خادي الاولى اله

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وبعال اقسدس من السلطان الملك الحامل ناصوالدي في المظفر جور السلطات الملك العادل سرف الدين الدرك ويرس والدلللوك بجم الدين ام الشكرانوب ان ادى ت مروان الكردى الأيون ولدى ربيوللاخرست هسبو وتسعاف وخسانه ولاه إبوء ملكة المنوق الم حامساه احدى عشرة وسمامه فساراليها فالف فارس ومن الحائدارية والرماه خسابة وقدم مكه وتوجه مفال زسد وملكها واستولى على مامه وتعز وصنعا وسام بمالك الهز وج في سنه تسوعشرة وستمايه وتالل المير مكه الشريف حسن يقال ،. الحسنى وهزمه ونهد مكة فلهاكان يوم عرفة منع اعلام الحليفه من العَدْم على علام ابيم واظهرس الحراة على الله فياع منها انه كان بصد اعلا زسرم فسرمي حمام الحرم مالنندف واستخف كخرمة الكعمه واكترمن سفك الدسا وادانام في دان بالسعى ضرت الحائدارية الطايفين بالمسعى بالمراف السيوف لبلايشوشوا عليه وهو فانوم من شان سكرما لخدشم عادالى المن وحرر منها بعرما استعلف علىها نور الدى عرف على من رسول الكردك في سنه المدين وعشريف وقدم العاهن بعدانا حليله ويز لسالقصر واقام لاسه حربية وافره فخانه الاسراوالاحياد وخشواسطوته ثأنوجه اك المن بعدما اناه التشريف الخليفتي ين وزاد فاقام بها الحان بلغه ان اباه اخد دمشق فناقالها خذهاعوضاعن أيمن وخرج مامواله والفاله فانكهي الت عشر مادى الادل سنه ست وعشري وستمايه ورفق بالمعلا وقاع بامرالمن يول المهمر تعلى رسول وقراستوفيت اخباره في نازي مصر المقفى والبدنسب الدرام السعوديده عكه مده الملك المنصور فورالدي غير على رسول الكودي مكالمن بعد مول اللك المسعود و بعث الى المال الخامل هدية جليله و قال انا ياب السلطان على البلاد فاقره علىها وعرهدا اول من ركد المن من من ول وبويع لديهاسنه نسع وعشرت وخط له عكه ونها ابضا ودات ملكته الح

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وران شاه وقدمد حده وهو في القرمت فلف كفنه ورماه والشدني 6 لانستعلزمع وفاسمت به مشاواسيه يزعارباندني النظام والمناز حودى شانه على المنام والمن كالى خريت من الدنياو ليس مع من كل ما ملكت لم موكفني والبه نسب درب شهر الدوله بالقاهن وتدذكرت ترجمته متسوطه في كاب الواعط والاعتبارات بركرالخطط والاشاروف كناب الماري الكسرالمغ لمصر الك العلم شوف الدن الوالم يح علسي من الملك العادل سيف الدن اليك مدرنتم الدين ايوب من شادى من مروان الكردى الابوك الفقيه الحنوالغدى الادب الشاعر ولدرمشق في خامس رحب سننه ست و خسان و تعمر ماسه ونفقه على مذهد الاسام الى حديقه بالشيخ بمالدت الحامد جود سالحه المصر النفارى الحنفي واخذالعرسه عن الماح اى المن زيدى الحسر اللذي وكان يسعى لح منزلهما على قدمه لا خان العلم عيما وافرط في العصيفة لمذهب الحنسه وشرح الجام الكبر فالفقه وصنف السم الصب ف الرد على لحافط الى كرالخطب وروى بغطه على كلاب سبويد انني قطعته حفظ من خاطرى وعلى كاب النك في الفقه على مذهب الحديث منه انه قطعة معظوهو في مهلين واعتنى بالعم واهله عناية تامة وسموالحرث من حسل وعرف طيرزد وعين وحدث واعطاه ابوه المت العادل دهشق وحعل 2 ولاينه عن والكرك والشوك وذلك سنه ست واسعن وخسياره فإبرال حنى مات مرمشن احززى الغعل ستكه ادم وعشرين وستمايه وتح محذح سن دمشف ف حادى عشر ذك القعل سنه احدى عشره وستمايه على أهجن وسارعلى طرن نبوك وسى البركة وعلى مصانع وتعدف على هل الحريب بصدقات حزيله ودرمسها الحالفاهن وافدا على اليد ومعد الشريف سالمن فاسم امرالمدنده شافعافده فاكرمه الملك العادل وبعت معه عسكاالى المدينه وعاد العطم الى دهشت ووردكر يزجمته مستوفاه في الناريخ الكبير المقفلص لغ الملك المسعود صلاح الدن الوالمففر يوسف ونفال له اطسار وسال

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لازاله المطالم وبالغ فى الاحسان لاهل كه والمسهومين العساكر لحفظ المدينه البنويه واقطوام ومكه اقطاعا وافطوامرآ العربان اقطاعات لحفظ العاج واكمل سورالدسه المنوج واستغرج لما العبن مزعى له بالحمر علمنبركما وبدن الاميراسدالدن شيركن بالغنزالي مصرواستنف القاهروس العزع بعرماحصرها سرى لعنه العه بمساكر العزغ اباما ولم سق الاان علكها علااستول شعركوم على لقاهره دعى لمؤر الدن على مئا برالقاهر ومصر ومات فيحادك عشر سوال سنه نسووسنين وخسماره مدمست معد ماج في سنه ستدر حسين وستماره واكثر من عفل الخبريا لعربين وبالوفخ الاحسان الملك العظم مس الدولم تورك شاه بن والدا لملوك عم الدي الوب شادى ندروان الكردى لشامرمشني وقدم الى القاهن مواهراه فيسنداد بو وسننن وخمسما به وفر د نقل احزم الملك الناصر صلاح الدي يوسف ن الوب وزان مصر للخليفة العاضد لدى الله الى مجدعد الله بن الامير لوسف بالحافظ ١- لدن الله كان اعظم الاسباب الضي اجبه صلاح الدن وموفعة السودان حى هزمهم وافناه بالسيف فاقطعه نؤص واسوان وعيذاب وعيرتحالوميذ ماساالف دبياروسته وستون الف دبيارمصريه في كلسفه عفرالبؤية فسنه عان وسنس واخر قلعة ابريم وعادع اناع سادالى بلاد المنديد سندنس وسنبض وعلى ملك زاسد الوالحسن على مزمهدى الملف عدالنبي وقدم مكه معننوا ونوجه الحد زميد واستولمي على ممالك الهمن وملف بالملك العظم وخطب لنفسه بعد الخليفة العماسي نؤجه في سنة احدى وسعوين الى الشام فملكه المؤه ملاح الدبن دسنق فارسع الاولسنة اسين وسبوين شم جهن الحالقاهن فيدك العقل سنمارج وسبعين وابع عليه بالاسكنزرية فاقام بهاائدان مان هناك اول معزست مست وسيمن وحسمايه ووجد عليه سلغ مايتى الف ديناد مصربه دينا فصاهاعنه السلطان ملاح الدين يب هذا الدح كش جوده وسعة عطايه ومن غرب ما محكي عنه ان الادب الغاضل مددب المن اباطالب فيد ي على الخبي قال راية في الوم المعظم شمرادوله

اضائجالون عالمنصور بالمهند معال ماع محري الركسيال و وقد الركامة والمحتمد فالسيال و وقد الركامة والمحتمد والمسال المحتمد والمحتمد المحتمد والمحتمد المحتمد الم

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مرطاناس المالات عبلوه اله مرغوان فاج الدنه فعال المحصور الرميه الدلا يسرط لي خالوا المحلوم الدلا يسرط لي خالوا المحلوم الدا المحلوم الدا المحلوم الدا المحلوم الدا المحلوم الدا المحلوم الدا المحلوم المحلوم

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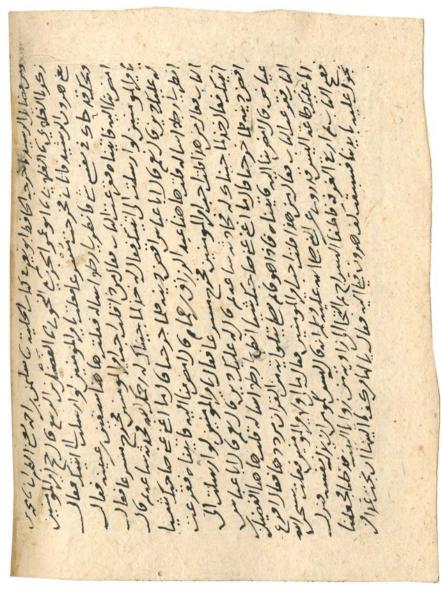
واربعمايه سنبن رحلا احماب عشاير فسارى عشرين الفضارب سرف من برمه ود عاللاما ما المستنصواليد الد تيم معدى الظاهر من الحاكم احد الحلفة الفاطسة بالقافن وملك المن كلهسهله وسله ووعن وسعوى وخطب نفسه وكات ناءي ملكه صنعادح سنه صن ورمسين واراك اله وملكمكه في سادس وى الجيد منها ولتسويها العداد واكثر فيها من الاسان ومتع المنيم ت وامن الناس امنا إبعهد و قبله ورخص بها الاسعار لكش ماجل البهاباس فاحمة الناس حبازابدادك الكعبة الرساع الاسف وهو كان شعار الدوله الفاطيبه واقام بهادعونهم ع في سنة لمفرسعين وانعابه والزلظ هوالمج تبلدان عشردى الجميد سعيد الاحواس ان بحاح وسلك بعد الملك العادل يؤمل لدن مجود نعادالدن اتابك تكى ين ابىسعىدقسىم الدوله في اقسنقر المعردف الكاجب ف عبدالله كا زجاء اتسنقر ملوكانوكا السلطان وكشاهن السارسلان السلوقي ترق الحان استنابه تاج الدولة تشرين ارسلان فيحلب لما طكها في سنه عان وسبعين وارسع ما يه فعصا عليه وحاربه فوتل عمادي الاول سنه سنَّع وا وثانين واربح مايه وصارابه عماداارى ركين الاس آمددادم وللكول سنداشين وعشرت وهسمايه واحدالرهاونتل علىجب ورسوالاخ سنه احدى وارسى وحسوليه رموسى دراشه و ولد و رالدن مجود ي سابع عشرشوا لسنهاء يستس وحسمايه فغام بعدقتل ايمه واخد فلعقطب وحدى مال العزع وباره حيفيدمن الرصا الى السوادة من مدود ارض مصر وافتنج عل مصون واظهر بحل مزهداهل استهوكات العلها من الرافضه والطل لاذان عى على خبر العل وانشابها المدارس على مذاهد الاعة الارجعة مؤكدمشق بعدما اشرف الفرنج على خزهاوضبط المورها وانشاها المدارس والمساجدوا لمارستان وعزها والطل الكوس كلهادمنع المنكرات باسرها وعاقب عليها واستعقدمن الفرنج عن معاقل وسا واكترعالحه دارالعدل واحصرها الفضاء والفقها وجلس فها بنفسه

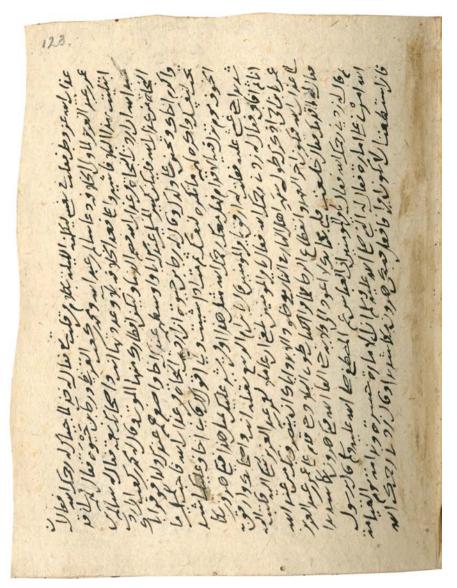
- 125 وعاسن دمايه م ع الرشيد في سنه عان وعانمي راجالا وقسم الوالاكث رهاخزجة جهاوكان اذاع يحسماية سنالفقها وانالم فاذالم إع الماره ربط النفقة السابغه والكسوم الظاهن ولمرخليفه تسلم النزعطا منه وبعال اوقب للدنيامن الم شماك لقالت الم هرون الرشيد الحاكم بامرانله ابوالعباس اجمدن محدن الحسن نابي بكون ايعسلى الغين والحسن الخليفه الراشد باسه على خلاف في نسيه تا ي خلفا م العباب مرارسرمزج سينفراد في وانعه مولاكووجموطالعه من الناس ولع الاسام المستنصريان اكالعباس احمدين الخلدوة الظاهر بامراسه اليزهر ميري الحلوفير الناصولين المه العاسى المجترى وبارمصرافنا لالططر وصارف جلته فلها قبل المستنصر عوقاح الططر تدم الح الفاهر في سابع عشري رسوا لادل سند سنس وسفاره فبايده الملك الغاهوركن الدى بيبرس المند وداريد فيوم الخيس المرامر سنداحدى وسنبن وسماره فإسرا حليقة لااموله ولاء ولانفؤد كلهدى بأت سنافرالكسن خارج القاهن لبله الجعومتاس عشرجادا الادل سنه احدى وسبومايه فكانت خلانته اربعي سنه وهواول حليف باسى مات مصرواستمرت الحلانه في عقبه الحالبوروع في سندنسع وتسعيل تماء والسلفان ومنذا الك المضور لاجين واعطاء مبلغ سبومابه العددم فضة ولماقدم مكماراد ف الشريف ال يترافيكم أن يدعوا له على برمره كالمنوس ذلك وجرت ينهامع اوضه تزفونها عليه الوغر تفاخراً مسمه الشريف واستموالاس على ذلك الم اليوم لم خطب قط مله لاحد من خلفات والعماسيات سوك الخليفة المستعين المه اى الفضل العباس بحدابا مابسين فيسته حسن دكرس ويوالملوك وهوملك الص واسمه على و معدن على احد فوارالعاما كنيده ابوالحسن من إى محد كان ابق على قضا المن ومن اهل السنة وكان في عشين من تومه فعيد على حاج المنعامر وعبداله الرواحي احدكماه الدوله الفاطينة ومال الحمزم النشيج وتضلح من علوم الشبعه حتى صاراما ماجده م بارسنه اسع وعشدي

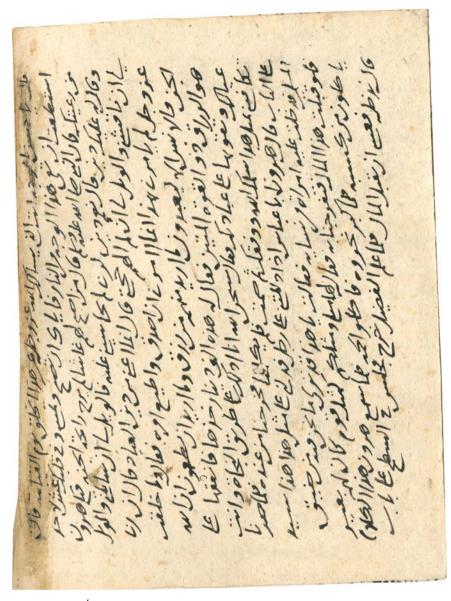
من اول الدنيا ملك ج ماشياسوى ملكين مرفل ين هرفل من التونيش من اصله صادنيا جس حض الح الما التي هيد المقدس ماشيا ووافاه كاب رسول اسطى العمليه وسم ف سعنيته هن مدعن الحالات المعم كما وقع ي المعدين وغيرها والملك الداني هدون الرشيط ودكرابرع من حزع في كاب جهره الانساب ان موسى الهادع من عد المهدي كا دلمام ولدنسي الفراد تزوجها المن مرون من جه وهالتي كان جَلَف الرشيد لاجيه بالشي الى الكوية ان لا يتزوجها فلامات الهادي تروجها ومشى راجلاس بفدا ح الممآة وهوخليفه فؤلدت له علياوكان أفيح الناس صولة ولما دخل الرشيد سله كان يطرح لد الرمل مو لداليت ومقدار عرصة دراعين ويرش ماك. ويقرم الحرس بينه وبعن الناس وكان بطرف بن المعزب والعشا الله عشين اسبوعا ولا مطبق ذلك احد مركا زمعه وكان ا ذاسعي شمراناك وحمل له دنيان فكالابعان منراه وكدلك عند زساره ام حدف بت معفر س الحدف دوج تعدون الرشيد ماشية المناوكات عجة عطمة غيران ذكرهالس منشوط مدااليزو فلدلك وكرها وح الرشيدايضا بالناس فيسده احدى وغايروما به وع وزسنهست وعاس وما به من الانبار ومعه ابناه عبداله المارن ومحدالامين فبكا الدينه فاعطى نبها لمن اعطية اعطى هوعطاً وكلور ولديه عطادسارالي كه فاعلى العلما العدالف دياب وخسين الف ديبار وكان ورول الاميز العراق والشام الااحز العرب ومعله ولحعهاه ونع الحالماء ومن هران الحاس وعهداليه بعد الاست تمايع لابته القاسم ولايه المهدبود الماءون ولقيد الموتن وضم البد الجزن والنعور والعوام فجمع عكم القضاة والعقفا وكت كابالتهده فيه على لاين بالوقاللاء وكتدكا بالشهدم فيه على المادن الوقاللايات وعلق الكابع بالكعبه ودردكرت خبرد لكمسوطان ترجمه المأمون مناع مصرالكبير المقفافانة قدم بصرع سندسي عشن ومانيين وي عود الرشيد من على البراكم الناكبة المشهول بالانبار في الحرم سنه الم

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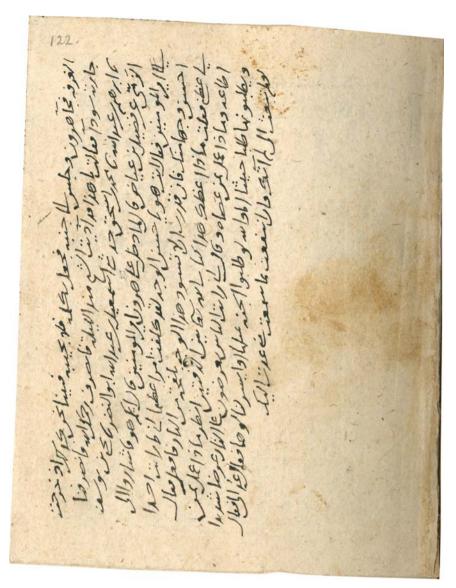
فاناان عداله فانرس مال وجدولت فانان ميدفات مزوال وعلى قلت فانالن على فابن من قال كوع عبر الله ولت فانالن عبد الله فابن من واليب عباس فلولوسلغ العباس ماشكك الحصاحب الاسر فتعد شرهادك الوان ومحدلانعون المديحي ولحالمدي مذخل سول المصلى المعليه وسم فراكاسم الوليد فعالمادى اسم الوليد الى اليوم فدعا بكرس والفي وصوالسيد وفاله ما اناسارج حتى محى وكمت اسم وكانه وموط ولد وهد حالس ولحاف بالبيت سن ليلانسم اعراب مول فوى مفيزول سعنم العيون وورجام الديون وعفقهم السنون بادت دحالم وزهبت امواع وكذت عبالم ابتاسيل وانصاطرت وصية العهو وصية الرسول فهلس الرك يحسر كالاءالد وحكفه فااهله فاسراها مسطيه درهم مصرون الرسبيل تنهوا لمدك أن الى معفو المفور عبد أله من جدس على من عدل الله عن عباس رض الله عنها بويع مالخلادة بورموت احتمدسي المادى في لسلم الجمعه للصف و دروالادل وسل لادبع عشر خلت منه سنه سبعين ومايه فافام في الخلافه ثلثاوعشرين سده وسعرت وغايده عشر برما يعزو سنه ويحسده في تسع مح والح بح ظيفة من بغراد واول ماج وهوطيفه سده سبعين وتسم في العل الحرمين عما كيراء وبل اله عزا المناطها بنفسه واعتانيا فاستة لك وسبون واحرم سن بفراد وع ما لناس سنه ادم وسبوين وقسم في الناس ما لاكتبرام عي سنه سبع وسبعين وحذح عليها اوليد م طويف السارى احدالحوارح من بنى تزل بنصيبين واخدارسنيه وحصرخلاط وعات والادالحرى نسراليه الرشيد ويدس مزيدى زاياه الشيبان وهوات الميمون وزاير على الحساكر فلمزل عارج حتى فناله وفية نفول احته ليلي مند طريف ترتيه بالايات المشهول التي فيها فولها م والجرا كالورمالك ورقا كانكم بحزع على ولرف الاسات فاعتز الرسيد ف سلير رسمان سنه تسع وسبوين ومايه شكرا اله نوال على الوليد وعادا لى المريه فأقام عا الى وقت الح في الناس وسنى وسر اليمن الىعرفات وشهد المشاعر كلها ماشيا ورجع على طرت البص ولايون







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من مرصة وددن بسرمهون وومع مع المجاعندان لما حج والسروع الما النبوية المهدى الوميدارية محدن المحصوعيدانه ترجر المنفور المبرا لمومنين ولي معروفاه اليه معهد اليه وقام ف الخلاذ عشرسنين وأسعاواربعين بوساوح فاستمسنين ومايه واستعلف مغداد المهموك ومدده خاله وزيد من سفورو والدورانه هدون مرجد في جاءه من أهداه والمادرم سكه نع الكسوء عن الكعده عند مارفو اليدمسرفة البيانم عاورت على الكعبه انتهدم لكش ما عليها من الكسون وركسن هشام وعبد المال من الدباج العن وكات الكس لا ينوع عن الكورة في كل سنه كما هوالعل الانط السيك كلسته كسن فن قرار الكسون الما كالرا الورد وكر والدخاف المسدنه على الاركان ان سمدم لنفل ماصارعلها من الكسور وكات كسوك تعلسن الدباح المذهب وانعن المدرى فدهان المحدما لاعطما فسرم معده من العراق بلغ تلير الف الف ورج سوى ماوصل اليه من مصر واعربها المامة الفدينار عينا ومن المن سلومات العددينار عينا فرق ولاكله ومعه ملية الف وخسون الف نؤب ووسع مسجد رسول المصلى المة عليه واخرخسر لمدمن الانضار حولهدرساله واقطعهم بالعراق الاقطاءات اورك عليه الارزاق وحل المدحد مسلين اللج الى كمه وهوا ولخليفه حل اليه التلج الحمكة وامرسنا الفصور الجزائق مكه أدسه من الفصور التي ساها السفاح والمرانخاد الصانع في كل من لسفا وتحديد الاسال وحدرالركاياولعظامة موسى العاديخ بالناس سنه احدى وستين والمرفى سنعست وسنبني ، ومانة باقامة البريدين مكه والمديده والمنوفا لا واللا والمنوفاكريد فلأذلك وسكى عدان عداله وعدن على عداله و حفون إلى طالب فيماوى البام ف اخرسلطافى اميه كان دخل مسيد دسول (معصلي الله عليه وسط وفعت راسى فرايت الكاب الذي بالفسيعيا فاداسه عااس بداسوا لمومن الوليدي عداللك واذا مايل يقول نح إلكار ومكت كانه اسم رجل من عن هاشم بعال له مجد ولت والناجد والندية والاس عماسه فلت 66

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و المحفردات والمصر سوك والمراسة لا بواقع و المراسة لا بدوائع و المحفردال المرام من حوالمراسة لا بعد و المحفر هلكا هن اوميم كل البير خل المنازل احدث الناس و و المحتاج المنازل و والد له الم المرك لا يدخل المنازل احدث الناس و و المحتاج الميه من السنور و العرش و الا و الا و عبر و لك فعال و العمل دخله المدم و فعال الفراس في المدم و فعال المنازل المحتوج و المراب و المراب و المحتوج و المراب و

العباس السفاح وصرف العبن الحركة بالسعدونع حى قدم بسرالخادم من معزاد الى مله في سنه ست وخسين ومانتي فعل القية عانبسة الشرادوا مزح فصد خالد معلها في سَرُ دالفوان الني يزع منها المالك دياهن زين متسدع هن البركه هسام من عدا المل ان مروان استعلف بعرموت الحيدين عررا لملك الدال بقين س سعمان سنه خس وماية تعام في الخلاف تسع عشن سنه وتسعه اشهر واحدو تري بومادتيل وغانبداشهر ولضف ج فيهامن واحن سده ست ومايه وكت لهابوالزبادسك المج والابابوالزباد لقيت مشامافا فدلغ لمركب ادلقيه سجيدت عبدالله بن الوليدي عمان ن عفان فسارالي جنبه فسمح مه يفول له السرالمسين ان العلم يزل بنع على هل بيت اسرالمونين وسمر خليفيه المظلوم ولمرز الوابلعنون في هذه المواطن الاتراب فانها مواطن صالحة وسر المومنين ينعى لدان يلعنه فيها فسنق على مشاع قوله ووال ما ورمنالشم اسدد لا للعنه قدمنا جاحام قطع كلامه واقبل على وسالى عن الح فاحبرته عاكبت له مالوشق على سعيد ائ سمعته كلم مرك فكان منكسوا كلماراني وكل ابراهيم ت عمد تر للمه صفاما وهو في الخريكة فعال له اسالك بالله وعرمة هذا البيت الزى خرج معظما له الارددت على طلامي قال ك الملائدة فالد داري والدفاين كت عن الموالدونين عبر الماك والطلق ال فالوليدوسلمان والىطلاق والوقع والرسمة الدردها على والفريدين عدالماك مال طلن وقيضهامن مورنبعي لهادهي درك مفال مشام لوكان فيك منرب لصر شك وواله والمه صرب ما لسبف والسوط فالصرف هشام ودال لمن معه كيف معتد هدا اللسان والدّما اجور وا ل هي تريش والسنها ولايزال فيالناس بعايامارات مثلهذا ولم ع بعدهشام احدس فالمبة وهودليفه عكات دولة عي العباس فاول سيح سنم وهرد ليفه او جعفرا لمنصور واسيد عبدادو وعران على عداده من عباس عبد المطلب اسرا لمرمنى العباسي الهاشمي توج يعريون اجبدا كالعباس

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عرنع رسن حاله كدا وكدا ولوعلم كانك لعام فسط عليك وهوضعيف البصر بالا والدقد عداله ونحن المعداري المعدم انامعال كيف اسابها والشيونوالعدائفرك سعيدنفال غير والحدسة تكرف ابسرا لومنان وكدف حاله فانصر ف الولدوهو يغول لعرهذا بقيده الناس وقسم بالمدينة أسواله كثب وصلى بها الجعد فحطب الناس الخطبد الاولي جالساع فام خط اللابده فاعا فعال رجل لرجائر كيوع اهدابصنعون فالماخ وهدا منع معوريه وهلم حرا وقبل له الا كليه وعال اخبرى قسمته في دوس إنه كإعبد اللك _2 النعود فلميزكه وعال هكذا حطب عمان عال وقلت واسهما خطب الاقاعا والدرجاروي لهشى فاخدوابه سلمان عندا لملك عندووان بويع بعد موتد الميده الوليدي نصف حمادى اللحن وهوبالرملة فأقام ف الحلاف سننين وعاينه اشهر وخسة الماء وقبل الاخسة ايام دج بألناس سنعه سبع وتسعين وكتب الح خالدى عبدالله القنشرى وهوعلى مكه ازاجر إلى لعينا عزجما عا العذب الزلال حق عرى من زمزم والمقام فهل خالدركة بامريبيوس جان واحكمها واسطماها وسق لما فليا بسك فيهامن شعب في الجيل م سفق من البركة عينا تحرح الى المسيد الحرام بحرى في نصب من رصاص حنى المهره من فوالغ تسيك في فستعند من رخام عني رنزم والمقام فلها برت وظهرياء صاامر القسرى بجز بالمخرت لمك وقسمت س الناس وعمل طعاما دعا اليه الناس تم امر ما يحافصاح الصلاة بامعة والرَّب لمنروض في وجه الكعيدة معد فعداسواتن عليه ووالدابها الناس اجردوا الله وادعوا لاسرا لموسين الدي سقاكم الما العد الزلال النقاح العدب وكات تعرف ملك الفسفيه في سرف من رصاص عن ع الى وضروضو كان عندماب الصفاو في ركه كات في السوف وكان الناح لانففون على تلك الفسقينه ولاكادا حد نقربها وكانوا على شريسان سنم احدص وفيه ارغب فعدد خالد المنبر وأتب الناس واقذع في كالامد فلمر تزل البركه حتى هدمها واودين على عد الله من عماس ع خلافه ا

الداهن من معرية ولا بالحليق المابون من تريدن معويه الاوان لاادادي هن الامه الابالسيف متى استعم لح قنائكم وانكم تكلعونا اعدال المهاجرت الاولين ولا بعلوا متل عمالهم وانكم تامروننا بعوى الله وتنسون دلكمن انعيم والعه لاباس فاحد شوى العديد مفاحى هذا الاصرب عنفه أرا الوليد عدد الملك نووان وع يورود ابيم بعها اليه للعصف مؤشوال سنه ستدونمانى وكات علافته تسعسنيل وسيعف اسهووهم معدرسول العطابه عليه رسا فاستقنان وكانعل بدعريء الدرير وهوعلى المريده فكت البدى وسوالاول باس با دخال جرارواح الني في مسجد رسول الله على الله عليه وسطوا الله عان الواحدة حتى كون ما بني دراع في شلها والانقدم القبله تقوم عرا لاملاك قيمة عدا واعطا الناس اتمانها وهدم ببوت أزواح الني وسا المسجد واتعد الفعلة من الشاع وبعث الوليد الى ملك الروع عاعزم عليه وبعث لعماية الف منعال دهباوما وعامل وارسن ملاس الغيفسا فحل الوليد ذلك الحجر من عد العرس محضر عروده الناس وفي صعوا اساس المسيد الورو بعارته وكتب المضا الحعران يستهل التنايا وعمر الابار ودجل الفنوان بالمدينه فعلها واحرى ماها فالمزع الولد وراها اعجبته فاسرلها بقوام تعوس عليها وامراهل المسمدان يسقعوا منها وكتب الحصر البلاد ماصلاح الطرق وعمل الابار بطريق المجاردمنع الجرمين والمحزوع على الناس والبريداع الارزاق وكانجه فيسنه الحدى وتسعين فلادخل المدينه عدا الحالمسيد ينطرالى نايه واخرج الناس منه ولم يتق عيرسجيدن المسيد فإبحسرا عرمن الموس عرجه فقيل له لوقت تعالى لااقومتى باق الوقت الذى كت افرم فيه تفيل فلوسلت على سرالموسان قال والعالانوم اليه والدعر بنعد العرر محول اعدل بالوليدي ناجده المسمد لبلا واه فألعت الوليد اكرالفيله ووالمن ذرك الشبيح اهوسورا وال

المدعنه بويعاه بالحالافه سندار موصلخس وسنين بعربوت معاويه ريدي مويه ن الحسفين وكال قبل ذك لارجى بالخلافة واحتم علماعنه اصالجاز واليمن والعراق وخراسان ومحالناس تمائ يج وتعل رحماسك برائحا ون يوسع المففى عامام عند الملك من مروان من الحتم يوم التلاث السبع المسيكات من جادى الاولى وصل جمادى الاحق منه لك وسعين وصل يعدقتله عكه ومدالحاح عمان من اول ليله من دى الحيه سندائس ومعن وج الناس الحام وردك العام ووذف بعرفه وعليه ذرح ومغفر ولمرط فوا بالبت في ملك الحد فحاصر الحام ستة الشهر وسيعة عشر يو الحال قتل ولماغزاه احل الشام في ايام مزيدي معويه احترقت الكعبة في سنه ارتع وير فنركها ابن الزيرليشنع بدلك على اهل الشام فلمات زيد واستقرالاسر إلى مديها الحالارض وبالماعل فواعدار اهم وادخل ديها الحي وجعلها باين فلافتل الحاؤ عدالله من الزبوصر بذاتن الزبوس الكعته فيسنة اربع وسعين ومعلها على الفي كما فددكرت دلك في كاد الانشان والاعلام سَأَ الكعبة البيت الحرام ذكراشافيا عدالله بن مرواف ن الحكم بن الدالعاص ل الميه من عمد شمس من عديناف ف قصى قام بريش و يعربون اليه في شهر به فان سمة حس وستن و مكه عبد الله من الزير رعاله العلافه وعلى العراق المختارين المي عُسَد المقفيد عوا لحمد والمنفسه ٥٠ والارض تستعر جربا مدقتل المسين ساعلى ن الد كال فساعدت كافدار عدالملك مردان وقتل حبع من خالفه واقام في الخلافه بعان الزيد تلاء عشروسنه واربعة اشهد الإسبع ليال كما قد دكرت ترحمته وترجمه اليه ف المارع الكبير لمصوفاتها دخلاها وتح عدا لملك في خلافت ه سننس احداماسنه حس وسبعين فنم شبيد من يزيد احد الخدوادح الانتكبه فبلغه ذلك فاحترس وكت الحاع ب نوسف مدافوانه ياس للبماغ رسرح دين مذالخوارح فانس اخبارها فزدكر فيضعه وذل عبداللك الناسر بالمدينة النبوية وعال بعد جداله ف

كعمن وانت صلت ركفتين صررات خلافتك فادرى مايرجواليه ومال راى رايته وطع الخير عد الرحن تعوف وكان معه فجاه وقالدله المنصل فزهدا المكان مورسول المصلى المعليه وسم والح بكر وعرركونين وليتهما ال ركفين فالربلي ولكني أخرت أن بعض من يحمن الهم وخفاه الناس عالوا ان العلى المنهم ركعتين واحتجوا بعلات وفد الخدت بمكم العلاول الطايف مالدنوال عيد الرحس وعوف مائ هذا أعدراما فزال اتعدت بعااهلاكان زوحا بالمينه عزج لهااذاشيت واغانسكن بسكاك وامامالك بالطايف فسنك ومنده مسعن للت المال والمانولك عناع المن وعارع وفدكان ول المصلى العطيه وسلم ينزل علمه الوحي والدسلا قليل فالولكر وعرفه لوا ركفتين وقرصور الاسلام بحرائه نعال عثمن هذا راى داينه فخرج عدالرجن ملعى عدد الله مسعود وال المحد فرغير ما تقل ولا المنع فال عل عائرى وتعلناك سعودا لالافسروقدملت باصاف ارجادقال عدد الرحن فرصليت بالعائ رلفنين والماالان فسون اصلى ارسكارة ل كان دلك سنة ثلثين ولم يج الميرا لومنين على أى طالب في خلافته لاستفاله عرب الجمل ومقنن معوية بن الى سفين واسم يحق بن حرب الميدة ت عسد النمس وعيد مناف إلترشى الاموى ابوعيد الرصن لمبرالموسات كاندانيرا بالشاع خوعشون سنه دبايع له اهل الشام خاسم نالخلاف سنه ثان اوتسع وللثين واجتم الناس عليه حين بايوله الحسن بنعلى وجماعة من معدى ربيع ادجادى سنداحدى وارسان وسل سنداراس وانام ف الملادة تسع عشر مسنه وتسعه اشهر وغايده عشرى وا ونبل عير ذلك ويح ما لماس على سنبن أو لها سنه اربع واربعب والجسنم منس وارسين فج الناس ردان فالحكم في موريسنه مسين وتبل بالح الناس ابنه مزيد ن معربه وقل معويه على سنين الترس ها عدالله من الزبوس العوامي خويله من اسدى عدالعرى ب فقى الغرشي الاسدى ابو بكر ودرل ابو بكبر والوجوب اسرا لموسين رفى

الخافط ابوغر موسف فعدادس عدرالبرالنمرى وذكر عدى عرالواذرى وكار النتوع هزه الاسات سزياده في عديها وقال ابوعثمان الهدى رايت عرسري الجمن وعلمه ازارمرفزع بقطعة جراب وفالعلى ناك طالب رابيه عريطرف بالكعبة وعليمازار فيماحد وعشرور دفعه فيهلن ادم وعف سعد من المسيب قال يح عرفها كان بفينان مال لاالد الاالد العالعلى العط مسنر شآماشاكت ارعى العطاب بعدا الوادى في مدرعة صوف وكان فظا بتعنى اذاعمات ويصربى اذا تصرت وقد المست وس من ومن الله احديم مثل ملائد ماري سُع بشاشته منق الاله ويودى المأل والول لا ع لم عنري عرف والحزاب والحلد فدط ولت عا دُفا حل وا م والاسلمان اذغرى الرباح له والانس والخ فعابينا مرد ع · اسْ الماوكُ الني كانت نوافلها من كل اوت المها راك يُعادُه عوص هناك مورود الاكرالابدين وردولوما كها وردواء عَمَّانَ مِنْ عِفَانَ مِن إِي العاصين أُمَّيَّة مِن عِيدِ شَهِين مِنافَ مِنْ قَصَّ القرَّفِ الأموي الوعيدانه والوعرو ذوالمؤرث اسرا لمومنين رصى المهعده بويسع له بالخالان عادم السبت عسق المحرم سدة ابع وعنسوت بورد فن عرف الخطاب شلاته إيام باحتماع الناس عليه وتسل بالمدنيده برم الجمعه لتمان عشره او سبع عشرة خلت من ذك المجته سنه خيس وتلتن وذلك على اس احداك عشره سندوا خرعشر شهرا واستن وعشرين نوماس مفتل عررسي اسه عنه عنه علها الاالسنه الأول والاختن وذكرابي الاشوانه إلناس فالسنة الادلي وقيل ماج بألناس عبدالرحن نعوف باسرعمان ولاج قسنه تسع وعشرين صرب فسطاطم بحي فكان اول فسطاط صربه عتمي من والمالمه بها وبعرفه فكان اول ما كليمه الناسي عمّان ظاهرادين اغ العلوم من فعاب ذلك عيروا حدمن الصحابة وعالد له على ما حدث الرولاندعهد ولقد عهدت البنمل المعالية وسم والابكر وعرامار

ان و ول في آخور واستادته اهل المياة في انسوامنا زل من مله والمرند : ما ان و ول و المول والساد على المبيل الفل والماتم عوم من المدينه عام الرمادة عاجا اوم وي فالقالكار لبرى السفن التي قدمت ف مصوع الخليج القراح فرو وزالعام كماقد وكزن خس في كا الواعظ والاعتبار مركرالخطط والانار وفال للناس سمروا منا ننظرالي السفن التي سيرها اسالينا من ارض فرعون واكلي سفره هذا وهو يحرم كح ظرى اصاده فوع علاك ملائز لعلى البحرفال اغتساد استما البحرفائه مبادكة معك للناس ولك الطعام مكوكا فننابع التجار الصكوك منه فبلال تعبضوها فلقع والعكار للاسودكم ريرحكم وخوام فعال ابتاع من صكوك الجارعابة الف درهم وروع عليها مايه الف فلفيه عرفعال ماحكيم كمريخ فاخم ومشل خبر العلاقال فيعته قبل الانفيضه والدنع والدفائ عدا بولايصلي فاردده قال ماعلت ان هذا لايعلي وما افدرعلى رده والما بدمال والله ما اقد رعى ذلك وفدتفرت وذهب ولكزراس الحدوري صدفه وانفق فالحرجة بجها أنه لمارس الجمزة إناه جروفة على صلفته فادماه وثم رحل سن من لات فقال أشعرا مير المومن لد مج يعدها عُبداً الحالجين الناسه فصاع رحل را حليفه رسول الله فعال لاي امير المرسين بعرعامه تعد افعنل عردي المدعنه بورجوعه سن الح لا مسوراللا تسلون فبالم الازد تعرف ويها العيادة والزجر دعن عاسه رغى إله عنها انعمر اذن لازواج المنى صلى العملية وسلم ان يجزع آخر عدم عاقالت فلما ارتط من المصية اقبل رجل سلم فعال وانا اسمواين كان منزل اسرافيس فقال فايل وانااسم هذا كان منزله فاناخ في سزل عرم وفع عفيرت علىك سلام من المرورا ركنيدالله في ذاك الادع المرقد فن يُجْرِأُوركُ مِناحُي تعامد ليدرك ما درمت بالامسر مستقى تضيد الورام عادرت بعرها بواج ف المامها إنف ت والت عادشه فقلت لمعض اهلي علموا ليمن هذا الرجل فذهبوا فلمجدوا فيمناخه احداقالت عايشه فواسه الدلاحسيه من الحز فها أترعر خل الناس هن الابيات للشماغ من ضوار اولاجيه مرزد مكداروي هذا 6. 1

له دسه لطرف فالبدا الح سنية المسلين ونيادى بدياد معرف رجب وموتياس ندآيه عليه السلام اول دى القعدة لان مسادة الح من المدنية الم فقدم الندآشلا تدامثا فهادمسانة الج ف البرون مصرار بعول اوسا مقدم المرا بثلاثه امتالها كانت الجدلة من اول رجد الى انقضاعشردي الجد حسة اشهروعش ايام وكدلك بلمشن واولمن ادارا لمحل المك و الفاهريبوسالسندفعاري فصل في دكرسن عن الخلفا في مل خلافة الدكرالصين رص السعدة اسين عبدالله من الدفيا فدعمان من عاسر الزعرو والعدس سولاس بم الأمن فالحديث لوك بن غالب واس ان مالك العرشى النبي خليفة رسول اسملى اسعليه وسلم بويو يورواه رسول السمليان عليه وسطيعفه العامة بيم الثلثا الت عشرشهر ربيع الاولسنه احدى عشومن ألهج ي على الناس فهذه السنة عَتَابُ بن إسبد وفيل عدد الرحمن بنعوف رخى الدعنهما وح ابو مكر رضى المدعدة ما لئاس سندانسي عشوة واستخلف على لدينه عمان بن عفان رص اله عنه دقيل ج بالناس عرس الخطاب اوعد الرحمد بن عُوْف رعى اسعنهما والاول اصب وتونى ابو مكر رصى المدعنه على راس سنتان وثلثه اشهو والنم عشوروت وقبل عامر دلك عرب الحطاب من تُعَمَّلُ من عدف العُزِّكُ من رَباح من عدالله ان قُرَط بردناع بن عَدى بن كعب القرشي الدروى الوحفص المرا الرسين صى اله عنه ولى الخلافة بود الى بكر المديق رمي اله عنه بويع امها باسخلا له فيجادي الاحرب فلن عشرة واختلف في البرم كما احتلف في وم وفاته الديكررس السعدة وفعل مطعونا إساراك أوائن علام المعين بونسورة لللات بنتندنذك الجهه سنه لمت وعشرت كانت خلافته عشرسنان واصف مج فجيعها الاالسنة الأولى وقط فاندجي بالناس وبهاعتاب مذأسيدوقبل بالجءرالناس سيستيه كلهاو فيسنه سبع عشرة اعتمر وسى المسجد الحرام ووسع ويه وافام عكمه عشري ليلة وهدم على قوم الوااف بيعوادوره وعوضهم انكامها من سيت المال وجدد انصاب الحرم على بريحركة

: سناوجيه ويمن فال بافضلته الاسام الوحنيفه النير و تات رحمه الله . ومورواية عن الاسام إلى عبد العاحمد وحبل الشيبا ف رحمه الهوساق ن صلى العامة وسلم المعرف وي المعلقة واسرس كان معدهدى ال ملك داهل صلى العالمية وسلم وسار صلى العالمية وسلم والناس من يديه وخلفه بموعن لمينه وشماله ايما لأيكمون كتحكم مرم لياع برصلي المه عليه وسلخ فلاقدم م ملى العمليدوسلم مكه لاربع ليال خاو ف ندى الجفظان للقد وماسم : سعي بن الصفاو المروه والموالذين لم يسونوا هَدُيا ال بيستواجم العن ر. ويطلوا حِلاناما ع يهلوا بالح وقت خروجم الحمنى ووالم ألواستنفيلت يدناس ما استدرت ماسعت الحدي ولجدلتها عن وهرادل كاهرام : ملى العمليه وسلم لم يكن متعاكما ذهب اليه بعض احماب الامام احد : وغيره وقرم على نابي طالب رحد السعند سن البن معال لد صلى السعليه يه وسلم عااهلات فال باهلال كالهلال البني صلى المرايده وسط فعالد له البنى ملى السعليه وسم الاسقت المعدى وتوتث روى هذ اللفظ ابود اودورى م من الايداسناد صبح وموصرع في القِران وقدم مع على رحف المعمد من الين عَدَانَا فَاشْرَكُهُ صَلَّى السَّعَلِيهِ وَالْمَ فَيُرَّبِهِ النَّا مَالَ عَاصِلِهَا مِنْ السَّالِيةُ لِدُنَّا شم مرح سلى العمليه وسيرال من فبال جاوكانت ليلة الجمعه التاسع سندى الجهم اصعنسار العرفة ونطب وي خطبه عظمه شهدهامن العابه عؤس اردين الفاءي اله عنم اجدين وجميس الظهر والعصر مُ وَقِف بِعِرِدَه فِي عِلْى رَجِّل وكانت زاملته مُ بات بالمزد لفه وجمع بين العرب والعشآ ليليدع اصع فسل الفرع ادل وفتها غسار فبل طاوع الشمسرال سي فرى جن العقبة ونحرو علن عافات ففاف ماليت طواف العرص وهوطوات الزبان واختلف اين صلى العلهر يوسدو فدانسكل ذلك على تسرس الحفاط يول ع منكائ حكومنه دعلى العمليه وسم وخطب واندروا تقييره على انسهادة بلغهم الرساله فعي نشهد انه بلغ الرساله وادك الامانة ونصح الامد صلى اسماله وسم سلم كثيرا الحديم الدين ع اقبل صلى السعليه وسط مصرفا الي المدينه وفر اكفل الله

16. الشمس وروع الحيوة الى النفس غيران في كريم اخلاقه الزكيد وزاكم اعراقه المرضية ما يقبل السير وسخ اوزعن الخطأ والنقمير رعا المالمخدوم ا. منحيث لايرتعب ومرسة حيث لأعاسب وكان له في سعره حفيرا او وحضرة فصل ف خف رسول المصلى المعالمة وسمافتتي هاهذا الحزواذ كانصلى المعليه وسلم والذى من للناس معالم دينهم وقال خدواعتى سناسككم وقراستلات كنب الحديث بدكوي وال المصلى الله عليه وسط واوز رضها الفقية المانط ابوج على احدن سعبد ان حزم الانداسي نصيفًا جليلا وماعرض عليه في مواضع منه اجب عنها في كاب شارع النجاه والخص جبد الوداع ان رسول الشصل المعليه وسلم لما دخل دوالمغدن جهز المجووامر الناس بالجهازله واذرقهم فاجمعوام صلى الفهس روم الخيس لسب لتين من ذى القولة سنه عش من المحرة بالمدينم اراعاً وخرجمها بمن معمد السلعد من اهل المدينه ومن بحروس الاعراب وه عشرة الاف بريًّا استعل على المديده ابا دُحانه الساعدي ونفال سياع بن غرفطه الغفارى فصلى العصر بنى الحكيفة ركفنين ومات مهاواتاه أتدمن به عزوه ل درك الوضع وهووادى العقيق ماس عن ربعتمالي ال نقول ف جنه هذه خة في ومعن هذا الأ الله سريانه اس بان نفرن الج مع العس فاصبح صلى اله عنية وسم عا حبراتها س بزلك وطاف على نسآيه لوسف بفسل واحد وهن تسع وبدر احدعتس اعتسل وسلى عند المسعد ركعتان واهل عيدوعن معاهدا الدك رواه بلغظه ومعناه عندصل اسه عليه وسمسته عشر صاباتهم خادمه انس بزمالك رص السعنه وقدرواه عنه صلى المعلمه وسط ستدعشونابعيا فدذكرته وكاب شارع النجاة وهذاصرع لاعتمل ف الناوط الأان كون بعيدًا وماعداذك حآس الاحادث الوهدالتبع ادايدك الافراد فلس هذا محل ذكرهاوالقران فالج مومزهب الماسال عبداله محدى ادريس الشافع رحمة العطم وقدلص حاعة مزعفق اصابه وهوالذى عصل بدالميه سنالاطادي كلهاوس العل

