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# al-Miṣbāh fī al-Naḥw 

## By

Nāṣir al-Dīn al-Muṭarrizī al-Naḥwī (d. 610/1213)

# A Critical Edition of the Text with the Life History of the Author 

## VOLUME I

By
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Supervised by

## Prof. Paul Starkey

A Thesis Submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Modern Languages and Cultures


Durham
University
UK
2009

PART: ONE


#### Abstract

Nāṣir al-Dīn al-Muṭarrizī al-Naḥwī (d.610/1213) was one of the most renowned figures in the field of Arabic Grammar. He has left an indelible mark on the world of Arabic language and literature. He is also known as the successor of al-Zamakhsharī.

He wrote a number of books but his al-Miṣbāh fī al-Naḥw gained prominence at a level that no other book in this field could claim to achieve. For this reason, a great number of commentaries have been written in every age, of which the most famous are al-Daw and Khulāṣat al-I'rāb written by Tāj al-Dīn al-Isfrā’īnī and 'Abd al- Karīm al-Ṭūsī (better known as Heājjī Bābā) respectively. Moreover, its translation into other languages also demonstrates its value as a useful book.


Although al-Miṣbāh has been edited on more than one occasion, the published editions do not fulfil the needs and requirements of modern academic research criteria. The basic aim of this thesis is to present this book with a current modern research style so that the students, teachers and ordinary readers of Arabic language and literature may benefit from this work.

This thesis is divided into two parts. The first part deals with the life history of the author and his other works. A brief note of the environment under which he grew up (generally referred to as the 'Seljuk' period) is also included in this part.

The second part consists of a text edition that deals with the derivation (Takhrīj) of syntactical issues together with the differing opinions of grammarians on syntactical/grammatical issues. This part also proffers the idiomatic English translation of al-Miṣbāḥ.

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## DEDICATION

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## Scheme of Transliteration



## INTRODUCTION

Nāṣir al-Dīn al-Muṭarrizī stands prominent in the field of Arabic grammar and literature and has influenced many generations of grammarians in this particular area. Al-Muṭarrizī was born in the same year that the world renowned scholar al-Zamakhsharī passed away. Al-Mutarrizī was a staunch follower of al-Zamakhsharī's teachings with respect to the views propagated by the al-Mu'tazila School of Thought. For this reason, al-Mutarrizī was called even during his life time the "successor of al-Zamakhshari". The wealth of academic material that he left behind is enough to prove that he deserved the title of "successor to al-Zamakhsharï". Although al-Muṭarrizī left behind such well known books as al-Mughrib fì Lughaht al-Fiqh, al Mughrib fî Tartīb al-Mu 'rib and al-Ị̄̂āh fì Sharh alMaqāmāt, the al-Miṣbāh outshone them all.

Al-Mutarrizī mentions in the preface of this book that when he learned about 'Abd alQāhir al-Jurjān̄̄'s three books entitled al-Mi'a, al-Jumal and al-Tatimma, he prepared for his son an abstract of these books in such a way that nothing important was left out and anything unimportant was discarded. This book was well received by the literary world for its brevity, conciseness and easy understanding. For this reason, copies of this book are found in all the major libraries of the world. The number of commentaries written on this book reflects its importance.

This thesis is divided into two parts. The first part includes six while the second part consists of two chapters. The first chapter deals with the political, social, academic and literary milieus under which the author grew up. Since the area of "Mā warā' al-Nahr"
was politically under the direct Seljuk rule, therefore, after the introduction of the Seljuk period, I have described their rise and fall, their modes of governance, the importance attached to the literature and the recognition accorded to the literati.

In the second chapter, I have tried to present a short history of Arabic grammar. It covers from Sībawayh to al-Mubarrad, the Baṣrans and Kūfans and their role in Grammar is also referred. The beginning of pedagogical grammar and the pedagogical grammar as a genre is also discussed. The third chapter deals with the life history of the author, such as his name, lineage, date and place of birth. This part also contains some excerpts from his poetry as well as a brief note on the life of his two prominent teachers named Abū alMu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq al-Makkī, Abū Muḥammad $\mathrm{Sa}^{〔} \overline{1} \mathrm{~d}$ al-Tājir and his pupil alQāsim ibn al-Ḥusayn al-Khwārazmī who was a well known name of his time and gained the title of "Ṣadr al-Afāẓil" for his academic and literary contributions.

The historians have not done fair justice to the life history of al-Muṭarrizī. A considerable amount of material with reference to his life has not reached us. I have committed to pen and paper whatever I could find from the reliable sources. This part also carries a brief note of the commentaries written on al-Miṣbāh fì al-Nahw together with notes on the value of each and every copy from a list of 31 copies in total. I have also added a concise note to the already published work with all my honesty and diligence. In the same way I have tried to specify how al-Muṭarrizī, while following al-Jurjān̄̄’s style adopted his separate methodology for his book al-Miṣbāh..

In the fourth chapter after describing 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄’s brief life history, I have endeavoured to analyse his services as a grammarian and rhetorician as well as determining the role he played in this field.

The fifth chapter caries the title "Importance of Knowledge and Penmanship in the Medieval Period". This chapter provides some information regarding the aims and objectives of the Muslim education. The status of the 'Ulma' and Udaba', the literary development during the medieval period is also discussed. The sixth chapter goes under the title of "Codicology of the Arabic manuscripts and rules of text editing". The development of orthography and penmanship, the writing instruments, proceeding of Islamic manuscripts to the Western countries, the British library and the India office library are the sub-titles of this chapter.

The first chapter of the second part which is seventh in general deals with the text edition. During the process of editing I had access to al-Miṣbāḥ's thirty one copies. However, for the purpose of comparison, I depended on only those seven copies that were nearer to the author's era according to their date of prescription. Moreover, these copies were free from any insertions, cuttings or deletions as compared to other copies. Out of these copies, only the oldest and most authentic was selected as a reference copy.

For the grammatical/syntactical issues that have been discussed with text edition, I have referred to the basic sources for their derivation. I have also mentioned, here and there, the difference of opinions among the grammarians on the syntactical issues.

The opinion of al-Mutarriz̄ is also mentioned in different syntactical issues. The Qur'ānic verses that appear in the manuscript are also put through the process of derivation. Similarly the poetic verses and proverbs are also dealt with in the same manner. If the name of a person appears in the text then I have added a brief note.

The second chapter of the second part which is eighth in general comprises the idiomatic English translation of al-Miṣbāh. However, it was a very difficult task that I tried to perform according to the best translation I was able to produce.

## METHODOLOGY IN EDITING

In editing this work I have followed the following methodology:

1. I have established the text of the work by comparing the different manuscripts. When differences occur, I have chosen the most appropriate word or phrase from the various manuscripts, so as to obtain the closest sense to that sought by the original author of the work. On such occasions, alternative readings have been given in the footnotes.
2. I have written the text according to the standard rules of orthography, although the manuscripts generally do not adhere to these. Thus, for example, they often neglect to add the dots on the Arabic letters, as well as the hamzas.
3. I have marked Qur'ānic verses by placing them between the symbols which are normally used for Qur'ānic verses. Then I have referred to the number of each verse and the sūra from which it was taken.
4. Similarly, with the verses of the poetry given by al-Mutarrizī in the work, I have indicated the text from which they are cited. This has been done by referring back to the dēwāns of the poet, should he have any, or otherwise by looking to the earliest sources that have mentioned the verse. Furthermore, in the footnotes I have completed the verses which al-Mutarrizī only gave in part.
5. I have given references for the Arabic sayings which al-Mutarrizī cited in his work. This was done by going back to the original sources, or, when the original is no longer extant, to the secondary sources in which these are quoted.
6. With regards to the footnotes, in each chapter, I have chosen to number these continuously from the beginning to the end of the chapter, while, in the third chapter which is editing portion the numbers will go continuously.
7. I have given brief biographical notes for those individuals mentioned in the work, and for each individual have indicated at least three biographical references.
8. If a line or part of it is dropped from the text, it is shown within the ordinary brackets ( ).
9. If the omission exceeds more than a line or a page or pages, then it is indicated within the angle brackets $\}$.
10. The discussion of syntactical/grammatical issues is referred to the basic sources for derivation.
11. The difference of opinions of grammarians on syntactical issues is mentioned as well as the opinion of the author, when he differs on any syntactical issue.
12. The folio numbers of the reference copy are also mentioned in bold in the edited text.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANUSCRIPTS OF AL-MIṢBĀḤ

I have used seven copies of al-Miṣbāh for this work. The copies are put in numerical order
2. Out of these seven, the most authentic and oldest OR/5795/2 copy which was taken from the British Library is selected as a reference copy.
3. The copies from no. 1 to 6 are those kept at the British Library and in the comparison copy no. OR/4330/1 is shown under numerical order no.1. in a similar way OR 28/3 is given no. 2, BIJ 9 at no. 3, OR 4505/2 at no. 4, Delhi Arabic 1152 at No. 5, Harley 5465/3 at No. 6 respectively.
4. The copy obtained from the personal library of Shaykh Abū Ṣāliḥ is assigned as no. 7.
5. The difference among various copies can be seen under the title "Distinctiveness of different copies" on page 136.

## Chapter: 1

## Historical and Cultural Background

## 1. Introduction

The author of al-Miṣbāh, Nāṣir al-Dīn al-Muṭarrizī, was born in 538/1144 and died in 610/1213 at Jurjāniyya in Khwārazm, at a time when Khwārazm and the entire land of Mäwarā'al-nahr was under Seljuk rule. This was the time when the Seljuk Empire, after reaching its ascendancy, was coming to its end after ruling for almost three hundred years. Therefore, we will confine ourselves to this period in terms of finding out who were Seljuks, how did they achieve the ruling power, what were the characteristics of their rule and how did it come to an end? In addition, we will reflect briefly on the political, social, economic and literary aspects of this period under discussion.

The foundation of the Great Seljuk empire and the domination of the Muslim world by the Turks is a turning point in the history of the Islamic world and Muslim people. At a time when the Muslim world was suffering from both external and internal crises, the Seljuks with their fresh power restored its political unity; with the new elements and institutions which they brought, they endowed Islamic civilization with a new vitality, and started it on a new phase.

In the words of Sayyid Abū al-A'lā Mawdūdī, one of the greatest scholars of the twentieth century, "the Seljuk period may be called the golden age of the Islamic empire. This is the era when Muslims were leading the world under one central command. After the decline of the Seljuk Empire, Muslims lost their power of initiative and eventually fell victim to the rising power of the Tātārs." ${ }^{1}$

[^0]
### 1.1 Political History

### 1.1.1 The Seljuk's Appearance in the History of the World

The pronunciation of the name of Seljuk, the forefather of the dynasty, has been disputed. "Selchük" was the most correct pronunciation, as determined by the famous eleventh-century Turkish scholar Maḥmūd Kāshghar. ${ }^{2}$ He also gave examples to confirm this from subsequent Turkish sources. The Seljuk family was related to the Qinq subdivision of the Oghuz. The father of the family had the name of Duqaq or Tuqaq. ${ }^{3}$ In some sources the mistaken form of Luqmān, corrupted from Duqaq, is also found. ${ }^{4}$

It should be mentioned that the title [laqab] Temir-Yalig (with iron bow) was found among the Duqaq Oghuz. ${ }^{5}$ This esteemed an important title indicated that its possessor occupied a high position. He was given such a name because he was a powerful leader [baş-buğ] and having a highest authority in the aforesaid region, he was apparently related to a family that had held the chief position for some time. In fact, even historical sources from the time of Tughril Beg agree on the noble descent of Duqaq. In fact, Duqaq was apparently the most important person in the Oghuz state after the Yabghu because of his position of responsibility in the government.

At one point he opposed a campaign that the Yabghu wanted to carry out against a party of Turks and, as a result, a fight broke out in which he was wounded. However, he was able to strike the Yabghu with a mace and knocked him from his horse. Some

[^1]of the sources that discuss this dispute, in which Ibn Ḥassūl confused Duqaq with his son Seljuk, report that Duqaq prevented a campaign against the Muslim countries, and show this Oghuz baş-buğ as a defender of Islam. ${ }^{6}$ Although it is highly unlikely that Islam had even spread among those Oghuz by the time this event took place, probably between $875-885$, the religious status of the Qinq tribe, the Duqaq family and other Oghuz at that time at that period is not clear. Because the names Isrā’̄̄ll and Mikhā'̄̄1 were found at that time among the Seljuk family, it has been proposed that they were Christians or Jews. As there is no other evidence to support either contention, there is no firm basis for these claims.

The Oghuz only began to adopt Islam in the second half of the tenth century, and although Seljuk was depicted as the first Muslim from the family of Duqaq ${ }^{7}$, this does not mean that there was no possibility that Duqaq himself might have had contact with Islam. It would not be a mistake, however, to conclude that the Seljuk family still believed in kamlik [shamanism] at that time.

Seljuk was born around the beginning of the tenth century and was seventeen or eighteen years old when his father, Duqaq, died. He grew up under the tutelage of the Yabghu, later occupied his father's high position in the state, and became the sü-başı ['‘army commander'’] for the Oghuz Yabghu. ${ }^{8}$ Because the Turks had felt attached to old and noble dynasties throughout history and had an ancient tradition based on the belief that the ruler's family was of divine origin, Seljuk was, like his father, certainly at the head of large Oghuz groups and at that time controlled the military power of the state with the title of sü-başı ["governor/ commander'’].

Seljuk came to Jand, which was also an Oghuz city, on the left bank of the Jaxartes [Syr Darya, Ṣayhūn] probably after AD $960 .{ }^{9}$ It was not far from Yangi-Kent and was

[^2]a brother city between the Turkish and Islamic countries where Muslim emigrants from Transoxiana lived. ${ }^{10}$

The coming of Seljuk to Jand marked a watershed in history. It was during this period that a large number of Turkish groups began to adopt Islam en masse. Indeed, the Islamic milieu was not unfamiliar to the religious views of many of them and others were already at home in it. Seljuk believed in the necessity of adopting Islam not only because of the need to live in the Muslim environment, but also for political reasons. With great skill and statesmanship, he grasped the political and social conditions of this new milieu, and after deciding with his associates to carry out this conversion, requested religious officials from neighbouring Islamic lands like Bukhārā and Khwārazm. He and the Oghuz loyal to him then became Muslims. Seljuk, saying that he would not give kharāj [tax] to non-believers, namely, the officials of Oghuz Yabghu who came to Jand to collect the annual taxes, forced them to leave and undertook a struggle against the Oghuz state as a $g h \bar{a} z \bar{\imath}$, ready to embark upon a $j i h \bar{a} d$ for Islam. ${ }^{11}$

From the fighting that constantly broke out, and as a result of which Seljuk was later called 'al-Malik al-Ghāzī', he gained two important advantages: first, he obtained the help of some Muslims and the allegiance of those Turks who wanted to participate in the battles; and secondly, he was successful in overcoming the authority of the Yabghu in Jand and its surrounding area and in establishing an independent government. Seljuk gradually increased his power and obtained a position of great importance in the international arena when the neighbouring states (e.g., the Sāmānids in Transoxiana) acknowledged being subject to this independent entity. His position was conformed when the Sāmānid state requested his help against the Qarkhāndis, and he defeated the Qarkhāndis with forces he sent under the command of his son

[^3]Arslān (Isrā’̄̄1). As a result, the Seljuks were given new lands around the town of Nūr facing the Qarkhāndis on the border between Bukhārā and Samarqand. ${ }^{12}$

Seljuk, who is described in the sources as living to an old age, thus laid the foundation of the empire named after him and its successor states, all of which would have lasting influence on world history. He died around 1009, near the age of one hundred in Jand. ${ }^{13}$ It was said that Seljuk had married the daughter of one of the Turkmen rulers. He had four sons: Mikhā’̄̄1, Arslān (Isrā’̄̄1), Yūsuf, and Mūsā. ${ }^{14}$ The oldest, Mikhā’̄̄1, died in battle while Seljuk was still alive (after 995). His two sons, Chaghri and Tughril, were therefore raised by their grandfather Seljuk. Arslān, who held the title of "Yabghu', succeeded Seljuk as head of the government in conformity with the organization of the state, Yūsuf, who probably died young (after 995) and had the title of "Inal'", and Mūsā, who lived to an old age (d. after 1094) and probably had the title 'Inanch', and was later proclaimed the Yabghu, held positions as Arslān's assistants. As for the brothers Chaghrī and Tughril, who at that time must have been fourteen or fifteen years old at the most, they took their places in the administration as begs.

Although Arslān had held the high authority of the Yabghu, the members of the Seljuk family, as mentioned above, adhered to the old state system. ${ }^{15}$ Thus when they descended upon Transoxiana, each did so at the head of the Turkmen groups loyal to him. Meanwhile, their "ally", the Sāmānid state, had ceased to exist and, moreover, because the Bukhārā-Samarqand region had passed into the hands of the Qarakhāndis, who had come to an understanding with the Ghaznavids, the Seljuks found themselves in direct opposition to the Qarakhāndis. But the Qarakhānid Naṣr II Īlig-Khān was apprehensive about the Seljuks and wanted to reach an agreement with them, if possible, by which he could benefit from their forces. However, because of the feeling of mutual distress, a struggle broke out between them. Chaghrī Beg then defeated the forces of Qarkhāndid ruler Bughra Khānı in a ferocious surprise attack,

[^4]and took some of his commanders prisoner. This incident reveals the difficult position in which the groups bound to the sons of Mikhā’īl found themselves. As for their return to Transoxiana, they came to Bukhārā upon the death of Naṣr II Īlig-Khān in 403/1012-13 and encountered the opposition of the Qarkhāndid 'Alī Tegin, whose family had established an independent state there. The subsequent political pressure and shortage of land were the reasons for the famous incursion of the Seljuks under the Chaghri Beg, into eastern Anatolia (1016-21). ${ }^{16}$

### 1.1.2 Seljuk's Arrival in Khurāsān and the First Seljuk State

'Alī-Tegin became an ally of Arslān Yabghu. At one time, Arslān Khān, one of the Qarkhānid rulers, captured him but he later escaped from prison. When he came to Transoxiana, he and Arslān Yabghu seized Bukhārā (411/1020-21). 'Alī-Tegin settled there and, with Arslān's assistance, built up his strength and worked to gain a more commanding position compared to the other branches of the Qarakhānids. The power and influence of Arslān Yabghu, with the support of 'Alī-Tegin increased, and he attracted the attention of the Qarkhānids on the one hand and the Ghaznavids on the other. Transoxiana was a country that tempered the expansionist ambitions of these two great states.

It was for this reason that a historic meeting was held in Transoxiana between Yūsuf Qadīr Khān (d. 1032) and Sultan Maḥmūd of Ghazna (d.1025). In this remarkable meeting, described in detail by Gardīzī, all 'Iranian and Turanian', problems were discussed. Yūsuf Qadīr Khān characterized the Seljuks as a numerous and warlike people who could not be controlled and asked the Sultan to have them rounded up and removed from Turkistan and Transoxiana before they became a dangerous problem for even the Ghaznavid state. ${ }^{17}$ As can be seen in the famous anecdote about sending his arrow [a signal for his kinsmen to mobilize], Arslān had tens of thousands of horsemen in Turkistan and the Balkhān mountains. Sultan Maḥmūd, therefore, used shrewdness and cunning to have him brought to Samarqand, where he was arrested

[^5]and then banished to the fortress of Kālinjār in India. ${ }^{18}$ The arrest of Arslān Yabghu, who eventually died in the fortress after seven years of captivity (1032), had important consequences. First, the Seljuk authority in the aforesaid places ended the leadership of the Turkmen who were scattered here and there without land. Second, the brothers Chaghri and Toghril and the sons of Arslān Yabghu did not forget this unjust action. Third, upon the arrest of the Arslān, the imperial line was transferred to the descendents of Mikhā’̄̄l via Chaghri and Tughril, who moved to the forefront of Seljuk history.

Indeed, it became clear that the greatest problem facing the Ghaznavid state, at home or abroad, was that of the Seljuk-Turkmen and that the opinion of the vizier about them was correct once again. With the death of Khwārazam Shāh Hārūn, the Seljuks were deprived of support and at the same time were pressed by Shāh-Malik on the one hand and the sons of 'Alī Tegin and on the other, they were also weakened by their most recent attack. The Seljuks had no choice but to head to Khurāsān without the permission of the Ghaznavids. In May 1035, Chaghri Beg and Tughril Beg, together with Mūsā Yabghu and his forces, and the followers of Yınal and their forces, crossed the Oxus and entered Ghaznavid territory. Their numbers were small, but increased as they advanced toward Marv and Nasā. ${ }^{19}$ The passage of the Seljuks to Khurāsān thus constituted one of the major events in history.

When the Seljuk chiefs arrived in Nasā, they wrote a letter to the Ghaznavid vizier of Khurāsān describing their difficult position resulting from their lack of land, and asked him to intercede with the sultan so that they could be given a homeland there. The high officials of the Ghaznavid state were alarmed by this news. ${ }^{20}$ They immediately held a conference in which it appears that they wanted Sultan Mas'ūd to

[^6] Surrey: Curzon 2001, pp. 30-32; Bosworth, Clifford Edmund. The Ghaznavids: Their Empire in Afghanistan and Eastern Iran 994:1040, Edinburgh: University Press, 1963, p. 224; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 427.
${ }^{19}$ Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 82, 83.
${ }^{20}$ Nīshāpūrī̀, Zִahīr al-Dīn. The History of the Seljuq Turks (from the Jāmi' al-Tawārīkh of Ẓahīr al-Dīn Nīshāpūrī) translated by Kenneth Allin Luther edited by Edmund Bosworth. Richmond: Curzon, 2000, p. 33.
march quickly on the Seljuks while the vizier, who had more correctly analysed the problem of the Seljuks, recommended dealing cautiously with them. Because the vizier's view prevailed, the Sultan did not go to Nasā to oppose the Seljuks but for the time being went to Nīshāpūr. There he set about putting his own plans into operation and prepared an army 'capable of capturing all Turkistan'. However, this army, reinforced with elephants, suffered a terrible defeat at the hands of Seljuks on the plains of Nasā (Sha'bān 426/last week of June 1035). This was the first victory that the Seljuks won against the Ghaznavids and was a sign to them that not only could they rely to a very great extent on themselves, but they had also an opportunity to found a state here. ${ }^{21}$

In fact, after the victory the two sides exchanged "ambassadors" and a kind of autonomy was granted to the Seljuks by the Ghaznavids. The provinces of Nasā, Farāva, and Dihistān were given to Seljuk chiefs. In addition, robes of honour, patents of office, and banners were sent to them (August 1035). ${ }^{22}$ But the Seljuks were not satisfied. This is clear from the raids they launched as far as Balkh and Sīstān, and their desire for more than the provinces of Khurāsān. Consequently, Sultan Mas 'ūd again assembled a great army, this time to drive the Turkmen completely out of Khurāsān. Sultan Mas‘ūd who was a man of little political insight and, furthermore, addicted to amusement and pleasure, simply left the prosecution of the war against this formidable danger, which swirled over the head of the Ghaznavid state, to his commanders and himself set out to conquer India. The great Haājib Su-Bashı, the commander of the Ghaznavid army which was at Nīshāpūr, moved against the Seljuks on the direct order of the Sultan in India.

In the battle that took place near Sarakhs (third week of May 1038), he suffered a major defeat, thanks above all to the great efforts of Chaghri Beg. ${ }^{23}$ This second Seljuk victory was in reality a battle in a war for independence. It brought the reign of Khurāsān directly under the command of Seljuk sovereignty. In accordance with an

[^7]old Turkish tradition, the Seljuk chiefs divided the country among themselves: Chaghri Beg acquired Marv, Mūsā Yabghu took Sarakhs and the "just ruler" Toghril Beg received Nīshāpūr. While the khutba [Friday sermon] was read in the name of Chaghri Beg in Marv with the title of Malik al-Mulūk in June $1038^{24}$, with brilliant pageantry, Tughril Beg entered Nīshāpūr in May with the title 'al-Sulṭān alMu'aẓzam''. With Toghril Beg were 3,000 horsemen and he carried a bow in his hand as a symbol of Turkish rule. Qāḍī Sā‘id, the most respected man in the city when Sultan Mas‘ūd had ascended the throne there, addressed Toghril Beg as efendimiz [our master]. ${ }^{25}$ The new Seljuk state was immediately organized, and officials were appointed its various regions. When the 'Abbāsid Caliph al-Qā'im bi Amr Allāh sent an ambassador to Nīshāpūr, the Seljuks were justifiably pleased, for this meant that the caliph recognized Toghril Beg as the ruler of Khurāsān and the leader of all the Turkmen. ${ }^{26}$

### 1.1.3 The Seljuk War of Independence and Subsequent Conquests

When Sultan Mas‘ūd learned of the events in Khurāsān, he hastily set out with his forces. Meanwhile Chaghri Beg was struggling to capture the area around Țalqān and Fāryāb and some of his cavalry even appeared at the gate of Balkh. The Sultan at the head of an army composed of 50,000 horsemen and foot soldiers and equipped with 300 war elephants, came to Balkh and quickly headed in the direction of Sarakhs. Under the command of Mas‘ūd, this army was so large and well-equipped that nothing in all Turkistan could resist it. ${ }^{27}$ In the fighting, which began in Ramaḍān 430/May 1039 and lasted for a long time, the Seljuks could not continuously face all the Sultan's forces. ${ }^{28}$ And so they spread out and withdrew to the desert, where it was

[^8]impossible for the Ghaznavid army to follow them, and fought a war of attrition; meanwhile Mas‘ūd entered Nīshāpūr (Ṣafar 431/November 1039). Harassed by ceaseless hit-and-run attacks, the Ghaznavid army occupied itself with training for desert warfare.

When spring arrived, the Seljuks decided, again at the insistence of the Chaghri Beg, to go out and confront the Sultan. The Ghaznavid army, under the command of the Sultan, was gradually drawn away from Sarakhs to the desert north of the city. In this trackless wasteland the Seljuk had destroyed all the wells. Left without water and subject to a series of uninterrupted attacks and raids from behind, the morale of this army of some 100,000 men was consequently shaken. Finally, near Marv before the fortress of Dāndanqān ${ }^{29}$, the Seljuks gave battle and inflicted a terrible defeat on the Ghaznavid army, which had fought nonstop with all its strength for three days, and destroyed a large section of it on 7-9 Ramaḍān 431, 22-24 May 1040. Although Mas'ūd was able to escape with about 100 followers and headed for India, he was later killed on the way by his own men. ${ }^{30}$

This was the battle for Seljuk independence. After the long hard struggle they obtained their wish: they succeeded in founding an independent state in Khurāsān. They proclaimed Toghril Beg the Sultan of the Seljuk state. ${ }^{31}$ According to the custom of the period, fathnāmas [victory announcements] were sent to neighbouring rulers. A letter with the signature of the Tughril Beg was sent to the caliph in Baghdad with the Seljuk ambassador Abū al-Ishāaq Fuqqā̄̄̄. It stated that justice had been established in Khurāsān, there would be no deviation from the path of the God, and that the Seljuks would be loyal to the Commander of the Faithful. ${ }^{32}$ The country that had been conquered and those to be conquered in the future were divided among the three chiefs of the Seljuk dynasty.

[^9]Chaghri Beg's son Qara-Arslān Qāvurt was sent to Kirmān. He was in action there against the Būyids in 1041. Although the Turkmen force under his command met stiff resistance, he finally captured the major city of the area from the $N \bar{a} \cdot i b$ [representative] of the Būyid Abū Kālījār. Moreover, by carrying out a raid in which he put the chiefs of the Quf̣̣ and Qufa tribes to the sword, he also secured Garmsīr, the mountainous region of southern Kirmān, from their banditry. ${ }^{33}$ He thus brought all of Kirmān under Seljuk control. In 459/1069 he rebelled again because he did not want to have the name of Alp Arslān's son, Malik Shāh, read in the khutba. ${ }^{34}$ When the imperial forces arrived in Kirmān, he asked for mercy and was again forgiven. When Malik Shāh ascended the throne, Qāvurt rebelled again, but in a battle near Hamadān, he was defeated and imprisoned in (4 Sha'bān 465/16 May 1073). Later on he was secretly strangled with his own bow string. ${ }^{35}$ When Chaghrī Beg became ill in 435/1043-44, his son Alp-Arslān looked after his territory. Alp Arslān's first victory occurred when he defeated and drove off the new Ghaznavid forces. Finally, in 1095, Chaghrī Beg concluded a peace treaty with the new Ghaznavid sultan, Ibrāhīm, which made the Hindu Kush mountain range the border between the two states, and lasted about a half century. ${ }^{36}$

After these last events, Chaghrī Beg became ill and passed away in Sarakhs at the age of seventy (STafar 452/March 1060). ${ }^{37}$ With astonishing courage and great ability to command, Chaghri Beg had played the primary role in the foundation of the Seljuk state from the beginning. But his modesty was such that he consented to his younger brother Tughril Beg, whose intelligence and superior political acumen he respected, becoming chief of state. Chaghri Beg was the ancestor of all the Seljuk dynasties except for the Anatolian Seljuk family, and one of his daughters married the Caliph al-Qā’im. Meanwhile as the sovereignty of the Seljuk state thus spread east, north,

[^10]and southwards, conquests were also made on a large scale in the west under the direction of Tughril Beg. ${ }^{38}$ Meanwhile, the Caliph al-Qā’im sent the well-known Muslim legal scholar and chief qāḍī al-Māwardī, the author of the famous al-Ahkām al-sultāniyya, to the sultan. Tughril Beg met the ambassador with honour at a distance of four parasangs from Rayy and told him that the Seljuks had a vast number of "troops" and that their current lands were not sufficient. ${ }^{39}$ After Chaghrī beg's death the complex situation of the government was difficult to handle. In order to put pressure on the Armenians and Georgians, and, at the same time, march against the Turks to stop their raids, Emperor Constantine IX Monomachus (1042-55) dispatched the army to Ani on one hand, and to Dvin, the capital of the Shaddādids, the other hand, Tughril Beg sent Qutalmish with Ibrāhīm Yinal, and the Seljuk forces inflicted a defeat on the Byzantine army before Ganja (438/1046). ${ }^{40}$

The Seljuk princes advanced as far as the plain of Erzurum and first captured the large and rich city of Erzen (Kara-Erzen, today's Karaz), which was near Erzurum. At that moment, on the orders of the emperor, a 50,000 man Byzantine army under the command of Katakalon appeared on the plain of Pasin. The savage battle ended in the defeat of the Byzantine army. Tens of thousands of prisoners were taken, and among the large number of captured commanders was the Georgian Liparit (18 September 1048). ${ }^{41}$ The Byzantine ambassador, who sent expensive gifts to Tughril Beg by way of the Marwānid Naṣr al-Dawla, tried to rescue Liparit in return for ransom. The sultan freed Liparit without a ransom and sent him with his own ambassador, Sharīf Nāṣir al-Din ibn Ismā‘īl, in 441/1049-50. ${ }^{42}$

Tughril Beg then went to Iṣfahān and after a yearlong siege took it from Fāramurz, the son of Ibn Kākūya, who had been inclined toward the Būyids in Baghdad. Thus, after 'Iraq al-‘Ajam the Seljuks absorbed Fars, Ahwāz, Khūzistān and al-Jazīra towards the

[^11]end of 1054, and the khutba was read in the name of Tughril Beg in Karmisīn, which had been in the hands of the 'Uqaylīd rulers of Mosul. ${ }^{43}$

Tughril Beg headed for Baghdad on the invitation of the Caliph al-Qā'im. In a letter sultan was asked to come quickly to the capital. As the sultan and his vizir, 'Amīd alMulk al-Kundūrī, approached Baghdad with an army equipped with elephants, alBasāsīr̄̄'s anxiety increased. He finally informed Egypt of the situation and retreated from Baghdad to the north. ${ }^{44}$ After the caliph received a courtesy letter from Toghril Beg requesting permission to enter the seat of the caliphate, the sultan entered Baghdad on 25 Ramaḍān 447/17 January 1055, and he also set aside 50,000 dinars and 500 kor of wheat to add to the caliph's annual allowance. At the same time, by acting as the protector of the 'Abbasid caliph, he took on the defence of the Sunni Muslim world. And thanks to the marriage of Chaghri Beg's daughter, Khadīja Arslān Khātūn, to al-Qā’im, a strong relationship was established that strengthened the ties between the Seljuk dynasty and the family of the caliph. ${ }^{45}$

### 1.2 The Great Seljuk Empire

With the help of the Fātimids, Arslā al-Basāsīrī collected his forces at Raḥba (end of Shawwāl 448/January 1057). ${ }^{46}$ Tughril Beg was therefore forced to take the field and al-Basāsīrī fled to Syria. Meanwhile Tughril was invited by al-Qā'im to the caliphal palace, and there a ceremony was held legitimizing Toghril Beg's assumption of the defence of the Muslim world. In this ceremony, which was attended by all the leading men of the Seljuk state and the caliphal officials, al-Qā'im thanked the Sultan for the services he had rendered and had him sit on a specially prepared throne next to his own. The Sultan, in turn, paid his respects to the caliph. Afterwards, al-Qā'im placed a crown on the head of Toghril Beg, to whom he had also given banners and robes of

[^12]honour. Girding him with a gold sword, he declared him 'ruler of the East and West" (26 Dhū al-Qa'da 449/ 25 January 1058), and the title 'Yamīn Amīr al-Mu'minīn" [Right Hand of the Commander of the Faithful, namely, the caliph]. Tughril Beg's sovereignty over the Muslim world was thus confirmed. At the same time, it was proclaimed that he was the ruler of the world. All of this was completely in line with his previously held desire and policy to eliminate Shī'ism on the one hand, and continue the conquest to the west on the other. ${ }^{47}$

In 451/2 July 1059 when Sultan was busy with his brother Ibrāhīm Yınal, al-Basāsīrī went on the march again and reached Baghdad. He removed the Caliph from the city, and had the Khutba recited in the name of the Fătimids. But when he learned that Tughril Beg was victoriously on his way to Baghdad, he fled. After the Sultan reached Baghdad, he greeted the Caliph, who had returned from captivity, and personally took complete control by taking him to his palace and placing him on the throne. Then, at the head of a vast army that included such important commanders as Sav-Tegin, Khumar-Tegin Gümüsh-Tegin, and Erdem, he immediately set out after al-Basāsīr̄̄. He caught up with his forces at Hilla. They were defeated and Basāsīrī was killed (Dhū al- Ḥijja 451/ January 1060). ${ }^{48}$

This event caused great pleasure in Baghdad and the entire Sunnī world. Meantime Toghril Beg's beloved wife passed away and the Sultan wanted to marry the daughter of al-Qā’im. Although the Caliph was not very enthusiastic about giving his daughter to someone outside the caliphal family, he eventually agreed to it. The marriage ceremony was performed in Sha'bān 454/August 1062. ${ }^{49}$ After returning to Rayy with his wife, he became ill and could not rise. Finally, on 8 Ramaḍān 455/4 September 1063, at the age of seventy, he died and was buried in his türbe at Rayy. ${ }^{50}$ All the sources testify to his justice and piety. Moreover, he was distinguished among the members of the Seljuk family by his quick mind and the insightfulness of his political

[^13]views. It was for these reasons that he became the first Sultan of the Seljuk state. Tughril Beg occupies an important position in Turkish and Islamic history. ${ }^{51}$

Tughril Beg had no children. He therefore made his nephew Chaghri Beg's son, Sulaymān, the heir apparent. But Alp Arslān, while unable speedily to reach Rayy from Marv, tried to take command of the situation with the help of Er-Sighun, the son of Yūsuf Yınal and brother of Ibrāhīm Yınal, and Erdem, who had the khutba read in his name in Qazvīn. On 7 Jumādā I 456/27 April 1064, Alp-Arslān ascended the throne at Rayy. He was thirty six years old. The new Sultan dismissed 'Amīd al-Mulk and replaced him with Nizāa al-Mulk, who had been his vizier in Marv. He also made changes among the other high state officials. ${ }^{52}$ In spring 1064, Alp-Arslān set out for Āzarbāījān. After receiving the allegiance of the little Armenian kingdom of Lori in Arrān, he entered Georgia. His son Malik Shāh and Nizāam al-Mulk were with him. He subsequently marched on Ani, and after fierce attacks against the city's renowned walls, the Sultan finally captured it on 16 August 1064. The conquest of Ani caused great rejoicing in the Islamic world. Fathnāmas were sent everywhere. The Caliph himself issued a declaration describing Alp-Arslān's success and thanking him and his fighters for the faith. ${ }^{53}$

In the middle of Ramaḍān July (458/1066), Alp-Arslān went to Nīshāpūr. He subsequently crushed the last revolt of Qāvurt, the malik of Kirmān $(459 / 1067)^{54}$, and by marching from Kirmān toward Shīrāz, brought the fortress of Iṣtakhr under control. He then concentrated all his attention on the western frontier, that is, Anatolia, which the Turkmen forces continued to raid incessantly and which had become necessary to conquer because the Turks had streamed into that region in great masses from central Asia. Upon the death of Emperor Constantine X Ducas in 1067, the empress sought to place a powerful general at the head of the empire in order to stop the Turks and, if possible, remove them from Anatolia. After long preparations,

[^14]Romanus set out from Constantinople at the head of an enormous army on 13 March 1071.

On 26 August 1071, in the company of vizier Nizām al-Mulk and the great commander Sav-Tegin, Alp Arslān reached Malazgird where he completely destroyed the Byzantine army and captured Romanus IV Diogenes. With the destruction on the Malazgird plain of the last and most powerful Byzantine army to be sent against the Turks, the Byzantine defences collapsed. As a result of this incomparable victory, which was to have great repercussions in the Islamic and Western worlds, Alp Arslān sealed the fate of Anatolia, which would become a Turkish homeland. ${ }^{55}$ After this victory, the Sultan prepared for a campaign in Transoxiana because of a war between [his brother] Malik Ilyās, and the Qarkhānid ruler Shams al-Mulk Naṣr Khān. During this campaign he was stabbed by the commander of a local fortress, and consequently died on the tenth of Rabī‘ I 465/25 November 1072. ${ }^{56}$ Famous for his courage, this sultan was one of the most distinguished figures in Turkish and Islamic history. He was forty-five years old at his death and held the kunya "Abū Shujā‘[the courageous] the laqab " "Aḍud al-Dawla" [the strength of the state], and the title "Burhān Amīr al-Mu'minīn', [the proof of the commander of the faithful]. ${ }^{57}$

Malik Shāh was declared sultan on 25 November 1072. Alp-Arslān had frequently reconfirmed him as the heir apparent in order to prevent fratricidal quarrels. When Malik Shāh ascended the throne, Nizāam al-Mulk was retained as vizier. In the winter of 1072-73, Malik Shāh's uncle, Qāvurt, the malik of Kirmān, rebelled. On the advice of Nizāa al-Mulk, the sultan first defeated and captured Qāvurt (4 Sha'bān 465/10 May 1073). This success strengthened Malik Shāh's position within the country and the Caliph confirmed his sultanate. ${ }^{58}$ When these difficulties were overcome, Malik Shāh, who had transferred the capital of the empire to Iṣfahān, began large-scale conquests. On 3 April 1078, when General Nicephorus Boteniates donned the emperor's crown after having rebelled with Turkish help, Izmit and all of Koja-eli

[^15][the peninsula between the Black Sea and Sea of Marmara opposite Constantinople] passed under Turkish control and Byzantine resistance in Anatolia ended. He also captured Jerusalem, fought Badr al-Jamālī at the fortress of Acre (1072), seized Damascus after three sieges (10 June 1076), ended the Shī‘ī call to prayer, and had the names of the 'Abbāsid caliph and Malik Shāh recited in the khutba. ${ }^{59}$ Leaving Aleppo, Malik Shāh went to Baghdad and was greeted by the caliph's officials amidst an enthusiastic popular demonstration. ${ }^{60}$ In a great ceremony arranged in the Dār alKhilāfa, caliph al-Muqtadī bi-Amr Allāh girded the sultan with two swords while again describing him as the 'ruler of the East and West''on 17 Muḥarram 480/25 April 1088. It was then that Malik Shāh's daughter Mehmelek came to Baghdad from Iṣfhān with Terken Khātūn in the company of leading commanders who was married to the caliph. The magnificent wedding took place in Baghdad. ${ }^{61}$

One of the problems that Malik Shāh had to face in the Sunnī /Shī ‘ī quarrel was the
 Although the sultan despatched armies to destroy his nest of rāfidīs, the operation could not continue for in the meantime the sultan had died in Baghdad. The ambitious Teken Khātūn had wanted to make her own son Maḥmūd the heir apparent instead of prince Berk-Yaruq. She had conspired with Caliph al-Muqtadī, who had been offended by Malik Shāh and poisoned the sultan (16 Shawwāl 485/20 November1092). Malik Shāh was thirty-eight years old when he died. ${ }^{63}$

Malik Shāh was the greatest Seljuk ruler and one of the greatest Turkish emperors in history. He was called '"al-Sulț̄̄n al-A'ẓam'" [the greatest sultan], 'Sultān al-‘Ālam'" [sultan of the world], and also bore the title "al-Sulṭān al-‘Ādil" [the just sultan] and the title "Abū al- Faṭh’". In addition he was given the bynames "Jalāl al-Dunyā wa al-Dīn'"[the glory of the world and the faith] and the title 'Qāsim Amīr al-

[^16]Mu'minīn'" [the partner of the Caliph]. Because of his justice and compassion, his death was mourned by Christians, including Armenians and Assyrians, and members of other religions as much as by Turks and the Muslim world in general, and funeral marches were held everywhere. ${ }^{64}$

### 1.3 The Dissolution of the Great Seljuk Empire

About one month before the death of the sultan, the renowned Nizā̄m al-Mulk who had been the Seljuk vizier for some thirty years, was murdered by the bātinīs. Consequently when Malik Shāh passed from the scene, the empire fell into a state of confusion resulting from the unavoidable struggle for the throne and was divided into four sections: (1) the Seljuk state of Iraq and Khurāsān (the continuation of the Great Seljuks), until 1194; (2) the Seljuk state of Kirmān, 1092-1187; (3) the Seljuk state of Syria, 1192-1217; and (4) the Seljuk state of Anatolia, 1092-1308. During the reign of the four sons who were the successive rulers after Malik Shāh, indeed of the reign of the very first son, Anatolia separated from the empire. It remained formally bound to the centre of power until 1116, when the Seljuk family in Syria passed from the scene. After Sanjar (d. 1157), the last "'Great sultan'", the three remaining Seljuk states went their separate ways.

### 1.3.1 The Seljuks of Iraq and Kurāsān

With the exception of sultan Sanjar, the general history of the Seljuk state of Iraq and Khurāsān is a chronicle of brave but inept rulers devoid of political sense and unworthy of their ancestors, ambitious and devious state officials, and bātinī crimes. By spending large sums to win the support of the commanders, Terken Khātūn declared her son Maḥmūd the new sultan, although he was only five years old. While the khutba was being read in his name ${ }^{65}$, Berk-Yaruq, who was supported as heir apparent by the followers of Nizā̄m al-Mulk, was declared sultan in Rayy. When her forces met defeat in the battle of Burūjird, Terken Khātūn married the Malik of Āzarbāījān, Quṭb al-Dīn Ismā‘īl, and tried to bring him to power. But he was also

[^17]defeated. ${ }^{66}$ Terken Khātūn was finally removed from the scene by assassination. Tutush came to Rayy via Āzarbāījān and in his ensuing battle with Berk-Yaruq was defeated and killed on the $7^{\text {th }}$ of Ṣafr 488/ 26 February1095. ${ }^{67}$ But his sons in Syria, Fakhr al-Mulūk Riḍwān and Shama al- Mulūk Duqaq, did not recognize Berk-Yaruq and had the khutba read in their own names.

Berk Yaruq was forced to fight against his uncle Arslān Argun, who had declared his independence in Khurāsān, in order to retain the territories in the East. The sultan sent his younger brother Sanjar, along with the atabeg Kamach, against him in Khurāsān and also marched there himself. Arslān Arghun was assassinated in 1097. Berk Yaruq made Sanjar the malik of Khurāsān and entrusted him with the province of Balkh up to the Ghaznavid border. In 1099, Berk Yaruq's other brother, Muḥammad Tapar, the Malik of Āzarbāīā̄n, rebelled. When the two armies came face to face for the third time in November 1101, the two brothers agreed to divide the state through the mediation of the caliph. Thus Muḥammad Tapar received Āzarbāījān, al-Jazīra, and Diyarbakir as Malik Sanjar kept his position, and Berk-Yaruq was accepted as sultan. ${ }^{68}$

During the critical days in which Berk-Yaruq was making every effort to hold together the dissolving Great Seljuk Empire, the underground bāatin̄ movement, on the one hand, spread throughout the country and zealots from the medieval Christian world, on the other, swept in to the Muslim Turkish territory like a torrent. Furthermore, he had to wage a fierce struggle against those bātinīs who were notorious for assassinating leading statesmen and commanders, beginning with Nizā̄m al-Mulk. He defeated Aḥmad ibn 'Abd al-Malik al-‘Aṭtāsh, one of the most famous Ismā‘īlī $d \bar{a} ‘ \bar{l} s$ [propagandists], seized the castle in which he had taken refuge and wiped out all the bātinis found there (1107). He entered the struggle against the Crusaders in 1111 and sent an army under the command of Mawdūd, the nephew of

[^18]Kür-Bugha, the begs of Mosul that besieged Edessa, the capital of the Frankish country but his efforts went wrong and he could not make any progress.

The sultan, who died at the age of thirty-six, was succeeded by his son and heir apparent Mughīth al-Dīn Maḥmūd. In the struggle for the throne that began after the death of Malik Shāh, Sanjar invaded and took control of the states that had broken away from Saljuk rule. Maḥmūd was only a youth of fourteen when he came into conflict with his younger brothers Tughril and Mas‘ūd, or more correctly their atabegs. Georgian forces took advantage of the continuing disorders to occupy Tiflish in 1121. Because relations were not good between the sultan and the Caliph, alMustarshid bi-Allāh, bloody clashes occurred between the Seljuk forces and the Arabs. The sultan was incapable of facing up to these events and devoted himself to hunting and other amusements. ${ }^{69}$

It should also be noted here that the Caliphs, who had been restricted to concerning themselves with religious matters and had been isolated from worldly affairs since the time of Tughril Beg, slowly began to get involved in the affairs of state. The first to become active was the aforesaid al-Mustarshid (1118-35). This caliph did not approve of the Hamadān government and provoked fratricidal conflict over the Seljuk throne. In return for receiving direct personal control of Iraq al-‘Arab as a caliphal state (agreement of 1132), he supported Mas‘ūd against Tughril and even attempted to send a robe of honour to Khwārazm Shāh, to get his support. Although Mas‘ūd forced Mustarshid to leave Baghdad (1135), the caliph was able to gather sufficient forces to attack Mas‘ūd (24 June 1135). He was taken prisoner by Mas‘ūd when the Turkish soldiers in his army deserted to the sultan. Although an agreement was reached between them at Marāgheh, the caliph was murdered by the bātinīs. ${ }^{70}$

Mas‘ūd was invited to Rayy by Sanjar and there received the favours of the great sultan. He then went to Baghdad (April 1150). However, he soon became ill and died

[^19](1 Rajab 547/2 October 1152) in Hamadān where he was buried. With the death of Mas‘ūd, the prosperity of the dynasty of Iraq can be said to have ended. ${ }^{71}$

In 1187 the Caliph demolished the sultan's palace in Baghdad and in 1188, under the command of his vizier, sent an army against the Tughril in support of Qızıl Arslān. Consequently, Qızıl Arslān was able to enter Hamadān. ${ }^{72}$ He received from the Caliph such tittles as 'al-Malik al-Mu'azzzam'" and 'Nāṣīr Amīr al-Mu'minīn". Qizıl Arslān was assassinated in October 1191, another of Tughril’s opponents, Qutlugh Inanch, requested help from the Khwārazam Shāh 'Alā' al-Dīn Tekish, who already controlled all of Khurasān. Tekish then advanced toward Iraq. In a battle near Rayy, the Khwārazm army routed the Seljuk forces. Sultan Tughril, who fought with great courage even though deserted at the last moment by all his men and left alone, was killed ( 29 Rabī` $^{\text {© }}$ 590/25 March 1194). The Seljuk state of Iraq thus passed from the scene and the region was absorbed by the Khwārazm Shāh. ${ }^{73}$

### 1.3.2 The Seljuks of Kirmān

The conquests in and around Kirmān by Qara-Arslān Qāvurt, the son of Chagri Beg, have been mentioned. In his last revolt against Malik Shāh, Qāvrut was defeated, taken prisoner and put to death. But his family was left in place in the country and formed the Seljuk dynasty of Kirmān. In September 1074, Malik Shāh carried out a campaign in Kirmān, which he had placed under the control of Sav-Tegin. At that time the sultan received the allegiance of Qāvurt's son Sultan Shāh after receiving that of his other sons Ḥusayn and Mirdān Shāh. When the empire began to break up after Malik Shāh's death in 1092, another of Qāvurt's sons, Tūrān Shāh (1085-97), who had been on the throne of Kirmān, occupied Fārs. ${ }^{74}$ He was followed by Īrān Shāh and the Arslān Shāh (1101-42), who recognized the authority of Sanjar. During the reign of Arslān Shāh, the Seljuk state of Kirmān experienced a golden age. The country was weakened by the rivalry and struggles among Tughril Shāh's three sons -Arslān Shāh

[^20]II, Bahrām Shāh, and Tūrān Shāh II and for a while (after 1175) was subject to the Ghūrids. Dinar Beg, one of the Oghuz chieftains invaded Khurāsān, took Kirmān from the last Seljuk malik Muḥammad Shāh II, occupied it, and put an end to the Seljuk dynasty there. ${ }^{75}$

### 1.3.3 The Seljuks of Syria

After the death of Malik Shāh, Tāj al-Dawla Tutush had declared himself sultan in opposition to Berk-Yaruq and marched as far as 'Irāq al-'Ajam before he was defeated and killed on 24 February $1095 .{ }^{76}$ At this time his sons Fakhr al-Mulūk Riḍwān and Shams al-Mulūk Duqaq were in Aleppo and Damascus respectively. In 4388/1095, Riḍwān became the malik of Syria and Palestine and Duqaq became the malik of Damascus. Riḍwān tried twice to capture Damascus from his brother. In 490/1097, the two met in battle at Qinnisrīn, where Duqaq and his ally Yaghi-Siyan, were defeated and in both cities Riḍwān's name was then mentioned in the khutba before that of Duqaq. ${ }^{77}$ In the end, Syria was divided into two Seljuk states, one at Aleppo and the other at Damascus. In 1098, as a result of Kür-Bugha's failure, despite the heroic defence by Yaghı-Siyan, the crusaders, who had reached an agreement with the Fātimids to divide the Seljuk lands, captured Antioch. ${ }^{78}$ When Riḍwān died in Aleppo in 1113, he was succeeded by his son Alp Arslān, who was killed a short time later. He was replaced by his brother Sulṭān Shāh (1114-17), but during his reign the power was in the hands of Lu'lu', one of his father's slaves. As for Damascus, because Tugh-Tegin had become the ruler, the Seljuk family was no longer in power there. ${ }^{79}$

[^21]
### 1.3.4 The Seljuk of Anatolia

This branch of the Seljuk dynasty, which was founded by Sulaymān Shāh, a grandson of Arslān Yabghu and was continued by his family, established the most important and longest surviving Seljuk state. Sulaymān Shāh made Iznik his capital in 1087. But when he went to Antioch in 1086, he died in a struggle with Tutush. ${ }^{80}$ For a while the Seljuk state of Anatolia was left in the hands of Abū al-Ghāzī [Dānishmand] but then taken over by the Qılıch Arslān I, the son of Sulaymān Shāh, who came to Iznik upon the defeat of Malik Shāh. Although Qilıch Arslān was the first sultan of Anatolia, there was no unified Seljuk state there because, in the time between his father's death and 1092, when there was no ruler in this region, the begs of various areas of eastern Anatolia and western Anatolia and then the Artuqids and Akhlaṭ Shāh, each set out to create independent states. ${ }^{81}$

About the time that Q1lich Shāh was occupied with the crusades, he seized Malatya, which had passed to the Dānishmandids (1102). He thus broke their power, which had been increasing alongside him in Anatolia. ${ }^{82}$ Sultan Q1lich Arslān I had come to power at the most critical time in the history of the Turks in the Near East. He was the first real target of the fanatical Crusader armies and had hoped to unify the part of Anatolia that he succeeded in retaining. Qilıch Arslān's son Shahanshāh or Malik Shāh who had been captured by Chavlı and sent to the sultan of Iraq, was released two years later and came to Malatya, where he became sultan. ${ }^{83}$ However, for many years he had to struggle against his younger brother Mas'ūd, who challenged his claim to the sultanate.

Sultan Qilich Arslān II (1156-92) took the capital, Konya, and the surrounding area and, although his brothers held subordinate positions as maliks, he had his middle brother strangled in order to prevent a dispute over the throne. On the other hand the Byzantine forces were continuously attacking on the Seljuk borders. They carried out acts of destruction exactly as they had done on the eve of the battle of Malazgird. The

[^22]Armenian prince Stephen with an army exceeding 100,000 men composed of Franks, Serbs, Hungarians and Pechenegs in addition to the regular Byzantine forces had decided to destroy the Seljuk state whatever the cost. Thanks to the feigned retreat maneuvre that the Turkmen forces skilfully executed, Qılich Arslān totally annihilated the Byzantine army (September 1176) that had succeeded in reaching the narrow and steep valley of Myriocephalum, east of Denizli near Lake Hoyran. The emperor was allowed to return to Constantinople on condition that he would remove the Byzantine fortifications in western Anatolia and pay heavy reparations. This victory completely destroyed the hope of retaking Anatolia, which the Byzantines had nourished during the century since the battle of Malazgird. It also confirmed that Anatolia, which until then had been regarded in the Christian world as a kind of "country under the Turkish occupation'", had become a truly Turkish homeland. ${ }^{84}$

Around 1185, after a long and successful life of struggle, a tired Q1lich Arslān II divided his country among his eleven sons. He himself lived in Konya, as the lord of these maliks, and had his vizier, Ikhtiyār al-Dīn Ḥasan, administer the state. Upon the capture of Jerusalem by Ṣalāh al-Dīn al-Ayyūbī in 1187, another Crusade army, the third, set out again from Europe under the leadership of the German emperor and English and French kings, and approached the Seljuk state while it was in this difficult position.

Following the death of his father, and after seizing Konya from Malik Shāh, KiaKhusraw I, the malik of Ulu-Borlu and heir apparent, became the Seljuk sultan (11921221). During his first sultanate, which lasted five years, Kai-Khusraw fought against his brothers, defeating the Byzantine Emperor Alexius III Angelus and, at the same time, expanded his conquests toward the west. ${ }^{85}$

After the death of Kay-Khusraw his son Kay-Kā'ūs was declared Sultan and after his death in 1220 Kay-Qubād became the Sultan. The good relations that were established between Jalāl al-Dīn, who struggled against the Mongols, and Kay-Qubād, who

[^23]fought the Christians, were broken when the Khwārazm Shāh took the Ayyūbid city of Akhlāt after a long siege, devastated it, and put the population to the sword. Brave but lacking political astuteness, the Khwārazm Shāh was persuaded by the malik of Erzurum, whom he had taken under his protection, to turn against the sultan. Where the two armies met at Erzurum in the battle of Yassı-Chimen (August 1230), that of the Khwārazm Shāh suffered with a heavy defeat. At the death of Jalāl al-Dīn in 1231, the Seljuk state became the neighbour of the Mongols. ${ }^{86}$

Meanwhile, the ambassador who had come from Caliph al-Mustanṣir bi- Allāh, alMalik al-Kāmil, and the Christian rulers expressed the need to unite against the Mongols, whose intensified raids had advanced as far as Mosul. Kay-Qubād was of the same mind. However, the sultan was poisoned during the banquet that he gave for these envoys (1237) and the great alliance could not be realized. The death of the most distinguished figure of the Anatolian Turkish state, while only forty-five years old, therefore had grave consequences for the Seljuks. ${ }^{87}$

The Seljuk sultans who succeeded Kay-Khusraw were neither free nor independent: 'Izz al-Dīn Kay-Ka’ūs II (1246-49); Rukn al-Dīn Qılıch Arslān IV (1248-49); KayKa'ūs II, Qilıch Arslān IV and 'Alā’ al-Dīn Kay-Qubād II (d. 1254; ruled jointly 1249-57); Kay-Kā'ūs II (second reign, 1257-59; joint with Qılıch Arslān IV,1257-66); Ghiyāth al-Dīn Kay-Khusraw III (1266-83); Ghiyāth al-Dīn Mas‘ūd II (1283-98); 'Alā’ al-Dīn Kay-Qubād III (1298-1302); Ghiyāth al-Dīn Mas‘ūd II second reign, (1303-8). From the battle of Köse-Dagh until the last Seljuk state sank into history in 1308, Anatolia was the scene of struggles among so-called sultans and princes. ${ }^{88}$

[^24]
### 1.4 The Reasons for the Rise of the Seljuk Empire

We shall focus on a number of points that were among the primary factors contributing to the outstanding success of the Seljuks in establishing a great political organization over the near East; transforming Anatolia into a Turkish homeland, and thus giving a new direction to Turkish history; achieving a new orientation for the Islamic world within the framework of the Middle Ages; and finally, acquiring an important place in world history by influencing the West.

### 1.4.1 The Settling of Khurāsān

When Seljuk decided to leave the country of the Oghuz with the groups loyal to him, he may have thought of going west, which was the traditional direction of previous Turkish migrations. But because of the serious obstacle presented by the dominion of the hostile Khazars in the west, Seljuk chose the southern direction that was open to him. Moreover, Transoxiana, to which he turned, was not really foreign to the Turks. Islam was no doubt not unknown among the Oghuz, who included the group later called the "Seljuks'. Consequently, if one takes into consideration the environmental conditions and the religious views of the time, as well as the significance of the fact that all the leaders of the Seljuks later appeared warriors for Islam, one must naturally assume that Seljuk established a homeland in the Jand region and converted to Islam with the forces in his company.

Arslān Yabghu's Turkmen requested a homeland in Khurāsān from the Ghaznavid Sultan Maḥmūd, which reveals the importance of this area to the Seljuks. In fact, with respect to geographical conditions and climate, the vast territory of Khurāsān, which included such major settlements as Nīshāpūr, Sarakhs, Tūs, Marv, and Balkh, was a country that made a perfect place to live for the Turks, who followed a life of steppeculture. Furthermore, the Turks who lived in the plains would complement the settled economy because the products they obtained from their great herds of sheep, cattle, and horses would meet the needs of the city and villages and provide raw materials for local industry. Later, at the time of the Seljuks, this area nourished the greatest statesmen and administrators, and became one of the scholarly centres of the Muslim
world. Its economic, military and cultural importance made it the major object of the wars among the states. In this regard one must naturally consider the efforts of the Seljuks to obtain the same goal, whatever the cost. Thus, the region of Khurāsān was the key element economically, politically, and ethnically, that provided the Seljuks with the incentive and determination to found a state. ${ }^{89}$

### 1.4.2 The Character and Structure of the Seljuk State

The Seljuk Turks, who brought with them a world view from the steppes, were able to establish a state in such a milieu by adapting to the new conditions required by Islamic and local practices. There are historical records which reveal that, even in the most difficult times, they did not lose their notion of sovereignty and that the goal of creating an independent state became their ultimate objective. Throughout its history in Khurāsān, the Seljuk Empire was administered as an Islamic state based on the Sharī $a$ and other Islamic principles and institutions. ${ }^{90}$ Indeed this was one of its dominant characteristics. It was natural that they would maintain the Turkish ideas of sovereignty that their ancestors had faithfully followed for centuries in the various states in this milieu and they would continue their old ethnic traditions. The Seljuk state was therefore a political entity born of a mixture of Turkish and Islamic values together with thought and institutions.

### 1.4.3 Ethnic Characteristics

In the Seljuk Empire, most of the population was composed of non-Turkish peoples like Persians and Arabs. The traditions of state, customs and practices peculiar to the Turks and above all Turkish, the mother tongue that the Turkish masses very jealously maintained, guaranteed that the Turks would always retain their identity as an ethnic element within the empire, and formed an obstacle to any forces that would undermine the prominence of the ruling group of this empire.

[^25]The domestic administration was run by local bureaucrats. Because it was necessary to use Persian and Arabic in correspondence between the government and its objects in order to govern the state, ${ }^{91}$ Turkish did not become as common as Arabic, which was widespread at that time because it was the language of the Qur'ān, and Persian, which mainly developed under the patronage of the Turkish sultans. Furthermore, many old Turkish traditions, customs, and usages continued among the Seljuks. Among the early Turks, a woman could have the status of a queen or empress and women had a say in Turkish society. Moreover, Turkmen women in particular went on campaigns with men and even joined them in battle. ${ }^{92}$

Other early Turkish customs and usages which continued among the Seljuks were the strangling of members of a noble family with a bowstring in order not to shed their blood. Niẓām al-Mulk says in his famous work, the Siyāsat-Nāma, that one of the obligations of being a ruler was to have a table prepared for one's subjects. He further stated that there was no objection if high officials and notables known for their loyalty to the sultan did not participate in this meal, but other people, such as tribal leaders, who did not accept an invitation should be considered to have repudiated their allegiance. ${ }^{93}$ Turkish dancing and the like, in which Toghril Beg participated in Baghdad in his last wedding while Turkish songs were sung along with military custom, all came to the Seljuk Empire from Central Asia. These things were to last for centuries in the Turco-Islamic world.

### 1.4.4 The Concept of Sovereignty

In the case of the former Iranian Emperor or the Muslim caliph, who was the representative of the Prophet, who in turn was the spokesman of God, sovereignty signified unconditional authority. In contrast to this concept, there existed in the Turkish state a certain implied contract between the ruler and his subjects. In return for the obedience and loyal devotion of the people under his authority, the ruler was

[^26]customarily obligated to nourish, clothe, and enrich them. ${ }^{94}$ In the Islamic world before the coming of the Seljuks, each state sided against the other, for example, the Sāmānids in Transoxiana, the Kākūyids in Iṣfahān and Hamdān, the Hamdānids in northern Syria, and in this way the country was divided among some twenty rulers. Because of the disorder, the cities and towns became fortified places, villagers and townsmen could not lead normal lives and every one was forced to look after himself. In addition to all this, the people contended with each other over religious creeds and heretical doctrines. In contrast to this, the foundation of the Seljuk state and expansion of the empire presented a picture of political unity, an end to religious disorder, popular affluence, economic progress, public order, and tranquillity.

Their goal was not to oppress and exploit the people but simply to maintain justice and "impose the law". Thus the new state, which was administered under the guidance of the Seljuk sultan, secured the loyalty of the masses without interfering in their personal occupations, religions, customs, and usages. The people who held various faiths and doctrines and spoke various languages were thus left in complete freedom and safety in their daily lives.

### 1.4.5 The Change in the Concept of Public Law

The Turks were known as state founders, that is, due to their habit of establishing public laws, from the moment they appeared on the scene of history. When the Seljuks came to the area of Iran, that region was already composed of a number of independent Islamic states. However, these entities, whose rulers were described as '"Muslim commanders subject to the caliph" always zealously recognised the high authority of the caliph, carried out all activities within the framework of religious prescriptions, and, as far as possible, conducted their affairs according to the sharī ${ }^{〔} a$. When Toghril Beg entered Baghdad in 1055, he was content simply to increase caliph al-Qā’im's annual allowance of funds and provisions while keeping worldly affairs to himself. This state of affairs brought about an important change in the Islamic state with respect to public law. ${ }^{95}$ Accordingly, the sultan and caliph each came to have

[^27]separate but equal areas of authority, one worldly and the other religious. The duties and authority of the caliph were simply restricted to solving Islamic legal problems and performing heretofore customary ceremonies like receiving visitors, confirming governments, and giving robes.

This highest representative of the Muslim faith was thus cut off from worldly affairs. ${ }^{96}$ The Seljuk ruler was not just "a Muslim commander subject to the caliph", but the real possessor of power and the only person responsible for worldly affairs. While the civil law of the empire was carried out according to the canonical decisions of the Sunnī $q \bar{a} d \bar{d} s$, the great sultan Malik Shāh was able to call together a committee of great legal experts and issue laws confirming new provisions concerning civil law.

### 1.4.6 The Concept of Universal Dominion

The goal of universal dominion meant uniting the world under the authority of a single ruler. This concept formed the philosophical basis for the early Turkish conquests and was alive among the various Turkish societies in the eleventh centaury. It was a basic concept that also had to be applied in the milieu of the Seljuk sultans whose unquestioned membership in Turkish society and adherence to the Turkish tradition of dominion has been mentioned before. In this light, Toghril Beg's girding himself with the sword as "the ruler of the East and the West" in the caliphal palace in Baghdad, and Malik Shāh's being girded with two swords by the caliph as "the ruler of the East and the West'' on his first visit to the seat of the caliphate in 1087, acquired a clearer meaning. Indeed, on his last visit to Baghdad, Malik Shāh held a war council, in which the leading commanders participated, and planned to capture Egypt and the lands of North Africa.

The concept of universal dominion was an ideal throughout history for all great Turkish rulers, including the Ottoman sultans. When it is placed in perspective with the idea of sovereignty and the principle of religious tolerance, it can well be appreciated that it was not without practical effects. In the event, the necessary

[^28]conditions for bringing about the realization of such a concept existed in the Seljuk Empire and were particularly manifest in Seljuk diplomacy.

### 1.4.7 The Nature of Seljuk Diplomacy

From the very moment they entered Khurāsān, the Seljuk administrators were not slow to understand which direction to follow in order to establish a state in Iranian territory. First of all, as we tried to explain above, they had to put an end to political divisions by eliminating the small local governments whose existence left the entire country in turmoil. Seljuk diplomacy pursued two basic objectives which were unique to themselves. One of them was to struggle against $\mathrm{Shi}^{\wedge}$ 'ism and the other was to control the Turkmen nomads.

In the eleventh century the Egyptian Fātimids gave Shī'ism the administrative and financial support of their empire and used it as their most powerful weapon in an attempt to destroy the Sunnī Muslim countries by provoking rebellions. ${ }^{97}$ Even long before the Seljuks, the Shī‘a Būyids (932-1055), who founded a state in Iraq and southern Iran, brought Baghdad under their control and subjected the 'Abbāsid caliph to their oppression, dismissing them and appointing them as they wished. This situation left the inhabitants of the eastern Muslim world, the great majority of whom were Sunnīs, in a state of unease. As we saw at the beginning, Arslān al-Basāsīrī, the famous commander of the Būyids, was a zealous Shī`ite, who cooperated with the Fāṭimids. Furthermore, a great many rāfiḍīs were active under various names almost everywhere in Iran. Consequently, when the Seljuk leaders, each of whom was not only a sincere Sunnī, but also very enthusiastic about the religion, came to Khurāsān the 'Abbāsid caliph greeted him with pleasure and sought means quietly to make contact with them. Because of the great respect that Chaghri Beg and Toghril Beg showed the ambassador as the representative of the caliph, it is certain that al-Qā'im was pleased. Al-Qā'im therefore did not hesitate to invite the Seljuk sultan to Baghdad. ${ }^{98}$

[^29]By forcing the Fātimids to withdraw from the eastern Islamic world, Tughril Beg brought about the complete victory for Sunnism and so rejuvenated the Muslim world. This Seljuk policy aiming at the total destruction of bātīnism, which was composed of a network of $\operatorname{Shi} ‘ \overline{1}$ and $\operatorname{Shī} ‘ \overline{1}$ related assassins, was of as vital importance to the Islamic world as it was to the Seljuk Empire. With regard to its conception, organization, and political objective, this policy was followed and brought to fruition by the Ayyūbids, who represented a continuation of the Seljuks. It was Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn al-Ayyūbī who overthrew the Fāṭimid state (1171), which had shown absolutely no interest in the Muslims who were defending their homeland from the invading crusades, and founded a Sunnī state in its place. ${ }^{99}$

### 1.4.8 The Turkmen Migrations and Their Consequences

We have stated that the second major thrust of Seljuk diplomacy was to control the Turkmen nomads. Turkmen was another name for the Oghuz; Seljuk and his sons, the state founder Chaghri Beg and Tughril Beg, were all in fact Turkmen Begs. From the victory of Dandāqān until the empire reached its greatest extent, it was essentially the Turkmen who had the largest part in the establishment of the Great Seljuk Empire and the fame that it won. They did so by conquering, with endless self-sacrifice, Iran, Kirmān, Oman, Sīstān, ‘Irāq al-‘Ajam, ‘Irāq al-‘Arab, Āzarbījān, eastern Anatolia, alJazīra, Bahrain, the Hijā̄, Yemen, Syria, and finally central and western Anatolia under the direction of the Begs and chiefs whose names we have listed above. There is a very strong likelihood that the newcomers were impelled by the desire to escape from the distress in which they had fallen because of over population and a lack of grazing lands, which were exactly the reasons why the Seljuks descended upon Transoxiana and Iran. The Seljuk government encouraged these teeming Turkish masses, the great majority of whom were Oghuz, who continuously filled the regions of the empire that were suitable for them, to move toward Anatolia and the Byzantium frontier with a very specific purpose in mind. In this way, the Seljuks wanted, on the one hand, to stop the material damage and turmoil that the Turkmen had caused in different regions of $\operatorname{Iran}$ and $\operatorname{Iraq}^{100}$, and, on the other, they wanted to prepare the

[^30]ground for undermining Anatolia, whose geography and climate conditions were particularly attractive to the Turks of the steppes, so that it could be easily conquered in the future. There were also other conditions that facilitated their speedy successes in this region which had suffered from much destruction because of the continual struggle between Byzantines and Islam as far back as the time of the 'Abbāsid Empire. ${ }^{101}$

First, Anatolia was much neglected because of Byzantium domestic strife. The military were not composed of local people, and were under the command of generals each of whom wished to declare himself emperor at the first opportunity. Furthermore, the Armenian and Assyrian populations living primarily in eastern Anatolia were not content with the Byzantine rule. Finally, because the Byzantine Empire was preoccupied in the Balkans, it was incapable of resisting Seljuk pressure from the East. ${ }^{102}$ After the foundation of the Seljuk state by Sulaymān Shāh, the number of Turkish nomads who headed for Anatolia began to increase. In the first quarter of the thirteenth centaury, another wave of immigration to Anatolia was caused chiefly by the Mongol invasion of the eastern Muslim countries. The Byzantine Emperor Manuel I Comnenus suffered a decisive defeat at the hands of Qilich Arslān at Myriocephalum (1176). This led to the complete transformation of Anatolia into a Turkish homeland and from that time onward it took the name Turkey. When they first came to Anatolia, the Turkish tribes occupied the plains, valleys, and summer pastures. Later, they gradually took possession of fortresses and then various walled cites and centres of military and economic importance around which arose independent beyliks. ${ }^{103}$

As we have seen, the Turkmen masses continuously played a major role on the frontier of the Seljuk Empire. The Seljuk attempt to direct these Turkmen systematically toward their western borders thus clearly became the second distinguishing characteristic of Seljuk diplomacy. This great historical process culminated when the Ottoman dynasty, which was related to the Turkmen Kayı tribe,
${ }^{101}$ According to Rice, 'the Seljuks entered Transoxiana with some of other Oguz tribes in the year AD 689, see Rice, Tamara Talbot. The Seljuks in Asia Minor, p. 26.
${ }^{102}$ See Ibrāhīm, A History of the Seljuks, pp. 96, 97.
${ }^{103}$ Rice, The Seljuks in Asia Minor, pp. 36, 37.
used extremely skilful diplomacy to eliminate one by one the beyliks and states in Anatolia and unify their lands. The Ottomans then established one of the greatest empires in world history with Anatolia and the areas where the Oghuz and other Turkmen spread as their mother country. ${ }^{104}$

### 1.5 The Reasons for the Collapse of the Seljuk Dominion

In the middle ages the Seljuks brought new ideas, a new value system, and a new political organization to the eastern Muslim world. It is noteworthy that the Seljuk dynasty was relatively short-lived. It appears that the early collapse of Seljuk rule resulted mainly from internal causes. It is possible to summarize them around several points.

### 1.5.1 The Problems of Succession

Among the Seljuks the state was considered to be the common property of the dynasty. According to this view of sovereignty, which was based on the belief that the ruler was of divine origin, sovereign power (charisma), and the ability to govern, which were granted by God, were transferred by blood from father to son. Thus all members of a dynasty were qualified and had a right to be the ruler. Whenever the position of the sultan weakened, the sons embarked on a struggle to occupy the throne based on this equality and right. Nizaām al-Mulk was opposed to this Turkish concept of sovereignty. As he stated, 'the state and its subjects belong to the sultan'" and "the sultan is the steward of the universe, all of the people are his family and servants". ${ }^{105}$ Despite his suggestions and recommendations that the earlier Oriental and Islamic views be adopted and despite the efforts of the Seljuk sultans themselves to appoint a legal heir apparent and even have the state notables and commanders swear allegiance to him for added security, the Turkish principle of succession never lost its influence as long as the dynasty endured. Because it caused incessant quarrels, however, this

[^31]principle undermined the Seljuk Empire and its successor states. The struggles for the throne were the most important reasons for the dissolution of the Seljuk states. It can be said that fighting over the sultanate occupied about half of Seljuk history. ${ }^{106}$

### 1.5.2 The Struggle between the Caliph and Sultan

As we have seen, from the time of Toghral Beg the caliphs were not allowed to interfere in worldly affairs. ${ }^{107}$ But when the power of the Seljuk sultan declined during the struggle for succession, the caliphs were able to assemble considerable forces, establish armies, and capture various cites. ${ }^{108}$ Moreover, millions of Muslims had feelings of deep respect for the caliphs so that when the sultans were forced to meet them on the battlefield this naturally had negative consequences for both the sultans and the future of the state. While the western part of the Sunnī Islamic world was preoccupied with the frightful turmoil caused by the crusader invasion — and the sultans made every attempt to equip and send armies to stop them - the caliphs were completely unconcerned about protecting the Muslim countries from this danger. Indeed, they devoted themselves to practicing fine penmanship or writing poetry in their palaces in Baghdad as well as planning to undermine the Seljuk government.

### 1.5.3 The Oppression of the Atabegs

When the sultans were strong, the atabegs were the most trustworthy men of the state. They trained the 'heir apparent'" in the capital or the princes in the provinces, where they were assigned as maliks, and above all served in the defence of the empire. When the dynasty began to decline, the atabegs oppressed the members of the Seljuk family and later placed their own families in power and it was the third reason for the dissolution and collapse of the empire. ${ }^{109}$ Among the well known atabeg families that established local dynasties were the following: the Salgurids in Fārs (1147-1286); the

[^32]Tughtegindis of Börids in Damascus (1104-54); the Zangids in Mūṣul (1127-1233), Aleppo (1146-81), and Sinjār (1170-1220); the atabegs of al-Jazīra (1180-1227); the Begteginids in Irbil (1144-1233); and the Eldigüzids in Āzarbāījān (1146-1225). ${ }^{110}$

### 1.5.4 Foreign Intervention

If we exclude the Qara-Khitai war, which shook the Seljuk empire, and the rebellions of the Arab amirate of Hilla, which did not have a significant political effect within the empire, intervention from abroad first came through Oghuz invasion, and then came in the form of the destruction of the Seljuk state of Iraq by the empire of the Khwārazm Shāhs, albeit both Oghuz and the Khwārazm Shāh were Turkish. As for the Seljuk state of Anatolia, it was destroyed by neither the crusades nor the Mongol invasion, which occurred when the Seljuk dynasty was confined to Asia Minor. But in the destruction, the major role was played by the begs that arose in the end of the Seljuk era and succeeded in founding various states. ${ }^{111}$

### 1.6 Internal Structure of the Seljuk Empire

It was natural for the military, administrative, and financial institutions of the Seljuk state to follow Islamic traditions, for this state was established in Khurāsān and organized by Iranian viziers in a Muslim milieu. From the name of the offices, positions, and ranks, and the contents of Nizāam al-Mulk's Siyāsat-Nāma concerning the organization of the state, it can be seen that the Ghaznavid Turkish Empire, whose political structure represented a continuation of early Iranian and 'Abbāsid features, was the primary model for the Seljuk institutions. Above all, the Seljuks maintained the system they found. It was most effective during the reign of Alp-Arslān and Malik Shāh. The presence of such terms as ağaci (hājib) çavuş (sarhang), tuğra, ulaǵg and

[^33]cufğa, atabeg, sü-başi, and so forth, reveal that Turkish words were used in the administrative and military organization and in the state bureaucracy. ${ }^{112}$

### 1.6.1 The Ruler

During the reign of Malik Shāh, when state organization reached its zenith, the Seljuk sultan held the title of "al-Sultān al-A'ẓam." ${ }^{113}$ in his capacity as the sovereign of the Ghaznavid and Anational Seljuk states, whose ruler held the title of sultan. The khutba was read and money was minted in his name in all countries. In the place for the signature on edicts [fermans] and decisions of the grand dīwān, a tuğra, which constituted the name of the great sultan, was inscribed; his signature [tevkīi] was written; and the order was henceforth enforced. Each sultan took a Muslim name in addition to his Turkish name. ${ }^{114}$ After the sultan ascended the throne, the caliph gave him a kunya and laqab [title] which confirmed his authority. ${ }^{115}$ On certain days of the week the sultan gave an audience for the leading men of state and commanders and held consultations with them. At the same time he also listened to the complaints of the people. ${ }^{116}$ In addition, he distributed iq.tā's, appointed judges, confirmed the authority of the heads of subject states, and presided over the high court concerned with crimes against the state.

### 1.6.2 The Palace

The palace, which was also known by such terms as dergāh [court of the sultan] and $b \bar{a} r g \bar{a} h$ [audience chamber], was comprised of the following personnel who were directly responsible to the person of the sultan: hājib (hājib al-ḥujjāb or hājib -i

[^34]buzurg) [chamberlain], șilāhdār (warden or chief of the armoury] which was called the zered-hāne, who carried the sultan's weapons,) amir al 'alam (chief standard bearer), jāmedār [keeper of the wardrobe], şarābdār [butler], taşdār [or ābdār [valet in charge of the after-meal wash basin and ewer], amīr-i çaşnigīr [chief taster], amīr-i $\bar{a} h \bar{u} r$ [ chief of the stable], vek $\bar{l}-i h \bar{a} s[$ overseer of the people in the sultan's apartment, sarhang [yeoman of the guard], courtiers, and companions. Those who held these positions were chosen from among the sultan's most trusted men and each had military units under his command. ${ }^{117}$

### 1.6.3 The Government

The government [d̄̄wān al-Saltanat] was composed of five dīwāns [ministries]. At the top was dìwān al-wizārat. It was headed by the vizir, who was called ṣāhib dīwān alsaltanat or khwāja-i buzurg [prime minister]. He was the ultimate representative of the ruler [wizārat-i tefvīz]. The other four dīwāns were subordinate to the dīwān alwizāra. These were the dīwān al-tughra [its minister, the tughrā $\bar{\imath}$, was in charge of foreign affairs]; dīwān al-'ard wa al-jaysh [its minister, the 'ārid, was in charge of the military]; the dīwān al-ishrāf [its minister, the mushrif, was in charge of general investigations]; and the d $\bar{\imath} w \bar{a} n$ al-istīf $\bar{a}{ }^{\prime}$ ' [its minister, the mustawfí, was in charge of financial affairs]. With regard to the last ministry, the lands of the empire were placed in three categories: khāṣ̣ [the sultan's private domain], iq.t $\bar{a}$, and kharāj $\bar{i}$ [taxable]. The d $\bar{l} w \bar{a} n ~ a l-i s t i ̄ f \bar{a}$, was responsible for determining and recording the population to be taxed on these lands, from large city to village. ${ }^{118}$ It also recorded the taxassessable property of everyone, and collected canonical [ $\operatorname{shari}^{-}{ }^{\prime} a$ ] and customary ['urfi] taxes by means of "agents". Furthermore, it managed government expenses [masraf] and the sultan's private account [reserve] of taxes obtained from the khāṣ lands and subject states. It is also worth mentioning here that, except for military and judicial matters, all officials and transactions of the empire were subject to inspection

[^35]by an "oversight" $[i s h r a \bar{f}]$ department, which was completely independent from the ministries concerned. ${ }^{119}$

In short, the representatives, agents, secretaries, tax collectors, and the like, bound to the ministries and offices that we have mentioned, were active throughout the empire in great numbers. ${ }^{120}$

### 1.6.4 The Military

In the reign of Malik Shāh, which was the golden age of the Seljuks, the great military force of the middle ages was created. The Seljuk armies were composed of (1) the ghulāmān-i sarai, who were selected from various peoples, brought to the palace where they were given special training, learned of the principles of ceremony and protocol, and were under the direct command of the sultan; (2) the special corps that was drilled and trained under the most distinguished commanders and was ready for action at a moment's notice; (3) the troops of the maliks, gulām [slaves] governors, and state officials like the vizirs; and (4) the forces of the subject governments. Members of the gulāmān-i sarai, whose names were recorded in the dīwān registers, received their pay [bisisgānī] four times in a year. Furthermore, there was a great number of cavalry dispersed throughout the empire and they were always prepared to go on campaign. They received their livelihood from the iq.t $\bar{a}^{〔}$ lands set aside for them. With regard to military organization, these military iqt $\bar{a}^{-}$were one of the most important innovations in the Seljuk Empire. On the one hand, this system made it possible to maintain rather large armies without placing a burden on the state and, on the other, helped the country to prosper. ${ }^{121}$ Furthermore when necessary, mercenary troops, kaşer, were also raised from among the people. ${ }^{122}$

[^36]
### 1.6.5 The Administration of Justice

The Seljuk administration of justice was divided between the $\operatorname{sharī} a$ and the customary law. The Qāḍis in each country were responsible for decisions concerning the sharī'a. In Baghdad there was a chief $Q \bar{a} d \underline{\imath}(Q \bar{a} d \bar{\imath} a l-Q u d \bar{a} t)$ who was a scholar of fiqh. He served as the head of the law court in the capital as well as the supervisor of the other $Q \bar{a} d \bar{l} s$. In addition to settling lawsuits these judges were also responsible for matters concerning inheritance, and waqfs [pious endowments], which were an important social assistance institution in medieval Turco-Islamic states. The Qādīs generally acted according to Ḥanafí fiqh, and sometimes according to Shāfi‘ī fiqh. Their decisions were final and inviolable; however, if a judge issued a biased ruling, it could be referred to the sultan by other Qādīs. ${ }^{123}$ In the Siyāsat-Nāma, great importance was given to education and morals of these judges "to whom Muslims entrusted their lives and property. In addition to the sharī' $a$ courts, there were separate courts charged with settling questions of custom and other legal problems. This system was usually concerned with such matters as crimes of a political nature, disobedience to the orders of the state, and various kinds of disturbances. Above all, it should be noted here that the people responsible for the administration of justice under the Seljuks were independent of the grant $d \bar{l} w \bar{a} n$ and the provincial di$w a \bar{a} n s, i . e$. , the government. It was thus possible to carry out justice free from any political or government influence. ${ }^{124}$

The Seljuks had a speedy intelligence reporting system, which made use of birds as well as messengers, a secret service whose members were called "informants" [münhïler,]. The Seljuks thus set an example for organizing an administrative cadre that lasted for almost eight hundred years in the Eastern Islamic world. ${ }^{125}$

[^37]
### 1.7 Social and Commercial Life

### 1.7.1 Social Conditions

The sources, unfortunately, do not tell us much about the daily life of the people, or how this was affected by the influx of large numbers of Turkmen nomads. The relatively stable and effective administration established under their leadership enabled the various classes to carry on their lives and occupations in comparative security. Except for the Turkish element among the high palace officials and their assistants who controlled the country, commanders, the military forces and the like, the Seljuks did not directly interfere with the lives and the occupations of the people. The social conditions under the Seljuks, which were shared by all medieval Muslim Turkish states, thus generally maintained the traditions of early periods. State positions became almost hereditary. Even changes in power took place within the family. ${ }^{126}$ In various provinces and cities a great many local conditions and traditions prevailed with regard to financial matters. The families of great influence, which came into being by seizing the opportunity to acquire economic wealth or to attach themselves to administrative authority in the cities, were able to preserve their positions. The dihqāns [minor feudal nobility] in the villages were from such families. ${ }^{127}$

Men of learning and of religion, including the șūfis, were held in high respect; and the local people were left to practice their local customs. This is not to say that injustice and oppression did not occur, but on the whole it did not reach lengths which the population felt to be intolerable. In spite of the fragmentation of dār al-Islām, the function of the state was still to defend the Muslim community and Muslim lands, and its purpose was to create conditions in which the Muslim could live the good life. As for the peasants who worked in the plains, fields, vineyards, and gardens, they made their living under government protection on either royal [khāsṣ] or iq.tā lands, as mentioned above, and paid taxes. Legally they were as free as the people in the cities.

[^38]As long as they were able to cultivate the lands in their possession, which they owned by hereditary right, they did not have to work just to keep alive. As for economic development, and the great majority of the population were essentially settled Turks, the people worked as labourers, tradesmen, artisans, and transporters of goods in all the aspects of commercial and economic life that we shall discuss below. ${ }^{128}$

Thus, because of peace, security, and prosperity, the towns which had previously consisted of little more than fortresses, expanded and developed. Konya, Kayseri, Sivas, Erzurum, Erzinjān, Harput, Amasya, Tokat, Aksaray, and Ankara grew into major Turkish cities inland while Sinop, Samsun, Antalya, and 'Alā'iyya did so on the coast. Certain cities like Aksaray, Kirshehir, 'Alā’iyya, Kubādiyya, and Kubād-ābād and others with Turkish names were founded by the Turks. ${ }^{129}$

### 1.7.2 Industrial Development

It is hard to find concrete information on trade and economic life within the Seljuk Empire. The rich geographical and travel literature in Arabic and then Persian of the $3^{\text {rd }}-4^{\text {th }} / 9^{\text {th }}-10^{\text {th }}$ centuries dwindles almost to nothing during the Seljuk period, and there is a general paucity of information in the historical sources. At the northern end of the trade route, Nīshāpūr was the great emporium of Khurāsān at this time and it was probably the main centre of trade and comers in the great Seljuk Empire. ${ }^{130}$ During the period of the empire, dispatching the largest army in the Middle Ages with proper clothing, supplies, equipment, and military transport; the splendour and the great expense of the luxury and affluence to which our sources testify on the occasions of the sultans' banquets, holidays, merrymaking, victory celebrations, and wedding feasts; and, at the same time, the lack of any action on the part of the subjects caused by a life of poverty are evidence of the existence of an economic balance. ${ }^{131}$

[^39]In this respect Ḥamd Allāh Mutawfī Qazwīn̄̄, who provides valuable information on the reign of Malik Shāh, tells us that the annual revenue of the Seljuk countries was 21,500 tūmāns [a Persian coin] of red gold [zer-i surkh] and the yearly taxes received as kharāj were 20, 000 mithqāls [a standard of weight of gold. ${ }^{132}$

In addition to Malik Shāh, others, such as Tughril Beg, Alp-Arslān, and Sunjar, also struck gold coins. Economic conditions under the Seljuks of Kirmān progressed as well, and the coinage that was struck, above all in the time of Qāvurt, maintained its value for a long time. According to Afḍāl al-Dīn Kirmānī, an eyewitness, a century and a half later the naqd-i Qāvurt still held great value. As for the Anatolian Seljuks, the subject of commerce was one of the major considerations that determined the main policies of the state.

It was then, when the Seljuks entered international commercial relations, that comprehensive measures for public security were put into effect on the roads that were built. The state guaranteed the lives and property of foreign merchants. Even a kind of state insurance was placed on merchandise for the purpose of indemnifying the losses of merchants. Q1lich-Arsalān II was also the first Anatolian Seljuk ruler to strike gold coins. Anatolians thus experienced its most prosperous period in history and its wealth became legendary in Europe. ${ }^{133}$

Industrial life in Anatolia, like that in other countries in the Middle Ages, was based on guilds that adhered to strict rules according to the type of goods made. By inculcating in those who worked in every branch of craft the belief in the spiritual sanctity of its "patron saint" $[\bar{p} r]$ these institutions made the "apprentice"' [murīd] faithful to the demands of the profession, and completely bound him to all its rules. The profession was monopolized by the guilds. According to a given number of stores or workshops, there were a certain number of masters and workmen whose names and patronymics were registered. The craftsmen and apprentices who were members of the guild were called fityān [youths]. In addition, the head of the $a k h \bar{s}$ in a city was

[^40]called $a k h \bar{c} b \bar{a} b \bar{a} .{ }^{134}$ This was so to the extent that, when the Seljuk state broke up, they established a kind of popular government through their own efforts in the principle centres that we mentioned above and thus saved society from disintegration. ${ }^{135}$

### 1.8 Religious and Intellectual Life

### 1.8.1 Promotion of the Hanafì School as a State Religion

Of the four Sunnī madhhabs, the Hanafĩ school and to a much lesser extent the Shāfí‘̄̄ school, were adopted by the Seljuks. In Transoxiana, the Ḥanafì school developed through the preaching of Abū Manṣūr al-Māturīdī of Samarqand (d. 944) ${ }^{136}$, who was probably of Turkish origin. His teaching emphasised free will. Because this madhhab used reason and logical arguments to prove the existence of God and, above all, because its legal contents included Turkish usages and traditions, it was the most widespread school of law among the Turks, who had a realistic world view. Moreover, because the Henafì school determined the lawfulness of judgement according to circumstances and need, it was thus possible for the Turkish state to adapt this Islamic legal system to the requirements and conditions of the times ${ }^{137}$, and it became the official madhhab first of the Seljuk and then of the other Turkish dynasties. Because the 'Abbāsid caliphs adhered to the same law school, the bonds between these two powers were greatly strengthened. The Shāfi‘ī school, a moderate law school that later tried to reconcile Ḥanafì School with the Mālikī and Ḥanbalī madhhahib, both which took a more literal view of Islamic dogma, also became popular in the Seljuk empire and among the Turks in general, thanks to the efforts of

[^41]Nižām al-Mulk. He put an end to the policy of 'Amīd al-Mulk al-Kundurī, the vizier of Tughril Beg, of anathematizing the Ash'arīs and persecuting Shāfi ${ }^{〔} \mathrm{i} s$, and assured the return of the great Shāfi ${ }^{〔}$ i scholars and jurists who had been forced to leave the country. ${ }^{138}$

Furthermore, because the Seljuk government, which was the standard bearer of the Sunnis, combined the Islamic idea of ghazw [military expedition] with the Turkish view of conquest, it had a considerable incentive to combat the Fātimids, after gaining sovereignty over the other Muslim countries, and was successful in opposing the crusaders. ${ }^{139}$

Many of the greatest men of fiqh, kalām, tafsīr and hadīth in Muslim history lived during the period of the Seljuk Empire. They included the great $s ̣ \bar{u} f i \bar{i} A b u \overline{u l}$ al-Qāsim alQushayrī (d. 1072), who wrote al-Risāla al-Qushayriyya, which was translated into Turkish at the same time, and his son Abū Naṣr 'Abd al-Raḥmān, the author of the tafsīr work entitled al-Taysīr ; Abū Ishāā al-Shīrāzī (d. 1083), a Shāfi‘ī jurist and teacher in the Baghdad Niẓāmiyya; Abū al-Ma‘ā1̄̄ al-Juwaynī (d. 1111), who was one of the greatest thinkers in the Muslim world and the rector of the Baghdad Niz̧āmiyya; and Fakhr al-Islām 'Abd al-Wāḥid (d. 1108), who was called the second al-Shāfi‘ī and was a teacher in the Āmul Niẓāmiyya.

The great Ḥanafĩ jurist and chief $q \bar{a} d \bar{\imath}$ al- Khatịibī (d.1079); the Ḥanbalī jurist, hadī̀th specialist, and famous ṣūfi 'Abd Allāh al-Anṣār̄̄ (d. 1108); the great tafsīr specialist and grammarian, 'Alī Wāhidī (d. 1076), whose works were read as handbooks in the madrasas; the great Ḥanafī jurist and tafsīr specialist from Transoxiana and author of the well-known kanz al-wuşūl, al Pazdawī (d. 1089); al-Sarkhasī (d. 1090), who was of Turkish origin and gained great fame among the Ḥanafîs with his book entitled alMabsūț; the jurist, philosopher and poet, 'Ain al-Quḍāt al-Hamadānī (d. 1130), some of whose works were translated into Turkish; Muḥammad al-Shahrastānī (d. 1153), who specialized in the history of the law schools during the reign of Sanjar and wrote

[^42]the Kitāb al-Milal wa al-Nihal; and al-Baghawī (d. 1116), the author of Masạā̄̄h. alSunna, were all influential figures in Islamic science and intellectual life for centuries after their own time. ${ }^{140}$

Although the crusades and Mongol invasion brought about stagnation in religious instruction in Anatolia, by the end of the thirteenth century scholars writing important works had reappeared there. For example, Qāḍī al-Bayḍāwī (d. 1291), the famous tafsīr specialist and author of Anwār al-tanzīl; Sirāj al-Dīn al-Urmawī (d. 1283), who wrote Matāli ${ }^{‘}$ al-Anwār, one part of which concerns logic and the other Kalām; and Quṭub al-Dīn al-Shīrāzī (d. 1310), who revived the philosophical Kalām movement and was an astronomer at the same time, all began a tradition which they passed to future generations. It should be mentioned here that although the Seljuks were sincere Muslims who avidly defended the Sunnī faith and were absolutely committed to the need for traditional traning and education, they were also open-minded. ${ }^{141}$

### 1.8.2 Flourishing of Ṣūfism

The second half of the eleventh century, all of the twelfth, and the beginning of the thirteenth may be considered as one of the most important periods in the history of ṣūfism, not only in Iran but everywhere. In the second half of the eleventh century in Transsoxiana, Khurāsān, and Iraq, great ṣūfì saints lived, each one in small convents (khānqāh), praying, meditating and teaching new pupils.

It can be said that Khurāsān, where the Seljuk state was founded, definitely played a significant religious role in that state, just as it had done with regard to politics, economics, and government. Khurāsān was considered to be the focal point of intellectual currents coming from the west, and Muslim thinkers combined these two currents with their own views of the cosmos in a manner that suited the usage and customs of the area in which they lived. One consequence of this was the birth of Islamic mysticism. The significance of Khurāsān can be appreciated when we take into account the fact that, when the Turks appeared there, ṣūfism experienced a vigorous period.

[^43]In the eleventh century, when various ṣūfī brotherhoods began to appear in the Islamic world, the Shaykhs lived in a spiritual milieu with $s \underset{u}{f} f \bar{\imath}$ novices and dervishes and gathered at séances [tazkīr muhitī], lodges, and retreats-which were very widespread in Khurāsān, where the above ideas were welded together. They claimed that reality could not be understood from the book [the Qur'ān] but by the senses. These shaykhs naturally had a great influence on the Turkmen masses, and many of the outstanding personalities of that period, like those we listed above, were also sūfīs. The famous authority on kalām, al-Ghazālī, publicly allied himself against Greek philosophy and made the new Islamic mysticism, which he brought about by reconciling with great erudition and a keen mind the science of kalām with the $s \underset{u}{u} \bar{\imath}$ world view, the prevailing form of Islam for centuries. As for the great brotherhoods of the Muslim world, they were the Qādiriyya, which was founded by 'Abd al-Qādir al-Jīlān̄̄ (d. 1166) and spread to India, Anatolia and as far as Spain; the Kubrāwiyya established by Shaykh Najm al-Dīn Kubrā al-Khwārazmī (d. 1221); and the Akbariyya, founded in the thirteenth century.

The fourth great brotherhood, the Yasawiyya, was founded by Aḥmad Yasawī (d. 1116), who was himself a Turk. The Yasawiyya differed from the other brotherhoods by being clearly characterized as popular ṣūfism. It spread to Turkistan, Afghanistan, the area of the Golden Horde, and northern Iran. These ṣūfìs were in fact exceptional people having great knowledge, a keen intellect, and a refined aesthetic sense and literary ability. Indeed, it suffices to state that Seljuk Turkey was a country having a moral and spiritual milieu favourable to the work of a systematic religious philosopher of such rare attainment as Muḥyī al-Dīn Ibn al-‘Arab̄̄ (d. 1240). Of Spanish origin, Ibn al-'Arabī studied the Islamic sciences and then began to make "discoveries" by entering the mystical and philosophical atmosphere of his homeland. He made the pilgrimage to Makka and there profited from the works of 'Abd Allāh al-Anṣār̄̄, and al-Ghazālī. Ibn al-'Arabī’s literary production reached the unprecedented level of some 250 books and treatises, the most important of which were al-Futūḥāt al-makkiya, Fuṣūs al-ḥikam, Ishārāt al-Qur'ān, and Jawāhir al$n u s ̣ \bar{u} s$. According to him, the highest and most authentic knowledge is not that perceived by the mind, but only the "knowledge'" that God imparts to those ('the
perfect man', al-Insān al-kāmil), who have received genuine and thorough ṣūfí training.

Coming to the Mawlawiyya or Mevleviye, which was founded by the other great $s \underset{u}{f} \bar{i}$ of Anatolia, Mawlānā Jalāl al-Dīn Rūmī (d. 1273), it can be described as placing the strongest emphasise on art, ethics, and science. About the time of the appearance of the Seljuks, it was widespread in Transoxiana and Khurāsān. The Malāmiyya held such principles as avoiding hypocrisy, pride, boastfulness, and greed; sincerely believing in God and imitating the Prophet; and not believing in the miracles of the saints. Mawlānā's basic idea, which could be summarized as an expression of humanitarianism, was of universal nature. Differences in religion, creed, and race were of no consideration. The significance of this concept is found in a statement by 'Alam al-Dīn, one of the commanders of Kai-Kusraw III, who said, "every people loves its Prophet but people of every religion and state love this Mawlānā’'. This view describes the great tolerance of the Turks in general, and the Seljuk government in particular, and held an attraction for non-Turks and non-Muslims, such as Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, that was impossible to resist. For this reason the death of this great Turk was truly mourned by all the people, Muslims and non-Muslims, in the Seljuk state of Anatolia. In addition to the Malāmiyya and Akbariyya, there were in fact other movements in the Seljuk state of Anatolia. ${ }^{142}$

### 1.8.3 The Role of the 'Ulāmā' and the Qāḍīs

A major innovation of the Seljuks was the attempt to link central government with the religious institution through state support for the madrasa system of education. There is no doubt that the early organizers of the empire hoped in this way to secure the support of the religious classes by giving them a stake in the proper functioning of the state, and to bolster civil administration against the expected encroachments of the military establishment. Yet, because of the considerable respect which the qāḍīs and 'ulāma' [religious classes] enjoyed, they often acted in a more public capacity as envoys and mediators. In 497/1104, for example, Berk-Yaruq set the qāḍī Abū al-

[^44]Muẓaffar al-Jurjānī and the qād̄̄̄s Abū al-Faraj Aḥmad al-Hamadānī to negotiate a settlement with his brother Muhammad. ${ }^{143}$ Moreover, the $q \bar{a} d \bar{s}$ and religious classes in general were often the spokesmen of and on behalf of the people.

When Berk Yaruq, fleeing before Muḥammad, reached Wāsiṭ in 494-95, the qād $\bar{l}$ implored mercy for the people and asked that the shihna be sent to the city. After Berk-Yaruq's army had crossed over into Wāsiṭ, however, the solders began to plunder and the $q \bar{a} d \bar{l}$ again requested that they be restrained. ${ }^{144}$ Similarly, qād̄̄̄s were often used by the caliphs as intercessors with shihnas or other officials who overstepped their authority in Baghdad or oppressed the subjects. In 495, when strife broke out between the people of Baghdad and the shiḥna the caliph sent the chief $q \bar{a} d \bar{l}$ and Ilkiyā al-Harrāsī, professor from the Niẓāmiyya madrasa, to intercede. ${ }^{145}$ The $q \bar{a} d \bar{l} \bar{l}$ sometimes organized the administration and defences of the city in times of disorder and in this way also helped to preserve and maintain Islamic civilization and culture. ${ }^{146}$

Furthermore, since in most cases the important religious officials were appointed by or on the advice of the temporal ruler, the 'ulama', in effect, tended to act as agents of the state. The sultan or vizir often had a hand in choosing the chief $q \bar{a} d \bar{l}$, and it is noteworthy that the first such official appointed after the Seljuk takeover in Iraq was given the post after consultation with al-Kundūrī because he had been a supporter of the Seljuks in Khurāsān. ${ }^{147}$

There are numerous examples of the chief qādī of Baghdad and other religious officials acting as deputy vizir for the caliphs; and one of the vizirs of the last Seljuk

[^45]sultan, Tughril ibn Arslān ibn Tughril, was a qāḍ̄̄. ${ }^{148}$ The chief qādī Abū al-Ḥasan alDāmaghānī, for example, served in the capacity of deputy vizir for both al-Mustazhir and al-Mustarshid. His father Abū 'Abd Allāh who was chief qādī before him had also served as deputy vizir on two occasions during the reigns of al-Qā'im and alMuqtadī. ${ }^{149}$ In the successor sates of the Seljuk Empire, especially in Mosul and Syria, there are instances of qādī̀s being appointed as viziers or exercising complete control in the administration of a city or province. The examples of qādị Bahā al-Dīn ibn Shaddād in Aleppo and of the qādị Kamāl al-Dīn al-Shahrazūrī in Mosul and Damascus are particularly noteworthy. ${ }^{150}$

### 1.9 Religious Science, Literature and Art

### 1.9.1 Religious Science and Foundation of Nizāāmiyya Madrasa

The period of the Seljuk Empire marked a turning point in the teaching of religious science in the Islamic world. Religious institutions, which that era considered as science, had previously been disorganized, irregular, and of a completely private nature. They systemized for the first time in the reign of Alp Arslān and brought under state patronage. The Seljuk Empire pursued this important programme under the direction of Nizaām al-Mulk, who was responsible for the civil administration. The main reason for this was the need for a fundamental policy to combat Shī'ism and other schismatic beliefs. ${ }^{151}$

At first they sought to create a strong spiritual front that was loyal to the state by setting aside appropriations for the Sunnī jurists and legal scholars of the time and by

[^46]opening soup kitchens for ascetics. ${ }^{152}$ Rather, it was the first madrasa, as the highest institution of learning in the Muslim world, which brought together, as teachers and preachers, the most famous scholars, jurists and intellectuals of the time and made them salaried professors; provided students with the monthly allowance and provisions; gave free instruction; set up programmes for study; and was equipped with a rich library, founded by Alp Arslān (1066). ${ }^{153}$

It was built next to the Baghdad Tigris and, with all its facilities and annexes reputedly cost 60,000 dīnārs (gold). This madrasa was endowed with markets, khāns, baths, and agricultural lands. Because Nizā̄m al-Mulk's name was written on the front of the building, it became known as the Niẓāmiyya. The Niẓāmiyya in Baghdad provided religious instructions according to Ḥanafī and Shāfi‘ī fiqh. It played a major role in scientific and intellectual life and trained scholars of high quality. Qāḍīs and religious officials were generally sent from there to every corner of the empire. Because they were the most competent, young Nizāmiyya graduates occupied high positions in the country.

Around the same time, sister institutions of the madrasa were established in such centres as Ișfahān, Nīshāpūr, Balkh, Herāt, Baṣra, and Āmul. ${ }^{154}$ The subject of study and programmes in the Nizāamiyya were basically followed and applied for centuries in the Muslim countries and by all Islamic Turkish dynasties, including the Ottomans. Because not only the religious sciences but also the hard sciences, such as mathematics and astronomy, were taught at the same time in the Nizāmiyya madrasas, and because similar institutions were not found in Europe until much later,

[^47]the Baghdad Nizāamiyya is considered to be the world's first university. ${ }^{155}$ As is known, countless madrasas were later founded on the same basis by sultans, in all Seljuk states. Madrasas were also very important with regard to training officials for the state's bureaucratic and judicial staff.

In the Seljuk period, the science of mathematics reached a high level. During the reign of Malik Shāh, its outstanding representatives were men like the famous 'Umar alKhayyām (d. 1131), who was better know for literature, and Muḥammad Bayhaqī. They wrote important works on algebra, conics, and geometry as well as astronomical tables. In addition, in 476/1074-75 an observatory was built and research was carried out in it. A scientific committee composed of leading astronomers like 'Umar alKhayyām, Abū Ḥātim al-Muẓaffar al-Isfizārī, and Maymūn ibn Najī̄b al-Wāsiṭī created a new calendar called tārīkh-i malikī, tārīkh-i jalāl̄̄, or taqwīm̄̄ Malik Shāh. ${ }^{156}$ In chemistry, the print industry was well developed and paper production was advanced. Great doctors and Arabic linguistcians and theoreticians were trained. Above all, new facilities were created for developing the medical and health professions in Anatolia. ${ }^{157}$

In the Seljuk period, historiography apparently took a very different approach from that of the old Arabic biographies and books of campaigns [maghāzū]. The Seljuk sultans, who had a love of history like all Turkish rulers, encouraged the development of this field. Among the products of the Seljuk era that we have used as sources are the Malik Nāma (ca. 1058) which mentions the origins of the Seljuks; Ibn Ḥassūl's history; the important work entitled Risālat al-Malik shāhiyya; the Tārīkh-i Saljūk by

[^48]the poet Abū Țāhir Khātūnī; and works by others such as 'Imād al-Dīn al-Iṣfahān̄̄, Ibn al-Jawzī, and Rāwandī. Unfortunately, much of the wok of these latter writers was lost in the destruction caused by the Mongol invasion.

In addition to these works, there were some in verse like the great Seljuk epic [shāh nāma] by the poet Aḥmad Qāni‘ī the Selçuklular şeh-nāmesi written in 20,000 couplets by the Khurāsānian Turkish poet Khwāja Dehhānī, and undoubtedly many others that have not come down to us. ${ }^{158}$ Professor A. Bausani has summarized the entire Seljuk period very precisely: "if we realize that in the years from the death of Ash‘arī (935) to that of Ghazālī (1111) the entire theological system of Islam found its final systematization; that it was also the period when the oldest sūfi tarīqas (fraternities) were organized, one of the first Muslim theological universities was founded, and the poet Nizāāī lived (1141-1209/13): realizing these facts, we can easily see the importance of the Seljuk era. Though not one of the most original, it is certainly one of the most formative epochs in the cultural history of Islam',' ${ }^{159}$

### 1.9.2 Literature

### 1.9.2.1 Literary Development Especially Poetry

As for the literature of Seljuk period, great progress was made in poetry and prose just as we have seen in other fields. In the empire period, this was above all to the benefit of Persian literature. Thanks to the material and moral support of the Turkish sultans, outstanding figures in Iranian literature appeared at that time. They included Lāmi‘ㄷ-1 Jurjānī, Abū al-Ma‘ālī al-Naḥḥās, Abū Țāhir Khātūnī, Abī Wardī, and the famous satirical poet Ibn al-Habbāriyya. In addition, there were Amīr Mu'izzī; 'Umar alKhayyām; the renowned poet of odes, Anwarī; Azraqī, who was patronized by Malik Tughan-Shāh; Nizaāmī who lived in the country of the Eldigüz atabegs, who

[^49]continued the traditions of the Seljuks; Sa‘dī Shīrāzī, who flourished among the atabegs of Fārs; and others. ${ }^{160}$

Persian had risen to such a high level at the time of the Seljuks that it also had an effect on Anatolia. The works that we mentioned above were written in that language. ${ }^{161}$ However, in the struggle that took place in this land, on the one hand between Turkish and Arabic, which maintained its position and spread because it was the language of the Qur'ān and was the medium of the madrasas, and, on the other, between Turkish and Persian, which was cultivated as the literary language, Turkish finally triumphed by confining Arabic within the walls of the madrasas and displacing Persian as the everyday language. Thus, although the palace circles in particular took Iranian names instead of Turkish names, had Shāh-nāmas composed and assumed Persian and Arabic titles, the battle among the Arabic, Persian, Turkish cultures ended in a victory for the latter. ${ }^{162}$

Turkish șūfi poetry formed another genre of Anatolian Turkish literature. It began somewhat earlier under the influence of the religious poems and hymns of Ahmad Yasawī and the Turkish poets inspired by him. Aḥmad Faqīh, who lived at the time of Mawlānā Rūmī and was the author of a ṣūfī ethical work entitled Charkh Nāma; and Shayyād Ḥamza, who followed him, were in the vanguard of this kind of poetry. But it can be said that Turkish reached its zenith in this field in the fourteenth centaury with the great Turkish poet Yūnus Emre (d. 1320). Yūnus succeeded in speaking and writing Turkish with a skill that has been unrivalled by anyone throughout history for its ease and simplicity. ${ }^{163}$

[^50]
### 1.9.3 Development of Art and Music

### 1.9.3.1 Art

It is not possible to list here, one by one, the outstanding examples of architecture, miniatures, ceramics, carpets, kilims, inscriptions, calligraphy, gilding, decoration, and the like that reveal the craftsmanship and building activity of the Seljuk period and that are usually described as masterpieces. Animal designs, which were the product of the old steppe art, are found in abundance on the major sections of the walls of Diyārbakir, surviving from the reign of Malik Shāh, and one of the works in the other Turkmen beyliks. Moreover, thousands of palaces, public mosques, soup kitchens, khāns, public baths, hospitals, șūfì lodges [khānqāhs], tombs [türbes], mausolea, public fountains [sabīls], caravansaries, fortresses and walls were built during the Seljuk era throughout the vast area. All the sources, including the accounts of a great many native and foreign travellers from Nāṣir Khusraw (d. 1061) until recent times, testify to this. The façades, doors, and frames of the windows of buildings were adorned with the most beautiful and colourful inscriptions, and inside they were embellished with fine décor. The Seljuk period also provides the most beautiful examples of Turkish marble stone work, inlay work, and carving.

This can be seen on the bases of domes, which were sometimes covered with Turkish tiles, minbers [pulpit], miḥrābs, ablution fountains, doors, window and shutters. In order to get a good idea of these works, it suffices to take a look at just Anatolia, indeed only the city of Konya. ${ }^{164}$ The architecture of the madrasas, which spread in every direction at the end of the ninth century, acquired a dominant position in the Turco-Islamic world as a new Turkish model for the building art. This construction of the madrasas mosque, which was a new form of mosque having a large courtyard and enclosed within crenulated walls, was developed in Iran and Turkistan. Thus Turkish architecture provided the form for the Iranian mosque. ${ }^{165}$ An important Seljuk innovation in dome construction was to secure the dome to the main walls with the

[^51]transition zone of "triangular'" areas. This form which is called a "Turkish triangle", in the history of architecture, appeared in different styles and was further developed under the Ottomans. ${ }^{166}$

The style of calligraphy for the Qur'ānic verses in the Middle Ages also reveals Turkish tastes. The architectural style and decoration which began in the Near East with the Seljuks was subsequently developed into one of the world's three original forms of architecture (Greek, Roman and Turkish). ${ }^{167}$

### 1.9.4 Music

The music of the Seljuk period was based on Oghuz music, which has been described as having a close relationship with Uighur Turkish music. Music from the time of the Seljuks was collected by the famous music theoretician Ṣafĩ al-Dīn 'Abd al-Mu'min (d. 1294) the author of Kitāb al-Adwār. A great many works have been written on the theory of this music, which later developed in three directions Transoxiana,


[^52]
## CHAPTER: 2

## 2. A Short History of Arabic Grammar

A legal scholar once said 'only ${ }^{169}$ a prophet is able to have perfect command of the Arabic language'. This statement is bound to be true since, as far as we know, no one has ever claimed to have mastered this language in its entirety.

In AD 632 the Prophet of Islam, Muḥammad (peace be upon him), died in the city of Madīna in the Arabian Peninsula. He had founded a community that had adopted the religious doctrine of Islam, as it was laid down in the revealed book, the Qur'ān. His successors as political leaders of the community, the caliphs, started military expeditions into the world outside the Arabian Peninsula; very soon these turned into real campaigns that led to the conquest of a large part of the world. Within a few decades Persia, Mesopotamia, Syria, Egypt and North Africa had become provinces of a new Islamic empire.

The Arab armies brought to the inhabitants of the conquered territories not only their religion, but to an even larger degree the Arabic language. Until then it had been the language of Bedouin tribes roaming the deserts of the Arabian Peninsula, but now it became the language of a large empire, in which it functioned as the language of religion, culture, and administration. In those countries where Islam had been accepted as the majority religion, such as Turkey, Iran, Indonesia, Malaysia, Bangladesh and Pakistan, the role of Arabic as a religious language and the language of the Qur'ānic revelation is still gaining in strength.

[^53]The introduction of Arabic into the conquered provinces after the death of the prophet had profound linguistic effects on the language itself. During the initial stages of the conquests, Arabic gradually became the dominant language, which everybody tried to learn. Details about the process of arabization and acquisition are unknown, but the result of this process was the emergence of a new type of Arabic, a spoken language that existed alongside the old language of the Bedouin and the Qur'ān, compared to which it had a reduced structure. The coexistence of the two varieties of the language led to a diglossia, in which the classical Arabic standard language functioned as the high variety (called by the Arabs al-lugha al-fusḥ $\bar{a}$, the eloquent, correct language, and the vernacular of the spoken language constituted the low variety called al-lugha al-‘Amiyya ('colloquial language'") spoken by the ordinary people. ${ }^{170}$

### 2.1 Abū al-Aswad al-Du'alī and Beginning of Arabic Grammar

It has been suggested that Arabic grammar arose from the need to establish a definitive text of the Qur'ān ${ }^{171}$, and to preserve the language as a whole from the solecisms (lahn ) of an ever-increasing number of non-Arabic speaking Muslims.

According to most of the sources, the fourth caliph, 'Alī ibn Abī Țālib (d. 40/661) was the first to insist that something be done about the growing number of mistakes in speech (other sources mention the governor of the two Iraqs, Ziyād ibn Abīhi). The person whose name has become connected with the first efforts to standardise and codify the language was Abū al-Aswad al-Du'alī (d. 69/688) ${ }^{172}$, an insignificant poet and sometime secretary to the Prophet's cousin 'Alī. But other names are also mentioned in this

[^54]connection, including Naṣr ibn 'Āṣim (d. 89/708) ${ }^{173}$, and 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Hurums (d.117/735). ${ }^{174}$ Ibn al-Anbārī mentioned the story of the invention of the grammar as:
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { و روي أيضا أن زياد ابن أبيه بعث إلى أبي الأسود الدولي و قال له: يا أبا الأسود إن هذا الحمراء قد كثرت و أفسدت } \\
& \text { من ألسن العرب فلو وضعت لهم شيئا يصلح به الناس ويعرب به كتاب الهَ فأبى أبو الأسود و كره إجابة زياد إلى مـا } \\
& \text { و تععد اللحن فيه فقعد سأل فوجه زياد رجلا و قال له: اقعد على طريق أبى الأسود فإذا مر بك فاقر أ شيئا من القر آن } \\
& \text { ذلك الرجل على طريق أبى الأسود، فلما مر به رفع صوته وقرأ أِ إن اله بري من المشركين و رسولهُهي بكسر } \\
& \text { الدم } 175
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

It was narrated that Ziyād Ibn Abīh sent a messenger to Abū al-Aswad al-Du'alī to tell him that "The increasing number of foreigners has led to the corruption of the pure tongue of the Arabs. So, may you put some rules that would both correct their language and give the Qur'ān the suitable declension?" Abū al-Aswad declined Ziyād's request. As a result, Ziyād asked someone to sit down the road waiting for Abū al-Aswad to pass and recite the following verse mistakenly as follows: "God keeps clear from the unbelievers and from His Prophet" (With genitive, instead of "God keeps clear from the unbelievers and so does His Prophet", with nominative). When Abū al-Aswad heard this, he was shocked.

Several stories are told about his reluctance to accept this job. According to some historians, he was finally persuaded when his own daughter made a terrible mistake in the use of the declensional endings, by confusing the expressions $m \bar{a}$ aḥsana al-samā'a 'how

[^55]beautiful is the sky? and $m \bar{a}$ ahsanu al-sama'i what is the most beautiful thing in the sky? ${ }^{176}$

The invention of grammar is connected with stories about grammatical mistakes, but the central role in the foundation of grammar is assigned to the fourth caliph 'Alī ibn $A b \overline{1}$ Tālib. ${ }^{177}$ The reason why 'Alī (may God's mercy be on him!) founded this science of $n a h w$, is given by Abū al-Aswad in the following story:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { قال دخلت على أمير المؤمنين علي ابن أبي طالب( رضي اله عنه) فوجدت في يده رقعة، فقلت : ما هذا يا أمير } \\
& \text { المؤمنين فقال، إني تأملت كلام الناس فوجدته قد فسد بـخالطة هذه الحمراء (بعني الأعاجم) فأردت أن أضع لهم } \\
& \text { شيئٔ يرجعون إليه ، ويتتمدون عليه، ثم القي إليّ الرقعة ، وفيها مكتوب، ( الكلام كله اسم وفعل وحرف فالاسم ما } \\
& \text { أنبا عن المسمى" ، والفعل ما أنبئ به، والحرف ما جاء لمعنى) و قال لي : أنح هذا النحو وصنف إليه ما وقع إليك178 }
\end{aligned}
$$

I went to see the commander of the believers 'Alī ibn Abī Ṭālib, (may Allāh be pleased with him), and I saw him carrying a manuscript. I asked him what was in his hand, and he replied: "I was pondering on Arabic and realized that it had been corrupted due to the foreigners. So, I wanted to write something that they could come back to and rely on." Then he gave me the manuscript which said: "language is noun, verb and particle. The first gives information about a named object, the second is the information given, and the third is what comes for a meaning." He said to me ('unḥu hādhā al-nahw) adopt this rule and add to it what you find relevant.

This story clearly has an etiological character: it attempts to explain the name of the discipline (nahw) from a verb naḥa 'take a direction'" and it traces back to the venerable

[^56]lineage of the fourth caliph 'Alī, the tripartition of the parts of speech into noun, verb and particle, which was introduced in the first book on grammar, Sībawayh's Kitāb chapter one. ${ }^{179}$ The notation of the short vowels was an altogether more complicated problem. During the first century of Islam, when people started to collect and record the fragments of the Qur'ānic revelation, the need for a uniform and unambiguous system for the short vowels made itself felt. Various grammarians, among them the legendary innovator of grammar, Abū al-Aswad, are credited with the introduction of a system of (colored) dots above and below and next to the letters to indicate the three short vowels. The version of the tradition that is reported by Ibn al-Anbārī is as follow:
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { فإذا فتحت شفتي فأنقط واحدة فوق الحرف و إذا ضممتها فاجعل النقطة إلى جانب الحرف وإذا كسرتهما فاجعل النقطة } \\
& \text { في اسفله فإن اتبعت شيئٔ من الحركات غنة فأنقط نقطتين، } 180
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

Put one dot above the letter whenever I open my lips, and put a dot next to the letter whenever I press my lips, and put a dot beneath the letter whenever I draw them apart and put two dots whenever you hear me humming during the pronunciation of vowels.

In this story, the origin of the dot notation of the three short vowels and the nunation is ascribed to Abū al-Aswad, and the names of the vowels fatha, damma, kasra are connected with their articulation. A substantial improvement in the system of short vowel notation is usually attributed to the first lexicographer of the Arabic language, alKhalīl ibn Aḥmad al-Farāhīd̄̄ (d. 175/791). ${ }^{181}$ He replaced the system of dots with specific shapes for the three short vowels, a small $w \bar{a} w$ for the vowel $u$, a small alif for the vowel $a$, and a (part of a) small $y \bar{a}$ for the vowel $i$. He also changed the sign for the shadda, using a small $\sin$ (short for shadda 'geminated') instead. When a single consonant was intended, a small $k h \bar{a}$ (short for khafif 'light') could be used. With al-

[^57]khalīl's reform, the system of Arabic orthography was almost completed and, apart from a very few additional signs, it has remained essentially the same ever since. ${ }^{182}$

Whatever the historical reality of the reports about $\mathrm{Ab} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ al-Aswad, it is certain that the origin of the grammar was linked by the Arabic sources to the corruption of the Arabic language in the first centuries of the Islamic empire. A similar motive for the foundation of grammar is mentioned by Ibn Khaldūn in his historical account of the development of the science in the Islamic world: grammar became necessary when the new Muslims threatened to corrupt the Arabic language by their mistakes.

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فلما جاء الإسلام و فارفوا الحجاز لطلب الملك الذي كان في أيدي الأمم و الدول و خالطو ا العجم تغيرت تلك الملكة
    بما القي إليها السمع من المخالفات التي للمتغربين و السمع أبو الملكات اللسـانية ففسدت بما القي إليها مما يغابر ها
    لجنوحها إليه باعتياد السمع وخشي أهل العلوم منهم أن تفسد تلك الملكة رأسأ و يطول العهد بها فينغلق القرآن
و الحديث على المفهوم فاستنبطو ا من مجاري كلامهم قو انين لتلك الملكة مطردة شبه الكليات و القو اعد يقيسون عليها
    سائر أنواع الكلام و يلحقون الأشباه بالأشباه مثل أن الفاعل مرفوع، و المفعول منصوب، والمبتدأ مرفوع، ثم رأو
تغيير الدلالة بتغير حركات هذه الكلمات فاصطلحو ا على تسميته إعراباَ و تسمية الموجب لذلك التغير عاملا و أمثال
    ذلك و صـارت كلها اصطلاحات خاصة بهم فقيدو ها بالكتاب و جعلو ها صناعة لهم مخصوصة و اصطلحو ا على
                                    تسميتها بـعلم النحو 183
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[When Islam came, and they left the Hijāz in order to conquer the empires that were in the hands of the nations and states and when they mingled with the non-Arabs, their habits started to change as the result of the different ways of speaking they heard from those who attempted to learn Arabic, for hearing is the source of linguistic habits. Arabic became corrupted by the deviating forms, because they started to get used to what they heard. Their scholars began to fear lest the language became completely corrupted and people grow accustomed to it, so that the Qur'ān and the Tradition would become incomprehensible. Consequently, they deduced rules from their [the Bedouin's] way of speaking that were universally valid, like the universal and rules [of philosophy]. They used these rules as a canon for the rest of speech, comparing like with like. They found,

[^58]for instance, that the agent is put in the nominative, the object in the accusative and the topic in the nominative. They became aware that the meaning changes with the changes in the vowels of these words. As a technical term for this phenomenon they introduced the word ' i'rāb 'declension' and for the element that is responsible for the change the word 'āmil 'governor', and so on. All these words became technical terms for them. They put them down in writing and made it into a special discipline, which they call 'ilm al$n a h w$ 'science of grammar.] ${ }^{184}$

At the beginning of the Islamic period, only two sources of literary Arabic were available, the Qur'ān and the pre-Islamic poems. ${ }^{185}$ After the conquests, when Arabic became the language of an empire, there was an urgent need to standardise the language for three reasons.

First, the divergence between the language of the Bedouins and the various colloquial varieties that emerged became a real threat to communication in the empire. Second, the policy of the central government, first in Damascus and later in Baghdad, aimed at the control of the subject, not only in economical and religious but also in linguistic matters. ${ }^{186}$ Obviously, if Arabic was to be used as the language of the central administration, it had to be standardised. Third, the changed situation called for a rapid explanation of the lexicon, which had to be regulated in order to achieve some measure of uniformity. The most important prerequisite for the written codification of the language was the invention of orthography, or rather the adaption of existing scribal practices of the new situation. Then a standardised norm for the language was elaborated, and the lexicon was invented and expanded. Subsequently, when these requirements had been met, a stylistic standard was developed. ${ }^{187}$

[^59]
### 2.2 Arabic Grammar from Sībawayh to al-Mubarrad

The first grammarian to give an account of the entire language in what was probably the first publication in book form in Arabic prose, Sībawayh, was not of Arab stock himself, but a Persian from Shīrāz. ${ }^{188}$ His example set the trend for all subsequent generations of grammarians. The grammarians believed that their main task was to provide an explanation for every single phenomenon in Arabic, rather than a mere description, or a set of precepts on how to speak Arabic correctly. Consequently, they distinguished between what was transmitted as occurring in language and what was theoretically possible in language. In principle, they accepted everything that was transmitted from a reliable source: in the first place the language of the Qur'ān, which was sacrosanct anyway, in the second place everything that had been preserved from pre-Islamic poetry, and in the third place testimonies from trustworthy Bedouin informants.

Under the patronage of the 'Abbasid caliphs Arabic grammar soon acquired a pedagogical character it was never to shake off. Classical Arabic having ceased to be a mother tongue, the sons of Hārūn al-Rashīd (reigned 170-193/ 786-809), for example,
miracle of 'Divine Eloquence, the Arabic Qur'ān. See Nicholson, Reynold Alleyne. A Literary History of the Arabs, Cambridge: University Press, 1969, p. 342.
${ }^{188}$ All the biographers mention the fact that he left Basra around the year 793 to return to his birth country, where he died soon after, probably at the age of forty. They link his departure to an incident that took place at the caliphal court in Baghdad. According to this story Sïbawayh was challenged by a grammarian from Kūfa, al-Kisā'ī (d. 799), to pronounce himself on an abstruse question: if you say in Arabic 'I used to think that a scorpion's sting hurts more than that of a hornet, but they were the same', do you say qad kuntu azunnu anna al-'aqraba ashaddu las'atan min al-zunbūr fa-idhā huwa hiya, with both pronounced in the nominative, or fa-idhā huwa iyy $\bar{a} h \bar{a}$, with the second pronoun in the accusative? When Sībawayh declared that only the first alternative was correct, some Bedouins who were conveniently standing at the door but had actually been bribed by al-Kisā’̄̄, were brought in and announced that a true Bedouin would say only the second alternative. This humiliation caused Sībawayh, so the story goes, to leave Baghdad for his native Persia never to come back.

See Sībawayh, Kitāb, vol. 1, pp. 17, 18; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, p. 72; Ibn al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', p. 41; Mahdī Makhzūmī. Madrasat al-Kūfa wa-manhajuhā fī dirāsat al-lughat wa-al-nahw, Baghdad: Dār alMa‘ārif, 1958, p. 111.
could not learn it in the cradle and had instead to be taught by royal tutors such as alKisā’ī and Abū Muḥammad al-Yazīdī. Al-Yazīdī (d. 202/817) ${ }^{189}$ was a member of a minor dynasty of grammarians and poets who served the 'Abbasid court for several generations, though none of their grammatical works is extant. Al-Kisā’̄̄ (d. 189/805) is a much more substantial figure ${ }^{190}$, one of the seven Qurrā' 'Readers', whose version of the Qur'ānic text was accepted as authoritative, and generally acknowledged as the leading grammarian of his era until supplanted by his pupil Abū Zakariyyā Yaḥyā ibn Ziyād al-Farrā' (d. 207/822). ${ }^{191}$ However, to judge by his one surviving work, a small anthology of common formal errors, and by the many quotation in al-Farrā’, it seems that al-Kisā’̄̄ was more of a professional pedant than a systematic grammarian of the caliber of Sībawayh, standing closer to the primitive Naḥwiyyūn in his achievement. ${ }^{192}$

Already by the time of al-Farrā', the emergent pedagogical trend is unmistakable. AlFarrā' himself talks of "the novice in institutions"' and subsequent grammarians are even more explicit. Al-Akhfash al-Awsat (d. c. 215-21/830-06) ${ }^{193}$, a pupil of no less than Sïbawayh, ) observes that verses of poetry were sometimes made up with deliberate mistakes in them to trap the unwary students, and the same al-Akhfash is also quoted in connection with a whole set of syntactical tests which became a regular feature of later

[^60]grammar texts. And we know from Ibn Saḥnūn (d. 255/870) ${ }^{194}$ that by his time there was a fully fledged curriculum for grammar and other subjects, complete with text books. Competitiveness among the new professionals in search of patronage and prestige is especially obvious in the many grammatical debates recorded in the literature of literary gatherings.

Al-Farrā', like his master al-Kisā’’̄, came originally from Kūfa and held an official position at the 'Abbāsid court. ${ }^{195} \mathrm{He}$ was one of the first to maintain that the language of the Qur' $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ n is grammatically perfect Arabic, an assertion which conforms gratifyingly with the political pretensions of his employers and also reflects the growing identification of grammar with the institution of Islam. Certainly al-Farrā’ was an expert in this field: his Ma'ān̄̄ al-Qur'ān, an important source for Muḥammad ibn Jarīr al-Ṭabarī, is a grammatical commentary on the Qur'ān which reveals a scholarly capacity as profound as that of Sībawayh, if not quite so developed.

Between the death of al-Farrā' in 207/822 and the arrival in Baghdad of al-Mubarrad in $247 / 861$, there must have been considerable progress in grammatical science, although there is little direct evidence, since most of al-Mubarrad's teachers were eclipsed by him, and their works, if any, do not survive. An exception is Abū 'Uthmān Bakr ibn Muḥammad al-Māzinī (d. 249/863) ${ }^{196}$, whose Kitāb al-Taṣrīf has been preserved with a commentary by Ibn Jinnī.

[^61]Al-Māzinı̄'s grammatical output has been described as modest, and his pre-eminence in morphology probably reflects a hardening separation of naḥw, 'grammar in general'", into naḥw, ' syntax in particular'", and sarf 'morphology', as professional scholars became increasingly specialized. Al-Māzinı̄’s pupil Abū al-‘Abbās ibn Yazīd alMubarrad (d. 285/898) ${ }^{197}$ is without doubt the most significant grammarian of the third /ninth centaury. He is best known as the author of al-Kāmil, a thesaurus of traditional Arabic rhetoric with an erudite literary, historical and linguistic commentary, but his accomplishment as a grammarian is most conspicuous in his al-Muqtadab. This is a large-scale revision and paraphrase of Sībawayh's Kitāb, differing from the latter, however, in displaying an unprecedented degree of self-conscious pedagogy and authoritarianism. Whole chapters are given over to exercises and tests; the essential terms, hasan, qabīh, mustaqīm and muḥāl, which validated Sībawayh's descriptions of normal Arabic, have been largely abandoned in favor of the peremptory yajūz, "it is allowed'", and là yajūz, 'it is not allowed'', and a number of new technical terms make their appearance, perhaps for the first time. Of these, jumla, 'sentence'", fâ'ida, '"information'", and the statement that a predicate (khabar) is that which can be said to be true or false, must be direct borrowing from logic, and are all the more striking because of their total absence in Sībawayh. This twofold development, pedagogical and philosophical, which altered the nature of grammar during the third/ ninth century, stands out clearly in the al-Muqtadab.

### 2.3 Baṣrans and Kūfans and their Role in Grammar

Soon after the foundation of Baghdad in 145/762, the cities of Baṣra and Kūfa were thrust into the background by the cultural prestige of the new imperial capital. In the resulting competition between grammarians at the Baghdad court, two rival 'schools'" evolved, labelled 'Baṣran'" and 'Kūfan". ${ }^{198}$ At first the antipathy was purely personal: in the

[^62]earliest phase, for example, al-Yazīdī merely declaimed abusive poetry against his rival al-Kisā̄ı̄ even though both were born in Kūfa ${ }^{199}$, but under the malevolent prompting of al-Mubarrad and his arch-enemy Tha'lab (d. 291/204) ${ }^{200}$, the hostility quickly developed into an irreconcilable methodological polarization. As the animosity between the two factions intensified, their origins were artificially projected back to the grammarians of the second/eighth century, principally Sībawayh in Baṣra and al-Farrā’ in Kufa, between whom there certainly were superficial terminological differences, though no conscious or systematic opposition existed at the time. This only surfaced posthumously, as is proved by the complaint of one of al-Farrā's pupils that words he could not recognize were being put into his mouth. From then on the two schools generated a large quantity of polemical literature, often in the form of grammatical disputes, one collection of which is attributed to Tha'lab himself.

The substantive differences between the Baṣrans and Kufans are impossible to state precisely, since allegiance to the distinctive doctrines of either is hopelessly inconsistent; some grammarians, such as Ibn Kaysān (d. 299/912) ${ }^{201}$ are even credited with belonging to both, and later a so-called 'Baghdad"' or "mixed'" school is said to have evolved. ${ }^{202}$ Though the two "schools" may best be interpreted simply as the embodiment of two opposing attitudes to language, the Baṣrans represented the ideal of reducing Arabic to the least number of rules, while the Kufans were prepared to admit any number of anomalies into their system.

[^63]The internal conflict among the professional grammarians was sparked off by the question of authority. They had learned from the logicians that rules depend for their validity on the data from which they are inductively derived and that only a closed corpus could guarantee that these rules could never be overturned by new data. To their credit, everyone was well aware of this: the controversy, which would result in the famous division into 'Baṣran' (closed corpus) and 'Kufan' (open corpus) grammatical schools, named after the two leading cultural centers before the foundation of Baghdad, was long and acrimonious, but grammarians never lost sight of the fact that grammatical science must draw its authority objectively from its logical structure and not, as had formerly been the case, subjectively from the personal prestige and strength of character of its leading practitioners. ${ }^{203}$

It was inevitable that the Baṣrans would prevail, as their attitude was in harmony with parallel developments among theologians and jurists, who responded to the same problem with the well-known 'closing of the gate of $i j t i h \bar{a} d$ ', deliberately restricting the corpus of religious texts from which they could derive the law by the exercise of their personal reasoning (ijtihād). The Baṣran's way of closing the linguistic corpus was effectively to define it as the contents of Sībawayh's Kitäb, to which hardly anything had been or ever would be added: as a result they could claim, as did the lawyers, that the proper use of analogical reasoning applied to a well-defined and authoritative text could provide answers to all linguistic or juridical questions. This left the Kufans on the outside as nonconformists, and they never afterward played a significant role, although it is also true that allegiance to one or another school (there was also a 'Baghdad' school ${ }^{204}$ and perhaps others) was seldom crucial and often very inconsistent. ${ }^{205}$

### 2.4 The Evolution of a General Theory

[^64]By the $3^{\text {rd }} / 9^{\text {th }}$ century, Sībawayh's type of grammar was under review, indeed threatened, from two sides. Among the grammarians there was a growing tension between those who regarded Sībawayh's data as more or less exhaustive and those who believed that more data could always come to light. And from outside the grammatical community came the challenge from the logicians that they were better qualified than the grammarians to control the Arabic language and with it the Islamic ideology.

These issues were connected, as they stemmed from the realization that every science, such had grammar now became, requires a sound theoretical basis. This had not been a problem for Sībawayh because he simply transferred the ethico-legal reasoning of his day from the regulation of human behavior to linguistic behavior, but not long after his death the (re) translation of a number of Greek works forced the Arabs to take a position on the nature of the Islamic sciences, especially those dealing with theology, law and language.

At the same time as the grammarians and others were dealing with the need to close the corpus, far more complex issues were being raised both internally, in court circles and from philosophers and logicians who publicly challenged the grammarian's authority. In the end, the grammarians were forced literally to organize their methodology according to the logical principles. ${ }^{206}$

In the following century, the rivalry between grammarians and logicians created a small literary genre recording their hostile confrontations. The most famous is the battle of words between Abū Sa‘īd al-Sīrāfì (d. 368/979) ${ }^{207}$ and the Christian Abū Bishr Mattā ibn Yūnus (d. 328/940) ${ }^{208}$, which took place in the presence of the wazīr Ibn al-Furāt in $320 / 932$. The symbolism of the debate is at least as important as its content, which must

[^65]here be reduced to a single issue, namely al-Sīrāfi's refutation of Abū Bishr's claim that Arabic is only a particular instance of a universal logical code. This was an argument he was bound to lose. As a Christian and the leading Aristotelian scholar of the day, Abū Bishr represented a double threat to Islam, as the sources of both his faith and his reasoning were non-Arab, in a period when the identification of Islam with the Arabs was at its peak. Not surprisingly, al-Sīrāfĩ tried to disqualify him from putting his case at all by declaring that he did not speak Arabic well enough, a not uncommon debating trick in such circles.

The central statement of the entire discussion comes when Sīrāfĩ rises to the challenge by turning it completely around: 'Grammar is logic, but isolated from the Arabic language, and logic is grammar, but understood within language. The only difference between expression and meaning is that the expression is natural, whereas the meaning is rational' ${ }^{209}$

On the positive side, there is no doubt that the conflict between grammarians and logicians, like that between Baṣrans and Kūfans, resulted in radical changes in grammar as a science. While the grammarians eventually agreed to differ on the fundamental issue of induction from a closed corpus, the logicians taught them a great deal about categories and methods.

It will suffice to mention two kinds of innovation that came about during this phase. First, the gaps in Sïbawayh's terminology were filled, partly, perhaps, for pedagogical reasons but also because the imported definitions of the sciences presumed that their vocabulary was exhaustive. So we find tamy $\bar{z} z$ 'specifying element' for structures such as ashaddu humratan 'redder', lit. 'more intense as to redness'; lā li-nafí al-jins for 'categorical negative $l \bar{a}$ '; af' $\bar{a} l$ al-qulūb 'verbs of the heart' for mental verbs; and other neologisms for items that Sïbawayh never bothered to name, although they are all dealt with in the

[^66]Kitāb. Several abstract nouns were coined for the same reasons, fi 'liyya 'verbality' for the quality of being a verb, zarfiyya for the quality of being a zarf 'adverbial complement', etc.

Second, there was a complete revision of the concept of communication. For Sībawayh, the purpose of language was essentially ethical and pragmatic, namely, for the speaker to satisfy the listener's expectations by accurately conveying the speaker's intention (murād 'what is meant'), and it was linguistically irrelevant whether the utterances were true or false and even less so that they should be structurally complete or free of formal defects. For the grammarians of the $4^{\text {th }} / 10^{\text {th }}$ century (perhaps even earlier, though less systematically), the unit of discourse was no longer kalām 'talking' but the jumla 'sentence', with a minimum of a subject and a predicate, and which, to qualify as a 'sentence' at all, had to be falsifiable, like a logical proposition. ${ }^{210}$ And the pragmatic criterion of satisfying the listener's expectations was replaced by the semantic prerequisite that the sentence/proposition should deliver $f \bar{a}$ 'ida 'information'.

The origin of this new sense of jumla is obscure. Although it is common in all periods in the meaning of 'aggregate, general summary, totality', it entered the grammatical vocabulary only hesitantly in the meaning of 'sentence' in the early $3^{\text {rd }} / 9^{\text {th }}$ century, and kalām remained in use alongside it for a long time until it eventually yielded to jumla. After this, kalām preserved only the overarching meaning of undifferentiated speech, with jumla covering all the subtypes of utterance we call sentences and clauses. Methodologically, there was also a total rethinking because grammar now had to conform to universal scientific principles. Hitherto, it had been taken for granted that language was a rational phenomenon because it is an activity of rational beings, which made it possible to infer linguistic rules directly from the behavior of speakers. But Ibn al-Sarrāj (d. 316/929) ${ }^{211}$ introduced the fine distinction between the principles ( $\left.u s \bar{u} l\right)$ that a speaker applies to produce correct utterances and those a grammarian uses to account for the

[^67]correctness of an utterance. The former are prescriptive, pedagogical, and deductive, while the latter are inductive and ensure that the science of grammar itself is rational. These $u s ̣ \bar{u} l$ were the outcome of discussions of grammatical causes ('illa, pl. 'ilal). ${ }^{212}$

### 2.5 The Assimilation of Grammar and Law

At the same time as Ibn Sarrāj was writing on the principles of grammar (uṣūl al-naḥw), his contemporaries in the legal sciences were occupied with a similar task, which came to fruition in works on the uṣūl al-fiqh 'principles of jurisprudence'. What these disciplines had in common is that both depended on the interpretation of a textual corpus to derive rules for human behavior. They differed, of course, in the nature of their corpus, the corpus of the law being divine inspired while that of the language was Bedouin speech (the Qur'ān could not be the sole primary source of the data for the grammarians). But it is not an exaggeration to say, indeed it was said by the Arabs themselves, that correct grammar (nahw) was a subset of the orthodox practice (sunna) of the good Muslim. Nor is it a coincidence that naḥw and sunna are synonymous, both meaning 'way', none other than the sirāt mustaqūm 'straight path' that Muslims are enjoined to follow in the opening verses of the Qur'ān.

This common preoccupation of grammar and law is explicit from the third/ninth century onwards: from Tha'lab's observation that 'language is determined by the sunna, not the sunna by language, ${ }^{213}$, we may deduce that grammar was beginning to be aware of its place in the Islamic scheme. Al-Zajjājaī $\bar{i}^{214}$ notes in his Kitāb al-Lāmāt that certain words

[^68]have acquired under Islam a meaning and status they did not have before, for example, ти'min, formerly 'believer in anything', then 'believer in Islam'. He calls these terms șifāt shar'iyya; legal epithets, ${ }^{215}$. This shared character led to a kind of symbiosis between law and grammar, and increasingly there was a professional overlap in the two disciplines, so that a scholar might function as a judge and write grammatical works as well.

The relationship was not always amicable. Aḥmad ibn Fāris (d. 395/1004) ${ }^{216}$ was very critical of the linguistic inadequacies of his legal brethren in his treatise Kitāb al-Sāhibibī fi fiqh al-lugha wa sunan al-'Arab fi kalāmihim. He makes a strong plea for great competence in Arabic among the jurists, from which we may infer that in his time some of them did not live up to that standard.

Full integration of grammar and law, both in goals and methods, is argued explicitly by Ibn al-Anbārī (d. 577/1181) in his Luma' al-Adilla fì uṣūl al-naḥw 'illuminating flashes on the evidences for the principles of grammar', which sets out to demonstrate that the value of linguistic and legal evidence and the interpretation of the data are identical in both disciplines. There is no better indication of this relationship than the term shāhid 'legal [eye] witness', which also stood for 'item of linguistic testimony' centuries before Ibn al-Anbārī. So close, in fact, are the two sciences that it is even possible to discern a correlation between the scholar's legal affiliation and his grammatical preferences.

For two centuries at least grammar had a somewhat experimental appearance. During this time grammar took from logic the criteria of truth and falsehood in defining sentences, the classification of sentence types according to meaning, the arrangement of elements in hierarchies and an increasing number of abstract terms. There were further borrowings from law (the concept of istihsān, defined as 'a rational method for the determination of decisions when conflicting principles compete for consideration'), and the tendency to

[^69]adduce sayings of the Prophet (hadīth) imposing correct Arabic as a religious obligation is a clear symptom of the gradual integration of grammar with the sunna, the orthodox way of life. ${ }^{217}$

### 2.6 The Search for Form

According to Carter, 'the grammarians of the fifth/eleventh century give the importation of having 'run out of breath ${ }^{218}$, their aim was much more ambitious: since language is part of God's creation and since Arabic was the language selected by God for his final revelation to human kind, it was bound to be perfect language without deviations or exceptions. Every single part of the Arabic language must exhibit this perfection and it was the self-appointed task of the grammarians to show in the tiniest detail of the linguistic structure that this was indeed a system in which every element was in its place, in which every phenomenon was explicable. The scholars of this period deserve credit for ingenuity in two areas at least. One of these is commentary. ${ }^{219}$ It is obvious that full-scale commentary, super-commentary, gloss and super-gloss could not flourish until there were enough basic texts (mutūn), to support such an activity. In the sixth/twelfth century the most valuable work was produced by the great scholars. These prominent figures are alZamakhsharī, Ibn al-Ḥājib, Ibn Mālik and Ibn Hishām. All of them wrote a variety of works which show a clear stratification into levels of difficulty from the juvenile to the adult, and they would sometime produce elementary and advanced versions of the same text. Likewise a sharp separation is now discernible between the various purposes of each work, whether pedagogical, theoretical or polemical.

Abū al-Qāsim Maḥmūd ibn 'Umar al-Zamakhsharī (d. $539 / 1143$ ) ${ }^{220}$ is an author whose writings have found particular favor in East and West alike, possibly because his
${ }^{217}$ See Cambridge History of Arabic Literature (‘Abbasid Belles Lettres) pp. 130,131
${ }^{218}$ The Cambridge History of Arabic Literature (Religious Learning and Science in the Abbasid Period), p. 132.

219 For more detail see Cambridge History of Arabic Literature ('Abbasid Belles Lettres) pp. 312,133.
${ }^{220}$ Al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 274-276; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 265; Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt alJinān, vol. 3, p. 269; Ibn Athīr, Tārīkh. vol. 9, p. 08.
arrangement of material is sympathetic to the western notion of orderliness. A polymath with Mu'tazilite leanings, he was nevertheless a loyal Arabophone in spite of his Khwarazmian provenance, and scorns the Persophile partisans of the Shu 'ūbiyya in the preface to the justly famous al-Mufaṣsal. In it he disposes the material under four headings: nouns, verbs, particles and the phonological process common to all three. The morphology of verbs is included in their respective chapters, so that the Mufaṣsal comprises all the essential contents of Sïbawayh's Kitāb. As the name of the work implies, the topics are subdivided into fusūul (sections), which al-Zamakhsharī has chosen with such care and linked so well that they provided a natural framework for what is probably the most massive Arabic grammar of all time. Testimony to the importance of the Mufaṣṣl is the number of commentaries it generated, among which that of Ibn Ya‘īsh (d. $643 / 1245)^{221}$ is the best known. As was the fashion, al-Zamakhsharī wrote his own commentary on the Mufasssal, as well as a starkly abridged version, presumably for children, under the name of al-Unmūdhaj. About al-Zamakhsharı̄’s grammatical opinions there is not much to say: this was not an era for innovation or renewed speculation about matters already resolved by centuries of debate. While he does give space to 'Kufan' views, he is clearly a 'Bașran' by allegiance.

The next outstanding master grammarian, Ibn al-Ḥājib (d. 646/1249) ${ }^{222}$, active in Damascus though born and educated in Egypt, was wholly dedicated to philology, unlike most of his colleagues who usually had other livelihoods. One of his numerous works, alKäfiyya ('the adequate'), a concise elementary syntax (morphology is dealt with in a sister work entitled al-Shāfiyya, ('The Satisfier'), became more popular than any other of its kind of work except the $\bar{A}$ jurrūmiyya by Ibn Ājurrūm (d. 723/1323); ${ }^{223}$ this is an

[^70]achievement in its own right, and the huge nexus of commentary and supercommentary which developed out of the Käfiyya confirms that Ibn al-Ḥājib fully deserves his place among the great masters. Notable among the commentaries is that of al-Astarābādī (d. $686 / 1288)^{224}$, Sharh Käfiyyat Ibn al-Ḥājib, a profound but neglected work by an author about whom almost nothing is known.

Ibn al-Ḥājib's place as the leading grammarian of the age was soon taken by Jamāl alDīn Muḥammad ibn Mālik (d. 672/1274) ${ }^{225}$, an Andalusian by birth who travelled East to study under Ibn Ya‘īsh in Aleppo and eventually settled in Damascus. Like Ibn al-Ḥājib, his greatness lies not in scientific innovation but in pedagogical technique.

Ibn Mālik's Alfiyya is a fairly advanced textbook embracing consecutively syntax, morphology and phonology, thus recombining the topics which had been separated in Ibn al-Ḥājib's Kāfiyya and Shāfiyya. The arrangement is into convenient stanza-like units of about forty lines for ease of memorization.

A far more challenging work than the Alfiyya is Ibn Mālik's whimsically titled Tashūl alfawā'id ('Simplification of the Facts'), a prose text in which he displays the highest degree of abstraction, leaving no doubt that he was an extremely accomplished grammarian as well as a facile versifier. Surprisingly at this late stage the grammatical system was still capable of minor improvements, and several of these are associated with Ibn Mālik. He is said to have coined the term al-n $\bar{a}$ 'ib 'an al-fā 'il, 'the substitute' for the agent of the passive verb. The acceptance of the hadìth as linguistic evidence on an equal footing with the Qur'ān is said to be another of Ibn Mālik's innovations, though in fact they are commonly cited by grammarians as far back as Sībawayh himself.

[^71]The fourth great master, Jamāl al-Dīn 'Abd Allāh ibn Yūsuf ibn Hishām (d. 761/1360) ${ }^{226}$ enjoys the reputation of being an even better grammarian than Sībawayh, which amounts to saying that Ibn Hishām's practical grammar was felt to be more applicable to the needs of Islam than Sībawayh's pedagogically unusable Kitāb. He was indeed an effective compiler of instructional manuals which are clear, precise and interesting, such as his Qatr al-Nada ('the dewdrop': intermediate level) and al-I'rāb 'an al-I'rāb ('Expressing Desinential Inflection': juvenile). In his Mughnī al-labīb ('All the Intelligent Man Needs'), he attempts something new and valuable, namely an alphabetical list of the most important words in Arabic (mainly particles) with an analysis of their semantics, which would repay a deeper study. These four are far from being the only prominent grammarians of this period, but space permits only a brief mention of some of the lesser lights. Ibn al-Anbārī (d. 577/1181) $)^{227}$ deserves attention for his practical interest in the historical and theoretical aspects of his profession. His Nuzhat al-Alibbā' contains biographies of the grammarians from the beginnings to his own day, and in al-Inṣăf fi masā'il al-Khiläf he conscientiously reports in detail the grammatical disputes between the Baṣrans and Kufans. His Asrār al-'Arabiyya is an exposition of the reasons for grammatical phenomena presented dialectically, while Luma' al-Adilla analyses from a strictly legal perspective the nature of linguistic evidence, its transmission, the rules of inference and grammatical causality, claiming to be the first to deal with these topics in such a way.

### 2.7 Emergence of Madrasas and Beginning of Pedagogical Grammar

[^72]The short pedagogical grammars which appeared in the fourth/ tenth century were just what were needed. Eventually it became a regular practice for grammarians to provide commentaries themselves on their own original works. Ibn al-Anbārī wrote in a time of two great changes in Islamic civilization, one architectural, the other intellectual. Sometime in the late $4^{\text {th }} / 10^{\text {th }}$ century the first dedicated educational buildings began to appear. Previously, teaching had been done in the mosque or the scholar's home, but although both continued to be used, the desire for specialized accommodation led to the establishment of the madrasa.

During this period numerous madrasas were built in the Muslim world and especially by the Seljuk rulers, their ministers, and some other wealthy men of the state. Nāsir iKhusrau related that a madrasa was being built in Shawwāl 437/1046 by order of Tughril Beg in Nīshāpūr; Chaghrī Beg Da'wūd founded a madrasa in Marw; Alp-Arslān in Baghdad; Muḥammad ibn Malik Shāh in Iṣfahān, and Tughril ibn Muḥammad in Hamadān. The most famous madrasas, however were those founded by Nizāa al-Mulk, and they were known as Nizāmiyya. The best known was in Baghdad, which was opened in Dhū al-Qa‘da 459/1067..$^{228}$ There were also Niẓāmiyya in Nīshāpūr, in Āmul, Moṣul, Herāt, Damascus, Jazīrat Ibn 'Umar, Balkh, Ghazna, Marw, and Baṣra. ${ }^{229}$ Similar religious institutes were built in the fourth/ tenth century: al-Azhar in Cairo and some others in different parts of the world. Maqrīzı̄ gives a list, incomplete, of 75 in Cairo though some of them were closed or moribund in his day; Damascus had 51 for Ḥanafīs alone. Aleppo is a good example of the rapid development:

550/1155 6 colleges 4 Shāfi‘ī 2 Ḥanafì 1 Mālikī 1 Ḥanbalī

[^73]| $600 / 1204$ | 17 | 8 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $658 / 1260$ | 44 | 21 | 23 |

Many of the madrasas were founded for the following of a particular rite; sometimes for a particular scholar. A distribution across schools is shown above. ${ }^{230}$

The main purpose of these madrasas was to train jurists in the various schools of law, but the syllabus was quite broad, and there were professional chairs, student stipends, libraries, and lodgings. Since it was a pious act to endow a madrasa, madrasas were soon found in every major town, often several, although, curiously, they never flourished in alAndalus, where teaching remained in the mosques. ${ }^{231}$

It is impossible here to do justice to the complexity of the process by which grammatical theory developed to its scholastic maturity. It was a vast communal exercise in which all the Islamic sciences consolidated their place in the educational system, each with its own definition, method, and technical vocabulary. This could not be accomplished until the sciences had become self-conscious enough to assert their own autonomy in the pivotal $4^{\text {th }} / 10^{\text {th }}$ century. The Miftāh al- 'Ulūm 'keys of the sciences'" of al-Khwārazmī (written between 377/987 and 387/997) documents the advanced state of organized knowledge in this crucial stage. Here we can agree with Ibn Khaldūn about the corruption of the language arising from the conversion to Islam of more and more non-Arabs; ${ }^{232}$ it forced the grammarians to promote a standard Arabic grammar in order to maintain both the Islamic religion and the Muslim state. The need for Arabic instruction led to the emergence of a professional class of Arabic teachers, with all the attendant rivalries and power struggles abundantly recorded in biographical literature.

[^74]
### 2.8 Pedagogical Grammar as a Genre

The above mentioned reasons forced the grammarians to take up this need as a challenge. As a result the writing of grammar was, in this period, brought to a hitherto unknown degree of formal perfection. Scholasticism was a response to the pressure for knowledge to be packaged for the curriculum, requiring not only a sound theoretical basis, which had been largely worked out in the $4^{\text {th }} / 10^{\text {th }}$ century, but also a style of presentation suitable for class room teaching at different levels. Authors of epitomes were at great pains to find the most exact and precise wording for definitions and general rules, making implicit provisos for every possible objection or counterexample, while taking care to avoid redundancy, which would immediately attract criticism. Commentators analysed these formulations in the most careful way, showing how they covered all relevant data and only relevant data, or else pointed to their inconsistencies and /or redundancies. At every step of the reasoning, all conceivable objections were thoroughly and seriously discussed, even those which seem to us most naive or irrelevant. On the other hand, many important data and/ or discussions were only referred to through brief allusions, as the author took for granted that the reader was already familiar with them.

The treatises written in this period can be considered, in a way, as the most representative expressions of the tradition or in other words it was a new genre of the Arabic grammar. Already within decades of Sïbawayh's death there are signs of pedagogical activity, and the earliest anecdotal evidence of Arabic being taught professionally (to children) is in a work of Ibn Saḥnūn, written before 256/870. ${ }^{233}$ The first pedagogical texts were in circulation soon after, such as the Mukhtṣar fi al-naḥw (Compendium on grammar) of Lughda al-Iṣfahān̄̄ (d. late $3^{\text {rd }} / 9^{\text {th }}$ century) ${ }^{234}$ and the Muwaffaqī (named after his patron) of Ibn Kaysān (d. between 299/912 and 320/932) ${ }^{235}$, probably written for children. A

[^75]number of more advanced grammars were created in the $4^{\text {th }} / 10^{\text {th }}$ century and are still useful today: the al-Mūjaz 'Condensed' of Ibn Sarrāj (d. 316/929), the Jumal fì al-naḥw 'General statements about grammar' of al-Zajjaj $\bar{j} \overline{1}$ (d. 339/949 or 340/950), and the Luma' Illuminating flashes' of Ibn Jinnī (d. 392/1002). ${ }^{236}$

It is probably about this time that the first versified teaching grammars appeared, to judge from fragments attributed to Qalfạt (d. 302/914-915) ${ }^{237}$ in late sources (didactic poems credited to $2^{\text {nd }} / 8^{\text {th }}$ century grammarians are unconvincing). But these are not the great pedagogical masterpieces, in prose or verse, composed when the systematization of grammar was complete. An outstanding example is the Muqaddima of Ibn Bābashādh ${ }^{238}$ (d. 469/1077), himself the author of a commentary on al-Zajjajī̀'s Jumal and not too insignificant a figure to be quoted by later grammarians. His Muqaddima ('Introduction', a direct calque of Isagogī, and a favorite title for elementary works since the early fourth/tenth century) is a traditional rearrangement of the grammatical syllabus, evidently on his own initiative. Al-Zamakhsharī (d. 1144) introduced an entirely new arrangement of the grammatical material in his Kitāb al-Mufasṣal: of the section on the basic notions of grammar he divides his book into three sections, each of which is dedicated to the functions of one declensional case (nominative, accusative, genitive).

These works, which completely subordinate the natural language to the demands of pedagogical arrangement, are worlds apart from the textbooks of previous centuries. Moreover, the rewards of teaching at the madrasas encouraged scholars to produce more

[^76]than one version of the same book, short, medium, and long, to suit the curriculum, and even to write commentaries on themselves. The treatises written in this period can be considered, in a way, as the most representative expressions of the tradition.

The apogee of pedagogical grammar was reached in the 7th /13th century, in the works of the three great masters Ibn al-Ḥājib (d. 646/1249), Ibn Mālik (d. 672/1274), and Ibn Hishām (d. 761/1360). Two short treatises by Ibn al-Ḥājib, one on syntax, al-Kāfiyya, the other on morphology, al-Shāfiyya, represent the art of compression at its best. Ibn Mālik is famous for his use of verse as a pedagogical medium, e.g. in al-Khulāṣa al-Alfiyya, better known simply as the Alfiyya "the thousand-liner". Ibn Hishām completes the trio with a series of pedagogical works that are such masterly statements of the rules and principles that they earned him the reputation of being 'a better grammarian than Sībawayh'. The Muqaddima al-Ājurrūmiyya, named after its author, Ibn Ājurrūm (d. 723/1327), is the most widely known textbook of its kind and has spawned more than 60 commentaries. It was not the first elementary grammar to appear in this period: there is the al-Miṣbāh of al-Muatarrizī (which is the topic of my thesis) and the Muqaddimat al-Harīrī and al-Quhandizī (d. 666/1267), also written for juveniles.

At first glance, these works can give an impression of tedious repetition; such an impression is, however, not only inaccurate but seriously misleading. One of the characteristics of this theory, evolved by the Arabic tradition, is its extreme coherence and systemicity, so that the treatment of a given question is, to a wide extent, predetermined by a multiplicity of decisions taken at other points of the theory, these points being often quite distant from the original question, and apparently quite unrelated to it. But then all such questions are not explicitly stated by any single treatise; on the other hand, different treatises can very often shed different lights on the same question, by suggesting different connections. It follows that the best way to get an accurate idea of the treatment of any question in the Arabic tradition is by reading the chapters devoted to it in a number of treatises; in most cases, the difficulties raised by an author can be solved by a chance remark passed by another. If one approaches the texts in such a way, one very quickly realizes that they are not repetitive, but cumulative.

### 2.9 Grammar since the Middle Ages

Before we discuss al-Jurjānı̄'s role and contribution in pedagogical grammar let us have a look at the grammar since the Middle Ages. After the $8^{\text {th }} / 14^{\text {th }}$ century, serious and valuable works, invariably commentaries, continued to be produced. These include works by, among others, al-Damāmīnī $(827 / 1424)^{239}$, al-Azharī (d. 905/1499) ${ }^{240}$, al-Suyūṭ̄ (d. $911 / 1505)^{241}$, al-Shirbīnī (d. 977/1570) ${ }^{242}$, and al-Ṣabbān (d. 1206/1792 ${ }^{243}$, all perpetuating the medieval scholastic mode, although the individuality of the author occasionally breaks through. Even when Lebanese scholars began to revive interest in the Arabic literary heritage, they expressed themselves in the medieval style, as in the grammatical works of (Jarmānūs) Farhāā (d. 1732) ${ }^{244}$, Naṣīf al-Yāzijī (d. 1871) ${ }^{245}$, and Fāris al-Shidyāq (d. 1887). ${ }^{246}$
${ }^{239}$ For his personal details see Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt al-'Arabiyya, p. 898; Kahḥāla, Mu'jam alMu'allifín, vol. 9, p. 115; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 6, p. 283; Zaydān, Tārīkh Āāa al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 143; al-Sakhāwī, al-Daw' al-Lāmi', vol. 7, p. 184.
${ }^{240}$ al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 2, pp. 238, 239; Kaḥḥāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifinn, vol. 4, p. 96; al-Sakhāwī, alDaw al-Lāmi', vol. 3, p. 171; al-Ghazzī, Najm al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad. al-Kawākib al-Sảंira bi

${ }^{241}$ For his life history, see Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 4, pp. 71-73; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam alMu'allifinn, vol. 5, pp. 128-130; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 858; Sarkīs, Mu'jam alMatbū 'āt al-'Arabiyya, pp.1074-1085; Ibn Iyās Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad. Badā’i' al-Zuhūr fì Waqā’i' alDahūr, Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a al-Amīrīyya, 1893-1894, vol. 4, p. 83.
${ }^{242}$ For his life history see Brockelmann, G: 2, 445, S: 2, p. 467; Sarkīs, Mu 'jam al-Matbū'āt al'Arabiyya, p. 1422; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Mu’allifín, vol. 8, p. 269; al-Zirkilī, al-A ‘lām, vol. 6, p. 234.
${ }^{243}$ Kahḥāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifîn, vol. 11, p. 17; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 7, p. 189, 190; Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt al-'Arabiyya, pp. 1194, 1195; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 289.
${ }^{244}$ For his personal details see Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū 'āt al- 'Arabiyya, pp. 1441, 1442
${ }^{245}$ Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 4, p. 224; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt al-'Arabiyya, pp.19271931; Dāghir, Yūsuf As‘ad. Masādir al-Dirāsa al-Adabiyya, wafqān li-manāhij al-ta'līm al-rasmiyya: Lubnān, Sūriyā al- 'Irāq, Miṣr, Sayḍā: Maṭb 'at Dayr al-Mukhlis, 1950-1957, pp. 752-758; 'Abbūd, Mārūn. Ruwwād al-Nahḍa al-Hadītha, Beirut: Dār al-Thaqāfa, 1977, pp. 125,129, 193, 224.
${ }^{246}$ Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 4, p. 261; Kaḥhāala Mu'jam al-Mu'allifinn, vol. 2, p. 41, 42; alZirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 1, p. 184,185; Mārūn, Ruwwād al-Nahḍa al-Hadī̀tha, pp. 201, 205, 241, 247.

By this time we are well into the colonial era, when the Arabic language began to fall under the intellectual dominance of the West. Establishment of the Arab academies in the early $20^{\text {th }}$ century and the increase in vernacular literature are both symptoms of the impact of western cultural values on the Arab world. To date the most striking postcolonial phenomenon is the movement to simplify Arabic, going back at least as far as Ibrāhīm Muștafā, whose Ihyāā al-Naḥw 'Revival of Grammar' was first published in 1937 and sparked a series of attempts at language reform that are still being energetically but inconclusively pursued.

## CHAPTER: 3

## THE LIFE HISTORY OF IMĀM AL-MUṬARRIZĪ

### 3.1 Name and Title

Name and Ancestry: Nāṣir al-Dīn ibn 'Abd al-Sayyid ibn 'Alīi ${ }^{247}$

[^77]
# His ism al-‘A' $\boldsymbol{i l a}:$ al-Muṭarrizī ${ }^{248}$ 

His Kunya: Abū al-Fatḥ \& Abū al-Muzaffar ${ }^{249}$

His Laqab: Burhān al-Dīn ${ }^{250}$

Ḥanafiyya, Ḥaydarābād Deccan: Dār al-Ma‘ārif al-Niẓāmiyya, 1913, vol. 2, p.190; al-Laknawī, Muḥammad 'Abd al-Ḥayī. Kitāb al-Fawa'id al-Bahiyya fī Tarājim al-Ḥanafiyya, Cairo: Muḥammad Tājī al-Jamālī wa Muḥammad Amīn al-Khānjī, 1906, pp. 218, 21; al-Suyūṭī, Jalāl al-Dīn 'Abd al-Raḥmān. Bughyat al-Wu'āt fî Țabaqāt al-Nuḥāt, ed. Muḥammad ibn Faḍl Ibrāhīm. Cairo: Maktabat 'Īsā al-Bābī alḤalabī, 1964, vol. 2, pp. 311; Brockelmann, Carl. Geschichte der Arabischen Litteratur, Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1937, S: 1, pp. 514, 515, G: 1, pp. 350-352; Brockelmann, Carl. Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, translated by ‘Abd al-Ḥalīm al-Najjār [et al]. Cairo: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, 1977, vol. 5, pp. 240, 241; al-Qifṭī, Jamāl al-Dīn ‘Alī ibn Yūsuf. Inbāh al-Ruwāt 'alā Anbāh al-Nuḥāt, ed. Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm. Cairo: Dār al-Kutub alMiṣriyya, 1952, vol. 3, pp. 339, 340; Farrūkh, 'Umar. Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, Beirut: Dār al-'Ilm li-alMalāyīn, 1981. vol. 3, pp. 454, 455; Glassé, Cyril. Encyclopaedia of Islam, (new ed) ed. by B. Lewis, V. J. Menage... [et al] Leiden, London, Luzac: E. J. Brill, 1990, vol. 7, pp. 773, 774; First Encyclopaedia of Islam, ed. Houtsma, M. Th [et al.]. Leiden, New York, København, and Köln: E. J. Brill, 1987, vol. 6, pp. 785, 786; Donzel, E.Van. Islamic Desk Reference (compiled from the Encyclopaedia of Islam), LeidenNew York-Köln: E. J. Brill, 1994, p. 304; Meisami, Julie Scott \& Paul Starkey (editors). Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature. London: Routledge, 1998, vol. 2, pp. 560, 561; Zaydān, Jurjī, Kitāb Tārīkh Ādāb alLugha al-'Arabiyya, Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Hilāl, 1936-1937, vol. 3, pp. 48, 49; Kubrāzāda, Aḥmad Muṣtafā Țāsh. Miftāḥ al-Sa'āda wa Miṣbāh al-Siyāda fī Mawḍū‘āt al-'Ulūm, Haydarābād Deccan: Dā’irat alMa‘ārif al-Nizāàiyya, AH1332, vol. 1, p.108; al-Zirkilī, Khayr al-Dīn. Al-A 'lām, Beirut: Maṭba'at Kūstātūmās wa Shurakā’, 1954, vol. 8, p. 311; Ibn Khallikān, Shams al-Dīn Aḥmad ibn Abī Bakr. Wafayāt al-A 'yān wa Anbā' Abnā' al-Zamān, ed. Muḥyī al-Dīn 'Abd al-Ḥamīd. Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Sa‘āda, 1948, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; al-Yāfi‘ī, 'Abd Allāh ibn Asad ibn 'Alī ibn Sulaymān. Mir'āt al-Jinān wa 'Ibrat alYaqzā̄n, Beirut: Mu'asst al-‘llm, 1970, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21; Tabrīzī, Muḥammad 'Alī. Kitāb Rayḥānat alAdab, Tehrān: Shirkat Sāmī Kutub, AH 1328, vol. 4, p. 34.
${ }^{248}$ See above mentioned references.
${ }^{249}$ Qarshī,'Abd al-Qādir ibn Abī al-Wafā. al-Jawāhir al-Muḍī’a fī Țabaqāt al-Ḥanafiyya, Ḥaydarābād Deccan: Dā’irat al-Ma‘ārif al-Nizāmiyya, AH1332, vol. 2, pp.190; al-Laknawī, al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 218, 219; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol.7, pp. 773, 774; Meisami and Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 2, pp. 260, 261; al-Shaybānī, Kamāl al-Dīn Abū al Faḍl. Mu jam al-Alqāb, Cairo: Muḥammad Tājī al-Jamālī wa Muḥammad Amīn al-Khānjī, 1950, vol. 2, p. 366; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 311;Tabrīz̄̄, Muḥammad 'Alī ibn Muḥammad Țāhir. Kitāb Rayhānat al-Adab: fî Tarājim al-Ma 'rūfin bi-al-Kunyat wa al-Laqab, Chāpkhāna As‘adī, 1952, vol. 4, p. 34.

Al-Muṭarrizī must be pronounced with the "damma" of mīm, "fatha" of $t \bar{a}$, "shadda", and "kasra" of $R \bar{a} \cdot{ }^{251}$ According to the dictionaries, the meaning of the word "Mutarriz $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{\imath}}{ }^{2} 252$ is a person who is an embroider. It may be possible that he inherited this craft from his ancestors. However in my view, there is no connection between his name and his occupation. 'Umar Farrūkh states that there is a connection between the two ${ }^{253}$ and it was a surname of a well known family in Khwārazm, but this may not be true since there were a lot of people in Khwārazm who were known by this surname. ${ }^{254}$ Ibn Khallikān states that it is not clear whether al-Mutarrizī himself or his forefathers used to do this work. ${ }^{255}$

### 3.1.1 Place and Date of Birth

Al-Muṭarrizī was born at Jurjāniyya in Khwārazm in the month of Rajab 538 (January February 1144). ${ }^{256}$ Jurjāniyya is a big city located along the banks of the river Jayḥūn.
${ }^{250}$ See al-Qarshī, al-Jawāhir al-Mudī̀'a, vol. 2, p. 190; Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 7, p. 772; Tabrī̄̄̄, Rayhānat al-Adab, vol. 4, p. 34.
${ }^{251}$ Laknawī, al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 218, 219; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.
252 See Ibn Manz̧ūr, Abū al-Faḍl Jamāl al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Mukarram al-Ifrīqī. Lisān al-'Arab, Beirut:Dār al-Ṣādir, 1956, vol. 5, pp. 368, 369; al-Zabīd̄̄, Muḥammad Murtaḍā al-Ḥusaynī. Sharh alQāmūs al-Musammā Tāj al- 'Arūs min Jawāhir al-Qāmūs, Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a al-Khayriyya, 1888-1889. vol. 3, p. 359; al-Fīrūzābādī, Muḥammad ibn Ya‘qūb Majd al-Dīn. al-Qāmūs al-Muhị̂t, Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a alḤusayniyya, AH1330, vol. 2, p. 80; al-Muṭarrizī, Nāṣir ibn ‘Abd al-Sayyid al-Naḥwī. al-Mughrib fì Tartīb al-Mu'rib, Ḥaydarābād Deccan: Dā’irat al-Ma‘ārif al-Nizāaimya, AH 1328. vol.2, p. 13; al-Muṭarrizī himself explains this word in his lexicographical book al-Mughrib.
الطراز بالكسر علم الثوب، وثوب طرازي منسوب إلى طراز وهوموضع
${ }^{253}$ Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455.
${ }^{254}$ Among them is his father, 'Abd al-Sayyid al-Mutarrizī̀, and Muḥammad ibn ‘Alī ibn Sa‘īd al-Muṭarrizī̀.
${ }^{255}$ See Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A' 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.
${ }^{256}$ According to my research and all the biographical dictionaries, al-Mutarrizī was born in 538/1144 whereas the authors of Fawāt al-Wafayāt, al-Fawā'id al-Bahiyya and al-Jawāhir al-Mud̄ı’’a write that he was born in AH 1142. For futher details see al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 218, 219; al-Kutubī, Muḥammad

Natives of Khwārazm used to call it Karkānj but later it came to be known as Jurjāniyya. ${ }^{257}$ In ancient times it was also called Khwārazm. Yāqūt al-Ḥamawī says that he had visited the city in 616/1219 before the invasion of the Tatars who destroyed the whole city. He wondered if he had ever seen such a beautiful, big, and prosperous city in his life, but everything was destroyed by the invasion of the Tatars and there was nothing left in the city except death and devastation. ${ }^{258}$ The people of Khwārazm were very intelligent and fond of knowledge. ${ }^{259}$ According to al-Muqaddasī, ${ }^{260}$ whenever he met a scholar, well known in fiqh (jurisprudence) or literature, his study circle always included pupils from Khwārazm succeeding brilliantly in their respective fields under that scholar's supervision. ${ }^{261}$
ibn Shākir ibn Aḥmad. Fawāt al-Wafayāt, ed. Muḥyī al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd. Cairo: Maktabat al-Nahḍa alMiṣriyya, 1951, vol. 4, p.182; al-Qarshī, al-Jawāhir al-Mudī̀'a, vol. 2, p. 190.
${ }^{257}$ Al-Ḥamawī, Yāqūt ibn 'Abd Allāh al-Rūmī. Mu jam al-Buldān, Beirut: Dār al-Șādir, 1957, vol. 2, p. 122.
${ }^{258}$ See above mentioned reference.
${ }^{259}$ al-Muqaddasī, Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad. Aḥsan al-Taqāsīm, Leiden: Brill, 1906, p. 284.
${ }^{260}$ He was Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn Abī Bakr al-Bannā’ al-Shāmī al-Muqaddasī, also known as al-Bashshārī who was born in Jerusalem in the decade of 330/941, and died not earlier than 381/991; he was a travelling merchant. He is renowned as a geographical author. Except for his own work, Ahsan al-Taqāsīm fì Ma 'rifat al-Aqālīm ('"the best divisions for the knowledge of the regions'"), completed around $380 / 990$, no biographical source for him is extant. He defines geography as a noble discipline worthy of a cultivated style and indispensable to princes and their ministers as well as to merchants and, generally, to a complete gentleman. His interest is not limited to physical features and economic conditions of a given region but includes the social and denominational make-up of its inhabitants, which he observes with insight. His family background also gives him an open eye for the aesthetic qualites of architecture.

See al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 6, p. 206; Kaḥhāla, Mu 'jam al-Mu’allifin, vol. 8, pp. 238, 239; Brockelmann, S: 1, pp. 410, 411; Meisami and Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 2, p. 551; First Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 6, pp. 708, 709; Islamic Desk Reference, p. 293.
See al-Muqaddasī, Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad. The Best Divisions for the Knowledge of the Regions, translated by Basil Collins. Reading: Garnet Publishing, 1994. Preface to the book.
${ }^{261}$ al-Muqaddisī, Ahsan al-Taqāsīm, p. 284.

It would indeed be true to assert that historians have deprived al-Mutarrizī of the honour and respect which he deserves. In reality, he was a well-known scholar and a man of repute of his time. ${ }^{262} \mathrm{He}$ was also awarded the title of successor of al-Zamakhsharī. ${ }^{263} \mathrm{He}$ was socalled because he was born in the same city and in the same year in which alZamakhshari1 ${ }^{264}$ departed from this world. ${ }^{265}$ In addition, he was also a staunch follower

262 al-Khwānsārī, Muḥammad 'Alī. Rawḍāt al-Jannāt fî Aḥwāl al- 'Ulamā' wa al-Sādāt, Tehran: Dār alKutub al-‘Ilmiyya, 1962, vol. 4, p. 731; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.
${ }^{263}$ Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, p. 212; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21; al-Kutubī, Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, p.182; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774; al-Suyūṭī, Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 311; Kubrāzāda, Miftāh al-Sa'āda, vol. 1, p. 108; Brockelmann, vol. 5, pp. 240, 241; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀'a, vol. 2, p.190.
264 Al-Zamakhsharī (467-538/1075-1144)
bū al-Qāsim Muḥammad ibn 'Umar al-Zamakhsharī was a philologist, theologian and Qur'ān commentator. Most of his life he lived in his place of birth Khawārazm in Central Asia, and twice he visited Mecca. In spite of his Persian descent, he championed the absolute superiority of Arabic.

His principal work is a commentary on tAhe Qur'ān named al-Kashshāf; the work has been an essential part of the curriculum of religious education throughout the Muslim world for centuries. At the very beginning of the work he declares the Qur'ān as being created; this book was widly read in orthodox circles. The author devotes most attention to dogmatic exegises of a philosophical nature, paying only slight attention to tradition. Besides giving the purely grammatical exposition, he devotes special attention to pointing out rhetorical beauties and thus supporting the doctrine of the I'jāz of the Qur'ān. He also wrote a number of other works including works on Arabic grammar, rhetoric and lexicography, and a collection of proverbs. Some of his books are:
al-Kashshāf,(fī-Tafsīr al-Qur'ān) al-Fā'iq fì Gharīb al-Ḥadīth, Asās al-Balāgha, al-Mufaṣ̣al fì al-Nahw, al-Minhāj fì al-Uṣūl, Kitāb al-Jibāl wa al-Amkina, Maqāmāt al-Zamakhsharī, Nawābigh al-Kalim, and Dīwan Shi'r.

See Kubrāzāda, Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 1, p. 431; al-A ‘lām, vol. 8, p. 55; Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 4, pp. 254260; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al-'Arabiyya, vol. 3, p. 46; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 277-281; Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 507, G: 1, p. 344; Ibn al-Anbārī, Kamāl al-Dīn 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Muḥammad. Nuzhat al-Alibbā' fî Țabaqāt al-Udabā', ed. Ibrāhīm al-Sāmarrā’’̄. Baghdad: Maṭba‘at alMa‘ārif, 1959, p. 469; Khalīfa, Ḥājjī. Kashf al-Zunūn 'an Asmā' al-Kutub wa al-Funūn, Beirut: Manshūrāt Maktabat al-Muthannā, no date, pp. 1202, 1310, 1555, 1667; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 19, pp. 125, 126; al-Anbārī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, pp. 265-272; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 279, 280; Ibn-
of al-Zamakhsharī's teachings, methods and religious ideologies. ${ }^{266}$ Unfortunately, historians have not written anything about his life except his pilgrimage hajj in 610/1204. On his way to Makka when he reached Baghdad, he discussed his compilations with the scholars and learned people of Baghdad. ${ }^{267}$ Those scholars during such discourses with al-Mutarrizī gained a great deal of knowledge from $\operatorname{him}^{268}$ as well as many other people of his time.

Besides Naḥw (syntax), al-Muṭarrizī had a deep knowledge of fiqh (jurisprudence), etymology, poetry, linguistics and different branches of literature. ${ }^{269}$ Yāqūt al-Ḥamawī mentioned in the preface of his book Mu'jam al-Buldān, that al-Muṭarrizī was a

Quṭlubghā, Qāsim ibn 'Abd Allāh. Tāj al-Tarājim fî Țabaqāt al-Hanafiyya, Leipzig: F.A. Brockhaus, 1862, pp. 37, 50, 53, 58, 81; Meisami and Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 2, pp. 820, 821; First Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 8, pp. 1205-1207; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed, vol.10, pp. 432-434; Islamic Desk Reference, pp. 487, 488.
${ }^{265}$ Kahḥāla, Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369,370; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al-‘Arabiyya, vol. 3, pp. 48, 49.
${ }^{266}$ Kaḥhāla, Mu' jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A' 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369. 370; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774; al-Kutubī, Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, pp. 82; al-Yāfi'ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21.
${ }^{267}$ Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; al-Yāfi'ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21; Farrūkh, Tärīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774.
${ }^{268}$ Kahḥāla, Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.
${ }^{269}$ Kaḥhāla, Mu 'jam al-Mu'allifinn, vol. 13, pp. 70, 71; Kaḥhāla, Mu 'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al-'Arabiyya, vol. 3, pp. 48, 49; al-Qarshī, al-Jawāhir al-Mudị'a, vol. 2, p. 190.
recognized scholar of his era and people used to seek his advice for their scholastic problems and used to follow his jurisdiction. ${ }^{270}$

Al-Muṭarrizī was a representative of the al-Mu'tazilī line of thought and used to preach their ideas to people. ${ }^{271}$ In addition, he was a strict follower of Abū Hanīfa ${ }^{272}$ in fiqh (jurisprudence). ${ }^{273}$ For this reason, he was a virtuous scholar and proficient in syntax, philology, poetry and different branches of literature.

### 3.1.2 Family

${ }^{270}$ Yāqūt, Mu'jam al-Buldān, preamble.
${ }^{271}$ al-Yāfi‘ $\overline{1}$, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 21, 21; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; alQifṭi, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, pp. 339, 340; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A ‘yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.
272 Abū Ḥanīfa (80-150/699-767).
Abū Ḥanīfa al-Nu'mān ibn Thābit was a prominent jurist and theologian from whom one of the four major schools of Sunnī law, the Ḥanafī, takes its name. He lived in Kūfa which was a major centre of Muslim thought, and gathered around him a circle of disciples who transmitted and elaborated much of his teachings, and also added their own contributions, thereby laying the foundation of the Hanafî School.
He surpassed his contemporaries by using systematic reasoning in justification of legal rules, and thus helped to move Muslim jurisprudence in the direction of the classical formulation which was received and accepted by the following generation. One of his pupils, Abū Yūsuf, became the $Q \bar{a} d ̣ \bar{\imath} a l-Q u d \bar{a} t$ during the period of the Caliph Hārūn al-Rashīd. His work includes al-Fiqh al-Akbar, Musnad Abī Hanīfa, alMakhārij fì al-Hìyal, Waṣiyya li- Ibnihi, Waṣiyya li-Aṣhābihi.
See Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. p. 23; First Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 1, pp. 90, 91; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol.1, pp. 123, 124; Meisami and Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 1, pp. 33, 34; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al- 'Arabiyya, vol. 2, pp.138, 139; Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 3947; Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 284; Brockelmann. vol. 3, p. 235; al-Baghdādī, Abū Bakr Aḥmad ibn 'Alī alKhatīb. Tārīkh Baghdād, Cairo: Maṭb‘at al-Sa‘āda, 1931, vol. 9, pp. 323-423; al-A 'lām, vol. 9, pp. 4, 5; Ibn Kathīr, 'Imād al-Dīn Ismā‘īl ibn 'Umar al-Dimashqī. al-Bidāya wa al-Nihāya, Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Sa'āda, 1932-1939; vol. 10, pp. 107; al-Qarshī al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀ $a$, vol. 1, pp. 26-32; Kubrāzāda, Miftāh alSa‘āda, vol. 2, pp. 63-83; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 1, pp. 309-312; Shiblī, Nu'mānī. Imām Abū Hanīfa Life and Work, translated by Muḥammad Hādī Ḥasan. New Delhī: Islamic Book Service, 1998.
${ }^{273}$ Kaḥḥāla, Mu 'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A ‘yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al- 'Arabiyya, vol. 3, pp. 48, 49; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774.

There is no reference to his personal life with regard to wife, daughters or sons in any of the biographical dictionaries, except his son for whom he had written books entitled alMiṣbāh and al-Iqnā ${ }^{‘}$ as mentioned by him in the preface of these books. Those who hold the opinion that the name of the son for whom he wrote al-Miṣbāh was Jamāl al-Dīn (as mentioned by Yāsīn Maḥmūd al-Khaṭīb, Maḥmūd al-Fākhūrī and 'Abd al-Ḥamīd alMukhtār $)^{274}$ are probably not correct since they lack the evidence and authority to support their opinion. ${ }^{275}$

### 3.1.3 Death

Al-Muṭarrizī passed away on Tuesday $21^{\text {st }}$ of Jumādā al-Ūlā, October the $8^{\text {th }} 610 / 1213 .{ }^{276}$ On his death, more than 300 monodies were written in Arabic and other languages. ${ }^{277}$ This shows what a great scholar he was and what an impact he had on the people of his era and age. Hence, he was highly regarded by the literary people of his time and very well respected among his contemporaries.
${ }^{274}$ In Encyclopaedia of Islam, (new edition) the name of 'Abd al-Ḥamīd is mistakenly given as 'Abd alMajīd. See Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774.

275 As mentioned by Yāsīn Maḥmūd al-Khaṭīb, the editor of al-Miṣbāḥ, Maḥmūd al-Fākhūrī, and 'Abd alḤamīd al-Mukhtār, who edited his book al-Mughrib fī Tartrtīb al-Mu 'rib. See al-Khaṭīb, Yāsīn Maḥmūd. al-Miṣbāh fì al-Naḥw, Beirut: Dār al-Nafā’is, 1997, p. 12; al-Fakhūrī, Maḥmūd and al-Mukhtār, 'Abd alḤamīd, al-Mughrib fì Tartīb al-Mu'rib, Karachi: Idārat da'wat al-Islām, no date. p. 4.
${ }^{276}$ All the books which were available in the libraries I have searched state that, al-Muṭarrizī passed away in 610/1238, except for the authors of al-'Asjad al-Masbūk and al-Bidāya wa al-Nihāya, who hold the opinion that al-Muṭarrizī died in 606/1234.

See al-Ghassānī, al-Malik al-Ashraf. al-'Asjad al-Masbūk wa al-Jawhar al-Maḥkūk fí Țabaqāt al-Khulafā' al-Mulūk, ed. Shākir 'Abd al-Mun'im, Beirut: Dār al-Turāth al-Islāmī, 1975, p. 98; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Bidāya wa al-Nihāya, vol. 13, p. 54.
${ }^{277}$ See Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, p. 182; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 340; al-Qarshī, al-Jawāhir al-Mud̄̄’a, vol. 2, p. 190.

### 3.2 Al- Muṭarrizī's Education and Poetry

### 3.2.1 Study Tours Abroad

In biographical dictionaries, there is no reference to any study tours abroad except for a few days that he stayed in Baghdad during his pilgrimage from Khwārazm to perform the hajj in 601/1202. The contention that al-Mutarrizī made some other journeys, as stated by a certain number of authors, ${ }^{278}$ is to the best of my knowledge, lacking in evidence. Of course there can be no doubt that during his stay in Baghdad he exchanged his views with different scholars. They learned a lot during his stay in Baghdad because he was a wellknown and recognized scholar of his time.

### 3.2.2 Poetry

In addition to being a jurist, al-Muṭarrizī was a gifted poet and a scholar but as regards to his poetry not much of it was narrated except a very few lines, which Ibn Khallikān describes as "al-Sianā ' $a$ " ${ }^{279}$ when he says:

$$
\text { و إنّي لأستحي من المجد أن أرى } 280 \text { غليف } 280
$$

[^78]See Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, p. 182.

In the above verse he says that it is against his honour and nobility to be associated with dancing and singing women. This is also noted in his poetry which illustrates his longing for his companions in a form of ghazal (love poetry) as we can observe in the following lines:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { يا وحشةٍ لِجيرة منذ نأوْا } \\
& \text { عُلّو" قْْرِ في الهوى "انُحطا } \\
& \text { حكت دموعي البحرَ من بعدهِم } \\
& \text { لمّا رأت منزلهم شطَا } 281
\end{aligned}
$$

In these lines, al-Mutarrizī is shedding tears for his long lost friends and his grief turns into a sea of his own tears. The basic traditional idea of shedding tears at the threshold of ones beleved is an old Arabic poetic tradion but al-Muṭarrizī, through exaggeration, has given it a new dimention with new style and images as we have witnessed in the above verses.

Abū al-Wafā' Qarshī narrated from Yāqūt al-Ḥamawī some lines about wine poetry (khamriyyāt) composed by him:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { يا خليليَّ أسقياني بالزجاجَ الكرمة من غير مزاج } \\
& \text { أناج الا ألتدُ سمعاً باللجاج }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^79]\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { فأسقنيها قبل تغريد الدجاج } \\
& \text { قبل أن يؤذن صبحي بانبلاج } \\
& \text { إن أردت الر اح فاشربها صباحأ } \\
& \text { بعد أن تصحب أتر ابأ ملاحا } \\
& \text { جمعو ا حسنأ و أنسأ ومز احأ } \\
& \text { و غدوا كالبحر علمأ وسماحأ } \\
& \text { فهم مفتاح بـاب الإبتهاج } 282
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

In these lines, he asks his fellows to provide him with wine, as he wants to drink before dawn. It is clear that al-Mutarrizī, in his poetry, follows the style of the earlier Jāhil̄ poets in addressing the dual (muthannā$)$. He also urges his friends to offer him pure wine, unmixed with water, as he cannot find it tasteful when diluted. Furthermore he also urges that wine should be drunk before morning in the company of generous, noble and stable friends. It should be clear that these meanings in poetry were transmitted among earlier wine poets.

The following two poetic lines are regarded as an excellent example of his boasting (fakhr) poetry where he shows that being a scholastic person he was not recognised and appreciated by the people of his era. We have already mentioned that historians did not write much about his life and work and had deprived him of the honour and respect which he thought he deserved.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تعامى زماني عن حقوقي و إنّه } \\
& \text { قبيح على الزرقاء تبدى تعاميا } \\
& \text { و إن ثُنكروا فضلي فإنّ رُغاءَهُ } \\
& \text { كفى لذوي الأسماع منكم مُناديا } 283
\end{aligned}
$$

[^80]The following lines are the best example of al-Mutarrizī’s use of al-Sianā'a al-Lafziyya as mentioned by Ibn Khallikān.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { و زند ندى فوا ضلّه وريّ } \\
& \text { ورند رُبا خو اضلَه نضبرُ } \\
& \text { ودرُ خلاله أبداً ثثينُ } \\
& \text { ودر نو اله ابدأ غزير } 284
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.3 Teachers and Scholars

With his vast knowledge in a number of fields, Imām al-Muṭarrizī must have had a number of teachers. However, due to the fact that history has fallen short of recording the life and works of this noble man, only a few names of his teachers are known, namely; Abī al-Makārim 'Abd al-Sayyid ibn 'Alī̀ ${ }^{285}$, Abū Muḥammad $\mathrm{Sa}^{`} \mathrm{ī} d$ al-Tājir and $\mathrm{Abū}$ alMu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq al-Makkī.

### 3.3.1 Abī al-Makārim 'Abd al-Sayyid ibn 'Alī

${ }^{283}$ Kahḥāla, Mu 'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455; al-Suyūṭ̂̄, Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 311. This verse of poetry in Fawāt al-Wafayāt and Mir'āt al-Jinān is given as,
فإن تتكروا فضلي فانن دعاءه لأوماع منكم مناديا

See al-Kutubī, Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, p. 183; al-Yāfíī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21.
${ }^{284}$ Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455; alSuyūtī, Bughyat al-Wu‘āt, vol. 2, p. 311; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, pp. 339, 340. The author of Wafayāt al$A^{\prime}$ yān gives this verse as,
و وند ندن ربا فوا ضلأله وريّير نضير

See Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 370.
${ }^{285}$ Unfortunately the classical sources do not mention anything regarding his father's personal life, apart from the fact that he was the father of al-Mutarrizī and had played a vital role in making him a renowned scholar.

When al-Mutarrizī had reached the age of reading and writing, according to the custom at that time, his father had to undertake the duties and responsibilities of educating him. As such, al-Muṭarrizī’s first teacher was his father, ${ }^{286}$ Abī al-Makārim 'Abd al-Sayyid ibn 'Alī who was a well educated person and a prominent and well known scholar of Khwārazm in his time. It is worth mentioning here that his father had in turn, attained knowledge from a praiseworthy scholar, ${ }^{287}$ Abī al-Makārim al-Abharī, ${ }^{288}$ who was a pupil of Abū al 'Alā' al-Ma'arrī, ${ }^{289}$ one of the greatest poets poet of Arabic literature.
${ }^{286}$ Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀’a, vol. 2, p. 190; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774; Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Mu'jam alUdabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 339.
${ }^{287}$ See al-Jundī, Muḥammad Salīm. al-Jāmi' fī Akhbār Abī al-'Alā' al-Ma'arrı̄ wa Āthārihi, Damascus: al-Majlis al-‘Ilmī al-‘Arabī, 1964; vol. 2, p. 773.
${ }^{288}$ He was Abū al-Makārim Aḥmad ibn 'Uthmān ibn Aḥmad ibn al-Abharī. He was a famous scholar and well known figure of his time with a command of different fields of literature. He passed away in Iṣbahān in 338/950. See Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin, vol. 1, p. 309; al-A 'lām, vol. 1, p. 160.
${ }^{289}$ Abū al-‘Alā’ al-Ma‘arrī (363-449/973-1057)
One of the most famous of Arab poets, al-Ma'arrī was born and died in Ma'arrat al-Nu'mān in Syria. Blind from childhood, he lived to a ripe old age. Although withdrawn from the world he was wildly celebrated for his powerful verses. Al-Ma'arrī described the world as it appeared to him in an aloof, aristocratic and slightly scornful way.
In his Risālat al-Ghufrān, al-Ma'arrī describes a visit to the afterworld which may have served as a model for Dante's Divine Comedy. He wrote commentaries on the poetry of al-Mutanabb̄̄, Abū Tammām and alBuḥturī, as well as on some of his own works. His work includes:

Luzūmu mā lā yalzim, Saq.t al-Zand, al-Fuṣūl wa al-Ghāyāt, Risālat al-Ghufrān, Risālat al-Malā'ika and Dīwān Shi'r. For more details see Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 2, p. 25; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 5, p. 278; Islamic Desk Reference, p. 233; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin, vol. 1, pp. 290-294, vol.13, p. 363; Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 3, pp. 107-218; al-Bidāya wa al-Nihāya, vol.12, pp. 72-76; Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 4, pp. 240, 241; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, pp. 66-69; Ibn Taghrī Birdī, Jamāl al-Dīn Yūsuf al-Atābikī. alNujūm al-Zāhira fî Mulūk Miṣr wa al-Qāhira, Cairo: Dār al-Kutub al-Miṣriyya, 1935, vol. 5, pp. 61, 62; alDhahabī, Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn 'Uthmān. Duwal al-Islām, Ḥaydarābād Deccan: Dā'irat al-Ma‘ārif al-‘Uthmāniyya, AH1364, vol. 1, p. 193; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 1, pp. 315-317; Ibn Hajar, Aḥmad ibn 'Alī ibn Ḥajar al-‘Asqalānī. Lisān al-Mīzān, Ḥaydarābād Deccan: Dā’irat al-Ma‘ārif alNizāāmiyya, AH1331, vol. 1, pp. 203-208; Wafayāt al-A'yān vol. 1, pp. 94-98; Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 1, pp.

However, his father could not impart all knowledge to his son, and thus passed the duty to other noble scholars of that time. There are some other prominent and well-known scholars who groomed al-Muṭarrizī as a great scholar.

### 3.3.2 Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq al-Makkī

He was al-Muwaffaq ibn Aḥmad al-Makkī al-Bakrī al-Khwārazmī $\bar{i}^{290}$ but was commonly known by his kunya Abū al-Mu‘ayyad and title Akhtab Khwārazm. ${ }^{291}$ Almost all the biographical dictionaries have mentioned his name among the teachers of al-Muṭarrizī. After learning from his father, al-Muṭarrizī took lessons from this famous religious scholar. ${ }^{292}$

191, 192; Ibn al-Athīr, Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad 'Abd al-Karīm ibn 'Abd al-Wāḥid. al-Kāmil fì alTārīkh, Cairo: Idārat al-Ṭibā‘a al-Munīriyya, 1929, vol. 8, p. 81; Ibn al-Athīr, Muḥammad Ibn 'Abd alKarīm ibn 'Abd al-Wāḥid. al-Lubāb fī Tahdhīb al-Ansāb, Cairo: Maktabat al-Qudsī, AH1356, vol. 1, p. 184; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al 'Arabiyya, vol. 2, pp. 260-264; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabū, vol. 3, pp. 124-137; al-A lām, vol. 1, pp. 150, 151; Kashf al-Zunūn, pp. 46, 85, 163, 269, 604, 674, 693, $715,770,772,779,810,875,901,902,955,979,992,1017,1045,1120,1272,1305,1401,1428,1439$, 1448, 1548, 1863, 1586, 188985; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 5, pp. 927-935; First Encyclopaedia of Isalm, vol. 1, pp. 74-77; Meisami and Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 1, pp. 24, 25; 'Abbasid Belles-Lettres. (The Cambridge history of Arabic literature), ed. J. Ashtiany [et al.] Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990, pp. 328-338.
${ }^{290}$ For his life history see, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifiñ, vol. 13, p. 52; al-A'lām, vol. 8, p. 289; al-Jawāhir alMuḍ̂’'a, vol. 2, p.188; al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, p. 41; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 308; Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 549; Brockelmann. vol. 6, p. 11; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 332; Kashf al-Z̧unūn, pp. 815, 1837; Hadiyyat al-'Ārifín, vol. 2, p. 482.
${ }^{291}$ Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 308; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774; al-Jawāhir alMudī̀'a, vol. 2, p. 188; al-Fawā'id al-Bahiyya, p. 41; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 332. In some books his title is mentioned as Khatīb Khwārazm instead of Akhtab Khwārazm.
${ }^{292}$ Mu 'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 1, p.108; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂’a, vol. 2, p.190; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 308; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 332; al-Fawā'id al-Bahiyya, p. 41; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, p. 773, 774; Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.

Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq was born in 484/1091. ${ }^{293}$ Originally he was from Makka ${ }^{294}$ and left his homeland to seek knowledge. He obtained his knowledge from a renowned scholar of his era, al-Zamakhsharī. ${ }^{295}$ Then he decided to spend the rest of his life in teaching and preaching in Khwārazm. This literary person quenched the thirst of seekers of knowledge. Beside al-Muṭarrizī, another well known scholar Abū al-Qāsim Nāṣir ibn Aḥmad ibn Bakr al-Khawlī al-Naḥwī $\overline{1}^{296}$ is also mentioned among his students. ${ }^{297}$ Abū al-Mu'ayyad was considered a unique debater as his title shows and he used to deliver sermons in the $j \bar{a} m i$ ' mosque of Khwārazm. ${ }^{298}$ Furthermore, he was highly regarded by the public due to his sound knowledge and virtuous character, having a good command of jurisprudence, theology, grammar and linguistics. ${ }^{299}$ His collection of poems reveals his poetic sense and literary taste. This great scholar passed away on the
${ }^{293}$ Mu‘jam al-Mu'allifin, vol.13, p. 52; al-A'lām, vol. 8, p. 289; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 308; Brockelmann, vol. S: 1, p. 549; Brockelmann, vol. 6, p. 11; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀a, vol. 2, p. 188; alFawā'id al-Bahiyya, p. 41.
${ }^{294}$ al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 289; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 332.
${ }^{295}$ Mu'jam al-Mu'allifīn, vol. 13, p. 52; al-A'lām, vol. 8. p. 289; Brockelmann, vol. S: 1, p. 549; Brockelmann, vol. 6, p. 11; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 3, p. 308; al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, p. 41; al-Jawāhir alMuḍ̂̀’a, vol. 2, p. 188.
${ }^{296}$ Nāṣir al-Dīn al-Khawlī al-Naḥwī (d 508/1114).
He was Abū al-Qāsim Nāṣir ibn Aḥmad ibn Abī Bakr al-Khawlī al-Naḥwī. He started his education with his father at his birth place. He was a writer, poet, philologist, "a house of knowledge," and highly respected person in Āzarbaijān and enjoyed the status of Qāḍī for a long period. Two well known scholars Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Makkī and 'Abd Allāh ibn Abī Sa‘īd al-Tājir were among his teachers. His work includes, Sharh al-Luma'fì al-Naḥw li- Ibn Jinnī, and Dīwān shi'r. See Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 310, 311; al-A ‘lām, vol. 8, p. 309; Kashf al-Ẓunūn, p. 1576.
${ }^{297}$ Bughyat al-Wu 'āt, vol. 2, pp. 310, 311.
${ }^{298}$ Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 332; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifìn, vol. 13, p. 52; al-A 'lām, vol. 8, pp. 289, 289.
${ }^{299}$ Al-Fawā'id al-Bahiyya, p. 41; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀'a, vol. 2, p. 188; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 332.
$11^{\text {th }}$ of Ṣafar (568/1172) in Khwārazm. ${ }^{300}$ In short, he was a man of name and fame and would be remembered forever. Unfortunately, as in the case of al-Mutarrizī, biographical dictionaries did not write much about his work, except for his three books and a collection of poems; Jam‘ al-Tafārīq, Maqtal al-Ḥusayn and Manāqib al-Imām Ab̄̄ Hanīfa. ${ }^{301}$ The later provided him with a good introduction in the literary world; it was published in Haydarabad in India in AH $1321^{302}$ in two volumes. Regarding his book Jam‘ al-Tafārīq, classical sources give no clue but his student al-Muṭarrizī writes about it in the preamble of his book al-Mughrib fi Tartīb al-Mu 'rib. ${ }^{303}$

However, there appears to be confusion about his name and work. Therefore, I think it is necessary to clarify the cause of this confusion. The misunderstanding stems from the presence of another scholar named Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq who coincidentally belonged to the same city and the same era. This issue will be discussed later. Brockelmann mentions Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq five times. Of these five times, he four times declares him to be a pupil of al-Zamakhsharī and gives his date of death. Firstly, he mentions him as Diyā’ al-Dīn Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq ibn Aḥmad ibn
${ }^{300}$ al-A'lām, vol. 8, p. 289; Mu'jam al-Mu’allifin, vol. 13, p. 52; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 308; alJawāhir al-Mud̄̄̀'a, vol. 2, p. 188; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al-'Arabiyya, vol. 3, p. 60; In Fawāt alWafayāt his date of death is mistakenly mentioned as 598/1302, but the author does not gives any specific reason for mentioning this date and the evidence does not go in his favour. See the above mentioned book, p. 41 .
${ }^{301}$ See for his work, Mu'jam al-Mu’allifìn, vol.13, p. 52; al-A'lām, vol. 8, p. 289; al-Baghdādī, Ismā‘il. Hadiyyat al- 'Arifin fi 'Asmā' al-Mu'allifīn wa $\bar{A} t h a ̄ r ~ a l-M u s ̣ a n n i f i n, ~ B a g h d a d: ~ M a k t a b a t ~ a l-M u t h a n n a, ~$ 1955, vol. 2, pp. 482, 483; Brockelmann, vol. S: 1, p. 549; Brockelmann, vol. 6, p. 11. A book named Maqtal al-Husayn is only mentioned by Brockelmann.
${ }^{302}$ Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al-'Arabiyya, vol. 3, p. 60; Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 549; Brockelmann, vol. 6, pp. 11.
${ }^{303}$ Al-Muṭarrizī, al-Mughrib fi Tartīb al-Mu'rib, vol. 1, p. 3.

Isḥāq al-Makkī al-Bukhārī al-Khwārazmī. ${ }^{304}$ Then secondly he refers to him as Abū alMu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq ibn Aḥmad ibn Abī Sayyid Isḥāq al-Khwārazmī. ${ }^{305}$ The third time, he mentions him in the German version as Muwaffaq al-Dīn ibn Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad al-Makkī al-Khwārazmī. ${ }^{306}$ The Arabic version, however, refers to him as al-Muwaffaq instead of Muwaffaq al-Dīn. ${ }^{307}$ Interestingly, in all of these three places he has mentions the same date of death as 568/1172. ${ }^{308}$ In spite of a little confusion regarding his name, however, two things are quite clear from Brockelmann's statement. Firstly, Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq was a pupil of al-Zamakhsharī, secondly, his correct date of death. Apart from Brockelmann, no other author gives his name as Diyā' al-Dīn. ${ }^{309}$ The fourth and fifth time he only mentions him as Diyā' al-Dīn, the dearest student of al-Zamakhsharī1. ${ }^{310}$ Biographical dictionaries do not give any clue about any other Diyā'al-Dīn as a student of al-Zamakhsharī belonging to the same era. Furthermore, Brockelmann has documented his three books as follows:
(1) al-Fuṣūl al-Sāb'a wa al-'Ishrūn fî Faḍā’iI Amīr al-Mu'minīn wa Imām alMuttaqīn 'Al̄ $\bar{\imath} i b n ~ A b \bar{\imath} T ̣ a \bar{a} l i b$, and this book is also mentioned as Manāqib wa Faḍà'il Amīr al-Mu'minīn

[^81]The author of Bughyat al-Wu'āt also mentioned his name as mentioned in Brockelmann, see Bughyat alWu'āt, vol. 2, p. 308.
306 See Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 642; in al-Fawä'id al-Bahiyya his name is mentioned as (Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad) al-Muwaffaq al-Dīn, p. 41.
${ }^{307}$ Brockelmann, vol. 6, p. 301.
${ }^{308}$ See above mentioned references, 58-60.
${ }^{309}$ Mu'jam al-Mu'aliffin, vol. 13, p. 52; al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 289; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀’a, vol. 2, p. 188; alFawā'id al-Bahiyya, p. 41; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 332; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 308; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al-'Arabiyya, vol. 3, p. 60.
310 Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 510-513; Brockelmann, vol. 5, pp. 228, 238.

## (2) Manāqib Abī Ḥanīfa

(3) Maqtal al-Ḥusayn (May God be pleased with him) ${ }^{311}$

Most of the authors of biographical dictionaries hold the opinion that the book titled Manāqib 'Alı̄ (May God be pleased with him) does not belong to al-Muwaffaq al-Khāṣī but al-Muwaffaq al-Makki.. ${ }^{312}$ Ibn Qutlubghā's ${ }^{313}$ statement, that the person who is mentioned by Brockelmann as Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Makkī is actually al-Muwaffaq alKhāṣi. ${ }^{314}$ His statement is not verified by the other authors of his time because it is quite impossible for Brockelmann to commit the same mistake repeatedly. However, other subsequent writers like the author of Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin, al-A 'lām and al-Jawāhir alMudī̀ $a$ tried to eradicate this confusion to some extent by giving them different names. They mentioned al-Muṭarrizī's teacher as Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq al-Makkī and

[^82]${ }^{314}$ Tāj al-Tarājim, pp. 57, 58.
the other as Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Khāṣī. ${ }^{315}$ In this respect, my personal opinion and research regarding al-Muwaffaq al-Khāṣī is that his correct name was Abū al-Mu'ayyad al-Muwaffaq ibn Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan ibn Abī Sa‘īd ibn Muḥammad ibn 'Alī alKhāṣī al-Khwārazmī, born in 579/1183 in Jurjāniyya. ${ }^{316}$ He was also known by the title of Ṣadr al-Dīn. He was a well-known figure of his time and had a good command of different fields of literature such as jurisprudence, theology and poetry. He passed away in Egypt in 634/1236. ${ }^{317}$ His work includes:

[^83](1) Kitāb al-Fuṣūl fí 'Ilm al-Uṣūl
(2) Manāqib 'Alı̄ ibn Abī Ṭālib
(3) Sharh al-Kalim al-Nawābigh li-l-Zamakhsharî ${ }^{-318}$

### 3.3.3 Abū Muḥammad Sa‘īd al-Tājir

Another prominent name among the teachers of al-Muṭarrizī was Abū Muḥammad $\mathrm{Sa}{ }^{\text {© }} \mathrm{i} \mathrm{d}$ al-Tājir. ${ }^{319}$ Al-Muṭarrizī took his lessons in hadith from him. ${ }^{320}$ This person was acknowledged as a great scholar of hadith. In addition, biographical dictionaries also mention another prominent scholar among his students named Abū al-Qāsim Nāṣir ibn Aḥmad ibn Bakr al-Khawlī al-Naḥwī. ${ }^{321}$ Unfortunately older books do not give the life history details of $\mathrm{Sa}^{\text {‘}}{ }^{\text {id }} \mathrm{d}$ al-Tājir.

These are the only teachers of al-Muṭarrizī who are mentioned in the Arabic biographical dictionaries. Those people who hold the view that al-Baqqāaī ${ }^{-322}$ and al-Harāsī ${ }^{-323}$ were

[^84]also among the teachers of al-Mutarrizī do not possess sufficient evidence to support their opinion. ${ }^{324}$ Al-Suyūtịi ${ }^{325}$ and some other writers of the life history of al-Mutarrizī have mistakenly mentioned that al-Zamakhsharī was also among his teachers. Al-Suyūṭ̂̀’s statement was supported by the author of Mift $\bar{a} h$ al-Sa' $\bar{a} d a$ and thereafter numerous other authors such as the author of Abjad al-'Ulu$m$, who also copied the same mistake without making the effort to have a deep look into the matter. ${ }^{326}$ In my opinion, it is an error of judgment by al-Suyūṭī. The truth is that al-Muṭarrizī had never been the student of al-Zamakhsharī, for how could it be since al-Muṭarrizī was born in 538/1144, the year
${ }^{323}$ He was Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad ibn 'Alī ibn Ibrahīm al-Harāsī al-Khawārazmī (d 425/1035). He was a famous writer, philologist, grammarian, poet and etymologist of his era. His work includes Sharh Dīwān al-Mutanabbī, Kitāb fì al-Taşrīf, and some poems. See Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 10, p. 301; Kashf al-Ẓunūn, p. 811; Hadiyyat al-'Ārifin, vol. 2, p. 65; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 1, p. 172; al-A'lām, vol. 7, p. 161.
${ }^{324}$ Like Yāsīn Maḥmūd al-Khaṭīb, the editor of al-Miṣbāḥ and Maḥmūd al-Fākhūrī and 'Abd al-Ḥamīd alMukhtār, who edited his other book al-Mughrib fî Tartīb al- Mu'rib. See al-Mughrib fî Tartīb al-Mu 'rab, Yāsīn, al-Miṣbāh fí 'Ilm al-Naḥw, p. 11.
${ }^{325}$ Al-Suyūṭī (849-911/1445-1505).
Jalāl al-Dīn Abū al-Faḍl 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Abī Bakr al-Suyūṭī was born in Cairo and spent most of his time there. He was a $s$ ūfī and taught the religious sciences. For a while he was the shaykh of the Ṣūfī Baybarsiyya Khānqāh in Cairo, and he remained throughout his life an enthusiast for Ṣufism. He wrote copiously on an enormous number of subjects. He was the author of several history books including the Tārīkh al-Khulafā' and Ḥusn al-Muḥāḍara fí Akhbār Miṣr wa al-Qāhira. More generally Suyūṭì was the author of unoriginal works. He appears to have written over 500 works. His most solid work was probably in the field of hadīth studies. In Tafṣir, he wrote 23 books, in hadith 95, in Lugha 21, in history 50, in Taşawwuf 21 and on some different topics of literature 43. In short he was a man of his era.
For further details see Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 2, p. 46; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 9, pp. 913-916; Islamic Desk Reference, p. 433; First Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 6, pp. 573-575; Mu'jam al-Mu’allifin, vol. 5, pp. 128-131; Brockelmann, G: 2, pp. 178-204, 187-198; al-A 'lām, vol. 4, pp. 71-73; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, pp. 228-233; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 898-914; Sarkīs, Yūsuf. Mu'jam al-Matbū 'āt al- 'Arabiyya, Cairo: Maṭba'at Sarkīs, 1928, pp. 1073-1087; Meisami and Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 2, p. 746.
326 See Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 311; Khān, Ṣiddīq Ḥasan Nawwāb. Abjad al- 'Ulūm, Ḥaydarābād Deccan: Dā’irat al-Ma‘ārif al-Niẓāmiyya, no date, vol. 2, p. 707.
in which al-Zamakhsharī passed away. ${ }^{327}$ However, there is no doubt that they belong to the same city. Al-Muṭarrizī was known as the successor of al-Zamakhsharī but this title was awarded to him on the basis that he was a committed follower of al-Zamakhsharī's religious ideology. ${ }^{328}$

### 3.4 His Pupils

## 3.5

Biographical dictionaries do not mention any of his pupils except the one known as alQāsim ibn al-Ḥusayn ibn Aḥmad Majd al-Dīn al-Khwārazmī al-Naḥwī. ${ }^{329}$ His Kunya was Abū Muḥammad but he was commonly known by his tittle Sadr al-Afädil. ${ }^{330}$ He was an eminent scholar of Arabic and an expert on Ḥanafi fiqh. ${ }^{331}$ He was born on $9^{\text {th }}$ of Shawwāl 555/1160 in Khwārazm. ${ }^{332}$ Yāqūt al-Ḥamawī narrated in his book Mu'jam al-Udab $\bar{a}^{\prime}$ that he had visited al-Qāsim in his house in Khwārazm and he himself stated

[^85]that he was born on the above mentioned date. ${ }^{333}$ He gained his knowledge of Arabic and literature from al-Muṭarrizī and became a distinguished scholar of Arabic. ${ }^{334}$ His distinction in poetry and prose was beyond description. Furthermore, he was an aristocratic personality of his time, with a delightful and pleasant character and he was not mean with his learning and literary knowledge. ${ }^{335}$ He was also known as a gifted poet. Yāqūt narrates some of his poetic verses in Mu'jam al-Udabā' when he visited him in Khwārazm in 616/1219. ${ }^{336}$ The following verses are regarded as a good example of his poetry.
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { يا زمرة الثـعر اء دعوة ناصح } \\
& \text { لا تأملوا عند الكرام سماحا } \\
& \text { أن الكرام بأسر هم قد أغلقو } \\
& \text { باب السمّاح وضيّعو المفتاحا } 337
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

[^86]"Oh, poets, I advise you, not to expect generosity from the generous ones, as they have closed their door of generosity and lost its keys".

He wrote many books in different fields of literature. Among his books are al-Tajmīr fi Sharh al-Mufaṣsal li-l-Zamakhsharī, a huge work in three volumes; D. Darām al-Saq.t $f \bar{\imath}$ Sharh Saq.t al-Zand li-l-Ma'arrī, al-Tawḍ̄̄h fì Sharh Maqāmāt al-Ḥarīrī, Badā’i‘ alMilh, Lahjat al-Shar' fî Sharh Alfāz al-Fiqh, Kitāb Sharh al-Unmūdhaj. He also wrote some books on Naḥw, such as al-Zawāyā wa al-Khabāy $\bar{a}$, al-Sirr fí al-I'rāb, and Kitāb 'Ajá 'ib al-Nahw, and some other books on different topics ${ }^{338}$. In short, he was a model writer of his time, and his work shows his skill and versatility in different fields of literature. Unfortunately, this noble genius and man of letters was killed during the Tatar invasion of Khwārazm in $617 / 1220 .{ }^{339}$ This marked the end of an era. The literary history of Khwārazm, as the cradle of knowledge, came to an end.

### 3.5 Al- Muṭarrizī’s Literary Work

Al-Mutarrizī did a lot of useful work in various fields such as Lugha, Fiqh, I'jāz alQur'ān (inimitability of the Qur'ān), Naḥw (syntax) and Mantiq (logic), which was highly admired and appreciated by scholars throughout the ages. His literary work gave him a prominent place among the distinguished scholars of Arabic literature. These are

[^87]some of the works that have been documented in the literature. However, we believe that there is a lot more that have not been accounted for and I would like to list his works according to their importance in the literary world. In addition, I would like to add the references which I have collected from different compilations.

### 3.5.1 Al-Mu'rib fí Lughat al-Fiqh <br> "المعرب في لغة الفقه"

Sometimes this book mistakenly given as al-Mughrib fi Lughat al-Fiqh ${ }^{340} \quad$ المغرب في لغة
We will highlight this issue when we discuss his book al-Mughrib fì Tartīb alMu'rib. This mistake has clearly arisen because of the proximity of the words al-Mu'rib and al-Mughrib. In such cases, the reader gets confused with the order in which these books were written, thus, they mistakenly take one book for the other. In this book, the author discusses and highlights some unfamiliar terminology of Hanafì Fiqh ${ }^{341}$ and it is arranged alphabetically after the first letter. ${ }^{342}$ We do not know the whereabouts of this book. Classical sources also do not give any sign of its existence.
3.5.2 Al-Mughrib fī Tartīb al-Mu'rib, '/لمغرب في ترتيب المعرب' This is considered his most significant book. In this book, al-Muṭarrizī summarizes his previous book al-Mu 'rib $f i$ Lughat al-Fiqh. He has also arranged, adorned and beautified it by making some

[^88]additions in it and came up with another masterpiece of his work. Some people also consider it as Sharh (commentary) on al-Mu 'rib like the author of Mu'jam al-Udabā' and Wafayāt al-A' $y \bar{a} n^{343}$ yet the reality is that it is not an explanation but a summary of alMu'rib. This is evident from the fact that al-Mutarrizī himself clearly stated in the preamble to his book al-Mughrib:
فلأهل المعرفة، ما سبق الو عد من تهذيب مصنفي المترجم بالمعرب وتتميقه وترتيبه على حروف المعجم وتلفيقه، اختصرته
"Through this book I am going to keep my promise which I had made to arrange and adorn my work and give it an alphabetical order. I present this book to the scholars".

Brockelmann's statement also supports this view that it is an abstract of his lost book alMu'rib. ${ }^{345}$ According to Yūsuf Sarkīs ${ }^{346}$ this book is also a summarised form of alMu'rib. ${ }^{347}$ Scholars also hold different views about the name of this book. Some say that its name is al-Mu'rib fi Sharh al-Mughrib ${ }^{348}$ while others state that its name is al-
${ }^{343}$ For further detail see Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 1, p. 108; al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 311; Bughyat al-Wu 'āt, vol. 2, p. 311.
${ }^{344}$ See preamble of al-Muṭarrizī s book al-Mughrib fi Tartīb al-Mu'rib
345 Brockelmann, vol. 5, pp. 247, 248.
${ }^{346}$ Yūsuf Sarkīs, (1272-1351/1856-1932). Yūsuf ibn Ilyān ibn Mūsā Sarkīs al-Dimashqī was a prolific writer and dominant figure of his time. Born in Damascus, he moved to Egypt where he made his mark as a director general of al-Bank al-‘Uthmānī. After working for 35 years in the bank, he moved to Egypt where he started his business as a book seller. His relation with pen and paper in his entire life was very close. He wrote in both Arabic and French languages. His work Mu'jam al-Matbū ' $\bar{a}$, gave him the best introduction to the literary world. His other books are Jāmi‘ al-Taṣānīf al-Ḥadītha, Anfas al-Āthār fì Ashhar al-Amṣār. For more details see Mu'jam al-Mu’allifīn vol. 13, p. 278; al-A ‘lām, vol. 9, pp. 290, 291; Brockelmann, S: 3, p. 387.
${ }^{347}$ Mu'jam al-Matbū 'āt al-'Arabiyya, p. 1760.
${ }^{348}$ For further details see Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 1, p. 108; al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 311; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 311.

Mughrib fì Sharh al-Mu'rib. ${ }^{349}$ The latter assertion is not true because al-Muṭarrizī himself mentioned in the preface of his book thus;
و ترجمته بكتاب المغرب في ترتيب المعرب

Then he emphasized that he had given it the name al-Mughrib fì Tartīb al-Mu'rib. ${ }^{350}$ Therefore, it is neither a Sharh (commentary) nor is its name al-Mughrib fi Sharh alMu'rib. Its correct name is al-Mughrib fĩ Tartīb al-Mu'rib ${ }^{351}$ as we have proved above with the quotation from the author's book.

His above mentioned book is regarded by scholars of Hanafī Fuqahā' with the same respect as the Gharīb al-Fiqh of al-Azharī, ${ }^{352}$ and al-Misbāh al-Munīr of al-Fayyūmī ${ }^{353}$

349 Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 455.
${ }^{350}$ See preface to his book al-Mughrib.
${ }^{351}$ Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 247; Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 13, pp. 70, 71; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, p. 774; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, pp. 48, 49; al-Naqshbandī, Usāma Nāṣir. alMakhtūṭāt al-Lughawiyya fì al-Mathaf al-'Irāqı̄, Baghdad: Wizārat al-Thaqāfa wa al-I'lām, 1969, pp. 56, 398; Fihris al-Kutub al-Mawjūda bi- al-Maktaba al-Azhariyya, Cairo: Maktabat al-Azhar, 1948, vol. 4, pp. 38; al-Mughrib fi Tartīb al-Mu 'rib, Preamble.

352 Al-Azharī (282-370/895-980). Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn al-Azhar ibn Țalḥa ibn Nūḥ al-Azharī alHaraw $\overline{1}$, was a writer, philologist and a man of letters. He was born in Herat, Khurasan. He left Herat and started off on an extensive wandering among the Arab tribes to acquire the proper knowledge of the language, as his book Tahdhīb al-Lugha shows. This is still considered a basic source for the Arabic language. This book consists of more than 10 volumes. His other work is al-Taqrīb fì al-Tafsìr, al-Zāhir fí Gharā'ib al-Alfāz and a book named fí Akhbār Yazīd wa Mu ‘āwiya.

See al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, p. 218; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 2, pp. 395, 396; Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 1, pp. 97, 98. vol. 2, p. 175; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 1, pp. 19, 20; al-A'lām, vol. 6, p. 202; al-Zubaydī, Muḥammad ibn Ḥasan. Țabaqāt al-Naḥwiyyīn wa al-Lughawiyyīn, ed. Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm. Cairo: Dār alMa‘ārif 1954, pp.19, 20; Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 3, pp. 458-460; al-Lubāb, vol. 1, p. 38; al-Dhahabī, Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad. Kitāb Tadhkirat al-Ḥuffāz, Ḥaydarābād Deccan: Dā’irat al-Ma‘ārif al‘Uthmāniyya, 1957, vol. 3, p. 960; Brockelmann, G: 1, p. 134, S: 1, p. 197.
353 Al-Fayyūmī (770/1368). Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad 'Alī al-Fayyūmī al-Ḥamawī al-Muqri', one of the most important philologists and religious scholars of his era, born and brought up in Fayyūm, Egypt and settled in Ḥamāh. When king Abū al-Fidā’ al-Mu'ayyad (d710/732), built the Jāmi‘ al-Dahsha, he was appointed there as a Khatīb. Although he wrote in different fields of literature, he is best known for his
by the Shāfi‘īs. ${ }^{354}$ In the preface to this book, al-Mutarrizī himself describes the reason, the purpose and scheme of writing of this book as follows;

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "بعد ما سرحت الطرف في كتبٍ لم يتعهدها في تلك النوبة نظري فتقصيتها حتى قضيت منها وطري، كالجامع } \\
& \text { لشرح أبي بكر الرازي، والزيادات بكثف الحلواني ومختصر الكرخي وتفسير أبي الحسن ألقدوري والمنتقى للحاكم } \\
& \text { الشهيد الشهير وجمع التفا ريق لشيخنا الكبير و غيرها من مصنّفات فقهاء الأمصار ومؤلفات الأخبار والآثار. وقد } \\
& \text { أندر ج في أثناء ذلك لبعض ما سألني عنه بعض المختلفة إلىّ وما ألقى في المجالس المختلفة عليّ، }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the above, he states that before writing this book, he had studied a number of books in depth related to this subject and benefited from them all. Some of the books he reviewed include, Ḥulwān̄̄’s ${ }^{355}$ al-Ziyādāt, Karkhī’s al-Mukhtaṣar, ${ }^{356}$ al-Qudūrī’s ${ }^{357}$ Sharh, al-
most comprehensive work, al-Miṣbāh al-Munīr. His other books are named as Gharīb Sharh al-Wajīz, Mukhtaṣar Ma'ālim al-Tanzīl.
See Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 806; al-A ‘lām, vol. 1, p. 216; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 1, p. 389; Kashf al-Ẓunūn, p. 1710; Mu'jam al-Mu’allifín, vol. 2, p. 132; Ibn Hajar, Aḥmad ibn 'Alī ibn Muḥammad al-‘Asqalānī. al-Durar al-Kāmina fī A ‘yān al-Mi'a al-Thāmina, Beirut: Dār al-Jīl, 1980, vol. 1, p. 304; Ḥimṣi, Asmā’. Fihris Makhtūṭāt Dār al-Kutub al-Z̄āhiriyya, Damascus: Majma‘ al-Lugha al‘Arabiyya, 1973, vol. 4, pp. 35-37; Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt, p. 476; Brockelmann, G: 2, p. 31, S: 2, p. 20.
354 Kashf al-Zunūn, vol. 2, p. 1747; Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 247; Fihris Makhtūụāt Dār al-Kutub, p. 56; Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, p. 182.
355 Al-Ḥulwānī (448/1056. Abū 'Abd Allāh 'Abd al-‘Azīz ibn Aḥmad ibn Naṣr ibn Ṣāliḥ al-Ḥulwānī, probably best known for his title Shams al-A 'imma, a renowned scholar of Ḥanafĩ jurisprudence during his time. He got his education from different scholars but his principal shaykh was Abī 'Alī al-Ḥusayn ibn Khiḍr al-Nasafī. Sarakhsī and 'Alī ibn Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥusayn are considered among his pupils. He died in Kashn and was buried at his birth place Bukhārā. He left some valuable works including al-Mabsūt fî alFiqh, al-Nawādir, and Sharh Adab al-Qāḍ̄̀ li- Abī Yūsuf.
See al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 95, 96; al-A 'lām, vol. 4, pp.136, 137; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀’a, vol. 1, p. 318; Hadiyyat al-‘̄̄rifinn, vol. 1, pp. 577, 578; Tāj al-Tarājim, p. 26; Kashf al-Ẓunūn, pp. 46, 568, 1224, 1580, 1999.
${ }^{356}$ Al-Karkhī (260-340/873-952).
Abū al-Ḥasan‘Ubayd Allāh ibn Ḥusayn al-Karkhī was a prominent later representative of the Ḥanafĩ school of thought in 'Irāq, born in al-Karkh and died in Baghdad. His book named al-Mukhtaṣar fì Sharḥ al-Jāmi' al-Kabir, had brought him into special prominence among the scholars of his era. He received his early education from $A b \bar{i} S a ‘ \bar{i} d$ al-Barda‘ī, a famous scholar of his time. Abū Bakr al-Rāzī and Abū Ḥāmid al-

Ḥākim al-Shahīd al-Shahīr's ${ }^{358}$ al-Muntaqā, al-Jāmi، li-Sharh ${ }^{359}$ Abī Bakr al-Rā̄̄̄130 and his own eminent teacher Abū al-Mu'ayyad's ${ }^{361}$ Jam‘ al-Tafārīq.

Țabarī and Abū al-Qāsim al-Tanūjī are prominent among his pupils. His work includes Sharh al-Jāmi' alSaghīr, al-Mukhtaṣar: Sharḥ al-Jāmi‘ al-Kabīr. For more details see al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, p.108; Lisān al-Mīzān, vol. 4, pp. 98, 99; Tāj al-Tarājim, p. 29; al-A 'lām, vol. 4, pp. 347; Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 10, pp. 353, 354; Kashf al-Zunūn, pp. 563, 570; Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 259.
357 Al-Qudūrī (362-428/972-1037).
His full name was Abū al-Ḥasan al-Ḥusayn Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn Ja‘far ibn Ḥamdān alBaghdādī al-Qudūrī, al-Ḥanafī. He studied law under Muḥammad ibn Yaḥyā al-Jurjānī and hadīth under Muḥammad ibn 'Alī Suwayd al-Mu'addab al-Qudūrī. He had to hold several public disputations in defence of the Ḥanafì school against his contemporary the Shāfi‘ī lawyer Abū Ḥāmid al-Isfarā’īnī. A number of pupils gathered around him, the most famous of whom was al-Khațīb al-Baghdādī.

He wrote some valuable works including the Mukhtaṣar that deals with ritual contracts, personal status, criminal law and the law of succession, without particular care for logical order. Several commentaries were written on this book. He also wrote Sharh Mukhtaṣar al-Karkhī, al-Tajrīd and Kitāb al-Nikāh.
See First Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 4, p. 1105; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 5, p. 345; Islamic Desk Reference, p. 363; Brockelmann, G: I, pp. 183, 184, S: pp. 295, 296; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin, vol. 2, pp. 66, 67; Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 4, p. 377; Wafayāt al-A ‘yān, vol. 1, p. 60, 61; Tāj al-Tarājim, pp. 5, 24, 27; al-A ‘lām, vol. 1, p. 206; al-Nujūm al-Ẓāhira, vol. 5, pp. 24, 25; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Lubāb, vol. 2, p. 247; alBidāya wa al-Nihāya, vol. 12, p. 24; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, p. 48; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂’a, vol. 1, pp. 93, 94; al-Fawā'id al-Bahiyya, pp. 30, 31; Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 2, p.141; Kashf al-Zunūn, pp. 46, 155, 246, 1631, 1634, 1837.
358 al-Ḥākim al-Shahīd (344/945).
Abū al-Faḍl Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad al-Sulamī al-Balkhī, generally known by his title alḤākim al-Shahīd. He was a man of name and fame in his era and was appointed $Q \bar{a} d \bar{l} \bar{\imath}$ (Judge) for a time and became known as al-Ḥākim. He holds an honoured place among traditionists. He had memorized more than 6000 hadith. His work shows his skill and ranking in the literary world. His work includes al-Käfi, alMukhtaṣar and al-Muntaqā.
For more details see al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̄̄’a, vol. 2, p.112; al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, p.185; Ibn al-Jawzī, ‘Abd al-Raḥmān ibn 'Alī ibn Muḥammad ibn 'Alī. al-Muntazam fî Tārīkh al-Mulūk wa al-Umam, Haydarābād Deccan: Dā’irat al-Ma‘ārif al-‘Uthmāniyya, 1940, vol. 6, p. 346; Hadiyyat al-‘Ārifín, vol. 2, p. 37; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 11, p.185; al-A 'lām, vol. 7, p. 242; Tāj al-Tarājim, p. 96; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 2, p. 346; Kashf al-Z̧unūn, pp. 1851, 1378; Brockelmann, G: 1, p. 182, S: 1, p. 294.
359 This is a very famous book of Imām Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasn al-Shaybānī. He was Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan ibn Farqad al-Shaybānī, a Ḥanafī jurist, born at Wāsiṭ in AH132 (749/750) brought up in Kūfa. He studied at the early age of fourteen under Abū Ḥanīfa, under whose influence he

In addition, he had also studied numerous other books of different well-known Fuqahā and their biographical dictionaries. He also states that he has included all those questions which were asked of him from time to time related to the subject, ${ }^{362}$ so that seekers of knowledge could benefit from this book easily and he hoped that this book would guide them towards their goal of attaining knowledge. He mentioned that the other reason that motivated and urged him to pen this book was the two books of that time Gharīb al-
devoted himself to Rā’y. He extended his knowledge of hadīth under Sufyān al-Thawrī, al-Awzāَī and others, especially Mālik ibn Anas, whose lectures he attended for over three years in al-Madīna. During his lifetime he enjoyed the status of Qād̄ī of al-Raqqah and Khurāsān. He belonged to the moderate school of Ra'y and besides being a jurisprudent he was also considered an able grammarian. Among others, Imām al-Shāfi'ī was one of his pupils.
His work includes al-Ziyāāāt called al-Jāmi‘ al-Kabīr, al-Jāmi‘ al-Saghīr, al-Mabsūt, al-Makhārij fì alHiyal, and Bulūgh al-Amālū.
See First Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 7, pp. 271-272; Tāj al-Tarājim, p. 40; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̄’a, vol. 2, p. 42-44; Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 2, pp.172-182; Miftāh al-Sa'āda, vol. 2, pp. 107-112; al-Bidāya wa alNihāya, vol. 10, p. 202; al-Nujūm al-Zāhira, vol. 2, p.130; Lisān al-Mīzān, vol. 5, pp. 121, 122; alFawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 162,163; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin, vol. 9, pp. 107, 208; al-A 'lām, vol. 6, p. 309; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 2, p. 143.
${ }^{360}$ Abū Bakr al-Rāzī (305-370/918-981).
Abū Bakr Aḥmad ibn 'Al̄̄ al-Rāzī al-Ḥanafí, better known as al-Jasṣās, was a jurist and a renowned scholar of Ḥanafî fiqh. He was born in Baghdad and got his early education from Abī Sahl al-Zajjā̄, then spent his entire life teaching in Baghdad. His pious and ascetic life style became proverbial. His commentary on the famous book al-Jāmi‘ of Imām Muḥammad al-Shaybānī (d. AH187) earned him a high respect among the Ḥanafì scholars. His work includes Ahkām al-Qur'ān, Sharh Mukhtaṣar al-Karkhī, Sharh al-Jāmi', and Kitāb Ilhām al-Qur'ān.
See al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 27, 28; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀a, vol. 2, p. 239; al-Najūm al-Z̄āhira, vol. 4, p.138; Tāj al-Tarājim, pp. 65, 94,160; Miftāh al-Sa‘āda, vol. 2, p. 53; al-Bidāya wa al-Nihāya, vol. 11, p. 297; Mu 'jam al-Mu'aliffin, vol. 2, p. 07; al-A 'lām, vol. 1, p. 165; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 2, p. 394; al-Wäfī bi- al-Wafayāt, vol. 7, p. 241; al-Muntazam, vol. 7, p. 105, 106; Tadhkirat al-Huffäz, vol. 3, p. 959; alWafí bi- al-Wafayāt, vol. 6, p. 96.
${ }^{361}$ For his life history see reference 44,45 , above.
${ }^{362}$ See preface to al-Mutarrizī's book al-Mughrib.

Qur' ${ }^{3} n^{363}$ and Gharīb al-Hadīth. ${ }^{364}$ These books were regarded as the best source of knowledge in their field. That is why he arranged this book alphabetically, starting with hamza, and subsequently using the other letters of the alphabet. To enhance the uniqueness of this book he named it al-Mughrib fī Tartīb al-Mu'rib. ${ }^{365}$ Initially this book was published in Haydarabad Deccan, in AH 1328, the second time in Karachi (no date) and then in Aleppo in 1399/1979. ${ }^{366}$ Ibn 'Uṣfūr al-Ishbīlī ${ }^{367}$ wrote a Sharḥ named $\bar{I} d ̣ a ̄ h$
${ }^{363}$ This is a very famous work of Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn 'Abd al-‘Azīz al-Sijistānī. (d330/942) The actual name of this book is Nuzhat al-Qulūb fi Tafsīr Gharīb al-Qur'ān. The author spent 15 years working on this master piece and it is arranged alphabetically.

For further details see Kashf al-Žunūn, pp.1140, 1208, 1945; al-Lubāb, vol. 2, p. 135; Bughyat al-Wu 'āt, vol. 2, pp. 171, 172; Sarkīs, Mu 'jam al-Matbū ‘āt, p. 1008; Mu 'jam al-Mu’allifīn, vol. 10, p. 292.
${ }^{364}$ Ghgarīb al-Hadīth, is a famous work of Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim ibn Salām al-Harawī al-Khurāsānī (157-224/774-838) who was born in Herat and died in Makka. He spent 40 years on his masterpiece and he was the first religious scholar to write on this topic. His work is still considered the basic source in this field; for more detail,
see Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 12, pp. 413-416; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 2, pp. 83-86; Ibn Ḥajar, Aḥmad ibn 'Alī ibn Ḥajar al-‘Asqalānī. Tahdhīb al-Tahdhīb, Ḥaydarābād: Dā’irat al-Ma‘ārif al-Niẓāmiyya, AH1326, vol. 8, pp. 315-318; al-Nujūm al-Zāhira, vol. 1, p. 214; Miftāh al-Sa 'āda, vol. 2, p. 168; al-A 'lām, vol. 6, p. 10; al-Azharī, Abū Manṣūr Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad. Tahdhīb al-Lugha, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn. Cairo: alMū’sassa al-Mu'riba, 1964, pp.19, 20; al-Zubaydī, Tabaqāt al-Nahwiyyīn wa al-Lughawiyyīn, pp. 217, 218; al-Harawī, Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim ibn Salām. Gharīb al-Ḥadīth, Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 1986.
${ }^{365}$ For further details see his book al-Mughrib fi Tartīb al-Mu'rib.
${ }^{366}$ Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 248.
${ }^{367}$ Ibn 'Uṣfūr (597-669/1200-1271).
Tunisian born Abū al-Ḥasan 'Al̄̄ ibn Mu'min ibn Muḥammad ibn 'Alī al-Ḥaḍramī was a historian, lexicologist, grammarian and poet, and commonly known as al-Ishbīlī. He was luminary of the scholarly world of his days on account of the wide breadth of his knowledge. He is famous in particular for his commentaries, some of which are published and others are lost. His work includes, Sharh al-Jumal, al-Mumtani', Ị̣̄āh al-Mushkil, Sariqāt al-Shu'arā' and Sharh Dīwān al-Mutanabbī. For further details, see Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 2, pp. 184, 185; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 210; Miftāh alSa'āda, vol. 1, p. 118; al-Baghdād̄̄, Hadiyyat al-‘Ārifín, vol. 2, p. 721; al-A'lām, vol. 5, pp. 179, 180; Mu'jam al-Mu’allifin, vol. 7, p. 251; Brockelmann, S: 1, pp. 546, 547.
al-Mushkil on this book. ${ }^{368}$ The book consists of two volumes, and copies are available in varous libraries of the world. ${ }^{369}$

### 3.5.3 Al -Īdāḥ fī Sharh al-Maqāmāt

Al-Muṭarrizī was also a commentator and prepared a highly reputed commentary on the famous book entitled Maqāmāt al-Harīr̄̄̄ (d.610/1122). This is the actual name which is referred to in most sources ${ }^{370}$ except Hadiyyat al- 'Ārifin, which gives its name as al-Ifṣāh $f_{i}$ Sharḥ al-Maqāmāt. ${ }^{371}$ I think it is the converted name of al-Ifṣāh. In the introduction, after describing the excellence of the Maqāmāt and their difficulty, and explaining his purpose in the commentary, the author writes for students a preface to the study of the alMaqāmāt dealing briefly with Arabic rhetoric. He subsequently describes the reason that encouraged him to pen this book as follows:

"I have never come across any book in my life either in Arabic or in another language which is as useful and educative",373

[^89]The author has included proverbs, sayings and witticisms of the Arabic language, which signifies eloquence of this book. The book depicts the versatility and novelty of work in the Arabic language and is so impressive that a reader cannot help but marvel at it in admiration. The book is also concise and throws light on the subject in a way that satisfies the reader as to its usefulness. ${ }^{374}$ The book starts as following:
الحمد له المحمود على جميع الآ لاء المشكور بحسن البلاء، المعبود في الأرض والسماء

And it ends with
ويرن أرنان الرقوب التي لا يعيش لها ولد كأنّها ترقب موت من ولدت، واله أعلم بالصواب، و إليه المرجع والمآب،

At the beginning of this book, the author throws light on 'Ilm al-Ma'ān̄ wa al-Bayān and the rules of Badi'. In Mu'jam al-Buldān, Yāqūt criticized the names of the places mentioned in this book but without mentioning any other alternative names. ${ }^{376}$ AlMuṭarrizī completed this book in AH 563. ${ }^{377}$ The book has been edited by Ḥammād ibn Nāṣir al-Dakhīl, in Riyadh, 1402/1982. ${ }^{378}$ Some poets even composed some poetic verses in praise of it.

${ }^{374}$ Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21.
${ }^{375}$ See Fihris al-Kutub al-Mawjūda bi- al-Maktaba al-Azhariyya, vol. 5, p. 29; Kashf al-Ẓunūn, vol. 2, pp. 1789; Fihris Makhtūtāt Dār al-Kutub al-Z̄āhiriyya, vol. 1, pp. 60, 61, 342, 343; Mingana, A. D. D. Catalogue of the Arabic Manuscripts in the John Rylands Library Manchester, Manchester: University Press, 1934, pp. 936-940.

376 Al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 311.
${ }^{377}$ Fihris al-Maktaba al-Azhariyy, vol. 5, p. 29.
378 Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774.


### 3.5.4 Al-Iqnā‘ li-mā Ḥwiya Taht al-Qinā‘

Al-Mutarrizī had written this book for his son when he completed the memorization of the Holy Qur'ān as mentioned in the preamble to this book. ${ }^{380}$ The book is a handy lexicon with precise grammatical explanations, a kind of text-book, giving a comprehensive survey of the subject dealing with "good and usual" words and omitting the "bad and unusual" ones. ${ }^{381}$ In al-Muṭarrizī’s opinion the existing works on this subject were either too large or not large enough. It is divided in four parts $A s m \bar{a}{ }^{\prime}$ (اسماء), $A f^{\prime} \bar{a} l$, (حروف) , Naḥw (حور) ( أفعال) , which are in turn divided into four chapters, and each chapter containing many subsections. ${ }^{382}$ The first part is very rich in synonyms. Modern and ancient linguistic usages are distinguished and verses are quoted in illustration. It begins with. ${ }^{383}$
״ الحمد لله الذي جعل العربية مفتناح التنزيل، ،

In Wafayāt al-A'yān Ibn Khallikān described al-Muṭarrizī’s book as two different books: one as al-Iqnā'fĭ al-Lugha and the other as Mukhtaṣar al-Iqnā ${ }^{\text {. }}{ }^{384}$ However, according to my research and opinion, this is a mistake by Ibn Khallikān, because there is no indication that al-Muṭarrizī ever summarized this book. Sometimes it is also called Kashf

[^90]al-Iqna $\bar{a}^{\prime}$ or simply al-Iqna $\bar{a}^{6385}$. This book has also reached us in the form of a manuscript. Brockelmann mentions copies in other libraries of the world. ${ }^{386}$

### 3.5.5 Al-Muqaddima fĩ al-Naḥw

In biographical dictionaries, there is some confusion regarding the name of this book. ${ }^{387}$ The main reason behind this confusion is the presence of another book, named alMuqaddima al-Mutarriziyya fì al-Naḥw which creates confusion with Muqaddimat alMuțarrizī. Sometimes people mistakenly consider it as the work of al-Mutarrizī, which is not true ${ }^{388}$ as al-Mutarriziyya is a work of another scholar named Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad ibn Ṣāliḥ al-Sulamī al-Dimashqī, who is commonly known as al-Muṭarriz (d.456/1064). ${ }^{389}$ The correct name of al-Mutarrizī's book is al-Muqaddima fi al-Naḥw or al-Muqaddima al-Mashhūra fì al-Nahw. Unfortunately I have been unable to trace it. ${ }^{390}$

385 Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455.
${ }^{386}$ Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 248.
${ }^{387}$ In Mu'jam al-Udabā' and Inbāh al-Ruwāt the name of al-Muṭarrizī's book is mentioned as alMuqaddimah al-Mutarriziyya fí 'Ilm al-Naḥw; see Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Inbāh alRuwāt, vol. 3, p. 339.
${ }^{388}$ See Kashf al-Ẓunūn, p.1804; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 311; al-Dhahabī, Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad ibn 'Uthmān. al-'Ibar fì Khabar man Ghabar, ed. Fu'ād Sayyid. Kuwait: Dā'irat al-Maṭbū 'āt wa al-Nashr, 1961, vol. 3, p. 240.

389 Damascene born Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad ibn 'Alī ibn Muḥammad ibn Ṣāliḥ al-Dimashqī (d $456 / 1064$ ) was well known by his title al-Mutarriz. He was a writer, theologian and better known as a grammarian. He learnt hadīth from Tammām al-Rāzī and Abū Bakr narrated from him. His book alMutarriziyya fì al-Naḥw gave him a special place among the grammarians.
For more detail see Mu'jam al-Mu’allifin, vol. 11, p. 50; al-A'lām, vol. 7, p. 162; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 1, p. 189; Kashf al-Ẓunūn, p. 1804.
${ }^{390}$ See Wafayāt al-A ‘yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, pp. 182, 183.

### 3.5.6 Mukhtaṣar Iṣlāḥ al-Manṭiq

In old sources the name of this book is referred to as Mukhtaṣar Iṣlāh al-Mantiq or Mukhtaṣar al-Iṣlāh ${ }^{391}$ it is a summary of Ibn al-Sikkīt's ${ }^{392}$ famous book Iṣlāh al-Mantiq. Ḥājjjī Khalīfa mentioned it as a Sharḥ of Iṣlāh al-Mantiq but not as a summary. ${ }^{393}$ However, this opinion is not supported by other authors. Unfortunately, this book is also not available. ${ }^{394}$

### 3.5.7 Risāla fí I' $\mathfrak{j} \bar{z} z$ al-Qur'ān

In this Risāla (epistle), al-Muṭarrizī highlights the numerous proofs of the inimitability of the Holy Qur'ān. Brockelmann points out that a copy of this epistle is available in alMadīna al-Munawwara. ${ }^{395}$

### 3.5.8 Zahrat al-Rabī'fī 'Ilm al-Bad̄̄ ‘

Only the author of Kashf al-Zunūn has documented this book. ${ }^{396}$

[^91]
### 3.5.9 Risālat al-Mawlā

Just like the above mentioned book, there is no detailed account of this work in the literature. The sources do not give any information about this Risāla. Interestingly however, al-Muṭarrizī himself mentioned this Risāla in al-Mughrib regarding the vocabulary of Waliya (ولي) . 397

### 3.5.10 Al-Risāla al-Thāniya

Al-Muṭarrizī also mentions this Risāla in his book al-Mughrib regarding the vocabulary of 'Aqiqa (عقق) even though he does not specifically mention its name. ${ }^{398}$ He mentions the hadīth of Prophet Muḥammad (Peace be upon him). ${ }^{399}$
قولوا نسيكة ولا تقولوا عقيقة

### 3.5.11 Kitāb fī al-Naḥw

The primary sources do not give any information about this book. However, it is mentioned in the Makhtūt $\bar{a} t ~ a l-M a k t a b a t ~ a l-~ ' A b b a ̄ s i y y a ~ t h a t ~ a ~ c o p y ~ o f ~ i t ~ i s ~ a v a i l a b l e ~ i n ~ a l-~$ Abbāsiyya Library, Baṣra. It could be the same book which is mentioned by Brockelmann under the name of Risāla fì al-Naḥw where he says it is different from alMiṣbah and a copy of it is available in Paris under the No 4254/2. ${ }^{400}$ It is also written in its preamble that the author had written this book for his son when he appraised the valuable and worthwhile work of 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄ (d.471/1078) regarding naḥw. He created an abstract of his work and divided it into five chapters.
(1) fī al-Muṣtalahāat al-Naḥwiyya

[^92]في المصطلحات النحوية
(2) fì al-'Awāmil al-Lafziyya al-Qiyāsiyya

في العو امل اللفظية القياسية
(3) fì al-'Awāmil al-Lafẓiyya al-Samā'i yya

في العوامل اللفظية السماعية
(4) fì al-'Awāmil al-Ma'nawiyya

في العوامل المعنوية
(5) fî Fuṣūl min al-'Arabiyya

في فصول من العربية

It begins with,


This manuscript consists of 42 pages and every page has 15 lines. The style is in accordance with al-Miṣbāh except for its preface and its name may be $\bar{I} d \bar{a} h \underline{h}$ al-Miṣbāh as it is clear from the above mentioned Arabic quotation, al-Mutarrizī already had written a book under the name of Īdāh al-Maqāmāt.

### 3.5.12 Risāla fĩ al-Naḥw

Brockelmann is the only one to mention this book. According to Brockelmann's statement, it is different from his famous book al-Miṣbāh and a copy of it is available in the Paris Library under the number 4254/2.

### 3.5.13 Al-Miṣbah fì al-Naḥw

[^93]Finally, we come to his highly acknowledged work, al-Miṣbāh, which gave him a respected place in the history of the literary world and which is also the topic of this thesis. All the basic sources agree that the book called al-Miṣbāh belongs to al-Mutarrizī, as is written by the author of Kashf al-Zunūn. ${ }^{402}$
كتّاب المصباح في علم النحو للإمام ناصر بن عبد السيّّ المطرزي النحوي المتوفى سنة (610 أبّا هـا بـد : عشر وستمائة

Regarding whether the name of this book is al-Miṣbāh or is al-Miṣbāh fí al-Nahw as mentioned by some authors, I suggest that its name is simply al-Miṣbāh fì al-Naḥw is used to confirm and limit its relevance to nahw, as there are a lot of books available in the literary world under the name of al-Misbbāh. This is clear from the fact that al-Mutarrizī himself gives the name of this book as al-Miṣbāḥ in the preamble. وترجمته بكتاب ( الصصباح The reason why the author wrote this book and for whom he wrote it is also mentioned in the preamble:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (( فإن الولد الأعز لا زال كاسمه مسعودأ، و إلى أهل الخير مود ودا، لمّا استظهر مختصر الإقناع وكثف عنه بحفظه }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { أردت أن ألمِّظه من كلام الإمام المحقق، والحبر المدقق، أبي بكر عبد القاهر الجرجاني سقى الهُ ثراه، وجعل الجنة } \\
& \text { مثو اه، حتى يعلق بطبعه من لفظه الحلو ما يتفجر من ينابيع النحو. فنظرت في مختصر اته المضبوطة دون كتبه } \\
& \text { المبسوطة. فوجدت أكثر ها تعاورأ بين الأئمّة ( المائة) و (الجمل) و ( التتمة) فاستطلت أن أكلفه جمعها، وأحمل } \\
& \text { رفعها، كراهة ما فيها من الأشياء المعادة) }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^94]Al-Mutarrizī wrote this book for his son as it was the custom of that era that usually fathers used to teach their children in the beginning, and sometimes they even used to write books for them. Ibn Mālik wrote the famous book Alfiyya for his son in which he compiled the entire Arabic grammar in 1000 poetic verses.

When al-Mutarrizī's son had memorised the Holy Qur'ān and attained sufficient knowledge to understand Arabic grammar, al-Mutarrizī wrote this book for him even though he had already written al-Iqnā‘ or Kashf al-Iqnā‘ for him in the past. AlMuțarrazī collected the material of this book from al-Mi'a, al-Jumal and al-Tatimma, the famous works of the distinguished scholar al-Jurjānī.

This is evident from the fact that to date this book has been considered as the basic book on Arabic grammar by scholars of Arabic literature. Even the compiler of the Cambridge History of Arabic Literature considered this book worth mentioning. ${ }^{403}$ There are many manuscripts of this book in different libraries of the world. Brockelmann has pointed out the existence of these copies in more than 20 libraries in the world. 29 copies are to be found in the British Library, and these copies are discussed in detail in the comparison portion.

It is considered a great contribution of Jurjān̄̄ that he introduced the theory of 'awāmil (operators) into Arabic grammar. Jurjānī divided 'Awāmil into two major parts; 'Awāmil Lafziyya and 'Awāmil Ma'nawiyya in the book al-Mi'a. He further divides 'Awāmil Lafziyyya into 'Awāmil Samā'iyya and 'Awāmil Qiyāsiyya. In his book al-Jumal, 'Awāmil are divided into three parts; 'Awāmil min al-Af'āl, 'Awāmil min al-Ḥurūf and

[^95]'Awāmil min al-Asmā'. However, al-Mutarrizī followed Mi'at 'Āmil in the division of 'Awāmil and divided his book into 5 chapters.

Chapter 1: al-Muṣtalaḥāt al-Naḥwiyya المصطلحات النحوية
Chapter 2: al- 'Awāmil al-Lafz̧iyya al-Qiyāsiyya العوامل اللفظية القياسية
Chapter 3: al-'Awāmil al-Lafẓiyyya al-Samā'iyya العوامل اللفظية السماعية
Chapter 4: al-'Awāmil al-Ma'nawiyya العوامل المعنوية
Chapter 5: fî Fuṣūl min al-'Arabiyya في فصول من العربية

## Chapter 1

At the beginning, al-Muṭarrizī describes al-Muṣtalaḥāt al-Ma 'nawiyya where he gives the grammatical definition of noun, verb and particle, and gives their characteristics. There is a sub-chapter for case endings إعراب where he gives the grammatical definition of إعرابi'rāb and declares that حركات ḥarakāt are the key to $i^{\prime} r a \bar{a} b$. He also mentions the cases where particles bring aboput changes in $i^{'} r \bar{a} b$ and lists 7 such cases. He introduces another sub chapter regarding, أسماء asm $\bar{a}$ ' and divides it into two types; mu 'rab (معرب) and mabnī (مبني). He defines both mu'rab and mabnī and also gives the definition of lāzim and 'ārid.

## Chapter 2

After giving definitions such as those mentioned in the first chapter, he throws light on the 'awāmil which are the basic topic of the book. He starts with al-'Awāmil alLafziyya al-Qiyāsiyya and gives the reason for discussing them first. He divides them into seven types; al-Fi'l, Ism al-Fā'il, Ism al-Maf'ūl, al-Ṣifa al-Mushabbaha, al-Maṣdar, Ism al-Mudā̃f, al-Ism al-Tāmm, and gives definitions of them all.

## Chpater 3

In this chapter he throws light on al- 'Awāmil al-Lafziyya and divides them into 3 types; particles (حروف), nouns (اسماء) and verbs (أفعال). First of all, he explains particles and divides them into two types. Among those particles, some of them affect verbs while others affect nouns. He further divides the particles affecting nouns into two types; those affecting the whole sentence and those which only affect a part of the sentence. Then he talks regarding al-Hurūf al- 'Āmila, some of which affect al-fi'l al-mud̄āri' and some affect nouns (al-asma'). Then he discusses al-Asmā' and al-Af 'āl al- 'Āmila

## Chapter 4

In this chapter the author gives the definition of al- 'Awāmil al-Ma'nawiyya and also mentions the conflicting views of grammarian defference regarding their numbers.

## Chapter 5

There are several sub-chapters in this chapter:
Sub-Chapter 1
First of all he mentions the definition of ma'rifa (معرفة) and nakira (نكرة) and explains their types.

Sub-Chapter 2

In this chapter he discusses genders and adduces definitions and explanations as he did in the first chapter.

## Sub-Chapter 3

He describes tawābi "توابع) in this chapter and divides them into five types.

## Sub-Chapter 4

In the fourth sub-chapter he mentions $i^{'} r \bar{a} b$, aṣliyya and ghayr aṣliyya and also describes i'rāb ṣarīḥ (إعراب صريح) and ghayr ṣarīḥ (إعراب غير صريح) At the end of this book he mentions aḍmār al-'awāmil.

The al-Muṣtalaḥāt al-Naḥwiyya that al-Muṭarrizī used in his book are not new. Grammarians had been using them for several centuries. During the $6^{\text {th }}$ century, these Muștalahāt were used commonly and they are still being used today. One of the virtues of this book is that the author used Qur'ānic verses as an example for the explanation of the grammatical rules, which helps the students to memorise these rules.

### 3.6 Rationale for Selecting al-Miṣbāh

Grammar plays an important part in the beauty and comprehension of any language. It is more so in the Arabic language when according to a famous idiom, النحو في الكلام
grammar to a language is essential and important as salt is to the taste of food". The non-native speakers of a language are usually more in need to learn the grammar than the natives in order to avoid mistakes. Arabic language is more sensitive in terms of its grammar as compared to other languages. Its use of grammar and syntax depends on the correct use of its $i^{\text {' } r a \bar{b} b \text { (إعراب). Any mistake in the } i \text { ' } r a \bar{b} b \text { can easily lead to }}$ misunderstanding. It is interesting to note that the contribution of non-native speakers of
the Arabic language on the composition of Arabic grammar is much greater than the native speakers of this language. Sībawayh, al-Zamakhsharī, al-Zajjājī̄, al-Jurjānī and alMuțarrizī were all nonArab grammarians. Its importance is quite obvious as it helps an ، $\operatorname{Ajami}$ (عجمي) to avoid grammatical and syntactical errors both in reading and writing. Its importance is further enhanced as the Qur'ān, Hadith and great wealth of Islamic literature are all in the Arabic language. After completing my M.Phil, I was searching for a topic that would benefit me and other students of Arabic literature. Luckily, I had an opportunity to visit the personal library of Shaykh Abū Ṣāliḥ at Peshawar where this manuscript caught my eyes. Its conciseness and compact presentation impressed me much as if I had found what I was looking for. Despite the short length of this book it has covered all the areas of Arabic grammar as the author himself describes in the preamble of this book
فاستصفيت منها هذا المختصر، ونفبت عن كل ما نكرر استثقالا للمعاد واستقلالغ للمفاد ولم اطو ذكر شيئ من مسائلّها

The manuscript's text is easy to follow and well structured. It provides a wealth of information to a reader within a short space of time on a great number of grammatical issues as compared to other books on similar issues. The author has frequently quoted verses from the holy Qur'ān in order to explain grammatical and syntactical rules thus making it more attractive and interesting for a reader. It can be easily seen when comparing it with the works of Kāfiyya of Ibn Ḥājib and Alfiyya of Ibn Mālik where the use of language and syntactical constructions are difficult and complicated. These two books have been part of the syllabus in the Muslim world in general and in the subcontinent of indo-pak in particular for a number of centuries. Instead of bringing the
students closer, these books take them away from Arabic literature due to their difficult syntactical structure.

On the other hand, al-Miṣbāh is consise and easy to follow. The presence of this book in a number of libraries throughout the world indicates its importance in its own time. As the record shows, al-Miṣbāh had been part of the syllabus in religious madrasas of the Indian subcontinent for more than two centuries. ${ }^{404}$ Brockelmann also mentions the presence of this book in different libraries of the world. So much so that it can be included in the syllabus of madrasas/ colleges even in our own contemporary time.

The presence of twenty-nine copies of this manuscript in the British Library may be attributed to the fact that after the decline of the Ottoman Empire and the ascendency of the European nations, such valuable manuscripts were taken or transferred for safe keeping to the European capitals. This is, perhaps why such old and valuable manuscripts are found in greater quantity in European libraries than in Islamic countries.

From the handwriting of the British Library copies it appears, not old but looks to be closer to the Persian and Urdu hand script. According to the record of the British Library, ${ }^{405}$ a majority of its copies were collected from different libraries from the Indian sub-continent. Out of the 29 abovementioned copies of al-Miṣbāh 12 copies are taken from the library of the Mugal Emperors in Delhi, 5 copies of al-Miṣbāh are listed under

[^96]the additional entries, also taken form India and 1 copy is listed under the Bij, shows taken from the Bījapūr library of the 'Ādil Shāhī dynasty of Bījapūr. In this way more than half of the copies of al-Miṣbāh are taken from Indian sub-continent. Therefore, it is not surprising to find such a great number of copies in the British Library.

The Mughal emprors of India and the author of this book were both from the area of Khurāsān. The victors always bring with them their cultures, customs, value system and literature. The land of Khurāsān and Jurjān also produced some towering scholars such as Sībawyh, al-Zamakhsharī and al-Jurjānī.

### 3.7 Shurūḥ al-Miṣbạ̄̆

The importance of al-Miṣbāh is evident from the fact that so many shurūḥ (commentaries) on this book were written in different languages during different eras, which clearly shows the significance and worth of this book. ${ }^{406}$
(1) al-Ḍaw' written by Tāj al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad al-Isfrā’īnī (d. AH 684). This book was published in India (AD1850) and some further commentaries have also been written on this sharh. ${ }^{407}$
(2) al-Maqā̄l̄̄d written by Tāj al-Dīn Aḥmad ibn Maḥmūd ibn 'Umar ibn al-Jundī, in AH751.
(3) Al-Iftitāḥ, written by Ḥasan Pāshā ibn 'Alā' al-Dīn al-Aswad in AH 800.
(4) Sharḥ al-Iqrān̄̄, written by Muḥammad 'Alī ibn Iqrān̄̄.
(5) Khulāṣat al-I'rāb, written by Ḥàjjī Bābā ibn Ḥājj Ibrāhīm 'Abd al-Karīm al-Ṭūsī during the second half of the 9th century.
(6) al-Risāla al-Sultāniyya, another commentary written by Ḥājjī̄ Bābā.
(7) Sharḥ li-Yaḥyā ibn Isrā̀il.
(8) Al-Ifṣāḥ 'an Anwār al-Miṣbāḥ, by an unknown author.
(9) Mishkāt al-Miṣbāh, written by an unknown author.
(10) Sharḥ, al-Shaykh Shihāb al-Dīn Aḥmad ibn Maḥmūd al-Siwaysī. AH 803.
(11) Sharḥ al-Dībājah, by al-Taftāzān̄̄, published in AH 791.
(12) Sharḥ al-Mawlā, by Muṣtafā ibn Sha‘bān al-Ma‘rūf bi- al-Baṣrī. AH 961.
(13) Khazā'in al-Latā 'if, by an unknown author

[^97](14) Sharh al-Azhār, by unknown author
(15) Sharḥ al-Iṣlāḥ, li-Muḥammad ibn Qurrāt Bīrī.

Beside these, I believe there must be some more commentaries on this book which could not be traced as mentioned by Brockelmann. ${ }^{408}$ A poetic version of al-Miṣbāh is also available under the name of (1) al-Ghurar ${ }^{409}$ (2) Naẓm al- 'Awāmil, written by Aḥmad alṢūfí (3) Bahjat al-Miltāḥ fî Masā’il al-Miṣbāh.

### 3.8 Al-Jurjānī’s Methodology in al-Mi'a and al-Jumal

As we have discussed before, al-Jurjānı̄’s 'theory of 'Awāmil'" developed in gradual stages in a similar fashion as other such theories that may take decades to reach an acceptable level. The development of the "theory of 'awāmil'' occurred in two stages: its first development may be seen in his book 'al- 'Awāmil al-Mi'a' where he gives the number of 'Awāmil as 100 and then divides them further into two main categories namely al-'Awāmil al-lafẓiyya and al-'Awāmil al-ma'nawiyya. He devides 'Awāmil lafẓiyya into Simā'tyya and Qiyāsiyya and counts them as 91 and 7 respectively. He again divides al-'Awāmil al-Simā' $\bar{\imath} y y a$ into 13 sub-branches as can be seen in the following two pages. ${ }^{410}$

[^98]The second stage of development of Jurjānı̄'s 'theory of 'awāmil' can be seen in his book 'al-Jumal', as he mentions at the very beginning of his book with reference to $i^{\prime} r a \bar{b}$
يقول عبد القاهر : أعلم انه لا بد لكل طالب معرفة الإعراب من معر فة مائة شيء، ستون منها تسمى عاملا- وثلاثون
'It is important for every student to keep the 100 'Awāmil at the forefront of his mind. Among these 100 'Awāmil, there are 60 Amils and 30 Ma 'mūls and the remaining 10 are known as 'amal and $i^{\prime} r \bar{a} b$. The noteable point is that al-Jurjānī presents the arrangement of 'awāmil in his second book 'al-Jumal' in a different way as compared to his first book al-Mi'a, although he keeps the number of 'awāmil the same at 100. Also he divides the number of 'awāmil into 3 categories in his second book as compared to 2 categories in his first book. He divides al-Jumal into five chapters.

The first chapter, called 'al-Muqaddimāt', deals with Ism, Fi'l and Harf. In the remaining chapters he considers 100 'awāmil as $60 \overline{A m i l}, 30 \mathrm{Ma}$ 'mūl and 10 'amal and $i ' r a \bar{b}$. Thus al-Jurjānī's 'theory of '"awāmil'' presents a triangle of $\overline{A m i l}, M a$ 'm $\bar{u} l$ and 'Amal.

The second chapter deals with al-Af'āl al-'A$m i l a$ and the third chapter covers al-Hurū $\bar{f}$ al-'Amila. The fourth and fifth chapters deal with al-Asma', al-' $\bar{A} m i l a$ and other miscellaneous aspects respectively. It should be kept in mind that the first and the last chapters do not deal with 'awāmil.

[^99]This was one of the greatest contributions of al-Jurjānī towards the development of the Arabic grammar. One may differ in some of its details but its principles have remained unchallenged to this day. Al-Jurjān̄̄’s major aim was educational in a pedagogical sense: to make Arabic grammar easy and accessible, in scientific terms, instead of making it a dull and dry subject for an Arabic student. As al-Jurjānī says:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "’يهذب ذهن المبتدى و فهمه، و يعرفه سمت الإعراب ورسمه، و يفبد في حفظ المتوسط الأصول المتفرقة و } \\
& \text { الأبواب المختلفة لنظمها في أقصر عقد و وجمعها في أقرب حد"، }
\end{aligned}
$$

"This book will enlighten the minds of beginners and help them to understand the rules of $i^{\prime} r \bar{a} b$ and other relevant aspects of Arabic grammar including the memorising of miscellaneous rules', Al-Jurjānī's efforts produced fruitful results and eventually, his works became widely acceptable in both educational and literary circles. A number of commentaries during the following centuries were written on his works which is a testimony to the popularity of his works.

### 3.9 Al-Muṭarrizi’'s Methodology in al-Miṣbā̆

Al-Mutarrizī in the preamble of his book al-Miṣbāh accepts the borrowing of his material from the three books of al-Jurjānī, namely al-Mi'a, al-Jumal and al-Tatimma. However, al-Mutarrizī uses a different methodology for his book, in that he combines the method of al-Mi'a and al-Jumal and comes out with a new methodology. In al-Mi'a, al-Jurjānī divides 'Awāmil into two major categories namely, al-'Awāmil al-lafziyya and al'Awāmil al-ma'nawiyya. He starts his book with al-Ḥurūf al-jāra followed by al-Ḥurūf
al-Mushsabbah bi- al-fi'l and then he mentions al-Ḥurūf al-jāzima li al-fi'l al-Muḍāri‘ then Asma $\bar{a}$ ' and $A f$ ' $\bar{a} l$ al-Nāqiṣa respectively. At the end of his book he tells us about the al- 'Awāmil al-Ma 'nawiyya. While his book al-Jumal starts with al-Muqaddimāt followed by the description of al-'Awāmil al-af' $\bar{a} l$, 'Awāmil al-Ḥurūf and 'Awāmil al-asmā' respectively, as we have stated above in detail, al-Mutarrizī starts his book al-Miṣbāh in a different way. At the beginning of his book, he discusses the al-Muṣtalahāt al-Nahwiyya by giving a comprehensive definition of Kalām followed by the definition of Ism, Fi'l and Harf with examples. Then he gives a brief but concise definition of the $i^{\prime} r a \bar{b} b$

```
", أن يختلف آخر الكلمة باختلاف العو امل الداخلة لفظأ و تقدير اً،،
```

Here the most noteworthy point is the utmost care of al-Mutarrizī in the selection of his words without going into any unnecessary details. One of the merits of this book is the use of Qur'ānic verses, as examples, in order to explain the rules of grammar that help the students to memorise these rules.

At the very beginning of the second chapter, al-Muṭarrizī makes it clear that he has, intentionally, mentioned al-Awāmil al-lafziyya prior to 'Awāmil al-Ma'nawiyya as the verb is considered a key in a sentence, especially in Arabic grammar, where a sentence that begins with $f i^{\prime} l$ is always preferred.
al-Muṭarrizī mentions 'Awāmil al-Ma'nawiyya in the fourth chapter for a reason, perhaps, that it would be difficult for an ordinary beginner to understand al-Awāmil alMa'nawiyya as compared to al-'Awāmil al-lafziyya. The author quotes only 9/10 poetic
verses in the entire book, possibly for educational and pedagogical reasons, as he does not want to lengthen his book unnecessarily according to the preamble of this book. AlMutarrizī has written this book for his son who was a young boy (or a beginner) so he tries to explain the difficult and complex grammatical rules in an easy and simple way, ensuring at the same time that nothing essential is missed out from the rules of Arabic grammar. In this way he has, clearly, achieved his pedagogical and educational goal.

The al-Muṣtalaḥāt al-Naḥwiyya that al-Muṭarrizī used in his book are not new. Grammarians had been using them for several centuries. During the $6^{\text {th }}$ century, these Muștalaḥāt were commonly used and they are still in use today. For instance, Nāṣīf alYāzijī, a well known scholar of the ${ }^{19 \text { th }}$ century who wrote his book $f i ̂$ Uṣūl lughat al'Arab, used the same al-Muștalaḥāt al-Naḥwiyya that were used by the grammarians of the $5^{\text {th }} / 6^{\text {th }}$ centuries.

### 3.10 Characteristics of Different Manuscripts of al-Miṣbāh

$A l-M i s ̣ b a \bar{a} h$ is a very famous work of al-Muṭarrizī and manuscripts of it are found in different parts of the world. Although during the process of editing I had access to thirty one copies of al-Miṣbāh, for the purpose of comparison, I depended on only those seven copies that according to their date of transcribtion were nearer to the author's era. Moreover, these copies were free from any insertions, cuttings or deletions as compared to other copies.

Out of these copies, only the oldest and most authentic was selected as a reference copy. Including the reference copy, 29 were readily available in the British Library, London. Remaining the other two, one was taken from John Ryland's Library, Manchester, UK and the other from the personal collection of Shaykh Abū Ṣāliḥ from Peshawar, Pakistan. We will use the same numbers as those given in The British Library's catalogue.

First of all, we will write about the reference copy. Thereafter, we will write about the other seven copies that are compared against the reference copy. A brief analysis will also be offered of the twenty four copies to be founf in the British Library London that I was able to access during my visit to the library.

### 3.10.1 Reference Copy OR/ 5795/2

Regarding al-Miṣbāh all the basic sources such as Brockelmann and Kashf al-Ẓunūn agree that the copy OR-5795/3 held in the British Library London is the oldest and most authentic copy. My personal research into the authenticity and reliability also suggests using this very copy as a reference for research. The microfilm of this copy is also available.

The copy is bound together with al-Kāfiyya and Mi'at 'A$m i l$ and is placed in the middle starting from folio 13-45. Chapters and sub-chapters are highlighted in red ink. Commentary in the margins is available throughout this work. There is no cutting and deletion in this copy. The writing is old but legible with some difficulty. Another additional quality of this reference copy is that every last word of every written page is
re-written at the end of the page (before the next page) as well as at the start of the new page. This is so as to ensure that no word or line has been dropped from the text. This characteristic is not to be found in any other copy.

Any manuscript that contains the name of its copyist/transcriber, his address and date of transcription, carries a greater significance. Sometimes, one can assess an entire period by the name of a famous transcriber. The absence of a copyist's name or an unknown transcriber reduces the value of a manuscript. The copy of al-Miṣbāh that I have chosen as a reference copy carries not only the name of its copyist but also the name of its user/owner. At the beginning of this manuscript is written
صـاحبه و مالكه محمد بن حسن في بلد استنبول

The characteristics of the chosen reference copy that render it distinct from other copies are:

1. Being the oldest
2. Being carefully preserved and free from cutting and deletion
3. Known date of transcription.
4. Known the place of transcriber.
5. Mention of the place of transcription.
6. Mention of the name of the owner.

The above six reasons make this copy a distinct one from the other 30 copies and thus strengthen our decision to use it as a reference copy. Like al-Miṣbāh, al-Kāfiyya and Mi't ‘Amil also end with the same name, Ja'far ibn 'Alī ibn Ḥājjī̀, the transcriber, and with the same date AH 932. The same transcriber wrote all the three books. The copy ends with:


OR - 4330/1

This manuscript is in a large book form. Two other books Mi'at 'Āmil and Kāfiyya are also attached to al-Miṣbāh. The binding is strong and in red colour. Al-Miṣbāh goes from folio 1 to folio 36. Headings and sub-headings are highlighted in red ink. Each page consists of eleven lines. Marginal commentary is available on the initial few pages and gradually reduces towards the end of transcript. The writing found in the last page is as:
ثمّ دخل في قوة الفقبر باسمه سبحانه وتعالى يوسف آغا خان المشهور بحبه خان

This suggests that Mr. Yūsuf Āghā got benefited from this copy. At the end, the name of the transcriber is written as 'Abd al-Qādir ibn Sha'bān at the beginning of Muharram AH 1029, as it appears from the following text:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تمت الكتاب بعون اله من يد عبد القادر بن شعبان، المحتاج إلى رحمة الهن تعالى في او ائل المحرم في وفت الظهر } \\
& 1029 \text { مائة تسع و عشرين وألف }
\end{aligned}
$$

## ARUN-OR 28/3

This transcript is bound together with two other books, namely Mi'at 'Amil and alKäfiyya, while al-Miṣbāh is held in the middle and goes from folio no. 127 to folio 197. Each page consists of five lines. Headings and sub-headings are highlighted in red ink. The handwriting is very old and difficult to read. Marginal commentary is available throughout the manuscript. It is difficult to ascertain who actually the scribe was or who owned the manuscript. However, Mi'at 'Amil carries the date of AH 962.

## BIJ 9

This is a fragile copy in single binding affected by termites but still easily readable. It is written in khatt naskh, and chapters and sub chapters are highlighted in red ink.

Commentary in the margins is available throughout most of the manuscript. Each page of this manuscript consists of seven lines. The drawback of this manuscript is that four pages are missing from the book. This manuscript has a circular seal impression reading "Muḥammad Akram al-Madan̄̄ AH1136" on its first page. Then it is written as:

مصباح بخط نسخ قطع ميانه بابت جامدار خانه جمع كتاب خانه قادرية شد بتاريخ 11 رجب 1025 ، The owner's name is mentioned as Qādir Muḥammad Khān. At the end the date of transcription is given as Safar AH1033. The last page reads as follows:
تـت يوم الأحد وفت الظهر بتاريخ عشرين، شهر صفر 1033، مالكه ميران جي هر خواند دعا طمع دارم را آنكه

## OR-4205/2

This manuscript copy is also bound with two other books. Al-Miṣbāh is again bound in between the two and goes from folio 71 to folio 172 . The first of the two books attached to al-Miṣbāh seems to be its Sharh (explanation) of al-Miṣbāh. Neither the title nor its author of this Sharh is mentioned. The manuscript is pocket-sized. The text is quite legible. The date as well as the identity of scribe is unknown, however the following text is to be found at the end.
أضعف العباد الحاج احمد ابن خضر خواجه غفر الهَ له ولو الديه سنة احدى و ستّين و ألف شهر ربيع الأول

All the three texts seem to originate from the same scribe.

## DELHI ARABIC 1152

This manuscript is in a single book-shape with worn-out pages though the writing is still legible. The total folios of the manuscript are 127, each page containing five lines. Chapters and sub-chapters along with the Qur'ānic verses are highlighted in red-ink. The
shortcomings of this manuscript are the absence of a few pages as well as a few of these pages being out of order.

Marginal commentary is available throughout the manuscript. A seal on the last page reads as:
تمت هذا لكتاب في روز جمعة بوفت بيشين بهر صفر 1059،

## HARLEY 5465/3

This copy of al-Mişbāh is bundled with two other manuscripts. The copy is pocket-sized and the first of the three manuscripts is al-Käfiyya then the Sharh of al-Miṣbāh going folio 139 to 178 . Marginal commentary is also to be found on the few initial pages while each page consists of eleven lines. The handwriting is clear and legible. The date of the scribing is read as AH 1063. The same date can be read at the end of Mi'at 'Amil. The title of Sharh of al-Miṣbāh is read as:
أما بعد فهذه أوراق لإعراب ديباجة المصباح من قوائد غريب المفتاح،

However the date of transcribtion of the Sharh is unavailable.

## 143/MS

This copy is bound in a single volume. The handwriting is clear and easily readable. This copy is taken from the personal library of Shaykh Abū Ṣāliḥ from Peshawar, Pakistan, and is available under the number $143 / \mathrm{MS}$. This copy has been very helpful for my comparative edition. The writing is not very old and easily readable. Chapters and subchapters are highlighted in red ink and marginal commentary is available throughout the manuscript. The total number of pages is 127 . The reason for including this manuscript in my comparison is because of its lack of deletions and insertions. Moreover, the marginal
commentary of this manuscript is very concise and useful, while the derivation of syntactical and grammatical problems has duly benefited from the marginal commentary. There are three names, Miyān 'Abd Allāh, Miyān Mīr Ḥamza and Miyān Muḥammad Shafí, which are found at the end of the book but without any date of transcription. It is difficult to know whether these are the names of the owners or of the transcribers. This copy ends with:
تمت هذا الكتاب مسمّى المصباح في النحو

## Delhi Arabic 1151

This manuscript is bound in the form of a single book. It is neatly written and easily readable. It consists of 76 folios. Chapter and sub-chapters are highlighted in red ink. There are no footnotes except on the last four pages. The name of the transcriber is Ghulām Muḥyī al-Dīn Khān Muḥammad Shāhī Ibn Bashārat Khān 'Alawī and the date of transcription AH1180; these are both clear and legible. The name of the owner is given as Muḥammad Jān who bought the manuscript from a bookseller named Bakhtū for 10 annas.
حرّر في أو ائل جمادى الأولى اليوم السبت قبل الظهر،

## ADD-5567/3

This manuscript is also in a single binding. The number of pages is 53 . The handwriting is clear and the script is not very old. There is marginal commentary on two to three pages. The first six to seven pages are devoted to Qur'ānic verses, hadīth, Arabic proverbs and some Persian poetry indicating the literary taste of the owner. At the very beginning, the name of the transcriber is written as Sayyid Diyā' ibn Ghulā

Muḥammad. The owner's name is mentioned as Sayyid Barakat Allāh and the date is Friday AH1082.

## OR-14457/3

This copy is in a simple binding along with two other books which are Mi'at 'A$m i l$ and al-Käfiyya. The binding is very fragile but the handwriting is very clear and sound in impression. The beginning reads هذا الكتاب في علم النحو" al-Miṣbāḥ extends from page 16 to page 35 in a book consisting of 90 pages.

At the end, it reads:
تمت الكتاب بعون الملك الو هاب عن يدى بكر بن حسن غفر اله عنه

It is dated AH 1143.

## DELHI ARABIC 1150

This manuscript is in single binding. The handwriting is easily readable in a style that is not very old, but the pages are highly affected by termites. The marginal commentary is only available on the first two pages. The manuscript consists of 94 pages. The manuscript ends with:
تمت هذه النسخة المسمى ‘المصباح في علم النحو كتبه حبيب الهَ لمحمد وجيه اله

The name of the transcriber is mentioned as Ḥabīb Allāh son of Muḥammad Wajīh Allāh, dated $16^{\text {th }}$ of Shawwāl 1149.

## DELHI ARABIC 1156

The manuscript is also in single binding. The number of pages is 68. Marginal commentary is only available on the first page. The distinguishing characteristic of the manuscript is that it uses two types of pages. The 36 pages are new while the rest of the pages are old and fragile but still readable. The name of owner is mentioned as Muḥammad Mughīth while the transcriber's name is not mentioned.

## ADD-16656/3

This copy is bound together with Mi'at 'Amil in a red leather cover. Al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 45 to 90 while the total number of pages is 90 . The script is clear and easily readable. The weakness of this copy is the absence of some pages. It begins with " إذ كان لللمخاطب المدّكر و غير اللازم في فعل ويفعل وكذا في جميع الأفعال. The date of transcription is mentioned as Shawwāl 1209.

## DELHI ARABIC 1153

This manuscript is bound in a single book. It is very fragile and old but still readable. Chapters and sub chapters are highlighted in red ink and the marginal commentary is available throughout most of the manuscript. There is a stamp impression on the first page giving the name of its owner as 'Aṭ̄̄' Allāh and dated 1207 while the hand-written date shows $18^{\text {th }}$ of Shawwāl 1208. The transcriber's name is not mentioned.

## IOISH-1552/3

This copy is bound together with two other books, namely Mi'at ' $\bar{A} m i l$ and Risalat 'İs $\bar{a}$ Ghūjī fi al-Mantiq. Towards the end, a few pages under the title of al-Tatimma fí 'Ilm alNahw are also included. Al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 24 to 106. The distinct feature of this manuscript is that beside the chapters and sub-chapters, the main points are also highlighted in red ink. The name of the owner or transcriber is not mentioned but the date of transcription is mentioned as 1108/1793

## ADD-23435

This copy is in a single binding. The handwriting is very clear and not very old. The marginal commentary is almost absent. The number of pages is 61 . The first page reads "Kitāb dar Naḥw az Taṣnīfāt ‘Abd al-Raḥmān al-Jurjānı"" dated 23 of Sha 'bān AH1226.

## DELHI ARABIC 1162/A

This manuscript is available along with its commentary (الزبدة مع الضوء). The hand-writing is very old but can be read with a little difficulty. Al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 1 to 13 , Mukhtaṣar al-ṣarf from pages 14 to 16 and al-Zubda Ma'a al-Ḍaw' from pages 17 to51. Al-Miṣbāh and its explanation seem to be written by the same transcriber. At the end, the date is mentioned as $10^{\text {th }}$ of Muharram. The name of the transcriber is given as Muḥammad Akbar Shāh Bādshāh Ghāzī.

## ADD-261243/3

This copy is accompanied by Mi'at 'Amil. It begins with al-Tatimma fì al-Nahw, followed by Mi'at 'Āmil and al-Miṣbāh which extends from pages 38 to 74 . Large fonts are used and each page consists of nine lines. At the beginning, the name of the owner is mentioned as Mukhtār ibn Mālik and at the end, the date is mentioned as $14^{\text {th }}$ of Sha'bān إتمام بافت جهار دهم شهر شعبان المعظم ؛ روز شنبه وقت عصر AH1251

## DELHI ARABIC-1040/B

This copy is also bound together with two other books, named as al-Käfiyya and Mukhtaṣar Risāla fì al-Ṣarf named al-Yūsufiyya. The script is clear and easily readable. The al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 52 to 80 . The name of the owner or transcribers is not given but the date of transcription is mentioned as 1256 .

## DELHI ARABIC-1036/B

This copy is also available in a single volume with two other books named al-Risāla alShamsiyya fì al-Qawā'id al-Mantiqiyya and 'Arabī Gulistān that contains some Arabic and Persian stories. The al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 45 to 73 . Half of the pages of alMiṣbāh are new but the rest are fragile and old. The date of transcription is not given but the names of the owner and transcribers are mentioned as 'Abd Allāh son of Fayḍ Ma'āb Muḥammad Sulaymān.

## OR-3080/20

This manuscript is also accompanied by al-Kāfiyya and al-Mi'at 'Āmil. It is available in the form of a pocket sized book and is bound in a leather cover. Al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 40 to 71 . Date of transcription is not available, but at the beginning, three circular stamps are impressed. Nothing is clear in the stamps except the name Āghā ibn Ḥusayn.

## IO-ISL-2903/6

This copy is very old and fragile. Al-Miṣbāh and Mi'at 'A$m i l$ are bound together. The script is old and difficult to read. Marginal commentary is not available at all. AlMiṣbāh extends from pages 91 to 132, while the total number of pages is 132 . The manuscript contains a lot of mistakes. The name of the owner and transcribers together with the date of transcription are notmentioned. The book ends:


## DELHI ARBIC-1038/A

This copy is available together with two other books called Hidāyat al-Naḥw and Hayrat al-Ṣarf. Al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 1 to 33 while the total number of pages is 72 .The script is clear but the pages are fragile. Chapters and sub chapters are highlighted in red ink. The date of transcription, the name of the owner and transcribers are not mentioned.

## DELHI ARABIC-1154

The manuscript is a in single volume and is full of marginal commentary. The total number of pages is 42 . The pages are fragile but easily readable. The date of transcription and the name of the owner of transcribers are not available. The copy ends with: تمت المصباح بـون المستعان

## DELHI ARABIC -155

This manuscript is in a single volume. The pages are damaged and full of patches. There is a seal impression on the first page but nothing is readable. However, there is a handwritten line which shows the name of the owner as Muḥammad Karīm Allāh.

## DELHI ARABIC - 1165

This copy is in the form of a large size book together with three other books named alMi'at 'Āmil, Kitāb al-Ḍarīr̄̄ and Hidāyat al-Naḥw. al-Miṣbāh is placed at the end from
pages 138 to 166 . Marginal commentary is available on the first few pages followed by some explanatory notes in Persian language. The weakness of this manuscript is the absence of some pages towards the end of this manuscript. The last line before the missing pages is as follows:
أو ضمير الجماعة، نحو الرجال جاءت وجاؤ ا والنسـاء جاءت أو جئن و الجذ وع انكسرت و الناس و الأنام ‘

The name of the owner or transcribers or the dates are not available.

## OR-1176/4

This copy is bound together with al-Mi'at 'Āmil. An abstract of al-Mi'at 'Āmil is also available in a few pages while al-Miṣbāh carries its introductory notes under the name of غرائب فوائد المفتاح. The al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 56 to 104 . The script is clear but there are some spelling mistakes ، $\quad$ tā al-marbūūta is always written as tā al-maft $\bar{u} h ̧ a$. The date of transcription and the names of the owner or transcribers are not mentioned.

## IO-ISL-2739/3

This copy is also accompanied by two other books named al-Kāfiyya and D̄̄wān Nāṣir (in Persian). Al-Miṣbāh occupies pages 77 to 98 . The script is clear but marginal commentary is not available. Nothing is available regarding the name of the owner. It ends with:
تمت هذه النسخة المباركة في سنة الف ومائتين وستة وخمسين من الهجرة


#### Abstract

ADD-9645/2

This copy is also bound with two other copies named al- 'Awāmil al-Mi'a and Qawā'id al-I'rāb written by Shaykh Jamāl al-Dīn ibn Hishām. Al-Miṣbāh extends from pages 23 to 49 . The script is clear and easily readable. The marginal commentary is not available except on the first few pages. Chapter and sub chapters are highlighted in red ink. All the three books seem to have been transcribed by the same transcriber. Nothing is written at the end of al-Miṣbāh.


## ARABIC MANUSCRIPT 725(215)

This copy has been taken from the John Rylands Library, Manchester and is available under the number Arabic Manuscript 725(215). This copy has also helped a lot for the purpose of the comparative edition. This copy is complete in all aspects without any deletion or cutting, except for some spelling mistakes. The distinct feature of this copy is the availability of marginal commentary in the English language rather than Arabic. This indicates the literary taste of the owner of this copy for the English language. There is no mention of the name of the owner and the transcriber. This copy ends with: $\qquad$ قد تّ هذا الكتاب المسمّى بالمصباح....................

### 3.11 Critical Analysis of Published Work

Very few books have attained as much fame in the academic world as Nāṣir al-Dīn alMuṭarrizī’s book entitled al-Miṣbāh fí al-Nahw. For this reason a great number of interpretation/commentaries of this book were written, and it has also been edited several times. According to Brockelmann, it was first published in AH1261, then in 1959 and 1993 and finally again in 1997 by Dār al-Nafā’is in Beirut. We shall review these three
printed editions of al-Miṣbāh that have come down to us in view of the fact that these are the editions that observe at least the academic conventions of research. As we have mentioned above, al-Miṣbāh was first published in AH1261 by the Anjuman Maṭba‘at Muḥammadī, Delhī. It was edited by Mawlawī Muḥammad Hādī 'Alī. This edition does not mention the quality and the number of manuscripts that he used for editing purposes. He also fails to mention if he had undertaken any cross-checking among various manuscripts. For this reason, I have not included this copy in my edition review.

### 3.11.1 Edition of al-Miṣbāḥ, Published in Cairo: Maktabat al-Shabāb, 1959. Editor: ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd al-Sayyid al-Ṭalab

In the preface of al-Miṣbāh, 'Abd al-Ḥamīd writes;
وجدت كتاب المصباح مخطوطأ في دار الكتب المصرية في ست عشرة نسخة
that he found 16 copies of this manuscript in Dār al-Kutub al-Miṣriyya. Among these copies of al-Miṣbāh, he took the oldest one, written in AH 921, and used it as a reference copy to compare it with others. This copy is available under reference number 326 in Dār al-Kutub al-Miṣriyya. The editor does not mention the printed copy of al-Miṣbāh, published in Lakhnow.

It is true that the editor has used the oldest copy of al-Miṣbāh, written in AH921, as his main reference copy, but he did not write anything about its transcriber, place of its transcription, the owner and the user of this copy. The editor mentions only the date of transcription and ignores other information. Similarly he ignores the relevant information on the other copies that he used for comparison. These are the basic requirements that are
essential to the reliability of a manuscript. He does not mention the number of folios or the number of lines on each page. The author writes

$$
\text { وبهامشها و بين سطور ها شر ح سمي (الإفتتاح) لم ينسب إلى شار ح } 412
$$

This is the same commentary to which Brockelmann refers. Al-Isfrā’̄̄̄̄̄̄ wrote a commentary on al-Miṣbāh under the name of al-Miftāh and later shortened it, giving it different name as al-D.Daw' 'ala al-Miṣbāh. The editor does not write anything about it although it could have been checked with Brockelmann.

He discusses the work of al-Mutarrizī very briefly without going into any details. Moreover, he considered the book al-Muqaddima al-Mutarrizīy a fì al-Naḥw as the work of al-Muṭarrizī which is not correct. In fact this work belongs to another scholar namely Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad ibn-Ṣāliḥ al-Dimashqī. The correct name of al-Muṭarrizī’s book is al-Muqaddima fì al-Naḥw or al-Muqaddima al-Mashhūra fì al-Naḥw.

1. Apart from this main reference copy, he writes nothing about the rest of the 15 copies. In addition, he does not mention any other copies of al-Miṣbāh that are available in different libraries of the world. It is surprising to note that he does not even mention Brockelmann or his observations on this book.
2. Commentary and derivation are two separate academic areas. This editor frequently explains/ comments on the syntactical/grammatical issues but does not refer to them to the basic reference books.

[^100]3. For the derivation of syntactical/grammatical issues, he refers to only two books entitled Sharh al-Ashmūn̄̄ and Sharaḥ Ibn- 'Aqūl, and ignores the rest.
4. In any editing task of a manuscript, a brief note on the life history of its author plays a significant part. The editor of al-Miṣbāh however, mentions al-Mutarrizī’s life only very briefly in a casual way. There is no detail of al-Muṭarrizī's teachers, his students or his other academic works.
5. In addition, this published edition of al-Miṣbāh contains a number of shortcomings that make it less effective in view of the fact that the text is the foundation stone of any edited work.

In brief, this edition of al-Miṣbāh is a good attempt but fails to meet the required level of research criteria (a list of errors is attached).

## List of Errors Found in the Above Mentioned Edition

| Wrong | Right | Page Number |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| و يستضئ | و يستفئ | 35 |
| والجُملٌ أربع | والجُملٌ أربعة | 41 |
| لن يخشها | لن يخثى | 48 |
| فعّال التى | الأفعال التى | 55 |
| والمصدر هو الاسم المشتق من الفعل و صدر عنه | والمصدر هو الاسم الذى اشتقَّ منه الفعل و صدر عنه | 73 |
| و مثلهِ رجُلا | و مثلهد رجْلا | 76 |
| و ايّما تدعو | و أيَّما تدع أدع | 106 |
| إعراب مسلمان | إعرب مسلمين | 134 |
| ألا يرى | ألا ترى | 49 |
| و هي على ضربين | والمضمر على ضربين | 149 |

## Words or Phrases Omitted

| في معنى الوقت | في محنى الوقت ولمكان | 38 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| والياء للغائب المذكر | و الياء للغائب المذكر و الجمع | 40 |
|  | المؤنث |  |
| يفعل هو | ويفعل هو و يفحلن هنّ | 40 |
| باختلاف العوامل | باختلاف العو امل الداخلة | 43 |
| و الجمع | والجمع السالم | 46 |
| كماهُ ورِ | كماهِ و جورَ في اسمين لبلاتين | 54 |
| في الزمان | في الزمان الماضي | 84 |
| إذا انقّم المستشنى على المستثنى فيه | إو إنقا تقّم المستثنى على المستثنى منه | 90 |
| توقع | توقع و انتظار | 101 |
| وأيتّهما | و أيُّهما تنصرْ أنصْرْ | 106 |
| لم يقتض لثاني | لم يتضض المفول الثناني | 118 |
| حتى في معنى الو او تعظيمأ و |  | 145،144 |
| تحقير ا ، نحو: جاءنى الناس حتى |  |  |
| الأمير مات الناس حتى الأنبياء و |  |  |
| قام الحجاج حتى المثاة |  |  |
| على وجه مخصوص | على وجه مخصوص من الإعراب | 149 |

Some Extra words / Phrases

11515
119 و باللفي نحو: علمت ما زيد منطلق فلا تعمل في هذه
المو اضع لفظأ، و تعمل معنىً و تقديرا
3.11.2 Edition of al-Miṣbāh, Published in Beirut: Dār al-Bashā'ir al-Islāmiyya, 1993.

## Edited by: Maqbūl 'Alī al-Ni'ma

A recent work on al-Miṣbāh appeared in 1993 from Dār al-Bashā'ir al-Islāmiyya that was edited by Maqbūl 'Alī al-Ni'ma. The editor mentions 20 copies in total in his preface.

Among these, 6 copies are present in $A w q \bar{a} f$ Public Library, Mosul, 7 copies are available in $A w q \bar{a} f$ public library, Baghdad, 3 copies are in existence in Dār al-Kutub alZāhiriyya, 1 copy at the Central Library, Jāmi'at al-Baṣra, 1 copy is at the Central Library, Jāmi'at al-Sulaymāniyya, 1 copy is in al-Ḥasan al-Ankarī’s personal library and finally 1 copy of al-Miṣbāh seems to be available at the Library of Jāmi‘at al-Riyāḍ. Of the 20 copies mentioned above, the editor had access to only 5 copies. He does not say anything about the remaining 15 copies. He compares the copy from the National Museum (as being the oldest) with the other four copies.

There are a few points to be considered here:

1. As regards the oldest reference copy, the editor omitted to mention the following important things:
a. the name of its transcriber;
b. the name of its user; and
c. the date of transcription.

As a result, the status of this copy lacks authenticity.
2. The editor does not mention any other published work with reference to alMiṣbāh.
3. At one place he totally ignores a rule of syntax.
4. $\quad$ " الحاج حتى المشاة
5. Derivation is an essential part of editing, whereas the editor deals with syntax/grammar issues in only three places on pages 61,69 and 90 and ignores the rest.
6. There is a one proverb in the book but the editor has failed to mention it. The manuscript explains 10 couplets but the editor mentions only 8 .
7. The editor has written a substantial note on the life history of his teachers and pupils.
8. There is also an occasional addition of words which are inserted here and there that should have been written separately as a commentary in the margins.
9. This edition also contains a number of errors in the text which reduces its value in terms of authenticity.

Maqbūl 'Alī al-Ni'ma's contribution is a good attempt as a piece of research work, but it fails to meet the needs of standard research criteria (a list of errors is attached).

## List of Errors Found in the Above Mentioned Edition

| Wrong | Wright | Page Numbers |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| قد | قد خرج | 52 |
| يـُستْ | بـُستْ | 52 |
| يسمّى | تسّى | 54 |
| ياء مكسور | ياء مكسورة | 55 |
| يتحرك | تتحرك | 55 |
| بالحركات | ان يكون بالحركات | 55 |
| يُعْلُ | لا يُعكّ | 63 |
| أن ضَرْبَ | أن يضربَ | 68 |
| و نون الثنية | و نونى التثّية | 70 |
| حرف لتعريف | من حرف التعريف | 70 |


| مثله رجُلا | مثلهرجْلا | 70 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| و يرفع ما بعدها | و يُر فعُ مـا بعدهما | 73 |
| و ما منطلق زيد | و ما منطلق إلا زيد | 79 |
| و أين بيتي أزرك | و أين بيتكّ أزرْك | 82 |
| منْ | مَنْ | 83 |
| و تضيفهِ | و تضيفها | 83 |
| عندي كذا در هما | عندي كذا درهم | 85 |
| و عليكَ لألزَمْ | و عليكَ لألزمْ | 87 |
| و خبرها | و خبره؛ | 87 |
| "أو مضافٍ إليه | أو مضافأ إليه | 88 |
| حبّا الرجّلٌ زيداً | حبّذا الرجلٌ زيدٌ | 88 |
| محدوة | ممدودة | 95 |
| إذا جاءكم المؤمنات | إذا جاءك المؤمنات | 95 |
| و بين واحدة | و بين واحده | 96 |
| فملحق به | فملحق بها | 101 |

## Words or Phrases Omitted

| باختلاف العوامل | باختلاف العوامل الداخلة | 55 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| الجمع | الجمع السالم | 56 |
| الضمير | الضمير المتصل | 57 |
| و ستة حالة التعريف | و ستة في حالة التعريف | 59 |
| نحو ذلك | نحو ذللك من و ما | 61 |
| لإنّ فيه معنى | لإنّ فيه معنى الفعل | 75 |
| إذا تقّم المستثنى منه | إذا تقّدّمَ المستثّى على المستثى منه | 77 |

توقع

توڤُع و إنتظار ..... 81
و ألا تنزل و ألا تنزل بنا ..... 83
و أَيّهما تنصصُرْ أنصـُرْ ..... 83
فعسى ترفع الأسم فعسى ترفع الإسم و ترفع الخبر ..... 87
و لم يقتض الثناني و لم يقتض المفعول الثاني ..... 88
ما ليس فيه التأنيث ما ليس فيه تاء التأنيث ..... 94
و أعجبني زيد أو علم و أعجبني زيد ضربه أو علمه ..... 99
أي أيّهما أي أيُّهما عندك ..... 99100 حتى في معنى الوو تعظيما و تحقير أ، نحو: جاءني الناس حتى الأمير ماتالناس حتى الأنبياء قدم الحجاج حتى المشاة
و خبر (ما و لا) و خبر (ما و لا) مشبهتان بليس ..... 101
و إعراب غير حقيقي و إعراب الفعل غير حقيقي ..... 102
على وجه مخصوص على وجه مخصوص من لإعراب ..... 102
3.11.3 Edition of al-Miṣbāh̆, Published in Beirut: Dār al-Nafā’is, 1997

## Editor: Yāsīn Maḥmūd al-Khaṭīb

The editor, Yāsīn Maḥmūd al-Khaṭīb, is a well-known scholar. Māzin al-Mubārak, another distinguished scholar of Arabic literature has strengthened this book by writing a brilliant preface. The editor mentions another two editions in its preamble that were published in Lakhnaw and Egypt but confirms the fact that he did not have access to those editions. The editor used only six copies for his edition, although he accepts that there were many other copies available in al-Makhtūtāt al-Zāhiriyya library. Out of these 6 copies, he found 2 copies more reliable than the others. Let us consider the following points:

1. The editor of this published edition has failed to provide personal life history details of the author. In the editing of any manuscript, such information about an author, his teachers, pupils and the environment where he was born and brought up, plays an indispensable role.
2. The editor did not refer to the book of al-Muṭarrizī named al-Muqaddima fì al$N a h ̣ w$ whereas all the basic sources mention this book.
3. He should have taken into account the copies that were within access and he failed to do so.
4. The reference copy that he values most was written in AH 951 but this does not carry the place and name of its transcription.
5. There are occasional insertions within the original texts but the editor points it out as being for the purpose of explanations only.
6. The issues of syntax/grammar are dealt with very briefly as merely short comments on the margins.
7. The difference of opinion between the author (al-Mutarrizī) and the grammarians on syntactical issues is seldom mentioned by the editor.
8. With regard to the derivation of syntactical/grammatical issues, he seldom refers to the primary sources. The text of this edition of al-Miṣbāh is very clear and correct to a large extent.
9. The way he demonstrates the skills of comparison between different copies, shows that he is well aware of the style and methodology of modern research.
10. It is a valuable work with regard to the comparison of copies.
11. There is not much difference between the text of al-Misbā$h$ and my own work. The text of this edition of al-Miṣbāh is very clear and correct to a large extent. In brief, this is a valuable work but fails to meet the research or academic needs. (a list of errors is attatched).

## List of Errors Found in the Above Mentioned Edition

| Wrong | Right | Page Numer |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| و التسع الوقت | و التهع الككان | 41 |
| والجمل أربع | و الجمل أربع | 43 |
| لن يخثاها | لن يخثى | 47 |
| ز نوّنتْ | نوّنتْ | 49 |
| إلا لازما لأنه | إلا لازما لإنّها | 53 |
| مَن أنْ ضربَ زيد عمروا | مَنْ أنْ يضربَ زيد عمروا | 65 |
| عنده ينتهى الليلة | عنده ينتهى الليل | 71 |
| و ما منطلق زيد | و ما منطلق إلا زيد | 83 |
| مثل هاعك | مثل هاءك | 92 |


| ألا يرى | ألا نرى | 94 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ألا يُرى | ألا ثُرى | 115 |
| و هي على ضربين | والمضمر على ضربين | 115 |

## Words or Phrases Omitted



## CHAPTER: 4

## Al-Jurjānī as a Grammarian and Rhetorician

## 4. Introduction

Before we describe 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī's life history and his services towards Arabic grammar and rhetoric, I find it pertinent to clarify as to why there arose the need of mentioning al-Jurjānī in this thesis in the first place.

Al-Mutarrizī, the author of al-Miṣbāh himself justifies the above question in his preface, that when he first thought of writing a book on Arabic grammar for his son, the first choice fell on al-Jurjānı̄’s three grammatical editions namely al-Mi'a, al-Jumal and alTatimma. In this way al-Mutarrizī gathered the core academic materials from the above mentioned books, however still adopted his own methodology for his own work. For this very reason al-Miṣbāh is actually is an 'abridgement' of al-Jurjān̄̄'s works.

Wherein, al-Muṭarrizī expresses his admiration for al-Jurjān̄̄, he not only recognises his academic magnitude but goes even further to argue that his work was worth following/ in the field of Arabic grammar. In other words al-Muṭarrizī̀s work remains in effect a tribute to al-Jurjān̄̄’s services to the academia. In this regard, whereas it is imperative to describe the author's life account and academic services, it is almost obligatory to mention al-Jurjān̄̄’s role in inspiring al-Muṭarriz̄̄’s work. As a consequence, although alJurjānı̄’s services have been recognised as a rhetorician, his status as a grammarian has not been accorded the due acclaim he rightfully deserves.

In this chapter, we would describe his brief life history, his status as a rhetorician as well as an Arabic grammarian. In this pursuit, we would try to ascertain his standing as an Arabic grammarian.

### 4.1 A Brief Sketch of al-Jurjān̄̄’s Life History

### 4.1.1 Name

'Abd al-Qāhir Abū Bakr ibn 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Jurjān1 ${ }^{-413}$ was a renowned Persian scholar of the Arabic language. He was born early in the fifth century of the Islamic calendar. The date of his birth ${ }^{414}$ is not recorded by any of his biographers. As for his death, it was almost certainly by the year 471/1078. ${ }^{415}$

### 4.1.2 Birth Place

He was born in the town of Jurjān, situated between Țibristān and Khurāsān in Iran. He belonged to an ordinary Persian family, but he distinguished himself in Arabic linguistics and his literary gifts. This is not surprising, because whoever wanted to be a scholar in the Muslim world at the time had to attain a high standard in the Arabic language. Arabic was not only the second language in all the non-Arabic parts of the Muslim world; it was the language of the education, since Muslims needed Arabic in order to learn the Qur'ān and hadīth.

[^101]
### 4.1.3 His Character and Fame

'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī belonged to the Shāfi'ī school of fiqh, and was known as being a devout and God fearing Muslim. Another characteristic of this great scholar was his contentedness. It is reported that one day he was in his night worship or tahajjud, when a burglar broke into his home. He saw the burglar taking whatever he found worth taking, but he did not stop his prayer. He felt that the theft of his things was too trivial a matter to merit the interruption of his prayer. ${ }^{416}$
'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄ was recognised by his contemporaries and his immediate successors to be one of the most prominent literary figures of his time. His biographers lavish praise on him and speak of him with the highest degree of esteem and admiration as "The Imām of Arabic", "The head of grammarians in his time.," ${ }^{417}$ Every one acknowledged him as the Imām of his time. ${ }^{418}$ Surprisingly, however, very little information is given about his personal life, his education and his students, apart from short remarks on his piety, moral integrity and his uniqueness as a writer. Curiously, one of the most exhaustive sources on Arabic "learned men" does not allocate a place to him. Yāqūt mentions him only in passing and in the course of his biographies of other less important figures. ${ }^{419}$ Ibn Khaldūn fails even to mention him although he mentions Jurjān, his home town, and al-Qāḍ̄ al-Jurjān ${ }^{-420}$ supposedly a teacher of 'Abd al-Qāhir.

[^102]It is a fact that in most accounts al-Jurjānī is praised only as a grammarian, except for some general terms such as "adīb" and "Imām". ${ }^{421}$ It was only in relatively late accounts that he was described as being "min a'immat al-'Arabiyya wa al-Bayān" ${ }^{422}$ (one of the foremost master of Arabic, the study of eloquence and rhetorics) or " $\overline{\text { Alim }}$ al-Balāgha" (well versed in the study of "balāgha"). According to all the biographers, al-Jurjānī spent his whole life in his native town Jurjān. ${ }^{423}$ Unlike most well known scholars and grammarians in Arabic history, it is reported that he did not travel in search of knowledge at all. This fact makes it even more surprising that his works are of such rich quality, a richness which becomes even more appreciable when one takes into account that he is reported to have had one or two teachers only.

### 4.1.4 His Teachers

These two celebrated teachers are said to have been al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī ${ }^{424}$ and Abu ' $\mathrm{Al} \overline{1}$ Muḥammad al-Ḥusayn al-Fārisī̀ ${ }^{425}$ a nephew of the famous grammarian Abū 'Alī al-
${ }^{421}$ See al-Yāfi‘‘̄ 1 , Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, p.101; Kubrāzāda, Miftāḥ al-Sa 'āda, vol. 1, p143.
${ }^{422}$ See Encyclopaedia of Arabic literature, vol. 1, pp.16,17; Khwānsārī, Rawḍāt al-jannāt, Cairo: Dār alKutub al-‘Ilmiyya, 1962, vol.1, p. 443; Inc. Jacob E. Safra,[et al]. The New Encyclopaedia of Britannica, Chicago/ London/New Delhi: c2003, vol. 22, p. 64.
${ }^{423}$ See Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Maṭbū'āt al-'Arabiyya, p. 681; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 2, pp. 188-192; Larkin, Margaret. The Theology of Meaning; 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī's Theory of Discourse, New Haven, Conn: American Oriental Society, 1995, p.1.
${ }^{424}$ He was Abū al-Ḥasan 'Alī ibn 'Abd al-'Azīz al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī, a jurist, poet and critics of his time, born in Jurjān, then moved to Nīshāpūr with his brother when he was still a child. He became chief Qāḍ̄̄ in Rayy, where he passed away in 392/1102. He wrote a valuable work named al-Wasāta bayn al-Mutanabbī wa Khuṣumih, which gave him a permanent place in literary world.

See al-Tha‘ālabī, Abū Manṣūr 'Abd al-Malik ibn Muḥammad. Yatīmat al-Dahr fì Mahāsin ahl al- 'Aṣr, ed. Muḥammad Muḥyy al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd. al-Maṭba‘a al-Sa‘āda, Cairo:1956. vol. 4, pp. 3-23; Zakī, Mubārak, al-Nathr al-Fannī, vol. 2, pp. 07-16; al-Sahmī, Abū al-Qāsim Ḥamza ibn Yūsuf. Tārīkh Jurjān: aw Kitāb Ma 'rifat 'Ulamā’ Jurjān, Ḥaydarābād: Dā’irat al-Ma'ārif al-'Uthmānīyya, 1950. p. 277; Khafājī, Muḥammad ‘Abd al-Mun'im, al-Ḥayāt al-Adabiyya fì al-‘Aṣr al-'Abbasī, Cairo: Rābiṭat al-Adab alḤadīth, 1954. pp. 368-371; al-Shīrazī, Abū Ishāq Ibrāhīm ibn 'Alī. Ṭabaqāt al-Fuqahā', Baghdād: alMaktabat al-‘Arabiyya, 1938. p. 101; Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt al-'Arabiyya, p. 682.

Fārisī. Whereas most biographers agree that the latter was certainly a teacher of 'Abd alQāhir al-Jurjānī, only one writer, namely Yāqūt, reports al-Qāḍī’s tuition of him. ${ }^{426}$ In fact, Yāqūt goes further than that to state that 'Abd al-Qāhir himself mentions this, saying that the latter "used to boast of his study under al-Qāḍī, and to take much pride in being associated with him whenever he mentioned him in his books". Yāqūt's assertion is unlikely to be true for a number of reasons, ${ }^{427}$ not the least important of which is that Yāqūt, himself, in his biography of Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan al-Fārisī, categorically states that ""Abd al-Qāhir studied under him and had no other teacher except him". ${ }^{428}$ In view of this, it is possible to suggest that al-Jurjānı̄’s only teacher was al-Fārisī, who settled in Jurjān, where a number of people studied under him, and died in 421/1030. The date of al-Fārisis’s death suggests that al-Jurjānı̄ studied under him as a young man. But there is no evidence as to the nature of their relationship, its length, significance or influence on al-Jurjān̄̄’s thinking and development.

However, there is a significant point of agreement among all the accounts of relationship between these two celebrated men. Most biographers specify the subject of al-Jurjānī’s study under his teacher as being grammar.

[^103]${ }^{426}$ See Yāqūt, Irshād al-Arīb, vol. 4, p. 249; Zakī, Mubārak, al-Nathr al-Fannī, vol. 2, pp. 7-12.
${ }^{427}$ Al-Jurjānī, neither takes pride of being associated with al-Qāḍī nor even refers to him as being his teacher in any of his works which are known to me.
${ }^{428}$ See Yāqūt, Irshād al-Arīb, vol.7, p. 03; al-Suyūṭī, Bughyat al-Wu 'āt, vol. 2, p. 106.

Al-Jurjānī's confinement to one teacher and the fact that he studied only one topic under him does not reflect on the wide interests he had and the self-cultivation he achieved. A reading of his major works shows how widely read he was and how intimate he seems to have been with the tradition of Arabic grammar, in language, style, inimitability ( $I^{\prime} j \bar{a} z$ ) and poetry. In fact, this side of his character is pointed out by one of his biographers. ${ }^{429}$ Although 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄ was fully in command in different fields of Arabic literature such as Fiqh, Tafsīr, hadīth, he owes his great fame to his role as grammarian and a literary theorist. He became the scholar students travelled to meet and learn from. His circle was full of students from all over the Muslim world.

### 4.2 His work

Al-Jurjān̄̄ wrote a large number of scholarly works, including popular manuals and detailed commentaries on Arabic grammar, as well as monographs on etymology and the inimitability of the Qur'ān. He also compiled an anthology of poetry. Brockelmann mentions nine books in his account. We will give here a brief note on his work. Apart from his grammatical works two of his books have been edited and published several times, bringing him to the forefront of scholars whose influences on Arabic studies remain considerable. One of these is:

### 4.2.1 Asrār al-Balāgha (Mysteries of eloquence)

It deals mostly with the theory of imagery. He distinguishes between tashbīh, and tamthīl, (simile and analogy) and more importantly between isti'āra, 'metaphor', based on tashbīh, and isti'āra, 'metaphor' based on tamthīl. Not surprisingly al-Jurjānī was instrumental in bringing about this change. He clearly distinguishes between metaphors based on simile and others based on analogy, but calls both of them isti 'ära. (In the case of a full-fledged sentence metaphor he also uses the term for analogy, tamthīl, which thus becomes ambiguous. To remove the ambiguity he sometimes calls it 'analogy in the way
${ }^{429}$ Al-Qifṭī is the only writer who, despite his praise for al-Jurjān̄̄’s masterly knowledge, criticizes his works for being too brief and concise. See Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 2, pp. 188-190.
of metaphor', al-tamthīl 'alā hadd al-isti'āra). Authors for whom the isti' 'āra is first and foremost a one-word affair, mostly based on a simple simile (usually authors with a background of Qur'ānic studies), tended to characterize the mechanism of the metaphor as 'the transference of a name/noun' (the name/ noun 'lion' is transferred to a 'brave man'); others, more circumspect, considered that the entity to the transferred was the 'thing named' or the 'notion'. Al-Jurjān̄̄ rejects the idea of 'transference' (naql) and replaces it by the notion that the metaphor is really a 'claim' ( $d a$ ' $w \bar{a}$ ) that the 'brave man' is a 'lion'. In this he achieves a standard that supersedes everything before him. He was able to do so because he based his investigation and research on two main branches of Arabic studies, namely grammar and poetry. ${ }^{430}$

### 4.2.2 Dalā’il al- I'jā̄z (proofs for the Qur'ān's inimitability)

His other important work is Dalā'il al-I'j $\bar{a} z$ (proofs for the Qur'ān's inimitability). Like most other philologically inspired scholars, al-Jurjānī believes that inimitability rests in the eloquence of the Qur'ān. His central notion is that of nazm (literally, 'strings of pearls'), which might be rendered as 'syntactic ordering of words in accordance with semantic aims; accordingly to his notion the relation of the words establish a relation of meanings; thus, wording and meaning mirror each other. The relations that exist on both sides are called a 'form, șūra. There is thus only one appropriate wording for each meaning, and the proof that the Qur'ān is the most eloquent text has to start from here. ${ }^{431}$ This naẓm approach to the problem of Qur'ānic inimitability has the advantage that it is applicable throughout, as opposed to an evaluation of certain features, such as the metaphor, that occur only at intervals. Al-Jurjānī insists that even a metaphor becomes metaphor only through nazm: since the context requires it to be such. All other explanations of the inimitability of the Qur'ān such as divine intervention, when the

[^104]pagans were challenged to produce something similar to the Qur'an, are rejected by alJurjānī. In both his works, al-Jurjān̄̄ appears as a highly original and sensitive thinker who constantly grapples with his topic and looks at it from different angles.

### 4.2.3 Sharḥ Kitāb al-Īḍāh

This book was written by Abī ‘Alī ibn Aḥmad ibn 'Abd al-Ghafâr al-Fārisī (d. 377/987), a well known scholar of Arabic language of his time. Al-Jurjān̄̄ wrote an extensive commentary on this book comprised of thirty volumes, then summarised it in three volumes under the name of al-Muqtaṣad fī Sharh al-Īd̄ăḥ. This book is also known as alMughnī fī Sharh al-Īdāḥ. ${ }^{432}$

### 4.2.4 Al-Masā’il al-Mushkila

Apart from Brockelmann, the author of Khazānat al-Adab, ‘Abd al-Qādir al-Baghdādī, also mentioned this book. ${ }^{433}$

### 4.2.5 Darj al-Durar

It is a small treatise on Tafsīr al-Qur'ān.

### 4.2.6 A selection from the poetry of $A b \bar{u} \operatorname{Tamma} \boldsymbol{a}$, al-Buḥturī, and al-Mutannabī

Basic biographical dictionaries do not mention this book. According to Brockelmann this book was published in Cairo in 1937. ${ }^{434}$

[^105]
### 4.3 His works on Grammar

### 4.3.1 Al-‘Awāmil al-Mi'a

This is a very well known work of al-Jurjānī; the name of this book is referred to sometimes as Mi'at 'A$m i l$. It is a small but very precise work and is considered the first pedagogical grammar book, which ruthlessly cuts up the whole subject of Arabic grammar into exactly one hundred very short pieces. Perhaps this was the first book to discuss the whole Arabic grammatical structure in hundred 'awāmil. This book brought a revolution in Arabic grammar and is considered a great contribution of al-Jurjān̄̄ in grammar. Brockelmann mentions the availability of this book in more than twenty-six libraries of the world. He also mentions thirty-six shurūh (commentaries) written on this book. A significant number of commentaries written on this book show its importance. The book has been converted into poetic verses as many as nine times by different scholars in different times. Moreover, this book has been translated into the Urdu and Turkish languages as well. ${ }^{435}$ The book is still very useful and has been the part of syllabus in Arabic institutes all over the world in general and in the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent in particular. ${ }^{436}$

### 4.3.2 Al-Jumal

This book also deals with Arabic grammar and is also known as al-Jurjāniya. ${ }^{437}$ There is a great confusion regarding this book. Some writers mention it as a Sharh al-Mi'a ${ }^{438}$ and

[^106]some consider it a summary of al-Mi'a. But the greatest degree of confusion about this book arises from al-Qifṭī’s statement that amongst al-Jurjānī’s books there is "Sharh Kitāb al- 'Awāmil" which he called al-Jumal then compiled a commentary on it. The fact is, there are two different books, and one is al- 'Awāmil, the other is al-jumal. The first has been published a number of times; the second has been recently edited by 'Alī Haydar (Damascus, 1972). Brockelmann mentions seven commentaries written on this book. ${ }^{439} \mathrm{He}$ further states that the copies of this book are available in different libraries of the world. The author of Kashf al-Ẓunūn considers this book as manzūuma naḥwiyya ${ }^{440}$ (syntax written in the form of verses).

### 4.3.3 Al-Tatimma

Like the above mentioned two books, this book is also written on Arabic grammar. Most of the biographical books do not mention this book. Brockelmann mentions it as alTatimma fĩ al-Jumla. ${ }^{441}$ This book is available in the British Library under the number 472.

Any attempt to produce a comprehensive list of al-Jurjān̄̄’s works will be hindered by the disagreement on the titles and the number of books he has written. A number of other books are mentioned by some biographers and there is an obvious confusion as to the nature and exact titles of these books. They are, Sharh al-fātiha ${ }^{442}$, Kitāb al-Kabīr wa alSaghīr, ${ }^{443}$ I'jāz al-Qur'ān al-Saghīr ${ }^{444}$, al-Miftāh ${ }^{445}$, al-Talkhīs fì Sharh al-Miftāḥ. ${ }^{446}$ In

[^107]addition to these three there are two books whose titles are not mentioned, one on prosody ${ }^{447}$ and an introduction to grammar, ${ }^{448}$ and a number of books of which only the titles have survived usually, but not always, mentioned by a single biographer, such as Darj al-durar ${ }^{449}$, al-Mu'tadid ${ }^{450}$, and al-I'jāz. It appears likely that some of the surviving titles refer to some of the known works either by referring to their subjectmatter or by confusing the titles of two books and considering them one work. Of these numerous books, it is unfortunate that only three major works have been published, namely al-'Awāmil al-Mi'a, Asrār al-Balāgha and Dalā'il al-I'jāz. The manuscripts of his books on grammar and other subjects are dispersed in various libraries, and despite the great interest in his work nothing is being done, as far as I know, to bring them out in reliable critical edditions.

## 4.4 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄ as a Grammarian

We have already reviewed the developmental stages of Arabic grammar prior to‘Abd alQāhir al-Jurjānī in chapter second of this thesis. Briefly speaking, the third century grammarians had already started this trend as we saw it in al-Uṣūl fî al-naḥw by Ibn Sarrāj, and al-Īḍāh and al-Jumal by al-Zajjàjī who had attempted to meet the pedagogical needs; of the time. In fact, it was the need of the time to present Arabic grammar as being the most practical and appropriate language that was able to contain the divine message.

Al-Jurjānī's three books, namely al-Mi'a, al-Jumal and al-Tatimma, played a vital rule in fulfilling the pedagogical needs of the expanding Arabic language of the time. In the words of Carter, ' 'an extreme and, possibly for this reason most durable example of the new methodology is the Mi'at ' $\overline{A m i l}$ of the great semanticist and rhetorician al-Jurjānī (d. 471/1078). As its name implies, 'The Hundred Operators' simply reduces the entire language to exactly 100 grammatical categories, making it ideal for rote learning in the

[^108]schools. Now that the facts of Arabic grammar were no longer in dispute, only their organization could vary, and the Mi'at 'Āmil reveals just what paring down of the material could be achieved by a rigorous application of dichotomous classification (taqsīm) and a bold pedagogical instinct for simplification',. ${ }^{451}$ In this respect al-Jurjānı̄’s "theory of 'awāmil'" solved the most complicated issue of Arabic grammar. The theory of 'awāmil has always occupied a central position in Arabic grammar.

Instead of discussing the technical aspects of this theory, we will make an attempt to prove that it is al-Jurjān̄̄ who was the main discoverer of this theory. However, the first person who alluded to this theory was al-Khalīl ibn Ahmad al-Farāhīdī, the author of alJumal fì al-naḥw followed by Sībawayh who casually commented about this theory in the second chapter of his book al-Kitāb and similarly, $\mathrm{Ab} \overline{1}$ 'Alī al-Fārisī also mentioned it in his book Mukhtaṣar 'Awāmil al-I'rāb.

However, the credit goes to al-Jurjānī who had given it a final shape in such an unprecedented way that it has never been challenged since then. It is even more surprising to note that unlike his other contemporary scholars he did not travel from place to place for his learning needs. All the basic sources agree upon this point, so much so that Ibn Ukht 'Alī al-Fārisī is the only person who is known as his teacher. Therefore it is possible that al-Jurjān̄̄ might have been influenced by al-Fārisī’s book Kitāb al-Īḍāh through his teacher Ibn Ukht 'Alī al-Fārisī, (the nephew of Abū 'Alī al-Fārisī). al-Jurjānī wrote a commentary on al-Fārisī's book Kitāb al-Īḍāh in eight volumes. Unfortunately, this book is not available; it would have helped us a great deal to determine the position of al-Jurjānī as a grammarian. However, there is no doubt, as mentioned by Abraham Lockett that, "the Mi'at 'A$m i l$ must be considered as a mere text-book, in which the governing powers of the Arabic language are arranged into appropriate classes, their grammatical offices defined, and their primitive senses illustrated by easy familiar examples, and the amount of the whole is simply this, that he was an eminent

[^109]grammarian, ${ }^{452}$. This statement strengthens our view that al-Jurjānī's theory of 'Awāmil or in Balāgha, his theory of Naẓm al-kalām are both his own.

### 4.4.1 Arabo-Islamic Rhetoric (Balāgha) and al- Jurjānī’s Theory of Naz.m

In the eleventh century a major shift in linguistic approach took place, which emphasized the role of semantics in linguistic studies. The theologian, grammarian, and literary critic 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄ was one of the driving forces behind this shift. In spite of the fact that he worked somewhat outside the mainstream of linguistics and never ever visited Baṣra or Baghdad, he managed to found his own circle of pupils and established a reputation as a linguist and rhetorician all over the Islamic world. His most famous works are two treatises that deal with rhetoric: the Dalā'l al-I'jāz and Asrār al-Balāgha. Apart from these books he also wrote a highly interesting commentary on al-Fārisis's introduction to linguistics al-Īd̄āh.

Al-Jurjānī's publications constituted a major contribution to the discussion about the I'jāzz $a l-Q u r$ ' $\bar{n}$; the central notions in this debate were ma 'n $\bar{a}$ 'meaning' and lafẓ 'expression', a dichotomy that also played a fundamental role in the history of Arabic grammar. We have already mentioned above that in the discussion between the logicians and the grammarians the inherent ambiguity of the terms ma'n $\bar{a}$ and lafz was the main stumbling block for an understanding between the two parties. For the logicians the meanings were the logical ideas that were signified by the expressions, for the grammarians they were identical with the functions of the words.

Arabo-Islamic rhetoric (balāgha) developed essentially out of the large political and theological debate which opposed Mu'tazilism and Ash'arism during the ninth and tenth centuries (third /forth centuries AH). Among the major themes which crystallized this debate was the important problem of the exact nature of the Qur'ān. This problem involved not only the well-known, if somewhat esoteric, question of whether or not the

452 See Lockett, Abraham. Mi'at 'Āmil and Shurūh of Mi'at 'Āmil, India: Pereira Printing Press 1814. Preface of his book, p. 19.

Holy book was created, but also questions like: 'What is exactly meant by the dogma of the inimitability ( $i^{\prime} j \bar{j} \bar{z} z$ ) of the Qur'ān?. To the first question, Mu'tazilīs answered that the Qur'ān was indeed created. Consequently, they were inclined, quite naturally, to an attitude which consisted in stressing its non-exceptional aspects as a text destined for human beings and hence having a temporal history and being liable to rational linguistic investigation as any other Arabic text. In fact, some Mu'tazilīs, such as Abū Mūsā alMurdār (d. around 226/840), al-Nazz̧̄ām (d. around 226/840), al-Khaț̣ābī (d. 388/998), are of this view that the Qur'ān is not inimitable but just 'unimitated', and this because God, although he challenged the Arabs to imitate it, ‘diverted’ them from the temptation to do so. ${ }^{453}$ The celebrated Mu'tazilī grammarian, al-Rummānī (d. 386/996), also tackled the problem of $i$ ' $\bar{a} z$ in his 'Remarks on the inimitability of the Qur'ān'. One can find in his book relatively thorough development of the purely linguistic aspect of the $i j j \bar{a} z$, particularly with regard to the analysis of figures of speech and to certain aspects of the phonetic properties of the Qur'ānic text such as assonance.

The Ash'arīs replied with the now classical study of al-Bāqillanī (d. 403/1012), I'jaz alQur' $\bar{a} n$. Al-Bāqillanī sees in the Qur'ān three components of $i^{\prime} j a z$ : the first is the fact that it gives information about things beyond the access of human beings (akhbār 'an alghayb). The second is that it manifests knowledge of past events, relating to the ancient Prophets and revealed books, which the Prophet Muhammad, being unable to read or write, could not access through these sources. The last is its eloquence: 'The Qur'ānic text is so marvelous, so astonishingly composed; it goes so far in eloquence that one has to recognize the creator's importance in front of it. ${ }^{454}$

The Mu'tazilīs took back the offensive with the Qāḍī 'Abd al-Jabbār (d. 415/1024) who, in his immense theological compendium 'The Dispenser in matters of unity and justice' (al-Mughnī), dedicates a whole volume to the question of $i{ }^{\prime} j \bar{a} z$. He arrived at a crucial

[^110]conclusion: namely, that there is nothing to be taken into account, in the assessment of a text, beyond its form (lafž) and its meaning (ma' $\bar{a} n \bar{\imath}$ ); there is no third term and hence faṣăḥa should only bear upon these two notions. ${ }^{455}$

The circle is now almost completed: the Ash'arī grammarian 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄ will start right from where the Mu'tazilī theologian al-Qāḍ̣̄ 'Abd al-Jabbār arrived, but he will take over the problem with his specific mastery of the workings of the Arabic language. The objective which al-Jurjānī assigns to himself in his book Dalā'il al-I'jaāz is to make the whole question of identifying the nazm of a given text, and hence assessing its value, a technical problem of linguistic analysis. His basic discovery holds in the following: nazm, that long-sought essence of text, of any text, from the most downward-to-earth to the inimitable, can be studied in a rational and analytical way. The science of naẓm, whose bases al-Jurjān̄̄ claims to have established, would revive it thorough returning to the study of texts (Qur'ān, poetry, prose) and even everyday language. This science will reveal that the treasures of meanings hidden in texts are always analysable into infinitely varied arrangements of elementary 'grammatical meanings' (ma 'ān̄̄al$n a h w)$. The whole subsequent evolution of research in this field boils down to this fact, that one should first learn the traditional rules of grammar, and then, later, study what their semantic import can be.

In a chapter on "the difference between letters that are arranged and words that are arranged" al-Jurjān̄̄ gives his own definition of Kalām where he offers the first explicit articulation of his key concept of nazm. As al-Jurjānī explains himself in Dalā'l al-I ' $\mathfrak{j a z}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { و ذللك أن النظم في الحروف هو تو اليها في النطق فقط، و ليس نظمها بمقتضى عن معنى. و لا الناظم لها بمتتف في } \\
& \text { ذللك رسمأ من العقل اقتضى أن يتحرى في نظمه لها ما تحراه. فلو أن واضع اللغة كان قد قال ((ربض)) مكان } \\
& \text { ضرب. لما كان في ذلك ما يؤدي إلى الفساد. }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^111]\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { و أما نظم الكلام فليس الأمر فيه كذلك. لأنك تقتفي في نظمها آثار المعاني و نرتبها على حسب ترتيب المعاني في } \\
& \text { النفس، فهو نظم يعتبر فيه حال المنظوم بعضه مع بعض، و ليس هو النظم الذي معناه: ضم الثيء إلى الثيء كيف } \\
& \text { جاء و اتفق. } 456
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

'arrangement of letters' is their consecutive occurrence in pronunciation, where their arrangement is not required by a [particular] meaning, nor is their arranger following in it any track in the mind that necessitated his aiming at that which he aimed at in their arrangement. Had the originator of language laid down 'rabada'" in place of daraba', there would have been nothing improper about that. The matter is not like that, however, with the placement (nazm) of words, for in placing them, you follow the tracks of the meanings, and you arrange (turattib) them in accordance with the way the meanings are arranged in your mind. Therefore, it is a [kind of] ordering (nazm) in which the situation of one part of it in relation to the rest is taken into consideration; it is not that kind of placement that means joining one thing to another in random manner. ${ }^{457}$

With this passage al-Jurjānī adds a new and important element to his argument; here alJurjān̄̄ states in no uncertain terms the level on which this associating of meanings takes place. The arrangement of words necessarily follows a "trace in the mind'" ('aql). Nazm in al-Jurjānī’s view is a matter of meanings and is first and foremost an operation of the mind.

Al-Jurjān̄̄ in his book Dalā'il al-I'jāz offers only two choices as the stuff of thought, i.e., the two aspects of words that he has already established, meanings and vocables. "Reasonable" people that we are, we are left to select meanings, as opposed to the vocables that express them. Therefore, concludes al-Jurjānī, it is in the meanings that our crafting and shaping and molding occurs. ${ }^{458}$ It is important to understand the significance of al-Jurjān̄̄’s treatment of the meanings of words. As 'nodes of meanings'" they refer at

[^112]once to particular linguistic entities - signs - and to the intellectual representation', that is associated with them and the objects to which they refer. "Meanings"' as treated by al-Jurjānī bridge two levels of reality, and in that sense, words refer first to a noetic representation that occurs in the mind of the manipulator. Even modern linguistics seems to find it necessary to assert this view of language. As recently as 1936, Benjamin Lee Whorf, a writer of immense influence on modern language studies, felt it necessary to emphasize the same point which al-Jurjānī had so eloquently and persistently emphasized. Whorf says: "Sense or meaning does not result from words or morphemes but from patterned relations between words or morphemes". ${ }^{459}$ The same point is often made with equal emphasis in contemporary language studies and is of fundamental importance in modern theories of literary criticism.

Let us take a close look at the concept of naẓm as al-Jurjānī develops it by juxtaposing several key statements in which he defines nazm.
لا نظم في الكلم، و لا ترتيب حتى بعلّق بعضها ببعض، و يبنى بعضها على بعض، و تجعل هذه بسبب من تلك....460.

Word order or sequence (nazm) is only achieved when there is an interrelated relationship among words where they are related to each other and depend on each other until they are structured and tied up together.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { التعليق فيها و البناء، و جعل الو احدة منها بسبب من صـاحبتها.... لا محصول لها غبر أن تعدد إلى اسم فتجعله فاعلا } \\
& \text { لفعل أو مفعو لا، أو تعدد إلى اسمين فتجعل أحدهما خبر آ، عن الآخر أو..461، }
\end{aligned}
$$

Connecting, linking ( $t$ ' ${ }^{\prime} \bar{l} q$ ) or constructing words is meaningless if you do not take a noun and make it the subject or the object of a verb, or take two nouns and you make one the predicate of the other...
ليس ( النظم) إلا تضع كلامك الوضع الذي يقتضبيه علم النحو و تعمل على قوانينه و أصوله....462،

[^113]nazm is simply composing your speech in a way that the science of grammar requires, functioning according to its laws and principles.

Al-Jurjānī has here added another element to the equation. On the one hand, he says, nazm is the arranging in the mind of the meanings of the words, it is the connection or associating that take place among the meanings of the words. He also stipulates that nazm comes down to the connecting of words by means of the various features of grammar (ma'ān̄̄al-naḥw). It is 'nothing other than'" this. In other words, for al-Jurjān̄̄, the mental process of associating words in meaning corresponds to the connection that works on the manifest linguistic level. The nature of the connection between the meanings of the words is reflected in that of the grammatical ma'n $\bar{a}$. This corresponds to his view of individual meanings: the only difference is that the ma $\bar{a} n \bar{l} a l-n a h ̣ w$ refer to the ligatures between them.

In this way, al-Jurjān̄̄ elevates grammar to a very high position indeed. Since the devices of grammar that connect words in expression reflect the nature of their connection in the mind of the composer, it is as if grammar is a blueprint for the thinking of the originator of discourse. Since connection is the essence of nazm, and nazm, in return, is the essence of faṣāha, al-Jurjānī has thus allotted grammar a pre-eminent place in the discussion of excellence in discourse.

This concept of connecting is central to al-Jurjān̄̄’s view of meaning. Indeed to him, meaning resides not in individual vocabulary words, but in this configuration of associations and connections, which is nazm.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { واعلم أني لست أقول: إن الفكر لا بتعلق بمعاني الكلم المفردة أصلا، و لكني أقول: إنه لا يتعلق بها مجردة من } \\
& \text { معاني النحو، ومنطوفًا بها على وجه لا يتأتى معه تقدير معاني النحو و توخّيها فيها } 463
\end{aligned}
$$

Get to know that I am not saying that thought is not, in the first place, related to the individual meanings of words, rather it is not related to them in isolation of the features

[^114]of syntax, such as it is spoken in a way that does not presuppose syntax and the operation of its (different) features among (the words).

It is of no small significance that for al-Jurjānī the essence of nazm, and indeed of linguistic expression, comes down to this key notion of connection. Al-Jurjānī clearly wishes to distinguish between ordinary speech-straightforward discourse involving no exercise of originality in putting its elements together - on the one hand, and discourse that involves some deliberately performed artistry and selection, on the other.

The ma' $\bar{a} n \bar{l}$ al-nahw, the features of grammar that are the mechanisms of connecting words in discourse are viewed from two points of view by al-Jurjān̄̄. On the one hand, there is the straightforward implementation of the laws of grammar, which guarantee nothing more than correctness. On this level of expression, the ma' $\bar{a} n \bar{\imath}$ al-nahw are merely the grammatical features that form the hinges between the words of the composition. As such, they cannot, in and of themselves, result in the kind of discourse al-Jurjānī is interested in in his discussion of excellence. It is the original manipulation of the syntactic possibilities and the deliberate exercise of artistry in the service of creating a particular form that engenders superior discourse in our rhetorician's view. ${ }^{464}$

In the discussions among literary critics the general trend seems to have been to regard the ma' $\bar{a} n \bar{\imath}$ as the ideas of the topics of a poem or a literary text. Al-Jurjānī decidedly rejected this attitude towards literary criticism. In his view the concentration on the expression of the text, whether it was a literary work or the Qur'ān itself, was the main reason for what he calls 'the corruption of taste and language', In his view ma'na was what determined the quality of the style, and it would be absurd to attribute qualities of eloquence to the expression as such:

$$
\text { و اعلم أنك كلما نظرت وجدت سبب الفساد واحدأ، و هو ظنهم الذي ظنوه في اللفظ، } 465
$$

[^115]"Know that whenever you contemplate, you would find that there is only one reason for the corruption of language, namely, their way of understanding the expression".

Al-Jurjānī then explains that eloquence does not reside in the correct application of grammatical rules or the avoidance of solecisms; these are only necessary, not sufficient conditions for the quality of a text; he then concludes. ${ }^{466}$
"When we look at declension we find that it cannot possibly play a role in the assignment of superior quality, since it is inconceivable that the nominative or the accusative in one utterance could have an advantage over that in another utterance. What we can imagine is that we have two utterances in which mistakes against the rules of declension are made; in such a case one may be more correct than the other. Alternatively, we may have two utterances, one of which continues to be correct, whereas the other does not. But this does not constitute a different degree of superiority [in the expression], but quite simply negligence [of the speakers] in one instance and correct use of the declension in the other". 467

The originality of al-Jurjānī as a rhetorician is that he linked his view on meaning as the determining factor in the quality of a text to the linguistic dimension by considering it not in isolation but always as it is realized within a coherent text. Composition or cohesion (nazm) is the key notion of both the Dalā'il and the Asrār, and in both works he attempted to define this principle in linguistic terms. His main point was that it was not enough simply to say that the Qur'ān was inimitable because of its style or composition, but all particular aspects of this style had to be pointed out.

For this programme the discipline of grammar had to be reformed first: instead of the usual emphasis on the formal properties of syntactic constructions grammarians had to shift their attention to the true source of excellence and eloquence, which was the meaning of the text. In order to look at language from this perspective it was necessary to go beyond the level of the individual word. Words cannot be eloquent in themselves, but

[^116]they need a context. Only when the context is properly ordered (nazm) can there be eloquence and superiority of style. In this context proper ordering refers to a correspondence between the meanings in the mind and the words in the sentence.

Eloquence, al-Jurjānī states, is a craft in which one enlists the help of thought (yasta'ānu 'alayh $\bar{a}$ bi al-fikra"). This suggests a conscious process at least in 'this composition (nazm) that the rhetoricians describe among themselves." Likewise, the speaker's thinking about meanings is a link/ connector to his shaping discourse out of them. It is not one and the same activity. ${ }^{468}$

### 4.4.2 Al-Jurjānī’s New Semantic Approach to Linguistics

In his analysis of style al-Jurjānī does not hesitate to criticise Sībawayh for his almost exclusive concentration on syntactic criteria ${ }^{469}$. Sībawayh already knew that there was a semantic difference between the sentence ḍarabtu zaydan and zaydun ḍarabtuhu.

The point is that this semantic difference was of no great interest to him: he regarded it as self-evident and as something the native speaker would immediately recognize. For him the difference in word order was a sign of the 'ināya and ihtimām 'interest and concern' of the speaker, who indicate with the position of the constituents in the sentence their relative interest in the mind of the speaker. For the grammarian the important thing was to analyse the formal differences that made this semantic difference possible.

When there are two syntactic variants of the construction Sībawayh attempts to explain the difference in case endings, but does not show any interest in the difference in semantics. On the other hand, when for instance a particle does not affect the case

[^117]See Dalā'il al-i $\mathfrak{j} \bar{a} z$, pp. 83-85.
endings of the other words in the sentence, such a particle is not deemed worthy of any detailed treatment, for instance, the particle innam $\bar{a}$ 'but, only', which has a complicated semantic scope but does not exercise any governance on the other constituents of the sentence. Another example is that of the conjunctions $w a$ - and $f a$-, which are both coordinating conjunctions, but with subtle differences in the degree of connectivity between the clauses they join. In the work of al-Jurjānī such topics are of prime importance and he devotes a long passage to the various functions of innam $\bar{a}$. Wherever there is a formal difference between two constructions, al-Jurjān̄’s main premise is that it always entails a difference in meaning. He explicitly distances himself from' the grammarians' -including Sïbawayh- who have neglected this aspect of language use. As an example we may quote here the case of the two variants of the predicative construction:

## Inna zaydan la-yaf 'alu / inna zaydan la-fā 'ilun

' Zayd really does' / Zayd is really doing'

In this construction the first variant uses the imperfect verb, the second the active participle to express the notion of predication. Sībawayh regards them as synonymous and use this synonymy as one of the arguments for the right of the imperfect verb to receive declensional endings: both the imperfect and the (nominal) participle perform the same function. Al-jurjān̄̄ on the other hand, maintains that there is a large semantic difference between the two sentences: the verb always express movement, whereas the nominal form of the participle expresses a state:

The next division [in the nuances of the predicate] is that between an assertion in the form of a noun and that in the form of a verb. This is a subtle distinction, which is indispensable in the science of rhetoric. The explanation is that the semantic role of the noun is to assert a meaning about something without implying its constant renewal, whereas the verb's semantic role is to imply the constant renewal of the meaning that is asserted of something. When you say zaydun muntaliqun 'Zayd is leaving', you assert his actual departure without making this departing something he constantly renews and produces. Its meaning is just like in the expression zaydun tawill 'Zayd is large' and 'amrun qașirun 'Amr is short', you do not make length and shortness of stature
something that is renewed and produced, but just assert these properties and imply their existence in general; in the same way you do not intend in the expression zaydun muntaliqun 'Zayd is leaving' anything more than that this is asserted of Zayd. ${ }^{470}$ Another example, as already mentioned above, is that of word order. According to Sïbawayh, in a nominal sentence, composed of a definite word and in a nominal sentence, composed of a definite and indefinite word, the definite word becomes the topic (mubtada') and the indefinite word the predicate (khabar), as in

## Zaydun muntaliqun

## Mubtada khabar

'Zayd is leaving' ${ }^{471}$
But when there are two definite words he asserts that it is up to the speaker to front the one or the other, so that
al-muntaliqu zaydun / zaydun al- muntaliqu
'the one who leaves is Zayd'/ Zayd is the one who leaves'
are identical in status. Here again al-Jurjānī believes that the grammarians have not understood and analysed actual usage, because both sentences have a different intentional meaning. In the quotation given above, the position of the object is discussed by him in the same way: the sentence with the word order Verb-Object-Agent expresses a different intention from the one with the word order Verb-Agent-Object.

We know that the most fundamental distinction in Arabic syntax is that between two sentence types: nominal sentences and verbal sentences. The nominal sentence has a verb and an agent. In Sïbawayh's kitāb this distinction was introduced on the basis of the difference in syntactic behaviour between the two types: in zaydun daraba 'Zayd, he hit' and ḍaraba zaydun 'Zayd hit' only the former exhibits agreement between the noun and the verb (the plural sentences are al-zaydūna ḍarabū / ḍaraba al-zaydūna). This is why

[^118]the word zayd in the first sentence is regarded as topic (mubtada'), whereas the word zayd in the second sentence is analysed as the agent ( $f \bar{a} ' i l$ ) of the sentence.

In al-Jurjānı̄'s analysis the role of the mubtada' the topic of the sentence, is analysed in much greater detail. The speaker uses the noun in fronted position because he wishes to draw attention to it as the focus of the sentence. The syntactic consequences of this position are just the mark of this difference, not the focus of the grammatical analysis. ${ }^{472}$

### 4.5 Al-Jurjānī’s Influence on Other Grammarians

Al- Jurjān̄̄'s plea for the inclusion of semantics in linguistics was taken up by later writers who aimed at a new systemization of the sciences. His theory was quickly recognised by his immediate successors due to its importance and uniqueness, although we have no evidence as to the impact of his theory on literary studies in his own time. It was not long before his superior and profound analysis began to be summarized and commented upon in works on the art of eloquence and rhetoric generally. The theory became the firm basis for what come to be known as 'the science of meanings'" ('ilm al$m a ' \bar{a} n \bar{l})$, which continues to be studied as an independent branch of rhetoric to the present day.

Kamal Abu Deeb, a well known scholar of Arabic literature, writes 'It is equally significant that two of the most influential and fruitful movements in literary criticism found in al-Jurjānı̄’s work, to varying degrees, principles and ideas of great relevance to modern approaches to literary creation. Although never admitting this, al-Māzinı̄’s concept of construction, the role of words in literary composition, and the psychological basis for the arrangement of meanings and words - on which he based his criticism of al-Manfalūṭ̂̄'s style was borrowed from al-Jurjānī’, ${ }^{473}$
${ }^{472}$ Dalā'il al-I'jāz, p. 83-85.
${ }^{473}$ Kamāl Abū Deeb. al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery, Warminster: Aris and Phillips, c1979, p. 01

Modern writers, however, quickly recognised the revolutionary and 'modern' character of al-Jurjānı̄’s work, and attempted to revive the techniques and the spirit of his analysis. Writing in 1930s, Muḥammad Mandūr, the influential Egyptian critic, hailed al-Jurjānı̄’s theory as a 'precious treasure' seeing it to be 'identical with the most recent development in linguistics'. Mandūr himself acknowledged that his study of al-Jurjānı̄’s theory constituted the first mature attempt to analyse the latter's ideas in the light of modern critical systems. Following in Mandūr's steps, Z. al-‘Ashmāw̄̄ has made valid comparisons between some of his (al-Jurjānı̄’s) views and those of such influential modern critics as I. A. Richards, and T. S. Eliot. Al-‘Ashmāwī demonstrates that Richards' remarks are at times almost literal repetitions of al-Jurjānı̄'s. ${ }^{474}$

The next great figure to emerge in the new field of the semantico-grammatical study of texts was the great master Mu'tazilī scholar al-Zamakhsharī (d. 539/1143). His bulky commentary on the Qur'ān, entitled 'The Explorer' (al-Kashshāf), which may rightfully be considered as one of the most representative intellectual achievements in Islamic scholarship, may be thought of as a practical application of the approach laid down by alJurjān̄̄. His dictionary, called 'The Secrets of Rhetoric' (Asrār al-balāgha), should also be mentioned, at least for a feature which remained unique in the technical literature on the subject: for each entry, the author distinguished between proper and metaphorical uses. This was, of course, consonant with the Mu'tazilī dogma stipulating that such a distinction is essential to the true faith, which refuses to assign human attributes to God and hence interprets as metaphorical phrases which could suggest that.

About a century after al-Zamakhsharī, another renowned figure al-Sakkāk̄̄ (d. 1229), appeared who wrote Miftāh al- 'Ulūm 'the Key of the Sciences' in which he introduced the term 'ilm al-adab as the name for a new science, which was to embrace all sciences that in one way or another dealt with language. The word $a d a b$ in Arabic culture indicated the communication of qualities that an intellectual needed to possess in order to be able to function as an intellectual ( $a d \bar{\imath} b)$. In modern Arabic the word has come to be used as an equivalent for the Western concept of 'literature', but in classical Arabic

[^119]culture it was a much more wide ranging concept that included among other things knowledge of poetry, knowledge of the history of the Arabs, the ability to talk eloquently, correctly and to use a refined vocabulary, the ability to participate in witty conversation, and in general the good manners that were expected from an intellectual.

In al-Sakkākīs classification of the sciences $a d a b$ was the term chosen to indicate the new science, the 'ilm al-adab, which was to include the following sub-sections: morphology ('ilm al-sarf); syntax ('ilm al-nahw); and the two sciences of meaning ('ilm al-ma ${ }^{\prime} \bar{a} n \bar{l}$ ) and clarity ('ilm al-bayān). The first two sciences are the traditional domain of linguistics as they had been established by Sïbawayh. The innovation is constituted by the third sections, that about meanings and clarity. In his introduction to this third section alSakkākī explains the purpose of these two sciences as follow:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { أعلم أن علم المعاني هو تتبع خو اص تر اكيب الكلام في الإفادة وما يتصل بها من الاستحسان و غيره ليحترز بالوقوف } \\
& \text { عليها عن الخطأ في تطبيق الكلام على ما يقتضى الحال. } 475
\end{aligned}
$$

Know that the science of meanings is the study of the features of the constructions of the language in giving information, and the connected problem of approving and disapproving these, in order to avoid mistakes in the application of speech to what the situation necessitates.

Then he gives examples of the kind of constructions that are studied by the science of the meanings. When you hear someone say inna zaydan muntaliqun 'indeed, Zayd is leaving' you know that the speaker wishes to deny any doubt or reject any denial about the fact that Zayd is leaving. On the other hand, when he says zaydun muntaliqun 'Zayd is leaving' he just wishes to make an assertion about Zayd's departure. In other words, the kinds of meaning that are studied in this science are connected with the way the intention of the speaker is translated in his choice of construction, the pragmatic function of language and the situational context being the important factors dictating the choice of construction. The 'ilm al-bayān is the companion science of the science of meanings. It is defined by al-Sakkākī as follows:

[^120]```
و أما علم البيان فهو معرفة أيراد المعنى الواحد في طرق مختلفة بالزيادة في وضوح الدلالة عليه و بالنقصـان ليحترز
    بالوقوف على ذلك من الخطأ في مطابقة الكلام لتمام المر اد منه و فيما ذكرنا ما ينبه على أن الو اقف على تمام مر اد
الحكيم تعالى و تقسس من كلامه مفتقر على هذين العلمين كل الافتقار فالويل كل الويل لمن تعاطي التفسبر و هو فيهما راجل. 476
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It is known how to express a meaning in different ways, by referring to it more or less clearly, in order to avoid mistakes in applying speech to the full expression of what one wishes to say. We previously mentioned that in order to interpret the full intention of the words of God Almighty one strongly needs these two sciences. Woe to whoever deals with exegesis without having a good command in these two sciences

The science of bayān is the finishing touch to the conveying of information and cannot be separated from the science of meaning. Later writers on grammar could never avoid completely the new trend that had been initiated by al-Jurjān̄̄. Among the works of Ibn Hishām (d. 1360), for instance, who wrote a number of conventional treatises of grammar and a commentary on the Alfiyya of Ibn Mālik and mughnī al-labīb 'an kutub al-'a 'ārīb 'The treatise that makes the books of the true Bedouin redundant for intelligent people'. Ibn Hishām presents a picture of a completely changed discipline of linguistics. In the introduction to the Mughnī he tells the reader that after having studied many books on declension he found that they all had in common one thing: their immoderate length. In his view this was caused by three things: they tended to repeat themselves unnecessarily, they included topics that had nothing to do with declension, and they belaboured the obvious. ${ }^{477}$ It is certainly true that his own treatment of declension in Arabic and of the functions/ meanings of the particles is strikingly original in its inclusion of the kind of semantic issues that had been discussed by writers such as al-Jurjānī and al-Sakkākī.

[^121]The introduction or reintroduction of semantic elements in discussions on language corresponded to a deeply felt need to liberate grammar from the straitjacket of technicality. In this sense the ideas of al-Jurjān̄̄ were just one expression of a feeling of dissatisfaction with the way linguistics was developing that was expressed also by Ibn Maḍā', who complained about useless morphological exercises and theoretical discussions that had nothing to do with the living language. ${ }^{478}$ Another way of expressing this is Ibn Khaldūn's complaint about the lack of interest in literature he found in many grammatical writers. ${ }^{479}$ In the beginning grammar had been a combination of expertise about poetry, and a grammarian was an $a d \bar{z} b$, an intellectual and cultured person who could be expected at the caliphal court to entertain people with his cultured conversation.

The Umayyad court considered good speech a mark of nobility, and insisted on correct Arabic at the court and in other high places. Knowledge of good Arabic and Arabic grammar was even considered one of the criteria for succession to rule. ${ }^{480}$

This trend even continued in the 'Abbasid period as well where the grammarians had a special position in the caliphal court. Like al-Kisā’’̄, Abū Muḥammad al-Yazīd served the 'Abbasid court for several generations. Al-Farrā', like his master al-Kisā'1̄, also held an official position at the 'Abbasid court. But in later centuries grammar had become the dry discipline of schoolmasters. Ibn Khaldūn compares the Kitāb Sībawayh, which does not restrict itself to grammatical rules but is filled with quotations from the poetry and the proverbs of the pre-Islamic Arab tribes, with the writings of later grammarians, who are interested only in formulating rules.

[^122]
### 4.6 Al-Jurjānı̄’s Status among the Grammarians and Rhetoricians

The importance of al-Jurjān̄̄'s work was recognised by the most prominent figures in the early stages of the revivalist movement. It was a tribute to al-Jurjānī that Muḥammad 'Abduh, whose ambition was to generate a new spirit in Arabic culture, saw in his work the part of the critical tradition most worthy of reviving. Rashīd Riḍā has described the impact which al-Jurjān̄̄'s books had on 'Abduh's students at al-Azhar and compared their 'fertility' and literary merits to the 'barren' and useless books on balāgha which were prevalent in Arab educational institutions. ${ }^{481}$ A few decades later, when Arab grammarians began to examine the principles of Arabic grammar, seeking to revive it, it was al-Jurjānī's work that they concentrated on, as offering the most valuable approach to linguistic studies. Basing his analysis on the work Ibrāhīm Mustafā declared that to bring about the revival of grammar, 'it was high time that 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī's approach was revived and became the approach of grammatical research and analysis'. ${ }^{482}$

There is no doubt that, in al-Jurjānı̄'s opinion, following the rules of grammar is very necessary. This is one of the reasons for al-Jurjānī to introduce in Balāgha the theory of Nazm al-Kalām. Indeed he towers above others in Balāgha but he is no less prominent in grammar among the Arabic grammarians such as Ibn Sarrāj and al-Zajjājī. al-Jurjānı̄’s contribution stands equal to Ibn Sarrāj and al-Zajjājī’s . The task that Ibn Sarrāj and alZajjājī accomplished in writing al-Uṣūl fì al-Nahww and al-Jumal respectively, was equally established by al-Jurjānī in writing al-Jumal, al-Mi'a and al-Tatimma. AlJurjān̄̄’s division of 'awāmil, has stood the test of time without any challenge since then and has remained a part of curriculum among the religious madrasas.

Finally, it seems possible to suggest that al-Jurjānı̄'s relation to his background is the relation of any great writer to his background. The creative writer views tradition as a

[^123]living body of organically related ideas; he reads, comprehends, and assimilates these ideas into the stream of his individual literary or critical system. The creative writer must be, in T. S. Elliot's words, 'very conscious of the main current, which does not at all flow invariably through the most distinguished reputation,. ${ }^{483}$

Al-Jurjānī was precisely this: a creative genius to whom the tradition provided the living foundations on which, through a critical and selective process, the new system of criticism was to be built: new because it constituted a fresh perspective and provided a sensitive tool for the examination not only of works of art and poetic imagery, but the critical tradition itself. To use Elliot's words again, al-Jurjān̄̄ may be said to have lived "not merely in the present, but the present moment of the past ". And it is with this solid foundation that he proceeded to explore new horizons never, or only vaguely, hinted at before.

[^124]
## CHAPTER: 5

## Importance of Knowledge and Penmanship in the Medieval Period

### 5.1 The Importance of Knowledge in Islam

Islam has laid great stress upon education. The holy Qur'ān as revealed to the prophet Muhammad begins with the word iqra' meaning "Read". The foremost thing that was thus enjoined was 'reading'". In the same sūra 'al- 'Alaq'’ God says,

1. Read! In the name of your lord Who has created (all that exists). 2. He has created man from a clot. 3. Read! And your Lord is the most Generous. 4. Who has taught (the writing) by the pen. 5 . He has taught the man which he knew not." ${ }^{484}$

True and full understanding of Islam depends essentially on knowledge, without which God's commands can never be understood in their true sense. In sūrat 'al-'Ankabūt'" is mentioned, "As for these similitudes we put forward for mankind; but none will understand them except those who have knowledge (of Allāh and His signs)." ${ }^{\text {,485 }}$ In the same su$r a$, it is said, "Nay, but they, the clear proofs are preserved in the breasts of those who have been given knowledge and none but the wrongdoers deny our revelations., ${ }^{486}$ In sūrat Fātir, God has revealed: "The erudite among his bondmen fear Allāh alone. ${ }^{487}$
${ }^{484}$ Al-Qur'ān al-Karīm. Sūrat, al- 'Alaq, verses No. 1-5. For English Translation see, Noble Qur'ān, by Muḥammad Taqiī al-Dīn al-Hilālī and Muḥammad Muḥsin Khan. Riyadh: Maktabat Dār al-Salām, 1997.
${ }^{485}$ Al-Qur'ān al-Karīm. Sūrat, al- 'Ankabūt, verse No. 43. For English translation see Noble Qur'ān, by al-Hilālī and Khan.
${ }^{486}$ Al-Qur'ān al-Karīm. Sūrat, al- 'Ankabūt, verse No. 49. See Noble Qur'ān,
${ }^{487}$ Al-Qur'ān al-Karīm. Sūrat, al-Fātir, verse No. 28, see Abid.

In order to keep up difference between the learned and the ignorant, it is said in sūrat alZumar, 'Are those who know equal with those who know not?',488

In short, for a man to grasp the significance of Islam and to be God fearing, knowledge is very essential. Only the wrongdoers can deny God's revelations.

The holy prophet (peace be upon him) too, did his best to instil into the heart of the people the value of knowledge, and search for knowledge was made binding on every Muslim man and woman. ${ }^{489}$ The prophet said, "To listen to the instructions of science and learning for an hour is more meritorious than standing in prayers for whole night., ${ }^{490}$ He impressed upon his disciples the necessity of seeking knowledge even if one had to travel to distant lands like China. They were encouraged to give up their hearths and homes and seek knowledge in far-off places. Nor only the greatness of knowledge was impressed on the people, but the prestige and dignity of the scholars were enhanced. 'He who leaves his home in search of knowledge, walks in the path of God and he who travels in search of knowledge, to him God showers the way to paradise". ${ }^{491}$ In this way the words of the Prophet gave a new impulse to awake the energies of the believers. Even within his lifetime, was formed the nucleus of an educational institution, which in later years grew into universities at Baghdad and Salerno, at Cairo and Cordova. ${ }^{492}$

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### 5.2 The Aim of Muslim Education

The aim of Muslim education is to prepare a student for a purely moral and religious living, calculated to make him a sincere practical man, living not only for the sake of himself, but for humanity, and also for winning spiritual blessings and favours of God in the next life, beginning after death ${ }^{493}$. Hence the real basis of education in Islam was religion. ${ }^{494}$ The teachers were sincere devotees of faith. They regarded it as their sacred duty to instill the spirit of pious living, God fearing and fellow-feeling among their pupils. The subjects taught were mainly based upon religion. Later on, however, when Greek learning was introduced among the Muslims and they grew fond of Greek philosophy, the syllabus of Islamic schools was widened by the inclusion of philosophy, logic and other branches of rational learning.

Education was divided into two grades; primary and secondary or high. Elementary schools in the early period of Islam were opened in a portion of mosques. The education of a Muslim child began at home at the age of 4 years and 4 months, when he was initiated to the study of the holy Qur'ān. When a boy was at least 10 years old and had completed the elementary school course, he was eligible to spend three additional years studying supplementary subjects. These included some vocabulary and penmanship, grammar, rhetoric and literature, as well as the history of the period in which the prophet lived. ${ }^{495}$

During the middle ages there were three types of classes. In the first place, there were lectures attended by large groups of students. As a rule the teacher sat on the low chair, leaning against a column and facing Mecca, while he dictated to the students with the

[^126]help of his assistants. The second type of class was a circle, which was small enough to allow the teacher to explain his subject in an intimate way and to encourage lively discussion, while the students took down notes and asked questions. The third type of instruction may be described as discipleship. A boy lived with a scholar long enough to acquire most of his master's learning. A student might spend most of his life with one scholar, sometimes even marrying his daughter and becoming his successor. Usually a student did not devote himself to more than one subject at a time, but al-Nawawī, who died in 1278, attended twelve classes. ${ }^{496}$

### 5.2.1 Curriculum

The ideology of Islam is based upon the teachings of the holy Qur'ān, which prescribes a definite set of principles and regulations governing every aspect of human life, both individual and collective.

A casual study of the curriculum adopted by Muslim educationists in Islamic countries in medieval times shows that it was drawn up with great care and breadth of view in order to prepare youths to take the world as it was, and to lead the nation to various stages of educational advancement. Unfortunately, definite and authentic information concerning curricula adopted by Muslims in different countries and at different times has not been preserved, but there are occasional mentions in various books which can help a student of the Islamic educational system giving a fair idea of the principles on which education in India was especially concerned. ${ }^{497}$ The curriculum can be divided into three categoriesone followed in the Afghan period and the second in the time of the Mugals. A third curriculum was drawn up in the period of the East India Company and the British rule. The first period begins with the twelfth century and ends with the sixteenth. We will restrict ourselves to this period because this was a medieval period and al-Mutarrizī's al-

[^127]Miṣbāh was part of the syllabus. During the first period, the following books were included in the curriculum of the Dars-i Nizāmī. ${ }^{498}$

Syntax: al-Miṣbāh; Kāfǐyya; Lubb al-Albāb, by Qāḍī Nāṣir al-Dīn al-Bayḍāwī, later, the Irshād by Shahāb al-Dīn Dulatābādī was added.

Literature: Maqāmāt al-Harīrī; an intensive study of the book was compulsory.
Logic: Sharh Shamsiyya: by Najm al-Dīn al-Kātibī al-Qazwīnī.
Islamic Law: Hidāya, by al-Marghīnānī
Principles of Islamic Law: Manār al-Anwār: by 'Abd al-Laṭīf ibn al-Mālik and its commentaries and Uṣūl al-Bayḍāwī.

Commentary on the Qur'ān, Tafsīr: Madārik, Kashshāf and Bayḍāwī.
Apostolic Tradition, Hadīth: Mashāriq al-Anwār, by Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan alṢan‘ānī, Maṣābīḥ al-Sunna, by Mas‘ūd ibn Muḥammad al-Farrā’ al-Baghawī and text of Mishkāt al-Maṣābīh h,

Taṣawwuf: (Mysticism) 'Awārif by Shaykh Shihāb al-Dīn Suharwardī, Fuṣūṣ al-Ḥikam, by Ibn al-‘Arabī and a little later, Naqd al-Nuṣūṣ and Lama' āt by Fakhr al-Dīn 'Irāqī. 499

[^128]This curriculum continued without any amendment for nearly two centuries. The second period of the curriculum starts with the arrival of Farḥat Allāh Shīrāzī (d. 1588) to India on the invitation of 'Ādil Shāh, king of Bījaypūr. Farḥat Allāh Shīrāzī revised the curriculum and made some additions to the course. These changes were approved by the scholars of those days. The chief feature of the new curriculum was that a further impetus was given to the introduction of rational learning by adding books on philosophy, logic and scholasticism. The syllabus introduced in the Indian subcontinent, was in conformity with the methods adopted in the beginning of Islam and carried by the Muslims to every part of Asia, Arabia and some regains of Europe, where it produced marvellous intellectuals. It cannot, therefore, be denied that it was a revolutionary and progressive system which prepared generations after generations of educated peoples fully equipped for meeting new demands and facing new problems wherever the Muslims planted their rule.

### 5.2.2 Aims and objects of the curriculum

The real aim of this curriculum was:

Firstly: to develop among the students the power of 'think and ponder' rather than to stuff the mind with information. Consequently, emphasis was laid on subjects which cultivated thinking power and ability to judge. It was to achieve this aim that more books than one on logic, philosophy and scholastics were included in the curriculum and the books in themselves were such that helped to achieve the purpose.

Secondly, to overcome difficulty in grasping the thoughts; of others, while it is important for the students to think over a problem by self effort, it is no less important to fully comprehend the thoughts spoken or written by others. The foremost feature of the curriculum which the Mullā Nizāam al-Dīn (d. 1161/1748) ${ }^{500}$ had in view was to cultivate

[^129]and develop the student's power of understanding in order to enable him to comprehend books of every branch of learning and art by self-study, on completing the course. No one can deny the fact that a full mastery over the books of Dars i-Nizāmiyya, leaves no work of Arabic beyond the mental grasp of the student goal not attainable through the older curriculum. Due attention was paid to make the course as brief as possible. Only one or two books on every branch of science were included and that too in an abridged form. ${ }^{501}$ In connection with this medieval education there are five points to bear in mind Firstly, education was institutionalized. Secondly, there was apt to be an intimate relationship between the teacher and his students, which was one of the best features of Muslim education. Thirdly, the memory was all important. The mature student memorized the notes which his teacher dictated to him, just as the child learned the Qur'ān. Fourthly, the medieval education did not produce originality. Most of the scholars commented on what they learned from their masters, without trying to add new ideas of their own. AlRummān̄̄, for instance, wrote ten books about the works of other authors, and eight books about pedantic questions, which did not require original ideas. ${ }^{502}$ Finally, the Muslim empire was so vast that scholarship was exceedingly cosmopolitan. ${ }^{503}$

### 5.3 The Role of Muslim Rulers in Spreading the Knowledge

Having illumined Arabs with the light of Islam and having made the wild Arabs truly civilized, the Muslims turned their attention to other countries to help the people tread the path of humaneness. For the achievement of this aim they carried in one hand the flag of Islam, while in the other, they held the torch of knowledge and arts. They sheathed their sword soon after a victory, and used their pen to promote knowledge and science. They changed the social and literary atmosphere of the country they set their foot on, such as

[^130]Hijāz, Persia, Egypt, Tripoli, Morocco, Andulus, Turkistan, Algeria and Indiạ. They spread the light of civilization to Shīrāz, Damascus, Baghdad, Nīshāpūr, Cairo and Granada, that became cradles of knowledge and literature. In spite of the fact that in the (3-4/9-10) centuries the political downfall of Muslims had begun and the power of caliphs was gradually dwindling, knowledge and arts were at their zenith. ${ }^{504}$ Neither the attacks of Tātārs nor the Crusades of the Western powers could dim the torch of knowledge, which the followers of Islam had lit.

It was not until the early part of the ninth century that higher education received official sponsorship with the establishment of the House of Wisdom (Bayt al-Hikma) by the caliph Ma'mūn (d. 830). ${ }^{505}$ Similarly, education centers were established in the tenth century: al-Azhar in Cairo and the University of Cordova in Spain. Al-Azhar has continued up to the present day to play an important role in Muslim education. Students from all sectors of the Muslim world have sought their education there. Subsequently, numerous colleges were established in major cities, thanks to the initiative of the able Seljuk vizier Niẓām al-Mulk, founder of the Niẓāmiyya college in Baghdad. ${ }^{506}$

In the days of political decline (early $18^{\text {th }}$ century), Max Muller puts the number of schools in Bengal at 80,000 while Adams's report puts the figure at 100,000 . These figures may give us an estimate of educational progress under Muslim rule. It can be claimed on the basis of these facts that India did not lag behind any other advanced country of the time. ${ }^{507}$

The main task of the government was to give financial aid and to administer the other needs of the teachers and the taught. The teachers, however, were quite free to manage their institutions, frame courses and syllabuses, and decide the aim, nature and method of their teaching. The officials of the government did not interfere in these matters at all.

[^131]These institutions taught a specially prescribed course, which was not too rigid. ${ }^{508}$ It is significant that Arab Muslim scholars travelled far and wide in search of knowledge. In this way they came into contact with their colleagues in other major centres of learning. ${ }^{509}$ The recurrent political vicissitudes did not seem to be a major obstacle to such travels. Thus, scholars from Cordova and Seville in Spain, from Qayrawān and Tripoli in North Africa, from Egypt, and from the farthest corner of the Muslim dominion in the east, converged in Basra and Kūfa and, later on in Baghdad. Although Baghdad remained the major intellectual and spiritual centre until its destruction in 1258 by the Mongol hordes, other important centers of learning had emerged in the capitals of various semi-independent or independent dynasties. There were Bukhārā, Jurjān, and Ghazna, in the East, Aleppo in Syria, Cairo in Egypt, and Cordova, Toledo and Seville in Spain. In those centers number of prominent scholars of Islam received encouragement and generous support from rulers who prided themselves on supporting Arabic culture. Thus, in spite of the political problems over the countries, the Islamic community remained, on the whole, united in religion, language, and culture. ${ }^{510}$

The seekers of knowledge did not have to wander about in order to satisfy their yearning for knowledge. According to the author of History of the Muslim Education, Khān Ḥamīd al-Dīn, ''Salaries were fixed for teachers in every town and city; 'ulamā' were granted fiefs and stipends and sufficient funds were provided to meet the expenditure on the up-keep of the students", ${ }^{511}$

### 5.4 Libraries

In the Middle Ages, private and public libraries became the hallmark of culture and an indispensable means for its promotion and dissemination. Because of the shortage of books, the high government officials established great libraries, while the schools and

[^132]mosques made more modest collections of books and written documents. Some of the largest libraries were in Bayt al-Hikma at Baghdad, the royal palace, Mosque of al-Azhar and Dār al-Hikma in Fātimid Cairo, the great mosque of Fās in Morocco and the intellectual centers of Spain. ${ }^{512}$

Only a few of the individual scholars were rich enough to procure private libraries of importance. There were, however, a number who enjoyed government patronage and opportunities to collect books. Thus it is related that, after his death al-Wāqidī left six hundred cases of books, each case a load for two men. He had two young men slaves who wrote for him night and day. There had also been sold to him books costing two thousand gold coins. ${ }^{513}$

Every educated person was expected to be conversant in both Arabic grammar and lexicography and to hold his own in any linguistic discussion. He was also supposed to know the best of poetry, prosody, belles-letters, history, and to be conversant in both the religious and cultural sciences.

If we take the Indian sub-continent as a case study, we see that it was a matter of pride for kings and nobles to possess a collection of books, and they preserved this collection meticulously. Such valuable book collections were not the sole monopoly of the royalty but other members of the royal household, the nobles of the court and the learned men of the time also had their own collections. They took great pains to secure for their collections the best and the most valuable books. These books were freely lent, and the borrower was allowed to make a copy of the manuscript for his own use, if he liked. Copies of the books in the royal library were made for distribution among the 'ulamā, ${ }^{514}$

[^133]
### 5.5 Status of the 'Ulamā' and Udabā' during the Medieval period

Islamic biographical literature is mainly a biographical literature of intellectuals. If a Caliph, or Sultan, or vizier, is given a place among the intellectuals it is because he had some claim to 'ilm, or religious knowledge, in a direct or indirect way. ${ }^{515}$ On the other hand, men in power needed the support of the Muslim masses, and there was no better way to it than through the 'ulam $\bar{a}$ '. Instituting colleges, or mosque colleges, monasteries and institutions of learning with large salaries for the professors and scholarship for a number of select students, was one way to attract the loyalty of the' ulam $\vec{a}$ '. The 'ulam $\bar{a}$ 's first loyalty was to God and His prophet's religion. ${ }^{516}$

Maḥmūd of Ghazna, besides being a great conqueror, capable commander, and man of soldierly deportment, was also a great lover of knowledge, arts learning and literature. During his reign so many scholars and men of learning were attracted to Ghazna from far-off places, and were offered positions according to their accomplishments, in his court. Among 400 poets in his court, the most celebrated were Ḥakīm Ansārī, Razī, Ustadh Rashīdī, Țūsī, Manuchrī of Balkh, Asjadī (d. 432/1040), Farrukhī (d. 429/1037), and Daqīq̄̄ (d. 995). 'Unṣurī (d. 431/1039), occupied the high position of his poetlaureate. ${ }^{517}$ It was on his initiative that Firdawsī (d. 431-1039) composed a part of his word-fame epic, Shāh nāma. Al-Bayrūnī, celebrated historian, and 'Allāma Hamdānī lived at his court. Forty thousand dīnārs were spent annually on their maintenance. ${ }^{518}$ It was a traditional practice of Muslim kings and rulers to construct a school building within, or attached to a mosque. The school provided both religious and secular education.

[^134]It is not surprising that the cultural life of Medieval Islam depended to a great extent upon government support. Some of the scholars earned enough to live on by teaching ${ }^{519}$, copying manuscripts and taking part in commercial enterprises. A large number, however, enjoyed government aid in one form or another. They served as judicial authorities, court companions, palace tutors and the secretaries of official bureaus. AlKisā’ī, for example, was tutor to the sons of Hārūn al-Rashīd, and Abū al-‘Amaythāl taught the children of 'Abd Allāh ibn Ṭāhir, the viceroy in Khurāsān. ${ }^{520}$ The tenth century grammarian, al-Fārisī, was so handsomely cared for at courts, first for Sayf al-Dawla at Aleppo and later 'Aḍud al-Dawla in Shīrāz, that it made his life and work exceedingly brilliant. Famous medical authorities like Abū Bakr al-Rāz̄̄ and Ibn Sīnā were liberally supported by generous rulers ${ }^{521}$, because of their gift of healing. Many scholars were granted livings in research institutions like the Bayt al-Hikma in Baghdad and Dār alHikma in Cairo, supported by government grants. Other men of learning were given large contributions in payment for writing books for individual rulers. Thus Abū Ishạq al-Zajjāj wrote a commentary for the caliph al-Mu'taḍid, which won him an enviable position at court and an allowance of three hundred gold coins. ${ }^{522}$

During the eleventh century and the period which followed, the high government officials not only aided individual scholars, but also gave generous grants to support colleges, orphanages and mosques. These government endowments and assignments enabled a large number of scholars to teach, study and compose books. Not only the great sultans but also scores of less important officials established their charitable and educational institutes, making it possible for Muslim culture to flourish throughout the Middle

[^135]Ages. ${ }^{523}$ From the point of view of education, the most important of these philanthropies were the colleges and mosque-colleges.

The dominant attitudes of Muslim society favored the scholar as a normative pattern of human character and actively paid tribute to him. ${ }^{524}$ In the beginning, it would seem, the learned man was supposed to be practically omniscient and something of a wizard to boot. They were also greatly honoured because of their learning and impressive robes ${ }^{525}$, as well as their interest in training the youth.

The Muslim kings had no idea of exploiting education for political purposes. Moreover, they did not favor the idea of keeping education the proud privilege of a few classes of people. They were eager to make it universal and let all persons, high and low among their subjects, have its benefit. ${ }^{526}$ Hence they left it to be looked after by 'ulam $\bar{a}$ ' and
${ }^{523}$ In 381/991 the Buyid vizier Sābūr ibn Ardshīr founded and endowed an academy, Dār al-' $I l m$, in Baghdad; the library contained rather more than 10,000 books besides 100 copies of the Qur'ān written by Ibn Muqla. In addition to a librarian, the academy was put under the supervision of two prominent men; at one time the judge was one of them. Ibn Faḍdạl (479/1086), taught grammar there, Abū al-‘Alā al-Ma'rrī used it and mentioned in his books. See Ibn Jawzī, al-Muntazam, vol. 8, p. 22; Tritton, Materials on Muslim Education, pp. 99,100.
${ }^{524}$ Ibrāhīm al-Shīrāzī came to Fāris, men women and children came out, touched his sleeves, and took dust from his shoes to make medicine while shop keepers threw their goods at him, sweetmeats, fruits and clothes, even cobblers threw their goods which fell on the head of the crowd. al-Khaṭīb, Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 11, p. 73; Tritton, Materials on Muslim Education in The Middle Ages, p. 58.
${ }^{525}$ The Egyptian astronomer, 'Alī Yūnus, wound his turban around a high peaked cap, placing his head drapery over that. See Khallikān, Wafayāt, vol. 2, p. 365. The Fāṭimid scholar wore a qalansuwa, probably a sort of cap, and a $s a b n \bar{u}$, or girdle, with a black taylasān dabsī, or veil-like cape, over his head and shoulders. In the course of time it became the custom for the rulers to confer robes of honour on the scholars, especially when they paid their respects for Ramaḍān. For more detail see Dodge, Muslim Education in Medieval Times, p. 13.
${ }^{526}$ Anyone might build a college if he had the money and the earliest seem all to have been the work of private persons. The subject was law, a foundation for a grammarian. See Tritton, Materials on Muslim Education, p. 103, According to 'Azīz Aḥmad "Awrangzīb established a large number of schools and colleges; the foundations of the great religious seminary of Farangī Mahal at Laknaw were laid during his reign. Later in his reign, a school was inaugurated at Delhi by Shāh Walī Allāh's father 'Abd al-
philanthropists, of course, giving them every possible encouragement and guidance. Every Muslim government in India and other countries had a minister, who awarded Jāgīrs (free grants of land), and maintenance allowance out of awqāf property to teachers, and 'ulāma' to enable them to devote themselves fully to the pursuit of knowledge and spread of education. ${ }^{527}$

In the history of Indian sub-continent, the Mughal period (1526-1857) is known as the "Golden period" for many of its special characteristics. The period of about two centuries from Bābar to Aawrangzayb is, in fact, worthy of being recorded not only in the history of Indian sub-continent, but in the history of the world.
Amīr Taymūr, generally known as a conqueror, was a patron of letters, too. He had mastery over the Turkish and Persian languages. He enjoyed holding conversation with 'ulām $\bar{a}$ ' and venerated them, as evidenced by his treatment of Ḥāfiz and Khaldūn. Not only in time of peace but also in wars, he was always accompanied by 'ulama'. He took care to guarantee protection to every scholar, even those who opposed him. When he attacked Lonoi, he ordered his army not to destroy the houses of Sayyids (related to the prophet's family), Shaykhs (religious leaders) and the men of learning. His autobiography, Malfūz̧āt Taymūrī, is a living testimony of his love of learning and capacity of rule. He established a school at Samarqand and libraries at various places, for the promotion of learning. ${ }^{528}$

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### 5.6 Literary Development

No language can match the dignity of Arabic, the chosen vehicle of God's ultimate message. Arabic is distinguished by its unrevealed possibilities in the use of figurative speech. Its innuendoes, tropes, and figures of speech lift it far above any other human language. Perhaps the most important single factor in the rise of Arabic from a tribal dialect to an urban and international language was its codification, which not only fixed grammatical rules, but also motivated intensive linguistic studies.

All evidence indicates that Arabic philosophy was developed mainly in the cities of Kūfa and Basra. The important men appeared and flourished there and they became influential throughout the length and breadth of the Muslim world. Baghdad was definitely indebted to them as were the capitals of the various Islamic states, and many of their leading grammarians ${ }^{529}$, such as the gifted philologist Ibn Jinnī (d. 1002), who flourished in Aleppo; al-Jawharī (d. 10002) and Ibn Rashīq (d. 1030) of North Africa; al-Tabrīzī (d. 1109) of Persia; and Ibn Ājurrūm (d. 1030), who is known for his grammar al$\bar{A} j u r r u \overline{m i y y a}$ which, along with the Alfiyya of Ibn Mālik, became a classic and is still widely used throughout the Arab world. ${ }^{530}$

Arabic literature knew its golden age under the Abbasids in the ninth and tenth centuries, paradoxically at a time when the Muslim Empire was undergoing serious political dislocation. ${ }^{531}$ By then, the language had been codified and enriched through the medium of translation. No doubt the translation of numerous works into Arabic enriched the language as it became necessary to develop the technical terminology required to express the new thoughts, ideas, and concepts formed in the original works. The bulk of

[^137]translation into Arabic was from Greek, to a small extent from Middle Persian (Pahlavi) and Sanskrit. ${ }^{532}$

By the tenth century, the intellectual disciplines became so numerous and widely cultivated that the Muslim scholars, like the Greeks, saw a need for their classification. They divided them into two broad categories: (1) the Arabic sciences and (2) the foreign sciences.

The Arabic or native sciences -known also as the traditional or religious sciences (al'Ulūm al-Naqliyya aw al-Shar'iyya) are those which originated in the Arabic language. They generally include Qur'ānic studies, prophetic traditions, jurisprudence (fiqh), theology (kalām), grammar, morphology (ṣarf), lexicography, rhetoric (balāgha), bellesletters ( $a d a b$ ), and poetry. The foreign sciences, known as the intellectual or philosophical sciences (al-'Ulūm al-'aqliyya wa al-ḩikmiyya), are those introduced into Arabic through translation from foreign sources. These include astronomy, geography, music, medicine, alchemy, and other related disciplines. ${ }^{533}$ By the thirteenth century or in the middle ages, it appears that the attitude of the Muslim scholars about the sciences in general, and about the foreign sciences in particular, had undergone considerable changes which are attributable to their rather narrow intellectual horizon.

The diffusion of Arabic as a vehicle of learning had its basis in the need for education. It appears that education was open to anyone who sought it, regardless of his social station. At first, the Qur'ān, Arabic and Arabic philosophy, law, Prophetic Traditions, rhetoric, and theology constituted the core of the curriculum. These subjects were taught by accomplished persons some of whom became tutors of princes and heirs apparent at the caliphal court as well as at the courts of rules of petty states elsewhere in the Muslim countries. ${ }^{534}$

[^138]In the reign of the Almoravids (1056-1147), a dynasty founded by Yūsuf ibn Tāshfīn, intellectual life continued to flourish in spite of heavy restrictions on freedom of thought. This restrictive climate also prevailed under the next rulers, the Almohads (1147-1248), a dynasty founded by Muḥammad ibn Tumrat, who, with a great display of religiosity, proclaimed himself to be the Mahdī, or Masīh. Even under conditions such as these, great names in the intellectual world continued to appear during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. There were, among others, the philosophers Ibn Țufayl (d. 1185) Ibn Rushd (d. 1198), and Ibn Maymūn (d. 1204), whose influence was felt beyond Spain, especially in the rise and development of Christian scholasticism. There were also the great mystics like Ibn al 'Arabī (d. 1240) and Ibn al-Sab‘īn (d.1269), the anthologists like Ibn Khāqān (d. 1137), Ibn Bassām (d. 1147), and Ibn Bashkuwāl (d. 1183), the geographers like alIdrīsī (d. 1154) and Ibn Jubayr (d. 1217), the physicians like Ibn Zuhr (d. 1162), and the botanists like Ibn Bayṭār (d. 1248). ${ }^{535}$ Yet two great names appeared during the Naṣrid period. They were Ibn al-Khațīb (d. 1374) and the great Ibn Khaldūn (d. 1406). Both were able statesmen and historians but with them a fascinating, if not a brilliant, chapter in the intellectual history of al-Andalus comes to an end.

A similar development took place farther east in Persia and Indian sub-continent as we have mentioned above. Bilingualism prevailed in the Eastern provinces as in Spain. ${ }^{536}$ For centuries, many authors in various disciplines used Arabic as a literary medium in preference to their native languages, although some rulers encouraged the use of the native tongue in administration and literature. Even though many scholars were at home, for instance, in both Arabic and Persian, Arabic was long used as the language of letters.

Some of the outstanding scholars wrote their most important works in Arabic. During the period, there were the two famous philosopher physicians al-Rāzī (d. c. 925) and Ibn Sīnā (d. 1037); the literary critic Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī (d. 1005); the two belletrists alHamadānī (d. 10087) and al-Tha‘ālabī (d. 1038); the great theologian al-Ghazālī (d.

[^139]1111); the prominent scientist al-Bīrūnī (d. 1048), who preferred to be insulted in Arabic rather than praised in Persian ${ }^{537}$; and the able philologist and critic al-Zamakhsharī (d. 1143), who repeatedly emphasized that Arabic was to be the language of instruction, the language of the court, and the language of letters. Although the status of Arabic began to decline in the eleventh century when the national languages, first Persian and later Turkish, asserted themselves, it nevertheless remained high in religious circles and among men of letters. Moreover, it continued to influence both Persian and Turkish. The same situation developed in some regions of continental India, the Punjāb, Kashmīr, Lahore, etc. where Arabization had made some progress. In these areas Arabic has continued up to the present day as a medium of intellectual expression among many Indian and Pakistani authors of the Muslim faith. ${ }^{538}$

It would be erroneous to say that, the cultivation of Arabic and Arabic culture came to a complete standstill in the thirteenth century. During the period of decline noteworthy contributions were made in the field of compilations and encyclopaedias, without which our knowledge of Arabic lore would be very limited. In fact, some of the extant works of the period are still invaluable reference books. One would be at loss without the adab works of al-Nuwayrī (d. 1332), al-Ṣafadī (d. 1363) al-Qalqashandī (d. 1418) and alBaghdādī (d.1674). In history there are important works by Bar Hebraeus (d. 1286), Ibn Țaqtaqqā (d. 1300), Abū al-Fidā’ (d. 1313) Ibn Taghrī Birdī (d. 1469) and Ibn Iyās (d. 1522). Nor can one do without the many works of the polygraph and erudite al-Suyūṭī (d. 1505), or those of Țāsh Kubrāzāda (d. 1560), al-Maqqarī (d. 1632), and Ḥājjī Khalīfa (d. 1657). ${ }^{539}$

Egypt under the Mamlūk rule from 1300-1600, had the entire semblance of stability but only in the midst of increasing corruption and social deterioration. Already the fourteenth century lexicographer Ibn Manẓūr (d. 1311), the author of the famous Lisān al 'Arab, was complaining about the decadent state of the Arabic language and the tendency of people to learn a foreign language in preference to Arabic. Ibn Manzūr's assessment is
${ }^{537}$ Chejne, The Arabic Language, p. 80.
${ }^{538}$ The author of Nuzhat al-Khawâtir gives a biographical history of these Indian sub-continent scholars who produced valuable literature in Arabic. See Laknawī, Nuzhat al-Khawātir.
${ }^{539}$ Gibb, Arabic Literature, p. 14, 142.
vividly corroborated by the traveler Ibn Battūta who, visiting al-Basra in 1327, heard a preacher commit serious mistakes of grammar while speaking from the pulpit:
"I attended one of the Friday prayers at the Mosque, and when the preacher rose to deliver his sermon, he committed many serious grammatical errors. I was astonished at this and spoke of it to the $Q \bar{a} d \bar{\imath}$ who answered, 'in this town there is not one left who knows anything about grammar', Here, indeed is a warning for men to reflect onMagnified be He who changes all things and overturns all human affairs! This Basra, in whose people the mastery of grammar reached its height and which was the home of its leader whose pre-eminence is undisputed, has no preacher who can deliver a sermon without breaking its rules". ${ }^{540}$

Arabic-speaking people had no longer remembered that in medieval times their language had been one of the world's most important and the depository of a rich literary heritage. Cairo was one of the important areas of Arabic intellectual activity. In the time of Ibn Khaldūn, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the signs of general decline in the Muslim world were already visible, and Ibn Khaldūn pointed out the deteriorating political and intellectual situation of the time. But with the help of some gifted men, Cairo remained the home of Arab intellectuals and continued to lead in the sciences and crafts. This relatively privileged position of Cairo continued for some time. Men such as al-Maqrīzī (d. 1505) kept alive the legacy of the past.

During the better part of the Middle Ages Muslim scientific and material superiority was undeniable and widely acknowledged. During that period Arabic scholarship as a transmitter of ancient thought had been a powerful inspiration for the medieval West. ${ }^{541}$ As professor Hitti mentioned, 'Muslim Spain wrote one of the brightest chapters in the intellectual history of Medieval Europe. Between the middle of the eighth and the beginning of the thirteenth centuries, the Arabic speaking peoples were the main bearers

[^140]of the torch of culture and civilization throughout the world, the medium which through the ancient science and philosophy were recovered, supplemented and transmitted to make possible the renaissance of Western Europe,". ${ }^{542}$ Towards the end of the period this superiority decreases, as the east stagnates intellectually and declines economically, while Europe progresses, revives and catches up, stimulated in large measure, by progressive acquaintance with Muslim learning. The sixteenth century witnesses the end of "'Arabism'.

[^141]
## CHAPTER: 6

## Codicology of the Arabic Manuscripts and Rules of Text Editing

## 6. Introduction

Early scholars divided the subject of codicology into four main areas: paper, ink, pens or sometimes scripts, and binding. Our information about these four areas is far from equal. This is because those who have been qualified enough to write with discernment about the experience of past generations in this art have been concerned first and foremost with penmanship and calligraphy. As far as the remaining three categories, paper, ink and binding are concerened, the extant literature does not do justice to the skills involved in transmitting the huge amount of Islamic scholarship which has come down to us.

For 4000 years the main type of writing material used in Egypt was papyrus. This was usually referred to in Arabic as qirtās, which was derived from the Greek Kharēs via the Aramaic qirtās. ${ }^{543}$ Papyrus was manufactured from the plant Cyprus Papyrus $L$, which is native to Egypt. It was easier to handle than the available alternatives, such as wood, skins and clay tablets, and could be made in a range of thickness and qualities. ${ }^{544}$ The use of papyrus was taken over by the Arabs when they conquered Egypt in the 7th century AD and it continued to be the main writing material of the country until the 10 th century AD. By this time it could no longer compete with paper, which was cheaper to produce.

Paper was first manufactured in the Islamic world in Samarqand, having been introduced there from China in the $2 \mathrm{nd} / 8$ th century. As with regards to the manufacturing of paper in Khurāsān, the most reliable source is the al-Fihrist of Ibn al-Nadīm. This tells us that paper was being made in Khurāsān from the very beginning of paper making in Iran and also mentions the names of the types of paper produced. He mentions six kinds of paper,

[^142]five of them connected with Khurāsān and Transoxiana, while the last one relates to Egypt. ${ }^{545}$ The Egyptian one is known as Kāghadh-i Fir 'ūn̄̄, (Fir ' $\bar{u} n \bar{\imath}$ paper). The other five are: Sulaymānī, Ja 'farī, Ṭalhū, Ṭāhiṛī and Nūḥī. ${ }^{546}$ It is therefore clear that paper was manufactured in Khurāsān, to which we can add that different types of good Khurāsān̄̄ appears to have been named after high government officials who liked them.

Glazed paper was of good quality and was popular with calligraphers because the pen moved softly over it. ${ }^{547}$ In the reign of the caliph Hārūn al-Rashīd (170/786-193/809) paper began to be used in government offices. ${ }^{548}$ Writing in the 9th century AD , al-Jāhiziz tells us "that the paper of Egypt is for the West while the papers of Samarqand are for the East'". ${ }^{549}$ We learn from Ibn Hawqal that in the second half of the 10th century papyrus was still used by the Arabs in Sicily for chancery correspondence, and some papyri found in Egypt were originally written elsewhere. ${ }^{550}$ Grohmann estimated that there were approximately 16,000 Arabic papyri in the various collections that he was familiar with in Europe, North America and Cairo. ${ }^{551}$ In addition, both the literary and the documentary papyri are important sources for the study of the Arabic script and to the development of the Arabic language. The literary papyri included the earliest known fragments of many

[^143]works in Arabic, such as the biography of the prophet Muhammad (pbuh) by Ibn Hishām and the Muwatta of Mālik ibn Anas. ${ }^{552}$

Arabic sources, such as Abū Șāliḥ and al-Ya‘qūbī, mention numerous papyrus mills that were active in Egypt in the early Islamic period, as well as one in Sāmarrā' which was established by the caliph al-Mu'taṣim in 221/836. ${ }^{553}$

### 6.1 The Development of Orthography and Penmanship

The profession of making copies had developed into a regular art and provided for the copyists a handsome means of livelihood. These copyists were known as "warrāq"' and '"nussākh". According to Afshārī, in the city of Samarqand there were always persons and families who were called "warrāq/Kāghazıl" and this nisba first came into vogue before the beginning of the 6 th $/ 12^{\text {th }}$ century in the classical Persian texts of al-Ḥājj STāliḥ Kāghazī. ${ }^{554}$ There were people who had adopted it as a profession to provide the copies of the manuscripts to those who needed them. Copyists were the connecting link between men of letters and the general public. They themselves belonged more or less to the literary class, but their livelihood lay in multiplying the works of authors. ${ }^{555}$

The transcribing of manuscripts by hand was, therefore, a very important form of occupation. Not only teachers and students, but also well known authors, copied books in order to earn money. Kitāb al-Fihrist frequently speaks of books copied in the handwriting of famous scholars. There are also references to men like Karmānī, whose calligraphy was in demand. ${ }^{556}$

[^144]Though not all the copyists mentioned by the earlier sources are readily identifiable, a few are well known scholar-copyists or scholar booksellers. Christian and scientific manuscripts apart, the extant dated manuscripts from the fourth century included the Gharīb al-Hadīth (311/923) of Abū 'Ubayd ${ }^{557}$, the Sirr al-naḥw (first half of the $4^{\text {th }}$ century) of Zajjā̄jī ${ }^{558}$, the Kitāb of Sībawayh ${ }^{559}$, and the Hadhf min nasab Quraysh of Mu'arrij ibn 'Amr al-Sadūsī, copy from the hand of Abū Isḥāq Ibrāhīm ibn 'Abd Allāh al-Najīrāmī (d. 355/966), grammarian and scholar-copyist who was patronized by Kāfūr of Fātimid Egypt and who was a member of a family of three generations of scholarbooksellers. ${ }^{560}$ The second half of the fourth century yielded many more dated manuscripts. These include the Mukhtasar (359/970) of Abū Muṣ‘ab al-Zuhrī ${ }^{-561}$, the Dīwān al-adab (363/974) of Isḥāq ibn Ibrāhīm al-Fārābī ${ }^{-562}$, the Hidāya (364-66/974-76) of Ismā‘īl ibn 'Abbād al-Ṣāḥib, the Sharh al-Mu'allaqāt (371/981) ${ }^{563}$ of Abū Ja'far Aḥmad ibn Muḥammad al-Naḥhās ${ }^{564}$, the Akhbār al-Naḥwiyyīn al-Baṣriyyīn (376/987) of Sīrāfî ${ }^{565}$ written in beautiful calligraphic Kūfic, and Kūfic-naskhī scripts by 'Alī ibn Shādhān al-Rāzī whose knowledge of Arabic left something to be desired, the $\operatorname{Di} w \bar{a} n A b \bar{\imath}$ al-Aswad al-Du'alı̄ (380/990) in cursive vocalized script ${ }^{566}$, the Kunya wa al-Asmä ${ }^{\text {, }}$ (381/991) of Daulābī, and the Dīwān al-Mutanabbī (398/1008). ${ }^{567}$

The libraries of the rich and powerful, especially those of caliphs and viziers, frequently became the depositories of the choicest of such manuscripts, through commission and

[^145]purchase or through confiscation and bequests. ${ }^{568}$ It would be hard to believe today that Mīr Țayyib had copied out 'Sharh Mullā Jām $\vec{\imath}$ ' in a week. Shaykh Junayd Hisịārī (d.1281) made a manuscript copy of the whole text of the Qur'ān within the short space of 3 days. Shaykh Mubārak (d. 770) copied out 500 books in his life time. The art of copy-making had developed so highly as to overcome the difficulties which would have been encountered otherwise. ${ }^{569}$

Famed scholar-bibliophiles and booksellers such as Nadīm, Yāqūt, and Qifṭī reveal in their works a keen awareness of the quality of the manuscripts they acquired and described. ${ }^{570}$ They gave special attention to manuscripts of lexical and grammatical works in these respects.

Among the most frequently used terms that stress primarily the accuracy of text are صادق . Those that stress legibility and quality of penmanship are خط جيد، حسن، جميل، مليح and خط مرغوب به while poor or careless manuscripts are described as فبيح، and ردي These are supplemented by terms that indicate the type and size of the scripts, the most commonly used being عتيق ، تعليق، رياسي، محقّ، رقيق، and . Frequently reference to a well known and easily recognised hand of a famous scholar, copyist, or calligrapher is simply خطه معروف، 'his hand writing is known', 571

Al-Nadīm, in a significant passage, reports having seen a large manuscript collection with autographs and written on lather, parchment, papyrus, and paper by scholars of the first and second centuries, beginning with Abū al-Aswad al-Du'alī and including such Qur'ānic scholars and grammarians as Yaḥyā ibn Ya'mar, Abū 'Amr ibn 'Alā, Sībawayh,

[^146]Kisā’ī, Abū 'Amr al-Shaybānī, Yaḥyā ibn Ziyād al-Farrā’ Aṣma‘ī and Ibn al-‘Arabī (d. $213 / 846) .{ }^{572}$

The book shop of Ibn Waddā‘ al-Azdī of Baghdad was a rendezvous of scholars where many of their discussions and debates took place in the fourth decade of the third century. There was keen competition for Ibn Waddā''s hand copies, which remained highly prized collector's items. ${ }^{573}$ Manuscripts of Muḥammad ibn Ḥabīb's pupil Sukkārī (212-75/82788) were desired for their accuracy. ${ }^{574}$ Ibrāhīm ibn Muḥammad ibn Sa‘dān ibn alMubārak, a third generation scholar and bibliophile, was know for his accurate penmanship and faithful transmission. ${ }^{575}$ Zajjāj sought to ingratiate himself with his patron the wazir Qāsim ibn 'Ubayd Allāh and with the caliph Mu'taḍid (279-89/892-902) by completing and recasting the Jāmi‘al-Mantiq of Abū Ja‘far al-‘Askarī.he had Aḥamad ibn Ibrāhīm al-Tirmidhī, one- time teacher of Zajjāj’s former Kūfan teacher Tha'lab and a penman in much demand, make but a single copy of the revised and completed Jāmi ${ }^{\text {c }}$ on fine Khurāsānian Țalhī paper for the caliph's library. Several of the pupils and associates of Tha'lab were both scholars and booksellers known for their good penmanship. Among them were Abū Ḥasan al-Tirmidhî ${ }^{-576}$, Abū Mūsā al-Ḥāmid ${ }^{577}$, and Muḥammad ibn 'Abd Allāh al-Karmānī al-Warrāq, whose copy of Ibn Qutayba's al-Ma ‘ārif was acquired by Qiftī, who describes the manuscript and its scholar-copyist in superlative terms. ${ }^{578}$

Al-Mubarrad, who wrote a good hand, considered himself a warrāq and had several close associates who were scholar-booksellers. ${ }^{579}$ Among these pupils were Tha'lab's sonin-

572 al-Fihrist, p. 40; al-Inbāh, pp. vol. 7-19.
${ }^{573}$ Qifṭī reports that he examined critically several of ibn Waddā'’s copies, including a section of the Dēwān $a l-A$ 'sh $\bar{a}$ and a copy of Abū 'Ubayd's Amthāl, and found them to be the most carefully executed. See alInbāh, vol. 1, p. 53, vol. 2, 134.
${ }^{574}$ al-Fihrist, p. 76 ; al-Inbāh, vol. 1, p. 292.
${ }^{575}$ al-Inbāh, vol. 1, p. 185.
${ }^{576}$ Suyūṭī, Bughya, vol. 1, p. 239.
${ }^{577}$ Ibn-al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 79; al-Qifṭ̄1, al-Inbāh, vol. 2, p. 22.
${ }^{578}$ Qifṭī, al-Inbāh, vol. 3, p. 55; Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 79; Yāqūt, Irshād, vol. 6, p. 19.
${ }^{579}$ Ibn-al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 60; al-Tha‘ālibī, ‘Abd al-Malik ibn Muḥammad. Lat ā 'if al-Ma 'ārif, Lugduni Batavorum : E. J. Brill, 1867, p. 47.
law Abū 'Alī al-Dinawarī (d.289/910), whose father was the first to establish in Egypt a family of grammarians and scholar-bookseller. ${ }^{580}$ The excellent penmanship of the vizier Ibn Muqla (272-328/886-940) was well known to be always mentioned. Yāqūt comments on the good penmanship of Ibn Muqla's father and brother. ${ }^{581}$ We read that Abū al-Faraj al-Iṣfahānī (284-356/897-967) frequented the flourishing book market (Sūq al-warrāqīn) and bought good original sources, including manuscripts autographed by authors or copyists, which he used in his compositions. ${ }^{582}$ Al-Sīrāfì was an ascetic who provided for his personal needs by copying ten pages daily in a fine hand. Several members of his family were scholar-booksellers ${ }^{583}$ and apart from his students he had probably employed copyists.
'Alī ibn Muḥammad, better known as Abū Ḥayyān al-Tawḥīdī and who greatly admired pupil of al-Sīrāfì was, wrote a treatise on penmanship (Risāla fî 'ilm al-Kitāba). ${ }^{584}$ Jurjānī (d. 392-/1002) was described as combining the poetic talent of Buḥturī and the penmanship of Ibn Muqla. ${ }^{585}$ Abū Naṣr al-Jawharī (d. 398/1007), author of Siḩāḥ, was a teacher, scholar, and calligrapher who taught penmanship and used the proportioned scripts himself in the style of Ibn Muqla, is also known for his scholarship and good penmanship. ${ }^{586}$

Another type of work, with such titles as al-Khatt wa al-Qalam or Risāla fì al-Khatt, were written generally by scholars or state secretaries who were renowned for their excellent penmanship and concerned mainly with the classification of scripts and calligraphic techniques. The basic role such authors played in the evolution of Arabic

[^147]scripts - beginning with the Umayyad secretary 'Abd al-Ḥamīd ibn Yaḥyā (d. 132/750), and reached a peak during the reign of Ma'mūn with the state calligrapher Abū al-‘Abbās Aḥmad ibn Abī Khālid al-Aḥwal and climaxed with the already mentioned ${ }^{587}$ vizier Ibn Muqla.

In contrast to the numerous references to scholars, copyists, and booksellers who wrote fair, good or excellent hands, references to poor penmanship in the literary fields seems to be quite rare. ${ }^{588} \mathrm{Ibn}$ al-Marāghī (d. 371/981), realizing that he lacked artistry in his script, wrote verses on the back of his commentary on the al-Jumal of al-Zajjāj̄̄ apologizing for his poor though accurate hand. ${ }^{589}$ Furthermore, the good secretary and penman in the literary fields as a rule had to avoid the extremes represented by the hasty careless work of inferior commercial copyists and the marked artistry of the professional calligraphers who utilized their skills to adorn Qur'ānic manuscripts, special state documents, and royal diplomatic correspondence. ${ }^{590}$

### 6.2 Rules of Text Editing and Some Difficulties in Editing

The scholar who undertakes the arduous task of editing Arabic manuscripts, should take into consideration that he will be confronted with many great difficulties which may arise in editing literary texts.

First of all there is the lack of cataloguing or even summary lists of stocks of the various collections, which renders it difficult, if not impossible, to find and to collect homogeneous pieces which really belong together, but are scattered over various collections. So visiting these collections personally is indispensable for the editor. Other difficulties lie in the very difficult and badly formed writing of the papyri/manuscript and in their bad and dismal state of preservation. Deciphering and restoration of lacunae is

[^148]sometimes exceedingly difficult and requires a great deal of experience and constructive talent from the editor. ${ }^{591}$

The function of an editor is to evaluate and compare copies in accordance with the accepted rules of editing and publishing early books. Among these are that a copy in the author's own hand is the most valuable of all; then copies that have been read out to the author or marked by him; then copies that have been checked against other copies and have then been circulated among the scholars and been authorised by them; and finally old copies taken precedence over the new copies. ${ }^{592}$

There are exceptions, however, to this last rule. When, in 1914, Nicholson published the book of Kitāb al-Luma'fì al-Taṣawwuf by 'Alī ibn Muḥammad ibn Yaḥyā al-Sirrāj alṬūsī (d. 38/988), he relied on two manuscripts, one written in 548/1153 and the other in $683 / 1284$, using the late version as his main source. This was because it was complete whereas the older one was defective in almost one third of the book with the rest being arranged in an incomprehensible way. Nicholson only used the older version for purposes of comparison in his editing of the later text. ${ }^{593}$

Complete text may naturally be preferred. But it might be necessary not to neglect small and very small fragments as far as their importance justifies publication, when they contribute new and remarkable details or having importance in some other respect. The Arabic manuscripts very seldom show the "diacritical points" (i'rāb) so essential for correct reading. Thus the editor is obliged to supply the $i^{\text {' } r} \bar{a} b$ throughout the text, and even to add vowels and orthographic signs, when the reading could be confronted with the danger of misunderstanding a doubtful passage. This means a far more considerable modification of the original. In this way one should not hesitate to correct obvious slips

[^149]of the pen, occasional scribal errors and oversights. Faulty orthography and grammatical errors, which often reflect the vernacular, are better to be retained in the edition. ${ }^{594}$ These peculiarities are of value to use for appreciation of the writer's personality and the milieu from which he comes. ${ }^{595}$ An emendation of these peculiarities would therefore destroy the personal character of the document and deprive the editor of the basis for the estimation of its writer. If these grammatical or orthographical peculiarities occur more frequently, they may best be dealt with in a separate chapter of the introduction to the edition. ${ }^{596}$

At any rate it is absolutely necessary to account for all alternatives of the original condition of the manuscript-text in the apparatus criticus, which is best printed below the text itself. If a word in the text is dotted in the original, it is to be given in this original condition in the "apparatus criticus" and fully doted in the text. Sometimes may happen that it is impossible for the editor to decipher certain portions of the text which are very badly written. For example if the characters are recognisable, a palaeographical copy of the respective portion of the text, viz. a copy which comes as near to the original as possible, should be given in the critical apparatus, a note may be made in the text or a line could be added in the commentary on the respective line. When portions of texts are badly faded or damaged while erasing spots on them, the various possibilities of reading, suggested by the editor, should be given. Furthermore the editor should take advantage of the possibility of getting a photograph by means of infrared films, a procedure which helps to bring out much more of the originals that a simple photograph or the eye could detect, and is very useful even in apparently hopeless cases. ${ }^{597}$

It is obviously the duty of the editor to do his utmost to get an accurate copy of the original text as a basis of the future edition, and to submit to the reader a completely clear and readable text, from which all difficulties as to reading and understanding have been

[^150]removed. Nevertheless the editor shall allow the texts to stand in their original form as far as possible. This task should be accomplished in such a way that the reader immediately realises the actual condition of the archetype.

In addition to the above mentioned observations, an editor must be aware of the following conditions; whether, a text attributed to a particular author was actually his own work. In this context, basic bibliographic books like the al-Fihrist of Ibn al-Nadīm, Kashf al-Ẓunūn of Ḥājjī Khalīfa, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al- 'Arabiyya of Jujī Zaydān and Brockelmann are reliable sources. The confirmation of the title is another important issue and usually it appears on the first page, whereas in case the initial pages were missing due to certain reasons, then the title could be found in the middle or at the last pages. The authenticity of the manuscript itself is suspect or doubtful if the author's name is not appended to it. In the same vein, the beginning and the end pages of any manuscript are very important since this suggests the completion of the book. Moreover, the reasons for creation of a special text, or for whom it was written is also obligatory to know. ${ }^{598}$ The usage of the paper, the nature of the ink and script are also important since they determine the era during which a certain writing tradition was in common usage.

According to the old traditions of manuscript writing, the last word on the page is re-written at the corner of the same page as well as written again at the start of the next page so that no word is omitted/ missed out from the manuscript. The copy that I have used for al-Miṣbāh's editing therefore adopts this characteristic, whereas the previously published editions did not conform to such a tradition.

Sometimes even the binding gives the age/period of a particular text. ${ }^{599}$ In this case, we can find out the copyist of the text and when it was written or compiled. Moreover, when and how the particular work reached the library could also be ascertained. What the editor has to keep in mind is the highest standard possible of his publication and the

[^151]responsibility to render accessible new material for science in the best and most exact form obtainable. ${ }^{600}$

### 6.3 The Writing Material

### 6.3.1 Papyrus

It has already been said that the main writing material was papyrus, and in Arabic literature it has several names. Beside bardī and abradē, the latter name also occurring in Arabic papyri-there is another word $k h \bar{u} s$ used as an indication for the papyrus. ${ }^{601} H a f \bar{a} \vec{a}$, however, which Ibn al-Baytār and al-Aṣma‘ī equalised with bardī does not indicate the whole plant but only a certain part of it. In this respect, Egypt has always been of of special importance. Here, from the ancient times, the plant had been used in many ways and even been cultivated in plantations. ${ }^{602}$ The Arabs profited also in this respect from the experience gathered by former inhabitants, conquered by them, and adopted the most important ways of utilizing the papyrus-plant. But above all the thing that made the papyrus plant famous throughout the world was its manufacturing its utilization as a writing material and as the medium of intellectual life of Egypt with its ancient culture that continued for more than four thousand years. The first caliph who wrote on papyrus is said to have been al-Walīd ibn 'Abd al-Malik (705-715). ${ }^{603}$ His successor, the caliph Sulaymān ibn 'Abd al-Malik, (715-717) on his death bed asked for a sheet of papyrus to draw up the document relating to the succession to the throne. ${ }^{604}$

### 6.3.2 Leather

[^152]From ancient times, leather, jild, adìm was used as a writing material in Egypt. Even before Islamic times, leather was known to the Arabs as a writing material. In the treasury of the Caliph al-Ma'mūm, a document was found, written on a piece of leather by 'Abd al-Muṭtalib ibn Hāshim, the grand father of the Prophet Muḥammad (pbuh) containing a claim on a Ḥimyarite in Ṣan‘ā. ${ }^{605}$ Prophet Muhammad had used leather as writing-material several times in his life time. Some parts of the Qur'ān were also written on pieces of leather. ${ }^{606}$

### 6.3.3 Parchment

Parchment raqq, riqq, qirtās, waraq, Jild from sheep, goats and calves was not used in Egypt as frequently as papyrus. Parchment was already known to the Arabs in preIslamic times and was used as well as leather. But as parchment was not durable and could not be produced in the requisite quantities as well, papyrus and later on paper took its place. Al-Faḍal ibn Yaḥyā ibn Khālid ibn Barmak gave the order to replace parchment by paper in the chanceries. ${ }^{607}$

### 6.3.4 Paper

Paper qirṭās, waraq, kāghidh has been used constantly since the $2^{\text {nd }}$ century Hijra, in a constantly increasing number besides papyri and parchment. Since the middle of the $4^{\text {th }}$ century Hijra, this writing material has remained the only one to be used. ${ }^{608}$

### 6.3.5 Linen

[^153]Linen kattān was always used in Egypt. Besides silk, its use is already known at the beginning of Islam from documentary evidence. Probably, the Indians introduced this writing material to the Arabs. Linen has been found in Vienna with the whole of the Qur'ān written on it, and single documents on linen are also found. ${ }^{609}$

### 6.3.6 Wood

In the shape of tablets lawh, wood was already used in very early times in Egypt as a writing material, with or without an applied layer of chalk. Among the Arabs, the use of tablets for writing is traceable to the time of the Prophet Muhammad (pbuh). ${ }^{610}$

### 6.3.7 Bones

Since the earliest times and at the beginning of Islam, animals bones 'azm such as ribs dil's $^{\prime}$, and above all, the shoulder-blades of camels, sheep and goats, were used as writing material in Arabia. This tradition continued up to the Middle Ages. ${ }^{611}$

### 6.3.8 Ostraca (fragments of Pottery)

Fragment of earthenware khazafa, shaqaf, were used by the Arabs as a writing material even before the time of Prophet Muhammad (pbuh). However, Arabic ostraca, are far less in quantity than Greek and Coptic ones.

### 6.3.9 Glass

Even glass was used, although rarely, as a writing material. The collection of glasses in the Arabic section of the Cairo Museum has a piece of glass (Inv. No. 7023-4), which,

[^154]originally, was a part of the side of a small vessel, with three lines of Arabic inscription in ink and dating back to the $12^{\text {th }}$ century $A D .{ }^{612}$

### 6.3.10 Stones

Finally, stones, especially marble slabs, were sometime used for writing with black ink. The earliest known example is a fragment of a marble-stone found in Qaṣr al-Khayr alGharbī, $0.75 \times 0.65 \mathrm{~cm}$, inscribed with five lines of a letter from the Caliph Hishām (105125 /724-743). ${ }^{613}$

### 6.4 The Writing Instruments

Since ancient times, Arabs used the writing-reed (qalam or mizbar) for which the canebrake of Egypt's swamps made an excellent raw material. Already in al-Muqqdisis's geographical work, writing reeds are mentioned among the specialities of Egypt ${ }^{614}$, and also in the papyri they are quoted occasionally. 'Alī ibn Azhar al-Iṣfahānī (d. 307/919) reports, in al-Qalqashqandī’s Subh al-A'shā, that the writing reeds from rocky grounds prove to be quicker on paper and firmer on parchment. On the other hand the reeds grown along the seashore are more flexible on papyrus and stronger for the artistic shaping of the characters on this writing material. Special importance was attached to the cutting of the qalam and the treatment of the nib. ${ }^{615}$

### 6.4.1 The Ink

The documents, with which the papyrologist has to deal, mainly show two kinds of ink: a deep black one similar to the Chinese ink (hibr, duhn, duhn Sinnt). It mainly consists of

[^155]fine coal made of soot, while the other documents show a rusty-brown ink. ${ }^{616}$ In this regard the author of al-Azhār fí 'amal al-Ahbā̄r not only gives important information about the art of ink mixing but also tells us how different types of ink were made, texts were decorated and how pens were prepared. He also promises information on how different colours were composed and how they were kept from rusting. Moreover he talks of the recipes for the ink attributed to some of the great scholars, like al-Jāḥiz (d. 255/967), Imām Bukhārī (d. 256/870), Ibn Muqla (d. 238/940), Abū al-Faraj al-Iṣbahānī (d. 326/967) and Abū Ḥayyān al-Tawḥīdī (d. 400/1010). ${ }^{617}$

### 6.5 Proceeding of Islamic Manuscripts to the Western Countries

How, and for what reasons, did manuscripts and printing books from the Muslim countries reach western European countries? Who were the people who brought these collections to the west?

It is difficult to speak about a single western tradition in the development of Islamic collections. Each country has created its own distinctive relationship with the Muslim world. It is an exploration into the political, economic, cultural and scholarly influences which have shaped the relationship between western and Islamic societies over the past 1,400 years, a relationship which has led directly to the emergence of several hundred collections of Islamic manuscripts and printed books in the west.

What are in fact the Islamic collections? By "Islamic collections'" I mean all collections of the manuscripts written by Muslims and produced in countries having a predominantly Muslim religious culture. Stephan Roman says, 'I consider manuscripts originating in all these regions to be Islamic manuscripts if they are the work of the Muslim community., ${ }^{618}$ These manuscripts are written in a wide variety of languages and scripts.

[^156]Arabic, Persian and Turkish are the predominant languages of the Islamic world, but there are also manuscripts written in Urdu, Pashtu, and Javanese, Malay, Makassar and Swahili, as well as many dialects of these languages.

Throughout the Muslim world the written word has always played a powerful role in shaping the intellectual, philosophical and religious ideas. Manuscripts have always been accorded great respect, and scholars and writers have occupied prominent positions in society. In particular, manuscript copies of the Qur'ān were considered to be of special importance as each manuscript was an exact copy of the original word of God as spoken to Prophet Muḥammad (peace be upon him).

When European began collecting Islamic manuscripts and taking them back to their home countries, they were thus building on a long tradition already well established in Muslim societies. For Europeans, these manuscripts provided important insights into the Muslim intellectual experience and gave western scholars the opportunity to learn, often for the first time, about Islam and the Muslim achievements in medicine, philosophy, historiography, science and literature. The Islamic collections which developed in Western Europe and North America were therefore a fundamental bridge in communication between the East and the West.

Britain's connection with the Islamic world is one of the strongest of any country in the west. Through trade and, later, the development of empire, the British found themselves coming into direct contact with all parts of the Muslim world. The history of this extraordinary relationship led to Britain's possessing a rich variety of Islamic manuscripts in all the major languages of the Islamic world-Arabic Persian, Turkish, Urdu Malay-and many of the major African, Indian and South Asian Islamic languages.

Archbishop Laud was a man of remarkably broad vision. Besides creating a Chair of Arabic in Oxford, he also took a keen interest in the development of the first Islamic manuscript collection in England, through his letter of instruction issued to the Levant Company in 1634 'requiring that each of their ships returning from the East should bring
back one Persian or Arabic manuscript ${ }^{\prime} .{ }^{619}$ As Mughal power declined in the eighteenth century, the East India Company was drawn more and more into direct political control of larger areas of the Empire, in particular the provinces of Calcutta and Madras along the east coast. The collapse of the Ottoman imperial power in 1918-1919 also gave the British the chance to move into Palestine-trans-Jordan and Iraq.

### 6.6 The British Library and the India Office Library

The British Library was created in 1973 as Britain's national library and incorporated the library components of the British Museum. The museum itself dated back to 1753. The museum was officially opened on 15 January $1759 .{ }^{620}$ Throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the museum library grew dramatically, and books and manuscripts were collected from all parts of the empire. ${ }^{621}$

Since much of the British Empire lay in the Muslim territories, it was quite natural that a large number of Islamic manuscripts should therefore reach the British Museum. By 1866, there were 7,000 separate volumes of oriental manuscripts. At present, the Islamic manuscripts at the British Library make up the largest single collection of oriental manuscripts anywhere in Britain and one of the most valuable in the world. There are currently around 7,000 Arabic 3,000 Persian, 1,700 Turkish and 365 Urdu manuscripts, as well as smaller collections of Pashto, Swahili, Javanese, Sudanese and Malay manuscripts. ${ }^{622}$

[^157]The Arabic manuscripts in the oriental collections can trace their origins back to the earliest days of the museum in the mid-eighteenth century, when 120 Arabic manuscripts are listed as having formed part of the original collections that made up the British museum foundation collections. ${ }^{623}$

In 1834 the Arabic manuscript collection of William Brown Hodgson (1801-71) was bought by the museum. This numbered 224 manuscripts. Hodgson was an American consul in Tunis. In 1839, a smaller collection of 45 Arabic manuscripts reached the museum, donated by the sons of Major William Yule (1764-1839). Yule had been in the service of the East India Company between 1781 and 1806, and some of the manuscripts had originated in the libraries of the kings of Oudh, whose territories eventually passed into British control, and were part of the united provinces of Agra and Oudh. Other collections brought in the nineteenth century by the museum included those collected by Colonel Robert Taylor (1788-1852), who had served as a Political Resident in Baghdad. ${ }^{624}$ This collection of 246 Arabic manuscripts was purchased in 1852. In 1886, the collections of Alfred von Kremer (1829-89) were bought by the library. Von Kremer had lived in Damascus and Cairo between 1849 and 1880, and had assembled a very interesting number of Arabic manuscript volumes (198 in total) which illustrated the early period of Islam. In 1889, 328 Zaydī Muslim manuscripts from Yemen, which had been collected by the Australian scholar Dr Edward Glaser during his travel to southwestern Arabia, were purchased by the museum. This collection makes the British Library today one of the most important centre in Europe. ${ }^{625}$

Between 1889 and 1891, the museum acquired a large number of Iraqi manuscripts (173 volumes), mostly on jurisprudence and grammar. Since 1918, about 1,500 additional Arabic manuscripts have entered the oriental collections, bringing the current total to around 7,000 . The majority of these are Islamic manuscripts, though there are a number

[^158]of Christian Arabic manuscripts, particularly biblical texts, and some belonging to authors of unidentified religious beliefs. ${ }^{626}$

There are approximately 4,500 Arabic manuscripts (in 3,000 volumes) in the India Office Library. These manuscripts were mainly acquired from India in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, although many of them originated in Persia. The first Arabic manuscripts acquired by the India Office Library were acquired in 1806. These are now known as the Tīpū Sultān Collection that came originally from the library of Tīpū Sultān of Maysūr. ${ }^{627}$

In 1807, Richard Jonson's collection was purchased. Jonson (1753-1807) was an employee of the Bengal civil service between 1770 and 1790 was a man of considerable culture and erudition and during his time in Luckhnaw and Ḥaydarābād (1780-85) he was active in collecting both Arabic and Persian manuscripts. The Arabic manuscripts numbered 141 texts. ${ }^{628}$ The sale of his manuscripts to the company library was thus an act of great sacrifice for him, because he had collected them not just as working documents but in the spirit of a scholar and a humanist. ${ }^{69}$

In 1853, 434 Arabic manuscripts belonging to the so-called Bījapūr collection entered the Indian Office Library. These manuscripts were the remnants of the valuable library of 'Ādil Shāhī dynasty of Bījapūr. By the middle of the eighteenth century it was in a state of decay. By 1853, both the town of Bījapūr and its once famous library were in ruins, and the British decided to save the whole manuscript collection and were sent to the India

[^159]Office Library where they constituted the single largest consignment of Arabic manuscripts received by the library up to that date. ${ }^{630}$

In 1876, the manuscripts from the former library of the Mughal emperors in Delhi reached London. The 3,710 volumes contained 2,900 Arabic manuscripts, many of them dealing with mystical and $S \bar{u} f i$ i subjects. ${ }^{631}$ In the two centuries between 1638 and 1858, when the last Mughal emperor was sent into exile, these very extensive collections appear to have been sadly depleted, and only a quarter of the collection brought to London dated before the seventeenth century. In 1859, the Royal Library of the Mughal emperors numbered 4,830 volumes, containing around 8,000 separate manuscripts. At a sale organized by the government in the same year, 1,210 volumes - containing approximately 2,000 manuscripts - were sold to private collectors. The remaining 3,710 volumes were eventually dispatched in 1876 to the India Office Library, where they remain to this day. ${ }^{632}$
Owing to the complex and extensive relationship between the British and the Muslim world, it is no surprise that the British collections of Islamic manuscripts are currently among the finest anywhere in the West. Islamic collections in the West are an important intellectual bridge between Europe and the countries of the Muslim world.

[^160]
## PART TWO

## TEXT Edition

## CHAPER: 7

بسم اله الرحمن الرحيم

## مقـمةٌ المؤلّفِ

أما[16] بعد حمداً لله ذي الطول633 والإنعام، جَاعِل النحو في الكلام، كالملح في الطعام، والصـلاة والسلام 634 على نبيِّه محمدٍ سيَّيٍ الأنام، وعلى آلِّه وأصحابه مؤيِّي635 الإسلام. فإن الولدَ الأعزَّ لا زال كاسمِهِ مسعودأ، و إلى أهل الخير
 بمفرداته حِفظأ، و أتقنن 637 ما فيه من النحو معنى و لفظأـ 638 ، أردت أن ألمُظهـهُ 639 من كلام الإمام المقق، و الحَبر 640 المدقق، أبى بكر عبد القاهر بن عبد الرحمن الجُرجاني 641، سقى الله ثراه، و جعل الجنة مثو اه، حتى يعلِقق 642 بطْْعه من لفظه

633 سقطت كلمة ’ الطول‘ في الأصل و وردت في 7، وهو الصحيح وقد أثبتتاها
634 سقطت كلمة 'و السلام‘ في الأصل ووردت في7، و، وقد أثبتتاها 635 في الأصل و 'مؤيد الإسلام‘ وفي اكثر النسخ ، 5، 6 ، 7 ، ' 'مؤيدي الإسلام‘ و وهو الصحيح و قد أثبتتاه
 637 أنقن و أتقن الثنيء، أحكمه، و إنقانه أحكامه: ويقال أنقن فلان عمله إذا أحكمه،
انظر: الصحاح تاج اللغة وصحاح العربية، الجوهري، اسماعيل ابن حماد ، تحقيق: أحمد عبد الغفور عطار ، مطبعة دار الفكر العربي، القاهرة: 1957. و لسان العرب و القاموس الدحبط [مادة تقن ]

638 في 3، 6 ، 7، 'معنى و لفظاء،

الفمّ بعد الأكل، انظر : لسان العرب والصحاح : [مادة للظ]
640 في 4 ، 6 ، ’و الخبر الددقق‘ بدل الحبر المدقق، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و قد أثبتناه الحبر في اللغة ، الثئُ الذي يكتب به، ومعناها في هذا الموضع الرجل العالم، وهي بالفتح و الكسر، والفتح أشهر،
وللمزيد انظر : الصحاح ولسان العرب [مادة حبر]
"641 هو عبد القاهر بن عبد الرحمن الجرجاني، كان فارسي الأصل من أهل جرجان، ولد في جرجان ، ولم يغادر قريته حتى الموت، أخذ اللملم عن يد أبي الحسين الفارسي ابن أخت أبي علي الفارسي،( ت H/421) و علي بن عبد العزيز الجرجاني، (ت 1002 /392 ) وانتهت إليه رياسة النحاة في زمانه، كان الجرجاني من أئمة اللغة والنحو والأدب، غزير العلم دقيق الفهم، قيل فيه، هو مؤسس علم البيان وله يد تامة في علم البلاغة، وكان أشعري المذهب،

الحُلو ما يتفجرُ منه ينابيعُ النحو. فنظرت في مختصر اته المضبوطةِّ643، دون كتبه


وتوفي الجرجاني في بلدة جرجان في (471/2078) في الأغلب، اشتهر الجرجاني بكتابين ‘دلاثل الإعجاز ‘ وأسرار البلاغة، وذكر بروكلمان، تسعة كتب لعبد القاهر و هي، كتاب العو/مل المائة، كتاب الجمل، كتاب التتمة، أسرار البلاغة في المعاني و البيان، دلائل الأعجاز، و أسرار (البلاغة، شرح كتاب الإيضاح، لأبي علي بن أحمد الفارسي ، ( 977 / 977 )الدسائل الدشكلة، درج الدرر، المختار من دواوبن المتنبي والبحتري، وأبي تمام، وورد في دعجم المؤلفين كتابان للجرجاني و هماتفسير الفاتحة والعدنة في التصريف ،
ولللفضصيل انظر : معجم المؤلفين: 5/310، النجوم الز/هرة: 108/ 5، مرآة الجنان: 101 /3، انباه الرو/ة: 188، 190
 1959. ص، 248، 249، فوات الوفبات: 612، 1/613، بغية الوعاة: 106/ 2، تاريخ الؤدب العربي: فروخ، 183- الـا 188 /3، تاريخ آداب /للغة: زيدان، 3/44، النثر /لفني في /القرن الرابع: ذكى مبارك، المكتبة التجارية
 Brockelmann, G:1, pp. 341,342, S:1, pp. 504,505; Meisami\& Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol.1, pp.16,17; Islamic Desk Reference, pp. 192.

642 في 1، ’ يتعلق‘ في 6 ، ’ 'تعلق‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، و قد أثبتنتاه
 644 تعاور أ تداو لأ، ويقال عاوره الثيء، أي فعل به مثل ما فعل صـاحبه به، واعتوروا الثيء، أي تداولوه فيما بينهم
، ويقال ، تعاورت الرياح رسم الدار

انظر: الصحاح، ولسان العرب، [ مادة عور]
645 6/لعو/هل المائة أو مئة عامل، نوجد منه نسخخ في أهم مكتبات أوروباّ، و طبع في ليدن سنة ( 1803 (1617) و في كلكتة، سنة (1803) و في بولاق [1247] وغيرها، وقد ترجم هذا الكتاب بلغة أخرى. و هذا الكتاب مشهور متداول بين

العلماء و الدارسين، وله عدة شروح كما يشبر إليه برو كلمان. ولللفصيل انظر: تاريخ الأدب العربي: بروكلمان، 200-5/205، دفتاح السعادة: 18/143، تاريخ الأدب العربي: فروخ، 183، 3/184، الوعلام : 4/174، بغية الوعاة: ص، 310، 311 646 الجمل في النحو، لعبد القاهر الجرجاني، وهو ماع مختصر متداول بين العلماء والطلبة، و قد يعرف هذا الكتاب باسم’ الجر جانبة، أيضـا
ولللففصيل أ نظر: تاريخ الؤدب العربي: بركلمان، 5/205، كشف الظنون: 1/602، 2/624، تاريخ آد/ب اللغة:

$$
\text { زيدان، 3/44، الأعلام : 4/174 ، أنباه الرواة: 2/189، بغية الوعاة: } 106 \text { /2، مفتاح السعادة: 1/143 }
$$

 إن كانت لا تخلو من الإفادة، فاستصفيت منها هذا المختصر، و نفبت عن كل منها ما تكرّر، استثققالا للمُعاد، و استقلالْ للمُفاد. غير مدَّخِر فضلَ النصيحةِ، في رعاية عبار اته الفصيحة. و لم أطو 649 ذكرَ شيء من مسائلها إلا ما ندَر أو شاع 650 فيما

 على خمسةِ أبو اب: الباب الأول:

في الاصطلاحاتِ النحوية

647 في 2 ، 'في التتمة و الجمل،
يشبر إليه بروكلمان، وانه يوجد في المكتب المندى، تحت رقم 984، وفي المتحف البريطاني، رقم 472، ويشير إليه جرجي زيدان، أنّه مخطوط لعبد القاهر ، ويذكر صاحب كشف الظنون، بينما لم يذكر مصتنفه و اكتفى بذكر اسم الكتاب ولللفصيل انظر: بروكلمان: 5/206، الؤعلام : 4/174، تاريخ آداب اللغة: زيدان، 3/44، كثف الظنون: ص 344 . 648 في الأصل فاستطلت و في 3، 7، ’واستطلت، وفي 6، ’فما استطلت، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، وقد أثنتختاه

649 طوي يطوى، طيّّ - الصحيفة يطويها، طوي فلان حديثأ إلى حديث، أي لم يخبر به و أستّره في نفسه، انظر : القاموس المحبط و لسان العرب، المورد: بعلبكي، روحي، دار العلم للملايين، بيروت: 1997. [مادة طوي] 650 شاع يشيع‘ شيعو عة، أي ذاع، ومنه أثناع الخبر أي أذاعه، انظر : القاموس الدحيط، الصحاح: [مادة شاع، شيع ] 651 في 2 ، زيدت كلمة ’نحات،
652 حرىٌّ وجمعها أحراء معناها ـ الجدير و المناسب، وفي الثيء، ما هو أحرى بالاستعمال في غالب الظن انظر : (المنجد ، معجم ددرسي للغة العربية، معلوف، لويس. المطبعة الكاثوليكية، بيروت: 1951.لسان العرب والصحاح، مادة [حرى]
653 في 3 ، 6 ، 'بمغانم‘ في الأصل ’مغانم‘ و الصحيح كما أثبتتاه ك54 كسّرته، معناها قسّمته، و هو من اصطلدح الصرفيين، ويقال كسّر الكتاب على عدّة أبواب، أي قسمه وجعله عدّة أبواب ومنه كسّرت المرِرأة.

الدنجب، معجم مدرسي للغة العربية، (مادة كسر)

# الباب الثاني: 

في العو امل اللفظيَّة القياسيَّة، الباب الثلثلث:

في العو امل اللفظيَّة السماعيَّة،
الباب الرابع:
في العو امل المعنوية"655،
الباب الخامس:
في فصول من العربية
البـاب الأول:656
في الاصطلحات النحوية،
كل لفظةٍ دلت على معنىً مفردٍ بالوضع فهي كلمة، و جمعها كَلِمات، وكلِمِّمك، وهى على ثلاثةِةٍ أنواع : اسم، و فعل، وحرف.
 الهطرزي هذا التقسيم في كتابه ’الدصباح‘ أمّا في كتاب ’الجمل‘ ' وهو شرح لكتاب ’ 'العوامل المائة، ' فقد قام الجرجاني بتقسيم أخر للعو امل وجعلها ثلاثة أنواع.
(ا) عوامل من الأفعال ( ب) عو امل من الحروف (ج) عو امل من الأسماء، وبدأ بذكر العو امل من الأفعال لأنّها الأصل في العطل، انظر:/لجمل: الجرجاني، عبد القاهر عبد الرحمن، تحقيق: علي حيدر، دمشق : منشورات دار الحكمة، 1972. مقدمة الكتاب، شرح مئة عامل: ص 14. 656 و في 3، 'الباب الاؤلى'
657 كلمة وجمعها كلِم ، على وزن نَبقة ونَبق ، ولبِنَة ولِين وما أشبه ذلك ،'و الكَلِمُ ، أسم الجنس وهو على نو عين ، أحدهما جمعيّ والثاني إفرادي ، فأمًا اسم الجنس الجمعي ، فهو [ ما يدل على أكثر من أثثين ، ويقّرق بينه وبين واحده بالنتاء غالبأ ] وزيادة التاء غالبًا نكون في المفرد، كبقرة وبقّر، وشجرة وشجر، ومنه كلِمة وكلِمِ ، وربما كانت زيادة الناء في الدال على الجمع، مثل كمء للواحد وكماة للكثير، وهو نادر، وقد يكون الفرق بين الواحد و الكثير بالياء،

فالاسم58، ما جاز أن يُحدًّث 659 عنه كزيدٍ و العِلم، والجهل، في فولك: خرج زيدّ،


كزنج وزنجيّ، وروم وروميّ، فاما اسم الجنس ألإفرادي فهو [ما يصدق على الكثير والقليل و اللفظ واحد ] كذهبْ، وخلْ وزيتٌ وماء.

النقطة المهمة التي تظهر من نقاش النحويين هي أن استخدام "كلام" للإشارة للجملة و الكلمة (الكلام) المستقلة أمر شائع بين قدماء النحاة. ومن بين النحاة الأول الذين ميزوا بصورة منهجية بين الكلام "الجملة" و الكلمة هو ابن جني، ثم تبعه الزمخشري و الذي يضيف لها مظهر ا صوتيا. الكلمة هي اللفظة مفردة الدالة على معنى، بينما الجملة تتكون كلمتين أو أكثر (كلام) متصل كمبتدأ وخبر . قال ابن يعيش ، الكلمة هي اللفظة الدالة على معنى مفرد بالوضع و هي جنس و عند ’’سييويه، ، فكل كلمة لفظة وليس كل لفظة كلمة، والفرق بين الكلم و الكلام ، أن الكلام ينطلق على المفيد وعلى غير المفيد خاصة ، ويتركب من كلمتين أسندت إحداهما إلى الأخرى ،
وللمزيد انظر :شرح ابن عقيل على ألفية لَّبن مالك: عبد الهَ بن عبد الرحمن، تحقيق: محمد محي الدين عبد الحميد ،
مطبعة السعادة ، القاهرة: 1960، 15 /1، كتاب أسرار العربيّة: الأنبا ري ، أبي البركات عبد الرحمن بن محمد بن أبي سعيد الأنبا ري ، تحقيق : محمد بهجة البيطار، مطبعة الترقي، دمشق: 1957. ص 3، شرح الدفصل: ابن يعيش: موفق الدين يعيش ابن علي بن يعيش النحوي، إدارة الطباعة المنيرية القاهرة: 1900. 19، 20 /1، شرح قطر الندى وبل الصدى: ابن هشام ، عبد اله ابن يوسف، دار الفكر العربي ، القاهرة: بدون التاريخ، ص 15 ،16، 'الخصائص : لإبن جني ، أبى الفتح عثمان بن جني ، دطبعة الهلال، القاهرة : 1913 ، 4 / 1 ،
Howell, Mortimer Sloper. A Grammar of the classical Arabic Language, Allahabad: Government Press, 1895, vol. 1, pp. 1-4; Owens, Jonathen. The Foundation of Grammar: an introduction to medieval arabic grammatical theory, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1988, p. 90; Levin, Aryeh. Arabic Linguistics Thought and Dialectology, Jerusalem: Max Schloessinger Memorial Series, The Hebrew University, 1998, pp. 443-446.

658 حدّه عند النحاة، ما دلّ على معنى في نفسه دلالة مجردة عن الاقتران، وفي اللغة، عند البصريين، أصله من؛ سمو ‘ إلا أنّهم حذفوا الواو من آخره، وعوّضوا الهمزة في أوّله، فصـار اسمأ وزنه ‘ إفعّ ‘ و عند الكوفيين، أصله وسم، إلا أنّهم حذفوا الواو من أوّله وعوّضوا مكانها الهمزة، فصـار اسمأ وزنه إعل

The grammarians had proposed more than seventy definitions of the noun, and some of them even mentioned that it was impossible to give any definition at all. The definition which is given by the author is very precise.

$$
\text { وللمزيد انظر :لسان العرب: (مادة سما) ابن يعيش: 1/22، أسرار العربية: ص 4، } 5 .
$$

نحو ها. فإنَكَ لا تحدِّث 661 عنها للزوم ظرفيَّتها، و لكَّهَها في محنى الوقت والمكان662، و هو مما يحدَّث عنه في قولك: مضى الوقتُ و طاب، واسَّسع المكان. 663 و من علاماته
 نحو بزيدٍٍ ${ }^{666}$ دخول التنوين، نحو رجلٍ ${ }^{667}$ ،

Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol.1, p.1; Versteegh, The Explanations of Linguistic Causes, (Az-Zajājjī's Theory of Grammar), Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1995, p. 56.

659 المر اد ’بالتحديث عنه، الأخبار عنه، والإسناد إليه، والاسم صالح لأنْ يكون مسنداً إليه ومسنداً أما الفعل فلا يصلح إلا أن يكون مسندأ فقط، انظر :شرح أبن عقيل : 1/20 660 في 2 ، 'ما تحدث عنه،
661 في 2، ’و يحدَّث، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
662 سقطت كلمة ’و المكان‘ في الأصل و وردت في 6، وهو الصحيح وقد أثنتناها
663 في 3؛ ’مضى الوقت و طاب الوقت وانسع الوقت‘ و قي 4 ، 5 ، 6 ، ، مضى الوقت و طـاب الوفت و اتسع الدكان

$$
664 \text { سقطت كلمة ’دخول‘ في 2، 3، 4، } 5 \text { ،7. }
$$

$$
665 \text { في 2، ’حروف، في } 1 \text { ، ’حروف الجر؛ }
$$

أحسن من هذا أن يقول أن الجر علامة للا سم سواءً أكان الجر بحرف الجر مثل مررت بزيد أم بالاضافة مثل كتاب
محمدٍ ، أم بالتبعية مثل نظرت في كتاب جديد
وللمزيد انظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص 15 ، شرح /بن عقيل: 17-19 /1. 666 في النسخة 2 ، 'مررت بزيد،
667 في 4 ، زيدت 'زيد و رجل، و زيدت العبارة في 1، 6 ، ، 'و الإضافة نحو غلام زيد،
المراد ههنا تنوين التمكين نحو رجل وفرس وزيد ، ولا يكون ذلك إلا في الأسماء فلذلك كان خصيصاً، و هناك
 و هنديّ، ذكر الأنبا ري في كتابه ’’ أسرار العربية،" أثنتا عشرة علامة للاسم، وما ذكره النحاة، فهي أكثر من ثلاثين علامة.
ولللفصيل انظر : الأشباه والنظائر : السيوطي ، جلال الدين عبد الرحمن بن أبي بكر، دائرة المعارف العثمانية، حيدر
آباد دكن: 1359. 4-6 /2، 'سر/ر العربيّة: ص، 10، كتاب هدع الهوا مع شرح جمع الجو الع : السيوطي ، جلال
الدين عبد الرحمن بن أبي بكر، تحقيق: محمد بدر الدين النعساني ، دار المعرفة، بيروت : بدون التاريخ، 1/05 ، ابن يعبش: 22-48 /1، شرح /بن عقيل: 17-20 /1 ،
Wright, William. A Grammar of the Arabic Language, Cambridge: Cambridge
University Press, 1898, pp.105-11; Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol.1, pp.1-3

و الفعل:668 ما دخله قد و السين و سوف ${ }^{669}{ }^{669}$ نحو: قد خرج، و سيخرج، و سوف يَخرُج،
 [18[أكرمتُ، و أكرما، و أكرموا، وتاء التأنيث الساكنة، نحو: نَصَرَتْْت73، ونَعِمَتْ، وبئِست674، و له ثلاثة أمثلة: الأول675 المفتوح الآخِر ، نحو: نصرَ، و د دحرجَ، و أكرمَ، ويسَمى الماضي. و الثناني: ما نتعاقب 676 على أولِه إحدى 677 الزوائدِ الأربع، وهي: (الياء للغائب المذكر والجمع المؤنث، و التاء للمخاطب المذكر، و للغائبة المؤنث)678، و

668 في اللغة، التي تدّل على حدث، وفي النحو، كل لفظة دلت على معنى تحتها مقترن بزمان محّصل، و قال ابن حاجب ، ما دلّ على معنىً في نفسه مقترن بأحد الأزمنة ، و سمّي الفعل فعلا لأنّه يدل على الفعل الحقيقي، إذا قلتَ (ضربَ) دلّ على نفس الضرب الذي هو الفعل في الحقيقة، فلمّا دلّ عليه سمّي به، لأنّهم يسّمون الثنيئ بالثشيئ إذا كان

منه بسبب.
انظر : كثّاف /صطلحات /لفنون: تهانوي ،محمد علي ابن علي، شبانك موستي، كلكته: 1862 /ه . 1142 /2 ، (الدعجم الدقصل في علوم اللغة: الأسمر ، محمد الثو نجي راجي ،دار الكتب العلمية ، بيروت: 1993 ـ ص 452،

أسرار العربية: ص11، شرح الرضي على الكافية: 5-9 /4، شرح شنور الذهب: ص: 14، 669 في 1، ’و السين عليه، في 3 -7 ، 'وسوف و السين، 670 في 2، سقطت كلمة 'و حرف الجزم'

672 في النسخ الآتية زيدت كلمة ’ البارز‘ 2 ، 3 ، 5 ،7، والصحيح كما وردت ما عدا الأصل و قد أثبتناها 673 و يستعمل كلمة ’ضربت، بدل كلمة ’نصرت، في 5.
المر اد هنا اسمية تاء الفاعل في ضربت ونصرتُ وليس التاء الساكنة
674 هناك أربع كلمات اختلف النحاة في فعليّتها و هي، نعم وبئس، وعسى وليس، فز عم بعض النحاة أنّها أسماء ولكنّ الأصح إنّها أفعال، وتعرب إعراب الفعل الماضي وتبنى مثله ، بدليل اتصالها بتاء التأنيث أو تاء الفاعل أما ليس،

فالاختلاف هو في فعليتها أو حرفيتها
انظر: التمهيا في النحو والصرف: رضوان محمد مصطفى و عبد الهّ درويش، منشورات جامعة فار يونس، بنغازي :
1973. ص 28، أسرار العربية: ص 96-106، شرح فطر الندى: ص 35، 36،

675 سقطت كلمة ’ الأول‘ في الأصل ووردت في 5، والصحيح كما وردت ما سواء الأصل وقد أثبتناها 676 في 4 ، ’ما بتععاقبه، و الصحيح كما جاءت الأصل

677 سقطت كلمة ’ إحدى، في 3 ، 3 ، 5 ، 7 ، 7 ،
678 هناك تقديم وتأخير، زيادة ونقص في أكثر النسخ ما بين القوسين، في 5، الياء للغائب المدّكر والجمع المؤنث و التناء للمخاطب المدّكر و الغائبة المؤنث، في 2، الياء للغائب الددُكر و جماعة المؤنث الغائبة و التاء للمخاطب

الألف للمتكلم الواحد، والنون لما فوقه مدّكرا كان أو مؤنثا، نقول: يفعل هو، و يفعلن هنَّ679، (و تفعل أنت، أو هي: و أفحل أنا، و نفعل نحن). ${ }^{680}$ و يسمّى المضـارع، وهو مشترك بين الحال و الاستققال. فإذا أدخلتَ عليه لامَ الابتداء خلص للحال. 681 نحو قوله


 وجَرِّبْ، و حاسبْ،

المدّكر وللغائبة المؤنث، الياء للغائب المدّكر ولجماعة المؤنث الغائبة و التاء للمخاطب المذّكر و المخاطبة وللغائب المؤنث.
679 سقطت كلمة 'ويفعلن هنَّ، في الأصل و وردت في هذه النسخ، 2 -7 و هو الصحيح و قد أثبتتاها 680 هناك تققيم و تأخير في أكثر النسخ ما بين القوسين
681 و إذا سبقه (لم أو لمّا) قلبت زمنه إلى الماضي مثل: لم يكتب علّي، و غربت الشمس و لمّا يحضر علّي، غير أن لنفي بلمّا يستمر إلى ما فبل زمن التكلم،

و لللفصيل انظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص: 43 ،44،
 683 سورة يوسف: رقم الآية: 12
684 زيدت العبارة الآتية ' كقوله تعالى ’سيصلى نار أ، في 2 ، 5 ، و سقطت في الأصل و الصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل و قد أثبتتاها
السين و السوف، فسمّاهما سييويه حرفي التنفيس، ومعناه تأخير الفعل إلى الزمان المستقبل، و عدم التضييق في الحال، يقال نقّت الخناق، أي وسّحته، و (سوف) أكثر تنفيسأ من السين، و يخفـ (سُوف) بحذف التاء، يقال سَوْ أفعلُ، و فيل إن السين منقوص من سوف، دلالة بتقليل الحروف على تقريب الفعل و إنّما اختصنًا بالفعل لكونهما موضو عين للالالة على تأخير الفعل من الحال إلى الإستقبال . و للمزيد انظر : شرح الرضي على الكافبة : 5-8 /4 685 سورة اللهب: رقم الآية: 3؛
686 في الأصل ’موقوف الآخر‘ وفي 2 ، 4 ، ’الموقوف الآخر‘ وهو الصحيح و قد أثبتنتاه 687 في 2 ، تققيم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين 688 يستعمل الكلمة ’كذلك ، بدل كلمة ’كذا ، في 6 ، 6.

و الحرف689 ما جاء لمعنى ليس بمعنى اسم ولا فحل، نحو: هل690، و بلْ، و ذلك لأنْ الاسم يكون حديثأ و محدَّنا عنه و الفعل يكون حديثأ ولا يكون محدَّتأ عنه و الحرف 691 أداة بينهما لا يكون حديثأ و لا يكون محدَّثُّ عنه. و إذ قد عرفت أنَّ كلو692 من هذه الأقسام الثلاثة يُسَمَّى 693 كلمة، فاعلم، أنه إذا ائتلف منها فعل و اسم، أو اسمان، و أفادا سُمَّيا كلامأ و جملة،694،

انظر : لسان العرب : ( مادة حرف)شذ ور الذهب في معرفة كلام العرب : ابن هثام جمال الدين بن يوسف، مطبعة

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { السعاددة ، القاهرة: 1963. ص 14، أسر/ر العربية: ص. 12، شرح الرضي : 4 / } 259 \text { / } 25
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 692 \text { في } 5 \text { ، 7، ’’ 'إنّ كل واحد من هذه، }
\end{aligned}
$$

693 في الأصل يستعمل كلمة ’ تسمّى‘ و في النسخ الآتية ’ يسمّى، 2 ، 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، 7 ، والصحيح كما أثبتتاها في الصلب كما وردت في الأصل
694 الجملة، ما تضمّن الإسناد الأصلي سواءً كانت مقصودة لذاتها أو , ل‘‘ كالجملة التي هي خبر المبتدأ وسائر ما ذكر من الجمل، فيخر ج المصدر و أسماء الفاعل والمفعول و الصفة المثبّهة و الظرف مع ما أسندت إليه، والكلام، هو المركب من كلمتين أسندت أحداهها إلي الأخرى، فكل كلام جملة ولا ينعكس، وإنّما قال بالإسناد ولم يقل بالإخبار، لأنه أعم، إذا يشتمل النسبة التي في الكلام الخبري و الطلبي و الإنشائى، و هناك طائفة من النحاة يقولون، أن
الجملة و الكلام مترا دفان، و في الأصل ’الكلام، عند النحويين عبارة عن كل لفظٍ مستقلِ بنفسه مفيد لمعناه و يسمّى الجملة و هذا هو معنى صـاحب الكتاب المركب من كلمتين أسندت إحاهما إلى الأخرى و هذا لا يتأتي إلا في اسمين أو في فعل و اسمس كما شرح المصنف عليه الرحمة

انظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص: 14، 13 ، 1 ،
ولللفصيل انظر : هدع الهوا مع: 1/12، /بن يعبش: 1/20، شرح الرضدي على الكافية: أستر آبادي، رضي الدين محمد أبن محمد بن حسن ، جامعة قار يونس، بنغازي : 1978. 1/33، الأشباه والنظائر : 14-22/ 2 ، شرح /بن عقيل: 13-15 /1 ،الإبضاح العضدي : الفارسي: أبو علي حسن بن أحمد الفارسي ، تحقيق: حسن شاذلي فرهود، مطبعة دار التأليف،القاهرة. 1969، 09 /1

Owens, The Foundation of Arabic Grammar, pp. 37-38.

والجمل أربعة995، فعلية واسمية ـ كما ذكرنا ـ و ظرفية، ${ }^{696}$ [19] و شرطيَّة، 697 نحو:
 فيكون 699 فيها ضمير عائدٌ إلى الاسم الأول وذلك في ستة مواضع: في خبر المبتدأ،
 وصفة النكرة، و الحال وسترى ذلك. فصل" في الإعراب703،

[^161]الظرفية ليست جملة، كما هو متعارف عليه الآن ’عندي مال، و إنمّا تسمتى شبه الجملة، وقل الأمر نفسه بالنسبة


$$
697 \text { زيدت العبارة في } 3 \text { ، ’إن نكرمني أكرمك، }
$$

$$
998 \text { في } 5 \text { ، 'و أنّ كل منها، في 7، ' كل واحد منها، }
$$

699 في 7، 'و يكون‘ بدل 'فيكون'
700 في 5، ' في باب كان'، و في الأصل ’ في بان باب إنّ، 701 و في 6 ، 'إنّ و في خبر باب كان'
702 ، في 2، 'دسبت، بدل ' ظنتّ،
703 الإعراب في اللغة مصدر معناها، الإبانة عن المعاني بالألفاظ، ونقل ’الزبيدي، عن الأزهري، الإلعراب

 تعرب عن نفسها، و سمّي الإعراب إعرابً لانّ المعرب للكالام يتحبب إلى السامع بإعر ابها وفي الاصطلاح النحوي، الإعراب، هو اختلاف آخر الكلمة باختلاف العوامل لفظلُ ونتّيرأ، وهناك اختلاف بين النحاة في حد الإعراب، وفيه مذهبان،
وللمزيد انظر: لسان العرب، الصحاح، تاج العروس ، الدنرب في ترتيب المعرب: [ مادة عرب] شرح شنور
 تحقق: علي محسن عيسى مال اله، عالم الكثب، بيروت: 1985. صوبا ص92، إحياء النحو: مصطفى، إير اهيي، لجنة

 موئسسة بدران، بيروت: 1965 صس 28 ،أسرار العربية: ص 18 ، 19، 18 ، سنن أبن ماجة: أبي عبد الهّ محمد بن يزيد القزويني ؛ تحقق: محمود محمد محمود حسن نصار، دار الكتب العلمية ، بيروت : 1998.(باب أستّمار البكر

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { الإعراب704 أن يختلف آخِرُ الكلمةِ705 باختلاف العو امل الداخلة لفظا وتقدير اَ، } 706 \\
& \text { نحو جاءني زيدٌ، و رأيت زيداَ، و مررت بزيدٍ، و مـا في آخِره ألِفٌ مقصورةٌ707، لУ } \\
& \text { بظهرُ فيه الإعراب، كالعصـا، و الرحى 708، و مـا في آخره ياء مكسورة قبلها709 }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { والثيّب) رقم الحديث 1872، مسند fحدد : أحمد ابن محمد ابن حنبل ، تحقيق: محمد عبد السلام عبد الثافحي ، دار } \\
& \text { الكتب العلمية، بيروت : 1993. 4/192 } \\
& 704 \text { سقطت كلمة ’ الإعراب‘ في الأصل ووردت في 7، والمناسب كما أثبتناها في الصلب كما وردت في } 7 \\
& 705 \text { الإعراب عند النحاة نوعان: لفظيّ ومعنوي، فأما اللفظي، هو ما جيء به لبيان مقتضى العامل من حركة أو حرف الا } \\
& \text { أو سكون أو حذف، وقد اختاره أبن مالك، والمعنوي: هو تغيير آخر الكلمة باختلاف العوامل الداخلة عليها لفظأ أو } \\
& \text { تققيرأ، وقد اختار هذا سييويه وجماعة النحويين، واعتبروا الحركات أو ما ناب عنها لفظأ أو تقديرأ، دلاثل على هذا } \\
& \text { التغيير، وتعريف الإعراب في هذا الكتاب ’/الصصباح ‘ يو افق تعريف القائلين بأن الإعراب معنوي، }
\end{aligned}
$$

Why does the declension occur at the end of the word rather than at the beginning or in the middle? Al-Zajajjī says: 'Declension is not put at the beginning of the word, because the beginning of the word must always have a vowel. For every word must begin with a consonant with a vowel, just as the pause always has a vowelless consonant. Since there must be a vowel at the beginning of the word, declension cannot be introduced at the beginning, because two vowels cannot be combined on one consonant. Thus, the possibility of introducing (the declension) at the beginning of the word is eliminated. It cannot be introduced in the middle of the word, either, since each word has a different middle part"

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { انظر: شرح شنور الذهب: صس 33، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 92، إحياء النحو: ص 22، شرح الرضي علىى } \\
& \text { الكافية: 56، 57/، 1، هدع الهو/مع: 1/14، الكتاب : 1/13، شرح فطر الندى: ص 59 58 } 58
\end{aligned}
$$

Versteegh, The Explanation of the Linguistic Causes, pp.118, 119; Bohas, G. and J. P. Guillaume; The Arabic Linguistic Tradition, London: Routledge, 1990, pp. 53-55.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 706 سقطت العبارة ’الداخلة لفظأ وتقدير f‘، في الأصل و وردت في } 5 \text { ، } 7 \text { ، ’ العو امل الداخلة لفظأ و تقدبرا و و } \\
& \text { الصحيح كما وردت في } 5 \text { ، 7، و قد أثبتناها } \\
& \text { 707 سقطت كلمة، ’مقصورة ‘ في الأصل، و وردت في 3، } 5 \text { ، } 7 \text { ’ ألف مقصورة‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في ما } \\
& \text { سواء الأصل و قد أثبتتاها }
\end{aligned}
$$

ساكن 710 في الرفع و الجَر ${ }^{711 ، ~ و ~ ت ت ح َ ر ك ~ ف ي ~ ا ل ن ص ب ، ~(ن ح و: ~ ج ا ء ن ي ~ ا ل ق ا ض ب ِ ي ، ~ و ~ م ر ر ت ~}$
 واوه أو ياءه، كدلو، و ظبي،714، فحكمه حكم الصحيح. و أصل الإعراب أن يكون 715 بالحركات، و قد يكون بالحروف، (و ذللك في ثلاثة مواضع) 716 في الأسماء الستة المعثّلة المضافة717 (إلى غير ياء المنكلم) ${ }^{717}$ ، و هي: (أبوه، و هنوه، و فوه، و أخوه، 708 يريد بذلك الاسم المقصور، وهو ما آخره ألف لازمة، ويعرب بحركات مقّرة على الألف رفعأ ونصبأ وجراً، المقصور سميّ مقصور أ لأنّه حبس عن الإعراب،
انظر : شرح اللمع : ابن بر هان، أبو القاسم عبدا لواحد بن على الأسدى العبكري ، تحقيق : فائز فارس، المجلس الوطني للثقافة و الفنون والأدب، قسم التراث العربي ، الكويت: 1984. 1/16، أبن بعبش: 1/56، شرح /بن عقيل :

1/ 72
709 المر اد منه، الاسم المنقوص، ما كانت في آخره ياءً خفيفة قبلها كسرة، نحو، القاضي و الداعي، ويقال منقوصاً، لأنه ينقص الرفع والجر
انظر: أسرار العربية: ص 37، شرح ابن عقيل : 73 /1، شرح قطر الندى: ص 77 710 في 2 ، 5، ’سكن‘ و الصحيح كمـا وردت في الأصل 711 يقصد المؤلف أنّه يرفع بضمّة مقدّرة على الياء الساكنة، كما يجرّ بكسرة مقدرة على على الياء الساكنة، 712 هناك تققيم و تأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ 713 سورة الأحقاف : رقم الآية : 31، وردت هذه الآية في 5 ، و سقطت في الأصل و الصحيح كما وردت في، 5، و قد أثنتتاها
714 ز يدت العبارة في 3 ، 5 ، 'نحو هذا ظبي و رايت ظبياَ و ظفرت إلى ظبي،
و هذا ما يسمّى في اصطلاح النحاة بالثبيه بالصحيح، و يعرف بحركات ظاهرة : الضمّة في حالة الرفع، مثل إمتلا الدلوُ و أكل الظبيُ ، والفتحة في حالة النصب ، مثل ملأُُ اللدلَ ، و أمسكتُ الظبيَ ، و الكسرة في حالة الجر مثل: نظرت في اللدو وأمسكتُ بالظبي، انظر : شرح أبن عقيل : 12،73 ،
715 سقطت كلمة ’ أن يكون، في الأصل و زيدت في 5، والصحيح وكما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتناها 716 و سقطت العبا رة ما بين القو سين في الأصل و زيدت في أكثر النسخ و الصحيح كما وردت في اكثر النسخ و قد

> أثبتناها
> 717 سقطت كلمة ’ المعثلثة، في 7 .
> 718 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في 7 . 7 .

ذكر النحاة لإعراب هذه الأسماء بالحروف شروطأ أربعة: أحدها، أن تكون مضافة، و واحترز بذلك ألا تضاف، فنّها حينئٍ تعرب بالحركات الظاهرة نحو: هذا أب، ورأيت أبأ، ومررت بأب؛ الثناني: أن تضاف إلى غير ياء المتكلم،

و حمو ها، و ذو مالٍِ 719، تقول: جاءني أبوه، و رأيت أباه، و مررت بأبيه، و كذلك720 البو اقي، فتدلُ الواو على الرفع، والألف على النصب، و الياءُ على الجر، و في التثنية، بالألف و النون721، أو بالياء722 و النون، و الجمع 723 بالواو والنون أو بالياء والنون725724 نحو:726 (جاءني مسلمَان، ومسلمُونَ، ورأيت مسلِمَين، ومسلمِيْن) ${ }^{727}$ ،




 أبوا زيد ور أيت أبويه ومررت بأبويه، لم يذكر المصنف عليه الرحمة، من هذه الأربعة و لكن أثهار إليه، وللثقصيل انظر : شرح ابن عقلّ: 48، 1/49، أبن يعيش: 52 /1، شرح الرضي: 76، 1/77، شرح قطر الندى: 59،

719 هناك تنديم وتأنير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 720 في } 2 \text { 'وكذا الباقي، و في } 4 \text { ، } 6 \text { ، ، 'و كذا البواقي، } \\
& \text { 721 في } 7 \text { ، ، 'با لألف والياء و النون والجمع' } \\
& \text { 722 في } 2 \text { ، زيدت ' في الرفع، }
\end{aligned}
$$

المشهور أنّ علامة الإعراب في المثيّى الألف رفعأ، و الياء نصبأ و جرأ، و في جمع الدذكر السالم، الواو رفعأ، والياء
 عن التنوين في الاسم المفرد، ولأنّ المثّى والجمع يعربان بالألفـ والواو رفعا ، وبالياء نصباّ و جرا في حالة الإضافة إلى ما بعدهما دون وجود النون ، حيث حذفت للإضضافة،
 لج 723 في 2 ، 3 ، 6 ، في الجمع بدل 'والجمع'


 إلى زيادة في آخره
انظر:شرح قطر الندى: ص 65،سرار العربية: ص 48، 49،

هو الشُهور، و الصحيح أنَّ الإعراب في المثّى و الملحق به بحركة مقلرة على الألف رفعأو الياء نصبأ و جرا انظر:شرح /بن عقيل: 53 /1 شرح الرضي: 74-81 /1 ،

ومررت بمسلِمَين، و بمسلمِين، و في ـكلو728 مضافا إلى مضمر، فحكمه حكم المثنَّى،
 مُظهر: فحكمه حكم [20] العصـا731 لفظـ732 تقول: جاءني كلو733 الرجلين، و رأيت كلا الرجلين، ومررت بكلا الرجلين734، ويستوي الجرُّ والنصب فى خمسة مواضيع، و وهى: النثثيَة، و الجمع السالم ${ }^{735 ، ~ ك م ا ~ ذ ك ر ن ا ، ~ و ا ل ث ا ل ث: ~ ج م ع ~ ا ل م و ٔ ن ث ~ ا ل س ا ل م ~ ب ا ل ا ٔ ل ف ~ و ~ ا ل ت ا ء ، ~}$ نحو: جاءتني مسلمـاتٌ، ور أيت مسلمـاتٍ ومررت بمسلماتٍ.

726 في النسخة 3 ، يستعمل كلمة ’تقول، بدل ’نحو‘
727 في 3، تققبم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسبن 728 لم يذكر 'كلتا ، من قبيل أن مثيل الثيء ينطبق عليه حكمه [ كلا للمذكر و كلتا للمؤنثـ انظر :شرح الرضي : 91-95 /1، شرح شنور /لذهب: ص 53 ،

729 في 29، يستعمل كلمة، ’ نحو ‘ بدل كلمة ’ تقول،
730 في 2 ، نققيم و تاخير في العبارة مـا بين القوسين
731 في 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، 6 ، 7، ' ' العصا، وفي الأصل، 'عصـا ، و والصحيح وكما ور ودت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتنتاه 732 حكم العصا لفظًا: أي حكمه في الإعراب حكم الاسم المقصور ألنى تقنّر على آخره حركات الإعراب الثلاث للتعذر ، نحو، الهوى والهـى و الدنبا والأخرى، وسميّ مقصور أ لأنّ حركات الإعراب قصنِّت عنه ، أي حبست عنه ،
 وللمزيد انظر :/بن بعبش: 1/56، شرح اللمع : 1/16 ، أسرار العربية: ص 41، 40 ، 31 ، 733 في 2، جاءني كلا الرجلين و رأيت كلي الرجلين و مررت بكلي الرجليّ الرجلين‘ في 3، ’جاءني كلي الرجلين و ر رأيت كلي الرجلين و مررت بكلي الرجلين‘ في 7، جاءني كلاَ الرجلين و مررت بكلاُ الرجلين و رأيت كلا الرجلين‘ و الصحيح كما أ ثبتناه في النص 734 مثل المؤلف [لكحد] وهو للمثنى المذكر، ويستوي معها في حالتيها الإعر ابيتين [كلتا] للمثى المؤنث فإذا أضيفت إلى ضمير أعربت بالألف رفعأ وبالياء نصباً وجرأ [لأنهما ملحقان بالمثنى]، تقول جاءنتي البنتان كلتاهما، ورأيت البنتين كلنيهما، ومررت بالبنتين كلتيهما، أمّا إذا أضيفت إلى اسم ظاهر، فتعرب إعراب المقصور، فنتقول: جاءتني كلنا البنتين، ورأيت كلنا البنتين، ومررت بكلنا البنتين. ومن النحاة من يعرب كلا وكلتا إعراب المثثى مطلقأ سواءً أضيفتا إلى مُظهر أم أضيفتا إلى مُضمر، ومنهم من يعربها إعراب المقصور مطلقأ
 735 سقطت كلمة، ’ السالم‘ في الأصل و زيدت في 5، كلمة ’ السالم‘ و الصحيح كما أثبتناه في النص كمـا وردت في 5

> والرابع: مالا ينصرف،736، وجاءني أحمدُ737 ور أيت أحمدَ، ومررت بأحمدَ، والخامس: الضمير المنّصل 738، في أكرمثُكَ، و مررت بكَ، وإنّأُ ، ولهُ، 739 وكذللك 740 الجمع. 741 و من قيام الحرف مقامَ الحركة: (النون في يفعلان، و تفعلان، و يفعلون، و تفعلون، وتفعلين)

736 الصرف التنوين ، والممنوع من الصرف ، هو الممنوع من التنوين ، ويمنع الاسم من التنوين أو الصرف إذا
 كالوصفية وزيادة الألف و النون مثل: عطشان و غضبان، وقد تكون فيه علة واحدة تقوم مقام العلتين، كصيغة منتهى الجموع مثل: مساجد ومصابيح ومفاتيح وكالمختوم بألف التأنيث الممدودة أو المقصورة مثل : صحر اء وحبلى انظر : شرح /بن عقيل: 69 ،70 /1، شرح قطر الندى: ص 70-72 ، /بن يعبش: 58-62 /1 ، التمهيبي في النحو
والصرف: ص 126،127 ،

737 سقطت العبارة ’جاءني احمد‘ في 3 ، 5 ، 7 ،
738 سقطت كلمة ’ المتصل‘ في الأصل و وردت في 3، و الصحيح كما أثبتتاه في المتن كما وردت ما عدا الأصل $739{ }^{73}$ الضمائر لا توصف بالنصب ولا بالجر لأنّها مبنيّة في محل نصب أو جر أو رفع ، و إنّما يكون النصب و والجر للأسماء المعربة ، والمؤلف حينما تكلم عن المو اضع الأربعة السابقة إنّما كان يتكلم عن حركة أو ما ناب عنها من حركة أخرى أو حرف ، مما يقتضيه العامل المتقفم كعلامة للنصب مرّة وللجر مرّة أخرى، أمّا حركة الكاف أو الهاء أو حركة هم و هما أو سكونهما فليست إعر ابا جلبه العامل المتقام ، وإنّما هي حركات بناءٍ أو سكون بناءٍ لازمة يتحكم فيها نوع الضمير، وأمّا التّساوي بين وقوع الضمير في محل نصب ووقو عه في محل جر فإنّما هو في الصورة فقط ،
 ، 740 في 2، 3، 5، يستعمل كلمة ’كذا، بدل كلمة ’كنلك ، 741 وفي 2، 3، يستعمل كلمة، ’الجميع‘ بدل ’ 'الجمع‘ وزيدت في 7 ، ’ ' كذا الجمع إنهم ولهم‘ في 5، ’ 'نحو إنّهم ولهم‘

في 6 ، 'كذلك الجمع المثنّى'
742 هناك تققيم وتاخير زيادة و نقص في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ أي في الأفعال الخمسة، أن تثبت فيها النون، دلت على رفع الفعل، وإن حذفت، فالفعل إماً منصوب و إما مجزوم كما ذكر المصنف، وللمزيد انظر :شرح اللمع : 1/30
743 في 3 ، 7، في النصب و الجزم، و زيدت في الأصل 'كسقوط الحركة، وسقطت في جميع ما سوا الأصل يريد المؤلف أنّها تحذف في حالتي الجزم و النصب ، كما تحذف الضمّة في حالتي النصب والجزم للفعل المضـار ع الدّي لم يتصل به ألف الأثثين أو واو الجماعة : أو ياء المخاطبة، فالفعل [يضرب] مثلا تسقط ضمتّه عندما يجزم أو ينصب ، فتقول: لم يضربْ ولن يضربَ 744 في 2 ، 5 ، يستعمل كلمة ’نحو‘ 'بدل ’ تقول،

يَقْعَلا، ولن تَمْعَلا، ولم يفعلوا، ولن تفعلوا، ولم تفعَلي، و لن تفعَلي) 745 (ومن ذلك حروف اللمدِّ واللين، في الفعل المعثّل اللام 746، فإنّها تتثبُت ساكنة في الرفع نحو:747 يغزو 748 و و يرمى، ويخشى، و تسقط في الجزم، كسقوط الحركة، 749 نحو: لم يغز'، و و لم يرم، ولم يخشَ، ويتحرَّك الواو والياء في النصب، نحو: لن يغزوَ، ولن يرمىَ، 750 وتثبُت الألف ساكنة751 في النصب متلها 752 في الرفع، نحو: لن يخشى لامتتاعها عن الحركة؛ ${ }^{753}$ فصل في الأسماء: 754 الأسماء على ضربين:
معرب ومبني:755 والمعرب هو ما اختلف آخره باختلاف العوامل، 756 كما ذكرنا. والمبني: 757 هو ما كانت 758 حركتّه و سكونه لا بعاملِ، ثمّ المعرَب على ضربين ${ }^{759 ، ~}$

745 هناك تققيم و تأخير، زيادة و نقص في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ، و في 2 ، 3، ’لم يفعلا و لن يفعلا و لم يفعلو ا ولن تفعلوا و لم تفعلي‘ و في 5، ’لم يفعلا و لم يفعلوا و لم تفعلي و لن تفعلا و لن تفعلوا ولن تفعلي، في 5 ، 'نحو لم تفعلا، و لن تفعلا، ولم يفعلو ولن يفعلو ، ولم تفعلي، 746 في 7 ، ’معتل اللذ خر ‘ بدل ’المعتل اللام‘ 747 في 7، 'كقو للك،
748 مع تققير الضمّة على الواو في [يغزو] و على الياء في [يرمي] و على الألف في [يخشى] في 5، ’يقفف، في 2 ، 'هو يغزو'
749 في الأصل ’سقوط الحركة، في 3 ، 2، ’كسقوط الحركة، و الصحيح كما وردت في 3 ، 2 ، كما أثبتتاه في
الصلب
750 سقطت كلمة، 'ولن يخشى‘ في الأصل وردت في 6 ، ’لن يخشى‘ و في 7 ، 'و لن يدعو و لن يرمي' 751 في 7 ، و يبقى الألف ساكنة في النصب
752 في 2 ، سقطت كلمة 'مثلها في الرفع' وزيدت في 7 ، ’مثل ما كان،
753 هناكك سقط ما بين القو سين $\}$ \{ في نسخة 1، ' تبداء من : من ذلك حروف المد و اللين في الفعل ...إلى .. نحو لن يخشى لإمتتاعها عن الحركة،
ألف لا نقبل الحركة التتي جاء بها الناصب و هي الفتحة، بخلاف المعتل الآخر بالياء أو بالو او فإنّه يقبل الفتحة خفيفة على كل من الواو والياء
754 سقطت كلمة، ’في الأسماء‘ في الأصل و في 5، وردت كلمة ’في الأسماء‘ والمناسب كما وردت في 5، كما
أثنتتاه في المتن

منصرفُّ 760 وغيرُ منصرف: 761 والمنصرفٍ هو 762 مـا يدخله الجّر و 763 التنوين 764 و غبرُ المنصرف هو مـا لا بدخله الجّر و اللنوين 765، وكان في موضع الجّر مفنوحـَ. 766 و

755 سقطت العبارة، 'ومبني و المعرب؛ في الأصل و وردت في 1، 3، 5 ، والصحيح كما وردت ما عدا الأصل كما أثبتناه في الصلب
756 و زيدت في 3، ’لفظأ و تقدير ٪،
في زمن تعربف المعرب، قال ابن يعيش: الاسم المعرب ما أختلف آخره باختلاف العو امل لفظأ و محلا بحركة أو حرف و عند ابن حاجب: هو المركب الذي لم يشّبه ’مبني الأصل، و عند معظم النحاة كما ذكر المؤلف عليه الرحمة ، و لمَ كان الإعراب في آخر الكلمة و لم يكن في أولّها و لا في وسطها و قيل إنّما لوجهين: أحدهما أنّ الإعراب دليل و المعرب مدلول عليه و لا يصح اقامة الدليل إلا بعد تقّام ذكر المدلول عليه فلذللك كان الإعراب آخر اً ، و الوجه الثاني: أنّه لمّا أحتيج إلى الإعراب لم يخل من أن يكون أوّلا أو وسطا أو آخراَ فلم يجز أن يكون أولا لإنّ الحرف الأول لا لا لا يكون إلا متحركا فلو جعل الإعراب أولا لم يعلم إعراب هو أم بناء و مع ذللك فان من جملة الإعراب الجزم الذي هو سكون في آخر الأفعال فلو كان الإعراب أوّلا لامتتع منها الجزم إذا الأول لا يمكن أن يكون ساكنأ ، لم يجعل وسطا لانّ بوسط الكلمة يعرف وزنها هل هي على فعل كفرس أو فعل ككتفٍ أو على فعل كعضدٍ مع أنّ من الأسماء ما هو رباعي الأسط له فلمّا إمتتع الأول و الوسط لم ييق إلا جعل الإعراب آخرا وللمزيد انظر : /بن يعبش: 50-52 /1.
انظر : لسان العرب والصحاح ، مادة [عرب] التعريفات: رقم التعريف ، 1760، أسر/ر العربية: ص 22 ، شرح
قطر الندى: ص16، شرح الرضي: 1/55 ،شرح اللمع: 1/7
 758 سقطت كلمة ’كان، في 7،
قال ابن سر اج في حد البناء: و هو أن يبنى آخر الكلمة على حركة غير مفارقةٍ أو سكون غير مفارق، و عند ابن هشام
 ، علىأربعة أقسام : مبني على الكسر، نحو: كهؤ لاء و مبني على الفتح، نحو: بأحد عشر و أخواتها و و المبني على الضّ الضّ
، نحو: قبلُ و بعدُ ، والمبني على السكون، نحو : من و كم:

$$
\text { و759 في } 3 \text { ، 'علمزيد انظر : شرح قطر الندى : 16-33 ، /بن يعبش: 80-84 /4 ، }
$$

760 المنصرف، يقال له متمكن أيضأ، انظر : الأصول في النحو: لأبن سراج، أبو بكر ابن محمد ابن سراج ، تحقيق: عبد الحسين الفطلي، مطبعة سلمان الأعظمي، بغداد: 1973. 1/53
761 في الأصل سقطت كلمة 'و غبر منصرف ، و زيدت في 3 والصحيح كما أثبتتاه في المتن كما وردت في3 ، 3 ، وغير المنصرف: يختزل عنه الجّر والتنوين لشبه الفعل ويحرّك بالفتح في موضع الجرّ، كأحمدَ ومروان إلا إذا

أضيف أو دخله لام التعريف، انظر: /بن يعبش: 56، 57 /1 1

الأسباب المانعة من الصرف [21] تسعة"767، التعريف678، والتأنيث، و وزنٌ الفعل، والوصف، والعدل‘769، والعجمة، والتركيبُ، والجمع الأقصىى 770، والألف والنون المضار عتان 771، لألفي772 التأنيث. ومتى اجتمع في الاسم سببان منها773 أو تكرّر

762 في 5، سقطت كلمة، 'وهو '
763 في الأصل وردت كلمة، 'مع' و في 2 ، 3 ، 5، يستعمل كلمة ’بدل مع' والصحيح كما أثبتتناه في الصلب،
764 فالمعرب يقال له متمكن أيضأ، انظر :الأصول في النحو: لأبن سر اج، 1/53 ، 163
765 في 3، زيدت العبارة، ' كذيد و غير منصرف و هو ما لا يدخله الجر مع التنوين'
766 يريد أن الممنو ع من الصرف يجرّ بالفتحة نيابة عن الكسرة ، كما في ’مررت بأحمد، أمّا في غير الجرّ فيرفع بالضمّة وينصب بالفتحة من غير تنوين،
انظر : شرح /بن عقيل: 69 /1 ، النتمهي في النحو والصرف: ص 126 ،127 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص 70 ، 767 في 3 ، 5 ، زيدت كلمة 'و هي وقد جمعت هذه العلامات في بيت واحد،
و عجمة ثّمّ جمع ثمّ تركيب
و وزن فعلِ و هذا القولُ نقريب
والوزن زائدة من فبلها الف

$$
\text { انظر :/سر/ر العربية: ص 307، شرح /بن عقيل: } 250 \text { /2 }
$$

768 التعريف: مطلقأ ليس مانعأ للصرف، فالتعريف المانع من الصرف هو الذي ينقل الاسم من جهّة أنّه متضّمن فيه من غير علامة تدخل عليه وهو تعريف العلمية، إذا اجتمع معها سبب آخر،

$$
\text { انظر : /بن بعشش: } 59 \text { /1، الدوجز في النحو: ص 70، }
$$

769 في 3، 'و العدل و الوصف،
إحدى العلل اللفظية التي تمنع الاسم من الصرف إذا القترنت بالعلميّة ، و عند ’ أبن حاجب ‘ خروجه عن صيغته الأصلية ، تحقققاً نحو، زفر أو بالوصفية ، نحو : أخَر، ،
انظر : الدعجم الدفصّل في علوم العربية: ص 406 /1، /بن يعيش: 61، 62 /1، شرح الرضي: 113 /3 770 أي صيغة منتهى الجموع، و هو كل جمع بعد ألفه حرفان أو ثلاثة أحرف أوسطها ساكن: كسساجد وقناديل ودر اهم ودنانير
وللثفصيل انظر : شرح الٔمع: 1/27، التمهيِ في النحو والصرف: ص، 139، ابن بعشش: 63 /1 ، 1 ،
Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol.1, p. 245.
771 المر اد المشبّهتان لألفي التأنيث الممدودة و المقصورة مثل: حمر اء، ووجه الثبه بينهما: أن الألف و النون في بناءٍ يخّص المذكر ولا تلحقها التاء عند التأنيث فمؤنث عطشان، عطشى، يجوز حمراء ولا يجوز حمر اءة
 973 في 5 ، سقطت كلمة، ’منها، و الصحيح كما في الأصل، لا

سبب774 واحد منها، مُنِع الصرفـُ وما وُجد فيه ذلك 775 أحد عشر اسمأ خمسة منها في حالة التنكير 776 وهى، أفعلْ، صفةٌ نحو: أحمر، و فُعلان الذّي مؤنثة فَلىى777، نحو: سكران 778، وسكرى، والمعدول، نحو: ثُلاثْ179 و رُباع، عُدِلا عن ثلاثةٍ ثلاثةٍ، و أربعةٍ أربعةٍ، و ما في آخره ألف التأنيث ممدودةًا 780 أو مقصورةً، كحمر اء، وصحر اءء، وحُبلى، وبُشُرى 781، والجمع الأقصى : كأساورَ، وأناعيمَ، وما كان على مثالهما من الجموع، مما بعدَ782 ألفه حرفان 783 أو ثاثلثة أحرُفٍ أوسطها ساكن كمسأجدَ،
 الحرفين بعد الألف ياءً، حذفتّها في الرفع و الجرِّ 785 ، ونَوَّنَّنَ الاسم، وأثبَبَّها في النصب

يقصد المؤلف، أن العلة الو احدة أصبحت تقوم مقام العلتين و هما، الجمع و الفا التأنيث: كمصابيح ودنانير وحمراء
وحبلى،
وللمزيد انظر :/بن يعيش: 1/71، شرح الرضي: 108-112 /1، شرح /بن عقيل: 250 /2 2 ، 2 ج74 زيدت كلمة ’سبب‘ في 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، 7، وساقطة في الأصل و الصحيح كما جاءت في ما عدا الأصل كما أثبتتاها في الصلب
775 سقطت كلمة ’ذلك، في 3، 37 ( 7 في
776 في 2، زيدت كلمة 'و التعريف،
777 في 3؛ ’و الذي يجئ مؤنث فعلى'
778 و زيدت في 6 ، 'مؤنثة سكري،
779 في 1، زيدت كلمة ’عن العدد‘ في 4 ، 'نحو ثلث و و رباع' و الصحيح كما في الأ صل 780 في 5، ’محدودة‘ و الصحيح كما أثبتتاها في الصلب
781 ما ختم بألف تأنيث ممدودة أو مقصورة يمنع من الصرف سواءً أ كان نكرة كما مثل أم معرفة مثل [رضوي ] علم على جبل المدينة ، و [زكريا] علم لنبي ، وسواءً كان مفردأ كما تققّم أم جمعأ مثل [جرحى ] جمع جريح ، وأصدقاء جمع صديق، وسواءً كان اسمأ كذكرى، وصحر اء أم صفة كحبلى وحمراء ،
 782 في 3؛ ’و مما كان، 783 في 5، زيدت كلمة 'متحركان،

784 في 5، زيدت كلمة ، البتة ،
785 في 2 ، 3 ، ، في حالة الرفع و الجر ،

 وإسماعيلَ، فأن سمَّيْتَ رجلو790 بنحو لِجام، أو فِرَنْدٍ، صرفَّهَّه. لأنّ العجمة النكرية791 غيرمؤثِرَة في منع الصرف금 792 و ما في آخره ألف ونون 793



يسمّى هذا التنوين تنوين العوض لأنه عوض عن الياء المحذوفة لإلتقاء الساكنين أو التخفيف على رأى سييويه والجهور سواء قدموا الإعلال على منع الصرف أو العكس، أو عوض عن الياء على رأي المبرد والزجاج، و يرفع مثل هذا الاسم باضمة على الياء المحذوفة، كما يجّر بالفتحة تالمستثقلة على الياء المحذوفة نيابة عن الكسرة، و السبب في استققال الفتحة على الياء في هذه الحالة إنّها نابت عن ثقيل و هو الكسرة، أمّا في حالة النصب، فتظهر الفتحة خففة على الياء، ومن شروطه حذف الياء: أن يكون الاسم المقصور خاليأ من [ال] التعريف غبر مضاف، إذا أضيف

الممنوع من الصرف أو عرف بأل كان جرّه بالكسرة مثل: نظرت إلى مصابيح المسجِِ، وأمسكت بالمصابيح، انظر : شرح الرضي: 180، 181 /1، التمهيد في النحو والصرف: ص139، نحو العربي: الخويسكي، زين كامل عبد الحميد، دار المعرفة الجامعية، إسكندرية: 1988. ص 133،ابن يعيش: 61-65 ،
 788 في 2 ، زيدت ’لا ينصرف، في 5 ، ’ لا تتصرف، وسقطت كلمة ’منها، في الأصل و وردت في 3 ، و وق أثبتتاها 789 سقطت كلمة، ’ العلم‘ في 2 ، 3 ، في 3 ، 6 ، 6 ، 7 ، ' 'الاسم الأعجمي العلم‘

790 في 4 ، سقطت كلمة 'رجلا،
791 يعني أن الاسم الأعجمي لا يمنع من الصرف إلا" إذا كان علمأ في لغته وزائدةً على ثلاثة أحرف، كابرا اهيم
 علمٌ صرفته نحو: هذا لجام و رايت لجامأ و مررتُ بلجامٍ ، كما مثل المؤلف عليه الرحمة، ، العجمة ليس المر اد منه
 بإسحاق ومن وراء إسحاق يعقوب يوه سورة الهود : رقم الآية 71 ،
 ص 301،302، التمهبي في النحو والصرف: ص133، /بن عقيل: 259 /2 2 ، 2 792 سقطت كلمة ، ’منع الصرف‘ في 3 ، 5 ، ، 5 ، 3 ، 793 في 6 ، ' الألف و النون،
794 سقطت كلمة ’يشكر ، في النسخ القادمة 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، 5 ،

والمعدول، كعُمَر، وزُفُر، عُدِلا عن عامر، وزافر، المعرفتين 795، والمؤنث لفظأ كطلحة، وسلمة، أو معنىً [22] كسعاد، وزينب، 796 ، والاسمـان اللذان 797 جُعِلا اسمـا واحدا7987، كمعد يكرب، وبعلبكَّ، وكل ما لا ينصرف في المعرفة، ينصرف في


795 إذا كان العلم معدولا به إلى فُعل كعُمَر وزُفر وزُحل وڤُز ح وجُمح ، منع من الصرف للعلمية والعدل ـ و الأصل :

وللمزيد انظر :/بن يعيش: 69 /1،/سر/ر العربية: ص 307-314، /لتمهيي في النحو والصرف: ص 134، 135، 796 يريد ما كانت علامته غير لفظية ، وشرط منعه من أن يكون زائدأ على ثلاثة أحرف كسعاد وزينب، لأن رابعه ينزل منزلة تاء التأنيث، أو ثلاثيأ محرك الوسط، كسقر وملكَ فان كان ثلاثيأ ساكن الوسط غير أعجمي جاز صرفه ومنعه من الصرف كهند ودعد، كما قال جرير
لم تتلقُع بفضل مئز رها دعا ولم شُسق دعْدُ في العُلبِ

انظر : ديوان جرير: ( شرح) تحقيق: محمد اسماعبل عبد الها الصاوي، الدكتبة التجارية الكبرى، القاهرة: 1934. ص 82 ، ابن يعيش : 70 /1 ، شرح جمل الزجاجي : ص 302 ، /لكتاب: سييويه، عمرو ابن عثمان ابن قنبر، تحقيق: عبد السلام هارون، الهيئة المصرية العامة، القاهرة: 1977 ـ 197241 ، 24 ،

$$
797 \text { سقطت كلمة ’ اللذان‘ في } 3 \text { ، }
$$

798 يريد المركب المزجي، هو المركب من كلمتين امتزجتا، فصـارتا كلمة واحدة ، ونزلت ثانيتهما من الأولى منزلة تاء التأنيث من الأسماء ويظهر الإعراب ، فأما مركب الاضافي ، كعبد اله ، و المركب الأسنادي، كتأبط شراً، فليس ممنو عأ من الصرف بسب العلمية و التركيب ، وأما في معد يكرب ففيه الوجهان، (1) التركيب والإضافة ، فان ركبتهما جعلتهما اسماً واحدأ وأعربتها إعراب ما لا ينصرف فتقول هذا معد يكربُ ور أيت معد يكربَ ومررت بمعد يكرب (2) منع الصرف وصرفه، فإذا صرفتّه اعتقدت فيه التذكير وإذا منعته الصرف اعتقدت فيه التنأنيث فتقول في المنصرف هذا معد يكرب" رأيت معد يكرب ومررت بمعد يكرب، كما فال ابن ماللك
والعلمَ يمنع صرفهُ مركبًّا تركيب مزج نحو 'معد يكربا،

انظر: هـع الهوا مع: ص 32، شرح /بن عقيل: 256 /2 ، ابن بعيش: 65 ،66 /1 ، الإبضاح العضُدي: ص 306 ، الدعجم الدفصل في علوم اللغة: ص 567 /2 ، 2
Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, v ol. 1, p. 244
799 يريد أن ما اجتمعت فيه علتان إحداهما العمية (التعريف) إذا زالت عنه العلمية، و بقيت فيه علة واحدة عاد
مصروفأ إلاَ ما استثناه المؤلف و ذلك مصداق قول ابن مالك في ألفية:


و للتفصيل انظر :/بن يعيش: 69،70 / 1 ، شرح ابن عقيل: 260-262 / 2 ،

التنأنيث ${ }^{803 ، ~ م ق ص و ر ة ً ~ ا ٔ و ~ م د و د ة َ 804 ، ~-~ و ~ ف ُ ع ل ا ن ~ ا ل ذ ي ~ م و ٔ ن ث ه ~ ف َ ع ْ ل ى ~ 805 ، ~ و ا ل ج م ع ~}$ الأقصى 806، والثلاثي الساكن الأوسط يجوز فيه ${ }^{80}$ الصرف ون وتركه نحو: هِنْد، ودَعْد، و نُوْح، و لوْط، وما فيه سبب ثالث كماهَ، و جورَ
 الرباعي، كسُعاد، وزَينب، ونحو: حَّامُ 812، فيه مذهبان، الإعراب مع منع الصرف، لكونها معدولة عن حاذمة"813، والآخرُ البناء على الكسر، و عليه قول الثاعر،

 الثاهد فيه: فوله [حذام] وفيها ثلاث لغات، أحدها، لأهل الحجاز، وهي البناء على الكسر مطلقا، كما ذكر الصنف،
 وهى النفصيل بين أن يكون مختومأ بالراء فيبنى على الكسر، أو غير مختوم بها فيمنع الصرف، ومثال المختوم

وكذا ((فُعال)) التي تختص8168 بنداء المؤنث، (نحو يا لكاع، ويا خُباثِ، ويا فساق) ${ }^{81}$ (817،
 وكل ما لا ينصرف إذا أضيف أو دخله الألفُعٌ820 و اللامُ، انجرَّ بالكسر 821، تقول: 822 مررت بالأحمر والحمراءء238، وبعُمَركم وبعثمانِنا فالمبنى 824 على ضربان: 825 لازمٌ و و عارضٌ، فاللازم : مـا تضنّمنَ826 معنى الحرف كأين، و متى، وكيف والعارض:[23] خمسة أثبياء ${ }^{831 ، ~}$

بالراء’سفار’‘ بالسين المهولة، والمانع له من الصرف العلمية و العدل عن فاعله عند سييويه، والعلمية و التأنيث عند المبرد،
والاستشهاد فيه بقوله حذام، فإنّه فاعله في الموضعين ومن حقه لو لم يكن مبنيأ أن يكون مرفو عأ غير أنّه بناه على الكسر تتبييهاً له بنز ال وهو مذهب أهل الحجاز، وهو المختار عندنا،

وللتفصيل انظر: شرح المقصل: لابن يعيش، 4/64، الخصائص: لابن جني، 1/569، شرح /بن عقبل: شاهد الشعر: 16 ، 1/192، شرح شذور الذهب: شاهد الشعر، 38، ص 95، شرح قطر الندى: شاهد الشعر، 1 ص 18، معاني القرّن: للفرّاء، أبي زكريا يحيى ابن زياد، تحقيق: احمد يوسف النجاطي ومحمد النجار، دار السرور ، بيروت : 1955. 2/94 [قبيل سورة الحجر]
 817 و هناك تقديم و تاخير في العبارة ما بين القوسبن في اكثر النسخ 818 في 3 وردت كلمة، ’ أفعال، بدل كلمة ’ الأفعال، و الصحيح كمـا وردت في في الأصل


820 في 2، ’ أدخله الألف، والصحيح كمـا وردت في الأصل 821 سقطت كلمة ة بالكسر ‘ في 2، 4 ،

823 في 6 ، 'با لاحمر و الحمراء‘ 824 سقطت كلمة، والمبني في 28،
وفي اللغة: البناء جمعه أبنية، وأصل البناء فيما لا ينمى كالحجر والطين، ويقال فلان صحيح البنية، أي الفطرة، ويسمّى بناءً من حيث كان البناء لازمأ موضعأ لا يزول من مكان إلى آخره، وللمزيد انظر : لسان العرب، ( مادة بنى ) الصحاح، (مادة بناء) المعجم الدقصل في علوم اللغنة: 131 /1 ، شرح قر قطر الندى : ص 17، الخصائص: لأبن جني 1/37، كتاب الأندوزج في النحو: الزمخشرى، محمود غبن عمر، نظارة

المضـاف إلى ياء المتكلم، نحو: غُلامي 832 ، والمنادى المفرد 833 المعرفة334، نحو: يا زيدُ، والنكرةُ المفردةُ مع (لا) التي 835 لنفى ${ }^{836}$ الجنس، نحو: لا رجلَّ في الدار 837 و

المعارف الجليلة ، قسطنطينية: 1298 / ه ـ ص89، 90، الكامل في دراسات النحوية و نشأتها : هلال، محمد محمود، منشورات جامعة قاريونس، بنغازي: بدون تاريخ ـ ص 60 . 825 في 3، ’نو عان‘ وفي 2 ، 5 ، 7 ‘’ضربين'
826 في 7، ’ما يتضمّن، بدل ’تضمن‘، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
827 البناء يخالف الإعراب، والواقع أن الحروف كأين، ومتى، وكيف ، نوع واحد من أنواع الثبه بين الاسماء والحروف التي توجب البناء ، والأسباب الموجبة لبناء الاسم ثلاثة (1) تضمن معنى الحرف ومثابهة الحرف و الوقوع موقع الفعل المبني (2) أسماء الاستفهام لثبه هل وهمزة في الدلالة على معنى الإستفهام (3) واسماء الثرط تشبه [إن] الشرطية
انظر :أبن يعيش: 80 /3،
828 في 1، زيدت، كلمة 'و كنلك ، شبه الحرف هو علة البناء عند النحاة يقول أبن مالك،
الاسم منه معرب ومبني لثبه من الحروف مدنّي

ثمّ يذكرابن مالك ضروب الشبه، وأمّا أنواع الثبه بالحروف فقد قسّمه النحاة إلى أربعة أقسام، ( () الثبه الوضعي: مثل، أعطيت أعطينا، (ب) الثبه المعنوي: مثل، متى و هل و هما، (ج) الثبه الأستعمالي: مثل، هيهات، أف، أسكت،
(د) الثبه الافتقاري: مثل الذى، التنى،

وللتفصيل انظر: شرح ابن عقيل: 28-1/31، التمهيا في النحو والصرف: ص 102، 103، 829 8ريد المؤلف ، الثبه الإفتقاري : وذلك أن يحتاج الاسم إلى جملة توضح معناه وقد حصر النحاة ذلك في الأسماء

الموصولة كما مثل المؤلف ،
830 سقطت كلمة ، ’من وما، في الأصل و وردت في 7، و زيدت في 3 ، ’ فأنها لا نتم ألا بصلة، والصحيح كما وردت في 7، و قد أثبتناها في الصلب
هناك أنواع أخرى من الثبه ، كالثبه الوضعي و الثبه المعنوي ، والثبه الإستعمالي ،
831 زيدت كلمة ، ’ أحدها، في 5،
832 الصحيح في هذه الكلمة و ما أثنبهها أنّها معربة وليست مبنيّة ويكون إعرابها بحركات مقدّرة على ما فبل الياء رفعأ ونصبأ وجرآ، والمانع من ظهور حركات الإعراب عليها اشتغال المحل بالحركة المناسبة و هي الكسرة التي

جيء بها لمناسبة الإضافة إلى ياء المتكلم،
انظر:شرح قطر /لندى: ص 282-284 ، التمهيي في النحو والصرف: ص 366،367 ، 833 في الأصل، ’ المفرد‘ في 1، 7، ’ المفر دة‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل وقد أثبتتاها

المركب نحو خمسة عشرَ-838، وما حذف منه المضاف إليه وهو: قبلُ، وبعدُ، فوقُُ، و تحتُ، وكذا باقي الجهات، 839 تقول: جئنّك 840 من قبل زيدٍ، ثم تتركُ الإضافةُ و تنوينها

834 يريد بالمفرد المعرفة: المنادى الهفرد العلم، فهو مبني على ما يرفع به في محل نصب ، نحو: يا زيُُ ويا زيان ويازيدون،
انظر: شرح قطر الندى: ص 284 ،شر /بن عقيل: 201 /2 2 ،
835 سقطت كلمة ’التي، في الأصل و زيدت كلمة ’ التي‘ في 1 ، 3 ، 7، والصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ كما أثبتناها في الصلب
836 و زيدت، كلمة لا التي، في 1، 3 ، 3 ، 837 في 2 ، سقطت كلمة ’ في الارار ،
838 العدد المرّكبة مع العشرة: من أحد عشر إلى تسعة عشر ، كما تقول: جاءني أحد عشر ور أيت أحد عشر ومررت بأحد عشر، بيناء الجزئين على الفتح، إلا [ إثي عشر و و إثنتى عشر ]


840 زيدت في 1 ، 2 ، ' 'جبَّكَك من قبل ومن بعد،

 وعل و أيضاً و غير وحسب وأولّ ودون، ولها أربعة أحوال

 و عليه قول الثاعر،

## فما عطنتّ مولىُ عليه العوطفـ،

ومن قبل نادى كلُ مولى قر ابة




$$
\text { انظر:شنرح قطر الندى : ص 25، 30، شرح /بن عقبل: رقم الشعر، 235، } 59 \text { /2 }
$$

 843 في 1 ، 4 ، وردت كلمة 'غايات، بدل كلمة 'غاية، و الصحيح كما وردت في النص،

المضاف بالمضاف إليه، فلمّا انقطع عنهنَّ، صرن حدودأ ينتهي الكلامُ844 عندها. و المبنى 845 اللازم من الأفعال الماضي والأمر بغير اللام. 846 والعارض: المضـار ع ${ }^{847}$ إذا انصل به نون ضمير جماعة النساء، أو نون التأكبد، نحو: يفعلنَ، و هل يَمَحَنَّه88، وأما الحروف، فلا يكونُ849 بناؤ ها إلا لازما، لأنها لا حظ لها من الإعراب:
واعلم 850، أنّ هذه الكلمات منها، ما يَمْملُ و يُعْملُ فيه، كعامة الأسماء المتمكّنة، و الفعل المضـارع. ${ }^{851}$ و منها ما يَعْملُ ولا يُعْمَلُ فيه، كالحروف العاملة852، و الفعل 844 في 3 ، 7 ، سقطت كلمة، ’ الكلام‘ و في 3، سقطت كلمة ’عندها ، و وردت في 6 ، ، ' ينتهي عندها الكلام‘
 846 8 بغير اللام: الأمر بغير اللام، هو فعل الأمر متل: إضرب، أمّا الفعل المضارع المقترن بلام الأمر متل: لِتضرب،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { فهو مضارع معرب } \\
& \text { انظر:شرح قطر النـى: ص } 39 \text { ،شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص } 289 \text { ، } \\
& \text { 847 } 8 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 'من المضارع' }
\end{aligned}
$$









 أكثر النسخ
851 81 الاسماء الدتمكنة أي المعربة يعمل فيما غير ها، كما هو الحال في الخبر والفاعل والمفعول والحال و التميز واسم كان وخبر ها، واسم إنّ وخبر ها و الهجرور..... كما تعطل هي في غير ها، كالمشتقات التي تعطل عطل فعلها، فترفع الفاعل ونائب الفاعل وتنصب المفعول والمبتّأ يرفع الخبر، و الهضاف يجَر المضاف إليه الخ..... كذلك الفعل
المضارع يعمل فيما بعده من فاعل أو نائب فاعل أو مفعول، كما يعمل فيه غيره من النو اصب والجو الجوازم م [ أنْ ] الناصبة وأخواتهاو [لم] الجازمة و أخو اتها، وأدوات الشرط التني تجزم فعلين،

852 ${ }^{\text {ز ريدت في 3، 'نحو ومن، }}$

الماضي353، والأمر بغير اللام ${ }^{854 ، ~ و ا ل ا ٔ س م ا ء ~ ا ل م ن ض َ م ن ة ، ~ ب م ع ن ى ~} 855$ إنْ، غيرَ أبيّ، ومنها ما لا يَعْمَلُ ولا يُعْمَلُ فيه، كغير العوامل من الحروف 856 ، والمضمرات و نحوها. والعامل عندهم ما أوجبَ كون آخر الكلمة على وجه 857 مخصوصِ من الإعراب. 858
مثل: حروف الجر، وحروف النصب، وحروف الجزم

853 في الأصل ’فعل الماضي؛ في 2، 3، 5 ، ’وا لفعل الماضي؛ و الصحيح كما وردت ما عدا الأصل و قد أثبتّاه في الهتن
 سورة الإسر اء : رقم الآية 7 ، ولذا كان ينبغي ألا يبظله فيما يعمل ولا يُّعل فيه كالحروف العاملة إلا بعد استثناء هذه

 الأمر متل : لتحترمْ معلكَك، كما يؤثر في غير هي
855 في الأصل وردت كلمة، 'بمعنى، و في 1 ، 3 ، ، ' لـعنى'
856 زيدت في 4 ، 'نحو هل بل،
المراد من الحروف التي لا تعطل فيما بعدها ولا يعمل فيها غير ها ها ما كان كقف و السين وسوف وما وا النافية ولا النافيّ،
و هل وبل و همزة... وأما من الهضمرات فان كان يريد بها بها الضمائر فان غير ها يا يعطل فيها وتكون في محل رفع أو نصب أو جر، إلا أن تريد بكلامه ما يعمل الإعراب

857 8 في 2 ، 'على أوجه مخصوص،
858 في 1 ، ، ' في الإعراب، و وردت كلمة ’الأفعال، بدل كلمة الإِعراب‘ في 2 ، 3 ، 6، العامل في اللغة مشنق من الفعل (عمل) بكسر الميه، عمل يعمل عملا، بمعنى المهنة و الفنل، وفى المصطلح النحوي، ما أوجب كون آخر الكلمة على وجه مخصوص

 شرح العامل وشروطه، ووجه عطله حتى أن نظرية العامل عندهم تكاد تكون هي النحو كله كـا فال 'إير اهيم مصطفى، في ’’جياء الانحو‘ ‘ألبس النحو هو الإعراب ؟ والإعراب أثر العامل ؟ فلم يق إذأ للنحو إلا أن يتتّع هذه العوامل،
وللتفصيل انظر : لسان العرب و الصحاح (مادة عمل) التنريفات: للجرجاني ، رقم النتريف ، 1166 ، شرح الرضي: 1/72، إحياء النحو: ص 22 ، العوامل المائة النحوية فيأصول علم العربية: الجرجاني، عبد القاهر بن عبد الرحمن ، تحقيق: بدراوي زهر ان دار المعارف، مصر: 1983 ـ ص 141-143،

والعامل ${ }^{859}{ }^{85}$ : لفظي ومعنوي، \}فاللفظي، ضربان:860 فِياسِيي، و سِماعي،

 وثوبَ بكر, و السماعي 865، وهو ما صحّ 866 أن يقال فيه هذا يعمل كذا و هذا يعمل كذا

Levin, Aryeh. Arabic Linguistic Thought and Dialectology, pp. 228, 229; Bohas and Guillaum, The Arabic Linguistic Tradition, pp. 53-55; Versteegh, The Explanation of Linguistic Causes, pp. 95-97.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 859 \text { في 5، سقطت كلمة ’العامل، و وردت في } 4 \text { ، 'فالعامل على ضربان' } \\
& 860 \text { في 2، يستعمل كلمة، 'نو عان' بدل كلمة 'ضربـ، } 860
\end{aligned}
$$

861 سقطت كلمة 'وسماعي‘ في 2 ، 3، وسقطت كلمة ’فالقياسّي، في ألأصل وزيدت في 5، و هو الصحيح و قد أثبتتاها في الصلب
862 في 3، ' كفوللك،
863 في 1، 'غلام رجل'
864 في 6، ' قسنا عليه،
قيل إنّ المضـاف إليه مجرور بالمضـاف، وقيل إنّه مجرور بحرف جرٍ مقدّر، وهو اللام، أو من، أو في، وإنّ الهضاف تضمّنَ معنى هذه الحروف وينتيّن نققير (من) إذا كان المضاف جنسأ للمضـاف مثل: هذا ثوب خز، وخاتم


 ] [أو [في] فالإضافة بمعنى اللام نحو: هذا كتاب علي ، و هذه حقيبة صالح ، أي كتاب لعليّ وحقيبة لصالحه، و هذه
الإضافة هي التى تفيد التعريف و التخصيص و تسمّى المحضة أى الخالصة بكون المعنى فيها مو افقأ للفظ 'و إذا أضفته إلى معرفة تعرف، و ذلك نحو غلام زيدٍ فغلام نكرة و لمّا أضفته إلى زيد إكتسب منه تعريفأ و صـار معرفة بالإضافة و إذا أضفته إلى نكرة إكتسب تخصيصا- و هذه الإضافة المعنوية تكون على معنى أحد حرفين من حروف الجر و هما اللام و من كما ذكرنا، ويذكر فيشذور الذهب قسم آخر للمجرور ، وسميّ المجرور للمجاورة ، و هو شاذ ، نحو: هذا جحرٌ ضبّ خرب؛
 ، بعيش: 118 / 119، 18
865 في 2، ’فالسماعية،
866 سقطت كلمة ’ما صحّ ‘ في 1 ، 3؛

وليس للك أن نتجاوزه867 كقولنا86880 إنّ الباء تجُّرُ و لم تَجْزُم ولن تنصب 869، وأما 870

$$
\text { الباب الثاتيي: } 871 \text { فسنذكرهو872 في موضعه (إن شاء الها تعالى) } 873
$$

في العو امل اللفظية القياسية، قدَّمنا القِياسيّة لاطر ادها، و لأنّ الفعل منها، وهو الأصل في العمل، وجملئها سبعة: 874 الفعل على الإطلاق واسم الفاعل، واسم 875 المفعول و الصفة المشبهّةٌ 876 و 877 المصدر
والاسم المضـاف والاسم التام.

أمـا الفعل، فايّه يعمل الرفع و النصب في الأسماء، أمّا الرفع فعام، لأنَّ كل فعل برفع اسمأ واحدَ878 إذا أسند إليه8879 مقّدما عليه، نحو: فَعَلَ زيدٌ. 880 فان لم يكن مُظهرَ

$$
868867 \text { في } 18 \text { ، } 2 \text { في } 2 \text { ' أن يتجاوز إلـى غيره' و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

869 هقطت كلمة ’لن تنصب؛ في الأصل، و زيدت في 5، والصحيح كما وردت في 5، كما أثبتناها في المتن

 872 في 7، 'فنذكره، بدل 'فسنذكره، 87
873 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 3 ، 6 ، 6
874 في 2، زيدت كلمة ’عوامل،
875 سقطت كلمة ’ و ، في 2 ، 5، و سقطت كلمة ’ أسم ‘ في 1،
876 الصفة المشبّهة - ما اثنقّ" من فعل لازمَ لمن قام به الفعل على معنى الثبوت، وتعمل الرفع حملا على اسم الفاعل ولا تعمل النصب في المفعول به على الأخّص، ولكنّها تنصب الحال والتمييز، و المستثنى، وظرف الزمان والدكان، والمفعول له والمفول معه، وإنّما سميّت هذه الصفة مشبّهة، لأنّها في الأصل لا تتصب، فهي مباينة للفعل ولكنها أثبهت اسم الفاعل فهي تشبه اسم الفاعل في وجهي (1) الحدوث (2) وفبول التذكير و التأنيث والإفراد والتثنية والجمع
 الجمل للزجاجي : ص 178-180، العو/مل المائة النحوية: ص 324-326 ، النحو العربي: ص 321،320، شرح
الرضي : 3/431

877 في 3 ، 'المصدر ، بدل 'والمصدر،


فيُضمر، إمّا ${ }^{881}$ بارز، كالتاء في فعلتُ، أو مستكن كالمَنْويّ882 في أفحَلْ 883 ثّم 884 إنّ
 يخثّص بالفاعل كذهبتُ، وقمتُ، وقعدتُ، والمتعدي على ثلاثة أضربٍ 889 متعدٍٍ إلى

$$
\text { 879 في } 6 \text { ، زيدت كلمة ’الفعل ، ، }
$$

880 في 2، زيدت العبارة ’ فلا بد للفعل من فاعل نحو قام زيد‘ و و في 4، ’و لا بد للفعل من الفاعل ويكون مظهرَ،

$$
881 \text { كلمة، ’’متّا ، سقطت في } 2 \text { ، } 3 \text { ، } 5 \text { ، }
$$

882 المستكن المنوي: يريد به المستتر، و وهو ما ليس لهي صورة ، هنا ضمير مستنر وجوبًا تفتيره أنت، متل على" قام، أي هو انظر :شرح قطر النـى: ص 129، 130، شرح ابن عقيل: 84 /1 883 في 2 ، ’ أفعل و أفعل، في

$$
884 \text { وفي } 2 \text { ، 3، 'ثمّ أعلى، }
$$



 مفورله إن لم يُّبْ عن فاعله، نحو : تدبَرت الكتب
انظر: الدعجم /لدفصل: ص 547 /1، /بن يعيش: 62 /7 ، شرح /بن عقيل : 451-1/453 ، 886 في الأصل و في 2 ، 'نصب، و الصحيح ’ينصب، كما وردت في 1، و و قد قـ أثنتناه

$$
887 \text { ز يدت في 2، 'كضربت زيدا، }
$$







 يصن إلى المفعول بحرف الجر، ثمّ إن كان المجرور غير أنّ و أن لم يجز حذف حرف حرف الجر إلا سماعاً و إن كان أنَّ و أن جاز قياساً عند أمن للّبس انظر: شرح /بن عقّل : 455-458 /1 1

انظر :المعجم الدفصل: 456 /1/ 1 ،
889 في 1، 'ثلاثة أنواع'


 إذا بُنى 899 له الفعل فيرفع 900 بإسناده إليه كةولك ضُرب زيدٌ و أعطِيَ زيدٌ در همـا 901

$$
890 \text { في 2، 'كضرب زيد‘ و في } 5 \text { ، ' كنصرت ، }
$$

891 في 5، ’عن الأول‘ والصحيح كمـا وردت في الأصل وقد أثبتناه في الصلب
يريد بذلك الأفعال التني تتصب مفعولين ليس أصلهما المبتدأ والخبر، مثل، أعطى وكسا ومنع ومنح وأعلم وسأل
 هذه المسألة عند النحاة ثلاثة أحوال: الحالة الأولى: يجب فيه تقديم الفاعل في المعنى، وفي الحالة الثانية: يجب فيها
 يُخاف أللبس، و ذلك إذا صلح كل من المفعولين أن يكون فاعلا في المعنى نحو: أعطيت زيدأ عمرو'، ثانيهما: أن


 متأخر لفظأ و رتبةٌ و ثانيهما: أن يكون الفاعل في المغنى منهما محصورأ فيه، نحو: ما أعطيت الدرهم إلا زيداً و ثالثها أن يكون المفعول في المعنى منهما ضمير أ و الفاعل في المعنى اسماً ظاهرأ، نحو: الدار هم أعطيته بكراً، أمّا الها الحالة الثالثة، نحو: أعطيت زيدأ ماله، يجوز أن تقول فيه ، أعطيت ماله زيدأ، فالضمير إن عاد على متأخر لفظأ فقد
عاد على متققرٍ رتبة،

وللتفصيل انظر :شرح الرضي: 135-144 / 4، ابن بعيش: 62-7/67، شرح /بن عقيل: 450-460 /1.
892 سقطت كلمة ’عين‘ في 2 ، 3 ، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 893 يريد بذللك أفعال التتى تتصب مفعولين، و هي، ظنّ خال، حسب، زعم، و هذه الأفعال تستّى أفعال القلوب و إنّما اعتبر فيها أنّ المفعول الثناني هو عين الأوّل ، لانّ المفعول الثناني خبر في الأصل و المفعول الأوّل مبتدأ والخبر وصف للمبتدأ
وللتفصيل انظر : /بن يعش: 77-7/79، شرح قطر الندى: ص 235، التمهيب في النحو والصرف: ص242، 243
894 في 2، 'عابدأ، و في 5، 'فاضلا'،
895 في 3 ، وردت كلمة، 'و متعدي،
896 في 3 'دفعولين‘ و والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 3 في
897 في 2 ، 3، 'و قد يقام‘
 899 في 4 ، 'إذا بني الفعل للمفعول،

ويجوز إسنادُه إلى الثاني، إلا في باب حسبتُ. 902 ومنصوب؛ 903 الفعل على ضربين: 904 خاص و عام: فالخاص ثلاثة905، المفعول به، \}لأنّا إنّما يكون للمتعدِّى كما ذكرنا و


900 في 5، يستعمل كلمة، 'نيرتفع، بدل كلمة ’يرفع' و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل

وأن الفعل المتعدي لففولين إذا بُني للمجهول ، يجوز أن ينوب عن الفاعل معه المفعول الأول أو المفورل الثاني إذا


 ظن محمدأ قايّمٌ وللمزيد انظر :/بن يعبش: 63، 64 /7
903 هناك تنّليم وتأخير في نسخة 5 ، ، تبداء من آخر سطر من ورقة 23 ، إلىى وسط الورقة 25 ، من أصل المخطوط

$$
904 \text { في } 4 \text { ، } 5 \text { ، } 7 \text { ، 'نو عين' }
$$

$$
905 \text { في 3، زيدت كلمة , أضرب، }
$$

906 الثمييز في المصطلح النحوي: هو اسم نكرة منصوب يذكر نفسيرا اللمبهم من ذات, أو جملةٍ، ينفق الحال
 منهما نكرة، و الر ابع: أنّ كل واحن احد منهما مفسر لما لما قبله. ويفترقان في سبعة أمور، أولها: أنّ الأصل في الحال أن يفسّر حالة صاحبه، و الثّهيز يفسر ما أنبهم من ذات أو نسبة





 النحو والصرف: ص 328، 329، شرح قطر الندى : 333 ، 334 ، 3 ، 907 في 6، زيدت العبارة، 'فالمبهم كالحين و الوقت و الكحدود كاليومو الثهر و الحول تقول سرت حينّأو يوماً

وخرجت يوم الجمعة و الككان المبهم فسسب؛ ؛
908 في 7 ، زيدت 'و تحبّب زيد در هماء،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 901 زيدت في 1، 'فيرفع بابِناده ، } \\
& 902 \text { زيدت كلمة 'علمت، في 2، }
\end{aligned}
$$


 والمفورل له، و المفعول معه، والحال)15، أمّا الأول، فكل فعل ينصِبِ مصدرَه سواء
 الضرب الذي تُعلم، و ما كان بمعنى المصدر أيضأ، نحو ضربته سوطـ، 919

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 099 9ي } 1 \text { ، ،و كـا في التزتزيل، } \\
& \text { 910 910 سورة مريم : رقم الآية: } 3 \\
& \text { 911 سقطت كلمة، أفعال في 5، و ور ودت في 4، ’ 'الأفعال محدودة‘، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل } \\
& \text { 912 في } 4 \text { ، } 6 \text { ، ز زيدت العبارة 'انشا اله تعالى، }
\end{aligned}
$$






$$
75 \text { /2 ، الأسرار العربية: ص 196-200، }
$$


914 ويستى المفول المطل المطق، هو مصدر منصوب، أو ما ينوب عنه، يذكر بعد فعل من لفظه لتوكيد معنى الفعل، أو لبيان نو عه أو عدده،

915 هناكَ تقلدم وتأغير ما بين القو سين في اكثر النسخ

917 في 2 ، 3 ، 5، ' 'معرفة و و نكرة،'،


والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، و و أثنتّناه
 آلة الضرب،

والمفعول فيه290، هو ظرفا ${ }^{921}$ الزمـان والمكان، فالزمان كله ينتصب بالظرف ${ }^{922}$ (مبهماً كان أو محدوداً) 923 فالمبهم 924 كالحين و الوقت والمحدود كاليوم والليل"925، و و الثهر \{ المبهم فحسب، كالجهات الست929، و عند، و وسْط الدار بالسكون. و أمّا المحدود، فلا
 شمالْه، وعندَه، و وسْطه، فلا933 يقال: صلَيت المسجدَ934، ولا وسَط1935 المسجد [26]

920 فال أبن حاجب، هو ما فُعِلَ فيه فعل مذكور من زمان أو مكان، و عند أبن هشام وهو: مان مسِّلط عليه عامل على

 وللمزيد انظر : ابن يعش : 40 ، 41 /2 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص 320 ، شرح الرضي : 487 /1 ، شرح اللمع: 121
/1/، ، أسرار العربية: ص 177 ، 171
 وردت في الأصل ، و و اثـثتناه

922 في 3 ، 5، ' بالظر فية ،
923 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في النسخ الآتية 2 ، 3 ، 5، 5 ، 3 في 924 في 2 ، 6، 'بالظرف المبهر، في 3، 'بالظرفية المبهج'
925 سقطت كلمة 'و الليل، في الأصل، و وردت في 2 ، 4 ، 5 ، 5 ، و الصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قـ أثبثتاها 926 هناك سقط في 10، تبدأ من وسط ص 107 إلى وسطص109 109 من، لأنه أنما يكون للمتندى ------ ألي---- و الوقت و المحدود كاليومو الشهر

928 و ر ردت في 3، 'و أمّا المكان،
929 و في 1، 3 ، ، وردت كلمة، ’ ' الستّة، بدل كلمة ’ الست، و و الصحيح كما أثبتّاها في الصلب
930 في 3 ، 'من لفظ في،
931 في 5، 'و و سطِهو و عنده،
932 في، 3، '3، فوق و و تحت و و يمين و و شمال،

الهؤلف عليه الرحمة يريد أن، يقول، إنَ المكان المبهم ينصب على الظرفية دون ذكر (في) أي لا يقال صليت في أمام المسجد و لا في خلفه، لا في فوقه،
934 في 2 ، ’و المسجد‘ و في 6 ، ' في السجد،

بالتحريك936 و إنّما يقال: صلّيت في المسجد أو في وسَطِه بالتحريك و أمّا دخلت
 خرجت مخافة الثنر

$$
\text { 1، لا يجوز نصبي في النحو والصمرف: [المسجَ] على الظرفية نظر أ لأنه مكان محدود، انظر: الأصول في النحو: لأبن سراج، } 297 \text { / }
$$

935 سقطت كلمة، ’لا' في 2، و زيدت العبارة في 7، 'و لا يقال أيضـا صليّت، وسْط الدار [وسْط ] بالتسكين من المكان المبهم لأنه اسم لاخل الدار وينتصب بالظرفية، وأحترز بالسكون عن بالتحريك، و الوسَط، بالتحريك إذا أردت به الثشيء الذي هو أسمه وجعلته بمنزلة البعض وذللك لأنه اسم لمعيّن هو ما

$$
\text { بين طرفي الثيء، انظر :الأصول في النحو: 242، } 243 \text { /1، شرح الرضي:1/490 }
$$

936 و الفرق بين وسط [بالسكون] و وسَط بالتحريك ، أنّ الأولى ظرف يلزم الظرفية و ليس باسم متككن يصح رفعه فاعلا أو نصبه مفعو لا إلى غير ذلك بخلاف [ وسَط] المحركة السين فهي بعض ما تضـاف إليه فهي ملازمة للاسمية ،
 سورة البقرة : رقم الآية: 143 ، انظر : لسان العرب و الصحاح: مادة وسط 937 في 1، 'دخلت المسجد'
كلمة ’الدار‘ في هذا المثال منصوبة على المفوليّة، فلا بدّ له من ذكر [في] والأصل دخلت في الدار وسكتت في البيت، ولكن حذفت على وجه التوستّ، كما قال الثناعر
تمرّون الديارَ ولم تعوجوا كلامكم عليّ إذن حرام

والقائل لهذا البيت هو ، جرير، وذكر الشعر في أكثر كتب النحوية كما ذكرنا ولكن هذا الشعر موجود في ديو انه، هكذا،
أَتْمْضُونَ الرُّسومَ ولا تحيّا كلامكم عليّ إذن حرام

ولللتصيل انظر : ديوان جرير : ص512 ، شرح أبن عقيل: شاهد الشعر، 159، 456 /2 وشرح الرضتي: شاهد الثنر ،692 ، 138 /4
938 سقطت كلمة، ’هو‘ ' في 2، و وردت في 1، كلمة ’عليه‘ والصحيح كما جاءت في الأصل 939 تُعريفه عند أبن يعيش ، هو علة الإقام على الفعل وهو جواب له ، وحدَّه ابن هثام ، وهو: المصدر المُعَلِّل لحدث شاركه وقتّأ وفاعلا، والمفعول له، لا يكون العامل فيه من غير لفظه وهو الفعل الذي قبله و إنما يذكر علة و عذر ألا لوقوع الفعل وداع له، و الداعي إنما يكون حدثألا علا عينأ،

للعالمينيه سورة الكهف: رقم الآية، 107، وكما قال حارث ابن همام،[قالها معتذر أ من فراره يوم بدر] طمعأ لهم بعقاب يومً مفسدِ

فصفحتٌ عنهم والأحبّة منهم

## والمفعول معهd 941 نحو استوى الماءُ و الخشبة942، ويذكر(بعد الو او الكانية بمعنى مع) 943

 و الخامس، من المنصوبات العامة944 الحال:945 و هي بيان 946 هيئة الفاعل،فقوله [طمعا] منصوب لأنه مفعول له ، ويقل جرّه مثل : ذهبت إلى المسجد لر غبة في الصلوة،(2) أن يكون معرفأ [بأل] فيكثر جرّه نحو: أصفح عن صديقي للثشفقة و أقسو أحيانأ على ولاي للتأديب، ويقلُ نصبه مثل : لا أقعد الجبن عن الهيجاء (3) أن يكون مضافأ فيجوز نصبه وجرُّه على السواء، مثل : تصدقت ابتغاء مرضاة الها أو لابتغاء مرضاته

انظر : التعريفات: للجرجاني رقم، 1794، الأصول في النحو: 1/250، /بن يعبش: 52-54-2/54، شرح قطر الندى : ص 319-316 ، شرح الرضي : 507-514 /1، شرح /بن عقبل: 486-489 /1، شرح اللمع : 126-129 /1 ، أسرار العربية : ص186-189 ،191 ، والشعر من شواهد الكتاب: 1/369 الشرح
Elder, Earl Edgar. Arabic Grammar: inductive method, Cairo: American University in Cairo, School of Oriental Studies, 1937, p. 258.

$$
940 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 'تاديبئ له، }
$$

941 في المصطلح النحوي: مفعول معه، هو اسم منصوب يقع بعد [واو] المعيّة بمعنى [مع] وفي التعريفات يذكر، هو
المذكور بعد الواو لمصاحبة معمول فعل لفظأ،
الأصح: أنّ الناصب للمفعول معه هو الفعل كما ذكر المصتّف في المثال، أو ما أشبهه مثل: ك[ سرت والنيل] و [أنا سائر النيل] فهذا هو مذهب البصرييّن أيضأَ و هو الراجع عندنا، انظر : النتريفات : رقم، 1795، المعجم الهقصل في علوم اللنة: 2/610، أسرار العربيّة: ص 182، شرح قطر (الندى: ص، 322، /بن يعيش: 2/48، تجدبي النحو: شوقي ضيف، دار المعارف، القاهرة: 1982. ص179،

Wright, Grammar of the Arabic language, vol. 2, p. 84; Elder, Arabic Grammar, p. 259.

$$
942 \text { زيدت في 6، ’جاء البرد و الطيالسة، }
$$

في اللغة: الخشبة وجمعها خُشُب: محرّكة ما غلظ من العيدان، ومنه يقال: مقياس يُعرف به قـر ارتفاع الماء في النهر وقت الزيادة، انظر :لسان العرب وتاج العروس [مادة خشب] 943 زيدت العبارة في 1، 'هو المنصوب بعد الواو‘ وسقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 1 ، 5 ، 7 ، 944 في الأصل و 2، ’المنصوبات العام‘ في 5 ، ’ المنصوبات العامة، والصحيح كمـا وردت في 5 ، ، و و قد اثبتتاها 945 الحال: ما بيّن هيئة الفاعل أو المفعول به لفظأ نحو: ضربت زيدأ فائما، أو معنىً نحو: زيد في الدار قائمـا
 النساء : رقم الآية ، 71، وقد أشتملت هذه الآية على مجيء الحال جامدة أو على مجيئها مشتقة ، الثالث: أن تكون نكرة ،نحو: أدخلِ الأول الأولّ"، الرابع : أن لا يكون صـاحبها نكرة محضة ، نحو :هِ وما أهلكنا من قرية إلا لها منذرونهُ شعراء : رقم الآية 208 ، فان الجملة التني بعد [إلا

و المفعول بهd947، وهي جواب كيف، كما أن المفعول له جواب لِّْ؟ نحو: جاءني 948 زيدٌ راكبا، و رأيئه جالسأ. 949 و حقُّها أن تكونَ نكرة950، كما أنّ من حق ذي الحال أن يكون951 معرفة، فإن أردت 952 الحال عن النكرة9953 فقّمها عليها 954 نحو رجلّ،

ومن شرط الحال أن تكون نكرة، فإن جاءت بلفظ المعرفة وجب تأويلها، نحو: [أرسلها العراك ] و [ طلبته جهك وطاقتك ] فهي مصـادر أقيمت مقام الحال كأنك قلت [ أرسلها معتركة، وطلبته مجتهاً، إلا إنّه أضمر وجعل المصدر

دليلا عليه
وللمزيد انظر: التعريفات: رقم 671، شرح شذ ور الذهب: 244، شرح أبن عقيل: 1/528، أسرار العربية: ص 190
، شرح الرضي : 7-12 /2، الأصول في النحو: 258-267 /1،

Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, p. 117.

950 في الأصل، ’ أن يكون‘ و في 2 ، 5 ، ‘ ’ أن تكون‘ والصحيح كما وردت في ما سواء الأصل، و قد اثبتتاه

$$
951 \text { في } 2 \text { ، } 4 \text { ، } 6 \text { ، ، أن تكون، }
$$

$$
952 \text { في 3، ’ فإذا أردت، }
$$

953 في 5، ’من النكرة‘‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
954 في الأصل، 'عليها'، و في النسخ المذكورة 'عليه، 2 ، 3 ، و الصحيح كما أثبتتاها في المتن وتأتي الحال من النكرة أيضـا في مواضع أخرى منها: إذا كانت مخصوصة بوصف، كقر اءة بعضهم، وهِ ولمآ جاءهم كتاب من عندا له مصدقائه سورة البقرة : رقم الآية 89 ، حال من [كتاب] لتخصيصه بالوصف وهو الجار والمجرور من [عندا الشّ] و عليه قول الشاعر
نجّيْتَ يا ربِّ نوحا واستجبْتَّ لهـ في فُلكِ ماخرٍ في اليمّ مشحونأ

فلفظ [مشحونـا] حيث وقع حالاً من النكرة ، وهي كلمة [ فلكـ] والذي سوغ مجيء الحال من النكرة أنها وصفت بقوله
 سورة فصلت : رقم الآية :10 ، مخصوصة بمعمول غبر مضاف إليه مثل : عجبت من ضرب أخوك شديداً، فثدبداً حال من [ضرب] لاختصاصه بالعمل في الفاعل و هو أخوك
وللمزيد انظر :شرح /بن عقبل: 536-538 /1، أ سرار العربية: ص 190-195، التمهيا في النحو والصرف: ص
327-309 ، والثعر من شواهدشرح /بن عقيل، حيث لا نعرف عن قائل معيّن شاهد الثعر :183،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 946 \text { سقطت كلمة، ’هي‘ في 1، و جاءت في 3، ’'إما لبيان‘ }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 948 \text { في } 2 \text { ، ’جاء زيد‘' و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل } \\
& 949 \text { في 7، 'و رأيت زيدا جالسا؛، }
\end{aligned}
$$

و عليه قول الشاعر 955،

## عفـاه كلٌ أسحمَ مستديمْ 956

إسم الفاعل: 957 كل 958 اسم اششُقّ لذات مَنْ فَعَلَ ويجري على يَمْعلُ مِنْ فِعِلِه أي يوازيه في حركاته وسكناتهو959 و هو 960 يعمل عمل ${ }^{961}$ ما يجرى عليه96، إذا أريدَ به الحالُ أو

955 في 2، سقطت كلمة ' قول الثـاعر،
956 هذا البيت من كلام كثير بن عبد الرحمن، المعروف بكثير عزّه، و قد انثده سييويه، لميّة موحشأ طلل، و المرزوقي في شرح الحماسة، يذكر هكذا،
لميّة موحثأ طلل كأنّ رسومها الخِللُ

اللغة، [طلّ] هو ما بقي شاخصاً أي بارزا مر تفعأ عن الأرض- من آثّار الديار [موحشأ] اسم فاعل فطله [أوحش
 أجفون السيوف.

 ويكن أن يقال إن الذي سوغ مجئ الحال من النكرة كونها موصوفة وذلك ونك يكسبها تخصيصأ، عفاه : فعل ماض، والهاء ضمير في محل نصب مفعول به، كل: فاعل مرفوع بالضمّة الظاهرة، أسحم: مضاف إليه، مستليم: صفة

والثاهد فيه نصب [ موحشا] على الحال، وكان أصله صفة لطل فتقتامت على الموصوف فصارت حالا ولللفصيل انظر: كتاب: سبويا: 2/123، شرح قطر النـى: شاهد الشنعر 105، ص331، شرح ديوان الحماسة:
 شرح شنور الذهب: شاهد الشعر 7، ص 24، بن يعيش :2/50، الخصائص: 22/492، ابسرار العربية: للأنباري،

ص، 147
957 في اللصطلح النحوي: هو ما اشنقّ من فعل لمن قام به بمعنى الحدوث، وصيغته من الثناثي الهجّرد على فاعلِ،
ومن غير الثلاثي على صيغة المضار ع بميم مضمومة وكسر ما فبل الآخر ،
انظر :/التعربفات: رفم 174، شرح /بن رضتي: 3/413، النحو العربي: ص 209،

$$
958 \text { في 2، زيدت كلمة (هو ' }
$$

$$
959 \text { في 1، } 6 \text { ، 'في الحركات و السكنات، }
$$


 ولللفصيل ا نظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص 379، شرح شذ ور الذهب: ص 385، ابن يعبش:6/68،شرح الرضي:

$$
960 \text { في } 2 \text { ، } 3 \text { ، 5، ’ ف فأئه، }
$$

الاستقبال، نحو: زيدٌ ضـاربٌ غلامُّه عمرواَ فيُرفعُ963 ويُنصبُ، كمـا أنَّ يَضْرب9964
 و إسم المفعول 967، كل اسم اشتقّقَ968 لذاتِ مَنْ وقعَ عليه الفعلُ، و هو يعملُ عملَ يُفَعَّ 969 من فعله نحو : زيدٌ مكرَمُ أصحابُه كما نقول: زيدٌ 970 يُكرمُ أصحابُه و في التنزيل، وِّذلك
 الصفة المثبّهة 973 :

$$
961 \text { Mقطت كلمة 'عمل، في 5، }
$$

962 أي يعمل عمل فعله الذي اششّق منه، ولكن يفارق الفعل في أمرين الأول: أن اسم الفاعل يضاف إلي معموله، نحو:
 فلا يجوز زيد ضرب أو يضرب لعمرو

انظر:شرح قطر الندى: ص 379 963 في 3 ، ' 'فتر فع' و و زيدت العبارة في 4 ، ، الآن أو غذأ،

يعمل لأنه يتكلم عن الجملة السابقة، و الصحيح كما في الأصل و قـ أثبتّاها 965 في 5 ، 'و يعمل كذلكّ،
966 في 4 ، سقطت كلمة ، فقط،
967 اسم الهفعول: وقد يذكر في الكافية، ما اثشتقّ من فعل، لمن وقع عليه، وصيغته من الثناثي على مفورل
 العمل والأشراط، كأمر الفاعل، انظر:شرح الرضتي :3/427 968 في 2 ، 'مششّق،
969 يريد أن اسم المفوول يعمل عمل المضارع المبني المجهول ، لأنه مأخوذ منه ،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { انظر :شرح /بن عقيل : } 98 \text { /2 ، } 9 \text { ، } \\
& 970 \text { في 1، سقطت كلمة، ززيد، } \\
& \text { 971 سورة هود: رقم الآية: } 103
\end{aligned}
$$

972 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 3 ، 5 ، 7 ، 7.
973 في المصطلح النحوي: ما أشنقّقَ من فعل لازج لمن قام به الفعل على معنى الثوتوت، و يدلّ اسم الفاعل على [

 ، [يحُنُ و يطرُّتْ

و هي ما لا يجري على يَمْعلُ من فعله، نحو: كريم و حَسَن، وشُبهّتْ[27] باسم 974 الفاعل
 آباؤُه78، و شريف حسُُه، وحسن وجهُه، كما نقول: كرُمَ آباؤُهُ 979، وشَرُنَ حسبُه، وحسُن وجهُه6،

يدل على الحدوث ، (3) أن اسم الفاعل يكون للماضي وللحال وللاستقبال ، هي لا تكون للماضى المنقطع و لا لما لم يقع، و إنّما تكون للحال الائم، و هذا هو الأصل في باب الصفات، و هذا الوجه نانثئ عن الوجه الثاني ، (4)أن معمولها لا يتقّمّ عليها، لا نقول [ زيد وجْهَهُ حسَنُ بنصب الوجه، ويجوز في في اسم الفاعل أن تقول [زيد أباهُ ضارب] وذلك لضعف الصفة، لكونها فرعأ عن فرع، فإنها فرع عن اسم الفاعل الذي هو فرع عن الفعل بخلاف اسم الفاعل فإنه قوي، لكونه فر عأ عن أصل وهو الفعل، (5) أن معمولها لا يكون أجنبياً، بل سببياً، ومن وجوه مفارقة الصفة المشبهة لاسم الفاعل، أن الصفة المثبهة لا تصاغ إلآ من مصدر الفعل اللازم، نحو شجاع وحسن ، أما اسم الفاعل فيصاغ من مصدر اللازم كداخل وجالس وقاعد ومن مصدر المتعدى كضارب وآكلِ، كما قال ابن مالك ،
وصوَوْغها من لازج لحاضر: كطاهر القلب جميل الظاهر
وللمزيد:شرح الرضي: 13/431، شرح أبن عقبل: 117-12 /2 ، الأصول في النحو: 153-161 /1، التعريفات :
 الندى: ص 389-391 ،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 1, pp.1674-1679.
974 في 1، 'و لكن شبهّت بالاسم‘ في 2 ، 3، 'لكن شبهّت باسم‘
975 في الأصل ’بثني و يجمع' في 6 ، سقطت كلمة، 'يجمع' و وردت في 2 ، 3، 3، 5، ' تثني و تجمع' و الصحيح كما
وردت في 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، و قد أثبتتاها

وردت في بقية النسخ و قد أثبتناه في الصلب
977 في 5، 'يعمل‘ في 3، ’و كذا تعمل، '
 979 في 2 ، 'كريم آباؤه، في 1، 'يكرم أبوه؛

المصدر: 980 هو الاسم الذي اشتقّ منه الفعل، و صدر عنه9819 وهو يعملُ عمل فحلِه إذا كان منوَّنَ92، نحو: عجبتُ من ضَرْبٍ زيدٍ عمرواً، كما نقول:983 عجبت من أن

9809 الصدر في اللغة: المصدر أصل الكلمة التي تصدر عنها صوادر الأفعال ومنه صدر كل شيء متل صدر الليل وصدر النهار ومنه يقال صدر السهم لأنه الدنتقم إذا رمي، و يسميه سييويه الحدث والحثثان، لأنها أحداث الأسماء التى تحدثها، هل الفعل مشنقّ من المصدر، أو الصصدر مشتقَّ من الفعل، فذهب البصريون إلى أنَّ الفعل مششقّ من المصدر،






 يختلف كما لم تختلف أسماء الفاعلين والمفولين، فلمّا اختلف المصدر اختلاف سائر الأجناس، دلّ على أنى أن الفعل






 والصحيح ما ذهب إليه البصريّون أنّ المصدر أصل للفعل، فالصصدر يدل على زمان مطلق، والفعل يدّل على زمان معيّن، فكما أنّ المطلق أصل للمقيد، فالذك المصدر أصل للفعل وهذا هو الـو مذهب سييويه وجمهور من النحاة، هذا هو
الصحيح عندنا كما ذهب إليه المؤلف عليه الرحمة


 النحوبين /البصريين والكوفيين: الأنبا ري، كمال الدين أبي البركات عبد الرحمن بن محمد بن أبي سعيد ، تحققق: محمد محبي الدين عبد الحميد، مطبعة الاستقامة ،القاهرة: 1945 ـ رقم السسألة 28

يَضربَ984 زيدٌ عمروأ و قد989 يضـاف إلى الفاعل ويُنرك المفعول986 منصوباً، نحو: عجبت من دقٌّ 987 القصـنّار الثوبَ، و قد يضـاف 988 إلى المفعول، ويُنترك الفاعل مرفوعأ
 إطعامٌ في يورج ذي مسغبة) 991 - 990
离 القراءَتين ${ }^{996 ، ~}$

Levin, Arabic Linguistic Thought and Dialectology, p. 256; Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol.1pp1514, 1515; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol.1, p. 110; Versteegh, The Explanation of Linguistic Causes, pp. 72-85.

$$
981 \text { في 6، زيدت كلمة , الفعل، وفي 1، 'عنه الفاعل، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

982 و زيدت كلمة יأو مضافاء، في 1،

983 في 1، 'كما يقول، و زيدت في 2 ، ' 'عبت،
 والصحيح كما وردت في بقية النسخ و قد أثبتناه في الصلب

985 سقطت كلمة ’قـ، في 7 ، 7 ،
986 في 2، ’'المفعول به، في 5 ، 7 ، 'فيتّرك المفعول، والصحيح كما ور وردت في الأصل

 الخشب ، انظر: :لسان العرب والصحاح: [مادة قصر ]
988 سقطت كلمة، ’قى يضاف، في الأصل، و في 2 ، ’'ؤو يضاف، و الصحيح كما أثُتنتاه في الأصل وكما وردت في 5

$$
\text { ، } 7 \text { ، 'و قد يضـاف، }
$$

989 في 1 ، 6 ، ، 'و قوله عزّ و جلّ

991 سورة البلا: رقم الآية: 14
992 سورة البلا: رقم الآية: 15



$$
\text { 995 سورة الروم : رقم الآية: } 2
$$

والاسم المضاف: 997 كلُ اسمٍ أضيفَ إلىى اسم آخر فإنْ الأولَ يَجرء998 الثاني، يسمّى 999 الجارُ مضـافا، و المجرور مضافأ إليه1000، والإضافة على ضربين:1001 معنويّة أي مفيدة معنى في المضاف 1002 تعريفأ أو تخصيصأ. و هي في الغالب بمعنى اللام، أو بمعنى مِن، نحو: غلامُ زيدٍ، وخاتمُ فضّةٍ، و لفظيّة: وهي، إضـافة اسم الفاعل إلى مفعوله والصفة المشبّهة إلى فاعلها نحو: هذا ضـاربُ1003 زيدٍ، و زيدٌ حسَنُ
 من تجريد المضاف من1007 حرف1008 التعريف، و تقول في اللفظيّة: 1009 الحسنُ الوجـهِ،

 المفول متروك، القراءة بفتح الغين في (غلبت) وضمّ الياء في (سيغلبون) ليست من القراء اءات المتو اتزة، انظر: تنفسير النسفي: [ددارك التنزيل] النسفي، عبد الشه ابن أحمد ابن محمود ، دار الكتب العلمية ، بيبروت: 2001. 200 2 2 روح المعاني ، في تفسير القرّآن الكريم والسبع الدثاني : الألوسي ، أبي الفضل شهاب الاين السيّّ محمود، تحقيق ، علي عبد الباري عطية، دار الكتب العلمية بيروت: 1994. 11/19. 997 سقطت كلمة ’ الاسم‘ في 3 ، 7 ، ، و في 5، ’ ' اسم المضاف، بدل ’الاسم المضاف، و الصحيح كما وردت في

الأصل
998 في الأصل ’ تجّرّ، و في 3 ، 5 ، ’يجر‘، و في 4 ، زيدت العبارة، ’نحو غلام زيد،
 1000 في 5 ، زيدت 'نحو غلام زيد، 1001 في 3 ، 7، 'على نو عين' 1002 في 4 ، 'كُّاّ،
1003 كلمة 'هذاء، ساقطة في الأصل و وردت في 2 ، 3 ، ، والصحيح كما أثبتّاها في الصلب 1004 سقطت كلمة ’زيد، في الأصل و وردت في 2 ، 4 ، 7 ، 7 ، والصحيح كـا وردت في في ما عدا الأصل، و قـ أثبتناها 1005 في الأصل، 'ونون، في 2 ، 3 ، 5، 'و نوني، و والصحيح كما وردت ما ما عدا الأصل ،
 [قلم] قلنا قفلم محمد] وكذلك إذا أضيف الشثى أو جمع الدذكر السالم حذفت نونهما فتقول ، قلما محمد و عالمو المدينة، بون النون لآن التنوين ونونى الثشثى والجمع لا تجتمع مع الإضافة في كالمة و احدة ،
 1007 في 2 ، 5 ، ' 'عن، بدل كلمة 'من، 1008 في 1، 'دروف،

و الضاربا زيدٍ والضـاربوا1010 زيدٍ و[28] يجوز 1011 الضـاربُ الرجل1012، و لا يجوز الضاربُ زيدٍ. 1013
الاسم1014 التام : هو الاسم1015 الذي بيصبُ1016 التمييزَ1017 لأنه ثّم 1018 فاستغنِيَ عن الإضافة وهو يقتضي 1019 تمييزَ لإبهامه و تمامه بأحد أربعة أثنباءٍ : بالتنوين، نحو :1020 ما في السماء قدرُ راحةٍ سحاباً، و بنون التثنيّة نحو: عندي منوان 1021 سمنأَ، و قفيزان 'برَّا وبنون الجمع نحو:1022 عشرون در همأ و بالإضافة نحو: لي ملؤُه عسلا (و لي مثُّه1023 رجْلً) و يقال للثلاثة الأول مقاديرَ وهي:1024 المساحة، و الوزنُ، والكيلُ،

لإنّ الثرط جو از دخول [أل] في المضاف [في حالة الإضافة اللفظية ] أن يكون الهضاف إليه محلى بها كذلك ما لم يكن المضاف مثنى أو مجمو عا جمع سلامة وفي هذا المثال نجد المضاف إليه [زيد] ليس محلى [بألّ] و المضاف ليس
 1014 في 3 ، 7 ، ، 'و الاسم التام،
هو الاسم الذي نصب لتمامه ، أي لاستغنائه عن الإضافة، وتمامه بأربعة أثياء: بالتنوين ، والإضافة ، أو بنون

$$
\text { التثثية ، أو الجمع، انظر: التعريفات : رقم التعريف } 166
$$

$$
1015 \text { في } 4 \text { ، ’الاسم المبهم‘ في 2، 'و هو الاسم المبهم' }
$$

 في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتتاه
1017 وسقطت كلمة ’التمييز ، في الأصل ووردت في 3 ، 5، وهو الصحيح و قد أثبتتاها
1018 في 6 ، 'لأنه يتم باتنوين' و في 1، 'تّّ باتنوين'


1021 سقطت كلمة ’عندي‘ في الأصل ووردت في بقية النسخ، 2 ، 3 ، 6 ، 7 ، و الصحيح كما جاءت في ما عدا الأصل
1022 في 2، سقطت كلمة، ’نحو‘ و ز زيدت كلمة، ’عندي‘ في 7، 7 ،
1023 في 3، ’ أو مثله، في 2 ، سقطت كلمة 'و لي مثله؛ سقطت العبارة في 5 ، ما بين القوسين،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (1009 في } 3 \text { ، } 4 \text { ، ’في لفظيّة، في 1، ’في الإضافة اللفظيّة" والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1011 \text { وردت في 5، كلمة ’يجوز‘ ، وسقطت في الأصل و الصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتناها في المتن } \\
& 1012 \text { وزيدت العبارة في 7، 'حملا على حسن الوجه، } \\
& 1013 \text { و زيدت العبارة في } 7 \text { ، ’لعدم الخقة ، }
\end{aligned}
$$

والعدذُ1025 وللأخير 1026 مقياس والتمبيزز: رفعُ الإبهام1027 عن المفرد كهذا رجلو1028، أو عن الجملة1029 نحو: طـب زيدٌ نفسأ، (و تصبّب الفرس عرقاّ)1030، و قد سبق1031 ذكره و الله أعلم بـالصو اب،
 1025 جرى العلماء على تسمية الكيل و الوزن و المساحة فقط بالمقادير، أمّا العدد فقد أفردوه بباب وحده و قسّموه إلى قسمين صريح كما مثل المؤلف علي الرحمة : عشرون در هما ، و كناية كما في (كم) الإستفهامية مثل فولنا : كم
رجلا عندك.

1026 في 5، ’وللأخيرة‘ في 1، 'وللآخر‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، كما أثبتتاها في الصلب 1027 في 3، 'و هو رفع الإبهام‘ وفي الأصل ’رفع الإبهام‘ في النسخ الباقية، 2-4 ، 2 ، 7 ، 'ما يرفع الإبهام' 1028 سقطت كلمة ’ رجلا‘ في الأصل، و وردت في 7 ، و الصحيح كما وردت في 7، كما أثبتتاه في الصلب أي الذي يقسر اسمأ مفردأ (تميز المفرد) والذي ذكره المؤلف عليه الرحمة من اسماء الكيل او المساحة و القياس أو العدد و متّل له، 1029 في 2 ، 'من الجملة' و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 1030 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 1 ، 4 ، 7 ،
 الآية 4 ، إلى الرأس مبهمة وشيباً مفسر لذلك الإبهام و هذا التمييز محول من الفاعل ومثل هذا المثالين ما مثل المؤلف

طاب زيد نفسأ وتصبب الفرس عرقأ ، إذا الأصل منهما طابت نفس زيد وتصبب عرق الفرس
 الأرض إلى الأرض مبهمة و عيونأ مفسر أ لذلك الإبهام والأرض فجرنا وحدث فيه ما حدث في قوله تعالى ؤو اشتعل الرأس شيبـ؛
انظر : شرح قطر الندى: ص 337 ، التمهبي في النحو والصرف: ص 331، 330 ، 31 ك

بالصواب،

## (الباب الثّلث

## في العو امل اللفظِيّة السماعيّة) 1032

 و هي على 1033 ثلاثة أصناف: حروف، و أفعال و أسماء1034. و جملتها أحد و تسعون عاملا، على مـا ذكره الإمـام المحقِق 1035، في المائة1036، و الحروف أنو اع : منها مـا يعمل في الاسم - و منها1037 مـا يعمل في الفعل، فما يعمل1038 في الاسم نو عان: عامل في المفرد، وعامل في الجملة، ما يعمل في المفرد نو عان، جارٌّ، و ناصبٌ ،أمّا الجار، فسبعة عشر: 1039 ،1032 في 2، سقطت العبارة مـا بين القوسين
1033 سقطت كلمة ’على‘ في الأصل و وردت في 2-4 ، والصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل، و قد اثبتتاها 1034 في الأصل، ’و أفعال و أسماء‘ و في 5 ، ’و أفعال حروف و أسماء‘ و في 6 ، 7 ، 'فحروف و افعال واسماء'

1035 وردت في 6 ، 'رحمة الله عليه'
هو الإمام المحقق: هو الإمام عبد القاهر الجرجاني رحمه اله عليه ، وقد مرت ترجمته في الهامش 9، في هذا الباب
1036 زيدت في 4 ، ’عبد القاهر ‘ و سقطت كلمة ’في الما ئةّ، في الأصل و وردت في 2 ، 3 ، 5، و الصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد اثبتتاها
المائة: يريد به كتاب" ’العو/مل المائة ،" أو ’’ مائة عامل"، من مصنفّات عبد القاهر الجرجاني،
انظر : مقّمة هذا الكتاب ص 68-71
1037 و زيدت كلمة ’و منها، في 2 ، 4 ، 4 ،
1038 في 3، زيدت العبارة ’ فسبعة عشر حرفأ،
1039 زيدت في 2 ، 5 ، 'حرفأ،
و عدد الحروف الجارة عند جمهور النحاة سبعة عشر كما ذكرا لمؤلف عليه الرحمة وكما فال ابن مالك،، هاكك حروف الجر ، وهي ، من وإلى حتى ، خلا ، حاثـا ، عدا، في ،عن ، على مذ ،منذ، ربّ، اللام، كي، وأو ،وتا، والكافُ، والباء، ولعلّ ، ومتىى

ويسمّيها بعضهم حروف الخفض وبعضهم حروف الإضافة، أي تضيف الأفعال إلى الاسماء أي نوصلها إليها، وعند معظم النحاة، يقال حروف الجر، لأنها تعمل إعراب الجر، ولم عمت هذه الحروف الجر؟ والجواب: إنّما عمت الجر لأنها تقع وسطأ بين الاسم و الفعل، والجر وقع وسطا بين الرفع و النصب ، فأعطي الأوسط الأوسط، وللمزيد انظر : شرح أبن عقيل: 03 /2 ، شرح الرضي: 260 ، 261 /4 ، شرح جمل الزجاجي : ص 152 ، أسرار العربية: ص

مِنْ: لابتداء الغاية1040 في المكان، نحو: خرجت1041من البصرة1042، وللتبعيض، نحو:1043 أخذتُ من المال1044، و للبيان، نحو: لي عشرةٌ 1045 من الدراهم، وزائدة، في نحو:1046 ما جاءني من أحدٍٍ 1047، و إلى: لانتهاء الغاية في المكان، نحو: (سرت من

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 253 \text { ، /بن يعش: 2-8/53، العوامل المائة النحوية: ص 154-197، شرح قطر الندى: 351-356، شرح شنور } \\
& \text { النهب: 317-333، هدع الهوا مع: 19-2/40، الأصول في النحو: 497-1/536 }
\end{aligned}
$$

Lenien, Arabic Linguistic Thought and Dialectology, pp. 363, 364, Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 1, pp. 278, 279.

1040 يستعمل من في ثمانية معان، هي (1) لإبتداء الغاية، و لفظ الغاية يستعمل بمعنى النهاية و بمعنى الددى، و الـا الغاية تستعمل في الزمان والمكان، بخلاف الأمد و الأجل، فإنّهما يستعملان في الزمان فقط، يستعمل من، للإبتداء في غير الزمان عند البصرية، سواءً كان المجرور بها مكانأ نحو: سرت من البصرة، أو غيره نحو : قولهم: هذا الكتاب من زيدٍ إلى عمرو، و أجاز الكوفيون إستعمالها في الزمان أيضاً، استدلالا بقوله تعالى هو من أوّل يوج) التوبة: رقم الآية: 108، (و إذا نودي للصلوة من يوم الجمعة) الجمعة: رقم الآية: 09 ، وقال المبرد و عبد القاهر الجرجاني و
 التبعيض، وهي بمعنى بعض ،( ومِن الناس من يقول آمنا") سورة البقرة : رقم الآية: 8، أي: بعض الناس (3) بيان الجنس: وعلامتها أن تأتي بعد اسم مبهم [من،ما] لتوضيح دلالته (4) البدل (5) الظرفية : (6) السببيّة والتعليل: (7) بمعنى عن: (8) زائدة: ويذكر في العو امل المائة النحوية أنّ [من] يستعمل لثلاثة عشر معنى، وللمزيد انظر :الأصول في النحو: 498، 499 /1 49 ، شرح أبن عقيل: 13-15 /2 ، التمهيا في النحو والصرف : ص 425،426 ، شرح الألمع : 162،163، 1/ الكتاب: 224،25 225 /4 ، شرح الرضي: 263-270 /4 ، Elder, Arabic Grammar, p. 277.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1041 في 2، ’سرت ‘ بدل كلمة ’خرجت ، } \\
& \text { 1042 زيدت كلمة، ’ ألى الكوفة، في 5، } 5 \text { ، }
\end{aligned}
$$

1043 وردت كلمة ’ في‘ في 2 ، 5، بدل كلمة 'نحو‘ ' و وردت في 3، ’ في نحو‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في ألأصل 1044 في 1، زيدت ، ’أي بعض المال، ،
1045 في 3 ، ’ في عندي عشرة‘ و في 7، ' 'و أخذت عشرة‘
1046 سقطت كلمة ’نحو‘ في الأصل وردت في 2 ، ’نحو ما، في 3؛ ’ في نحو ‘ و الصحيح كما أثبتناها كما وردت في
6 3
1047 وقد تأتي [من] زيادة عن الأغراض السابقة، بمعني [بدل] وذلك مثل فوله تعاللى أرضيتم بالحياة الدنيا من الآخرة هم توبة: رقم الآية: 38، وفي قول الثاعر

البصرة إلي الكوفة). 1048 و حتَّى: 1049 في معناها1050 إلا أنّ مجرور ها [29] (إمّا: شىءٌ ينتهي به)




 إلا مع القرينة و إن كان أيضاً، جزاءُ

$$
\text { انظر: أسرار العربية: ص 265، 266، شرح الرضي: } 272 \text {-278 /4، الأصول في النحو: 516-518 /1، /بن }
$$

يعيش: 15-20 /8 ، ديوان جرير : ص 457،

Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol.1, p. 280; Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 3, pp. 317-323.
1050 أي لانتهاء الغاية أيضا، غير أن [إلى] هي الأصل في اللالةة على انتهاء الغاية، ولذلك تجرّ الآخر أو شُينّا ينتهي به الآخر كما مثلل المؤلف وللمزيد انظر :شرح الرضي: 276-278 / 4 ، شرح أبن عقّل: 15 /2 ،الأصول في النحو: 516 -523 /1 في 14، 'بدعناها'،
 1052 في 2، وردت كلمة 'ما قبلها، و سقطت كلمة 'بقلها، في النسخ القادمة 2 ، 3 ، 3 ، 4،




رأسُهُا مأكول ، حذف الخبر للالة الحال عليه ، و هذه الأوجه الثناثة فـ تو توجد في هذا البيت ،
 بالرفع و النصب و الجر ، فالجر بحتي ، و النصب على العطف ، و الرفع على الابتاءاء ، [هنا الشعر من شو اهد الكتثاب 1/97 ، و الشاعر هو مروان النحوي ، حين فرّ من عمرو بن هنـ فألقّى صحيفته التّي فيها الأمر بقتله في نهر الحيرة ]

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ولتنصيل انظر:شرح ديوان الحماسة: للمرزوقي، 1/24، شرح /بن غقّل: 13، 2/14، }
\end{aligned}
$$

نمت البارحة حتى الصباح، فالرأس ينتهي بهل1054 السمكة، والصباح عنده ينتهي 1055 الليل1056، ولو قلت: نمت الليلة1057 حتى نصفِها أو ثلِيثها، لم تجز لعدم الانتهاءاء حقُّا أن يدخُل1059 ما بعدها فيما فبلها (وكلمة إلى تدخل على المُظهر و المُّضمر و حتى: لا تدخل إلا على المُظهر)
وفي: للظرفية1061، نحو المال في الكبس، و نظرت في الكتابِ، و الباءُ : للإلصـاق،1062، نحو: به داءٌ - وأما1063 مررت بزيدٍ فتوستّعٌ - و منه، أقسمتُ بالهّ، و الواو: بدل منها 1064 في نحو: ${ }^{1065 ، ~ و ~ ا ل ل ه ~ ل ا ٔ ف ع ل ن 1066 ، ~}{ }^{106}$ و التاء في: تالله بدل من الو او . و الباء لأصـالتها

وللمزيد انظر: ابن بعيش: 18-20 /8، شرح الرضي: 272-278 /4، /سرار العربية: ص 268، 269، الأصول في
 1054 سقطت كلمة ’ به؛ في 1، 1، و في 3 ، 5 ، 5 ، 7، ’به ينتهي السمكة، 156 1055 في 5، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين


1057 زيدت كلمة ’ندت الليلة، في 5، و سقطت في الأصل و الصحيح كما أثبتتاه 1058 سقطت كلمة ’لعدم الانتهاء‘ في الأصل وزيدت في 5، و في 2 ، 3 ، يستعمل كلمة ’لم يجز‘ و المناسب كما وردت في 5، كما أثبتتاها في النص الا 1059 في الأصل ’يدخل‘ و في بقية النسخ 2 ، 6، 7، ؛ ' تدخل، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل ، و قد اثبتتاه 1060 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 5 ، 7 ، 7 ، 6 ، 6 ،
1061 في الأصل ’للظرف، في 3 ، 5 ، ’ للظرفية، والصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل و قد أثبتتاه في الصلب و يستعمل (فى) في سبعة معان (1) الظرفية الدكانية أو الزمانية، وهي أشهر الإستعمالات كما ذكر المصنف (2) السببيّة و التعليل، (3) المصاحبة، فتكون بمعنى مع، (4) الإستعلاء: فتكون بمعنى ’على، (5) المقايسة: (6) بمعنى الباء: التى هي للإلصلق، (7) بمغنى إلى، و للمزيد انظر : (بن بعبش: 20،21 /8 ، شرح الرضى: 278-280 /4، الأصول في النحو: 503 /1 ، التمهيا فى النحو والصرف : ص 428،429 1062 ومنها الإلصـاق بالشيء، وهو الأكثر، ويكون حقيقيأ كما مثّل المصنّف، ومجازي مثل: مررت بك،

1063 سقطت كلمة ، أما، في الأصل و زيدت في 2 ، 3 ، 5، والمناسب كما أثبتناه في المتن كما وردت ما سوا الأصل 1064 أي بدل من الباء: وإنما أبدلت الواو منها لتقاربهما في الـخر ج وفي المعنى: لانّ معنى الجمع والإلصـاق متقاربان،
1065 سقطت كلمة ’نحو‘ ‘في الأصل و وردت في 2 ، و هو الصحيح و قد أثبتتاها

تدخل على المُظهر و المضمر، و الو او لا تدخل1068 إلا على المظهر، (و التاء لا ندخل إلا على اللظهر) 1069 الواحد و هو اسم الله تعالى نحو: تالهّ 1070 ، وللتعدية نحو :1071 ذهبت به، وللاستعانة، نحو: كتبتُ بالقلم 1072، وللمصاحبةِ نحو : 1073 دخلت عليه بثيابِ السفر 1074 ،
و اللام: للنمليك 1075 ولاختصاص، نحو: المالُ لزيدٍ، والجلُ للفرس، و هو 1076 ابنٌ له، و أحٌ له 1077، ورُبَّ: للتقليل، تختص 1078 بالنكرة ظـاهرةً أو مضمرةً، نحو: رُبَّ رجلِ لقيته،
و ربّبّه رجال1079

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1066 في } 3 \text { ، ’ لأفعل، و في } 1 \text { ، } 4 \text { ، ، ' لأفعلنّ كذا، }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1068 في } 3 \text { ، ' 'لا يدخل، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1070 \text { سقطت العبارة في } 3 \text { ، } 7 \text { ، ’نحو تا الله' و في سقطت ’و هو اسم الهَ نحو تالثّ، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل } \\
& \text { و قد أثبتتاها } \\
& 1071 \text { في الأصل يستعمل كلمة ’ في‘ بدل ’نحو‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في } 3 \text { ، 5، و قد أثبتناه } \\
& 1072 \text { تكون الباء للاستعانة، إذا كانت داخلة على آلة الفعل حقبقة كما ذكر المصنّف ومثال آلة الفعل مجازا مثل: حكمت } \\
& \text { بالشرع، باسم اله الرحمن الرحيم } \\
& \text { وللتفصيل انظر: الأصول في النحو: 1/503، كتاب سيبويه : 4/217، التمهيا في النحو والصرف: ص436، تجدبي } \\
& \text { النحو: 229، 230، }
\end{aligned}
$$

> 1074 وباء الجر يستعمل في أحد عشر معنىً (1) الإلصـاق: (2) التنويض والبدلية: (3) والتبعيض، (4) والمجاوزة: ( 5) والظرفية : زمانية أو مكانية : (6) والبدل: (7) الاستعلاء: بمعنى ’"على"، (8) والتوكيد : ’مع الفاعل"، (9 ) أو مع المفعول ، (10) مع الابتداء : (11) مع خبر ليس : انظر : شرح /بن عقيل: 2/18، شرح الرضتّ: 4/270، التمهيّ في النحو والصرف: ص436، 436، 437 ، /بن بيش): 22

Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 3, pp. 327-338.
1075 في 5، سقطت كلمة ’ النمليك،
و يستعمل (اللحم) في ستة عشر معنىً (1) أشهر ها 'الملك والإختصاص، كمـا ذكر المصنف عليه الرحمة، ويكتب
 5) التعدية (6) التعليل والسبب (7) القسم (8) التعجب ،(9) لام العاقبة، (10) البعدية (11) الإستعلاء، (12)

و على: للاستعلاء1080 نحو: زيدٌ على السطح و عليه دين، وعن: للبعد1081 والمجاوزة، نحو: 1082 رميت السهم 1083 عن القوس، والكاف للتثبيه، 1084 نحو: كزيد في الدار (ومذ

الظرفية ، (13 الاستغاثة (14) التبيين: و سمّاها النحويون اللام المبيّنة لأها تبيّن أن مصحوبها مفول لما قبلها من فعلٍ تعجب أو اسم تفضبل، (15) بمعنى فی، (16) بمعنى مع،
وللمزيد:كتاب سيبويه: 217/ 4، العو/مل المئة النحوية: 175-177 ، شبرح الرضى : 283-286 / 4 ، ،
1076 سقطت كلمة ، 'وهو ‘ في 5،

 1079 في 5، سقطت كلمة 'رجلا،
ربَّ ، حرف من حروف الجر، ومعناه نقليل الثئ الذي يدخل عليه وهو نقيض كم في الخبر لانّ كم الخبرية للتكثير
وربّ للتقليل ،
وفي ربّ ثماني أوجه ، أشهر ها ضمّ الراء وفتح الباء مشدّدة ، و الثنانية : ضمّ الراء وفتح الباء مخفقة ، والثالثة : ضم

 الجر من أربعة أوجه :
(1) أنّها نقع في صدر الكلام ، وحروف الجر لا تقع في صدر الكلام (2) أنّها لا تعمل إلا في نكرة ، وحروف الجر تعمل في المعرفة و النكرة (3) أنّه يلزم مجر ور ها الصفة وحروف الجر لا يلزم مجر ور ها الصفة (4) أنّها يلزم معها حذف الفعل الذي أوصلته إلى ما بعدها، و هذا لا يلزم الحرف

الإبضاح العضّدي: 251-254 /1، شرح اللمع: ص 168-172 /1،

Howel, Arabic Grammar. vol. 3, pp348-356; Elder, Arabic Grammar. p. 279.

$$
1080 \text { في 2، زيدت، كلمة 'وللوجوب، }
$$

و"على"، لها سبعة معان (1) الاستعلاء: و هو المعنى الأصلي، (2) الظرفية: بمعنى ’"في‘‘(3) المجاوزة بمعنى

 و الحرف ولكن يتفق الاسم والفعل والحرف في اللفظ فاذا كانت حرفأ دلت على معنى الإستعلاء و فيما دخلت عليه كما مثل المؤلف ’زيد على السطح ، فزيد هو المستعلى على السطح و على أفادت هذا المعنى فيه، و عليه دين، كأنّه
 الجهة و يدخل عليها حرف الجر كما يدخل على غيرها من الجهات نحو قول بعض العرب نهضت من عليه أي من

ومنذ)


Levien, Arabic Linguistic Thought and Dialectology, p. 346; Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 3, pp. 357-363; Fischer, A Grammar of Classical Arabic, pp.162,163; Elder, Arabic Grammar, p. 279.

1081 في 1 ، ’و عن للتعدية،
و يستعمل [عن] للبعد والمجاوزة، كما مثل المؤلف عليه الرحمة ، وهو مشترك بين الحرف والاسم، فأمًا الحرف متل
 كونها اسما فيكون بمعنى الجهة و الناحية فتقول جلست من عن يمينه و تيّن ذلك بـخول حرف الجر عليه لا يدخل على حرف مثله،
انظر :/بن يعيث: 39، 82/40، كتاب سيبيويه: 226، 4/227 ،شرح أبن عقيل: 19، 2/20، شرح الرضي: 319-

$$
321 \text { /4 ،/العوامل المائة النحوية: ص 188-185 ، }
$$

Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol.3, pp.368-374; Elder, Arabic Grammar, p. 278.

1084 الكافت من حروف الجر عند سييويه، وجماعة البصريين، وهي لا تجرّ إلا الأسماء الظاهرة، وشدّ جرّها

 الآية 11(4) بمعنى "على " كن كما أنت، أي على ما أنت عليه، ،
 1085 هناك تنقيم وتأذير في العبارة ما بين القوسين، 2، 4، 4 ،




 من الزمان الأي هو يومان، تستعل "منذ ومذ"، اسمين اذذا وقع بعدها الأسم مرفو عأ، أو وقع بعدهما فعل، فيثال الأول

أول المدّة أو جميعُها نحو: ما رأيته [30] (مذ يومُ الجُمعة)1092، ومنذ يومُ الجُمعة، ومذ1093 يومان ويجوز مدْ يومين، وحاشا للتنزيه1094، نحو: أساء القومٌ 1095 حاشثا زيدٍ

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { " " ما رأيته مذ يومُ الجمعة ،، أو مذ شهرنا، و "مذ‘" مبتدأ خبره ما بعده وكذلك منذ، وجوّز بعضهُ أن يكونا خبرين } \\
& \text { لما بعدهم، ومثال الثاني " جئت مذ دعا "، و"مذ"، اسم منصوب المحل على الظرفية، والعامل فيه "ححث‘، وإن وقع } \\
& \text { ما بعدهما مجرورأ فهما حرفا جر، بمعنى [من] نحو: ما رأيته مذ يوم الجمعة، أي من يوم الجمعة، وبمعنى [في] } \\
& \text { نحو : ما رأيته مذ يومنا، أي في يومنـا } \\
& \text { وللمزيد انظر:شرح أبن عقيل: 25، 2/26، كتاب سيبويه: 4/226، الأسرار العربية: ص 270-274، شرح } \\
& \text { الرضي: 208-219 /3 ، شرح جمل : للزجاجي: ص 219،220 ، /بن بعش: 44-47 /8 ، شرح اللمع : 188- }
\end{aligned}
$$ ‘1/ 194

Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, pp.173, 174, Howell, Arabic
Grammar, vol. 3, pp. 375, 376.

$$
1086 \text { في 7، زيدت كلمة ’هما ، و في 3، ’ لهم' }
$$

1087 سقطت كلمة ’ الماضي‘ في الأصل، وردت في 3؛ ’في زمان الماضي‘ في 5 ، 7 ، ، 'الزمان الماضي،
و الصحيح كما وردت في 5 ، 7، كما أثبتناها في النص
1088 هناك تقديم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين، في، 1-3 ، و في 5 ، ’منذ ومذ يوم الجمعة' في 7 ، ’مذ يوم
الجمعة ومذ يوم السبت،
1089 في 5 ، ’ 'ترفع، بدل 'يرفع'
1090 في 7، ’إذا كانا، والصحيح كما أثبتنتاها في الصلب كما في الأصل
1091 و سقطت كلمة ’ أن‘ في 2 ، 5 ، 5 ،
1092 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في النسخ الآتية 2-3، 2 ،
1093 سقطت كلمة ’مذ، في 3، و وردت كلمة ’منذ‘ بدل كلمة ’مذ، في 5 ، 7 ، وزيدت في 6 ، ، ، ' أو جميع المدّة نحو ما رأيته منذ يومان‘
1094 و أمّا حاثنا فأختلف النحويون في ذلك فذهب السييويه و من تابعه من البصريين إلى أنّه حرف جرٍ و ليس بفعل، و الدليل على ذلك أنّه لو كان فعلا لجاز أن يدخل عليه (ما) كما تدخل على الأفعال فيقال ( ما حاثـا زيدآ) كما يقال ( ما خلا زيدأ) فلمّا لم يقل دلّ على أنّه ليس بفعل، فوجب أن يكون حرفأ و قال الكوفيون أنّه فعل، وو افقهم المبرد من البصريين، و استذلوا على ذلك من ثلاثة أوجه (1) أنّه يتصرّف من حصـائص الأفعال (2) إنّه يدخله الحذف ، والحذف إنّما يكون في الفعل لا في الحرف كما قالوا فيه [حاثشا لشٌٍ] كما قراء أكثر القرّاء باسقاط الألف (3) أنّ لام الجر يتعلق به في قولهم [حاشثا للدٍ] و حرف الجز إنّما يتعلق بالفعل لا بالحرف لانّ الحرف لا يتعلق بالحرف و الصحيح ما ذهب إليه البصريون وأمّا الكوفيون إنّهم يتصّرف بدليل قولهم [وما أحاشثى] فليس فيه حجّة ، لإنّ قولهم [أحاشى]] مأخوذ من لفظ [حاشي] و ليس متصرّفأ منه،
(و خلا و عدا):"1096 بمعنى إلاَ، ويُنصبُ1097 ما بعدهما إذا كانتا فعلين1098، و إذا قلت: ما خلا، وما عدا، يُنصب بهـا 1099 البيّة، وأمّا ما يَنصب1100 المفرد فسبعة على ما دُكر 1101 في المائة، الواو: بمعنى مع، نحو: استوى الماءُ و الخشبة، 1102 فلا تنصب ${ }^{1103}{ }^{1103}$ هذه حتى يكون ما فبلها فعل: كاستوى1104 أو

انظر: شرح /بن عقيل: 525-527 /1، /بن يعيش: 47، 48 /8، كتاب سييويه: 2/349، شرح اللمع: 155، 1/156، ، أسرار العربية: 207-211

Elder, Arabic Grammar, p. 280; Howell, A grammar of the Classical Arabic language, vol. 3, pp. 376-378.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1095 \text { سقطت كلمة ’القوم‘ في } 2 \text { ، و وردت في 3؛ ’ أساؤ ا‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل } \\
& 1096 \text { هناك تققدم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين، في النسخ الآتية، } 2 \text { ، } 5 \text { ، } 5 \text { ، }
\end{aligned}
$$

أمّا عدا : فهي من عدا يعد و عدأ : إذا جاوزه مثل : جاء القوم عدا زيدأ وخلا : فهو من خلا يخلو خلوأ نحو : جاء القوم خلا زيداً ، وخلا في الأصل لازم يتعدى المفعول به [من] نحو: خلت الديار من الأنسس ، ويمكن ان يكون كل واحد من عدا زيدأ وخلا زيداً جملة مستأنفة جو ابأ عن سؤ ال مقدر ، لأنه إذا فيل ، جاء القوم فظنّ المخاطب جاء زيد لأنه واحد من القوم فقال في جو ابه عدا زيدأ وخلا زيداً : أي جاء القوم جاوز بعضهم زيداً ، وإذا كان كل واحد منهما جملة مستأنفة فلا محل لها من الإعراب ،

انظر :/بن يعبش: 49 /8، العو/مل المائة النحوية: ص197، 199،
1097 في الأصل ’ينصب‘ في 2، ’ فتتصب‘ وفي بقية النسخ ’و تنصب‘، و الصحيح كما وردت في بقية النسخ، و قد
أثنتياه

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1098 \text { في الأصل ’فعلين‘ في } 7 \text { ، ، إذا كانا فعلان‘ }
\end{aligned}
$$

لانْ [ما] مصدرية، و هي تدخل على الفعلية غالبأ، كما يجيء في قسم الحروف، وفي الاسمية قليلا، وليس بعدها أسمية، لذلك يجب نصب ما بعدهما على أنّه مفعول به لهما و هي فعلان يقيدان الاستثناء و إذ لم يسبقا ب[مـا] المصدرية جاز فيها النصب،
وللمزيد:شرح الرضي: 89، 2/90، شرح أبن عقبل: 1/526، شرح اللمع : 1/152 ، همع الهوا مع: 1/232 1100 في الأصل ’ينصب، وفي 2 ، 6، ' تنصب، 1101 في 3 ، ’ما ذكر الأمام المحقق،
1102 وزيدت العبارة في 3 ، 7 ، 'و جاء البرد و الطيالسة ولو تركت الناقة وفصيلها لوضعها، في 3، ’لرضعتها، 1103 في 5 ، 'ولا ينتصب، في 2 ، 'تنصب، في 7 ، 'ولا ينصب؛ في بقية النسخ، 'ولا تتصب؛ 1104 أو ما أثشتقّ من الفعل، مثل: سرت وسُوَرَّ الحديقة أو سائر والنيلَ
في 29 ، 'نحو أستوى‘ و في 2، زيدت كلمة 'كيلغي' و في 5، كلمة 'صريح'

لمعنى1105 فعل نحو ما شأنُكَ و زيدأ لأنس1106 فيه معنى الفعل أي1107 (ما تصنَعُ و مـا كُلابس) 1108 ،
و حروف النداء خمسة :1109 يا، و أيا، وهيا، و أي، و الهمزة، و هذه الحروف1110 تَنصبُ المنادى إذا كان مضـافأ، نحو: يا عبدَ الله، أوكأن مضـارعأ له1111، نحو: يا خير آ من زيدٍ؛ وهو كل اسم تعلق به شيء و هو من تمام معناه كتعلق من زيدٍ بخيرَ أو 1112 نكرةً كقول الأعمى با رجلا خذ بيدي، و أمّا المنادى1113 المفرَد


> 1106 وردت كلمة ’ لانّ ، في الأصل و سقطت في 3، و، والصحيح كما جاءت في الأصل و قد أثبتناها في الصلب 1107 في الأصل سقطت العبارة ’ الفعل أي ‘ و وردت في 7، وه وهو الصحيح و قد الثّ الثتاها
> 1108 هناك تققيم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين 2، 1109 سقطت كلمة ’خمسة، في 3 ، 6 ، و وردت في في 1، 1 ' 'و هي خمسة، النداء هو طلب الإقبال بالحرف [يا] وإخوته ، و هذا الإقبال قد يكون حققياً وقد يكون مجازيأ، و تستعمل يا، و أيا و هيا، لنداء البعيد و أي و الهمزة للقريب و (وا) للندبة خاصة، و حروف النداء ليست ناصبة، لأنّ المنادى مفعول به في المعنى ناصبه فعل مضمر وأصل يا زيد، أدعو زيدأ، فحذف أدعو، ونابت ‘‘يا، منابه، فلبست حروف النداء عاملة في المنادى كما ذكره المؤلف عليه الرحمة، وكما ذكر الجرجاني في "العو امل المائة"، فعامل المنادى حرف النداء ،
 ورللتفصيل انظر :شرح الرضي : 344،345 /1، العو/مل المائة: تحقيق بدراوي زهران، ص 239، شرح قطر

الندى: ص 280-284، أسرار العربية: ص 224-235 ، الدعجم الدفصل في علوم اللنة: 648 /2 ،
111010 1111 في 3، ' أو مضـار عأ للمضاف، بدل 'مضـار عأ له، الثبيه بالمضاف في اصطلاح النحاة ، هو الاسم الذي تعلق به شيء من تمام معناه، و هذا التعلق يكون بالعمل في الفاعل نحو: يا جميلا وجهه وفي الدفعول به يا طالعأ جبال، انظر : الدعجم الدفصل في علوم /للغة: 350 / 1 1112 يريد بالنكرة هنا النكرة غير المقصودة، هي المنادى غير المعيّن، 1113 سقطت كلمة ’منادى‘ في 3، 5، وسقطت كلمة ’الدفرد‘ في 4، ’الدفردة المعرفة‘، والصحيح كما في الأصل و قد أثبتناها

1114 يريد باللفرد ما كان غير مضاف و غير شبيه بالمضاف، أي المفرد العلم والنكرة المقصودة و هما من جملة المعارف،

$$
1115 \text { زيدت في 7، ’ في النداء‘ في } 2 \text { ، ’ فالنداء، }
$$

جاز في صفتة اللفردة1118 المعرفة الوجهان الرفع والنصب، نحو: يا زيدُ الظريفيُ، والظريفَ وكذا ما فيه الألفُ واللامُ، من المعطوفات، نحو: يا زيدُ، و الحارِّ،
 عمرو)1122 و يا أيُّها الرجلُ متل، ،123، 112 يا زيدُ الظريفُ، و أي412124، منادى المفرد المعرفة1125 والرجل صفة له، والهاء مقحمة للتتبيه 1126 إلا أنه لا يجوز فيه إلا

ويؤتى الأنباري لهذه الضمة ثلاثة أوجه، (1) أنّه لو بني على الفتح لالتبس بما لا بنصرف، ولو بُني على الكسر لالتبس بالمضاف إلى النفس، وإذا بطل بناؤه على الكسر و الفتح تعيّن بناؤه على الضم (2) أنّه بُني على الضم فرقأ

 عندها ، أشبه [قبل وبعد] فبنوه على الضمّ كمـا بنو هما على الضمّ
 1116 إعتبر المؤلف عليه الرحمة النكرة المقصودة من باب المنادى المفرد المعرفة لاتفاقهما في الحكم الإعرابى، و هو البناء على من كان يرفعان به



الحارث بالضم، تبعت زيداً على اللفظ، وبالنصب تبعت زيدأ على المحل
1120 في 7، ’ و أمّا صفة المضافة، في 3 ، 'وصفة المضاف، في 6 ، 'وصفة المنادى المضاف،
1121 وذلك مشروط يكون الصضاف غير مصاحب للألف واللام، كما مثل له المؤلف، فان كان الهضاف مصاحبا للألف و اللام جاز رفعه، ونصبه، وذلك مثل: يا زيد الكريمُ الأب، ويا زيد" الكريمَ الأب، 1122 سقطت العبارة ما بين لقوسين، في 2 ، 5 ، 5 ، 1123 هناك سقط في نسخة 4، تبدأ من آخر سطر من الور فة 29 ، إلى إنتهاء ورقة 30 ، من أصل المخطوط تبداء من و التاء في تا الهّ ....ألى .....138، يا أيها الرجل مثل

1125 في 5، ’'فرد المعرفة،
لأنه من فبيل النكرة المقصودة كما مرّ ذكره
1126 و في 5 ،'و الهاء معجمة، في الأصل ’مقحمة، و هو الصحيح كما أثبتتاه في الصلب و زيدت العبارة في 3؛
'و الهاء مقحمة لتتبيه و الرجل صفة له إلا إنه لا يجوز فيه،

الرفع1127 ، ولا تدخل الياء1128 على اسم ما فيه الألف و اللام إلا على اسم اله وحده ${ }^{1129 ، ~ و ~ ا ٕ ن ~ و َ ص ف ت َ ّ ~ ا ل م ن ا د ى ~} 1130$ المضموم بابن1131، وهو 1132 بين علمين بَيْيتَّ [31] المنادى مع الابن على الفتح، نحو: يا زيََ بنَ عمرو وإذا لم يقع 1133 بين عَلمَين، كان كسائر الأسماء المضافة نحو :1134 يا زيدُ بن أخينا1135، وتلحق1136 المنادى اللامُ الجارّة مفتوحة للاستغاثة1137، نحو: با لله لِلمسلميِن أو للتعجب نحو:1138 با للماء و با

[^162]و هو كل اسم نودي ليُّخلص من شدّة أو يعين على دفع مثقة و لا يستعمل من حروف النداء إلا [يا] خاصـة ، و الغالب استعماله مجرورأ بلام مفتوحة، وذكر المستغاث لله بعده مجرورأ بلام مكسورة دائماً ، وأنّ لام الاستغاثة بدل في

الألف و الهاء اللتين يلحقان آخر الاسم المنادى نحو: يا زيداه ، ويا بكراه ، ولا يجوز يا لزيداه ويا لبكراه انظر : شرح جمل: الزجاجي: ص 249، 250، /لتمهيِ في النحو والصرف: ص 369، 370، /بن يعبش: 218، 219
/2، شرح قطر (الندى: ص 303-305،

Wright, Grammar of the Arabci Language, vol. 2, pp. 152, 153.

 ثلاثة أحرف1144 نحو: يا حار، ويا سعيّ، و يا مرو، ويا منص، (في حارث و

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1138 في 2، سقطت كلمة 'نحو، } \\
& 1139 \text { في 3، 'يا لهَ داهي، }
\end{aligned}
$$

و هذا ما يسمّى بالنذاء التعجبى عند النحاة و قد تسبقه اللام الجارة كما مثل المؤلف عليه الرحمة،
1140 في 4 ، ’ فتحت اللام‘ في 2 ، ’ فتحت فيه‘ و الصحيح كما أثبتتاه
1141 و إنّما وُتِحَتْ مع المستغاث لآنّ المنادى و اقع موقع المضمر واللام تفتح مع المضمر نحو :’ للك وله، انظر : شرح أبن عقبل: 218/2
1142 في 2، زيدت العبارة، ’أي يا للقوم للبهيتة،
1143 في 5، زيدت العبارة، ’و بقي المنادى على الضم،
الترخيم في اللغة، الرقة والحلاوة يقال جارية رخيمة الكلام إذا كان كلامها رقيقاً حلوأ مختصر أ سهلا وكلام رخيم أي رفيق ويقال قد رخم صوته رخامةٌ ومنه الترخيم في الأسماء، وسميّ الترخيم ترخيماً لأنه قطع للحرف ، وفي المصطلح النحوي: حذف آخر الاسم في النداء تخفيفأ،
وللمزيد انظر :لسان العرب والصحاح: مادة [رخم] النعريفات: رقم النتريف، 447، شرح الجمل: الزجاجي، ص 251، 252، أسرار العربية: ص 236، شرح قطر الندى: ص 297، كتاب الإبانة في اللفة العربية: العوتبى ، سلامة ابن مسلم ، تحقيق ، عبد الكريم خليفة و غيره ،وزارة التراث القومي، مسقط: 1999،

$$
\text { ص } 208 \text { /1 }
$$

1144 يصح نرخيم المنادى مطلقا، إذا كان علمأ أو نكرة مقصودة زائدة على ثلاثة أحرف، فهل يجوز الترخيم ما كان على ثلاثة أحرف أو أقلّ؟ أختلف النحاة فيه ، فذهب البصريون إلى أنّه لا يجوز ، لآن الترخيم إنّما دخل في الكام لأجل التخفيف وما كان على ثلاثة أحرف ، فهو على مثابة الخقة ، فلا يحتمل الحذف ، لانّ الحذف منه يؤدي إلى الإجحاف به، وقال الكوفيون يجوز ترخيمه إذا كان أوسطه متحركأ نحو : في عنّق [ياعنٌّ وفي كثف [يا كتفـِ وما أشثبه ذللك ، لانّ في الأسماء ما يماتله ويضاهيه نحو : يد و غد ودم - والأصل فيه يدي و غدو ومدو فنقصو ها للتخفيف ، فبقيت يد وغد ودم - فهذا فاسد من وجهين (1) أنّ الحذف في هذه الأسماء قليل في الاستعمال ، بعيد عن القياس يقتضي أنّ حرف العلة إذا تحرّك و الفتح ما فبله يقلب ألفأ ولا يحذف ، فلمّا حذف ههنا من [ دمو] دلّ على أنّه على خلاف القياس (2) أنّهم إنّما حذفوا [الياء والو او] من[ بدى وغدو ودمو ] لانتقال الحركات عليها ، لان الأصل فيها [ يدوى و غدو ودمو] وأمّا في باب الترخيم فإنّما وقع الحذف فيه على خلاف القياس ، لتخفيف الاسم الذي كثرت حروفه ولم يوجد هاهنا لأنه في غاية الخقة ، فلا حاجة بناء إلى تخفيفه بالحذف و هكذا أختلف البصريون والكوفيون في ترخيم اللضـاف إليه ، فذهب البصريون إلى أنّه لا يجوز ترخيمه ، لانّ الترخيم إنّما يكون فيه ما يؤثر النداء فيه ب[يا]

 اختلاف المحنيين1151،

والمضاف إليه لم يؤثر فيه النداء ب [ [يا] فكذلك لا يجوز نرخيمه وذهب الكوفيون إلى أنّه يجوز ترخيمه واحتجوا بقول زهير بن أبي سُلمى،
خذو ا حظكم يا آل عكرم ، واحفظوا إو إصرنا والرّحمٌ بالغيب ، ثُذكر

انظر : شرح الرضي : 393-399 /1 ، /سرار العربية: ص 236-242 ،شرح أبن عقيل: 224-231 /2، /بن يعيش: 21-19 2/ ، الأصول في النحو: 437 /1 ، ديوان زهير /بن أبي سُلمى (شرح): تحقيق: يحيى ابن زيد الشيباني الثعلب ،دار الكتب المصرية ، القاهرة: 1944 ـ ص 44،
1145 زيدت العبارة ’في أسماء‘ في الأصل و سقطت في جميع ما عدا الأصل 1146 هناك تققدم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين، في أكثر النسخ،


عندنا 1148 في 3؛ 'العلميّة والزيادة؛
1149 إذا كان الاسم مختومأ بالتاء جاز ترخيمه مطلقاء، سواءً كان علمأ ك[فاطمة] أو غير علم، ك[جاريةّ] زائدأ على ثلاثة أحرف، أو غير زائد على ثلاثة أحرف ك(شاة) فتقول "يا فاطم " ويا جاري ويا [شنا] وأثنار أبن مالك في قوله،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وجوّزنه مطلقا في كل ما } \\
& \text { وللتفصيل انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 225، } 226 \text { /2، أسر/ر (لعربية: ص،236-242، } 82
\end{aligned}
$$

Wright, Grammar of the Arabic language, vol. 2, pp. 87, 88.

1150 سقطت كلمة ’ أقبل‘ في 5، وفي 3، ’ يا ثبّ أقبل ويا ثبّ اقبلي‘ وفي بقية النسخ، يا ثب أقبل أو اقبلي، والصحيح كما أثبتنتاها في الصلب 1151 في 6 ، 2، 'على خلاف المتنيين، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، على إختلاف المعنيين تذكيرا أو تأنبثئ، أقبلْ: المنادى مذكر، أقبلى: المنادى مؤنث: و أصل يا ثَبُ و يا ثبَّة و يجوز فيه ، (1) فتح الباء على لغة من ينتظِر، أى من يجعل التاء بحكم الموجودة و يجعل البناء على الضمّ ظاهر آ عليها و ييقى ما فبل التاء على الحالة التى كان عليها فبل الترخيم (الفتح هنا) (2) ضمّ الباء على لغة من لا ينتظِر، أى من يجعل الباء هي آخر الكلمة بعد الترخيم ليظهر البناء على الضمّ، انظر :شرح /بن عقبل: 228 ، 229 ،

و السابع [إلأ] للاستثناء1152، وهو إخراج الثيء عن حكم دخل فيه غبره. والمستثنى يُنتصنب1153 في الكلام الموجَب التام1154، و هو ما ليس بنفي و لا نهي ولا استفهام،
 1152 في الأصل ’و إلا خبر في الاستثناء‘ في 5، ’و السابع إلا للاستثاء‘ وسقطت كلمة ’خبر‘ في 2 ، 3، والصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتنتاها
الأستثناء في المصطلح النحوي: هو إخراج الثثيء من الثيء لو لا الإخراج لوجب دخوله فيه، و هذا يتناول المنّصل حقققة وحكمأ، ويتناول اللتصل حكمأ فقط، للنحاة في ناصب الأسم الو اقع بعد [إلأ أقو ال متعدّدة وبحث طويل، وخلاصـة آر ائهم ننقل هنا،
الأول: أن الناصب له هو الفعل الو اقع في الكلام السابق على [إلأ بواسطتها، فيكون عمل [إلأ] هو تعدية ما قبلها إلى
 مستقلا لا بواسطتها، ويرد على قولين بأنّه قد لا يوجد قبل [إلآ] ما يصلح لعمل النصب من فعل أو نحوه، كما تقول مثل: إنّ القوم إخوتك إلا زيدأ وقد يجاب على هذا الاعتر اض بالتاء وبل ولكثّه لا يخلو من تكلف، الثالث: أن الناصب
 جاء القوم إلا زيدأ أستثني زيداً ولللفصيل انظر : شرح fبن عقبل: 1/506، /بن يعبش: 75-85-2 /2، التعريفات: رقم التعريف 151، شرح قطر الندى: ص 341-343 ، شرح الثمع : 144-150 /1 ،1 ،

فأما العامل في المستثىى ، فهناك اختالف بين النحاة . فذهب البصريون إلى أنّ العامل هو الفعل بتوسّط [ إلا] وذلك لأنّ هذا الفعل ، وإن كان لازمأ في الأصل ، إلا أنّه فويّ ب[إلاً فتعدّى إلى المستثنى ، كما تعدى الفعل بالحروف المتعدية، نحو: إستوى الماء و الخشبة، فان الاسم منصوب بالفعل المتقام بتقوية الواو، فكذلك ههنا، و عند
 إن [و لا ثمّ خقةت [ أن ] و أدغمت في [لا] فهي تنصب في الإيجاب اعتبار ا ب[أن] وترفع في النفي اعتبارا ب[لا] والصحيح ما ذهب إليه البصريون لإنّ المستثنى منه في الحقيقة اوّلا ثمّ نُسب الحكم إلى المجمو ع وهو في الظاهر مخرج من الحكم أيضا
وللمزيد انظر :أسرار العربية: ص 201-206، شرح الرضيّ: 79-85 /2 ، شرح شنور الذهب: ص 265 ،
1154 لأنّه ذكر فيه المستثنى منه، ومثبت لأنه غير منفي
1155 في 2 ، 7، ' كذلك‘ بدل 'كذا،

1157 في 3، ’عن المستثنى منه' و الصحيح كما أثبتتاها كما جاءت في الأصل
1158 في 3 ، 'إذا انقطع، بدل ' أو انقطع'

القوم إلا زيدا1159، وما جاءني إلا زيداً أحدُ، وما جاءني أحدٌ إلا حمـارَ، و في غير
 (إلا) لغواَ تقول: (ما جاءني أحدٌ إلا زيدٌ

الإسنثاء المنقط: في المصطلح النحوي، هو الاستثناء التام الذي يكون فيه المستثنى من غبر جنس المستشى منه، نحو : جاء الصيّادون إلا كلابهم، ولكنّ يشترط فيه أن يناسب المستثنى منه فلك أن تقول جاء القوم إلا حمار ا وليس لك أن تقول جاء القوم إلا ثعبانأ وإذا كان الاستثناء من غير جنس الأول كان منصوباً عند جمهور النحاة، كما ورد في
 وللمزيد انظر : المعجم المقصل في علوم اللغة: 1/32، شرح جمل للزجاجي: ص، 314، شرح أبن عقيل: 507، 508 /1، شرح قطر الندى: ص 344،345 ، شرح اللمع: 146-1/148، الموجز في النحو: ص 41 ، 1159 في 6، ’جاء في القوم‘ في 4 ، ’ إلا زيداً أحد‘ في 3 ، ‘’إلا زيدأ و ما جاءني إلا زيدأَ في 7، ’نحو جاءني القوم إلا زيدأ و ما جاءني إلا زيداً وما جاءني إلا زيداً أحد وما جاءني إلا حمارَّ،

$$
1160 \text { زيدت كلمة ’ فيه‘ في 3، }
$$

1161 في 2 ، زيدت العبارة ’على الأستثناء والرفع على‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، و قد أثبتتاه 1162 في 1، زيدت العبارة ’نحو ما جاءني احد إلا زيدا أو زيد‘ في 4، ’ وما جاءني احد إلا زيد و إلا زيدا، فلم كان البدلُ أولى ؟ فعند النحاة وجهين.( 1) المو افقة للفظ ، فإنّه إذا كان المعنى واحداً ، فيكون اللفظ مو افقأ أولى ، لانّ اختلاف اللفظ يشعر باختلاف المعنى ، وإذا إثنقا ، كان مو افقة اللفظ أولى (2) أنّ البدل يجري في تعلق العامل به كمجر اه لو ولى العامل، والنصب في الاستثناء على التثبيه باللمفعل فلماً كان البدل أقوى في حكم العامل ، كان الرفع

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { أولى من النصب، انظر، ،سر/ر العربية: ص 205، 206، } \\
& \text { 1163 في 4، زيدت العبارة، 'وفي غير الموجب، }
\end{aligned}
$$

و إن كان غير موجب فالمختار نصبه فتقول: 'ما قام إلا زيداً القوم، ومنه فوله

و إنّما أمتتع الإتباع في ذلك لأنّ التابع لا يتقّم على المتبوع، هذا البيت من كلام الكميت بن زيد الأسدى، من قصيدة هاشمية يمدح فيها آل الرسول صلى الله عليه وسلم،
وللمزيد انظر :شرح ابن عقبل: 508،509 /1، شاهد الشعر، 168، شرح شذ ور /لذهب: ص 263-265 ، شاهد الثعر 124،شرح قطر الندى: ص 344،345 ، شاهد الثعر 109،شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 312 شـر الكميت بن زبي الأسدي : جمع وتقايم داوود شلوم ، مكتبة الأندلس ، بغداد: 1970-1969 ـ فتشت ديو انه المطبو ع ولم أجد هذا

البيت المذكور في ديو انه ، وقد أنشده ، /بن بعبش هكذا : 79 /2

Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, p. 337.

$$
1164 \text { في } 2 \text { ، سقطت كلمة 'و إلا زيد' }
$$

رأيت إلّا زيدأ وما مررت إلا بزيدٍٍ 1166، وحكم ((غير)) كحكم 1167 الاسم الو اقع بعد إلا
 غير-1170 حمار: و ما جاءني أحد 1171 غيرَ زيد وغيرُ زيد (بالنصب [32] و الرفع) 1172

 على العكس، والستة تسمّى
. 1165 الكلام تام منفي ، و( إلا فيه لغو أى زائةّ لا عمل لها في حالة الها البدل، 1166 الكلام ناقص منفى، و الكالم الناقص ما حذف منه المستخثى منه و إلا فيه لغو أى زائة لا لا عمل لها و تفيد الحصر ايضًا في حالة البدل في الكالم النتام المنفي

 زيدأ بنصب 'زيد‘، لانَ غير لما اقيمت هينا مقام "!إلغ"، وكان وما بعدها مجرورأ بالإضافة أعربت إعراب الاسم الواقع بعد ’إلإ، وييقى حكم الاستثناء ،
وانظر:شرح /بن عقيل: 516 /1، ،سرار العربية: ص 207 ،

$$
1169 \text { في 3، ’غير أحد زيد‘ في } 2 \text { ، ' زيد أحد، وسقطت كلمة • أحد‘ في 5، }
$$

$$
1170 \text { في 3، ’و ما جاءني غير حمار أحد، في } 2 \text { ، 'و ما جاءني غير زيد أحد، }
$$

$$
1171 \text { في 2، وردت كلمة ’القوم‘ بدل كلمة ’ أحد‘ وسقطت كلمة ’ أحد‘ في 5، }
$$

$$
1172 \text { سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في 2-4 ، و في 5، 'بالرفع و النصب، }
$$

$$
1173 \text { في 2، ’ مررت، بدل كلمة 'رأيت، }
$$

$$
1174 \text { في 7، سقطت كلمة ’ يسوى ، ووردت في 6، 'سواي و سواء' }
$$

أي متل غير، فسوي تتطبق عليها أككام غير ، وأختار المؤلف إنها كغير فتعامل بما تعامل به ’غير‘ من الرفي

$$
\text { والنصب والجر ، و انظر: شرح /بن عقيل: } 517 \text { / } 1
$$

1175 في 1، ’و الحروف العاملة، في 5 ، 'و الحروف من من الداظلة،
وهي الحروف التي تعطل في الجملة كـا مرّ في بداية الباب الثالث من هذا الكتاب الذي يتحدَث عن عو امل اللفظية السماعية
1176 سقطت كلمة 'منهاء في الأصل، و وردت في بقية النسخ، 3 ، 4 ، 5 ، 7 ، و الصحيح كما وردت ما عدا الأصل، وقد اثبتّاها

المثّبّهة بالأفعال1177، و هي: إنّ و أنّ للتحقيق، وكأنّ1178 للتشبيه، و لكنّ للاستندراك ،
 و كأنّ زيداً الأسدُ، وما جاءني زيدٌ لكنَّ عمرواَ حاضرٌ،
فيا ليت الثبابَ يعودُ يومـَ1181 فأخبره1182 بما فعلَّ المَتَبيبٌ1183،183

[^163]Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, pp. 80, 81; Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 3, pp. 436-443; Fischer, A Grammar of Classical Arabic, p. 181.

$$
1178 \text { في 5، ’ولانّ ‘ بدل كلمة ’كان‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

 نحو: ليت زيداً فائمّ وفي غير المدكن، كما مثل المؤلف ولا يصح أن يكون في غير المـكن فلا تنقول ’لعلّ الثباب

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { انظر: شرح أبن عقيل: 1/296، شرح قطر الندى: ص 204، 207، شرح جمل للزجاجي: ص 145، التمهيب في } \\
& \text { ، النحو والصرف: ص } 226
\end{aligned}
$$

Fischer, A Grammar of classical Arabic, pp.180, 181; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, p. 83; Elder, E.E. Arabic Grammar, pp. 245, 246.

> 1181 سقطت كلمة، ’يومًّ، في 2 ، 3، 3 ، 3 ،
> 1182 في الأصل 'وأخبره، والصحيح كما وردت في ديو انه المطبو ع وقد أثبتناها

و لعلَّ زيداَ قاعدّ1185، و الفرق بين إنّ و أنّ ، أنّ 1186 إنّ 1187 المكسورة مع اسمها و


$$
1183 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 5، سقطت , الثطر الثاني من البيت، }
$$

1184 هذه قطعة من بيت مشهور، و هو لأبي العتاهية، وهو شاعر من شعراء العصر العباسي، كان متصلا بقصر أمير المؤمنين هارون الرشيد، ولا يحتج بشعره على قو اعد النحو ولا على مفردات اللغة، والمؤلف يذكر هذا الثـاهد و نحوه على سبيل التنثيل، لا للاحتجاج،
الإعر اب: ألا أداة استفتناح [ ليت] حرف تمني ونصب [الثنباب ] أسم ليت منصوب و علامة نصبه الفتحة الظاهرة (يعود) فعل مضار ع مرفوع لتجرده من الناصب والجازم و فاعله ضمير مستتر فيه جوازا ت تقديره هو يحود إلى الثباب مفعول به، فأخبر مبني على الضم في محل نصب [بما] الباء حرف جر: ما اسم موصول بمعنى الذي، مبني على السكون في محل جر بالباء، والجار والمجرور متعلق بأخبر [فعل] فعل ماض [ المشبب] فاعل فعل، والجملة من

الفعل و الفاعل لامحل لها صلة الموصول والعائد ضمير محذوف منصوب بفعل و التققير :بما [فعلـ] والشاهد في هذا البيت أن [ليت] و هي حرف للتمني قد دخلت على الجملة الاسمية، فنصبت المبتدأ و سميّ اسمها،
ورفعت الخبر وسميّ خبر ها.

و الثعر الدذكور في المتن يذكر في ديو انه المطبو ع مثل هكذا،
فأخبره بما صنع المثيب
فيا ليت الشباب يعود يومأ
وللتفصيل انظر : ديوان أبي العتاهية: تحقيق ، شكري فيصل ، مكتبة أطلس ، دمشق: 196. ص 32، البيان والتبيين:

$$
\text { 3/82، شرح قطر الندى: شاهد الشعر، } 53 \text { ص 205، مغني (اللبيب: 1/204 }
$$

$$
1185 \text { في 1، 3، 'عابد‘، و في } 5 \text { ، ’قائد' }
$$

1186 يقول/بن يعيش ״" إنّ وأنّ هما نؤكدان مضمون الجملة وتحققانه إلا أن المكسورة الجملة معها على استقلالها بفائدتها والمفتوحة تقالبها إلى حكم المفرد‘، ويكتب في ’شذ ور الذهب،" لأنّ ثلاث حالات (1) وجوب الكسر (2) وجوب الفتح (3) وجو از الأمرين، فيجب الكسر في تسع مسائل: أحدها: في ابتداء الكلام نحو : وَا إنّا أعطينالك
 سورة القصص : رقم الآية 28 ، [ما] مفعول ثان لآتيناه، وهي موصول بمعنى الذي و(إن) وما بعدها صلة، الثالثة :أنْ نقع في أول الصفة ، كمررت برجل إنّه فاضل، الرابعة: أن تقع في أول الجملة الحالية كقوله تعالى، هو كما أخرجك ربك من بيتّك بالحق و إنّ فريقأ من المؤمنين لكار هونهُ الأنفال : رقم الآية 05 ،الخامسة: أن تقع في أول الجملة المضاف إليها وما يختص بالجمل وهو إذ و إذا وحيث نحو جلست حيث إنّ زيدأ جالس السادسة: أن تقع قبل

 الاخان : رقم الآية، 1-3 ، السابعة : أن تقع خبر أ عن أسم عين نحو: زيـ إنّه فاضل ،
 علمتُ و أخواتِّها 1194 فإن دخَّت1195 اللام في خبر ها كسرت


 بالابتداء نحو: هِّ ومن آياته أنّك ترى الأرض خاشُعة هي سورة فصلت : رقم الآية 39 ، الخامسة : أن تقع في موضع خبر, عن أسم معنى نحو: اعتقادي أنّك فاضل، السادسة : أن تقع مجرورة بالحرف وهِ بأنّ الهَ هو الحقيهُ سورة الحج: رقم الآية، 06 ، 62 ، لقمان: 30 ، السابعة : أن تقع مجرورة بالإضـافة نحو: إِّهِ لحق مثل ما أنّكم تنطقونهي الذاريات: رقم الآية: 23 ، الثامنة : أن نقع تابعة لشيء ممّا ذكرنا نحو : ألـا أذكروا نعـتي التي أنعمت عليكم وأنيّي فضّلتّكم على العالمينهِ. البقرة : رقم الآية 47 ،

ويجوز الوجهان في ثلاث مسائل: إحداها، بعد إذا الفجائية، مثل: خرجت وإذا إنّ زيداً بالباب يروى بفتح إن
 رحيم) سورة الأنعام : رقم الآية 06 ، قرىئ بكسر إنّ وفتحها ،الثالثة : في نحو: [أول قولي احمد الشّ] وضابط ذلك أن تقع خبر أ عن قول وخبر ها كأحمد ونحوه : وفاعل القولين واحد ، فما استوي هذا الضابط كالمثال المذكور جاز فيه
 المبتدأ فكأنه فيل : أول قولي هذا الكلام المفتَّح بأنّي وللتفصيل انظر : /بن يعبش: 59-79 /8، شرح الرضتَي : 340-356 /4، شرح /بن عقيل: 300ـ344 334 /15، شرح شنور الذهب: ص 204-208، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 149، 150، شرح مائة عامل: 202-214،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1187 في } 2 \text { ، ’هو أنّ إنّ، في } 4 \text { ، ’هو أنّ ، } \\
& \text { 1188 سقطت كلمة ’ أن‘ في النسخ المذكورة ، 2-4 ، } 2 \text { ، } \\
& 1189 \text { في 1، ’لا يكون‘ في 5، ’حتى تكون‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
\end{aligned}
$$

1190 زيدت كلمة ’ما، في الأصل، وساقطة في أكثر النسخ 2 ، 5 ، 7، والصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتتاها

1191 في 3 ، زيدت العبارة، ’في قوللك بلغني أن زيدا ذاهب، في 7 ، ’زيدا منطلق‘ في 5 ، ’ إنّ زيداً عالم، 1192 في 3، 2، 'و يفتح بعد‘ و في 7، 'وتفتح بعد إنّ ،
1193 يريد المصنّف بهما الشرطيتين، يقول سييويه، فهما لابتداء وجوابٍ، فالأول سبب ما مالم يقع والثاني سبب وفع مثل: لو أنّك في الدار لجيُنّك، و "فلولا أنه كان من المسبحين للبث في بطنه إلى يوم يبعثون" وذلك على رأي الكوفيين لأنهم يقدرون فعلٍٍ بعدهما، كما في فوله تعالى وهوّلو أنّهم صبروا حتى تخرج إليهم لكان خيرأ للهمهُ أي لو
 تمنعها

ثبت صبر هم، سورة الحجرات: رقم الآية، 5، فالمصدر المؤول من أن ومعموليها في محل رفع فاعل لفعل مقدر، أمّا البصريون فيقولون أن المصدر المؤول بعد لو أو لو لا مبتدأ محذوف الخبر، وللمزيد انظر :كتاب سيبويه: 4/235، الأصول في النحو: 324، 325 /1، شرح أبن عقبل: 1/300، شرح الرضتي: ،4/343
1194 في 3 ، ’و بعد و أخواته، وفي بقية النسخ 2، 2 ، 7 ، ’و أخواته‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في لأصل و يريد بذلك الأفعال التي تتصب مفعولين أصلهما مبتدأ و خبر، أو ثانيهما عين الأول عل تعبير المؤلف عليه الرحمة، و تكون أنّ مع اسمها و خبر ها سادة مسّد المفعولين،
1195 في الأصل، ’دخل، في 4 ، ’دخلت اللام‘ وفي 2 ، 5، ’ أدخلت اللام‘ و هو الصحيح و قد أثبتتاه 1196 و السبب في كسر همزة (إنّ) في هذا المثال أنّها وقعت بعد فعل فلبي علق عنها بلام ولإنّ المكسورة الهمزة مواضع أخري منها ، إذا وقعت في إبتدأ الجملة أو بعد حيث، و إذا وقعت مع معموليها خبراً عن اسم ذات، أو وقعت في أولّ جواب القسم أو حكيت مع معموليها بالقول، أو مع معموليها محل الحال،

1198 في 3، ’و يدخل‘ في 29، 'وقد تدخل، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1199 في 5، سقطت كلمة ’أي تمنعها، في 3؛ ’’ 'أي يمنعها عن العمل‘ في 1، سقطت كلمة ’تكقها، و وردت في أكثر النسخ، وتكقها أي تمنعها عن العمل، وقال أبن ماللك،
ووصلُ(ما) بذي الحروف مبطلٌ
إذا أتصلت [ما] غير الموصولة بإنَّ وأخو اتها كفتها عن العمل إلا ليت فإنّه يجوز فيها الإعمال والإهمال، ذهب
"'سييويه‘"، وجماعة من النحاة كالزجاجي وأبن سراج وحكي الأخفش و الكسائي "’إنما زيدأ قائُّ‘،و أن[ مـا غير الموصولة إذا اقترنت بهذه الأدوات أبطلت عملها إلا ليت، فإنّ الإعمالها مع ما جائز، و عللوا ذلك بأنّ هذه الأدوات قد اعملت لاختصاصها بالأسماء ودخول [ما] عليها يزيل هذا الاختصاص، ويهيئها للاخول على جمل الأفعال نحو :هِ قل
إنّما يوحى إليّ أنّما إلهكم إله واحدهِّ الأنبياء: رقم الآية ،108 ،

أعد نظر أ يا عبد قيس لعلّما أضاءت للك النار الحمارَ المفَّبَّ
و [ما]هذه لا تزيل اختصاص (ليت) بالجملة الاسمية أي لم تبطل عملها كما فال النابغة إلى حمامتنا أو نصفُه فقٍِِ قالت: ألا ليتما هذا الحمامَ لنا
والصحيح هو المذهب الأول، و هذا هو مذهب المصتّف أيضـا

المنصوب، و هما: [ما ولا]، المشّبّهنان1202 بليس، نحو: ما زيدٌ منطلقأ، و لا رجلٌ أفضلَ منك، وما تدخل1203 على المعرفة والنكرة.1204، و لا، لا ندخلّ1205 إلا على النكرة، و إذا

وللمزيد انظر :شرح أبن عقبل: 319، 320 /1، شرح قطر الندى: ص207-211، التمهيب في النحو والصرف: ص 227، 228، ديوان نابغة النبياني: تحقيق: كرم البستاني، دار صـادر، بيروت: 1953. ص45، الخصائص: 460
/2، كتاب سيبويه: 137/ 227، آماللي الشجرية: أبن شجري، ضياء الدين هبة اله ابن علي ابن حمزة، دار المعارف
العثمانية، حيدر آباد دكن: 1349 /ه 242، 241 /2 ، ديوان فرزدق: تحقيق: كرم البستاني، دار صادر بيروت: 1960 ، ومغني اللبيب عن كتب الأعاربب: ابن هشام، جمال الدين بن هشام الأنصاري ، الطبعة الأز هرية المصرية ، القاهرة : 1899. ص1/204
1200 في 3؛ 'نحو فوله، في 6 ، 'نحو قوله تعالى'
1201 سورة النساء: رقم الآية: 171
1202 في 7 ، ’ المشبّهة، في 3 ، ’ 'المشبهّتين‘، والصحيح كما في الأصل
ومثلهما - لات وإنْ، (1) لات فهي لا النافية زيدت عليها تاء النتأنبث مفتوحة، ومذهب جمهور النحاة إنّما تعمل عمل
ليس فترفع الاسم ونتصب الخبر ومنه فوله تعالى وهِ ولات حينَ مناصيهُ سورة ص: رقم الآية 09، بنصب العين، فحذف الاسم وبقي الخبر (2) إنْ وأمّا إنْ) النافية فمذهب أكثر البصريين والفرّاء إنّها لا تعمل شياً، ومذهب الكوفيين - خلا الفرّاء إنّها تعمل عمل( ليس)،

وللتفصيل انظر :شرح ابن عقيل: 282-286 /1 ، شرح شذ ور الذهب 199-202، /بن بعيش: 108، 1/109،
هـع الهو/مع: 124-126 /1، شرح الرضي : 2/198،199 ، شرح قطر الندى : ص 203،204 ،

Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol.1, p. 340; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic language, vol. 2, pp. 1051

1203 في الأصل، ’ما يدخل، وفي بقية النسخ 2 ، 3 5 5، ’ما تدخل، و الصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل، و قد أثنبتاه في الصلب

امّا [ما] فلغة بني تميمٍ إنّها لا تعمل شياً، فتقول"، ما زيد قائم‘، فزيد مرفوع بالابتداء وقائم خبره، ولا عمل [لما] في شيء منها، وذلك لأن [ما] حرف لا يختّص للخوله على الاسم كما ذكرنا و على الفعل نحو: [ما يقومُ زيدٌ وفي لغة أهل الحجاز إعمالها كعمل (ليس) لثبهها بها في أنّها لنفي الحال عند الإطلاق، فيرفعون بها الاسم وينصبون بها
 المجادلة: رقم الآية 02 ، ولكن لا تعمل عندهم ألا بشروط ستّة ، (1) لا يز اد بعدها (إن) فإن زيدت بطل عملها نحو:

 غير ظرف ولا جار ولا مجرور، فإن تقّمّ وجب رفعه نحو: ’’ما قائمٌ زيدُ‘، فلا يجوز "ما قائمأ زيد‘، وفيه اختلاف النحاة ، (4) ألا يتقام معمول الخبر على الاسم وهو غير ظرف ولا جار ولا مجرور فإن تقّتم بطل عملها نحو: ما

طعامكَ زيد آكلُ فلا يجوز نصب [آكلَ] فإن كان المعمول ظرفأ أو جارأ أو مجرور الم يبطل عملها، نحو : "'ما عندك زيد مقيماً ،" (5) ألا تتكررّ [ما] فإن تكرّرت بطل عملها نحو: ’ما ما زيد قائم‘، فالأولى نافية، والثانية نفت النفي، فيبقى إثباتًأ فلا يجوز نصب [قائم] (6) ألا يبدل من خبر ها موجبُ - فإن أبدل بطل عمها نحو: " ما زيد بشيء إلا
 [ما] وإذ وقع بعد خبر [ما] عاطف فلا يخلو: إما أن يكون مقتضياً للإيجاب، أو لا ، فان كان مقتضياً للإيجاب تييين
 النصب والرفع، نحو: ’مـا زيد قائمأ ولا قاعدأ، و لا [قاعدٌ ] تز اد الباء كثيرأ في الخبر بعد " ليس"، و ما، نحو قوله
 37 ، و لا تختص زيادة الباء بعد [ما] بكونها حجازية خلافأ لقوم ، وقد نقل سييويه و الفرّاء زيادة الباء بعد [ما] عن

بني تميم و هو موجود في أشعار هم ، وقد وردت زيادة الباء قليلا في خبر [لا] كقوله :
 و في خبر [مضار ع] [كان] المنفية ب [لم] كقوله، و إن مدّت الأيادي إلى الز اد لم أكن
البيت الأول "’ لسواد بن قارب الأسدى الدوسى ويخاطب النبي صلى الشَ عليه وسلم ، والبيت الثاني لشنفري الأزدي، وللمزيد انظر : شرح /بن عقبل: 260—267 /1 ، شرح قطر الندى : ص 197ـ199ـ199، شرح شذ ور الذهب: ص193-196، مغني اللبيب : 2/155،156، ابن يعبش : 108، 109 / 1، هـع الههوامع : 123-1/127، شرح مائة عامل: 225، 226؛

 فمذهب الحجازيين إعمالها عمل "’ليس "، ومذهب تميم إهمالها، ولا تعمل عند الحجازيين إلا بشروط ثلاثة (1) أن يكون الاسم والخبر نكرتين، نحو: ’ لا رجل أفضل منك ، ومنه قول الثـاعر،
تعزّ فلا شئُ على الأرض باقيا
(2) ألا يتقّم خبر ها على اسمها فال تقول [لا قائمـا رجلُ (3) ألا ينقض النفي بألا فلا نقول " لا رجلٌ أفضلَ من زيدٍ

انظر: شرح أبن عقيل: 267-1/272، قطر الندى: ص 199-203، شرح شن ور الذهب: ص 196-199، شرح
مائة عامل: 227-230، ابن يعيش: 109 /1 ، وأما الثعر، لم أقف لهذا الثـاهد إلى نسبة إلى قائل معيّن ولم يذكر في المطوّلات اسم من قال، وقد انشدهأبن عقيل: تحت رقم 78، و و قطر الندى: 51، شرح شذ ور الذهب : 92،

اننقض-1206 النفي بإلا، أو قدّمت1207 الخبر على الاسم، بطل عملها 1208، نحو: ما 1209 زيدٌ إلا منطلفُّ 1210، (وما منطلقٌ إلا زيدٌ) 1211 ول [لا
 غلامَ [33] رجلٍ كائنٌ عندنا1214، ولا خبر آ من زيدٍ جالسٌ1215 عندنـا، وأما 1216 النكرة المفردة فمبنيّة معها على الفتح، نحو: لا رجلَّ في الدار. ويقال له نفي الجنس
 إلا بالشّ 1219

1206 في الأصل ’إذا انتقضت‘ في 2، 6 ، ’أنتقض، في 4 ، ’انتقضت‘ في 5، ’و إذا أنتقض‘ والصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتتاه في الصلب 1207 في 2 ، 'و تقّمّم'
1208 في ، 3، 'عمله، و الصحيح كما جاءت في الأصل
1209 سقطت كلمة ’ما، في 1، 1 ،
1210 زيدت العبارة في 5 ، ’ولا رجل أفضل منكّ،
1211 ومن شروط عمل [ما] عمل ليس : ألا يقترن اسمها [بإن] الزائدة كما مثل المؤلف ، فإن اقترن اسمها [بإن] الزائدة بطل عملها مثل قولنا ’ما إن علي قائم‘ وألا يتقام معمول خبر ها على اسمها إلا إذا كان ظرفأ أو جارا أو مجرور أ، أمّا [لا] فيجب فيها لكي تعمل هذا العمل أن يكون اسمها وخبر ها نكرتين وألا يتقام خبر ها علا على اسمها وألا
 انظر: شرح ابن عقيل: 260،261 /1 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص 197،198 ،

1212 في 2 ، 3؛ 'إلى نكرة،
1213 أو مضار عأ له: يريد الثبيه بالمضاف، و هو ما تعلق به شيء من تمام معنأ، مثل: لا بائعأ صحفأ في الشار ع 1214 في 3، 'عنده،


1217 في 3 ، ’إلا لنفي الجنس‘ ، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1218 سقطت كلمة ’ النكرة؛ في 5 ،
1219 سقطت كلمة’ إلا بالهّ، في الأصل، و وردت في بقية النسخ 3، 4، 6، 7، والصحيح كما وردت في غير الأصل، في 2، وردت ’لا حول ولا قوة ثلاث مرّات،

و أمّا المفردة المعرفة1220، فلا تقع ${ }^{1221}$ بعدها إلا مرفوعةٌ1222، وهي مكرّرة1223 نحو: لا زيدٌ في الدار و لا عمرو"،

و أمّا1224 الحروف العاملة1225 في الفعل المضارع: 1226 تسعة، أربعة منها تنصبُه،


ولهذه الجملة وجوه إعر ابية متعدة وذكر ابن حاجب خمسة منها يغنى إذا كررت [لا
 بمغنى ليس وفقح الثاني،

 أمّا المفرد المعرفةّ، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و ود أثنتّاها في المتن 1221 في الأصل ’يقع' وفي 5، 'فلا تقع' والصحيح كها أثّتنتاه 1222 في 2، 'مرفو عين' والصحيح كما في الأصل
 224 سقطت كلمة • أمّا، في الأصل و وردت في أكثر النسخ، 2-4 ، 7، والصحيح كما أثبتناها في المتن كما وردت ما عدا الأصل
1225 في الأصل وردت كلمة ’العامل، و في بقية النسخ ’عاملة ، والصحيح كما وردت في بقية النسخ ، وقد اثبتناه 1226 في 2، سقطت كلمة 'الفعل، 1227 سقطت كلمة 'منها، في 2 ، 4 ، 4 ، 2 ،
1228 في 22 ’ أْمّا الناصب، بدل ’الناصبة، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل وأكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتّاها

 وقعت بعد [ظنّ] ونحوه، مما يدل على الرجحان، جاز في الفعل بعدها وجهان، أحدها : النصب على أنها مـيا مصدرية
 [أن ] وحذف أسمها وبقي خبر ها وهو الفعل وفاعـله وللمزيد انظر: شرح أبن عقّل: 267 /2 ،شرحشّ شور الذهب: ص 292، 293، شرح قطر الندى : ص 86، 87، /بن يعش: 15، 7/16،
Fischer, A Grammar of Classical Arabic, p.190; Cowan, David. An Introduction to Modern Literary Arabic, Cambridge University Press, 1898, p. 93.

النفي1230 في المستقبل وكي: للتعليل، نقول1231 أحبُ أن1232 تقومَ، أي: فيامكَك، ولن تفعلَ1233، وجئتّك كي تعطيني حقّي، والرابع إذن:1234 و هي 1235 جوابٌ و جز جزاءٌ
 مفرَّغأ لها، غير معتمدٍٍ على شيءٍ قبلها، فإن اعتمد 1239 بطل العملُ كقو للك: أنا 1240 إذن
 كاذبا. 1243 و أنْ من بينها تدخل على الماضي، 1244 وتضمر 1245 أنْ، بعد ستة

$$
\text { 1231 في } 2 \text { ، ، 'و لن النفي‘ و وفي ك } 6 \text { ، ، 'و لن النفي لتاكيد‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و قد اثبتتاها }
$$

1232 سقطت كلمة ' أنَ في 5، و وردت في أكثر النسخ، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و أكثر النسخ و قـ أثثتناها
في النص
 1234 في 1، ’ أذا، بدل كلمة ' أذن، و والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 1235 في 2 ، 3، 5، ’و هي‘ ' في الأصل ’و هو‘ ' والصحيح كمـا أثبتنتاه

1236 زيدت كلمة 'غدأَ في 1، 3،
1237 في 7، ’ إنّما ينصب‘ و في 3 ، ’ ' تنتصب هذه' والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1238 في 6، زيدت 'هذه الفعل المضار ع'
1239 زيدت كلمة 'الفعل، في 5، وسقطت في أكثر النسخ
1240 في 2 ، 'نحو‘ بدل ’كقو لك ،
1241 وزيدت في 5، ’و الها إذن لأفعل، في 3 ، ’'و نحو إن تأتتي،
لا ينصب الفعل المضار ع إلا بشروطٍ، ومنها الصدارة، فإن كان الفعل غير مفرّغ لها بان كان مطلوبأ لما قبلها فقت الصدارة وفي المثال الأوّل من هذين المثالين نجد أن الضمير [أنا] مبتدأ وقد تطلب الفعل مع فاعله بعد، إذن، ليكون خبرأ له ، وفي المثال الثناني نجد أن الفعل بعدها طلب ليكون جو اب شرط مجزوم لإن الشرطية المتقّمّة عليها مع شرطها، أمّا إذا تقّدّمها حرف عطف مثل : [ و إذن أكرمك ] جاز في الفعل النصب والرفع، انظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص 82، 83، 1242 زيدت العبارة في 5 ، 'و إن لم يعتمد على شيئ قبلها
1243 ومن شروط نصبها للمضار ع أيضاً أن يكون مستقبلا، فإذا جاء للحال بطل عملها، و الشرط الآخر لعملها النصب في المضار ع هو ألا يفصل بينها وبين منصوبها فاصل، فإن فصل بينهما فاصل وجب رفع الفعل بعدها مثل، إذن زيد
 إذن و اله نرميهم بحربٍٍ تشيب الطفلَ من قبل المشبيبِ

أحرف إلغ1249 و واو الصرف 1250 نحو: سرتُ حتى أدخُلها، وجئتّك للُّكرمَنِي11251، قال الها

نسب بعض الناس هذا البيت إلى حسّان ابن ثابت الأنصاري ، و وجدت في ديو انه الهطبوع بيتّا مفردأ لا سابق له ولا لاحق، ولم يذكر معه من قيل فيه،
 1961: ص 22، وهو من شو اهد قطر الندى: 13، و شرح شذ ور الذهب: 145، شر ح أبن عقلل: 268، 2/269 ، 1244 124 في 3 ، ’على الفعل الماضي‘ في 72 ، ' 'على الماضي أيضأ، وزيدت في 1، 'نحو عجبت من أن ضرب زيد،
والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل

ولكن لا عمل لها فيه، كما تقول مثلا: عجبت من أن قام على، كما تـذل على الأمر أيضأ دون أثر فيه، مثل: كثبت

 1245 في 3 ، 'و يضمر، و والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل (ألم لهس لها معنىً في نفسها بخلاف (لن، وإذنُ و كي) فلنقصان معناها، كان تقلير ها أولى منى من سائر أخو اتها، والوجه
 على سائر أخواتها في (حالة اظهارها)، فأداًا وجد فيها مزية على سائر أخواتها في حالة الإظهار، كانت أولى

وللمزيد انظر :/سرار العربية: 328-332 ،



40، وبعض النحاة أطلق عليها لام النفي أو لام الجحد،
 1248 زيدت كلمة ’ أن، في أكثر النسخ، 2-4 ، 7، و الصحيح كما جاءت في الأصل

1249 وردت في النسخ الآتية كلمة ’ إلا أن، 2 ، 3، 3، 3 ،
1250 دائما تفبد عدم الجمع بين ما قلبها وما بعدها، فاذذا فلانا لا تأكل السمك وتشرب اللبن فالمر اد ألا تجتمع بين أكل السمك وشرب اللبن


 زيدأ أ أمّ بعد الأدوات الخمسة الأخرى وهي: وحتى ولام الجحود، وأو و واو المعيَّة وفاء السبيبة، فإضمار [أن]
 السمكَ و تشرَبَ اللبنَ1256، و السادس، الفاء 1257 في جواب الأثياء السيّة، وهي: 1258 الأمر و النهي، و النفي، والاستفهام، و التمني، و العرض
 فتحِّثنا و 1263 أين بيتك فأزورَكَ، و ليت لي مالا فأنفقةه1264، و ألا نتزلُ بنا1265 فتصيبَ

واجب ، أن، تقع بعد لام الجر سواءُ كانت للتعليل كورله تعالى وِّ إنا أنزلنا إلبك النكر لتبين للناس) سورة النحل : رقم الآية 44 ، انظر :شرح تطر الندى: ص 90،91 ، 1252 في 5 ، ، 'قوله تعالى، وفي أكثر النسخ زيدت ’ قال الهّ تعالى، و سقطت ’ قال الهّ تعالى، في الأصل، والصحيح

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و ود أثبتنتاه } \\
& \text { 1253 زيدت في 3، ’و نحو ما، وسقطت كلمة ’ الشّ ، في } 2 \text { ، ، } \\
& \text { 1254 سورة الأنفال: رقم الآية : 33، و و زيدت، في 1، } 2 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 'وأنت فيهم، }
\end{aligned}
$$

بعد الواو يجوز في هذا المثّال ثلاثة أوجه، (1) الجزم على أساس التشريك بين الفعلين، (1) نحو (لا تأكل السمك



بأن مضمرة
وللثفصيل انظر: شر حبن عقّل: 2/277، شرح قطر الندى: ص 108 1257 أي السادس من الحروف التي تضمر بعدها [أنـ] المصدرية الناصبة للضضارع الفاء وتستى هذه الفاء فاء السببية،

 وأكن من الصالحين) الهنافقين : رقم الآية 10، والدعاء مثل قولك ربَ أنصرني فالا أخذل

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1260 \text { في 7، يستعمل كلمة ’ تنول، بدل بدل 'نحو، }
\end{aligned}
$$

1261 سقطت كلمة ’قال اله تعالى، في الأصل، ووردت في 3 ، و و في 2، ’وقوله تعالى، والصحيح كما وردت في 3 ،
و قد أثنتّاها
1262 سورة طه : رقم ألآية: 8

$$
1263 \text { في 3، زيدت كلمة , نحو، ، }
$$

خيرأ.1266 و علامة صحَّة الجواب بالفاء أن يكون־1267 المعنى: إن فعلتَ فعلتُ، و الجاز مة له1268 خمسة: 1269

لم، و لمّا: 1270 لنفي الماضي، و في لمّا نَوَقُّع 1271 و انتظار 1272 ولام الأمر: للغائب1273. و لا: في النهي. و إنْ: في اللشرطو الجز اء. 1274 تقول: لم يضربٌ1275 ، ولمّا يركبْ1276

1264 و في زيدت في 1، ’ فأنفقه عليك‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل،
1265 سقطت كلمة ’بنا، في الأصل وردت في أكثر النسخ 2 ، 3 ، 6 ، 7، والصحيح كمـا وردت في أكثر النسخ، وقد
أثبتتاها
1266 في 7، 'خير ألكَ،
1267 في 4 ، سقطت كلمة ’يكون‘ و جاءت في 2 ، 3 ،’ تكون‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1268 أي للفعل المضـار ع،
1269 في 4 ، 2، زيدت كلمة ’خمسة ‘وسقطت في الأصل والصحيح كما وردت في ما سوا الأصل
1270 لم ولمّا و هما لللففي، ويختصـان بالمضار ع، ويقلبان معناه إلى الماضي نحو : لم يقم زيد، ولما يقم عمرو، ولا
يكون المنفي بلمّا إلاّ متصلا بالحال ، والفرق بين لم ولمّا ، أنّ [لمّا] تشارك [لم] في أربعة أمور وهي : الحرفية ، والاختصاص بالمضار ع ، وجزمه ، وقلب زمانه إلى المضتي وتفارقها في أربعة أمور أحدها : أنّ المنفيّ بها مستمرَ



 إلى الآن لم يذوقوه وسوف يذوڤونه ، والثالث: أن الفعل يحذف بعدها يقال : هل دخلت البلد ؟ فتقول ، قاربتها ولمّا أدخلها ، ولا يجوز قاربتها ولم ، والر ابع : أنّها لا تقترن بحرف الشرط، بخلاف لم ، تقول : إن لم تثم قمت ، ولا

يجوز ، إن لمّا نقم قمت،


$$
\text { النحوية: ز زهران ، ص } 251 \text { ،252 ، شرح الرضي : 81-83 / } 4 \text { ، الموجز في النحو: ص 80-82 ، }
$$

Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp. 60-63.
 الحجرات: رقم الآية، 14، لأنّهم توقعوا دخول الأيمان في قلوبهم ،
1272 سقطت كلمة ’ انتظار ‘ في الأصل، و وردت في بقية النسخ، 2-4 ، 7، والصحيح كما وردت في بقية النسخ و قد أثبتتاها،

1273 سقطت كلمة ’ للغائب، في 5 ، 7 ،

وليضربْ زيدٌ، ولا تفعلْ، و إن تَخرُج أخرُجْ، وهما 1277 مجزومان أبداً، 1278 إذا كانا
 خرجتُ، فإن 1281 كان الشرط ما ضيأ والجزاء مضـارعأ جاز فيه الرفع والجزم ، نحو : إن أكرمتتي أكرمْك و أكرمكّك1282، و عليه فوله1283،

يقولُ1285 لاغائبٌ مالجي ولاحَرمُ، 1286
وإنْ أتاه خليلٌ يومَ مسغبةٍ 1284

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1274 في } 3 \text { ، 'للثرطو و الجزاء، } \\
& \text { 1275 في 3، ’لى تضرب، ، وزيدت في 2، كلمة 'زيدا، }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1277 \text { أي الشرط والجزاء أو فعل الشرط وجواب الشرط وجز اءه }
\end{aligned}
$$

1278 في 5، 'تجزمان أبدا، سقطت كلمة ' أبدأ في الأصل، و وردت في أكثر النسخ، 3 ، 4، 6 ، 7، و الصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و فـا أثبتّاها
1279 في 3، ’ فأن كان، في 2 ، 5 ، 'و إن ،
1280 خرجْتَّ مبني على السكون في محل جزع فعل الشرط، خرجّتُ: مبني على السكون في محل جزم جواب الشُرط،
1281 في 4 ، 'و إن كانت الشرط؛ في 1، 1281 5، 'و إن كان الشرط،
1282 سقطت كلمة، ’اكرمك، في 5، و و زيدت العبارة في 7 ، ،'و أكرمك الآن إلا إن الرفع أفصح‘ في 4، زيبت
'الجزم‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و قد أثبتناها

1284 في 2، 'هسألةّ، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1285 في 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، 'يقول، في الأصل 'بتول،
1286 البيت لز هير بن أبي سلمى من قصيدة يد ي



 يقول] و قـد اختلف العلماء فيه، ولهم في ذلكك مذهبان مشهور ان،

 وثانيهما: مذهب المبرد والكوفيين، حيث ذهبوا إلى أن هذا الفعل الهضارع هو نفس الجواب، إلا أنّه على نتفير الفاء،

و يجىءُ الجز اء بالفاء إذا كان جملة1287 اسمية، أو أمرَ أو نهياً أو دعاءً، أو ماضياً صريحا=1288 نحو: إن تأتنتي فأنت مُكرَّمّ، و إن لقيته فأكرمْهُ 1289 ، فإن أتاك فلا يُهنه، وإنْ1290 فعلت كذا فجز اك الهَ خير اَ و إن أحسنتَ إليَّ اليوم فقل أحسنتُ إليك أمس. 1291 و ينجزمُ 1292 بإنْ مضمرةً في جواب الأشياء السـّةٌ 1293 ، التني تجاب بالفاء $1294{ }^{129}$ إلغ
 بربّه فلا يخاف بخسأهُ ( سورة يوسف : رقم الآية ، 26، و سورة الجن : رقم الآية 72)،
 و الجزاء جميعأ، إلا في الضرورة الشعرية مع القبح، كالذي رواه سييويه، رحمه الله من قول جرير بن عبد اله
 (بن عقيل: 292، 2/93، شرح المقصل: 8/157، هـع الهو/مع: 60، 2/61، شرح شذور الذهب: شاهد الثعر، 175، ص
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp 60-76.

$$
\text { 1288 في } 2 \text { ف، ، ' أو مان الجملةً، }{ }^{1287} \text { فريحاً أو دعاءً ، }
$$

ما دلّ على الماضي صر احةٌ كقوله: إن أحسنت إلىّ اليوم فقد أحسنتُ إليك أمس [المثّلل] وأحترز به عن مثل قولنا: إن خرجتُ فإنَّه ماضِ غبر صريح لكونه في تقاير المستقبل 1289 في 1، 'و إن تقعد به فأكرمه، و الصحيح كما وردت في في الأصل
1290 في الأصل ’ فإنْ ، في 3 ، 'نحو إن‘ في 2 ، 5 ، 'و إن' ' و هو الصحيح عندنا و قد أثبتناها $1291{ }^{121}$ كما يجب اقتران الجو اب بالفاء إذا كان الجو اب فعلا مضـار عأ منفيا [بما] نحو: إن جاء زيد فما أضربا إن جاء زيد لن أضربه، أو كان مضار عأ مقرونأ بحرف التنفيس مثل :إن جاء زيد فأضربه، أو فسوف أضربه، أوقد

مثل : إن جاء علي فقد أكرمُه
انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 294 /294
1292 في الأصل ’ينجزم‘ في 2 ، ’يجزم‘ في 7 ، ’تجزم‘ في 3؛ ’و يجزم المضـارع' والصحيح كما وردت في
الأصل و قد أثنتتاه في المتن
1293 وينجزم أي الفعل المضار ع، ويريد به المضـار ع المجزوم بجواب الطلب
1294 أي الأثياء التي كانت تقع فاء السببية في جوابها فيُنصب بعدها الفعل المضارع بأن مضمرة، والجزم هنا جواز أ إذا سقطت الفاء وڤصد الجزاء ، واختلف النحاة في الجازم عند سقوطها ، فذهب الجمهور إلى أن الجازم بعد الطلب

النفي1295 مطلقأ و النهي في بعض المواضع نحو زرني أكرمْكَ و أين بيبّك أزرُّكْ 1296 و لا تفعل شّرّّ1297 يكن خبر أ للك، و ليت لي 1298 مالا أنفِقه و ألا 1299 تنزل خيرأ للك، و لا يجوز 1301 ما تأتينا تحدِّثنا فُُحدّثنا)1303 ولا تَدْنُ من الأسد يأكلكَ بالجزْم لأنَّ النفي لا يدل1304 علي الإثبات

و من السماعيّة أسماء تَجزُمُ الفعل1305 المضارع على معنى إنْ:1306 و هي، تنعة مَن، (و ما، و أيّ، و أنى، و متى، و أين، و أينما، ومهما، وحيثما)

هو شرط مقدر، و أوجبوا تقدير (إن) الشرطية من بين الأدو ات و ذهب قوم إلى أنَّ الجازم هو نفس جملة الطلب، فما العامل في جواب الشرط ؟ فذهب بعض النحاة إلى أنّ العامل فيه حرف الشرط، كما يعمل في فعل الشرط، وذهب بعضهم إلى أنّ حرف الشرط وفعل الشرط يعملان فيه، وقال آخرون إن حرف الشرط يعمل في فعل الشرط، وفعل الشرط يعمل في جواب الشرط، ولكل مذهب دليل والصحيح ما ذهب إليه "'الأنباري"، وهو أن يكون العامل حرف الشرط ، بنوستّ فعل الشرط لأنه عامل معه انظر: شرح الرضي : 100-1 /41 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص 109،109، أسرار العربية: ص 336-340، شرح
/بن عقيل: 278،279 /2
1295 في 2، ’إلا في النفي‘

$$
1296 \text { في } 6 \text { ، سقطت كلمة ’ أزرك، في } 5 \text { ، ’رأيت بابك أزرك ، }
$$

$$
1297 \text { في } 2 \text { ، } 3 \text { ’الشثر‘ ، }
$$

$$
1298 \text { في 5، 'و ليت لي لك، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

1299 في 2، 'و على' و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل

1300 سقطت كلمة ’ بناء في الأصل و وردت في بقية النسخ، 2-4 ، 7 ، و الصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل و
قد أثبتناها
1301 في 13، زيدت كلمة ’ أن يقال، ، لا لا لا لا لا
1302 لإنّ النفي لا يجزم جوابه، لأنّه يقتضى تحقق عدم الوقوع كما يقتضى الإيجاب تحقق الوقوع فالا يجزم بعده، كما
لا يجز م بعد الإيجاب

1303 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ
1304 في 2، وردت ’لا تدل، بدل كلمة ’يدل،
1305 في 2 ، ’يجزم الفعل المضـارع' وسقطت كلمة ’ الفعل، في النسخ الآتية، 1، 4 ، والصحيح كما أثبتناها في المتن كما وردت في الأصل
1306 في 7، زيدت العبارة ’فلذلك جزم الشرطو الجزاء؛

يُكرمْني أكرمْه، وما تصنعْ أصنَعْ، وأيُّهم يُكرمْني 1310 أكرمْهُ 1311 (و يكون أيٌُ أبداً واحداَ)1312 من اثنين أو جماعة، ${ }^{1313}$ ، و يدل1314 على كونها اسماً أنك أسنْدت 1315 يُكرمُ

1307 سقطت كلمة , أينما، في الأصل و وردت في 3، و قد أثبتناها نقليم ونأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر
النسخ
1308 إذما: عدّها الؤولف من أسماء الثرط، والصحيح ما ذهب إليه سييويه قال إنّها حرف بمنزلة (إنْ) الشرطية، فإذا



 زمان إلى دلالتها على زمان آخر لا يلزم منه خروجها عن أصلها في النوع من كونها اسما أو فعلا، فان الفـل الفـل

 واحدأ من هذين الفطلين قد خرج عن أصله فصار الأول فعلا مضار عا أو الثانى فعلا ماضياً، ويشير إليه ابن مالك

وللثفصيل انظر :كتاب سييويه: 3/57، شرح /بن عقلب: 2/285، الإيضاح العضدي: لأبي علي الفارسي : 320-322 /1،1/الأصول في النحو: 2/204، شرح قطر الندى: صس 48، 49 ، 49

1310 في 1، 'و أئُمْ نكرمني، و و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 1311 زيدت كلمة 'إنمّا، في 5،



 أيَ في جيع الأوقات واحرأ،
1313 في 3، ' أو واحدأ من جماعة،
1314 في 2 ، ، 'تدل، في 2 -4 3 ، 'و الذي يدل، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل

$$
1315 \text { في 7، زيد ت , تضاف إلىى، }
$$

إلى ضمير ها وتَدخلُ حرفَ1316 الجرِّ عليها و ثُنوِّن بعضَها وتضيهُها1317، نحو:
 أخرجْ، و مهما 1320 تصنع أصنعْ 1321 و حيثما، مثل أين، و إذ ما مثل متى، و 1322 أنهما

$$
1316 \text { في 2، ’حروف الجر ، }
$$

1317 في الأصل ’تضيفه‘ و في أكثر النسخ 1، 5، 6، 7، ’وتضيفها، والصحيح كما وردت في ما سوا الأصل و قد أثنتنتاها

دخول حرف الجر على الكلمة وتتوينها وإضافتها إلى غيرها، و إضافة غير ها إليها، من علاقات اسميتها، كما أن الإسناد إليها أو إلى ضمير ها الذي ذكره المؤلف قبل ذلك من علامات الأسماء أيضأ
 أكثر النسخ 3 ، 4 ، 6 ، 7، 'و أيّهما تتصر انصر ‘ والصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتتاها في المتن 1319 في الأصل سقطت كلمة ' تدع ندع ' و وردت في أكثر النسخ 2 ، 4 ، 6 ، 7 ، ، 'و الصحيح كمـا وردت في أكثر النسخ كما أثبتتاها في المتن 1320 فأمّا [مهما] فهي من أدوات الشرط، تأتي للمبهم من الكلام ، و قد أختلف فيه النحاة، قال بعضهم ، هي كلمة غير مركبة على وزن فعل فحقها أن تكتب بالياء ولو سمّي بها لم تتصرف ولو قال إنّها للتأنيث، لم تنصرف معها تنكير ها ، وقال الخليل : هي [ما] ألحقت بها [ما] كما تلحق بسائر الكلمات الشرط ، و عند الزجاج هي مركبة من [مهٌ] بمعنى [گّفْ و [ [ما] الشرطية وفيه بُّعد ، وهو ان يقال فيه ، مهما تفعل أفعل وز عم السهيلى‘ إنّها حرف وأستدّل على ذلك

قول "زهير"،
و موما تكن عند امرىء من خليقة إن خالها يُخفى على الناس تُعلم
و عند السهيلي: ’مهمـا، حرف شرط جازم يجزم فعلين، الأول فعل الشرط، والثاني جوابه وجز اؤه، مبني على السكون لا محل له من الأعراب، وعند الجمهور، "'مهما "، اسم شرط جازم يجزم فعلين الأول فعل الثرط والثاني جو ابه وجزاؤه، وهو مع ذلك مبتدأ مبني على السكون في محل رفع [تكن] والأصح باعتبار "مهما، إنّها اسما للشرط بدليل رجوع الضمير إليه كما ذكر الجرجاني في المائة، وهي مذهب الجمهور أيضـأ كما فال تعالى، وهِ مهما تأتنا بـ من آية) سورة الأعراف : رقم الآية 132 ،

انظر : العو/مل المائة: تحقيق: بد راوي زهران ص 263، /بن يعبش: 42، 7/43، شرح شذ ور الذهب: ص 334،
335، شرح قطر الندى: ص 49-52، التمهيي في النحو والصرف: ص 54، الموجز في النحو: ص 8 ، شرح

$$
\text { الرضي : 87-89 /4 ، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص } 292 \text { ، }
$$

1321 زيدت العبارة في 1، ’و أين تذهب اذهب و أنّى تكن أكن و مهما تصنع أصنع، في 3 ، ’و أين تكن أكن و أنّى تفعل أفعل ومهما تصنع اصنع‘ في 5 ، ’نحو ومتى و مهما مثل ما و أنّى مثل أين تخرج أخرج‘ في 7، ’' و أين تكن

تُجزمان 1323 إذا كان معوما [مـ] ، ومن السماعيّة 1324 أسماء تنصب اسمأ نكرة على 1325 أنّه تمييز 1326، و هي أربعة: أولّها عشرة إذا رُكِّبتْ مع أحَّ إلى تسعةة1327، نحو: أحدَ
 نحو: كم رجلا عنده؟ 1332 و كم يومأ سرت؟؟1333 كأنّكّك فلت: أعشرون رجلا (عندك

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1323 في الأصل ’تجزما، في } 2 \text { ، } 3 \text { ، ’و إنّما تجزمان‘ في } 5 \text { ، ’تجزمان‘، والصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتتاه } \\
& 1324 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 3؛ سقطت كلمة , السماعيّة، } \\
& 1325 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 'على معنى' }
\end{aligned}
$$

ك1326 نصب هذه الأسماء للتمييز على سبيل المجاز، و هي النوع الثنامن من العو امل اللفظية السماعية عند الجرجاني
كما في "/المائة ، ، انظر : العو/مل المائة النحوية: ص 265،

1327 في 5، زيدت العبارة، ’و تسعة و عشر و اثثين ألي تسعة تسعين‘ في 2؛ ’ 'تسعة وتسعين‘ في 3؛ ’ إلى التسعة،
1328 في ، 2، ' در هماء، في 7، 'دينارَّ
1329 سقطت كلمة ’ في، في 2 ، 5 ، 5 ، 5 ،
1330 في أكثر النسخ، ’للاستفهام، 2 -4،
1331 في 5، زيدت ’ إذا أكني به عن العدد،
1332 في الأصل ’عنده، في 2 ، 3 ، 5، ’عندك،
1333 وكم ’اسم‘ والدليل على ذلك دخول حرف الجر عليها ومنه قوله ’على كم جذع سقفت بيتكّ، و وهي اسم لعدد مبهم، ويجوز جر تمييز "كم،" الاستفهامية بأمرين، أحدهما: أن يدخل عليها حرف جر، والثاني: أن يكون تمييزها إلى جانبها كقولك: بكم در هم اشتريتَ، و على كم شيخ اشتظلتَ، والجر حينئذٍ عند جمهور النحويين بمِن مضمرة و التققير : بكم من در هم ، و على كم من شيخ ، وزعم الزجاج أنّه بإضافة ، و الفرق بين (كم) الاستفهامية و تمييزه ها و (كم) الخبرية و تمييزها من عشرة أوجهٍ، الأول: أنّ الأصل في تمييز الاستفهامية النصب و في تمييز الخبرية الجر، و قد


 تمييز ها بلا، تقول: كم رجل جاءنى لا رجل ولا رجلين، وتمييز الاستفهامية لا يجوز فيه ذلك، والسادس: أن الاستفهامية تحتاج إلى جواب، والأجود في جو ابها أن يكون بحسب موقعها هي من الإعراب، ويجوز فيه الرفع مطلقاً و الخبرية لا تحتاج إلى جو اب، والسابع: أن الخبرية تختص بالماضي مثل: رُبكَ، أمّا الاستفهامية فلا تختص به فتقول: كم عبدأ سأملكه، على معنى الإستفهام، والثامن: أن المتكلم بكم الخبرية يتوجه إليه التصديق و التكذيب بخلاف المتكلم بكم الاستفهامية، والسابع: أن البدل من الإستفهامية يقترن بهمزة الإستفهام، بخلاف الخبرية، والعاشر: أن تمييز الاستفهام يجب نصبه إذا فصل منها بظرف أو جار أو مجرور كما هو أصله

أم ثالثون، وأعشرين) 1334 يومأ سرت أم ثلاثينَ. و كم الخبريّة تضاف إلي المهيَّز 1335
 والثالث: كأيّن 1339، في معنى كم الخبرية، نحو: كائّن رجاو1340 عندك و وفيه لغات وللمزيد انظر: شرح /بن عقيل: 328، 2/329، شرح قطر /لندى: ص 335، 336، شذ ور الذهب: ص 256، 257، ابن يعيش: 4/134،
1334 في 1، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في 2، سقطت كلمة ’ أم‘ فقط ووردت في 4 ، ، أم ثلاثون ‘ و الصحيح كما جاءت في الأصل
1335 في 5، ’تمييز‘ في 3 ، ’ يضـاف ألي مميّز‘ في 3 ، ’يضاف ألي المميز‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و قد أثبتنتاه 1336 لأنّ "ربّ"، للتقليل و "'كم‘، للتكثير، و هم يحملون الشىئ على ضدّه كما يحملون على نظيره، فجعلت في الاستفهام بمنزلة عدد ينصب ما بعده وفي الخبر بمنزلة عددٍ يجّر ما بعده
 المعارف، القاهرة: 1982، ص 192، 193، 1337 في 5، ’تقول‘ بدل 'نحو،

 لأصل ، و قد أثبتناه 1340 في الأصل ’كأيّ رجلا ‘ وفي 1، ’ كأيّ رجل، وفي أكثر النسخ 2 ، 3 ، 5، 7، ’نحو كائّن رجلا'، والصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتتاها تو افق’’كم وكايّنّ، في خمسة أمورد (1) الإبهام (2) الافتقار إلى التمييز (3) البناء( 4) لزوم التصدير (5) و إفادة التتكير تارة وهو الغالب مثل قوله تعالى هوه وكأيّّ من نبي قاتل معه ربّيون كثيرهئ آل عمران : رقم الآية ، 146 ،
 أهلكناها هُ الأعر اف : رقم الآية، 04 ، (2) أن مميز"ها مجرور بمن غالبأ مثل قوله تعالى، وِّوكأىئ من دأبة لا تحمل رزقها اله يرزقها وإيّاكمهُ العنكبوت: رقم الآية 60 ، (3) إنها لا تقع استفهامية عند الجمهور (4) إنّها لا نقع مجرورة خلافأ لابن قتيبة و أبن عصفور، (5) إن خبر ها لا يقع مفردأ



 قال أبن يعيش، فيه خمس لغاتٍ: كأين وكاءٍ بوزن كاع وكئ بوزن كيع وكأي بوزن كعي وكأءٍ بوزن كع

استعمالها مع (مِن) كثبر 1342 نحو قوله تعالى: 1343 (1344 134 كم مِن ملكٍ في السمواتو ( والرابع: كذا، 1346 إذا كنِي به عن العدد، تقول: [36]عندي كذا درهمأ كما1347 تقول: عندي عشرون در همأ مثلوب1348 ومن السماعية العاملة، في الأسماء1349 كلمات، تستمى أسماءالأفعال1350، وهي نسعة 1351 أولّها


وهي كناية عن العدد ككم: وهي مركبة من كاف التثبيه وذا لإِشارة ، النظر : العوامل المائة النحوية: ص 270، كتاب سبيويه: 2/170،
1347 في 1 سقطت كلمة ' 'كها، 1348 سقطت كلمة ’مثلا، في 2 -4،




 لزمه واحد و عشرون إلى تسعة ونسيين وز عم ابن خروف أنها لا تستعمل مفردة و و لا لا مركبة، وللمزيد انظر: هـع الهو/مع: 2/76، شرح أبن عقّل: 330 /2/ ، العو/مل المائة النحوية: ص 270-272-272 1349 في الأصل وردت كلمة 'الأسماء‘ و في أ كثر النسخ 2-4، 6 ، ، ، الاسم؛

 الحروف التي هي أسماء للفعل لا تظهر فيها علامة الهضمر، ولكن الهأمور و اللنهي مضمران في النّيّة انظر:كتاب سييويه: 1/242،ا/سر/ر العربية: ص 163 ،شرح /بن عقيل: 236،237 /236


رُويدَ1352 وهو 1353 اسم لأمهّن، وبَلَّةَ اسم لدعْ1354، و يستوي فيهما الواحد والجمع، و المذكر والمؤنث، تقول: 1355 يا رجلُ رويدَ زيداً و يا رجالُ رويدَ زيدا1356، (ويا امر أهُ



$$
1352 \text { في } 4 \text { ، ’رويد زيدا' }
$$





$$
\text { 2/ } 236 \cdot 237 \text { : }
$$

$$
1353 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 'هي' }
$$

1354 سقطت كلمة ’اسم‘ في الأصل و وردت في 4 ، 5، والصحيح كما وردت في 4 ، 5 ، و قد أثبتناها
1355 في 6 ، ' نحو'

1357 في 2، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين،
1358 في 3، سقطت كلمة 'وياء‘ ووردت في 5، 'يا نسوة‘
1359 في 5، 'و هكذا،
1360 زيدت كلمة ’اسم‘ في الأصل و سقطت في ما عدا عا الأصل
أراد المصنّف بذكر، دونك وعليك، الإشـارة إلى أن من أسماء الأفعال ما نقل عن الظرف مثل دون أو الجار و المجرور مثل عليك ومعنى دونك أي خذ والأصل عندك زيد فخذه، انظر :شرح الرضي: 104، 105 /3، شرح /بن عقيل: 236، 237 /2،
1361 في 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، 'فيها' 5 ' 237 '
1362 زيدت كلمة ’احدها، في 5،
ها، وهو اسم ’خذ‘ وفيه عدة لغاتٍ وذكر في ’’شرح الرضي "، ثمانية منها، وقال "الجوهري"، هاءٍ بكسر الهمزة بمعنى [هاتٍ ] وبفتحها بمعنى خذ، و إذا قيل للك هاء، بالفتح، قلتُ: ما أهاءُ، أي ما آخذ، ومنها: هات: بمعنى أعطِ وتتصرّف بحسب المأمور، إفر ادً وتثيةُ وجمعأ، وتذكير أ وتأنيثأ فتقول: هاتِ، هاتيا، هانو ا، هاتي، هاتين، وتصرّر فُه دليل فعليّته، وقال الخليل، أصل هاتِ آت، من آتي يؤتى إيتاءً، فقلبت الهمزة هاءً، انظر: الصحاح: للجوهري: [فصل
الهاء]، شرح الرضي: 92، 3/93
 هاؤن) بينهما فيقال: هاءك مثل هاعكك1369 إلى هاعكنَّ 1370 و حيَّهلْ الصلوة والثّ الثريدَ، أي ائت الثريدَ1371، و هيهات الأمرُ1372، أي بَعُدَ وشتّانَ زيدٌ و عمروٌ، أي افترفا، و هي تقتضي1373 شيئين، و سرعان ذ/ /هالة 1374، أيَّسرُعَ و في هذه الثلاثة مبالغة ليست في مسمّياتها 1375 . ومن السماعبّة أنواع أربعة، من الأفعال1376

1363 هناك تقليم وتأخير في العبارة مابين القوسين في أكثر النسخ، في 5 ، 'هاء بالهمزة و الهمزة‘ في 1، ' هاء



 القوسين
1366 في 3، 'و يضع' في 2 ، 'يوضع' والصحيح كما في الأصل
 1368 في 3، 'يجمع' وفي أكثر النسخ 1 ، 2 ، 2 ، 5 ، 7 ، ' 'تجمع' والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و أكثر النسخ 1369 في 2 ، ، سقطت كلمة 'متل هاعكا ، 3 ،
 1371 زيدت كلمة الثريد؛ في 5،
1372 هيهات، وهو اسم لبعد و إنما عدلوا عن لفظ الفعل لضرب من المبالغة فإذا قال هيهات زيد فكأئه فال بعد جدأ أو بعد كل البعد ومنه ڤول جرير،
فهيهات هيهات التثيق ومن به
 فاعلا كما ير فعه بنفس بعد، فدلّ ذلك على أنَ اسم الفعل يعطل الفعل الذي يكون بمعناه، فيذكر في ديوان جرير فائهاتِّ بدل هيهات،
وللتفصيل انظر :شرح 'بن عقيل: 23235،235، بن يعبش: 35-4/37، شرح قطر النـى: ص 360، 361، ديوان

$$
\text { جرير: ص } 479 \text { ، }
$$


 فقلِ له ما هذا فقال ودكها فقال السائل [ سر عان ذا إهالةّ ونصب (إهلاة ) على الحال [ وذا] إثارة إلى الرغام حالة

منها الأفعال الناقصة1377، وهي ثلاثة عشر فعلا، نحو: 1378 (كان - وصار - و أصبح و أمسى - وأضحى - وظلَّ - وبات - وما زال - وما برح - وما فتئ - و ما انفكّ - وما دام - وليس) 1379 فهذه 1380 نرفعُ الاسم وتتصبُ الخبرَ1381 و نُقصـائها أنّها لا نتّم1382

كونه إهالة، ويجوز أن يحمل على التمييز على تقدير نقل الفعل، مثل قولهم، تصبّب زيد عرقأ، ويضرب المثل لمن يخبر بكينونة الثئي قبل وقته،،
وللففصيل انظر : ابن يعيش: 4/38 ، مجمع الأمثال: الميداني: أبو الفضل أحمد ابن محد النيشابوري ـ مطبعة

Freytag, Georg Wilhelm Friedrich. Arabum Proverbia, Bonnae ad Rhenum, 1838, vol.1, p. 613.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1375 \text { يقصد المؤلف الأفعال التي نابت منابها و هي بعد وأفترق وسر ع، } \\
& 1376 \text { في 3، ' أربعة من الأفعلاء‘ في 1، } 7 \text { ، ، سقطت كلمة 'من الأفعال، } \\
& 1377 \text { زيدت كلمة ’ أفعال، في الأصل وسقطت في } 2 \text { ، } 4 \text { ، 7، }
\end{aligned}
$$

هذه الأفعال سميّت ناقصة لأنها تحتاج إلى ذكر المنصوب مع المرفوع، وذلك أنّ مر فو عها مبتدأ ومنصوبها خبر في الأصل، والمبتدأ والخبر ركنان أساسيان في الجملة الاسمية التي تدخل عليها الأفعال الناقصة فلا يصحّ الاستغناء عن

أيّ منهما، وذهب بعض النحويين إلى أنّها حروف و ليست أفحالا، لأنها لا تدل على المصدر، و هذا دلّ على إنها حروف، والصحيح أنّها أفعال، و هو مذهب الأكثرين و الدليل على ذلك من ثلاثة أوجهٍ، الوجه الأول: إنّها تلحقها تاء

الضمير وألفه و واوه، نحو كنت وكانا وكانوا وما أثنبه ذلكَ، والوجه الثناني: أنّها تلحقها تاء التأنيث الساكنة نحو:
قامت المر آة و هذه التاء تختص بالأفعال، والوجه الثالث: أنّها تتصرف نحو: كان بكون، وصـار يصبر، وأصبح
يصبح، وكذلك سائر ها ما عدا "'ليس"، و إنْما لم يدخلها التصصّرف لأنها أشبهت "'ما،' و هي تتفي الحال، كما أنَّ (ما) تنفى الحال ولهذا تجرى ’’ما،" مجرى ’’ليس"، في لغة الحجاز، وأمّا اعتر اضهم، إنّها لا تدل على المصدر، فجو ابه

هذا، إنْما يكون في الأفعال الحققية، و هذه الأفعال غير حقيقتّة، ولهذا سميّت هذه الأفعال " ’أفعال العبارة ،" وللمزيد انظر :الأسرار العربية: ص 132، 133، ابن بيبش: 89، 7/90، العو/مل المائة النحوية: ص279، الإيضاح العضدي: 94، 1/95، شرح ابن عقبل: 231-228 ، شرح اللمع: 48،49 /1 ،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol.2, pp167,168.

$$
1378 \text { سقطت كلمة ’نحو‘ في 2، في 3، ’وهي‘ بدل كلمة ’ نحو‘ }
$$

1379 هناكك تقديم وتأخير و زيادة و نقص في العبارة ما بين القوسين، في أكثر النسخ، أولّ ما ذهب من النحاة إلى أنّ (ليس) حرف، هو ابن سر اج و تابعه على ذلك ابو علي الفارسى، واستدلو ا على ذلك بدليلين، الدليل الأول: أنَّ (ليس) أشبهه الحرف من وجهين، الوجه الأول: أنّه يدل على معنى يدل عليه الحرف، وذلك لأنّه يدل على اللفي الذى يدل عليه (ما)، والوجه الثّني: أنّه جامد لا يتصرف، كما أنّ الحرف جامد لا يتصرف ،

بالمرفوع إلا بالمنصوب1383 و الفرق بين كان وصـار، أنّ صـار يدل على وجود معنى الخبر 1384، (في [37] زمانٍ ثانٍ، مرَّب على زمانٍ سابق لم يوجد فيه ذللك المعنى ${ }^{1385 ، ~}$ وكان بدل1386 على الزمان الماضي، ألا ترى1387 أنَّك تقول:

والدليل الثاني: أنّه خالف سنن الأفعال عامة، و بيان ذلك أنَّ الأفعال بوجٍٍ عام مشتقة من المصادر للالالة على الحدث دائمأ و الزمان بحسب السيغ المختلفة، و هذه الكلمة لا ندل على الحدث أصلا وما فيها من الدلالة على الزمان مخالف لما في عامة الأفعال، فإنَّ عامة الأفعال الماضية تدل على الزمان الذى انقضى، و هذه الكلمة ندل على نفي الحدث الذى دلّ عليه خبر ها في الزمان الحاضر، إلى أن تقوم قرينة تصرفه إلى الماضى أو إلى المستقبل، مثل: ’ليس خلق
 هود: رقم الآية: 09 ، يشتمل على قرينة تدل على أنّ المر اد نفي صرفه عنهم فيما يستقبل من الزمان ، ومن أجل ذلك
كله قالوا هي حرف،

وللمزيد انظر :شرح الرضي على الكافية: 198،199 /4 ، شرح /بن عقبل: 226-228 / 1،

$$
1380 \text { و ردت في } 4 \text { ، ’هذه' و زيدت كلمة ’ الأفعال، في 3؛ }
$$

1381 في الأصل ’يرفع الاسم و نتصب الخبر‘ في 6 ’ ترفع الاسم وتنصب الأخبار‘ في 7 ، ’يرفع الأسماء و تنصب الأخبار‘ في 5 ’ترفع الاسم وتنصب الخبر‘‘ والصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتتاها و هذه الأفعال على ثلاثة أقساجِ، الأول ما يعمل عمله بلا شرطٍ، وهو ثمانية أفعال، كان، أصبح، أضحى، ظلّ، أمسى، بات، صـار، ليس، الثاني: ما يعمل عمله بشرطٍ أن يتققّم عليه نفي أو نهي أو دعاء، وهو أربعة أفعال تفيد الاستمرار، ما زال، ما برح، ما فتئ، ما أنفك، والثالث: ما يعمل عمله بشرطٍٍ أن يتقّم عليه ما المصدرية الظرفية وهو


الآية، 31، وسميت ’ما، هذه مصدرية لأنها نقّر بالمصدر، وهو الدوام وظرفية، لأنها نقّر بالظرف، وهو المدة، انظر: شرح قطر الندى: ص 177، 180، شرح أبن عقيل: 228-235 /1، /'سر/ر العربية: ص 133-141، التمهيا
في النحو والصرف : ص 200-204،

Howell, Arabic Grammar,vol. 1, pp. 168-171; Elder, Arabic Grammar, pp.182-184.
1382 في 7، ’لا يتمّ، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 1383 في الأصل ’إلا بالمنصوب، ووردت في 5، ’ بل تحتاج إلى المنصوب‘ وسقطت هذه العبارة في 2 ، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل و قد أثبتناها 1384 في 2، ’المعني الخبر‘' والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل

1385 في 2، سقطت كلمة 'المعنى'
1386 في 2، سقطت كلمة ’يدل‘ وردت في 3؛ ’ تدل‘ زيدت في 6 ، 'وكان يدل على وجود معنى الخبر‘ 1387 في 5، ’يرى‘ وفي أكثر النسخ 2-4 ، ’ ترى‘، والصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتناها
 حال 1390 وكان تجىءُ 1391 تامة (بمعنى حدث أو وقع أو وجد) 1392 نحو : قوله تعالىى 1393

 معناها استغر اقُ الزمان 1400 و و في ما دام مصدريّة، ومعناها التوقيت، فتّقول:1401 مـا

1388 سورة: النساء رقم الآية 17
1389 سقطت كلمة 'صـارا اله عليمأ حكيمأ، في 2 ، 6، و وردت في 1، 3، كلمة 'صـار، 1390 سقطت كلمة ’إلى حال، في ما عدا الأصل
1391 في الأصل ’يجئ ‘ في 2، ’تجئي‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في 2، و قد أثبتتاه
1392 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في 3 ، 5 ، 7 ، و في 7، نققيم وتأخير، 1393 في 1، سقطت كلمة 'فوله تعالى ،
1394 سورة البقرة: الآية. 280، سقطت في الأصل، فنظرة ألي ميسرة‘ و وردت في النسخ القادمة، 1 ، 3 ، 5 ، 7 ،
والصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل و قد أثبتتاها
1395 في الأصل 'وأخواته، وفي 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، 7 ، ’و أخو اتها، والصحيح كما أثبتتاها
1396 في 5، ’بهما، في 2، ’ بـه' و الصحيح كما أثبتتاه كما وردت في الأصل ،
1397 هي الصباح و المساء و الضحى، وأخوات أصبح يعنى أمسى وأضحى
1398 سقطت كلمة ’ما، في 2، و وردت في 5، ’هي ما، في 6 ، ’نحو أصبح زيد‘ في 4، ’نحو أصبح زيد أي دخل
في وقت الصباح'
1399 في 2 ، 3؛ 'و أخواته،
1400 و معنى ما زال وأخو اتها : ملازمة الخبر المخبَر عنه على حسب مـا يقتضيه الحال نحو : ما زال زيد ضاحكاً ،
وما زال عمرو ازرق العينين ومعنى دام : بقي واستمرَ ، وجاز [ما كان زيد إلا قائمً ] ولم يجز : [ماز ال زيد إلا
قائمـ] لأن [إلأ إذا دخلت في الكلام أبطلت معنى النفي، فإذا فلت [ ما كان زيد إلا قائمـ] كان التقدير فيه [ز ال زيد
قائمـ] ، وز ال لا يُستعمل إلا بحرف النفي، فلمّا كان إدخال حرف الاستثناء يوجب إبطال معنى النفي و [كان] يجوز استعمالها من غير حرف النفي و [زال] لا يجوز استعمالها إلا بإدخال حرف لنفي ، جاز ما كان زيد إلا قائمأ ولم يجز ما زال زيد إلا قائمًا
انظر :شرح /بن عقيل: 238،239 /1 ،أسر/ر العربية: ص 141،142 ،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp.178-196.

$$
\text { 1401 في } 2 \text { ، ’النوقية تقول‘ في } 3 \text { ، ’اللتوقيت يقول‘ في 6، زيدت كلمة 'نحو ' }
$$

زال زيدٌ غنياَ أي لم يأتِ عليه زمان من الأزمنة 1402 إلا و هو غنيٌ فيه1403، و أجلِس ما دامَ زيدٌ جالسأ أي مدّة 1404 جلوسه 1405 وليس لنفي الحال1406 140 (نحو ليس زيدٌ قائمـا 1407 النوع الثاني 1408، أفعال المُقْقاربَة 1409 ،
و هي أربعة: 1410 نحو 1411 كاد، و عسىى 1412، وكرُب، و أوشكك، فعسى، تَرفع ${ }^{1413}{ }^{1413}$ الاسمَ


$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1402 \text { زيدت كلمة ’الماضية، في 5، } \\
& 1403 \text { في 2، سقطت كلمة ’غنيّ، في } 3 \text { ، سقطت كلمة ’ فيه، } \\
& 1404 \text { زيدت في، 3، 'ومدة دوام جلوسه‘ في 6، 'ومدة جلوس‘ في 2، 'ومدة جلوس زيد' }
\end{aligned}
$$

1405 زيدت كلمة ’زيد‘ في الأصل و سقطت في 2- 5، والصحيح كما وردت في ما سوا الأصل، و قد أثبتتاها 1406 وأصل ليس [لِّسْ] كهَيب، كما يقال في عَلِمَ، عِلم، تخفيفاً بالإسكان، وتركهم قلب يائها ألفأ كمـا هو القياس في :هاب ، أي أن "ليس"، تتفي مضمون الجملة في الحال، نحو: ليس زيد قائما، أي الآن و عند التقيبد بزمن على حسبه، نحو: ليس زيد قائمأ غدأ، واختلف النحاة في تقديم خبر "ليس"، عليها، فذهب الكوفيون إلى أنّه لا يجوز تقديم خبر ها عليها، وذهب أكثر البصريين إلى جوازه، والصحيح ما ذهب إليه الكوفيون لأن ’’ليس"، فعل لا يتصتّرف وإذا لم يكن متصتّرفأ في نفسه لم يتصتّرف عمله، كما يكتب ’سيبويه‘ في كتابه، فأمّا ليس فإنّه لا يكون فيها ذللك، لأنها وضعت موضعأ واحدأ وخالفه ابن سر اج، وللمزيد انظر:شرح/بن عقيل: 1/232،أسرار العربية: ص 140،كتاب سبيويه: 1/46،الأصول في النحو: 1/93 ، شرح الرضي : 198،199 /4، /بن يعبش: 7/111،112 1407 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في الأصل و زيدت في 7، والصحيح كما أثبتتاها في النص 1408 وفي أكثر النسخ 'و النوع الثاني'
1409 قال أبن حاجب، ما وضع لدنّو الخبر ، رجاءً أو حصو لا أو أخذأ فيه و هذه الأفعال تدل من حيث المعنى على المقاربة من باب التغليب وليست كلها للمقاربة، وهي على ثلاثة أقسام، الأوّل: أفعال تدل على قرب الخبر، وهي كاد، وكرب، و أو شك، الثاني: أفعال تدل على الرجاء، وهي عسى وحرى و إخلولق، والثالث: أفعال تدل على شروع الخبر والبد أية و هي، شر ع وجعل وطفق وأخذ أنشأ ، ، وللمزيد انظر :شرح الرضي: 4/211، شرح أبن عقبل: 276، 1/277، /بن بعيش: 7/115، شرح شذ ور الذهب: ص 189، هدع الهوا مع: 128، 129 /1، النحو العربي: ص 233 ،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp.198-200; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, pp.106,107.

1410 في 2، سقطت كلمة ’ أربعة،
1411 سقطت كلمة ’نحو‘ في ما عدا الأصل

تقول عسى زيدٌ أن يخرُجَ كأنك قلت: قارب1416 زيدُ الخروجَ وله وجه آخر وهو أن يقال:1417 عسى أن يخرُجَ زيدُ كأنك قلت: قُرُبَ خُرُوجُ زيدٍ و كاد ترفع 1418 الاسمَ

1412 في 5 'عيسى‘ بدل ’عسى' والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل ان في [عسى] ثلاثة أقوال النحاة، الأول: إنّها فعل في كل حال سواء أتصل بها ضمير الرفع أو ضمير النصب أم لم يّصل بها واحد منهما، وهو فول نحاة البصرة، ورجّحه المتأخرون، والثناني: إنّها حرف في جميع الأحوال، سواء" انصل بها ضمير الرفع أو النصب أم لم ينّصل بها أحدهما، وهو قول جمهرَ الكوفيين وثُعلب وابن سراجه، والثالث: إنّها حرف إذا أتصل بها ضمير نصب
و الأصل أن يكون خبر ها جملة فعلية فعلها مضار ع، والصحيح أنّه فعل ، و الدليل على ذللك انّه يتصل به تاء الضمير ،
 دخلته هذه الضمائر كما تدخل على الفعل ، نحو : قمت ، وقاما ، وقمتم ، دلّ على أنّه فعل، وكذلك تلحقه تاء النانيث الساكنة التي تختص بالفعل نحو : عست المر أة ، قامت وقعدت فدلّ على انّه فعل و عمله ترفع الاسم وتنصب الخبر مثل كان إلا أنّ خبر ها لا يكون إلا مع الفعل المستقبل نحو : [عسى زيد أن يقوم ] وندر مجئيه اسماً بعد عسى وكاد، كما في هذا الثنعر ،
أكثرتِ في العذل مٌّحاً دائماً تكثِرنْ إنّي عسيتُ صـائمـأ

والشاهد فيه، قوله [عسيت صائمأ ] حيث أجرى [عسى] مجرى [كان] فرفع بها الاسم ونصب الخبر، وجاء بخبر ها
أسما مفردأ، و هذا الشعر من شواهد /بن عقيل، وذكره/بن يعيش أيضا على ص7/14 ونسب قوم هذا البيت إلى رؤبة ابن العجاج ولم نجد في ديوانه المطبو ع، ولم نعرف لقائله، وفعل فيما عدا ذلك، وهو قول’’ سييويه،' شيخ النحاة، ولكل مذهب عنده دليل،
وللتفصبل انظر :شرح /بن عقيل: 1/277، كتاب سييويه: 11، 12، 99، 157، 158 /3/374، شرح الرضي: 213-223-4، /بن يعيش: 115-128-7/128، أسرار العربية: ص 131-126، النحو العربي : ص 237،238 ،

، الموجز في النحو: ص 33 ،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp. 201-206; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic
Language, vol.2, pp.107,108
1413 في 2 ، 4 ، 'يرفع' و سقطت في أكثر النسخ 'وتنصب و الخبر '
1414 زيدت في 2 ، 'مع أن'
1415 في 7 ، ’'المصدر المنصوب ، 7 ، ${ }^{\text {، }}$
1416 في 5 ' قرب ‘ وزيدت في 6 ، 7 ، ’ قرب خروج ذيد‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل،

1418 في 4، ’و كان ترفع' وفي 3 ، 5 ، 5 ، 7 ، 'يرفع' و و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل

وخبرُها 1419 الفعل المضارع في تققير 1420 اسم الفاعل المنصوب1421 فإذا فلت: كادَ زيدٌ
 [38] ڤُرْبِ الثنَّبَهِ 1424 نحو: كاد العروسُ يكون 1425 أمبراً، (و ليس في عسى هذا الثُرْبُ وإنّما هو طمع و رجاء: 1426 و كَرُب): 1427 يستعمل استعمال كادن ${ }^{1428}{ }^{1428 ، ~ و ا ٔ و ش ك ~ م ت ل ~}$ ${ }^{1429}$ عسى، في وجهيها

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1419 \text { في 1، زيدت كلمة ’ أيضـَ، } \\
& 1420 \text { في 6، 'في تقديره‘ في } 2 \text { ، ’'تقدير الاسم الفاعل، }
\end{aligned}
$$

هذا تقدير في المعنى، و ليس في الإعراب، إذا الصحييح أن خبر (كاد) هو جملة فعلية (بخرج) أى هو،
1422 في 3، يستعمل 'فيه،

 1425 في 3، ’أن يكون،
 و الفرق بين معنى "’عسى وكاد، ، أنّ عسى لمقاربة الأمر على سبيل الرجاء و الطمع تقول عسى الهُ أن يشفى مريضك، تريد أن قرب شفائه مرجو من عند الهَ مطموع فيه، وكاد، لمقاربته على سبيل الوجود والحصول تقول كادت الشمس تغرب، تريد أن قربها من الغروب قد حصل، انظر: (بن بعبش: 7/124، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 282، 283،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp. 208-214; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol.2, p. 106.

1427 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في 5، و وردت في بقية النسخ، 2 -7 4، 4 ، 1428 و المشهور في [كربَ] فتح الراء وثّقل كسر ها أيضـا وكرب في الأصل بمحنى قرب ، يقال كربت الثمس أي دنت للغروب ، ولا يكون الخبر إلا فعلا صريحأ ولا يقع الاسم فيه كما لا يقع في خبر كاد ولا ولم يسمع فيه آلن ولا ولا يمتتع معناه من ذلك إذ كان معناه قرب، و لو أنت تقول قربَ أن يفعل لكان صحيحاً على معنى قرب فعله،

انظر: ابن بعيش: 126، 127 /7، شرح الرضي : 220، 221 /4 4 ( 220
1429 في 1، سقط، ما بين القوسين، تبدأ، من وسطص 175 ، 175 ،الفعل المضارع في تقدير أن، ---- إلى إنتهاء ص 175 ، مثل عسى في و جهيها،

النوع الثلثث 1430 أفعال1431 المدح والانم: وهمـا نِعْمَ و بيُس:1432 يقتضبان اسمـ1433 معرَّفأ بلام الجنس1434، أو مضـافاً إليه1435 و بعدَه اسم آخر مرفوع 1436، نحو: 1437 (نعمَ الرجلُ زيدٌ، (أو غلامُ الرجل زيدٌّ، وبئسَ

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1430 \text { في 2، 3، 'والنوع' } \\
& \text { 1431 في 3، ’ فعل، وفي 1، 'فعلان‘ في } 2 \text { ، } 3 \text { ، ' 'فعلا، بدل 'أفعال، }
\end{aligned}
$$

و إسكان العين نحو، نَعْمْ، والثالثة: كسر النون مع إسكان العين نحو، نِنْمَ، والر ابعة: كسر النون و العين نحو: نِعِمِ،
و المشهور هي اللغة الثالثة نِعْمَ، وقال ’سييويه، و أصل نعِّ وبئس، و هما الأصلان اللذان وضعا في الرداءة و الصـلاح،
ولا يكون منهما فعل بغير هذا المعنى، هل نعم وبئس أسمان أو فعلان اختلف النحاة في ذلك، فذهب البصريون إلى
أنّهما فعلان لا يتّصرفان واستدلو اعلى ذلك من ثلاثة أوجه، الأولّ: أن الضمير يتّصل بهما على حدّ اتصاله بالأفعال
نحو، قاما وقامو ا، الثاني: أن تاء التنأنيث الساكنة التّى لم يقبلها احد من العرب هاء في الوقف، تنّصل بهما، كما تنّصل
بالأفعال نحو، نعمت المر أة وبئست الجارية، الثلث: أنّهما مبنيان على الفتح كالأفعال الماضية، ولو كانا اسمين لما بنيا
على الفتح من غير علته، ذهب الكوفيون إلى أنّهما اسماء، واستذّلوا على ذلك من خمسة أوجه"، الأولّ: دخول حرف
الجرّ عليها وحرف الجر يختص بالأسماء كما قال الثـاعر:
ألست بنعم الجار يؤلف بيته

وحكي عن بعض العرب أنّه قال، نعم السير على بئس العير، الثناني: أنّ العرب تقول، يا نعم المولى ونعم النصير، و النداء من خصائص الأسماء، الثالث: عدم اقتران الزمان بهما كسائر الأفعال مثل: ( نعم الرجل أمس، ولا، بئس الرجل غدأ دليل على أنّهما ليسا بفعلين، الرابع: أنهما لا يتصرفان، والتصرف من خصـائص الأفعال، الخامس: أنّه قد جاء عن العرب أنّهم قالوا: نعم الرجل زيد، وليس في أمثلة الأفعال شيء على وزن فعيل، فأمّا ما استدلوا الكوفيون ففاسد، فمذهب البصريين هو الصحيح، كما ذهب إليه المؤلف عليه الرحمة، وعليه قول سييويه ، وأمّا نعم وبئس ونحو هما فليس فيهما كلام، لإنّهما لا تخّيّران لانّ عامة الأسماء على ثلاثة أحرف، ولا تجريهن إذا كنّ أسماء "للكلمة، لأنّهنّ أفعال والأفعال على التنكير، لأنها تضار ع فاعلا
وللتفصيل انظر:كتاب سبيويه: 27/266، 2/179، /بن يعيش: 127-131 /7، أسر/ر العربية: ص 96-106، شرح أبن عقيل: 127، 128 /2، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 189، 190،الأصول في النحو: 130، 131 /1 ، ديوان

حسان: ص 219 ، ولكن ذكر الشطر الثاني للبيت هكذا لذي العُرفـِ ذا مالٍِ كثبِر ومعدما
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp. 219-221; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic
Language, vol. 1, pp. 97, 98.

$$
1433 \text { في 2، ’ تقتضيان أسمان‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

الرجلُ عمرو")1438، وغلامُ الرجل عمرٌو) 1439، ويُسمّى 1440 المرفوع الأول فاعلا والثناني المخصوص بالمدح و الذم 1441 ويضمر الفاعل ويقّسر بنكرة منصوبةٍة فيقال:
 حبّذا الرجلُ زيدٌ أو رجلوا1447 وساء مثلُ هذا. 1448


#### Abstract

1434 في 7 ، 'بلام التعريف، 1435 و إذا كان الفعل ’نِعم، أو بئس‘ وجب في فاعله أن يكون أسماً معرفأ بالألف واللام نحو، نـع العبدُ أو مضـافأ إلى   فاعل نعم وبئس أسم جنس؟ فهو على وجهين، (1) إنّ نعم لمّا وضعت للمدح العام، وبئس لللّم العام خصرّ فاعلهما باللفظ العام (2) وجب أن يكون اسم جنس ليدل على المدو ح و المذموم مستحق للمدح و الذم في ذلك الجنس، ذكرنا هذه الأمثلة للتوضيح و أمّا ما ذكر المصّنف عليه الرحمة، فهو صحيح، انظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص 258، 259، الإيضاح العضدي: ص 81-88 /1،/أسرار العربية: ص 104، شرح أبن عقيل: 128، 2/129


Howell, Arabic Grammar,vol. 2, pp. 222-228.

$$
1436 \text { في 1، 'وهو مرفوع' }
$$

1437 في 3، سقطت كلمة ’نحو في 2 ، 5، يستعمل كلمة ’ 'تقول‘ بدل كلمة ’نحو، 1438 في 1، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين،
1439 هناك تققيم وتأخير و زيادة و نقص في العبارة، ما بين القوسين، في أكثر النسخ، في 1، ’ نعم الرجل ذيد نعم غلام الرجل عمر وبئس الرجل زيد أو غلام الرجل عمر ’ في 4 ’ نعم الرجل زيد ‘ و غلام الرجل عمر 'وبئس الرجل زيد و غلام الرجل عمر ،

1440 في 5، 'و تسمّى'

1442 في 2 ، ' وكذللك ،
1443 في 6، 'و تلحق‘ بدل ' بيلحق،
 فصـار ’"حبّ"، وركب مع ’’ذا،' فصـار بمنزلة كلمة واحدة، و حبُبَ على وزن فعُل ومعناها المدح ونقريب الممدوح من القلب ومنه ’’حبيب، على وزن فعيل ؛، وقد اختلف النحاة في حبّذا، اسم أم فعل ؟ فذهب أكثر النحاة إلى أنّه اسم لأنّ الاسم أقوى من الفعل، فالفعل مشتق من الاسم ولما ركب أحدهما على الآخر كان الغلالب هو الأقوى، وعليه قول سيبويه وذهب المبرد في ‘ المقتضب ‘ وابن سراج، في الأصول ، إلى أنّ حبّذا ‘اسم ‘ وهو مبتدأ والمخصوص
 و علمتُ، ور أيتُ، و وجدتُ، وزعمتُ(1452، إذا كانت هذه الأربعةُ الأخبرةٌ بمعنى معرفة

خبره، أنّ خبره مقّم والمخصوص مبتدأ مؤخر فركبت " "حبّ"، مع "ذا ،" فجعلتا اسما واحدأ، والأولى أن يقال في اعراب مخصوص حبّذا أنّه كإعراب مخصوص نعم إمّا مبتدأ أو خبر مبتدأ لا يظهر، وذهب بعضهم إلى أن الغالب عليها فعليّة، لأنّ الجزء الأول منهما فعل والقوة للجزء الأول، وذهب جماعة إلى أنّها لا يغلب عليها اسمية ولا فعلية

بل هي جملة مركبة من فعل ماض واسم هو فاعل، فلا يغلب أحدهما على الآخر وللمزيد انظر :لسان العرب و الصحاح : [مادة حبّب]كتاب سيبويه: 2/180، أسرار العربية: ص 107-111، العو/مل المائة النحوبة: ص 298، 299، شرح /بن عقيل: 2/135، شرح الرضي: 255، 255، 4/256، الأصول في النحو: 135-137 /1،ابن يعيش: 138-7/142،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, pp. 232, 233.
1445 زيدت كلمة ’مثل‘‘ في الأصل، في 5، ’ساء ببئس‘ في 2، ’حبذا بنعم وساء ببئس‘ لأتفاقهما في المعني‘ في أكثر النسخ 3 ، 4 ، 5 ، 6 ، و ساء بئس لأتِفاقهما في المعنى' والصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتتاه في المتن، قال ماللك عليه الرحمة،

> وأجعل كبئس "،سـاء‘' و أجعل فَعٌال من ذي ثلاثة كنِعم مُسجلا

وتستعمل ’’ساء‘" في الذم استعمال ’’بئس "، فلا يكون فاعلها إلا ما يكون فاعلا لبئس وإعر ابه مثل إعراب بئس ، ومن كل فعلٍ ثلاثي يجوز أن يبنى منه فعل على وزن " فَعُل، ، لقصد الددح أو الذم ، ويعاملِ معاملة [نعم وبئس] في جميع ما تقّدّم لها من الأحكام
وللمزيد انظر :شرح قطر الندى: 258،259 ، شرح الرضي: 4/255 ،شرح ابن عقيل: 2/133،134 1446 في 12، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسبن،
1447 في 2 ، 'و رجلا زيد‘ في 4 ، 'وحبّذا رجلا ، في 7 ، ، 'وحبّذا رجلا زيد،
1448 في 2 ، يستعمل كلمة 'هذه‘ بدل كلمة ’هذا،
ويجرى مجراهما أيضاً كل فعل ثلاثي صالح للتعجب منه، فإنّه يجوز استعماله على (فُعُل) بضم العين، إمّا بالإصالة كطرُف و شَرُتَْ ، أو بالتحويل كضترُبَ و فَهُمَ ، فيتساوى معهما فى إفادة المدح والذم و في حكم الفاعل و حكم المخصوص و إعر ابه ، فنقول في المدح: فَهُمَ الرجل زيد و في الذم: خَبُثَ الرجل عمرو، وهكذا،

انظر :شرح /بن عقبل: 133،134 /2 2 ،
1449 في 3، ’ أفعال القلوب للثكك، زيدت في 2 ، 5، 'ويسمّى أفعال القلوب،
هذه الأفعال السبعة يقال لها أفعال الثكك واليقين، أو أفعال القلوب، وسميّت هذه الأفعال أفعال القلوب ـ لأن الثك واليقين من أفعال القلوب، وعدد هذه الأفعال عند النحاة سبعة، كما ذكر الصصتّف وزيدت في شرح (بن عقيل، درى،

وتعلْمَ وعّّ وحَجا وجعل وو هبْ،
انظر :سرح /بن عقيل: 354 ، 355 / 1 ،

الثنيء بصفته تقتضي المفعولين. 1453 فإذا كانت1454 علمتُ بمعنى عرفثٌ، ور أيتُ بمعنى أبصرتُ، ووجدتُ1455 الضّالة أبي صـادفُّها1456، و ز عمتُ أي قلتُ1457 لم بقتض المفعول الثاني 1458 تقول: حسبت زيداَ فاضلا و علمتٌ زيداَ أخاكَ ومن خصـائصـها امتتاعُ

Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol. 2, p.133.
1450 سقطت كلمة ’نحو‘ في 2-4 2 ،
1451 فأستعمل "’ ظنتت "، على ثلاثة أوجه، (1) بمعنى الظن: وهو ترجيح أحد الاحتمالين على الآخر (2) بمعنى اليقين: كما قال تعالى اليقين: كما قال تعالى وهِ فظنّوا أنّهم مو اقعو هاهِم سورة الكهف: رقم الآية، 53، (3) بمعنى التهمة : كقو له تعالمىِّهِ وما هو على الغيب بظنينهُ سورة التكوير: رقم الآية، 24، خلت وحسبت : فتستعملان بمعنى الظن، وأصل خلت، خَيلتُ بكسر الياء إلى الخاء بعد سلب حركتها ثم حذفت الياء لالتقاء الساكنين فصـار خلِّ،ُ، زعمت: تستعل في القول عن غير صحّة، كما قال تعالى وِّز عم الذذين كفروا أن لن يُيعثوائِّ سورة التغابن: رقم الآية 7 ، علمت : تستعمل على أصلها فتتعدى إلى مفعولين نحو : علمت زيدا فقيهاً فإذا كانت تستعل بمعنى عرفت فلا يقتضي اللفعول الثناني مثل قوله تعالى وولا تعلمهم نحن نعلمهمهِ سورة التوبة: رقم الآية، 101 ، وأمّا رأيت : فتكون من رؤية القلب فتعدى إلى مفعولين نحو: رأيت اله غالبأ و إذا كانت رأيت بمحنى أبصرت فلا يقتضي المفعول الثاني نحو: رأيت زيدأ أي أبصرت زيداً ، ووجدت : إذا كان بمعنى ’علمت‘ فتحدى إلى مفعولين نحو : وجدت زيدأ عالماً فإذا كان

بمعنى وجدت بمغنى أصبت فلا يقتضي المفعول الثناني نحو : وجدت الضـالة أي أصبتها ، وللمزيد انظر: أسرار العربية: ص 156-158، ابن يعبش: 77-7/86، العو/مل المائة النحوية: ص 301-303، شرح أبن عقيل: 354-1/364، الإبضاح العضدي: 133-1/137، كتاب سيبويه: 39-46، 118-1/121، 3/13، 1452 هناك تققيم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ، وزيدت في 2 ، ’ تدخلوا على المبتدأ و الخبر فتنصبها على المفعولية ، 1453 في الأصل ’يقتضي المفعولين‘ و سقطت كلمة ’يقتضي مفعولين‘ في 2 ، و وردت في 5، ’متعدى إلا مفعولين، في 7، ’"تقتضي المفعولين‘ في 1، ’'تتعدي إلى مفعولين‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في 7، و قد أثبتنتاها
 1455 في 5، زيدت ’ووجدت بمعنى صـادفت يقال، في 3 ، ’ووجدت بمعنى الإصـابة‘ في 2 ، ’بمعنى أصبت مثل

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1456 \text { في الأصل 'صـادفتها، في أكثر النسخ، } 2 \text {-4، ’ أصبتها، } \\
& 1457 \text { في } 6 \text { ، 'وظنتت أي أنهوتّ، }
\end{aligned}
$$

1458 في 2، ’لم تقتضي‘ في 1 ، ' لا تقتضي‘ في 5 ، ’لم يقتضي الثاني‘ في 7 ، ’لم يقتضى اللفعول الثاني‘ في 3 ؛ ’ 'تقتض المفعول الثاني'
أي إذا قصد بتلك الأفعال المعاني المذكورة تصبح مستغنية عن المفعول الثاني،

الاقتصـار على أحد المفعولين1459 وإلغاؤ ها1460 منوسطة [39] أو متأخرةً، نحو: زيدٌ
 علمت 1465 أزيدٌ 1466 عندك أم عمرو و علمت 1467 لزيدٌ دنطلق"1468

1459 يجوز سقوط أحد الهفعولين أو سقوط المفورلين معا إذا دلّ على ذلك دليل يقال لك، هل حسبت زيدأ قائماً هتقول:
 فتحذف الثاني للالة عليه، انظر:شرح الرضي: 154، 4/155، بن يعشي: 82، 7/83

 زع تعت بجواز الإبطال والأعمال والإبطال أحسن ويعرب (زيد قانم ) في حالة الإلناء جملة مكونة من مبتدأ وخبر

وجملة الناسخ بعدهما إستئناء فيه،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { انظر: هدع الهو/مع: 153-1/155، ،بن يعشي: 84، 7/85، شرح قطر الندى: ص 241-245، } \\
& 1461 \text { في } 7 \text { ، 'علمت مطفأ، في 3، سقطت كلمة ’ زيد، }
\end{aligned}
$$

1462 في 3، سقطت كلمة 'علمت، وزيدت في 2، 'علمت و وجوبأ عند النعليق و زيد منطلق ووجوبًا عند النتليق،

$$
1463 \text { في 2، ’و النتعليق ذلك، }
$$

هو إبطال العطل لفظأ لا محلا، لمانع يقع بين الفعل وبين معوله و وذا المانع يكون بالأشياء متعدةة، والفرق بين ألإلغاء والتعليق من وجين: أحدهما أن الإلفاء جاتئز لا واجب، والتُليق واجب، والثاني: الإلغاء إيطال العطل في اللفظ والمعنى، و التُليق أبطال العقل في اللفظ لا في المعنى انظر: شرح قطر النـى: ص 241-245 ، التـتيهي في النحو والصرف: ص 247، 248، شرح شن ور الذهب : ص


$$
1464 \text { في } 2 \text { ، ' الأستفهام و اللام ‘ فى } 4 \text { ، و زيدت في } 7 \text { ، 'أى لام الابتداء، }
$$



وللمزيد انظر: شرح تطر الندى: ص 245 ، شاهد الشعر ، 73، شرح شن ور الذهب: ص 365 ، الثاهد 185، يقال ،هذا البيت من كام ربيعة العامري فتثتّ ديو انه المطبو عصفحة صفحة ولم أجر،

$$
1466 \text { في } 1466 \text { في } 5 \text { ، زيدت 'حسبت منطلق عندك، }
$$


1468 في 1، زيدت , أي لام النأكيّ، في 5 ، 'و بالنفي نحو علمت ما زيد منطلق لا يعمل في هذه الموضوع لفظّ،

# الباب الرابع1469 

في العوامل المعنويّة:
و قد مضى الآن ضربا1470 العوامل اللفظيَّة القاسيّة و السماعيّة و بقي القسم المعنويّ1471 وهو شيئان، عند سييويه472142، وثلاثة عند أبي الحسن الأخفش ${ }^{1473}{ }^{1473}$ الأولّ

$$
1469 \text { في 2، سقطت , الباب الرابع، }
$$

1470 و ردت في 5، ’ضربان‘ بدل ’ضربا، و في أكثر النسخ، وردت ’ضربا' و قد أثبتناها
 $1472{ }^{147}$ هو عمرو بن عثمان بن قفبر، مولى بن الحارث بن كعب، ويكنى أبا بشر وأبا الحسن، ولا في البيضاء قرب شير از (فارس) نحو سنة 148-180 / 765-796 ) واشنتهر بلقب سييويه، ومعنى كلمة سييويه في الفارسية رائحة التفاح، ثّّ جاء إلى البصرة شاباَ فأخذ النحو عن خليل بن احمد الفر اهيدي، و عيسى بن عمر ويونس بن حبيب وعن أبي الخطاب الأخفش الكبير و غيره، وقدم سيبويه إلى بغداد في أيام الرشبد وافـأ على يحيى بن خالد البر مكي أ ن يريد الاجتماع بالكسائى، و عمره يومذاك قد أربى على الثلاثين، فقال الكسائى [الكوفي] لسييويه يا بصري كيف تقول: قد كنت أظن أن العقرب أشدّ لسعة من الزنبور فإذا هو هي أو فإذا هو إيّاها ؟ فقال سييويه، ، أقول ‘ فإذا هو هي، ولا يجوز النصب، فقال الكسائي: بل يجوز وجهان وو افق أهل المجلس الكسائي [ وإن كان فوله خطأ] و عندئذ إنصرف سيبويه إلى فارس، ويبدو أنّه لم يعش بعد ذلك طويلا ، فتوفي نحو سنة ( 180-796) فوق الأربعين من العمر ، وقبره معروف بشيراز ، سيبويه كان من أكبر علماء النحو وأشهر هم ، و هو أول من بحث في النحو بحثأ منظمأ وأوّل من ألف فيه كتابًا شاملا ، لم يدع شيئُأمن علم النحو إلا ضمّنه فيه و هذا الكتاب له قيمة رفيعة عند أهل العلم حتى أن المبرد كان إذا أراد أحد من الناس أن يقر أ عليه كتاب سييويه يقول له، هل ركبت البحر ؟ تعظيماً له واستعظاما له فيه، وكان’’ألديني‘" يقول من أراد أن يعمل كتابً في النحو بعد كتاب سييويه فلبستحي، وقال’’ الجاحظ"، في ذكر سييويه وكتابه، لم يكتب الناس في النحو كتابا مثله وجميع كتب الناس عليه عيال، وكتابه يعرف بقر آن النحو أيضاً وللمزيد انظر :الؤعام : 5/252، أنباه الرواة: 346-360 /2، تاريخ الأدب العربي: فروخ، 120، 2/121،تاريخ آداب اللغة: زيدان، 114-116 /2، بغية الوعاة : 229، 2/230، مرآة الجنان : 1/348، تاريخ بغد/د: 12/195، تهنيب اللغة: الأزهري ، أبو منصور محمد ابن أحمد ، تحقيق: عبد السلام هارون ، المؤسسة المصرية المعربة، القاهرة :1964. 1/19، دول الإسلام:الذهبي، 1/84، المدارس النحوية: شوقي ضيف، ص 57-93، طبقات اللنوبين
 مدرسة البصرة النحوية: السيّد، عبد الرحمن، دار المعارف، القاهرة: 1968. ص 466-477، مقدمة كتاب سبيوبيه: تحقيق، عبد السلام محمد هارون، نزهة الؤلباء: ص 1، 26، 27، 53، 61، 86، 90، 149، 212، 215، المزهر في علوم اللغة: الليوطي، جلال الدين عبد الرحمن، مطبعة محمد علي صبيح ، القاهرة: بدون تاريخ. 277، 283، 287 2/2،/خبار النحويين البصريين: السبر افي، سعيد الحسن ابن عبد اله ،تحقيق: عبد المنعم خفاجي، مكتبة مصطفى
(الابتداء: وهو) 1474 تعرية الاسم 1475 من العو امل 1476 اللفظيّة للإسناد، نحو: زيدٌ منطلقٌ و هذا المعنى عاملٌ فيهما 1477، ويسمّى 1478 الأول مبندأ و مسنَداً إليه ومحدَّنًأ عنه 1479 ،
علي ألبابي الحبي، القاهرة: تحقيق: أبو الفضل إبر اهيم ،مكتبة النهضـ، 32، 32، 34، 37، 37ـ39، 56، مر/تب النحوبين: اللغوي ، عبد الواحد ابن

Versteegh, Kees. Landmarks in Linguistic Thoughts III, London: Routledge, 1997, pp. 36-51; Bohas, The Arabic Linguistic Tradition, pp.1-8; Meisami \& Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 2, p.718; Brockelmann, G: 1, pp. 99, 100.

$$
1473 \text { في 7، سقطت كلمة ’أبي الحسن، في 1، زيدت ’رحمة اله، }
$$ هو أبي الحسن سعيد بن مسعدة الأخفش المجانتحي، أصله من بلخ أو من خوارزم، يبدو أنّه ولد في البصرة قبل مولد سييويه (140-180 ) وأخذ العلم من أساتذة سييويه، ثمّ عن سييويه [ مع أنّه كان أستّ من سييويه ] وكان معلم الولد الكسائى، ثمّ إنّه دخل بغداد و أقام بها مدة، وكانت وفاته سنة (830/215) في الأغلب، الأخفش الأوسط أحد أئمة العربية من علماء البصرة، كان بار عأ في اللغة و النجو و علوم الأدب، وهو الذي حفظ لنا كتاب أستاذه سييويه في النحو، وإن كان يخالف أستاذه في عدد من مسائل ذلك الكتاب، وكان معتزلياَ عالمـأ بالكلام حاذقأ في الجدل، من آثاره، غريب القر آن، تفسير معاني القر آن، كتاب معاني الثعر، كتاب العروض، كتاب القافية، كتاب الاشتقاق، كتاب الأصوات، كتاب الملوك، أمّا كتبه في النحو خاصة فأنثهر ها، الكتاب الأوسط، كتاب المقايبس، كتاب الدسائل الكبير، كتاب الدسائل (الصغير ، وللمزيد انظر :أنباه الرو/ة: 36-2/44، تاريخ الؤدب العربي: فروخ، 217، 2/218، بغية الوعاة: 590، 1/591،

 ، /'خبار النحوبين البصريين: ص 38، 39، 56، 70، نزه هت الألباء: ص 28، 41، 53، 53، 68، 74، 90، 28، 117، 130، 286، الدـدارس النحوية: ص 94-108، طبقات النحويين واللنويين: ص 74-76، مدرسة البصرة النحوية: ص 485

1474 في 5، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين،
1475 في 5، وردت كلمة ’ الأسم مكرر ¢َ، في 2، ’تعريت‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1476 في 1 ، 2 ، 5 ، 'عن العوامل'
1477 في 5، ’ فيها' والصحيح كما أثبتناه في الصلب، كما وردت في الأصل
المبتدأ في النحو: هو الاسم المجرد عن العو امل اللفظية مسنداً إليه أو الصفة الو اقعة بعد ألف الاستفهام، أو حرف النفي رافعة لظاهر،
هناك اختلاف بين النحاة في العامل، في كل من المبتدأ والخبر، وفي ذلك مذاهب، فمذهب ’"سييويه‘، وجمهور البصريين، أن المبتدأ مرفوع بالابتداء، وأن الخبر مرفو ع بالمبتدأ، فالعامل في المبتدأ معنوي، وهو كون الاسم مجردأ عن اللفظية غير الزائدة وما أشبهها، فذهب الكوفيون، إلى أن المبتدأ يرفع الخبر، والخبر يرفع المبتدأ، فهما يتر افعان،

والثاني (خبرأ و حدبثأ ومسندأ)1480 و حقُّ الأوّل أن يكونَ معرفةُ و قد يجىءُ نكرةً

 وأضـاف الأخفش موضعأ ثالثً، وهو عامل الصفة، أنّ كلا من المبتدأ والخبر مرفوع بالابتداء و هذا يو افق الرأي الذي ذكره المؤلف هنا، والدليل في ذللك أنّ الابتداء يستلزم وجود كل من المبتدأ و الخبر، فيعمل فيهما معأ، ويقولون إن لذللك نظيرا في اللغة فالحرف [كانّ] لما أفاد التشبيه أقتضى مشبّها بهه، وقد عملت [كانّ] فيهما معأ، فنصبت الأول ورفعت الثناني، ويرد عليهم بأن الفعل ", العامل اللفظي"، و هو أفوى العو امل، لا يعمل رفعين في وقت واحد، فإذا كان الابتداء
 رفعين في وقت واحد، ويخّص المبتدأ بالرفع دون غيره لثلاثة أوجه، الأوّل: أنّ المبتدأ وقع في أقوى أحو الهـ و وهو الابتداء، فأعطي أقوى الحركات و هو الرفع، الثاني: أنّ المبتدأ أول، والرفع أوّل، فأعطي الأوّل الأوّل، الثالث: أن أن المبتدأ مُخبَرْ عنه كما أنّ الفاعل مُخبَر عنه، والفاعل مرفور ع فكذلك ما أشبههه، وللمزيد انظر : الإنصاف في مسائل الخلاف: 1/38-1/31، رقم المسألة [05]/بن يعبش: 83-1/85، 1/81، أسر/ر العربية: ص 66-71، شرح الرضي: 223-1/228، شرح /بن عقيل: 174،175 /1،تجديد النحو: ص137، ه1/158، همع الهوا مع:
1/94، الأصول في النحو: 62-1/67، النتعريفات: رقم النعريف 1579،

$$
1478 \text { في } 5 \text { ، ’ تسمّى، في } 7 \text { ، ’ يستّى مرفوع' }
$$

$$
1479 \text { في 1، 'ومخبر أ عنه، وزيدت في } 6 \text { ، 'و يسمّى مرفوع الثناني' }
$$

 و الصحيح كما أثبتنتاه في الصلب،
1481 في 3، ’للمبتداء نكرة مخصوصة، في 6 ، ’قد يكون نكرة‘ في 7 ، ’نكرة مخصصّة بصفة، في 5 ، 'نكرة مخصوصة،
الأصل في المبتدأ أن يكون معرفة، لا نكرة، لأنّ النكرة مجهولة غالبا والحكم على المجهول لا يقيد، مَّيّل المصنف هنا نو عأ واحداً من أنواع النكرة المخّصصة بوصف ملفوظ، و يشاركها في هذه النكرة المخّصصة بوصف مقـر ر، مثلك
 في العش ، وقد ذكر بعض النحاة لتسويغ الابتداء بالنكرة صور أ وأنهاها بعض المتأخرين إلى نِيفٍ وثالثين كما ذكر في شرح أبن عقيل ،
وللمزيد انظر :شرح ابن عقيل: 187-1/196 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص161-165، ابن يعبش : 85-87 /1 ، 1482 في 1، سقطت ' قوله تعالى ، في 7 ، ' نحو فوله تعالىى'

$$
1484 \text { في } 1483 \text { فورة 'البقرة: الآية: } 221
$$

و هنا ينبغى أن يكون الأول هو المبدأ والثناني هو الخبر خوفأ من اللبس، حيث لا قرينة تمييز أحدهما من الآخر،

الثناني رافع الفعل المضـارع: 1485 و هو وقو عه موقعاَ يَصْلـح للاسم 1486 ، وذلك أنّكّك 1487
 الاسم، و الثالث عامل في الصفة،1490، وهو أن نرفع 1491 لكونها صفةٌ لمرفّ و تُجرٌ لكونها (صفة لمنصوبٍ و مجرور) 1492 و هذا معنىٍ 1493 و لبس بلفظ1494، و عند

1485 سقطت كلمة ’الفعل، في 5، و جاءت في 2 --4 'الر افع للفعل المضار ع، في 7 ، ’رافع الفعل بالمضـار ع' و الصحيح كما أثبتناها في الأصل، 1486 زيدت كلمة ’ذلك ، في 5، وسقطت في أكثر النسخ و الصحيح كما أثبتتاها في الصلب، اختلف النحاة في هذه المسألة، فذهب البصريون إلى أنّه يرتفع لقيامه مقام الاسم، وهو عامل معنوي لا لفظي، فأثنبه
 , "اعلم أنّها إذا كانت في موضع اسم مبتدأ أو موضع اسم بني على المبتدأ أو في موضع اسم مرفوع غير مبتدأ ولا مبني على مبتدأ، أو في موضع اسم مجرور أو منصوب فانّها مرتفعة، وكينونتها في هذه المواضع ألزمتها الرفع"،، وأمّا أكثر النحاة فهم على هذا الرأي أنّ الفعل المضار ع إذا تجرّد من الناصب والجازم كان مرفوعأ، واختلف النحاة
 الحروف المضارعة وقال’’ثعلب" مضار عته للاسم، وقول المصّنف أقوى عندنا ، وله وجهان ، كما ذكر ’"الأنبا ري"،، الأول : أنّ المضار ع لمّا وقع موقع الاسم فكأنه مكان الاسم، فأعطي أسبق إعراب الاسم وأقواه وهو الرفع ،
 الإعراب بحركة البناء فبنو هما على حركة لا تدخلمهما وهي الضمّة
 12، 7/13، شرح ابن عقيل: 266، 2/267، العوامل المائة النحوية: ص 340، 340 ، 341، شرح الرضي: 26-4/29،

الصفة"
1491 في الأصل ’يرفع‘ في 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، ’ ترفع' والصحيح كما وردت ما سوا الأصل و قد أثبتناه في الصلب


1493 في 2، 'و هو لمعنى ليس‘ في 5 ، 'بمعني ليس'
1494 يريد المؤلف بهذا أن العامل معنوي، والمراد به التبعيّة، فتبعيّة الصفة للموصوف المرفوع رفَعَّها، وتبعيّة الصفة للموصوف المنصوب نصبَّها وتبعيّة الصفة للموصوف المجرور جرَّتها و هذا على غير رأي الجمهور،

سيبويه رحمه الله، العامل في [40] الصفة، هو 1495 العامل في الموصوف1496 و تقول: 1497 (مررتُ برجلِ كريمَ، فالجارّ لِكَريمَ، هو الجارُ لرجُلٍ (1498، وكذا الر افعُ و الناصبُّ1499، ويَحنَجُ الأول1500 بقولهم: 1501 يا عمرُ الجو اذُ1502، فإنّه1503 لو كان المؤثِّ 1504 فيهـما واحداً لما اختلف حكمهما1505،

$1496{ }^{1}$ العامل في الصفة هو العامل في الموصوف فإذا فلت ، جاءني زيد الظريف، كان العامل فيه جاءني ، وإذا قلت : رأيت زيدأ الظريف، كان العامل فيه ، رأيت، وإذا قلت ، مررت بزيد الظريف ، كان العامل فيه الباء ، فهذا مذهب سييويه وذهب أبي الحسن الأخفش إلى الخلاف وللمزيد انظر :شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 178-181 ،كتاب سييويه: 194،195 / 19، شرح أبن عقيل: 114 /2 ،
أسرار (العربية: ص 294،295،

$$
1497 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 3، 5، 'فإذا قلت، }
$$

1498 هناك تققيم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ ، 1، 4، 5، 1499 في 2 ، 'الناصب و الرافع' 1500 و في 2، 'وقد يحتجّ،
يقصد أبا الحسن الأخفش ومن و افقه من غبر الجمهور على الرأي الأول الذي يقول: إنّ العامل في الموصوف
 لمجرور، وكونه صفة في هذه الأحو ال معنى يُعرف بالقلب، ليس باللفظ، انظر :أسرار (العربية: ص 295،

$$
1501 \text { في 3، ف، 'لقولهم' 'و الجواد، }
$$

فتح لفظ [عمرَ] على رأي الكوفيين ووصف بكلمة (الجو ادُ) ويجوز فيها النصب حملا على محل المنادى، كما يجوز الرفع حملا على لفظ المنادى على غير رأى الكوفين، حيث يتحتم الضم، فيقال، [يا عمر] ووجه احتجاج الأخفش ومن تبعه بهذا المثال أنّهم يقولون: لو كان العامل في الصفة، هو نفس العامل في الموصوف لما جاز أن يقال [يا عمر الجوادُ ] فقط ولما أختلف حكمهما الأعرابي، والمثال يشبر إلى بيت جرير،
فما كعب بن مامة و أبن سعدى بأجودَ منك يا عمر الجو اد

وقد أجاز النحاة رفع كلمة [الجواد] ولكن القصيدة قافيتها منصوبة، وانظر : شرح ديوان جربر : ص 135، مغني /اللبيب: 1/17
1503 في 2، 3، 5 ، ،'و إنّه،
1504 في 1، 'العامل'
1505 في 3، 'حكمها، في 5 ، 'حكمهما والهَ، وزيدت في 2 ، 'حكمها في الأعراب والبناء'

# الباب الخامس <br> في فصولِ من العربيَّة1506، <br> الفصل الأول، <br> في المعرفة و النكرة، 

و المعرفة1507، مـا وُضِعِع لِيَّلَّ على شيء بعينـه، و هي خمسةٌ1508، الأول المُضمرَ 1509 نحو: أنـا وأنت1510، و الكاف في غلامكَ، و الثثاني: العَلَّمُ الخاص: كزيدٌ و عمرو، و الثالث، مـا فيه لام التعريف للجنس1511، نحو: الرجلُ خير من المرأة (والفرسُ خير من الحمـر) 1512 و العسلُ حلوٌ و الخلُّ حامضٌ، أو للعهذ 1513 نحو: فعل الرجلُ كذا. 1514


في اللغة، في الأصل مصدر عرفت معرفة وعرفانأ، وهو من المصادر التي وقعت موقع الأسماء فالمر اد بالمعرفة الثنيء المعروف، يقول’’ الأنبا ري، 'حد المعرفة ما خصنّ الواحد من جنسه،
انظر :لسان العرب والصحاح: مادة [عرف] /سرار العربية: ص341 ،

$$
1508 \text { في } 2 \text { ، } 4 \text { ، 7، 'و هو ‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

أقسام المعرفة عند جمهور النحاة هي خمسة، كما ذكر المؤلف، وعدّها أبن هشام في "’قطر الندى"، ستة، ويذكر أسماء الإشارة وأسماء الموصو لات تحت عناوين مختلفة انظر: شرح قطر الندى: ص 129، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 261 ، /بن بعيش: 85-88 /5، شرح الرضي: 234/ 3، كتاب سيبويه: 5-2/9،

Howell, Arabic Grammar,vol.1, pp. 4-18.
1509 في 1، 'الأول الضمبر‘ في 2، ’المضمرات‘ في ، 3؛ 5، سقطت كلمة ’الأول، 1510 في 4 ، ' أنت و أنا،
1511 في 2، 'وهو للجنس‘ في 5، 'وهو إما للجنس،
1512 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في 2، 7 ، هناك أيضاً تققيم وتأخير ، في 5 ، 3 ، 1513 في 1، 'و للعهذ'
1514 في 1، ’الرجل فعل كذا‘ في 3، ’نحو قولك فعل الرجل كذا،

الرابع: المبهم و هو شيئان أسماء الإشـارة: كهذا و هؤلاء والموصولات كالذى و التى و مـا و مَنْ، فإنَّها لا تتم إلثا بصلةٍ و هي إحدى الجمل الأربع 1515، و الخامس: المضاف إلى أحد1516 هذه الأربعة1517 إضافة معنويَّة1518 (و ما سوى ذللك فهو النكرة)
(الفصل الثاني 1522 في التذكير والتأنيث1523 أمّا (المدّكر 1524 ما ليس فيهـ1525 تاءُ النأنيث و هي) 1526 الموقوف عليها هاءً، و لا ألفه المقصورة و الممدودة1527، والمؤنَث ما فيه شيءٌ من ذللك1528، كغرفة، و حبلى

في 2 ، 3، سقطت كلمة ’إحدى‘ في 7 ، ’هي أحد الجمل‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، يريد المؤلف بالجمل الأربع: الجمل التي تصلح لأن تكون صلة للموصول الأسمى كالجملة الخبرية، والجملة الخالية من معني التعجب، والجملة التي لا تفتقر لكلام قبلها وجملة الثرطمع جز ائه،
انظر : الههع الهوا مع: 1/85

1516 في 6، سقطت كلمة، ’ المضـاف، وردت في 2، ’ إلى احدي‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 1517 في 3، زيدت ’هذه الأمور الأربعة‘، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 1518 زيدت في 5 ' كغلام زيد،
المراد بالإضافة المعنوية، الإضـافة المحضة، وهي قسمان، الأول: ما يفبد تخصيصأ في المضاف، وذلك، إذا كان اللضاف إليه نكرة مثل: هذا كتاب ولدٍ، وهذا النوع لا يدخل في باب المعرفة، والثاني: ما يفيد في المضاف تعريفأ، وذلك إذا كان المضاف إليه معرفة مثل: هذا كتاب علي، وهذا الضرب هو المقصود في باب المعرفة، انظر :شرح /بن عقيل: 38،39 /2، شرح الرضي : 234-243 /2 1519 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في النسخ الآتية، 2 - 2 ال4، في 6 ، 'فهو نكرة، 1520 في 3، زيدت 'وما عداها فنكرة، و النكرة في اللغة، هو إنكار الشيء والمنكر من الأمر خلاف المعروف، وهو نقيض المعرفة، وفي النحو حده، ما لم يخص الو احد من جنسه، ويعتبر أن النكرة أصل للمعرفة، لأن التعريف طار: على التنكير، انظر :لسان العرب والصحاح، تحت [مادة نكر]/بن بعيش: 5/88، /سرار (لعربية: ص 341، شرح قطر الندى: ص 128،
1521 في 7، زيدت كلمة ’و غير هم‘ في ، 5، ’والهَ أعلم، 1522 في 1، سقطت كلمة، 'الفصل،
1523 في 6، ’في المذكر و المؤنث،

و بشرى و صحراء، وهو على ضربين1529، حقيقي1530، (و هو الخَلِقِي، كالمرأة، و الحبلى 1531 و غبر الحقيقي) 1532، 41] وهو اللفظيّ، كالظلمـة والبُشرى، و الصحراء 1533
 هناك من الأسماء ما خلا من علامات التأنيث ومع ذللك فليس من باب المذكر مثل هند وزينب وسعاد وكتف، و وإنّما عرف تأنيثها من مدلو لاتها، ويستدل على تأنيثها بعود الضمير عليها، وبوصفها بالمؤنث مثل، أكلت كثفأ مشوية، أو برد الناء إليها في التصغير مثل، كتيفة ويدية أو الإشارة إليها مثل، هنه جهّنم، جمعه أبن مالك في بيت شعر


و هناك أعضاء من جسد الإنسان تعتبر مؤنثـأ مثل : الأذن و العين و القام و الساق والإصبَع و الكف و العجز والكراع، ومن اقتات البطن، الأمعاء والسن والجهات الأربعة أيضاً تعتبر مؤنثأ مثل اليمين والثمال

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { انظر : شرح أبن عقيل: 2/335، شرح جدل الزجاجي: ص 1/361 } \\
& 1528 \text { في } 6 \text { ، سقطت كلمة 'ذلك، } \\
& 1529 \text { في 7، 'وهي على قسمين' } 6
\end{aligned}
$$

1530 في 1، زيدت العبارة ’حقيقي و غبر حقيقي فالحقيقي‘ في 2 ، ’حقيقي كالمر آة والناقة ‘ في 5، ’أحدهما حقيقي‘

لفظيأ كما في فاطمة وسلمى أو معنوياً: كزينب وسعاد،
وللمزيد انظر :/بن يعبش: 5/91، شرح الرضي: 3/321، التعريفات: للجرجاني: رقم النعريف 1887،
Howell, Arabic Grammar, vol.1, p. 1116; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 1, pp. 177.

1531 في 5 ، 'وحبلى' سقطت كلمة، 'والحبلى‘ في بقية النسخ 3 ، 4 ، 7، 'و الناقة، بدل كلمة ' الحبلى' 1532 في 4، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، و في الأصل ’غير الحققي‘ في 3 ، ’و غير حقيقي‘ والصحيح كما وردت في 3، و قد أثبتناها المؤنث الذى أطلق عليه المؤلف إصطلاح (غبر حقيقى) هو المؤنث المجازى، و هو ما لا بدل على أنثى لها فرج معد للوطء، و اطلاق المؤنت اللفظي عليه إطلاق غير سليم، لأنَّ المؤنث المجازى قد يكون تأنيثة لفظيا إذا كان فيه علامة للتأنيث كما مثل المؤلف، وقد يكون تأنيثه معنوياً إذا خلا من العلامة كالثمس و العين و اليد، 1533 في 1، سقطت كلمة، ’والبشرى‘ في 2، سقطت كلمة 'و الصحراء‘

والحقيقي41534، أقوى ولذا : 1535 امتتع جاء هند وجاز: طلعَ الثمس¹536، و تأنيث البهائم، دون تأنيث الآدميين. و لهذا: ${ }^{1537}$ جاز : سار الناقة1538 و لم يجز سار المر أةٌ 1539 ، واللفظي علي ثلاثة أضرب، الأول:1540 ما فيه تاء التأنيث، ${ }^{1541}$ الاناهرة: ${ }^{1541}{ }^{1542}$ (كالغرفة و الظلمة) 1543 أو تقديرأ، كالثنمس و النار و الدار 1544، والثاني، ما فيه ألف التأنيث. 1545 (مقصورةً أو ممدودةً 1546، كحمراء، صحراء، و بشرى)

$$
1534 \text { في 2، 'والهؤنت الحققيك' }
$$

إنّ النأنيث الحقيقي أقوى من النأنيث اللفظي لأن تأنيث الحققي يكون تأنيثّه من جهة اللفظ والمغنى من حيث كان مدلوله مؤنثا، و غير الحقيقي شيء يختص باللفظ من غير أن يدل مغنى مؤنت تحته ويلزم فعله علامة التأنيث متل،
قامت الدرأة وذهبت الجارية
انظر: ابن بعيش: 5/92، شرح الرضي: 340، 3/341

Howell, Arabic Grammar,vol.1, pp.1119-1121 .

$$
1535 \text { في 5، 'وكذا، في 4، 'و لهغا، }
$$

 والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1537 في 2، 3، 5، وأكثر النسخ 'و لذا،
1538 والأرجع ذكر الناء مع كل مؤنت حقيقي حتى و لو لم يكن مؤنثّ لعاقلٍ
1539 زيدت في 3 ، ، إلا أن يكون بينهما فاصل،
1540 سقطت كلمة ’ الأوّل، في الأصل وردت في 5 ، ’'أحدها، و وردت في أكثر النسخ ’ الأول، والصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل

1542 في 1، ' ظاهر أ، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل 1543 تقتيم وتأخير في أكثر النسخ ما بين القوسين،

1544 في 2، 'والدار و النار، ،
 في كلمتي، النار والدار وما جاء على شاكلتّهما مما خلا من علامات التأنيث، ولكّئه دال على مؤنث انظر : ابن يعيش :
5/96، شرح الرضي : 340، 3/341

1545 في 3، ؛ ' الألف اللنأنيث، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1546 في 3، 'مقصورة كِبلى وبشرى أو مدودة كحمراء وصحراء‘ في بقية النسخ، 2 ، 4 ، 7 ، ' 'مدوودة أو مقصورة؛



 (1) مذهب جمهور الكوفيين: وهو أنَ كل فعل أسند إلى جمع المذكر السالم أو جمع المؤتث السالم، أو اسم الجمع كالقو و والرهط والنسوة، أو اسم الجنس الجمعى، كالروم واللزنج و الكلى، أو جمع النكسير لمذكر مثل رجال ألو أو جمع النكسير لمؤنث مثل هنود وضوارب، يجوز تأنيثه وتنكيره، فنتول جاء المسلمون وجاء وريت الهسلمون، وجاء الرجاء وجاءت الرجال وزه الروم وزحفت الروم، وجاء السلمات وجاءت المسلمات وجاء الضوارب وناء وجاء الضوارب، والسر في ذلك أنّ كل واحد من هذه الأشياء الستة يجوز أن يؤول بالجمع فيكون منيّ مذكر المعنى، فيؤتى

 السالم، وهذا ما جرى عليه المؤلف هنا في المصباح (3) مذهب جمهور البصريين: وهو جواز الأمرين في أربعة أنواع، هي اسم الجمع واسم الجنس الجمعي، وجمع النكسير لدذكر و جمع النكسبر لمؤنث، وأمّا جمع المذكر السالم فلا يجوز في فعله إلا التنكير وأمّا جمع المؤنث السالم فالا يجوز في فعله إلا النأنيث. انظر:شرح الرضي : 408، 1/409، /بن يعيش :103-5/106، شرح ابن عقلّ: 408 409 / 1 ، الإيضاح

العضُدي: 297-299 / 1
1550 في 3، 'نحو جاءني الرجال،
1551 في 2، ’’جاء الرجال وجاءت الرجل،
 القائدة 'جاءك،

سورة المتحنة: الآية. 12،
هذا على رأى أبى على الفارسى و الكو فييين، وأمّا البصريون فقد قالوا إنَّ الفعل هنا لم يوّنث للفعل بينه وبين الفاعل (بالكاف) أو أنّ المؤمنات وصف لموصوف محذوفـ و النقتير: إذا جاءك النساء المؤمنات و النساء اسم جمع او أن (أل) في المؤمنات موصولة بمعنى (اللاذی) و هو اسم جمع أيضـا
ووللمزيد انظر :أوضح المسالك إلى (ألفية /بن مالك: 137 ، 138 / 1 ، 10
1553 سورة يو سف: الآية. 30

التأنيث1555، في أنّه ثانٍ للواحد كالتأنيث للنذّكير 1556 و لم يؤنَّث، نحو: مسلمون لاختصاصه بذكور العقلاء، ${ }^{1557}$ ولأنّه 1558 لم يستأنف 1559 له صيغة أخرى ${ }^{1560 ، ~ ه ذ ا ~ ا ٕ ذ ا ~}$ كان الفعل مسندأ إلى الظاهر أمطا1561 إذا أسند إلى المضمر 1562 فالتأنيث واجب1563 أو الضمير الجماعة1564 نحو: الرجال جاءت و جاءوا، و النساء جاءت، أو جُنْنَ، والجُنُوع انكسرتْ \}و انكَسْنَنَ 1565 والناس 1566 والأنام، و الرهط، والنفرُ، مدُكر و1567، والقومُ

1554 في الأصل سقطت كلمة ’باسقات لها، و وردت في 2، والصحيح كما أثبتناه كما وردت في 2،

$$
\text { سوره ق : رقم الآية: } 10
$$

1555 وردت في 5، 7، ’يناسب‘ في 1، ’ لأنه ناسب التأنيث ‘و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
 أثبتتاه

$$
1558 \text { 1557 في } 3 \text { ، ، 'من العقلاء‘ في 4، 'باللذكور من العقلاء، }
$$

1559 في ، 7، ’لم تستأنف، والصحيح كمـا وردت في الأصل،
1560 أي أنّه لم يحذف من صيغة مفرده شيء كما حذف من مفرد المؤنث عند جمعه جمع مؤنث سالماً، بل بقيت صيغة
مفرده سالمة في صيغة جمعه 1561 في 3، ’و أمّا، في 2، 'فأمّا،
1562 في 5، ’الضمير‘ في 3، ’ 'ألي مضمر؛ ‘في 5، ’ 'ألي المضمرات، والصحيح كما أثبتتاه في الصلب كما وردت في الأصل، 1563 وسقطت كلمة، ’واجب‘ في 2 ، 4، 1564 في 3، زيدت كلمة، ’لازم‘

1565 في 2، ’ أو انكسرن،
1566 سقط - في نسخة، 22، -- تبدأ من، " و انكسرن والناس، ألي انتهاء المخطوط "،

$$
1567 \text { في 4، ’يدُكر‘ ' والصحيح كمـا وردت في الأصل }
$$

لاختصاص هذه الكلمات بالمذكر أ وغلبتها عليه، فالناس يكون من الإنس وأصله إنسان لآنّ العرب قاطبة قالوا في تصغيره، إنسيان، فيّلت الياء الأخيرة على الياء في تكبيره، ويستعمل مذكرأ مثل وهِ يا أيّها الناس كِهُ البقرة : رقم الآية 11 ، وقد يؤنث على معنى القبيلة مثل : جاءتك الناس ، و النفر، يقال نفرة الرجل ونفره ، أي رهطه ومنه النفر بالتحريك عدة رجال من ثلاثة إلى عشرة، ويقال هو اسم جنس ، والقوم يذكر ويؤنث لآن أسماء الجموع التي لا واحد لها من لفظها إذا كانت الآدميين تذكر وتؤنث، و القوم جماعة من الرجال والنساء جميعأ وقيل هو للرجال خاصة دون



 جميع الأشياء1577، تقول: ثلاثةُ رجالِ، وثلاثُ نسوة 1578، (و ثلاثةُ غِلمَة) 1579 و في النساء ومنه قوله تعالى لـا لا يسخر قوم من قوم ـ ولا نساء من نساء هي الحجرات : رقم الأية، 11 ، وفي جمع النكسبر فإنما تريد الجمع إذا ذكرت وتريد الجماعة إلا

انظر :لسان العرب والصحاح: [مادة انس]
1568 في 2، 'كتوله تعالىى

1570 سورة الأنعام: رقم الآية، 66،
1571 في 5، 'النظل و الثنر ،
1572 في 2، زيدت ’نحو نخل ونظلة وتمر و تمرة، 1573 سورة الحاقة: رقم الآية. 7، 7 الح
1574 ـ تقتيم وتأخير في أكثر النسخ، 2، 6، 7 ، ، في 1، ' أعجاز نذل خاوية، و أعجاز نذل، سورة الققر : الآية. 20، 1575 سورة ق: رقم الآية: 10
1576 في 7، سقطت العبارة ما باين القوسين،
1577 في 2، 'لجميع الأثياء'
 القياس ، نتول [ ثلاثة عشر عبدأ بالتذكير و [ثلاث عشرة أمة ] بالنأنيث، وإن استعملت غير مركبة جرت برت على خلاف القياس، تُول عشرة رجال بالتأنيث و عشر نسوة بالتنكير




 ويجمون ما كان على هذا المثال في المؤنث بغير ها نحو، "’عقاب و أعقب "، حملوا العدد على الجمع، فادخلوا الهاء

التنزيل، العشرة1581 مع المذكر و أثبَّهَا مع المؤنثن 1582 نحو : ثلاثة عشرَ رجلا و ثلاثَ1583 عَثْرْ امر أهَ بكسر الثنين وسُكونها 1584 ، و أحدَ عشر، 1585 و إحدى عشرة 1586 ، و اثثى
 عشر 1592 فإِّاّك تُعربُه إعراب مسلمَين. 1593

في المذكر، وأسقطو ها في المؤنث وكذلك حكمها بعد التركيب إلى العشرة، إلا ’(العشرة "، فإنّها تتخيّبر، لأنها نكون في حالة التركيب في الدذكر بغير هاء و المؤنث بالهاء وللمزيد انظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص 442، 443، أسر/ر اللغة العربية: ص 218، 219، ابن يعيش: 18، 6/19، ، شرح ابن عقيل: 2/321-317 ،
1578 في 5 ، ' ثلاث نسوة' 'وثلاث غلمة وثلاثة رجال، في 2 ، 3 ، 3 ، ’ثلاث نسوة و ثلاثة غلمة،
1579 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 4،
1580 سورة الحاقة: رقم الآية: 7،
في الأصل ’ثلاث ليال وثلاثة أيام‘ في 6 ، ’ثلث ليال و ثمانية أيام‘ و في 5، ’سبع ليال و ثمانية أيّام‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتناه
1581 وردت في 2؛ ’عن العشرة ‘ سقطت في 3؛ ’من العشرة‘ 1582 في 1، 'في المؤنث،
يريد المؤلف العشرة، فتسقط التاء منه إن كان المعدود مذكر ا و وتثبت إن كان مؤنثأ على العكس من [ثلاثة] فما بعدها كما مثل المؤلف عليه الرحمة
انظر : شرح /بن عقبل : 320 /2 2 (2
1583 في 5، ’ ثلاثة عشر‘ في 2 ، ’وثلث عشر امر أة ‘ في أكثر النسخ، 1 ، 4 ، 7 ، 3 ، ’ثلاث عشرة امرأة، و الصحيح كمـا وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثنتناها 1584 يجوز في شين [عشرة ] مع المؤنث التنكين و الكسر، والكسر لغة بني تميه، و السكون لغة أهل الحجاز وهو الأفصح انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 2/320
1585 سقطت كلمة رجلا" في الأصل ووردت في 5، 'و إحدى عشر رجلا، 1586 سقطت كلمة ’امر أة، في الأصل ووردت في جميع ما عدا الأصل 1587 في 5، ’و إثنا عشر‘ في 1، ’ إثنتا عشر رجلا‘، سقطت كلمة، 'رجلاء، في الأصل، ووردت في بقية النسخ، 2 ،7، 4
1588 وردت في بقية النسخ 2 ، 3 ، 6 ، 'إثثتا عشرة امر أة،

و هي خمسة أضرب1596، تأكيد، \}و صفة، و بدلٌ، 1597 و عطف بيان، و عطف بحرف1598، أمّا التأكيد ${ }^{1599 ، ~ ف م خ ن ّ ص 1600 ~ ب ا ل م ع ر ف ة 1601 ، ~ و ي ك و ن ~ ب ا ل ن ك ر ي ر ~} 1602$


يريد العدد المركب من الجزئيين [ عشرة وما دونها ] فهو مبني على فتح الجزئيين أحد عشر إلى ثلاث عشرة وهكذا 1592 زيدت العبارة، في 4، ’و اثنتي عشر‘ في 6، ’اثنا عشر ‘ في 7، ’اثثتا عشر ، 1593 يريد إعر ابه إعراب المثّنى، أي أنّه يرفع بالألف، وينصب ويجّر بالياء، أو ليس هذا إعراب العدد المركب كله (7، أثنا عشر و أثنتا عشرة ) وإنّما الذي يعرب إعراب الثثنى صدره فقط [ أثنثا - أثنتا] لأنهّها ملحقان بالمثنى إمّا عَجزهُ فيبقى مبنياً على الفتح لتضّمنه معنى واو العطف ولا محل له من الإعراب لأنّه و اقع موقع النون من المثنى في نحو، الزيدان، وليس الصدر مضافأ إلى العجز، تقول: جاءني أثنا عشر رجال، ورأيت أثني عشر رجلا، ومررت بأثنتي عشرة إمر أة، فقد رفع صدر العدد بالألف، أثنا، ونصب بالياء " أثنى"، و جر بالياء أيضاً "أثنتي"، أمّا [عشرة] فقد بقيت مفتوحة في كل الحالات، و هذا دليل على بنائها على الفتح انظر :شرح أبن عقبل: 2/321
1594 في 1، سقطت كلمة، 'الفصل،
1595 في اللغة تبع يتبع تبعأ بالفتح، وأتبعه الثيء إذا مشيت خلفهم أو مرّوا بك فضضيت معهم، وفي المصطلح النحوي: كلٌ ثان أعرب بإعراب سابقه من جهة واحدة، وقال صـاحب أبن يعيش، هي الأسماء التي لا يمسها الأعراب إلا على سبيل التتبع لغير ها

Owen, The Foundations of Grammar, pp. 154.
انظر :لسان العرب: والصحاح : مادة [تبع]/بن يعيش : 38 /3 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص 399 ، شرح اللمع : 201 / 201 1596 عدّها النحاة على خمسة أضرب، كما ذكر المؤلف عليه الرحمة، خلاف،، ابن هشام و غيره، وقيل أربعة،

وأدرجوا عطف البيان و عطف النسق تحت قولهم العطف، انظر : شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص111، شرح شذ ور الذهب: ص428، 1597 في 3؛ ’التأكيد والصفة، والبدل و العطف،

$$
1598 \text { في 6، 'بالحروف، }
$$

1599 في المصطلح النحوي، هو كل ثان ذِكر تقرير أ لما فبله، وأمّا فائدته قيل، التحقيق والتجّوز في الكاحم، انظر :الدعجم الدقصل في علوم اللغة: 1/215، أسرار العربية: ص 283، 1600 في 6 ، 3، 'مخصوص' المي

نحو:جاءني زيدٌ زيدٌ، و بغيرهو1603،نحو: جاءني زيدٌ نفسُه4604، \}و الرجلان كلاهما


1601 مذهب البصريين أنّه لا يجوز توكيد النكرة، سواءً كانت محدودة، مثل يورٍ وليلة وشهر، وحول، أو غير محدودة، كوقت، وزمن وحين وتابعهم ’المطرزي‘ هنا في المصباح، أمّا الكوفيون فيجيزون توكيد النكرة المحدودة لحصول الفائدة بذلك نحو، صمت شهر أ كله وقد و افقهم ابن مالك في ألفيته،
 واستثشهوا بقول الثناعر،
لكَّه شاقة أن فِيلَ ذا رجَبْ با ليت عدّة حول كلَ رجبْ

و الثشاهد في هذا البيت جواز توكيد النكرة كما ذهب إليه الكوفيون وهو شاذ في رأي البصريين، والثاذ لا يحتّج به، والبيت من كلمة عبد الها بن مسلم بن جندب الهذلي، وذكر الثعلب في مجالسه، 2/475، شرح شذ ور الذهب: رقم الشعر 228، والإنصاف: 2/265
انظر :أسر/ر العربية: ص 290-292، شرح أبن عقيل: 2/166، شرح جمل للزجاجي: ص 119،120 مجالس
ثعلب: ثُعلب، أبي العباس أحمد ابن يحيى ، شرح وتحقيق عبد السلام محمد هارون دار المعارف، القاهرة: 1948-

1902 في 1، ’فيكون بالتكرار، '
يريد المصتّف التوكيد اللفظي، وهو تكرير اللفظ الأول بعينه، وقد يكون أسما كما مثل المصتنف، وقد يكون فعلا مثل، طلع طلع القمر، أو حرفأ، مثل: نِعْمَ نِعم أيّها القادم، أو جملة فعلية، مثل، زأر الأسد، زأر الأسد، أو جملة أسمية مثلك،

الماء عذب، الماء عذب، أو أسم فعل، مثل، آمين، آمين، أو ضمير اً مثل، أنتم أَنتم مهّبّبون انظر : شرح اللمع : 1/225، التمهيي في النحو والصرف: ص" 390، 391، الأصول في النحو: 17،18 /2 1603 في 3؛ 'وبغير لفظه،
يريد المصتنف عليه الرحمة، النوكيد المعنوي، وهو ضربان، أحدهما: ما جيء به لرفع نوهم مضـاف إلى المؤكد، وهو
النوكيد بالنفس والعين نتول: جاء زيد نفسه أو عينه، فنفسه و عينه توكيد لزيد وهو يرفع النتو هم، أن يكون النققير، ، جاءني خبر زيدٍ ورسوله، والثاني: هو ما يرفع النوّهم عدم إرادة الثمول، والمستعمل لذلك ( كل وكلا وكلتا وجميع )

فيؤكد بكل وجميع ما كان ذا أجزاءٍ يصّح وقوع بعضها موقعه، نحو، جاء الركب كله أو جميعه، والقبيلة كلها أو جميهها، والرجال كلهم أو جميعهم، ولا تقول جاء زيد كله، ويؤكد بكلاَ وكلتا المثنى مذكرأ ومؤنثـأ نحو، جاء الرجلان

كلاهما و البنتان كلتاهما،
وللمزيد انظر : شرح أبن عقيل: 163، 164 /2، /بن يعبش: 41-3/43 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص 264 ، 413 ،415، شرح
الرضي : 363،364 2
Owen, The Foundations of Grammar, p.155; Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, p. 282; Elder, Arabic Grammar, p. 304.
 أو حِلية1612، كالطويل و القصبر و الأسودل1613، أو غريزة، كالفَهِ والكريم ${ }^{1614 ، ~ و ~}$

1605 عند العرب في مثل هذا الأسلوب طريقان: الأولّ أن يؤكد بأجمع وما بعدها بعد (كل) لتنقوية قصد الشمول كما مثل المؤلف هنا، والثناني أن يؤكد بأجمع وما بعدها دون ذكر ‘‘كل، 'فيقال، جاء الجيش أجمع وجاءت القبيلة جمعاء وهو قليل، وفي ذلك يقول أبن ماللك،

> جمعاءَ أجمعين، ثمّ جُمُعا
> وبَحْنَ كلِ أكَاوا: بأجمعا
> جمعاءَ! ، أجمعون، ثمّ جُمُعَ
> ودون كل قد يجىء: أجمع

انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 2/164، شرح رضي: 271 372،3 3 ، 3 ،
1606 في 3، تققيم وتأخبر في العبارة، ما بين القوسين، سقطت كلمة, ’ أجمعون‘ في 7، و سقطت كلمة، ’وأبتعون‘ في 6، سقطت ’واجمعون و أكتعون،
أكتعون، و أبتعون، وأبصعون،إنباعات لأجمعين ، لا يجئنْ إلا على أثر ها و تبدأ بأيتّهن شئت بعدها وليس الترتيب

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بلازم ، انظر :قاموس المحبط: تحت [مادة بتع] شرح الرضي: 2/377، } 376 \text { ، } \\
& 1607 \text { زيدت كلمة، 'وأمّا، في 7، }
\end{aligned}
$$

1608 هي الاسم الدال على بعض أحوال الذات، وقال ابن يعيش، الصفة و النعت واحد، وفال بعض، أن النعت يكون بالحلية نحو ، طويل وقصير، والصفة تكون بالأفعال نحو ضارب وخارج و أمّا الغرض في الصفة فهي التخصيص

و التفضيل، والمدح و الذم أو ترّحم
انظر : /بن يعشي: 46، 3/47، التعريفات: رقم التعريف، 1084، شرح قطر الندى: ص 408، شرح الرضي: 287 /

Owen, The Foundations of Arabic Grammar, pp.156, 157.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1609 في 3، ’وهو اسم‘ والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل } \\
& 1610 \text { في } 7 \text { ، ’و هو 'و ، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل } \\
& 1611 \text { في } 3 \text { ، 'فعل الموصوف، }
\end{aligned}
$$

الفعل هنا ما يكون صـادر أ من أفعال الجوارح أي دالا على عمل نتبع الصفة موصوفها في عشرة أشياء، في رفعه ونصبه و جرّه و إفر اده، ونثيتّته وجمعه وتذكيره وتأنيثه وتعريفه وتتكيره،

1612 في 1، ’ أو خليقة‘، في 6، ’و حلية،
المر اد بها الخلقة والصورة و الصفة و الحلية بالكسر ، وفيل من الحُلي،
انظر : القاموس الدحيط: [مادة حُلمي]
1613 في 1، ’و الأسود و العريض‘ في 3 ، ’'و العريض والأسود‘ و سقطت كلمة ’القصير‘ في 7،

العاقل، أو نسبة، كالهاشميّ والبصريّ. 1615 و أما الوصف 1616 بأسماء الأجناس فإنّها 1617
 ذُو مالٍ، وذوا مالٍِ[43] و ذوَي مال، و ذوُو مال، 1623 وذوي مال1624، وذاتُ مال، وذو اتا مال، وذا وذاتَي مال، وذواتُ مـال، و ذواتِ مالٍٍ بالكسر 1625 في الجر و


1614 في 6، ’'و عزيز كالفهيم والكريم‘ في 4 ، ’كالفهم و الكريم‘ وبقية النسخ، 1، 3 ، 7 ، ’كالفهيم والكريم‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في بقية النسخ و قد أثبتنتاه

1615 في 1، 3؛ 'كهاشثميّ وبصري،

 1618 في 1، ’فإنما يتأتى بوسيلة، في 3، ’لا تتأتي بوسيلة، 1619 زيدت كلمة، ’ إلا ، 7،

1621 في الأصل ’يثني و يجمع' في 3 ، 6، 'تثني وتجمع' والصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل و قد أثبتناه
 ، و قد أثبتتاها
1623 في 3، زيدت، ' في الرفع'
 1625 في 1، سقطت العبارة، ’وذوات مال بالكسر‘ في 3، سقطت كلمة، ’بالكسر‘ ' فقط، 1626 في 7، 'في النصب و الجر‘، 1627 في 7، سقطت كلمة، 'مسلمات،
أي أنّها تعرب في حالة الأفر اد للتذكير إعراب الأسماء الستّة فترفع بالواو وتنصب بالألف وتجّر بالياء وفي حالة الثتثية تعرب إعراب المثنى، فترفع بالألف وتنصب وتجّر بالياء الياء أمّا في حالة جمع المذكر السالم فتعرب إعراب الجمع

المذكر فترفع بالو او وتنصب وتجّر بالياء وفي حالة الدلالة على جمع المؤنث تعرب إعراب جمع المؤنث، فترفع بالضمّة وتنصب وتجّر بالكسرة كما مثل ذلك المؤلف عليه الرحمة 1628 في 3، سقطت كلمة، ’تأنيث؛؛ تتبع الصفة الموصوف في عشر ة أنثياء، في رفعه ، ونصبه ، وجرّه، و إفر اده ، وتثيتهه ، وجمعه ، وتذكيره ، إذا لم يمنع من المو افقة مانع كالوصف الذي يستوي فيه المذكر والمؤنث مثل، صبور وجريح ومكسال، فإنّه لا يؤنث ولو كان موصوفه مؤنثا، جاءني رجل صبور وحضرت امر أة صبور ... و هكذا في البو اقي

وتنكير أ، و إفرادأ وتثنية وجمعأ1629، و إعر اباَ، إذا1630 كانت فعلا لـه1631، وأمَا إذا كانت

 البدل: 1640 على أربعةة أوجه1641، بـل الكل من الكل16426 نحو رأبـث زبداَ أخالكَ1643، و انظر : شرح /بن عقبل: 2/152،153، /بن بعبش: 54 /3 ، شرح قطر الندى: ص 402-404 ،شرح جمل الزجاجي: ، ص111

Owen, The Foundations of Arabic Grammar, pp.162-166.
1629 كذلك تمنع الهو افقة في التثية والجمع إذا كانت الصفة ( أفعل التفضيل) الهضاف إلى نكرة أو المجرد من [الـ] والإضافة مثل، قابلت صديقًا أفضل رجل، وصديقين افضل رجلين، وأصدقاء أفضل رجال، وصادقت إنسانًا أفضل وأصحابنا أفضل و هكنا انظر :شرح/بن عقّل: 2/153 1630 في 4، زيدت كلمة، 'هذا،


 و وإنما من إبنه
انظر :تجبيد النحو: شوقي ضيف، ص261، التمهيّ في النحو والصرف: ص 385،
1634 في 7، ' فإنّها صفة،
1635 في 3، 'في التتكير و النتريف،
1636 في 4 ، سقطت كلمة، ’ الإعراب، في 3، سقطت 'فحسب،
1637 ــي 4 ـي ، زيدت 'نحو مررت برجل حسنة جاريته،

$$
1638 \text { سورة النساء: رقم الآية: } 75
$$

$$
1639 \text { زيدت كلمة، ’أمَّا ، في 3، }
$$


الإيضاح ورفع الالتلاس، وإز الة النوسَّ و الهجاز
انظر:شرح شذ ور الذهب: ص 439، أسرار العربية: ص 298، شرح ابن عقلّ: 192 /2،

$$
1641 \text { في 6، 'على ثلاثة أضرب، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { لانّ ( القام أو القعود) حادث وواقع من الننوت و وهو الرجل في (مررت برجل فائم أو فاعد)، } \\
& \text { انظر : المعجم الدقصل في علوم اللغة: 2/654، } \\
& 1632 \text { في 1، زيدت، 'ل 'نيره، }
\end{aligned}
$$

بدل البعض من الكل1644، نحو: ضربتُ زيدأ رأسَه 1645، وبدل الاشتمال1646، نحو:
 زيدٌ ضربُهـه1648 أو علمُه) 1649 وبدل الغلط 1650 ، نحو: مررت برجل حمار 1651 ، و عطف

عند جمهور النحاة هي على أربعة أقسام كما ذكر المؤلف ولكن عدّها أبن هثام في،‘قطر الندى "، ستة ، وزيدت بدل الإضراب وبدل النسيان

انظر :شرح قطر الندى: ص 438، الأصول في النحو: 46 /2، أسر/ر العربية: ص 298، 299؛
1642 في 6 ، 7، فالصر اط الثاني هو نفس الصر اط الأول، في 6، سقطت كلمة، ’ الكلّ، وهو عبارة أنّ الثاني فيه عين الأول لانّ أخاك يطابق [ زيداً ] في المعنى ويساويه وكمـا ورد في القر آن إه هدنا الصر اط المستقيم صر اط الذينهُ سورة الفاتحة: رقم الآية، 6، وفيه يجب مو افقته للمتبوع في الأفر اد والتثية و الجمع ،

و التنكير والتأنيث ، لا في التعريف والتنكير ،
وللمزيد انظر :شرح الرضي: 386 /2 ، شرح ابن عقبل: 94 /2
1643 في 3، زيدت، 'و بدل البعض من البعض'
1644 و هو أن يكون الثاني جزأ من الأول بحيث يمكن تقسيم المبدل منه على أجزاءٍ، يكون البدل أحدها بدل الاشتمال،
وهو الدال على معنىي في متبو عه، و هذا البدل يسمّى بدل البيان أيضاً،
انظر :المعجم الدفصل في علوم اللغة: 126 /1، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 122 ،
Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, p. 285.


 وسؤ الهم عن الثشهر إنّما كان لأجل القتال فيه ، و هذا البدل يقال ، بدل المصدر أيضـأ إذا كان المعنى مشتنملا عليه مثل : أعجبتتي الجارية حسنها
انظر: ابن يعبش: 64، 65 / 3، شرح الرضي: 384، 385 /2، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 123،
Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, p. 285.

$$
1647 \text { سورة البقرة: الآية. } 217
$$

1648 و زيدت في 4، ’ومنه بدل الفعل عن فاعله ونحو‘‘ في 7، ’من فاعله؛
1649 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، في 1، 3، 4، 3 ف،
1650 في 1، 'وبدل الغلام‘ و الصحيح كمـا وردت في الأصل
فلا يكون في قرآن ولا كلامٍ فصيح، وهو أن يريد أن يلفظ بشيء فيسبق لسانه إلى غيره، كما مثل المصتنف، ومعنى بدل الغظط، الذي سبب الإتيان به الغلط في ذكر المبدل منه ، وقد يكون كل من البدل و المبدل منه مقصودأ مثل، [

البيان: 1652 وهو 1653 اسم 1654 غبرُ صفة، يجري مجرى التفسبر 1655 ، نحو: جاءني أبو عبد الله زبدٌ، (إذا كان معروفأ بالاسم) بـالكُنية1658، و العطف بـالحروف:1659، و حروف العطف تسعة1660، الواو: للجمع

أكلت خبز أ لحمأ ] قصدت أولا الإخبار بأنكّك أكلت خبزأ ثمّ بدأ للك أن تخبر أنكّك أكلت لحمأ أيضأ هذا القسم يسمّى بدل الإضر اب
انظر :شرح قطر الندى : ص 441، شرح أبن عقبل: 2/194،أسر/ر العربية: ص 300،الأصول في النحو: 48 /2

Wright, Grammar of the Arabic Language, vol. 2, p. 286.
1651 في 6، سقطت كلمة 'نحو '
1652 في اللغة، عطف يعطفُ عطفا، أي رجع وتعطف و أنثفق عليه، ومنه يقال، الرجوع إلى الثيء بعد الانصر اف، وفي المصطلح النحوي، هو اسم غير صفة يكثف عن المراد كثفها وينزل من المتبو ع منزلة الكلمة المستعملة من الغريبة إذا ثُرجمت بها ، قال أبن ماللك :
إمّا ذو بيان، أو نسق
فذوا البيان: تابع، شبه الصفة
انظر : لسان العرب وقاموس الدحبط: [مادة عطف]/بن يعبش: 3/71، شرح أبن عقيل: 171 / 2
1653 في 3، ’وهي‘ بدل 'هو،
1654 في 1، سقطت كلمة، ’ اسم‘
1655 زيدت في 4 ، 'والبيان'
يريد المؤلف عليه الرحمة، أنّ عطف البيان يوضتح متبو عه ويقسره، ولكنه ليس بصفة، لأنه جامد، أمّا الصفة فهي
إمّا مشنقة أو مؤو" لة بالمشتقة، والفائدة من عطف البيان، نوضيح المعرفة ورفع اللّبس كما في الوصف، 1656 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 3، وردت في 1، 4 ، 6 ، 'إذا كان مشهورأ بالعلم' 1657 في 6، ’ أو جاءني زيد أبو عبد الهّ ‘ في 3، ’نحو جاءني أور أبو عبد الها زيد‘ 1658 في 6 ، 'مشهور أ بالعلم'
مثل المؤلف عليه الرحمة لعطف البيان في المعارف فقط، ولكن بعض النحاة ومنهم ابن مالكك وابن هشام و غيره ، ذهب إلى جواز ذلك من النكرات أيضأ، واستثشهوا بقوله تعالى يو يد من شجرة مباركة زيتونة) النور : رقم الآية

35، وقوله تعالى وِّ ويُسقى من ماءٍ صديدٍ إبر اهيم: رقم الآية 16، فزيتونة، عطف بيان ’’لشجرة‘"، و "'صديد"، عطف بيان لماء، وذكر " أبن يعيش"، أنّ عطف البيان يشبه الصفة في أربعة أوجه (1) أنّ فيه بيانأ للاسم المتبوع كما في الصفة (2) أن العامل فيه هو العامل في الأول المتبوع (3) أنّه جار عليه في تعريفه كالصفة (4) امتتاعه أن يجري على المضمر كما يمتتع من الصفة، ويفارقها في أربعة أوجه (1) أن النعت بالمشّقُ أو ما ينزل منزلة المشتق على ما تقّّم ولا يلزم ذلك في عطف البيان لأنه يكون بالجو امد (2) أنّ عطف البيان لا يكون إلا في

المطلق 1661، نحو: جاءني زيدٌ و عمرو"، و الفاء: للترتيب مع التعقيب1662 ، نحو: جاءني زيدٌ فعمروٌ، و ثمّ : 1663 للترتيب 1664 مع النتراخي، نحو: رأيتُ زيداً ثمّ عمرواً، و أو:

المعارف و الصفة تكون في المعرفة والنكرة (3) أن النعت حكمه أن يكون أعمّ من المنعوت ولا يكون أخّص منه ولا يلزم ذلك في عطف البيان (3) أن النعت يجوز فيه القطع فينتصب بإضمار فعل أو يرتفع بإضمار مبتدأ ولا يجوز في عطف البيان
انظر : شرح قطر الندى: ص421، شرح أبن عقيل: 172، 2/173، ابن يعيش: 71، 3/72
1659 في 7، ' بالحرف،
ويسمّى عطف النسق ايضأ، ومعنى النسق في اللغة، الشيء ما كان على طريقة نظاجٍ واحد ومنه التنسيق والتنظيم، ومنه وقيل له نسقْ لمساو اته الأول في الإعراب ويقال ثغر نسق، إذا تساوت أسنانه، وفي النحو، العطف تابع مقصود بالنسبة مع متبو عه، يتو سّط بينه وبين متبو عه أحد الحروف النسعة، انظر :لسان العرب، القاموس المحيط: [مادة نسق]شرح الرضي: 2/331، هدع الموامع: 2/128 1660 في 7، ’ أو حروف العطف عشرة؛
عدد حروف العطف عند أكثر النحاة هي تسعة : و عدّها السر اج عشرة، وزيدت حرف [إما] قسّم النحاة هذه الحروف إلى قسمين أحدها، ما يشترك مع المعطوف عليه مطلقا، أي لفظأ وحكمأ وهي، الو او، وثمّ و الفاء، وحتى، وأم وأو ، و الثاني ما يشترك لفظأ فقط و هي، بل ولا، ولكن، هذه الثلاثة يشترك الثاني مع الأول في إعر ابه لا في حكمه،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { انظر: شرح ابن عقبل: 2/176، الأصول في النحو: } 57 \text { /2 ، } \\
& 1661 \text { في 6، 'ليطلق الجمع' }
\end{aligned}
$$

الواو لمطلق الجمع و هذا مذهب البصريين كما ذهب إليه المؤلف، ومذهب الكوفيين أنّها للترتيب أيضـا، وردّ بقوله
 الكوفيون، لكان هذا الكلام اعثر افا من الكقار بالبعث بعد الموت، وهم منكرون، والدليل على أن الواو تنتضي الجمع
 حطةٌ وأدخلوا الباب سجّدَّهُ الأعراف : رقم الآية، 161، يتققّم في إحدى الآيتين ما يتأخرّ في الأخرى، انظر: شرح

$$
\text { أبن عقيل: 177، 178،/سرار العربية: 302، 303، الأصول في النحو: } 26 \text { /2 ، }
$$

1662 و التعقيب في النحو، أن يكون وقوع المعطوف عليه بلا مهلة بينهما وللفاء معنى " آخر وهو السبب، كما قال الها

بانت سُعاد فقلبي اليوم متبول متّمّ إثر ها لم يفد مكبول

انظر : شرح قطر الندى: ص 429 ، شرح ديوان كعب أبن زهير : تحقيق ، حسين بن عبدا لله السكاري ، دار ا لكتب الدصرية ، القاهرة: 1950 ، ص 6، و الثطر الثاني للبيت يذكر هكذا ، متيّم إثر ها لم يجز مكبول

لأحد الثنيئين، أو للأشياء، نحو: جاءني زيدٌ أو عمرو 1665، ويقال: إنها للثك في الخبر 1666، وللتخيير والإباحة في الأمر 1667، نحو: خذ هذا أو ذاكي1668، و جالس الحسن-1669 أو ابنَ سبرين-1670، و أمْ للاستفهام، متصلة،1671، نحو: أزيد عندكَ، [44] ( أم




وللمزيد:الأصول في النحو: 56 /2،شرح /بن غقلّ: 178 /2 ،شرح قطر النـى: ص 430
1664 سقطت كلمة، 'للترتيب،
1665 زيدت في 6، 'أو بكر أو غير ذلكّ،
1666 مثال ذلك ، قضيت في قر أة الكتاب ششيّن دققة أو سبعين إذا كتّ شاكأ بينهما، 1667 والفرق بين النخيير والإباحة، أنّ الإباحة ترك الحرّية للمخاطب في اختيار أحد المتعاطفين أو هما معاً، بخلاف
 أو ذاكك ليس لك أن تأخذ إلا أحدها، إمّا لو قلنا ( جالس الحسن وأبن سيرين ) فأنت حر أن تجالسهما أو تجالس أحدهما
انظر: شرح أبن عقّل: 2/181، الثهـهيٌ في النحو والصرف: ص 409، شرح قطر الندى: ص 434 ، 1668 في 3 ، 'نلكّ،
هي 1669 هو أبو سعيد الحسن بن يسار البصري [21-1753/19-1822-173 تابعي ، كان إمام أهل البصرة وحبر الأمة




من فيه ، أخباره كثيرة، وله كلمات سائرة : توفي بالبالبصرة ،


 محمد البجادي، مطبعة عبسى البابي الحبي، القاهرة:1964. 1527 /1 1 ، حية الأولياء: الإصبهاني، أبو نعيم احمد ابن

 سيرتة وشخصتهـ: نأليف إحسان عبّاس، طبع دار النكر العربي ،القاهرة: 1954 ، Encyclopedia of Islam (new ed), vol. 3, pp. 247,248.

عمرو، أي أيّهما عندك)1672 أو منقطعة1673، نحو: أزيدٌ عندك، أم عندك عمرو"1674، و إنّها لإبل أم شاة:1675، بمعنى بل1676، هي شاة، و (لا للنفي بعد الإثبات، نحو: جاءني زيدٌ

1670 وزيدت العبارة في 4 ، 'و أمّا للثكَك و التخيير و الإباحة كأو ، وفي 7، 'وحتى للغاية وقد يكون للعطف على التعظيم و التخيير، نحو مات الناس حتى الأنبياء، وقدم الحاجحتى المشاة و إما للثكك و التخيير كاؤ و أم هو محمد بن سيرين البصري ، الأنصاري [ 33-110 / 653-729 ] إمام وقته في علوم الدين .ولد وتوفي بالبصرة ، تابعي من أشنر اف الكتاب . تفقه وروى الحديث، واشتهر بالور ع وتعبير الرؤيا ـو استكتبه انس بن ماللك بفارس، ومن آثاره كتاب شهير جدأ، تتعبير الرؤيا، وللمزيد انظر :وفيات الأعيان: 321-322 /3، مرآة الجنان: 233، 234 /1 ، تتهنبب التهزيب: 214 /9، تاريخ بغداد: 338-331 /5، تاريخ الإسلام : الذهبي، أبو عبد اله شمس الدين ، دار المعارف الإسلامية، حيدر آباد دكن: 1955 . 77، 78 /1، تـهنبب الأسماء واللغات: للنووي، أبي زكريا محيي الدين بن شرف، إدارة الطباعة المنيرية، القاهرة: بدون تاريخ، 82-84 /1، الؤعلام : 25 /7، معجم المؤلفين: 947، 947 948 /3،

Brockelmann, S: p. 102 ; Encyclopedia of Islam (new ed), vol.3, pp. 947, 948.
1671 وهي على قسمين، منقطعة ومنّصلة، المنّصلة هي التي تقع بعد همزة التّسوية نحو وهِ سواءٌ عليهم أنذرتهم أم لم تنذر همهُ: البقرة: رقم الآية 6 أو بعد مغنية عن لفظ (أي) كما مثل المصتّف، أزيد عندك أم عمرو وإنّما سميّت متّصلة في هاتين الحالتين لانّ ما قبلها وما بعدها لا يستغني بأحدهما عن الآخر وللمزيد انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 2/179، /سر/ر العربية: ص 305، شرح قطر الندى: ص 435، 1672 في 7، سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين، سقطت كلمة، ’عندك، في 3، 4،
1673 و أمّا المنقطعة، التّي لم تتقّمها إحدى الهمزتين، وتفيد الإضر اب بمعنى ‘بل، ولا تدخل على مفرد، وإنّما يكون
بين جملتين مستقلتين و إذا ورد ما ظاهره غير ذللك وجب تقدير مبتدأ بعدها كما في المثال ‘،إنّها لإبل أم شاء "، فالأصل أم هي شاء ؟ وقد تفبد استفهاما حقققيأ كما في المثال أو استفهاما إنكاريأ كما في فوله تعالى وا أم هل تستوي الظلمات و النور هُ الر عد: رقم الآية 16، أي بل هل تستوي ، إذ لا يدخل استفهام على استفهام ويعطف بها في الخبر المثبت والأمر، فتفيد الإضر اب عن الأول كأنه مسكوت عنه ، وأشار إليه ابن مالك ، وأنثّل بها للثنان حكم الأول في الخبر المثبت، والأمر الجَّي
فإذا لم يكن ما قبلها مثبتاً كان حكمها كحكم ’’ لكن "، سواءً بعد النفي أو النهي، وفي الحالثين لا بدّ أن يكون معطو فها مفردأ

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { انظر :شرح /بن عقيل: 184، 2/185، شرح قطر الندى: ص 436، } 437 \\
& 1674 \text { في 3، ’ أم عمرو عندك، } \\
& 1675 \text { في 4، ’ أم هي شاة‘ والصحيح كمـا وردت في الأصل } \\
& 1676 \text { في 1، زيدت، ’بل مع الهمزة‘ في 3، ’هل مع الهمزة‘ }
\end{aligned}
$$

لا عمروٌ1677 و بَلْ 1678: للإضراب عن الأوَّل، و الإثبات للثاني 1679، منفياً كان أو
 للاستدر اك بعد النفي 1682، نحو ما جاءني زيدٌ لكِنْ عمرو حاضر" ${ }^{1683 ، ~ و ~ و ~ ا ل ف ر ق ~ ب ي ن ه م ا ~}$ أنكك ثُبطلُ بالإضر اب الحُكَمَ السابق1684، و بالاستدر اك لا تبطلهُ1685، (و حتى بمعنى

1677 لا النافية: و هي نقع لإخراج الثناني ممّا دخل فيه الأوّل ، عاطفة : فتّخل على المفرد ، وتثبت الحكم للمعطوف عليه دون المعطوف، ويكون الكلام موجبأ، متل : ينتصر المؤمن لا الجُبان ،غبر عاطفة : فتّالِل على الجملة ،
 الاسم بعدها صفة مثل : هذه دار لا قديمة و لا جديدة أو خبراً مثل : الغلام لا صبيّ ولا شاب ، أو حالأ مثل : شاهدت

السماء لاصحوأ ولا مطر أ ويعطف بعد النداء نحو : يا زيد ولا عمرو والأمر نحو : إضرب زيداً لا عمر ألا
 1678 وردت في 7، 'لا بل' 1679 في 6، 'عن الثاني'
1680 هناك تققيم و تأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في أكثر النسخ
1681 في 3؛ 'نحو ما جاءني،
1682 و ’ لكنّ، تفيد الاستدر ’ك، وإنّما تعطف في النفي دون الإثبات، بخلاف، بل‘ فإنّها تعطف في النفي والإثبات معأ، و الوجه لذلك لأنّ "’ بل، إنّما تستعمل في الإيجاب لأجل الغلط و النسيان لما قبلها، و هذا إنمّا يقع في الكلام نادراً، فاقتصروا على حرف واحد، وأمّا استعمال, لكن‘ فإنّما يكون بعد النفي، فجاز أن يشترك معها فيه، لأنّ الكلامين

صو اب، ولا ينكر نكرار مـا يقتضي الصواب، فلذلك افتراق الحكم فيهما، وللمزيد انظر :أسرر (العربية: ص 304، 305، الإيضاح العضدي: ص 290، 1683 سقطت كلمة، ’حاضر ‘ في 3؛ 3 ،
أن بين [لأ] و [لكن] و [بل] اشتر اكا و افتر اقا: فأمّا اشنتر اكها فمن وجهين، أحدها: أنّها عاطفة و الثاني: أنّها تفيد رد السامع عن الخطأ في الحكم إلى الصواب، وأما افتر اقها فمن وجهين أيضا ، أحدهما : أن [لا تكا تكون لقصر القلب وقصر الأفراد و [بل و لكن] إنيّما يكونان لقصر
 تستعمل في الإيجاب لأجل الغلط والنسيان لما قبلها ، و هذا إنما يقع في الكلام نادر آ، فاقتصروا على حرف واحدٍ ، وأما استعمال [لكن] فإنّما يكون بعد النفي ، فجاز أن يشترك معها فيه ، لأن الكلامين صواب ، ولا يتكرر تكرار مـا يقتضي الصو اب فلذلك افتراق الحكم فيهما

1684 هناك سقط في نسخة 5، تبداء من الرجلان كلاهما و القوم كلهم أجمعون واكتعون وأبتعون وابصعون إلى.... و الفرق بينهما إنّك تبطل بالإضر اب الحكم السابق، من ورقة 42 إلى 44 ، من الأصل

الغاية1686، نحو ضربت القوم حتى زيداً). 1687 (حتى في معنى الواو تعظيمأ و تحقير أ: نحو جاءني الناس حتى الأمبرُ، مات الناسُ حتى الأنبياء؛ُ قدم الحُجَّاجُ حتى المشّاةُ) 1688 ،


1685 زيدت في 7 ، 'نحو جاءني زيد لكن عمرو ولم يجئ' 1686 زيدت العبارة في 5، و حتى في معنى الواو تعظيماً و تحقيرأ نحو جاءنى الناس حتى الأمير و قدم الحاج حتى المشاة واله أعلم.
وتستعمل ’حتى‘ للغاية والتدريج، معنى الغاية آخر الشيء ومعنى التنريج أن ما قبلها ينقضي شيئًا فشيئًأ إلى أن يبلغ إلى الغاية
 1687 (حتى) يعطف بها على فلة عند البصريين ، أمّا الكوفيون فينكرون العطف با لكلية ، ويحملون نحو : جاء القوم حتىّ أبوك ، ور أيت القوم حتى أباك ، ومررت بالقوم حتى أبيك ، على أن [حتى] فيه إبتدائية، وأن ما بـد ها ها معمول الا لعامل مضمر: مماتلل للعامل الذي عمل الإعراب فيما أسماه البصريون معطوفأ عليه سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 1، 3؛ 1688 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في الأصل وزيدت في 4 ، 6 ، والصحيح كما وردت في مـا عدا الأصل، وقد

أثبتناها

$$
1689 \text { في } 7 \text { ، ’بعدها'، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

$$
1690 \text { في 5، 'دخوله فيما قبلها،' }
$$

1691 ليس هذا هو الثرط الوحيد للعطف بحتى بل لها أربعة شروط عند النحاة ،
(1) كون المعطوف أسما لا فعلا فإذا ورد بعدها فعل فليست عاطفة، (2) وكونه أسما ظاهر ألا مضمرأ كما كان ذلك شرط مجرور ها (3) كونه بعضاً من المعطوف عليه إمّا بالتحقيق كما في قولهم، أكلت السمكة حتى رأسها أو بالتأويل كما قال الشاعر،
ألقي الصحيفة كي يُخةّفُ رحلـ و الز اد حتى نعلّه ألقاها

و الثـاهد فيه 'حتى نعله ‘ على النصب فإن الفعل ليس جز أ على وجه الحقيقة فهي جزء منه بسب التأويل فيما قبلها، ( 4) كونه غاية لما فبلها في زيادة حسيّة مرجعها إلى الحسن و المشاهدة كما مثل المصتّف وكقولنا، كنز البخيل ماله حتى الدراهم، أو في زيادة معنوية مرجعها إلى المعنى مثل، مات الناس حتى الأنبياء وللمزيد انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 2/178، شرح قطر الندى: ص 431، و انظر للمزيد ’حتى‘ في حروف الجارة‘ رقم الهامش 417،
1692 سقطت كلمة ’أنْ ، في الأصل ووردت في 7، والصحيح كما أثبتناه في المتن وكما وردت ما عدا الأصل
 الحمار لا يكون من جنس القوم) ${ }^{1696 ، ~}$

الفصل الرابع:
في الإعراب الأصلي (و غير الأصلي)"1697،

الكلام 1698 مداره على ثلاثة معان: الفاعليّة، والمفعوليّة، و الإضـافة، فالرفع للفاعل1699، و النصب للمفعول1700، والجر للمضاف إليه1701، وما سوى ذلك ملحق بها. فالملحق بالفاعل1702 خمسة:1703 المبندأ و الخبر ول1704، و خبر إنّ، و اسم كان 1707 ، 1705 و اسم مـا ولا706 بمعنى ليس 1707 و خبر ل1708، لنفي الجنس. 1709 والمفعول خمسة:

( المفعول المطلق 1710، المفعول بـه، و المفعول له، 1711 و المفعول فيه، و المفعول معه،1712، و الملحق به سبعة) 1713، الحال1714، و التمييز 1715، و المستثنى المنصوب، ${ }^{1714}$ (ا716، وخبر
 الحجازيين) المعنويّة. 1721 و غير الأصلي\{ 1722 إمّا: بزيادة [45] حرف الجرِّيّا 1723 في المرفوع نحو:

1709 انظر : التعليق على " لУ "، التي لنفي الجنس في هامش من التحقيق 579، 1710 هو اسم منصوب يؤكد عامله، أو يصفه أو يدل عليه نو عأ من الدالالة، وسمي مفعو لأ مطلقأ لصدق المفعول عليه غير مقيّد بحرف جر: ونحوه
انظر : المعجم الدقصل في علوم اللغة: 2/863، شرح ابن عقيل: 1/472، وللمزيد أنظر على هامش ص، 282
 مصدر أ (2) أن يكون مذكور أ للتعليل (3) أن يكون مشاركأ له في الفاعل، وللمزيد انظر، التعطليق على المفعول له هامش 307؛
 1712 في 1، 'مع' بدل ’معه‘ و الصحيح كما أثبتناه في الصلب، كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، ورللمزيد انظر : التعليق على الففعول معه على هامش، 309 1713 هناك تقديم وتأخير ما بين القوسين في 1، 4 ، 7 ،
1714 في اللغة نهاية الماضي وبداية المستقبل، وفي المصطلح النحوي، ما بين هيئة الفاعل أو المفعول به لفظاً، ومذهب جمهور النحويين أن الحال لا يكون إلا نكرة وإن ما ورد منها معرفأ لفظأ فهو منكر معنىً وللمزيد انظر ما ذكر المؤلف على هامش،313
انظر : /لتعريفات: للجرجاني، رقم التعريف 671، شرح ابن عقيل: 1/532،
1715 التمييز، هو تبيين النكرة المقسرة للمبهم، وسمّي أيضا مقسر أ وتفسير أ، ومبنياً وتبيينأ، ومميز أ وتميزاً، وللمزيد
أنظر ، ما ذكر في التحقيق عن التمييز على هامش، 274
انظر :أسر/ر العربية: ص 196، شرح أبن عقبل: 1/560،
1716 انظر: : ما ذكر في التحقيق عن عامل النصب في التمييز في هامش، 280، 1717 زيدت كلمة ’وأخواتها، في 4،
1718 سقطت كلمة ’المشّبهتين بليس‘ في 3، 317 ( 171 ،
1719 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 4،
1720 في 4، ’بالحروف الجارة؛ في 3؛ ’ أمّا بالحرف،
1721 في 3، ’ بالأصافة المعنوي‘

 الوجه، فيكون المجرور 1728 في التققبر منصوباً أو مرفوعأ. 1729 وإعراب الفعل 1730 غيرُ حقيقي كُّه، إذ ليس 1731 فيه فاعليّة 1732 و لا مفعولية و لا إضـافة، وقد يقال

راجع ما ذكر في التحقيق عن العامل في المضاف إليه وعن الإضافة المعنوية علي هامش، 232، 1722 هنالك سقط في نسخة 2 ، تبدأ من $\}$ و صفتهه و عطف بيان و عطف الحرف و البدل ..... إلى ....و الجر الأصلى للمضاف إليه إمّا بالحروف أو بالإضافة المعنوية، من ورقة 42 ، و إلى 44 ، من الأصل 1723 في 3 ، 'حرف جر:'
1724 حيث وقع المبتدأ في المثال الأول وهو "’حسب "، مجرورأ لفظأ بحرف جر ر زائد، والأصل " "حسبك درهم"، ولكن دخول حرف الجر الزائد عليه لم يخرجه عن كونه مبتداً مرفو عأ بالضمّة التي منع من ظهور ها حركة حرف الجر الز ائد، وكذللك وقع لفظ الجلالة "’ اله "، وهو الفاعل للفعل "‘كفى "، بعد حرف جر, زائد وهو الباء وانجراره اللفظي بحركة حرف الجر الذائُ لم يخرجه عن كونه فاعلا" مرفو عأ بالضمّة المقّرة على آخره هنع من ظهور ها اشتغال المحل بحركة حرف الجر الزائد أيضـا -سورة النساء: رقم الآية. 79 1725 في الأصل سقطت كلمة ’ قوله تعالى ‘ و في أكثر النسخ وردت ’ قوله تعالى ‘وهو المناسب و قد أثبتاها في النص،
1726 حيث وقعت كلمة [أيدي] بعد حرف جر زائد وهو الباء، فجرَّت لفظأ بحركته مع أنّها في الموقع الإعرابي مفعول به منصوب للفعل [تلقو ا'‘ و علامة النصب الفتحة المقّرّ على آخره منع من ظهور ها إشتغال المحل بحركة حرف الجر الذائد أيضـا
سورة البقرة: الآية. 195،
1727 في النسخ 3، 4، 'و هذا ضـارب،
حيث أضفت [ضـارب] اسم الفاعل إلى [زيد] المضروب، وهو الذي وقع عليه فعل الفاعل ، وحقه النصب لولا الإضافة اللفظية التي منعت منه ،
1728 في 3، 'ويكون المجرور '
1729 في 1، ’ أو منصوبأ أو مرفوعأَ في 5، زيدت كلمة ’مجرورأَ، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1730 في 4 ، زيدت 'على ضربين' 1731 في 7 ، ' ليست،
1732 في 3، زيدت ؛ الفاعليّة و المفعوليّة و الإضافة،

الإعراب على نو عين: 1733 صريح أو غير صريح، فالصريح: 1734 إمّا بالحركات أو
 وجه مخصوص من الإعراب1738، وما ذاك 1739 إلنا في المضمرات 1740 ألا نرى 1741 أنّ أنت1742 وُضع للمرفوع 1743 "174، و إيّاك1744 للمنصوب. و لا رفع في اللفظ ولا نصب،

والمضمر 1745 على ضربين: منّصل: و هو ما لا ينفكُ عن اتصـاله بشيء 1746 و هو 1747 ثلاثة أنواع: 1748 المرفوع، و المنصوب، و المجرور، وكل1749 منها بارز ${ }^{17450}{ }^{17}$ إلا المرفوع علا 1733 سقطت كلمة ’على نو عين‘ في الأصل و زيدت في 4 ، و في 7، 'على ضربين‘ في 5، 'على قسمين ‘ والصحيح كما وردت في 4 ، وقد أثبتناها 1734 في 2، ' أمّا الصريح ، 1735 في 3، 'ذكرنا،
1736 سقطت كلمة، 'وهو ، ' في 2 ، ، 6، 6 ، 6
1737 في 6 ، ، 7 ، ، ' أن تكون، و و قد أثنتّناه


$$
1739 \text { في } 2 \text { ، 4، 'نذكك، }
$$

1740 الهضمر ات، بدليل تفسيره لها فيما سيأتي من تفصيلات ونراه فيما يسو قه من ضربي الإعر اب، الصريح و غير الصريح، يلغي البناء مع أنّه سبق أن تحدث عن كل من الإعراب و البناء بالتفصيل في صدر كتابها، والو اقع أنتّا لا لا



$$
1742 \text { في } 7 \text { ، ’ 'أناء في 1، ’ إن أنا أنت، }
$$

1743 اللضمر الدال على المنصوب، والمضمر الدال على المجرور،

1744 في 7، زيدت كلمة ’وضع، في 2، 'و 'وإيّاك المنصوب،
1745 في 2، 'وهو‘ و وفي 7، 'و المضمر،
 فيه حرف الجر المقتّر لا نسس الأسم المضاف فلذلك لم يقتّا اتصاله بالعامل فيه انظر:/بن يعشي: 3/85، شرح أبن عقيل: 1/79، شُرح اللمع: 1/302،

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1747 \text { في 2، 'وهو على، في } 8 \text { ، 'وهي، } \\
& \text { 1778 سقطت كلمة ’ أنواع ‘ في } 6 \text { ، } 6 \text { ، }
\end{aligned}
$$

أيضــ1752 إمّا لازمـَ1753 أو غبرَ لازم، فاللازم في أربعة أفعال، 1754 أفعلْ، نفعلُ، وتفعلُ 1755، إذا كان للمخاطب المذكر، و غبر اللازم 1756: في فعل يفعلُ، \}و كذا 1757 المؤنث 1758 نحو : فعلتْ وتفعلْ 1759 و في اسم الفاعل و المفعول و الصفة المشّبهةة1760، فإذا رفعَت ظاهرأ فقد بقيت فار غة 1761 عن الضمير 1762 . و المنفصل: ، 1749 زيدت في 4، كلمة 'واحدأ 1750 و هي على ثلاثة أقسام (1) ضمائر رفع، وهي التي تتصل بالأفعال فقط، وتكون في محل رفع، وهي تُ، تُ، ت، نا، تما، تنّ، ألف الاثثين، واو الجماعة، ونون النسوة، وياء المخاطبة، (2) ضمائر نصب، وهي التي تتصل بالفعل، وتكون في محل نصب، وهي ياء المتكلم، نا، كَ، كِ، كما، كم، كنّ ه، هما، هم، هنّ، (3) ضمائر جر منّصلة، وهي التي تتصل بالأسماء وتكون في محل جرّ، و هي ياء المتكلم، تاء، كَ، كِ، كما، كم، كنّ، ه، هما، هنّ

انظر : شرح أبن عقيل: 85-87 /1، شرح قطر الندى: ص 175131، 130 ،
1751 في 5، 'مرفوع ' وفي بقية النسخ 2 ، 3 ، 7، 'مر فو عه؛ 1752 يريد المؤلف الضمير المستتر، وهو ما ليس له صورة في اللفظ،

$$
1753 \text { في } 6 \text { ، ’إمـا لازم' }
$$

$$
1754 \text { وردت في 7، ’ أربعة أشثياء‘ في } 3 \text { ، ’في مواضعه؛ سقطت كلمة ’ أفعال، في 6، }
$$

1755 في 2 ، 3 ، ’ أفعلُ، و أفعل و نفعل وتفعل، في 3؛ سقطت كلمة ’و أفعل، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل،
انظر : التعليق على وجوب استتار الضمير على هامش 250 ، من التحقيق
1756 في 2، زيدت، في خمسة أفعال،
1757 في 1، ’ المذكر و كذا المؤنث‘ زيدت في 7 ، ’في فعل ونفعل للمذكر ،
1758 السقط، في ،16 تبداء من---- وكذا المؤنث في فعلت، و تفعل ---- ألي انتهاء المخطوط،
1759 في 6 ، زيدت ’فعلتْ و تفعلْ للمؤنث،
1760 المر اد بغير اللازم الضمير المستتر جوازأ، ويكون في كل فعل مسندٍ إلى الغائب كما مثل المؤلف بفعل و يفعل ،
وفعلت وتفعل، وكذللك إذا وقع الضمير مرفو عأ بصفة محضة و هي التي لم تغلب عليها الاسمية ،كاسم الفاعل واسم اللفعول و الصفة المشبّهة وأمثلة المبالغة ، وقد عدّ المؤلف الضمير المستتر وجوبأ والمستتر جو ازأ من باب الضمائر اللتصلة ، مع أننا حينما نقدر ها في حالتي استتار ها نقدر ها بالمنفصلة ، فنقول : أكتب أي أنت ، ونكتب أي نحن ، وكتبت أي هي ...... هكذا
انظر : شرح ابن عقيل: 85،84 /1 ،/بن يعبش: 108،109 / 3 ، 3
 تكن متحملة الضمير، و هذا ظاهر حيث أن الوصف لا يرفع مرّ تين في وقت واحد، 1762 في 4، ’من الضمير‘ في 3 ، ’من المضمر‘ سقطت كلمة ’ الضمير‘ في 6،

كالمظهر في استقلاله 1763 في أنه يمكن التلفظ به ابتداءً. وهو للمرفوع، 1764 والمنصوب، ولا مجرور له البتة في اللفظ 1765 و عدد الألفاظ المنفصلة والمنّصلة1766 سبعة و أربعون لفظا. المنفصلة1767 أربعة وعشرون لفظأ، [46] المرفوعة منها 1768 اثثا

 إيّاكنّ، إيّاه، إيّاها، ${ }^{1775}$ إيّاهما، إيّاهم، إيّاهنّ 1776 ، والمنّصلة1777 ثلاثة و عشرون 1778 ، المرفو عة منها أحدَ عشرَ1779، \}فعلتُ، (فعلنا، فعلتَ، فعلت، فعلتما، فعلتم، فعلتنّ،

[^164]ما يستتر فيه الضمير جوازأ يصبح فارغأ من الضمير [أي] لا يستتر فيه ضمير، إذا رفع اسمأ ظاهر أ وقد عرفه النحاة، بأنّه ما يصتح أن يبدأ به،
1764 في 5، 'فهو المرفوع' وفي أكثر النسخ، 3، 4، 6 ، 7 ، 'المرفوع'
1765 سقطت كلمة ’في اللفظ ، في أكثر النسخ،
1766 في 5، 6، ’المنّصلة و المنفصلة،
1767 في 3، ’والمنفصلة، في 5، ' أمّا المنفصلة، في 7 ، ’و المنفصلة منها، 1768 في 4 ، ' للمرفو عة منها،
1769 في 3، زيدت ’ ا اثنا عشر منفصل مرفوع ‘' وفي 3 ، 5 ' أثثي عشر ‘
1770 سقطت كلمة ’ نحو ‘ في الأصل و زيدت في 5، والصحيح كما وردت في 5، و قد أثبتتاه في الصلب 1771 في 1 ، 3، نقديم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين لقوسين، في 2، في ’وهو ‘ وهي‘ و هما، و هم؛ و وهنّ ‘وسقطت كلمة ’هنّ في الأصل،
1772 زيدت كلمة ’منها، في 5، و سقطت في أكثر النسخ، في 2 ، 3، وردت كلمة 'والمنصوبة،

$$
1773 \text { زيدت كلمة ’ نحو ، في 5، }
$$

1774 سقطت كلمة ' إيّاك، في الأصل و وردت في جميع ما عدا الأصل و الصحيح كما أثبتناها في المتن 1775 سقطت كلمة , إيّاها، في الأصل و وردت في أكثر النسخ والصحيح كما أثبتتاها في الصلب 1776 في 7، سقطت كلمة 'و أيّا هنَّ ،

1777 في 5، زيدت ’منها،
1778 في 1، سقطت كلمة ’ ثلاثة وعشرون‘ في 5، زيدت ’لفظّا،
1779 زيدت في 6، 'فعلا متصل مرفوع '

تفعلينَ، فعلا، فعلوا، فعلن1780 1781، والمنصوبة اثنا عشر 1782، 1783 أكرمَني1784، أكرمَنا، أكرمكّ، أكرمكِ، أكرمكما، أكرمكه، أكرمكن، أكرمه، أكرَّهها 1785 أكرمهما، أكرمهم، أكرمهنّ1786، ولفظ المجرور، كلفظ المنصوب، ${ }^{1787}$ ، إلا أن ياء المتكلم 1788 في المنصوب يلحڤُه1789 نون عماد1790، وفي المجرور لا يكون1 1791 ( إلّا في منّي، و عنّي

1780 زيدت كلمة ’فعلتا، في الأصل، وسقطت في أكثر النسخ 3، 2 ، 4 ، 7، والصحيح كما وردت في مـا عدا الأصل 1781 هناك تققيم وتأخير زيادة ونقص في أكثر النسخ ما بين القوسين، في 6، سقطت كلمة ’ فعلنّنّ وتفعلين ‘ وفي الأصل سقطت كلمة ’فعلت و تفعلين‘ والصحيح كما أثبتناها في النص
يريد المؤلف عليه الرحمة، الضمائر المتصلة بالأفعال لا الأفعال نفسها وقد عدّها المؤلف أحد عشر ضميرا ولكيّها تدخل تحت سيّة ضمائر فقط هي، تاء الفاعل، نا، الدالة على الفاعل، نون النسوة، ألف الإثثين، واو الجماعة، ياء المخاطبة، كما سبق ذكر ها في هامش 1547 ، من التحقيق و إنّما أو صلها المؤلف إلى أحد عشر ضميرأ بحسب تنّو عها تبعأ لمدلو لاتها الجزئية، فعلتُ، فعلتّ، فعلتما، فعلتم، فعلتنّ فكلها تاء الفاعل، 1782 في الأصل أثني عشر في 2، زيدت كلمة ’منها، وفي أكثر النسخ 3؛ 4 ، 6 ، 7 ، وردت ’ أثنا، والصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتناها 1783 زيدت كلمة 'نحو، في 5،
1784 في 6، زيدت ’منّصل منصوب،

1786 و عدّ المؤلف ضمائر النصب المتصلة هنا اثثي عشر ضمير أ و هذا لا يتتافى ما ذكرناه في هامش، 1118 من أنّها
 أكرمه،) أكرمها، أكرمهما، أكرمهم، أكرمهن و [نا ] الدالة على الدفعول [ أكرمنا] ويستوي معها في ذلك ضمائر الجر المتّصلة كما ذكرنا سابقأ في التحقيق وكما ذكره المؤلف عقب سرده لضمائر النصب المنّصلة هنا، 1787 يقصد المؤلف، أي أن الضمائر المنّصلة المستعملة في النصب هي نفسها المستعملة في الجر 1788 في 2 ، 'ياء للمتكلم،
1789 في 5، ’ تلحقها، في 4 ، ’ملحقها، وسقطت كلمة ’بلحقه‘ في أكثر النسخ 2، 1 ، 3 ، 7 ، 3 ،

$$
1790 \text { في } 3 \text { ، ’له نون‘ و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل }
$$

و هي التي تسمّى " نون الوقاية "، وعند النحاة أنّها سميّت نون الوقاية، لأنّها تقي الفعل المنّصل بياء المتكلم من الكسر الذي هو أخو الجر، والجر يمتتع وجوده مع الفعل، وقيل إنّما جاءت لتقي اللفظ من تغيير آخره فعلا كان أو اسمأ أو حرفأ، أي أنّها تصون نهاية الكلمة من الاختلال سواءً كانت الكلمة مبنية أم معرفة، ويجب أن تسبق ياء المتكلم، إذا نصبت بالفعل أو باسم الفعل مثل، أكرمني محمد، ودارَكني زيد، وكذللك نُصبت بالحرف الناسخ [ليت] أمّا إذا نصبت بالحرف [لعلّ] فالكثير عدم الإتيان بالنون مثل، لُلّنى أنجح، فإذا نُصب بالحروف "’إنّ ،، أنّ"، لكنَّ،"، كأنّ"، جاز الإتيان بالنون قبل الياء وجاز عدم مجيئها مثل، [ إنىّ] و وإنّني، ولكني ولكَّني،

1792، وقدْني، وقطنـي1793، ولدنُي 1794 بمعنى حسبي)1795 ، والتاء للمتكلم 1796 (الواحد، و النون له) 1797 إذا كان معه غيره1798 ويكون ما قبلها1799 ساكنأ في المرفوع، وفي
 رميْنا، وأعطيْنا، وفي المنصوب1803 أكرمَني أكرمَنا1804 ودعانا ورمانا و أعطانا.
 أيّها السائل عنهم و عني
(والبيت من الشو اهد التي لا نعرف عن قائله حتى قال بعض العلماء أنّه من وضع النحويين،) ا أمّا إذا جرت بحرف غير هذين الحرفين فإن النون يمتتع مجيئها، فتقول، لى مال، وبي شوق ، وجاء القوم خلاي و عداي، وحاشاي على
 وللمزيد انظر :/بن يعبش: 124، 3/125، شرح أبن عقيل: 100، 101 /1، هـع الهوا مع: 1/64، 1793 -- وقعت ياء المتكلم هنا مضـافأ إليه بعد [ قد وقط ] فُّلب دخول النون قبلها، ويشاركهما في ذلك الظرف [لانـ]
 سوره كهف : رقم الآية 76 ، أمّا إذا كان المضاف أسما آخر غير الأسماء الثلاثة السابقة فيمتتع مجيء نون الوقاية قبل ياء المتكلم، فتقول، أخي مجتهد وأبي مسافر ، وكتابي جديد، انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 1/101، ابن يعبش: 3/125، 1794 سقطت كلمة 'ولدّني‘ في أكثر النسخ، 1-4، 1795 هناك تققبم و تأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في 2 ، 4 ، ، 6 ، 6 ، 6 ، 1796 في 4 ، 7 ، 'وناء للمتكلم'
1797 في 1، سقطت كلمة ’له‘ في 3؛ وردت ’و النون للمتكلم‘ وسقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 6 ، ،
1798 زيدت في 5 ، 7 ، 'وناء للمتكلم إذا كان معه غيره،
سواءً وقع التكلم من أثثين أو اثثنتين أو جماعة الذكور أو جماعة الإناث فعبارة’’نحن كتبنا،، يصتح أن تكون من متكَلْمَين أو متكلمتين، أو متگكِمِين أو متكلمات،
1799 في الأصل 'ما فبلها، و في أكثر النسخ 'ما قبله،
1800 في الأصل ’حالها، وفي 2 ، 3 ، 5، ’حاله، والصحيح كما وردت في ما ما عدا الأصل، و و قد أثبتناه في المتن،
 يحتمل التسكين كالصحيح الآخر مثلا، لأنّ الفعل مع مفعوله ليس كالكلمة الو احدة، 1801 زيدت في 7، 'في المرفوع'
1802 في 7 ، 'ودعوت 7 دوعونا ورميت رمينا، و أعطيت أعطينا،

كمـا يُضمرَ المعمول1806 يُضْمرُ العامل. و ذلك في السماعيّة قلبل. دنه1807 إضمار أنْ بعد الحروف الستّة:1808 و إضمار إنْ مع فعل الثرط فيما يجاب 1809 بـالفاء إلا مـا1810 استثني منه1811، و إضمـار رُبّ، بعد الو او، و الفاء، وبل، في فوله1812، بزور اء مغبرّة جو انبهاب1814، 1815

و بلدةٍ لا ترام خائفة1813 و عليه قول رؤبـة1816،

1803 سقطت كلمة ’ المنصوب ‘ في الأصل و وردت في 2، 3؛ 5 ، و الصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل، وقد

$$
1804 \text { أثبتاهقا } 1 \text { فقت 2، , أكرمت أكرمنا، }
$$

1805 سقطت ’ الفصل الخامس ‘ في الأصل وزيدت في 5 ، 6 ، ، و هو الصحيح عندنا و قد أثبتتاها في الصلب 1806 زيدت كلمة , للإيجاز ، في 5، 1807 في 3، 'ومنه، في 2، 'ومنها'
1808 و هي لام كي [لام التعليل] ولام الجحد، والواو وأو بمعنى، إلى أن وقد مرّ ذكر ها 1809 في 6 ، ' تجاب،
1810 في 5 ، ’ إمّا'، بدل كلمة ’ما، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1811 تضمر إن بعد الشرطية مع فعل الشرط فبل المضارع المجزوم بالطلب، والذي يجاب بالفاء، الأمر والنهي والنفي
والاستفهام والتمنّي والعرض و الذي أستثني منه، و النفي مطلقا و النهي في بعض المو اضع
 1813 في 7، و بلدة لا ترام خالفة ---- دو راء معتبرة وأحضرت حو انيها، في 3، و بلاة لا ترام حائفة ------- ذو راءي معتبرة حوانها

في 2، 3 ، ' و بلاة لا ترام خائفة '
1814 سقط العجز، في 3، 5، والصحيح كما وردت في الأصل، وقد اثبتناها
1815 لم أعثر عليه في الكتب التي تيّسرت لايّ من كتب الأدب و اللغة والنحو،
و الثاهد فيه: جر [بلدة] برب محذوفة بعد الواو وهو كثبر،
1816 في 3، ’رؤية، بدل ’رؤبة'، والصحيح كما جاءت في الأصل
رؤبة بن العجاج [672/145 ] هو رؤبة بن عبد اله العجاج بن رؤبة التميمي السعدي ، أبو الجحّاف أو أبو الثعثاء. ولد في البصرة في أو ائل خلافة عثمان رضي الله عنه ونشأ فيها. كان من فحول الرُجّاز الفصحاء في معرفة اللغة .
(مشتبه الأعلام لمّاع الخفقّ01818)، 1819
وقانت الأعمـق خاوي المخنرقنْ1817
وقول امرئ القيس ${ }^{1820 ،[47]}$

اخذ عنه أعيان أهل اللغة، وكانوا يحتجون بشعره فلمّا مات قال الخليل : دفنا الشعر واللغة و الفصاحة ، وله ديوان شعر وقد حققه السلطي،

وللثفصيل انظر: العجاج حياته ورجزه: تحقيق، عبد الحفيظ السلطي، مكتبة أطلس، دمشق: 1972 ، الُ علام : 3/62،63 ، الشعر والثعر/ء: ابن قتيبة، عبد الله بن مسلم تحقيق وشر ح : أحمد محمد شاكر ، مكتبة عيسى ألبابي الحلبي، القاهرة: 1945 ـ 575-583 /2 ، 193 ، وفيات الُعيان: 64،63 / 2، لسان الميزان: 464 /2، تاريخ الأدب العربي: فرو خ، 570-576 /1 ، البد/ابة والنهابة: ابن كثبر، عماد الدين اسماعيل ابن عمر، مطبعة السعادة ، القاهرة: [1932-1939]. 96 /10، البيان والتنبين: الجاحظ، أ بي عثمان عمرو بن بحر، تحقيق وشرح حسن السندولي. مطبعة الاستقامة، القاهرة: 1947. 8،9 /2
1817 في 2، ’ قائم الأعمق خاوي المحترق‘ في 1، ’و قاتم الأعمق في أكثر النسخ ’المخترقن‘ في الأصل ’المحترق‘، والصحيح كما أثبتناها في النص كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، 1818 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين في 2 ، 4،
1819 هذا البيت مطلع أرجوزة مشهورة لرؤبة بن العجاج، وهو في أغلب الروايات: المخترق الخفق. اللغة، القاتم: الذي فيه القتمة: و هي لون فيه غبرة وحمرة، يقال: أسود قاتم، وقاتم هنا: صفة لبلا. الأعماق: جمع عمق بفتح العين وضمها، وهو ما بعد من أطراف المفاوزة. الخاوي: الخالي. المخترق: مكان الاختراق، الثناهد فيه، قوله: [ المخترقن] و [ الخفقن] حيث أدخل عليهما التنوين مع اقتران كل واحد منهما بأل، ولو كان هذا التنوين مما يختّص بالاسم لم يلحق الاسم المقترن بأل وللمزيد انظر:كتاب سييويه: 4/210، الخصائص: 288، 260، 264، 320، 333 /1، /بن يعش: 118 /2 29 /9، 93 الههع الهو/مع: 36 /2، شرح /بن عقبل: 19 /1، الشعر والثعراء: 1/05، مغني اللبيب: 2/22، شرح الرضي علىى
 عبد الله آمين، مكتبة مصطفى ألبابي الحلبي، القاهرة: [ 1954-1960] 03 /2، رؤبة بن العجاج حياته ورجزه : تحقيق ، السلطي ، ورقة 03 من الأور اق التى ألحقت قبل بداية الديوان، ص 370 ، 441 ، لسان العرب، تاج العروس: ( مادة قتم )
1820 إمرؤُالقسس [ 80-497/130-545-5
هو امرؤ ألقس بن جحْر بن الحارث الكندي، بن بني آكل المرار، أشهر شعراء العرب على الإطلاق يماني الأصل مولده بنجد، وكان أبوه ملك أسد و غطفان ، وأمه أخت مهلهل الشاعر . وجعل يشبّب ويلهو ويعاشر صعاليك العرب . فبلغ ذلك أباه، فنهاه عن سيرته فلم ينهه.فأبعده إلى [دمّون] بحضرموت ـ ـ وهو في نحو العشرين من عمره ، ثمّ جعل ينتقل مع أصحابه من مكان إلى آخر، يشرب ويطرب ويغزو ويلهو، إلى أن ثأر بنو أسد على أبيه و فتلوه فبلغ ذلك امرؤ ألقبس وهو جالس للثراب فقال : رحم الهَ أبي ، ضيّعني صغيرأ وحمّلني دمه كبيراً ،لاضحو اليوم ولا سكر غدأ

#  و قول الأخر: 

$$
\text { بلْ بلدٍٍ } 1823 \text { ذي صُعْدٍ و أصباب1824، } 1825
$$

، اليوم خمر و غدأ امرُ . أراد امرؤ ألقيس الأخذ بثأر أبيه فطاف في أحياء العرب يطلب المساعدة فلم يعنه أحد ـ فعاد
 و هو أقدم الثثعراء الذين وصلت إلينا أخبار هم تامة. وهو شاعر وجداني قّدّمه النقاد على معاصريهـ من شعر اء الجاهلية و على جميع الثعراء الذين جاءوا بعده، و هو أول من وقف على الأطلال وأوّل من شبّه النساء بالغزلان والخيل بالعقبان، وأوّل من وصف الليل والخيل و الصيد،

 العرب: مارون عبود، دار الثقافة بيروت : 1979 ـ ص 62-64كتاب العدة: لإبن رشيق، 59-65 /1 ، ديوان /مرؤ 'ألقبس ، دار صادر بيروت: 1958، أدباء العرب في الجاهلية وصدر الإسلام : بطرس البستاني ، دار صادر، بيروت : 1962 ، ص 97-114 ، شرح ديوان /مرؤ ألقبس: حسن السندوبي ، مطبعة الاستقامة ، قاهرة: 1939 ، Islamic Desk Reference, p. 170 ; Encyclopedia of Islam (new ed), vol.3, p.1176; Meisamy \& Starkey; Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature,vol.1, pp. 394, 395

1821 في الأصل 'مرضحي‘ وفي أكثر النسخ 'و مرضع' وهو الصحيح وقد أثبتناها 1822 البيت لامريء القيس الكندي من معلقته المشهورة، تبدأ من،
قفا نبكِ من ذكرى حبيبٍ ومنزل بسقط اللوى بين الاخول فحُومل اللغة: طرقت:جئت، تمائم: جمع تميمة وهي التعويذة تعلق على الصبي لتمنعه العين في ز عمهم، محول: بريد قد أثم العام [ أي الحول]
الإعراب: فمثلك: مثل: مفعول به مقدم للفعل [طر فت] منصوب بفتحه مقدرة على أخره منع من ظهور ها اشتغغال اللحل بحركة حرف الجر الثبية بالز ائد، وهو [رب ] المحذوفة، ومثل مضاف، والكاف مضـاف إليه، حبلى: بدل من الكاف في [مثلك ] قد: حرف تحقيق، طرقت فعل وفاعل، ومرضع: معطوف على [ حبلى] ويروى بالجر تابعأ على

اللفظ، وبالنصب، [مرضعا] تابعأ على الهحل، فألهيتها:الفاء عاطفة، ألهيتها: فعل، والتاء فاعل في محل رفع و ها: مفعول في محل نصب، والجملة معطوفة، على جملة، [طرقت] عن ذي: جار ومجرور، متعلق ألهى، وذي مضاف، وتمائم مضاف إليه، محول: صفة لذى تمائم.

والشاهد فيه: فوله [فـثلك ] حيث حذف الجر، الذي هو ربّ، وأبقى عمله، بعد الفاء وللمزيد انظر : ديوان امرىء القبس: ص 35، شرح أبن عقيل: شاهد الشعر 218، ص، 2/30، /بن يعبش : 118 /2، شرح شنور الذهب: ص، 322 ،كتاب سييويه: 163 /2 وفيه يذكر هكذا، فألهيتها عن ذي تمائم مغيل ومثلك بكر أ قد طرقت وثيّياً

و من ذلك1826، كان في قولهم: (الناس مجزيون بأعمالهم إنْ خير أ فخير 1827، أي إنْ كان
 كما ذكرنا، و أمّا اله11831 لأفعلنَ1832 فشَاذ. 1833 و القياسيّة لا يُضْمْرَ 1834 إلا بدلالة1835

1823 في الأصل بلدة، في 5، ’ بلد' و هو الصحيح عندنا و قد أثبتناها في النص، 1824 في 6، 'و أحباب، في 4، ’وأصعاب‘، و الصحيح كما وردت في الأصل
1825 البيت لرؤبة بن العجاج، من أرجوزة طويلة، يمدح فيها مسلمة بن عبد الملك بن مروان، ويذكر في مطلعها، أنّ أمر آة لامته على كبره و عجزه ولكثرة أسفاره، وقد مدح نفسه فيها بأثنياء منها أنّه لا يسفه على الناس ولا يلا يحقد عليهم. و المذكور هنا عجز البيت، والبيت بتمامه هكذا
والأمر يُقضى في الشقاء للحِّيّاب بل بلد ذي صُعد و أصباب

اللغة: البلا: الققر، والصعد: جمع صعود، المرتفع من الأرض خلاف الهبوط، الأصباب: جمع صبب، وهو مو ما أنحدر من الأرض، وقد روي عجز البيت [أضباب ] بالضـاد جمع ضب، وهو الحيوان المعروف، والشقاء، خلاف السعادة، الخياب [بالضم ]: جمع خائب وهو الخاسر،
وقد استشهـُ بهذا على انّ [رُبَّ] الـحذوفة تعمل بعد [بل] الجر في الشعر

وللتفصيل انظر: ولشعر الرؤبة بحثت عن هذا الثعر في ديو انه وتصفحته صفحة صفحة ولكنني لم اجده في ديو انه اللطبوع ، ، ولكن يذكر الثعر الدذكور في معظم الكتب النحوية ، ديوان روُبة أبن العجاج : تحقيق : السلطي، عبد الحفيظ ، مكتبة إطلس، دمشق: 1972 ، شرح الرضي على الكافية: رقم الثعر، 792، ص 197 ، 297 /4، معمم مقاييس اللغة: ابن فارس، أبي الحسين أحمد بن فارس بن زكريا القزويني ؛ تحقيق : عبد السلام محمد هارون. دار إحياء


1826 زيدت كلمة ’إضمار‘ في 5، 5 ،

$$
1827 \text { زيدت في } 2 \text { ، 5، ’و إن شر أ فشر ، }
$$

1828 هناك تقديم وتأخير في العبارة ما بين القوسين في 2، و و زيدت العبارة في 3 ، ’'و إن كان عملهم شر أ فجز اءهم شرُ ‘ في 7، ’’ إن أي كان عمله خير أ فجز اءه خير ٪، 1829 في 3 ، 'لا تضمر، ' الن
1830 زيدت كلمة ’قبله، في 5،
1831 زيدت في 3، ’و أمّا قولهم الهّ، في 5 ، ' أمـا،
1832 في 7 ، ' 'لأفعلن كذا،
1833 لعدم وجود ما بدل على إضمار حرف الجر على مذهب المؤلف، وفيه نظر لأنّ هذا من المواضع الثلاثة عشر التي جاز فيها الجر بالمحذوف غير [ربّ] وأولها لفظ الجلالة في القسم دون عول انظر : شرح قطر الندى: ص 355 ، 1834 في 6، 'لا يضمر'

الحال أو ما سبق من الكلام فمن الأول فولك:1836 للمتهيء للسفر 1837 مكة،؛ وللمستهلينن 1838 الهلال 1839 ، بإضمار يريد 1840 وأبصروا 181 ال181، و من الثناني، قوله تعلالى:

 ذلك1847 لا يجوز و قريب من هذه1848 الإضمار على شريطة التفسير كما في فوله


تعالى: :

تّمّ 1855 كتاب المصباح، بعون الملك الو هّاب على يد العبد الضعيف المحتاج إلى رحمة الهه تعالىى جعفر بن علي حاجي

1849 سقطت العبارة ما بين القوسين المظهرين في الأصل و زيدت في 7، والصحيح كما وردت في 7 ، وقد اثبتتاها ، سورة النوبة: رقم الآية: 09
1850 في 1 ، ' لأنهّ يدل، في 4 ، ' لأنه الدال عليه، 1851 زيدت العبارة ’ كقو للك زيد ضربته، في 5 ، ، 1852 في 2 ، ' لأنّه،
1853 في 3 ، 'ما سبق من الكلام‘ في 5 ، ' ' ما قد سبق؛ 1854 في 2، زيدت العبارة ‘ ما سبق و الله أعلم بالصواب تمت هذا الكتاب مسمّى بالمصباح في علم النحو ‘ في 3 ‘ و


بالمصباح ‘ في 3؛ ’ما سبق من الكتاب تمت بعون الها الو هاب ‘
في 5 ، كتبت كتابي من أولّه ------------------- قد تمّ كنابي إلى أخره 1855 في جميع النسخ وردت كلمة’تصت، والصحيح ما أثبتتاه

## CHAPTER: 8

## Idiomatic Translation of Matn al-Miṣbāh

## In the name of Allāh, the All-Merciful, the Ever-Merciful Matn al-Miṣbāh

## Author's Note

Praise is due to Allāh, the One who has long reach (in all things), the Bestower of Favours, the Most Beneficent, Who has made naḥw (grammar) for speech, like salt for food. May peace and blessing be upon Allāh's Prophet, Muḥammad; the Master of humanity, and upon his household and Companions, the advocates of Islam.

Indeed, the dearest son, Mas‘ $\bar{u} d$, a source of happiness and cordiality with people of magnanimity. When he memorized mukhtaṣar al-Iqnā', bringing it into light, assimilating its vocabulary, comprehending the $n a h ̣ w$ included therein - both its form and content -, I wanted to make him taste the words of the meticulous imām and punctilious scholar, Abū Bakr 'Abd al-Qāhir ibn ‘Abd al-Raḥmān al-Jurjānī (may Allāh shower him with Mercy and make Paradise his eternal abode). In this way, the sweet vocabulary of the Imām will cling to the memory of Mas'ūd and this in turn will lead the springs of naḥw to flow. Hence, I reviewed the verified abridged versions of his books (not the complete versions), and found that the most discussed topics among imāms are al-Mi'a (one hundred), al-Jumal (sentences) and al-Tatimma (complement). So, I could not burden him with the task of collecting it or charge him with the labour of recording it due to what it includes of repeated material, though such repetition is not without benefit. Therefore, I selected of it "this abridged version, mukhtaṣar, and excluded all" that is repeated, doing away with repetitions and "settling for the main content", without withholding the virtue of offering advice as regards its eloquent expressions. Besides, I did not neglect any of its issues, with the exception of that which is either rare or
common among scholars. I even did not add to it any extrinsic material, except that which is worthy of being added, giving it the title al-Miṣbāh (the lamp), so that people will seek guidance through its light and benefit through its trails. In addition, I divided it into five sections, which run as follows:

Section One: On Naḥw (grammatical) terminology

## في الاصطلاحات النحوية

## Section Two: On standard verbal governing agents

## في العو امل اللفظية القياسية

## Section Three: On non-standard verbal governing agents

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في العوامل اللفظية السماعية
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## Section Four: On non-verbal governing agents

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في العو امل المـنوية
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## Section Five: On various issues in the Arabic language

في فصول من العربيـة

## Section One: On Naḥw (Grammatical) Terminology

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في الا صطلاحات النحوية
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Every utterance that is set to convey a single meaning is a word (kalima; plu. kalimāt and kalim), and a word is of three categories: noun, اسم verb and particle حرف.

A noun: اسم ism is the word that can be spoken about (described); such as Zayd زيد and al-‘Ilm العلم (knowledge), as in the sentences: kharaja Zaydun خَرج زيد "Zayd went out" and "Knowledge is valuable al-'ilmu ḥasanun العلم حسن ,while ignorance is foul", al-jahlu qabïhun والجهل قيّح or assumes the meaning of what could be spoken about, such as idh,
$i d h \bar{a}, m a t \bar{a}$ إذ، إذا، متىى and the like. For, you cannot describe them because of their inseparable adverbial sense. However, they bear the meaning of time and place, which could be described in sentences like: "Time passed" maḍā al-waqt مضى الوقت and "The place expanded" wa al-tasa‘ al-makān واتسع الدكان. Among the verbal indicators of it are: attaching the prefix (al-Alif and lām) to it, such as al-faras الغرس al-ghulām, الغلام the genitive preposition, such as bi Zaydin بزيد and the tanwin (Nunation), such as rajulun رجلّ

The verb: فعل fi‘l is an utterance to which qad, sin wa sawfa و قد السين سوف are prefixed, such as, qad kharaja, sa yakhruju wa sawfa yakhruju قد خرج وسيخرج و سوف يخرج and the Jussive (jazm-producing) particle لlam and to which is attached the visible indicative pronoun, such as, akramtu, akramā and akramū أكرمتُ ، أكرما، أكرمو and the vowelles $t \bar{a}$, of femininity with sukūn, such as, naṣarat, na 'imat wa bi'sat نصرتٌ، ونعتْ، و بئستْ and it has three types. One has a maftūḥ ending, like naṣara, daḥraja wa akrama نصر، و دحرج، و أكرم and it is called the perfective. The second with an initial alternating among one of four extra particles: $y \bar{a}{ }^{\prime}$ (ياء) for the masculine third person singular and for the feminine plural, $a l-t \bar{a}{ }^{\prime}$ التاء for the second masculine singular and for the third feminine singular), النون al-alif for the first person singular and nual and plural form of it, both masculine and feminine. The following are examples: يفعل هو ، و يفعلن هن، وتفعل أنت، أو هي: و (أفلل أنا، و نفعل نحن، yaf'alu huwa, wa yaf'alna hunna, wa taf 'alu anta, aw hiya, wa af 'alu anā wa naf'alu naḥnu. This is called the imperfective al-muḍāri' المضارع, and it is common for both present and future (expressions). Thus, if the initial لام is prefixed to it, it purely expresses the present [action in progress], such as Almighty Allāh's saying إنّي innı̄ la-yahzunan̄̄ an tadhhabū bihi (Really it sadness me that you should take him away". Besides, if the (prefix) sawfa, al-sin السين or سوف is attached to it,
it purely expresses the future, such as Almighty Allāh's saying, sa yaṣlā näran (But soon will he be in fire). The third is the jussive, which is called the
 such as, ‘id, ḍa', jarrib wa hāasibi عِْ، و ضَعْ، وجَرَبْ، و حاسِبْ.

As for the harf حرف (particle) it is an utterance which has no [independent] meaning of its own, giving neither the meaning of a noun or of a verb, lie hal wa bal هل و بل. This is because the noun could work both as a description and as a thing described, while the verb could work as a description, but not as a thing described. The particle however, is a link between both and it could neither be a description nor a thing described.

Now, with the three categories being called a kalima كلمة word, it should be known that when a verb and a noun couple and they together give meaning, they are called speech and a sentence, knowing that the sentence is of four types: Nominal and verbal fi'liyya wa ismiyya و فعلية اسمية (as is already mentioned above), and adverbial and conditional, ظرفية إن تأتني and in ta'tinı̄ ukrimka عندي مالٌ andiyya wa shartiyya such as 'indı̄ māl و شرطية . أكرمْك ${ }^{\text {. }}$ Both are treated in the way a singular word is treated, and thus it implicitly carries its same inflection. So, it includes a pronoun that refers to the first name, and this occurs in six positions: The predicate of a subject, خبر المبتدأ the predicate of [ إنّ category] (and the predicate of kāna كان, the second object المفعول الثاني al-maffūul al-thān̄̄ of the verb [ ظinanantu category], the adjective of the absolute and the circumstantial qualifier (hāl). This will be clarified later.

## Sub Chapter One. On Inflection (فصل في الإعراب)

Inflection means that the ending of a word differs according to the agents attaching to it, either literally or implicitly, such as $j \bar{a}$ 'an $\bar{\imath}$ Zaydun, rā'aytu Zadan, marartu bi Zaydin

However, inflection markers do not show in words ending with alif maqṣūra, such as, al-'aṣā wa al-raḥāa العصا، و الرحى and words ending with $y \bar{a}$ showing kasra and preceded by a still letter (sākin) in both nominative and genitive cases. Yet, it shows inflection marker in the accusative case. The following are examples of the three cases: جاءني القاضيْ، و مررت بالقاضيْ، رأيت القاضيَ، jā’anı̄ al-qāḍ̂̀, marartu bi al-qād̄̄̄ wa rā'aytu al-qād̄̄ and Almighty Allāh says ajībū dā‘ $\bar{\imath}$ Allāh (O our people! Hearken to the one who invites you to Allāh.) Inflection markers are also absent in case a word ends $y \bar{a}$ ' or $w \bar{a} w$ preceded by a still letter, such as dalwin wa zabyin كدلو، و ظبي. In such case, these endings are like strong letters [showing inflection markers].

Inflection originally applies through vowel markers, and it might apply through letters (which occurs in three cases; in weak-ending nouns in the genitive case (which modify other than the first person $y \bar{a}$ '), namely $a b \bar{u} h u$, hanūhu, f $\bar{u} h u$, $a k h \bar{u} h u$, hamūh $\bar{a}$ wa dhu
mālin وهنوه، و فوه، و أخوه، و حموها، و ذو مالٍ. أبوه، In these cases, we say jā 'anı̄ abūhu, ra'aytu abāhu wa marartu bi abīhi، جاءني أبوه، و رأيت أباه، و مررت بأبيه. This applies to the rest of the nouns, as the $w \bar{a} w$ (و) indicates the nominative case; the alif indicates the accusative, while the $y \bar{a}$ ' and $n \bar{u} n$ or $y \bar{a} \bar{a}^{\prime}$ and $n \bar{u} n$ (and the plural by $w \bar{a} w$ and $n \bar{u} n$ or $y \bar{a}$ ' and $n \bar{u} n$ ), such as $j \bar{a}$ 'an $\bar{l}$ muslimān, muslimūn, rā'aytu muslimayn, muslimin, marartu bi muslimayn, wa bi musliminn, جاءني مسلمان، ومسلمون، ورأيت مسلِمَيَن، ومسلمين، ومررت بمسلِمَنِن، و بمسلمِين . Moreover, in the genitive construct it is annexed to an implicit pronoun, and in such case it is treated like the dual, such as $j \bar{a}$ 'an $\bar{\imath}$ kilāhumā, rā'aytu kilayhima wa marartu bi kilayhima . جاءني كلاهما، رأيت كليهما، و مررت بكليهما، However, if it is annexed to a prominent noun, it is
pronounced just like العصا, that is to say jā 'anī kilā al-rajulayni, rā'aytu kilā al-rajulayni جاءني كلا الرجلين، و رأيت كلا الرجلين، ومررت بكلاَ الرجلين، wa marartu bi kilā al-ragulayni Furthermore, the genitive and the accusative cases are equally treated in five positions, namely the dual, the sound plural (as is mentioned above), the sound feminine plural (with alif and $t \bar{a}$, such as $j \bar{a}$ 'atn $\bar{\imath}$ muslimātin, rā'aytu muslimatin wa marartu bi muslimātin جاءتتي مسلمات، و رأيت مسلمات، ومررت بمسلمات،, the indeclinable (and jā’an̄̄ جاءني أحمد و رأيت أحمد، ومررت بأحمد، Aḥmadu, marartu Aḥmada wa marartu bi Aḥmada (and finally the enclitic pronouns, such as in the case of akramtuka, marartu bika, innahu wa lahu أكرمتكّ، مررت بكَ، أنّه، and cases in which the letter stands for the vowel (haraka), this occurs with the $n \bar{u} n$ in the following examples: yaf'alāni, taf'alāni, yaf 'alūna, taf'alūna wa taf'alīna يفعلان، تفعلان، .يفعلون، تفعلون، تفعلين. This is because it is the maker of the nominative case. However, it is dropped in the accusative and jussive cases, such as lam yaf'alā lan taf'alā, lam yaf 'alū, lan taf'alū, lam taf'alı̄ wa lan taf'alı̄ $ل$ لم يفعلا، لن تفعلا،لم يفعلوا، لن تفعلوا،لم تفعلي، ولن تفعلي This also includes the madd (prolonged) and līn (soft) letters حروف الدد واللين harūf al-madd wa al-linn, the weak-ending verb, as in such cases, it is pronounced as a still letter in the nominative case, like yaghzū, yarmī, yakhshā يغزو and ، يخشى while it is dropped in the jussive, just as the vowel (haraka) is dropped, like lam yaghzu, lam yarmi, lam yakhsha ,لم يغزُ، لم يرم , and lam yakhsha لم يخشَ. However, in the accusative case, the penultimate letters, wāw and $y \bar{a}^{\prime}$ (ولن and لن يغزو، are vowelled, like lan yaghzuwa, lan yarmiya . As for the alif, it is pronounced as a till letter in the accusative case, just as is done in the nominative, such as lan yakhshāa لن يخشى , since it is impossible to vowel it then.

## Sub Chapter Two. On $\operatorname{Asm} \bar{a}$ ' (sing. ism; (i.e. noun)

فصل في الأسماء
Asma' [substantives] are of two types; mu‘rab and mabn̄ معرب ومبني declinable and indeclinable. The declinable معرب noun is that whose endings differ according to the different governing agents ('awāmil, sing. 'āmil) that attach to it, as is mentioned above, while the indeclinable مبني is that in which haraka and sukūn are not governed by an agent. Then, the declinable $a s m \bar{a}$ ' are further classified into two types: منصرف وغير منصرف munṣarif (triptote) and ghayr munṣarif (diptote). So, the triptote is that to which jarr (genitive) and tanwīn (nunation) are introduced, while the diptote غبر المنصرف is that to which jarr and tanwin are not introduced, and which ends with fatha when in the genitive case. The causes that make a noun diptote [unnunated] are nine: When the noun is definite feminine التعريف التأنبث, having the pattern of the verb (fi'l) وزن الفعل (proper noun), وصف wasfiyya (adjectival), 'adl عدل (diversion from the principal pattern), الجمع الأقصى , (non-Arabic proper names), the pattern of the ultimate plurals, عجمة ujma' (words) ending with the alif and $n \bar{u} n$ (ان) that resemble the femininity (signs) alif mamdūda الف ممدوده (elongated) and alif maqṣūra الف مقصورى (shortened). Moreover, when two of these causes are introduced in one noun or when one cause is repeated, the noun becomes diptote (it does not accept case endings). Such nouns are fifteen, five of which are indefinite (as an adjective) - such as aḥmar أحمر -, fa lān فعلان - the feminine form of which is fa'la $\bar{a}$ - such as sakrān and sakr $\bar{a}$, the diverted to pattern - such as ثلاثة ثلاثة، أربعة أربعة، thalāth, rubā‘ (being diverted fromātha thalātha and $\operatorname{arba}$ ' $a \operatorname{arba}{ }^{\prime} a$ ) - , the nouns ending with the femininity sign alif mamd $\bar{u} d a$ or maqșūra -
 اساورَ و أناعمَ $a=a \overline{a s w i r a ~ a n d ~ a n a ̄ ~ i m a ~ a n d ~ t h e ~ l i k e ~ o f ~ u l t i m a t e ~ p l u r a l s, ~ o f ~ n o u n s ~ i n ~ w h i c h ~ t h e ~}$ كساجنَ
masājid and maṣābīḥ. However, if the middle letter is vowelled, the noun turns triptote, صياقلة such as ṣayāqila. Besides, if the second of the two letters following alif is $y \bar{a}^{\prime},\left(\right.$ (باء) this $y \bar{a}^{\prime}$ is dropped in the nominative and genitive cases, with the noun then accepting nunation, and is preserved in the accusative case without nunating the noun, such as marartu bi-jawārin, ra'aytu jawār̄̄ مررتُ بجوار، رأيت جواري and jā'atnū jawārin, .مررت بجوار, This being known, we now move to six other nouns which occur in the case of definiteness, namely the proper name which is nonArabic, such as Ibrāhīm and Ismā`īl. For, if you call someone Lijām or Firand, these names should receive nunation (become triptote), because indefinite 'ujma عجمة (nonArabism) is ineffective in making a name diptote.

Other [five] nouns include the noun ending with extraneous alif and nūn, such as Uthmān and Sufyān; the noun having the pattern of the verb, such as Aḥmad, Yazīd and Yashkur; the noun having a pattern diverted to from another pattern, such as 'Umar and Zufar (being diverted from 'Āmer and Zāfer, which are definite); the noun having a feminine form, such as Țalha and Salama, or the carrying a feminine meaning, such as Su'ād and Zaynab; and the noun made out of two nouns [compound], such as Ma'd Yakrib and $\mathrm{Ba}^{\prime}$ labakk. This also applies to every noun that is diptote when definite, as it is made triptote in the indefinite case, with the exception of Ahmar when it is used as a proper noun, and nouns ending with either femininity alif mamdūda or maqṣūra, fa'lānwhich feminine form is $f a$ 'l $\bar{a}-$-, the ultimate plural, and the thulāth $\bar{\imath}$ الثناثلألral] noun with a sākin middle letter - as it could either be diptote or triptote - such as Hind Da،d دعد , نوح , لوح , and Lūṭ . Moreover, the noun that has a third cause, such as Māh and Jawr, ماه وجور when used as names of countries, never receives nunation. Likewise,
the thulāthī noun with a vowelled middle letter, الثلاثي المتحرك الأوسط such as Saqar, as it receives the rules of the $r u b \bar{a} ‘ \bar{\imath} \bar{\imath}$ الرباعي [quadrilateral] noun, such as Su‘ād and Zaynab. However, there are two opinions on nouns like Ḥazām; either to make it declinable, yet diptote on the grounds that it is diverted to from Hazām, or to make it indeclinable with a maksūr (fixed with a kasra) ending. As an example of the latter opinion is the following line of verse:

## Idhā qālat Ḥazāmi fa ṣaddiqūhā fa inna al-qawla mā qālat Ḥazāmi

إذا قالت حذام فصدَقو ها القا القول ما قالت حذام

The same is said about $a f$ " ' $\bar{l} l$ that indicates the feminine vocative, such as يا لكاع، يا خباث و يا
فساق $y \bar{a}$ ' lukā'i yā kubāthi and $y \bar{a}$ fusāqi and also about fi'al which indicates the imperative, such as نزال و تراك nizāli, tirāki, meaning inzil and utruk. This also applies to all indeclinable nouns when it is annexed in a genitive construction or when the alif and lām (al) are prefixed to it, as then it becomes majrūr with kasra, such as marartu bi alAḥmari wa al-ḩamra'i, مررت بالأحمر والحمراء and "bi-‘Umarikum wa bi-'Uthmānina" . بعمركم و بعثماننا

The indeclinabl mabnī المبني nouns are of two types: Essential and nonessential lāzim wa ‘āriḍ لازم وعارض. The essential is that which implies the meaning of the particle, such as ayna, mat $\bar{a}$, and kayfa أين، متى و كيف or what is similar to it (the particle), such as al-ladh $\bar{\imath}$
 that which is annexed to first person $y \bar{a}$, , such as $g h u l \bar{a} m \bar{l}$, the definite singular vocative, such as ياء زيد $y \bar{a}$ ' Zayd, the indefinite singular noun with $l \bar{a}(ل)$ which indicates categorical negation, such as lā rajula fì al-dāri, لا رجل في الدار the compound noun, such as khamsata 'ashara خمسة عشر (i.e. 15), the (genitive) construction in which the second part (the added to) is omitted, namely qablu, ba'du, fawqu and taḥtu قبل، بعدُ، فوق، تحت as
well as the nouns that indicate the rest of directions. Thus, it is said: ji'tuka min qabli zaydin جبئتك من قبل زيدٍ. Then, the construct state and the nunation is abandoned, as we say: غايات على معنى , min qablu and min ba ‘du. These are called the extreme limits من قبلُ ومن بعُُ in the sense that the extreme limit of the كضاف mudāaf (first part of the genitive construction) is the مضاف إليه muḍāf ilayh (second part). Yet, when they are detached from it, they themselves become limits by which speech ends. Besides, the essential of indeclinable verbs is the imperfective and the imperatives without the lām. As for the nonessential, it is the imperfective when the $n \bar{u} n$ (pronoun) of feminine plural or $n \bar{u} n$ of emphasis, such as yaf'alna and hal yāf'alanna. The particles يفعن و هل يفعلنَ however are none but essentially indeclinable, since it has no share in inflection. So, one should know that some of these words govern other words and are also governed [affect] by other words, such as all declinable nouns al-asm $\bar{a}$ ' al-mutamakinna الأسماء المتمكيّة and the imperfective verbs, while others govern other words but are not governed by them, such as governing particles, the perfective verb, the imperative verb with no (لام) lām, nouns implying the meaning of in إنْ , أي ayy not A third group neither governs others (nor are governed by others), such as (words) other than the governing particles, implied (words) and the like. According to them, the 'amil (governing agent) for them is that which necessitates a certain inflectional form of a word ending.

Besides, the 'āmil is of two types: lafzī̀, ma'naw̄̄ $\quad$ لفظي و معنوي verbal and synonymous. The verbal is further classified into qiyāsī, $\operatorname{sima} \bar{a} \hat{\imath}$ قياسي و سماعي standard and nonstandard. So, the standard is that which could be described as, kukun mā kāna kadhā fa innahu ya 'malu kadha, كلُّ ما كان كذا فإنّه يعمل كذا"all that is so and so does so and so" such as غلام زيدٍ ghulāmu Zaydin. Thus, with the effect of the first word on the second and the cause
for such effect being explained, other examples can be compared to it, such as dāru 'Amrin ثوبُ بكر and thawbu Bakrin. The nonstandard, on the other hand, is that which could be described as, هذا يعمل كذا و هذا يعمل كذا "This does so and so and that does so and so", and it cannot be overlooked, such as the claim that the $b \bar{a}$ is to be majru $\bar{r}$ (genitive), has not been majzūm (jussive) and shall not be manṣūb (subjunctive). As for the synonymous, it will be mentioned in its due position (Allāh willing).

## Section Two: On standard verbal governing agents ('Awāmil)

## العوامل اللفظية القياسية

The standard governing agents are given precedence due to their regularity and because the verb - being the original governing form - is derived from them. They are seven in total, namely the verb in general, الفعل الهطلق al-fi'l al-mutlaq the active participle, ism alfāil اسم الفاعل the passive participle, ism al-maf'ūl الفعول the active-participle-like adjective, al-ṣifa al-mushabbaha الصفة المشَبَهة the verbal noun (maṣdar), المصدر the first participle of the construction, ism al-mudāf and the perfect participle ism al$t \bar{a} m$ اسم التام. As for the verb, it causes raf" (nominative) and naṣb (accusative;) modes in the nouns. It causes raf* in general, since each verb causes raf* for one noun when annexed to it (preceding it), such as فعل زيدٌ fa'ala Zaydun. However, in case it is not explicit, it comes implicit; and it is either prominent - like [the pronominal suffix] $t \bar{a}$ ' in fa' $a l t u$ - or hidden, like the intended noun in $a f^{\prime}$ ' $a l$.

Moreover, the verb is classified into two categories; transitive, muta 'ad̄̄ متعدي which makes the object in the accusative, and intransitive, lāzim لززم which is restricted to the subject-doer, such as ذهبتُ، قمتُ، قعدتُ dhahabtu, qumtu, and qa'adtu. Regarding the transitive verb, it is of three types, one that takes only one object, such as darabtu zaydan
,كضربتُ زيداً, another that takes two objects - the second of which is other than the first, such as a‘taytu Zaydan dirhaman أعطيتُ زيداً در هما, or is the very first object, such as hasibtu Zaydan 'äliman حسبتُ زيدأ عالما -, and a third that takes three objects, such as a'lamtu Zaydan Amran fāḍilan أعلمت زيدأ عمروأ فاضلا. In addition, the object may substitute the subject-doer if the verb is "built for" (i.e. directed to it, and thus it is made marfū‘ through its being annexed to it), such as ḍuriba Zaydun ضُربَ زيدٌ and 'u'ṭiya Zaydun dirhaman أعطي زيدٌ درهما. However, it could be annexed to the second, except when it comes under the section of حسبتُ hasibtu. Furthermore, the accusative (noun) of the verb is of two types: خاص و عام specific and general; the specific is further classified into three categories; the object (since it is assigned for the transitive verb, as is mentioned before), the tamyyiz (accusative of specification, since it is assigned for what is vague), such as tāba Zaydun nafsan طاب زيد نفساً and taṣabbab al-farasu 'araqan تصبّب ". A third example is the Qur'ānic verse, "wa-shta 'ala al-ra'su shayban الفرس عرقأ .الرأسُ شيبأ. The third category is the accusative predicate, since it comes only with restricted verbs, as will be explained later.

On the other hand, the general (accusative) is of five types; the verbal noun, المصدر the maf'ūl fihīı المفعول فيه (adverbial qualification of time and place), the maf'úul lahu الففعول لـ (object of reason; adverbial qualification of purpose), the maf'ul ma'ahu الففعول معd (object of accompaniment), and the حال hāl (circumstantial accusative). Concerning the first type, this is each verb that makes its verbal noun manṣūb (accusative), be it restricted or vague, or definite or indefinite, such as darabtu darban or ḍarbatan or al-darb al-ladhi ta 'lam ضربُ ضربأ و ضربة or الضرب الذي تعلم and what conveys the meaning of the verbal noun, too, such as ḍarabtuhu sawtan ضربته سوطا.

The second type is the مفعول فيه maf' $\bar{u} l$ fihi $\bar{l}$, which consists of the adverbs of time and of place. So, the adverb of time assumes the adverbial accusative mood, be it vague or restricted (vague, like وقت haqn hand, and restricted like حين يوم، ليل، شهر و حول yawm, layl, shahr and hawl). Examples of these adverbs are like سرت حينأ و يومأ sirtu ḥinan or yawman, and خرجت يوم الجمعة kharajtu yawm al-Јити 'a. Adverbs of place, however, are only vague, such as the six directions, عند و سْط الدار 'inda, wasat al-dāri, while the صليت أمام المسجد، خلفه و فوقه، restricted should be accompanied by the utterance [fi], such as sallaytu amām al-Masjidi, khalfahu, fawqahu, taḥtahu, yamnahu, shimalahu, 'indahu and wastahu. Thus, it should not be said: صليت المسجَد ṣallaytu al-Masjida (and not وسَط المسجد wasat al-masjidi (with a vowelled letter). Rather, it should be said: صليت المسجد في وسطِه ṣallaytu fī al-Masjidi or $f \grave{\imath}$ wasatihī (vowelled). As for دخلت الدار dakhaltu al-dāra, it is accepted out of licentious expansion.

Turning to the third type, it is the مفعول لـ maf'ull lahu (adverbial qualification of purpose), and it is the cause of undertaking the action, such as ḍarabtuhu ta'dīban ضربتّ
 معه maf'ul ma'ahu (object of accompaniment), such as استوى الماءُ و الخشبة istawā al-mā'u wa al-khashabata. It is also mentioned after the $w \bar{a} w$ meaning "with".

The fifth of the general accusative nouns is the حال hāll (circumstantial accusative), which illustrates the state of the doer (of action). Another type is the مفول به maf' ' $\bar{u} l$ bihī (object), and it comes as an answer to the "how" question, just as the مفعول له maf'ul lahu is an answer to the "why" question, such as jā’an̄̄ Zaydun rākiban جاءني زيدٌ راكبأ, ra'aytuhu jālisan رأيته جالسأ. It should also be indefinite, just as the hāal should be definite. So, if one seeks to make the hā $\bar{l}$ out of the indefinite, then it should precede such
indefinite (noun), like jā'anı̄ rākiban rajulun جاءني راكبَ رجل. Similar to that is the poet's saying,
li-‘Azzata mūhishan talalun qadīmun
'afāhu kullu asḥamin mus tadīmin


As for the active participle اسم الفاعل ism al-fā 'il, it is every noun that is derived from a verb to indicate a subject-doer (one who carries on the action) and it parallels the verb from which it is derived (as regards its vowelling and non-vowelling). Besides, it assumes the status of its object in case it is intended to refer to the present or to the future, such as Zaydun ḍāribun ghulāmuhu 'Amran زيد ضاربٌ غلامُه عمروأ. So, it can either be nominative or accusative, just as يضرب yadrib is so, and Zaydun qā̀imun ghulāmuhu زيد يقومُ

As for the اسم المفعولism al-maf' $\bar{u} l$, passive participle, it is every noun that is derived for the object who receives the action, and it acts like the verb yuf'alu بُقْ , such as Zaydun mukrimun aṣhāabahu زيدٌ مكرمٌ أصحابَهُ زيدٌ يُكرُمُ just as it is said zaydun yukrimu aṣhābahu "أِذلك يومٌ مجموعٌ له "Thus, the Qur'ān reads, "dhālika yawmun majmū ‘un lahu al-nāsu (that is a day for which mankind will be gathered together), meaning yawmun yujma'u lahu al-nāsu.

On the other hand, the active-participle-like adjective الصفة المشبّهة is that which does not carry the pattern $y a f$ ' 'alu derived from its verb, such as karīm and hasan. It is compared to the active participle in the sense that it can be made plural or singular, male or female,
and also in the sense that it works like its verb, such as Zaydun karīmun $\bar{a} b \bar{a} ’ u h u$, زيد كريٌ آباؤْ sharīfun ḥasabuhu, شريفٌ حسبُه and ḥasanun wajhuhu, حسنٌ وجهُه .

The verbal noun (المصدر) maṣdar is the noun from which the verb is derived or the infinitive form of the verb, and it works like the verb if it is nunated, such as 'ajibtu min ḍarbi Zaydin 'Amran عجبتُ من ضرب زيدٍ عمروأ, just as it is said, 'ajibtu min an yadriba Zaydun 'Amran عجبت من أن يضرب زيدٌ عمرواً. It could also be annexed to the subject-doer, while the object is left in the accusative (manṣu$b$ ), such as 'ajibtu min daqqi al-qaṣ̣āri al-thawba عجبت من دقٌ القصّار الثوبَ, and it could be annexed to the object with the subjectdoer being left in the nominative (marfū'), like 'ajibtu min ḍarbi al-liṣ̣ al-jallādu عجبت . من ضربِ اللصنِّ الجلادُ

Moreover, one of them could be dropped as in Almighty Allāh's saying, "aw it ‘āmun fî
 day of privation) and "wa hum min ba'di ghalabihim sayaghlibūn" وهو من بعد غلبهק (after this defeat of theirs, will soon be victorious) (according to the variation in the two ways of recitation).

The mudāaf اسم المضاف (first part of the genitive construction) is every noun to which another noun is annexed, as the first noun then makes the second assume the genitive case, with the first being called muḍāf and the majrūr muḍāf ilayh. Besides, the iḍāfa (genitive construction) is of two types: معنوية semantic, that is denoting a meaning regarding the $m u d \bar{a} f$, defining or specifying it, and it mostly conveys the meaning of the (
 which is annexing the active participle to its subject-doer and the active-participle-like
adjective to its subject-doer, such as hādhā dāribu zaydin هذا ضـاربُ زيدٍ and Zaydun ḥasanu al-wajhi زيد حسنُ الوجهِ. Besides, the iḍāfa (genitive construction) alternates with nunation and the $n \bar{u} n$ of the dual and of the plural, while - in semantic $i d \bar{a} f a$ - the mud $\bar{a} f$ should not carry the definite article. However, in the verbal iḍāfa, it is said: al-hasanu alwajhi الحسنُ الوجده, al-ḍāribā Zaydin, الضاربا زيدٍ and al-ḍāribu Zaydin الضاربوا زيدٍ. Still, it is acceptable to say: al-ḍāribu al-rajuli الضاربُ الرجل, but not al-dāribu Zaydin الضاربُ زيدٍ.

The perfect participle: الاسم التام it is the noun which makes the tamy $\bar{z}$ in the accusative, because it is perfected and thus it becomes in no need for $i d \underline{a} f a$, and it requires tamy $\bar{z}$ (specification) due to its vagueness. Hence, its perfection is fulfilled through four things:
 of the dual, such as 'indī manawani samnan and qafîzan burran, و قفيزان برأ عندي منوان سمنا the $n \bar{u} n$ of the plural, like 'ishrūna dirhaman عشرون در هما, and the iḍāfa, like lı̄ mil'uhu 'asalan لي مثله رجلا and lı̄ mithluhu rajulan ليؤه عسلا. As for the first three, they are called quantity measures, namely area, weight, measure and number, while the final is called a gauge. In addition, التمييز tamyīz is that which lifts vagueness from the single word, such as hādhā rajulan, هذا رجلا or from the sentence, such as tāba zaydun nafsan and taṣabbaba al-farasu 'araqan, تصبّب الفرس عرقاً which has already been mentioned above. Indeed, Allāh best knows the right.

## Section Three: On non-standard verbal governing agents

## العوامل للفظية السماعية

Non-standard verbal governing agents are of three types; particles, verbs and nouns, amounting in total to ninety one agents, as was stated by the meticulous imām in al-Mi'a. Then, particles are further subdivided into two types; those affecting the noun and others
affecting the verb. Again, the particles exerting influence on the nouns are of two categories; one affecting the single (noun), and the other affecting the sentence. Besides, the particles affecting the single (noun) are of two types; $j \bar{a} r$ and nāsib. So, the $j \bar{a} r$ particles الحروف الجارة are seventeen. They run as follows:

Min: (من) It means the beginning of spatial destination [from], such as خرجت من البصرة kharajtu min al-Baṣra, apportionment [some of], such as أخذت من المال akhadhtu min almāli, illustration, such as lı̀'ashratun min al-darāhim, or addition, such as ما جاءني من أحد mā jā 'anı̄ min aḥadin.

Il $\bar{a}:$ : (إلى) It denotes end of spatial destination, such as سرتُ من البصرة الى الكوفة sirtu min alBaṣrati ilā al-Kūfa.

Ḥatta: (حتى) It carries the same meaning of 'ilā, yet the word which it introduces into the genitive is either something with which the thing preceding it is ended, such as أكلت السمكة akaltu al-samakata ḥattā ra’sihā (I ate the fish until (to) the head), or something at which the thing preceding it is ended, such as نمت البارحة حتى الصباح nimtu al-bāriḥata $h \not a t t \bar{a} a l-s a b a \bar{h} i($ I slept yesterday until the morning). Thus, the head is the end part of the fish (with which it is ended), while the morning is the end limit of the night (at which it is ended). So, if it is said: " ... until its half or third", it will not be acceptable since this does not mean reaching the end. Besides, what follows it should be incorporated into what precedes it, knowing that 'ilā attaches to the explicit as well as the implicit, while hatta is introduced only to the explicit.

Fī: (في) It refers to the adverbial sense, such as المال في الكيس al-mālu fì al-kīs and نظرت في nazartu fì al-kitābi.
$\boldsymbol{B} \overline{\boldsymbol{a}}$ ’: (باء) It indicates attachment, such as به داء bihi dā'un. However, it is used in the following sentence مررتُ بزيدٍ marartu bi-Zaydin out of licentious expansion. This also includes و أقسمت باله aqsamtu bi-Allāhi. However, the $w \bar{a} w$ substitutes it in sentences like (الهُ لأفعلن" wa-Allāhi la'af 'alanna, while the tā' substitutes the wāw. Besides, due to its essentiality, the $b \bar{a}^{\prime}$ is introduced to the explicit and the implicit, while the $w \bar{a} w$ is introduced only to the explicit simple noun (knowing that the $t \bar{a}$ ' is introduced only to the explicit) noun al-Wāhid (the Name of Almighty Allāh), such as tallāhi. It also indicates transitiveness, such as ذهبت به dhahabtu bihi, making use of, such as كتبت بالقلم katabtu bi al-qalami, and accompaniment, such as دخلت عليه بثياب السفر dakhaltu 'alayhi bi thiyābi alsafari.

Lām: (لام) It indicates possession and specialty, such as المال لزيدٍ al-mālu li Zaydin, الجل al-julu li al-farasi, huwa ibnun lahu and akhun lahu.

Rubba: (رب) It indicates decrease and is limited to the indefinite, be it explicit or implicit, such as ربّ رجلِ لقيته rubba rajulin laqituhu and ربّه رجلا rubbahu rajulan. ‘Alā: (على) It denotes heightening, such as زيد على السطح Zaydun 'alā al-satḥi and عليه دين 'alayhi daynun.
'An: (عن) It indicates remoteness and outdistance, such as رميت عن القوس ramaytu 'ani alqawsi.

Kāf: (كاف) It is employed to indicate likening, such as كزيد في الدار Zaydin fì al-dāri.
Mudh and mundhu: مذ و منذ They indicate the beginning of temporal destination in the past, such as ما رأيته منذ يوم الجمعة mā ra'aytuhu mundhu yawmi al-Jumu'a and مذ يوم الجمعة mиdh yawmi-al-Jити 'a. Besides, what follows them is received raf' (nominative) in case they both be nouns, whether they refer to the beginning of the duration or the whole duration, such as ما رأيته منذ يوم الجمعة mā ra'aytuhu mundhu yawmi al-jumu'a and mudh
yawmi al-Jumu'a, and مذ يومان mudh yawmāni (and it could be مذ يومين mudh yawmayni).

Ḥāshā: (حاشا) It denotes exaltation, such as أساء القومُ حاشا زيد 'asa' al-qawmu hāashā Zaydin.

Khal $\overline{\boldsymbol{a}}$ and 'ad $\overline{\boldsymbol{a}}$ خلا وعدا They both mean "except", and they introduce what follows them into the accusative in case they be verbs. However, if they assume the form mā khal $\bar{a}$ and $m \bar{a}$ ' $a d \bar{a}$, they introduce whatever follows them into the accusative.

On the other hand, the particles that introduce the single (noun following them), they are seven, as was stated in $a l-M i^{\prime} a$ :

Wāw (و) that carries the meaning of "with", such as إستوى الماء والخشبة istawā al-mā'u wa al-khashabata, and it introduces these into the accusative only when it is preceded by a verb, like istaw $\bar{a}$, or a word carrying the meaning of the verb, like ما شأنك وزيداً m $\bar{a}$ sha'nuka wa Zaydan (implying the meaning of the verb, that is ما تصنع و ما تلابس mā taṣna 'u wa mā tulābisu).

Moreover, the vocative particles حروف النذاء are five: باء، أيا، هيّا، أي والهمزة ) yā’, 'ayā, $h a y y \bar{a}$, 'ayy and the hamza. These particles introduce the vocative (munāda) into the accusative in case it is muḍāf, such as ياء عبد لش yă' 'Abd Allāh, or is parallel to it, such as ياء خيرأ من زيدٍ yā' khayran min Zaydin (knowing that this refers to every noun to which something is attached, complementing its meaning, like the attachment of Zayd to khayran), or indefinite, such as the blind man's saying to another man, ياء رجلا خذ بيدى $y$ a rajulan khudh bi-yad $\vec{\imath}$. As for the definite simple vocative, it carries dammah (sign of the nominative), yet it is in the position of the accusative. Therefore, it is acceptable to attribute two forms of inflection to the definite simple adjective, raf' and nasb, such as (ياء زيد الظريف) yā' Zaydu al-zarīfu and Zaydu al-zarīfa. This also
applies to what includes the alif and lām (al) of coupled words (with conjunctions), such as يا زيد و الحارثُ و يا زيدُ و الحارثَyā' Zaydu wa al-ḥārithu and yaa Zaydu wa al-Ḥāritha. (However, its annexed adjective is introduced in the accusative only), (such as يازيد صاحب عمرو $y \bar{a}$ ' Zaydu ṣāḥiba 'Amrin) and يا أيّها الرجل (yā' ayyuhā al-rajulu), like يا زيد الظريف yā Zaydu al-zarifu. Besides, (أيّ) ayy applies to the definite single vocative, al-rajulu is an adjective of it, and the $h \bar{a}$ is an interjection for inviting attention). However, it can only be introduced in the nominative (raf*), while the $y \bar{a}$ is never introduced to a noun that does not include alif and lām, with the exception of Almighty Allāh's Name only. Moreover, if the vocative with damma is described with ibn which falls between two proper nouns, then the vocative and the $i b n$ should be indeclinable with fatha, such as ياء زan' Zayda ibna 'Amrin. However, if it does not fall between two proper nouns, it then becomes like all other annexed nouns, such as يا زيد أبن أخينا yā 'Zaydu ibn $a k h \bar{n} n \bar{a}$. In addition, the genitive (j $\bar{a} r r)$ lām with fatha attaches to the vocative implying appeal for aid, such as يا له للمسلمين yā lallāhi li al-muslimīn, or exclamation, such as يا للماء $y \bar{a} l a$ al-mā'i an يا للاو اهي yā'la al-dawāh $\bar{c}$. Here, it carries fatha in order to distinguish between the one called and the thing called to. Besides, saying يا للبييتة yā la al-bahītati with kasra, involves abandoning the addressee, while the vocative becomes apocopate in case it is a simple proper noun of more than three letters, such as يا حار، يا سعي، يا مرو y $\bar{a}$ ḥārin, yā sa 'iyin, yā marwin, and يا منصن yā munṣin (referring to حارث، سعيد ومروان Hārith, Sa $\bar{i} d$, Marawān and Manṣu$r)$. An exception to this, however, is what ends with the feminine $t \bar{a}$, since it is not a condition that it consist of more than three letters and be a proper noun, such as يا ثبّ أقبل أو أقبلي yā Thubba aqbil or aqbil̄̄ (depending on the difference between the two meanings).

The seventh particle is "illä" (إلا) indicating exception, that is excluding something from a ruling that encompasses other than it. Here, the mustathn $\bar{a}$ مستخنى (excepted noun) has to be in the accusative in case the sentence is affirmative and complete, i.e. neither negative, negative command, nor interrogative. Likewise, if the mustathna $\bar{a}$ precedes the مستختى منه from it, such as جاءني القومُ إلا زيدأ،ما جاءني إلا زيداً أحدٌ jā’an̄̄ al-qawmu illā Zaydan, mā jā'anı̄ illā Zaydan 'aḥadun and جاءني أحد إلا حمارا jā'an̄̀ aḥadun illā ḥimaran. However, in nonpositive complete sentences, it may take the naṣb or it may be considered a permutative (of the mustathna $\operatorname{minh} u$ ), which is the eloquent form. Moreover, in case of ما جاءني أحد إلا زيدٌ أو إلا زيدأ:1ncomplete sentences, (the use of) illā is nonsensical. It is said mā jā 'anı̄ aḥadun illā Zaydun or illā Zaydan, ما جاءني إلا زيدٌ، ما رأيت إلا زيدأ، ما مررت إلا بزيدٍ $m \bar{a} j a \bar{a}$ 'añ illā Zaydun, mā ra'aytu illā Zaydan and mā marartu illā bi Zaydin. In addition, the rule applying to the noun following illā also applies to ghayr. Hence, it is said: جاءني (القوم غير زيدٍ، ما جاءني غير زيد أحدٌ jā’ani al-qawmu ghayra Zaydin (mā jā’anı̄ ghayru zaydin aḥadun and (ما جاءني أحد غبرَ حمار، ما جاءني أحد غيرُ زيدٍ mā jā'an̄̄̄ aḥadun ghayra ḥimārin), $m \bar{a} j \bar{a} ’ n \bar{l}$ ahadun ghayru Zaydin or ghayra zaydin (with raf' or naṣb), (ما جاءني غير زيٍٍ، ما (رأيتُ غيرَ زيدٍ (mā jā 'anı̄ ghayru Zaydin), mā ra'aytu ghayra Zaydin, and (ما مررثُ بغيرَ زيدٍ) (م) mā marartu bi ghayri zaydin. The same also applies to siwa.

On the other hand, the particles introduced into the sentence are eight, six of which have their accusative noun before the nominative one, while the other two have it vice versa. The first six nouns are called verb-like particles, namely inna and anna,أنّ and denoting corroboration), ka'anna, كأنّ denoting similarity), lākinna لكن"; it is used to correct or adapt a previous statement), layta ; sed to express an impossible wish),
la 'alla; لعلّ is used either for hope or expectation. Examples are as follows: إنّ زيدأ منطلق"، (بلغني أنّ زيداً منطلق"، كأنّ زيدأ الأسد، ما جاءني زيد لكنّ عمرو حاضرُ balaghan̄̄ anna Zaydan muntaliqun, ka'anna Zaydan al-Asadu, mā jā’an̄̄ Zaydun lakinna 'Amran hāḍirun,
ألا ليت الشبابَ يعود يوماً فأخبره بما فعل المشيب
alā layta al-shabāba ya' ūdu yawman
fa ukhbiruhu bimā fa'al al-mashību,
أنّ la لعلّ زيدأ قائم andalla Zaydan qā’imn. Besides, the difference between إنّ and anna anna is that inna (with a kasra on the hamza; "إنّ along with its subject and predicate constitutes a complete meaningful sentence, while anna (with a fatḥa on the hamza; أنّ does not become meaningful unless it is preceded by a verb, such as balaghani (or by a noun, such as حق أنَّ زيداً هنطلقُ haqqun anna Zaydan muntaliqun, and it comes with a fatha [on the hamza] following law لولا لو lawlā, and following 'alimtu and its analogous verbs. However, if the لام la
 la-rasūluhu" (Allāh indeed knows that you are His Messenger). On the other hand, the obstructive $m \bar{a}$ (al-kāffa) is introduced to them all and thus it inhibits their influence (prevents them from playing their role), such as Almighty Allāh's saying, "innamā Allāhu ilāhun wāḥidun (For Allāh is One God)".

Moreover, both the two particles whose marfu' noun precedes their manṣūb noun,
 muntaliqan and لا رجل أفضل دنك lā rajulun afḍala minka. Here, mā is introduced into both the definite and the indefinite, while $l \bar{a}$ is introduced into the indefinite only.

Furthermore, if the negation is reversed through illā or if the predicate precedes the subject, its influence then turns ineffective, such as ما زيد إل منططق mā Zaydun illā muntaliqun and ما منطلقٌ إلا زيد (mā muntaliqun illā Zaydun). However, there is another form of influence for $l \bar{a}$, namely making the first noun marf $\bar{u} ‘$ and the second mans $\bar{u} b$, and this occurs when the noun is annexed to the indefinite or is parallel to it, such as $\gamma$ جالس, $l$ عندنا " لا خيرا من زيدٍ lā ghulamu rajulin kā’inin 'indanā (and khayran min Zaydin jālisin 'indanā). As for the simple indefinite (noun) accompanying it, it is made mabnī (indeclinable) with fatha (at its end letter), such as, لا رجل في الدار lā rajula fi$a l-d \bar{a} r)$. This is called absolute negation. Besides, when $l \bar{a}$ is repeated with the simple indefinite, then the latter could either be marf $\bar{u}$ ‘ or manṣu$u \bar{u}$, such as إلا باله $l a \bar{a}$ hawla wa lā quwwata illā billāhi. As for the simple definite (noun) that follows it, it is only marfū‘(nominative) and, in this case, it is repeated, such as لا زيد في الدار و لا عمرو $l a \bar{a}$ Zaydun fì al-dāri wa là 'Amrun.

On the other hand, governing agents الحروف العاملة (particles) that influence the imperfective verb are nine, five of which make it mans $\bar{u} b$ (accusative), while the other five make it majzūm (jussive).

The subjunctive particles, thus, are the infinitive an (أن) , lan (لنْ) that indicates corroboration of negation in the future, kay (كي) that expresses purpose/ intention. For example, one says: أحبُ أن تقوم uḥibbu an taqūma, virtually being قياكك، لن تفعل qiyāmaka, lan taf'ala, and جئتك كي تعطينى حقي ji'tuka kay tu'tiyanı̄ haqaqqī. The fourth particle is idhan (إذن)), which implies response and reward, such as saying: إذن أكرمّك idhan ukrimuka to the one who says to you: أنا آتيك 'anā ātīka. It only makes the verb in manṣūb in case it
is wedded to it, that is not dependent on any word preceding it. Otherwise, its influence is nullified, such as أنا إذن أكرمُك 'anā idhan ukrimuka or إن تأتني إذن اكرمْك in ta'tin̄̄ idhan ukrimka). This also applies if its refers to the present, such as إذن أنكّك كاذبا idhan aunnuka kādhiban.

In addition, in (إن) ) is the particle among this group that is introduced into the perfective, and it is implicit (muḍar) following six particles, namely hatta, lām of kay, lām of denial (juḥd), aw (أو) meaning ilā, or illā, or wāw al-ṣarf (signifying unity of action). Examples of these articles are like, سرت حتى أدخلها، جئتك لنكرمني sirtu hatta adkhulaha, ji'tuka li tukrimanū, [Almighty Allāh’s saying,] وما كان الهَ ليعدَّبهمp"wa mā kāna Allāhu li yu 'adhdhibahum", لأظلمُّك أو تعطيني حقي، لا تأكل السمك و تشرَب اللبن la al- ẓlimannaka aw tu 'tiyan̄ $h$ haqqī, lā ta'kuli al-samaka wa tashraba al-labana. Then, the sixth particle is the apodosis (introducer) $f \bar{a}$, which introduces the answer (apodosis) to the six elements, namely the imperative, the negative, the interrogative, the interdictive, the exclamatory (hoping) and the suggestive (invitational). The following are examples of these six elements: زُرني فأكرمّك zurnī fa ukrimaka, [Almighty Allāh’s saying] ولا تطغوا فيه فيلّ عليكم غضبي" $\begin{gathered}\text { (wa lā tatghaw fihi fayahilla 'alaykum ghaḍab } \vec{\imath} " \text { "but commit no excess therein, }\end{gathered}$ lest my wrath should justly descend on you", و ما نأتينا فتحدثنا، أين بيتّك فازوركّ، ليت لي مالا فأنفقة wa mā ta'tīnā fa tuḩaddithanā, ayna baytuka fa azūraka, layta lī mālan fa 'unfiqahu, and الا تنزل بنا فتصيب خير أ alā tanzil binā fa tuṣība khayran. Besides, the sign of validity of the apodosis introduced with $f \bar{a}$ ' is that the virtual phrasing be: if you do so and so I will do so and so.

However, الحروف الجازمة the particles that introduce it into the jussive are five:(لام) lam an (لمّا) lamma $\mathfrak{a}$ for the negative past (here, lammā involves anticipation and expectation),
third person imperative $l \bar{a} m$, $l \bar{a}$ (in case of interdiction), and an (أنْ) - in protasis and apodosis. Here are examples for the use of such particles: يركب، ليضْرب لمْ يضْرب، لمّا lam yadrib, lammā yarkab, liyadrib zaydun, lā taf'al, and إن تخرُج أخرُ، لا تفُل in takhruj akhruj. In the last example, both verbs are always in the jussive if they are in the present, while if they are in the past, the markers of the jussive do not show in them, such as إن خرجت خرجْتُ in kharajta kharajtu. Moreover, if the protasis is in the past and the apodosis is in the present, it is possible to introduce it in the nominative ( $r a f^{\prime}$ ) or in the jussive (jazm), such as إن أكرمتني 'أكرمْكَ، أو أكرمُك in akramtanı̄ ukrimka or ukrimuka. In line with the rule, the following line of poetry reads:
و إن أتناه خليلٌ يومَ مسغبةٍ يقولُ لا غائب ما لي و لا حرمُ

Wa in atāhu khalilun yawma masghabatin
yaqūlu lā gha'ibun mālı̄ wa lā ḥarimu

Besides, the protasis is introduced with the $f \bar{a}$ if the sentence is nominal, imperative, إن تأتنتي فأنت مكرَّ ،إن لقيته فاكرمه، و interductive, or invocatory, or is pure perfective, such as إن أتاك فلا تهنه، فإن فعلت كذا جز الك اله خيرا و إن أحسنت إلي اليوم فقد أحسنت إليك أمس mukramun, in laqītahu fa akrimhu, fa in atākā fa lā tuhinhu, in fa lta kadhā fa jazākā Allāhu khayran, and in aḥsanta (ilayya al-yawma fa qad aḥsantu ilayka; ams. Furthermore, it is introduced into the jussive with implicit an (أنْ) that introduces the apodosis of the six elements introduced with $f \bar{a}$, with the exception of negation in general زرني أكرمّك، أين بيتكّ أزركَ، لا تفقل شرأ يكن خير أ للك، ليت and interdiction in certain cases, such as
 layta lı̄ mālan fa unfiqahu, and ألا تنزل بنا تصب خير أ لك alā tanzil binā tuṣib khayran lak. However, it is incorrect to say ما تأتينا تحدَتْا mà ta'tina tuḥaddithn $\bar{a}$ (rather, it is possible to
say: ما تأتينا تحدَّثنا mā ta 'tinā fa tuḥaddithnā) and لا تدن من الأسد ياكلكَ là tadnu min al-asadi $y a^{\prime} k u l u k a$ (in the jussive), since negation does not indicate the affirmative.

Among the non-standard nouns are those that introduce the imperfective verb in the jussive, having the meaning of in (إنْ). Such are nine nouns, namely man (مَنْ), (mā, (ما) ayy, (أيّى) (أنى) mata, (منی) 'ayna, (أينى aynamā, (أينما) mahmā and (حيّما) haythumā), such as من يكرمْني أكرمه، ما تصنع أصنع، أيّهم يكرمني أكرمْه man yukrimn̄̄ ukrimhu, mā taṣna‘ aṣna', ayyuhum yukrimnī ukrimhu (here, 'ayy always refers to one) of two or of more, while the proof of its being a noun is that yukrim is attached to the pronoun referring to it (in the preceding example). Besides, the preposition is introduced to them, and some of them are nunated and some are attached (in a genitive construction), such as بمن تمْرر امرر،أيّهما تنصر أنصر،أيّما ندع أدع، متى تخرج أخرج، مهما تصنع أصنع bi man tamrur amrur, ayyuhumā tanṣur anṣur, ayyam ma-tad'u ad'u, matā takhruj akhruj, and mahmā taṣna' aṣna: Moreover, haythuma $\bar{a}$ is similar to ayna, while $i d h m \bar{a}$ is similar to mata, as both are introduced into the jussive in case ( $m \bar{a}$ ) is attached to them.

Among other non-standard nouns are those that introduce the indefinite nouns as being tamy $\bar{z} z$ (accusative of specification). Such are four nouns, the first of which is (عشر) 'ashara when it is compounded with (numbers between) aḥad and tis 'a, such as أحد عشر ahad 'ashara dirhaman and tis'at 'ashara rajulan. The second, however, is kam implying interrogation about the number, such as كم رجلا عنده kam rajulan 'indahu and كم أعشرون رجلا عندك أم ثلاثون، أو :kam yawman sirta. It would thus be as if you say يومأ سرت عشرين يومأ سرت أم ثلاثين؟ 'a'ishrūna rajulan ('indaka am thalāthūn or 'ishrīna) yawman sirta am thalāthīn. However, predicate $k a m$ is attached to the nouns specified through the accusative of specification, be it singular or plural, and it is opposite to rubba, such as كم)

كم رجالٍ لقتيتهم kam rijālin laqitahum. As for the third noun is ka'ayyin which bears the meaning of predicate kam, such as كأي رجلا عندك $k a$ 'ayyin rajulan 'indaka (it is liable to dialectical differences). Besides, it is frequently used in the company of min, such as in Almighty Allāh's saying, "wa kam min malakin fì al-samawāti" and وأين من قرية أهكناهاها "fa ka'ayyin min qaryatin ahlaknāhā". Finally, the fourth noun is kadh $\bar{a}$ when it is used to denominate number, such as عندي كذا در هماً 'indı̄̀ kadhā dirhaman and عندي عشرون در هماً ind̄̀ ishrūna dirhaman.

As regards non-standard governing agents among nouns, there are words that are called ( verbal nouns, and they are nine: ruwaydan رويداء a noun form of the verb amhil, بلـه a noun form of the verb $d a$ 'أمهل ' دع , These nouns are equally introduced into the singular and the plural, and the masculine and the feminine. Hence, it is possible to say: يا يا رجال رويد زيدأ، ياأمر أة رويد زيدأ، يا نساء رويد زيدأألمā' rajulu ruwayda Zaydan and رجل رويد زيدأ $y \bar{a}$ rijālu ruwayda zaydan, ya' mra'atu ruwayda Zaydan and $y \bar{a}$ ' nisā'u ruwayda Zaydan. The same also applies to بله balh. Other nouns are dūnaka دونك which is a noun form of the verb khudh, 'alayka a noun form of the ver ilzam, $h \bar{a}$ a noun form of the verb $k h u d h$ (which is pronounced differently in different dialects. It assumes the form $h \bar{a}$ ' with the $h a m z a$, and in this case is treated like the $k \bar{a} f$ in $d h a \bar{a} k a$, and is conjugated like it too. Hence, it is said:هاء يا أمر أة، هاؤما، هاؤم، هاء، هاؤما، هاؤنّ hā'yā' mra'a, hā'umā, hā'um, $h \bar{a} ' i, h ' u m \bar{a}$, and $h \bar{a}$ 'wun. Besides, the $k \bar{a} f$ could replace the hamza, and thus it is said (هاءك، hāka and hākunna. Moreover, both forms could be combined, such as هاك؛ هاكنّ (hā’aka, like hā 'ka to hā'akunna; hayyahal al-ṣala and (hayyhal) al-tharīd, virtually being إئتى الثريد، هيهات الأمر i'ti al-tharīd; hayhat al-amru -
virtually being بعد: شـّان زيد و عمر ba 'uda -; shattāna Zaydun wa 'Amru - virtually being iftaraq $\bar{a}$ (far different - from each other - are they), which requires (comparison between) two things -, and سرعان ذا إهالة sar'āna dhā ihālatin. The last three nouns involve exaggeration that is not existent in the things they designate.

On the other hand, the non-standard verbs are four forms, which include the defective كان، صار، أصبح، أمسى، أضحى، defective verbs are thirteen, namely أفعال الناقصة verbs. Such ظل"، بات، ما زال، ما برح، ما فتئ، ما أنفكّ، ما دام و لبس، kāna, ṣāra, aṣbaḥa, amsā, aḍhāā, z̧alla, bāta, mā zāla, mā bariḥa, mā fati'a, mā anfakka, mā dāma and laysa. These verbs introduce the subject into the nominative while the predicate takes the accusative, and it is defective because its subject is insufficient to make it complete. In addition, the difference between kāna and $s$ āra is that the ṣāra indicates the existence of the predicate's meaning at a different time other than (and based on) a preceding time in which such meaning did not exist, while $k \bar{a} n a$ indicates the past time. Accordingly, the verse reads, ؤوكان الهَ عليمأ حكيمأَو"wa kāna Allāhu 'alīman hakīman", while it is incorrect to say "wa ṣāra Allāhu 'alīman hakīman", since it indicates transition from one state to another. Besides, kāna could be complete in itself (when it refers to an action that occurred or that was produced), such as Almighty Allāh’s saying, كهوإفان كان ذو عسرة فنظرة إلى ميسرة. "wa in kāna dhū 'usratin fa nazratun ila maysara" "If the debtor is in a difficulty, grant him time till it is easy for him to repay".

The same applies to aṣbaḥa and its analogous verbs when they indicate commencement of the specifically referred to times. Besides, $m \bar{a}$ in $m \bar{a} z \bar{a} l a$ and its analogous verbs indicates negation and it means absorption of time. However, $m \bar{a}$ in $m \bar{a} d \bar{a} m a$ is infinitive meaning timing. Thus, it is said: ما زال زيد غنيا mā zāla Zaydun ghaniyyan (meaning he has all the time [always] been rich), and اجلس مـ زال زيد جالساً ijlis mā dāma Zaydun jālisan
(i.e. as long as he remains sitting down). However, it does not mean negating the present status, such as ليس زيد قائمألي $l$ laysa Zaydun qā 'iman.

The second category is أفعال المُققاربة approximation verbs, and it consists of four verbs, namely كاد، عسى، كرُب وأوشك kāda, 'asā, karuba and awshaka. So, عسى 'asā places the subject in the nominative and the predicate in the accusative. Besides, its predicate is an ( (أن ) along with the imperfective verb, having the implicit meaning of an infinitive in the accusative, such as عسى زيد أن يخرج 'asā Zaydun an yakhruja, which is similar to saying,
 namely that عسى ان يخرج زيد 'asā an yakhruja Zaydun is similar to قرب خروجُ زيدٍ qarba khurūju Zaydin. On the other hand, $k \bar{a} d a$ introduces the subject in the nominative, and its predicate is the imperfective verb (implying the meaning of active participle in the accusative). Thus, if it is said, كاد زيد يخرج kāda Zaydun yakhruju, then the implied meaning would be كاد زيد خارجأ kāda Zaydun khārijan (yet, such implied form is not كاد كاد العروس يكون أميراَ kāda al-'arūsu yakunu amīran. However, 'asā does not bear the meaning of such proximity. Rather, it implies desire and wishing (that the action occurs in the future, while $k r a b a$ ) is used in the same way $k \bar{a} d a$ is used. Moreover, awshaka is used like 'asā in its two manifestations.

The third category includes Verbs of praise and of dispraise

## أفعال المدح والذم.

Such verbs are نعم و بئس ni 'ma and bi'sa. The noun following them must be defined by the generic article "al" or a dependent annexed [noun] followed by a noun in the nominative, such as نعم الرجُل زيد أو غلام الرجل زيد و بئس الرجل عمروٌ أو غلامُ الرجل عمرو ni'ma al-rajulu

Zaydun or ghulāmu al-rajuli Zaydun and bi'sa ar-rajulu 'Amrun or ghulāmu al-rajuli 'Amrun. Here, the first noun in the nominative is called a subject while the second is called the one designated with praise or dispraise, and the subject is made implicit, being explained through an indefinite noun in the accusative. It is thus said: نعم رجلا زيد ni'ma rajulan Zaydun and also بئس رجلا زيدٌ bi’sa (rajulan zaydun). Moreover, habbadha is حبّا الرجل :حبّ habbadha al-rajulu Zaydun or rajulan, and the same applies to $s a \bar{\prime} ' a$.

The fourth category covers أفعال الثكك و اليقين verbs of certainty and doubt, which are seven; hasibtu, khiltu, ẓanantu, 'alimtu, ra’aytu, wajadtu and za'amtu. So, if the last four verbs mean knowing a thing along with its description, it then requires two objects. Yet, if 'alimtu means 'araftu (knew), ra'aytu means abṣartu (beheld), wajadtu al-ḍāllata means ṣādaftuhā (came upon), and za'amtu means qultu (said), then no second object is required. Hence, it is said: حسبت زيدأ فاضلا و

علمت زيداً أخاك hasibtu Zaydan (fạḍilan and ‘alimtu) Zaydan akhāka. Among its characteristics is incorrectness of its being confined to one of the two objects, rendering it زيد علمت منطلقُ أو زيد ineffective when in the middle (of the sentence) or in the end, such as منطلق علمت Zaydun 'alimtu muntaliqun or Zaydun muntaliqun 'alimtu. Another characteristic is its being suspended (from exerting its influence) through interrogation or the lām, such as علمت زيد عندك أم عمرو، و علمت لزيد منطلق 'alimtu 'Zaydun 'indaka am 'Amru and, 'alimtu la Zaydun muntaliqun.

## Section Four: (في العوامل المحنوية) On non-verbal agents

With one category of standard and non-standard verbal agents being discussed, it is now high time to elaborate on the non-verbal agents, which are further divided into two types,
according to Sībawayh, or three types, according to Abū al-Ḥassan al-Akhfash. The first is (inchoation, which is) stripping the noun of verbal agents of the (annexation) construction, such as Zaydun muntaliqun, and this meaning is governing both of them. Thus, the first is called a subject, independent annexed and informed about, while the second is called (predicate, report and a dependent annexed). So, the first should be definite, though it may be a specific indefinite, such as Almighty Allāh's saying, ؤولعبد "مؤمن خير من مشرك"wa la 'abdun mu’minun khayrun min mushrikin" " A man slave who believes is better than an unbeliever", while the second should be indefinite. However, both may be definite, such as الله إلهنا و محمد نبينا Allāhu ilāhunā wa Muḥammad nabiyyunā. Here, the second meaning introduces the imperfective verb in the nominative; its placement in a position which is fitting for the noun. This is because it could be said about زيد ضارب، زيد يضرب Zaydun dāribun, Zaydun yadribu or يضرب زيد yadribu Zaydun, placing the verb in the position of the noun. In addition, the third is governing the adjective, having it in the nominative because of its being an adjective of a noun in the nominative, and also having it in the accusative and in the genitive, because of its being (an adjective of either a noun in the accusative or in the genitive). Such effect is non-verbal (synonymous) and not verbal (homonymous). However, according to Sībawayh (may Allāh be merciful with him), the agent governing the adjective is that governing the thing described. Hence, it is said: مررت برجلٍ كريم (marartu bi rajulin karimin, with the agent placing karīmin in the genitive being the very agent placing rajulin in the genitive).This also applies in the cases of the nominative and the accusative. However, the advocates of the first claim argue that in sentences like (يأ عمرو الجواد) ya$\vec{a}$, 'Aamru al-jawādu, if it (the agent) were effective in one of them, then their status would not be different.

## Section Fifth: (فصول من العربية) On Various Issues in the Arabic Language

## Sub Chapter One: (المعرفة والنكرة) The definite and the indefinite

The definite is a word set to indicate something per se. It consists of five types; the first is the implicit (muḍmar) مضمر, such as 'anā أنا, 'anta أنت and the kaāf الكاف in ghulāmuka. The second is the specific proper noun, such as Zaydun and 'Amrun, while the third is the noun to which the generic lām of definiteness is attached (rendering it a class noun), such as الرجل خير من المرأة، الفرس خير من الحمار، العسل حلوٌ والخلّ حامض al-rajul khayrun min al-mar'ati (al-farasu khayrun min al-himāri), and al-'asalu hulwun wa al-khallu hāaidun, or lām of definiteness (of al-'Ahd, with the noun attached to it being either referred to before or understood from the [context), such as فعل الرجل كذا fa 'la al-rajulu $k a d h \bar{a}$. The fourth, however, is the oblique, which is further classified into two types; demonstrative nouns - being one of the four sentences - and relative pronouns. Then, the fifth is anything placed in conjunction with any of the preceding four in a non-verbal annexation. The other category, which includes whatever, is not covered by the preceding types, and it is called the indefinite. So, the indefinite is the noun referring to an unidentified member of a certain class, such as rajul and faras.

## Sub Chapter Two: (التذكير والتأنيش) On Masculinity and Femininity

As for the masculine, it is the word that includes neither the (word ending with) $t \bar{a}{ }^{\prime}$ of femininity; which turns into $h \bar{a}$, if it coincides with a pause in speech, nor the (word ending with) long vowel (ی) or the long vowel () followed by (hamza; s). Thus, the feminine noun is one that includes any of these signs, such as غرفة، حبلى، بشرى، صحراء
ghurfa, hublā, Bushrā, șahra $\bar{a}$, and it is divided into two types, genuine (which is inherent, such as المراة، الحبلى al-mar'a and al-h̆ublā, and non-genuine [metaphorical], which is verbal, such as الظلمة، البشرى و الصحراء al-ẓulma, al-bushrā and al-ṣahrā’. Thus, the genuine is more forceful, and therefore it is incorrect to say: جاء $j \bar{a}$ 'a Hindun, while it is possible to say: طلع الشمس .tala 'a al-Shamsu. Moreover, femininity is attributed to names of animals, and not to names of humans, and thus it is possible to say: سار الناقة sāra al-nāqatu and not سار المرأة sāra al-mar'atu.

On the other hand, the non-genuine is of three types, the first of which is that which includes $t \bar{a}^{\prime}$ of femininity, whether articulated such asal-ghurfa and alẓulma), or implied, such as الثمس، النار، الدار al-shamsu, al-nāru, al-dāru. The second, however, is that which includes the alif of femininity, whether maqșūra [extended alif] or mamdūda [shortened alif], such as حمراء، صحراء و بشرى ḥamrā', Şahrā', and bushrā. As for the third, it is the plural [noun], with the exception of that which ends in $w \bar{a} w$ and $n \bar{u} n$ and which does not refer to rational masculine humans, whether its singular form be genuinely or non-genuinely feminine, such as جاء الرجل أو جاءت الرجال jā'a al-rijālu or ja' 'at al-rijālu. Accordingly, the Qur'ānic verses read, إذاجاءك المومنات "idhā jā'aka alMu'minātu" and قو巾و قال نسوة "wa qāla niswatun". However, the following plural is made feminine in the verse, ${ }^{\circ}$. plural, since it is next to the singular, just like femininity is to masculinity. Yet, words like muslimu$n$ is not rendered feminine, since it is limited to the masculine among the rational humans and is no other form is made up for it. The case is so if the verb is annexed to an explicit noun [which is not a pronoun]. Yet, if it is annexed to an implied noun [pronoun], then it is incumbent to render it in the feminine form, or the $w \bar{a} w$ of the
masculine plural [pronoun; واو], such as جاءت، جاؤا، النساء جاءت أو جئن $j \vec{a}$ 'at and jā'ū; alnisā'u jā'at or ji'na, and الجذوع إنكسرت و إنكسرن al-judhū‘ inkasarat and inkasarna. Here, it is worth noting that الناس، الانام، الر هط، النفر و القوم al-nās, al-anām, al-rahtū, al-nafar and al-qawm are masculine [nouns]. However, al-qawm could be rendered masculine or
 mursalin" and وكثّب به قومكهو "wa kadhdhaba bihi qawmuka". Besides, words like alTamr and al-nakhl, the feminine form of which is introduced through the addition of $t \bar{a}$, to the masculine form, could be rendered feminine or masculine, as is stated in the



Moreover, the feminine form of the numbers from three to ten is introduced in a way opposite to that of rendering the feminine form of all [other] things, such as ثالثة رجال thalāthatu rijāl and ثلاثة نسوة thalāthu niswa (and ثلاثة غلمة thalāthatu ghilma). It is also
 ayyāmin". However, if the number is more than 'ashra (ten), the $t a$ ' is dropped from the word 'ashra, with the masculine, while it is kept with the feminine, such as ثلاثة عشر رجل thalathāta 'ashara rajulan and ثلاث عشرة إمر أة thalātha 'ashrata imra'atan (where /shīn 'ashrata has either a kasra or sukūn), أحد عشرة، إثنى عشرة و إثتتي عشرة ihૂdā 'ashrata, ithnā 'ashrata and ithnatay 'ashrata. Here, the two nouns are indeclinable [مبني /mabnī] with a fatha at the ending, with the exception of إثنى عشر ithnāa 'ashara, which is inflected just like (مسلمان) muslimān.

## Sub Chapter three: On Appositives (التوابع)

Appositives in Arabic are of five types, namely corroborative [ $t a$ 'kīd], تاكيد adjective [șifa], صفة permutative [badal], بدل explanatory apposition ['atf bayān], عطف بيان and conjunction with particles ['atf biharf] عطف بحرف . As for corroboration, it is limited to the definite nouns and it could be established through repetition, such as $j \bar{a}$ 'an $\bar{\imath}$ zaydun zaydun جاءني زيد زيد, or through other than it, such as جاءني زيد نفسه، الرجلان كلاهما jā’an̄̄̄ Zaydun nafsuhu, al-rajulāni kilāhumā and القوم كلهم أجمعون، أكتعون، ابتعون و أبصعون alqawmи kulluhumи ('ajma 'ūn, akta 'ūn, abta 'ūn and abṣa 'ūn). Regarding the adjective, it is the word which indicates some of the states of the self, and it could either be a verb, such as القائم ،القاعد al-qā’im and al-qā'id, a depiction, such as الطويل ،القصيرو الأسود altawīl, al-qaṣīr and al-aswad, an instinctive [character], such as الفهم، الكريم al-fahmi, alkarīm, and al-‘āqil, or an attributive [form], such as الهاشمي، البصري al-Hāshimī and alBaṣrī. Moreover, using as adjectives the common nouns can only be achieved by means of the introduction of $d h \bar{u}$ ذ, as it is the part that is made dual or plural, masculine or feminine. Thus, it is said ذو مال، ذو مال، ذوى مال، ذوُا مال،ذوي مال، ذات مال و ذو اتا مال، ذو اتى مال و ذواتُ مال و ذواتٍ مال dhū māl, dhawā māl, dhawy māl, dhawū māl, dhawī māl, dhātu māl and dhawāt $\bar{a} m \bar{a} l$ (dhawāty māl and dhawātu māl), and also dhawāti mālin with a kasra at the end of it in the genitive and the accusative just like muslimātin. Besides, each adjective [șifa] follows the case of the thing it describes [the modified word; mawsūuf], be it masculine or feminine, definite or indefinite, singular, dual or plural, and also follows its inflection if it is virtually (a description) of it. However, if it is a description of its cause, it then follows it only in definiteness and indefiniteness, and in inflection, such as
the case in Almighty Allāh's saying, ربنا أخرجنا من هذه القرية الظالم أهلهاهُ Rabbanā akhrijnā min hādhihi al-qaryati al-ẓālimi ahluhā".

On the other hand, the permutative is classified into four categories; a complete change of one thing for another - such as رايت زيداً أخالك ra'aytu Zaydan akhāka -, a change of a part for a whole - such as ضبربت زيدأ رأسه darabtu zaydan ra'sahu -, a change of the content for the containing - such as سلب زيد ثوبه suliba Zaydun thawbuhu, the Qur’ānic verse, كوهسالونك أعجبني زيد ${ }^{\text {أ }}$ مررت برجل حمار a‘jabanı̄ Zaydun ḍarbuhu -, and a change for a mistake, such as ضربه marartu bi rajulin himāarin.

In addition, the explanatory conjunction is a noun that is not an adjective and that functions as an explanation, such as جاءني أبو عبد الهَ زيد jā $a n \bar{\imath} A b \bar{u}$ 'Abd Alllāhi Zaydun (in case زيد أبو عبد اله 'Abū 'Abd Allāh be famous for such a name), and أبو عبد اله ' 'Abd Allāhi, in case he be well known by his surname. The fifth type, thus, is conjunction with particles, knowing that conjunctions are nine; wāw واو) is used for general joining, such as جاءني زيد و عمرو jā’an̄̄ Zaydun wa 'amrun; fā’ (فاء) is used for sequential order, such as جاءني زيد فعمرو jā'anı̄ Zaydun fa 'amrun; thumma (ث) such as رأيت زيداً ثّ عمروا ra'aytu Zaydan thumma 'amran; and aw (أو) is used for choice among two or more things, such as جاءني زيد أو عمرو jā'anı̄ Zaydun 'aw 'amrun. However, it is said that it is used to indicate uncertainty about the stated report, choice, and permissibility of things, such as خذ هذا أو ذاكك khudh hadhā 'aw dhāka and جالس الحسن أو إبن jālis al-Ḥasana 'aw ibn Sirīn. In addition, 'am (أم) سبرين is either dependent [connected], such as أزيد عندك أم عمرو 'aZaydun 'indaka 'am 'Amru,
meaning أَيّهما عندك ayyuhumā 'indaka (which one of them is at yours), or independent [disconnected], such as أزيد عندك أم عندك عمرو 'aZaydun 'indaka 'am 'indaka 'Amru and إنّها innaha la’ibilun 'am shātun, meaning بل شابل أم شاة indicates negation following affirmation, such as جاءني زيد لا عمرو jā'nī Zaydun lā 'Amrun, while bal indicates retraction [idrāb] from the first (statement) and affirmation of the second (be it positive or negative) such as جاءني زيد بل عمرو jà'anı̄ Zaydun bal 'Amrun (and ما جاءني زيد بل عمرو mā jā 'anı̄ Zaydun bal 'Amrun). As for lākin, it indicates redress [istidrāk] after negation, such as ما جاءني زيد لكن عمرو حاضر mā jā’anı̄ Zaydun lākin 'Amrun ḥäzirun. The difference between both, however, is that through retraction, the preceding statement is nullified, while it is not nullified through redress.

Moreover, ḥattā indicates the utmost limit, such as ضربت القوم حتى زيدأ darabtu al-qawma hattā Zaydan. It also - when bearing the meaning of the conjunction $w \bar{a} w$ - indicates either exaltation or abasement, such as جاءني الناس حتى الأمير ،مات الناس حتى الأنبياء jā anā alnāsu ḥattā al-amīr, māta al-nāsu ḥattā al-anbiyā'u, and قفم الحجاج حتى المشاة qadima alhuijāju hattā al-Mushāt. Besides, what follows it should be liable to be classified under it, and thus it is incorrect to say, جاءني القوم حتى الحمار jā'anī al-qawmu ḥattā al-ḥimāru. It is also incorrect to say, جاءني الحمار حتى القوم jā’an̄̄ al-ḩimāru ḥattā al-qawmu, since alhimāru is not a member of the gender to which al-qawmu belong.

## Sub Chapter Four: الفصل الرابع

## On Primary and non-Primary Declension (الإعراب الأصلي و غير الأصلي)

Speech is of three axial states: the subjective (nominative) case, the objective case, and the genitive case. Thus, the raf'(subjective case) applies to the subject, the naṣb
(accusative case) applies to the object, and the jarr (genitive case) applies to the governed noun. Other states however are subjoined to either of these three. Hence, five elements are attached to the subject, namely the subject (of a nominal sentence) and the predicate, the predicate of inna (إنَّ), the subject of kāna (كان), the subject of $m \bar{a}$ and $l \bar{a}$ ( $ا$ ( لا when they carry the meaning of laysa,(ليس) the predicate of (ل) which negates the whole genus (categorical negation). Besides, the accusative involves five elements; المفعول المطلق al-maf'ūl al-mutlaq (absolute object), المفول به al-maf'ūul bihi (direct object), لمفول alMaf'ūl lahu (object of reason), المفعول فيه al-maf'ūl fîhi (circumstantial object), and المفعول معג al-maf'ūl ma'ahu (object of accompaniment). In addition, seven elements are subjoined to the accusative, namely الحال al-ḥāl (circumstantial qualifier), التمييز al-tamyīz (specification), excepted thing in the accusative case, the predicate of (كان) kāna the subject of (إن) inna, the subject of $l \bar{a}\left(y^{( }\right)$which negates the whole genus (and the predicate of $m \bar{a}$ and $l \bar{a}$ ( 8 ; $ل$; the scholars of Hijāz), primary jarr of the governed noun (either through the particles through metaphorical iḍāfa (annexation, possessive construction).

As for non-primaryyغير لأصلي declension), it comes either through addition (prefixing) of a preposition before the marfū‘ (word), such as بحسبك درهم biḥasbika dirham و⿳وَوكى بالش
 "تلقوا بايديكم إلى التهلكةه؛ wa lā tulqū bi'aydīkum ilā al-tahluka", or through verbal annexation, such as ضارب زيدٍ ḍāribu Zaydin and حسَن الوجه . asanu al-wajhi. Hence, the majrūr will be virtually mans $\bar{u} b$ or marf $\bar{u}$. However, the conjugation of the verb is not entirely actual, since it is not liable to the subjective, the objective or the genitive case.

On the other hand, it could be said that inflection is divided into two types; صريح sarīh [express] and غيرصريح ghayru ṣarīh [implied]. Thus, the ṣarīh occurs through either vocalisation or through particles, as has already been mentioned, while the ghayru șarīh occurs with a word set for a specific form of inflection. This only occurs with the mudmar [personal pronouns], as we see that anta (أنت) is set to indicate the marfū́, while iyyāka (إياك) is set to refer to the manṣūb. In addition, the form does not embrace either the raf ' or the naṣ. It (personal pronouns) divides into two types; the first includes enclitic pronouns - which are in no way unattached.

Such enclitic pronouns are further classified into three categories; marf $\bar{u}$ ', mansū $b$ and majrūr. With the exception of the marf $\bar{u} ;$, which comes in an implicit form too, they are all articulated (explicit; in form). However, the marfū ' pronouns are either essentially or non-essentially implicit. So, the essentially implicit occurs with four verb forms, أفعل، (أفعلُ،نفعل، و تفعل af'al, af'alu, naf'alu, and taf'alu, in case it refers to the second person masculine, while the non-essentially implicit occurs with the verb forms fa'ala and yaf'alu (and also with the feminine forms, such as fa 'alat and taf'alu, and with the active participle, the passive participle, and the active-participle-like adjective. Thus, if you place through it an explicit noun in the nominative, it remains unattached to the personal pronoun.

On the other hand, the non-enclitic (suffix personal) pronouns are like the enclitic in its independence in the sense that it can be articulated initially, and it has both marff $\bar{u}$ ' and the mans $\bar{u} b$ (forms), while it has no majrūr (articulated form). Besides, the number of enclitic and non-enclitic forms is forty-seven. The enclitic are twenty-four, of which twelve are marf $\bar{u}$ ', namely 'anā (أنا), naḥnu (نحن), 'anta (أنتّ), 'anti (أنت), 'antuma (أنما),
‘antum (أنتر) and ‘antunna (هنت), (هو) (هم) (هي), hiya (هم), hum (هم) and hunna
 ), iyyākumā (إيّاكما), iyyākum (إيّاكم), iyyākunna (إيّاكن)), and iyyāhu (إيّاه), iyyāhā (إيّاها), iyyāhumā (إلَّاهما), iyyāhum (إيّاهم) and iyyāhunna (إيّاهن)).

As for the enclitic pronouns the are twenty-three, of which the marfú ' (forms) are eleven, namely, فعلتُ، فعلنا، فعلتَ، فعلتِ، فعلتما ، فعلتم، فعلتنّ، تفعلين، فعلا،فعلوا، و فعلن fa'altu, fa'alnā, fa'alta, fa'alti, fa'altumā, fa'altum, fa'altunna, taf'alīna, fa'alā, fa'alū, and fa'alna. Besides, the mansūb forms are twelve, namely (those attached to the following verbs) أكرمنا، أكرمك، اكرمكِ، أكرمكما، أكرمكم، أكرمكنّ، أكرمه، أكرمها، أكرمهما، أكرمهم وأكرمهنَّ أكرمني، 'akraman̄̄, akramanā, akramaka, akramaki, akramakumā, akramakum, akramakunna, akramahu, akramahā, akramahumā, akramahum, and 'akramahunna.

In addition, the form of the majr $\bar{u} r$ is the same as the forms of the mans $\bar{u} b$ with the exception that $y a$ ' of the first person in the manṣu$b$ case is suffixed with the $n \bar{u} n$ [of prevention, i.e. the prevents the verb to which it is attached from being introduced in the genitive], while in the majrūr, this occurs only with منّي، عنّي، قنني،قطني، لدنّي بمعنى حسبي minnī, 'ann̄̄, qadn̄̄, qattanī, ladunn̄̄ (meaning hasb̄̄ [It is sufficient for me]). Furthermore, the $t \bar{a}^{\prime}$ is used to refer to the first person singular, and the nun is used to refer to it too in case it be singular, dual or plural, while what precedes it is sākin (vowelless) in the nominative case (though it keeps its vowelized ending in the accusative case). Hence, (in the nominative) it is said أكرمتُ، أكرمنا، دعوت akramtu and akramnā, da 'awtu and دعونا، رمينا، وأعطينا da 'awnā, ramaynā and a'taynā, while, in the accusative, it is said أكرمني ،أكرمنا، دعانا رماناو أعطانا akramanī, akramanā, da 'anā, ramānā, and a 'tanā.

## Sub Chapter Five:

## Conclusion of the Book (خاتمة الكتاب)

Just as the ma'm $\bar{u} l$ (word influenced by the governing agent) is rendered mudmar, so is the agent (introduced in an implicit form), though it is rare in non-standard forms, such as rendering 'an (أنْ) implicit following the six particles. Besides, rendering 'in (إنْ) implicit when attached to the protasis in what is answered with the $f \bar{a}$ ', save what is excluded from it, as well as rendering rubba implicit following the $w \bar{a} w, f \bar{a}{ }^{\prime}$, and $b a l$, in the following examples:
wa baldatin lā turāmu khā ifatan
bizawarā'a mughbarratin jawānibuhā
و بلدةٍ لا ترام خائفةٌ بزور اء مغبرّة جو انبها

In line with it is the line of poetry composed by Ru'ba,
wa qātimu al-a 'māqi khāwī al-mukhtaraqan
mushtabihi al-a 'lāmi lammā'i al-khafaqan
مشتبه الأعلام لماع الخفقن و قاتم الأعماق خاوي المحترقن

Similar to it is the line of poetry given by Imru' al-Qays,

Fa mithluki hublā qad taraqtu wa murdí 'in

Fa'alhaytuhā 'an dhī tamā'mi muḥwilī̄
فمثلككِ حبلى و قد طرقتُ و مُرضع فالهيتها عن ذي تمائم مُحول

Again the following line conforms to this rule,

## Bal baladin dhī su 'din wa aṣbābi

بل بلد ذي صُعْدٍ و أصبابٍ

This also includes the common saying, الناس مجزيون بأعمالهم، إن خير ٔ فخير al-nāsu majziyyūna bi a 'mālihim, in khayran fa khayrun (meaning إن كان أعمالهم خير أ فجزاءهم خيرin kāna a 'mālihim khayran, fajazā'uhum khayrun. Thus, in such non-standard cases, it (the $m a$ ' $m \bar{u} l$ ) is implied only when accompanied by something else, as is indicated above. As for the saying, اللِّ لأفعلنّ Allāhi la af'alanna, it is irregular, which the standard way is that it is not implied except through indication of the circumstantial state or through preceding speech. As an example of the first is the saying to the one prepared to travel: "Makkata" and to those sighting the new moon "al-hilāla", rendering implied "yurīdu" in the first example and "abṣaru" in the second. Another example of the second case is Almighty
 implied "nattabi 'u", since it is indicated by (the predicating phrase) kūnū hūdan aw naṣārā". A third example is saying in answer to the question, من فعل هذا؟ "man fa'ala hadhā?", "Zaydun", by rendering its verb implied. It is worth noting that rendering its implied in other cases than these is incorrect.

A nearly similar case to the abovementioned is rendering it implied on condition of
 min al-mushrikina istajāraka" since it is indicated by the stated utterance (verb) too, though it (the stated verb) follows it. However, the first is explained above.

With the Help of the Bestower,the Master, Matn al-Miṣbāh is fully written by the humble servant, who is in need for Almighty Allāh's mecry, Ja'far ibn 'Alī Ḥājjī̀.

## فهرس الآيات القر آنية



| 305 | طه: 81 | (\%وهو لا تطنوا فيه فيحلّ عليكم غضبي) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 313 | الحج: 166 |  |
| 337 | الشعراء: 105 |  |
| 275 | البلا: 2 | \% |
| 275 | الروم: 2 |  |
| 246 | 31:31-7 | (\%) |
| 318 | 4: الفتح | ¢ؤوكان اله عليمأ حكيمأ) |
| 336 | ق: 10 | (\%) |
| 338 | ق: 10 | (\%) |
| 313 | النجم : 26 |  |
| 337 | القمر: 20 | (1) |
| 336 | المتحنة: 12 | (\%) |
| 298 | الدنافقون: | (\%) |
| 337 | الحاقة: 7 | (1) |
| 338 | الحاقة: 7 | (\%) |
| 275 | البلد:13 |  |
| 242 | اللهب: 03 | \% |

## فهرس الأمثال

الموضوع الصفحة
316
سرعان ذا إهالة.

## فهرس الأعلام

| 327 | الأخف- أبو (الحس |
| :---: | :---: |
| 335 | الجرجاني- عبد القاهر |
| 330 327 | سيبويهـ- عمرو بن عثمـان بن قّبر |
| 347 | الحسن- سعيد الحسن بن يسار |
| 347 | ابن سيرين- محمد |

## فهرس الأشعار

| \|الثّواها الثبرية |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| الثاهد الصفحة |  |  |
| حرف الباء |  |  |
| 296 | فأخبره بما فعل المشيب | \|ألا ليت الثباب يعود يومأ |
| 359 | زوراءُ مغبرّهُ جو انبها | وبلداٍ لا نرامُ خائفة |
| حرف اللام |  |  |
| 361 | فألهينها عن ذي تمائمَ مِحلِ | ففثّلكِ حبلى قد طرفتُ ومرضح |
| حرف الميم |  |  |
| 271 | عفاه كلُ أسحم مُستديمُ | \|لِعزّهَّ موحشأ طللُ فـّمُ |
| 256 | فإنّ القول ما قالت حذام | \|إذا قالت حَّام فصدقو ها |
| 307 | يقولٌ لا غائب مالي ولا حرمُ | وإن أتناه خليلُ يوم مسغبةٍ |
| حرف النون |  |  |
| 360 | مشنتبه الأعلام لمّاع الخفّن | وقاتم الأعماق خاوي المخْرقنْ |
| عجز الأشعار |  |  |
| 362 |  | ببل بلدٍ ذي صـٌ و أصباب |

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mawdūdī, Abū al-A'lā. Salājiqa, Lahore: Idārat Tarjumān al-Qur'ān, 1977, pp.15, 16.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ For the pronunciation of the name see Kāshgharī, Maḥmūd ibn al-Ḥusayn. Kitāb Dīwān Lughāt alTurk, Istanbul: al-Maṭba‘a al-‘Āmira, 1917-1991, vol. 2, p. 242; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 4, p. 159.
    ${ }^{3}$ Abū al-Fidā’,'Imād al-Dīn Ismā‘īl. Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar fī Akhbār al-Bashar known as Tārīkh Abī alFidā’, Cairo: al-Maṭa‘a al-Ḥusayniyya, 1907, vol. 2, p. 163; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 4, p. 149; Ibn Athīr mentions the name of their forefather as Tuqaq, see Ibn Athīr, al-Kāmil fì al-Tārīkh, vol. 8, p. 21.
    ${ }^{4}$ Nīshāpūrī mentions the name as '"Luqmān'", which is not supported by other authors, see Nīshāpūrī, Zahīr al-Dīn. Saljūq Nāma, English translation (The History of the Seljuk Turks) by Luther, Kenneth Allin. Surrey: Curzon Press 2001, p. 29.
    ${ }^{5}$ Ibn al-Athīr, Abū al-Ḥasan 'Alī ibn al-Karīm. al-Kāmil fī al-Tārīkh, Cairo: Idārat al-Ṭibā‘a alMunīriyya, 1929, vol. 8, p. 22.

[^2]:    ${ }^{6}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil,vol. 8, p. 22; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 64, 65.
    ${ }^{7}$ Al-Ḥusaynī, Nāṣir ibn 'Alī. Akhbār Dawlat al-Saljūqiyya, ed. Muḥammad Iqbāl. Lahore: University of the Punjab, 1933, p. 1.
    ${ }^{8}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 22; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 65-67.
    ${ }^{9}$ Boyle, J. A. [et al]. The Cambridge History of Iran, (The Seljuk and Mongol periods) Cambridge: University Press, 1968, vol. 5, p. 16; Brockelmann, Carl. History of the Islamic Peoples, London:

[^3]:    Rutledge and Kegan Paul, 1956, p. 171; Bosworth, Clifford Edmund. The Ghaznavids: their Empire in Afghanistan and Eastern Iran 994-1040, Edinburgh: University Press, 1963, p. 121, 122.
    ${ }^{10}$ Mustawfī, Ḥamd Allāh. Tārīkh-i Guzīda, Tehran: Intishārāt Amīr, 1960, p. 426; Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 163.
    ${ }^{11}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 22.

[^4]:    ${ }^{12}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 7, pp. 160,161; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, p. 70.
    ${ }^{13}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 163.
    ${ }^{14}$ The sources are confused over Seljuk's sons. Ibn al-Athīr mentions three and Mustawfī mentions four, see Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 22; Mustawfì, Tārīkh i-Guzīda, p. 426.
    ${ }^{15}$ For further details see Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 71, 72.

[^5]:    ${ }^{16}$ Ibn Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 22; Abū al-Fidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtasar,vol. 2, p. 163.
    ${ }^{17}$ Gardī̄̄̄, ‘Abd al- Ḥayy ibn Ḍahhāāk ibn Maḥmūd. Kitāb Zayn al-Akhbār, London: Luzac, 1928, pp. 89, 90 .

[^6]:    ${ }^{18}$ For further details, see Nīshāpūrī, The History of the Seljuk Turks, English translation by Luther.

[^7]:    ${ }^{21}$ Abū al-Fidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar,vol. 2, p. 164; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 428.
    ${ }^{22}$ Abū al-Faḍl Muḥammad ibn Ḥusayn. Tārīkh-i Bayhaqū, ed. Fayyāḍ and Ghanī, Tehran: Intishārāt-i Zaryāb, 1324, vol. 1, p. 492.
    ${ }^{23}$ Nīshāpūrī, The History of the Seljuq Turks (English version), p. 35; Bosworth, The Ghaznavids, pp. 252-256; Abū al-Faḍal. Tārīkh-i Bayhiqū, vol. 1, pp. 536-545.

[^8]:    ${ }^{24}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 24.
    ${ }^{25}$ For details, see Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 25; Mawdūdī̀, Salājiqa, pp. 124,125; Bosworth, The Ghaznavids, p. 226.
    ${ }^{26}$ Abū al-Faḍal, Tārīkh-i Bayhaqī, vol. 1, p. 553.
    ${ }^{27}$ Ibid, vol. 1, pp. 549-569.
    ${ }^{28}$ According to Ibn al-Athīr this incident occurred in 432/1041 but all other writers are in the support of 431/1040 as mentioned. See Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 25; Abū al-Fidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, pp. 164,165; al-Ḥusaynī, Ṣadr al-Dīn Nāṣir ibn'Alī. Akhbār Dawlat al-Saljūqiyya, ed. Muḥammad Iqbāl. Lahore: Oriental Publications, 1933, pp.12, 13; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, p. 152.

[^9]:    ${ }^{29}$ According to Yāqūt, a small town situated between Marv and Sarakhs. Mu 'jam al-Buldān, vol. 2, p. 477.
    ${ }^{30}$ Nīshāpūrī, The History of the Seljuk Turks (English version), p. 38; Gardīzī, Zayn al-Akhbār, pp. 108,109; Bosworth, The Ghaznavids, pp. 229, 230; Bahār, Malik al-Shu‘arā’. Tārīkh-i Sīstān, Tehran: Fardīn Press, A H1314, pp. 366, 367.
    ${ }^{31}$ For more details see Abū al-Faḍal, Tārīkh-i Bayhaqı̄, 1998, vol. 1, pp. 550-553.
    ${ }^{32}$ Abū al-Faḍal, Tārīkh-i Bayhiqū, vol. 1, p. 628; Bosworth, The Ghaznavids, p. 268.

[^10]:    ${ }^{33}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 55.
    ${ }^{34}$ According to Ibn al-Athīr, the reason for this was that he had a foolish vizier who was tempted to seek independence, so he encouraged his master to break with the sultan. al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 105.
    ${ }^{35}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 114; Nīshāpūrī, The History of the Seljuk Turks (English version), pp. 57, 58.
    ${ }^{36}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, pp. 54, 55.
    ${ }^{37}$ Al-Yāfi‘ī, Mirāt al-Jinān, vol. 3, pp. 76, 77; al-Ḥusaynī, Akhbār Dawlat al-Saljūqiyya, p. 29.

[^11]:    ${ }^{38}$ For more detail see al-Yāfi ${ }^{\prime}$ í, Mirāt al-Jinān, vol. 3, pp. 76, 77.
    ${ }^{39}$ Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 4, pp. 156,157.
    ${ }^{40}$ For details see, Abū al-Fidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtasar, vol. 2, p. 172; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 171,172.
    ${ }^{41}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 48.
    ${ }^{42}$ Ibid, vol. 8, p. 52.

[^12]:    ${ }^{43}$ Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 174, 175.
    ${ }^{44}$ For further details see Ibn Jawzī, 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn 'Alī. al-Muntazam, Ḥaydarābād: Dā’irat alMa‘ārif al-‘Uthmāniyya, 1359, vol. 8, p. 165.
    ${ }^{45}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 176; Nādira Jalālī, Tārīkh-i Āl-i Saljūq, pp. 45-49; Mustawfi's statement that Tughril went on Haja before coming to Baghdad is not supported by any other historian, See Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 429.
    ${ }^{46}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 78.

[^13]:    ${ }^{47}$ For details see Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, pp. 77, 78; Nādira Jalālī, Tārīkh-i Āl-i Saljūq, pp. 45,46; Ibn Jawzī, al-Muntazam, vol. 8, pp. 181,182.
    ${ }^{48}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, pp. 177, 178; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 429.
    ${ }^{49}$ Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 4, p. 158; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, p. 196; Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb alMukhtasar, vol. 2, p. 183.
    ${ }^{50}$ Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 4, p. 158; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, pp. 76, 77.

[^14]:    ${ }^{51}$ Ibn al-Athīr, gave a comprehensive account regarding his life history, see al-Kāmil, vol. 8, pp. 94, 95; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, pp. 76, 77.
    ${ }^{52}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaşar, vol. 2, p. 184; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 96.
    ${ }^{53}$ See Ibn al-Athīr, who gives a detailed account of this battle, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, pp. 98-100; Abū alFidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 187.
    ${ }^{54} \mathrm{Ibn}$ al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 459.

[^15]:    ${ }^{55}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, pp. 109,110; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 432,433; al-Ḥusaynī, Akhbār Dawlat al-Saljūqiyya, pp. 46-53.
    ${ }^{56}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, pp. 188, 189; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 433.
    ${ }^{57}$ Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 4, pp. 160,162; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, pp. 90, 91.
    ${ }^{58}$ Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 434; Abū al-Fidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 189.

[^16]:    ${ }^{59}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 192,193.
    ${ }^{60}$ According to Abū al-Fidā’, Malik Shāh visited Baghdad in 479/ 1087 vol. 2, pp. 201, 202.
    ${ }^{61}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 145.
    ${ }^{62}$ He was Hasan ibn Ṣabbāḥ ibn 'Al̄̄1 (d. 428-518/ 1037-1224), the founder of the Shī‘ī Ismā‘īlī movement; he was imprisoned and died in the fortress of Alamut. See al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 2. p. 208; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, p. 222.
    ${ }^{63}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 166; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 3, pp. 139-141.

[^17]:    ${ }^{64}$ Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 434-440; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 4, pp. 163-165.
    ${ }^{65}$ Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 440; Abū al-Fidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 203.

[^18]:    ${ }^{66}$ Mustawfì, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 440.
    ${ }^{67}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p, 175; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 441.
    ${ }^{68}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 21; Mustawfī has given the account of all these bloody battles which took place between the two brothers and finally ended with a peace treaty. See pp. 443, 445.

[^19]:    ${ }^{69}$ Nādira Jalālī, Tārīkh-i Āl-i Saljuq, p. 66; Abū al-Fidā’, Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 232.
    ${ }^{70}$ Abū al-Fidā' gives a detailed account of this fierce battle, see vol. 3, pp. 9, 10; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 455, 456.

[^20]:    ${ }^{71}$ Ibid, p. 457.
    ${ }^{72}$ For details see Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 467.
    ${ }^{73}$ Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 464-471; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 364; Nīshāpūrī, The History of the Seljuq Turks (English version), pp. 152, 153.
    ${ }^{74}$ For more details see Mustawfì, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 472, 473.

[^21]:    ${ }^{75}$ Mustawfí, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 472, 473.
    ${ }^{76}$ Mustawfì, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 441; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 175.
    ${ }^{77}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, pp. 206, 207.
    ${ }^{78}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 217.
    ${ }^{79}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, years 490, 494,495; Ibn Wāṣil, Jamāl al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Sālim. Mufarrij al-Kurūb fì Akhbār banı̄ Ayyūb, ed. by Jamāl al-Dīn al-Shayyāl. Cairo: Maṭba'at Jāmi‘at Fu’ād alAwwal, 1953, vol. 1, p. 9

[^22]:    ${ }^{80}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 136; Mustawfī, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 473.
    ${ }^{81}$ Mustawfì, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, p. 174.
    ${ }^{82}$ For further details see Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, pp. 221, 222.
    ${ }^{83}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 9, p. 48.

[^23]:    ${ }^{84}$ For more details see Nādira Jalālī, Tārīkh-i Āl-i Saljūq, pp. 81-83; Rice, The Seljuks in Asia Minor, pp. 57-61.
    ${ }^{85}$ Nādira Jalālī, Tārī̄hh-i $\overline{A l}-i$ Saljū̄q, pp. 73-86; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 9, pp. 267, 268.

[^24]:    ${ }^{86}$ Mustawfî, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 479, 480; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 9, p. 381.
    
    ${ }^{88}$ Nādira Jalāl̄̄, Tārīkh-i $\overline{A l} l-i$ Saljūq, pp. 95, 96; Claude Cahen. The Formation of Turkey: the Seljukid Sultanate of Rūm, Eleventh to fourteenth century, ed. by Peter Holt. Harlow: Longman, 2001. The author provides a list of Sultans of Rum with their genealogy. See pp. 277, 278.

[^25]:    ${ }^{89}$ Mawdūdī gave a brief account at the beginning of his book see, Salājiqa, pp. 31-38; Bosworth, The Ghaznavids, pp. 106, 266-268.
    ${ }^{90}$ Qāḍīs were bound to give decisions according to Sharī‘a Law see, Niẓām al-Mulk, Abū al-Ḥasan ibn 'Alī. Siyāsat Nāma, Tehran: Tahūrī Press, 1956, pp. 43-49.

[^26]:    ${ }^{91}$ Nizā̄m al-Mulk, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapter 43; Klausner, Carl L. The Seljuk Vizīrate: A Study of civil administration, pp. 20, 21.
    ${ }^{92}$ Nizāām, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapter 43.
    ${ }^{93}$ Niẓām, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapter 35.

[^27]:    ${ }^{94}$ Ibrāhīm, A History of the Seljuk Turks, pp. 88, 89.
    ${ }^{95}$ See Ibn Jawzī, al-Muntaẓam, vol. 8, p. 284.

[^28]:    ${ }^{96}$ Klausner, The Seljuk Vizīrate, pp. 27, 28.

[^29]:    ${ }^{97}$ Ḥasan al-Ṣabbāh the founder of the bātinī movement was morally and financially supported by the Fāṭimids of Egypt, see al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 2, p. 208.
    ${ }^{98}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar, vol. 2, p. 173.

[^30]:    ${ }^{99}$ Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, years 570, 571.
    ${ }^{100}$ Niẓām, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapter 26.

[^31]:    ${ }^{104}$ Hillenbrand, Carole. Turkish myth and Muslims Symbol the battle of Manzikert, Edinburgh: University Press, 2007, p. 7.
    ${ }^{105}$ Niẓām, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapter, 5; The Cambridge History of Iran (Seljuk and Mongol Period), vol. 5, p. 211.

[^32]:    ${ }^{106}$ Nādira Jalā1̄̄, Tārıīkh-i Āl-i Saljūq, pp. 28-31; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 39,40; Aḥmad al-Shalabī. alTārīkh al-Islāmı̄ wa al-Ḥaḍāra al-Islāmiyya, Cairo :Dār al-Nahḍa, 1966, vol. 4, p. 64.
    ${ }^{107}$ The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 210, 211.
    ${ }^{108}$ Abū al-Fidā', Kitāb al-Mukhtașar, vol. 2, p. 236; Mawlawī, Thanā Allāh. The Decline of the Saljūqid Empire, Calcutta: University of Calcutta Press, 1938, pp. 54-58.
    ${ }^{109}$ Mawlawī, Thanā Allāh. The Decline of the Saljūqid Empire, pp. 7, 8.

[^33]:    110 For brief information on all of them, see Bosworth, Clifford Edmund. The Islamic dynasties, (Islamic Surveys) Edinburgh: University Press, c1976, Chapters 6 and 7 .
    ${ }^{111}$ Nādira Jalāl̄̄, Tārīkh-i Āl-i Saljūq, pp. 28-31; Ibn Wāṣil, Mufarrij al-Kurūb, under the title Ibtidā ${ }^{\prime}$ Dawla al-Atābikiyya, vol. 1, pp. 11-18.

[^34]:    ${ }^{112}$ See Siyāsat Nāma of Nizāām al-Mulk which reflects the structure of their government.
    ${ }^{113}$ Nizā̄m, Siyāsat Nāma, p. 7; al-Ḥusaynī, Akhbār Dawlat al-Saljūqiyya, p. 71.
    ${ }^{114}$ For example Tughril Beg, Muḥammad, Chaghri Beg, Dawūd, Alp-Arslan, Muḥammad, Sanjar, Aḥmad and so forth.
    ${ }^{115}$ Tughril Beg, Abū Ṭālib, Rukn al-Dīn Yamīn amīr al-Mu'minīn, Alp-Arslan, Abū Shujā' 'Adud alDawla, Burhān amīr al-Mu'minīn, Sanjar, Abū al-Hārith, Mu'izz al-Dīn, Burhān amīr al-Mu'minīn, and so forth. Only the Great Sultan Malik Shāh held the highest title of Qasīm Amīr al-Mu'minīn, the partner of the caliph in all matters see al-Qalqashqandī, Aḥmad ibn 'Alī. Cairo: al-Maṭba'a alAmīriyya, 1915, vol. 5, pp. 486, 488.
    ${ }^{116}$ Niẓām, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapter, 28.

[^35]:    ${ }^{117}$ See The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 223-228; Ibrāhīm, A History of the Seljuks, p. 104.
    ${ }^{118}$ Klausner, The Seljuk Vezīrate; A study of civil administration. Harvard: University Press, 1973, pp. 14-21.

[^36]:    ${ }^{119}$ Nizām, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapters, 9, 21, 48, 50.
    ${ }^{120}$ Klausner, The Seljuk Vezīrate; $A$ study of civil administration, pp. 20, 21, 38.
    ${ }^{121}$ Nizā̄m, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapters 5, 6.
    ${ }^{122}$ The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 236-239.

[^37]:    ${ }^{123}$ Niẓām, Siyāsat Nāma, Chapter 6; Klausner, The Seljuk Vezīrate, pp. 21-27.
    ${ }^{124}$ See Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 8, pp. 953-941.
    ${ }^{125}$ Ibrāhīm, A History of the Seljuks, p. 108.

[^38]:    ${ }^{126}$ For example, of Nizāām al-Mulk's family, five of his sons, two of his grandsons and one greatgrandson held the office, see The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, p. 264.
    ${ }^{127}$ For further detail see The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 277-280.

[^39]:    ${ }^{128}$ Encyclopaedia of Islam, Edited by C. E. Bosworth ... [et. al.] Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1955, vol. 8, pp. 954, 955.
    ${ }^{129}$ For details see Claude Cahen, The Formation of Turkey, pp. 112-122.
    ${ }^{130}$ The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 280-282.
    ${ }^{131}$ See Encyclopaedia of Islam, E. J. Brill, 1955, vol. 8, pp. 958, 959.

[^40]:    ${ }^{132}$ Mustawfî, Tārīkh-i Guzīda, pp. 449, 450.
    ${ }^{133}$ For details see Claude Cahen, The Formation of Turkey, pp. 97-99.

[^41]:    ${ }^{134} A k h \bar{\imath}$ was exactly like the Shaykh of a religious order (tarīqa) with respect to influence and power and it was an official post.
    ${ }^{135}$ Vryonis, Speros Jr. The Decline of the Medieval Hellenism in Asia Minor and the process of Islamization from the eleventh through the fifteenth century. London: University of California Press, 1971, p. 22; Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 8, p. 959.
    ${ }^{136}$ For Māturīdī’s life history see Abū Manṣūr, Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad. Kitāb al-Tawḥīd, ed. Fath Allāh Khalīf. Beirut: Dār al-Sharq, 1970. The editor gives a brief note on his life history, pp. 1-10.
    ${ }^{137}$ Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 3, pp. 162-164; Ian Edge. Islamic Law and Legal Theory, New York: University Press, 1996, pp. 378-387.

[^42]:    ${ }^{138}$ See Bulliet, Richard W. The Patricians of Nīshāpūr, Harvard: University Press, 1972, pp. 2-20. The author gives a brief account of the Ḥanafī Ashā‘irī rift.
    ${ }^{139}$ Klausner, The Seljuk Vezīrate: A study of civil administration, pp. 21-23.

[^43]:    ${ }^{140}$ Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 33-35.
    ${ }^{141}$ The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 283-290.

[^44]:    ${ }^{142}$ For details, see The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 296-302; Cahen, The Formation of Turkey, pp. 159-169; Jan Rypka, History of Iranian Literature, pp. 226-230.

[^45]:    ${ }^{143}$ See Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, year 497.
    ${ }^{144}$ Ibid, year 495.
    ${ }^{145}$ Ibid, year 495.
    146 For example when Mas‘ūd was defeated and Seljuk forces entered Khwārazm Qāạī Ṣā‘id was selected by the people of the city to negotiate with Tughril. See Ibn Athīr, al-Kāmil, vol. 8, p. 25; Mawdūdī, Salājiqa, pp. 124,125.
    ${ }^{147}$ Klausner, The Seljuk Vezīrate, p. 25.

[^46]:    ${ }^{148}$ This was Ṣadr al-Dīn qāḍ̂̄ of Marāgha, See Bundārī, ‘Alī ibn Muḥammad al-Iṣfahānī. Tawārīkh $\overline{A l}-i$ Saljūq, abridgement of 'Imād al-Dīn al-Iṣfahān̄̄’s book (Kitāb Zubdat al-Nuṣra wa Nukḥbat al'Uşra), Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1889, p. 303.
    ${ }^{149}$ Ibn Jawzī, al-Muntazam, vol. 9, p. 208.
    ${ }^{150}$ See Klausner, The Seljuk Vezīrate, p. 27.
    ${ }^{151}$ Al-Subkī, Tāj al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Wāḥid ibn 'Alī. Țabaqāt al-Shāfi ‘īyya al-Kubrā, Cairo: al-Maṭba'a alḤusayniyya, AH132, vol. 3, pp. 135-138; The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, p. 211.

[^47]:    ${ }^{152}$ The institutes which were established by Nizā̄m al-Mulk took the name of Nizāāiyya and they were like colleges, with scholarships, good salaries for the professors and a traditional and well organized course of studies.
    ${ }^{153}$ Shalabī, al-Tārīkh al-Islāmī wa al-Hadāara al-Islāmiyya, vol. 4, pp 73-75; Brockelmann, Târīkh alShu'ūbiyya al-Islāmiyya, Beirut: Dār al-‘Ilm, 1965, pp. 274, 275.
    ${ }^{154}$ Jurjī̄ Zaydān gives a sufficient account regarding this Madrasa, see Tārīkh al-Tamaddun al-Islāmī, Cairo: Maṭba‘at Dār al-Hilāl, 1953, vol. 3, pp. 222-227.

[^48]:    ${ }^{155}$ According to Jurjī Zaydān, although some lower level Madrasas existed at that time the Nizāamiyya was the first regular university of the world, Tārīkh al-Tamaddun al-Islām̄̄, Cairo: vol. 3, pp. 222-227; Klausner, The Seljuk Vezīrate, pp. 70, 71.
    ${ }^{156}$ Brockelmann, Tārīkh al-Shu ‘ūbiyya al-Islāmiyya, pp. 276-278.
    ${ }^{157}$ Naṣr, the writer of Science and Civilization in Islam, says ' the development of the observatory reached new heights with that 'Maragha'" in 657/1261. Maragha was not just a place for astronomical observation; it was a complex scientific institution, in which nearly every branch of science was taught, and where the most famous scientists of the world were assembled. The institute was headed by Nizāam al-Dīn al-Ṭūsī; and included Quṭb al-Dīn Shīrāzī, who is credited with the discovery of the true cause of the rainbow. See Naṣr, Sayyid Ḥusayn. Science and Civilization in Islam, Cambridge: University Press, 1968, pp. 80, 81; Zaydān, Tārīkh al-Tamaddun al-Islām̄̄, vol. 3, pp. 216, 217.

[^49]:    ${ }^{158}$ The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 621-625.
    ${ }^{159}$ See Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, p. 283.

[^50]:    ${ }^{160}$ See Shafaq Riḍā Zāda. Tārīkh Adabiyāt Iran, Teheran: Wizārat Farhang, AH1321, pp. 105, 108, 162, 169, 175, 218; Jan Rypka, History of Iranian Literature, pp. 283-302.
    ${ }^{161}$ According to Arberry "the twelfth century was the golden age of the panegyric in Persia. It rose to its new heights of prosperity in the reign of Alp Arslān, Malik Shāh, Berk Yaruq, and above all Sanjar''. Arberry, A. J. Classical Persian literature, London: George Allen and Unwin, 1958, p. 79.
    ${ }^{162}$ For details, see The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 555, 562, 563, 568, 572; The Cambridge History of Islam, vol. 2B, pp. 684-688.
    ${ }^{163}$ See The Cambridge History of Iran (Seljuk period), ed. J. A .Boyle. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1968, vol. 5, pp. 602-604.

[^51]:    164 For more detail, see Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 8, pp. 950-970; Rice,Tamara Talbot. The Seljuks in Asia Minor, London: Thames and Hudson, 1961, pp.157-187; Dury Carl. J. Art of Islam, New York: H. N. Ibrams, c1970, pp 86-105.
    ${ }^{165}$ Barbra Brend. Islamic Art, London: British Museum Press, 2001, pp. 70-81.

[^52]:    ${ }^{166}$ See The Cambridge History of Islam, vol. 2B, pp. 216-225,
    ${ }^{167}$ Oleg Graber. Islamic Architecture and its Decoration, London: Faber and Faber 1964, pp. 21-37.
    ${ }^{168}$ Al-Baghdādī, Ṣafī al-Dīn 'Abd al-Mu'min. Kitāb al-Adwār, Baghdad: Dār al-Thaqāfa wa al-A'lām, 1980, pp. 139-144, 158-161.

[^53]:    169 See al-Ṣāḥibī, Abū al-Ḥasan Aḥmad ibn Fāris al-Zakariyyā. F̄̄ fiqh al-lugha wa sunan al-'arab fí kalāmihā, Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Mu'ayyad, 1910, p. 18; Ibn Khaldūn also mentions in his Muqaddima, when Islam came and the Arabs left Hijāz in order to conquer the empires, they met with non-Arabs and their language began to change. See Ibn Khaldūn, Muqaddima, vol. 1, p. 500.

[^54]:    ${ }^{170}$ Furayḥa, Anīs. Naḥw al-'Arabiyya al-Muyasarra, Bereit: Dār al-Thaqāfa, 1955, pp. 21-25.
    ${ }^{171}$ Ibn Jinnī. al-Khaṣā 'iṣ, vol. 2, p. 8; Shawqī Ḍayf, al-Madāris al-Naḥwiyya, p.11; Ibn al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', ed. by Ibrāhīm al-Sāmarrā'ī. Baghdad: Maṭba'at al-Ma‘ārif, 1959, p. 2.
    ${ }^{172}$ Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, p. 2; al-Sīrāfī, Akhbār al-naḥwiyyīn, pp. 10-17; al-Sayyid, 'Abd al-Raḥmān. Madrasat al-Baṣra al-Naḥwiyya, pp. 51, 52; Abū al-Ṭayyib, 'Abd al-Wāḥid ibn 'Alī. Marātib alNaḥwiyyīn, ed. Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm. Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Nahḍa, 1955, pp. 6, 7.

[^55]:    ${ }^{173}$ See Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 7, 8; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, p. 2; Yāqūt, Ibn 'Abd Allāh al- Ḥamawī. Kitāb Irshād al-arīb fì Ma'rifat al-Adīb, London, Luzac: 1923-1930, vol. 7, p. 210; al-Suyūṭ̂, Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 313, 314; al-Sīrāfī, Akhbār al-Nahwiyyīn al-Başriyyīn, pp.16, 17; al-Sayyid, Madrasat al-Basra al-Nahwiyya, pp. 51, 52.
    ${ }^{174}$ Al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp.19, 20; Ibn al-Athīr, Tārīkh, vol. 4, p. 224; al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 6. 7; al-Sīrāfì, Akhbār al-Nahwiyȳ̄n, pp. 17, 18; al-Suyūtī̀, Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 91.
    ${ }^{175}$ Ibn al-Anbārī. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', p. 4.

[^56]:    ${ }^{176}$ Ibn al-Anbār̄̄. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', p. 5; al-Sīrāfí, Akhbār al-Nahwiyyīn al-Basriyyīn, p. 14; Shawqī Dayf, al-Madāris al-Nahwiyya, p.15; al-Zubaydī, Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥasan. Ṭabaqāt al-Naḥwiyyīn wa alLughawiyyīn, Cairo: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, 1954, p. 14.
    ${ }^{177}$ See Ibn al-Anbārī. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp.5, 6; al-Suyūtī̀, al-Ashbāh wa al-Nazā̀ ir, vol. 1, pp. 7, 8; alZubaydī, Țabaqāt, p. 13.
    ${ }^{178}$ Ibn al-Anbārī. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 2, 3; Ibn al-Nadīm, Muḥammad ibn Isḥāq. Kitāb al-Fihrist, Leipzig: F. C. W. Vogel, 1871-8172, p. 40.

[^57]:    ${ }^{179}$ See Sībawayh, Kitāb, vol. 1, p. 12.
    180 al-Anbārī. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 4, 5; al-Sīrāfī, Abī Sa‘īd al-Ḥasan ibn 'Abd Allāh. Akhbār alNaḥwiyyīn al-Baṣriyyīn, p. 12; Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, pp. 40, 41.
    ${ }^{181}$ Al-Zubaydī. Țabaqāt, pp. 43-48; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 1, p. 341; al-Sīrāfī, Akhbār al-Naḥwiyyīn, pp. 30-32.

[^58]:    182 Kees, Versteegh. The Arabic Language, pp. 56, 57.
    ${ }^{183}$ Ibn Khaldūn. Muqaddima, al-Maṭba‘a al-Adabiyya, Beirut: 1886, vol. 1, p. 500.

[^59]:    184 The translation of this paragraph has been borrowed from Kees Versteegh's book, Landmarks in Linguistic Thought, pp. 153,154.
    ${ }^{185}$ Chejne, The Arabic Language: Its Role in History, p. 34.
    ${ }^{186}$ Kees, The Arabic Language, pp. 71, 72; Chejne, The Arabic Language: its role in history, pp. 38, 39.
    ${ }^{187}$ Nicholson partly expresses the situation as follow: If the pride and delight of the Arabs in their noble language led them to regard the maintenance of its purity as a national duty, they were generally bound by their religious conviction to take measures for ensuring the correct pronunciation and interpretation of that

[^60]:    ${ }^{189}$ Al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, p. 63; Ibn al-Anbārī. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 53-56; al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī. Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 14, p. 146.
    ${ }^{190}$ Ibn al-Anbār̄̄̄. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 42-48; al-Sīrāfí, Akhbār al-Nahwiyȳ̄̄, pp. 32, 33, 35, 36; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 2, p. 265; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 138-142; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 2, pp. 457, 458; Ibn Jazarī, Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad. Kitāb Ghāyat al Nihāya fi Ţabaqāt alQurrāa', Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Sa‘āda, 1935, vol. 1, pp. 535-545; al-Khṭī, Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 11, pp, 403415.
    ${ }^{191}$ Ibn al-Anbārī. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 65-68; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 143-146; al-Khatịib, Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 14, p. 149.
    ${ }^{192}$ See al-Makhzūmī. Madrasat al-Baṣra, pp. 144,145.
    ${ }^{193}$ Ibn al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 91-93; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp.74-76; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 2, p. 36; al-Suyụ̣̄̂i. Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 1, pp. 590, 591; al-Sīrāfì, Akhbār al-Nahwiyyīn alBaşriyyīn, pp. 38-41; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'àt al-Jinān, Shawqī, al-Madāris al-Nahwiyya, pp. 94-108.

[^61]:    ${ }^{194}$ Ibn Shuhba, Țabaqāt al-Nuhāt, p. 167; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 7, p. 76; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 2, p. 180; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifîn, vol.10, p .169; al-Nubāhī, 'Al̄̄ ibn 'Abd Allāh. Tārīkh Qudāt alAndalus: aw al-Marqaba al-'ulyā fì man yastahiqq al-qaḍā' wa al-futyā, Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al'Ilmiyya,1995, p.13; al-Khushanī, Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥārith. Quḍāt Qurțaba wa 'Ulamā' Afrīqa, Baghdad: Maktabat al-Khānjī, 1953. p. 18.
    ${ }^{195}$ Cambridge History of Arabic Literature (Abbasid Belles Lettres), p.124; al-Makhzūmī. Madrasat alKūfa, pp. 143-146.
    ${ }^{196}$ Al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 92-100; al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 124-129; al-Sīrāfī, Akhbār alNaḥwiyyīn, pp. 57-65; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 1, p. 246; al-Khaṭīb, Tāriīkh Baghdād, vol. 7, p. 93; Ibn Kathīr. Tārī̄k ibn al-Kathīr, vol. 10, p. 352.

[^62]:    ${ }^{197}$ For further detail see al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp.148-160; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 108-120; alSīrāfī, Akhbār al-nahwiyyīn, pp, 53-56; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 241; al-Khaṭīb, Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 3, p. 380; Ibn Athīr, Tārīkh ibn al-Athīr, vol. 6, p. 91.
    ${ }^{198}$ For more detail see Makhzūmī, Madrasat al-Kūfa wa manhajuhā, pp. 63-74.

[^63]:    ${ }^{199}$ Examples of this abusive poetry can be seen in Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 55, 56; al-Zubaydī, Tabaqāt, p. 63; al-Sīrāfì also mentioned some verses of this poetry as

    $$
    \begin{aligned}
    & \text { فكلهم يعمل في نقص ما به يصـاب الحق لا يأتلي } \\
    & \text { إن ألكسائي و أثشياعه }
    \end{aligned}
    $$

    Akhbār al-Nahwiyyīn, pp. 32-36.
    ${ }^{200}$ See al-Sīrāfī, Akhbār al-Naḥwiyyīn, pp. 28, 34, 40, 43, 68, 77; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 155-168; alQifṭi, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 1, p. 138; Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 5, p. 204.
    ${ }^{201}$ For his life history detail see Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 1, p. 335; Nuzhat al-Alibbā', p. 62; al-Qifṭi, Inbāh alRuwāt, vol. 3, p. 57; Tārīkh ibn al-Athīr, vol. 6, p. 140.
    202 According to Shawqī Dayf, Ibn Jinnī and Ibn Kaysān were the main pillars of this new School, see alMadāris al-Naḥwiyya, pp. 245-255.

[^64]:    ${ }^{203}$ For more detail see G. Bohas, J-P. Guillaume. The Arabic Linguistic Tradition, pp. 6-8.
    204 For more than a century the city of Baghdad was torn between the two schools, and only later succeeded in establishing its own eclectic school which borrowed freely from the resources of the other two. See Shawqī, al-Madāris al-Naḥwiyya, pp. 245-255.
    ${ }^{205}$ Al-Makhzūmī, Madrasat al-Kūfa wa manhajuhā, pp. 358-368; Kees, Arabic Grammar and Qur'ānic Exegesis in Early Islam, Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1993, pp.194, 198.

[^65]:    ${ }^{206}$ For further detail see al-Ba‘albakī, Ramzī. The Early Islamic Grammatical Tradition, Aldershot: Ashgate, 2006, pp. 27-35
    ${ }^{207}$ See his life history in Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 211-213; al-Qiftī̀, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 1, p. 313; alKhaṭīb, Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 7, p. 241; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 129, 130; al-Yāfi ‘ī, Mir'àt al-Jinān, vol. 2, p. 390; Ibn al-Athīr, Tārīkh, vol. 7, p. 97.
    ${ }^{208}$ See Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 4, pp. 119,120.

[^66]:    ${ }^{209}$ For further detail sees Abū Ḥayyān al-Tawhịīdī. Kitāb al-Imtā' wa al-Mu'ānasa, ed. Aḥmad Amīn and Aḥmad al-Zayn. Cairo: Lajnat al-Ta’līf wa al-Tarjama wa al-Nashr, 1939, vol. 1, pp. 108-128.

[^67]:    ${ }^{210}$ For further detail see Ibn Jinnī, al-Khasāàiş, vol. 1, pp. 4-31.
    ${ }^{211}$ For his life history see al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 122-125; al-Sīrāfì, Akhbār al-Nahwiyyūn, pp. 53-55; alAnbār̄̄. Nuzhat al-Alibbā', p. 170, 171; al-Qifṭì, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 145.

[^68]:    ${ }^{212}$ Ibn Jinnī stresses that he is only concerned with those 'illas that are provided by the most skilful and meticulous grammarians, rather than those that are provided by weak and unworthy practitioners of the science of grammar. Operating within this framework, he further says that ta ${ }^{\prime} \bar{l} l$ in grammar is neither theological nor juridical in character, but that it is on the whole closer to ta ${ }^{c} \bar{l} \bar{l}$ in theology than it is to $\mathrm{ta}{ }^{c} \bar{l} l$ in jurisprudence. See al-Khasā $\begin{gathered}\text { iss, vol. 1, pp. 46, } 47 .\end{gathered}$
    See al-Tha‘lab, Aḥmad ibn Yaḥyā. Majālis Tha 'lab, Cairo: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, 1948-1949, vol. 1, p. 216.
    ${ }^{214}$ see al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 2, p. 160; al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', p. 211; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, p. 129 .

[^69]:    ${ }^{215}$ See al-Zajjaj̄jī, 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Ishāq. Kitāb al-Lāmāt, ed. Māzin al-Mubārak. Damascus: alMaṭba‘a al-Hāshimīyya, 1969, pp. 22, 23.
    ${ }^{216}$ Al-Zirkilī, al-A ${ }^{\prime}$ lām, vol. 1, p. 184; al-Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 2, p. 309.

[^70]:    ${ }^{221}$ See Ḥabashī, Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad, Maṣādir al-Fikr al-Islāmī al-Arabī fī al-Yaman, Ṣan‘ā’: Markaz al-Dirāsāt al-Yamaniyya, 1997, p.19; Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt al-'Arabiyya, p. 288; Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, pp. 275,276; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, p. 106.
    ${ }^{222}$ Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 7, p. 318; al-A'lām, vol. 5, p. 223; Mir'ät al-Jinān, vol. 4, p. 70; al-Dhahabī, Tadhkirat al-Huffāz, vol. 4, p. 238; Suyūūī, Bughyat al-Wu ‘āt, vol. 2, pp. 134, 135.
    ${ }^{223}$ For his life history detail see Kaḥhāla, Mu 'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 11, p. 215; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 7, p. 263; Sarkīs, Mu 'jam al-Matbū 'āt al- 'Arabiyya, pp. 25, 26; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 145; Brockelmann, G: 2, p. 308, S: 2, p. 332; al-Suyūtịi, Bughya al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 238, 239.

[^71]:    ${ }^{224}$ Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifinn, vol. 9, p. 183; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 6, p. 317; Kubrāzāa, Miftāh alSa‘āda, vol.1, p. 147; al-Khatīib al-Baghdādī, Khazānat al-Adab, vol. 1, p. 12; al-‘Āmilī, Muḥsin alḤusaynī. $A^{\prime}$ yān al-Shī $a$, Damascus: Dār al-Taraqqī, 1936, vol. 44, pp. 12-16.
    ${ }^{225}$ For his life history detail see Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 10, p. 234; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 7, p. 111; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 140.

[^72]:    ${ }^{226}$ Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 143; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifinn, vol. 6, p. 163; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 4, p. 29; Kubrāzāda, Miftāh al-Sa āada, vol. 1, p. 159; Taghrī Birdī, al-Nujūm al-Z̄āhira, vol. 10 , p. 336.
    ${ }^{227}$ For his life history, see al-Anbār̄̄̄, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', pp. 181-188; al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, p. 171; alZirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 7, pp. 226, 227; al-Nujūm al-Z̧āhira, vol. 3, p. 269; al-Khaṭīb, Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 3, p. 181; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 2, p. 182; Ibn Abī Ya'lā, Muḥammad ibn Muḥammad. Țabaqāt al-Hanäbila, Cairo: Matba‘at al-Sunna al-Muḥammadiyya, 1952, vol. 2, p. 69

[^73]:    ${ }^{228}$ The building was begun in Dhū al-Hijja 457/1065. Țurtūshī in the Sirāj al-Mulūk relates the story of its construction and the embezzlement of part of the funds allocated to this. See Ṭurṭūshī, Abū Bakr Muḥmmad ibn al-Walīd. Sirāj al-Mulūk, Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a al-Maḥmūdiyya, 1935, pp. 239, 240.
    ${ }^{229}$ The Cambridge History of Iran, pp. 215,216; Ṭurṭūshī, Sirāj al-Mulūk, p. 238.

[^74]:    ${ }^{230}$ Maqrī̄̄̄̄ gives detail of madrasas; see Maqrī̄̄̄̄, Ahạad ibn 'Alī̀ ibn 'Abd al-Qādir. Kitāb al-Mawā ị̛ wa al-I'tibār bi-dhikr al-Khitat wa Āthār, Cairo: Maṭba‘a al-Nīl, 1326, pp. 191-262; Tritton, A.S. Materials on Muslim Education in the Middle Ages, London, Luzac: 1957, pp. 100, 101.
    ${ }^{231}$ Al-Subkī, Țabaqāt al-Shāfi ‘‘̌yya al-Kubrā, vol. 3, pp. 135-141; Jurjī Zaydān, Tārīkh al-Tamaddun alIslām̄̄, vol. 3, pp. 22-225; The Cambridge History of Iran, vol. 5, pp. 216, 217.
    ${ }^{232}$ Ibn Khaldūn. Muqaddima, vol. 1, p. 500.

[^75]:    ${ }^{233}$ Al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 262, 264, 282.
    ${ }^{234}$ See Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 2, p. 233; Lughda, al-Ḥasan ibn 'Abd Allāh al-Iṣbahānī. Bilād al- 'Arab, al-Riyād: Dār al-Yamāma lil-baḥth wa al-tarjama wa al-nashr, 1968, preface of the book
    ${ }^{235}$ Al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 57; Ibn al-Anbārī, Nuzhat al-Alibbā', p. 162; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, pp. 170, 171; al-Khaṭīb, Tāriīkh Baghdād, vol. 1, p. 335; Ibn Athīr, Tārīkh, vol. 6, p 140; Taghrī Birdī, al-Nujūm al-Zāhira, vol. 3, p. 78.

[^76]:    ${ }^{236}$ Al-Bākharzī, Dumyat al-Qaṣr wa 'Ușrat ahl al- 'Aṣr, Ḥalab: al-Maṭba‘a al-‘Ilmīyya, 1930, p. 297; Ibn al-Athīr, Tārīkh, vol. 7, p. 219; al-Qifṭī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol.2, pp. 335-340; al-Khaṭīb, Tārī̄kh Baghdād, vol. 11, p. 311; al-Yāfi‘ī, Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 2, p. 445.
    ${ }^{237}$ Al-Zubaydī, Țabaqāt, pp. 301-305; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 330; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 4, p. 254; Kaḥhāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin, vol. 13, p. 83; Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū 'āt al- 'Arabiyya, p. 1520.
    ${ }^{238}$ He was Abū al-Ḥasan Țāhir ibn Aḥmad and generally known as Bābashadh, who was born and brought up in Iraq and came to Egypt as a trader and lived there till death. His work includes al-Muqaddima fí alNaḥw, Sharh al-Jumal li al-Zajjājī and Sharh al-UṣūI li Ibn Sarrāj, For his life history see, al-Suyūṭī, Husan al-Muhāḍara, vol.1, p. 228; Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 2, pp.199, 200; Bughyat alWu'āt, vol. 2, p.17; Taghrī, Bird̄̄. al-Nujūm al-Ẓāhira, vol. 5, p.105; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 3, p. 318.

[^77]:    ${ }^{247}$ Kahḥāla,‘Umar Riḍā. Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, Damascus: Maṭba’at al-Taraqqī, 1957, vol. 5, p 232, vol. 13, pp. 71, 72; al-Ḥamawī, Yāqūt ibn 'Abd Allāh al-Rūmī. Mu'jam al-Udabā’, Beirut: Dār al-Ṣādir, 1957, vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; al-Qarshī, 'Abd al-Qādir ibn Abī al-Wafā'. al-Jawāhir al-Mudịi'a fì Ṭabaqāt al-

[^78]:    ${ }^{278}$ As mentioned by Yāsīn Maḥmūd al-Khatīb, the editor of al-Muṭarrizī’s book al-Miṣbāh, Maḥmūd alFākhūrī̀, and 'Abd al-Ḥamīd al-Mukhtār, the editor of al-Mughrib fì Tartīb al-Mu 'rib, for details see Yāsīn Maḥmūd, preamble of al-Miṣbāh, al-Fākhūrī and 'Abd al-Ḥamīd, al-Mughrib fī Tartīb al-Mu'rib.
    ${ }^{279}$ See Ibn Khallikān, Wafayāt al-A' yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.
    ${ }^{280}$ See al-Kutubī, Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, p. 182; Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; al-Qiftī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p. 340; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 354, 355; al-Tabrī̄ī, Rayhānat alAdab, vol. 4, p. 34, in Fawāt al-Wafayät this poetic verse is given as,
    و إنّي لأستحي من الشه أن أرى أن أليف غواني

[^79]:    ${ }^{281}$ Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, p. 213.

[^80]:    282 al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀'a, vol. 2, p. 190; Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, p. 183.

[^81]:    ${ }^{304}$ See Brockelmann, vol. S: 1, p. 549; Brockelmann, vol. 6, p. 11.
    ${ }^{305}$ Brockelmann, vol. S: 1, p. 623; Brockelmann, vol. 6, p. 247.

[^82]:    ${ }^{311}$ See Brockelmann, S: 1, pp. 549, 623, 642; Brockelmann, vol. 6, pp.11, 247, 301.
    ${ }^{312}$ See Brockelmann, vol. 6, p.11. Regarding the book, the statement of Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin goes in favour of al-Khāṣī, vol. 13, p. 52; al-A lām, vol. 8, p. 290; Kashf al-Z̧unūn, pp. 815, 1837.
    ${ }^{313}$ Ibn Qutllubghā (802-879/1399-1474).
    Zayn al-Milla wa al-Dīn Abū al-Faḍl al-Qāsim ibn 'Abd Allāh al-Ḥanafī, an Egyptian scholar of hadī̄th and religious law, was born in Cairo. His father passed away when he was still young. He supported himself in his youth as an accomplished tailor. He learned hadīth from 'Izz al-Dīn ibn Ḍamma‘ā and Ibn Hajar, but his principal Shaykh was Ibn al-Hammām. His works were the usual commentaries on legal school texts, compilation of traditions, glosses, additions, indexes of legal works, studies on Abū Ḥanīfa and his Musnad (Fatāwā), legal problems and the like. His work Tāj al-Tarājim, the brief biographies of Hanafi authors, gave him a good repute in literary world. The following are his most important works:

    Gharīb al-Qur'ān wa Taqdīm al-Lisān, Nuzhat al-Rā’id fì Adillat al-Farā’iḍ', Talkhīs Dawlat al-Turk, Sharh al-Majma', Sharh Mukhtasar al-Manār and some other books.

    See Brockelmann, S: 2, p. 93; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 167; al-A 'lām, vol. 6, p.14, 15; Täj al-Tarājim, pp. 73-75; al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, (footnote) p. 99; al-Sakhāwī, Shams al-Dīn ibn ‘Abd al-Raḥmān. al-Ḍaw' al-Lāmi', Cairo: Maktabat al-Qudsī, AH1353, vol. 6, p.184; Mu'jam alMu'allifin, vol. 8, p. 111; First Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 3, p. 400; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed, vol. 3, pp. 848,849.

[^83]:    315 Khāṣ is a name of town near Khwārazm. He is called al-Khāṣi because he used to live there, it is a nisba, See al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̄̀’a, vol. 2, p. 188; al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 289; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, footnote vol. 13, p. 52.
    ${ }^{316}$ See the above mentioned reference.
    ${ }^{317}$ In Mu'jam al-Mu'aliffín his date of death is mentioned as 634/1237

[^84]:    ${ }^{318}$ See al-A ‘lām, vol. 8, p. 291; al-Jawāhir al-Mudī’'a, vol. 2, p. 188; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 13, p. 52.
    ${ }^{319}$ Unfortunately the dictionaries do not mention anything regarding his life history apart from this, that he was a hadith scholar and that al-Mutarrizī took some lessons from him.
    ${ }^{320}$ See al-Jawāhir al-Mudī̀'a, vol. 2, p.190; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 354, 355; Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, p. 212; Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370.
    ${ }^{321}$ For his life history, see reference number 50 .
    ${ }^{322}$ Muḥammad ibn Qāsim al-Khwārazmī al-Naḥwī (490-562/1097-1167) was commonly known by his title al-BaqqāĪi. He was a writer, philologist and a man of letters. After receiving his early education from alZamakhsharī he started his career as a religious scholar. He was a virtuous and very magnanimous person and was a key figure of the h Heanafî school of thought. His work covers almost all the fields of literature. His work includes, Miftāh al-Tanzīl, Taqwīm al-Lisān fì al-Nahw, al-I ${ }^{\prime} \bar{a} b$ fì al-I'rāb, al-Bidāya fì alMa 'ān̄̄ wa al-Bayān and Sharh Asmā'Allāh al-Ḥusnā.
    See al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 161, 162; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 1, p. 215; Brockelmann, S: 1, pp. 513; Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, p. 05; al-Jawāhir al-Mudī̀'a, vol. 2, p. 372; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifinn, vol. 11, p. 137; Hadiyyat al-'Ārifín, vol. 2, p. 98; Tāj al-Tarājim, p. 162.

[^85]:    ${ }^{327}$ See Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 12, p. 186; al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 55; Wafayāt al- A'yān, vol. 4, pp. 254260; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21.
    ${ }^{328}$ See Mu' 'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Wafayāt al-A 'yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774.
    ${ }^{329}$ For details of his life history see Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 16, pp. 238-258; al-Jawāhir al-Mudì'a, vol. 1, p. 410; Ṣafadī, Khalīl ibn Aḥmad ibn Aybak. Kitāb al-Wāfì bi al-Wafayāt, Leipzig: Dār al-Nasr Frānzishtān̄̄r, 1931-1997, vol. 14, pp.119-121; al-Fawā 'id al-Bahiyya, pp.153, 154; Mu 'jam al-Mu'allifiñ, vol. 8, p. 98; al-A 'lām, vol. 6, pp. 8; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 252, 253; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al${ }^{\prime}$ Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 469-471; Mu' jam al-Matbū āt, p. 840; Tāj al-Tarājim, pp. 37, 122; Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 510; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-‘Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 469-471.
    ${ }^{330}$ See the above mentioned reference and book
    ${ }^{331}$ See al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp.153, 154; al-A 'lām, vol. 6, p. 08.
    ${ }^{332}$ All the biographical dictionaries mention his date of birth as above except the author of al-Jawāhir alMud̛̃' $a$, who mistakenly mentioned it as $505 / 1150$ and he missed out the word Khamsīn (كلمة خمسين) . The author of al-Fawa'id al-Bahiyya, mentioned his date of birth as $9^{\text {th }}$ of Shawwāl instead of $9^{\text {th }}$ of Sha'bān, see al-Jawāhir al-Mud̄̀’a, vol. 1, p. 410; al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 153, 154.

[^86]:    ${ }^{333}$ Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 16, pp. 238-258; al-Wafì bi-al-Wafayāt, vol. 14, pp. 119-121.
    334 al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀'a, vol. 1, p. 410; al-Fawā'id al-Bahiyya, pp.153, 154.
    ${ }^{335}$ Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 16, pp. 238-258; al-Wäfì bi- al-Wafayāt, vol. 14, pp. 119-121; al-Fawā’id alBahiyya, pp.153, 154; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 252, 253; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 469-471.
    ${ }^{336}$ al-Ṣafadī, al-Wāfì bi- al-Wafayāt, vol. 1, 4. pp. 119-121; Mu 'jam al-Udabā', vol. 16, pp. 238-258.
    ${ }^{337}$ Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 252, 253; al-Wāfí bi-al-Wafayāt, vol. 14, p. 119-121; Mu'jam alUdabā', vol. 16, pp. 238-258. This poetic verse is quoted in al-Jawāhir al-Muḍī'a as

    با زمرة الشعراء دعوة صـالح
    In Fawāt al-Wafayāt some other examples of his poetry are quoted as,

    $$
    \begin{aligned}
    & \text { يا سائلي عن كنه عُلياه إنّه } \\
    & \text { لا أعطي ما لم يعطه الثقلانُ } \\
    & \text { فمن يره في منزلٍ فكانّما } \\
    & \text { رأى كلَ إنسانِ وكلَ مكان }
    \end{aligned}
    $$

[^87]:    See al-Wäfî bi- al-Wafayāt, vol. 14, p. 119; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀'a, vol. 1, pp.119-121; Farrūkh, Tārīkh alAdab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 469-471.
    ${ }^{338}$ See Kashf al-Z.unūn, pp. 230, 956, 992, 995, 1615, 1775, 1789; Brockelmann, G: 1, pp. 255, 291, S: 1, pp. 451, 510; Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 16, pp. 225-237; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, pp. 252, 253; Mu 'jam alMu'allifîn, vol. 8, p. 98; al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 06; al-Jawāhir al-Muḍ̂̀'a, vol. 1, p. 410; al-Fawā'id alBahiyya, pp. 153, 154.
    ${ }^{339}$ See al-A‘lām, vol. 6, pp. 8; al-Jawāhir al-Mudī’'a, vol. 1, p. 410; al-Fawā’id al-Bahiyya, pp. 152, 153.

[^88]:    ${ }^{340}$ See Miftāh al-Sa'āda, vol. 1, p.108; al-Khwānsārī, Muḥammad Bāqir al-Mūsawī. Rawdāt al-Jannāt fī Ahwāl al-'Ulamā' wa al-Sādāt, ed. Muḥammad 'Alī Rawḍātī, Tehran: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 1962, vol. 4, p. 731; Shaybān̄̄, Mu'jam al-Alqāb, vol. 2, p. 366; but in Mu'jam al-Udabā', the name of the book is mentioned as al-Mughrib fì Gharīb Alfāz al-Fuqahā', and in Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī as alMu'rib fī Gharīb Alfā̃z al-Fuqahā'. See Mu'jam al-Udabā', vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Farrūkh, Tārīkh alAdab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 554, 555.
    ${ }^{341}$ Wafayāt al-A' yān, vol. 5, pp. 369, 370; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774; Fawāt alWafayāt, vol. 4, p. 182; Mir'āt al-Jinān, vol. 4, pp. 20, 21.
    ${ }^{342}$ Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 247.

[^89]:    ${ }^{368}$ Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 248.
    369 See same book and same above mentioned reference
    370 See al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p.311; Kashf al-Ẓunūn, vol. 2, p. 1789; 'Izza Ḥasan. Fihris Dār al-Kutub alZāhiriyya, Damascus: al-Majma‘ al-‘Ilmī al-‘Arabī, (qism al-Adab) 1964, pp. 60, 61; Brockelmann, vol. 5, pp.147, 148; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al-'Arabiyya, vol. 3, pp. 48, 49; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, p. 774.
    ${ }^{371}$ Hadiyyat al- 'Ārifin, vol. 6, p. 488.
    ${ }^{372}$ The preamble to his book al-Īḍāh fì Sharḥ Maqāmāt al-Ḥarīrī, Kashf al-Ẓunūn, vol. 2, p.1798; Fihris Makhtūutāt Dār al-Kutub, pp. 60, 61.
    ${ }^{373}$ See same reference as mentioned above.

[^90]:    379 Kashf al-Z.unūn, vol. 2, p. 1789.
    ${ }^{380}$ See Hadiyyat al-‘Ārifin, vol. 2, p. 488; Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 248; Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed. vol. 7, pp. 773, 774.
    381 Encyclopaedia of Islam, new ed, vol. 7, p. 773, 774.
    382 Kashf al-Z.unūn, vol. 1, pp. 139, 140.
    ${ }^{383}$ See above mentioned reference and book.
    ${ }^{384}$ Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 5, p. 370.

[^91]:    ${ }^{391}$ See Mu'jam al-Udabā’, vol. 19, pp. 212, 213; Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 4, pp.182, 183; Mu'jam alMu'allifin, vol. 13, p. 71; Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 311; Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 3, p.339; Miftāh alSa'āda, vol. 1, p. 108; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 455; Wafayāt al-A'yān, vol. 5, p. 370.
    ${ }^{392}$ Abū Yūsuf Ya‘qūb ibn Ishā̄q (186-244/802-856), known as Ibn al-Sikkīt, was born in Baghdad. He was an extremely important intermediary between the generation of his teachers, which included Qutrub, Ibn al'Arabī, al-Aṣma‘ī and al-Farrā' and the later flowering of Arabic philology under his pupils al-Dīnawarī, al-Sukkarī and al-Mufaḍḍal ibn Salāmah. His influence on lexicography is attested by countless quotations. Among his many famous works, the Iṣlāh al-Mantiq is still valuable as an anthology of morphological and lexical information.
    For further detail see Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 14, p. 279; Mu'jam al-Mu'allifīn, vol. 13, p. 243; Mir'āt alJinān, vol. 2, p. 147; al-A‘lām, vol. 9, p. 255; Hadiyyat al-‘Ārifìn, vol. 2, pp. 536, 538; Zaydān, Tārīkh $\bar{A} d \bar{a} b$ al-Lugha, vol. 2, p.118; Brockelmann, S: 1, p. 180.
    ${ }^{393}$ Kashf al-Zunūn, vol. 1, p. 108.
    ${ }^{394}$ See reference No. 141 of this chapter.
    395 See Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 248; Farrūkh, Tārikh al-Adab al- 'Arabū, vol. 3, p. 455; Fihris al-Khizāna al-Taymūriyya, vol. 3, p. 282; The name of his above mentioned book is mentioned there as Risāla fí Bayān al-I‘jāz.
    ${ }^{396}$ Kashf al-Z.unūn, vol. 1, p. 233.

[^92]:    ${ }^{397}$ al-Mughrib fi Tartīb al-Mu'rib, vol. 2, p. 53.
    398 Al-Muṭarrizī, al-Mughrib fī Tartīb al-Mu 'rib, vol. 2, pp. 662, 663.
    ${ }^{399}$ Ibn Māja. Muḥammad ibn Yazīd al-Qazwīn̄̄. al-Sunan, ed. Muḥammad Ḥasn Naṣṣār. Beirut: Dār alKutub al-‘Ilmiyya, 1998, vol. 2, p. 136.
    ${ }^{400}$ See Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, p. 247.

[^93]:    ${ }^{401}$ See al-Khāqānī, ‘Alī. Makhtū̀tāt al-Maktaba al- 'Abbāsiyya fì al-Baṣra, Baghdad: Maṭa'at al-Majma' al'IImī al-‘Irāqī, (al-qism al-thāni) 1961-1962, p. 110.

[^94]:    ${ }^{402}$ See Preface of the book, Kashf al-Zunūn, vol. 2, 1707; Brockelmann, S: 1, pp. 514, 515, G: 1, pp. 350352; Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt, pp. 1760, 1761; Bughyat al-Wu'āt fí Tabaqāt al-Nuhāt, vol. 2, pp. 311; Kitāb al-Fawā̀id al-Bahiyya fī Tarājim al-Hanafiyya, pp. 218, 219; Inbāh al-Ruwāt 'alā Anbāh alNuhāt, vol. 3, pp. 339, 340; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, pp. 454, 455.

[^95]:    ${ }^{403}$ See Religion, Learning and Science in the 'Abbasid Period (The Cambridge History of Arabic Literature), ed. by M. J. L. Young, J. D. Latham and R.B. Serjeant, p.133.

[^96]:    ${ }^{404}$ Khān, Ḥamīd al-Dīn. History of Muslim Education, Karachi: Academy of Education, 1967, 1981, vol. 1, pp. 134, 135.
    ${ }^{405}$ See the page number 130/a and 130/b taken from the British library record

[^97]:    ${ }^{406}$ See Kashf al-Zunūn, vol. 2, pp. 1708, 1709; Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, pp. 242, 243.
    ${ }^{407}$ Mu jam al-Matbū ${ }^{\prime} \bar{a} t$, p. 436.

[^98]:    ${ }^{408}$ See Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, pp. 242-247.
    ${ }^{409}$ Brockelmann, vol. 5, p. 247.
    ${ }^{410}$ See page 132 A and 132 B of this chapter..

[^99]:    ${ }^{411}$ See his book al- 'Awāmil al-Mi'a, p. 20

[^100]:    ${ }^{412}$ see Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, pp. 242-247; Fihris al-Makhtūtūāt: Markaz al-Malik al-Fayṣal li-al-Buḥūth, vol. 5, p . 1161.

[^101]:    ${ }^{413}$ For his life history detail, see
    al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 4, p.174; Kahḥāla, Mu'jam al-Mu'allifín, vol. 5, p.310; al-Suyūṭ̂, Bughyat alWu'āt, vol. 2, p.106; Țāsh Kubrā Zāda, Miftāh al-Sa'āda, vol. 1, p 143; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adb al- 'Arabū, vol. 3, pp.183-188; Zaydān, Tārī̄kh Ādāb al-Lugha al-'Arabiyya, vol. 3, p. 44; Ibn al-Anbārī, Nuzhat alAlbbä' fí Tabaqāt al-Udabā' pp. 343,363,364,375; Meisamy and Starkey, Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature, vol. 1, pp. 16,17; Sarkīs, Mu 'jam al-Matbū 'āt al- 'Arabiyya, p. 681.
    ${ }^{414}$ Khafăjī has recently fixed al-Jurjān̄̄’s date of birth at 400/1010 in his edition of Dalā 'il al-I'jāz (Cairo 1969), which is not true because all the basic biographical dictionaries do not support this date, alBākharzī, who died in $(467 / 1074)$ was a neighbour of al-Jurjān̄̄ also failed to record his date of birth. See al-Bākharzī, 'Alī ibn al-Ḥasan. Dumyat al-Qaṣr wa 'Uşrat ahl al-'Aṣr, Aleppo: al-Maṭba'a al-‘'Ilmiyya, 1930, p. 108.
    ${ }^{415}$ There is no agreement on his date of death; another possible date of death, $474 / 1081$ is given by some of his biographers. Most modern writers agree on the date 471/1078 ignoring the date 474/1081 completely. See for instance, Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha al- 'Arabiyya, vol. 3 p. 44; Sarkīs, Mu' jam al-Matbū 'āt al‘Arabiyya, p. 681; al-Zirkilī, al-A ‘ām, vol. 4, p. 174.

[^102]:    ${ }^{416}$ See al-Subkī, Tabaqāt al-Shāfi 'tyya, vol. 3, p. 242.
    ${ }^{417}$ See Ibn Taghrī Birdī, al-Nujūm al-Zāhirah, vol. 5, p. 118; Kubrāzāda, Miftāh al-Sa'āda, vol. 1 p. 143; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adb al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 184.
    ${ }^{418}$ Except al-Qifṭī who, despite his praise for al-Jurjani's masterly knowledge, criticizes his work for being too brief and concise, a criticism which suggests that al-Qifṭi was perhaps familiar only with al-Jurjān̄̄’s relatively concise works on grammar.
    See al-Qiftī, Inbāh al-Ruwāt 'alā Anbāh al-Nuhāt, vol. 2, pp. 188, 189.
    ${ }^{419}$ See Yāqūt, 'Abd Allāh al-Ḥamawī. Irshād al-Arīb ilā Ma'rift al-Adīb, ed. D. S. Margolioth. London: Luzac, 1923-1931, vol. 1, pp. 80,217, vol. 3, p. 27, vol. 4. pp. 182,415-418, vol.6, pp.3, 286.
    ${ }^{420}$ See Ibn Khaldūn, al-Muqaddima, Beirut: al-Maṭba‘a al-Adabiyya, 1886, pp. 1263-1267.

[^103]:    ${ }^{425}$ He was Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥusayn ibn Muḥammad ibn al-Ḥusayn ibn 'Abd al-Wārith al-Fārisī, a well known theologist and grammarian of his time. He left his home town and settled in Jurjān. His reputation as an outstanding scholar brought students from many parts of the Islamic world to study with him in Jurjān. Biographers mentioned some books of his without giving their names. Only his poetic Diwān survived. He passed away (421/1030) in Jurjān.

    See Kubrāzāda, Miftāh al-Sa āda, vol. 1, pp. 142,143; al-Ṣafadī, Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn Khalīl ibn Aybak. al-Wāfí bi al-wafayāt, ed. F. A. Brockhaus. Leipzig: Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft, 1931-1997, vol. 2, p. 09; al-Zirkil̄̄, al-A 'lām, vol. 6, pp. 330, 331.

[^104]:    ${ }^{430}$ For more detail see al-Zirkilī, al-A'lām, vol. 4, p. 174; Farrūkh, Tārī̄kh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 184; Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, p. 206, it is very strange that this book is not mentioned in old sources like Bughyat al Wu'āt, Fawāt al-Wafayāt and Inbāh al-Ruwāt,
    ${ }^{431}$ See Sarkīs, Mu'jam al-Matbū'āt al-'Arabiyya, p. 681; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 44; alA‘lām, vol. 4, p. 174, while al-Qifṭī in Inbāh al-Ruwāt, al-Suyūț̄, in Bughat al-Wu'āt, and Kaḥhāla in Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin, do not mention this book

[^105]:    ${ }^{432}$ In Bughat al-Wu'āt and Fawāt al-Wafayāt, the name of this book is mentioned as al-Mughnī fì Sharh al-Idäh, moreover they do not say anything about the size of the book.
    See Bughyat al-Wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 106; Fawāt al-Wafayāt, vol. 1, pp. 612, 613.
    ${ }^{433}$ See al-Baghdādī, 'Abd al-Qādir ibn 'Umar, Khazānat al-Adab wa lubb lubāb Lisān al-'Arab, Beirut: Dār Ṣādir, 197?. p. 134; Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, p. 206.
    ${ }^{434}$ Only Farrūkh and Brokelmann have mentioned of this book, see Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 6, p; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol.3, p. 184.

[^106]:    ${ }^{435}$ al-Subkī, Țabaqāt al-Shāfi ityya, vol. 3, p. 242; Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, p. 300-205; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 184; al-Suyuṭī, Bughyat al-wu'āt, vol. 2, p. 106. This book has been published several times, for instance in 1897, in Calcutta, in AH 1292 in Tabrīz, in AH1304 in Kānpūr, in AH1316 in Delhi in 1870 and in Karachi
    ${ }^{436}$ See Khān, Ḥamīd al-Dīn. History of Muslim Education, Karachi: Academy of Educational Research, 1967-1968, vol. 1, p. 139.
    ${ }^{437}$ See Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 44; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī vol. 3, p. 184.
    ${ }^{438}$ See Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al-'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 184; al-Subkī, Țabaqāt, vol. 3, p. 242, where he gives the name as Kitāb al-Jumal al-Mukhtasar.

[^107]:    ${ }^{439}$ Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, p. 205; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-'Adab al-Arabī, vol. 3, p. 184.
    ${ }^{440}$ Ḥājjı̄̄ Khalīfa, Kashf al-Ẓunūn, vol. 1, p. 602, vol. 2, p. 624.
    ${ }^{441}$ Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, p. 206; Zaydān, Tārīkh Ādāb al-Lugha, vol. 3, p. 44; al-Zirkilī, al-A'làm, vol. 4, p. 173.
    ${ }^{442}$ Al-Subkī, Țabaqāt al-Shāfi ${ }^{\imath} y$ yya, vol. 3, p. 242; in Mu'jam al-Mu'allifin the name of this book is mentioned as Tafsīr al-Fātiḥa, vol. 5, p. 310.
    ${ }^{443}$ Al-Khwansārī, Ruḍāt al-Jannāt fī Aḥwāl al- 'Ulamā' wa al-Sādāt, Tehran: Dār al-Kutub al-Islāmiyya, 1889, p. 443.
    ${ }^{444}$ Al-Subkī, Țabaqāt, vol. 3, p. 242; in Bughyat al-Wu'āt, the name of this book is mentioned as I'jāz alQur'ān al-Kabīr wa al-Ṣaghīr, vol. 2, p. 106.
    ${ }^{445}$ Al-Subkī, Țabaqāt, vol. 3, p. 242; Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 183.
    ${ }^{446}$ Al-Qifṭi, Inbāh al-Ruwāt, vol. 2, p. 189.

[^108]:    ${ }^{447}$ al-'Arūd seems to be a title of a book, but al-Kutabī says "Kitāb al-'Arūḍ" which appears to be a reference to the subject matter of the book, namely prosody.
    448 ‘Abd al-‘Azīz al-Maymanī, Iqlīd Khazāna, Lahore: University of Punjab, 1927, p. 118.
    ${ }^{449}$ Brockelmann (Arabic version), vol. 5, p. 206.
    ${ }^{450}$ Farrūkh, Tārīkh al-Adab al- 'Arabī, vol. 3, p. 184.

[^109]:    ${ }^{451}$ The Cambridge History of Arabic Literature (Religion Learning and Science in the 'Abbasid period), p. 133.

[^110]:    ${ }^{453}$ For more detail see Cambridge History of Arabic Literature (Abbasid Belles Lettres), pp. 362, and 363.
    ${ }^{454}$ See al-Bāqillān̄̄, Abū Bakr Muḥammad ibn al-Ṭayyib, I'jāz al-Qur'ān, Cairo: Maṭba'at Muḥammad 'Alī Ṣabīh wa-Awlādih, 1901, pp. 60-80, under the title Wujūh alfāz al-Qur'ān.

[^111]:    455 See his book, al-Qāḍī, 'Abd al-Jabbār. Al-Mughnī fì Abwāb al-Tawhid wa al- 'Adl, Cairo: Wizārat alThaqāfa wa al-Irshād al-Qawmī, 1960, v. 16, pp. 191-210, 316-393.

[^112]:    ${ }^{456}$ See al-Jurjānī, Dalā'il al-I'jāzz, p. 40.
    ${ }^{457}$ The translation of this paragraph has been borrowed from Larkin's book, The Theology of Meaning: 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄̀s Theory of Discourse, New Haven, Connecticut: American Oriental Society, 1995, p. 5 o.
    ${ }^{458}$ al-Jurjānī, Dalā’il al-I'jāzz, pp. 199, 201.

[^113]:    ${ }^{459}$ Wholf, Benjamin Lee. Language, Thought, and Reality: Selected Writings, ed. J. B Carroll. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press, 1956, p. 67.
    ${ }^{460}$ al-Jurjānī, Dalā’il al-I'jāzz, p. 44.
    ${ }^{461}$ Dalả'il al-I ‘jāz, p. 44.
    ${ }^{462}$ See Dalả'il al-I'jāzz, p. 45.

[^114]:    ${ }^{463}$ Dalā’il al-I 'jāzz, p. 314.

[^115]:    ${ }^{464}$ See Naṣr Abū Zayd, "Mafhūm al-Naẓm 'inda 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjān̄̄, qirā’a fī ḍaw' al-uslūbiyya," Fuṣūl (al-uslūbiyya), vol. 5, No .l, October/Novembre/ December 1984.
    ${ }^{465}$ al-Jurjānī, Dalā'il al-I' jāaz, p. 306.

[^116]:    ${ }^{466}$ Ibīd, p. 306.
    ${ }^{467} \mathrm{Ib} \bar{d} d$, p. 306.

[^117]:    ${ }^{468}$ al-Jurjānī, Dalā'il al-I 'jāaz, p. 200, 201, 348, 349.
    
    
     ظنا أزرى على صاحبه من هذا و شبهـ.

[^118]:    ${ }^{470}$ For more detail see his book Dalā'il al-I'jāaz, pp. 109-111.
    ${ }^{471}$ For further detail see Dalā'il al-I 'jāz, p. 84.

[^119]:    ${ }^{474}$ Ibid, pp. 25, 26.

[^120]:    ${ }^{475}$ Al-Sakkākī, Abū Ya‘qūb Yūsuf ibn Abū Bakr. Miftāḥ al- 'Ulūm, Cairo: Maṭa'at Muṣtafā al-Bābī alHalabī, 1937, p. 77.

[^121]:    ${ }^{476}$ Al-Sakkākī, Abū Ya'qūb Yūsuf ibn Abū Bakr. Miftāh al- 'Ulūm, p. 77.
    ${ }^{477}$ Ibn Hishām, Jamāl al-Dīn 'Abd Allāh ibn Yūsuf. Mughnī al-Labīb 'an Kutub al- A ‘ārīb, Cairo: alMaṭba‘a al-Azhariyya, 1889, p. 5.

[^122]:    ${ }^{478}$ Ibn Maḍā', Aḥmad ibn 'Abd al-Raḥmām. al-Radd 'alā al-Nuḥāt, Cairo: Dār al-Fikr al-‘Arabī, 1947, pp. 85-89.
    ${ }^{479}$ Ibn Khaldūn. Muqaddima, pp. 500, 501.
    ${ }^{480}$ It is related that the caliph 'Abd al-Malik was reluctant to go ahead with the nomination of his favourite son, al-Walīd, to succeed him, because of the latter's incorrect speech and ignorance of Arabic grammar. Al-Walīd was warned about this, and took it upon himself to learn grammar with the leading grammarians of the day. However, al-Walīd learned very little in six months, and he remained as ignorant as before. See Chejne, Anwar G. The Arabic Language its Role in History, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota press, 1969, p. 61.

[^123]:    ${ }^{481}$ See his introduction to 'Abduh's edition of Dalā'il al-I'jāz, by al-Jurjānī, Cairo: 1946, pp. t-k
    482 Ibrāhīm linked his call to the fact that, 'now there are minds which have awoken as they have been liberated and have had their share of thinking'. See Ibrāhīm Mustafā, Iḥyā'al-Naḥw, Cairo: 1937, p. 20.

[^124]:    ${ }^{483}$ See "Tradition and the Individual Talent", in Selected Essays, p. 6.

[^125]:    ${ }^{488}$ Al-Qur'ān al-Karīm. Sūrat, al-Zumar, verse No. 9. See Abid
    ${ }^{489}$ Ibn Māja. Muḥammad ibn Yazīd al-Qazwīnī. al-Sunan, ed. Muḥammad Ḥasn Nașṣār. Beirut: Dār alKutub al-‘Ilmiyya, 1998, vol. 1, p. 136.
    ${ }^{490}$ Al-Kāndilwī, Muḥammad Idrīs. al-Ta'līq al-Ṣabīḥ 'alā Mishkāt al-Maṣābīh, Damascus: Maktabat alI'tidāl, 1354, vol. 1, p. 163.
    ${ }^{491}$ Ibn Māja, al-Sunan, vol. 1, p. 137.
    ${ }^{492}$ Amīr 'Alī. The Spirit of Islam: a history of the evolution and ideals of Islam, with a life of the Prophet, London: Methuen, 1967, pp. 361, 362.

[^126]:    ${ }^{493}$ Zarnūjī, Burhān al-Islām. Ta'līm al-Muta'llim Țarīq al-Ta'allum, Cairo: Maṭba'at Muṣtafā al-Bābī alḤalabī, 1948, p. 9.
    ${ }^{494}$ Ghunayma, Muḥammad 'Abd al-Raḥīm, Tārīkh al-Jāmi'āt al-Islāmīyya al-kubrā, Tiṭwān: Dār al-Ṭibā‘a al-Maghribiyya, 1953, pp. 133-136; 'Al̄̄ Ashraf. Crisis in Muslim Education, Jeddah: King ‘Abd al-‘Azīz University, 1979. p. 1; Dodge, Bayard. Muslim Education in Medieval Times, Washington, D. C 1962, pp. 28, 29.
    495
    Ibid, pp. 3, 4.

[^127]:    ${ }^{496}$ Ibid, pp. 8, 9.
    ${ }^{497}$ Here we will take Indian subcontinent as a case study

[^128]:    ${ }^{498}$ Dars i-Nizā$m \bar{l} \overline{1}$ is a study curriculum used in a large portion of madrasas in South Asia and Mullā Niẓām al-Dīn Muḥammad Sihālwī (1677-1748), was the founder of this curriculum. The syllabus employed at the Nizāmiyya madrasa, which served as a model for madrasas is called Dars-i Nizāā̄. The syllabus represented a blend of naql̄̄ 'ulūm (revealed sciences), including the Qur'ān, the hadīth, fiqh (Islamic jurisprudence) and tafsīr (Qur'ānic commentary), on the one hand, and the 'aql̄ 'ulūm (rational sciences), including Arabic language, grammar, logic, rhetoric, philosophy, astronomy, medicine, physics and mathematics, on the other.

    See, Stephan and Nandy Ronart. Concise Encyclopaedia of Arabic Civilization: The Arab East, Amsterdam: Djambatan, 1959, p. 418
    ${ }^{499}$ According to 'Azīz Aḥmad "the pattern of education in Medieval Muslim India was the same as in the rest of Dār al-Salām'. See 'Azīz Aḥmad. An Intellectual History of Islam in India (Islamic Surveys) Edinburgh: University Press, 1969, p. 52; Khān, Ḥamīd al-Dīn. History of Muslim Education (712-1750) Karachi: Academy of Educational Research, 1967, pp. 134, 135.

[^129]:    ${ }^{500}$ He was a well known Arabic scholar of his time, author of a book called Manāqib Razzāqiyya and commentator on several religious books. For his life history see Laknawī, 'Abd al-Ḥayy. Nuzhat alKhawātir wa Bahjat al-Masāmi‘ wa al-Nawāzir, Ḥaydarabad: al-Jāmi'a al-‘Uthmāniyya, 1931-47, vol. 6, pp. 383-385; al-Zirkilī, al-A 'lām, vol. 8, p. 360.

[^130]:    ${ }^{501}$ Al-Suyūṭī, al-Muzhir fì 'Ulūm al-lugha wa-Anwā'ihā, Cairo: Maṭba'at Muḥammad 'Alī Ṣabīh, 1951, vol. 2, p. 199; Ghunayma, Tārīkh al-Jāmi'āt al-Kubrā, pp. 183, 184; Khān, History of Muslim Education, vol. 1, pp. 130-138.
    ${ }^{502}$ The pupil was usually said to "quote" his master, rather than to produce anything original of his own. See Ibn al-Nadīm, Muḥammad ibn Isḥāq. Kitāb al-Fihrist, ed. Von Gustav Flügel. Leipzig: F.C.W. Vogel, 1871-1872, p. 57.
    ${ }^{503}$ Dodge, Muslim Education in Medieval Times, pp. 10, 11.

[^131]:    ${ }^{504}$ Gibb, H. A. R. Arabic Literature: an Introduction, Oxford: University Press, 1963, pp. 50, 51.
    ${ }^{505}$ Tritton, A. S. Materials on Muslim Education in the Middle Ages, London: Luzac, 1957, p. 98.
    ${ }^{506}$ Khān, M. S. Muslim Education Quarterly: "The Seljuk Vizier Niẓām al-Mulk and his Siyāsat Nāma", Cambridge: Islamic Academy, 2002, vol. 19, pp. 50-64
    ${ }^{507}$ Khān, History of the Muslim Education, vol. 1, p. 19.

[^132]:    ${ }^{508}$ Dodge, Muslim Education in Medieval Times, pp. 31-34; Khān, History of the Muslim Education, vol. 1, pp. 131-135.
    ${ }^{509}$ Ghunayma, Tārīkh al-Jāmi‘āt al-Kubrā, pp. 215, 216; Ibn Khaldūn, al-Muqaddima, Beirut: Dār alKutub al-Lubnāniyya, 1956, p. 1017.
    ${ }^{510}$ Chejne, The Arabic Language, pp. 75, 76.
    ${ }^{511}$ Khān, History of the Muslim Education, pp. 9, 10.

[^133]:    ${ }^{512}$ After the destruction of Muslim power in Spain less than two thousand volumes survived to be collected by Philip II (1556-1559) and his successors from the various Arab libraries. See Hitti, Philip K. The Arabs: A Short History, London: Macmillan, 1960, p. 137; Zaydān, Jurjī. Tārīkh al-Tamaddun al-Islāmī, vol. 3, pp. 228-237; Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 10; Ghunayma gives a handful list of the Islamic libraries of the Muslim world. See his book, Tārīkh al-Jāmi 'āt al-Kubrā, pp.51-62.
    ${ }^{513}$ Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 98.
    ${ }^{514}$ Khān, History of the Muslim Education, vol. 1, p. 11.

[^134]:    ${ }^{515}$ Richards, Islamic Civilization, p. 166.
    ${ }^{516}$ Imām Ghazāl̄̄ got a professorship in Baghdad, the Niẓāmiyya with a handsome salary, see Richards, Islamic Civilization, p. 159; Khān, Muslim Education Quarterly, 2002, vol. 19, pp. 51, 52.
    ${ }^{517}$ Jan, Raypka. History of Iranian Literature, pp. 172-173.
    ${ }^{518}$ Ibid, pp.174-178.

[^135]:    ${ }^{519}$ Ibn Sikkīt began at a salary of 500 dīnārs which was later increased to 1,000 dīnārs. See Khaṭīb, Tārīkh Baghdād, vol. 14, p. 277; Tritton, Materials on Muslim Education in the Middle Ages, p. 25.
    ${ }^{520}$ Khallikān, Wafayāt, vol. 2, pp.275-277; Yāqūt, Irshād al-Arīb, vol. 1, p. 122.
    ${ }_{521}$ Raypka, Jan. History of Iranian Literature, pp. 173, 174.
    ${ }^{522}$ Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 60; al-Maqrīzī, Aḥmad ibn 'Alī. Kitāb al-Mawā’iz wa al-I'tibār bi dhikr alKhitat wa al-Āthār, vol. 2, p. 363.

[^136]:    Rahim. This Madrasa Raḥimiyya later became the great seminary of the tradition of Walī Allāh''. See 'Azīz Aḥmad, An Intellectual History of Islam in India, p. 55.
    ${ }^{527}$ Seljuk vizier Niẓām al-Mulk and Mogul vizier Fath Allāh Shīrāzī are the best examples in this regard.
    ${ }^{528}$ For further detail see Khan, History of Muslim Education, vol. 1, pp. 77, 78.

[^137]:    ${ }^{529}$ According to Professor Hitti, it had become "a city with no peer throughout the world" The Arabs: A short history, London: Macmillan, 1960, p. 85.
    ${ }^{530}$ Encyclopaedia of Islam, vol. 6, p. 340.
    ${ }^{531}$ Gibb, Arabic Literature, pp. 46-108; Chejne, The Arabic Language, p. 66.

[^138]:    532 '"Works from Sanskrit were translated by a number of scholars, including 'Izz al-Dīn Khalīq Khānī, at the command of Fīrūz Tughluq'’, 'Azīz Aḥmad, An Intellectual History of Islam in India, p. 53; Walzer, Richard. Greek into Arabic, Oxford: Bruno Classirer, 1963, pp. 5-10.
    ${ }^{533}$ Dodge, Muslim Education in Medieval Times, pp. 28, 29.
    ${ }^{534}$ Ibid, p. 29.

[^139]:    ${ }^{535}$ For some of the works, see the life history of these scholars.
    ${ }^{536}$ See Gibb, Arabic Literature, pp. 136-140.

[^140]:    ${ }^{540}$ Nicholson, A Literary History of the Arabs, Cambridge: University Press, 1953, pp. 442-456.
    ${ }^{541}$ Grunebaun, Gustave E. Van. Medieval Islam: a Study in Cultural Orientation, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953, p. 337.

[^141]:    ${ }^{542}$ Hitti, Phillip K. The Arabs, p. 133.

[^142]:    ${ }^{543}$ See Encyclopaedia of Islam, Leiden: E. J.Brill, 1955, vol. 4, p. 173.
    ${ }^{544}$ Grohmann, Adolf. From the World of Arabic Papyri, Cairo: al-Ma‘ārif Press, 1952, pp. 1-15.

[^143]:    ${ }^{545}$ Ibn-al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 21.
    ${ }^{546}$ The name Sulaymān̄̄ is given due to the Khurāsān̄̄ finance minister Sulaymān ibn Rashīd, finance director of Khurāsān under Hārūn al-Rashīd (170-193/786-809). Ja 'farı̄ so called after the vizier Ja‘far ibn Yaḥyā al-Barmakī, who was for a short time governor of Khurāsān and under whoe reign paper was introduced in the chancery. Țalhā, after Țalḥa ibn Țāḥir governor of Khurāsān (207-213/822-828), Țāhirī, after Țāhir ibn 'Abd Allāh governing Khurāsān from (230-248/844-862). Nūh̄̄, after Nūḥ ibn Naṣr, sovereign of the Sāmānides over Khurāsān and Transoxania (331-334/ 942-954). See Ibn al-Nadīm, alFihrist, p. 21.
    ${ }^{547}$ Dutton,Yāsīn. The Codicology of Islamic Manuscripts, London: al-Furqān Islamic Heritage Foundation, 1995, p. 86.
    ${ }^{548}$ See Zaydān, Jurjī. Tārīkh al-Tamaddun al-Islāmī, vol. 3, p. 63.
    ${ }^{549}$ Al-Tha‘ālibī, Abū Manṣūr ‘Abd al-Malik ibn Muḥammad. Latā’if al-Ma āarif, Lugduni Batavorum: E. J. Brill, 1867, p. 97.
    ${ }^{550}$ Ibn Ḥawqal, Abū al-Qāsim Muḥammad. Kitāb al-Masālik wa al-Mamālik, ed. M. J de Jong. Leiden: Maṭba'at Brill, 1873, p. 86.
    ${ }^{551}$ Grohman, From the World of Arabic Papyri, p. 2.

[^144]:    552 Abbott, Nabia. Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press. 1997, vol. 3, p. 14.
    ${ }^{553}$ Ya‘qūbī, Aḥmad Ibn Ya‘qūb. Kitāb al-Buldān, al-Najaf: al-Maktabat al-Ḥaydariyya, 1918, pp. 26, 27; Ya‘qūbī, Aḥmad Ibn Ya'qūb, Tārīkh Ya'qūbī, Lugduni Batavorum: E. J. Brill, 1883, vol. 2, p. 577; Dutton, The Codicology of Islamic Manuscripts, p. 11.
    ${ }^{554}$ For more detail see his article published in The Codicology of Islamic Manuscripts, p. 78.
    ${ }^{555}$ Ibn-al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, pp. 77, 79, 82.
    ${ }^{556}$ Ibid, pp.79, 82

[^145]:    ${ }^{557}$ See Moritz, Bernhard. Arabic Palaeography: a collection of Arabic Texts from the First Century of the Hijra until year 100, Cairo: Dār al-kutub al-Miṣriyya, 1905, pp. 19, 20.
    ${ }^{558}$ Ibid, p. 122.
    ${ }^{559}$ Ibid, p. 121.
    ${ }^{560}$ See al-Sadūsī, Mu'arrij ibn 'Amr. Kitab Hadhf min Nasab Quraysh, ed. Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn al-Munajjid. Cairo: Maktabat Dār al-‘Urūba, 1960, p. 10.
    ${ }^{561}$ Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, p. 12.
    ${ }^{562}$ Ibid, p. 12.
    ${ }^{563}$ Ibid, p. 12.
    ${ }^{564}$ Ibid, p. 12.
    ${ }^{565}$ Sīrāfī, al-Ḥasan ibn 'Abd Allāh. Akhbār al-Nahwiyyīn al-Bastiyyīn, the preface of his book
    ${ }^{566}$ Abbott, Nabia. Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, Chicago: University Press, 1969, vol. 3, p. 12.
    ${ }^{567}$ Ibid, p. 12.

[^146]:    ${ }^{568}$ Qiff̣ī willed his magnificent library to his patron, the Ayyūbid ruler of Aleppo, al-Inbāh, vol. 1, p. 21; Zubaydī, Ṭabaqāt al-Nahwiyyīn, p. 291.
    ${ }^{569}$ Khān, History of the Muslim Education, vol.1, p 11.
    ${ }^{570}$ Ibn-al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, pp. 7. 40, 107; Yāqūt, Irshad al-Arīb, vol. 1, p. 81, vol. 2, p. 266, vol. 5, p. 326; Inbāh, vol. 1, pp. 7-9, see also the introduction of the book p. 13.
    ${ }^{571}$ These terms can easily be seen and traced in al-Fihrist and al-Inbāh

[^147]:    580 Zubaydī, Țabaqāt al-Naḥwiyyīn, p. 233.
    ${ }^{581}$ Yāqūt, Irshād, vol. 3, p. 150.
    ${ }^{582}$ Ibn-al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 115.
    ${ }^{583}$ Al-Qifṭī, al-Inbāh, vol, 3, p. 227; Suyūṭ̄̄, Bughya, vol. 1, pp. 129,130.
    ${ }^{584}$ Al-Tawḥ̄̄dī, Abū Ḥayyān. Risāla fì 'ilm al-Kitāba, ed. Ibrāhīm Kīlānī. Damascus: al-Ma‘had al-Faransī li-Dirāsāt al-‘Arabiyya, 1951.
    $5^{585}$ Al-Tha‘ālibī, Abū Manṣūr'Abd al-Malik ibn Muḥammad. Yatīmat al-Dahr fī Mahāasin Ahl al 'Aṣr, Cairo: Maṭba‘at al-Sa‘ada, 1956, vol. 4, pp. 3-26; Yāqūt, Irshād, vol. 5, pp. 249-252.
    ${ }^{586}$ Yāqūt, Irshād, vol. 2, p. 269; al-Suyūṭī, Bughya, vol. 1, pp. 446-448; al-Qifṭī, al-Inbāh, vol. 2, p . 90

[^148]:    ${ }^{587}$ Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary papyri, vol. 3, p. 10.
    ${ }^{588}$ References to manuscript writing in poor hands, without identification of the writers, are seen in alFihrist, p. 77.
    ${ }^{589}$ Al-Qifṭī, al-Inbāh, vol. 3, p. 83.
    ${ }^{590}$ Al-Ṣūlī, Muḥammad ibn Yaḥyā. Adab al-Kātib, ed. Muḥammad Shukrī al-Ālūsī. Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a alSalafiyya, 1922, pp. 50-57.

[^149]:    ${ }^{591}$ For further detail see, Hārūn 'Abd al-Salām. Tahqīqq al-Nussūs wa nashruhā, Cairo: Maṭba'at Lajnat alTa' ${ }^{\prime}$ lif wa al-Tarjama, 1954, pp. 60, 61.
    ${ }^{592}$ Bergstraesser, Gotthelf. Uṣūl Naqd al-Nuṣūs wa Nashr al-Kutub, ed. Muḥammad Ḥamadī al-Bakrī. Cairo: Matba'at Dār al-Kutub, 1969, pp.14, 15; Hārūn ‘Abd al-Salām. Taḥqīq al-Nuṣūs wa nashruhā, pp. 29, 30.
    ${ }^{593}$ Sirrāj, 'Alī̀ ibn Muḥammad ibn Yaḥyā. Kitāb al-Luma' fí al-Tasawwuf, ed. R. A. Nicholson. Leiden: Brill, 1914. Introductory pages the beginning at the book.

[^150]:    ${ }^{594}$ Bergstraesser. Uṣūl Naqd al-Nusūụ wa Nashr al-Kutub, p. 43.
    ${ }^{595}$ Ibid. pp. 83, 84.
    ${ }^{596}$ Hārūn, 'Abd al-Salām. Tahqīq al-Nuṣūṣ wa nashruhā, pp. 38, 39.
    ${ }^{597}$ Bergstraesser. Uṣūl Naqd al-Nuṣūṣ wa Nasr al-Kutub, pp. 112, 113.

[^151]:    ${ }^{598}$ Ibid, pp. 34, 35.
    599 Al-Munajjid, Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn. Qawā'id Fahrast al-Makhtūtāt al- 'Arabiyya, Beirut: Dār al-Kitāb al-Jadīd, 1973, p. 69; Bergstraesser. Uṣūl Naqd al-Nuṣūs wa Nashr al-Kutub, pp. 116, 117.

[^152]:    ${ }^{600}$ Hārūn, ‘Abd al-Salām. Taḥqūq al-Nuṣūs wa nashruhā, pp. 60, 61; Bergstraesser. Uṣūl Naqd al-Nuṣūṣ wa Nasr al-Kutu, pp. 86, 87.
    ${ }^{601}$ Al-Fīrūzābādī, al-Qāmūs al-Muḥīt, vol. 2, p. 302; Ibn Manẓūr, Lisān al- 'Arab, vol.7, p. 32.
    ${ }^{602}$ Al-Aṣma‘ī, ‘Abd al-Malik ibn Qurayb. Kitāb al-Nabāt, Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Madanī, 197, p. 38.
    ${ }^{603}$ al-Jahshiyārī, Abī ‘Abd Allāh Muḥammad ibn 'Abdūs. Kitāb al-Wuzarā’ wa al-Kuttāb, ed. 'Abd Allāh Ismā ‘īl Ṣāwī. Cairo: Maṭba'at ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd Aḥmad Ḥanafĩ, 1938, p. 29.
    ${ }^{604}$ al-Suyūṭī, Jalāl al-Dīn 'Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Abī Bakr. Tārīkh al-Khulafā̀, ed. Muḥammad Muḥyī alDīn ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd. Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Sa ‘āda, 1952, pp. 226.

[^153]:    ${ }^{605}$ Ibn-al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 5.
    ${ }^{606}$ Abū al-Fidā', Ismā‘īl ibn Alī. Kitāb al-Mukhtaṣar fì Akhbār al-Bashar, (nown as Tārīkh Abū al-Fidā') Cairo: al-Maṭba'at al-Ḥusaynīyya, 1907, vol. 1, p. 166.
    ${ }^{607}$ Zaydān, Jurjī. Tārīkh al-Tamaddun al-Islāmī, vol. 3, p. 63.
    ${ }^{608}$ Al-Qalqashqandī, Aḥamad ibn 'Alī. Kitāa Şubḥ al-A'shā, Cairo: al-Maṭba'a al-Amīriyya, vol. 2, pp. 475, 476.

[^154]:    ${ }^{609}$ Pedersen, Johannes. The Arabic Book, Princeton: University Press, 1984, p. 54.
    ${ }^{610}$ Al-Qalqashqandī, Kitāb Şubh al-A'shā, vol. 2, p. 475; Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 21.
    ${ }^{611}$ Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 21.

[^155]:    ${ }^{612}$ Grohmann, From the world of Arabic Papyri, p. 62.
    ${ }^{613}$ Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, p. 21; Grohmann, From the World of Arabic Papyri, p. 62
    ${ }^{614}$ Al-Muqaddisī, Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad ibn Aḥmad. Kitāb Aḥsan al-Taqāsīm fì Ma'rift al-Aqāl̄̄m, Leiden: Maṭba‘at Brill, 1906, pp, 202, 203.
    ${ }^{615}$ Al-Qalqashqandī, Kitāb Ṣubḥ al-A 'shā, vol. 3, pp. 41, 42.

[^156]:    ${ }^{616}$ Ibn al-Nadīm, al-Fihrist, pp. 16, 17.
    ${ }^{617}$ For more detail see Dutton, The Codicology of Islamic Manuscripts, pp. 60-68.
    ${ }^{618}$ Roman, Stephan. The Development of Islamic Library Collections in Western Europe and North America, London, New York: Mansell Publishing, 1990. See the introduction section of the book.

[^157]:    ${ }^{619}$ Stephan, Roman. The Development of Islamic Library Collections in Western Europe and North America, London: Mansell, 1990, p. 2.
    ${ }^{620}$ Esdaile, Arundell. The British Museum Library, London: Unwin Brothers, 1946, p.19.
    ${ }^{621}$ Here it seems necessary to acknowledge and mention the role of the British Library as a custodian of Islamic manuscripts, especially in this context that 29 copies of al-Miṣbāh are available in the British Library and it is an important issue to know how and when these copies arrived at the library.
    ${ }^{622}$ Goodacre, H. J. and Pritchard, A. P. Guide to the Department of Oriental Manuscripts and Printed Books, London: British Museum Publications, 1977.

[^158]:    ${ }^{623}$ Ibid, p. 5.
    ${ }^{624}$ Ibid, p. 2
    ${ }^{625}$ For further detail see Goodacre, Guide to the Department of Oriental Manuscripts; Stephan, The Development of the Islamic Library Collections, pp. 9, 10.

[^159]:    ${ }^{626}$ Stephan, The Development of the Islamic Library Collections, pp. 10, 11.
    ${ }^{627}$ Sims-Williams, U. "The Arabic and Persian Collections in the India Office Librar" in Auchterlonie, in auchterlonie, P. (ed.), Collections in British Libraries on Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies, University of Durham: Centre for Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies, 1981, pp. 47-52.
    ${ }^{628}$ Stephan, The Development of the Islamic Library collections, pp. 18, 19.
    ${ }^{629}$ Ibid, p. 19, 20.

[^160]:    ${ }^{630}$ According to Professor Ḥamīd al-Dīn Khān 'the year 1273/1858 was the most ominous year when hundreds of thousands of manuscripts were taken by the British Empire and shifted to British Library London', See Khān, History of Muslim Education, vol. 1, p. 12.
    ${ }^{631}$ The library of the Mogul emperors was already in existence in 1638, when a seventeenth century European traveller passing through Delhi commented on its 'four and twenty thousand manuscripts, so richly bound that they were valued at six million four hundred and sixty three thousand seven hundred and thirty one rupees'. See Stephan, The Development of the Islamic Library collections, p. 19.
    ${ }^{632}$ Sims-Williams. The Arabic and Persian collections in the India Office Library, p. 50.

[^161]:    695 في الأصل يستعمل كلمة • أربع، في 7 ، ’ أ ربعة ، والصحيح كما وردت في 7، و قد أثبتّاه في الصلب . 696 سقطت كلمة، 'ظرفية، في 5 .

[^162]:    $1127{ }^{11}$ يجب رفعه عند جمهور النحاة، لأنه هو المقصود بالنداء، وأجاز المازني نصبه قياسأ على جواز نصب (الظريف) في فولك (با زيد الظريف//الظريفُ) بالرفع و النصب وللمزيد انظر :شرح /بن عقيل: 2/210، شرح اللمع : 1/277، شرح جمل الزجاجي: ص 228،229 ،
     الصحيح كما وردت في أكثر النسخ، و قد أثبتنتاه في المتن
    1129 في 2 ، 4، ’نحو يا اله‘ في 1، ' أسم اله تعالى، وزيدت في 6، 'تعالى وحده، 11301 سقطت كلمة ’المنادى، في 5، والصحيح كما في الأصل

    1131
    1132 زيدت في 5، كلمة 'يقع‘ في 7 ، 'و هو و واقع'
    1133 وفي هذه المسألة جاز في المنادى الوجهان: البناء على الضّ ، نحو: يا زيدُ بن عمرو ومع الفتح نحو: يا زيد بن
    عمرو و الضمّ أولى لأنه علم مفرد وإن تبنيه على الفتح إتباعأ لصفته المضافة ، ويجب حذف ألف [ابن] في هذه المسألة، وللمزيد انظر : شرح /بن عقبل: 204 /2 2
    1134 سقطت كلمة ’ نحو ‘ في 7، وزيدت كلمة ’جائز ‘ في 4 ، ،
    1135 في 6 ، زيدت العبارة ’يا رجل ابن زيد‘ في 2 ، 'ويا رجل ابن عمر‘ ،
    أما المنادى في هذه الحالة فيجب بناءه على الضمّ، ولا يجوز بناءه على الفتح، ويجب حذف ألف [أبن] أيضـً

    $$
    \begin{aligned}
    & \text { انظر:شرح أبن عقيل: } 204 \text { /2 } 2 \text { ، } \\
    & \text { 1136 في } 3 \text { ’يلحق‘ بدل كلمة ' بلحقّ، } \\
    & \text { 1137 في 1، ' للاستعانة ، }
    \end{aligned}
    $$

[^163]:    1177 في 2 ، 'حروف المثّبّهة الفعل، وفي بقية النسخ، 5 ، 6، ’المشبّهة بالفعل، في 3 ، ’ المشبّهة بلأفعال،
     وذكر " الأنبارى"، وجه الثنبه بينهما من خمسة أوجه (1) إنّها مبنية على الفتح كما أن الفعل الماضي مبني على الفتح (2) إنّه على ثلاثة أحرف كما أنّ الفعل على ثلاثة أحرف (3) إنّها تلزم الأسماء كما أن الفعل يلزم الأسماء (4) إنّها تدخل عليها نون الوقاية كما تدخل على الفعل نحو: إنّني وكائنّني ولكنّني، (5) إنّ فيها معاني الأفعال، فمعنى إنّ وأنّ: حققت، ومعنى كأنّ شبّهت، ومعنى لكنّ: استدركت: ومعنى ليت، تمنيت: ومعنى لعلّ: ترجيت، و هذه الحروف تعمل عمل الفعل، وقد جمعها ابن مالكك وجمع عملها،
    لأنّ، أنَّ ليت، لكنّ، لعلّ كانّ عكس ما لكان من عمل

    و عدد هذه الحروف عند جمهور النحاة سبعة، و عدّها سييويه خمسة، فأسقط [أنّ] المفتوحة لأن أصلها [إن] الدكسورة، انظر :شرح أبن عقيل: 295 /1 ، أسرار العربية: ص 148، شرح الجمل للزجاجي: ص211 ،شرح قطر الندى: ص 204-206 ،كتاب سييويه: 131 /2 ، العو/مل المائة: تحقيق بدراوي زهر ان، ص205، الموجز في النحو: ص - 37

[^164]:    1763 في الأصل ’استقلالها ‘ وفي 2 ، 3 ، 5 ، ' استقلاله‘، والصحيح كما وردت في ما عدا الأصل، و قد أثبتتاه في الصلب

