fennel (basbās [q.v. in Suppl.], Foeniculum vulgare, L.); like the latter, dill is an ancient plant and is used in kitchen and medicine in the same way as the fennel. The main areas of origin of the cultivated dill are middle and southeastern Europe; wild dill is found in the Mediterranean area and in the Near East. Roots, seed and herb of the dill contain an aromatic, ethereal oil. From old times, the young sprouts have been used as spices for cucumbers and salads.

The main significance of dill, however, was already in ancient Egyptian times in the field of medicine. It was used as a stomachic, carminative, diuretic and vermifuge drug. Its peculiarity consists in the fact that it dispels colic originating from flatulence, heavy gases, and mucus coming from stomach and intestines; it also puts one to sleep. Its seeds, pulverised and cooked in water, cause heavy vomiting and purify the stomach from dyscratic juice (ruţūbāt). A hip bath in an extract from dill is good for pains of the womb. Applied as a poultice, dill divides the swellings originating from flatulence. Its ashes are good for soft (mutarahhil), heavily festering ulcers, and its decoction for pains of kidneys and bladder, caused by constipations or flatulence. Pulverised and boiled with honey until concentration, and then applied on the backside, dill has a strongly laxative effect. Taken in soup or broth, its seeds strengthen the flowing of milk. The freshly blossoming dill in particular is good for colic, haemorrhoids and sticky vomit from the stomach.

Bibliography: The most important sources are Rāzā, Hāwī, xi, 121-3 (no. 507), Haydarābād 1388/1968; Bīrūnī, al-Ṣaydana fi 'l-libb, Karachi 1973, 391-3, Eng. tr. 348-9, Russian tr. no. 598; Maimonides, Sharh asmā' al-'ukkār, ed. Meyerhof, Cairo 1940, no. 363; Ibn al-Baytār, Djāmī, iii, 50 s. (Leclerc no. 1275); Tuhfat al-ahbāb, ed. Renaud and Colin, no. 453. Further references in A. Dietrich, Dioscurides triumphans (Abh. Akad. Wiss. Göttingen, Phil.-Hist. Kl., 3. Folge, 172 and 173), Göttingen 1988, no. 56; idem, Die Dioskurides-Erklärung des Ibn al-Baytār (Abh. Akad. Wiss. Göttingen, Phil.-Hist. Kl., 3. Folge, no. 191), Göttingen 1991, no. 55. (A. Dietrich)

SHIBL AL-DAWLA [see MIRDAS, BANŪ].

AL-SHIBLĪ, ABU BAKR DULAF B. DJAHDAR, a Sunnī mystic. Born in Sāmarrā' or Baghdād (of a family which came from Transoxania) in 247/861, he died there in 334/945. Before his conversion to Ṣūfism he was an official at the 'Abbāsid court in Sāmarrā', apparently a chamberlain or hādib of the caliph's brother Abū Aḥmad al-Muwaffak [q.v.] as well as, or subsequently, a wālī or deputy-governor of Damāwand. He was a reputed scholar in Mālikī law and an assiduous student of hadīth.

At the age of about 40 he converted to the mystical life, under the influence of the Sufi Khayr al-Nassādi of Sāmarrā' (d. 322/934). Soon after, Khayr sent al-Shiblī on to al-Djunayd [q.v.], in Baghdad, for further spiritual training. He remained a novice of al-Diunayd until the latter's death in 297/910. The intense relationship between master and novice became the object of countless stories based on the twin motif of al-Shiblī being rebuked by al-Djunayd for 1. his restlessness, "drunkenness", theopathic language and pretension (da'wa) as well as for 2. his public preaching. For some time, al-Shibli associated with al-Halladi [q.v.], but he denied him before the vizier and went, it is said, to accuse him at the foot of the scaffold (309/922). Al-Shiblī affected a bizarre mode of life, cultivating "eccentricities" of speech and action which caused his repeated internment in the lunatic asylum in Baghdād. He was criticised, in particular, by the Ḥanbalī scholars Ibn 'Aķīl and Ibn al-Diawzī [q.w.], for the pretentiousness in his speech (some Ṣūfīs pointed out that he discoursed on "states", and "stations", not on unity, tawhīd), for his claim of being empowered with universal intercession, for a lack of respect for the data of revelation (angels, hellfire, prophets), for his wastefulness and concomitant neglect of his family, as well as for his painful and humiliating penances.

He has left no works, but his sayings (or "allusions", ishārāt) figure in the Ṣūfi manuals and collections on shath [q.v.], as do his deliberate eccentricities, ecstatic states and penances. His ishārāt were counted by contemporary Ṣūfis to be one of the "three miracles of Baghdād/of the world". A considerable number of mystical poems have been recorded from him, many of which are quotations of bacchic poets like Ibn al-Muʿtazz or amatory poets such as Abū Nuwās, Bashshār b. Burd, and most importantly, Kays, the madinūn [see Madinūn la dopted as a model for loving God.

As a master of novices he trained numerous disciples, often in rough, sometimes violent ways (visitors flee from him; al-Djunayd warns his pupils to speak to al-Shiblī "from behind the throne; for his swords drip with blood"). Al-Shiblī demands of his pupils to see nothing in him but the traces of divine power and instructs them through "eccentric" behaviour: he throws stones at them to teach them about true love; he cuts his beard off to indicate that one should not mourn over the dead but make the Living God one's sole concern; he burns his clothes as they distract from worship. He had servants or khuddam, attending to his and his family's needs, as well as pupils, who received an initiatory garment, like Nașrābādhī, Abū 'Amr al-Zadjdjādjī and Ibn Khafīf al-Shīrāzī [q.v.]. In the classical transmission of the khirka [q.v.] al-Shiblī figures as a link in the chain, between al-Diunayd and al-Nașrābādhī. Ibn Khafīf is said to have received "the white garment of al-Djunayd" (djāma-yi safīd) out of al-Shiblī's hands, which was passed thereafter on to al-Kāzarūnī [q.v.]. The anonymous author of the Sufi manual Adab al-mulūk, possibly identical with 'Alī b. Dia'far al-Sīrawānī, a pupil of al-Shibli based in Mecca, presents him as the most important authority in Şūfism after al-Djunayd. He had disciples in Khurāsān, such as Muhammad al-Farrā' (d. 370/980-1), a student of the Sunnī kalām theologian and Sūfī Abū 'Alī al-Thakafī (d. 328/939-40), who was spied upon by order of al-Shiblī; Abū Sahl al-Şu'lūkī (d. 369/980), a student of al-Ash'arī; and the governor (malik) of Harāt. Ibn Abī <u>Dh</u>uhl (d. 378/988-9), who "spent a fortune on al-Shibli". His closest disciple, however, was Abu 'l-Hasan al-Huṣrī of Baghdad (d. 371/982), "the true inheritor of al-Shiblī" (Anṣārī). By contrast, everyone else was but a "hearer of his word". Al-Shibli's claim that the eastern side of the Tigris was safeguarded against the Shī'ī Būyids only through his presence, coupled with the fact that shortly after his death the Daylamīs completed their conquest of Baghdad, indicates that al-Shiblī's influence at the end of his life extended even to the highest ranks of government. His tomb in Baghdād was still visibly intact in 1982.

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AL-SHIBLĪ, ABŪ ḤAFŞ ʿUMAR B. ISḤĀĶ b. Aḥmad al-Ghaznawī al-Dawlatābādī al-Ḥndī al-Ḥanafī Sirādi al-Dīn, celebrated fakīh, more commonly known

by the nisba al-Hindī.

Born in India ca. 704/1304-5, he studied fikh in Dihlī with Wadjīh al-Dīn al-Dihlawī al-Rāzī, Shams al-Dīn al-Dūlī al-Khaṭīb, Sirādi al-Dīn al-Thaķafī al-Dihlawī, Rukn al-Dīn al-Badā'ūnī, pupils of Abu 'l-Ķāsim al-Tanūkhī (d. 670/1271-2), and hadīth in Cairo with Ahmad b. Manṣūr al-Djawharī and others. Having made the pilgrimage to Mecca, where he also studied, he came to Egypt in ca. 740/1339-40 where he continued his studies, related traditions and held several religious posts. He cultivated relations with both 'ulama' and umara' and gained favour with Sultan al-Nāṣir b. Kalāwūn (748-52/1347-51, 755-62/1354-61). With the help of the amīr Ṣarghitmish, Sirādj al-Dīn obtained the office of kādī 'l-'askar in 758/1357. Previously, the Ḥanafī chief judge (kāḍī 'l-kuḍāt) of Egypt Diamāl al-Dīn Ibn al-Turkumānī had appointed him as his deputy. Upon the death of the latter in Sha'ban 769/March-April 1368, al-Shiblī replaced him as Ḥanafī kādī 'l-kudāt and held that office until his death on 7 Radjab 773/14 January 1372. As Ḥanafī kādī 'l-kudāt, he used his influence with the Mamlūk élite to promote the status of the Hanafi judgeship, seeking privileges previously attached only to the Shāfi'ī chief judgeship. Despite good relations with members of this élite, al-Shiblī did not hesitate to oppose their attempts to abase religious functionaries, as, for example, when he berated Aldjay al-Yusufi, nazir al-awkaf at the Ibn Tulun mosque, who begrudged them an increase in their salaries. He had also Sufi tendencies; in Mecca he associated with the shaykh Khidr, and was later a follower of Ibn al-Fāriḍ [q.v.] (cf. below), associating with those Sūfīs inclined toward ideas of monism (al-sūfiyya al-ittiḥādiyya).

His best known works are: 1. al-Tawshīh, a commentary on the Hidāya of al-Marghīnānī (cf. Brockelmann, I², 466, no. 24); 2. a second commentary on the Hidāya in syllogistic form; 3. al-Shāmil fī ʾl-fikh, dealing with furū'; 4. Zubdat al-ahkām fī ʾkhtilāf al-aʾmma al-fikh of al-Sāʾatī (cf. Brockelmann, I², 477, no. 49, 2); 6. a commentary on al-Mughnī fī ʾl-uṣūl of al-Khabbāzī (cf. Brockelmann, I², 476-7, no. 48); 7. al-Ghura al-munīfa fī tardjīh madhhab Abī Ḥanīfa; 8. Kuāb fī fikh al-khilāf; 9. a commentary on al-Ziyādāt of al-Shaybānī (cf. Brockelmann, I², 178, no. II); 10. an unfinished commentary on al-Djāmiʿ al-kabīr (identical with the Mukhtaṣar al-talkhīs, ibid., no. III, preserved in his autograph; the work is said to have originally included also al-Djāmiʿ al-ṣaghīr); 11. a commentary

on al-Tā'iyya of Ibn al-Fāriḍ (cf. Brockelmann, I², 305-6); 12. a work on taṣatuvuf; 13. a commentary on al-Manār fi 'l-uṣūl of al-Nasafī (cf. Brockelmann, II², 250, no. I, 1); 14. a commentary on al-Mukhtār fī 'l-fatāwā of al-Buldadjī (cf. Brockelmann, I², 476, no. 47, 1); 15. Lawā'iḥ al-anwār fī 'l-radd 'alā man ankara 'alā 'l-ʿārifīn laṭā'if al-asrār, 16. 'Uddat al-nāsik fi 'l-manāsik; 17. a commentary on the 'Akīda of al-Ṭaḥāwī (cf. Brockelmann, I², 181, no. 7, 7; where a ms. is quoted); 18. al-Lawānii fī ṣḥanh Djam' al-djawāmi' (of al-Subkī; cf. Brockelmann, II², 109, no. 1); 19. Brockelmann finally gives a collection of his fatwās. On manuscripts of the surviving works cf. Brockelmann, II², 96, no. 9.

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(J. Schacht-[Linda S. Northrup])

<u>SHIBLĪ NU MĀNĪ</u> (1857-1914), leading Urdu
writer of the 'Alīgarh Movement, was born
into a well-to-do family at Bindūl, in the A'zamgarh

[q.v.] District of the then United Provinces.

Early in life he became preoccupied with the Ḥanafī law school, and acquired expertise in the languages and literatures of Arabic, Persian and Urdu. Islamic history and biography, and literary criticism in Persian and in general, became his métiers, and he composed poetry in both Persian and Urdu, but though superficially he seems to challenge comparison with that other 'Alīgarh polygraph, Alṭāf Ḥusayn Ḥālī [q.v.], he does not equal him as a poet. The turning point in his career came in 1882 when he first visited 'Alīgarh, where his brother was a student. The two influences there were Sir Sayyid Ahmad Khān [q.v.] and his liberalism, and secondly Dr. Thomas Arnold, Professor of Philosophy, who introduced him to Western literary criticism. Sir Sayyid appointed him lecturer in Persian and Arabic. After the latter's death in 1898, Shiblī broke his relationship with 'Alīgarh, having founded a rival National English School in A'zamgarh. He became a sort of free-lance scholar and author, spending his time in various places, such as Kashmīr and Ḥaydarābād, and wrote an account of his travels in Egypt and Turkey, Safar-nāma-i Miṣr-ō-Rūm-ō-<u>Shām</u>; his Urdu prose style is simple and clear, and not overladen with English vocabulary, as that of Sir Sayyid and Ḥālī. He died in A'zamgarh.

Shiblī is described by Saksena (287) as "one of the most striking personalities of his age, a versatile genius with a remarkable career", listing a dozen aspects of his activities. Elsewhere (292), he names about two dozen of his literary works in a rather confused manner, both incomplete and inaccurate. Shiblī was ambitious, and felt an urge to produce large-scale works; thus Muhammad Sadiq tells us (275) that he planned an encyclopaedia of Islamic history, combining Western and Oriental methods, but had to restrict himself to a number of monographs, including al-Fārūk (1899), a study of the second caliph 'Umar; al-Ghazātī (1902); Sawāniḥ-i Rūmī; and Sīrat al-Nabī (published posthumously, completed by Sulayman Nadwi, 1916). His second major project, which he almost, but not quite, completed, was his critical history of Persian poetry,