apparently conquered Sokolac, Lipovac, Bolvac, Svrjlig, Stalać and Koprian (Braun, op. cit., 50). The probable reason for Mūsā's ending this successful campaign was the news that Orkhan, the son of Süleymān Čelebi, had landed in Thessaloniki, presumably released again by the Byzantine emperor. Mūsā departed from Serbia to Albania (ibid., 50), and it was probably at this time that he formed an alliance, by marriage to his daughter, with the despot of Ioannina, Carlo Tocco (G. Schirò, Cronaca dei Tocco di Cefalonia di Anonimo, Rome 1975, 360). From Albania he marched to Thessaloniki, destroying the fortified monastery of Chortiates on the Kassandra peninsula (Braun, ob. cit., 50). From here he returned to Edirne.

In the meantime, Stephen Lazarević had sent an envoy to Mehemmed, urging him to attack Mūsā from the east, while he attacked from the west with Serbian, Hungarian and Bosnian troops (ibid., 50). Mehemmed evidently agreed and announced a campaign against Mūsā, presumably in the spring or early summer of 1413. With an army which included troops from his father-in-law, the lord of Dulghadir [q.v.], he crossed the sea of Marmara in ships provided by Manuel. At Vize he received word from Ewrenos [q.v.] that his son Barak, Pasha Yigit, and Sinān Bev of Trikkala would desert Mūsā and join him at Pirot. From Vize he marched to Pirot and on to the Morava valley (Neshrī, ii, 502-11), where he concluded a treaty with Stephen Lazarević (Braun, op. cit., 53), and received soldiers from Ewrenos and John VII Palaeologus, the governor of Thessaloniki. Near Kosovo he received a further Serbian contingent, and troops under the command of Mūsa's erstwhile ally, Hamza Bey, the brother of Djüneyd of Aydın [q.v.]. Despite desertions, when Mūsā encountered Mehemmed's army on 5 July 1413 beneath Mt. Vitosha near Sofia, he was at first victorious. Eventually, however, he fled the field, and Mehemmed's men caught and killed him (Neshrī, ii, 513-17; Braun, op. cit., 53-4).

Three years after Mūsā's death, Shaykh Badr al-Dīn [q,v.], whom he had appointed as $k\bar{a}d\bar{i}^*$ asker [q,v.], led a rebellion against Mehemmed I in Rumelia, apparently hoping to win support from Mūsā's former office-holders, whom Mehemmed had dispossessed following the defeat of his brother.

Bibliography: The most reliable narrative sources for Mūsā Čelebi appear to be the account of the Ottoman civil war in the Turkish Anonymous chronicle, copied verbatim by Neshrī; Constantine the Philosopher's Serbian Life of Stephen Lazarević; and the Greek Short chronicle listing events of the Ottoman civil war (references given in article). All these appear to be the work of contemporaries or near-contemporaries. Coins and documents from the time of Mūsā are extremely scarce. For coins, see A.C. Schaendlinger, Osmanische Numismatik, Brunswick 1973, 89, 156. For documents, see P. Wittek, Zu einigen frühosmanischen Urkunden (II), (III), repr. in Wittek, La formation de l'Empire ottoman, ed. V.L. Ménage, London 1982; E.A. Zachariadou, Early Ottoman documents of the Prodoromos Monastery (Serres), in Südostforschungen, xxiii (1969), 3. Modern studies of Mūsā Čelebi are N. Filipović, Princ Musa i šeyh Bedreddin, Sarajevo 1971, and the relevant chapters in E. Werner, Die Geburt einer Grossmacht - Die Osmanen, Weimar 1985. Modern studies strongly reflect the theory that Mūsā Čelebi and his kādī asker Badr al-Dīn were social and religious egalitarians. For a narrative of Mūsā Čelebi's reign, see C. Imber, The Ottoman Empire, 1300-1481, Istanbul 1990, 67-73.

(C. IMBER)

MŪSĀ AL-HĀDĪ [see AL-HĀDĪ].

MŪSĀ AL-KĀZĪM ("he who restrains himself" or "who keeps silent"), the seventh Imām of the Twelver Shīʿīs. He is known as Abu 'l-Ḥasan al-Awwal (or al-Mādī), Abū Ibrāhīm, Abū 'Alī, and al-Gabd al-Ṣālih. He was born at al-Abwā' (between Mecca and Medina) or in Medina on 7 Ṣafar 128/8 Nov. 745. Other dates given are Dhu 'l-Ḥididia 127/Sept. 745 and 129/746-7. His mother Ḥamīda (or Ḥumayda) bint Ṣāʿid al-Barbariyya (or al-Andalusiyya) was an umm walad bought from a Berber slave-dealer; she is often referred to as al-Muṣaffāt, "the purified".

Little is known of al-Kāzim's early life: in a work of the Zaydī al-Nāṣir al-Utrūsh (d. 304/917) he is said to have taken part in the revolt of Muhammad b. Abd Allah against the Abbasids in 145/762 (cf. W. Madelung, Der Imam al-Qasim ibn Ibrahim, Berlin 1965, 160; see also Abu 'l-Faradi al-Isfahānī, Makātil al-tälibiyyīn, 277). He first came into prominence at the death in 148/765 of his father Diacfar al-Şādik [q.v.]. This event led to splits in the $\underline{Sh}\bar{i}^{c}\bar{i}$ community over the succession. Al-Sādik's son and designated successor Ismā^cīl predeceased his father, while a second son, 'Abd Allah, died shortly after his father, leaving no male offspring. These two sons nevertheless both had their followers: the proto-Ismacilivva and the Fathiyya respectively. There also arose a group called the Sumaytiyya (variants: Samtiyya, Shumaytiyya), who argued that the imamate should go to another son, Muhammad, and a further group, the Nāwūsiyya, who affirmed that Djacfar had not died and would reappear as the Mahdi. According to Twelver belief, in contrast, al-Kāzim had already as a boy been designated by his father as the future Imām. Al-Ķāzim's imāmate was supported by some leading \underline{Shi}^{ζ} is, including \underline{Hisham} b. al- \underline{Hakam} [q.v.]; others withheld their recognition for a time.

When the 'Abbāsid caliph Abū Dja'far al-Manşūr (ruled 136-58/754-75 [q.v.]) received news of al-Şādiķ's death, he reportedly sent spies to Medina to discover the identity of the appointed legatee and have him killed. Al-Şādiķ is said to have anticipated this move, and to have let it be known shortly before his death that he had appointed five legatees, including al-Manṣūr (in first place) and Mūsā al-Kāzim; thus the caliph's plan was foiled.

Al-Kazim adhered to a quietist policy. He devoted himself to prayer and contemplation and, like his father before him, spread the Shīcī doctrine among his disciples. Yet this did not spare him from harassment by the 'Abbāsids. Al-Manṣūr's son and successor al-Mahdī (ruled 158-69/775-85) brought al-Kāzim to Baghdad as a prisoner. There the Imam is said to have been placed in charge of the prefect of police, al-Musayyab b. Zuhayr al-Dabbī (d. 175/791-2 or 176/792-3), who became a follower of his. If this report is true, then al-Kāzim's arrest could not have taken place during al-Musayyab's governorship of Khurāsān, which lasted between 163/779-80 and 166/782-3 (cf. al-Ṭabarī, iii, 500-1, 517. According to a less reliable account, 166/782-3 is the date of al-Musayyab's appointment as governor; see al-Khaţīb al-Baghdādī, xiii, 137). Al-Kāzim's detention seems to have been brief; his release reportedly followed a dream in which 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib appeared before al-Mahdī and berated him for arresting al-Kāzim. Al-Mahdī made al-Kāzim promise that he would not rebel against him or any of his children; he then gave the Imam 3,000 dinars and sent him back to Medina (cf. al-Ţabarī, iii, 533).

According to some reports, al-Kāzim was again in danger after the collapse in 169/786 of the revolt of al-

Husayn b. 'Alī Ṣāḥib Fakhkh [q.v.]. Although al-Kāzim had refused to support this revolt and had warned al-Husayn that he would be killed, the caliph al-Hādī (ruled 169-70/785-6 [q.v.]) accused him of instigating the uprising and planned to have him killed. He was, however, dissuaded from this intention by the $k\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ Abū Yūsuf Ya'kūb b. Ibrāhīm [q.v.] and died soon after. Al-Kāzim is said to have composed the prayer known as al-Djawshan ("coat of mail") in gratitude for his deliverance (see Ibn Tāwūs, $Muhad\bar{j}$ al-da'awāt, Tehran 1322, 217 ff.).

Al-Kāzim remained in Medina until the accession of Hārūn al-Rashīd (ruled 170-93/786-809 [q.v.]). Nine years into his reign, the caliph had al-Kāzim arrested. Various accounts are given of the background to this event. One report has it that al-Rashīd took an interest in the views of Hishām b. al-Hakam and, finding them dangerous, ordered the arrest of the Imam. According to another report, al-Kāzim was the victim of intrigues at the Abbāsid court: when al-Rashīd placed his son Muhammad (the future caliph al-Amīn) in the care of Djacfar b. Muḥammad b. al-Ash (who headed the dīwān alkhātam between 170/786-7 and 171/787-8 and was later governor of Khurāsān until 173/790), the wazīr Yahyā b. Khālid b. Barmak feared that if his son were to become caliph, Djacfar b. Muhammad would rise to prominence, thus endangering the privileged position of the Barmakids [see BARAMIKA]. Yahyā therefore planned to disgrace Dia far by revealing his Alid connections. To this end he enlisted the help of al-Kāzim's nephew and confidante Muhammad (or 'Alī) b. Ismā'īl b. Dia'far, who supplied him with information about the financial network of the 'Alids. Yahya then told al-Rashīd that Diacfar b. Muhammad belonged to the shī'a of al-Kāzim and was sending him money (the khums); that al-Kāzim was receiving donations from all corners of the earth; and that he had bought an estate (day'a) called al-Yasīr (variants: al-Busriyya, al-Bishriyya, al-Yasīra, al-Yasīriyya) for 30,000 dīnārs. In other accounts, the caliph is said to have been told that people believed in al-Kāzim's imāmate and that al-Kāzim planned to rebel against al-Rashīd. The persons who denounced the Imam are on occasion identified as his brother Muḥammad or the Zavdī Abū 'Abd Allāh Ya'kūb b. Dāwūd [q.v.]. The latter possibility is unlikely: by the time in question, Yackub was a broken, blind man; furthermore, he is known to have helped 'Alids escape from the authorities, and it would have been out of character for him to betray al-Kāzim.

Al-Rashīd used the opportunity of a pilgrimage to Mecca and Medina to have al-Kāzim seized. The pilgrimage is said to have been either an 'umra (in Radjab 179/Sept.-Oct. 795 or Ramadan 179/Nov.-Dec. 795) or a hadidi (in Dhu 'l-Hididia 179/Feb.-March 796). According to some sources, al-Kāzim was sent directly to Baghdad; other, apparently more reliable reports indicate that he was first taken to Başra and held prisoner for a year by the governor 'Īsā b. Dja'far b. al-Manṣūr. Al-Rashīd then ordered him to be killed, but 'Isa, who had been impressed with al-Kāzim's piety, managed to avoid this, and instead had him brought to Baghdad. He was handed over to al-Fadl b. al-Rabi (who had been appointed hādjib in 179/795) and placed under house arrest. Al-Rashīd is said to have released him at some point in consequence of a dream he had, only to have him rearrested. Later, al-Kāzim was entrusted to al-Fadl b. Yahyā al-Barmakī, who also kept him under house arrest, but treated him with respect.

Al-Kāzim was able to communicate with his

followers, who now also included local Shī^cīs; one of them, 'Alī b. Yaķṭīn (d. 182/798), was asked by al-Kāẓim to use his influence with the authorities to help the Shī^cīs. This was consistent with al-Kāẓim's view that working for an illegitimate government (in this case, the 'Abbāṣids) is permissible if it is done to further the Shī^cī cause. 'Alī b. Yaķṭīn also acted as financial agent of al-Kāẓim and sent him precious gifts (cf. W. Madelung, A treatise of the Sharīf al-Murtadā on the legality of working for the government, in BSOAS, xliii [1980], 17-19).

When news of al-Kāzim's relatively comfortable situation was communicated to al-Rashīd (who was at al-Rakka at the time), the angry caliph sent al-Fadl a written order to kill al-Kāzim. One account has it that al-Fadl refused and was given one hundred lashes, while al-Kazim was transferred to the prefect of police al-Sindī b. Shāhak (grandfather of the Kushādjim [q.v.]). Al-Fadl's father Yahyā b. Khālid hastened to al-Rakka and, in an attempt to placate al-Rashīd, promised that he would do whatever the caliph wished. Al-Rashīd repeated his order to have al-Kāzim killed: Yahvā returned to Baghdād and conveyed the message to al-Sindi, who brought about al-Kāzim's death by serving him poisoned fresh dates (rutab). In another account it is al-Fadl who is depicted as having al-Kāzim poisoned. According to a third report, al-Kāzim was wrapped in a carpet and crushed to death. Finally, it should be noted that al-Tabarī, iii, 649, mentions al-Kāzim's death without comment. thus implying that he died of natural causes. This is indeed the view of most Sunnī authors, and it is also favoured by some modern scholars (e.g. F. Omar, art. HARUN AL-RASHID; A. Clot, Haroun al-Rachid et le tembs de Mille et Une Nuits, Paris 1986, 91). The dates most commonly given for the Imam's death are 6, 24 or 25 Radjab 183/13, 31 Aug. or 1 Sept. 799; other dates are 181/797-8, Radjab 182/Aug.-Sept. 798, Radjab 184/July-Aug. 800, 186/802 and 188/804. He died at a prison (or mosque) near the Kūfa gate known as al-Musayyab (after al-Musayyab b. Zuhayr).

The manner of al-Kāzim's death as described in Twelver sources presented Twelver theologians with a problem: for if the Imam, who is supposedly omniscient, knew in advance the time and manner of his death and did nothing to prevent it, did he not thereby assist in bringing about his own demise (mucin cala nafsihi)? One answer, ascribed to al-Kāzim's son, the eighth Imām 'Alī al-Ridā [q.v.], is that al-Kāzim indeed knew of his impending death and made all the necessary provisions, but that at the crucial moment God made him forget this information (lit. "threw forgetfulness over his heart", alķā calā ķalbihi 'l-nisyān). According to another tradition, al-Fadl b. Yaḥyā al-Barmakī brought al-Kāzim poisoned fruit on three successive days, but the Imam would not touch it. When the food was brought in on the fourth day, the Imam called out, "My Lord, you know that if I had eaten it before today I would have assisted in my own destruction". He then ate the fruit and became sick. The next day a physician was sent to examine him; al-Kāzim first ignored him, but at the physician's insistence he finally showed him the palm of his hand, which had turned green from the effects of the poison. The physician then told the Abbasids that al-Kāzim was well aware that he had been poisoned; al-Kāzim died shortly thereafter (Ibn Bābawayh, 'Uyūn, i, 86-8; idem Amālī, 130-1). The implication is that the Imām knew the exact date of his death and took the poison in accordance with that knowledge. In a similar story, a respected Sunnī scholar from Baghdād describes how, shortly before al-Kāzim's death, al-Sindī

assembled eighty leaders of the community and brought them to al-Kāzim in order, as he said, to give the lie to rumours that the Imām had been maltreated. Al-Kāzim acknowledged that he had been accorded comfortable living conditions, but then added: "I have been given poison in seven (or nine) dates; tomorrow I shall turn green (from the effects of the poison) and the day after tomorrow I shall die". "At that", the Sunnī scholar reports, "I saw al-Sindī b. Shāhak, shake and tremble like a palm-leaf" (al-Kulīnī, al-Kāſt̄, i, 258-9; Ibn Bābawayh, "Uyūn, i, 79). A different version has it that the Imām was not at liberty to do as he pleased, and was forced to eat the poisoned dates (Ibn Bābawayh, "Uyūn, i, 70-2).

According to some Shītī accounts, al-Kāzim's death was a direct result of the sinful behaviour of his community: as al-Kāzim explains, God was angry with the Shīta and told the Imām to choose between sacrificing himself to save his followers and having the Shīta killed; he chose to protect the Shīta at the price of his own life (al-Kulīnī, al-Kāfī, i, 260). Al-Madjlisī [q.v.] (Mirāt al-tukūl, Tehran 1404/1984 ff., iii, 126-7) explains God's anger with the Shīta as stemming from their lack of loyalty and obedience to the Imām, coupled with their abandonment of takiyya [q.v.] (self-protection through dissimulation). This abandonment of takiyya caused the identity of the Imām to become generally known, which in turn led to his arrest.

After al-Kāzim's death, al-Sindī (or al-Rashīd) assembled representatives of the Hāshimīs, Tālibīs and other notables of Baghdad, uncovered the Imām's face and had them acknowledge that there was no sign of foul play; then al-Kāzim was washed, enshrouded and buried. According to another account, al-Kāzim's body was placed on a bridge in Baghdad to counter the belief among some Shīcis that he was the Kabim, that he had either not died or had been resurrected, and that he was in hiding pending his reappearance. He was buried in the cemetery of the Arab aristocracy in north-west Baghdad (makabir al-Shūnīzī or makābir Kuraysh) at the Bāb al-Tibn ("The straw gate"), in the area which became known as al-Kāzimiyya (cf. Le Strange, Baghdād, 160-5). At first, a visit to his tomb was not devoid of risk: al-Rida is quoted as saying that when it is too dangerous to enter the grounds, the visit should take place from behind a curtain (hidjāb) or a wall (djidār). In time, however, his shrine, together with that of his grandson, the ninth Imam Muhammad al-Diawad [q.v.], became one of the most important centres of pilgrimage in Trāķ [see kāzimayn].

The number of al-Kāzim's offspring as given in the sources varies between 33 and 60. Some accounts refer to 18 (or 19) sons and 23 daughters. According to one report, al-Kāzim (for unexplained reasons) forbade his daughters to marry; none did so except Umm Salama, who was married in Egypt to al-Ķāsim b. Muḥammad b. Dja'far b. Muḥammad (al-Ya'kūbī, ii, 415).

Al-Kāzim was renowned for his piety. The ascetic Shakīk b. Ibrāhīm al-Balkhī (d. 194/809-10), who saw him in 149/766-7 in al-Ķādisiyya, believed him to be a holy man (walī allāh/min al-abdāl) (al-Ṭabarī, Dalāʾil al-imāma, 155; al-Nabhānī, Djāmiʿ karāmāt al-awliyāʾ; Cairo 1329, ii, 269-70, and the Ṣūfīs Maʿrūf al-Karkhī (d. 200/815-6 [q.v.]) and Bishr al-Ḥāfī (d. 227/841-2 [q.v.]) are likewise associated with him (H. Algar, Imām Mūsā al-Kāzim and Ṣūfī Tradition, in Islamic Culture, lxiv [1990], 1-14). Al-Kāzim was also a competent polemicist; as a youth he reduced Abū Ḥanīfa [q.v.] to silence; and Christians who came to him to discuss religious issues were won over to Islam.

Various miracles are attributed to him. Al-Riḍā reports that he already spoke in his cradle. Indeed, it was from the cradle that he told the Kūfan Shī'ī Ya'kūb al-Sarrādj to alter the name he had given his newborn daughter, since that name (al-Ḥumayrā', a nickname of 'Ā'iṣha) was hated by God. (It is note-worthy, however, that according to some Shī'ī sources, including al-Mufīd's Irṣhād, one of al-Kāzim's daughters was herself called 'Ā'iṣha.) He could speak all languages, and conversed with birds and animals (including a lion). When he touched a truncated tree, it became green and bore fruit.

Al-Kāzim's death led to the creation of a particular Shīcī branch. Those Shīcīs who denied that he had died, claiming that he had gone into concealment and would return as Mahdi, were called by their opponents al-wākifa, "those who stop", because they ended the line of Imams with him and disputed the transfer of the imamate to his son. They were also known peioratively as al-mamtūra (short for kilāb mamtūra, "rain-drenched dogs", referring either to their lowly state or to their smell which, like that of wet dogs, was supposedly more offensive than that of a cadaver). Many Wāķifīs, mostly Kūfans, defended the occultation (ghayba) of the seventh Imam in special works, of which only the titles (and some excerpts) survive; the voungest of these authors, al-Hasan b. Muhammad b. Samā'a al-Şayrafī al-Kūfī, died in 263/876-7. The Wāķifiyya, the oldest example of a "Sevener" Shrī group, appear to have fused towards the end of the 3rd/9th century with the Twelvers, who adopted the Wāķifī model of the occultation of the last Imam (see Halm, Schia, 38-9). In contrast, the Twelver doctrine of the "lesser" and "greater" occultations does not appear to be of Wāķifī origin. Instead, it is adumbrated by traditions such as the one in which Diacfar al-Şādiķ (referring perhaps to the two occasions on which al-Kāzim was to be taken away from Medina) predicts that his son will disappear twice (inna li-Abi 'l-Hasan ghaybatayn), so that some men will claim that he has died (al-Tūsī, K. al-Ghayba, 38; cf. E. Kohlberg, From Imāmiyya to Ithnā ashariyya, in BSOAS, xxxix [1976], 531-2).

The Wāķifī split may have been occasioned by financial, and not just religious, considerations. Al-Kāzim had agents (kuwwām or wukalā) in various places, and after his death some of them are said to have refused to hand over to al-Rida the monies entrusted to them, arguing that Mūsā was the last Imām. One of them was the Kūfan Mansūr b. Yūnus Buzurg; others were 'Alī b. Abī Hamza al-Baţā'inī, who is said to have been entrusted with 30,000 dīnārs, Ziyād b. Marwān al-Ķandī, who kept 70,000 dīnārs, and al-Kāzim's agent in Egypt, 'Uthmān b. 'Īsā al-'Āmirī al-Ru'āsī (Ruwāsī), who in addition to a great deal of money also had five (or six) female slaves (djawāri), bought with the Imam's money. According to some reports, 'Uthman later repented, freed the slaves and returned the money; other accounts indicate that he refused to hand back the money, but freed the slaves and married them off (al-Kishshī, Ridjāl, 499-500; Ibn Bābawayh, 'Uyūn, i, 92; al-Nadjāshī, Ridjāl, Kumm 1407, 300, no. 817).

Al-Kāzim played a significant role among some Shī'ī ghulāt. The Khaṭṭābī al-Mufaddal b. 'Umar al-Dju'fī is said to have visited him in his Baghdād prison and to have looked after him; al-Kāzim referred to him as his 'second father''. The Kūfan gnostic Muḥammad b. Bashīr (or Bushayr), the eponymous founder of the Bashariyya, believed in al-Kāzim's divinity and claimed that al-Kāzim had not died but had merely gone into concealment and would

return as Mahdī; Bashīr is said to have claimed that he himself was Imām (or prophet) pending al-Kāzim's return (see Halm, *Gnosis*, 215, 235-9).

Sunnī authors generally regard al-Kāzim as a trustworthy traditionist who, however, transmitted only a few traditions. A Musnad Mūsā al-Kāzim of Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. 'Abd Allāh al-Shāfi'ī al-Bazzāz (d. 354/965) is extant (GAS, i, 191). Among Twelver Shī'īs, al-Kāzim is credited with numerous supplications, with answers to legal queries (including questions addressed to him by his brother 'Alī b. Dja'far, cf. GAS, i, 535, no. 21), and with a Waṣṇyya fi 'l-'akl, addressed to Hishām b. al-Ḥakam. The Waṣṇyya is preserved in a shorter and a longer version (al-Kulīnī, al-Kāfī, i, 13-20, Ibn Shu'ba, Tuhaf al-'ukūl, 283-97 respectively).

Al-Kāzim's descendants, known as Mūsawīs, are said to account for some 70% of all sayyids in present-day Persia (Amīr Ṭāhirī, The spirit of Allāh, London

1985, 26-7).

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MŪSĀ SHAHAWĀTin, Abū Muhammad, a poet of Medina considerably less known than his brother Ismā^cīl b. Yasār [q, v], with the result that Yākūt, who devotes an article to him, calls him Mūsā b. Bashshār; he gives him the nisba of al-Kurashī, as the person in question was in fact a mawlā of Kuraysh, variously associated with the Banu Taym b. Murra, with the Banū Sahm or even with Sulayman b. Abī Khaythama al-'Adawī (of the 'Adī b. Ka'b b. Lu'ayy). Since the reason for his cognomen has been forgotten, numerous explanations have been suggested: he was a beggar who made a pretence of weeping to influence the owner of an item which he coveted; when 'Abd Allāh b. Dja'far b. Abī Ṭālib [q.v.] wanted something, he readily purchased the article in question, deducting a small commission for the service; he imported sugar and other appetising confections to Medina; finally, he used the word Shahawāt in one of his verses; it is probable that none

of these explanations is valid.

Although resident in Medina, Mūsā Shahāwāt often visited Damascus, being highly esteemed by the Umayyad caliphs; however, from a politico-religious point of view, although he sided with the Zubayrids and praised Muscab b. al-Zubayr and Hamza b. Abd al-Rahmān b. al-Zubayr, he does not seem to have had any particularly decisive opinions. In any case, his surviving epigrans show no evidence that his foreign origin inspired Shu ubī sentiments in him. He took the opportunity to address laudatory verses to Fāṭima bint al-Ḥusayn, while the fact that he had dealings with Sa'īd b. Khālid b. Abd Allāh al-'Uthmānī-of whom he was rather critical-and of Sacīd b. Khālid b. Abd Allāh... b. Asīd—who helped him in purchasing a slave—have produced conflicting opinions among those writers who have discussed his work. It is probable that his output was not particularly abundant; all that remain are a few fragments of compositions written to meet specific circumstances -eulogies and epigrams-and this poet owes his escape from obscurity to the use of his verses by such eminent musicians as $Ma^{c}bad [q, v]$.