army the only serious defeat that the invaders suffered during the whole campaign. However, deserted on the very battlefield by almost half of his followers he was obliged to retreat southwards pursued by Čingiz-Khān in person at the head of the main Mongol army. He was overtaken on the banks of the Indus and after offering desperate resistance (8 Shawwal 618/24 November 1221) escaped to safety by riding his horse into the river and swimming to the farther side. After a successful expedition against a petty rādiā in the Salt Range Djalāl took the field against Nasir al-Dīn Kubača [q.v.], the ruler of Sind, and sought in vain to form an alliance with Sultan  $\underline{\operatorname{Sh}}$ ams al-Dîn Iletmi $\underline{\operatorname{sh}}$  [q.v.] of Dihlî, He remained nearly three years in India and then decided to make his way to 'Irāķ-i 'Adjam, where his brother Ghiyath al-Din had now established himself. In 621/1224 he appeared in Kirman, where Burāķ Ḥā $\underline{d}$ ib [q.v.] had seized power.  $\underline{D}$ ialāl al-Dīn found it expedient to confirm him in his usurped authority before continuing his journey to Fars, where he stayed only long enough to marry a daughter of the Atabeg Sa'd [q.v.], and to 'Irāķ-i 'Adjam, where he was at once successful in dispossessing his brother. The winter of 621-2/1224-5 he passed in Khūzistān, his troops colliding with the forces of the Caliph al-Nāṣir. He then proceeded to attack and overthrow the Atabeg Öz-Beg [q.v.] of Adharbaydjan, whose capital Tabrīz he entered on 17 Radjab 622/25 July 1225. From Adharbaydjan he invaded the territory of the Georgians capturing Tiflis on Rabīc I 623/9 March 1226. Here he received a report that Burāķ Ḥādiib had risen in revolt, and he travelled, according to Diuwayni, from the Caucasus to the borders of Kirmān in the space of 17 days. Returning to the west he laid siege, on 15 Dhu 'l-Ka'da 623/7 November 1226, to the town of  $A\underline{kh}lat[q.v.]$  in the territory of al-Ashraf [q.v.] but was obliged to raise the siege almost immediately owing to the severe cold. In the following year the Mongols reappeared in Central Persia and Dialal al-Din engaged them in a great battle before the gates of Isfahan. The result was a Pyrrhic victory for the invaders who at once retreated northwards and had soon withdrawn beyond the Oxus. After another campaign against the Georgians Djalāl al-Dīn again, in Shawwāl 626/August 1229, laid siege to Akhlāt. With the fall of the town in Djumādā I 627/April 1230 he found himself involved in war with the combined forces of al-Ashraf and Kay-Kubad I [q.v.], the Sultan of Rum. Defeated in the battle of Arzindjan (28 Ramadan 627/10 August 1230) he withdrew into Adharbaydjan and had no sooner concluded peace with his opponents than he was threatened with the approach of new Mongol armies under the command of Cormaghun. A Mongol force overtook him in the Müghan Steppe and he fled first to Akhlat and then to the vicinity of Amid. Here the Mongols made a night attack in his encampment (middle of Shawwal 628/17 August 1231): roused from a drunken sleep he made off in the direction of Mayyāfarīķīn and met his death in a nearby Kurdish village, where he was murdered for reasons either of gain or of revenge. The ruler of Āmid recovered his body and gave it burial, but many refused to believe that he was dead, and time and again, in the years that followed, pretenders would arise claiming to be Sultan Dialal al-Din.

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DJALAL AL-DIN RUMI B. BAHA' AL-DIN SULTÂN AL-CULAMĂ WALAD B. HUSAYN B. AHMAD Кнатіві, known by the sobriquet Mawlana (Mevlana), Persian poet and founder of the Mawlawiyya order of dervishes, which was named after him, was born on Rabic I 604/30 September 1207 in Balkh, and died on 5 Djumada II 672/1273 in Konya. The reasons put forward against the above-mentioned date of birth (Abdülbaki Gölpınarlı, Mevlânâ Celâleddîn³, 44; idem, Mevlânâ Şams-i Tabrîzî ile altmış iki yaşında bulustu, in Şarkiyat Mecmuası, iii, 153-61; and Bir yazı üzerine, in Tarih Coğrafya Dünyası, ii/12, 1959, 468) are not valid. His father, whose sermons have been preserved and printed (Macarif. Madimūca-i mawā'iz wa sukhanān-i Sultān al-'ulamā' Bahā' al-Din Muhammad b. Husayn-i <u>Kh</u>aţibī-i Bal<u>kh</u>ī ma<u>sh</u>hūr ba-Bahā'-i Walad, ed. Badī' al-Zamān Furuzanfarr, Tehran 1333), was a preacher in Balkh. The assertions that his family tree goes back to Abū Bakr, and that his mother was a daughter of the Khwārizmshāh 'Ala' al-Dīn Muḥammad (Aflākī, i, 8-9) do not hold on closer examination (B. Furūzānfarr, Mawlana Djalal al-Din, Tehran 1315, 7; 'Alinaķī Sharī atmadārī, Naķd-i matn-i mathnawī, in Yaghmā, xii (1338), 164; Ahmad Aflākī, Ariflerin menkibeleri, trans. Tahsin Yazıcı, Ankara 1953, i, Önsöz, 44). According to the biographical sources, he left Balkh because of a dispute with the Khwārizmshāh 'Alā' al-Din Muḥammad and his protégé Fakhr al-Din al-Rāzī (d. 606/1209-10) and, when his son Djalāl al-Dīn was five years old (Aflākī, ed. Yazıcı, i, 161), i.e., in 609/1212-3, emigrated to the west. In fact the sermons of Bahā' al-Dīn contain attacks on the Kh "ārizmshāh and the above-named religious philosopher. But according to the same book of sermons, he was in Wakhsh between 600/1203 and 607/1211, and in Samarkand in 609/1212-3 (Macarif. ed. Furūzānfarr, Muķaddima, 37 and Fihi mā Fih, ed. Furūzānfarr, 173 respectively). He must, however, have returned from Samarkand to Balkh, as according to the sources the emigration took place from there. The date of 609/1212-3 for the emigration is in any case too early (Isl. xxvi, 117 ff.). As according to Aflākī he arrived in Malatya only in 614/1217, one may perhaps assume that he emigrated in 614/1217 or the year before. Whether his quarrel with the Khwarizmshāh was connected with the latter's hostile attitude towards the Caliph in Baghdad cannot be settled, but would be possible. In 616/1219 Bahā' al-Dīn was in Sivas, stayed for some four years in Akshehir near Erzindian, went to Larende, probably in 619/1222, and stayed there for seven years. In Larende there is the tomb of Mawlana's mother, Mu'mina Khatun (Azmı Avcioğlu, Karaman'da mader-i Mevlânâ câmi ve türbesi, in Konya dergisi, v, no. 35, 2088). Bahā' al-Din married his son in Larende to Diawhar Khātun, the daughter of Sharaf al-Dīn Lālā.

In the year 626/1228, at the request of the Saldiūk Prince 'Alā' al-Dīn Kaykubad, the family moved to Konya, where Bahā' al-Dīn Walad died on 18 Rabī' II 628/1231 (Aflākī, i, 32, 56). A year after his death Sayyid Burhān al-Dīn Muḥakkik, an old pupil of his, came to Konya to visit his former master, but found that he was no longer alive. Dialāl al-Din became a murīd of Sayyid Burhān al-Dīn until the latter's death nine years later. Burhān al-Dīn,

however, withdrew to Kayseri after some time and died there, probably in 637/1239-40. His tomb is in Kayseri. According to Aflākī, Djalāl al-Dīn went to Aleppo and Damascus after the arrival of the Sayvid to complete his studies. Burhan al-Din is supposed to have made him aware that his father possessed, besides exoteric learning, other learning that could be won not through study but through inner experience. After the death of Burhan al-Din Dialal al-Dīn was alone for five years. On 26 Djumādā II 642/1244 the wandering dervish Shams al-Din Muhammad Tabrizi came to Konya and put up in the khān of the sugar-merchants. Djalāl al-Dīn met and talked to him; Shams asked him about the meaning of a saying of Bāyazīd Biṣṭāmī, Djalāl al-Dīn gave the answer. According to Aflākī, Djalāl al-Dīn had already seen Shams once in Damascus (Furūzānfar, Mawlānā, 65-6). However that may be, the appearance of Shams-i Tabrīzī made a decisive change in the life of Mawlana. In the Şūfi manner he fell in love with the dervish and took him into his home. It will be possible to say something about Shams's remarkable personality only when his collected sayings, the Maķālāt, have been edited. He constantly wore a black cap (kulāh) and because of his restless wandering life was called paranda "the flier". Although, as his Maķālāt show, he had the usual theological conceptions of his time, he tried to keep Mawlana away from the study of books. It seems from his sayings that he had a certain bluntness of character. Shams-i Tabrīzī is called in the sources sulțăn al-ma'shūķīn, "prince of the loved ones", and Mawlānā's son Sulţān Walad, who knew Shams well, and was aware of the relationship Shams had with his father, develops in the Ibtidanama a theory that there is another class of "lovers who have reached the goal" ('āshiķān-i wāşil) besides the "perfect saints" (awliya"-i kāmil). Beyond these there is a further stage (makām), that of the "beloved" (macshūk). Until Shams appeared nobody had heard anything about this stage, and Shams had reached it. Shams showed Mawlana this way of Sufi love, and Mawlana had to re-learn everything from him. Mawlānā's love for Shams-i Tabrīzī turned him into a poet, but at the same time caused him to neglect his murids and disregard everyone but Shams. The murids were angered by this and maintained that they were more important than the foreign, unknown dervish and are even said to have threatened Shams's life. Thereupon Shams fled on 21 Shawwal 643/11 March 1246 to Damascus. But the murīds did not achieve their end. Mawlānā was quite disconcerted, and sent his son Sultan Walad to Damascus. Shams could not resist the spoken entreaties of Sulțān Walad and the written poetical entreaties of Mawlana, and returned on foot with Sulțăn Walad to Konya. But at once the murids began to murmur again and took pains to keep Shams away from Mawlana. Shams is said to have declared that he would now disappear for ever and no-one would be able to find him again. On 5 Shacban 645/5 December 1247 Shams was murdered with the participation of Sulțān Walad's brother 'Alā' al-Dīn, or at his instigation, and the corpse was thrown into a well and later found and buried by Sultan Walad. It seems that his coffin has been discovered in the latest repairs done on the burial-place in Konya, (A. Gölpinarli, Mevláná Celáleddín3, 83). It is understandable that Sultan Walad says nothing of this murder in the Ibtidanama, not wanting to make the family scandal public. Shams's death was obviously kept from the Mawlana, as he went to Damascus

twice to look for him. His spiritual condition is depicted in touching verses by Sultān Walad (Waladnāma 56-7): he became all the more a poet, devoted himself to listening to music and to dancing  $(samā^c)$  to an extent that even his son obviously felt was immoderate, and found the lost  $\underline{Sh}$ ams in himself. In most of his  $\underline{ghazal}$ s the  $ta\underline{kh}$ alluş is not his own name, but that of his mystic lover.

Shams had, however, flesh and blood successors. In the year 647/1249 Mawlana announced that Shams had appeared to him again in the form of one of his murīds, Şalāḥ al-Dīn Zarkūb of Ķonya. He appointed the goldsmith, who was illiterate but distinguished by his handsomeness and pleasant character, as khalaf, and thus as the superior of the other murids. He himself wanted to retire from the offices of shaykh and preacher. The murids found that Shams al-Din, the Tabrizi, had been more bearable than the uncultured goldsmith's apprentice from Konya, whom they had known from childhood. Plans were even made to murder him, and then revealed. The *murîd*s noticed that Mawlānā threatened to desert them completely, and they asked remorsefully for forgiveness. We may assume that the loyal attitude of Sultan Walad himself and the modest, pleasant personality of Şalāḥ al-Dīn helped to surmount this second crisis. For ten years Ṣalāḥ al-Din filled the office of a deputy (nā'ib and khalīfa), then he became ill and died, according to the inscription on his sarcophagus, on 1 Muḥarram 657/29 December 1258 (A. Gölpinarli, Mevlânâ'dan sonra Mevlevîlik, 355). His successor, Čelebi Ḥusām al-Dīn Ḥasan, whose family came from Urmiya, was to be the inspirer of the Mathnawi. Husam al-Din's father was the chief of the akhis in Konya and the surrounding districts and so was known as Akhi Turk. Ḥusām al-Dīn lived with Mawlana for ten years until the latter's death on 6 Djumāda II 672/18 December 1273; his appointment as Shaykh must therefore fall approximately in the year 662/1263-4, and there must therefore be five years between the death of his predecessor and his own taking office (according to this the statement in Isl. xxvi, 124-5, should be corrected). After Mawlānā's death Ḥusām al-Dīn offered the office of Khalīfa to Sulṭān Walad, the son of the master, who, however, declined. Husam al-Din died in 683/1283.

On the people's insistence Sultan Walad now accepted the title of Shaykh and held it until his death on 10 Radiab 712/1312. He was followed by his son Ulu 'Ārif Čelebi (d. 719/1319), followed by his brother 'Ābid Čelebi, followed by his brother Wādjid Čelebi (d. 742/1341-2). A list of the Čelebis to the present day can be found in A. Gölpınarlı, Mevlânâ'dan sonra Mevlevîlik, 152-3, and in Tahsin Yazıcı's translation of the Manākib al-'ārifin, ii, 62-6 of the Önsöz.

The real history of the order begins with Sultan Walad. He founded the first branches of the order and helped it to gain greater respect. Already in the lifetime of Mawlana the members of the order had the title Mawlawi (Aflāki, i, 1, 334). At first they were recruited from among artisans, which gave offence (Aflākī i, 151). The central part of the religious practices was held by listening to music, and dancing, which were indeed usual among other orders, but never had the greatest importance, as with the Mawlawis. The dance ceremony in the regular, solemn form which is usual later, was, as Gölpınarlı has proved, first introduced by Pīr 'Ādil Čelebi (d. 864/1460) (Mevlânâ'dan sonra Mevlevîlik, 99-100). On this ceremony cf. H. Ritter, Der Reigen der tanzenden Derwische, in Zeitschrift für vergleichende Musikwissenschaft, i; A. Gölpınarlı, Mevland'dan

sonra, 370-89, and Mevlevt aytınleri (Istanbul konservatuarı neşriyatı, Türk Klâsiklerinden VI-XV cild) 1933-9 publ. by Istanbul Music Conservatoire.

Mawlana's piety and thought have not yet been the object of a thorough examination. Anyone undertaking such an examination would have to take care not to rely too much on the Mathnawi commentaries, which read into the work the views of their own time or their personal views. Also the Dīwān of Mawlānā has only now become available in a critical edition, so that the examination can really begin. According to A. Gölpınarlı, himself a former Mawlawi dervish, the Mawlawis do not regard their order as a Şūfī order in the strict sense. Gölpınarlı is inclined to connect the order with the Malamatiyya movement from Khurasan. Even in reading the sermons of Mawlana's father one notices a gladness praised there which reminds one of the "merriness of hearts" (tībat al-kulūb) of the Kalandariyya, who are related to the Malamatiyya (cf. Ritter in Oriens, viii, 360 and xii, 15). Some of the Čelebis lived like Ķalandar dervishes, as Ulu 'Ārif Čelebi, and still more his brother 'Abid Čelebi, and the Diwane, Mehmed Čelebi, who was used in the expansion of the order (Gölpınarlı, Mevlânâ'dan sonra, 101-22). But of course this does not prove anything for Mawlana himself. He appears to have been of a philanthropic, anything but fanatical, strongly emotional type, to judge from the countless love-poems in the Diwan, easily inflamed, inclined to work off his excitement in the dance. Whether his religious ideas possess anything original besides the general mystical piety of his time, will have to be shown by the analysis of his works, which are:

- 1) The Dīwān, containing ghazals and quatrains. There are also Greek and Turkish verses in this, the presence of which shows a certain connexion with sections of the common folk and also with the non-Muslim elements of the Konya population. His takhallus is "Khāmūsh". This, however, is usually replaced with the name of Shams-i Tabrīz. In some ghazals Şalāḥ al-Dīn also appears as the takhalluş. Former impressions and editions of the Diwan have now been superseded by the good edition of Badīc al-Zamān Furūzānfar, Kulliyāt-i Shams yā Dīwān-i kabīr, mushtamil bar kaṣā'id wa ghazaliyyāt wa mukatta at-i farsî wa arabî wa tardiî at wa mulamma'at az guftar-i Mawlana Djalal al-Din Muhammad mashhūr ba-Mawlawī, Tehran 1336 ff., of which so far three volumes have appeared. Complete Turkish translation by 'Abdülbaki Gölpınarlı, Mevlânâ Celâleddîn, Dîvân-i kebîr, Istanbul 1957 ff. So far three volumes have appeared. Of earlier selections and translations the following are still important: R. A. Nicholson, Selected poems from the Dīvāni Shamsi Tabrīz, edited and translated with an introduction, notes and appendices, Cambridge 1898; S. Bogdanov, The Quatrains of Jalalu-d-din Rumi and two hitherto unknown manuscripts, in JASB, 1935, i, 65-80.
- 2) Mathnawi-i ma'nawi. Didactic poetical work in double verses, in six dattars. (The seventh dattar supposedly discovered by Rüsükhi Ismā'il Dede is spurious). The long poem was inspired by Ḥusām al-Dīn Čelebi, who suggested to Mawlānā that he should produce something like the religious mathnawis of Sanā'i and 'Attār. Mawlānā is supposed to have at once pulled the famous eighteen verses of the introduction out of his turban already written. The rest he dictated to Ḥusām al-Dīn. The date when the work was begun is not known. We know only that between the first and second dattar was a pause of two years, caused by the death of Ḥusām

al-Dīn's wife. The second dațtar was started in 662/1263-4, as the poet says himself (ii, 7). Mawlānā dictated his verse whenever it occurred to him, dancing, in the bath, standing, sitting, walking, sometimes in the night until morning. Then Ḥusām al-Din read out what was written and the necessary corrections were made. The whole is composed very informally and without any thought of a wellplanned structure. Thoughts hang together in free association, the interspersed stories are often interrupted and continued much later on. (On the style, cf. Nicholson's edition, 8-13 and the preface to Gölpinarli's translation). The classic edition is that of R. A. Nicholson, The Mathnawi of Jelálu'ddin Rúmi, edited from the oldest manuscripts available; with critical notes, translations and commentary, London 1924-40 (GMS, vi, 1-8). Latest Turkish translation: Mevlâna, Mesnevi, Veled Izbudak tarafından tercüme edilmiş, Abdülbaki Gölpınarlı tarafından muhtelif şerhlerle karşılaştırılmış ve esere bir açılma ilâve edilmiştir, İstanbul 1942 ff. The fourth edition is now in the press. On European translations before Nicholson cf. his edition ii-xv; on Urdū translations cf. Catalogue of the library of the India Office, ii, vi, Persian Books, by A. J. Arberry, London 1937, 301-4. The best known earlier printed Turkish commentaries and translations are: Ankarali Ismā'il Rüsūkhi, Fātih al-Abyāt, Istanbul 1289, six volumes; Bursali Ismā'īl Ḥaķķi, Rūḥ al-Mathnawi (Commentary on one part of the first daftar) Istanbul 1287; Sari 'Abdalläh Efendi (to the first dațtar) Istanbul 1288, five volumes; translation in verse by Naḥīfī, Cairo 1268; <sup>c</sup>Ābidīn Pa<u>sh</u>a, Istanbul 1887-8, six volumes. On the commentaries and translations written and printed in Iran and India, and the earliest oriental editions cf. Nicholson, Introduction to i, 16-18; vii, Introduction II-I2 and the above-mentioned catalogue by Arberry, 301-4. On the Tehran edition of 'Alā al-Dīn cf. 'Alīnaķī Sharī'atmadārī, in Naķd-i matn-i Mathnawi, in Yaghma, xii, 1338. On the sources of the stories in the Mathnawi; Badic al-Zamān Furūzānfarr, Ma'ākhidh-i kaşaş wa-tamthīlāt-i Mathnawi, Tehran 1333 (see Oriens, viii, 356-8); on the hadīths quoted in the Mathnawi: idem, Ahādīth-i Mathnawî mushtamil bar mawaridî ki Mawlana dar Mathnawī az aḥādīth istifāde karde ast bā dhikr-i wudjūh-i riwāyat wa ma'ākhidh-i ānhā, Tehran 1334.

- 3) Fihi mā fih. Collection of Mawlānā's sayings. (The title comes from a verse of Ibn al-'Arabī). Cf. R. A. Nicholson, The Table Talk of Jalalu'ddin Rumi, in Centenary Supplement to the JRAS, 1924, 1-8. Edition by Badī' al-Zamān Furūzānfarr, Tehran 1330. Turkish translation: Mevlânā Celâleddin, Fihi mā fih. Çeviren, tahlilini yapan, açıklamasını hazırlayan Abdülbaki Gölpınarlı, Istanbul 1959.
- 4) Mawā'iz macālis-i sab'a. Mavlānā'nin 7 öğüdüdür. Düzelten Ahmed Remzi Akyürek, mütercimi Rizeli Hasan Efendi-Oğlu, İstanbul 1937.
- 5) Maktūbāt. Mevlând'nın mektupları. Düzelten Ahmed Remzi Akyürek, Istanbul 1937. Also Şerefeddin Yaltkaya in Türkiyat Mecmuası, 1939, vi, 323-45; Fuad Köprülü, in Belleten 1943, vii, 416.

Bibliography: H. Ritter, Philologika XI. Maulānā Galāl-addīn Rūmī und sein Kreis, in Isl., xxvi, 1942. (Life. Sources for biography, manuscripts of the works along with the works of his father, his son, and of Shams-i Tabrīzī). The most important biographical sources are: Sulṭān Walad, Ibtidānāma, publ. by Dialāl Humā'i, Waladnāma, Mathnawī-i Waladi bā taṣhih wa mukaddima, Tehran 1315; Farīdūn b. Aḥmad Sipahsālār,

Risāla-i Sipahsālār. Latest edition: Shams al-Dīn Ahmad al-Aflākī al-ʿĀrifī, Manāķib al-ʿārifīn, ed. Tahsin Yazıcı, i, Ankara 1959. (Türk Tarih Kurumu Yayınlarından.)

Translations: Cl. Huart, Les saints des dervisches tourneurs. Récits traduits du persan et annotés, 2 vols., Paris 1918 and 1922 (unreliable); Tahsin Yazıcı, Ahmet Ejläkf, Ârijlerin menkibeleri (Manāķib al-ʿārijlīn), 2 vols., Ankara 1953 and 1954 (Dünya Edebiyatından Tercümeler. Şark-Islâm Klâsikleri: 26). On the value of the work as an historical source cf. Cl. Huart, De la valeur historique des mémoires des dervisches tourneurs, in JA 1922, 19, 308-17; Fuad Köprülü, in Belleten, 1943, 422 ff.

Portrayals: Badī'c al-Zamān Furūzānfarr, Mawlānā Djalāl al-Dīn Muḥammad mashhūr ba-Mawlawī, Teheran 1315-17; H. Ritter, article Celâleddîn Rûmî in ÎA. (On other portrayals see Mawlawī 'Abd al-Muktadir, Catalogue of the Arabic and Persian manuscripts in the Oriental Public Library at Bankipore, Calcutta 1908, i, 630); Konya halkevi kültür dergisi, Mevlâna özel sayısı, Istanbul 1943; Abdülbaki Gölpınarlı, Mevlânâ Celâleddin. Hayatı, Felsefesi, Eserleri, Eserlerinden secmeler³, Istanbul 1959; idem, Mevlânâ'dan sonra Mevlevîlik, Istanbul 1953; idem, Konya'da Mevlâna Dergahının Arşivi, in Istanbul Üniversilesi İktisat Fakültesi Mecmuası, xvii, 1-4, 130-53.

On the meaning of the eighteen introductory verses of the Mathnawi: Ahmed Ates, Mesnevi'nin onsekiz beytinin mönası, in Fuad Köprülü Armağanı, Istanbul 1953, 37-50. On Mawlânâ's Turkish verses: Mecdut Mansuroğlu, Calāladdin Rūmi Türkische Verse, in Ural-Altaische Jahrbücher, xxiv, 1952, 106-15; idem, Mevlâna Celaleddin Rūmi'de Türkçe beiyit ve ibareler, in Türk Dili Arastırmaları Yıllığı, Belleten 1954, 207-20. On the Greek verses of Mawlânā and Sultān Walad; P. Burguière and R. Mantran, Quelques vers grecs du XIIIe siècle en caractères arabes, in Byzantion, xxii, 1952, 63-80. (H. RITTER)

ii) It is not easy to summarize systematically the main lines of Djalal al-Din's thought. He was not a philosopher (in his works there are often attacks against the vacuity of purely intellectual philosophy) and claimed not to be a classical poet (both in the Diwan and the Mathnawi he proclaims his dislike for rhymes and poetical artifices) but above all he was a passionate lover of God who expressed his feelings in a poetically unorthodox, volcanic way, thus creating a style which is unique in the entire Persian literature. Historically, influences on him by the religious and philosophical thought of Ghazzālī, Ibn 'Arabī, Sanā'ī, and 'Attar have been traced. The importance of the influence of Ibn 'Arabī on him has been perhaps exaggerated. The following account outlines as shortly as possible some of the main trends in Djalal al-Din's thought. Quotations from the Mathnawi are from Nicholson's edition mentioned in Bibliography.

God: The absolute transcendence of God seems conceived not only spatially and intellectually but even morally. God is Himself the Absolute Value, Good and Evil being relative to Him and both at His orders (ii, 2617 ff.). Reality is ordered in four "spaces": the Realm of Nothingness, of Phantasy, of Existence, of Senses and Colours (ii, 3092-7). God is beyond Nothingness and Being, He works in the Nothingness, which is His Workshop (ii, 688-90; ii, 760-2; iv, 2341-83). In this sense is difficult to speak of a real "pantheism" in Dialāl al-Dīn: in any case immanentism is totally foreign to his turn of mind.

Creation:  $\underline{D}$ jalāl al-Dīn seems to accept the  $\underline{A}$ s $\underline{h}$ 'arī idea of the discontinuity of time and creation. God creates and destroys all in discontinuous atoms of time (i, 1140-8). He creates things murmuring enchanting words in their ears while they are still asleep in the Nothingness (i, 1447-55).

The World: The non-human World is something created by God in preparation for the creation of Man. Nature is a hint of God: every tree that germinates from the dark earth extending its branches towards the sun is a symbol of the liberation of Spirit from Matter (i, 1335-6; 1342-8). Creation has been however progressive. In a famous passage (v, 3637 ff.) Djalāl al-Dīn sketches a theory of mystical evolution (not to be mistaken for a scientific and Darwinistic evolution). The emergence of Man (who always remained Man, even in his former stages of development) from the animal kingdom is a first step indicating further journeys to the realms of the Angels and of the Godhead.

Man: Man is not simply a compound of body and soul. The human compound is formed by a body, his manifest part, a deeper soul  $(r\bar{u}h, \psi u\chi \dot{\eta})$ , a still more concealed mind  $({}^cakl)$  and, even deeper, a  $r\bar{u}h \cdot i \ wahy$  (spirit partaking of Revelation) present only in Saints and Prophets (ii, 3253 ff.). Dialāl al-Dīn's spiritual anthropology does not accept an indiscriminate possibility for every one to reach the highest stages of sanctity. Prophets and Saints are "different" from ordinary men. In a very interesting passage Dialāl al-Dīn shows the pragmatic utility of bowing in veneration to the Holy Men: it is the only way of breaking the ever-reappearing humanistic pride and superbity of Man (ii, 811 ff.).

God speaks through the mouth of the "man of God". The Prophet, the Holy Man is the manifest sign of the Unity of God, he is above the normal human standards (i, 225-7).

Ethics: Djalāl al-Dīn is far from speaking the language of modern "liberal" religious thinkers. The exterior practices of worship are binding for all. The reason given for this is also of a typically Muslim pragmatic character: the exterior rites are useful, like the presents of a lover to his Beloved. If Love were purely a spiritual thing why should God have created the material World? (i, 2624 ff.). On the problem of freedom and destiny he acutely remarks that there is a great difference between the momentaneous act of God ( $sun^c$ ) and the result of that act ( $masn\bar{u}^c$ ), between kada' (the act of deciding or predestining) and makdi (the predestined thing). One has to love the sun' of God, not his masnū' like an idolater (iii, 1360-73). When his spiritual eyes are open, man recognizes that he is, at the same time, totally "operated" and moved by God (i, 598 ff.) and totally free, of a freedom unmeasurably above the petty freedoms of ordinary men (i, 936-9). To reach this deeper freedom in God, efforts and action (kūshish) are necessary (i, 1074-7). Perfect examples of this supreme freedom are the Saints and the Prophets (i, 635-7).

Life after death: The nearness to God in the worlds beyond is never felt by Djalāl al-Dīn as a real absorption in God without any residue. The metaphors he uses to express /anā' in an interesting passage of the Maihnawī (iii, 3669 ff.) are for instance the following: the flame of the candle in the presence of the sun (but yet the candle exists and "if you put cotton upon it, the cotton will be consumed by the sparks") or a deer in presence of a lion, or, elsewhere, as red-hot iron in the fire, when iron takes the properties of fire without losing its own individual essence. In that state it can claim to be fire as well as iron. The

soul near God becomes then one "according to whose desire the torrents and rivers flow, and the stars move in such wise as He wills" (iii, 1885 ff.). In another passage Djalāl al-Dīn tells of a lover who, as he reached the presence of his Beloved, died and "the bird, his spirit, flew out of his body" for "God is such that, when He comes, there is not a single hair of thee remaining" (iii, 4616, 4621). What an encouraging idea for a pantheist! But Djalāl al-Dīn is always ready to surprise us with some coup-descène. So the real end of the story is told some lines further, under the heading: "How the Beloved caressed the senseless lover that he might return to his senses" (iii, 4677 ff.). Djalāl al-Dīn goes even so far as to admit an element of activity in the otherworldly plane, so that the highest degree in the life of spirit "is not attainment but infinite aspiration after having attained": "... there is a very occult mystery here in the fact that Moses set out to run towards a Khidr . . . This Divine Court is the Infinite Plane. Leave the seat of honour behind: the Way is thy seat of honour!" (iii, 1957 ff.).

Djalal al-Din Rumi's style: The style of the ghazals of Djalal al-Din's Diwan is conditioned by the fact that many of them were "sung" by the poet himself or were destined to be sung. A well known tradition shows us Djalal al-Din improvising odes while gently dancing around a pillar in his school, and another story tells how he found one of his beloved pupils and companions, the already mentioned goldsmith Şalāḥ al-Dīn Zarkūb, while listening enraptured, in a street, to the rhythmic beat of his goldsmith's hammer. His powerful sense of rhythm is not always accompanied by equal attention to the strict rules of classical quantitative Persian poetry. He often complains against metres ("mufta'ilun mufta'ilun mufta'ilun killed me!") and more than one verse both in his Diwan and in his Mathnawi shows strong irregularities. In his diwan two styles can be distinguished, a "singing" and a "didactic" style. Often some  $\underline{gh}azals$  begin in the former (strong rhythm, double rhymes etc.) to pass slowly into the second or vice versa. In the Mathnawi, which is a single uninterrupted discourse, where the Speaker is often drawn by a word or a casual connexion of words to pass into ever newer subjects, anecdotes and sub-anecdotes, three styles can be distinguished. The purely "narrative" style; at the end, or during the telling of a story, however, comments are introduced in a "didactic" style. Here and there, either in the context of a story or of its comment, the author seems to be suddenly taken away as by rapture and then he uses his "ecstatic" style, in which some of the best verses of the Mathnawi are composed. Both the narrative and the didactic styles are of a remarkable simplicity and colloquialness, almost unique in the Persian literature of that time. Elements of colloquial language penetrate sometimes even into the more refined language of the ghazals and of the "ecstatic" style of the Mathnawi. We have even some verses of Djalāl al-Dīn containing a few words and sentences in colloquial Greek. Because of its strongly personal features Dialal al-Din's style found practically no imitators, but it is highly-and rightly-valued by modern Persians (even by those who do not fully agree with his mystical views) and perhaps exerted a certain influence in the movement of simplification and modernization of Persian literature begun in the past century.

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**DJALĀL** AL-**DĪN TABRĪZĪ** [see TABRĪZĪ, <u>DI</u>ALĀL AL-DĪN].

DJALĀL AL-DĪN THANESARĪ [see thanesarī, DJALĀL AL-DĪN].

**DJALĀL ḤUSAYN ČELEBI** (CELĀL ḤŪSEYIN ÇELEBI), Turkish poet. He was born in Monastir, the son of a sipāhī (?-978/1571?). As a young man he went to Istanbul to study, later wandered in Syria where he found protectors through whose help he entered the court of prince SelIm, who liked his easy manner and gaiety and who kept him at his court when he ascended the throne as SelIm II. Djalāl remained a boon-companion of the Sultan until he became involved in political intrigues and religious controversies; he then had to leave court life and returned to his home-town where he died.

His diwan has not come down to us. Many of his poems are collected in most medimu'as. His only surviving book is a small collection of ghazels: Husn-i Yūsuf, not yet edited.

Bibliography: The tedhkires of 'Ahdī, 'Āshiķ Čelebi, Kinali-zāde Ḥasan Čelebi, and the biographical section in 'Ālī's Kunh al-akhbār, s.v.

DJALĀL NŪRĪ [see ileri, celâl nuri].
DJALĀL REDJĀ'ĪZĀDE [see REDJĀ'ĪZĀDE].

DJALĀLĀBĀD, principal town and administrative centre of the region of the same name in the Kirghiz SSR, situated in the plain of Kongar to the extreme south of the essentially mountainous region which is a prolongation of the Tian Shan and whose mean altitude is from 2000 to 3000 m., the lowest regions of the plains being no less than 500 m. This former small town, of no economic importance, is now a large industrial city supported by the cotton production of the hinterland. The urban population reflects that of the region, peopled since the remotest past by Kirghiz, to whom have been added Uzbeks in the southern part, also Tatars, Tadjiks, and Russians.

(H. CARRÈRE D'ENCAUSSE)

**DJALĀLĪ** (Ta²rīkħ-i <u>Di</u>alālī), the name of an era and also that of a calendar used often in Persia and in Persian books and literature from the last part of the 5th/11th century onward. The era was founded by the 3rd Saldiūkid ruler Sultān Maliksħāh b. Alp Arslan (465-85/1072-92) after consultation with his astronomers. It was called <u>Di</u>alālī after the title of that monarch, <u>Di</u>alāl al-Dawla (not <u>Di</u>alāl al-Dīn as some later authors supposed). The era was also called sometimes *Malikī*. The epoch of the eq. (i.e., its beginning) was Friday, 9 Ramaḍān 471/15 March 1079, when the vernal equinox occurred in about 2<sup>h.</sup> 6<sup>m.</sup> Greenwich time (in Işfahān 5<sup>h.</sup> 33<sup>m.</sup>).

The names of the astronomers who helped in the matter of the reform of the calendar and advocated the institution of the era are given in some sources, and include the name of the famous mathematician and poet 'Umar b. Ibrāhīm al-Khayyāmī [q.v.]. As