envoy's rank accompanied him along the itinerary. Requirements in food and carriage were taken care of locally. The embassies were received in state in the cities and settlements on the way to the two capitals. The financial strain caused by the need to supply means of transportation and food proved too much for some of these localities, and the intinerary was occasionally changed and some exemptions were granted. The practice of paying for the expenses of foreign missions was, however, discontinued after 1792 when Yūsuf Āgāh Efendi was sent to London as the first Ottoman resident envoy abroad, when it became apparent that this usage was not enforced by foreign states.

Bibliography: Given in the article; see also V. Kopcan, Osmanische Kriegsgefangene auf dem Gebiet der heutigen Slowakei in 16.-18. Jahrhundert, in Asian and African Studies, xix (1983), 197-211.

(İLBER ORTAYLI)

MUBĀḤ (A.) ''licit, authorised'', one of the five juridical qualifications [see АḤKĀM] of human acts [see SḤARĪ^CA].

MUBÄHALA (A.), synonym mulā'ana, literally "mutual imprecation, curse" (e.g. "may God's curse over the one of us who is wrong, who lies"), implies swearing a conditional curse (e.g. "may God's punishment hit me, may I be cursed if...") and a purifying oath (cf. b-h-l VIII: nabtahil).

In fact, the term indicates: (1) spontaneously swearing a curse in order to strengthen an assertion or to find the truth; (2) a kind of ordeal, invoked for the same purpose, between disputing individuals or parties, in which the instigation or call to the ordeal is more important than the execution. Originally, both forms may have been some sacred elevation of the more profane tahkim [q.v.], or of some sacred, magical features of this or any other primitive way of performing divination. This is also clear from the fact that the term equally implies (3) a reference to a "historical" ordeal, the mubāhala (in a second instance also recognised as a legal remedy by adherents of the Sunna and Shī a), which, according to Sunni and Shīcī tradition, was proposed in the year 10/632-3 by the Prophet to a deputation of the Christian Balharith b. Ka'b from Nadjrān [see ḤĀRITH В. KA'B]. This took place during a dispute on Christology and prophetology through examination of the "truthful" and the "liar", at the order of the apparently ad hoc revealed verse III, 54, of the Kur an which ostensibly suggested the "historical" ordeal (the 'ilm asbāb alnuzul and the 'ilm al-tafsir in general relate the first 70-80 verses of Sūrat (Imrān to this dispute). The Nadirānīs, who had been summoned to this and had had second thoughts, are said to have been given a respite for reflection and deliberation. Under the impression of the presumed calamity which most certainly was going to hit their community and native town, and of the increasingly growing certainty that Muhammad indeed was the promised Prophet and an authorised messenger of God, they decided to request him to postpone the threatening curse. After an intermission for deliberation, both sworn groups, with their followers, met at a remote place (according to some, the Red Dune, kathīb ahmar, later called djabal al-mubāhala, in the cemetery of Baķīc al-Gharkad) where the ordeal was to be executed. According to the majority of the traditions, from which the very original ones, like those of Ibn Ishāk and Ibn Sacd, must be excluded, both parties sent from their midst prominent personalities as sureties and witnesses to the place of the trial of strength. Fortunately for the Christians, it was, however, averted. Instead, the Nadjrānīs requested and received confirmed agreement, namely, an indissoluble treaty of protection ($sulh, musālaha, ^cahd, \underline{dhimma} [q.v.]$), with most closely defined rights and duties of the $\underline{dhimm\bar{s}}$.

The mubāhala account (perhaps through exegesis grown out of the abstract proposal to the ordeal as found in the Kur³ān rather than vice-versa), which is still fragmentary in Ibn Ishāk and others, soon became subject to enlargement and transformation as regards form and content. This certainly began during the lifetime of Ibn Hisham. In particular, it also underwent Shī'i influence which is, in some features, even present in the accounts of the ahl alsunna. Frame stories, earlier histories, interludes and after-pieces fill up the thin, original corpus and underline both the wondrous and the ominous mubāhala: of the prophecies, eschatological perspectives, about the coming test of strength which were already pronounced during the council-meeting held by the Nadiranis in their home town; ominous events during the journey; picture of the mimicry and gesticulation at the ordeal; interpolations in the deliberations, in the explanation of the moments of cession and of the hypothetical effects of the curse in case the ordeal should be put into practice. The tafsīr of the motivation, given by Ibn Ishāk (in Ibn Hishām), still unequivocally dominant before the mubāhala story had been arranged, decreases. The prelude to the ordeal, and especially the processing leading to it, obtains as much place as does the outfit of the persons on the stage of the ordeal, in particular the emphasis on the distinction of the sureties who, in the Sunnī tradition, are performers but who, in the Shī'ī tradition, even have a decisive role in the ordeal. Their number, at first probably limited, grows to four or five "people of the garment" (ashāb al-kisā", ahl al-'abā' [see AHL AL-KISĀ']). The Kur'ānic centre-piece, "Come here! We want to call together our sons and yours, our wives and yours, ourselves and vourselves", become for the Shīcīs the corner-stone of their own tradition and interpretation of the ordeal. The nomination, function and position of the group of guarantors and witnesses become the centre of interest. To 'Alī, Fāṭima, Ḥasan and Ḥusayn is opposed an equally prominent group of Nadirānīs, who are, however, not of the same quality as the firstmentioned. In addition, there takes place, in theory at least, an obvious association with the Shīcī tafsīr of Kur³ān, XXXIII, 33, where the purification of the ahl al-bayt [q.v.] is mentioned: their purity, also brought forward in the mubāhala, liberates from guilt and protects from curse. Thus the highly-renowned Shīcī garment traditions are fed from both sources. However. the Shī'ī development of the reports on the mubāhala and the garment are generally aimed at underscoring, through a suggestive investiture scene and its theological implication, the fact that the ahl al-bayt and their descendants have been chosen from eternity and that this has been confirmed over time more than once. Thus are emphasised their primal rights on the leadership of the community of the believers, that is to say, the principle of legitimacy, while at the same time the auguration and legitimisation of the Ghadīr Khumm [q, v] episode is effectively completed (cf. the Shī'i feast of mubāhala, mostly celebrated on 21 Dhu 'l-Hididja in connection with the remembrance of Ghadīr Khumm on the 18th of the same "holy" Shīcī month). Finally, in the esoteric doctrine of the extremist Shīcī ghuluww [q.v.], the mubāhala is completely transposed into the mythical world, with replaced or doubled actors, linked together through a cosmic identity.

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2. Studies. L. Massignon, La Mubāhala de Médine et l'hyperdulie de Fāṭima, in Opera minora, Beirut 1963, i, 550 ff.; R. Strothmann, Die Mubāhala in Tradition und Liturgie, in Isl., xxxiii (1958), 5 ff.; W. Schmucker, Die christliche Minderheit von Nagrān und die Problematik ihrer Beziehungen zum frühen Islam, in Bonner Or. Studien, N.S., xxvii/1, 183 ff. (W. SCHMUCKER)

MUBĀLAGHA (A.), verbal noun of the form III verb bālagha (fī), with the two related meanings of "to do the utmost [in s.th.]" and "to overdo [s.th.]"), technical term in (a) grammar ("intensiveness") and (b) literary theory ("emphasis" and, more particularly, "hyperbole").

(a) In grammar. Already in Sībawayh, the term mubālagha is used to denote the intensive meaning of a number of morphemes and syntagmas (see G. Troupeau, Lexique-index du Kitāb de Sībawayhi, Paris 1976, 41). Most consistently it is henceforth applied to the intensive participles of the forms $fa^{c}\bar{u}l$, $fa^{c\bar{c}}\bar{a}l$, etc. Al-Sidjilmāsī (wrote ca. 704/1304) enumerates no less than 21 patterns for them under the general heading 'adl, the term referring to nouns that are "diverged" (ma^cdūl) from the active participle (Manza^c, 272-3). When used for God's attributes, these forms are, according to some, not intensive per se, but refer to the multiplicity of their objects, while others consider their form to be non-literal (madjaz), according to al-Tahānawī (Kashshāf istilāhāt al-funūn, ed. A. Sprenger, Calcutta 1862, i, 140).

(b) In literary theory. Although in the classical system of 'ilm al-balāgha the term mubālagha did come to mean "hyperbole", earlier theorists often protest against this narrow use and maintain that it means "emphasis, strengthening, heightening" in general, thus comprising "hyperbole" as one of its subcategories. At the outset the situation is, however, rather confusing: the earliest writers do not use the term mubālagha at all, though they are quite aware of the existence of "hyperbole", which they call by various names (Tha lab [d. 291/904]: al-ifrāṭ fi 'l-ighrāķ [Kawā 'id, 49], Ibn al-Mu 'tazz [d. 296/908]: alifrāt fi 'l-sifa [Badī', 65], Ibn Ţabāṭabā [d. 322/934]: al-abyāt allatī aghraķa ķā iluhā fī ma ānīhā ['Iyār, 76]). Kudāma (d. 337/948) introduces the term mubālagha, though not in the sense of "hyperbole", for which he uses ghulūw, but to denote a very specialised type of emphasising (ighāl with later authors) in which a poetic idea is rounded out by a pertinent little exaggeration at the end of the line (Nakd, 77). He does, however, use mubālagha also in an untechnical way to describe the mechanism of ghulūw: the intention of hyperbole is "emphasis and image-forming (tamthil, not the [literal] truth of a thing" (Nakd, 31, cf. also 27). Starting here, the "hyperbole" idea gradually spills over into mubālagha, although a man like Ibn Rashīķ (d. 456/1063 or later) still defends the old meaning: those who reject "hyperbole" because of the untruth it entails mean ghuluw rather than mubālagha, because, he says, "if all mubālagha were worthless and blameworthy, even simile would be worthless and metaphor would be blameworthy as well as the other beauties" ("Umda, ii, 85); obviously, all these figures serve to emphasise the poetic ideas to which they are applied. In Ibn Rashīk we also find the first systematic ordering of terms: mubālagha, now more narrowly understood as "intensification," comprises subcategories, such as takassī ("going to the limit''), tarāduf al-ṣifāt (''piling of descriptions one over the other), and ghulūw. The enumeration is somewhat haphazard and probably not meant to be exhaustive. With the classical system of al-Khatīb al-Kazwīnī (d. 739/1338), logical stringency is achieved: muhālagha is defined as "claiming that a certain quality, in intensity or weakness, attains an unthinkable or improbable degree", and it is subdivided, in accordance with the philosophical distinctions mumkin-mumtani^c-mustahīl, "possible-impossible-unthinkable", into tabligh, ighrāk, and ghulūw, of which the second is possible in the mind, but not according to everyday experience, while the first and third are possible in both or neither, respectively (Idah, 514-16, Talkhis, 370-1). This is the system represented in the nineteenth-century Western handbooks still in use (see Rückert, Mehren and Garcin de Tassy), which are based on al-Kazwīnī and later Arabic and Persian works

Due to the inherent absurdity (ihāla) of many hyperboles, ghulūw became a matter of dispute within the larger framework of untruth (kadhib) in poetry. Kudāma testifies to the existence of this literary feud in his time and opts for the permissibility of hyperbole by applying to it the adage ahsanu 'l-shi'ri akdhabuh (Nakd, 34-8). Others differ, and a sort of compromise emerges by postulating that a given hyperbole must survive the kāda test to be acceptable (thus already Ķudāma, Naķd, 133, cf. Abū Hilal al-Askarī, Sinā atayn, 375, Ibn Rashīk, Umda, ii, 65), i.e., the hyperbole in question must admit of being rewritten with an explicit form of the verb kāda "to be close to [doing s.th.]" or some word to the same effect. There is no question that hyperboles were of great importance in muhdath poetry and in its Persian and Persianate successors, and the critics, even when averse to "lies" in poetry, had to come to terms with them. A conservative authority anonymously quoted by Ibn Rathīk says: "If poetry were [identical with] hyperbole (mubālagha) [apparently some went so far as to allege this], the sedentary people and the Moderns would be better poets than the Ancients" ('Umda, ii, 84). Others used the typical legitimising procedure of saying that the (or some) Moderns followed the Ancients in this respect (Ibn Ṭabāṭabā, 'Iyār, 81, al-Ķāḍī al-Djurdjānī, Wasāţa, 420-3). In any case, the idea that hyperbole was of the essence in traditional Islamic poetry became so engrained that in our time the Turkish poet Orhan Veli, in a poem critical of the old Dīwān poetry, referred to the latter as mübalâğa sanatı "the art of hyperbole" (Bütün şiirleri, İstanbul 1966, 80).

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