were killed for having accused Moses of the murder of his brother, but they were afterwards brought back to life and became prophets.—At Şalkhad [q.v.] a footprint of Hārūn was shown.—In the historiosophy worked out by the Ismā'lliyya [q.v.], Hārūn is a kudidja or a wasī together with Mūsā.

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(G. EISENBERG-[G. VAJDA])

HĀRŪN B. KHUMARAWAYH [see TŪLŪNIDS]. HĀRŪN B. YAHYĀ, a person known only from an account left by him and inserted in the Kitāb al-A'lak al-nafisa of Ibn Rusta (ed. De Goeje, in BGA, vii, 119-30). Nothing is known of his origin. Accordding to J. Marquart, he was a Syrian, and a Christian -a fact which would have hastened his release during his stay in Constantinople (Streifzüge, 207). Taken prisoner in Palestine by the Byzantines, he was transferred across Asia Minor, to Constantinople, and was probably placed in one of the prisons reserved for Muslim prisoners (for these prisons cf. REI, 1947, 49 n. 1). Released by the authorities and awaiting his final liberation, he had time to visit parts of the town and to study closely the famous monuments there. His description contains archaeological information of the highest interest and can be considered one of the most-if not the mostimportant of all accounts left by visitors to the Byzantine capital in the Middle Ages. After the ransom of the Arab prisoners Hārûn b. Yaḥyā left Constantinople for Salūķiya (Thessalonica), from where he travelled to Venice and later Rome, of which too he left a description.

The date of his stay in Byzantium is disputed. According to Marquart and Vasiliev it took place between 267/880 and 276/890. G. Ostrogorsky thinks it was during the winter of 912-3, during the short reign of the Emperor Alexander (Zum Reisebericht des Hārūn-ibn-Jahja, in Sem. Kondakov, v (1932), 254), a date accepted also by H. Grégoire (Un captif arabe à la cour de l'Empereur Alexandre, in Byzantion, vii (1932), 666-73). As for V. Minorsky, he places it at about the year 900 (Hudūd al-Sālam, 419, n. 2).

Hārûn b. Yaḥyā's account was translated and commented upon for the first time in German by J. Marquart (op. cit., 206-37) then, in English, by A. A. Vasiliev (Hārūn-ibn-Yaḥya and his description of

Constantinople, in Sem. Kondakov, v (1932), 149-63); there are three French translations: the first by Mehmed Izeddin (Un prisonnier arabe à Byzance au IX\* siècle: Hāroun-ibn-Yaḥyā, in REI, 1947, 41-62), the second by M. Canard (in Vasiliev's Byzance et les Arabes, ii/2 (1950), 382-94) and the third by G. Wiet, in Ibn Rusteh, Les atours précieux, 134-46.

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(M. IZZEDIN)

HĀRŪN AL-RASHĪD, HĀRŪN B. MUHAMMAD

B. 'ABD ALLĀH, the fifth 'Abbāsid caliph, is,
thanks to the "Arabian Nights", an almost legendary
figure, so that the "good Hārūn al-Rashīd" of the
"golden prime" of the 'Abbāsids has obscured his
true historical personality. His reign, which saw
many incidents of critical importance, was a turning
point in the history of the 'Abbāsid Caliphate; it
marked the decline in administrative efficiency and
initiated the political disintegration of the Islamic
empire.

He was born in al-Rayy in Muharram 149/February 766 (another account in Tabari, iii, 599, puts it as early as Dhu'l-Hididia 145/March 763). He was the third son of al-Mahdi, and his second son by al-Khayzurān [q.v.], a slave girl from the Yemen who, being freed and married by al-Mahdi in 159/775-6, played an influential role in the reign of both her husband and her son. The 'Abbäsid Court at which Hārūn spent his carefree and serene youth surrounded by eunuchs [see KHASI] and Mawali [q.v.] was beginning to show signs of laxity and splendour. His early upbringing rendered him susceptible to influence, especially that exerted by his mother and by his secretary-tutor Yahya b. Khalid [see AL-BARĀMIKA]. Early in his youth, Hārūn was appointed the leader of two expeditions against the Byzantines, in 163/779-80 and 165/781-2, when he was accompanied by high ranking officials and veteran generals. The former culminated in the capture of Samālū, the latter was a marked success, in that the Abbasid army reached for the first and last time the coast of the Bosphorus. It cannot be assumed that Hārūn, hardly more than a boy, played a leading role in these expeditions. However, he was appointed governor of Ifrīķiya, Egypt, Syria, Armenia and Adharbaydjan, with Yahya b. Khalid in charge of the actual administration, and second in succession to the throne in 166/782, ostensibly on the strength of these victories, but in reality because of the instigation of his mother and Yahyā b. Khālid, in order to enhance his prestige and pave his way to the throne. In the struggle between various political groupings, each identifying itself with an amir through whom it sought to achieve absolute power, intrigues were a common weapon at al-Mahdi's court. These intrigues showed their effect when al-Mahdī ultimately decided to nominate Hārūn the first in succession; but he died in obscure circumstances in 169/785 before fulfilling his wish. Under al-Hadi [q.v.], Harun, ill-treated and humiliated, would have renounced his claim to the Caliphate but for the encouragement of Yahya b. Khālid.

However, Hārūn was proclaimed Caliph, after the mysterious death of al-Hādī which was due to a court conspiracy, on 15 Rabī I 170/14 September 786. He was then in his early twenties, and his accession to the throne was due to fortuitous as well as fortunate circumstances in which he had no real

share. It was therefore a matter of course that the grateful Hārūn should bestow the right to govern on Yaḥyā b. Khālid who, together with his two sons al-Fadl and Dia'far, remained in power for about 17 years. Their downfall in Muḥarram 187/January 803 marked, more or less, the end of the importance of the viziers as initiators of policies and not merely heads of the administration. Political necessity drew al-Raṣhīd to rely more and more on his mawālī and eunuchs, who were entirely dependant on the Caliph and therefore loyal to him. They, in fact, proved equal to their task in many decisive moments (Tabarī, iii, 678, 682, 705, 716, etc.) and played an important rôle in controlling other political groupings.

Despite the glorious picture of the golden age, Hārūn's reign was, in fact, a long sequence of political disturbances flaring up in the eastern parts as well as the western parts of the empire. Syria, a province inhabited by unruly tribes with Umayyad sympathies, never ceased to be the bitter enemy of the Abbasids. Frequent fights between the two rival factions, the Yamanis and the Mudaris, eventually developed into a war with the 'Abbasid army, because governors used to take sides with one faction against the other. The feuds continued with brief intervals until 180/796, when the situation became so serious that al-Rashīd had to send Djafar b. Yaḥyā, who succeeded in quietening the situation and disarming the tribes. Al-Rashid's move to al-Rakka [q.v.] at about this time was partly due to the disturbances in Syria (Tabari, iii, 706). As to the Egyptian risings of 172/788 and 178/794-5, they were mainly due to maladministration and arbitrary taxation, as Egypt had to subsidise the 'Abbasid army fighting in Ifrīķiya. But Harthama b. A'yān was able to restore peace to Egypt. Instability in Ifrikiya started after the death of the competent governor Yazīd b. Ḥātim al-Muhallabī [q.v.] in 170/ 786, and successive governors failed to restore order. Harthama b. A'yan [q.v.] was able to subdue 'Abd Allāh b. al-Djarūd's rebellion in Ķayrawān in 178/ 794-5, but disturbances blazed up again in 180/797 and al-Rashid consented to bestow the governorship of Ifrīķiya on Ibrāhīm b. al-Aghlab [q.v.] only in return for an annual payment of 40,000 dinārs. The process of disintegration, which had already started in Spain with the establishment of the Umayyad dynasty (138/755) and in al-Maghrib with the foundation of the Idrīsid dynasty (172/788), was aggravated in Ifrīķiya by the foundation of the Aghlabid [q.v.] dynasty (184/800), alleviated in the last case however by financial benefits to the central treasury. Finally the Yemen was a place of unrest owing to its remoteness and its mountainous nature; al-Rashīd's governor and Mawlā Ḥammād al-Barbarī employed a harsh policy towards the people of the Yemen, who therefore revolted under al-Hayşam al-Hamdānī in 179/795. Thanks to local support, the revolt lasted for nine years and resulted in al-Hayşam and many of his followers being sent to al-Rashid, who had them strangled. The lot of the Yemenis improved only when Hammad was dismissed after 13 years of governorship.

The causes of the unrest in the eastern part of the empire were more complicated. The unrest was partly due to the disappointment of the lower classes, whose condition was not improved by the advent of the 'Abbāsids. Moreover, the 'Abbāsids had to contend with a population more attached to their old local tradition than to Islam, and sometimes, as was the case with large parts of Daylam and Tabaristān, completely unaffected by it. Al-Rashīd

himself converted 400 Tabaristanis to Islam in 189/805 (Tabari, iii, 705, 1014-15). The dissatisfaction manifested itself in the form of 'Alid or Kharidiī risings. It was as early as 176/792-3 that the Hasanid Yahyā b. 'Abd Allāh al-Maḥḍ [q.v.] rebelied in Daylam and won considerable support from the native princes and the people. Al-Rashid sent al-Fadl b. Yahyā al-Barmakī, who through diplomacy and promises of amnesty persuaded Yahyā to give in. But Yahya's submission did not entirely satisfy al-Rashid, who a little later found a pretext to have the amnesty annulled and threw Yahyā into prison (Maķātil, 309-22). The number of the Khāridjīs was considerable in Kirman as well as in Fars and Sīstān; they continued in their hostile attitude towards the new régime, and during the reign of al-Rashid seem to have recovered from the heavy blow inflicted upon them in the late Umayyad period. There was a series of revolts, the most serious being that of al-Walld b. Tarif al-Shari [q.v.], and that of Hamza b. 'Abd Allah al-Shari. The former, with headquarters in Nasībīn, took place in 178/794 in the entirely tribal province of al-Djazīra and defeated successive 'Abbāsid armies. Then al-Rashīd sent Yazīd b. Mazyad al-Shaybānī, of the same tribe as al-Walid, whom he killed in 179/795. The latter broke out in Sīstān when Ḥamza occupied Harāt in 179/795 and extended his authority to Kirman and Fars, and al-Rashid was unable to subdue the rebels (Sadighi, Les mouvements religieux ..., 52-5). Khurāsān became the scene of a series of local risings due to the incompetence of the successive governors with the exception of al-Fadl b. Sulayman al-Tūsī and al-Fadl al-Barmakī (Barthold, Turkestan, 203.). The situation worsened when 'Alī Ibn 'Isā Ibn Māhān was appointed governor in 180/795-6. His notorious deeds caused two serious revolts, namely that of Abu 'l-Khasib Wuhayb b. 'Abd Allah in 185/801 at Nasā, and that of Rāfic b. al-Layth b. Nașr b. Sayyār [q.v.] in 190/806 at Samarkand.

In his religious policy al-Rashīd stressed the religious character of the Caliphate, and continued the anti-'Alid and anti-sandaka policy of his predecessors. He initiated his reign by a general amnesty, but the potentially dangerous 'Alids and the Zindiks were excluded from it. His suspicions included even the politically inactive and pious Mūsā al-Kāzim [q.v.]who was suddenly arrested and sent to Basra, then to Baghdad. Although it was alleged that al-Kazim was killed by al-Rashīd's orders (Maķātil, 335; 'Uyūn akhbār al-Ridā, 66, 71 ff.) it seems more likely that his death in 183/799 was natural (Tabari, iii, 649). Al-Rashīd's attitude towards the dhimmis seems to have been stricter than that of his predecessors. In 191/806 he ordered churches along the Muslim-Byzantine frontiers to be demolished, and ordered the dhimmis of Baghdad to wear different clothes from those of the Muslims and to ride different animals (Țabari, iii, 712-3; Tabakāt al-Muctazila, ed. Arnold, 31-2; Fattal, Le statut . . ., 66). His motive in so doing may have been to win over Muslim public opinion or else the necessity to be on guard against foreign spies.

A great part of al-Rashīd's fame was due to his interest in the wars against the Byzantines. In waging dithād against the infidels, Hārūn was in fact fulfilling one of the important duties of the Caliph in the eyes of Muslims. Border attacks and counterattacks occurred with almost annual regularity, but the interesting aspect of al-Rashīd's expeditions was his personal participation in a number of them. He organized the border area as a separate adminis-

trative unit called al-'Awasim [q.v.] with a centre in Manbidi. In 181/797, al-RashId profited by the Byzantine internal troubles as well as their conflict with the Bulgarians, and took the fortress of al-Safsaf, while a division of his army penetrated as far as Ancyra. The empress Irene (better known in Muslim sources as 'Ughusta [i.e., Augusta]), then already the real ruler of the Byzantine State (797-802), demanded a peace treaty which al-Rashid first refused and subsequently accepted because of the Khazar menace. But when Nicephorus ascended the throne in 802, hostilities were resumed and al-Rashid himself led the Muslim army in 187/803 and 190/806. In the second expedition al-Rashid met with considerable success, taking Heraclea and Tyana. Nicephorus, threatened by the Bulgarians from the east, had to accept a very humiliating peacetreaty by which he had to pay personal poll tax on behalf of himself and his son.

Having chosen 'Irāk as their residence, the 'Abbāsids had lost interest in the Mediterranean fleet. Al-Rashīd was the first 'Abbāsid Caliph to pay attention to naval power. Successful raids on Cyprus in 190/805 and Rhodes in 192/807 had no lasting effect. It might seem surprising that by the end of al-Rashid's reign the situation on the frontiers was virtually unchanged; the campaigns were, in fact, bedevilled by many problems such as difficulties of supply and the harshness of the weather. Encouraged by the weakness of the central government in Armenia, where a slow process of Arab colonization was in progress, the Khazars made occasional raids on Muslim territories. Only the efforts of Yazid b. Mazyad al-Shaybānī and Khuzayma b. Khāzim succeeded in controlling the situation. An exchange of embassies and gifts is alleged to have taken place between Hārun al-Rashīd and Charlemagne, which resulted in giving Charlemagne rights of protection over Jerusalem. Nothing has yet been found in Arabic sources to substantiate this allegation, and although they may have had political interests in common, there seems to be no truth in it.

The later period of al-Rashīd's reign reveals a certain lack of competence in him as a ruler. Some of his decisions, such as the covenant of the Kacba (186/802), make him at least partly responsible for the civil war and the disintegration of the empire. It was again in Khurāsān that the trouble started. Al-Rashid did not heed the reports of 'Ali b. 'Isa b. Māhān's misrule and contented himself with the precious gifts he sent; but when Rāfic b. al-Layth's revolt became dangerous, 'Alī was finally disposed of in 191/806. This did not put an end to the revolt of Rāfic, whose authority had increased by 192/807-8. In spite of ill health, al-Rashīd, accompanied by his two sons al-Ma'mun and Şāliḥ, marched against the rebel with a considerable 'Irāķī army (Gabrieli, La successione di Harun al-Rashid, in RSO, xi, 349), but he had to halt at Tus in Safar 193/November 808, as his health began to deteriorate. Meanwhile the Khurramiyya [q.v.] came out in his rear in several areas, especially in Ispahan. Al-Rashīd died on 3 Djumādā II 193/24 March 809.

Opinions on his character are contradictory. He has been represented by various chroniclers as pious and dissolute, statesmanlike and incompetent at the same time. In fact, politically, his reign was not a period of ideal stability. Moreover, he virtually dismembered the empire by the unwise decision to apportion it between his sons al-Amin [q.v.], al-Ma<sup>3</sup>mūn [q.v.] and al-Mu<sup>3</sup>tamin, and thus initiated its decline. This move by al-Rashid may have been

inspired by the wish to safeguard not only the succession of his direct descendants against the ambitions of many 'Alid and 'Abbāsid contenders, but also to ensure 'Abbāsid authority over all the provinces; but this can hardly have been the right approach. Economically, the commercial activities, which reached as far as China, made al-Rashīd's name known to the whole world of the time, and increased the splendour of his court, which was a centre of art and culture.

Bibliography: The chief source is Tabari, iii, 599-764; Ibn al-Athir gives a summarized version of Tabari with fresh information here and there (al-Kāmil, vi, 65-152); Other sources are Yackūbi, ii, 491-524; Balädhurī, Futūh, ed. al-Munajjid, 1956 (index); Djahshiyarī, Cairo 1938, 177-288; Mas udi, Murūdi, vi, 287-414; Işfahanı, Makatil, ed. Nadiaf 1934, 308-36; and Fragmenta Historicorum Arabicorum, ed. de Goeje, 1871, 278-80, 290-319. Information will be found in other later histories, and also in al-Dhahabi's Ta'rikh al-Islam, MS.British Museum Add. 23,278 with incomplete chronological sequence, fols. 36 a, 36b, 40a-70a; some local histories are useful in this respect such as al-Azraķī's Akhbār Makka, 1859; Ta'rīkh-i Sistān, ed. Malik al-Shucara Bahar, Tehran 1314 (where the author's sympathies are strongly against the central regime); al-Narshakhī's Ta'rīkh-i Bukhārā, Tehrān 1939; Maķrīzī's Khitat, ed. 1853; and Kummī's Ta'rīkh-i Kumm, etc. Modern works: Apart from the general works on the Caliphate: see E. H. Palmer, Haroun al-Rashid, London 1881 (in many ways out of date); H. St. J. B. Philby, Haroun al-Rashid, Edinburgh 1933 (dependant on secondary sources and intended for the general reader); N. Abbott, Two Queens of Baghdad, Chicago 1946 (exposing the role played by Khayzuran and Zubayda on the political scene and at the court); A. Joumard, Haroun al-Rashid, 2 vols, 1956 (an attempt to present the reign of al-Rashīd as an ethnic struggle between Arabs and Persians); L. Bouvat, Les Barmécides, Paris 1912; F. Gabrieli, La successione di Harun al-Rashid e la guerra fra al-Amin e al-Ma'mun, in RSO, xi (1926-28), 341-97; D. Sourdel. La politique religieuse du calife 'Abbaside al-Ma'mun, in REI, xxx (1962), 28-30; On relations with the Byzantines see: Cambridge Medieval history, iv, 124-127; E. W. Brooks, The Byzantines and Arabs in the times of the early Abbasids, in EHR, xv (1900), 728-47, xvi (1901), 84-92; G. Ostrogorsky, tr. J. Hussey, History of the Byzantine State, Oxford 1956, 162-9, 173; A. A. Vasiliev, History of the Byzantine Empire, 1961 (see index); idem, Byzance et les Arabes (introduction). On the relations with Charlemagne see: F. F. Schmidt, Karl der Grosse und Harun al-Rashid, in Isl., iii (1912), 409-11; E. Joranson, The alleged Frankish protectorate in Palestine, in AHR, 1927, 241-61; H. B. Bittermann, Hārūn al-Rashid's gift of an organ to Charlemagne, in Speculum, iv (1929), 215-7; Buckler, Hārūn al-Rashid and Charles the Great, 1931 (see Appendix and bibliography); S. Runciman, Charlemagne and Palestine, in EHR, 1935, 606-19; M. Khaddūrī, al-Şilāt al-dīblūmāţīķiyya bayn al-Rashīd wa Shārlamān, Baghdad 1939. See also Le Strange, Baghdad during the 'Abbasid Caliphate, Oxford (F. OMAR) IQ24.

AL-HĀRŪNIYYA (in modern Turkish Hârûniye) was in the Middle Ages a fortress town of the marches of the <u>Diazīra</u> (al-thughūr al-diazariyya) between Mar<sup>c</sup>ash and <sup>c</sup>Ayn Zarba, to the east of the middle