For the repercussions of the weakness of hamza on the morphological system see J. Cantineau, Cours, 81-2, or Trait!, § 22. The dissimilation *2ar2ā > 2arā "I see" may be noted. Dissimilation may also have been at work in 'as'alu > 'asalu "I ask"; sa'ala and its unaccomplished may have undergone various influences (see ibid., § 22 b and d).

For the treatment of the pause on hamza see J. Cantineau, loc. cit., 80-1 or Traité, § 21.

The action of the Arab grammarians in the question of hamza may be summed up as follows: adhering to the tradition of the Tamīm, their efforts at standardization were a reaction against the pronunciation of the Hidiāz. As possible, but not obligatory, ibdāl they accepted only $i^2a > iya$ and $u^2a > uwa$; as possible, but not obligatory hadhf they accepted cases like $ra^2s > r\bar{a}s$, $dhi^2b > dhib$, $mu^2min > m\bar{u}min$. In the meeting of two hamzas, apart from cases like $a^2 > a^2 > a^2$ given above, they set up as standard the weakening (hamza bayna bayna) of one of the two hamzas. But one thing remained outside the scope of their attack: the diversity in writing hamza.

Orthography of hamza. The very first rudimentary attempts to put the Kur'an into writing were made according to the local pronunciation of the Hidjaz, which subjected hamza to all the takhfif already described. The Kur'anic orthography however was surrounded with a holy reverence which forbade any change in the traditional ductus of the words. When the Muslim community and its leaders wished to fill in the inadequacies of this orthography and pass from scriptio defectiva to scriptio plena (see R. Blachère, Introduction, 4, 71, 78-98) they had to give a sign to hamza, properly pronounced, in contrast to the usage of the Hidjaz. They used a point, but of a colour different from that of the vowel points. The system lasted a long time; "it was still the current usage in the 5th/11th century at the time of al-Dānī" (ibid. 97). The current sign appears to use a little 'ayn instead of the point. Placed over alif, the complementary sign indicated for alif the glottal occlusive pronunciation (hamza). When, by ibdal, this glottal occlusive had become w or y, entailing waw or va' in the ductus of the word, the sign of hamza was placed above them; this is the origin of wāw and yā' as kursī of hamza. When nothing remained in the spelling to recall the glottal occlusive, the hamza was put back in the empty space, so to say, that is, without kursī. These are, schematically, the principal lines of the story of writing hamza. It was conditioned by the anxiety to preserve the glottal occlusive hamza in an unalterable text which had not made provision for it. But there remain obscurities in the orthography of verbs with hamza as 2nd radical, in the accomplished of the forms fa'ila, fa'ula, fu'ila. See Traité, § 16; on the writing of hamza, al-Zadidiādiī, al-Diumal, 277-80; on the usage of the Cairo Vulgate, R. Blachère, Introduction, 151-2.

Difficult cases. According to Ibn al-Sikkit (C. Rabin, Anc. West-Ar., § 14 s), hamza sometimes develops into h among the Tayyi', e.g., hin for 'in "if". "But it is difficult to say whether we can speak here of a sound change", adds C. Rabin. For 'a as interrogative particle, Wright (Ar. Gr.3, i, 282 C) quotes the ancient dialect forms hamā $(= ha + m\bar{a})$ for 'amā $(= 'a + m\bar{a})$ and hadhā-lladhī for 'adhā-lladhī "Is this he who?" Is there development from hamza to h? G. Garbini, Sull' alternansa h-' in semitico (in AIUON, sezione linguistica, i (1959), 47-52) on every occasion when he acknowledges an alternation h-', considers that the h must be regarded as primitive and the hamza as secondary, thus:

 $h > \$ ', in accordance with the general tendency of "the laryngeals and the pharyngeals" to weaken.—Matters are not so simple as that. But one point at least may be observed: hamza as a demonstrative element appears in Arabic with the three vocalic states (as does an independent base): ^{3}a , ^{3}ay , employed as vocative particles.

Modern dialects. J. Cantineau (Cours, 84-5) has set out the situation of hamza in the modern dialects: in eastern dialects, where "hamza, though weakened, has remained a phoneme in the phonological sense of the word" (84); and in Maghrib dialects where "hamza is no longer a phoneme and has almost entirely disappeared" (ibid.). Reference should be made to him.

Bibliography: In the text Traité refers to H. Fleisch, Traité de philologie arabe, i, Beirut, 1961. The publications of J. Cantineau, Cours de phonétique arabe, Esquisse d'une phonologie de l'arabe classique, Consonantisme du sémitique are quoted respectively as Cours, Esquisse, Consonantisme, with reference to the Jean Cantineau memorial volume Études de linguistique arabe. The article hamza in al-Mu'djam al-kabīr, i, 1-32 (1956, Madima al-lugha al-arabiyya) give: an account of the whole Arab viewpoint, but wit, out references, or with vague references only. The exclusion of hamza from the number of the h ruf. attributed to Abu 'l-'Abbās al-Mubarrad by 4 MSS of the Sirr sinā'a of Ibn Djinnī (see he edition, i, 46), is attributed in this Mu'djam (p. 1) to Abu 'l-'Abbās Tha'lab. The art. hamza in LA (i, 10-4/i, 17-22) gives the names of all the hamzas distinguished by the Arabs, takhfif and the treatment of the kira'at. For the khata' al-cawwam, the mistakes of the ordinary people over hamza, see Ibn Kutayba, Adab al-kātib, ed. Grünert, 392-400 (repeated in the Muzhir⁸ by al-Suyūti, i, 311-3). The Cours of J. Cantineau or H. Fleisch, Traité, give further precise useful references; otherwise see under huruf al-Hidja'. For a general discussion of the phonetics of Arabic see MAKHĀRIDJ AL-ḤURŪF. For the use of hamza as mater lectionis for the idafat of Persian, see IPAFA, ii. (H. FLEISCH)

HAMZA B. 'ABD ALLÄH [see HAMZA B. 'ABD AL-MUTTALIB].

HAMZA B. 'ABD AL-MUTTALIB, the paternal uncle of the Prophet, was the son of 'Abd al-Muțțalib and Hāla bint Wuhayb. He played a part in negotiating with Khuwaylid b. Asad, the father of Khadidia, for the Prophet's marriage, and on his conversion became one of the bravest champions of Islam, although he had previously been an opponent of the new religion. He defended the Prophet against the insults of Abū Djahl, took part in the action against the Jewish Kaynukā^c clan, and led an expedition to the sea coast at al-'Iş with thirty of the Muhādirūn. On the way they encountered the followers of Abū Djahl but there was no fighting, thanks to the intervention of Madjdī b. 'Amr al-Djuhanī. Hamza fought with great courage at Badr (2/624), distinguishing himself in single combat with many polytheists, but in the following year he was slain fighting heroically at Uhud by the Abyssinian slave Wahshi who thereby gained his manumission. After he fell, his body was barbarously mutilated by Hind bint 'Utba who chewed his liver. This was evidently a survival of prehistoric animism.

Bibliography: Ibn Hishām, 69, 120, 184, 232, 322, 344, 419, 433, 442, 485, 516, 563, 567, 584, 607;

Ibn Sa'd, iii/1, 3-11; Ibn Ḥadjar, Iṣāba (Cairo edition), i, 353-4; H. Lammens, L'âge de Mahomet et la chronologie de la Sīra, in JA, 1911/1, 209-50; Sprenger, Das Leben des Mohammad, ii, 69, 81, 88; iii, 108, 120, 172, 180; H. Lammens, Fāṭima et les filles de Mahomet, 23, 25, 30, 45, 46, 138; Ibn Kays al-Rukayyāt, Dīwān (ed. Rhodokanakis), no. xxxix, 20; Aghānī, iv, 25; xiv, 15, 22; xix, 81-82.

Like so many heroes, Hamza passed into the world of legend after his death and became the central figure of a popular romance to whom were attributed all manner of fantastic adventures. These took place in lands which the real Hamza never visited—Ceylon, China, Central Asia and Rum. The explanation suggested by Bahar (Sabk-shināsī, i, 284-5) is that the source was a work, no longer extant, entitled Kişşa-i maghāzī-i Ḥamza which is mentioned in the Ta'rīkh-i Sīstān. This deals with the exploits of a Persian Khāridiī leader, Hamza b. 'Abd Allah, who led an insurrectionary movement against Hārūn al-Rashīd and his successors, According to the Ta'rīkh-i Sīstān, Hamza undertook expeditions to Sind, Hind and Sarandib (i.e., India and Ceylon). His boldness appealed to the Persian imagination long after the Khāridjī movement had died down and, by identification with the Prophet's uncle, he became an orthodox Muslim hero in popular literature, acceptable to all.

Before passing to the Romance of Amir Hamza, it is necessary to discuss the career of Hamza b. 'Abd Allah very briefly. His name is given in the Zayn al-akhbār of Gardīzī as Ḥamza b. Ādharak, which is spelt in the Arabic sources as Adrak or Atrak. Tabarī gives only a brief outline of his life but a more detailed account occurs in the Persian sources. He was a native of Sīstān and the son of a dihkān, tracing his genealogy to Zav, the son of Tahmāsb. Since one of the Caliph's agents had made insulting remarks about his lineage, he rebelled. Tabarī and Ibn al-Athīr (whom Gardīzī follows) state that this took place in 179/795-6. In the Ta'rīkh-i Bayhak, however, the date is given as 181/797-8, which is accepted by Mme Pigulevskaya. Ḥamza successfully defied al-Rashīd and prevented the men of Sistan from paying the kharadi. Against his growing power, 'Alī b. 'Īsā, the governor of Khurāsān, asked for help from the Caliph who came in person to Sistan in 192/807-8. Although the latter gave him a written promise of safe-conduct, Hamza refused to accept it and determined on further resistance. After the death of al-Rashid, he led expeditions to Sind and Hind and died in 213/828-9. Gardīzī says, on the other hand, that he was killed in battle in 210/825-6.

In favour of Ḥamza the Khāridii, it can be said that he was certainly a patriot and champion of local rights but the good in him was outweighed by the ruthlessness and cruelty he displayed to gain his ends. Shahrastānī (96) mentions the religious views of his associates, the Hamziyya. These held rigid views on predestination-that even the children of their adversaries and of polytheists were destined for hell-fire. He also states that Hamza was one of the companions of al-Huşayn b. al-Ruķād who rebelled in Sidjistan. "Khalaf the Kharidji opposed him in the doctrine of predestination and on the category of persons worthy to hold power, and so they separated. Hamza held it lawful that there could be two Imams at the same time as long as there was general theological agreement and the enemy were not subdued" (Baghdadi, Fark, 76-80).

There is every indication that the Romance of Amīr Ḥamza (called variously Dāstān-i Amīr Hamza, Hamza-nāma, Ķişşa-i Amīr Hamza, Asmār-i Hamza or Rumūz-i Hamza) was of Persian origin. The action centres round the Sāsānian court at Ctesiphon, and Van Ronkel draws an interesting parallel between events in the Romance of Hamza and the adventures of Rustam in the Shah-nama. Earlier and simpler recensions reveal some traces of archaic phraseology which might easily be as early as the 5th/11th century. It is significant also that none of the Arabic sources makes any reference to the existence of a Romance before the 7th/13th century. At that time Ibn Taymiyya refers to stories current among the Turcomans of Syria about the mighty feats of Hamza (Minhādi al-sunna, Būlāk 1322, iv, 12). In the Persian version the number of sections varies between 69 and 82. At least three different recensions can be recognized from the numerous lithographed editions and manuscripts (see BSOAS, xxii/3 (1959), 473-4). One of these was the archetype of all subsequent versions in various languages. The Romance was ascribed to Dialāl-i Balkhi, but in a manuscript at Dresden the author's name appears as Shāh Nāşir al-Dīn Muḥammad Abu 'l-Ma'ālī. An anonymous poetical version entitled Ṣāḥib-ķirān-nāma is mentioned by Dr. Ṣafā (Hamāsasarā i dar Irān, 379). It is in 62 sections and was composed in 1073/1662-3.

There is a considerable difference between the Arabic Sirat Hamza and the Persian Romance. In its most complete form the Arabic version is in ten parts, and many new names and episodes appear. The hero is not the well-known uncle of the Prophet as in the Persian version, but is an entirely different person who is, however, some relative of the Prophet. Copies of the Arabic version at Gotha and Paris are ascribed to Ahmad b. Muhammad Abu 'l-Ma'ālī al-Kūfī al-Bahlawān who may be the same as the author of Sayf b. Dhī Yazan. To complicate further the vexed question of authorship, a copy of the Arabic version in the Ambrosiana Library at Milan is said to be by Shihāb al-Dīn Ahmad al-Dahhān.

From Persia the Romance of Hamza spread to India and achieved great popularity at the Mughal court. The story was much embroidered at this period and it became a favourite subject for the miniature-painter. An Urdū translation was made which, according to Garcin de Tassy, was written by a certain Ashk. The latter mentions a version in fourteen volumes prepared for Maḥmūd of Ghaznī—a statement of dubious authenticity. In the majority of Urdū versions the story has been divided into nineteen daftars, each of which has a title of its own. A partial English translation from the Urdū was published at Calcutta by Shaykh Sadidjād Ḥusayn in 1892. Translations were also made into Bengali and Tamil.

According to Köprülü, the Ḥamza cycle became very popular among the Turks. Ewliyā Čelebi mentions a series of miniatures depicting the combats of Ḥamza with well-known champions and demons. The earliest Ottoman version was made by Ḥamzewī (d. 815/1412-3) in twenty-four volumes. It was in prose, freely interspersed with verses. Copies of Turkish versions are to be found in Vienna (Flügel, ii, 29-30), in Paris (Blochet AF 352: S 632, 647-9, 654, 656), and in Milan (Ambrosiana, no. 226, 330). In the 10th/16th century, Ākhūremīrizāde Hāshimī wrote, in the popular language of the story-tellers, a poem Berķ-i pūlād-dil on the exploits of the son of Ḥamza, which is mentioned by ʿĀṣhɪk Čelebi.

Among the adaptations and imitations of the Romance in other languages, the Georgian romance cycle entitled Amiran-Darejaniani is important as one of the first made from the Persian. It is attributed to Mose Khoneli who is said to have lived in the 12th century. A full Georgian translation, however, was not made until the 19th century (Bodleian Library Ms. Wardrop c. 3). Other versions were made in Malay (Hikāyet Amīr Hamza), and Javanese (Menak) from which the Balinese and Sundanese translations originated.

Bibliography: I On Ḥamza b. ʿAbd Allāh see Yaʿkūbī, ii, 554; Yaʿkūbī, Buldān, 304-5; Ibn al-Athīr, 101, 103-4; Tabarī, 638, 650; Masʿūdī, Murūdi, viii, 42; Taʾrīkh-i Sīstān (ed. Bahār), introduction, 32, 156-79 passim, 210; Zayn alakhbār (ed. Nafīsī), 103-8; Taʾrīkh-i Bayhak (ed. Bahmanyār), 44, 267; Spuler, Iran, 53, 55, 169; L. Veccia Vaglieri, Le vicende del harigismo in epoca abbaside, in RSO, xxiv (1949), 41; O. Caroe, The Pathans 550 B.C.—A.D. 1957, London 1958, 103-7; N.V. Pigulevskaya and others, Istoriya Irana s dreuneyshikh vremen do kontsa 18 veka, Leningrad 1958, 110-1; B. Składenek, Powstanie Charydżyckie Ḥamzy al-Ḥāriǧī w Sistanie, in Przeplad Orientalistyczny. ij33 (1960), 25-37.

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HAMZA B. 'ALĪ B. AḤMAD, the founder of the Druze religious doctrine. He was of Persian origin from Zūzan and a felt-maker.

Among the Ismā'ilī followers of the Fāṭimid caliph al-Ḥākim [q.v.] there had been speculations encouraged by his strange conduct and predictions of earlier authorities that he might be the expected Kā'im. While the leaders of the official propaganda organization tried to counteract these speculations, al-Ḥākim early in 408/summer 1017 began to favour a movement led by al-Ḥāsan al-Akhram proclaiming his divinity. Al-Akhram tried to win over prominent officials by sending them letters and was honoured in public by al-Ḥākim. In Ramadān 408/January-February 1018 he was murdered while riding in the retinue of al-Ḥākim. The caliph punished the murderer but cut off completely his connexion with the movement.

Hamza had participated in the proclamation of al-Hākim's divinity and the end of the distinction between exoteric and esoteric Islam, but had remained in the background. After al-Akhram's death he suspended his propaganda. In Muharram 410/May 1019 al-Hākim again showed his favour to the movement. Now Hamza claimed the leadership as the Imam and kā'im al-zamān and adopted the title Hādī al-mustadjībīn. The centre of his activity was the Raydan mosque near the Bab al-Nasr outside the walls of Cairo. He met a prominent rival in the Turkish official al-Darazī [q.v.] who, after trying in vain to come to terms with Hamzā, acted independently and attracted many of Hamza's followers. On 12 Şafar 410/19 June 1019 Hamza sent a delegation to the chief Kadī in the Old Mosque with a letter demanding his conversion. Three of the men were killed by the mob and riots ensued. Al-Hākim had the transgressors arrested and executed at various times. The Turkish troops were incensed by this and turned against their countryman al-Darazi, besieging him in his residence (dar). Forty of his followers were killed but he escaped to the palace. The Turks demanded his extradition from al-Hākim, who put them off to the following day. On their return he informed them that al-Darazī had been killed. Now all the soldiers turned against Hamza in the Raydan mosque and besieged him with twelve of his men. Hamza escaped and had to hide a short time but by Rabīc II 410/August 1019 regained al-Ḥākim's favour. He now built up a strong missionary organization, attributing cosmic ranks to its leaders. The movement spread rapidly, particularly in Syria. When al-Ḥākim disappeared in Shawwāl 411/ January 1021, the adherents of the Häkim-cult were persecuted and Hamza had to hide. In some letters (which appear to be genuine) he promised his followers his triumphal return. According to Yaḥyā b. Sa'id he was killed some time after his flight. Bahā' al-Dīn al-Muktanā, who became the leader of the movement, pretended to be in touch with him and still in 430/1038 predicted his near reappearance.

For Ḥamza's religious doctrine see DURŪZ.

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HAMZA B. BÎD AL-ḤANAFĪ AL-KŪFĪ (the spelling Bīḍ is attested by a verse where this name rhymes with tanbīḍ; al-Diāḥiz, Bayān, ed. Hārūn, iv, 47), is one of those Arab poets, full of wit and verve,