This time the caliph ruled alone, with the help of his sons. He nominated Sulaymān heir-presumptive and gave to him the duties of vizier (wāsita). When, after two months, Sulaymān died, he then appointed another son, Haydara (Kalkashandī, ix, 377-9). But a third son, al-Hasan, jealous because of this nomination, plotted against his father and brother. He seized power, killed several army leaders and formed a private corps, \$ibyān al-zarad, the young cuirassiers. But the army, offended by the massacre, gathered in front of the palace and demanded al-Hasan's head. Al-Hāfiz then had his son poisoned by the agency of his Jewish doctor (Khitat, iii, 27-9).

This time he appointed to the vizierate Bahrām, a Christian Armenian. But this choice provoked a revolt among the Muslims, for once Bahrām came to power he formed an Armenian army of 20,000 men, infantry and cavalry. The Egyptians are said to have feared that he would change the religion of Islam (Ibn Muyassar, 79 ff.).

The Muslim troops being discontented, the caliph incited against Bahrām the governor of Ascalon, Riḍwān b. Walakhashī, who had been banished by Bahrām, but Bahrām sent him away again to the prefecture of al-Gharbiyya. The people of Egypt were grateful to Riḍwān for having prevented the Armenians from entering Egypt when he was at Ascalon. He later gathered troops and Bedouins and drove Bahrām out of Cairo into Upper Egypt. The caliph, however, gave Bahrām a safe-conduct (amān) (Ķalķashandī, Şubḥ, xiii, 325) because of the intervention of the king of Sicily, Roger II (Şubḥ, vi, 458-63).

But once Ridwan became vizier (Subh, viii, 342-6), he seized all power and took the title of King (malik) (Khitat, ii, 305). He was also a Sunnī; and when he attempted to depose the caliph he was assassinated in 542/1147 (Khitat, ii, 173).

After this al-Ḥāfiz appointed no more viziers, but the troubles and the disturbance continued. He died of a violent intestinal colic (kawlandi) in Djumādā II 544/October 1146.

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HĀFIZ, (KHTĀDIA) SHAMS AL-DĪN MUHAMMAD SHĪRĀZĪ, Persian lyric poet and panegyrist, commonly considered the pre-eminent master of the ghazal form. He was born in Shīrāz, probably in 726/1325-6, though Ķāsim Ghanī argues for 717/1317 and others favour 720/1320. With a few marked absences, he seems to have spent the greater part of his life in Shīrāz, for long moving in or near the court-circle of the Muzaffarid dynasty. He is believed to have died in Shīrāz, in 792/1390 (or 791/1389), and his tomb is perhaps that city's best known monument. Though credited with learned works

in prose, his fame rests entirely on his Diwan. There are few aspects of the life and writing of Hāfiz that have not given rise, and especially from about 1930 to 1955, to vigorous scholarly dispute over matters of both interpretation and fact. The reverence in which he is held, not only in Persia but widely throughout East and West, as the undoubted composer of some of the world's most sublime and technically exquisite poetry, will doubtless ensure continued concern with these problems, however intractable and ultimately insignificant some of them may seem to be.

Apart from its general historical framework, the presumed facts of Hāfiz's life were for long largely drawn from biographical prefaces, from the usual anecdotal tadhkira sources like Dawlatshāh, or from casual references by writers like Mirkhwand and his grandson. Such material has of course frequently been viewed sceptically; but most of it is of its nature difficult to disprove conclusively, and in one or two instances (as in an alleged encounter with Timur, in 789/1387) research has only tended to strengthen, if not fully to confirm, the legend. Informative biographies of Persian poets are a notorious rarity, and it seems unlikely at this late date that any significant new material of an explicitly biographical nature will be discovered relating to Hāfiz. Though not a new technique, it has recently become fashionable to analyse the poems themselves for new biographical evidence or for some bearing on the material already to hand. The latest, and the most comprehensive and ingenious work of this kind, has been done by Kasim Ghani and by R. Lescot; but the net result so far is somewhat disproportionate to the formidable effort involved. At best, it has now been convincingly demonstrated that the Dīwān bears a much more direct relationship to the milieu of its composition than was suspected in the traditional view. Such methods always have their dangers, particularly where the basic biographical material is itself so slight; in the case of Hafiz, the problem is exacerbated by the continued lack of a reasonably authentic text. All this being so, it still seems proper to give here the main outlines of the life in more or less traditional form.

Ḥāfiz's father, Bahā' al-Dīn or Kamāl al-Dīn (some sources refer to his grandfather), is said to have migrated from Işfahān to Shīrāz, where he died in the poet's infancy, leaving the family in poor circumstances. In a close-knit, flourishing centre of Islamic civilization such as Shīrāz at that time was, humble beginnings were only a relative handicap; and it is plausibly suggested that Ḥāfiz received a thorough education on the usual classical lines. It was no doubt in youth that he earned the right to use the title hāfiz (Kur'ān-memorizer), which became his pen-name; his verse bears ample evidence of familiarity with Arabic, with the Islamic sciences and with Persian literature generally. He is reputed to have been among other things a baker's apprentice and a manuscript-copyist during these years of adolescence and early manhood; but, to judge in particular by the dedication of certain poems to Ķiwām al-Dīn Ḥasan (d. 754/1353), sometime vizier to Shāh Abū Ishāķ Indjū, he was into his poetic stride as a panegyrist before the age of thirty. An oft-cited poem (Brockhaus, no. 579; Kazvīnī-Ghanī, 363) mentions nostalgically other Shīrāz notables of this period, including the ruler himself. Already by his twenties, in the wake of the disintegration of the Il-Khānid order, Ḥāfiz had 56 ḤĀFIZ

lived through dynastic upheavals in and around Shīrāz.

A second phase in the poet's life begins in 754/1353 with the capture of Shīrāz, after a protracted struggle between the India and Muzaffarid dynasties, by Mubāriz al-Dīn Muhammad. The latter ruled for five years, before being deposed and blinded by his son Djalāl al-Dīn Shāh Shudjā'. These years were apparently a period of rigid Sunni observance, hard on Hāfiz and his fellow-citizens alike; but the poet seems to have recommended himself with some success to Mubariz al-Dīn's chief minister, Burhan al-Din Fath Allah. The long reign of Shah Shudiac (759-86/1358-84), while at no time settled politically, and though far from being a period of continuous prosperity and success for Hāfiz, coincides with his phase of maturest composition. It was during these years that his fame spread throughout Persia, as well as westwards into Arabic-speaking lands and eastwards to India; it seems, nevertheless, that he declined invitations to remove to distant courts. The Muzaffarid dynasty effectively came to an end at the hand of Timur, in 789/1387, during the last few years of Hafiz's life, though random representatives of it, like Shāh Shudjā' al-Dīn Manşūr, seem to have shown the poet sporadic favour to the end.

It is generally believed that Hafiz was more or less out of favour with Shah Shudjac for a period of some ten years (768-78/1366-76), during which time he is said to have spent a year or two in Isfahān and Yazd. The reason for such a fall has never been fully explained, though it is traditionally related to the poet's allegedly libertine views and behaviour. Though thereafter he enjoyed favour, from time to time, from the throne and from ministers like Djalāl al-Dīn Tūrānshāh, he seems never fully to have regained his former standing. Yet it should be remembered that there is still no real certainty as to what such standing actually signified: certainly there is frequent reference to poverty throughout the poet's life (whether it be regarded as a complaint, a hint or a literary device), and there is no serious suggestion that he held a regular, richly rewarded office as "court poet". At one time he is said to have been a professor of Kur'anic exegesis at a Shīrāz madrasa, but there is doubt as to which of his patrons might have obtained him this preferment and no record of his period of tenure.

Legend credits Hāfiz with editing his Diwan in 770/1368, i.e., over twenty years before his death, but no manuscript of this version is known. Less speculative, perhaps, but still unattested by real evidence, is the edition (with a preface of doubtful biographical value) compiled after the poet's death by a disciple, a certain Muhammad Gulandam. From this traditional version are assumed to spring the thousands of manuscripts now extant and over 100 printed editions: many of these versions differ widely in the order and number of poems, in the order and number of verses within a given poem, and in their detailed readings. The bibliography is very extensive, and only some of the principal editions or translations can be mentioned here. (In general, it may be said that serious interest in Hafiz seems to have passed, after his death, to the Ottoman world and to India, whence it came by the late 18th century to Europe, returning in strength to Persia only in the 20s and 30s of the present century). First, it should be mentioned that several manuscripts are known in Persia, in Europe and elsewhere, which date from about the second and third quarters of the 15th century, i.e., from thirty to sixty years after

the poet's death; the most reliable of these contain just under 500 poems, while later versions rise to 600 and beyond. (In 1958, P. N. Khānlarī published a manuscript dated around 813/1410, which contains 152 poems in good textual condition). Derivative manuscripts, sometimes with commentaries in Persian, Turkish or Urdū, continued to circulate throughout the next four centuries.

The earliest historic recension, for long accepted as authoritative, and as a source of Hafiz's life, was that of the Ottoman Sudi (d. 1000/1591); he was at one time charged with having suppressed one or two poems of Shica sympathy, but modern scholarship has justified him by failing to find these poems in early manuscripts, and by casting at least some doubt on Hāfiz's Shī'ism. This recension was taken as the basis for another long-dominant edition, the three volumes (692 poems) of H. Brockhaus, Leipzig 1854-61. The late 18th and early 19th centuries saw much fragmentary and dilettante preoccupation with Hāfiz among Europeans (chiefly British and French), but a landmark in printed texts was the Calcutta edition of 1791 (725 poems), associated with the name of Upjohn; this edition was still based on late manuscripts and largely on the Sudi recension; its introduction provided much of the material for the traditional life. J. von Hammer-Purgstall produced in 1812-3 a massive German prose-translation of the Dīwān, which was known to Goethe at the time he was writing the West-östlicher Diwan. Between 1858 and 1864, i.e., roughly at the same time as the Brockhaus edition mentioned above, and using substantially the same sources, V. von Rosenzweig-Schwannau brought out another three-volume edition of the text, accompanied by a remarkably skilful verse-translation in German. The English renderings, partial or complete, of the late 19th century (those, for example, of H. Bicknell, H. Wilberforce Clarke, Gertrude Bell and W. Leaf) deserve only passing mention, despite interesting merits of their own. By 1900 a largely spurious, second-growth Hafiz stood beside the several approximations to the real figure. The 20th century saw the rebirth of serious Hāfiz scholarship in Persia. Special mention has already been made of the fundamental research of Kasim Ghani, but there are few eminent Persian scholars of the present day who have not contributed important articles in this field. In particular, three editions merit notice: that of 'Abd al-Rahim Khalkhāli, Tehrān 1927 (495 poems, based on a manuscript of 828/1424, but marred by errors); that of Ḥusayn Pizhmān, Tehrān 1936 (994 poems, many marked as doubtful!); and that of Muḥammad Kazvīnī and Kāsim Ghanī, Tehrān 1941 (576 poems; the most scientific and reliable edition so far, based on some very old manuscripts; contains a good introduction, but lacks a critical apparatus). A new edition, also based on very early manuscripts, is reportedly in preparation by H. Ritter.

It will be seen that the two basic tasks of all research on Persian poetry, the establishment of a significant biography and the edition of an authoritative text, have assumed added and special dimensions in the case of Hāfiz. In briefest sum, one may state the dilemma thus: no text of Hāfiz, however good in itself, can be fully intelligible at any level without a marked amplification in our knowledge of his life and times; yet much of such knowledge must come from an analysis of the text, and one can have little confidence in the results of analyses, however scrupulously conducted, that are

based on texts of doubtful reliability. It may well prove that neither task is fully susceptible of solution. even within limited terms of reference: while solidification of the biography must largely wait on the text, such expectation gives no ultimate certainty of a rich yield; any acceptable text will inevitably be based on virtually the sole criterion of seniority of manuscript, and the oldest Oriental manuscripts, particularly if falling outside the author's lifetime, are not necessarily the fullest or the most accurate in any absolute sense. This is especially true of poetry, and indications so far suggest that it is even more than normally true of the Diwan of Hafiz. There is, too, the fundamental question of the poet's own intent: should everything he ever wrote (or perhaps merely countersigned) be included, even if he might himself have chosen to omit certain items from the supposed canon of 770/1368? Did he have second (or later) thoughts about the inclusion, the order, or the actual text of whole poems or individual verses? If we cannot now hope to answer questions of this kind, we should be cautious in claiming to do more in effect than publishing early manuscripts and observing their differences from later ones. Certain generally useful conclusions may be drawn, but we may well never be sure what such differences signify in any particular case.

Failure hitherto to solve these basic problems has never quenched interest in several secondary problems related to them. Scholars living in an age of non-representational art and literature are perhaps less concerned than most of their forebears (E. G. Browne was in advance of his age here) to discover positively "whether Hafiz meant what he said" whether he was a mystic or a libertine, a good Muslim or a sceptic, or all of these by turns. It is now generally claimed (without prejudice) merely that he spoke through the standard themes and terminology of hedonism, the lament for mortality, human and mystical love, and so on; that he was a superb linguistic and literary craftsman, who took these forms so far beyond the work of his predecessors that he practically cut off all succession; and that he revolutionized the ghazal and the panegyric both, by making the one the vehicle for the other in place of the kasida. Nevertheless, useful new work has been done (particularly by R. Lescot) in establishing the chronology of certain poems so as to suggest a development in Hāfiz's attitude, style and methods. The secondary problem most hotly debated in recent years concerns the "artistic unity" of the poems: even supposing that the present varying order of verses were reduced to an original uniformity, is there any genuine unity in these ghazals, and did not Ḥāfiz invite later confusion by his failure to develop any theme consistently? There are indications that the problem is neither new nor specifically Western, for Shāh Shudjāc is supposed to have made some such criticism, according to an anecdote current no later than the time of Khwandamir. Arguments have been put forward, by A. J. Arberry and by the writer, to suggest that the true unity of Hāfiz's poetry is not thematic or dramatic in the classical Western sense, but lies rather in a subtle weaving of imagery and allusion around one or more central concepts. These arguments have found some favour with J. Rypka and others, but have also been rejected, both explicitly and by implication, as either invalid or unnecessary.

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(G. M. WICKENS)

HĀFIZ-I ABRŪ, the lakab of 'Abd Allāh b.

Lutf Allāh b. 'Abd al-Rashīd al-Bihdādīnī, Persian
historian of the time of Shāhrukh, who died in
833/1430. He was also in the suite of TImūr as an
excellent chess-player and accompanied him and
Shāhrukh in some campaigns.

His first known work is probably the anonymous Dhayl-i Djāmic al-tawārīkh (unique MS: Nuruosmaniye), which deals with the reign of Uldiaytū and Abū Sacīd, the first part being an extract from the Ta'rikh-i Uldjaytū Sultān by al-Ķāshānī. The next of his works, completed in 814/1412 by order of Shāhrukh, is the Dhayl-i Zafarnāma-yi Shāmī about the rest of the life of Timur. Some time later he wrote a history of the reign of Shāhrukh to 816/ 1413 (unique MS: India Office). In 817/1414 he began at the request of Shahrukh to translate and to complete an old Arabic geographical work called Masalik al-mamālik wa-şuwar al-aķālīm, probably one of the redactions of al-Balkhī. In this unfinished and untitled work he could not repress his interests as a historian and included in it extensive historical passages especially on the history of Fars, Kirman and Khurāsān.

While occupied with this geographical work Hāfiz-i Abrū was in 820/1417 charged by Shāhrukh to compile a voluminous historical enterprise consisting of three famous older historical books, with supplements and a continuation written by himself. The result of this endeavour was the Madimūca, which contains: A. Introduction and Contents. -B. The Chronicle of al-Tabarī translated by Bal'amī. - C. Continuation of this work to 656/1258 by Hāfiz-i Abrū. — D. Introduction to the Djāmic al-tawārīkh of Rashīd al-Dīn and list of its contents by Ḥāfiz-i Abrū. - E. The Djāmic al-tawārīkh. - F. History of the Kurtid Dynasty by Häfiz-i Abrū. - G. Four small treatises on Tughay-Timur, Amir Wali, the Sarbadārids and Amīr Arghūnshāh by Ḥāfiz-i Abrū. - H. Continuation of the *Djāmi* al-tawārīkh, dealing with the events in Adharbaydjan and Arabic Irak in the years 703-95/1304-93. - I. History of the Muzaffarid Dynasty by Hāfiz-i Abrû. - J. The Zafarnāma of Shāmī. — K. The above mentioned Continuation of this work by Hāfiz-i Abrū. - L. History of Shahrukh's reign to Rabic II 819/May 1416. Ḥāfiz-i Abrū makes use in parts F, H and I of sources known to us. The first three-quarters of F are an extract from the Harātnāma by Sayf b. Muḥammad Harawī, about the first two-thirds of I are a simplification of the Mawāhib-i ilāhī by Mu'in al-Din Yazdi. In H the history of Uldiaytu's and Abū Sacīd's reigns is an extract from the *Dhayl-i* Djāmic al-tawārīkh mentioned above. The other passages of his supplements result from sources unknown to us or from oral tradition. L is the second redaction of his History of Shāhrukh. Some parts in G, H, I and L are closely connected with the historical passages of his geographical work.