



The Emergence of #Ilm al-Bayān: Classical Arabic Literary Theory in the Arabic East in the 7th/13th Century

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**The Emergence of *ʿIlm al-Bayān*:
Classical Arabic Literary Theory in the
Arabic East in the 7th/13th Century**

A dissertation presented

by

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to

The Department of Near Eastern Languages and Civilizations

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**The Emergence of *‘Ilm al-Bayān:*
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Abstract

This dissertation identifies a turning point in the development of literary theory as a discipline in the classical Arabic-Islamic world, starting in the Arabic East in the thirteenth century under the emerging framework of *‘ilm al-bayān* ‘the science of good style’. Treating a range of poetic, rhetorical, and literary-critical matters that had been studied under various disciplinary headings since the ninth century, the discipline was now consciously recognized as having an underlying theory and an established canon. I trace this development beginning with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 1239) and follow its progression throughout Greater Syria and Egypt as late as the end of the fourteenth century, after the standard theory of rhetoric (*‘ilm al-balāgha*) emerged within the *madrasa* institution. I then analyze in depth one test case for literary-theoretical thinking in this time and place, namely, *majāz* ‘figurative language’. Although linguistic theories about *majāz*, inspired by Islamic legal theory, had become a hallmark of literary studies, I argue that literary scholars implicitly espoused a non-linguistic conception of the notion, akin to *kadhib* ‘lie’ (a term not used due to its negative theological connotations). My analysis demonstrates that despite tensions between being a science concerned with hermeneutics and one concerned with poetics, *‘ilm al-bayān* was essentially the latter.

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Introduction

Classical Arabic literary theory¹ has become a widely recognized field of modern scholarly research despite the most basic fact that a standard name for this ‘discipline’ is absent in the Arabic sources. In the high ‘Abbāsīd era (roughly third/ninth to fifth/eleventh centuries), considered to be the formative age of literary theory, a variety of terms were used, notably *naqd* lit. ‘assaying’ (later ‘criticism’), *faṣāḥa*, *balāgha* (both) ‘eloquence’, *al-‘ilm bi-l-shi‘r* ‘the knowledge of poetry’, and *badī‘* lit. ‘novel’ (later a collective noun for ‘literary devices’). The later, ubiquitous appellation of *‘ilm al-balāgha* ‘the science of eloquence’ refers to the scholastic systematization of the discipline of ‘rhetoric’, an ancillary science to legal and religious education, beginning in the eighth/fourteenth century. The lack of a unified name in the early period certainly did not deter modern scholars from researching this multifaceted body of knowledge and from formulating its history and development, especially in the high ‘Abbāsīd era. Similarly, the scholastic discipline of rhetoric – although far from being adequately studied – has been roughly charted in the literature and has been given an initial historical account beginning with Abū Ya‘qūb al-Sakkākī in the sixth/twelfth-seventh/thirteenth centuries.²

¹ I use the expression “literary theory” to refer to poetics, rhetoric and literary criticism as defined by Wolfhart Heinrichs in his “Poetik, Rhetorik, Literaturkritik, Metrik und Reimlehre,” in Helmut Gätje (ed.), *Grundriss der arabischen Philologie*, vol. 2 (Literaturwissenschaft), Wiesbaden: Reichert, 1987, 177-207, here: 177. I refer to it as “classical” in opposition to “modern,” complying with Thomas Bauer, “In Search of ‘Post-Classical’ Literature: A Review Article,” *Mamluk Studies Review* 11.2 (2007), 137-67, here: 140-41. I sometimes use “medieval” for “classical,” despite *ibid.*, 145.

² The most comprehensive is the entry “Naqd” in the *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition* by Wolfhart Heinrichs. For studies specifically on poetic criticism see the classic Amjad Trabulsi, *La critique poétique des arabes jusqu’au V^e siècle de l’Hégire (XI^e siècle de J.C.)*, Damascus: Institut français de Damas, 1955, and the more recent Wen-Chin Ouyang, *Literary Criticism in Medieval Arabic-Islamic Culture: The Making of a Tradition*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 1997. For scholastic rhetoric, the most substantive contributions are by William Smyth: “Controversy in a Tradition of Commentary: The Academic Legacy of al-Sakkākī’s *Miftāḥ al-‘Ulūm*,” *Journal of the American Oriental Society* 112.4 (1992), 589-97; “The Canonical Formulation of *‘Ilm al-Balāgha* and al-Sakkākī’s *Miftāḥ al-‘Ulūm*,” *Der Islam* 72 (1995), 7-24. Further studies are cited in Chapter 1.

The history of literary theory in between the ‘formative’ age and the ‘mature’ age of scholasticism, however, has yet to be written. Since the scholastic science of rhetoric has often been viewed by modern scholars as an ‘end result’ in Arabic literary theory, works that were written in sixth/twelfth and seventh/thirteenth centuries that did *not* exhibit these ‘end-result-tendencies’ – have usually been accorded a minor place in its history. We find this bias in the works of modern Western scholars and scholars from the Arab world alike. This dissertation looks at literary-critical works written in this ‘interim’ stage in a specific geographic area in order to bring to light the array of theoretical and critical possibilities that perhaps did not find their way into the ‘end-result’ of rhetorical studies, but are nevertheless crucial for our understanding of classical Arabic literary theory. Various aspects of such works have been, of course, touched upon in the literature, and none of the works are unknown to scholars (some perhaps little known), but studying them comprehensively as a unit yields insights that have hitherto escaped our attention. First and foremost among these is the recognition that a disciplinary crystallization was taking place at this time, to an extent that was unprecedented in the tradition of Arabic writings on the verbal arts.

The most prominent, and indeed well-known among these sixth/twelfth-seventh/thirteenth century literary scholars is the Syrian statesman and critic Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 637/1239). His *magnum opus*, *al-Mathal al-sā’ir fī adab al-kātib wa-l-shā’ir* (‘The Current Saying: On the Knowhow of the Scribe and Poet’), acts as a focus of-sorts in the dissertation, but by no means is it our primary aim of study. We are interested, rather, in researching his work in relation to other works written around the same time and – no less important – *place*, in order to determine whether the *Mathal* was a singular ‘event’ or rather part of a larger tradition. In

concentrating on the locality in which Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was writing – namely, Greater Syria³ and Egypt (the Arabic East) – we are guided in part by the scholar's own statements in the *Mathal*, revealing his marked local patriotism. Doing so also serves as the first comprehensive implementation, in the field of literary theory, of the model advocated by Thomas Bauer for time- and place-specific research in Arabic literature.⁴

Looking at Arabic literary theory by period and place is by no means new. Iḥsān 'Abbās' second-to-last chapter in his *Tārīkh al-Naqd al-Adabī 'inda al-'Arab* deals with literary criticism in Egypt, Syria and Iraq in the sixth and seventh centuries AH.⁵ In the chapter, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is given the most attention, roughly half of its thirty-odd pages, while the rest of the chapter is dedicated to five additional scholars, the work of one of whom is lost. 'Abbās stresses the literary unity in the geographic area under discussion, a unity which according to him exhibited an eschewal of Greek influence and displayed a more 'poetic', 'native-Arabic' approach to criticism.⁶ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's explicit eschewal of Aristotelian poetics and rhetoric has become somewhat famous since its inclusion in Vicente Cantarino's translations of select treatments of poetics.⁷ 'Abbās further stresses Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's prominent role in criticism; his novel approach to

³ By Greater Syria I mean the most inclusive interpretation of this region, including northwestern Iraq and southern Anatolia, or the historical Jazīra. When I say above that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn – a scholar most associated with Mosul – is 'Syrian' I do have 'Greater Syria' in mind. (As we shall see, he did not identify himself as an "Iraqi.")

⁴ Bauer, "In Search," 144-45. He says: "Italians are completely satisfied with sorting their literature according to centuries" (ibid., 145). In dynastic terms (which is what Bauer prefers) our study would correspond to the late Ayyūbid and early Mamlūk period.

⁵ Iḥsān 'Abbās, *Tārīkh al-naqd al-adabī 'inda al-'Arab: naqd al-shi'r min al-qarn al-thānī ḥattā al-qarn al-thāmin al-hijrī*, Beirut: Dār al-Amāna, 1971, 575-611 (English: 'The History of Arabic Literary Criticism from the 2nd until the 8th Century AH').

⁶ Ibid., 575-78.

⁷ *Arabic Poetics in the Golden Age: Selection of Texts Accompanied by a Preliminary Study*, Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1975, 192-93. This book was one of the first volumes in the series *Studies in Arabic Literature* (vol. 4), and it offered the English reader translations of an array of 'classical' (pre-Mamlūk) literary-critical works. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was one of twelve theorists chosen for the collection.

poetic motifs (one that does not give preference to the temporal precedence of a motif); and his statistical approach to the evaluation of poets.⁸ The *lafz-ma'nā* pairing (form-content) together with the *shi'r-nathr* pairing (poetry-prose) are the major topics discussed by 'Abbās with regards to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn.

In a survey of Arabic criticism in the “post-classical” era (i.e., post-'Abbāsīd), William Smyth also assigns a rather prominent place for Ḍiyā' al-Dīn.⁹ Smyth too situates Ḍiyā' al-Dīn within a separate tradition, an “*adabī*” one.¹⁰ This is one out of five traditions in criticism that Smyth identifies between 1150 and 1850: applied criticism (= specific evaluations of poets), *adab* works (= [probably] anthologies on Arabic literary-linguistic *paideia*), *balāgha* (= scholastic rhetoric), *badī'* (= works concerned with rhetorical figures), and philosophical works (= works displaying Aristotelian influence).¹¹ Smyth echoes 'Abbās' notion of the 'poetic' characteristic of the *adabī* works by claiming that the latter “focus on poetry, while *balāgha* works are more generally concerned with the semantics of language.”¹² Smyth does not define what he means by *adab* works except that (1) they are at the heart of the critical tradition, and (2) they “provide the definition and discussion of most terms associated with poetry and Arabic style”.¹³ Smyth might have in mind the third meaning of *adab* outlined by Heinrichs, namely: “a

⁸ *Tārīkh*, 592-608.

⁹ William Smyth, “Criticism in the Post-Classical Period: A Survey,” in Roger Allen and D.S. Richards (eds.), *Arabic Literature in the Post-Classical Period*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008, 387-417, here: 387, 391-97, 400-401, 416-17.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 394.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 394-412. Two 'minor' additional traditions are (1) commentaries on poetic illustrations (cited in famous critical works) or on whole poems, and (2) works on prosody. I say 'minor' because each is given a page-length description (*ibid.*, 412-14).

¹² *Ibid.*, 394.

¹³ *Ibid.*

body of knowledge in the linguistic and literary field which comprises the genre of literature just mentioned [i.e., anecdotal and anthological literature meant to provide quotable material for the bel-esprit], but includes further ancillary disciplines like grammar etc.”¹⁴ Smyth presents the main topics Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn deals with and elaborates specifically on the *lafz-ma’nā* issue and the *shi’r-nathr* issue (cf. ‘Abbās). More importantly, Smyth situates Ibn al-Athīr within the *kuttāb* (scribes) tradition of scholarly output. In addition, he introduces a scale that measures the authors’ interest in grammar in order to help classify “post-classical” works on criticism: Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is located on a ‘higher’ end of this scale “since he places style firmly in a grammatical context.”¹⁵ (How precisely grammar figures into Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work is not elaborated upon.)

Since Smyth is working within the paradigm of the “post-classical” framework,¹⁶ it is perhaps not surprising to find evaluations such as the following: “Ibn al-Athīr does not present very much on these topics that is new;” “Accordingly, Ibn al-Athīr does not create new topics or structure for critical discussion;”¹⁷ and so on. The language of stagnation seeps through in other modern works as well. According to Wolfhart Heinrichs, the works of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn “show him as an independent mind who brings new life for a while to *the already ossifying* discipline of literary theory” (emphasis mine).¹⁸ In Geert Jan van Gelder’s words, “Ibn al-Athīr is one of the

¹⁴ Wolfhart Heinrichs, “The Classification of the Sciences and the Consolidation of Philology in Classical Islam,” in Jan Willem Drijvers and Alasdair A. MacDonald (eds.), *Centres of Learning: Learning and Location in Pre-Modern Europe and the Near East*, Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1995, 119-39, here: 120. It is not in fact clear how Smyth differentiates between the *adab*-strand and the all-*badī’*-strand; it seems that the only thing setting them apart is their form (the latter – essentially, a ‘list’). The works on single figures of speech or the *badī’iyya* commentaries which Smyth includes as *badī’* (“Criticism,” 407) are, of course, more specialized.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, 401.

¹⁶ The harshest criticism of this approach (discernible throughout the volume in which Smyth’s survey appears) is Thomas Bauer’s review (2007).

¹⁷ (Both) Smyth, “Criticism,” 394. But then there is also this (*ibid.*, 387): “The work of Ibn al-Athīr is perhaps the last greatest statement of critical sensibility in pre-modern Arabic literature.”

¹⁸ W.P. Heinrichs, “Ibn al-Athīr, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn,” in Julie Scott Meisami and Paul Starkey (eds.), *The Encyclopedia of*

last original authors in Arabic criticism, although his originality is not as great as he would have us believe [...]” (emphasis mine).¹⁹ Describing Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn as “last” in a line of original thinkers occurs elsewhere.²⁰ Judging by Suzanne Stetkevych’s remarks in her seminal work on the ‘Abbāsīd poet-anthologist Abū Tammām (d. 232/846), one could get the impression that *no new major* topic or method for critical discussion was set down after Ibn al-Mu‘tazz (d. 296/908) and al-Ṣūlī (d. 335/946).²¹ By this logic, Arabic literary criticism ‘ended’ soon after it began! Obviously, then, using the quest for ‘new ideas/topics’ as an analytical *modus operandi* will not lead us very far. (The same would hold for researching, say, the history of modern linguistics.)

Scholars writing on literary theory in the sixth/twelfth and seventh/thirteenth centuries in Egypt and Syria have usually been described as lacking a “system” and being indifferent towards “theory.” This has been said with regards Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s younger contemporary in Egypt, Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ (d. 654/1256),²² whose presentation of his literary theory in the form of a list – his output is a listing of rhetorical figures – only enhances this impression. In a long line of thought stretching back to the period under examination, the scholarship of the likes of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn and

Arabic Literature, 2 vols., London; New York: Routledge, 1998 (henceforth: *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature*), 1: 314-316, here: 315.

¹⁹ Geert Jan van Gelder, *Beyond the Line: Classical Arabic Literary Critics on the Coherence and Unity of the Poem*, Studies in Arabic Literature, vol. 8., Leiden: Brill, 1982, 10.

²⁰ E.g., ‘Abd al-Karīm al-Ashtar, “Ākhir al-nuqqād al-‘arab al-quḏāmā: Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr,” *Majallat Majma‘ al-Lughā al-‘Arabiyya bi-Dimashq* 42.3 (1967), 525-536 (English: ‘The Last of the Ancient Arab Critics: Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr’, in the *Journal of the Academy of the Arabic Language in Damascus*).

²¹ Suzanne P. Stetkevych, *Abū Tammām and the Poetics of the ‘Abbāsīd Age*, Leiden: Brill, 1991, 39 and 52 (respectively): “the major topics and prevailing method of the introductory section of the *Akhhbār* [= al-Ṣūlī’s work] set the pace which later critics were to follow, notably al-Āmidī in the *Muwāzanah* and al-Qāḏī al-Jurjānī in the *Wasāṭah*”; “At the outset it should be remarked that the selection of topics for critical treatment by al-Āmidī, as well as the contents of the various sections, reflects the pervasive influence of the author’s predecessors, Ibn al-Mu‘tazz and al-Ṣūlī.” Since Stetkevych goes on to analyze *in depth* both the works of al-Āmidī and al-Qāḏī al-Jurjānī, these statements should not be taken as a marker of her methodology. One should note that it is the work of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī in the fifth/eleventh century that is usually marked as the set-off point of ‘stagnation’ in Arabic literary theory (see, e.g., Shawqī Ḍayf, *al-Naqd*, [Cairo]: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, 1964, 96, 105).

²² Geert Jan van Gelder, “Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature* 1: 305.

Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ is said to have formed a “Western” school of rhetoric, contrasted with the “Eastern” school of al-Abū Ya‘qūb Sakkākī (d. 626/1229), their contemporary in the Islamic East, which was more concerned with theory. (“West” here is west of Iran.) Already in the work of the historian-critic Ibn Khaldūn (d. 808/1406), a ‘Western’ school was differentiated by virtue of its occupation with *badī‘* ‘literary devices’. Ibn Khaldūn distinguished between the Westerners (*ahl al-maghāriba*) and Easterners (*ahl al-mashāriqa*) by assigning the latter a more prominent interest in *sharḥ* ‘commentary’ and *ta‘līm* ‘scholasticism’ due to the deeper history of “civilization” (*‘umrān*) in the Persian lands.²³ Even earlier, the Egyptian Bahā’ al-Dīn al-Subkī (d. 773/1372) assigned to the people of his land (*ahl bilādīnā*; i.e., the Egyptian scholars) “sound [literary] taste and understanding” (*al-dhawq al-salīm wa-l-fahm al-mustaqīm*), whereas the Easterners (*ahl bilād al-mashriq*) were said to be taken by the rational sciences and logic.²⁴ The idea of “sound taste” contrasting “[dry] scholasticism” (with a hint of Arabs-versus-Persians undertones) goes back to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn himself, in a prefatory passage on the virtues of his work. No mention of ‘East’ and ‘West’ is made, and since the contrast occurs in the form of apologetics, it points to a common topos of the time.²⁵ Indeed, even the ultimate ‘scholasticist’

²³ Thus most of the exponents of this school are Persians (*‘ajam*). See ‘Abd al-Rahmān b. Muḥammad b. Khaldūn, *Muqaddimat Ibn Khaldūn*, ed. ‘Alī ‘Abd al-Wāḥid Wāfī, 4 vols., Cairo: Lajnat al-Bayān al-‘Arabī, 1962, 4: 1265. Both ‘Abbās and Smyth end their study with a look at Ibn Khaldūn’s synopsis (*Tārīkh*, 613-30; “Criticism,” 414-17).

²⁴ Bahā’ al-Dīn Aḥmad b. ‘Alī b. ‘Abd al-Kāfī al-Subkī, *Arūs al-afrah fī sharḥ talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*, ed. Khalīl Ibrāhīm Khalīl, 4 pts. in 2 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-‘Ilmiyya, 2001, 1: 146 (English: ‘The Bride of the Wedding Feasts: On [al-Qazwīnī’s] *Epitome of the Key*’).

²⁵ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr, *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir fī adab al-kātib wa-l-shā‘ir*, eds. Aḥmad al-Ḥūfī and Badawī Ṭabāna, 4 vols., Cairo: Maktabat Nahḍat Miṣr, 1959-196[5], 1: 38 (the passage is translated in Chapter 1), 2: 3-5 (another apologetic passage where it seems that he is making a claim against formal learning and for intuition alone when discussing the lack of relevance of Greek rhetoric and poetics to the study of “rhetorical themes (*ma‘ānī*),” but is in fact pointing instead to his own work which should be sufficient for the reader, *wa-fī kitābī hādihā mā yughnīka wa-huwa kāfīn*). Some remarks that point to his preference for “Arabs” – at least in poetry – are treated in Part Two of the dissertation.

al-Sakkākī defers to the ultimate supremacy of *al-dhawq al-salīm*.²⁶

The East-West dichotomy persisted. Aḥmad Maṭlūb, in his 700-page study on al-Qazwīnī, devotes a brief subsection to the “two *balāghī* schools”: the “*kalāmī*” school in the East, made up of Iranian and Turkic scholars, and the “*adabī*” school in the Arab lands, namely Iraq, Syria and Egypt, one of the leading authorities of which is Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (*aḥad aqṭāb hādhihi l-madrasa*).²⁷ We find the same sentiment in Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām’s study of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, Ḥifnī Muḥammad Sharaf’s study of Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘, and various prefaces to critical editions produced in the Arab world, a sentiment which later surfaces in the studies of Western scholars as well.²⁸ If we recall, it was ‘Abbās’ very premise that Iraq, Syria and Egypt constituted an independent unit in the sixth/twelfth and seventh/thirteenth centuries. According to him, literary critics in Egypt and al-Shām (Greater Syria) eschewed, or even loathed any Greek notion of any field of knowledge, stating that this hostility may be some subconscious reaction to the crusades – an experience that those in the ‘East’ did not undergo.²⁹ Heinrichs reminds us, however, that Greek influence in Arabic literary theory was rare across the board, and the fact that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn even mentions ‘philosophizing’ literary notions is an

²⁶ Aḥmad Maṭlūb, *al-Balāgha ‘inda al-Sakkākī*, Baghdad: Maktabat al-Nahḍa, 1964, 184; Smyth, “Criticism,” 416.

²⁷ Aḥmad Maṭlūb, *al-Qazwīnī wa-shurūḥ al-Talkhīṣ*, Baghdad: Maktabat al-Nahḍa, 1967, 35-37, here: 36. See also Maṭlūb’s short article on Ibn al-Athīr published in the Iraqi journal *al-Mu‘allim al-Jadīd* 22.5 (1959), 74-79, here: 77-78.

²⁸ Here the divide is often termed ‘*aqālī/adabī*’ rather than *kalāmī/adabī*. See Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām, *Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr wa-juhūduhu fī l-naqd wa-l-balāgha*, Alexandria: Munsha’at al-Ma‘ārif, [1982? Originally published 1958], 312-53, esp. 324-29 (though he sometimes offers a more nuanced presentation than his remarks on p. 312 suggest); Ḥifnī Muḥammad Sharaf, *Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ al-miṣrī bayna ‘ulamā’ al-balāgha*, [Cairo]: Maktabat Nahḍat Miṣr, [1961?], 364-83, esp. 372 (he then situates Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ within a more specific ‘Egyptian’ school, said to merge the two ‘tendencies’ and to serve as a model for the modern critic); Smyth, “Criticism,” 414-15 (with qualifications, see below); van Gelder, “Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘.” As for the ‘obsession’ with *badī‘*, Sallām draws a structural connection between the rhetorical embellishments and the visual artistic phenomenon of the arabesque ‘embellishments’, which flourished in the Ayyūbid court (*Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn*, 19-20).

²⁹ ‘Abbās, *Tārīkh*, 575-56.

idiosyncrasy.³⁰ Sallām would take this claim even further (see below).

Although explicit engagement with the Arabic commentaries on Aristotle's *Poetics* and *Rhetoric* was rare in the works of Arabic literary theory 'proper' (those written in the Maghrib excluded), the so-called "aversion to (Greek) philosophy" in the Arabic East in the sixth/twelfth and seventh/thirteenth centuries is part of a more complex story. It is true that anti-philosophizing sentiment in 'religious' disciplines can be discerned during this period, but such sentiments were not limited to the Arabic-speaking lands.³¹ In fact, the influence of Ibn Sīnā (Avicenna, d. 428/1037) and *falsafa* in general only *increased* in the Arabic East during this time, as attested by a first-hand account of the prominent theologian and legal scholar living in Greater Syria and Egypt, Sayf al-Dīn al-Āmidī (d. 631/1233). According to him, "[t]he fascination of the people of our time and the scholars of our age in studying the sciences of the ancients and borrowing from old philosophers has increased, such that it led them away from studying [l]egal matters and religious issues," to the point that one of them may "imagin[e] that he is one of the firmly-grounded philosophers [...] and fooled by the bombastic words and strange-sounding names that he hears, such as 'hyle', 'element' (*uṣṭuqus*), 'element' (*unṣur*), 'matter', 'form', 'First Cause', 'Active Intellect', Socrates, Hippocrates, Plato, Aristotle, Pythagoras, Proclus, Alexander of Aphrodisias, etc.! The utmost of the most erudite among them is to have superficial knowledge of the words, instead of [knowing their] meanings."³² Al-Āmidī

³⁰ W.P. Heinrichs, "Naḳd," *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*, Brill Online, under the heading "Philosophical poetics and the *Maghribī* 'school'." See also *idem*, *Arabische Dichtung und griechische Poetik: Hāzīm al-Qarṭājannīs Grundlegung der Poetik mit Hilfe aristotelischer Begriffe*, Beirut Texts and Studies, Band 8, Beirut; Wiesbaden: Steiner, 1969, 110-11. Heinrichs does not speak of an 'East'-'West' divide.

³¹ For examples of theologians in the Islamic East rejecting the 'philosophizing' physics and metaphysics of Ibn Sīnā see Ayman Shihadeh, "From al-Ghazālī to al-Rāzī: 6th/12th Century Developments in Muslim Philosophical Theology," *Arabic Sciences and Philosophy* 15 (2005), 141-79, esp. 151-56. Shihadeh refers to such scholars as "Ghazālīan *mutakallim[ūn]*" (*ibid.*, 161), because they followed the anti-*falsafa* approach of al-Ghazālī.

³² *Ibid.*, 148. Shihadeh is quoting from al-Āmidī's unpublished *Daqā'iq al-ḥaqā'iq*. I gather from the account above

describes an environment in which it was meaningful for scholars to portray themselves as being conversant with *falsafa*, even if by pretense. This, in turn, fueled some resentment against the ‘ancient’ sciences, but the resentment can only be understood in light of the increase in the prevalence of philosophical studies in this time and place.³³ Given this environment, it is not surprising that someone like ʿIyā’ al-Dīn, who probably knew al-Āmidī personally,³⁴ would dabble – however superficially – in a work of philosophical poetics like that of Ibn Sīnā.³⁵

Smyth offers some qualifications for the East-West narrative, but for him they concern the ‘West’ alone, and only partially. He points to the variety of works produced in Syria and North Africa beyond the tradition of “*badī’*,” from the Hellenistic-inspired literary theory of the North African al-Qarṭājannī (d. 639/1242), to the Sakkākian-inspired work of Jalāl al-Dīn al-Qazwīnī (a Syrian, d. 739/1338), to the study of ‘non-standard’ verse by Ṣafī al-Dīn al-Ḥillī (d. 750/1349).³⁶ By Smyth’s account, however, someone like Ibn Abī al-Iṣba’ would still fit the paradigm of the ‘West’ – even though, as we shall see, he is at times a close follower of Fakhr al-

that this state of affairs was common in oral exchanges (i.e., involving scholars he came into contact with), not just written ones. Shihadeh’s protagonists are otherwise from the eastern Islamic world (Bukhara, Samarqand, etc.).

³³ This is nicely illustrated in the entry on the esteemed Shāfi‘ī legal theorist and genius in philosophy and mathematics, Kamāl al-Dīn Ibn Yūnus (d. 639/1242, based in Mosul), in Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt al-a‘yān wa-anbā’ abnā’ al-zamān*, ed. Iḥsān ‘Abbās, 8 vols., Beirut: Dār Ṣādir, 1977, 5: 311-18 (English: ‘Obituaries of Eminent Men and Reports of Contemporaries’). The Syrian/Iraqi Ibn Khallikān (d. 681/1282) and his peers exceedingly admired Kamāl al-Dīn, to the point that Ibn Khallikān had to state that he was not engaging in *mughālāt* ‘exaggeration’ (ibid. 5: 314): Ḥanafīs flocked to study Ḥanafī law with him even though he was a Shāfi‘ī; he taught Jews and Christians their own Scriptures; he was the only one who could understand the nomenclature of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī when the latter’s books first arrived in Mosul; he was the type of scholar that one did not ask who he had studied with and who his teachers were, *fa-innahu akbar min dhālika* (ibid.). And yet, several scholars in Ibn Khallikān’s vicinity doubted Kamāl al-Dīn’s religious commitment, and one can certainly detect that there was some resentment to logic and other rational sciences (ibid. 5: 313-14, 316-17).

³⁴ We find his autograph on what was probably a very early work by ʿIyā’ al-Dīn; see fn. 508.

³⁵ On ʿIyā’ al-Dīn’s engagement with Ibn Sīnā see fn. 40 and §5.1, “*Tawassu’* (and the Influence of Ibn Sīnā).”

³⁶ Smyth, “Criticism,” 415. With regards to the ‘East’, he says (ibid.): “Ibn Khaldūn’s characterization of the eastern part of the Islamic world is fairly accurate since the main authors in the *balāgha* tradition (i.e. al-Rāzī, al-Sakkākī and al-Taftazānī [sic]) all lived in central Asia.” Al-Qazwīnī, despite his name, is a Syrian and an Arab.

Dīn al-Rāzī (an ‘Easterner’, d. 606/1209) – and someone like the ‘Izz al-Dīn al-Zanjānī (active 660/1262) would fit the paradigm of the ‘East’ – even though, as we shall see, his adherence to al-Sakkākī is at times marginal in light of the more prominent interest he had in poetry and *badī‘*. Similarly, Sallām would have us treat the Syrian Ibn al-Zamlakānī (d. 651/1253) along the lines of the ‘East’³⁷ – even though, as we shall see, he is at times better understood in light of views espoused by Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn in the ‘West’ than views espoused by al-Rāzī and al-Sakkākī in the ‘East’.

The underlying assumption enabling the discourse of an East-West dichotomy in Arabic literary theory has to do with the legacy of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081). Considered the greatest mind in Arabic literary-linguistic thinking, al-Jurjānī inspired the so-called theory-based method in the East, and thus anyone who did not follow his lead the way al-Sakkākī did had been commonly viewed as being ‘inconsistent’ at best, or ‘incorrect’ at worst. We often come across comments according to which the non-Sakkākian scholars are “wrong” or that they “confuse categories” (this is especially apparent in research coming out of the Arab world).³⁸ And yet the tendency to take the Sakkākian views as a yardstick for ‘correctness’ has often been coupled with hailing the non-‘Eastern’ scholar (especially Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn) as having a ‘holistic’, ‘true’ approach to criticism.³⁹ The tension – if not paradox – reaches a height with

³⁷ Sallām, *Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn*, 320-22. He also treats the Syrian al-Tanūkhī (fl. end of 7th/13th cent.) along the ‘eastern’ lines, not mentioning the fact that much of his work is a listing of *badī‘*!

³⁸ An extreme example is ‘Abd al-Wāḥid al-Shaykh, *Dirāsāt fī al-balāgha ‘inda Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr*, Alexandria: Mu‘assasat Shabāb al-Jāmi‘a, 1986. For the general bias towards al-Jurjānī see, e.g., Māzin al-Mubārak, *al-Mūjaz fī tārikh al-balāgha*, 2nd ed., Damascus: Dār al-Fikr, 1979 (English: ‘A Concise Study of the History of Rhetoric’).

³⁹ Of the numerous examples we may cite Sallām, *Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn*, 199, 316, 377, 379; al-Shaykh, *Dirāsāt*, 17, 152-53, 156, 167, 271-72; and (though less apparent) Muḥammad Šūfiyya, *al-Mabāḥith al-bayāniyya bayna Ibn al-Athīr wa-l-‘Alawī*, Tripoli, Libya: al-Munsha‘a al-‘Āmma, 1984, 189-90. Sallām seems to be critical of the Ayyūbid period in general, making statements that echo similar attitudes towards the period of *inḥitāṭ* ‘decline’ after the high ‘Abbāsīd era.

Sallām, who on the one hand extols Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's 'Arabness' in the field of criticism, but on the other hand identifies his most substantial achievements with notions associated with *Greek* thinking: mimesis (*muḥākāt*) and image-evocation (*takhyīl*)!⁴⁰ The fact of the matter remains that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn and others in his time and locale were lumped together in the category of "sixth/twelfth-seventh/thirteenth century Iraq-Syria-Egypt" (cf. 'Abbās) simply based on what they were not – followers of al-Jurjānī – and not on what they were. This dissertation explores what they were.⁴¹

Once we move away from anachronistic assumptions and take a serious look at the literary-theoretical works themselves, we find that grouping those works written in the Arabic East in the sixth/twelfth century together with the ones written in the seventh/thirteenth century

⁴⁰ Sallām, *Ḍiyā' al-Dīn*, 178-83, 250-51, 384-85, 387. The first is, in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's words, *hikāya* or *hikāyat al-hāl* 'imitation of a [real-life] situation', and Sallām identifies it (although using the term *muḥākāt*) as a unique idea in 'native' Arabic literary theory (not knowing it is based on a brief account by Abū Hilāl al-'Askarī? See §4.1, fn. 517). Sallām does not think that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was directly drawing on Aristotelian poetics here but rather that it was an outcome of some general awareness to some general Greek notions (ibid., 250). Sallām's treatment of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's occasional comments on *takhyīl* somewhat anticipates Lara Harb's *Poetic Marvels: Wonder and Aesthetic Experience in Medieval Arabic Literary Theory*, unpublished PhD dissertation, New York University, 2013. In the case of *takhyīl*, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was usually drawing on al-Jurjānī (see §5.1). As we shall see, philosophical poetics and 'native' literary criticism sometimes reached similar results (cf. Harb's findings on 'wonder'). In general, with regards to the question of Greek influence, I follow the 'doctrine' of the so-called *voie diffuse*, which stipulates lines of influence via contact with scholars rather than direct textual engagement, or the *voie érudite* (adjusting Versteegh's use to the later period, see C.H.M [Kees] Versteegh, *Greek Elements in Arabic Linguistic Thinking*, Studies in Semitic Languages and Linguistics, vol. 7. Leiden: Brill, 1977, 9, 178; this view is implicitly endorsed by Robert C. McKinney in *The Case of Rhyme versus Reason: Ibn al-Rūmī and his Poetics in Context*, Brill Studies in Middle Eastern Literatures, vol. 28, Leiden: Brill, 2004, 125-27). Such direct-but-indirect contact would be especially true for someone as famous and well-connected as Ḍiyā' al-Dīn. In the case of Ibn Sīnā's work, we have a near case of *voie érudite* since Ḍiyā' al-Dīn tells us explicitly that some *mutafalsif* made a comment to him about Ibn Sīnā's poetics and rhetoric and "a type of Greek poetry" (probably tragedy) and then got up and *showed* him the relevant passages from the *Shifā'*. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn then remarks, in his comical-critical way, that once he saw it he found Ibn Sīnā (or the book, per Cantarino) to be ignorant ([...] *wa-qāma [ba'ḍ al-mutafalsifīn] fa-aḥḍara Kitāba l-Shifā' i li-Abī 'Aliyyin wa-waqqafanī 'alā mā dhakarahu fa-lammā waqafu 'alayhi -stajhaltuhu; al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 5-6; Heinrichs, *Arabische Dichtung*, 110; Cantarino, *Arabic Poetics in the Golden Age*, 193). Surely something of it must have stuck in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's mind! In any case, this is not the *voie érudite* that we find with al-Qarṭājannī, who cited Ibn Sīnā verbatim (Heinrichs, *Arabische Dichtung*, 155 fn. 1).

⁴¹ There are two dissertations on Ḍiyā' al-Dīn written in the UK in the late '70s and '80s which I have been unable to access. The first is by Muḥammad 'Abd ar-Raḥmān al-Hadlac: *Ḍiyā'-ad-Dīn [sic] Ibn al-Athīr and His Contribution to the Science of Rhetoric*, University of Edinburgh, 1978. The second is by A.K.A.A. ElSalem (Abdul Karim El-Salem): *Rhetoric in al-Mathal al-Sā'ir: Ibn al-Athīr's Contribution to 'Ilm al-Balāgha*, University of Cambridge, 1985. The latter is cited in Adrian Gully, *The Culture of Letter-Writing in Pre-Modern Islamic Society*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2008, 139, 161, but otherwise I have not found any reference to them.

simply does not hold. This dissertation argues, rather, that starting in the seventh/thirteenth century scholars of literary theory increasingly viewed their efforts as part of a field of inquiry termed *‘ilm al-bayān*, to a degree of disciplinary coherence that had not previously been seen. *‘Ilm al-bayān* referred to the science of good style, or the science of eloquence, and was held as a rational science bound by rational rules. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is the first scholar that we know of to speak of the field in these terms. Unlike the later *‘ilm al-balāgha*, the discipline of *‘ilm al-bayān* was not a systemization of al-Jurjānī’s work, not because al-Jurjānī was unknown in the Arabic East during this time -- in fact, the name *‘ilm al-bayān* probably derives from him -- but because scholars were not necessarily swept away by his ideas. This stands in opposition to modern, or even later medieval perceptions about the influence that al-Jurjānī or his redactors had on scholars who read him. The scope of study of *‘ilm al-bayān* corresponded to the contents that one customarily comes across in the early writings on literary theory (that is, from the high ‘Abbāsīd era). The innovation of *‘ilm al-bayān* starting in the 1200s in the Arabic East was, rather, one of terminology and one of conception. On the level of terminology, this was the first time literary-theoretical scholars began using – increasingly and consistently – an agreed-upon heading for their scholarly affiliation. This heading was in turn back-projected to earlier works on literary theory that were seen as a canon in the field. On the level of conception, this was the first time scholars displayed increasing awareness, both within the field and outside of it, of the disciplinary coherence of *‘ilm al-bayān*, and more specifically, of its scientific nature.

The disciplinary coherence of the newly formed *‘ilm al-bayān* is examined in Part One of the dissertation. The purpose of Part One is to establish the historical fact of its emergence and consolidation as a cohesive field of inquiry in the Arabic East starting in the 1200s. For this purpose we look at the way Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn himself envisaged the field and its canon (Chapter 1), at

several works on the classification of the sciences as well as works on literary theory written in the century or so after Ḍiyā' al-Dīn (Chapter 2), and we also take an aside to discuss early uses of *bayān* and *'ilm al-bayān* prior to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn (Chapter 3). One of the main features of *'ilm al-bayān* was its claim to being a theoretical science with a practical application, namely, the ability to compose (*ta'rif*) verse and epistolary prose.⁴² The concern with the practical aspect of literary composition might undermine the declared theoretical underpinning of the discipline: strictly speaking, theory is the very negation of practice (Aristotle's *praxis*). But for many of the authors we shall look at, the application of theoretical knowledge was inseparable from theory itself. Even when we find attempts to distinguish between the two, like in the work of Ibn Khaldūn, vestiges of the theory-cum-practice approach are discernible (e.g., via the discussion of *dhawq*).

In Part Two we delve into some of the works on *'ilm al-bayān* and their authors (Chapter 4), and hone in on one literary-theoretical topic – *majāz* 'figurative'⁴³ language' – to see how

⁴² Literary composition as a topic of interest may be found in most of the earlier writings on literary theory, but without the claim to scientificity.

⁴³ Using the English term "figurative" is not without problems. For one thing, it might give the impression that we are dealing only with visual images, figures and forms, to the exclusion of more 'mental' images: this is not my intention. Rather, I find that "figurative language" – more than, say, "tropical language" (a term that does denote non-visual images) – is the most common term in English that is contrasted with "literal language." Moreover, "trope" in its wide sense implies a device like simile (Chris Baldick, "Trope," *The Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms*, 4th ed., Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2015), and simile was not necessarily seen as *majāz*: in the later Arabic rhetorical tradition it was necessarily *excluded* from *majāz*. Trope in its narrow sense – "us[ing] a word or phrase in a sense other than what is proper to it" (from the Greek "turn"; T. Bahti and J.C. Mann, "Trope," in Roland Greene et al. [eds.], *The Princeton Encyclopedia of Poetry and Poetics*, 4th ed., Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2012, 1463-64) – is not compatible with the notion of *majāz* that does include *tashbīh*. The other point to be made is that in contemporary scholarship we find devices like irony and rhetorical questions being treated as a form of "figurative" speech (e.g., Robert J. Fogelin, *Figuratively Speaking*, 2nd ed. revised, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2011, 1-26), even though such cases would not count as *majāz* in the classical Arabic sources (close terms for irony are *al-jidd yurād bih al-hazl* or *tahakkum*). John Searle gives a more accurate picture when he juxtaposes literal utterances with (i) metaphorical utterances, (ii) ironical utterances, and (iii) indirect speech acts (also known as implicatures) (John R. Searle, "Metaphor," in Patrick Hanks and Rachel Giora [eds.], *Metaphor and Figurative Language*, 6 vols., London: Routledge, 2012, 109-39, here: 118-19 [originally in *Expression and Meaning: Studies in the Theory of Speech Acts*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979, 76-116]). According to this scheme, *majāz* would correspond to metaphorical language, but because classical Arabic sources identify the device 'metaphor' as one subtype of 'metaphorical language', the latter term has usually been avoided in modern scholarship (Wolfhart Heinrichs, "Metaphorologie-Traditionen im Klassischen Arabisch," in S. Leder with H. Kilpatrick, B. Martel-Thoumian, H. Schöning [eds.], *Studies in Arabic and Islam: Proceedings of the 19th Congress, Union Européenne des Arabisants et Islamisants, Halle 1998*, Leuven, Belgium: U. Peeters, 2002,

disciplinary coherence plays out in thematic terms (Chapter 5). *Majāz* is a useful test-case for examining thematic coherence in *‘ilm al-bayān* because we have a fair amount of knowledge about the early development of the concept as well as its eventual, supposedly ‘correct’ expression in the Sakkākian-inspired *‘ilm al-balāgha*: pinpointing adherence to versus divergence from the Sakkākian model is, therefore, tenable.

But the significance of focusing on *majāz* goes beyond the historical question of *‘ilm al-bayān*, for in many ways – to paraphrase Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn – it is at the heart of the literary-theoretical endeavor.⁴⁴ *Majāz* is a key concept not only in classical Arabic literary theory, but also in legal theory, theology, lexicography and Sufi thought, and has attracted increasing attention in recent years, to the point that it has been identified as a major component in the “meaning” of Islam itself.⁴⁵ Most of the focus has been on Islamic legal theory, a field of study that contains a lengthy prolegomenon on philosophical-linguistic matters, including the question of figurative language. Here scholars concentrated especially on the juristic understanding of the difference between what a text ‘says’ and what it ‘means’, and the resulting contribution of their research has been more to the question of *lafẓ* versus *ma’ nā* (here: ‘plain wording’ versus

217-26, here: 217; cf. Shahab Ahmed below). Given sufficient clarifications (especially with regards to metonymy and simile), one would probably be justified in translating *majāz* as ‘metaphorical language’, but for our present study, the common “figurative language/speech” will do (see also W. Martin, “Metaphor,” *The Princeton Encyclopedia of Poetry and Poetics*, 863-70, esp. 863: “Any attempt to define metaphor positively [...] will inevitably apply to other tropes. Some critics accept this consequence and call all tropes metaphors.”).

⁴⁴ Referring to a preliminary chapter on *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz*, he states (*al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 105): “This section is a great important matter among the important matters of *‘ilm al-bayān*; nay, it is *‘ilm al-bayān* in its entirety” (*wa-hādihā l-faṣḥu muhimmun kabīrun min muhimmāti ‘ilmi l-bayāni lā bal huwa ‘ilmu l-bayāni bi-ajma’ihi*). See also von Grunebaum’s assessment in the opening of Chapter 1. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn makes similar statements on the importance of other literary devices, and while this one seems more emphatic, I would not conclude that *majāz* is the most important topic in the field (see below).

⁴⁵ Shahab Ahmed, *What is Islam? The Importance of Being Islamic*, Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 2016, 386-97. Ahmed uses the less technical “metaphor,” which in English (and already ancient Greek?) can be a non-technical way of referring to figurative language in general. From his discussion and examples it is clear that he has the Arabic (or “Islamic”) term *majāz* in mind (e.g., p. 395, 396 fn. 195).

‘intended meaning’) than to the question of figurative language.⁴⁶ This is attested, first and foremost, by the fact that *majāz* is rarely translated in these studies as ‘figurative language’.⁴⁷

The reluctance to translate *majāz* as ‘figurative language’ has crossed over to studies on Arabic literary theory as well, the underlying reason being that we still do not quite know what *majāz* meant for the literary theorists.⁴⁸ Our case study in Chapter 5 is meant to fill some of that void.

This dissertation makes no claim to treat every author writing on literary-theoretical matters in the Arabic East during the seventh/thirteenth century. We know, for instance, that some authors did not adhere to the new framework of *‘ilm al-bayān*, like al-Muẓaffar al-Ḥusaynī (d. 656/1258) and Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd (d. 655 or 6/1257 or 8); both were Baghdadi scholars, and perhaps the prevalence of *‘ilm al-bayān* did not reach Baghdad in the mid-1200s.⁴⁹ Furthermore,

⁴⁶ Mohamed Mohamed Yunis Ali, *Medieval Islamic Pragmatics: Sunni Legal Theorists’ Models of Textual Communication*, Richmond, Surrey: Routledge, 2000; David R. Vishanoff, *The Formation of Islamic Hermeneutics: How Sunni Legal Theorists Imagined a Revealed Law*, American Oriental Series, vol. 93, New Haven, Connecticut: American Oriental Society, 2011; Robert Gleave, *Islam and Literalism: Literal Meaning and Interpretation in Islamic Legal Theory*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2012. Already Lowry alerts to the “linguistic turn” in Islamic legal theory in Joseph E. Lowry, “Some Preliminary Observations on al-Šāfi‘ī and Later *Uṣūl al-Fiqh*: The Case of the Term *bayān*,” *Arabica* 55 (2008), 505-27, here: 526. Alexander Key speaks more generally of the culture’s “obsession” with language in his *A Linguistic Frame of Mind: ar-Rāḡib al-Isfahānī and what it meant to be ambiguous*, PhD Dissertation, Harvard University, 2012 (*passim*).

⁴⁷ Vishanoff has “transgressive usage” (*Formation*, e.g., 21). Gleave, who in the index has “non-literal, diverted usage” (*Islam and Literalism*, 211) and admits that “non-literal” as a translation is “uninformative” (p. 36), often leaves the term untranslated, but also speaks of “non-literal meaning” (emphasis mine; p. 10 fn. 20), which causes some confusion because *majāz* in the medieval sources commonly describes the expression itself (“X is *majāz*”; Gleave recognizes this point with regards to *ḥaqīqa*, p. 37). Ali is the only one who does not shy from “figurative use” (*Medieval Islamic Pragmatics*, e.g., 73), but he provides many other nuances depending on the scholar he treats, thus also creating the impression that in legal theory *majāz* did not necessarily mean figurative language.

⁴⁸ The two most recent examples are Key, *Linguistic Frame of Mind*, who usually opts for “non-literal [language/expression]” (e.g., p. 26, 180), and Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, who uses “figurative language/speech” but often precedes it with a cautious “roughly” or “more or less corresponds to,” especially in the context of al-Jurjānī (e.g., p. 81, 87, 149, and esp. 201 fn. 645). This latter point accentuates the fact that scholars still do not quite know what al-Jurjānī meant by *majāz*, and we will attend to this question in Chapter 5 Preliminaries.

⁴⁹ For Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd see Chapter 1 (§1.2). He approached the study of literary theory from the aspect of *kitāba* ‘scribal education’ (he was primarily a legal scholar). For al-Ḥusaynī, the field of study was poetry (*shī‘r*, *qarīd*). See al-Muẓaffar b. al-Faḍl al-‘Alawī (al-Ḥusaynī), *Naḍrat al-ighrīd fī nuṣrat al-qarīd*, ed. Nuhā ‘Ārif al-Hasan, Damascus: Majma‘ al-Lughā al-‘Arabiyya, 1976 (English: ‘The Beauty of the Palm Tree Spadix: On the Triumph of Poetry’). The Baghdadi al-Ṭūfī, whom we treat in Part Two, lived half a century later, which may explain his awareness of and adherence to *‘ilm al-bayān*.

in order to strengthen our findings, one would have to look for references to literary theory or the literary scholars in adjacent fields, like legal theory and grammar, as well as the biographical dictionaries, to see whether they coincide with *'ilm al-bayān* and *'ulamā' al-bayān* in the sense that we find them being used in literary theory proper and in works on the classification of the sciences. This falls outside the scope of our study and should be taken up in future research.⁵⁰

Likewise, in our discussion of *majāz* our purpose is to highlight its most distinctive features within the domain of literary theory, and at times this leads to a disproportionate treatment of one scholar over the other, or of one issue within *majāz* over the other. The number of pages we devote to any given scholar or topic does not necessarily reflect the prominence of that scholar or topic vis-à-vis the others, or the prominence that the scholar gave to that specific discussion; it reflects, rather, the usefulness of that specific discussion to our understanding of *majāz*. Indeed, our study might give the impression that *majāz* was the most important topic of discussion for the literary theorists: it was not (despite Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's comment above). Future research on the intricacies of other notions that were of paramount interest to literary theorists might show why some – like conciseness and prolixity (*ījāz wa-iṭnāb*) – would later find a prominent place in the Sakkākian tradition, while others – like paronomasia (*tajnīs*) – would not.⁵¹

⁵⁰ We cite one legal scholar, Badr al-Dīn al-Zarkashī (d. 794/1392), in §2.3. Ibn Khallikān speaks of *'ilm al-bayān* as a discipline that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn studied during his early education (see §4.1), and the phrase seems to be recognized as a discipline heading outside the context of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn. For but one example see Ibn Khallikān's entry on Ja'far al-Barmakī (d. 187/803), where he cites *ahl al-bayān* – i.e., the scholars of *'ilm al-bayān* – in reference to the literary device called “almond finger stuffing” (*hashw al-lawzīnāj*), a poetic practice in which a word or phrase is used as “padding” to fit the meter (*Wafayāt* 1: 330).

⁵¹ And here a distinction should be drawn between al-Sakkākī and al-Qazwīnī, because al-Qazwīnī later incorporated strictly ‘poetic’ topics like thematic transitions (*takhalluṣ*) and literary influence (*sariqāt*), while the earlier al-Sakkākī did not. 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī actually treats *tajnīs* in the opening of his *Asrār al-balāgha*, and it was certainly of interest to Qur'ānic scholars (see, for instance, the discussion within *badā'i' al-Qur'an* “good Qur'ānic rhetorical figures” in the later Aḥmad b. Muṣṭafā Ṭashköprüzāde, *Miftāḥ al-sa'āda wa-miṣbāḥ al-siyāda fi mawḍū'āt al-'ulūm*, eds. Kāmil Bakrī and 'Abd al-Wahhāb Abū al-Nūr, 3 vols., [Cairo]: Dār al-Kutub al-Ḥadītha, [1968], 2: 502-503 [English: ‘The Key for Happiness and the Light [leading to] Mastery: On the Subject-Matters of the Sciences’]). Another topic of interest might be change in word order (*taqdīm wa-ta'khīr*), an important issue within the Sakkākian tradition: Ḍiyā' al-Dīn treats it at some length, but earlier literary theorists outside philology

Methodologically I follow Wolfhart Heinrichs and Dmitry Frolov in differentiating medieval scholars' theoretical pronouncements from the *shawāhid* 'illustrative examples' they adduce, as an alternative or independent avenue to make an assessment of their views. Frolov remarks,

[P]oetic citations constitute the main bulk of any philological text, be it metrical or not (see, for instance, *Kitāb al-badī'* by Ibn al-Mu'tazz). Scarcity of verbal definitions and descriptions and abundance of poetic illustrations account for the importance of *shawāhid* as an alternative way of explicating a rule or a phenomenon. This means that nothing is accidental in the set of these illustrations.⁵²

Heinrichs elaborates,

In this [*majāz* in Abū 'Ubayda] as in many other cases in literary theory and related fields it is important to keep the author's theoretical pronouncements or hints at such apart from his *shawāhid* material as two independent avenues to an understanding of his ideas, the reason being that, especially in the early days of literary and hermeneutical studies, an author may have a correct feeling of phenomena belonging together without being able to express this feeling in adequate terminology.⁵³

Adjusting this to the seventh/thirteenth century, when adequate terminology usually did exist, we can say that the theoretical portions of the text were often an expression of commonly held opinions by earlier scholars – what we may call 'academic convention' – to which the scholar at hand did not give much thought and, perhaps, did not necessarily

and Qur'ānic stylistics typically do not. *Iṭnāb* is used in a positive sense: knowing when it is meaningful to use more words 'than necessary'.

⁵² Dmitry Frolov, *Classical Arabic Verse: History and Theory of 'Arūḍ*, Studies in Arabic Literature, vol. 21, Leiden: Brill, 2000, 338 (parentheses his).

⁵³ Wolfhart Heinrichs, "On the Genesis of the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* Dichotomy," *Studia Islamica* 59 (1984), 111-40, here: 118 fn. 2. For an application of this method in another classical Arabic field, citing Heinrichs, see Almog Kasher, *The Zarf in Medieval Arabic Grammatical Theory*, PhD Dissertation, Bar Ilan University, 2006, 10 [in Hebrew]. Of course, the method can be applied when we have no theoretical pronouncements at all (or hardly at all) as we see, e.g., in van Gelder's analysis of *shawāhid* patterning to make a case for the critics' conception of 'thematic unity' (*Beyond the Line*, 196-98, 202-203), or in Hamori's analysis of commentarial remarks on poetic and Qur'ānic verses to make a case for the scholars' conception of links between textual units (Andras Hamori, "Some Schemes of Reading in al-Marzūqī, al-Iskāfī and Faḥr al-Dīn al-Rāzī," in Sasson Somekh [ed.], *Studies in Medieval Arabic and Hebrew Poetics* [= *Israel Oriental Studies* 11], Leiden: Brill, 1991, 13-20).

endorse. Of course, theoretical pronouncements remain a necessary component of our analysis, but they must be verified against the *shawāhid* and ensuing commentary and against the categorization scheme of the work.

Part One: The Emergence of *‘Ilm al-Bayān*

Introduction

In his concise article on the notion of *bayān* lit. ‘clarity’ in the *Encyclopaedia of Islam*, G.E. von Grunebaum makes the following statement after discussing the development of the notion until the fifth/eleventh century:

When Ibn al-Athīr (d. 1234) writes *al-Mathal al-Sā’ir fī Adab al-Kātib wa ‘l-Shā’ir* thinking on *bayān* has taken a new turn. To what extent it was Ibn al-Athīr himself who was responsible for this change we have no means of deciding. Ibn al-Athīr places [...] the *‘ilm al-bayān* in the same relation to the composition of both poetry and prose as the science of the *uṣūl al-fīkh* [legal theory] to the individual judicial statutes or decisions, *aḥkām*.⁵⁴

Von Grunebaum goes on to give a brief summary of the *Mathal*’s structure and contents, and adds:

The heartpiece of the *‘ilm al-bayān* is to Ibn al-Athīr the doctrine of *ḥakīka* and *madjāz*, the proper and the transferred use of words [...]⁵⁵

Part One of the dissertation may be seen as an enlargement of von Grunebaum’s treatment of *bayān*, not so much in isolation, but rather in conjunction with *‘ilm*: that is, *‘ilm al-bayān* ‘the science of clarity’, or: ‘the science of clear expression’. We will investigate “[t]o what extent it was Ibn al-Athīr himself who was responsible for this change” in elevating the science to a highly theoretical one. We will also examine, perhaps more importantly, to what extent his attempts were successful in influencing later authors. (They were.) This part will show that *‘ilm*

⁵⁴ G.E. von Grunebaum, “*Bayān*,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam*, second edition, Brill Online.

⁵⁵ Ibid.

al-bayān became a recognized field of inquiry at the turn of the seventh/thirteenth century and remained so until the fourteenth century (*ca.* 1200-1400), only to be trumped by the better-known *and very different* tradition of *‘ilm al-balāgha* ‘science of eloquence’, that is: standard rhetoric.

Part One is divided into three chapters. In Chapter 1 we will look closely into Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr’s portrayal of *‘ilm al-bayān* in his primary literary-critical works, *al-Mathal al-sā’ir fī adab al-kātib wa-l-shā’ir* (‘The Talk of the Town [lit. The Current Saying]: On the Knowhow of the Scribe and the Poet’) and his earlier-written ‘forerunner’, *al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr fī ṣinā’at al-manzūm min al-kalām wa-l-manthūr* (‘The Large Compilation: On the Craft of Versified and Unversified Speech’). We will compare the status Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn assigns to *‘ilm al-bayān* with the status assigned, especially by al-Ghazālī, to other sciences regarded as highly theoretical, *viz.* logic and legal theory. We will also examine Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s attempts to form a canon of *‘ilm al-bayān*. In Chapter 2 vestiges of this *‘ilm al-bayān* in later sources will be examined. A case will be made for the consolidated notion of a literary-theoretical discipline, a development which did not characterize earlier literary-critical works (which I refer to as the early *naqd* works). Later works to be investigated include literary-critical and non-literary-critical works, primarily those dealing with the classification of the sciences. In Chapter 3 we will attend to notions of *bayān* prior to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, both as a larger notion of ‘expression’ and as a narrower notion related to eloquence studies.

If at all modern researchers attended to the phrase *‘ilm al-bayān* they portrayed it as a synonym of the standard *‘ilm al-balāgha* (Arthur Schaade, Ramzi Baalbaki, Joseph Lowry, Pierre Larcher).⁵⁶ Others have recognized that *‘ilm al-bayān* may denote literary theory as a

⁵⁶ A. Schaade, “Bayān,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, first edition*: “*‘Ilm al-bayān* is often used synonymously with *‘Ilm al-Balāgha* [...] although strictly it only denotes a subsection of it.” See also §2.1 and the introduction to §2.3,

whole, including its early permutations; implicitly it is seen as one out of several common designations for the field (von Grunebaum, Badawī Ṭabāna, Shawqī Ḍayf).⁵⁷ Of course, as a subfield, *‘ilm al-bayān* has long been recognized to denote the study of imagery in the later *‘ilm al-balāgha* (see Chapter 2). As of yet, however, the emergence of a science called *‘ilm bayān* in the seventh/thirteenth century and its identification as a new generic development has gone in the

below. Baalbaki implicitly identifies “the discipline of *bayān*” more specifically with *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*, the first subsection of the standard *‘ilm al-balāgha*. But he also speaks of the discipline in more general terms and of a group called “*bayāniyyūn*” as if they were in existence during the time Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn. See Ramzi Baalbaki, “A 7th-8th H. Century Controversy: Ibn al-Athīr on *Naḥw* and *Bayān*,” in Andrei A. Avram, Anca Focșeneanu and George Grigore (eds.), *A Festschrift for Nadia Anghelescu*, Bucharest: Editura Universității din București, 2011, 85-105, esp. 86, 94-95, 97, 102-3. Ironically, he does recognize Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s “conviction that the discipline which examines *faṣāḥa* and *balāgha* (i.e. *bayān*) is distinct from other disciplines” (p. 97, parentheses his), but he interprets this as a break from the science of grammar rather than a new development within the Arabic literary-critical tradition (*naqd*), a development that has nothing to do with grammar. (Notably, Baalbaki is a scholar of the Arabic grammatical tradition.) Lowry, a scholar of Islamic legal theory, remarks enigmatically that “by the time we are in a world of full-fledged books on *uṣūl al-fiqh* [the books he treats range from the fourth/tenth to the eighth/fourteenth centuries], the science of Arabic rhetoric, which has become highly evolved, comes to be denoted as *balāga*, possibly *ḥiṭāba*, but sometimes also as *‘ilm al-bayān* [...]”; see Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 510. Apparently Lowry is referring to the standard *‘ilm al-balāgha* (“highly evolved”) rather than the early *naqd* works. Pierre Larcher mentions Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s use of *‘ilm al-bayān* as referring to “the entirety” of rhetoric, but he presents the contents of this discipline as if they are coextensive with those of al-Qazwīnī’s rhetoric. See Pierre Larcher, “Arabic Linguistic Tradition II: Pragmatics,” in Jonathan Owens (ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Arabic Linguistics*, New York: Oxford University Press, 2013, 185-212, here: 188-89.

⁵⁷ Von Grunebaum states (“*Bayān*,” closing paragraph) with regards to a work wrongly attributed to Ibn Qayyim al-Jawziyya (d. 751/1350) that the latter “still uses *‘ilm al-bayān* for rhetoric [literary theory] as a whole.” Ṭabāna also sees *bayān* as a reference to the study of the literary art in general (*dirāsāt al-fann al-adabī*) and acknowledges that it was sometimes called *badī’*, *faṣāḥa* or *balāgha*; see Badawī Ṭabāna, *al-Bayān al-‘arabī: dirāsa fī taṭawwur al-fikra al-balāghīyya ‘inda al-‘arab wa-manāḥijihā wa-maṣādirihā al-kubrā*, 6th ed., Cairo: Maktabat al-Anjilū al-Miṣriyya, 1976, 15, 18 (English: ‘Arabic Rhetoric: A Study in the Development of the Arabs’ Rhetorical Thinking and its Greater Methods and Sources’). See also Gully, *Culture of Letter-Writing*, 30, where Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *‘ilm al-bayān* is glossed as “literary criticism in its broadest sense,” and George Makdisi, *The Rise of Humanism in Classical Islam and the Christian West, With Special Reference to Scholasticism*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 1990, 141, 144, where *‘ilm al-bayān* is said to designate “rhetoric.” Ṭabāna is the only modern scholar to author a book solely from the perspective of *‘ilm al-bayān*, beginning with the early meanings of *bayān* in the third/ninth and fourth/tenth centuries and ending with the tenets of the standard subfield within *‘ilm al-balāgha*. This is his *‘Ilm al-bayān: dirāsa tārikhiyya fanniyya fī uṣūl al-balāgha al-‘arabiyya*, [Cairo]: Maktabat al-Anjilū al-Miṣriyya, [1962] (English: ‘The Science of *Bayān*: A Historical Analytic Study in the Origins of Arabic Rhetoric’). Ṭabāna too fails to recognize a new disciplinary development with the efforts of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn (he identifies the latter’s *‘ilm al-bayān* with the epistolary art; p. 18). The only scholar to notice that later seventh/thirteenth century writers who used the term *‘ilm bayān* to refer to “rhetorical studies” in general (*mabāḥith al-balāgha*) were actually following Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is Shawqī Ḍayf. This is mentioned in passing in his *al-Balāgha: taṭawwur wa-tārikh*, Cairo: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, 1965, 317, 324 (English: ‘Rhetoric: Development and History’). It does not help that *bayān* in Modern Standard Arabic simply means ‘rhetoric’ and is synonymous with *balāgha* (see fn. 229). We thus find many uses of the word *bayān* in modern titles that refer simply to literary theory or ‘rhetoric’ in general (like Ṭabāna’s *al-Bayān al-‘arabī*).

scholarship unnoticed. This is partly due to the fact that many medieval scholars themselves were oblivious to the matter.⁵⁸

⁵⁸ The clearest example is al-Şafadī (d. 764/1363) in his *Nuṣrat al-thāʿir*, a ‘refutation’ of Ḍiyāʿ al-Dīn’s *al-Mathal al-sāʿir*. At one point al-Şafadī notes that he does not know what Ḍiyāʿ al-Dīn meant by *bayān*: for al-Şafadī it referred either to the sub-*ʿilm al-bayān* or to *ʿilm al-māʿānī* – both subfields of the standard *ʿilm al-balāgha*. See Şalāḥ al-Dīn Khalīl b. Aybak al-Şafadī, *Nuṣrat al-thāʿir ʿalā al-mathal al-sāʿir*, ed. Muḥammad ʿAlī Sulṭānī, Damascus: [Maṭbaʿat Khālīd al-Ṭarābīshī, 1972], 78-82 (English: ‘Support of the Rebel against *The Talk of the Town*’ [Heinrichs’ translation in “Ibn al-Athīr,” 315]).

Chapter 1:

‘Ilm al-Bayān in the Eyes of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr

1.1. *bi-manzilat usūl al-fīqh*: The Discipline is Scientific

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 637/1239) is the first author of an extant work who consciously attends to the notion of *‘ilm al-bayān*.⁵⁹ To be sure, he does not devote a chapter to the meaning of *‘ilm al-bayān* in any of his works nor does he provide us with a clear definition. But the explicit representation of *‘ilm al-bayān* as an independent and highly theoretical field in both his literary-theoretical works makes Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn a major figure in the notion’s development. While he is certainly not the first scholar to speak of the study of literary-theoretical matters in terms of a discipline or craft (*ṣinā’a*),⁶⁰ he is the first to speak of it in terms of a ‘scientific’ undertaking.

After a brief *invocatio* opening his mature work, *al-Mathal al-sā’ir*, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn states:

wa-ba’du fa-inna ‘ilma l-bayāni li-ta’līfi l-naẓmi wa-l-nathri bi-manzilati uṣūli l-fīqhi li-l-aḥkāmi wa-adillati l-aḥkām

Let us proceed. The science of *bayān* (lit. ‘[verbal] clarity’) vis-à-vis the composition of verse and prose has the same status as [the science of] legal theory does vis-à-vis the legal rulings and the [textual] evidence of the legal rulings.⁶¹

⁵⁹ Sometimes this expression appears as *‘ilm al-bayān min al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha* “*‘ilm al-bayān*, namely, eloquence”; see *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 119-20. But cf. *ibid.* 1: 39, where *faṣāḥa-balāgha* are said to be the (subject-) matter of the discipline (in the philosophical sense; see following fn.).

⁶⁰ For a famous example which was translated in Cantarino, *Arabic Poetics in the Golden Age*, 152-54, see Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī, *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, ed. ‘Abd al-Muta‘āl al-Ṣa‘īdī, Cairo: Muḥammad ‘Alī Ṣabīḥ, 1969, 82-84 (English: ‘The Secret of Eloquence’). Here al-Khafājī speaks of speech composition as a craft, and he enumerates the five elements that every craft is said to contain, as defined by the philosophers (*ḥukamā*): matter (e.g., “wood”), craftsman (e.g., “carpenter”), form (e.g., “square,” if a chair), instrument (e.g., “saw”), and purpose (e.g., “something to sit on”). Cf. *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 39. We will look at how other early scholars saw their disciplinary affiliation in §1.2. See also Ouyang, *Literary Criticism*, 166-99, 237-42.

⁶¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 35. The term *ḥukm* pl. *aḥkām* has a variety of meanings in legal theory, from the more specific ‘legal status/qualification’ assigned to a certain act to the more general ‘law, legal ruling, rule of law’. See Joseph Schacht, “*Aḥkām*,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*; Aron Zysow, *The Economy of Certainty: An Introduction to the Typology of Islamic Legal Theory*, PhD Dissertation, Harvard University, 1984, 181, 229, 261, 359, 467; Devin Stewart, “Muḥammad b. Dā’ūd al-Zāhiri’s Manual of Jurisprudence, *al-Wuṣūl ilā ma’rifat al-uṣūl*,”

What exactly is the analogy that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is making with legal theory? The interpretation differs depending on whether we lay the emphasis on the *aḥkām*, here: laws or legal rulings, or whether we lay it on *adillat al-aḥkām*, the legal sources or textual evidence for the legal rulings. According to Wael Hallaq, “[...] the declared, and indeed main, purpose of Islamic legal theory was to formulate rulings (*aḥkām*) concerning cases whose solutions had not been explicitly stated in the first two material sources [i.e., the Qur’ān and prophetic *ḥadīth*].” But in a footnote Hallaq adds that “[a]nother important function of legal theory, one that is assumed and rarely articulated in works of *uṣūl al-fiqh*, is the justification and ‘re-enactment’ of the processes of legal reasoning behind existing rules.”⁶² For al-Ghazālī (d. 505/1111) the very essence of ‘legal theory’ is the *adillat al-aḥkām* (*uṣūl al-fiqh ‘ibāra ‘an adillat ḥādhihi al-aḥkām*), implying the study of textual proofs regarding existing rulings; similarly, Sayf al-Dīn al-Āmidī (d. 631/1233) states that the “foundations/roots of the law are the [textual] evidence of the law” (*fa-ammā uṣūl al-fiqh hiya adillat al-fiqh*).⁶³ This would suggest the reverse of Hallaq’s assessment: the assumed purpose of legal theory was to formulate rulings concerning new cases, whereas the declared purpose was to justify the process of legal reasoning. The shift in focus is from a primarily hermeneutical endeavor (*adillat al-aḥkām*) to a more practical endeavor guiding the jurist in producing *new* rulings (*aḥkām*). Going back to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn’s analogy, if we focus on

in Bernard G. Weiss (ed.), *Studies in Islamic Legal Theory*, Studies in Islamic Law and Society, vol. 15, Leiden: Brill, 2002, 99-158, here: 102 fn. 6, 104-105, 108.

⁶² Wael B. Hallaq, *A History of Islamic Legal Theories: An Introduction to Sunnī Uṣūl al-Fiqh*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997, 1-2. See also Al-Shāfi‘ī, *The Epistle on Legal Theory*, edited and translated by Joseph E. Lowry, Library of Arabic Literature, New York: New York University Press, 2013, xxii.

⁶³ Abū Hāmid Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Ghazālī, *al-Mustasfā min ‘ilm al-uṣūl*, ed. Ḥamza Ibn Zuhayr Hāfiẓ, 4 vols., Medina: 1413 [1993 or 4], 1: 9 (English: ‘The Best Pick in Legal Theory’); Sayf al-Dīn al-Āmidī, *al-Iḥkām fī uṣūl al-aḥkām*, 4 vols., Cairo: Dār al-Kutub al-Khidīwiyya, 1914, 1: 8 (English: ‘The Master [Work] on the Foundations of Legal Rulings’). The same idea is expressed by Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī, though in a less succinct manner; see his *al-Maḥṣūl fī ‘ilm uṣūl al-fiqh*, ed. Tāhā Jābir Fayyāq al-‘Alwānī, 2 vols. in 6, Riyadh: Jāmi‘at al-Imām Muḥammad Ibn Su‘ūd al-Islāmiyya, Lajnat al-Buḥūth wa-l-Ta’lif wa-l-Tarjama wa-l-Nashr, 1979-1981, vol. 1 pt. 1, 94-95 (English: ‘The Result on the Science of Legal Theory’).

the *aḥkām*, then the purpose of *‘ilm al-bayān* is to enable the composer to come up with new artistic speech just as the purpose of *uṣūl al-fiqh* is to enable the legal authority to derive new legal rulings. If we focus on *adillat al-aḥkām*, which implies existing laws rather than new ones, then the resulting analogy is: just as the interpretation of the textual sources of the law regarding known cases form the basis of legal theory, likewise the interpretation of existing verse and prose form the basis of *‘ilm al-bayān*. The difference is between a poetics and a hermeneutics.

The tension between a discipline aiming to enable the creation of new poems and letters and a discipline aiming to explain existing poems and letters is present throughout the works of *‘ilm al-bayān* under our examination. But the explicit reference that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn makes here to *ta’līf* ‘composition’ swings the pendulum towards a poetics. It is well known that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn saw himself primarily as a *kātib* ‘state secretary’ and a *kātib*’s educator (the term *inshā’* is not used), as evinced across his oeuvre (discussed in Part Two) and especially in his work on prosification, that is, forming new literary material from existing exemplars.⁶⁴ Moreover, reference to *ta’līf* and the *mu’allif* ‘composer’ are copious throughout the *Mathal*. At one point Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn even equates – seemingly inadvertently – the science of *bayān* with the craft of composing speech, be it verse or prose (*ṣinā’at ta’līf al-kalām min al-manẓūm wa-l-manthūr*).⁶⁵

⁶⁴ *Al-Waṣḥy al-marqūm fī ḥall al-manẓūm*, ed. Jamīl Sa’īd, [Baghdad]: al-Majma’ al-‘Ilmī al-‘Irāqī, 1989 (English: ‘The Striped Embroidery on Turning Verse into Prose’ [Heinrichs’ translation in “Ibn al-Athīr,” 315]). See Amidu Sanni’s study of this work, *Arabic Theory of Prosification and Versification: On ḥall and naẓm in Arabic Theoretical Discourse*, Beirut Texts und Studien, Band 70, Beirut: Steiner, 1998. Many modern scholars who deal with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn see him primarily in his capacity as a leading figure in epistolary composition. See for instance Gully, *Culture of Letter-Writing*, 30: “[I]n spite of the absence of the term *inshā’* in *al-Maṭal al-sā’ir*, I am going to assume that for him [Ibn al-Athīr] the epistolary genre, eloquence and *inshā’* were inseparable components.” (It is here that Gully describes *‘ilm al-bayān* as “the branch of communication concerned with eloquence and clarity of expression, and, I suppose, the term in his [Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s] vocabulary for literary criticism in its broadest sense”; *ibid.*, and see fn. 57 above.) We should mention that the art of letter-writing or secretaryship (*kitāba*) is recognized by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn as just that: an art (*fann*), not a science (*‘ilm*) (e.g., *al-Maṭal al-sā’ir* 2: 56), although one cannot be certain that this difference was at all significant for him. He adds that it takes many years to acquire this art; *ibid.*, 64 (see also Part Two, §4.1).

⁶⁵ One of the preliminary sections of the *Mathal* titled “on the tools of *‘ilm al-bayān*” (*fī ālāt ‘ilm al-bayān wa-adawātih*; i.e., on the disciplines needed as prerequisites to *‘ilm al-bayān*) opens with the following statement:

It is clear that many of his discussions are directed toward *mu'allif al-kalām*, making 'the composers of speech' the audience for whom *'ilm al-bayān* is intended. Indeed, in the entry on Ḍiyā' al-Dīn in *The Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature* Wolfhart Heinrichs parenthetically glosses *'ilm al-bayān* as "a theory of literary composition."⁶⁶

Brief as his declaration of the status of *'ilm al-bayān* may be, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn succinctly makes the case for a theoretical discipline – *'ilm al-bayān* – with a practical application – producing literary speech.⁶⁷ At the end of his lean preface, in which he states the work's content, method and predecessors (see below), Ḍiyā' al-Dīn reiterates more explicitly the practical application of *'ilm al-bayān*: "For the purpose [of *'ilm al-bayān*/his book on *'ilm al-bayān*]⁶⁸ is to achieve the instruction (*ta'līm*) of the words (*kalim*) with which necklaces are strung and gemmed [i.e., speech is composed] and minds are enchanted and beguiled."⁶⁹ Here one also finds the pedagogical import of *'ilm al-bayān* in the term *ta'līm* that enables the learner to compose speech. But the pedagogical aspect should not be overstated, as Ḍiyā' al-Dīn alerts the reader in the following paragraph – the paragraph concluding the preface⁷⁰ – that more beneficial than instruction is perfecting one's 'good ear' (*dhawq*), that is, practicing and getting accustomed to

"Know that craft of speech composition, be it verse or prose, requires many tools" (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 40). He thereby substituted the expression *'ilm al-bayān* in the section's title with "the craft of speech composition".

⁶⁶ Emphasis added. See Heinrichs, "Ibn al-Athīr," 315.

⁶⁷ Taking *kalām* in the phrase *ta'līf al-kalām* as a shorthand for *kalām balīgh* 'eloquent speech', which could also be rendered as 'literary speech' or 'artistic speech' (in other words, it does not refer to ordinary speech). The latter two are given as translations for *kalām balīgh* by van Gelder in "Literary Criticism as Literature," in Lale Behzadi and Vahid Behmardi (eds.), *The Weaving of Words: Approaches to Classical Arabic Prose*, Beirut: Orient Institut; Würzburg: Ergon in Kommission, 2009, 55-75, here: 55.

⁶⁸ The phrase *hādhā l-'ilm*, referring to *'ilm al-bayān*, appears in the preceding line (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 37.2^o).

⁶⁹ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 37-8. Minds are beguiled, or deceived (*tukhda'u*), in the sense that false things can be presented as true, through such devices as *taḥsīn al-qabīḥ* 'beautifying the ugly' and the like (see §5.1).

⁷⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 38. By 'paragraph' I mean what I find to be a logical stopping point, which usually agrees with the editors' paragraphing decisions.

(good) speech (*qawl*). In fact, says Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, although the reader may find “a master” in his book, the place where *'ilm al-bayān* really resides is with “the ruler of sound taste” (or ‘good ear’).⁷¹ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn expounds this with an analogical metaphor, saying that he is preparing the road for the reader just as the maker of a sword would put it in someone’s right hand: carrying the blade does not mean facing battle, and by implication, having a built road does not mean taking it.⁷² In other words, the burden to fully apply *'ilm al-bayān* falls on the reader.

The conflation of the ‘theoretical’ and the ‘practical’ recurs in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn’s remarks, but even though modern scholars often emphasize his predilection for *dhawq* rather than *ta'lim* (see Introduction), Ḍiyā' al-Dīn often veers towards the theoretical. He explicitly attends to this question at a later point in the *Mathal* and rules in favor of ‘theory’. Under the section on eloquence (*fī al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha*), he poses the following question:⁷³ “Were the types of eloquence in *'ilm al-bayān* derived by induction from the poems of the Bedouin or by speculation and the judgment of reason (*bi-l-naẓar wa-qadīyyat al-'aql*)?”⁷⁴ His reply is

⁷¹ Ibid. As one might expect, much of the preface is written in effortless *saj'* (I placed the mark “/” to indicate the end of a parallel member): *wa-'lam ayyuhā l-nāẓiru fī kitābī anna madāra 'ilmi l-bayāni 'alā ḥākimi l-dhawqi l-salīm / alladhi huwa anfa'u min dhawqi l-ta'lim / wa-hādhā l-kitābu wa-in kāna fīmā yulqīhi ilayka ustādhā / wa-idhā sa'alta 'ammā yuntafa'u bihi fī fannihi qīla laka hādhā / fa-inna l-durbata wa-l-idmāna ajdā 'alayka naf'ā [...]* *wa-yaj'alāni 'usraka mina l-qawli imkānā [...]* “Know, O you studying my book, that the pivot of *'ilm al-bayān* [rests] upon the ruler of sound taste, which is more beneficial than inculcated taste. Even though this book is a master teacher of what it conveys to you, and even though when you ask [people] to name one book on the subject that is beneficial they say “This one!” – practice and devotion are more advantageous to you in gain [...] and can turn your stress in [making good] speech into a capability.”

⁷² Ibid. (and notice the Old-Arabic-style construction “*mathal* [X] *ka*-[Y]” for ‘X is like Y’): *wa-mā mathalī fīmā mahhadtuḥu laka min hādhā l-ṭarīqi illā ka-man ṭaba'a sayfan wa-waḍa'ahu fī yamīnika li-tuqātīla bihi [...]* *fa-inna ḥamla l-niṣāl / ghayru mubāsharati l-qitāl*. As van Gelder points out (“Literary Criticism as Literature,” 56): “*Saj'* is by no means a necessary component [of literary prose] but merely one of the numerous stylistic and rhetorical devices that contribute to the literary character of a text, such as metaphor, simile, irony, allusion, forms of repetition and parallelism and other figures, tropes and schemes, and fiction.” Indeed, what makes such passages by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn “effortless” (see previous fn.) is exactly his employment of metaphors and analogies.

⁷³ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 119. The section begins on 1: 112. Von Grunebaum mentions this issue in his article on *bayān* as it appears in Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd’s ‘refutation’, *al-Falak al-dā'ir*. My interpretation differs slightly because Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd’s discussion includes *dhawq* in a place that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn did not include.

⁷⁴ *hal ukhidha 'ilmu l-bayāni min ḍurūbi l-faṣāḥati wa-l-balāghati bi-l-istiqrā'i min ash'āri l-'arabi am bi-l-naẓari*

unequivocal (and fashioned in a manner reminiscent of a theologian’s argumentation): *‘ilm al-bayān* is not derived by induction; those who composed poems and sermons devised/invented (*ibtada’ū*) the eloquence that they produced by speculation and judgment of reason. (Notice the confused conflation of *‘ilm al-bayān* and actual production; see below.) Had it been the case that they derived it by induction from the products of those who came before them, this would lead by finite regress (*yatasalsalu*) to the first person who could not have inferred it by induction but rather invented his eloquence.⁷⁵ The passage is meant to underscore the scientific method of *‘ilm al-bayān*: it implies that induction as a method is based upon *naql* or transmission of previous literary speech, whereas speculation as a method is based upon *‘aql* or reason.

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn reinforces his claim in the following passage by way of comparison to the science of grammar. Whereas the science of *bayān* was derived (*ustunbiṭa*) by speculation and the judgment of reason, he says, grammar was handed down from the coiner of the language (*wāḍi’*) through tradition (*taqlīd* lit. ‘imitation’). The coiner could just as well have used the accusative ending for the subject of a verbal clause and the nominative for the direct object, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn contends, but with *‘ilm al-bayān* one could not have substituted an ugly expression for a beautiful one. It is true, he continues, that once people heard that the *fā’il* is *marfū’* and the *maf’ūl* is *manṣūb*, they derived evidence and reasoning for this – but this reasoning he calls “flimsy” (*wāhiya*).⁷⁶ This is not an attack on *‘ilm al-naḥw*, as some scholars of the Arabic

wa-qaḍiyyati l-‘aql; ibid. 1: 119. Note the idiosyncratic phrase *‘ilm al-bayān min al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha* (or *‘ilm al-bayān min ḍurūb al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha*) which recurs three times in this and in the following passage (ibid. 1: 119.5, 119.3^c, 120.2-3). I have translated this phrase as “[types of] eloquence in *‘ilm al-bayān*.” lit. “*‘ilm al-bayān*, namely eloquence.” This probably has to do with the fact that for Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, as explained in ibid. 1: 39, eloquence is the “matter” (in the philosophical sense, i.e., subject-matter) of the science.

⁷⁵ Ibid. 1: 119.

⁷⁶ Ibid. 1: 119-20. Cf. the nearly-proverbial “weaker than a grammarian’s argument” (*aḍ‘af min ḥujjat al-naḥwī*), taken from a line by Ibn Fāris describing the languid eyes of a Turkish girl (Geert Jan van Gelder, “Against the Arabic Grammarians: Some Poems,” in Bilal Orfali [ed.], *In the Shadow of Arabic: The Centrality of Language to*

grammatical tradition would have us think.⁷⁷ It is true that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn did not spare his harsh criticism from grammarians (or philologists more broadly), but this has to do with their poetic opinions, not with the grammatical endeavor per se.⁷⁸ The fact of the matter is that the so-called 'anti-grammar' passage is derived nearly verbatim from 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī,⁷⁹ who was an illustrious grammarian, and we will discuss al-Jurjānī's influence in more detail in Part Two. The purpose of the passage in question is merely to justify the perceived scientificity of *'ilm al-bayān*, and it suggests that *'ilm al-bayān* was not yet seen as a consolidated discipline.

The conflation we find in these passages between the 'theoretical' and the 'practical' is a

Arabic Culture. Studies Presented to Ramzi Baalbaki on the Occasion of his Sixtieth Birthday, Studies in Semitic Languages and Linguistic, vol. 63, Leiden: Brill, 2011, 249-63, here: 249).

⁷⁷ Both Baalbaki and Gully dwell on the implications of this passage. See Baalbaki, "*Naḥw and Bayān*," *passim*; Adrian Gully, "Two of a Kind? Ibn Hišām al-Anṣārī on *Naḥw* and Ibn al-Aṭīr on *Balāgha*," in Lutz Edzard and Janet Watson (eds.), *Grammar as a Window onto Arabic Humanism: A Collection of Articles in Honour of Michael G. Carter*, Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 2006, 84-107, esp. 87-97. They, and especially Baalbaki ("*Naḥw and Bayān*," 103), take *'ilm al-bayān* as a historical offshoot of the science of grammar – which is how the later *'ilm al-ma'ānī* was eventually interpreted – without any regard to the early *naqd* works and the *adab al-kātib* tradition. Gully over-adheres to Martin Irvine's *The Making of Textual Culture: 'Grammatica' and Literary Theory, 350-1100*, and thus exaggerates the role Ḍiyā' al-Dīn assigns to the study of grammar ("[...] grammar was the pivot around which that textual culture functioned [referring to the secretary's culture]," p. 89, somewhat anticipating Muhsin al-Musawi's *The Medieval Islamic Republic of Letters*). For a study on Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's attitude towards grammar and grammarians in the *Mathal* see the booklet by Aḥmad Sulaymān Yāqūt, *al-Naḥw wa-l-nuḥāh 'inda Ibn al-Athīr fī al-Mathal al-sā'ir*, Alexandria: Dār al-Ma'rifa al-Jāmi'iyya, 1989.

⁷⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 40. See also Ignác Goldziher's "[...] so kehrt sich Ibn al-Aṭīr an mehreren Stellen seines Werkes gegen die Kompetenz der Philologen in Sachen des Geschmacks" (*Abhandlungen zur arabischen Philologie*, 2 vols., Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1896, 1: 164). As we shall see in Part Two, there is a long history of literary critics censuring grammarians (or early philologists) for writing ill-suited *dīwān*-commentaries since they often limited their comments to difficult vocabulary and the syntax of a line, and often 'missed' the literary point of the poetic line. Ibn Jinnī's commentary on the poetry of al-Mutanabbī is a prime case in point. Traditionally, many early philologists (some of whom were also famous grammarians) delved in matters of *naqd* – and it is this last aspect that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, as well as critics before him, disapproved of. One example is Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's annoyance with the "Baghdadi grammarian" Ibn al-Dahhān and "one of his Mosuli students" for degrading al-Mutanabbī: authors within "the scholars of *bayān*" and "the specialists among them," he says, give al-Mutanabbī his full due! (*wa-l-muṣannifu min 'ulamā'i l-bayāni wa-l-mukhtaṣṣina minhum yu'ī l-Mutanabbīyya ḥaqqahu mina l-faḍīla*); see *al-Istidrāk fī al-akhdh 'alā al-ma'ākhidh al-Kindīyya min al-ma'ānī al-Tā'iyya*, ed. Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām, Alexandria: Munsha'at al-Ma'ārif, 2005, 27 (English: 'The Rectification of the Critique of the Kindite [al-Mutanabbī's] Borrowings from the Ṭayyī'ite [Abū Tammām's] Motifs' [Heinrichs' translation, with modification, in "Ibn al-Athīr," 315]).

⁷⁹ 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī, *Dalā'il al-i'jāz*, ed. Maḥmūd Muḥammad Shākir, Cairo: Maktabat al-Khānjī, [1984], 395 (English: 'Intimations of [the Qur'ān's] Inimitability').

result, first, of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's engagement with al-Jurjānī, who used the phrase *'ilm al-bayān* (albeit only one time) to simply mean 'the *knowledge* of eloquence' (see §3.2), and second, of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's labored, even contrived attempt to establish *'ilm al-bayān* as an independent, theoretical science. This strongly suggests that a field of knowledge called *'ilm al-bayān* was not quite recognized as an independent, 'scientific' discipline during Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's time. (That Ḍiyā' al-Dīn did not coin the phrase is evident from the lack of any boastful comments which he surely would have made had he had coined it.) 'Theory' is given the upper hand if we go by his initial wording in the opening of the *Mathal*: *'ilm al-bayān li-ta'liḏ al-naẓm wa-l-nathr* "the science of *bayān* for [the purpose of] composing verse and prose."⁸⁰

The case for 'theory' is made more strongly in the work predating the *Mathal*, *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, which is generally regarded as a 'trial-run' for the former.⁸¹ The importance of the *Jāmi'* in our study could not be overstated: because its thematic framework coincides with that of the *Mathal* (as opposed to other works by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn), it is possible to isolate change from continuity in the development of his critical thinking.⁸² In the case of envisaging *'ilm al-bayān* we have a clear case of continuity. In the opening of his preface Ḍiyā' al-Dīn states that the composition of eloquent/literary speech (*ta'liḏ al-kalām*) can only be fathomed by studying *'ilm al-bayān*, "which is like a measure/scale (*bi-manzilat al-mīzān*) for this craft."⁸³ Once again, *'ilm*

⁸⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 35, and above.

⁸¹ Heinrichs, "Ibn al-Athīr," 315.

⁸² We are fortunate to have a similar case with Ibn Abī al-Iṣḃa', who also authored two literary-critical works with more or less the same framework.

⁸³ *ammā ba'du fa-lammā kāna ta'liḏu l-kalāmi mim mā lā yūqafu 'alā ghawrihi wa-lā yu'rafu kunhu amrihi illā bi-l-iṭṭilā'i 'alā 'ilmi l-bayāni -lladhī huwa li-hādhihi l-ṣinā'ati bi-manzilat al-mīzān [...]* "Let us proceed. Since we cannot get to the bottom of literary composition nor can we fathom its true nature unless we study *'ilm al-bayān*, which is like a measure/scale for this craft [...]" ; *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr fī ṣinā'at al-manẓūm min al-kalām wa-l-manthūr*, eds. Muṣṭafā Jawād and Jamīl Sa'īd, Baghdad: al-Majma' al-'Ilmī al-'Irāqī, 1956, 1.

al-bayān is seen as a theoretical science with a practical application in the form of literary composition. In a later section we find a discussion on eloquence (*al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha*), perhaps anticipating the passage in the *Mathal*, that claims that eloquence is derived by *al-naẓar wa-qaḍiyyat al-‘aql*. Here in the *Jāmi‘*, the discussion is in the form of a quotation from “one of the authors among the scholars” (*ba‘ḍ al-muṣannifīn min al-‘ulamā‘*) – again probably al-Jurjānī – who stresses the need to exert contemplation (*tadabbur*), reflection (*ta‘ammul*) and speculation (*tafakkur*) when studying the knowledge/science of eloquence.⁸⁴ Here the editors of the *Jāmi‘*, Jawād and Sa‘īd, point to a specific passage in the *Dalā‘il* from which it was supposedly taken, though admittedly, it is far from a literal quotation.⁸⁵ Either way, conceiving of eloquence and/or *‘ilm al-bayān* as a knowledge/discipline requiring reflection and speculation – indeed, as a ‘rational’ affair – is consistent in both Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn’s literary-theoretical works.

In order to contextualize the theoretical status that Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn assigns to *‘ilm al-bayān*, it may be useful to look at other sciences considered to hold a high theoretical status, specifically those that *‘ilm al-bayān* are likened to: logic (see *bi-manzilat al-mīzān* in the *Jāmi‘*) and legal theory (see *bi-manzilat uṣūl al-fiqh* in the *Mathal*). One scholar, whose work on logic and legal

⁸⁴ *fa-innaka idhā naẓarta ilā hādihā l-‘ilmi l-sharīfi -ḥtajta ‘inda dhālika ilā ṭūli makthīn wa-tadabbur / wa-kathrati ta‘ammulin wa-tafakkur; al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 76 (*saj‘* marking is mine; the strange *makth* might be a misreading of *baḥth*). The phrase *hādihā l-‘ilm* refers to *al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha* several lines earlier. Eloquence seems to be conceived as a ‘knowledge’ as it is used interchangeably in this passage with *ma‘rifā*, but it could very well refer to an actual ‘science’.

⁸⁵ *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 76 fns. 2-3, 77 fn. 1. The passage is fairly distant from the wording found in the *Dalā‘il*, 37, and in the old edition, *Kitāb Dalā‘il al-i‘jāz fī ‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*, eds. Muḥammad ‘Abduh and Muḥammad Maḥmūd al-Turkuzī al-Shinqīfī, overseen and with footnotes by Muḥammad Rashīd Riḍā, Cairo: Maṭba‘at al-Manār, [1912], 31 (English: ‘Intimations of [the Qur’ān’s] Inimitability’). The idea is taken up again elsewhere by al-Jurjānī, e.g. *Dalā‘il* (ed. Shākir), 395 – the passage that inspired Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn’s comments in the *Mathal* – where al-Jurjānī states that knowledge of *i‘rāb* ‘inflection’ is not exerted by reflection (*laysa huwa mimmā yustanbaṭu bi-l-fikr*). We should point out that Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn often draws on and quotes from al-Jurjānī in passages that display meticulous *saj‘*. As van Gelder tells us, “[t]he ideas proposed in these works [the two works of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī] were no less novel than their style, which is essayistic, often passionate [...] and when ‘Abd al-Qāhir writes about poetic language and imagery his prose style is itself of a quality [...]” (*Classical Arabic Literature: A Library of Arabic Literature Anthology*, selected and translated by Geert Jan van Gelder, New York: New York University Press, 2013, 281). Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn never quotes al-Jurjānī by name; rarely, as here, does he allude to him (*ba‘ḍ al-muṣannifīn*).

theory became well known, and whom Ḍiyā' al-Dīn mentions by name, is al-Ghazālī. In the following pages we will examine how al-Ghazālī viewed the disciplinary status of logic and legal theory in order to better understand Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's stance on *'ilm al-bayān*. Looking at al-Ghazālī's works in this context does not imply that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn necessarily read them, but as part of his cultural and intellectual life, we may surmise that he was aware of many of the ideas therein (especially the 'superficial' ones, like the status of a discipline vis-à-vis other disciplines).⁸⁶ Alexander Treiger shows that al-Ghazālī displayed a constant preoccupation with the classification of the sciences across his scholarly writings.⁸⁷ To me this indicates the degree to which a scholar could harness influence and authority by “redraw[ing] the map of the sciences.”⁸⁸ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's claim to authority is implicit both in his portrayal of the field he is writing in as scientific, and, as we shall see in §1.2, in his presentation of the canon of the field.

Let us begin with logic. Logic is often glossed as a *mīzān*, a measure or standard by which all other sciences – and (new) knowledge itself – are attained.⁸⁹ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn expressed explicit aversion to philosophical (Aristotelian) poetics, but this does not mean he did not accept

⁸⁶ And see Introduction, fn. 40, on the difference between the *voie diffuse* and *voie érudite*.

⁸⁷ Alexander Treiger, “Al-Ghazālī's Classification of the Sciences and Descriptions of the Highest Theoretical Science,” *Dīvān: Disiplinlerarası Çalışmalar Dergisi* 16.1 (30) (2011), 1-32, here: 2-3.

⁸⁸ Quote from *ibid.*, 3. Al-Ghazālī redrew the map of the sciences “in order to make room for his new sciences, “the sciences of the hereafter,” at the expense of the traditional religious sciences [...].”

⁸⁹ See, e.g., 'Alī b. Aḥmad Ibn Ḥazm al-Andalusī, *al-Taqrīb li-ḥadd [or: ḥudūd] al-manṭiq*, in *Rasā'il Ibn Ḥazm al-Andalusī*, ed. Iḥsān 'Abbās, 4 vols., Beirut: al-Mu'assasa al-'Arabiyya li-l-Dirāsāt wa-l-Nashr, 1983, 4: 93-356, here: 102-104 (English: 'Facilitating [One's Path] to the Brink of Logic'). The famous *Īsāghūjī* ('Introduction [to Logic]'), commentary to Porphyry's *Isagoge* by Athīr al-Dīn al-Abharī (d. 663/1265) starts with the remark that the treatise provides “what must be made present to the mind for anyone who begins [undertaking] any of the sciences” (*li-man yabtadi 'u fī shay'in mina l-'ulūm*); see *Majmū' al-mutūn al-kabīr*, Cairo: al-Maktaba al-Tijāriyya al-Kubrā, 1958, 377-386, here: 377. On al-Ghazālī's understanding of *al-mīzān* as “the balance of knowledge, the criterion for testing the validity of arguments” see Michael E. Marmura, “Ghazālī's Attitude to the Secular Sciences and Logic,” in George F. Hourani (ed.), *Essays on Islamic Philosophy and Science*, Albany: State University of New York Press, 1975, 100-111, here: 102-103. For a later common view on logic as “an instrument that enables one to acquire other sciences” whose aim is “to ensure man against errors of reasoning” see Khaled El-Rouayheb, “Sunni Muslim Scholars on the Status of Logic, 1500-1800,” *Islamic Law and Society* 11 (2004), 213-232, here: 216 (the opinion quoted is of the sixteenth-century Shāfi'ī Egyptian Jurist, Shihāb al-Dīn Aḥmad al-Ramlī [d. 957/1550]).

a ‘de-foreignized’, ‘appropriated’ discipline like logic, especially after al-Ghazālī’s famous endorsement thereof (and probably well before that).⁹⁰ In fact, as we have seen in the Introduction, the study of logic and the philosophical sciences in general increased in the Arabic East during Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s time. In the preface to *Mi’yār al-‘ilm* al-Ghazālī places logic (without using the term *manṭiq*) implicitly within the rational sciences (*al-‘ulūm al-naẓariyya*) and claims that the goal of the work is to make understood the ways of thought and speculation.⁹¹ He continues by saying that in order to reduce errors in reasoning he has organized his book “as a standard/criterion for speculation and reflection, as a measure/scale for investigation and contemplation, as a polisher of the mind and a sharpener of the faculty of thought and reason.”⁹² Ironically, the analogy that al-Ghazālī’s gives for the function of the discipline is to the philological sciences. According to him, the relation of the science of logic (or his book) to “those things that guide the minds” (? , *adillat al-‘uqūl*) is equivalent to the relation of prosody to poetry or grammar to correct inflection (*i’rāb*): just as corrupt meter can only be known by the measure (*mīzān*) of prosody and corrupt inflection by the touchstone (*miḥakk*) of grammar – likewise correct and corrupt proof can only be distinguished by his book (or by the science of

⁹⁰ For al-Ghazālī’s endorsement of logic see, for instance, the first part of his *uṣūl* work, *al-Muṣtaṣfā*, which is essentially an introduction to logic (that is, definition and proof [i.e., syllogism]); *al-Muṣtaṣfā* 1: 35-87 (*ft al-ḥadd*), 88-175 (*al-burhān* [otherwise known as *qiyās* in logical works]). He refers to these preliminary sections as being part of *madārik al-‘uqūl* “the rational sources of the intellect [?]” and says it is like the “[camel’s] extra-load (*‘ilāwa*) on *‘ilm al-uṣūl*,” 1: 175. He then refers the readers wanting more information to his works dealing solely with logic: *Miḥakk al-naẓar* and *Mi’yār al-‘ilm*. According to Shihadeh, al-Ghazālī’s introduction of logic to *kalām* was “by no means consistent or definitive, but pragmatic” (“From al-Ghazālī to al-Rāzī,” 148). Logic was endorsed even earlier with scholars supplanting common syllogistic premises with legal ones. Ibn Ḥazm (d. 456/1064) and his *al-Taqrīb li-ḥadd al-manṭiq* is perhaps the best known. See Anwar G. Chejne, “Ibn Ḥazm of Cordova on Logic,” *Journal of the American Oriental Society* 104.1 (1984), 57-72, esp. 57, 61-63.

⁹¹ Al-Imām al-Ghazālī, *Manṭiq Tahāfut al-falāsifa al-musammā Mi’yār al-‘ilm*, ed. Sulaymān Dunyā, Cairo: Dār al-Ma’ārif, 1961, 59 (English: ‘The Logic [section] of [the work] *Incoherence of the Philosophers* called *The Criterion of Knowledge*’). According to Dunyā this work is originally one of the three parts of al-Ghazālī’s *Tahāfut al-falāsifa*, but this is a bit incongruent with al-Ghazālī’s citation of the *Tahāfut* in this work (*Mi’yār*, 60). I am not attending to al-Ghazālī’s other logical work, *Miḥakk al-naẓar*, since prefatory remarks on the status of the discipline are absent.

⁹² *rattabnā hādhā l-kitāba mi’yāran li-l-naẓari wa-l-i’tibār / wa-mīzānan li-l-baḥṭhi wa-l-iftikār / wa-ṣayqalan li-l-dhihn / wa-miḥhadhan li-quwwati l-fikri wa-l-‘aql* (*Mi’yār*, 59).

logic).⁹³ This was a common analogy, as it is also attested in the work of the literary critic Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī (d. 466/1074) and in earlier works of the classification of the sciences.⁹⁴

As banal as these analogies may seem, they are quite telling of the apologetics surrounding ‘disciplines on the rise’. In the case of al-Ghazālī, prosody and grammar were long well-established disciplines that he could adduce as a justification for logic as a science *qua* science. In the case of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, logic and legal theory were well-established *rational* disciplines that he could adduce as a justification for ‘ilm al-bayān as a highly theoretical science. The need for ‘ilm al-bayān as a discipline *qua* discipline required less justification: topics included in ‘ilm al-bayān have been revered for centuries by critics, philologists and Qur’ānic literary scholars.⁹⁵ But as opposed to logic and legal theory, these topics did not seem to be bound by ‘scientific rules’. It is the very idea that they were bound by scientific rules that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn attempts to justify and demonstrate. One cannot fully appreciate his claim to scientificity unless one takes into account the increase in the study of *falsafa* that was taking place in the Arabic East during this time (see Introduction).

While we cannot say with certainty that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn read al-Ghazālī’s purely logical works, in the case of legal theory we stand on firmer ground: Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn tells us so. Both in the *Jāmi* ‘ and in the *Mathal* Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn recounts fourteen types of *majāz*, and in the latter work he

⁹³ *Mi’yār*, 60, and see fn. 2 by the editor, who thinks that it may have been more appropriate to speak of *hādhā al-‘ilm* rather than *hādhā al-kitāb*.

⁹⁴ *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, 85-86; Ouyang, *Literary Criticism*, 29-30. For al-Khafājī the analogue to good meter and correct grammar is the knowledge of eloquence (*balāgha*). He claims that even if one can distinguish between eloquent and non-eloquent speech, his book is still useful because it defines the reasons (*ḥukm*, *‘ilal*, *wujūh*, *asbāb*) for preferring one utterance over the other. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is clearly moving in a different direction by abandoning the analogy to prosody and grammar.

⁹⁵ This will be discussed in more detail in §1.2. By Qur’ānic ‘literary’ scholars I mean people like Ibn Qutayba (d. 276/889) and his *Ta’wīl mushkil al-Qur’ān* (‘Interpreting the [lexical/stylistic] Difficulties of the Qur’ān’): the approach to the topic comes more from a literary-linguistic point of view, although the dogmatic angle is not at all absent.

explicitly cites his source: “I was looking into one of the works of Abū Ḥāmid al-Ghazālī, God have mercy upon him, which he authored on legal theory (*uṣūl al-fiqh*), and I found that he mentioned literal and figurative speech and classified figurative speech into fourteen categories [...]”⁹⁶ The work cited does not seem to have survived.⁹⁷ We shall look, then, into al-Ghazālī’s famous *al-Mustaṣfā min ‘ilm al-uṣūl* ‘The Best Pick in Legal Theory’ to get an idea of the ‘Ghazālian model’ that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was exposed to. We are not claiming that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn necessarily read the *Mustaṣfā* but given al-Ghazālī’s influence, it is safe to assume he was well familiar with many of the ideas expressed therein. One specific legal issue will be addressed below. Another reason that makes the *Mustaṣfā* a good source for us to consult is that it lent itself to the layman. Evidence suggests that the *Mustaṣfā* was considered an elementary, rather than sophisticated, piece of legal scholarship.⁹⁸

Al-Ghazālī speaks in the preface to his *Mustaṣfā* of three disciplinary categories: (1) the purely rational (‘*aqlī maḥḍ*’), like arithmetic, geometry and astronomy; (2) the purely traditional (or transmission-based, *naqlī maḥḍ*), like *ḥadīth* and *tafsīr* ‘Qur’ānic commentary’; and (3) the one in which reason and tradition are combined (*mā izdawaja fīhi al-‘aql wa-l-sam‘*), like legal theory.⁹⁹ It is not clear where stylistics and literary theory (though non-existent at this point as a consolidated discipline) would fit in this scheme, but what is clear is this: the traditional sciences do not fare well. Engaging in the traditional sciences is (more) commonplace, says al-Ghazālī,

⁹⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 88 ff; cf. *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 28-29. For al-Ghazālī, *majāz* was more narrowly a designation of various types of metonymies and dead metaphors.

⁹⁷ This has been corroborated to me by Frank Griffel in a personal communication during the 222nd meeting of the American Oriental Society in Boston, March 16-19, 2012.

⁹⁸ This is based on a remark Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī made to students he encountered at Tūs, “You are wasting your lives reading *Kitāb al-Mustaṣfā*,” along with other criticisms he raised in his *Munāẓarāt*. See Robert Wisnovsky, “Towards a Genealogy of Avicennism,” *Oriens* 42 (2014), 323-63, here: 333 fn. 15.

⁹⁹ *Al-Mustaṣfā* 1: 3-4. For a thorough account see Treiger, “Al-Ghazālī’s Classification of the Sciences,” 17-22.

since the young and the old have equal footing in it as memorization suffices for their attainment; there is no role for the mind/reason in them. Engaging in the rational sciences, on the other hand, may lead to reward in the afterlife. But as may be expected, the noblest type of science is the one that combines the rational with the traditional, like *uṣūl al-fiqh*.¹⁰⁰ Given this account, it would seem that anyone familiar with this ‘model’ intending to anchor the subject matter he is writing on in ‘disciplinary’ terms would choose the more rational strain over the traditional one. I believe that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s analogies of *‘ilm al-bayān* to logic and especially to legal theory corroborate this view.

Al-Ghazālī did not conceive of legal theory primarily as a method to derive new legal rulings, as we have seen above. Rather, the denotation of the science called *uṣūl al-fiqh* according to al-Ghazālī’s prefatory remarks is the knowledge of establishing the evidence-sources of the law, the conditions of their soundness and the ways in which they demonstrate – so we assume – *existing* legal rulings (*wa-wujūh dalālatihā ‘alā l-aḥkām*).¹⁰¹ As we have seen, this is what Wael Hallaq referred to as “the justification and ‘re-enactment’ of the processes of legal reasoning behind existing rules.”¹⁰² Nevertheless, al-Ghazālī also pays attention to new legal rulings via his treatment of the *mujtahid* (see below), and to a non-specialist like Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, the gist of the science was to create new legal rulings. This is facilitated by the way al-Ghazālī expounds on the meaning of *uṣūl al-fiqh* in terms derived from the root *th.m.r* ‘to bear

¹⁰⁰ *Al-Mustasfā* 1: 3-4. Later al-Ghazālī provides a two-fold classification, rational (*‘aqliyya*) and religious (*dīniyya*), and legal theory is placed within the latter. It seems that this opposition has a more ‘ontological’ nature, as al-Ghazālī focuses on the difference between *uṣūl* and *kalām* ‘speculative theology’ from an ontological perspective (ibid. 1: 12-17). According to Louis Gardet, al-Ghazālī used the opposition *al-‘ulūm al-‘aqliyya-al-‘ulūm al-shar‘iyya wa-l-dīniyya* “freely” (“‘Aḳliyyāt,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*). For a more nuanced account of al-Ghazālī’s views on the ranking of the sciences see Treiger, “Al-Ghazālī’s Classification of the Sciences.”

¹⁰¹ *Al-Mustasfā* 1: 11.

¹⁰² Hallaq, *A History of Islamic Legal Theories*, 1-2, and above.

fruit'.¹⁰³ In al-Ghazālī's scheme, the first principle of *uṣūl al-fiqh* addresses the *aḥkām*, usually in the more specific sense of 'legal qualifications/statuses' that are assigned to certain acts (traditionally five: obligatory, recommended, indifferent, reprehensible, forbidden). Al-Ghazālī refers to the *aḥkām* as *al-thamara* 'fruit' or *al-thamara al-maṭlūba* 'the sought-after fruit'.¹⁰⁴ The second principle is the evidence for the law (*adilla*), or the prooftext, referred to as *al-muthmir* 'the one[s] bearing fruit'; that is, the Qur'ān, *ḥadīth* and *ijmā'*.¹⁰⁵ The third principle is the method of extracting the evidence (*wujūh dalālat al-adilla*) or *al-istithmār* 'extracting fruit'. The fourth concerns the one deriving [new] legal rulings (*mujtahid*) or *al-mustathmir* 'the one extracting the fruit'. The *mustathmir* is countered with the *muqallid* 'imitator [i.e., one not deriving new legal rulings]'.¹⁰⁶ The book is divided into four large sections called *aqtāb* 'poles', each devoted to the four principles discussed.¹⁰⁷ The section on *aḥkām* gives the impression that it is the existing rulings that are the topic of interest, but because it is couched in terms of 'fruit' and the process of its 'production' (the 'extraction', the one 'extracting', etc.), it is plain to see how this could be understood as something 'new'. As a side-note we may add that al-Ghazālī's use of *istithmār* reminds us of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's discussion of *istikhrāj*, the extraction or derivation of fresh images and ideas (*ma'ānī*) from existing ones.¹⁰⁸ It so happens that the vast majority of examples of invented images (*ma'ānī mukhtara'a* or *mubtada'a*) that are said to be 'extracted'

¹⁰³ The following is based on *al-Mustasfā* 1: 18-25. I am not claiming al-Ghazālī was the first or only scholar to do so; in fact, my aim is not to make any claims about *uṣūl al-fiqh*. Rather, I am interested in looking at the discipline the way Ḍiyā' al-Dīn and other non-specialists would have.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid. 1: 19, 176 ff. This section also deals with the *ḥākim* 'ruler' (God), the ruled (or non-ruled, like the young or incompetent), the sphere of things ruled upon (actions not essences), and more.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid. 1: 22-23, and vol. 2. *Ijmā'* refers to the unanimous agreement among religious authorities regarding a ruling.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid. 1: 25, vol. 3 (for *istithmār*), vol. 4 (for *al-mustathmir*).

¹⁰⁷ Incidentally or not, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn structures his *Jāmi'* around two large sections, called *aqtāb*.

¹⁰⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 3-69. We will discuss some aspects of this topic in Part Two.

illustrate extraction from one of the legal *adilla*, namely, *ḥadīth*.¹⁰⁹

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn seems to have been influenced by specific legal notions as well, a fact which in turn reinforces our contention that his disciplinary vision for *'ilm al-bayān* was inspired, directly or indirectly, by al-Ghazālī. Evidence of legal thinking associated with al-Ghazālī surfaces in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's presentation of eloquence (specifically acoustic eloquence, *faṣāḥa*) as a relational notion (*amr idāfi*) rather than an absolute one.¹¹⁰ This is an opinion he espouses in the *Jāmi'* and later forsakes entirely in the *Mathal*.¹¹¹ Al-Ghazālī famously refuted the Mu'tazilī notion that human acts can be described as good (*ḥasan*) or bad (*qabīḥ*) in and of themselves, that is, that there is something inherent (*wasf dhātī*) to the act determining its moral quality.¹¹² Al-Ghazālī rather proposed the idea of *ḥusn* and *qubḥ* being two relational notions (*amrān idāfiyyān*), as opposed to, say, the quality of blackness and whiteness.¹¹³ In the *Jāmi'* Ḍiyā' al-Dīn uses surprisingly identical terms to describe the quality of lexical-acoustic eloquence as a relational notion. In this he is refuting the words of his predecessor, Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī (d. 466/1074), who by presenting the “conditions” of single-word eloquence essentially formulated it as an objective property that can be attained. (Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is also following a line of thought

¹⁰⁹ For derivations of *istikhrāj* (*mustakhrāj*, *istakhrājtu*, etc.) see *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 8, 18-19, 20, 35-36, 43-44, 55-56. In the last of these (p. 56) he lays out his method of *istikhrāj* from the Qur'ān and *ḥadīth*, but in his actual examples, the *istikhrāj* is primarily from *ḥadīth*. Sometimes *mustanbaṭ* is used (2: 33). The idea of image extraction is not elaborated upon in the *Jāmi'*; much of the corresponding chapter there on *ma'ānī* was incorporated into the last section of the *ma'ānī* discussion in the *Mathal* (*al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 68-72, *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 63 ff).

¹¹⁰ *Al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 77-79. *Faṣāḥa* refers here to the acoustic and lexical aspect of eloquence (*faṣāḥa*) rather than the more semantic one (*balāgha*) (ibid., 79-81). Another example of engagement with legal thinking comes up when Ḍiyā' al-Dīn compares what he calls *al-tarjīḥ bayna l-ma'ānī / tarjīḥ bayānī* with the *tarjīḥ fiqhī* (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 86-96, including “what the lawyers call *mafhūm al-khiṭāb*”), a discussion that is later scathingly criticized by Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd as being entirely useless and wrong (vol. 4 of *al-Mathal al-sā'ir*, 72-76).

¹¹¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 218-24, esp. 222.

¹¹² *Al-Mustasfā* 1: 178-94, esp. 180-82.

¹¹³ Ibid. 1: 181; also *awṣāf idāfiyya*, 1: 182-83.

expressed by al-Jurjānī; see Part Two.) Ḍiyā' al-Dīn relates as follows:

wa-‘lam ayḍan anna l-faṣāḥata amrun iḍāfiyyun ka-l-ḥusni wa-l-qubḥi wa-l-kalāmu l-faṣīḥu laysa kalāman makhṣūṣan bi-‘aynihi bal kullu man fahima kalāman wa-‘arafahu fa-huwa faṣīḥun bi-l-nisbati ilayhi li-annahū zāhirun ‘indahū wa-wāḍiḥun ladayhi wa-mimmā yuqawwī hādhā l-qawla anna l-laḥẓa -lladhī lā na‘udduhu naḥnu fī zamāninā hādhā faṣīḥan wa-nakraḥuhu li-‘adami -sti‘mālihi wa-gharābatihī kāna ‘inda man taqaddamanā min arbābi l-ta’līfi musta‘malan fī zamānihim muta‘ārafan mushtahiran [...] wa-lawi -stu‘mila fī zamāninā hādhā la-stunkira wa-stubshi‘a wa-ḥukima ‘alā qā’ilihi bi-l-jahli wa-l-ta’assuf

Know also that [lexical-acoustic] eloquence is a relational notion like goodness [or: beauty] and badness [or: ugliness], for eloquent speech is not endowed [with qualities] in and of itself. Rather, anyone who understands a certain speech and approves of it, then it is eloquent in his view [lit. in ‘relation’ to him] because it is evident and clear for him. What strengthens this opinion is that words that we ourselves do not consider as eloquent in this day of ours and dislike due to their lack of usage and rareness – used to be in use, common and widespread during the time of the masters of composition who came before us [in their speech]. If it [such speech] were used in this day of ours it would be loathed and found repugnant, and its speaker would be deemed ignorant and deviating.¹¹⁴

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn abandons this view later on, probably in an attempt to implicitly refute the view held by al-Jurjānī, according to which eloquence has not to do with the single word. But since the terminology of a relational notion is not found in the work of al-Khafājī or al-Jurjānī, it attests to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's awareness of some peripheral legal thinking.

1.2. al-a'imma al-mashhūrīna fīhi: The Discipline has a Canon

So far we have dealt with Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's effort – almost forced effort – to establish a disciplinary framework to a science called *‘ilm al-bayān*. I claim that by doing this he presented a consolidated notion of the field of stylistics and literary theory, one that was absent up until his

¹¹⁴ *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 77.

time. In fact, that such a notion was absent during the classical ‘Abbāsīd era is one of Wen-chin Ouyang’s conclusions in her work on ‘classical’ Arabic literary criticism (third/ninth to fifth/eleventh century).¹¹⁵ To borrow her words, what Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn did was exactly to provide “a cohesive vision of its [the field’s] function”¹¹⁶ by assigning it a rational status and aiming it at a practical purpose, namely the production of literary speech. But a unified vision of the discipline is not the only feature that Ouyang speaks of that was lacking in the early period. According to her, a second feature absent from the critical tradition was “a shared definition of an authoritative specialist.” The reason for this lay in the conflicting interests of different specialists engaging in the literary-critical endeavor: the transmitters and collectors of poetry, the religious scholars studying *i’jāz* (the inimitability of the Qur’ān), the secretaries (*kuttāb*) and the modern poets.¹¹⁷ She sees the absence of these two features at the basis of the unsuccessful attempt “to establish poetic criticism as an independent and integral discipline of learning.”¹¹⁸ In this section we will look at the second feature Ouyang recounts, namely, the establishment of an authority (or authorities), or what I shall also refer to as the establishment of a canon in the field.

After his brief declaration of the status of *‘ilm al-bayān* in the *Mathal*, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn goes on to provide a ‘canon’ of-sorts for this science (*fīhi*, referring to *‘ilm al-bayān*). The canon

¹¹⁵ Ouyang, *Literary Criticism*, esp. 204-209. One should keep in mind that she is looking especially into poetic criticism (*‘ilm al-shi’r*, *al-‘ilm bi-l-shi’r* and *naqd al-shi’r*) and not into general stylistics and literary theory. Thus, works on the stylistics of the Qur’ān, for instance, are not part of her purview. Nevertheless, I think her conclusions hold for the larger tradition of literary theory and criticism as well. What is more, her insights on what makes a scholarly tradition a coherent tradition are very useful for our purposes.

¹¹⁶ *Ibid.*, 207.

¹¹⁷ *Ibid.* This will be discussed in more detail below. For historical and thematic accounts on the development of the literary-critical tradition see Heinrichs, “*Naqd*”; van Gelder’s introduction (“Exordium”) to *Beyond the Line*, 1-14; Thomas Bauer, “Arabische Kultur,” in Gert Ueding (ed.), *Rhetorik: Begriff, Geschichte, Internationalität*, Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, 2005, 283-300, esp. 285-91. The latter’s contribution lies mainly in treating the Standard Theory; for the early period he seems to rely heavily on Heinrichs’ *Naqd* entry (or *idem*, “Poetik”) without recognition.

¹¹⁸ Ouyang, *Literary Criticism*, 207.

comprises two works: *Kitāb al-Muwāzana* by Abū al-Qāsim al-Ḥasan b. Bishr al-Āmidī (d. 371/981) and *Sirr al-faṣāḥa* by Abū Muḥammad ‘Abdallāh b. Sinān al-Khafājī (d. 466/1074).¹¹⁹ This would be a noteworthy endorsement on the part of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, considering that his canon was downsized from seven works in the *Jāmi’* to two in the *Mathal*, were it not for the fact that one of these – al-Khafājī’s work – is scathingly criticized at the outset.¹²⁰ Although al-Āmidī’s *Muwāzana* is generally lauded, one cannot escape the conclusion that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is trying to establish himself as the only real authority in ‘ilm al-bayān (perhaps as one would expect in a preface). But Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn gives us more evidence to strengthen this conclusion by presenting an approach to what we may call ‘scientific *salafism*’ in literary theory. This approach consists of identifying and defining literary devices (*ḍurūb* lit. ‘types/categories’ of ‘ilm al-bayān¹²¹) from the primary sources to the apparent exclusion of intervening ‘middle-men’:

wa-kuntu ‘athartu ‘alā ḍurūbin minhu fī ghuḍūni l-Qur’āni l-karīmi wa-lam ajid aḥadan mimman taqaddamanī ta’arraḍa li-dhikri shay’in minhā

[...] *wa-hadānī -llāhu li-btidā’i ašyā’a lam takun min qablī muḥtada ‘atan wa-manaḥanī darajata l-ijtihādi -llatī lā takūnu aqwāluhā tābi ‘atan wa-innamā hiya muttaba ‘atun*

I had discovered categories of it (‘ilm al-bayān) within the noble Qur’ān and did not see anyone of those who preceded me make mention of any of them.

[...] God guided me to the invention of things that were not before me invented and granted me a level of creative individual judgment (*ijtihād*) whose opinions do not

¹¹⁹ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 35-36. He prefaces his endorsement with the words *wa-lam ajid mā yuntafa’u bihi fī dhālika illā* [...] “The only beneficial [works] in that [‘ilm al-bayān] are [...]”

¹²⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 36. He claims that al-Khafājī paid too much attention to the discussion of sounds (*aṣwāt*, from an ontological point of view) and phonemes (*ḥurūf*), as well as properties of the single word (*al-laḥẓa al-mufrada*). It is this latter criticism that ignited Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s advancement of the idea of lexical-acoustic eloquence being a relational notion.

¹²¹ *ḍurūb kathīra minhu; al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 37. The suffixed pronoun *-hu* refers back to ‘ilm al-bayān appearing on p. 35 (and see editors’ fn. 1 on p. 37).

‘follow’ but are rather ‘followed’.¹²²

The primary text Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn speaks of in this approach is the Qur’ān; technically, early poetry would fall into this category as well. We might remark that *ijtihād* was a proverbial mark of Shāfi’ism, or at least that Shāfi’ī scholars had a reputation for avoiding *taqlīd* in their methodology of legal studies.¹²³ I cannot say whether Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s own Shāfi’ī affiliation has anything to do with his expressed method, but we increasingly find these type of pronouncements in later works of literary theory as well. In the *Jāmi’* Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn gives a more detailed account of his method, which we shall come back to later.

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not ignore earlier scholarly sources. He remarks that in addition to the categories he singlehandedly extracted, he supplanted other categories recorded in the early works (*ḍurūb ukhar mudawwana fī al-kutub al-mutaqaddima*).¹²⁴ But as we have seen, besides al-Āmidī’s and al-Khafājī’s works, we do not know – at least at the outset – which works would fall into this category. A more clearly defined ‘canon’ in the field of *‘ilm al-bayān* can be found in his early work, the *Jāmi’*. There he invokes a list of five additional “famous masters in it [the discipline of *‘ilm al-bayān*]” (*al-a’imma al-mashhūrīna fīhi*) and unnamed “others” whose works will be cited in his book.¹²⁵ The masters enumerated are (only names, no citation of works) Abū al-Ḥasan ‘Alī b. ‘Īsā al-Rummānī (d. 384/994), Abū ‘Uthmān al-Jāḥiẓ (d. 255/868 or 9), Qudāma b. Ja‘far al-Kātib (d. ca. 337/948), Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī (d. after 400/1010) and Abū al-‘Alā’

¹²² Ibid. 1: 37.

¹²³ Ahmed El Shamsy, “Rethinking *Taqlīd* in the Early Shāfi’ī School,” *Journal of the American Oriental Society* 128.1 (2008), 1-23, esp. 7, 11-12.

¹²⁴ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 37.

¹²⁵ *Al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr*, 2-3. To refer to these scholars he also uses *‘ulamā’* and *arbāb*.

Muḥammad b. Ghānim, known as al-Ghānimī (*fl.* 5th/11th century).¹²⁶

The works of these scholars, in addition to al-Āmidī's and al-Khafājī's, represent the wide range of what we may call the early *naqd* works.¹²⁷ Al-Rummānī and his *al-Nukat fī i'jāz al-Qur'ān*¹²⁸ would represent the more exegetical strand of literary theory and the occupation with the inimitable character of the Qur'ān. Abū Hilāl al-ʿAskarī mentions the knowledge of *i'jāz* as one of the main goals of his work *Kitāb al-Ṣināʿatayn*, but he undoubtedly represents a more poetical strand of literary theory occupied with the 'modern style' of poetry known as *badīʿ*.¹²⁹ The works of Qudāma b. Jaʿfar and al-Khafājī, *Naqd al-shiʿr* and *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, may reflect the imprint of logical thinking, or at least the attempt to structure the discussions of literary theory along logical lines (ontological in the case of al-Khafājī, beginning with the single sound and working his way up to conceptual thinking). More notably, they reflect the occupation of the *kuttāb* with literary theory.¹³⁰ Al-Āmidī too was a secretary, as well as an accomplished poet and trained grammarian, and his work *al-Muwāzana bayna shiʿr Abī Tammām wa-l-Buḥturī* best represents 'applied criticism'.¹³¹ His classicizing preferences perhaps also align him with the 'philological' strand of literary theory concerned with collecting and commenting on ancient

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ And see Heinrichs, "Naqd"; *idem*, "Literary Theory: The Problem of its Efficiency," in G.E. von Grunebaum (ed.), *Arabic Poetry: Theory and Development*, Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 1973, 19-69, here: 21-22, 28-32.

¹²⁸ In what follows we are assuming which works of the mentioned 'masters' Ḍiyāʿ al-Dīn was familiar with. In the case of al-Rummānī, it may well be the case that the main work he had in mind is the now lost *Kitāb al-Bayān* (!); see Heinrichs, "Literary Theory," 28 fn. 44 (citing Brockelmann).

¹²⁹ Abū Hilāl al-ʿAskarī, *Kitāb al-Ṣināʿatayn al-kitāba wa-l-shiʿr*, eds. ʿAlī Muḥammad al-Bajāwī and Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm, [Cairo]: ʿIsā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, [1971], 7 (English: 'The Book of the Two Crafts: Scribal Arts and Poetry'); Heinrichs, "Naqd," under "The influence of the Qur'ānic discourse"; *idem*, "Literary Theory," 31, within the context of the strand of the new poets. By 'new' and 'modern' we mean, of course, the 'Abbāsīd poets.

¹³⁰ Heinrichs, "Literary Theory," 31; *idem*, "Naqd," under "The real founders of *naqd*: the secretaries" and "Further systematical research."

¹³¹ Heinrichs, "Literary Theory," 31; *idem*, "Naqd," under "The controversy around Abū Tammām."

poetry.¹³² Al-Jāhiz's *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* could reflect a pre-systematic stage of literary theory – it contains a plethora of material that would later find its way into the classical *naqd* works – but admittedly, is more appropriately part of the *adab* tradition (and according to some, Mu'tazilī philosophy).¹³³ This leaves us with the otherwise unknown al-Ghānimī whose work appears to be non-extant.¹³⁴

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn back-projects *'ilm al-bayān* as the common heading to the endeavor of the scholars he cites despite the fact that such a heading was lacking. To be sure, the literary-critical topics analyzed in these books did indeed overlap but were never recognized as an agreed-upon scientific genre. If we look at the headings they themselves used, Al-Āmidī's 'genre' would probably best be defined as *shi'r* or *ṣinā'at al-shi'r* (sometimes: *al-'ilm bi-l-shi'r*): poetry.¹³⁵

¹³² Heinrichs, "Literary Theory," 30. Al-Āmidī did not collect poetry and is not enumerated as part of the philological strand, which is the earliest and 'rawest' expression of literary theory. But in his lack of predilection for the *badī'* style he definitely stands out among the other 'masters' mentioned by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn. Interestingly, according to al-Āmidī (Heinrichs, "Naqd," under "The controversy around Abū Tammām") the adherents of the 'ancient' style are the secretaries, Bedouins and 'natural' poets, whereas the adherents of the 'modern' style are the mannerist and philosophizing poets as well as 'the people of conceits' (*ahl al-ma'ānī*). This does not reflect the bulk of literary-theoretical thinking, even during the classical 'Abbāsīd era, as is seen – first and foremost – by the *badī'* predilection of the secretary and poet (and one-day caliph) Ibn al-Mu'tazz.

¹³³ For details see Chapter 3.

¹³⁴ Brockelmann, Sezgin, Zirikī and Kaḥḥāla do not contain information on al-Ghānimī in their monumental reference works. A later "Ibn Ghānim" (d. after 1258) is mentioned by Brockelmann (as well as Zirikī and Kaḥḥāla); see Carl Brockelmann, *Geschichte der arabischen Litteratur*, 2 vols., 2nd ed., Leiden: Brill, 1943, 1949, 3 Supplemental vols., 1937-1942, Suppl. 3: 599 (henceforth *GAL*). The editors of the *Jāmi'*, however, cite information from al-Sam'ānī's (d. 562/1166) *al-Ansāb*, its *mukhtaṣar* by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's brother, 'Izz al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 630/1233) and al-Bākhārī's (d. 467/1075) *Dumyat al-Qaṣr* that provide us with the following: al-Ghānimī was a poet and an *adīb* from amongst the poets praising the Saljūq vizier Niẓām al-Mulk (d. 485/1092); he is attributed to Herāt by his *nisba* and was active in the Eastern Islamic world. No dates of birth/death are given; no work on literary theory is cited (*al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 2 fn. 5).

¹³⁵ Abū al-Qāsim al-Ḥasan b. Bishr al-Āmidī, *al-Muwāzana bayna shi'r Abī Tammām wa-l-Buḥturī*, ed. Aḥmad Ṣaqr, 2 vols., Cairo: Dār al-Ma'ārif, 1961, 1965; vol. 3 ed. 'Abd Allāh Ḥamad Muḥārib, Cairo: Maktabat al-Khānī, 1990, 1: 402-405 (English: 'The Weighing of the Poetry of Abū Tammām [reflecting 'modern' poetical diction] and al-Buḥturī [Abū Tammām's student, reflecting a 'classicizing' ancient Bedouin diction]'). In our terms the genre he is writing in could also be classified as poetic commentary, as he conducts his 'balancing', or comparison between the two poets line-by-line (or segment-by-segment), reminding us of a *dīwān* commentary. The endeavors of the poetic commentators have usually not been considered part of the literary-theoretical tradition. But as Hamori shows, because their work was only explanatory and not prescriptive they often revealed "a careful reader's perception in ways missing from the rhetoric [i.e., *naqd*] books." See Andras Hamori, "Reading al-Mutanabbī's Ode on the Siege of al-Ḥadaṭ," in Wadād al-Qaḍī (ed.), *Studia Arabica et Islamica: Festschrift for Iḥsān 'Abbās on his*

Qudāma uses the classical *naqd* heading (here: the non-metaphorical ‘assaying’, the precursor for ‘criticism’), with the assessment of poetry in mind (*al-‘ilm bi-l-shi‘r, ṣinā‘at al-shi‘r*).¹³⁶ Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī uses the heading ‘eloquence’ or ‘the knowledge of eloquence’ (*‘ilm al-balāgha wa-ma‘rifat al-faṣāḥa*) as well as ‘the craft of speech’ (*ṣan‘at al-kalām*).¹³⁷ Likewise does al-Khafājī (*faṣāḥa; ta‘līf al-kalām*), who also speaks of ‘criticism’.¹³⁸ Al-Rummānī’s work, although under the heading *i‘jāz al-Qur‘ān*, is a study of *balāgha* ‘eloquence’.¹³⁹ The one heading missing from this range – one that became common indeed – is *badī‘* (originally: ‘new [style]’), here: ‘the study of literary devices’, starting with Ibn al-Mu‘tazz (d. 296/908).¹⁴⁰ The

Sixtieth Birthday, [Beirut]: American University of Beirut, 1981, 195-206, esp. 199-200 and 203-205, here: 203. Smyth does include the genre of the commentary as part of ‘post-classical’ criticism but his treatment is very brief (“Criticism,” 412-13). While al-Āmidī’s work deals with poetry in terms of poetic themes and poetic evaluation, it does not deal with poetics in the strict sense (i.e., the process of composition) such as we find in Ibn Ṭabātabā’s (d. 322/934) *‘Iyār al-shi‘r* (‘The Criterion of Poetry’; see Heinrichs, “Naqd,” under “The real founders of *naqd*: the secretaries”).

¹³⁶ Qudāma b. Ja‘far, *Naqd al-shi‘r*, ed. S.A. Bonebakker, Leiden: Brill, 1956, 1-3 (English: ‘The Assaying of Poetry’). For the non-metaphorical meaning of *naqd* see Heinrichs, “Naqd,” introductory paragraph.

¹³⁷ *Al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 7-8, 11. Seemingly, Abū Hilāl oscillates between *balāgha* as a ‘knowledge’ and *balāgha* as a ‘science’: on one hand *‘ilm* is used synonymously with *ma‘rifat* (p. 7, twice), and on the other he speaks of that *‘ilm* in relation to other *‘ulūm*. But on second reading, the other *‘ulūm* are also used in the sense of ‘knowledges’ rather than full-fledged disciplines: Abū Hilāl says (p. 8) that the knowledge of eloquence should come before all other knowledges after “[the knowledge of] the oneness of God” and His justice. As we find later with Diyā‘ al-Dīn, Abū Hilāl claims that without this knowledge one cannot “fashion (*yaṣna*) a *qaṣīda* or compose a *risāla* ‘epistle’” (ibid.). According to Kanazi, the work is intended explicitly as a compilation of all material on *balāgha*; see George Kanazi, *Studies in the Kitāb al-Ṣinā‘atayn of Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī*, Leiden; New York: E.J. Brill, 1989, 36.

¹³⁸ *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, 3 (*faṣāḥa*), 82-84 (*ta‘līf al-kalām*), 139 (*ṣinā‘at naqd al-kalām al-mu‘allaf* “the craft of criticizing compound speech”), 5 (*ahl naqd al-kalām* “the scholars of speech criticism”).

¹³⁹ Abū al-Ḥasan ‘Alī b. ‘Īsā al-Rummānī, *al-Nukat fī i‘jāz al-Qur‘ān* in Muḥammad Khalaf Allāh and Muḥammad Zaghāl Sallām (eds.), *Thalāth rasā‘il fī i‘jāz al-Qur‘ān li-l-Rummānī wa-l-Khaṭṭābī wa-‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī*, Cairo: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, [1956?], 69-104, here: 69-70 (English: ‘Notes on the Inimitability of the Qur‘ān’). The short treatise amounts to a presentation of ten categories of *balāgha* (the last of which is *bayān*, to be discussed in §3.1).

¹⁴⁰ ‘Abd Allāh Ibn al-Mu‘tazz, *Kitāb al-Badī‘*, ed. Ignatius Kratchkovsky, London: Gibb Memorial, 1935. Later well-known examples are Usāma b. Munqidh’s (d. 584/1188) *al-Badī‘ fī naqd al-shi‘r* and Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘’s (d. 654/1256) *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr. Badī‘* as a heading is at times on par with *‘ilm al-bayān*: Ibn al-Athīr al-Ḥalabī attends to this question explicitly (see §2.3 below), and al-Zanjānī uses the heading *badī‘* in the Islamic East (see Part Two, §4.3).

heading *‘ilm al-bayān* was not, or was little known, and perhaps al-Ghānimī used it.¹⁴¹ Shawqī Dayf thinks the term *‘ilm al-bayān* was coined by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, the word *bayān* itself borrowed from al-Jāhiz.¹⁴² But if the combination of *‘ilm* with *bayān* was new, we do not believe Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn would have missed the opportunity to tell us so. What *was* new was the combination of giving *‘ilm al-bayān* a ‘scientific’ disciplinary framework and assigning it a canon of previous non-*‘ilm-al-bayān* works.

One might ask at this point why the list of previous authorities “in the field” shrunk from seven in the *Jāmi’* to two in the *Mathal*. While professional reasons concerning the merit and relevance of the five omitted works could be cited, I am not convinced that such motives stood at the basis of this decision, especially because the omitted works are copiously referred to (or incorporated without acknowledgement) throughout the *Mathal*. What it may have more to do with is, again, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s attempt to establish himself as the only true authority in the field – and if not himself, then scholars in his locale. Proving this argument may be impossible, but the following could be presented as evidence for a very well-educated guess. Heinrichs alluded to this local patriotism when he observed Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s “aesthetic preference for Syrian poetry of the ‘neo-classical’ kind.”¹⁴³

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was a man of the Jazīra,¹⁴⁴ roughly the area covering northwestern Iraq,

¹⁴¹ Previous scholars like al-Zamakhsharī (d. 538/1144) and al-Rāzī (d. 606/1209) did use the heading *‘ilm al-bayān* following ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī, but according to Abu Deeb, the latter “does not [...] use these phrases [*‘ilm al-ma’ānī* and *‘ilm al-bayān*] as technical terms [...]” (K. Abu Deeb, “al-Ḍjurdjānī,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition* [Supplement]). Al-Zamakhsharī used *‘ilm al-bayān* in an ambiguous technical sense, and with al-Rāzī we seem to have a non-technical use, following al-Jurjānī. For discussion see §3.2.

¹⁴² Shawqī Dayf, *al-Balāgha*, 317, 324. For Dayf (and other scholars East and West) *bayān* is understood simply as a synonym for *balāgha*, *‘ilm al-bayān* as a synonym for eloquence studies.

¹⁴³ Heinrichs, “Ibn al-Athīr,” 315, and §4.1 for details.

¹⁴⁴ And not just because of his *nisba* “*al-Jazarī*” (which refers to his place of birth). For his biography see §4.1.

northeastern Syria and southeastern Turkey. Born in Jazīrat Ibn ‘Umar – present day Cizre in southeastern Turkey – the locale Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was most probably associated with is Mosul in northwestern Iraq. His father was a prominent Mosuli statesman and was assigned to Cizre where he moved with his family. But it was only his early education that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn received in Cizre, later moving back to Mosul and continuing the bulk of his education there. He did serve shortly under Saladin in Egypt during his early adulthood, but nearly all of his later posts as Ayyūbid and Zangid vizier/senior secretary were in modern-day Syria, northern Iraq and southern Turkey: Damascus, Aleppo and Salkhad (Şarkhad) in Syria; Irbil, Sinjar and Mosul in Iraq; Samsat (Sumaysāt) in Turkey. He died while on mission from the governor of Mosul to the capital Baghdad. The only locale in which he was said to have “settled” is Mosul.¹⁴⁵ “Iraqi” would not fit his affiliation – this by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s own account in the *Mathal* – as we find “Iraqis,” and specifically Baghdadis, singled out and disparaged as scholars.¹⁴⁶ This may be a

¹⁴⁵ Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt* 5: 389-397, esp. 390-91, 396. The order of his locations was: Cizre, Mosul, Cairo, Damascus, Mosul, Cairo, Salkhad, Samsat, Aleppo, Mosul, Irbil, Sinjar, and finally, again, Mosul (*Wafayāt* 5: 390-91 and C. Cahen, “La Correspondance de Ḍiyā [sic] ad-Dīn ibn al-Athīr: Liste de lettres et textes de diplômes,” *Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies* 14.1 [1952], 34-43). It is with regards to this last move to Mosul that Ibn Khallikān says that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn took it as his home and settled (*wa-ttakhadhahā dāra iqāmatihī wa-staqarra*; *Wafayāt* 5: 391). The information about his death in Baghdad Ibn Khallikān derives from Ibn al-Mustawfi’s (d. 637/1239) *Tārīkh Irbil*, seemingly from a volume that has not survived. A more exact date of death, according to Ibn Khallikān, was taken from Ibn al-Najjār al-Baghdādī’s (d. 643/1245) [*Dhayl*] *Tārīkh Baghdād*, from a volume which, too, has not survived. Notably, all later biographies of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn are closely derived from the *Wafayāt*. See Part Two, §4.1.

¹⁴⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 59, referring to Ibn Aflah al-Baghdādī’s *Muqaddima* which “the Iraqis pay [much] attention to, praise and eagerly apply themselves to (or: prostrate upon)” (*wa-li-l-irāqiyyīna bihā* [referring the book’s deliberations on eloquence] *ināyatun wa-hum wāsiḏūna lahā wa-mukibbūna ‘alayhā*). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn obviously excludes himself from the “Iraqis.” He then goes on to sharply criticize the quality of the work as a whole as being purely based on example, not explanation (e.g., “*faṣāḥa* is like so-and-so’s saying [...]”), followed by more specific criticism regarding Ibn al-Aflah’s notion of newly-formed images (*al-ma’ānī al-mubtada’a*); *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 59-63. On Ibn Aflah and his work see Geert Jan van Gelder, *Two Arabic Treatises on Stylistics: al-Marghīnānī’s al-Maḥāsīn fī ‘l-naẓm wa-‘l-nathr, and Ibn Aflah’s Muqaddima, formerly ascribed to al-Marghīnānī*, Istanbul: Nederlands Historisch-Archaeologisch Instituut te Istanbul, 1987, 10-14, 26-41. (The recent edition, entitled *al-Badī’*, ed. Ibrāhīm Šāliḥ, Abu Dhabi: Dār al-Kutub al-Waṭaniyya, 2009, is unavailable to me.) For other denigrating references to “Iraqis” or “one of the Iraqis” see *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 69, 129 (but compare 3: 108, 215 where he offers praise). He also refers dismissively (*al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 29) to the well-known *Tadhkira* of Ibn Ḥamdūn “the Baghdadi” (d. 562/1167) – a scholar who did not go by the *nisba* “*al-Baghdādī*”! See F. Rosenthal, “Ibn Ḥamdūn,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*.

sign of capital-periphery rivalry, similar to the better-known rivalry with Egypt and its most notable epistolographer, al-Qāḍī al-Fāḍil (d. 596/1200) – albeit one should keep in mind that by this point Baghdad had probably long lost its central prestige.¹⁴⁷

Of all the “famous masters in it [*‘ilm al-bayān*]” mentioned in the *Jāmi‘*, only two are associated with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s locale, the two that made it into the *Mathal*.¹⁴⁸ Beginning with Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī, one could find it perplexing that the work is so heavily criticized at the outset: why, then, would Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn endorse it in the first place as one of the two only books “beneficial in it [*‘ilm al-bayān*]”?¹⁴⁹ The fifth/eleventh-century Ibn Sinān was a northern Syrian scholar and senior statesman, as well as a poet, born into a noble family in the province of Aleppo. He was the student of another famous Syrian, the poet Abū ‘Alā’ al-Ma‘arrī (d. 449/1057), whom he often mentions in his *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*.¹⁵⁰ This strong geographic affinity with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s locale could explain how Ibn Sinān’s work made it into the *Mathal*’s preface. With Abū al-Qāsim al-Āmidī we have a different story. His work is highly praised by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn at the outset (with no reservations), and Āmid – or Diarbakir, as it is currently known – is also located in the Jazīra area, in present day southern Turkey. The only caveat is that besides his namesake “al-Āmidī”, Abū al-Qāsim had no actual affiliation with Āmid! Born in Basra, he

¹⁴⁷ On the rivalry with al-Qāḍī al-Fāḍil see Heinrichs, “Ibn al-Athīr,” 315, who describes this as “friendly competition”; also: Muhsin al-Musawī, “Pre-Modern Belletristic Prose,” in Roger Allen and D.S. Richards (eds.), *Arabic Literature in the Post-Classical Period*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008, 101-33, here: 102, 106. As we shall see (§4.1), al-Qāḍī al-Fāḍil was a mentor for Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn (by the latter’s own account). On Baghdad’s decline in prestige see Michael Cooperson, “Baghdad in Rhetoric and Narrative,” *Muqarnas* 13 (1996), 99-113, here: 99, quoted in Elias Muhanna, *Encyclopaedism in the Mamluk Period: The Composition of Shihāb al-Dīn al-Nuwayrī’s (d. 1333) Nihāyat al-Arab fī Funūn al-Adab*, PhD Dissertation, Harvard University, 2012, 43.

¹⁴⁸ Qudāma and al-Rummānī lived and worked in Baghdad; al-Jāhīz in Basra and Baghdad; Abū Hilāl probably in Baghdad and Esfahan; al-Ghānimī in the Eastern Islamic world (*al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 2 fn. 5). For the first four see *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition, qq.v.*

¹⁴⁹ *fī dhālika*; *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 35, and above.

¹⁵⁰ Al-Ṣa’īdī’s introduction to *Sirr al-faṣāḥa, jīm-dāl*; Heinrichs, “Naḳd,” under “Further systematical research.” For references to his *shaykh* see, e.g., *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, 61, 80, 128.

received much of his education in Baghdad and was associated with philologists and *kuttāb* there.¹⁵¹ Being further removed in time from Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's lifetime than Ibn Sinān was, it could be the case that the life of the fourth/tenth century Abū al-Qāsim was less-known to him. But one cannot know for sure.

Besides the Jazīrite endorsement in the preface of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's later work and the mild hints of local patriotism in the work itself,¹⁵² we have the slightly later perspective of the Baghdadi Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd (d. 655 or 6/1257 or 8). By the latter's own account, he read the *Mathal* while busy with his chancery duties in the beginning of Dhū al-Ḥijja 633/August 1236 and wrote a 'refutation' – or rather, a work pointing out argumentativeness, cantankerousness, self-boasting and belittling of past scholars in the *Mathal* – within a fortnight.¹⁵³ This ignited a tradition of 'refutations' and 'counter-refutations' on the *Mathal*; again, not so much containing essential arguments but rather more nitpicking of usually-minor points, and finding fault in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's own oeuvre which he cited as exemplary *shawāhid*. What is interesting in Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd's account is that at one point he aims his words directly at the author of the *Mathal* and at the leaders (*ru'asā'*, *akābir*) of his town, and Mosulites in general. Because it strengthens our hypothesis that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn fashioned his 'canon' of *'ilm al-bayān* along locality lines, the following (highly stylized) passage from the preface of Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd's work merits quotation

¹⁵¹ Wolfhart P. Heinrichs, "al-Āmidī, Abū l-Qāsim," *Encyclopaedia of Islam, Three*.

¹⁵² See the references to the "Iraqis" above, fn. 146.

¹⁵³ *Al-Falak al-dā'ir 'alā al-Mathal al-sā'ir* in volume 4 of al-Ḥūfī and Ṭabāna (eds.), *al-Mathal al-sā'ir*, 31-310, here: 31-35 (English: 'The Revolving Sphere Crushing *The Talk of the Town*' [Heinrichs' translation in "Ibn al-Athīr," 315]). This is three years before Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's death. Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd recognizes Ḍiyā' al-Dīn as "*al-Mawṣilī*" but gets his name a bit off: *Naṣīr al-Dīn* [instead of Naṣr Allāh Ḍiyā' al-Dīn] b. *Muḥammad al-Mawṣilī al-ma'rūf bi-Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazīra* [sic] (*al-Falak al-dā'ir*, 31-32). Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd does offer some praise for the *Mathal*: its style (*inshā'uhu wa-ṣinā'atuhu*; p. 32). For a brief biography of his life see editors' introduction in *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 4: 15-16. Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd directs criticism against the *Mathal* also in his more famous work, *Sharḥ Nahj al-balāgha*, a commentary on the Shī'ī collection of sermons, narrations etc. attributed to 'Alī. It is apparent that in this later work he devoted more thought to his criticism against some of the claims made by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, and not just against his haughtiness (probably owing to the fact that he spent more than fifteen days to write the *Sharḥ!*).

in full:¹⁵⁴

wa-minhā anna jamā‘atan min akābiri l-mawṣili qad ḥasuna ḡannuhum fī hādhā l-kitābi jiddan wa-ta‘aṣṣabū lahu ḥattā faḡḡalūhu ‘alā akthari l-kutubi l-muṣannaḡati fī hādhā l-fanni wa-awṣalū minhu nusakhan ma‘dūdatan ilā madīnati l-salāmi wa-ashā‘ūhu wa-tadāwalahu kathīrun min ahlihā

fa-‘taradtu ‘alayhi bi-hādhā l-kitābi wa-taqarrabtu bihi ilā l-khizānati l-sharīḡati l-muḡaddasati l-nabawīyyati l-imāmiyyati l-mustanṣiriyyati ‘amara -llāhu ta‘ālā bi-‘imāratihā andiyata l-faḡḡli wa-ribā‘ahu / wa-aḡāla bi-ḡūli baḡā‘i mālikihā yada l-‘ilmi wa-bā‘ahu / wa-ja‘ala malā‘ikata l-samā‘i anṣārahu wa-ashyā‘ahu / kamā ja‘ala mulūka l-arḡi a‘wānahu wa-atbā‘ahu

wa-kāna aktharu qaṣḡdī fī dhālika an ya‘lama muṣannīfu hādhā l-kitābi wa-ru‘asā‘u baldatihi anna min aṣāḡhiri khawali hādhīhi l-dawlati l-sharīḡati – fa-l-‘ujbu mubīrun wa-lā unbi‘u ‘annī fa-mithlī kathīrun – man idhā alghaza adrā / wa-idhā ḡaraba afrā / wa-idhā rashaqa aṣmā / wa-idhā naka‘a admā / wa-anna dāra l-salāmi wa-ḡaḡrata l-imāmi mā khalat kamā taz‘umu l-mawāṣilatu mimman idhā sūbiqa khallā / wa-idhā būsira fāza bi-l-ḡidḡi l-mu‘allā / wa-idhā khaḡaba khaḡa‘at li-barā‘atihi l-manāṣil / wa-idhā kataba saḡadat li-barā‘atihi l-dhawābil / wa-idhā shā‘a ‘allama l-nāsa l-siḡra wa-mā unzila ‘alā l-malakayni bi-bābil / wa-anna fī l-aghḡāli l-maḡhmūrīna min ra‘āyāhā man law hadara la-ḡarrat lahu l-shaḡāshiq / wa-law naḡaqa la-tajallat bi-shumūsīhi l-mahāriḡ / wa-law jarrada ḡusāma ḡalamīhi la-ḡāla l-maliku li-l-sayḡi -ḡhrub fa-anta ḡāliḡ / fa-kayḡa bi-sadanati ka‘batihā wa-l-ḡāffīna bi-sharīḡi suddatihā fuḡūli l-balāḡhati -lladhīna idhā rakaḡa aḡaduhum fī ḡalbatī l-bayāni akḡjala l-burūqa wa-sakhira bi-l-riyāḡ / wa-idhā ḡaraba l-a‘dā‘a bi-ṣārīmi l-lisāni qaḡda l-salūḡiyya l-muḡā‘aḡa ḡattā tūḡida nāru l-ḡubāḡibi fī l-ṣifāḡ

Among them [the reasons that prompted me to write a ‘refutation’ of the work] is that a group of the leaders of Mosul had a very high opinion of this book [Ḋiyā‘ al-Dīn’s *Mathal*] and clung enthusiastically to it to a point that they gave it preference over most of the books written in this field (*fann*); they sent several copies of it to Baghdad and made it known, and it circulated among many of its people.

So I raised objections against him with this book and with it gained access to the holy

¹⁵⁴ *Al-Falak al-dā‘ir*, 32-4. I have benefited from the editors’ footnotes. When applicable I added *saḡ*‘ demarcations. The suffixed pronoun in *wa-minhā* opening the passage is referring to [*fa-ḡadānī ‘alā...*] *umūr* “things [that lead me to write the refutation]” (ibid., 32.6).

noble prophetic (‘Abbāsīd) caliphal library of the Mustanşiriyya *madrasa* [founded in 631/1234 in Baghdad by the caliph al-Mustanşir, r. 623-640/1226-1242],¹⁵⁵ may God make the meeting places and quarters of erudition prosperous with its building, and may He prolong the hand and arm of knowledge with the longevity of its owner [i.e., the caliph], and make the angels of heaven his [the caliph’s] supporters and followers, just as He made the kings of the earth [i.e., the local sovereigns] his helpers and adherents.

The greater part of my intention in that [i.e., writing the ‘refutation’] is that the author of this book [the *Mathal*] and the leaders of his town may know that among the smallest servants of this noble dynasty [the ‘Abbāsīds] – conceit is destructive and I am not informing about myself since there are many like me¹⁵⁶ – are those who, if they speak in riddles they [nevertheless] make [their intended idea] known,¹⁵⁷ and if they strike they slit [open the skin], and if they let fly their arrows they shoot dead on the spot, and if they scrape the scab [of a wound] they cause it to bleed. [I am doing this so that he and they may know] that Baghdad and the [community of the] Caliph are not devoid – as the Mosulis claim – of those who, if they are are challenged to stay ahead they leave [their opponents far behind], and if they are challenged to be outquicken¹⁵⁸ they win with the best divining arrow [of the *maysir*], and if they deliver a sermon swords yield [to them] due to their skill, and if they write a chancery letter spears prostrate due to their skill, and if they want they can “teach people sorcery and that which was sent down upon the two angels of Babylon.”¹⁵⁹ [I am doing this so that he and they may know] that among the

¹⁵⁵ J. Pedersen et al., “Madrassa,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*, and Hansjörg Schmid, *Die Madrasa des Kalifen Al-Mustansir in Baghdad: eine baugeschichtliche Untersuchung der ersten universalen Rechtshochschule des Islam, mit einer Abhandlung über den sogenannten Palast in der Zitadelle in Baghdad*, Mainz am Rhein: Zabern, 1980. According to Schmid (p. 1) the *madrassa* was founded in 625/1227 and was the first to accommodate all four Sunnī schools of the law (on this last point see also Wilfred Madelung, “The Spread of Māturīdism and the Turks,” in *idem, Religious Schools and Sects in Medieval Islam*, London: Variorum Reprints, 1985, II, 109-68, here: 164). It is unlikely that it had a Shī‘ī wing as well, and *Imāmī* here is probably just a reference to the ‘Abbāsīds (Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd’s Shī‘ī inclinations can be seen from his *Sharḥ Nahj al-balāgha*). The library was said to have held eighty thousand volumes; it was dispossessed during the Mongol invasion.

¹⁵⁶ This is a typical modesty topos.

¹⁵⁷ Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd’s point here and in the following clauses is that even though he is merely one of the *aṣāghir khawāl al-dawla*, he and others like him in Baghdad nevertheless excel in what they do: they are able to speak clearly even when delivering riddles (i.e., speak allusively), to inflict severe wounds even when they scratch, etc.

¹⁵⁸ Not quite a word in English but neither is *bāsara* in Arabic (see editors’ note, *al-Falak al-dā‘ir*, 33 fn. 5, who interpret it as *ghālaba wa-sābaqa*). A more accurate non-English word for *būsira* that would preserve the sense of form I *basara* would be “to be outfished.”

¹⁵⁹ A reference to Hārūt and Mārūt in Qur’ān 2: 102, two angels who were allegedly banished from the heavens and

anonymous obscure people of its [Baghdad's] subjects are those who, if they utter a [he-camel's] bray it comes out sonorous and fluent,¹⁶⁰ and if they speak the parchments come to light by their suns [of eloquence],¹⁶¹ and if they unsheathe the [sword-]edge of their pen the king says to the sword “go away for you are divorced!” And [if among Baghdad's] obscure people there are many who excel] how [much more so is that the case] with the gatekeepers of its [Baghdad's] Ka'ba¹⁶² and those surrounding its noble threshold, the ‘stallions’ of eloquence¹⁶³ who, if one of them runs in the race-track of good style (*bayān*) he puts to shame flashes of lightning and mocks the winds,¹⁶⁴ and if he strikes enemies with a sharp tongue he cuts through the double-layered Salūqī coat of mail until the fire of the fire-fly is ignited in the sides of the blades [of the sword-like tongue]!¹⁶⁵

To recapitulate the main points in this passage: Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd acknowledges the great popularity of the *Mathal* among Mosuli leaders (probably leading scholars and *kuttāb*); he notes their claim to superiority (probably as *kuttāb*); and he upholds the Baghdadi supremacy in

disclosed to humans the secrets of sorcery. Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd is using this as an exaggeration of his abilities.

¹⁶⁰ The faucial bags (*shiqshiqā* pl. *shaqāqīq*) are placed behind the palate of the he-camel and are inflated and blown out from the side of the mouth when the he-camel is excited; the *shiqshiqā* is an image of eloquence (Edward William Lane, *An Arabic-English Lexicon*, New York: Frederick Ungar Pub. Co., 1955-1956, 1579). The verb *hadara* usually refers to a camel's bray but *hadarat shiqshiqatuhu* is an idiom meaning “his utterance was sonorous and fluent” (ibid., 1579, 2886). The phrase thus literally means, “when they bray [a camel's bray] the faucial bags are in place for them.” Another possibility is that by using the verb *qarra* Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd is making a play on words on the phrase *qarrat 'aynuhu* ‘he (lit. his eye) was delighted’, that is, ‘his *shaqāshiq* are delighted’ (though the preposition *lahu* is then less accounted for).

¹⁶¹ There is a play on words here since another meaning of *mahāriq* is ‘deserts’. The image of ‘suns’ in the context of eloquence is a fairly common one.

¹⁶² “Baghdad's Ka'ba” is a reference to the caliph himself; the gatekeepers – to his *kuttāb*.

¹⁶³ *Fuḥūl* lit. ‘stallions’ in reference to poets is an old designation for the ‘masters of poetry’. For the profile of a *fahl* – typically a Jāhilī poet – according to al-Aṣma'ī (d. 213/828, other dates are also given) see Heinrichs, “Naḳd,” under “Criticism of poetry among the philologists.”

¹⁶⁴ A fast horse is often likened to a flash of lightning or to the wind. See Abū Hilāl al-'Askarī, *Dīwān al-ma'ānī*, 2 vols. in 1, Cairo: Maktabat al-Qudṣī, 1352 [1933-34], 2: 107-108 (*fī ṣifāt al-khayl*).

¹⁶⁵ The last clause is taken almost verbatim from a line by al-Nābigha (active 6th cent. CE) describing the swords of the Ghassānids (see *al-Falak al-dā'ir*, 34 n. 6). For a similar idea expressed by al-Kumayt (d. 126/743 or 4) see Lane, *Lexicon*, 498. Another translation could be: “until the fire of Ḥubāḥib (= Abū Ḥubāḥib, an allegedly niggardly man who never lighted but a faint fire for fear of attracting guests) is ignited...” (Lane, *Lexicon*, 497; *al-Falak al-dā'ir*, 34 fn. 6).

matters of good style as Baghdad houses the *kuttāb* of the caliph himself (Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd being one of them).

In the passage Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd alludes to a “field/art” (*fann*) to which the *Mathal* belongs: in light of the preceding points, it is probable that he is referring to the scribal arts. The fact that he does not mention *‘ilm al-bayān* as a discipline-heading serves as additional proof that *‘ilm al-bayān* was not a recognized field of study during the early 1200s.¹⁶⁶ As mentioned above, we take the testimonial by Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd as circumstantial evidence supporting what we believe to be Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s intentions to establish himself and scholars in his locale – the Jazīra, or parts of Greater Syria – as authorities in the science called *‘ilm al-bayān*.

Back in the *Jāmi‘*, after specifying the ‘extended’ list of authorities in the field, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn expounds on his method and process of writing his work, which I have referred to above as scientific *salafism*. His description of the approach runs as follows:¹⁶⁷ first he began reading the work of “the famous masters [of *‘ilm al-bayān*]”; then, after some time not having consulted those works, he perused the holy Qur’ān and found interesting and subtle points “of this mode” (*min hādhā al-naḥw*, i.e. *‘ilm al-bayān*); next he subjected those scholarly works to an investigation of the points that he had found in the Qur’ān, only to discover that they had overlooked them; then he scrutinized the Qur’ān more carefully and “extracted (*istakhrajtu*) from it at that point thirty categories (*ḍurūb*) of *‘ilm al-bayān*” which no other scholar had previously mentioned; next he began writing the book in order to benefit the “composer of speech [poetry and prose]”; finally, during the editing process (*taḥqīq*) he revisited the books of the

¹⁶⁶ See also *al-Falak al-dā’ir*, 39-40, where Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd makes mention of the knowledge/science of the poetic craft (*‘ilm ṣinā’at al-shi’r*, including rhyme and meter) and criticism (*naqd al-shi’r wa-l-kalām*) but not *‘ilm al-bayān*.

¹⁶⁷ *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 1-3, esp. 3, for which the following is a close summary.

aforementioned scholars, at which point new subtleties occurred to him, thus rarely did he leave their comments unchanged.

As we can see from this detailed account (the corresponding account in the *Mathal* runs much shorter), Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's approach relies heavily on his own personal judgment and ingenuity. But without consultation of previous authorities in the field the method is ineffective since it lacks a point of reference. By outlining his approach he both establishes former scholars as authorities in *'ilm al-bayān* and establishes himself as their superior. This tendency is only reinforced in his later book, the *Mathal*, where the list of authorities drops to two and the emphasis lies solely on his *ijtihād* (see quoted passage above, p. 42).¹⁶⁸

Summing Up

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn aligns both his literary-theoretical works with the scientific framework of *'ilm al-bayān*, a disciplinary designation with little to no recognition at the turn of the seventh/thirteenth century. Inspired by the sciences of legal theory and logic, and especially by the work of al-Ghazālī, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn makes a forced attempt to vouch for his subject matter's scientificity in an endeavor to bind the 'old' stylistic discussions by rational, or scientific rules. This seems to be an innovation in literary theory. Whether Ḍiyā' al-Dīn himself succeeds in living up to his declared intentions will be subject to scrutiny in subsequent chapters.

In his attempt to consolidate the field of literary theory Ḍiyā' al-Dīn also presents the reader with a canon of sorts in the field by back-projecting previous works on criticism, eloquence, poetry and more under the heading of *'ilm al-bayān*. In a progression from his earlier

¹⁶⁸ In his later *al-Washy al-marqūm* he proclaims to follow the method of *ijtihād* rather than *taqlīd*, but here it is said in the context of *ṣinā'at al-kitāba* (see *al-Washy al-marqūm*, 46, 52, and 47 for a reference to his earlier written *Mathal*).

to his later work, we see that the authorities he attempts to establish become limited to his locale, the Jazīra, and eventually to himself. Evidence from a contemporary ‘reply’ to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s later work, written by Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd, reinforces this hypothesis.

Chapter 2: Evidence of *‘Ilm al-Bayān* in Later Sources

Following Ouyang’s guidelines, we have looked at the two components found in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work that make a body of knowledge “an independent field of intellectual inquiry.” These are (1) a consolidated definition of the field, and (2) a shared definition of an authoritative specialist.¹⁶⁹ But the conception of a literary-theoretical science called *‘ilm al-bayān* as an independent field of study does not necessarily mean its historical success in view of later generations. After addressing the essence of *‘ilm al-bayān* in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s eyes, we shall now turn to the question of its existence, or in philosophical terms: after asking the *mā* ‘what (is it)’ we are now asking the *hal* ‘whether (it exists)’. Did there come to be a widely recognized discipline termed *‘ilm al-bayān* that referred to an overall science of verbal arts following the endeavors of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn? Or was *‘ilm al-bayān* again one out of several viable options of approaching the field? If *‘ilm al-bayān* did emerge as a consolidated discipline of literary theory, was Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn perceived as one of its authoritative specialists?

In what follows we shall attend to hitherto unnoticed traces of *‘ilm al-bayān* found in later sources, bringing to light an independent science that seems to have existed throughout the 1200s and parts of the 1300s, only to be trumped by the later formalized *‘ilm al-balāgha* lit. ‘the science of eloquence’, i.e. ‘scholastic rhetoric’ or the Standard Theory, as Bauer refers to it.¹⁷⁰ Because the later sources we are looking at saw the field primarily through the prism of *‘ilm al-balāgha*, we must rely on a close reading of several key passages that nevertheless display vestiges of the earlier *‘ilm al-bayān*. The later hegemony of *‘ilm al-balāgha* may explain why the

¹⁶⁹ Ouyang, *Literary Criticism*, 204, 207, and above.

¹⁷⁰ Standardtheorie; see Bauer, “Arabische Kultur,” *Rhetorik*, 291 ff.

existence of *‘ilm al-bayān* as a consolidated science has escaped the attention of modern scholars and many medieval scholars. The fact that the later sources we are looking at are cognizant of *‘ilm al-balāgha* makes the implied references to the earlier *‘ilm al-bayān* all the more telling. For anyone conducting future work on the Standard Theory, our findings also show that the development of *‘ilm al-balāgha* was not instantaneous, even after the appearance of staple works in the field such as those by Jalāl al-Dīn al-Qazwīnī, known as Khaṭīb Dimashq ‘The Preacher of Damascus’ (d. 739/1338).¹⁷¹ We shall first examine works on the classification of the sciences, preceded by a prefatory word on the formalized *‘ilm al-balāgha*; we will then proceed to literary-theoretical works betraying evidence of our *‘ilm al-bayān*.

2.1. The Standard Theory

No one disputes that *‘ilm al-balāgha* was a consolidated discipline. It emerged in the eighth/fourteenth century as an aid to the education of the legal scholar in the *madrassa* and has been taught as such up until modern times. Its canon could not be clearer, with the works of al-Sakkākī (d. 626/1229), *Miftāḥ al-‘ulūm*, and al-Qazwīnī, *Talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*, inspired by the ‘forefather’ ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081).¹⁷² The term *‘ilm al-balāgha* is

¹⁷¹ We should keep in mind that the focus of this dissertation is on the central Arabic-speaking Islamic world. Despite his name, al-Qazwīnī had no apparent connection with Qazvin and was in fact of pure Arab descent. See W.P. Heinrichs, “al-Khaṭīb al-Qazwīnī,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature* 1: 439-40. (His forefathers may have settled in the East after the Islamic conquests and then fled due to the Mongol invasions, but there is no evidence of this in the biographies.)

¹⁷² This is the usual narrative we find in the scholarship regarding scholastic rhetoric. Sometimes it is referred to as “[...] al-Sakkākī and al-Ḳazwīnī and their school” or “the system of al-Sakkākī and al-Ḳazwīnī”; S.A. Bonebakker, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-Bayān,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. Other times it is referred to as scholastic rhetoric or simply rhetoric. For further background on *‘ilm al-balāgha* see A.F. Mehren, *Die Rhetorik der Araber*, Hildesheim; New York: Georg Olms Verlag, 1970; Aḥmad Maṭlūb, *Al-Qazwīnī wa-shurūḥ al-Talkhīṣ*; Bauer, “Arabische Kultur,” *Rhetorik*, 291-99; Smyth, “Canonical Formulation”; van Gelder, *Beyond the Line*, 8-10; and the following articles in the *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*: A. Schaade, G.E. von Grunebaum, “Balāgha”; von Grunebaum, “Bayān”; S.A. Bonebakker, “al-Ḳazwīnī”; W.P. Heinrichs, “al-Sakkākī.” For a late ‘Persianate’ take on *‘ilm al-balāgha* see M. Garcin de Tassy, *Rhétorique et prosodie des langues de l’Orient musulman*, 2nd éd. revue, corr., et augm., Paris: Maisonneuve, 1873.

al-Qazwīnī's.¹⁷³ By the time al-Sakkākī's work became widely known in the central Arabic-speaking lands via al-Qazwīnī's *Talkhīṣ* the term *'ilm al-bayān* came to denote the second subfield within the 'new' science of eloquence, the first subfield being *'ilm al-ma'ānī* ~'functional grammar' or 'semantics of syntax' and the third *'ilm al-badī'* 'figures of speech' or 'rhetorical embellishments'.¹⁷⁴ This latter *'ilm al-bayān* dealt more narrowly with imagery (our term) and with the foundational forms of figurative language (*majāz*).¹⁷⁵ Indeed, in modern scholarship both West and East, the term *'ilm al-bayān* is associated almost entirely with the

¹⁷³ Or more precisely, *'ilm al-balāgha wa-tawābī'uhā* "the science of eloquence and its supplements"; Jalāl al-Dīn Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Khatīb Al-Qazwīnī, *Talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ fī al-ma'ānī wa-l-bayān wa-l-badī'*: *wa-bi-l-hāmish sharḥuhu Mukhtaṣar al-ma'ānī li-Mas'ūd b. Abī 'Umar al-Taftāzānī*, [Cairo]: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1938, 6 (English: 'The Epitome of the Key [al-Sakkākī's *Key to the Sciences*] on *ma'ānī*, *bayān* and *badī'*', along with its Commentary *The Epitome of the ma'ānī*'); *idem*, *al-Īdāḥ fī 'ulūm al-balāgha*, ed. Muḥammad 'Abd al-Mun'im Khafājī, 2 vols. in 1, 4th ed., Beirut: Dār al-Kitāb al-Lubnānī, 1975, 70 (English: 'The Clarification in the Studies of Eloquence'). The 'supplements' are traditionally understood to be a reference to *'ilm al-badī'* (see below), as in al-Taftāzānī's take in *Talkhīṣ*, 6, but I take it to refer strictly to the appendices (*mulḥaqāt*) dealing with 'plagiarism' (*sariqāt*) and with 'good structure' (*ḥusn al-ibtidā'* *wa-l-takhalluṣ wa-l-intihā'*); see *Talkhīṣ*, 367-92 and *al-Īdāḥ*, 556-600 (the term *mulḥaqāt* appears in *al-Īdāḥ*, 556). The heading *'ilm al-balāgha* seems to have replaced *'ilm al-ma'ānī wa-l-bayān*, which was used by al-Sakkākī, but can also be seen in later works. One example is Jalāl al-Dīn 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Suyūfī, *Sharḥ 'Uqūd al-jumān fī 'ilm al-ma'ānī wa-l-bayān*, Cairo: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1939 (English: 'Commentary on *The Pearl Necklaces on the study of ma'ānī and bayān*'). Al-Suyūfī also preserves the heading *'ilm al-bayān* for the entire science, on which see §2.3 below.

¹⁷⁴ For *'ilm al-ma'ānī* 'pragmatics' could also be appropriate. Bonebakker ("al-Ma'ānī wa 'l-Bayān") translates *'ilm al-ma'ānī* as "the theory of functional, appropriate style" or "semantics of syntax" (*ma'ānī* being the *ma'ānī al-naḥw*) and *'ilm al-bayān* as "science of figurative expression" or "science of exposition" following Mehren. Schaade and von Grunebaum ("Balāgha") render the scholastic *'ilm al-bayān* "modes of presentation." Heinrichs ("al-Sakkākī") renders it: "lit. 'elucidating discourse' = 'indirect presentation by way of images.'" Going back to Bonebakker, he says that the terms *ma'ānī* and *bayān* were used by al-Zamaksharī in the *Kashshāf* and Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī in the *Nihāya* "in too vague a way to justify any conclusions" (see Chapter 3). He adds that al-Sakkākī took *'ilm al-bayān* to be part of the study of *'ilm al-ma'ānī*. With respect to *badī'* Bonebakker says: "This section continues the older tradition of rhetorical studies initiated by Ibn al-Mu'tazz and Ḳudāma [...]," referring here to what we have called the early *naqd* works. For Bonebakker, a work such as the *Taḥrīr al-taḥbīr* of Ibn Abī al-Ṣba' (see §2.3) represents "handbooks by authors who followed the 'older' school." Regarding the usual tripartite structure of *'ilm al-balāgha* one should note later, Persianate strands of this discipline that lacked the section on *ma'ānī* but included a lengthy treatment of prosody and separate chapters on riddles/allusions and plagiarism. See de Tassy, *Rhétorique*, vi, who bases his work on the *Ḥadāyiq al-balāghat* written in the eighteenth century by Mīr Shams al-Dīn Faqīr of Delhi.

¹⁷⁵ 'Imagery' is an inexact term, for the 'images' here are not necessarily visual, as the term might suggest. 'The study of tropes' would also be an inaccurate designation for the standard *'ilm al-bayān*: while some tropes – indeed, the major ones (simile, metaphor, metonymy) – are treated in *'ilm al-bayān*, many tropes are treated in *'ilm al-badī'*. The fact that the meaning of *bayān* in the heading *'ilm al-bayān* is left undefined by the standard theorists is perplexing (and frustrating). Interestingly, a term that could be taken to denote 'imagery' or 'images' is *ma'ānī* (as in the *ma'ānī* we find in works like that of Abū Hilāl al-'Askarī).

narrower, highly specialized sub-science within the tripartite system of the Standard Theory.¹⁷⁶

After preliminary ‘semantic’ discussions, *tashbīh* lit. ‘likening’ was the first category to be treated under the section of the standard ‘*ilm al-bayān*’; we may refer to it as a theory of comparison or similarity. This formed the basis for the second category, viz. *majāz* ‘figurative language’, which included metonymies and synecdoches (*majāz mursal*) on one hand and a vast range of metaphors (*isti‘āra*) on the other. Finally, in the third category, various forms of periphrasis (*kināya*) were discussed.¹⁷⁷ According to this scheme, and owing to the thought of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī, neither *tashbīh* nor *kināya* were considered part of figurative language (*majāz*).¹⁷⁸

When dealing with the Standard Theory one must keep in mind its function and its place of instruction (the *madrasa*), two components which are intertwined. As Heinrichs remarks, “[...] the main goal of [scholastic] rhetoric is as a tool to understand the *i‘dājāz al-Ḳur‘ān*.”¹⁷⁹ This is in contrast to Bonebakker’s assessment, according to which “[i]t is conceivable that al-Sakkākī and al-Ḳazwīnī tried to programme the study of rhetoric in such a way that the reader

¹⁷⁶ Exceptions include scholars who recognize that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn spoke of ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ but saw it as another name for ‘*ilm al-balāgha*’ (see Chapter 1, introduction).

¹⁷⁷ Abū Ya‘qūb Yūsuf b. Abī Bakr Muḥammad b. ‘Alī Al-Sakkākī, *Miftāḥ al-‘ulūm*, ed. Na‘īm Zarzūr, Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-‘Ilmiyya, 1987, 329-422 (English: ‘Key to the Sciences’); al-Qazwīnī, *Talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*, 218-314. The preliminary ‘semantic’ discussions refer to the study of *dalāla* ‘signification’ (i.e., of ‘words’ vis-à-vis ‘referents’ in the world/mind), as one may find in the opening of a logical treatise (e.g., al-Abharī, *Īsāghūjī*, 377 ff.).

¹⁷⁸ For the clear case of *tashbīh* see ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī, *Asrār al-balāgha*, ed. Hellmut Ritter, Istanbul: Istanbul Government Press, 1954, 221-22 [14/3] (English: ‘The Secrets of Eloquence’); corroborated in Fakhr al-Dīn Muḥammad b. ‘Umar al-Rāzī, *Nihāyat al-ijāz fī dirāyat al-i‘jāz*, eds. Ibrāhīm al-Sāmarrā’ī and Muḥammad Barakāt Ḥamdī Abū ‘Alī, Amman: Dār al-Fikr, 1985, 110 / ed. Bakrī Shaykh Amīn, Beirut: Dār al-‘Ilm li-l-Malāyīn, 1985, 222 (English: ‘The Utmost Abridgment in the Comprehension of [the Qur’ān’s] Inimitability’). For the less-explicit case of *kināya* see al-Jurjānī, *Dalā’il*, 66-67; corroborated in al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, eds. al-Sāmarrā’ī and Abū ‘Alī, 136 / ed. Amīn, 272, as well as Wolfhart Heinrichs, “Contacts between Scriptural Hermeneutics and Literary Theory in Islam: The Case of *Majāz*,” *Zeitschrift für Geschichte der Arabisch-Islamischen Wissenschaften* 7 (1991-92), 253-284, here: 281, and *idem*, “Rhetorical Figures,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature* 2: 656-62, here: 661. Cf. Erez Naaman’s more cautious take in his “Women Who Cough and Men Who Hunt: Taboo and Euphemism (*kināya*) in the Medieval Islamic World,” *Journal of American Oriental Society* 133.3 (2013), 467-93, here: 470-73.

¹⁷⁹ Heinrichs, “Naḳd,” under “Philosophical poetics and the Maghribī ‘school’.”

would become familiar first with the elementary skills of composition, then with the characteristics of literature as a form of art, and finally with some stylistic devices used by accomplished poets and writers.”¹⁸⁰ In fact, the Standard Theory did not seem to be concerned with composition at all (perhaps only minimally). Even as the literature grew to unfathomable magnitudes of commentaries, supercommentaries and glosses, and may be seen as independent of the legal education, its essence nevertheless seems¹⁸¹ to concern a theory of language and philosophy of language in the analytical sense, which can be of relevance for the legal scholar. As a hermeneutics first and foremost, it has not to do with the practical aspect of composing poetry and ornate prose. We might point out that *‘ilm al-balāgha* was not the only emerging science within the *madrasa* domain: to this we may add the science of semantics (*‘ilm al-waḍ‘*) and the science of disputation (*‘ilm al-munāẓara*), two additional disciplines emerging in the eighth/fourteenth century as aids to religious training.¹⁸²

¹⁸⁰ Bonebakker, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ’l-Bayān.”

¹⁸¹ I say “seems” because a study of the later Standard Theory remains to be written (both in the synchronic and diachronic sense). Similar to later logical works (until recently), the later *balāgha* works are largely uncharted territory. One exception is the third part of Maṭlūb’s *al-Qazwīnī wa-shurūḥ al-Talkhīṣ*, esp. 529-609. For a recent change in the logical sphere see Khaled El-Rouayheb, *Relational Syllogisms and the History of Arabic Logic*, Leiden: Brill, 2010. For a good start in Western scholarship in the field of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* (but limited to al-Sakkākī) see Udo Gerald Simon, *Mittelalterliche arabische Sprachbetrachtung zwischen Grammatik und Rhetorik: ‘ilm al-ma‘ānī bei as-Sakkākī*, Heidelberg: Heidelberger Orientverlag, 1993. He starts with a short history of the field which includes the works of ‘Abd al-Qāhir, al-Zamakhsharī and Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (pp. 16-30) and includes a brief but useful list of later authors (pp. 31-33). An important contribution is Smyth, “Controversy in a Tradition of Commentary,” who outlines the major players in the field and their scholarly method.

¹⁸² On *‘ilm al-waḍ‘* see the work of Bernard Weiss, starting with his dissertation, *Language in Orthodox Muslim Thought: A Study of waḍ‘ al-lughah and its Development*, PhD Dissertation, Princeton University, 1966. On *‘ilm al-munāẓara* see another unpublished dissertation: Larry Benjamin Miller, *Islamic Disputation Theory: A Study of the Development of Dialectic in Islam from the Tenth to the Fourteenth Centuries*, PhD Dissertation, Princeton University, 1984. I think the most appropriate translation for *‘ilm al-waḍ‘* lit. ‘the science of coining [of words]’ is ‘semantics’ (in the logical sense) or ‘lexical semantics’, as the science deals with the ‘senses’ and ‘references’ – two major notions of semantics – of pronouns, morphological forms, and more.

2.2. 'Ilm al-Bayān in Works on the Classification of the Sciences

Since the term *'ilm al-bayān* is associated almost entirely with the second sub-discipline of the Standard Theory, let us begin our investigation of works of the classification of the sciences with a much later one, written in the tenth/sixteenth century. In the work of the famous Ottoman Anatolian scholar Ṭashköprüzāde (Ṭāshkubrīzāda, d. 968/1560), *Miftāḥ al-sa'āda*, the definition of *'ilm al-bayān* replicates the one given by al-Qazwīnī – a definition replicated, in fact, in the vast majority of subsequent studies, including the modern *Encyclopaedia of Islam* (q.v. “al-Ma‘ānī wa ’l-Bayān”):

wa-huwa ma 'rifatu irādi l-ma 'nā l-wāḥidi fī ṭuruqin mukhtalifatin fī wuḍūḥi l-dalālati
It [*'ilm al-bayān*] is the knowledge of expressing one and the same idea in ways differing
in [their degree of] clear indication [to that idea.]¹⁸³

Surprisingly, Ṭashköprüzāde does not provide the rubric *'ilm al-balāgha* as an independent science; he seems to be taking it for granted.¹⁸⁴ What he does, rather, is treat *'ilm al-ma'ānī*, *'ilm al-bayān* and *'ilm al-badī'* in succession, declaring that the three sciences cannot be

¹⁸³ Ṭashköprüzāde, *Miftāḥ al-sa'āda* 1: 201. See also Kâtip Çelebi, *Kashf al-zunūn 'an asāmī al-kutub wa-l-funūn*, eds. Şerefettin Yaltakaya and Kilisli Rifat Bilge, 2 vols., Beirut: Dār Iḥyā' al-Turāth al-'Arabī, n.d. (reprint of the 1941-1955 Istanbul edition), 1: 259-60. On Ṭashköprüzāde see Barbara Fleming, “Ṭashköprüzāde,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. A more literal rendering of the passage would be: “It is the knowledge of delivering one meaning in ways different in clarity of indication”. The wording of al-Qazwīnī differs slightly (and my translation in the final square brackets above reflects it): *wa-huwa 'ilmun yu'rafu bihi irādu l-ma 'nā l-wāḥidi bi-ṭuruqin mukhtalifatin fī wuḍūḥi l-dalālati 'alayhi* (emphasis added); see *Talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*, 218, and *al-Īdāḥ*, 326. My translation more closely reflects al-Taftāzānī's understanding of al-Qazwīnī, which could be rendered: “[...] expressing any one idea in different ways according to various degrees of clear indication” (emphasis added); al-Taftāzānī, *Mukhtaṣar al-ma'ānī* in *Talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*, 218-19. Bonebakker's translation of al-Qazwīnī's definition (“al-Ma'ānī wa 'l-bayān”) runs as follows: “the science through which one knows how to express one and the same concept in ways which differ as to the degree of clarity achieved in indicating this concept.” For al-Sakkākī's account of *'ilm al-bayān*, which inspired that of al-Qazwīnī, see *Miftāḥ al-'ulūm*, 329-30. The knowledge of expressing one idea in differing ways is not equivalent to *ta'liḥ* in the sense of composing epistolary prose and poetry.

¹⁸⁴ For references to *'ilm al-balāgha* see *Miftāḥ al-sa'āda* 1: 200.5-6, 203.13. The reason for not providing the heading here seems to be the account given by Ibn al-Akfānī, whom he follows (see below).

detached from one another.¹⁸⁵ It is for this reason that he waits until the end of his explication of ‘*ilm al-badī*’ to specify the works that were written in all three *funūn* ‘branches’.¹⁸⁶ As can be expected, al-Sakkākī is at the forefront of these authors. But at the end of each sub-science Ṭashköprüzāde does specify a scant number of works dealing solely with that specialized science. The single work said to deal with ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ is “*al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr* by Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazarī.”¹⁸⁷ Incidentally, Ṭashköprüzāde is thinking of Diyā’ al-Dīn’s brother, the one who specialized in ‘*ilm al-tafsīr*’ ‘the science of Qur’ānic exegesis’ and authored the *al-Tafsīr al-kabīr*.¹⁸⁸ Since the *Jāmi’* by Ibn al-Athīr is *not* limited to the topics found in the scholastic ‘*ilm al-bayān*’, I see its mention here as a vestige of the ‘old’ understanding of ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ as a supra-heading for stylistics and literary theory. To be sure, Ṭashköprüzāde’s account of ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ conforms to the standard rhetorical understanding of the term – and for our purposes it acts as a ‘control’ text – but the fact that he maintains an association between ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ and an “Ibn al-Athīr” serves as a first hint of the incongruence we find in later sources between ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ as a field within the

¹⁸⁵ *Miftāḥ al-sa’āda* 1: 200.3^c (*fa-lammā lam yufraz* [‘*ilm al-ma’ānī*] ‘*ani l-bayāni wa-l-badī*’ [...]).

¹⁸⁶ Ibid. and 1: 202.5^c. The list of these works is long indeed; see *Miftāḥ al-sa’āda* 1: 202-214 (usually commentaries and supercommentaries from the eighth/fourteenth century); it illustrates how much work still needs to be done in this later, philosophically-minded science.

¹⁸⁷ But in the Hyderabad edition, both this work and Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya* are cited, just as we find in the earlier Ibn al-Akfānī (see below). See Aḥmad b. Muṣṭafā Ṭashköprüzāde, *Miftāḥ al-sa’āda wa-miṣbāḥ al-siyāda fī mawḍū’āt al-‘ulūm*, under the supervision of Sharafuddin Ahmed, 3 vols., Hyderabad: Dā’irat al-Ma’ārif al-Uthmāniyya, 1977, 1: 181. This may be an earlier version of Ṭashköprüzāde’s work.

¹⁸⁸ *Miftāḥ al-sa’āda* (eds. Bakrī and al-Nūr) 1: 201.5-6^c. The brother alluded to is better-known today as a *ḥadīth* scholar: Majd al-Dīn al-Mubārak Ibn al-Athīr (d. 606/1210); see F. Rosenthal, “Ibn al-Athīr,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. Walid Saleh identifies Majd al-Dīn as “the initiator of a trend in quranic exegesis of reworking *al-Kashf* [of al-Tha’labī, d. 427/1035] into newly authored commentaries,” which more specifically combined *al-Kashf* and *al-Kashshāf* of al-Zamakhsharī (which, in turn, is a reaction to *al-Kashf*). The title of Majd al-Dīn’s *tafsīr*, now lost, is *al-Inṣāf fī al-jam’ bayna al-Kashf wa-l-Kashshāf*. See Walid A. Saleh, *The Formation of the Classical Tafsīr Tradition: The Qur’ān Commentary of al-Tha’labī (D. 427/1035)*, Boston: Brill, 2004, 206. It is not clear if this work is identical with *al-Tafsīr al-kabīr* mentioned by Ṭashköprüzāde.

Standard Theory and *‘ilm al-bayān* as a supra-science.¹⁸⁹

In his account of the three sub-sciences of the science of eloquence Ṭashköprüzāde is highly indebted to the earlier Ibn al-Akfānī (d. 739/1348), a scholar from the Jazīra working in Mamlūk Egypt.¹⁹⁰ In the latter’s small treatise on the classification of the sciences, *Irshād al-qāṣid*, he treats the sciences of *al-ma‘ānī*, *al-bayān* and *al-badī‘* as three of the ten sub-sciences of *‘ilm al-adab* ‘the science of philology’.¹⁹¹ Ibn al-Akfānī does not use the heading *‘ilm al-balāgha*. In fact, he states that it is often the case that the topics of all three sciences are treated together (“with one another”) – that is, in a mixed manner that is not neatly divided into *ma‘ānī*, *bayān* and *badī‘*.¹⁹² By this Ibn al-Akfānī seems to be alluding to the ‘old’ *naqd* works, which would include works like Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s.

More revealing, however, of the tension between the ‘old’ understanding of stylistics/literary theory and the ‘new’ neatly-divided Standard Theory is the wording of his

¹⁸⁹ We might point out parenthetically that Ṭashköprüzāde repeats the discussion of *ma‘ānī-bayān-badī‘* (though not in these terms) in his treatment of *furū‘* *‘ilm al-tafsīr* ‘the science of Qur’ānic commentary: specific studies’. Here Ṭashköprüzāde deals with the literary-linguistic themse more specifically: e.g., the types of predication, conciseness, metaphors, the various literary devices (termed here *badā‘i* *al-Qur‘ān*), etc. (*Miftāḥ al-sa‘āda* 2: 380-595 for the entire section on the *furū‘*, and 450-510 for the topics that overlap with literary theory). Here Ṭashköprüzāde is not following Ibn al-Akfānī. The importance of literary theory to Qur’ānic studies is discussed in Part Two, §4.4 and especially §4.5. See also our discussion of Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāq in §2.3.

¹⁹⁰ See J.J. Witkam, “Ibn al-Akfānī,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*, who states that the whole organizational scheme of *Miftāḥ al-sa‘āda* is based upon Ibn al-Akfānī’s work.

¹⁹¹ Shams al-Dīn Abū ‘Abd Allāh Muḥammad b. Ibrāhīm b. Sā‘id Ibn al-Akfānī al-Anṣārī al-Sinjārī, *Kitāb Irshād al-qāṣid ilā asnā al-maqāṣid*, in Jan Just Witkam, *De egyptische arts Ibn al-Akfānī (gest. 749/1348) en zijn indeling van de wetenschappen*, Leiden: Ter Lugt Pers, 1989, 22-27 [443-438] (English: ‘Leading the Aspirer to the Highest Aspirations’). The sub-sciences of *‘ilm al-adab* are lexicography (*‘ilm al-lughā*), morphology (*‘ilm al-taṣrīf*), functional grammar (*‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*), literary production (*‘ilm al-bayān* – see below), speech ornamentation (*‘ilm al-badī‘*), metrics (*‘ilm al-arūḍ*), rhyme (*‘ilm al-qawāfi*), syntax (*‘ilm al-naḥw*), the rules of orthography (*‘ilm qawānīn al-kitāba*) and the rules of recitation (*‘ilm qawānīn al-qirā‘a*). On *adab* as a reference to the philological sciences see Heinrichs, “Classification.”

¹⁹² *wa-kathīran mā tudhkaru masā‘ilu l-‘ulūmi l-thalāthati ba‘ḍuhā ma‘a ba‘ḍin*; *Irshād al-qāṣid*, 24.3-4 [441]. At the end of his synopsis of *‘ilm al-badī‘* Ibn al-Akfānī does enumerate the works that comprise of all three sciences (*wa-mina l-kutubi l-mushtamilati ‘alā ‘ulūmi l-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayāni wa-l-badī‘i...*); see 24.5-4^e. He ends with a statement (24.2-1^c) on the highmost status that these (three) sciences hold, being as they are the means to understanding the Holy Scripture and the words of the Prophet – the two instances of inimitable eloquence (cf. what we said above about the function of the Standard Theory as a hermeneutical science).

synopsis of *ilm al-bayān* itself. While the synopses of *ilm al-ma‘ānī* and *ilm al-badī‘* correspond, more or less,¹⁹³ to the later standard understanding thereof, *ilm al-bayān* is explained in different terms:

al-qawlu fī l-bayāni wa-huwa ‘ilmun yu‘rafu fīhi aḥwālu l-aqāwīli l-murakkabati l-ma‘khūdhati ‘ani l-fuṣaḥā‘i wa-l-bulaghā‘i mina l-khuṭabi wa-l-rasā‘ili wa-l-ash‘āri min jihati balāghatihā wa-khuluwwihā ‘ani l-lakani wa-ta‘diyatihā l-maṭlūba bi-hā wāfiyatan wa-manfa‘atuhu ḥuṣūlu l-malakati ‘alā inshā‘i l-aqāwīli l-madhkūrati bi-ḥasabi l-ma‘lūfi minhā kāfiyatan fī l-tafhīmi wa-l-tabyīni idhā uḍīfa dhālika ilā ṭab‘in munqādin wa-dhihnin waqqād

Bayān: It is a science in which one comes to know the patterns¹⁹⁴ of the compound statements¹⁹⁵ of sermons, letters and poems received from the verbally skillful and eloquent [people]. [One comes to know them] from the perspective of their eloquence, their lack of incorrect usage and their conveyance of what is desired by them in a complete manner. Its [the science’s] benefit:¹⁹⁶ attaining the habitual ability¹⁹⁷ to compose the abovementioned statements according to what is customary among them [the statements], in a manner that adequately makes [the desired idea] understood and

¹⁹³ The subject matter of *ma‘ānī* is the types of predication and its contextual aptness (ibid., 23-24 [442-441]). The subject matter of *badī‘* is the embellishments/ornamentation of speech (ibid., 24). In the realm of *badī‘* Ibn al-Akfānī’s account slightly departs from the standard understanding: he claims that what is investigated for the purpose of ‘beautification’ is the *substances* (*mawādd*) of the ‘poetic’ statements (“whether poetry or prose”). This could lead one to conclude that Ibn al-Akfānī had only the mental figures (or figures of thought) in mind, rather than the purely verbal, or aural figures. I am not certain of the meaning of *mawādd* here.

¹⁹⁴ Following Bonebakker’s translation of *aḥwāl* in the definition of *ilm al-ma‘ānī* given by al-Qazwīnī (“al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-bayān”). Other possibilities for *aḥwāl*: cases; conditions; states; circumstances.

¹⁹⁵ Other translations for *aqāwīl* could be “speech”, “sayings” or “utterances”. I opted for the more philosophical understanding of the term (cf. the *aqāwīl shi‘riyya* ‘poetic statements’ found in works of philosophical poetics) considering Ibn al-Akfānī’s background as a physician and, thus, his deep familiarity with philosophy. Indeed, the very writing of a work on the classification of the sciences is deeply rooted in philosophical tradition: first, the philosophical sciences are always accorded a high status in such works, and second, these works are typically written by philosophers (al-Fārābī [d. 339/950] and his *Iḥṣā‘ al-‘ulūm* are the prime example). Technically, the understanding of *aqāwīl* as ‘statements’ would preclude non-declarative sentences (that is, sentences with regards to which one cannot say if they are true or false, like interrogatives, exclamations and the like), but I do not think Ibn al-Akfānī has this exclusion in mind.

¹⁹⁶ For each science Ibn al-Akfānī states (1) its “benefit” or “usefulness” (*wa-manfa‘atuhu*), and (2) which sciences are needed as a prerequisite to it (*wa-yaḥtāju ilā*).

¹⁹⁷ Or: ‘habitus’. *Malaka* is usually taken to be an innate quality, but clearly here it is seen as a faculty that can be acquired; this agrees with Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn’s view of the nature of composition.

clear, if we add to that a receptive nature¹⁹⁸ and a brilliant mind.¹⁹⁹

What is most striking about this account is that it bears no resemblance to the standard sub-science of imagery (cf. the Qazwīnian account of *‘ilm al-bayān*, above.) The field of *‘ilm al-bayān* as it is presented by Ibn al-Akfānī is much wider in scope, as it includes all artistic and eloquent speech (and not just the figurative²⁰⁰ ones), as they are found in poetry and in prose. It is, indeed, the most literary of the sciences subsumed under *‘ilm al-adab*. What is more, emphasis is put on the *production* of literary, or eloquent speech, as we find in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s delineation of the science (*‘ilm al-bayān li-ta’līf al-naẓm wa-l-nathr.*) One could thus be justified in translating *‘ilm al-bayān* here as ‘the science of literary production’ (both in the passive and in the active sense)²⁰¹.

Ibn al-Akfānī then specifies the prerequisites for *‘ilm al-bayān*, namely lexicography, morphology, syntax and the memorization of eloquent statements (*al-aqāwīl al-faṣīḥa*), the most useful and exalted of which is the Qur’ān. He ends by mentioning the works dedicated solely to *‘ilm al-bayān*. These are “*Kitāb Nihāyat al-i’jāz* by al-Imām Fakhr al-Dīn al-Khaṭīb” and, as we find later in Ṭashköprüzāde, “*al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr* by Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazarī.”²⁰² Whether Ibn al-Akfānī had our Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn in mind (rather than his brother) is

¹⁹⁸ Lit. ‘compliant nature’ (root *q.w.d*), but in conjunction with *ṭab* ‘it carries a positive connotation. Another option is to read it as *minqād*, the intensive form *mif‘āl* of the adjective *nāqid*, hence: ‘highly critical nature’ – but this usage is unattested.

¹⁹⁹ *Irshād al-qāṣid*, 24 [441].

²⁰⁰ Or those primary literary devices that contain imagery: simile, metonymy, metaphor, periphrasis (*tashbīh*, *majāz*, *kināya*).

²⁰¹ That is, the study of eloquent verbal products (passive) and developing the ability to produce them (active).

²⁰² Ibid. The “*i’jāz*” is ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s *Dalā’il al-i’jāz*; the work by al-Rāzī is an abridgement of both the *Dalā’il* and the *Asrār al-balāgha* (stated explicitly in *Nihāya*, ed. Amīn, 74-75). It is Fakhr al-Dīn’s father who was the preacher (*khaṭīb*) in their native town, Rayy; Fakhr al-Dīn was therefore known as Ibn al-Khaṭīb, not al-Khaṭīb. See C.G. Anawati, “Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. The title *Nihāyat al-i’jāz* is

unclear. Even if we are justified in presuming that the *Jāmi*‘ was correctly attributed to Diyā’ al-Dīn,²⁰³ it does not answer the question of why it was the *Jāmi*‘ that was mentioned here rather than the *Mathal*. One possible explanation is that the *Mathal* was seen as a work in which “the topics of all three sciences are treated together” (see above), whereas the less known *Jāmi*‘ was not. This would mean that Ibn al-Akfānī had not actually seen the *Jāmi*‘ since it, too, treats “together” the topics later to be considered either *ma‘ānī*, *bayān* or *badī*‘. The most pressing point for our purposes is the memory of an overarching *‘ilm al-bayān* coextensive with the science delineated in the *Mathal* and the *Jāmi*‘, and the identification of an “Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazarī” with this development. The mention of al-Rāzī is also important. In his epitome of al-Jurjānī’s work, *Nihāyat al-ījāz*, al-Rāzī speaks of *‘ilm al-bayān*, seemingly in a non-technical sense following al-Jurjānī (see §3.2), and his work influenced many subsequent scholars of literary theory (see §2.3 and Part Two). His inclusion here by Ibn al-Akfānī probably has to do with his reputation as a *muḥaqqiq*, an independently-minded critical thinker (see §4.4). As we shall see, however, al-Rāzī’s work is by no means a study of literary composition, in the way that is outlined by Ibn al-Akfānī.

Terminologically, Ibn al-Akfānī uses *‘ilm al-bayān* in the context of the *ma‘ānī-bayān-badī*‘ triad, but content-wise he fills the term with the ‘old’ substance of an overarching discipline of verbal arts. In the famous *Muqaddima* by the North African historian and thinker Ibn Khaldūn (d. 808/1406) we find the opposite occurrence in play: the substance is the standardized tenets of *‘ilm al-balāgha* but the term used to identify them is

probably an ellipsis for the full *Nihāyat al-ījāz fī dirāyat al-i‘jāz*, rather than a mistake (Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ refers to it as the *I‘jāz* of Ibn al-Khaṭīb, see §2.3).

²⁰³ One argument in support of this presumption would be the geographical (Jazīra/Egypt) and chronological (about a century) affinity between Ibn al-Akfānī and Abnā’ al-Athīr.

‘ilm al-bayān.²⁰⁴ In other words, the name Ibn Khaldūn uses for what we know as the standardized science of eloquence is *‘ilm al-bayān*. Here *‘ilm al-bayān* is presented as the third of the four Arabic sciences (*‘ulūm al-lisān al-‘arabī*), the others being grammar, lexicography and *‘ilm al-adab* (to be discussed shortly).²⁰⁵ *‘Ilm al-bayān* includes the three subtypes (*ṣinf* pl. *aṣnāf*) familiar to us from the Standard Theory, namely (1) functional grammar (or: contextual aptness, oddly termed *‘ilm al-balāgha!*), (2) implied meaning (*‘ilm al-bayān* – on this translation below), and (3) embellishments (*‘ilm al-badī*).²⁰⁶ The reason given for naming the supra-heading “*‘ilm al-bayān*” has, in fact, to do with the hypo-heading *‘ilm al-bayān (al-ṣinf al-thānī)*: according to Ibn Khaldūn, it was the first among the three to be discussed by the ‘ancients’ (*al-aqdamīn*), so the ‘moderns’ named the discipline after it.²⁰⁷

²⁰⁴ Ibn Khaldūn, *Muqaddima* (ed. Wāfī) 4: 1263 ff. / Ibn Khaldūn, *The Muqaddima: An Introduction to History*, translated from the Arabic by Franz Rosenthal, 2nd ed., with corrections and augmented bibliography, 3 vols., Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1967, 3: 332-9; henceforth: “Rosenthal (trans.)” / Ibn Khaldūn, *Discours sur l’histoire universelle (Al-Muqaddima)*: Traduction nouvelle, préf. et notes par Vincent Monteil, 3 vols., Beirut: Commission internationale pour la traduction des chefs-d’oeuvre, 1967-1968, 3: 1256 ff. / Ibn Khaldūn, *Die Muqaddima: Betrachtungen zur Weltgeschichte*, Aus dem Arabischen übertragen und mit einer Einführung von Alma Giese, Unter Mitwirkung von Wolfhart Heinrichs, Munich: C.H. Beck, 2011, 489. Rosenthal translates *‘ilm al-bayān* as “[t]he science of syntax and style and literary criticism” (Rosenthal [trans.] 3: 332), seemingly taking the first subdivision dealing with functional grammar as ‘syntax’ (probably because topics we classify nowadays as part of pragmatics were seen at the time to be part of syntax). See also Monteil’s translation (*Discours* 3: 1256) as “syntaxe et stylistique”. Giese has “Stilistik/Rhetorik” (*Die Muqaddima*, 489).

²⁰⁵ *Muqaddima* 4: 1254 (Rosenthal has “sciences concerned with the Arabic language” for *‘ulūm al-lisān al-‘arabī*; Rosenthal [trans.] 3: 319). It should be noted that *‘ilm al-naḥw* is not limited to syntax as one would gather from the discussion in *Muqaddima* 4: 1254-58 dealing entirely with case endings. In his introductory words of *‘ilm al-bayān* (4: 1263) Ibn Khaldūn does include *abniyat al-kalimāt* within *‘ilm al-naḥw*, that is, morphology.

²⁰⁶ *Ibid.* 4: 1263-64, and in slightly different terms 4: 1307-1308. According to Ibn Khaldūn the three-fold discipline is chronologically posterior to the science of syntax and the science of lexicography (4: 1263). For the use of (*‘ilm*) *al-balāgha* in the sense of (what we know as) *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* see 4: 1264.8-6°, 1279.7 ff., 1280.12, 1287.3-4, 1291.1-2, 1293.6 ff., 1310.11-13, 1311.3-4 (Rosenthal [trans.] 3: 335 translates this as ‘the science of rhetoric’).

²⁰⁷ *Muqaddima* 4: 1265. This seems to be Ibn Khaldūn’s own interpretation. Though elsewhere he states (4: 1229) that the topics of (the supra) *‘ilm al-bayān* were historically first scattered throughout the grammar books: but as is well known, figurative speech, similes and the like (= *al-ṣinf al-thānī*) fell *outside* the purview of the grammarians. Regarding the ‘ancients’, Ibn Khaldūn does not mention any scholar by name but does say that once the topics had started to accumulate, Ja‘far b. Yaḥyā (the Barmakid?; cf. Rosenthal [trans.] 3: 336, fn. 1299), al-Jāhiz, Qudāma and their like wrote deficient books on them (the topics of the supra *‘ilm al-bayān*) until finally came al-Sakkākī and

Furthermore, *‘ilm al-bayān* is taken to be a highly theoretical science divorced from the art of speech production,²⁰⁸ in contradistinction to the ‘incorporated’ view we saw in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn and Ibn al-Akfānī. In fact, good speech composition (or: good style) is accorded independent status in Ibn Khaldūn’s scheme as it constitutes the object of the last of the four Arabic sciences, namely *‘ilm al-adab*. Thus *‘ilm al-bayān* is coupled with grammar with respect to its scientific methodology – they both contain *qawānīn ‘ilmiyya* ‘theoretical/ scientific rules’ which are susceptible to *qiyās* ‘analogical reasoning’ – whereas *‘ilm al-adab* lacks such methodology.²⁰⁹ The gist of *‘ilm al-adab* is to enable one to produce good poetry and good prose according to the ways of the ancient Arabs such that it exhibits the composer’s well-rounded education.²¹⁰ The only ‘methodology’ *‘ilm al-adab* has to offer is the memorization, or “implanting in the mind” of the “moldings/patterns” (*asālīb*,

turned the discipline into its final, refined form (*Muqaddima* 4: 1265). ‘Abd al-Qāhīr al-Jurjānī is not mentioned in this context but is mentioned earlier, alongside al-Sakkākī, as the essential founder (a term not used) of *‘ilm al-bayān* (*Muqaddima* 4: 1229 / Rosenthal [trans.] 3: 286, 534 [index]). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr is not mentioned anywhere in the work (his brother, the historian ‘Izz al-Dīn, amply is; see Rosenthal [trans.], 3: index). Notably, the editor of the *Muqaddima*, ‘Alī ‘Abd al-Wāhīd Wāfī, states that “in the past” (*qadīman*) the term *bayān* was used to comprise all three subfields (*Muqaddima* 4: 1229 fn. 1670).

²⁰⁸ [...] *kāna fannu ta’līfī l-kalāmi munfaridan ‘an nazāri l-naḥwiyyi wa-l-bayāniyyi wa-l-‘arūḍiyyi* “[...] the art of speech composition is separated from the consideration[s] of the grammarian, the scholar of *bayān* [for discussion and translation of *bayānī* see below] and the prosodist”; *Muqaddima* 4: 1294.7-6° and fn. 1761 (the text is vocalized *ta’ālīf*, in the plural form) / Rosenthal (trans.) 3: 380. See also *Muqaddima* 4: 1267 ff., 1279 ff., 1293 ff.

²⁰⁹ Ibid. 4: 1279.2-1° (*al-qawānīn al-‘ilmiyya* [...] -*llatī stanbaṭahā ahlu šinā‘ati l-lisāni*), 1280.8 (*al-qawānīn al-naḥwiyya wa-l-bayāniyya*), 1282.9 (*al-qawānīn al-bayāniyya*), 1293.5-4° (*qawānīn al-balāgha* [...] *‘ilmiyya wa-qiyāsiyya*) (by *balāgha* he means here the standard *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*, see above), 1294.1 (*al-qawānīn al-‘ilmiyya min al-‘arabiyya* [synonymous with *naḥw*] *wa-l-bayān*).

²¹⁰ Ibid. 4: 1267 ff. Ibn Khaldūn admits that, unlike other sciences, *‘ilm al-adab* has no ‘subject-matter’ (*mawḍū‘*); rather, its ‘fruit’ – to excel in the arts of prose and poetry – is identical with the science itself. Ibn Khaldūn tells us that according to his teachers, the foundational works on *‘ilm al-adab* four (*Muqaddima* 4: 1267-8): *Adab al-kātib* of Ibn Qutayba (d. 276/889), *al-Kāmil* of al-Mubarrad (d. 286/898), *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* of al-Jāhīz and *al-Nawādir* (= *al-Amālī?*) of al-Qālī (d. 356/967). Despite the philological nature of some of these works (esp. *Adab al-kātib*, which seems out of place), what makes them qualify for this ‘science’ is that they contain “authentic texts” (*mutūn*) of the speech of the Arabs (*kalām al-‘arab*), that is, they are a faithful source for old poems and literary prose (*Muqaddima* 4: 1267.13-16). See also van Gelder, “Literary Criticism as Literature,” 56, and fn. 2, for the probable source for this account (where we find, instead of Ibn Qutayba’s *Adab al-kātib*, the *Zahra* – i.e., *Zahr al-ādāb* – by al-Ḥuṣrī [d. 413/1022]).

qawālib; cf. Ibn al-Akfānī's *aḥwāl*) of the ancient Arabic speech – that is, poetry and high prose – a process which cannot be set into rules and cannot be achieved by analogical reasoning.²¹¹

If *‘ilm al-bayān* by Ibn Khaldūn reflects the Sakkākian strand of rhetoric studies, one should not be surprised, and would in fact expect to find it delineated as a science possessing *qawānīn ‘ilmiyya*. But the picture portrayed in the *Muqaddima* is more complex than that, as it betrays evidence of ‘our’ earlier *‘ilm al-bayān*. This evidence is found in Ibn Khaldūn’s treatment of *dhawq* lit. ‘taste’, here: ‘linguistic aptitude’, a notion claimed to be under the scrutiny of the “scholars of *bayān*”!²¹² According to Ibn Khaldūn, it was in fact the *bayān* scholars who coined the term.²¹³ Since the standard theorists rarely, if ever, spoke of *dhawq*, Ibn Khaldūn must have in mind here the ‘old’ stylisticians.²¹⁴ *Dhawq* is portrayed here in remarkably similar terms to those of *‘ilm al-adab*: it is described as the possession of the

²¹¹ Ibid. 4: 1267, 1290-91, 1294. In all these sections Ibn Khaldūn repeats the notion of creating a *šūra dhihniyya* ‘mental form’ of those memorized patterns. In essence, it is a ‘mechanical’ process that has not to do with linguistic training or knowledge. The idea of ‘implanting’ such patterns in the mind is an old one and was used by al-Jāḥiẓ and Ibn Ṭabāṭabā. Al-Jāḥiẓ uses the image of setting up a nest in the heart, wherein eggs are laid which later hatch chickens that eventually learn to fly; for Ibn Ṭabāṭabā it is an ingot cast from various metals or a river made up of various streams (see Lidia Bettini, “On *Lafḍ* and *Ma’nā* Again: Some Aspects of Their Relationship According to the *Balāḡiyyūn*,” in Giuliano Lancioni and Lidia Bettini [eds.], *The Word in Arabic*, Leiden: Brill, 2011, 109-43, here: 115). Although more attention is given to poetry, Ibn Khaldūn explicitly says that in speaking of *qawālib* he is referring to literary prose as well (*Muqaddima* 4: 1294.8). Ibn Khaldūn makes the same distinction of theoretical versus practical knowledge when he deals with the acquisition of ‘everyday’ (as opposed to literary) ancient Arabic: the ability to acquire the linguistic habit (*malakat ḥādhā al-lisān*) does not equal the knowledge of the rules and methods underlying that habit (e.g., 4: 1276-79). The idea of the acquisition of the ancient Arabic linguistic habit is almost indistinguishable from the notion of *dhawq* (see below).

²¹² Ibid. 4: 1279-82, under the title *faṣl fī tafsīr al-dhawq fī muṣṭalah ahl al-bayān wa-tahqīq ma’nāhu [...]* “On the explanation of *dhawq* in the nomenclature of the scholars of *bayān* and the presentation of its real meaning [...]” (4: 1279). The opening statement of the section is: *i’lam anna lafẓata l-dhawqi yatadāwaluhā l-mu’tanūna bi-funūni l-bayāni* “Know that the word *dhawq* is in current use in the deliberations of those who devote their attention to the [various] branches of *bayān*” (4: 1279).

²¹³ [...] *ism al-dhawq alladhī iṣṭalaha ‘alayhi ahl ṣinā’at al-bayān*; ibid. 4: 1280.5°.

²¹⁴ Rosenthal even translates *bayān* here as ‘literary criticism’ and *ahl al-bayān* as ‘literary critics’ (Rosenthal [trans.] 3: 358, 360). Al-Sakkākī did talk of *dhawq* as a component to be revered in eloquence (Maṭlūb, *al-Balāḡha ‘inda al-Sakkākī*, 184; Smyth, “Criticism,” 416), but he did not expound on its methods of attainment or its place in his system nor did he make extensive use of the notion.

linguistic habit (*malaka*) of the (ancient) Arabic speech exhibiting contextual aptness (*balāgha*);²¹⁵ like ‘*ilm al-adab*, it is attained only by continual practice, not by ‘theory’.²¹⁶ Precisely because the notion of *dhawq* is portrayed as a ‘practical’ skill falling outside the ‘theoretical’ purview of ‘*ilm al-bayān*, it is revealing to see how Ibn Khaldūn still sees it as part of the outlook of the *bayān* scholars. What we have here is a testament to the gradual development and change of perception towards *bayān* studies, *bayān* scholars and *bayān* scientificity. The preoccupation with a practical notion like *dhawq* by the *bayān* scholars diminishes the professed scientificity of the discipline, at least by Ibn Khaldūn’s own terms.

The tensions surrounding ‘*ilm al-bayān* do not end with *dhawq*. The tenets themselves of Ibn Khaldūn’s ‘*ilm al-bayān* do not entirely conform to the standard ‘*ilm al-balāgha*. First we have the – admittedly less consequential – terminological inconsistencies: ‘*ilm al-bayān* (Ibn Khaldūn) for ‘*ilm al-balāgha* (standard); ‘*ilm al-balāgha* (Ibn Khaldūn) for ‘*ilm al-ma‘ānī* (standard). These terminological differences are actually sorted out in a later passage in the *Muqaddima* which seems to have been added after Ibn Khaldūn’s move to Egypt at the age of fifty.²¹⁷ Second, and more importantly, the second subfield termed ‘*ilm al-bayān* (the section on imagery) essentially lacks two of the paramount notions found in the Standard Theory: *majāz* ‘figurative speech’ and *tashbīh* ‘comparison; simile’.²¹⁸ The

²¹⁵ *ḥusūlu malakati l-balāghati li-l-lisāni wa-qad marra tafsīru l-balāghati wa-annahā muṭābaqatu l-kalāmi li-l-ma‘nā min jamī‘i wujūhihi bi-khawāṣṣa taqa‘u li-l-tarākībi fī ifādati dhālika* (*Muqaddima* 4: 1279).

²¹⁶ Ibid. 4: 1279.1-2°.

²¹⁷ Ibid. 4: 1307-1309. On the ‘Egyptian edition’ of the *Muqaddima* see Rosenthal (trans.) 1: Translator’s Introduction, and below. In Wāfi’s edition, the entire section (*Muqaddima* 4: 1307-11) appears in square brackets which, in his notation, means that it appeared in two of the four manuscripts used in “the Paris edition” (Quatremère, 1858), as well as in one manuscript in the Taymūriyya library (see *Muqaddima* 4: 1307, 2: 669 fn. 900, and 698, fn. 944; Rosenthal [trans.] 1: lxxxviii and c-ci).

²¹⁸ *Majāz* appears once in this context: *Muqaddima* 4: 1307.2°, part of the later ‘Egyptian edition’. But cf. 4: 1264.6-7 where *ḥaqīqa* (the standard counterpart of *majāz*) is opposed with *isti‘āra*. An additional inconsistency vis-à-vis the Standard Theory is found in that same passage added later in Egypt, where he says (4: 1307.14) that the rules of

subfield called *‘ilm al-bayān* that Ibn Khaldūn knew of studied *implied meaning*, the main components of which were *isti‘āra* ‘metaphor’ and *kināya* ‘periphrasis’. There is no clear term used for ‘implied meaning’ but Ibn Khaldūn does speak of “meaning/intending” (conjugations of *irāda*) the *lāzim* ‘consequence’ or the *malzūm* ‘cause’ of the utterance.²¹⁹ The discussion derives directly or indirectly from al-Sakkākī, but makes no reference to the all-important notion of *majāz*.²²⁰ Implied meaning is of two kinds: (1) intending the ‘consequence’ of the utterance (*lāzim* lit. “a thing [logically] following”) as in the case of metaphor (*isti‘āra*): “Zayd is a lion” → “Zayd is brave” (the second follows the first); and (2) intending the ‘cause’ of the utterance (*malzūm* lit. “a thing being [logically] followed [by something else]”) as in the case of periphrasis (*kināya*): “Zayd has many ashes [of the cooking pot]” ← “Zayd is hospitable” (the second is logically followed by the first).²²¹ Discussions on implied meaning did comprise the prefatory remarks to the standard sub-science of imagery (see §2.1). But when implied meaning becomes the focus of the entire subfield, as is the case with Ibn Khaldūn’s synopsis, it is my understanding that all utterances under investigation must be taken *literally* rather than figuratively, thus excluding

grammar (*al-qawānīn al-‘arabiyya*) are subsumed under the rules of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* (or *fann al-balāgha*). He also disagrees with the ‘modern’ view that *badī‘* was part of *balāgha* (the knowledge of contextual aptness; 4: 1310.10-14).

²¹⁹ This is a paraphrase of *ibid.* 4: 1264.5-8: *thumma qad yadullu bi-l-lafzi wa-lā yurādu maṭṭūquhu wa-yurādū lāzimuhu [...] fa-lā turīdu [...] wa-innamā turīdu [...] wa-qad turīdu bi-l-lafzi l-murakkabi l-dalālata ‘alā malzūmihi [...] wa-turīdu bihi [...]*.

²²⁰ On al-Sakkākī’s treatment of the “relationships of adherence (*luzūm*),” as Smyth refers to it, see Smyth, “Canonical Formulation,” 17-21.

²²¹ *Muqaddima* 4: 1264, 1307.3° ff.

the notion of *majāz*. The notion of *tashbīh* is not treated by Ibn Khaldūn and is only vaguely alluded to.²²²

When dealing with the *Muqaddima* one must keep in mind that its contents reflect the knowledge prevalent in northwestern Africa in the second half of the eighth/fourteenth century. Most of the work was written in the Islamic West, and even after Ibn Khaldūn moved to the eastern Islamic world (Egypt) at the age of fifty he kept his later ‘editions’ of the *Muqaddima* more or less faithful to the early versions (that is, there were additions and corrections, but rarely did he rewrite previous expositions).²²³ This means that the knowledge of an overarching ‘ilm al-bayān had been entrenched well before Ibn Khaldūn’s time, because the ideas he relays represented the perceived wisdom of his teachers and peers back West.²²⁴ The pervasiveness of the ‘old’ conception of ‘ilm al-bayān comes across, first,

²²² Even in the later passage that exhibits the ‘corrected’ appellations for the discipline and sub-disciplines, his single mention of *majāz* and allusion to *tashbīh* is not in line with the Standard Theory. He states: *thumma yantaqilu l-dhīhnu ilā lāzimihī [lāzim al-mā`nā] aw malzūmihī aw shibhihī fa-yakūnu fīha majāzan immā bi-sti`āratin aw kināyatīn* “The mind then goes to [a meaning] that follows it [*viz.* that follows the ‘first’ or ‘immediate’ meaning of the utterance] or [to a meaning] that is followed by it [i.e., is the cause of the first meaning] or [to a meaning of something] similar to it, in [either case of] which it is *majāz* ‘figurative speech’ either through metaphor or through periphrasis” (*Muqaddima* 4: 1307.2-3^e; emphasis added). The implication that *kināya* is also a type of *majāz* goes against the Standard Theory. The notion of *tashbīh* is less accounted for, but it seems that it too is part of *majāz*, another idea broadly rejected by the standard theorists. An alternative understanding of this passage would be to take *majāz* not as ‘figurative speech’ but as ‘implied speech’ (speech that is understood by *going beyond* what is uttered, but ‘what is uttered’ is to be taken literally): here, as well, it would diverge from the Standard Theory which spoke explicitly of non-literal speech.

²²³ This is the view espoused by Rosenthal. See Rosenthal (trans.) 1: Translator’s Introduction, esp. xxix, xliii, lx-lxi, lxviii-lxxi, lxxxviii and civ-cvii. According to him (1: cv-cvi), “[i]t would be wrong to consider the successive stages of the text of the *Muqaddima* as ‘recensions’ in the proper sense of the term. For instance, Ibn Khaldūn never changed the passages where he speaks of himself as still in the Maghrib. His additions and corrections were jotted down unsystematically in a long-drawn-out process, much as a modern author might add notes in the margins of his published works.” Rosenthal adds that Ibn Khaldūn did rectify obvious mistakes committed earlier. Wāfi, the editor of the *Muqaddima*, holds a different view: according to him (*Muqaddima* 1: 162-63 [editor’s introduction]), it is in fact impossible to distinguish between what Ibn Khaldūn wrote in the West and what he later changed in the East. This is unless there are clear contextual markers indicating the place or time of his statements (several examples are given by Wāfi in 1: 163-65).

²²⁴ “[...] we should perhaps be justified in assuming that practically every matter of detail found in the *Muqaddimah* was probably not original with Ibn Khaldūn, but had been previously expressed elsewhere.” Rosenthal (trans.) 1: lxxxv; see also xliii. It may be added that Ibn Khaldūn exhibited marked local patriotism outwardly by dressing in the style of his native northwest African region after moving to Egypt (1: lxiv).

via the terminological vestige of *‘ilm al-bayān* as the signifier of scholastic rhetoric (though Ibn al-Akfānī too did not use the term *‘ilm al-balāgha*). Second, it comes across via the substantial vestiges we find in the understanding of *dhawq* as part of the discipline’s purview. Third, it comes across via the ‘professionalization’ of *‘ilm al-bayān* seen through such expressions containing the *nisba* form of *bayān* as *qawānīn bayāniyya* as well as occupation-headings like the *bayānī* (alongside the *naḥwī* ‘grammarian’ and *‘arūḍī* ‘prosodist’) and *ahl al-bayān*.²²⁵ The phrases that are used to refer to this group of scholars in the context of the discussion of *dhawq* alone are *ahl al-bayān*, *ahl ṣinā‘at al-bayān* “the people of the craft of *bayān*,” *al-mu‘tanūn bi-funūn al-bayān* “those who devote their attention to the [various] branches of *bayān*,” *ahl al-qawānīn* [...] *al-bayāniyya* “the people of the *bayānī* rules”, and *man yanẓuru fī hādhihi al-qawānīn al-bayāniyya* “those who study the rules of *bayān*”.²²⁶

The *bayānī* of Ibn Khaldūn did not exactly reflect the ‘new’ rhetorician, but it did not conform to the ‘old’ concept of the stylistician or literary theorist either. His treatment of *‘ilm al-bayān* shows us that the development of *‘ilm al-balāgha* was not uniform and clear-cut, nor was it all-sweeping, as one might gather from the ‘formal’ account of its development.²²⁷ It shows us that even as late as Ibn Khaldūn’s time its consolidation was far from complete and it highlights once more the lacuna in our understanding of the earlier *‘ilm al-bayān*. The conflation of *‘ilm al-adab* and *dhawq* may indicate that separating *‘ilm al-adab* from *‘ilm al-bayān* was Ibn Khaldūn’s own innovation, and that according to his

²²⁵ E.g., *Muqaddima* 4: 1294.6° (*bayānī*), 1279.4 and 1307.5 (*ahl al-bayān*), 1280.5° (*ahl ṣinā‘at al-bayān*).

²²⁶ *Ibid.* 4: 1279.4, 1280.5°, 1279.6, 1280.8, 1282.9, respectively.

²²⁷ That is, the Jurjānī-Sakkākī-Qazwīnī-route that, in turn, changed the landscape of pre-modern Arabic literary-theoretical studies.

received wisdom, literary composition was part of *'ilm al-bayān*. Ibn Khaldūn does not mention Ḍiyā' al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr anywhere in his account.²²⁸ Indeed, this may be the only caveat in associating *'ilm al-bayān* directly with Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's efforts.

2.3. 'Ilm al-Bayān in Literary-Theoretical Works

Relics of an overarching discipline called *'ilm al-bayān* can be seen not only in later works on the classification of the sciences or multi-thematic historical works but also in literary-theoretical works themselves. To be sure, many of the vestiges are terminological. It seems that very shortly after Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's time (mid-seventh/thirteenth century) the term *'ilm al-bayān* as a signifier for literary-theoretical studies and the expression *'ulamā' al-bayān* as a signifier for its scholarly practitioners swept the critical landscape. In later centuries the term *'ilm al-bayān* became so prevalent that we even find it lexicalized in Hans Wehr's dictionary as 'rhetoric'.²²⁹ Indeed, the term is preserved with reference to the Standard Theory as well, as evinced in the works of Bahā' al-Dīn al-Subkī (d. 773/1372), al-Taftāzānī (d. 792/1390), al-Zarkashī (794/1392), al-Suyūṭī (d. 911/1505), and al-Tahānawī (12th/18th cent.), among others.²³⁰

²²⁸ Rosenthal [trans.] 3: index.

²²⁹ Hans Wehr, *A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic: Arabic-English*, edited by J. Milton Cowan, 3rd printing, Beirut: Librairie du Liban, 1980, 88. For *bayān* (without *'ilm*) as 'rhetoric' see also Lane, *Lexicon*, 288; J.G. Hava, *al-Farā'id al-durriyya fī al-lughatayn al-'arabiyya wa-l-inklīziyya: Arabic-English Dictionary*, Beirut: Catholic Press, 1915, 54.

²³⁰ For al-Subkī see below. Al-Taftāzānī tells us that the term *al-bayān* is "often applied to the three [sub-]sciences [of *'ilm al-balāgha*]" (*kathīran mā yuṭlaqu l-bayānu 'alā l-'ulūmi l-thalātha*); Sa'd al-Dīn Mas'ūd b. 'Umar al-Taftāzānī, *al-Muṭawwal sharḥ talkhīṣ miftāḥ al-'ulūm*, ed. 'Abd al-Ḥamīd Hindāwī, Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 2001, 286 (English: 'The Exhaustive Commentary on [al-Qazwīnī's] *Epitome of the Key to the Sciences*). Al-Suyūṭī, *Sharḥ 'Uqūd al-jumān*, 3, is relying, *inter alia*, on al-Zarkashī's legal work: Badr al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Bahādur al-Zarkashī, *al-Manthūr fī al-qawā'id: fiqh Shāfi'ī*, ed. Muḥammad Ḥasan Muḥammad Ḥasan Ismā'īl, 2 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 2000, 13 (English: 'The Diffuse [Account] on Legal Maxims/Principles: Shāfi'ī Law'). See also Jalāl al-Dīn 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Suyūṭī, *Husn al-muḥādara fī tārikh Miṣr wa-l-Qāhira*, ed. Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm, 2 vols., Cairo: Īsā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1967-68, 338, 343 (English: 'The Excellent Historical Reports Worth Quoting About Egypt and Cairo'; translation adopted from Stephanie B. Thomas, *The*

As we saw above, the literary scholar writing closest in time to ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s writing of the *Mathal* in the first third of the seventh/thirteenth century was Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd, who completed his ‘response’ to the *Mathal* in 633/1236. Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd did not pay any conscious attention to ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s use of the term *‘ilm al-bayān*. It either went unnoticed or it was interpreted as one out of several names for literary-theoretical studies. Judging by his preface (see §1.2), Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd interpreted the *Mathal* primarily as a work for *kuttāb* education. But he did quote the term *‘ilm al-bayān* if it appeared in a passage he was criticizing. Such was the case in the passage in which ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn claims that *‘ilm al-bayān* is a rational science as opposed to the science of grammar. Sure enough, we find out in his reply that Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd’s grievance concerns solely the claims on grammar being a ‘traditional’ science. He ignores the claim on *‘ilm al-bayān*, and this enforces our contention that ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s generic innovation had gone by him unnoticed.

We have a different story with the slightly later writer Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāʿ (d. 654/1256), an Egyptian scholar and litterateur.²³¹ Like ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn, he authored two works on literary-critical matters, and like ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn, he provides at the outset a list of authorities in the discipline he is writing in (though Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāʿ’s lists are much longer indeed). But the change in framework we find between Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāʿ’s first book and his second book is striking. While the first, more comprehensive work titled *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, completed in

Concept of Muḥādāra in the Adab Anthology with Special Reference to al-Rāghib al-Iṣḥāḥī’s Muḥādārāt al-udabāʾ, PhD Dissertation, Harvard University, 2000, 93); Muḥammad ʿAlī b. ʿAlī b. Muḥammad al-Taḥānawī, *Kashshāf iṣṭilāḥāt al-funūn*, ed. Aḥmad Ḥasan Basāj, 4 vols., 2nd ed., Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-ʿIlmiyya, 2006, 1: 210 (English: ‘The Uncoverer of the Technical Terms of the Sciences’). According to al-Taḥānawī’s interpretation of al-Taftāzānī’s *Muṭawwal*, some use *‘ilm al-bayān* to signify *maʿānī*, *bayān* and *badīʿ* in their entirety, while others use it to signify *bayān* and *badīʿ* alone (see fn. 174 on the Persianate Indian work forming the basis of de Tassy’s book, which lacked the section on *maʿānī*). Already al-Qazwīnī noted the terminological overlaps in *Talkhīṣ*, 23; see also Larcher, “Pragmatics,” *Oxford Handbook of Arabic Linguistics*, 188, 195.

²³¹ Van Gelder, “Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāʿ,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature*, 305.

640/1242 or 1243, is framed under the heading *badī* ‘rhetorical figures’, the second work titled *Badī al-Qur’ān* is framed explicitly under the disciplinary terms of ‘ilm al-bayān.²³² It is not that Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ shows no disciplinary awareness in the *Tahrīr*: he consciously chooses the term *badī* as the heading of the science he is writing in (*hādhā l-‘ilm*) and even differentiates between *badī* studies and studies concerned more broadly with eloquence (*balāgha*, *faṣāḥa*) or criticism (*naqd*).²³³ For him, the limits of *badī* are clear: he criticizes Usāma b. Munqidh (d. 584/1188) for including poetic faults (‘*uyūb*) and ‘plagiarism’ (*sariqāt*) in his book on *badī*, implying that they exceed its scope.²³⁴ Like Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ is concerned with his active role in extracting (*istikhrāj*, *istinbāt*) new literary devices, which he identifies explicitly as rhetorical figures (Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn did not use the terminology of *badī* here).²³⁵ There is little doubt that Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ envisages *badī* as the overarching frame for his work. In fact, in one of the manuscripts the title of the book

²³² ‘Abd al-‘Azīm b. ‘Abd al-Wāḥid Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘, *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr fī šinā‘at al-shi‘r wa-l-nathr wa-bayān i’jāz al-Qur’ān*, ed. Ḥifnī Muḥammad Sharaf, Cairo: al-Majlis al-‘Alī li-l-Shu‘ūn al-Islāmiyya, Lajnat Iḥyā’ al-Turāth al-Islāmī, [1963], 83-87 (English: ~‘Foolproofing the Foolproof Composition: On the Craft of Poetry and Prose and the Manifestation of the Qur’ān’s Inimitability’); *idem*, *Badī al-Qur’ān*, ed. Ḥifnī Muḥammad Sharaf, [Cairo]: Maktabat Nahḍat Miṣr, 1957, 3-4 (English: ‘The Rhetorical Figures of the Qur’ān’). For the *Tahrīr*’s time of composition see *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, 57, 67-69 (editor’s introduction). The *Badī* is also known under the title *al-Burhān fī i’jāz al-Qur’ān* and was later edited based on a newly discovered manuscript in Chester Beatty; see Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ al-Miṣrī, *al-Burhān fī i’jāz al-Qur’ān* aw *Badī al-Qur’ān*, eds. Aḥmad Maṭlūb and Khadīja al-Ḥadīthī, Baghdad: al-Majma‘ al-‘Ilmī, 2006. *Badī al-Qur’ān* began as an appendix for another work written by Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘, *Bayān al-burhān fī i’jāz al-Qur’ān* (‘Manifestation of the Proof: On the Qur’ān’s inimitability’), described by him as “the task of his lifetime”; see *Badī al-Qur’ān*, 3, 15. According to the Maṭlūb and al-Ḥadīthī (*al-Burhān*, 19), this work is identical to the *Tahrīr*, but given Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘’s own reference to the *Tahrīr* in the preface alongside the *Bayān al-burhān* (see below), this seems unlikely.

²³³ *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, 87 (including the occurrence of *hādhā al-‘ilm*, referring to *al-badī* on pp. 83-87). More specifically he states that scholars usually refer to “such-and-such” a figure of speech or component of speech-beautification (*maḥāsīn al-kalām*) as *badī* – except for those who write books on the sum total of eloquence (*majmū‘ al-balāgha*) or on revealing the true essence of eloquence (*kunh al-faṣāḥa*) or on criticism (*naqd*). These latter authors, he says, may refer to figures of speech however they may wish. He begins with an interesting history of *badī*-studies starting with Ibn al-Mu‘tazz and Qudāma, demonstrating how the term *badī* gained prevalence over *maḥāsīn al-kalām* (*ibid.*, 83 ff).

²³⁴ *Ibid.*, 91.

²³⁵ *Ibid.*, 94, and §1.2 above for Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s discussion of *ḍurūb* in this context.

appears explicitly as *Taḥrīr al-taḥbīr fī ‘ilm al-badī’*.²³⁶ Finally, the long list of books he provides in his preface, about forty in number, are said either to be devoted to “this science” (*mā huwa munfarid bihi*, referring to *hādhā l-‘ilm*), meaning *badī’*, or to include it (*mā hādhā l-‘ilm aw ba ‘duhu dākhil fī ba ‘dihī*).²³⁷

The preface to his later work, written in old-age,²³⁸ repeats many of the points discussed in the preface to the *Taḥrīr*. Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘’s point of interest is the categories of *badī’*, though this time only those rhetorical figures appearing in the Qur’ān (hence the title *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*).²³⁹ Here too he stresses his own *ijtihād* (our term) in extracting (*istikhrāj*, *istinbāṭ*) categories of *badī’*.²⁴⁰ Here too he provides a long list of works in the field, more than twice as long as his list in the *Taḥrīr* and including almost all of those mentioned there.²⁴¹ But “the field” with which these books are said to be either coextensive or wider in scope, in almost the exact wording as we find in the *Taḥrīr*, is no longer identified as *badī’*

²³⁶ Ibid., 67 (editor’s introduction). This is the principal manuscript Sharaf relied on (MS Shahīd ‘Alī 2170 in Istanbul). Smyth (“Criticism,” 406) categorizes the *Taḥrīr* under *badī’* studies.

²³⁷ *Taḥrīr al-taḥbīr*, 87. Works whose scope is wider than *badī’* range from the classical *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* of al-Jāḥiẓ to the exegetical *al-Kashshāf* of al-Zamakhsharī to the commentary of *ḥadīth Umm Zar’* by al-Qāḍī ‘Iyāḍ (d. 544/1149). Works whose scope is (probably in Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘’s eyes) coextensive with *badī’* are those by al-Āmidī, Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī, Ibn Rashīq, and more. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is also included. See *Taḥrīr al-taḥbīr*, 87-91. Such ‘inventories’ of bibliographical references were to become common; for the reading list that Ṣafī al-Dīn al-Ḥillī (d. 749/1348) provides see Muhsin J. al-Musawi, *The Medieval Islamic Republic of Letters: Arabic Knowledge Construction*, Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press, 2015, 227, and the last four pages between p. 146 and p. 147. Al-Musawi draws a direct line of influence between Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ and al-Ḥillī in the latter’s listing of a bibliography (ibid., 115), but others have done so as well (see the case of al-Subkī, below).

²³⁸ *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, 4, where he refers to his *shaykhūkhā*. On p. 15 he mentions his earlier written *Taḥrīr al-taḥbīr*.

²³⁹ Its reputation as a work dedicated solely to the devices in the Qur’ān continues well beyond Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘’s time; Ṭashköprüzāde cites his book as a leading source under the chapter on *badā’i’ al-Qur’ān* (*Miftāḥ al-sa’āda*, eds. Bakrī and al-Nūr, 2: 494, where we find the erroneous Abū al-Iṣbagh and Ibn Abī al-Iṣbagh, and *Miftāḥ al-sa’āda*, Hyderabad ed., 2: 338, with the correct name).

²⁴⁰ *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, 14-15.

²⁴¹ Ibid., 3-13.

but rather as *‘ilm al-bayān*.²⁴² The authorities in the discipline are no longer referred to as authorities in *badī‘* but rather as scholars, learned and eloquent men (*‘ulamā‘*, *fuḍalā‘*, *bulaghā‘*) in *‘ilm al-bayān*.²⁴³ He occasionally refers to “scholars of *‘ilm al-bayān*” throughout the work as well.²⁴⁴ It is clear that these scholars are identical to those he identified earlier as scholars in *badī‘*, even though his interest now is in Qur’ānic rhetorical figures. No special mention is made of Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn; his work is cited as one out of many.²⁴⁵

Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ is commonly portrayed in modern research as continuing ‘older’ traditions of rhetorical writings, where the various literary devices are presented as a list (otherwise known as works devoted to *badī‘*).²⁴⁶ But by no means should the mode of presentation affect our characterization of a work (cf. the case of medieval commentaries). Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘’s *Badī‘ al-Qur’ān*, which like the *Tahrīr* is organized in list-form, is at times better understood in light of the emerging Standard Theory than it is in light of older writings because of the growing influence of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī. Especially in the case of *majāz* and *isti‘āra*, passages from al-Rāzī’s epitome of al-Jurjānī’s oeuvre are cited explicitly and verbatim, and they contain such notions that were to become standard as

²⁴² Ibid., 4. The phrase *mā huwa munfarid bi-hādhā al-‘ilm wa-[...] mā hādhā al-‘ilm dākhil fī athnā’ihi* (line 5) refers to *‘ilm al-bayān* (line 2).

²⁴³ Ibid.

²⁴⁴ Ibid., 26.1° (*al-muḥaqqiqūn min ‘ilm al-bayān*; context: the chapter on *isti‘āra* ‘metaphor’), 121.3 (*‘ilm al-bayān*; context: the technical [*ṣinā‘ī*] meaning of *istithnā‘* ‘exception’), 178.15 (*arbāb ‘ilm al-bayān*; context: the chapter on *majāz* ‘figurative speech’).

²⁴⁵ *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, 91; *Badī‘ al-Qur’ān*, 12. Only the *Mathal* is cited in the former; both the *Mathal* and *al-Washy al-marqūm* are cited in the latter.

²⁴⁶ Bonebakker, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-Bayān”; van Gelder, “Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘”; Smyth, “Criticism,” 405-406; Ḥifnī Muḥammad Sharaf’s introductions to the *Tahrīr* and *Badī‘ al-Qur’ān*; and other scholars who espouse the view of a ‘Western’ school of literary criticism (see Introduction). One exception is al-Musawi (*Islamic Republic of Letters*, 219), who describes Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ as ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s “loyal Egyptian follower”! (no reference for this claim is cited). In al-Musawi’s understanding, rhetoric following al-Sakkākī has become part of “grammar in its broadest sense” (ibid.).

“single-term [or: predicate] *majāz*” (*majāz fī al-muthbat*) and “*majāz* on the level of predication” (*majāz fī al-ithbāt*; to be discussed in Chapter 5).²⁴⁷ Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā‘ enumerates the work of al-Rāzī already in the preface to the *Tahrīr*, but he does not yet incorporate his views therein (indeed, he may not have actually seen al-Rāzī’s work).²⁴⁸ More than that, Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā‘ lists al-Jurjānī’s *Asrār al-balāgha* and *Dalā’il al-i’jāz* already in the *Tahrīr* (and later again in the *Badī’*), but once again, there is no indication that he engaged with these works firsthand, especially given the fact that he possibly thought ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī was the earlier al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī (d. 392/1002), author of the *Wasāṭa*.²⁴⁹

Because of some of the ‘standard’ leanings we find in the later *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, and due to its limited interest in literary devices in the Qur’ān, the question arises whether Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā‘’s disciplinary alignment with *‘ilm al-bayān* has more to do with the influence of al-Rāzī and his preoccupation with the Qur’ān’s linguistic excellence than with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn and his preoccupation with literary composition. With regards to the rising popularity of the term *‘ilm al-bayān*, the answer probably lies somewhere in the middle, even though al-Rāzī’s own use of *‘ilm al-bayān* was only minimally technical (see §3.2). But with regards to the scope of the study of *‘ilm al-bayān*, there is little doubt that it was wider than the study of Qur’ānic style, as the long list of works provided both in the *Tahrīr* and *Badī’ al-*

²⁴⁷ *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, 17-19 and 176-78, for conspicuous citations of al-Rāzī and would-be standard notions.

²⁴⁸ *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, 89-90; *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, 5. In both places al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya* is referred to as *I’jāz Ibn al-Khaṭīb*.

²⁴⁹ Ibid. (for both works), and also *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, 178 (the sentence in parentheses where we come across *kalām al-Qāḍī [al-Jurjānī]* appears in the principal manuscript and in three out of the five remaining manuscripts that Sharaf relied on; in the manuscript used in the later edition, this sentence does not appear; *al-Burhān*, 243-44). In one instance al-Jurjānī’s name is cited in full, but this is probably a quotation from al-Rāzī. In the *Tahrīr*, the *Wasāṭa* is not listed immediately after the *Dalā’il* and *Asrār*, suggesting that he saw the latter two in a separate context, probably the work of al-Rāzī, or that he recognized that they were different authors only to forget this in his old age (when he wrote *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*).

Qur'ān cover the entire range of literary-theoretical studies. Al-Rāzī, on the other hand, is mainly concerned with logical-linguistic features of eloquence and his brief treatment of rhetorical devices is presented in the technical context of *nazm*, a principle belonging to syntax.²⁵⁰

Besides *Badī' al-Qur'ān* by Ibn Abī al-Iṣba', several additional works written in the Arabic East in the seventh/thirteenth century purport to deal with 'ilm al-bayān. These are *al-Tibyān fī 'ilm al-bayān* by the Syrian Ibn al-Zamlakānī (d. 651/1253),²⁵¹ *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa* by the Iranian turned Levantine Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī (d. after 693/1294), *Muqaddimat tafsīr Ibn al-Naqīb* by the Palestinian Ibn al-Naqīb (d. 698/1298),²⁵² *al-Iksīr fī 'ilm al-tafsīr* by the Iraqi Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭufī (d. 716/1316), and *al-Aqṣā al-qarīb* by the Syrian Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Tanūkhī (fl. end of 7th/13th century).²⁵³ Most of these will form the focus of our analysis in Part Two; like *Badī' al-Qur'ān*, some of them deal specifically with Qur'ānic style. This has to do with the growing importance of the literary-theoretical inquiry within the Qur'ānic commentarial tradition, which was probably propelled by al-Zamakhsharī's *Kashshāf*. But as we shall from our case study of *majāz*, the majority of these works display an unequivocal alignment with more literary-leaning notions

²⁵⁰ Al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 277 ff., 285-97 (references are henceforth to the Amīn edition). As opposed to other discussions, “this category,” al-Rāzī says – referring to the literary devices – “has no rule that can be memorized” (*thumma laysa li-hādhā l-bābi qānūnun yuḥfaẓu*; *ibid.*, 285, and cf. Ibn Khaldūn). We will look at the structure of the *Nihāya* as a comparison to Ibn al-Zamlakānī in Part Two, §4.2.

²⁵¹ Alongside his *al-Burhān al-kāshif 'an i'jāz al-Qur'ān* and *al-Mujīd fī i'jāz al-Qur'ān al-majīd*.

²⁵² Formerly known as [*Kitāb*] *al-Fawā'id al-mushawwiq ilā 'ulūm al-Qur'ān wa-'ilm al-bayān* and wrongly attributed to Ibn Qayyim al-Jawziyya (d. 751/1350).

²⁵³ Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Tanūkhī, *al-Aqṣā al-qarīb fī 'ilm al-bayān*, [Cairo]: [Maṭba'at al-Sa'āda], 1327 [1909]. The work opens with a lengthy prolegomenon on logic (*ibid.*, 2-32); after prefatory definitions of 'eloquence' and phonological and morphological discussions (pp. 32-40) begins the bulk of the work, which enumerates the literary devices (in al-Tanūkhī's terms, *ma'ānī*) that form the study of 'ilm al-bayān (p. 40 ff.). He refers explicitly to “that which has become customarily called 'ilm al-bayān” (*ibid.*, 32), and references to this science heading abound in the work.

than with Qur'ānic-leaning ones. This suggests that despite the growing affinity between Arabic literary theory in the form of *'ilm al-bayān* and Qur'ānic exegesis, the former was still primarily concerned with literary composition, not with hermeneutics.

Evidence of a wide-ranging *'ilm al-bayān* can be found well into the eighth/fourteenth century, similar to what we encountered with Ibn al-Akfānī and Ibn Khaldūn. Bahā' al-Dīn al-Subkī (d. 773/1372) living in Mamlūk Egypt is a case in point. His work, *'Arūs al-afrāḥ*, is an elaborate and dense commentary on al-Qazwīnī's *Talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ* and as such is in line with the Standard Theory. Subsequently, the science to which he attributes his book is *'ilm al-balāgha*, following al-Qazwīnī, and the strict tripartite structure of discipline is held throughout.²⁵⁴ And yet, the phrase *'ilm al-bayān* as a reference to the supra-science, rather than the second sub-science, crops up twice in his (fascinating) introduction to the work. In the first instance, al-Subkī explains why scholars from Egypt have concentrated – rather than on rational sciences and logic – on the sciences of lexicography, grammar, positive law, *ḥadīth* and Qur'ānic commentary: it is because these are the 'outcome' or 'substance' of *'ilm al-bayān* (one would expect here: *'ilm al-balāgha*).²⁵⁵ In the second instance, al-Subkī speaks of the scholarly merits of his father and the vastness of his knowledge: it is from him, says al-Subkī, that he picked up the study of

²⁵⁴ Bahā' al-Dīn Aḥmad b. 'Alī b. 'Abd al-Kāfī al-Subkī, *'Arūs al-afrāḥ fī sharḥ talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*, ed. Khalīl Ibrāhīm Khalīl, 4 pts. in 2 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-'Ilmiyya, 2001 (English: 'The Bride of the Wedding Feasts: On [al-Qazwīnī's] *Epitome of the Key*'). This commentary was traditionally available to scholars via the vast twentieth-century compendium *Shurūḥ al-talkhīṣ*, containing the commentaries on al-Qazwīnī's *Talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ* by al-Taftāzānī (his *Mukhtaṣar*), by Ibn Ya'qūb al-Maghribī (his *Mawāhib al-fattāḥ fī sharḥ talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*), by Bahā' al-Dīn al-Subkī (*'Arūs al-afrāḥ fī sharḥ talkhīṣ al-miftāḥ*) and by al-Dasūqī (a supercommentary on al-Taftāzānī's commentary). I have used the recent edition, noting that punctuation and footnotes should be used with caution.

²⁵⁵ *'Arūs al-afrāḥ* 1: 146.2-4° (*al-'ulūm allatī hiya natīja aw mādda li-'ilm al-bayān*). He presents this claim to reinforce his conviction that the Egyptians mastered all matters concerning eloquence and style, as opposed to the 'Easterners'.

‘ilm al-bayān (again, one would expect here: *‘ilm al-balāgha*).²⁵⁶

Interestingly, the expression *‘ulamā’ al-bayān*, or *‘ulamā’ al-balāgha* for that matter, does not appear as a common phrase in the work. It seems to be, in fact, quite rare. This is due to al-Subkī’s rigorous system of citation and referencing that would preclude him from attributing an opinion to such an unspecified group as “scholars of eloquence” (cf. modern scholarly guidelines of citation). Taking the chapter on *tashbīh* ‘comparison; simile’ as a case study, we find that the number of scholars he cites not only by name but also by work (if they authored more than one) is quite staggering. Specific opinions, and sometimes exact quotations, are attributed to over forty scholars (forty-two scholars, fifty works), among whom are literary theorists, grammarians, lexicographers and religious scholars (lawyers, theologians).²⁵⁷ The term *al-bayāniyyūn* appears once; it probably refers to scholars writing on topics that coincide with the standard sub-science *‘ilm al-bayān*.²⁵⁸ The term *‘ulamā’ al-*

²⁵⁶ Ibid. 1: 156.7-8 (*wa-huwa alladhī talaqqafu ‘anhu ‘ilm al-bayān*). One should point out that in this instance the choice of *‘ilm al-bayān* may have been prompted by his use of *saj’*, as the following parallel member ends with *hisān*. Other hints of *‘ilm al-bayān* appear in several of the titles of the works al-Subkī consulted and cited in his preface. One example is a work by his teacher Shams al-Dīn al-Iṣfahānī (d. 749/1348 or 9) titled *al-Muqaddima fi ‘ilm al-bayān* (ibid. 1: 160). The ‘reading list’ that al-Subkī provides is long indeed.

²⁵⁷ Ibid. 2: 148-234. The range of works exceeds that which is mentioned in the preface. Oft cited literary theorists are: ‘classical’ ones – Ibn Rashīq (d. 456/1065; e.g. 2: 180.12, 197.6-7), “‘Abd al-Laṭīf’ al-Baghdādī (meaning Abū Ṭāhir, d. 1123, [not the thirteenth century philosopher since he quotes the *Qawānīn* [sic] *al-balāgha*]; e.g. 2: 165.6, 173.1^c-174.1, 185.8, 196.5, 232.6^c); ‘modern’ and/or ‘standard’ ones – al-Zanjānī (alive 660/1261 or 2; e.g. 2: 165.1^c, 170.3^c), al-Tanūkhī (*fl.* end of 7th/13th century; e.g. 2: 153.10, 166.4), al-Ṭībī (Sharaf al-Dīn, d. 743/1343; e.g. 2: 156.5^e, 195.2,7) al-Khaṭībī (Shams al-Dīn al-Khalkhālī, d. ca. 745/1345; e.g. 2: 148.11, 163.9^e, 224.9). This in addition to countless references to al-Zamakhsharī, Fakhr al-Dīn, al-Sakkākī and al-Qazwīnī’s *Īdāh*. If general scholarly groups are mentioned, they are non-literary theorists: *ahl al-lughā* ‘lexicographers’ (2: 163.1, 194.1^c), *al-qawm* ‘people’ (referring here to theologians and philosophers, 2: 174.4^c), *al-mutakallimīn* ‘theologians’ (2: 175.4), *al-ḥukamā’* ‘philosophers’ (2: 175.5), *al-baṣriyyīn* ‘the Baṣran [grammarians]’ (2: 193.11), *al-kūfiyyūn* ‘the Kūfan [grammarians]’ (2: 194.1). Many of the individuals of these groups are subsequently mentioned explicitly. After discussing several opinions he may summarize what the ‘majority’ perceive (*al-jumhūr*, *al-aktharīn*; 2: 167.3^e,7^e, 191.9^e).

²⁵⁸ *‘Arūs al-afrāḥ* 2: 195.11. The context: al-Subkī asserts that the *bayāniyyūn* did not formulate precisely (*lam yuharrir*) the meanings of the various particles (or words) of comparison. (Al-Subkī dutifully fills the void.)

bayān appears once, within a quotation from al-Khaṭībī (a ‘standardist’, d. ca. 745/1345).²⁵⁹

The term ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ appears once, in reference to the standard sub-science.²⁶⁰ Given these findings it is all the more surprising to find terminological vestiges of the earlier, supra ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ in al-Subkī’s preface.²⁶¹

An eighth/fourteenth-century scholar whose work exhibits much more substantive evidence of our ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ is the prolific Yemeni scholar and Zaydī *imām* al-Mu’ayyad bi-llāh Yaḥyā b. Ḥamza al-‘Alawī (d. 745 or 749/1344 or 1348). His work on ‘rhetoric’ titled *al-Ṭirāz al-mutaḍammīn li-asrār al-balāgha wa-‘ulūm ḥaqā’iq al-i’jāz* is often linked in modern scholarship to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr.²⁶² The *Ṭirāz* is an intricately woven work with multi-layered chapters (sg. *fann*), sub-chapters (sg. *bāb*) and sub-sub-chapters (sg. *qā’ida*, *baḥth*, *faṣl*, *qism* and *tanbīh*, to name a few), often displaying recursive categories. Thus, it is not uncommon to find the same topic being treated in different levels of the *Ṭirāz*’s system and from different perspectives, one such case being ‘*ilm al-bayān*’. While al-

²⁵⁹ Ibid. 2: 223.1. Al-Khaṭībī is, in turn, quoting al-Sakkākī and by ‘*ulamā’ al-bayān*’ he probably means the scholars writing on the standard sub-science. As strange as it may be to refer to scholars of only one sub-science, he is in fact following practice of al-Sakkākī, who himself referred to scholars working within each sub-science as distinct groups. See for instance ‘*ulamā’ al-bayān*’ in al-Sakkākī, *Miftāḥ*, 199.4 and *aṣḥāb al-bayān* in *Miftāḥ*, 338.3^c (probably the place where al-Khaṭībī quotes from).

²⁶⁰ Ibid. 2: 150.8^c.

²⁶¹ If we extrapolate our findings to later works of the Standard Theory, we may expect to find that the phrases ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ and ‘*ulamā’ al-bayān*’ are either absent altogether due to a robust methodology of citation or are a reference to the standard category dealing with imagery. This is besides the occasional prefatory occurrence of the phrase as a synonym of ‘*ilm al-balāgha*’, as noted above, fn. 230.

²⁶² Amīr al-Mu’minīn Yaḥyā b. Ḥamza b. ‘Alī b. Ibrāhīm al-‘Alawī al-Yamanī, *al-Ṭirāz al-mutaḍammīn li-asrār al-balāgha wa-‘ulūm ḥaqā’iq al-i’jāz*, Cairo: Dār al-Kutub al-Khidīwiya, Maṭba‘at al-Muqtaṭaf, 1914 (English: ‘The Embroidery Comprising the Secrets of Eloquence and the Knowledge of the True Nature of the Inimitability [of the Qur’ān]’). Due to his Shī‘ī leanings, al-‘Alawī always makes sure to provide explanatory examples (*shawāhid*) from the sayings of ‘Alī. For a brief biography of al-‘Alawī see G.J.H. van Gelder, “Yaḥyā b. Ḥamza al-‘Alawī,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. A brief discussion of the *Ṭirāz* can be found in S.A. Bonebakker, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-bayān”; Aḥmad Maṭlūb, *al-Balāgha ‘inda al-Sakkākī*, 357-68; and *idem*, *al-Qazwīnī wa-shurūḥ al-Talkhīṣ*, 512-13. All of them point to the explicit affinity between this and *al-Mathal al-sā’ir*. For a book-length comparison between the two authors see Šūfiyya, *al-Mabāḥith al-bayāniyya*.

‘Alawī was very much aware of and working within the standard rhetorical tradition, the topic of his book is unequivocally *‘ilm al-bayān*.²⁶³ Deemed the centerpiece of the Arabic sciences (*al-‘ulūm al-adabiyya*), *‘ilm al-bayān* is not only repeatedly mentioned as the target discipline, its practitioners are also referred to throughout via the heading *‘ulamā’ al-bayān*.²⁶⁴

But al-‘Alawī was not a ‘standard’ scholar of the Standard Theory. Because he derives his knowledge from four main works reflecting different traditions, only one of which linked to al-Sakkākī, the outcome is a very idiosyncratic approach to rhetorical studies. The four works dealing with *‘ilm al-bayān* (*al-dawāwīn al-mu‘allafa fīhi*) that al-‘Alawī says he consulted are *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* by Ibn al-Athīr, *al-Tibyān* by Ibn al-Zamlakānī, *al-Nihāya* by Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī and *al-Miṣbāḥ* by Badr al-Dīn Ibn Mālik.²⁶⁵ To untangle the meaning behind *‘ilm al-bayān* we must attend to each of the perspectives it is given in the *Ṭirāz*, depending on its position within his system. Even within one system, *‘ilm al-bayān* could refer either to the supra-heading or to the subfield on imagery, for which

²⁶³ Examples of *‘ilm al-bayān* (sometimes *‘ulūm al-bayān*) from the beginning of the work are *al-Ṭirāz* 1: 2, 6, 8, 15-16, 27, 29, 31, 43. Instances of *hādihā al-‘ilm* “this science” referring back to *‘ilm al-bayān* are 1: 3, 4, 6.

²⁶⁴ *Al-Ṭirāz* 1: 2. The Arabic sciences, mentioned in 1: 20-23, are lexicography, syntax, morphology and *bayān* (we could also translate ‘philological’ for *adabiyya*). For *‘ulamā’ al-bayān* see *al-Ṭirāz* 1: 8, 47 (alongside the *uṣūliyyūn* ‘legal theorists’), 83 (alongside *‘ulamā’ al-dīn* ‘theologians’ and the *uṣūliyyūn*), and below. *‘Ulamā’ al-adab* also occurs; see 1: 3. For *al-bulaghā’* and *ahl al-faṣāḥa*, by which he means eloquent people (not necessarily trained in eloquence studies) see 2: 45. For *‘ulūm al-balāgha* see, e.g., 2: 130, 232. Within the chapter on *iltifāt* a myriad of headings are used: *‘ulūm al-balāgha* (2: 131), *‘ulūm al-bayān* (2: 133), *‘ulūm al-faṣāḥa* (2: 134), and *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* (2: 131), to which the topic of *iltifāt* (change in grammatical person, or deictic shifting) belongs.

²⁶⁵ The only ‘standardist’ is Badr al-Dīn Ibn Mālik (d. 686/1287). The names given by al-‘Alawī differ slightly, but given the correct titles and the closeness to the authors’ names, there remains little doubt as to the identity of the works. See *Ṭirāz* 1: 3-4; S.A. Bonebakker, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-bayān” (following Maṭlūb). For me, the little doubt that remains concerns Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s *al-Tibyān*: on one hand, it inspired al-‘Alawī’s discussion of *dalālāt ifrādīyya* ~ ‘the study of single-word signifiers’ and the intricate structure of his work, but on the other hand, the quotations on *tashbīh* supposedly taken from the *Tibyān* are incorrect since the *Tibyān* lacks a chapter on *tashbīh* (*Ṭirāz* 1: 262-63). For *al-dawāwīn al-mu‘allafa fīhi* see *al-Ṭirāz* 1:3, referring to *‘ilm al-bayān* in 1:2.

he uses the term *majāz*.²⁶⁶ On the highest level we find *‘ilm al-bayān* (sometimes: *‘ulūm al-bayān*) as the subject matter of the work.²⁶⁷ But al-‘Alawī also recognizes the terms *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* or *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* as names of the discipline. His solution: to interpret *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* as the domain of eloquence on the level of words in combination (*balāgha*) and *‘ilm al-bayān* as the domain of eloquence on the level of words in isolation (*faṣāḥa*).²⁶⁸ We thus encounter *‘ilm al-balāgha wa-l-faṣāḥa* as synonymous with *‘ilm al-bayān*.²⁶⁹

On the second level we find *‘ilm al-bayān* as comprising the standard categories of imagery (by his account, all subsumed under *majāz*). This section opens the major portion of the work, followed by two sections said to be part of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* and a final section on *‘ilm al-badī‘*.²⁷⁰ All three fields are subsumed under the supra-*‘ilm al-bayān* with which al-‘Alawī opened his work: he refers to *‘ulamā’ al-bayān* whether discussing topics in *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*, *‘ilm al-bayān* (standard) or *‘ilm al-badī‘*.²⁷¹ On the third level he addresses the three

²⁶⁶ For instance, *‘ilm al-bayān* in *al-Ṭirāz* 1: 43 refers to the subfield, even though he is still dealing with the ‘preliminaries’ of the supra-*‘ilm al-bayān* and has not yet begun the chapter on the sub-*‘ilm al-bayān*. For the sub-*‘ilm al-bayān* as synonymous with the study of *majāz* see *ibid.* 1: 43-44, 196-97. Regarding the controversy of whether or not *tashbīh* is part of *majāz* al-‘Alawī proposes, after deliberating the various views, that the whole question is pointless or simply ‘semantics’! (*wa-laysa yata‘allaqu bihi kabīru fā‘idatin wa-rubbamā kāna l-khilāfu fi dhālika lafẓiyyan fa-‘adalnā ‘anhu*; *ibid.* 1: 266). We discuss this “pointless” question in length in Chapter 5.

²⁶⁷ In the flowery introduction, after stating that *‘ilm al-bayān* is the centerpiece of the Arabic sciences (“the leader of its soldiers” or “the black of its eyes”, *ibid.* 1: 2), al-‘Alawī says that the intention of his work is to deal with “this science” (*ibid.* 1: 3), referring by this to *‘ilm al-bayān* mentioned in the previous paragraph.

²⁶⁸ *Ibid.* 1: 9-14. But his deliberations are not as clear-cut as one might expect: in *ibid.* 1: 12-13 he refers to *‘ilm al-bayān* as dealing with the substances of single words *and* combined words.

²⁶⁹ *Ibid.* 1: 11 and 22 are the clearest instances. In 1: 16 he speaks of *‘ilm al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha* as the subject-matter (*mawḍū‘* in the philosophical sense) of *‘ilm al-bayān*, as we saw in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work.

²⁷⁰ *Ibid.* 1: 196–2: 9. The major portion of the work comprises the second mega-chapter titled *al-fann al-thānī min ‘ulūm hādihā al-kitāb*; it starts in *ibid.* 1: 183 and ends in 3: 212. The two chapters dealing with *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* are *dalālāt ifrādiyya* ~“the study of single-word signifiers” and *murā‘āt aḥwāl al-ta’līf* ~“considerations in composition” (on the latter see below).

²⁷¹ For *‘ulamā’ al-bayān* under the chapter on *majāz* (=the standard *‘ilm al-bayān*) see *ibid.* 1: 198-9, 206, 250, 256, 260 (together with *‘ulamā’ al-balāgha*), 368, 375, 426. For *‘ulamā’ al-bayān* under the two chapters dealing with *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* see 2: 19 (in the context of definiteness), 66-67 (fronting the direct object), 203 (affirming particles), 231 (purposeful prolixity). The phrase *‘ulūm al-bayān* itself appears within the discussions of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*; see 2:

subfields from the perspective of *i'jāz al-Qur'ān*; this comprises the final portion of the work. He oddly repeats many of the topics discussed earlier, except for many 'standard' topics in *'ilm al-ma'ānī* which are presented for the first time. The categories expressed at this level are closest to those of the Standard Theory. Here *'ilm al-bayān* is presented as a narrower science than *'ilm al-ma'ānī* and is presumably subsumed under it (following, indirectly, the view of al-Sakkākī).²⁷²

Like the account of Ibn Khaldūn, the work of Ḥamza al-'Alawī reflects a compound view of *'ilm al-bayān* owing, probably, to its author's relatively remote location in the Islamic world which may have impeded a more complete transmission of knowledge in this domain. More importantly, like Ibn Khaldūn al-'Alawī too displays hints of the major role literary composition (*ta'līf*) plays in *'ilm al-bayān* (Ibn Khaldūn implicitly, through his discussion of *dhawq*). In the *Ṭirāz* this takes the form of the second chapter dealing with the allegedly standard *'ilm al-ma'ānī*. The chapter, titled *murā'āt aḥwāl al-ta'līf* ~'considerations in composition', targets the "patterns of literary speech" (*asālīb al-kalām*) and includes topics such as good structure, (purposeful) prolixity, appropriate openings and good transitions.²⁷³ In these sections the perspective of the *nāẓim* and *nāthir* are attended to, whether the intention is to compose a letter, a sermon, a book, a *qaṣīda*, or a note (? , *qirṭās*).²⁷⁴ The wording *murā'āt aḥwāl al-ta'līf* is derived from Ibn al-Zamlakānī's *Tibyān*:

93 (sentence-elision), 176-77 (emphasis). For *'ulamā' al-bayān* under *'ilm al-badī'* see 2: 354, 404, 3: 4, 84 (various figures of speech).

²⁷² *Al-Ṭirāz* 3: 349. This last mega-chapter of the work starts in 3: 213. On al-Sakkākī's view of *'ilm al-bayān* being part of *'ilm al-ma'ānī* see fn. 174.

²⁷³ *Ibid.* 2: 221-353. *Asālīb al-kalām* occurs in 2: 222 (*asālīb al-naẓm wa-l-nathr* in 2: 244). On *kalām* in this context as *kalām balīgh* see above, fn. 67.

²⁷⁴ *Ibid.* 2: 222, 243-44.

for Ibn al-Zamlakānī *ta'liḥ* means 'composition' in the semantic-syntactic sense of words in combination rather than in isolation, and the ensuing study is primarily syntactic (or functional-grammatical).²⁷⁵ But al-'Alawī creatively reworks its topics to fit many of the traditional topics dealing with literary composition.

As a final piece of evidence for the supra- *'ilm al-bayān* in the sense that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr spoke of, we adduce the work of the early eighth/fourteenth-century Syrian-Egyptian Najm al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr al-Ḥalabī (d. 737/1336 or 7, no relation to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn). Titled *Jawhar al-kanz*, the work is an epitome of *Kanz al-barā'a*, written by his father 'Imād al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 699/1299 or 1300), which did not survive.²⁷⁶ This book reflects a tradition closest to that in which Ḍiyā' al-Dīn wrote – that of scribal education – and purports to belong to the discipline called *'ilm al-adab*, here: 'the science of [chancery] knowhow', also referred to as *ṣinā'at al-inshā'* 'the craft of [scribal] composition'.²⁷⁷ By Najm al-Dīn's own admission,

[i]qtaṣartu minhu [al-kitāb alladhī allafahu wālidī]²⁷⁸ 'alā dhikri mā yahtāju ilayhi kātibu

²⁷⁵ 'Abd al-Wāḥid b. 'Abd al-Karīm al-Zamlakānī, *al-Tibyān fī 'ilm al-bayān al-muṭli' 'alā i'jāz al-Qur'ān*, ed. Aḥmad Maṭlūb and Khadija al-Ḥadīthī, Baghdad: Maṭba'at al-'Ānī, 1964, 89-162 (English: 'The Demonstration on the Science of *Bayān* Revealing the Inimitability of the Qur'ān'). See also Part Two, §4.2.

²⁷⁶ Najm al-Dīn Aḥmad b. Ismā'īl Ibn al-Athīr al-Ḥalabī, *Jawhar al-kanz: Mukhtaṣar kitāb Kanz al-barā'a fī adawāt dhawī al-yarā'a*, ed. Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām, Alexandria: Munsha'āt Dār al-Ma'ārif, [1974] (English: 'The Essential Element of the *Kanz* [*Treasure*]: An Epitome of the Book *The Treasure of Proficiency in the Tools of Those Who Possess the Writing Reed*'). The father wrote the *Kanz* (sometimes identified as *Kanz al-balāgha*) by taking notes from his own father, Tāj al-Dīn. That the work was written in the first quarter, or the first third of the eighth/fourteenth century is concluded by Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām in the introduction of the work, p.8. Smyth mentions this work in the context of *badī'* and anthological works ("Criticism," 407, 415).

²⁷⁷ For *'ilm al-adab* see *Jawhar al-kanz*, 27.4^c; for *ṣinā'at al-inshā'* see *ibid.*, 33.5. When speaking of scholars in the field he uses the phrase '*ulamā' hādhā l-fann*' (pp. 28-29), referring presumably to *'ilm al-adab*. Later Najm al-Dīn directs his words to *al-ṭālib al-adīb* 'the aspiring litterateur' (p. 50), which for him is synonymous with the aspiring secretary (*murīd ṣinā'at al-inshā'*, p. 614). Smyth ("Criticism," 407) mentions the father's work within the context of *badī'* studies but seems to categorize it as a work of *adab*. Although Smyth derives his comments from the *Jawhar* he does not attend to the latter's disciplinary affiliation.

²⁷⁸ *Ibid.*, 27.

l-inshā' i mina l-'ulūmi wa-l-faḍā'ili li-yu'adda kātiban

I limited [the book that my father authored] to mentioning the knowledges and merits that the chancery secretary needs in order to be considered a secretary.²⁷⁹

The result is a work not unlike *'Umdat al-kuttāb* by Abū Ja'far al-Naḥḥās (d. 338/950) or the chapters on *kitāba* and *naqd al-shi'r* in the famous *Mafātīḥ al-'ulūm* by al-Khuwārizmī (d. 387/997 or 98) or *Mawādd al-bayān* by 'Alī b. Khalaf al-Kātib (fl. second half of 5th/11th cent.), excluding sections dealing with the conventions of administrative departments other than the chancery.²⁸⁰ The work is structured as an enumeration of *badī'* categories, not all of which are figures of speech.²⁸¹ In fact, the last third of the work is dedicated to poetics in general. While Najm al-Dīn does not mention the standard rhetorical tradition, living in the time and place that he did he must have been aware of it.

What is striking about Najm al-Dīn's account is that he attends to the disciplinary

²⁷⁹ Ibid., 28.

²⁸⁰ Abū Ja'far Aḥmad b. Muḥammad al-Naḥḥās, *'Umdat al-kuttāb*, ed. Fuat Sezgin, facsimile edition, publications of the Institute for the History of Arabic-Islamic Science, series C, vol. 62, Frankfurt am Main: Institut für Geschichte der Arabisch-Islamischen Wissenschaften, 1999 (English: 'The Pillar for the Penmen' [Sezgin's translation]) and identical to *Ṣinā'at al-kuttāb*, ed. Badr Aḥmad Ḍayf, Beirut: Dār al-'Ulūm al-'Arabiyya, 1990 (English: 'The Craft of the Secretaries'); Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad b. Aḥmad b. Yūsuf al-Khuwārizmī al-Kātib, *Kitāb Mafātīḥ al-'ulūm*, ed. G. van Vloten, Lugduni-Batavorum: Brill, 1895, 72-79, 94-97 (English: 'The Keys to the Sciences'); 'Alī b. Khalaf al-Kātib, *Mawādd al-bayān*, ed. Fuat Sezgin, facsimile edition, publications of the Institute for the History of Arabic-Islamic Science, series C, vol. 39, Frankfurt am Main: Institut für Geschichte der Arabisch-Islamischen Wissenschaften, 1986 (English: 'The Elements of Good Written Style' [Sezgin's translation]). The scribal strand of literary-theoretical works culminates in later 'encyclopedias' such as the famous one by al-Nuwayrī (d. 733/1333); see the last section of his Book Two (on the human being) devoted to the art of secretaryship, vol. 7 of Aḥmad b. 'Abd al-Wahhāb al-Nuwayrī, *Nihāyat fī funūn al-adab*, 18 vols., Cairo: Dār al-Kutub al-Miṣriyya, 1923-1997 (English: 'The Ultimate Ambition in the Branches of Erudition' [Muhanna's translation in *Encyclopaedism in the Mamluk Period*]). Notably, al-Nuwayrī treats topics in "the sciences of *ma'ānī*, *bayān* and *badī'*" (7: 35-36) but otherwise uses *kitāba* as the heading for his endeavor. The term *inshā'* for *kitāba* would become in common use during this period.

²⁸¹ Najm al-Dīn refers to them all as *anwā' / aqsām al-badī'* (*Jawhar al-kanz*, 49-50), but we also find *anwā' al-bayān* (p. 91) and *anwā' al-badī' wa-l-bayān* (p. 605, and below). Of the many categories which are not, strictly speaking, figures of speech we may cite transitions (*takhalluṣ*, p. 157), predicates in noun-initial sentences (p. 277), invective (p. 309 [a very long chapter]), poetic rhymes (p. 410), and prosification of poetic and Qur'ānic verses (p. 607). The poetic sections are reminiscent of Ibn Rashīq's *al-'Umda fī maḥāsīn al-shi'r wa-ādābihi wa-naqdihi*, and Najm al-Dīn quotes him. Most categories open with the formulaic: X = *an yaḥf' al al-mutakallim [kadhā wa-kadhā]* "[category] X is when the speaker does [so and so]." The *mutakallim* here is the *kātib*.

headings *‘ilm al-bayān* and *badī’* and depicts the former in terms remarkably similar to those employed by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn:

‘ilmu l-bayāni fī šinā’ati l-inshā’i bi-manzilati mīzānin na’rifu bihi min maḥāsini l-kalāmi mā rajaḥa wa-mā shaḥḥa wa-miḥakkīn idhā ‘urīdat ‘alayhi l-ma’ānī ubriza minhā mā fasada wa-mā saḥḥa yaftaqiru ilayhi kullu man nazāra fī kitābi -llāhi ta’ālā wa-kalāmi rasūlihi ṣallā -llāhu ‘alayhi wa-sallama [...]

wa-‘ilmu l-bayāni laysa lahu ḥaddun fa-nadhkurahu fa-innahu lam yata’arrāf aḥadun min ‘ulamā’i l-bayāni ilā dhikri ḥaddin yuḥaddu bihi ‘ilmu l-bayāni wa-innamā ‘arrāfūhu bi-shay’in ghayri l-ḥaddi wa-huwa l-mawḍū’u wa-l-rasmu fa-ammā mawḍū’u ‘ilmi l-bayāni fa-huwa kalāmu l-‘arabi wa-l-faṣāḥatu wa-l-balāghatu [...] wa-l-aḥwāl[u] l-‘arīdat[u] li-dhātīhi hiya -llatī yubḥathu ‘anhā mithlu maḥāsinihi -llatī yūṣafu bihā wa-hiya jawdatu l-alfāzi wa-salāmatuhā wa-balāghatu l-ma’ānī wa-tamakkunuhā

wa-ammā rasmu ‘ilmi l-bayāni fa-qad qāla ‘ulamā’u l-bayāni idhā lam yakun li-hādhā l-‘ilmi ḥaddun yudhkaru bihi fa-lā budda min rasmin yu’rafu bihi [...] fa-qāla ba’ḍuhum ‘ilmu l-bayāni šinā’atun nazariyyatun maqṣūduhā ma’rifatu maḥāsini l-kalāmi fa-qawluhu nazariyyatun¹ -ḥtirāzun min fī’liyyatin wa-qawluhu maqṣūduhā ma’rifatu maḥāsini l-kalāmi -ḥtirāzun min ‘ilmi l-‘arabiyyati wa-‘ilmi l-lughati idh maqṣūdu ‘ilmi l-lughati ma’rifatu mawḍū’i l-lafzi l-ifrādī wa-maqṣūdu ‘ilmi l-naḥwi ma’rifatu ṣawābi l-kalāmi min khaṭa’i fī l-nuṭqi wa-maqṣūdu hādhā l-‘ilmi ma’rifatu dhālika l-ṣawāb

The science of *bayān* in the craft of composition is equivalent to a measure/scale by which we may know which beautifying-elements of speech outweigh others, and a touchstone upon which if ideas are displayed, it is made manifest which are corrupt and which are sound. Anyone who examines the Book of God, may He be exalted, and the words of His prophet, peace and blessings be upon him, requires it [this science] [...]²⁸²

The science of *bayān* has no [essential] definition that we can mention, for none of the scholars of *‘ilm al-bayān* made any mention of a definition by which *‘ilm al-bayān* can be defined. Rather, they made it known by something other than [an essential] definition: the ‘matter’ [of the science] and [its] description [i.e., a non-essential definition].

²⁸² Tropes such as these point to the growing importance of *‘ilm al-bayān* to Qur’ānic hermeneutics, as noted above, and I think it is a testament to Najm al-Dīn’s awareness of the emerging Standard Theory (or at least Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī).

As for the [subject-]matter of *‘ilm al-bayān*, it is the speech of the Bedouin and eloquence [of form and content] [...] and the conditions inherently occurring in it (*aḥwāl ‘ārīḍa li-dhātihī*)²⁸³ that are examined, such as the beautifying-elements that [the Bedouin speech] is described with, to wit, the excellence and flawlessness of the words and the eloquence and mastery of the meanings.

As for the description of *‘ilm al-bayān*, the scholars of *‘ilm al-bayān* said: “If there is no definition that can be mentioned for this science, we must [provide] a description with which it can be identified.” [...] So one of [the scholars of *‘ilm al-bayān*] said: “*‘ilm al-bayān* is a theoretical craft, the aim of which is to know the beautifying-elements of speech.” His saying “theoretical” is meant to exclude “practical” and his saying “the aim of which is to know the beautifying-elements of speech” is meant to exclude the science of grammar and the science of lexicography. For the aim of lexicography is to know the coined [meaning] of the single word and the aim of grammar is to know the speech’s right from wrong when speaking. The aim of *this* science is the correct knowledge of that [the beautifying-elements of speech].²⁸⁴

Najm al-Dīn delineates *‘ilm al-bayān* as a strictly theoretical science, but one that is not at all similar to the Standard Theory – the supposedly ‘theoretical’ rhetorical science par excellence. The theoretical science of *‘ilm al-bayān* is situated, rather, within the “craft of composition” (*‘ilm al-bayān fī ṣinā‘at al-inshā’*) and to a modern reader would seem far from theoretical. Najm al-Dīn himself seems to be struggling with this ‘scientific’ character of the field, as evinced by his repetitive statements on the fact that scholars have been unable to provide an essential definition (in the logical sense) for *‘ilm al-bayān*. He in fact continues by saying that distinguishing between *‘ilm al-bayān* and *badī‘* is often quite difficult.²⁸⁵ The scholars of the latter, however, are identified by him as *‘ulamā’ al-adab*

²⁸³ The meaning of *aḥwāl ‘ārīḍa li-dhātihī* is explained in *Jawhar al-kanz*, 47, with illustrations from grammar, medicine and legal theory. Despite its odd construction, it seems to refer to essential topics within a given field rather than non-essential accidents.

²⁸⁴ Ibid. 46-47.

²⁸⁵ Ibid., 48-49.

‘scholars of [scribal] knowhow’, whereas the scholars of the former are clearly termed ‘*ulamā*’ *al-bayān* ‘scholars of *‘ilm al-bayān*’ (‘*ulamā*’ *al-badī*’ does not occur).²⁸⁶ Since Najm al-Dīn is not quoting Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn verbatim (at least not from an extant work), one may assume that the perception of *‘ilm al-bayān* as a theoretical, consolidated discipline gained traction throughout the seventh/thirteenth century. This theoretical discipline was independent of the development of what would become the Standard Theory.

Summing Up

The increasing hegemony of the standard rhetorical theory notwithstanding, we are able to identify traces of a widely-recognized discipline called *‘ilm al-bayān* up until the late eighth/fourteenth century. A major differentiation point between this *‘ilm al-bayān* and the Standard Theory lies in the function of literary production: the practical aspect of composing poetry and ornate prose was a hallmark of our *‘ilm al-bayān*, whereas in the Standard Theory it was marginal. Any references to *ta’līf* in this sense in the later works, be they works on the division of the sciences or on literary theoretical matters, are indicative of a science close to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *‘ilm al-bayān li-ta’līf al-naẓm wa-l-nathr* (Ibn al-Akfānī’s “attaining the habitual ability to compose [compound] statements [of sermons, letters and poems]”; Ibn Khaldūn’s presentation of *dhawq* within the purview of the scholars of *bayān*; al-‘Alawī’s reworking of *murā‘āt aḥwāl al-ta’līf* from a grammatical interpretation to a literary-productional one; Najm al-Dīn’s *‘ilm al-bayān fī ṣinā‘at al-inshā’*). The professed scientificity of the discipline called *‘ilm al-bayān* was probably facilitated by the rise of the

²⁸⁶ For ‘*ulamā*’ *al-adab* see *ibid.*, 48-49, 427, 431 (the last two: *ahl al-adab*, which may refer to litterateurs in general). For ‘*ulamā*’ *al-bayān*, cited in categories that exceed the standard sections on imagery (such as paronomasia and good openings), see *ibid.*, 42-43, 60, 91, 101, 118, 218.

Standard Theory (Ibn Khaldūn), but vestiges of this recognition in a non-‘standard’-context can also be detected (Najm al-Dīn).

The unheeded distinction in later sources between the supra-*‘ilm al-bayān* as a science of style and the hypo-*‘ilm al-bayān* as the standard sub-science of imagery may explain why the generic innovation of the former went unnoticed in modern scholarship. Even within the heartland of standard-rhetoric territory, terminological vestiges of *‘ilm al-bayān* as the appellation of the supra-science may abide (e.g., al-Subkī).

The association of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr with the disciplinary consolidation of *‘ilm al-bayān* is not always attested in the sources. An important exception is Ibn al-Akfānī, who mentions the work of an “Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazarī” as dealing solely with (the supposedly hypo-) *‘ilm al-bayān*. It is noteworthy that this association persists even in the late work of Ṭashköprüzāde, whose *‘ilm al-bayān* is an unequivocal reference to the standard subfield of imagery. Most compelling is the progression we find in the work of Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘, a younger contemporary of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, from the disciplinary framework of *badī‘* in his first book to *‘ilm al-bayān* in his second. Even if not directly linked to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s efforts, this change in framework seems to have been meaningful rather than arbitrary, and it testifies to the rapid dissemination of *‘ilm al-bayān* as a new paradigm for literary-theoretical and literary-critical studies.

Chapter 3: *Bayān* and ‘*Ilm al-Bayān* Prior to *Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn*

The purpose of this chapter is to strengthen our hypothesis that the disciplinary development of *‘ilm al-bayān* in the seventh/thirteenth century is to be associated, on a terminological level, with the efforts of *Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn* Ibn al-Athīr rather than with earlier instantiations of the term *bayān* or *‘ilm al-bayān*. Two decades ago Heinrichs remarked that “the notion of *bayān* ‘clarity’, ‘distinctness’ [is] a notion that is not clear and distinct at all and in dire need of a monograph.”²⁸⁷ While advances in the study of *bayān* have been made since the publication of von Grunebaum’s article in the *Encyclopaedia of Islam*, Heinrichs’ words still hold true today. The following will not fill the void – it is not intended as such – but it provides some further clarification on the understanding of the term in classical Arabic-Islamic writings.

Looking at the term *bayān* in earlier centuries, we shall differentiate between four strands of its meaning: the legal-hermeneutic, the philosophical, the philological and the scribal. What we have here is a case of “bi-genesis”: the legal and philosophical meanings of the term are derived from one lexical meaning of *bayān*, roughly ‘sign’/‘indication’, and the philological and scribal meaning of the term are derived from another lexical meaning of the word, namely, ‘eloquence’. Scholars espousing the legal-hermeneutic meaning(s) of *bayān* are al-Shāfi‘ī (d. 204/820) and subsequent legal scholars; this has been recently studied by Joseph Lowry, James Montgomery and David Vishanoff. Scholars espousing the philosophical meaning are al-Jāhiz (d. 255/868 or 9), Ishāq b. Ibrāhīm Ibn Wahb al-Kātib (4th/10th cent.) and Ibn Ḥazm (d. 456/1064); aspects of this have been studied by Montgomery and Lowry (though not in these terms), as well as others who have focused their study on al-Jāhiz. The philological meaning of

²⁸⁷ Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 271.

bayān is less ‘technical’ and is set forth by Ibn Fāris (d. 395/1004) and in a slightly different instantiation, by al-Rummānī (d. 384/994). Finally, the scribal meaning of *bayān* is, too, less technical and comes across in works of secretaries like Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī (d. after 400/1010) and ‘Alī b. Khalaf al-Kātib (*fl.* second half of 5th/11th cent.). Both the philological and the scribal meanings have not been attended to as such in modern research, probably because they are not technical terms per se. The philological meaning has been alluded to by Heinrichs and Montgomery; the scribal meaning by Sezgin.

As for the phrase ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ in earlier centuries, it seems that the first scholar to have used it is none other than ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081). Following him were al-Zamakhsharī (d. 538/1144) and Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (d. 606/1209). *If* at all any of them used it in a technical sense of a full-fledged discipline, it was al-Zamakhsharī.

Where Diyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr derived his understanding of ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ from is unclear. It will be claimed that he was exposed to the phrase probably in the work of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (or non-extant sources quoting him), but he filled the term *bayān* itself with the non-technical meaning he was familiar with: the scribal one.

3.1. The Term *bayān*

Three different lexical meanings of *bayān* are attested in the dictionaries. The first, according to Ibn Manẓūr (d. 711/1311 or 2), is “that by means of which a thing is clarified/becomes clear, such as an indication or the like” / “an indication, or the like, by means of which a thing is clarified” (*mā buyyina bihi l-shay’u mina l-dalālati wa-ghayrihā*). The second meaning is “clarity,” being the *maṣḍar* ‘verbal noun’ of *bāna* “to be/become clear” (*ittaḍaḥa*).

Etymologically, the “clarity” of a thing is probably connected to what David Larsen has described as “the abstract ‘evidentness’ of a thing by virtue of its *difference or separability* from

its surroundings.”²⁸⁸ The third meaning is “eloquence” (*al-faṣāḥa wa-l-lasan*) or “clear expression with mental acuteness” (*al-ifṣāḥ ma‘a dhakā*) or “making manifest the intended [meaning] with the most eloquent expression” (*iḥḥār al-maqṣūd bi-ablaḡ lafẓ*).²⁸⁹ Since form II *bayyana* is said to be both transitive (“to clarify”) and intransitive (“to be clear”), *bayān* is sometimes interpreted as a *maṣdar* of *bayyana* as well, i.e. either as “clarity” (intransitive) or “clarification” (transitive).²⁹⁰ The three occurrences of *bayān* (as a noun) in the Qur’ān are in fact

²⁸⁸ David Charles Larsen, *Means of Intelligibility*, PhD Dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 2007, 97-99, emphasis his (the title of the dissertation refers to al-Jāhīz’s *wasā’il al-bayān*; see below). Larsen provides other cases in the Arabic language where the act of interpretation is predicated on distinguishability, like *faṣala* and *faraqa*, comparing this to the Saussurian notion of “difference” within a system as a precondition for the production of meaning (pp. 98-101; he also compares this to Derrida’s discussion of the etymology of the Latin verb *differre*). If we adhere to Larsen’s etymology, the first and second meanings of *bayān* given by Ibn Manẓūr are essentially the same. (Larsen cites Lane’s definition of *bayān* in full, parts of which rest on Ibn Manẓūr’s deliberations.) Strictly speaking, however, the first and second meanings of *bayān* display different processes of semiosis: in the first case it is a “sign” that imparts knowledge about a thing (implying a mediation); in the second case it is the thing itself that imparts knowledge (about itself). This tension will be apparent when we discuss the philosophical sense of *bayān*.

²⁸⁹ The last of these is attributed to the early lexicographer Ibn Shumayl (d. 203/819), according to whom the origin of the meaning of *bayān* as ‘eloquence’ is “clearness” (or “the quality of being revealed,” *al-kashf wa-l-zuhūr*). See Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-‘Arab*, 6 vols., 3rd ed., [n.p.]: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, [n.d.], 1: 406, 2nd column [for meanings one and two], 407, 2nd column [for meaning three; the verb *qāla* seems to be referring back to Ibn Shumayl] (English: ‘The Tongue of the Arabs’). See also Muḥammad b. Aḥmad al-Azharī, *Tahdhīb al-luḡa*, ed. ‘Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn, 15 vols., Cairo: al-Dār al-Miṣriyya li-l-Ta’līf wa-l-Tarjama, 1967, 15: 495-502 (where *bayān* is given the additional meaning of ‘ability to discern’, p. 496, and see fn. 292 below) (English: ‘Refinement of the Lexicon’); Abū al-Ḥusayn Aḥmad Ibn Fāris, *Mu‘jam maqāyīs al-luḡa*, ed. ‘Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn, 2 vols., 2nd ed., Cairo: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1969, 1: 328 (only meaning three) (English: ‘The Measures of the Language, Organized Alphabetically’); *idem*, *Muḥmal al-luḡa*, ed. Hādī Ḥasan Ḥammūdī, 5 vols., Kuwait: Ma‘had al-Makhtūṭāt al-‘Arabiyya, al-Munazzama al-‘Arabiyya li-l-Tarbiya wa-l-Thaqāfa wa-l-‘Ulūm, 1985, 1: 308 (*bayān* = *al-kashf ‘an al-shay’* “the uncovering of a thing”) (English: ‘The Sum Total of the Lexicon’); Ismā‘īl b. Ḥammād al-Jawharī, *al-Ṣiḥāḥ [al-Ṣaḥāḥ]: Tāj al-luḡa wa-siḥāḥ al-‘arabiyya*, ed. Aḥmad ‘Abd al-Ghafūr ‘Aṭṭār, 6 vols., Beirut: Dār al-‘Ilm li-l-Malāyīn, 1979, 5: 2082-83 (note especially meaning one) (English: ‘The Correct [Uses]: The Crown of the Lexicon and the Correct [Uses] of Arabic’); Jār Allāh Abū al-Qāsim Maḥmūd b. ‘Umar al-Zamakhsharī, *Asās al-balāgha*, Beirut: Dār Ṣādir, Dār Bayrūt, 1965, 58 (English: ‘The Foundation of Eloquence’); Abū al-Baqā’ Ayyūb b. Mūsā al-Kaffawī, *al-Kulliyāt*, ed. ‘Adnān Darwīsh and Muḥammad al-Maṣrī, 5 vols., Damascus: Wizārat al-Thaqāfa wa-l-Irshād al-Qawmī, 1974, 1: 395-97 (English: ‘Universals’); al-Tahānawī, *Kashshāf* 1: 206-7; Lane, *Lexicon*, 288; and the first paragraph of von Grunebaum, “Bayān.” Al-Zamakhsharī famously provides the *majāz* meaning of words in his dictionary (here: idiomatic uses of the words, not their figurative meaning), but no such usage of *bayān* is provided. Frustrating is the account in al-Khalīl b. Aḥmad al-Farāhidī, *Kitāb al-Ayn*, eds. Maḥdī al-Makhzūmī and Ibrāhīm al-Sāmarrā’ī, 8 vols., [Baghdad]: al-Jumhūriyya al-‘Irāqiyya, Wizārat al-Thaqāfa wa-l-I‘lām, 1980-1985, 8: 381 (English: ‘The Book [beginning with the letter] ‘Ayn’), where we find: *wa-l-bayān ma‘rūf* “The [meaning] of *bayān*: you know”!

²⁹⁰ Al-Tahānawī, *Kashshāf* 1: 207 (*wa-bi-l-jumlati fa-huwa [bayān] immā maṣdaru bāna wa-huwa lāzimun wa-ma‘nāhu l-zuhūru aw maṣdaru bayyana wa-huwa qad yakūnu lāziman [...] wa-qad yakūnu muta‘addiyan*). Ibn Manẓūr does not say so explicitly – for him the *maṣdar* of *bayyana* is *tabyīn* or *tibyān* – but by giving the first meaning of *bayān* as a type of *dalāla* ‘indication’ and by using the passive form II *buyyina* [*bihī*] to expound on it,

interpreted by medieval exegetes and modern translators as having a transitive sense: “This is an *exposition* for mankind, and a guidance, and an admonition” (Q 3:138 [*Āl ‘Imrān*]); “The All-merciful has taught the Koran. He has created man and He has taught him the *Explanation*” (Q 55:1-4 [*al-Raḥmān*]); “Then ours it is to *explain* it” (Q 75:19 [*al-Qiyāma*]).²⁹¹ Even the most

he is essentially presenting *bayān* as a transitive notion (*Lisān al-‘Arab*, 1: 406-7). Cf. al-Zamakhsharī (*Asās al-balāgha*, 58) who glosses *bayān* as *ḥujja* ‘proof’ and al-Tahānawī (*Kashshāf* 1: 207) who glosses *bayān* as *i‘lām* ‘making [something] known’. That form II verbs may carry an intransitive sense is not mentioned by Wright in his *Grammar* (W. Wright, *A Grammar of the Arabic Language*, 3rd ed. reprint, 2 vols. in 1, [n.p.]: Simon Wallenberg Press, 2007, 1: 31-32); it is probably an atypical instantiation of the verb form. Lane (*Lexicon*, 288) assesses the transitivity of *bayān* simply as a substantive of form II *bayyana*, paralleling this occurrence to *salām* from *sallama* and *kalām* from *kallama*. Wright reminds us, however, that a verb like *sallama* is actually denominative, that is, derives from *salām*, rather than the other way around.

²⁹¹ Al-Tahānawī, *Kashshāf* 1: 207; *The Koran Interpreted*, A Translation by A.J. Arberry, reprint., 2 vols. in 1, New York: Touchstone, 1996, 1:90, 2: 251, 313; *The Qur’ān*, Hebrew Translation from the Arabic, annotations, appendices and index by Uri Rubin, Tel Aviv: Tel Aviv University Press, 2005, 58, 496 (*bayān* in Q 55:4 is translated as “verbal eloquence”, p. 444). The translation above is Arberry’s. For the occurrences of *bayān* in the Qur’ān see Muḥammad Fu’ād ‘Abd al-Bāqī, *al-Mu‘jam al-mufahras li-alfāz al-Qur’ān al-karīm*, Beirut: Dār al-Fikr; Dār al-Ma‘rifa, 1994, 184 (English: ‘A Concordance of the Qur’ān’). As opposed to the *maṣdar*, other forms of the root *b.y.n* in the sense of ‘to clarify/be clear’ are plentiful. For common exegetical interpretations see Abū al-Qāsim Jār Allāh Maḥmūd b. ‘Umar al-Zamakhsharī, *al-Kashshāf ‘an ḥaqā‘iq al-tanzīl wa-‘uyūn al-aqāwīl fī wujūh al-ta’wīl*, 4 vols., Cairo: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1966, 1: 465, 4: 43, 191 (English: ‘The Uncoverer of the True Meanings of the Revelation and of the Best Opinions on the Methods of Interpretation’); Fakhr al-Dīn Muḥammad b. ‘Umar al-Rāzī, *al-Tafsīr al-kabīr [Maḥāṣin al-ghayb]*, 32 vols., Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a al-Bahiyya al-Miṣriyya, [1934-1962], 7: 12, 29: 85, 30: 225 (English: ‘The Large Commentary’ [known as *The Keys to the Unknown*]); Nāṣir al-Dīn Abū Khayr ‘Abd Allāh b. ‘Umar b. Muḥammad al-Bayḍāwī, *Anwār al-tanzīl wa-asrār al-ta’wīl al-ma‘rūf bi-Tafsīr al-Bayḍāwī*, prepared and prefaced by Muḥammad ‘Abd al-Raḥmān al-Mar‘ashlī, 5 vols. in 2, Beirut: Dār Iḥyā’ al-Turāth al-‘Arabī, 1998, 2: 39, 5: 170, 266 (English: ~‘The Rays of Revelation and Secret Ways of Interpretation’, known as *al-Bayḍāwī’s [Qur’ānic] Commentary*). The only instance for which *bayān* may be seen intransitively is Q 3:138 (by al-Bayḍāwī, *Tafsīr* 2: 39, not al-Zamakhsharī, *al-Kashshāf* 1: 465, who glosses it as *idāḥ*, or al-Rāzī, *al-Tafsīr al-kabīr* 7:12, who sees it as a type of *dalāla*). For Q 55:4 see also Lane, *Lexicon*, 289, whose first translation of *bayān* here is “the manifestation of everything [needful to be known]” (the subsequent translations provided are more interpretive). One scholar who translates *bayān* in all three verses of the Qur’ān as ‘clarity’ (i.e., intransitively) is Montgomery. He oddly looks for the meaning of *bayān* in a fourth/tenth century exegesis (al-Ṭabarī) instead of starting with its lexical sense(s) in the dictionaries. Because of this lexicographical oversight he is unaware of the transitive sense of *bayān* and tries to bundle all three lexical meanings of the word – a ‘sign’/‘indication’, ‘clarity’, ‘eloquence’ (see Ibn Manzūr, above) – into one. Montgomery’s conclusion runs as follows: “that (a) in the Qur’ān, *bayān* is, according to some scholars [...] possibly a synonym for the Revelation; (b) that in [the second and third verses] it is semantically implicated in the notion of *qur’ān* and (c) that in all three passages it bears the meaning both of clarity of expression and of exposition or elucidation: Allāh declares His intentions not only to enunciate the Revelation but also to express it with clarity and in order to guide man [...] All three occurrences involve the notion of communication between God and man and their proper roles in this process.” See James E. Montgomery, “Al-Jāhīz’s *Kitāb al-Bayān wa al-Tabayīn*,” in Julia Bray (ed.), *Writing and Representation in Medieval Islam*, Routledge Studies in Middle Eastern Literatures, vol. 11, London: Routledge, 2006, 91-152, here: 122-23. Reiterated in James E. Montgomery, *Al-Jāhīz: In Praise of Books*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2013, 292 and 505 fn. 15. Of course, the text of the verses does not lend itself to the conflation of *bayān* with *qur’ān* or the revelation; this is an exegetical interpretation (what is more, it would be an odd repetition of verse 55:2 *‘allama l-Qur’ān*). For uses of the root *b.y.n* in the Qur’ān see Joseph Dichy, “Aux sources interprétatives de la rhétorique arabe et de l’exégèse coranique: la non transparence du langage, de la racine

famous of these – *al-Raḥmān* • ‘*allama l-Qur’ān*’ • *khalaqa l-insān* • ‘*allamahu l-bayān*’ (Q 55:1-4) – is interpreted by al-Zamakhsharī in clear transitive terms, *viz.* “clear speech” as “making plain/manifest that which is in the mind/ heart”.²⁹²

Several occurrences of *bayān* in the prophetic tradition (*ḥadīth*) display a usage similar to that of the first lexical meaning of the word, *viz.* a type of proof or indication; in two cases *bayān* is connected with the third meaning of the word, *viz.* eloquence.²⁹³ Three occurrences of *bayān* in pre-Islamic poetry – two by Zuhayr (d. *ca.* 609), one by al-A’shā (d. *ca.* 7/629) – are rather scant and varied in meaning to merit a unified conclusion. In one instance it refers to a “sign” of a wound of the she-camel’s young calf (Zuhayr); in another it refers to the (generous) “giving” of the poet’s patron (Zuhayr); and yet in another it refers to “evidence/knowledge” that the poet has regarding his patron’s victorious battles.²⁹⁴ Besides the second occurrence, which is derived from

/b-y-n/ dans le Coran aus conceptions d’al-Ġāḥiẓ et d’Ibn Qutayba,” in Frédérique Woerther (ed.), *Literary and Philosophical Rhetoric in the Greek, Syriac and Arabic Worlds*, Hildesheim: Olms, 2009, 245-78, here: 248-55, and Daniel A. Madigan, *The Qur’ān’s Self-Image: Writing and Authority in Islam’s Scripture*, Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 2001, 153-57 (*bayān* not treated). I have not yet consulted Manfred Kropp, “*Lisān ‘arabiyy mubīn* – „klares Arabisch“? oder: „offenbar Arabisch“, gar „geoffenbartes Arabisch“?”, in Andrew Rippin and Roberto Tottoli (eds), *Books and Written Culture of the Islamic World: Studies Presented to Claude Gilliot on the Occasion of His 75th Birthday*, Leiden: Brill, 2015, 271–87.

²⁹² *al-mantiqū l-faṣīḥu l-mu’ribu ‘ammā fī l-damīr*; al-Zamakhsharī, *al-Kashshāf* 4: 43. This quality is said to differentiate Man from the rest of the animals (see also al-Rāzī and al-Bayḍawī, cited in the previous footnote.) A better understanding of the word *bayān* here is probably ‘the ability to discern’ (see al-Azharī’s entry in fn. 289, and some of the explanations in the Qur’ānic commentaries). This sense of *bayān* is commonly absent in the dictionaries (al-Azharī is an exception), but it connects *bayān* to the meaning of the root *b.y.n* in other Semitic languages and it better explains the nature of God’s teaching *bayān* (I hope to look at this question in a future study).

²⁹³ I limit myself to A.J. Wensinck, *al-Mu’jam al-mufahras li-alfāz al-ḥadīth al-nabawī ‘an al-kutub al-sitta wa-‘an Musnad al-Dārimī wa-Muwaṭṭa’ Mālik wa-Musnad Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal*, 8 vols., Leiden: Brill, 1936-1988, 1: 259 (English: ‘A Concordance of the *ḥadīth*, from the six [canonical] works as well as the *Musnad* of al-Dārimī, the *Muwaṭṭa’* of Mālik and the *Musnad* of Aḥmad b. Ḥanbal’). For *bayān* in the sense of ‘eloquence’ see the famous saying (also Ibn Manzūr, *Lisān al-‘arab*, 1: 407, 2nd and 3rd columns): *inna min al-bayāni [la-]siḥran* “Indeed, there is [an element] of enchantment in eloquence” and the more negative *al-ḥayā’u wa-l-‘iyyu shu’batāni mina l-īmān wa-l-badhā’u wa-l-bayānu shu’batāni mina l-nifāq* “shame and inexpressiveness are two branches of belief while foulness and expressiveness are two branches of hypocrisy.” The former saying is akin to ‘Umar’s “*wa-llāhi inna ḥadhā la-l-siḥru l-ḥalāl!*” said in admiration of eloquent speech.

²⁹⁴ Albert Arazi and Salman Masalha, *al-‘Iqd al-thamīn fī dawāwīn al-shu‘arā’ al-sitta al-jāhiliyyīn: ṭab‘a jadīda wa-mu’jam mufahras*, based on W. Ahlwardt’s *The Divans of the Six Ancient Arabic Poets*, Jerusalem: The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Institute of Asian and African Studies, 1999, 282 [index], 47 (English title: *Six Early Arab*

an obscure (read: old) meaning of *abāna* as a *ʿṭā* ‘to give’,²⁹⁵ *bayān* seems to correspond most to the sense of *dalāla* (the first meaning recorded by Ibn Manẓūr).

The Legal-Hermeneutic Sense(s) of Bayān

The first usage of *bayān* in a semi-technical sense comes, to the best of our knowledge, from Muḥammad b. Idrīs al-Shāfi‘ī’s (d. 204/820) *Risāla*, a work that came to be seen as the foundational book in legal theory.²⁹⁶ Al-Shāfi‘ī probably inspired the philosophical technical meaning of *bayān* as well, which is preserved in the work of al-Jāhiz, but we shall treat it separately (see below). What exactly *bayān* refers to in al-Shāfi‘ī’s *Risāla* has long been a topic of debate and has been recently addressed by James Montgomery, Joseph Lowry and David

Poets, New Edition and Concordance); Al-Mukhtār Kurayyim, *al-Mu‘jam al-mufahras li-alfāz al-shi‘r al-jāhili wa-ma‘ānīhi: ‘arabī-‘arabī*, Beirut: Maktabat Lubnān Nāshirūn, 2010, 410 [index], 196, 233, 285 (English: ‘A Concordance and Dictionary of Pre-Islamic Poetry: Arabic-Arabic’). Case #1, line 17 of a *Dāliyya* by Zuhayr opening with *ghashītu diyāran* ‘I visited abodes...’ praising Harim b. Sinān b. Abī Ḥāritha al-Murrī (d. ca. 608, a chief of the Banū Murra) reads: *aḏā ‘at fa-lam tuḡfar lahā khalawātuhā // fa-lāqat bayānan ‘inda ākhirī ma‘hadī* [meter: *ṭawīl*] ‘She [the she-camel] neglected [her youngster] – her times of solitude were not forgiven – then, she came across a sign [of her calf’s wound, according to al-Shantamarī: “skin, traces of flesh, blood and the like”] where she last saw [him]’; see Zuhayr b. Abī Sulmā, *Shi‘r Zuhayr b. Abī Sulmā ṣana‘ahu al-A‘lam al-Shantamarī*, ed. Fakhr al-Dīn Qabāwa, Aleppo: al-Maktaba al-‘Arabiyya, 1970, 179 (English: ‘The Poetry of Zuhayr b. Abī Sulmā, arranged by al-Shantamarī [d. 476/1083 or 4]’) (only the first part of the work contains al-Shantamarī’s commentary; the second part contains poems commented by the editor). Another version has *fa-lam tuḡfar lahā ḡhafalātuhā* ‘her acts of negligence with respect to her young one were not forgiven her’ (Lane, *Lexicon*, 2273; translation his). Case #2, line 20 of a *Nūniyya* by Zuhayr also praising Harim b. Sinān and opening with *tabayyan khalīlī* ‘Look, my friend...’ reads (+ second hemistich of previous line): (*taḏammana rislan ḡajātī -bnu Sinānī*) *wa-ḡajata ḡhayrī innahū dhū mawāridin // wa-dhū maṣḡdarin min nā‘ilin wa-bayānī* [meter: *ṭawīl*] ‘(Ibn Sinān guaranteed my need with gentleness) as well as the need of others; indeed he is one to whom [people] come [when it comes to] bestowing and giving’; *Shi‘r Zuhayr*, 291. This piece is not part of al-Shantamarī’s commentary; the editor glosses *bayān* as *balāḡha*. Cf. Kurayyim, *al-Mu‘jam*, 410, who claims that *bayān* in the poetry of Zuhayr means ‘eloquence’ (*balāḡha wa-faṣāḡha*). Case #3, line 40 of a *Rā‘iyya* by al-A‘shā dedicated to Hawdha b. ‘Alī al-Ḥanaḡī (d. 9/630, a leader of the tribe Ḥanīfa b. Lujaym who were in conflict with the tribe of Tamīm) that opens with *ghashīta li-laylā* ‘You came to Laylā...’ reads: *fa-sā‘il tamūman wa-‘indī l-bayānu // wa-in taktumū tajidūnī khabīrā* [meter: *mutaqārib*] ‘[addressing Hawdha] Inquire Tamīm [about what you inflicted upon them] – I have the evidence/knowledge [of that]; [addressing Tamīm] and if you conceal [Hawdha’s victory] I have knowledge [or: I will inform of it]’; see Maymūn b. Qays al-A‘shā al-Kabīr, *Dīwān al-A‘shā al-Kabīr*, commentary by Muḡammad Muḡammad Ḥusayn, 2nd ed., first published by Rudolf Geyer, Beirut: al-Maktab al-Sharqī li-l-Nashr wa-l-Tawzī‘, [1968], 129.

²⁹⁵ For this meaning see Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-‘arab* 1: 404, 2nd column, though *bayān* is not attested as a *maṣḡdar* of form IV *abāna*. But since all of *bayyana*, *abāna*, *tabayyana* and *istabāna* (forms II, IV, V and X) are said to be either transitive or intransitive and thus synonymous with *bāna*, I am allowing the poet (and myself) this license.

²⁹⁶ E.g., Ibn Khaldūn, *Muqaddima* 3: 1030-31, as a later example.

Vishanoff. For Montgomery the central theme behind al-Shāfi‘ī’s *bayān* is the Arabic language (‘*arabiyya*, the language of the ancient Arabs). According to him, “the discussion of the Arabic nature of the Qur’ān [...] can hardly be distinguished from the discussion of *bayān* [...] in Shāfi‘ī’s own jurisprudential definitions,” and the notion of clarity is “virtual[ly] synonym[ous]” with the ‘*arabiyya*.²⁹⁷ Montgomery gauges this understanding from al-Shāfi‘ī’s various pronouncements regarding those to whom the Qur’ān was directed and in whose language it was revealed, and regarding the extensiveness (*ittisā*) – Vishanoff would add, ambiguities – of the Arabic language.²⁹⁸

Lowry delves more deeply into al-Shāfi‘ī’s conception of *bayān*. In his understanding, *bayān* refers to God’s communication of legal norms via the Qur’ān and/or the Sunna (the prophetic *ḥadīth*), as it represents, at the core, “a statement, communication, or address, from God, to someone, in the Arabic language” and “resembles the term *ḥiṭāb* in later *uṣūl al-fiqh*.”²⁹⁹ In his recent translation of al-Shāfi‘ī’s *Risāla*, Lowry renders *bayān* as “legislative statement.”³⁰⁰

²⁹⁷ Montgomery, “Al-Jāhīz’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 105-106.

²⁹⁸ Muḥammad b. Idrīs al-Shāfi‘ī, *al-Risāla*, ed. Aḥmad Muḥammad Shākir, [Cairo]: [al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī], 1940, 21 para. 54 (*annahā bayānun li-man khūṭiba bihā mimman nazala l-Qur’ānu bi-lisānihi* – on this sentence see below), 26 para. 74 (*fa-kāna bayyinan ‘inda man khūṭiba bi-hādhā l-āya*), 40 para. 127 (*anna jamī‘a kitābi -llāhi innamā nazala bi-lisāni l-‘arab*), 42 para. 138 (*wa-lisānu l-‘arab awsa‘u l-alsinati madhhaban*) – to name a few prominent examples. Vishanoff is referring to various features of the Arabic language via the heading “ambiguities,” and thus to al-Shāfi‘ī’s treatment of those features as “a hermeneutic of ambiguity.” See Vishanoff, *Formation*, 46-48, 50-61 (here: 46, 50).

²⁹⁹ Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 507; *idem*, “Does Shāfi‘ī Have a Theory of ‘Four Sources’ of Law?,” in Bernard G. Weiss (ed.), *Studies in Islamic Legal Theory*, Leiden: Brill, 2002, 23-50, here: 47 (where *bayān* is glossed as “a statement of a legal rule”); *idem*, *Early Islamic Legal Theory: The Risāla of Muhammad ibn Idrīs al-Shāfi‘ī*, *Studies in Islamic Law and Society*, vol. 30, Leiden: Brill, 2007, 49. Vishanoff accentuates the point of *bayān* being a communication “from God” even further when he stresses the Qur’ānic focus of al-Shāfi‘ī’s thought (*Formation*, 38-40). Cf. similarly al-Juwaynī’s (d. 478/1085) understanding of al-Shāfi‘ī’s *bayān*, which he interprets as Qur’ān-centric. Lowry disagrees with this take; see “Preliminary Observations,” 521, and *Early Islamic Legal Theory*, 46-47.

³⁰⁰ Lowry (trans.), *The Epistle*, 15 (and *passim*; also “legislative statements” in the plural). Already Mottahedeh translates *bayān* as “clear statement” in his translation of an influential twentieth-century Shī‘ī work of legal theory; see Muḥammad Bāqir aṣ-Ṣadr, *Lessons in Islamic Jurisprudence*, translated with an introduction by Roy Parviz Mottahedeh, Oxford: Oneworld, 2003, 175.

According to Lowry, through postulating the mechanism of *bayān* al-Shāfi‘ī is setting up a description of the law’s structure, or “architecture,” that “aims to demonstrate that the Qur’ān and the Sunna function together, in several different ways to express rules of law.”³⁰¹ Lowry takes the four, and later five, categories of *bayān* detailed by al-Shāfi‘ī as a typology of textual combinations by which norms are “announced.”³⁰² The combinations are: norms announced “by the Qur’ān alone, by the Qur’ān and the Sunna together, by the Sunna alone, or by inference [*ijtihād*] based on the Qur’ān and/or the Sunna.”³⁰³ Lowry takes the four-fold set of categories and the subsequent discussion of five categories, to refer to the same essential combinations (Vishanoff will disagree, see below).³⁰⁴ Most importantly, Lowry identifies that by *bayān* al-Shāfi‘ī does not mean a hierarchy of clarity, as do many of the later *uṣūlīs*, but merely a typology of clarity; al-Shāfi‘ī’s *bayān* is structural whereas *bayān* according to most of the later legal theorists is qualitative.³⁰⁵ It is probably in this sense that Lowry describes al-Shāfi‘ī’s *bayān* as being “mostly intransitive.”³⁰⁶

Vishanoff pinpoints two senses of *bayān* in al-Shāfi‘ī’s thinking rather than one, owing to the differences between the four-fold presentation of *bayān* and the later five-fold categorization. The first sense, expounded on by the four categories (Qur’ān[1]; Qur’ān-Sunna[2]; Sunna[3]; *ijtihād*[4]) is “to make known,” that is, the “four ways in which the Qur’ān reveals the law.” The

³⁰¹ Lowry, *Early Islamic Legal Theory*, 48.

³⁰² That *bayān* involves norms that are necessarily “announced,” “communicated” or “expressed” is something Lowry stresses (e.g. “Preliminary Observations,” 507-508, 525).

³⁰³ Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 508; *idem*, “Four Sources of Law,” 47-49.

³⁰⁴ Al-Shāfi‘ī, *al-Risāla*, 21-22 (four categories), 26-40 (five categories).

³⁰⁵ For elaboration see “Preliminary Observations,” 514-24; *idem*, *Early Islamic Legal Theory*, 55-57.

³⁰⁶ Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 513, 519-20, 523-24 (here: 520).

second sense, expounded on by the five categories, is “to clarify” since those categories concern, according to Vishanoff, the “ways in which the Qur’ān is clarified by other evidence” (a redundant confirmation on a Qur’ānic text by another text[1]; an elaboration or modification by another text on a rather clear Qur’ānic text[2]; an elaboration by another text on an undetailed Qur’ānic text[3]; a prophetic report unrelated to any legal text in the Qur’ān[4]; and natural evidence[5]).³⁰⁷ By identifying this second sense of *bayān* Vishanoff is narrowing the differences between al-Shāfi’ī’s *bayān* and later *uṣūlīs*’ use of the term.

We should pause at some of the wording al-Shāfi’ī employs here, because it lends itself to a dualism that also surfaces later in non-legal writings. Several *uṣūlīs* famously complain about al-Shāfi’ī’s prefatory passage on *bayān* as being either a poor definition of *bayān* or no definition at all,³⁰⁸ and I certainly cannot make better sense of it.³⁰⁹ First, the title al-Shāfi’ī gives to his treatment of the topic is not *al-bayān* or *mā al-bayān* “what is *bayān*,” as one might

³⁰⁷ For the two senses see Vishanoff, *Formation*, 52; for the meaning of the five categories as a means by which “the Qur’ān’s legal meaning can be ‘made clear’” see *ibid.*, 42-43. According to Vishanoff, the ways in which the law is revealed ultimately go back to the Qur’ān. We should mention that later in the *Risāla* (32-33 paras. 97-101), we find a further categorization of *bayān* into three categories (or ways, *wujūh*). Al-Shāfi’ī presents this in the context of category 4 in the five-fold categorization, and it is said with respect to *al-farā’id al-manṣūṣa fī kitāb Allāh*, which Lowry translates as “textually explicit obligations” (*The Epistle*, 27; no trace of *fī kitāb Allāh*). I am not sure how this categorization fits with the other ones. The categories here are: the Qur’ān alone, the Qur’ān with an elaboration by the prophetic Sunna, and the prophetic Sunna without a clear Qur’ānic text. Here he does away with *ijtihād*. Once again, all three categories are reducible to the Qur’ān (*wa-kullu shay’in minhā bayānun fī kitābi -llāh* “All of these are legislative statements in the Book of God”; *al-Risāla* 32 para. 97, 33 para. 101/Lowry [trans.], *The Epistle*, 27), adding credence to the understanding of *bayān* as being ultimately tied to the Qur’ān. In this passage we find a hint of a qualitative sense of *bayān*, when al-Shāfi’ī speaks of some categories as being “of the utmost clarity” (*alā ghāyat al-bayān*; *al-Risāla*, 32 paras. 98-99).

³⁰⁸ Vishanoff, *Formation*, 39 fn. 145.

³⁰⁹ For recent translations of *al-Risāla*, 21, paras. 53-54, see Lowry (trans.), *The Epistle*, 15; Vishanoff, *Formation*, 39; Ahmed El Shamsy, *From Tradition to Law: The Origins and Early Development of the Shāfi’ī School of Law in Ninth-Century Egypt*, PhD Dissertation, Harvard University, 2009, 59. One of the many textual problems in this passage has to do with the *ma’ānī* (*ma’ānin*) to which the resumptive pronouns in *annahā* and *bihā* refer in *annahā bayānun li-man khūṭiba bihā* (also the feminine marker in *mutaqāribat al-istiṭwā*): this gives the impression that what is addressed to those to whom the Qur’ān was revealed was the *ma’ānī* of *bayān*, rendering the phrase *annahā bayānun* rather redundant. Vishanoff takes *ma’ānin* to be a reference to the “types” of *bayān*; Lowry and El Shamsy ignore it, as they take the feminine resumptive pronoun as a reference to the masculine *bayān* or to the Qur’ān.

expect, but rather *kayfa al-bayān* “how is *bayān*” or “the modalities of *bayān*.”³¹⁰ We will return to this shortly. Once al-Shāfi‘ī goes on to enumerate the categories of *bayān* (four and later five), he elaborates on nearly all of them using conjugations of *abāna* ‘to make evident’, *bayyana* (do.) and *dalla* ‘to indicate’, the subject of these transitive verbs being God, the Prophet or natural signs. The very opening sentence of his presentation of the categories is *fa-jimā‘u mā abāna - llāhu li-khalqihī [fī kitābihī]* “The sum total of that which God made evident for His creation [in his Book...].”³¹¹ Considering the occurrences of such verbs, *bayān* is clearly a transitive notion in the lexical sense we have seen above, and Lowry even translates the verb *abāna* here as the “legislative statements that God has provided”.³¹² In this sense *bayān* refers to God’s pronouncements about the law, and *kayfa al-bayān* refers to ways in which God imparts knowledge about the law (even if it is mediated by the prophetic literature or by inference, it is ultimately based on Scripture). But at the same time, *bayān* also carries an intransitive sense and refers not to the communication of that legal knowledge, but to the legal knowledge itself: *kayfa al-bayān* would thus refer to the ways in which knowledge about the law comes about.³¹³ In the

³¹⁰ *Al-Risāla*, 21 (including *wujūh* in para. 55); Lowry (trans.), *The Epistle*, 15; M. Bernand, “*Bayān selon les Uṣūliyyūn*,” *Arabica* 42 (1995), 145-60, here: 150, 152.

³¹¹ *Al-Risāla*, 21 para. 55 (quoted above), 21 para. 56 (*mā abānahu li-khalqihī naṣṣan; ghayr dhālika mimmā bayyana naṣṣan*) [category one], 22 para. 57 (*wa-bayyana [...] ‘alā lisān nabīyyihī*) [category two], 23 para. 65 (*fa-dallahum jalla thanā‘uhu*), 24 para. 68 (*mimmā dallahum ‘alayhi*) [category four], 28 para. 82 (*fa-kānat al-dalāla fī hādihā* [referring to a Qur’ānic verse]) [category one, second list], 29 para. 86 (*atā kitābu -llāh ‘alā l-bayān*), para. 87 (*fa-bayyana rasūlu -llāh [...] wa-dalla ‘alā anna*), para. 88 (*wa-dallat al-sunna; wa-dalla l-nabīyy; wa-dalla ‘alā anna; dalla ‘alā annahu*) [category two, second list], 31 para. 95 (*thumma bayyana ‘alā lisān rasūlihī*) [category three, second list], 32 para. 97 (*wa-bayyana [Allāh]*) para. 99 (*fa-bayyana rasūl Allāh ‘an Allāh*), 33 para. 100 (*mā bayyanahu ‘an sunnat nabīyyihī*) [category four, second list], 38 para. 116 (*wa-abāna [Allāh] anna*) [category five, second list]. Even the categories which are not expounded on using these verbs contain other transitive verbs, like *faraḍa* ‘to impose’, which reveal the transitive notion behind *bayān*; see, e.g., *al-Risāla*, 22 para. 59 [category four, first list]: *mā faraḍa Allāh ‘alā khalqihī al-ijtihād fī ṭalabihī* “That [i.e., legal knowledge] which, in order for his people to obtain, God imposed inference.” Notice that all categories are reduced, again, to the Qur’ān (*mā abāna Allāh li-khalqihī fī kitābihī*).

³¹² Lowry (trans.), *The Epistle*, 15.

³¹³ This is also evident from the phrase *annahā bayānun li-man khūṭiba bihā*: “they [the cryptic *ma‘ānī*, see above] make things clear to those to whom they are addressed” (Vishanoff, *Formation*, 39), which could also mean “they

‘transitive’ reading the emphasis is more on the communication itself and its method (be it linguistic or not, explicit or not, etc.), and as such *bayān* can be translated as ‘divine communication [about the law]’. In the ‘intransitive’ reading, the emphasis is more on the content of communication, or the knowledge itself of the law, and as such *bayān* can be translated as ‘knowledge [about the law]’. To be sure, for al-Shāfi‘ī the concept of *bayān* is rather consistent, and given the verbal use of *abāna*, *bayyana*, and *dalla*, its primary sense is transitive.³¹⁴ The dualism of the term tells us not so much about al-Shāfi‘ī’s thinking as it does about the inherent ambiguity of the term *bayān* itself (more on this below).

It is true that the categories of *bayān* here, that is, the “ways” in which the law is made known, are ultimately mediated by language, but I am not sure al-Shāfi‘ī had this emphasis in mind. For him *bayān* is derived from the first lexical meaning of the word, namely, a type of ‘sign’ or ‘indication’ (*mā buyyina bihi l-shay‘u mina l-dalālati wa-ghayrihā*; see above), and whether or not those signs are linguistic is, at the basis of al-Shāfi‘ī’s conception of *bayān*, less relevant.³¹⁵ Montgomery’s connection between *bayān* and the ‘*arabiyya* is interesting indeed – we will come across this in Ibn Fāris’ work – but such an identity is not set up by al-Shāfi‘ī (he speaks of the language’s ambiguities and the necessity to master them, but in and of themselves, they are distinct from the notion of *bayān*).

As we move away from al-Shāfi‘ī to later legal theorists we find that their conception of

are clear to those to whom they are addressed,” making *bayān* synonymous with the following *mutaqāribat al-istiwā’*, which Vishanoff translates as “equivalent [in their clarity]” (brackets his) and could also be translated as “equally/easily plain/direct” (see also El Shamsy, *From Tradition to Law*, 59, on *istiwā’*).

³¹⁴ See also Wolfhart Heinrichs, “Klassisch-arabische Theorien dichterischer Rede,” in Holger Preissler and Heidi Stein (eds.), *Annäherungen an das Fremde. XXVI. Deutscher Orientalistentag vom 25. Bis 29.9.1995 in Leipzig* (= *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, Supplement 11), Stuttgart: Franz Steiner, 1998, 199-208, here: 199-200, fn. 2. Heinrichs recognizes the dual sense of “clarity”-“clarification” that the legal theorists’ definitions of *bayān* often imply, and that as a technical term, it usually means “clarification.”

³¹⁵ In this sense, later *uṣūlī* interpretations of *bayān* as *dalīl* are not so disconnected from al-Shāfi‘ī’s ideas (for *bayān* as *dalīl* see, e.g., Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 522).

bayān as a hermeneutical tool usually involves a clarifactory relationship between texts.

According to many of the later *uṣūlīs*, *bayān* refers to the ways in which one text makes another clearer with regards to legal norms, thus assigning the term a more pronounced qualitative sense.³¹⁶ Lowry shows that *bayān* gradually came to refer to various levels of communicative clarity, shifting the emphasis to the role of the addressee, or recipient, in interpreting those levels. This process reflects what Lowry refers to as the “linguistic turn” in later legal thinking – essentially, the main concern of Vishanoff’s work.³¹⁷

The Philosophical Sense(s) of Bayān

The common denominator between the legal sense of *bayān* and the philosophical one is that both are derived from the first lexical meaning of the word, namely, a type of ‘sign’ by which a thing becomes known. But whereas the former is limited to knowledge about legal ‘things’, the latter is more general. We could nevertheless refer to both senses of *bayān* as ‘a mechanism of imparting³¹⁸ knowledge’.

Abū ‘Uthmān ‘Amr b. Baḥr al-Jāḥiẓ (d. 255/868 or 9) is the first author to leave us a written documentation of *bayān* in its philosophical sense in his famous ‘humanist’ masterpieces, *Kitāb al-Ḥayawān* ‘Books of Animals’ and *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* ‘Clear Expression/Eloquence and Exposition’.³¹⁹ Al-Jāḥiẓ’s notion of *bayān* has usually been interpreted as a theory of

³¹⁶ This is based on the views of al-Jaṣṣāṣ (d. 370/980), Abū al-Ḥusayn al-Baṣrī (d. 436/1044), al-Juwaynī (d. 478/1085), Ibn ‘Aqīl (d. 513/1119) and al-Zarkashī (d. 794/1392) – all discussed by Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 514-24.

³¹⁷ Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 525-27; Vishanoff, *Formation*, xiii-xiv.

³¹⁸ The verb ‘to impart [knowledge]’, unlike ‘to convey’ or ‘to communicate’, is etymologically connected to the notion of parting or dividing, and as such it evokes one of the main meanings of the root *b.y.n.*, namely, ‘to part’. See Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-‘Arab*, 1: 403-406, and Larsen’s discussion of separability above.

³¹⁹ Montgomery now prefers ‘The Book of Living’ for *Kitāb al-Ḥayawān*, following Sa‘īd Manẓūr’s understanding of *ḥayawān* as equivalent to the meaning of the word in Q 29:64, “The next dwelling – it is living (*ḥayawān*; ‘life’ in Arberry’s rendering).” See Montgomery, *In Praise of Books*, 9-10. Lately, ‘The Book of Living Beings’ has

communication akin to modern semiotics.³²⁰ Scholars pursuing this line of thought have tended to investigate al-Jāhiz's notion of *bayān* in isolation.³²¹

Bayān is in fact used in two senses by al-Jāhiz: the first is non-technical and implicit and refers to 'clarity of expression' (i.e., eloquence); the second is technical and explicit and refers to a philosophical mechanism of signification. What we are interested in here is the second use of the term, but a word should be said about the first. *Bayān* as 'eloquence' is most apparent in the opening of *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*: although lacking a clear preface, not to mention an explanation of the work's title, al-Jāhiz does begin with a type of 'definition' of *bayān* by treating its primary antonym – befitting the famous adage *tu 'raf al-ashyā' bi-aḍḍādhā* "things are known/defined by their opposites" – namely, 'iyy' 'inarticulateness/ linguistic ineptitude' (or *ḥaṣar* 'inability to express one's mind'; one of the very definitions of 'iyy given in the dictionaries is "the opposite of *bayān*").³²² It is clear that this unspoken sense of *bayān* is different from the explicit

become a common translation for the title, presumably due to the central place human beings hold in the book. I still prefer 'The Book of Animals', for 'man' is part of the genus 'animal' and al-Jāhiz was well familiar with Aristotelian notions of genera and species ('Living Beings' leaves out this sense). For additional translations of *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* see Montgomery, "Al-Jāhiz's *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*," 122, and the references stated therein. The translation above is Pellat's. Montgomery opts for the literal 'Clarity and Clarification'. Skarzyńska-Bocheńska takes the title of the work as *al-Bayān wa-l-tabayyun*, following al-Shāhid al-Būshaykhī, and thus translates it as "Livre de la communication et de la perception"; see Krystyna Skarzyńska-Bocheńska, "Entre al-Ġāhiz et Bakhtine: Le [sic] théorie de la communication chez érudit [sic] arabe du 9^e siècle et chez chercheurs européens contemporains," in Miklós Maróth (ed.), *Problems in Arabic Literature*, Piliscsaba: The Avicenna Institute of Middle Eastern Studies, 2004, 91-101, here: 91. As we shall see, it is probably best to keep to Pellat's translation since *bayān* in *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* (as opposed to the *Ḥayawān*) refers primarily to 'eloquence'.

³²⁰ Yasir Suleiman, "Bayān as a Principle of Taxonomy: Linguistic Elements in Jāhiz's Thinking," in J.F. Healy and V. Porter (eds.), *Studies on Arabia in Honour of G. Rex Smith*, Oxford: Oxford University Press on behalf of the University of Manchester, 2002, 273-95, here: 277-79, 289, who speaks of the forms of human *bayān* as "semiological systems"; Skarzyńska-Bocheńska, "Entre al-Ġāhiz et Bakhtine" (and her earlier studies cited therein); Lale Behzadi, *Sprache und Verstehen: al-Ġāhiz über die Vollkommenheit des Ausdrucks*, Diskurse der Arabistik, Bd. 14, Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 2009.

³²¹ Montgomery and Lowry analyse al-Jāhiz's *bayān* in more contextual terms, but mostly limited to al-Shāfi'ī.

³²² Abū 'Uthmān 'Amr b. Baḥr al-Jāhiz, *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn, 4 vols., Cairo: Maktabat al-Khānjī, [1968], 1: 3-7, and more broadly 3-74. Al-Jāhiz treats a range of linguistic 'ineptitudes' in this long section, including speech impediments and consonant-mispronunciations, and a number of typical Jāhizian digressions, a long one of which is on poets who are also good orators (a talent he deems rare, p. 45). Ibn Manẓūr records al-Jawharī's definition: *wa-l- 'iyyu khilāfu l-bayān* (*Lisān al- 'Arab* 4: 3202, 2nd column). For a different, and

presentation of the notion in the following section titled *bāb al-bayān*.³²³ *Bayān* as ‘eloquence’ serves as one of the main components of the ‘project’ al-Jāhiz is committed to, to wit: preserving (and promoting) the customs, codes and heritage of the Arabs of pre-Islamic Arabia, culminating in their linguistic excellence.³²⁴

But the technical sense of *bayān* is first presented in his earlier work, the *Hayawān*, not in *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*, and the two discussions of the notion are slightly different.³²⁵ The context of the first discussion of *bayān* is *ḥikma*, a term that usually denotes ‘divine wisdom’ or ‘intelligent design’ (also *tadbīr*), and is a philosophical principle that underlies the *Hayawān*, according to which “God’s providence [or: design] can be seen in the lowliest creatures of His creation.”³²⁶ As it is presented in the passage in question, the meaning of *ḥikma* oscillates

detailed, presentation of the prefatory sections of al-Jāhiz’s work see Montgomery, “Al-Jāhiz’s *al-Bayān wa-l-Tabyīn*,” 115-22. According to him (p. 122), “the first section of Jāhiz’s *Bayān* [i.e., pp. 3-74] establishes the three principal domains in which the treatise will operate: the divine nature of *bayān* and its significance for mankind; Mu‘tazilism as the bastion of the of the beliefs of the Community; the analysis and survey of linguistic ineptitude and speech defects as political, religious, moral and legal failings.”

³²³ *Al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* 1: 75 fn. 1, where Hārūn states that the heading appears in all but two manuscripts.

³²⁴ This is referred to by Pellat as the “Arabic humanities”; Ch. Pellat, “al-Djāhiz,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. See also Michael Zwettler, “Abu ‘Uthman ‘Amr bin Bahr al-Jahiz,” in George N. Atiyeh et al. (eds.), *The Genius of Arab Civilization: Source of Renaissance*, 3rd ed., New York: New York University Press, 1992, 76-79, here: 78, and Suleiman, “*Bayān* as a Principle of Taxonomy,” 276-77, 284-85, 290. For an analysis of al-Jāhiz’s *bayān* in the sense of ‘[situational] eloquence’ see Thomas, *The Concept of Muḥādara*, 99-107. The overall polyvalence of the term *bayān* in al-Jāhiz has been recognized by Behzadi in *Sprache und Verstehen*, 58; cf. Krystyna Skarżyńska-Bocheńska, “Some Aspects of al-Jāhiz’s Rhetorical Theory,” *Occasional Papers of the School of Abbasid Studies* 3 (1990), 89-116, here: 93-94. One translation Behzadi offers for *bayān* is “correspondence” or “balanced equivalence”, to express not only the ‘transmittable’ aspect of *bayān* but also the ‘decipherable’ aspect thereof. Behzadi is committed to the concept of *bayān* as a theory of communication; in her interpretation, the discussion of ‘*iy*’ is an instantiation of an act of communication ‘gone wrong’ (*Sprache und Verstehen*, 96-107).

³²⁵ Abū ‘Uthmān ‘Amr b. Baḥr al-Jāhiz, *Kitāb al-Hayawān*, ed. ‘Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn, 7 vols., 2nd ed., Cairo: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1966, 1: 33-35 and 6: 5-6. On the chronology of al-Jāhiz’s authoring of the *Bayān* vis-à-vis the *Hayawān* see Montgomery, “Al-Jāhiz’s *al-Bayān wa-l-Tabyīn*,” 111-14.

³²⁶ Geert Jan van Gelder, “Beautifying the Ugly and Uglifying the Beautiful: The Paradox in Classical Arabic Literature,” *Journal of Semitic Studies* 48.2 (2003), 321-51, here: 333. Pellat states: “[...] the main idea which emerges from the work [*Kitāb al-Hayawān*] is that everything in nature has a meaning and use, and that everything proves the existence and wisdom of God”; see Charles Pellat, “Al-Jāhiz,” in Julia Ashtiany et al. (eds.), *Cambridge History of Arabic Literature: ‘Abbasid Belles-Lettres*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990, 78-95, here: 87. See further Ibrahim Geries, “Le Système Éthique d’al-Ġāhiz,” *Studia Islamica* 56 (1982), 51-68, here: 54-58,

between ‘divine wisdom’ and ‘wisdom of worldly things’. Because all worldly things are a reflection of God, this distinction might be a moot one for al-Jāhīz: *ḥikma* could refer, at the same time, both to Wisdom and to the manifestation of Wisdom (a primitive precursor to monism?).³²⁷

Let us closely summarize the passage in question, which appears in the opening sections of the *Ḥayawān* dealing with the various divisions of creation.³²⁸ According to al-Jāhīz, all things in the universe contain, or are themselves, *ḥikma* (*wa-wajadnā l-‘ālam bi-mā fīhi ḥikmatan*). These worldly things “were created” as such (*ju‘ila ḥikmatan*), implicitly by God. There are two types of wisdom. The first type does not realize or understand wisdom (*lā ya‘qilu l-ḥimka*), presumably its own inherent wisdom, nor does it understand what follows from the wisdom (*‘āqibat al-ḥikma*), presumably God’s existence and design. This type encompasses animals and inanimate beings, and al-Jāhīz refers to it as the irrational (*ghayr al-‘āqil*). The second type of wisdom understands wisdom and what follows from it; it encompasses Man, and al-Jāhīz refers to it as the rational (*al-‘āqil*). Both types of wisdom are the same in that they are an indication or a sign (*dalāla, dalīl*) that they themselves are ‘wisdom’.³²⁹ Montgomery refers to *dalīl* in this context as a “probative sign,”³³⁰ implying that it is specifically a sign of divinity, and I follow

and Montgomery, “Al-Jāhīz’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 131, *In Praise of Books*, 278 ff., 391, 427. Al-Jāhīz sometimes interchanges *ḥikma* with *tadbīr* ‘providence’; e.g., *al-Ḥayawān* 1: 34.4-5.

³²⁷ Montgomery renders *ḥikma* as “wisdom” or “instance of wisdom” (*In Praise of Books*, 435). Suleiman interprets *ḥikma* as “semantic import” or “meaning” and the worldly entities as “signifiers of meaning” (“*Bayān* as a Principle of Taxonomy,” 278, 280). I think *ḥikma* refers primarily to the ‘meaning’ of God (as the creator) and only secondarily to other types of meaning (like sickness, etc., that humans can infer from inanimate objects or situations; al-Jāhīz, *al-Ḥayawān* 1: 34, and below).

³²⁸ *Al-Ḥayawān* 1: 33-35. For a most recent paraphrase see Montgomery, *In Praise of Books*, 435-36.

³²⁹ The resumptive pronoun in *al-dalāla ‘alā annahu ḥikma* refers to *al-shay’ al-‘āqil wa-ghayr al-‘āqil*, that is, to the entities themselves – not, say, to God (*al-Ḥayawān* 1: 33). On the meaning of *dalāla* as *dalīl* see Lane, *Lexicon*, 901. Other options for *dalīl*: a thing that carries signification; signifier.

³³⁰ *In Praise of Books*, 435, and Part 5 of his book (“The Architecture of Design”).

him by translating *dalīl* here as “a sign of *ḥikma*.” Al-Jāḥiẓ continues by saying that the two types of *ḥikma* differ in that the irrational being is a sign of *ḥikma* (*dalīl*) that cannot itself ‘seek indication’ or infer (*yastadillu*), whereas the rational being is a sign of *ḥikma* that can make inferences (*dalīl mustadill*). At this point the notion of *bayān* is introduced:

thumma ju ‘ila li-l-mustadilli sababun yadullu bihi ‘alā wujūhi -stidlālihi wa-wujūhi mā nataja lahu l-istidlālu wa-sammaw dhālika bayānan

Then a means was made for the inferring being by which he could indicate/signify the various methods of his inference as well as the various results of his inference (lit. that which his inference brought forth), and that [the means, or faculty] was named *bayān*.³³¹

Al-Jāḥiẓ says that four types of “means of indication/signification” (*bayān*) were created (*ju ‘ila*): speech, writing, calculating (with fingers), and gesturing.³³² He then proceeds to argue, in some detail, that the non-inferring sign of wisdom (*al-dalīl alladhī lā yastadillu*) also has³³³ a “means of indication” (*bayān*) by the fact that it “enables the one seeking indication from it (*al-mustadilla min nafsihi*), and leads anyone who examines it (*kulla man fakkara fīhi*), to [gain] knowledge (*ma ‘rifa*) of the proof (*burhān*) that is repositied in it [in the irrational being], and of the indication [of wisdom] (*dalāla*) that it is filled with, and of the wondrous wisdom (*‘ajīb al-*

³³¹ *Al-Ḥayawān* 1: 33.3-4^c. Suleiman describes this “means of generating and processing meaning” as “faculty-like” (“*Bayān* as a Principle of Taxonomy,” 280). Behzadi presents it as an “access” (*Zugang*) to the signifiable world (*Sprache und Verstehen*, 58). Montgomery translates *bayān* as “clarity” and *dalāla* as “probative signs” (*In Praise of Books*, 435); here Montgomery recognizes a shift in focus between the presentation of *bayān* in the *Ḥayawān* and that in *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*. Following Montgomery, I am essentially disregarding the second instance of *wujūh* (in *wujūh mā nataja lahu l-istidlāl*) in my translation. Larsen discusses the possible indebtedness of this passage to Aristotle’s discussion of the sign/reference (*Means of Intelligibility*, 13-15, 102; his translation should be treated with caution).

³³² *Al-Ḥayawān* 1: 33. For a detailed account of these categories see, e.g., Suleiman, “*Bayān* as a Principle of Taxonomy,” 281-86; Behzadi, *Sprache und Verstehen*, 62-77. Both scholars set it as their aim to situate al-Jāḥiẓ’s thought within modern theories of language and communication. To them we may add Skarzyńska-Bocheńska, who renders *bayān* directly as “communication”; see “Entre al-Ġāḥiẓ et Bakhtine,” *passim*.

³³³ This is understood, first, by the *iḍāfa* construction implying possession, *bayān al-dalīl alladhī lā yastadillu* (*al-Ḥayawān* 1: 34), and later, by the specific remark that the inanimate object “shares with the living speaking (/rational) man in [having?] *bayān*” (*qad shāraka fī l-bayāni l-insāna al-ḥayya l-nāṭiqā*; *ibid.* 1: 35).

ḥima) that it is deposited with.”³³⁴ In other words, *bayān* is not a means to signify meaning in general, but specifically the meaning of God’s existence and design (i.e., *ḥikma*). Al-Jāḥiẓ concedes that those who see *bayān* as containing five categories, to include the irrational entities, are correct as well.³³⁵

Al-Jāḥiẓ provides several examples for irrational beings imparting knowledge that can be ‘deciphered’ by rational beings, but in my understanding, these are not meant as primary examples of *bayān*. Rather, they are adduced as analogies in order to *prove* that irrational beings can ‘speak’ – most specifically – of their wisdom. Al-Jāḥiẓ states that inanimate beings “speak insofar as they [offer] indication [of *ḥikma*] [...] as if the design (*tadbīr*) and wisdom (*ḥikma*) within them are informers to those who seek information from them and speakers to those who ask them to speak back, *just as* (*kamā*) leanness and fading of color inform of illness, and *just as* fleshiness and brightness (of color) speak of good health” (emphasis added).³³⁶ In other words, just as leanness etc. can inform us of certain realities, likewise objects can inform us of the most basic reality – ‘wisdom’ – via *bayān*. *Bayān* is first and foremost a mechanism of imparting knowledge of *ḥikma*, not any knowledge.

I take the poetic examples that al-Jāḥiẓ then adduces in a similar vein of analogical proof, although I recognize that they can be, and have been read as examples of *bayān* par

³³⁴ Ibid. 1: 34.

³³⁵ Ibid. 1: 35. Al-Jāḥiẓ does not give a heading to this category as he later does in *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*, but he mentions “the position of an object and its stature” (*mawḍū‘ al-jism wa-niṣbatuhu*; *al-Ḥayawān* 1: 35, and see below).

³³⁶ Ibid. 1: 34 (*fa-l-ajsāmu l-khursu l-ṣāmitatu nāṭiqatun min jihati l-dalālati [...] ‘alā anna -lladhī fihā mina l-tadbīri wa-l-ḥikmati mukhbīrun li-mani -stakhbarahu wa-nāṭiqun li-mani -stanṭaqahu kamā khabbara l-huzālu wa-kusūfu l-lawni ‘an sū’i l-ḥāli wa-kamā yanṭiqu l-simānu wa-ḥusnu l-naḍrati ‘an ḥusni l-ḥāli*) (emphasis mine). If they had been meant as examples of *bayān*, I think the wording would be different.

excellence.³³⁷ The examples are interesting, because such cases would later come to be seen as *majāz* (see Part Two), whereas for al-Jāhīz and later Ibn Wahb al-Kātib, they are a reflection of true reality. The examples include provision-bags loaded on camels “giving praise” to the caliph (a line by the Umayyad poet Nuṣayb ‘al-Akbar’); eyes “informing” about that which is in the hearts (anonymous poetic line); a wolf “requesting [knowledge]” from the wind (a line by the *mukhaḍram* poet al-‘Uklī); feathers of a raven falling off piecemeal likened to a pair of shears because he “informs” [of separation] (a line by the Jāhīlī poet ‘Antara); a land “replying” to an inquirer about [Him] who plowed [it for] its rivers, planted its trees and gathered its fruit (related in the *Qiṣaṣ al-anbiyā*’ by al-Faḍl b. ‘Īsā b. Abān).³³⁸ In the last example we find the term *i ‘tibār* ‘a lesson to be derived’,³³⁹ which Ibn Wahb will later employ to express the imparting of knowledge by inanimate beings.

If in the context of the *Ḥayawān*, *bayān* is not a means of signifying any meaning whatsoever but is a means of signifying specifically divine/worldly wisdom (*ḥikma*, *tadbīr*) – the focus of the notion shifts in the later *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*. This is because in the later work, al-Jāhīz approaches the topic from the perspective of *bayān* as ‘eloquence’ (see above), and because he is probably adjusting his presentation to the ideas laid out by al-Shāfi‘ī, whom he alludes to by citing “one of the mighty man of words.”³⁴⁰ The chapter titled *bāb al-bayān*,

³³⁷ See the modern studies cited above. Al-Jāhīz himself and others following him would come to view such cases from the point of view of *bayān*.

³³⁸ Ibid. 1: 34-35.

³³⁹ *fa-in lam tujibka hiwāran ajābatka - ‘tibāran* “and if [the land] does not reply to you by conversation, it will reply to you as a lesson that can be derived” (ibid. 1: 35). For the meaning of *i ‘tibār* as “a lesson [‘ibra] to be derived” see Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-‘arab* 4: 2783, 2nd-3rd columns, 2782, 2nd column; Lane, *Lexicon*, 1937: “He took, or regarded, what he witnessed, or saw, or beheld, as an indication, or evidence, of what was concealed from him.”

³⁴⁰ *Al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* 1: 75, where the chapter opens with *qāla ba ‘ḍu jahābidhati al-alfāzi wa-nuqqādi l-ma ‘ānī*; El Shamsy, *From Tradition to Law*, 206.

appearing immediately after the work’s opening section, begins with the idea of making known ideas/meanings (*ma ‘ānī*) which subsist in the hearts (lit. ‘breasts’) and minds of *people*,³⁴¹ thus creating a direct link between the universal philosophical mechanism of *bayān* and the *bayān* pertaining solely to humans. Here too al-Jāhīz presents *bayān* as a ‘sign’ and as a ‘means’, keeping in line with the primary lexical sense of the word: “A clear sign/indication (*dalāla*) of a hidden meaning – that is the *bayān* that you heard God Almighty speak in praise of [...]”; “By whichever means you reach [a state of] making [something] understood and [by whichever means] you elucidate a meaning – that is *bayān* in that situation.”³⁴² Here *dalāla* is used in a general sense, devoid of the notion of *ḥikma*, and is now equivalent to *bayān* in that the categories, which were identified previously in the *Ḥayawān* as categories of *bayān*, are now presented as categories of *al-dalālāt ‘alā l-ma ‘ānī* “significations of meanings/concepts,” whether verbal or not (*min lafẓ wa-ghayr lafẓ*). They are presented directly as being five-fold,

³⁴¹ *al-ma ‘ānī al-qā’ima fī ṣudūr al-nās al-mutaṣawwara fī adhhānihim* [etc.]; *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* 1: 75. For a translation of the entire paragraph see Montgomery, “Al-Jāhīz’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 126. He interprets (p. 127) this and other segments as a testament to the fact that “Jāhīz’s system is a performative ethics, in which man’s character is defined through his actions and not through his intentions: his moral duty is to enable his companions to understand his intentions through endowing them with *bayān*” (see also Montgomery, *In Praise of Books*, 322). I do not see al-Jāhīz’s discussions of (human) communication to pertain to ethics (by which Montgomery is following the famous claims made by Michael Carter on speech as action). If anything, a man *cannot but help* express his true nature by his speech, revealing a kind of ‘perceptual-relativism’: any situation can be perceived differently by different people depending on their status, profession, etc. This idea is developed by Montgomery in his later study of *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* via what he calls “the speech-nature insight.” Especially revealing are the examples al-Jāhīz provides of those professionals who use technical vocabulary in their speech in non-professional settings because their perception of a situation is relative to their background. Montgomery does not use the term relativism in this context but does speak of ‘determinism’; he examines the issue in light of many later theological discussions on the topic. See James E. Montgomery, “Speech and Nature: al-Jāhīz, *Kitāb al-bayān wa-l-tabyīn*, 2.175-207, Part 1,” *Middle Eastern Literatures* 11.2 (2008), 169-91, esp. 171-74; *idem*, “Speech and Nature: al-Jāhīz, *Kitāb al-bayān wa-l-tabyīn*, 2.175-207, Part 4,” *Middle Eastern Literatures* 12.3 (2009), 213-32. On the ‘genre’ of literary speech put into the mouth of artisans and other tradesmen see Joseph Sadan, “Kings and Craftsmen, A Pattern of Contrasts: On the History of a Mediaeval Arabic Humorous Form,” *Studia Islamica* 56 (1982), 5-49 (Part I) and 62 (1985), 89-120 (Part II).

³⁴² *Al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* 1: 75.2-3° (*wa-l-dalālatu l-zāhiratu ‘alā l-ma ‘nā l-khafīyyi huwa l-bayānu -lladhī sami ‘ta -llāha ‘azza wa-jalla yamdaḥuhu [...]*); *ibid.* 1: 76.4-5 (*fā-bi-ayyi shay’in balaghta l-īfḥāma wa-awḍaḥta ‘ani l-ma ‘nā fa-dhālika huwa l-bayānu fī dhālika l-mawḍi’*).

and *bayān* in turn is defined as that which reveals a meaning (*ma'nā*) to the listener.³⁴³

Signification imparted by inanimate entities is termed *niṣba* ‘position’, a term that has been associated with the seventh Aristotelian category *to keisthai* already in the late third/ninth century scribal manual *al-Risāla al-‘Adhrā’*.³⁴⁴ Referred to as *al-ḥāl al-dālla* “the indicative situation” and *al-ḥāl al-nāṭiqa bi-ghayr al-lafẓ* “the non-verbal expressive situation,” this category is exemplified with many of the same examples that al-Jāḥiẓ adduced in his *Ḥayawān*.³⁴⁵

Montgomery, and Lowry following him, contends that al-Jāḥiẓ’s theory of *bayān* is a reaction to, and engagement with, al-Shāfi‘ī’s treatment of the notion.³⁴⁶ Ahmed El Shamsy has found a nearly verbatim account of parts of the passage we find in *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*, put into the mouth of al-Shāfi‘ī – “one of [...] the mighty men of words” – by one of his students.³⁴⁷ The term *bayān* is not mentioned in this account: the five-fold categorization deals, as we find above,

³⁴³ *Al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* 1: 76.

³⁴⁴ See von Grunebaum, “Bayān” and Montgomery, “Al-Jāḥiẓ’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 128-29, 131. Von Grunebaum cites additional medieval scholars who attend (explicitly or not) to al-Jāḥiẓ’s five-fold categorization. Behzadi translated *niṣba* as “the emblematicity of Being” (Die Zeichenhaftigkeit des Seins) or “universal reference” (*Sprache und Verstehen*, 76, 174). For the connection between *bayān*, esp. *niṣba*, and *ḥikma* see Rajā’ Ibn Salāma, “Fī l-niṣba wa-l-bayān wa-miḥnat al-ma’nā,” *Fuṣūl* 15:4 (1997), 299–308, here: 301-303. Further studies on *niṣba* are (not seen): C.A. Nallino, “Del vocabola arabo ‘niṣbah’ (con ‘ṣād’),” *Revista degli Studi Orientali* 8 (1919–20), 637–46; Katia Zakharia, “C’est cela qui, entre ‘nous’ et ‘eux’, fait la difference: Le concept de *niṣba* dans le *Kitāb al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*,” in Cristina de la Puente (ed.), *Identidades marginales* (Estudios onomástico-biográficos de Al-Andalus 13), Madrid: Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Instituto de Filología, Departamento de Estudios Arabes, 2003, 15–51.

³⁴⁵ *Al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* 1: 81-83. One of the additional examples al-Jāḥiẓ provides is “Alexander was more talkative yesterday than he is today, but he is more exhortative today than he was yesterday,” said upon the death of Alexander the Great. The standard idiom for this phenomenon became *lisān al-ḥāl*.

³⁴⁶ Montgomery, “Al-Jāḥiẓ’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 103, 126, 131-32; *idem*, “Speech and Nature: Part 4,” 224; Lowry, “Preliminary Observations,” 510-14, 525-26. According to Montgomery (“Al-Jāḥiẓ’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 131), *niṣba* occupies a place similar to that of *ijtihād* in al-Shāfi‘ī’s system.

³⁴⁷ Ibn ‘Asākir, *Tārīkh madīnat Dimashq*, ed. Muḥibb al-Dīn Abū Sa‘īd ‘Umar b. Gharāma al-‘Amrawī, 80 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Fikr, 1995-2000, 51: 356; El Shamsy, *From Tradition to Law*, 206-207. The quotation is related by Abū Thawr, al-Shāfi‘ī’s student. El Shamsy postulates that al-Jāḥiẓ did not cite al-Shāfi‘ī by name because the person he dedicated his work to, the grand judge of Baghdad Ibn Abī Duwād, was ultimately in charge of persecuting al-Shāfi‘ī’s students in Egypt during that time.

with *al-dalālāt ‘alā l-ma ‘ānī*, and with the nature of words vis-à-vis ideas/concepts. This suggests that rather than being a reactionary response to al-Shāfi‘ī, al-Jāhīz’s account was an endorsement. Al-Jāhīz repurposes the five-fold categorization of signification into a theory of *bayān*, which for al-Jāhīz originally concerned the notion of *ḥikma*, but the terms he later uses in *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* are closer to the original wording used by al-Shāfi‘ī. The theory of signification (*al-dalālāt ‘alā l-ma ‘ānī*) that is attributed to al-Shāfi‘ī is not equivalent to the theory of *bayān* that al-Shāfi‘ī lays out in the *Risāla*, not least of which because the term *bayān* is absent from the former. Al-Shāfi‘ī’s theory of signification revolves primarily around ‘human’ meanings; his theory of *bayān* in the *Risāla* is “nourished by and directed at legal speculation,”³⁴⁸ and has more to do with ‘divine’ meanings (regarding the law). Furthermore, al-Shāfi‘ī’s project in the *Risāla* is deontological at its core – it does not concern absolute truths.³⁴⁹ Conversely, the work of al-Jāhīz, especially the *Hayawān* in which the theory of *bayān* first appears, is first and foremost assertoric, dealing with the absolute truth that “everything in nature has a meaning and use, and [...] everything proves the existence and wisdom of God.”³⁵⁰

For later generations the theory of *al-dalālāt ‘alā l-ma ‘ānī* became inextricable from the theory of *bayān*, and it became associated almost entirely with al-Jāhīz (not al-Shāfi‘ī). In the century following al-Jāhīz, Ishāq b. Ibrāhīm b. Wahb al-Kātib (*fl.* 4th/10th century) authored a book devoted to *aqsām al-bayān* “the categories of *bayān*.”³⁵¹ His conception of the notion,

³⁴⁸ A claim that Montgomery made with regards to al-Jāhīz’s theorizing (“Speech and Nature, Part 4,” 224).

³⁴⁹ Montgomery, “Al-Jāhīz’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 103.

³⁵⁰ Pellat, “al-Jāhīz,” 87. For Montgomery, al-Jāhīz’s *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* deals with the “should be,” not with the “is”: “[*al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* is] a riposte to, and engagement with Shāfi‘ī’s salvationist deontology as encapsulated in the theory of *bayān* in the *Risāla*. For Jāhīz presents an axiology – a theory of ultimate values – in which man’s reasoning intellect dominates: man has to decide how he should live” (Montgomery, “Al-Jāhīz’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabyīn*,” 103).

³⁵¹ Abū al-Ḥusayn Ishāq b. Ibrāhīm b. Sulaymān b. Wahb al-Kātib, *al-Burhān fī wujūh al-bayān*, eds. Aḥmad

according to von Grunebaum, “is very different, and both wider and narrower, than that which Djāhiz endeavored to formulate.”³⁵² Though unrelated this time to the notion of *ḥikma*, there is little doubt that Ibn Wahb’s *bayān* is inspired by the same philosophical-epistemological questions of meaning-production that we find in al-Shāfi‘ī’s/al-Jāhiz’s theory of *al-dalālāt ‘alā l-ma‘ānī*. Ibn Wahb’s conception of *bayān* is linked explicitly to al-Jāhiz at the outset, as he states that the purpose of his work is to provide more information (but not too much) on the categories of *bayān* that al-Jāhiz spoke of in his *al-Bayān wa-l-tabayīn*.³⁵³ According to Ibn Wahb, *bayān* subsists in four loci which seem to be answering the question, “how does knowledge (of a thing) come about?” Each locus, in turn, forms a section in the book. *Bayān* is often inseparable from the very concept of ‘knowledge’.

The work opens with an aside on ‘reason’ (*‘aql*), a faculty which only man possesses, and its twofold division into ‘innate’ and ‘acquired’ (*mawḥūb, maksūb*).³⁵⁴ From there he proceeds to the four modes of *bayān* (which we will keep in its most common literal translation for the sake of simplicity): (1) *i‘tibār* ‘a lesson [or: knowledge] that can be derived’: “the clarity of things in/by themselves for him who takes notice of them/takes them as a sign and seeks knowledge [or: signification] from them”;³⁵⁵ (2) *i‘tiqād* ‘[forming an] opinion/belief’: “the clarity that is

Maṭlūb and Khadīja al-Ḥadīthī, Baghdad: Maṭba‘at al-‘Ānī, 1967, 52, 54 (English: ‘The Demonstration on the Modes of Expression’). For biographical information on this little known scholar who was part of the Banū Wahb family of scribes see P. Shinar, “Ibn Wahb,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition* (Supplement). Shinar sees the *Burhān* as “an interesting attempt to apply Greek, Mu‘tazilī and Imāmī doctrines to Arabic rhetoric.” Heinrichs translates *bayān* in this work as ‘unhiddenness’; see W.P. Heinrichs, “Rhetoric and Poetics,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature*, 2: 653.

³⁵² Von Grunebaum, “Bayān.” He does not spell out the differences.

³⁵³ *Al-Burhān*, 51-52. It is not surprising, then, to find no trace of *ḥikma*, since *Kitāb al-Ḥayawān* is not mentioned.

³⁵⁴ *Ibid.*, 54-59. The initial terms that he uses to describe ‘*aql*’ are similar to some of the explanations of *bayān* that we find in Qur’ānic exegetical literature (see fns. 291-92): that which enables humans to distinguish between good and bad.

³⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, 60.2, 62.5, 73.3: *bayān al-ashyā’ bi-dhawātihā li-man i‘tabara bihā wa-ṭalaba al-bayān minhā; al-ashyā’*

achieved in the heart at [the time of] reflection and reasoning”;³⁵⁶ (3) *‘ibāra* ‘[verbal] expression’: “clarity [achieved] by language/speech”;³⁵⁷ (4) *kitāb* ‘writing’: “clarity [achieved] by writing; it is the one that reaches those who are far and absent.”³⁵⁸ Ibn Wahb omits two communicative categories of *bayān* enumerated by al-Jāhiz (calculating and gesturing)³⁵⁹ but adds the category of ‘opinion formation’, which may come across as arbitrarily distinguishable from the first mode of *bayān* (clarity in “things in themselves”).

The topics treated within the first two modes – *i ‘tibār* and *i ‘tiqād* – are philosophical in nature, as they address logic (syllogism, definition, the Aristotelian categories, philosophical meanings of particles) and epistemology (types of reports, certainty versus belief versus probability, types of perception and levels of knowledge).³⁶⁰ Under the mode of *i ‘tibār* we find that some things (*ashyā*) “have a clear/manifest *bayān*” while others have “a covert/inner” one (*zāhir* versus *bāṭin*, evoking Imāmī ideas).³⁶¹ What is probably meant here is that some things are known evidently while others are not. Ibn Wahb identifies the evident ones with things that can be known (*udrika*, *tabayyun*) by our perception and by our mind (e.g., the hotness of fire; universal truths like “the whole is greater than the part”). Conversely, in order to know (*‘ilm*) the covert/inner nature of things one must rely either on (1) syllogistic inference (*qiyās*) or (2) a

tubayyan bi-dhawātihā li-man tabayyan.

³⁵⁶ Ibid., 60.3 (and 101 ff.): *al-bayān alladhī yuḥṣalu (yaḥṣulu?) fī al-qalb ‘inda i ‘māl al-fikr wa-l-lubb.*

³⁵⁷ Ibid., 60.4: *al-bayān bi-l-lisān*; 111.3: *al-bayān bi-l-qawl.*

³⁵⁸ Ibid., 60.4-5 (and 313 ff.): *al-bayān bi-l-kitāb wa-huwa alladhī yabluḡhu man ba ‘uda wa-ghāba.*

³⁵⁹ But gesturing is mentioned later on within the third category (*‘ibāra*), under the topic of *waḥy* ~ ‘non-verbal suggestion’ (ibid., 140-41).

³⁶⁰ Ibid., 73-108.

³⁶¹ Ibid., 73.

report (*khābar*) or (3) probability and estimation (*al-ẓann wa-l-takhmīn*).³⁶² Under the mode of *i`tiqād* Ibn Wahb discusses knowledge (*ma`rifā*, *ilm*) that is undoubtedly true (*ḥaqq*), knowledge that requires proof (*mushtabah*) and knowledge that is undoubtedly false (*bāṭil*), all of which depend on the quality of the premises (either self-evident, disputed upon or evidently false).³⁶³ Of all four modes of *bayān*, *i`tiqād* is given the shortest account, merely seven pages in the printed edition;³⁶⁴ adding to that the overlap in the treatment of knowledge-types, this would strengthen our assessment that *i`tiqād* was not a well-thought-out category and, in many respects, is indistinguishable from *i`tibār*.

Under *ibāra* Ibn Wahb attends to speech characteristics that are common to all languages (mostly sentence-types: declarative/non-declarative) and those that are specific to the Arabic language (morphology, comparison, a range of implied speech, change in person/word order, the fundamentals of poetry, the fundamentals of prose, disputation, various speech

³⁶² On the knowledge of evident things see *ibid.*, 73. The verb *udrika* is used both for what is perceived by the senses and for what is known by the mind intuitively (*tabayyun* ‘perception’ is used for the former only). The noun *ilm* with regards to knowledge of covert things appears on the same page. For the treatment of *qiyās*, as well as definition, the Aristotelian categories and the philosophical meanings of particles, see *ibid.*, 76-87. Ibn Wahb refers the reader who wishes to obtain further information to “the books written on logic” (*al-kutub al-mawḍū‘a fī al-manṭiq*, p. 86; also p. 116). *Khābar* is of two kinds (pp. 88-91): certain (*yaqīn*) or uncertain (*taṣḍīq*; i.e., such that one must decide whether or not to believe). Reports evoking certainty are divided into (1) vastly authenticated ones (this includes ‘common knowledge’), (2) prophetic ones or (3) authoritatively authenticated ones (those that are widely transmitted by the *khāṣṣa* ‘[religious?] elite’ or *ulamā* ‘scholars’). The first and third types are expounded upon using the term *tawātur* (p. 88, 90). Reports that one must decide whether or not to believe are those transmitted by single/a small number of persons (pp. 90-91, 97). As for the third category, *ẓann* ‘probability’, it can act as certain knowledge (*yaqīn*) for those who adhere to it (p. 91, 96-97). Examples include various divinations (especially augury based on flight of birds and the like, pp. 92-93) and the wise judgment of ‘Alī (to which he is ascribed the famous Solomonian ‘splitting of the baby’ story, pp. 95-96).

³⁶³ *Al-Burhān*, 101-104. On the near-synonymity between *bayān* and *ma`rifā/ilm* here consider the following, opening the account on *i`tiqād*: “We have said that when things are made clear to the minds by their own essences, and when their abstract qualities (? , *ma`ānī*) and inner selves are interpreted to the hearts, then that which is discovered for he who takes notice of their true nature *becomes knowledge and cognizance* that are embedded in his soul. *This bayān is of three types [...]*” (*ibid.*, 101.3-5; emphasis added) – clearly *bayān* here can be interchangeable with *ma`rifā wa-ilm* (*qad qulnā inna l-ashyā`a idhā buyyinat bi-dhawātihā li-l-`uqūli wa-turjimat `an ma`ānihā [wa-bawāṭinihā, in one ms.] li-l-qulūbi ṣāra mā yankashifu li-l-mutabayyini min ḥaqqīqatihā ma`rifatan wa-`ilman markūzayni fī nafsihi. wa-hādhā l-bayānu `alā thalāthati aḍrubin [...]*).

³⁶⁴ *Ibid.*, 101-108.

categorizations such as jest/earnest and true/false, and more).³⁶⁵ Under *kitāb* Ibn Wahb treats the various types of civil positions in the government (sg. *kātib*) and their official duties.³⁶⁶ As with the case of *i'tibār*, Ibn Wahb maintains the distinction between *zāhir* and *bāṭin* when dealing with *ibāra* and *kitāb*. In the former case he opens the discussion with implied speech (“that which requires interpretation”); in the latter case he closes the discussion with conventions of, what we may call, encryption.³⁶⁷ The *zāhir* / *bāṭin* dualism that characterizes the three major modes of *bayān* is probably inspired, as Pesach Shinar suggests, by his Imāmī leanings.³⁶⁸

Because Ibn Wahb expounds upon the first two *bayān* modes using the derivations of *ilm*, *idrāk*, *tabayyun* and *ma'rifa*, we may conclude that *bayān* is very close in meaning to ‘knowledge’. But this near-synonymity is less borne out in the case of the third and fourth modes of *bayān*, namely ‘verbal expression’ and ‘writing’, where we find many of the common topics studied in early *naqd* works, in scribal literature and in *adab* anthologies. Indeed, this is where the bulk of the work lies.³⁶⁹ We are thus at a loss to find a unifying translation for *bayān* that would suit all four modes; ‘expression’ is perhaps the most inclusive, in the sense of ‘manifestation of an essence’.

The philosophical underpinnings of the notion of *bayān* espoused by al-Jāhiz and Ibn Wahb receive further affirmation in the fifth/eleventh century by the Andalusian Ibn Ḥazm (d.

³⁶⁵ Ibid., 111-22 (for ‘universal’ characteristics), 123-309 (for ‘Arabic’ characteristics; some of these are presented in Wolfhart Heinrichs, *The Hand of the Northwind: Opinions on Metaphor and the Early Meaning of isti'āra in Arabic Poetics*, [Mainz]: Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft; Wiesbaden: Steiner [im Komm.], 1971, 37).

³⁶⁶ Ibid., 313-438. This includes positions like the *ṣāhib al-shurṭa* ~‘police chief’ (pp. 393-400) and the *ḥājib* ~‘chamberlain’(pp. 420-25).

³⁶⁷ *Al-Burhān*, 111-12 (for the *zāhir* / *bāṭin* distinction within *ibāra*), 425-37 (for *kitāba zāhira* / *bāṭina*). Some types of *bāṭin* speech could correspond to modern notions of implicature (p. 111; e.g., when God says [Q 41:40] “Do what you will,” He is not literally authorizing man to do whatever he likes).

³⁶⁸ Shinar, “Ibn Wahb.” On the minor place the second mode (*i'tiqād*) holds in Ibn Wahb’s system see above.

³⁶⁹ Ibid., 111-309 (for *ibāra*); 313-438 (for *kitāb*).

456/1064), who prefaces his work on logic with an aside on *bayān*.³⁷⁰ How precisely *bayān* fits into the field of logic is not spelled out, but it seems to serve as an epistemological or even metaphysical foundation to the logical inquiry. According to Ibn Ḥazm, all things created by God may have four levels of *bayān*, which in this context could be interchanged – and later was interchanged – with *wujūd* ‘existence’.³⁷¹ These levels (*marātib*, *wujūh*) are closely aligned with Ibn Wahb’s presentation, but in Ibn Ḥazm’s system they are presented as hierarchical prerequisites. As a hierarchy, they are evocative of Aristotle’s “spoken sounds are symbols of affections in the soul, and written marks symbols of spoken sounds,” opening the *De Interpretatione*.³⁷² The first level of *bayān* is the ‘real’ existence of a thing, “for if it is real (*ḥaqq*) then its being known/noticed (*istibānatuhā*) is possible, even if at that time there is no one in existence who seeks to know/take notice of it (*mustabīn*) [...] since that which does not exist – there is no way to know/notice it (*istibānatihi*).”³⁷³ This first level is a prerequisite to the rest. The second level is “the knowledge/existence (*bayān*) [of things] by/for him who seeks to know it (*man istabānahā*),” that is, mental existence.³⁷⁴ The third is vocal speech (presented in physiological terms). The fourth is agreed-upon signs: this includes writing systems, gestures,

³⁷⁰ Ibn Ḥazm, *al-Taqrīb*, 94-97. I thank David Owen for alerting me to this section of Ibn Ḥazm’s work.

³⁷¹ *Al-Taqrīb*, 95. In Ṭashköprüzāde’s *Miftāḥ al-sa’āda*, as quoted by Kâtip Çelebi, it is stated that “things have an existence on four levels [...] and each preceding one is a means to the following one (*li-l-ashyā’ wujūd fī arba’ marātib* [...] *wa-kull sābiq minhā wasīla ilā l-lāḥiq*; *Kashf al-ẓunūn* 1: 14). The four levels of existence are writing (*kitāba*), verbal expression (*‘ibāra*), minds (*adh’hān*), and things themselves (*a’yān*). Incidentally, here Çelebi encapsulates the standard subfield of *‘ilm al-bayān* in terms of *dalāla* (ibid. 1: 13).

³⁷² *De Interpretatione* 16a3: Aristotle, *Categories* and *De Interpretatione*, translated with notes by J.L. Ackrill, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1963 [2002 reprint], 43, 113-14). According to Heinrichs (“Contacts,” 271), already in Ibn Wahb’s system each level of *bayān* presupposes the preceding one (I have not found explicit evidence for this).

³⁷³ *Al-Taqrīb*, 95.2-4° (*fa-innahā idhā kānat ḥaqqan fa-qad amkanati -stibānatuhā wa-in lam yakun lahā mustabīnun ḥīna ‘idhin mawjūdun* [...] *idh mā lam yakun mawjūdan fa-lā sabīlun ilā -stibānatihi*).

³⁷⁴ Ibid., 95.1° (*bayānuhā ‘inda mani -stabānahā*).

and more.³⁷⁵

In order to understand how *bayān* can stand both for the knowledge of a thing and for the existence of the thing itself, we might be reminded that classical Arabic-Islamic definitions of *‘ilm* sometimes depict “knowledge” as “the object known” (*al-ma’lūm*) or the object as it is known in the mind (*al-mawjūd al-dhihnī*).³⁷⁶ In Ibn Ḥazm’s account, the equivalence between *bayān* and a thing’s existence is most apparent in the first level of *bayān*. As for the equivalence between *bayān* and knowledge, which we already came across in the work of Ibn Wahb, here too common definitions of *‘ilm* are a telling source, as we find one strand of definitions in which *‘ilm* is understood in terms of “clear understanding” and “clarification” (*bayyana*, *abāna*, *tabayyun*).³⁷⁷

In Ibn Ḥazm’s and Ibn Wahb’s versions of *bayān*, more so than the one we find in al-Jāhiz, *bayān* is not a “means” to knowing a thing as it is the knowledge itself of a thing, or even the thing itself (two sides of the same coin). To complicate matters further, Ibn Ḥazm uses *bayān* in other senses as well (we find this to a lesser extent in the work of Ibn Wahb³⁷⁸). Before speaking of the four levels of *bayān*, Ibn Ḥazm states that humans’ knowledge of “the names of things” (inspired by Q 2:31 “He taught Adam the names, all of them”) enables them “to express

³⁷⁵ Ibid., 96-97.

³⁷⁶ Franz Rosenthal, *Knowledge Triumphant: The Concept of Knowledge in Medieval Islam*, 2nd ed., with an Introduction by Dimitri Gutas, Leiden: Brill, 2007, 52-53 (definitions A-9, A-11). Rosenthal stresses, though, that “[i]t seems to have been considered an established fact that the object known (*ma’lūm*) is prior to knowledge” (ibid., 51). He translates *al-mawjūd al-dhihnī* as “the mentally existing object.”

³⁷⁷ Ibid., 58. For a clear instance in Ibn Ḥazm’s account in which *bayān* stands for ‘knowledge’, consider the statement, *fa-min dhālika mā yudriku l-a’ mā bihā l-bayāna* “of it [non-verbal signs] is that through which the blind man perceives knowledge (*bayān*)” (*al-Taqrīb*, 97.10-11).

³⁷⁸ I found two cases of non-technical uses in Ibn Wahb’s *Burhān*. In the first case, *bayān* refers to the clarity of the Qur’ān, which is said to have been brought down via the prophet Muḥammad using the Arabic language (*al-Burhān*, 112); *bayān* seems to be used synonymously with the Qur’ān. In the second instance, *bayān* is used to simply mean ‘eloquence’, or ‘good style’ (cf. the scribal meaning of *bayān* below), with regards to poetic components that can make a piece of poetry either praiseworthy or blameworthy (ibid., 175).

[the nature of] all beings” (*al-bayān ‘an jamī‘ al-mawjūdāt*).³⁷⁹ Here *bayān* refers the human faculty of expression from a transitive perspective: it is not equivalent to the ‘existence’ of a thing in speech or writing (categories 3 and 4 in his theory of *bayān*). Furthermore, in the opening of the *Taqrīb*, *bayān* is invariably presented as a faculty specific to humans, whereas in the beginning of the *bayān* treatment several paragraphs later, *bayān* is presented as something common to all “things” (*ashyā‘*) in the world.³⁸⁰ This tension between the human and universal aspects of *bayān* goes all the way back to al-Jāhiz.

The Philological Sense(s) of Bayān

Montgomery interpreted al-Shāfi‘ī’s conception of *bayān* as virtually synonymous with the features of the ‘*arabiyya* (the Arabic of the ancient Arabs), especially its ‘extensiveness’ (*ittisā‘*).³⁸¹ As we have seen, however, the textual evidence in the *Risāla* did not quite support this interpretation: while it is true that the law can only be known by the medium of language, in this case Arabic, along with its vastness and ambiguities, al-Shāfi‘ī was not explicit in referring to it as *bayān*. Nearly two centuries after al-Shāfi‘ī, Ibn Fāris (d. 395/1004) was. In his work *al-Ṣāhibī*, dedicated to the study of lexicology or the theory of lexicography (*uṣūl ‘ilm al-‘arab ‘principles of the science of [the language of] the [ancient] Arabs’*, as opposed to plain lexicography, the *furū‘*), Ibn Fāris explicitly equates *bayān* with the vagaries of the Arabic language.³⁸² He does so regardless of the legal aspect of the language as his main interest lies in

³⁷⁹ *Al-Taqrīb*, 94.8.

³⁸⁰ *Ibid.*, 93.4°-94.6° (for the opening of the *Taqrīb*); 95.8° ff. (for the opening of the *bayān* treatment).

³⁸¹ Montgomery, “Al-Jāhiz’s *al-Bayān wa al-Tabayīn*,” 105-106, and above.

³⁸² Abū al-Ḥusayn Aḥmad b. Fāris al-Qazwīnī, *al-Ṣāhibī fī fiqh al-lughā wa-sunan al-‘arab fī kalāmihā*, ed. Moustafa El-Chouémi, Beirut: Mu’assasat Badrān li-l-Ṭibā‘a wa-l-Nashr, 1963, 29-30, 40 (English: ‘The Ṣāhibite [named after the vizier al-Ṣāhib b. ‘Abbād, d. 385/995, to whom the work was dedicated]: On the Science of Lexicology and the Ways the Arabs Talk’ [on the translation of *sunan* see below]). On Ibn Fāris see H. Fleisch, “Ibn

philological inquiry (the study of language primarily from the perspective of the lexicon, [morpho]phonology and idiomatic usage, less so syntax). His work seems to be a product of staunch anti-Shu‘ūbī sentiment. Ibn Fāris is not working in isolation from the religious domain: he stresses the need of exegetes, legal scholars and *ḥadīth* scholars to master the *uṣūl al-lughā*, and he even uses *bayān* at one point as a technical term akin to the usage of the post-Shāfi‘ī legal theorists.³⁸³ But his primary use of the term is unequivocally philological in nature, as we shall now see.

Bayān appears in one of the preliminary chapters of the work titled “On that the language of the [ancient] Arabs is the most distinguished and most extensive (*awsa*’).”³⁸⁴ According to Ibn Fāris, *bayān* is the utmost term that can be given to describe a language, and it was with this word that God chose to describe the Arabic language and distinguish it from all others.³⁸⁵ *Bayān* here is thus clearly derived from the third lexical meaning of the word (see Ibn Manẓūr above),

Fāris,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. The *Ṣāhibī* has been a primary source for the later famous philological work *al-Muzhir* by al-Suyūfī (as evinced by El-Chouēmi’s editorial notes). The term ‘lexicology’ is used by Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 45, to differentiate the study of the “principles” (*uṣūl*) of the lexicon from the the study of its individual cases (*furū’*), i.e. the meanings of words in the dictionaries. Ibn Fāris explains this difference between *uṣūl* and *furū’* in *al-Ṣāhibī*, 29-30 (I derive *uṣūl* ‘ilm al-‘arab from 29.10: *inna li-‘ilmi l-‘arabi aṣlan wa-far’an* “the science of [the language of] the Arabs has a foundation and a branch [i.e., a theoretical aspect and an ‘applied’ one concerning the single cases].”) He refers to this science also by the phrase *uṣūl al-lughā* ‘the foundations of the lexicon’ or: the theory of lexicography (*al-Ṣāhibī*, 64.8-9) and by the phrase *fiqh al-lughā* in the title.

³⁸³ For the call on “anyone who is connected in any way to the knowledge of the Qur’ān, the Sunna and the legal opinions (*futyā*)” to master the foundations of lexicography see *al-Ṣāhibī*, 64-66 (he also adds syntax, ‘ilm al-‘arabiyya, as an important prerequisite). For the use of *bayān* in the sense of a “clarification” of one Qur’ānic segment upon another see *ibid.*, 240-42, especially the third category enumerated therein, which is also called *jawābāt* lit. ‘replies’. Ibn Fāris also has legal opinions of his own, stemming from his interpretation of certain lexicological questions (e.g., *ibid.*, 196).

³⁸⁴ *Al-Ṣāhibī*, 40.3 (*bāb al-qawl ‘alā anna lughat al-‘arab afḍal al-lughāt wa-awsa’uhā*). The chapter runs up to p. 47. The ‘arab here refer to speakers of Old-Arabic dialects or Ur-Classical Arabic: speakers of Arabic dialects who lived in temporal and geographical proximity to the Prophet. In short I will refer to these speakers as ‘[ancient/pre-Islamic] Arabs’.

³⁸⁵ *Ibid.*, 40.

namely, eloquence. Even the occurrence of the word in the famous Q 55: 3-4, *khalāqa l-insān ‘allamahu l-bayān*, is interpreted as something like “the unique eloquence of the Arabic language.”³⁸⁶ The fact that in this verse God gave precedence to (*qaddama*) *bayān* over His other creations (the celestial bodies specified in the following verse), and the fact that he reserved (*khaṣṣa*) it for Arabic, and Arabic alone, proves that other languages fall short of it and are lower in stature.³⁸⁷ Ibn Fāris acknowledges that there are levels (*marātib*) in *bayān*, and stresses their qualitative nature: merely making oneself understood, as the non-Arabic speaker or the dumb can (using gestures), is the lowest of *bayān* levels (*akḥass marātib al-bayān*).³⁸⁸

Since *bayān* goes beyond ‘intelligibility’ to mean a very specific kind of eloquence, what are the features that merit Arabic the *bayān* epithet? The first component Ibn Fāris mentions that differentiates Arabic from other languages is its *sa‘a* ‘vastness’, by which he means the extensive amount of synonyms found in the language. An anonymous scholar is then cited as mentioning other features, such as metaphorical usage of words (*isti‘āra*), comparison/analogy (? , *tamthīl*), phonological metathesis / syntactic-semantic inversion (*qalb*), change in word order (*taqdīm wa-ta’khīr*) “and other [instances] of the [linguistic] ways of the Arabs in the Qur’ān (*sunan al-‘arab fī l-Qur’ān*).”³⁸⁹ But once again it is the *sa‘a*, or *ittisā‘* – or *majāz* – which seems to be at the crux of the matter: the same unnamed scholar – who turns out to be Ibn Qutayba (d. 276/889) – says that the reason no one is able to translate the Qur’ān into other languages, as opposed to the other scriptures, is “because the the non-Arabs (or specifically Persians, *al-‘ajam*)

³⁸⁶ Ibid., and see fn. 291 for common interpretations of the verse.

³⁸⁷ Ibid.

³⁸⁸ Ibid., 40-41.

³⁸⁹ Ibid., 41. On Ibn Fāris’s understanding of *isti‘āra* as “word-borrowing” see Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 46. Notably, the *Ṣāhibī* lacks a chapter on *tamthīl*, hence my hesitation in translating the term.

are not extensive in their idiomatic language (*majāz*) the way the Arabs are” (*li-anna l-‘ajama lam tattasi ‘ fī l-majāzi -ttisā ‘a l-‘arab*).³⁹⁰ Then Ibn Fāris goes on to provide an array of “untranslatable” phenomena unique to Arabic, ranging from idioms (e.g. *nijāruhā nāruhā* “every origin [of camels] has its mark” or *yad^a l-dahr* lit. ‘until [the length of] the hand of time’: “never”) to phonological processes (*mī‘ād* for **miw‘ād* ‘promise’ or *yā Hāri* for “O Hāriḥ”) to the vastness of synonyms (one hundred and fifty names for ‘lion’ [some claim five hundred]; two hundred for ‘beard’; seventy for ‘stone’).³⁹¹ By far the vast majority of examples adduced are idioms and other lexical ‘gems’, the last batch of which are given the title “words that glimmer in their [the Arabs’] speech like lanterns in the darkness” (this long list of examples is limited entirely to those whose root starts with the letter *qāf*! One is *iqtaḥafa* ‘to drink [a beverage] till the very last drop’).³⁹²

This is where the chapter on the superiority of Arabic ends, and along with it, any further mention of *bayān* in this sense. *Bayān* can thus hardly qualify as a full-fledged technical term in the foregoing context. We are nevertheless dwelling on it for two reasons: first, the unquestionable overlap between this term and the phrase *sunan al-‘arab*, on which we will shortly elaborate; second, because this account may explain the appellation ‘ilm al-*bayān* in its ‘standard’ rhetorical sense, that is, the name for the standard theory of imagery found in the second subfield of ‘ilm al-*balāgha*. It is Heinrichs who tells us that “[t]he name [of the subfield

³⁹⁰ *Al-Ṣāhibī*, 41.6-11; 30.6 (here: *tawassu‘ al-‘arab fī mukhāṭabātihā* “the extensiveness of the Arabs in their conversations”). For Ibn Qutayba’s corresponding passage see *Ta’wīl mushkil al-Qur’ān*, ed. Aḥmad Ṣaqr, 2nd ed., Cairo: Dār al-Turāth, 1973, 21 (English: ‘Interpreting the [Lexical/Stylistic] Difficulties of the Qur’ān’); also Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 130-31. On *majāz* as ‘idiomatic language’ see Chapter 5 Preliminaries.

³⁹¹ For *nijāruhā nāruhā* see *al-Ṣāhibī*, 42.5 (including editor’s note) and Lane, *Lexicon*, 2769; it refers to external cues that may give evidence to hidden qualities. For *yad^a l-dahr* see *al-Ṣāhibī*, 44.2^e (and editor’s note). For the phonological processes see *ibid.*, 43.3-12.

³⁹² *Ibid.*, 46.3 ff. Ibn Fāris ends the chapter (47.1-2) by saying that he could have filled volumes upon volumes on the matter.

on imagery] has to do with the original function of similes and other figurative usages in the Koran”,³⁹³ perhaps it is Ibn Fāris’s account that stands at the basis of his assertion. If we recall Ibn Qutayba’s (quoted anonymously) elaboration on the virtue of Arabic – what Ibn Fāris called *bayān* – the first two instances of *sunan al-‘arab* he mentioned dealt with figurative speech (*isit ‘āra* and *tamthīl*), and the Arabs were said “to be extensive in their *majāz*.”³⁹⁴

But for Ibn Fāris the host of phenomena within *sunan al-‘arab* that merit Arabic the heading *bayān* go well beyond figurative speech and imagery, as we have seen, to include phonological and other lexical phenomena. What does the phrase *sunan al-‘arab*, then, mean? Primarily it refers to “the ways in which the [pre-Islamic] Arabs talk.” After examples of “untranslatable” Qur’ānic verses are adduced, an interlocutor asks whether there are comparable examples *fī sunan al-‘arab wa-nuḏūmihā*, which I take to mean “in the Arabs’ everyday speech and [sentence] structures,” that is, if there are comparable examples of untranslatable speech beyond the Qur’ān.³⁹⁵ Ibn Fāris replies that there are, and he provides some. Of course “Arabs’ ordinary way of talking” may appear in the Qur’ān, which explains the phrase *sunan al-‘arab fī*

³⁹³ W.P. Heinrichs, “Rhetorical Figures,” 661. No further elaboration provided. The meaning of *bayān* in the standard *‘ilm al-bayān* remains unclear.

³⁹⁴ Though once again, one cannot be sure of what *tamthīl* denotes. Nevertheless, it is probably closer in meaning to figurative language than *qalb* or *taqdīm wa-ta’khīr* are.

³⁹⁵ *Al-Ṣāhibī*, 41. If *nuḏūm* is meant in the grammatical sense of “syntactic structures,” it is not unlike the later use of *naẓm* by ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (see also the phrases *nuḏūm kitāb Allāh* and *nuḏūm al-Qur’ān* in *ibid.*, 198.13, 243.1). The phrase *sunan al-‘arab* probably differs from Sībawayhi’s *ḥadd al-kalām* or *wajh al-kalām*, which Aryeh Levin interprets as “the ordinary way of speech,” at least if we judge by Abū ‘Ubayda’s (d. 210/825) contrast between the idioms found in the Arabs’ speech and *wajh al-kalām* “the [normal] way of speech” (Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 129; for *ḥadd/wajh al-kalām* see Aryeh Levin, “Sībawayhi’s View of the Syntactical Structure of *kāna wa’axawātuhā*,” *Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam* 1 [1979], 185-213, here: 211, reprinted in Aryeh Levin, *Arabic Linguistic Thought and Dialectology*, Jerusalem: Hebrew University, 1998, article V). Al-Tha‘ālibī (d. 429/1038) uses the phrase *sunan al-‘arab* in more or less the same way that Ibn Fāris does; see Abū Maṣṣūr ‘Abd Allāh b. Muḥammad al-Tha‘ālibī, *Fiqh al-luġha wa-sirr al-‘arabiyya*, ed. Sulaymān Salīm al-Bawwāb, Damascus: Dār al-Ḥikma, 1984, p. 341 ff. (part II of the work, *passim*).

al-Qur'ān (see above).³⁹⁶ In the preface Ibn Fāris claims that the inquiry into *uṣūl al-luġha* covers, besides the question of the origin of language, “the [linguistic] patterns of the Arabs’ in their discourse [synonymous with *sunan al-‘arab*] and their [the patterns’] diversity in ordinary and non-ordinary [ways of speech]” (*rusūm al-‘arab fī mukhāṭabātihā wa-mā lahā min al-iftinān taḥqīqan wa-majāzan*).³⁹⁷ According to this statement, not only is “the Arabs’ ordinary way of talking” a major component of Ibn Fāris’s field of inquiry, but so is their idiomatic, or non-ordinary usage (*majāz*).

What *majāz* refers to here and its relation to *sunan al-‘arab* is unclear, according to Heinrichs.³⁹⁸ Given its prominence in the preface, however, we may infer that *majāz* refers to a wide range of phenomena, probably even wider than the subcategories presented by Ibn Qutayba in his *Ta’wīl mushkil al-Qur’ān*, to include all “unnatural” ways of speech, similar to the old presentation of *majāz* by Abū ‘Ubayda (d. 210/825).³⁹⁹ What is more, one is easily lead to infer

³⁹⁶ This was a common notion. Already Abū ‘Ubayda states, *wa-fī l-Qur’āni mithlu mā fī l-kalāmi l-‘arabī* “the Qur’ān contains the same [features] that [everyday] Arabic speech contains.” See Abū ‘Ubayda Ma‘mar b. al-Muthannā al-Taymī, *Majāz al-Qur’ān*, ed. Fuat Sezgin, 2 vols., Cairo: Maktabat al-Khānjī, [n.d.], 1: 8 (English: ‘Explanatory Re-writing of the Qur’ān’, translation adopted from Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 127-29); also Ella Almagor, “The Early Meaning of *Majāz* and the Nature of Abū ‘Ubayda’s Exegesis,” in Andrew Rippin (ed.), *The Qur’ān: Formative Interpretation*, Aldershot; Brookfield, VT: Ashgate, 1999, 263-82, here: 266-70 [originally in Y. Navon et al. (eds.), *Studia orientalia memoriae D.H. Baneth*, Jerusalem, 1979, 307-26, here: 310-314]. We have seen a similar sentiment in al-Shāfi‘ī’s *Risāla*.

³⁹⁷ *Al-Ṣāhibī*, 29.5-4^e.

³⁹⁸ Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 45.

³⁹⁹ For Abū ‘Ubayda’s understanding of the *majāz* phenomena as “cover[ing] any imaginable violation of the mirror character of language” see Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 122. Heinrichs adds (p. 123): “All these violations of the ‘natural’ sentence are permissible, only if they are idiomatic and acceptable to the native speakers of the language, the ‘arab.’” Unlike Abū ‘Ubayda, for Ibn Fāris *majāz* does not refer to the interpretation of the idiom but rather to the idiom itself; on the difference between the two see *ibid.*, 123-28, 130, and Chapter 5 Preliminaries. For a general account of Abū ‘Ubayda’s understanding of the Arabic language, which is quite similar to that of Ibn Fāris, see *ibid.*, 129. For Ibn Qutayba’s account, who indeed puts more emphasis on figurative speech within *majāz* than Abū ‘Ubayda does, see Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 31; *idem*, “Genesis,” 130-32. Both Abū ‘Ubayda and Ibn Qutayba speak of the features of Arabic in a similar fashion to the way Ibn Fāris does, but the term *bayān* is not prominent therein (Ibn Qutayba uses it, for instance in *Ta’wīl*, 12, but only as one out of several words designating ‘eloquence’).

that the second half of Ibn Fāris’s work, following the chapter titled *sunan al-‘arab fī ḥaqā’iq al-kalām wa-l-majāz* (~“the ways the Arabs talk, plainly and idiomatically”), falls entirely under the rubric of *majāz*. The category of *kaff* ‘suppression of the nominal predicate’, for instance, which is mentioned explicitly in the *ḥaqā’iq-majāz* chapter and is identified as *majāz*, appears only some sixty pages after that chapter. So do other categories, which we can infer to be part of *majāz*, like *taqdīm wa-ta’khīr* (change in word order), *i’āra* (lit. ‘lending’: analogy-based metaphor) or the first sub-category of *kināya* (here: euphemism).⁴⁰⁰ Regarding one later chapter, the *shart* (conditional clauses), Ibn Fāris says unequivocally that there are conditionals that are non-literal (*majāz*) since they do not display a necessary apodosis.⁴⁰¹ Even the category of *isti’āra* (here: word-transfer), said explicitly to be part of *majāz*, appears after two phonological categories subsequent to the *ḥaqā’iq-majāz* chapter.⁴⁰² Following this line of interpretation, and since we find intervening phonological and morphological categories up until many of those (presumably) *majāz* categories, we could conclude that *majāz* as ‘idiomatic usage’ may well occur on the level of the phoneme or morpheme and not just the lexeme or clause. *Majāz* would thus be one of the major, if not the major component in “the ways the Arabs talk” (*sunan al-‘arab*), and therefore a prominent feature of *bayān*.⁴⁰³

⁴⁰⁰ The chapter on *ḥaqā’iq/ḥaqā’iq* and *majāz* appears about mid-way into the work – *al-Ṣāhibī*, 196-201 – subsequent to the following mega-discussions: parts of speech; semantics of particles; and semantics of sentences (e.g., declarative versus non-declarative). *Kaff* is mentioned as a type of *majāz* in *ibid.*, 197.1^o, but the chapter devoted to it only appears on p. 256. For the chapters on *taqdīm wa-ta’khīr* (which Ibn Qutayba considers *majāz*), *i’āra* and *kināya* see *ibid.*, 246-47, 257 and 260, respectively.

⁴⁰¹ *Ibid.*, 259-60.

⁴⁰² *Ibid.*, 204-205. More on Ibn Fāris’s view on *isti’āra* can be found in Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 45-47.

⁴⁰³ One should, however, take into account the following counter-evidence: First, Ibn Fāris is not explicit in the categories that he considers to be *majāz*; only *tashbīh* (comparison), *isti’āra* and *kaff* are explicitly pointed out to in the *ḥaqā’iq-majāz* chapter (*al-Ṣāhibī*, 197.1^o. Several illustrations of *tashbīh* are provided but it is not accorded a separate chapter.) Second, in one statement Ibn Fāris actually differentiates between “these two categories” (i.e., the *ḥaqā’iq* and the *majāz*) and “the categories of *sunan al-‘arab* that will appear after these two which we will mention,” implying that those subsequent *sunan al-‘arab* categories do *not* overlap with *majāz*. See *ibid.*, 198.13-15:

To conclude thus far: *bayān* in Ibn Fāris’s notation refers to the special features of the Arabic language which render it unique; it is largely coextensive with “the ways the Arabs talk” (*sunan al-‘arab*), and it is not fully used as a technical term. One major component of *sunan al-‘arab* is their ‘idiomatic’ usage of the language, viz. *majāz*. *Majāz* here is not limited to figurative speech or imagery: if any of the subsequent theorists made the connection between *majāz* as ‘trope’ and *bayān* (cf. the Standard Theory), it was because they filled the term *majāz* with their later, narrower, understanding thereof. The meaning of *majāz* as idiomatic language will be studied in Chapter 5 Preliminaries.

A different instantiation of the philological sense of *bayān* can be found in the epistle on the inimitability of the Qur’ān, *al-Nukat fī i’jāz al-Qur’ān*, by the exegete and ‘philosophizing’ grammarian, the Mu‘tazilī ‘Alī b. ‘Īsā al-Rummānī (d. 384/994).⁴⁰⁴ Deviding his presentation of *balāgha* ‘eloquence’ into ten categories, al-Rummānī introduces *bayān* or *ḥusn al-bayān* ‘good [suggestive] expression’ as the last of the ten.⁴⁰⁵

wa-jā’a hādhāni l-bābāni fī nuḏūmi kitābi -llāhi jalla thanā’uhu wa-ka-dhālika mā yajī’u ba’dahumā mā [should read mim mā?] nadhkuruhu min sunani l-‘arabi li-takūna ḥujjatu -llāhi jalla -smuhu ‘alayhim ākad “These two categories [*ḥaqā’iq* and *majāz*] appear in the structures of the Book of God, glorified be His praise, and likewise the other [categories] of *sunan al-‘arab* that will appear after these two which we will mention, in order that the proof of God, exalted be His name, may be firmer for them.” Notably, *majāz* as general ‘idiomatic usage’ (especially on the lexical level) can be seen in al-Zamakhsharī’s dictionary *Asās al-balāgha* where many entries are succeeded by their *majāz* meaning, to wit: idiomatic. This meaning is similar to Ibn Fāris’s “untranslatable” examples provided in the chapter on the superiority of Arabic, where *bayān* in the philological sense is introduced (more on al-Zamakhsharī’s dictionary in Chapter 5 Preliminaries).

⁴⁰⁴ On his fame as an exegete in the biographical dictionaries see Bruce Fudge, “*Taḍmīn*: The Notion of ‘Implication’ according to al-Rummānī,” in Beatrice Gruendler (ed.) with the assistance of Michael Cooperson, *Classical Arabic Humanities in Their Own Terms: Festschrift for Wolfhart Heinrichs on his 65th Birthday Presented by his Students and Colleagues*, Leiden: Brill, 2008, 468-92, here: 470. Carter describes the *Nukat* as a “full-blooded [Mu‘tazilī] manifesto” as evinced, e.g., by the rejection of the *ṣarfā* notion ‘diverting [people from attempting to imitate the Qur’ān]’, or by the acknowledgment that the imitation of the Qur’ān is theoretically possible, or by the intent “to create a systematic justification of *ta’wīl*” [‘interpretation beyond the text’s face value’]. See M.G. Carter, “Linguistic Science and Orthodoxy in Conflict: The Case of al-Rummānī,” *Zeitschrift für Geschichte der Arabisch-Islamischen Wissenschaften* 1 (1984), 212-32, esp. 223-31, (quotations from and 223-24 and 228). Interestingly, Carter refers parenthetically to *bayān* as a property belonging to God (“the secrets of God’s *bayān*”; “God’s particular, Arabic *bayān*,” p. 231).

⁴⁰⁵ Al-Rummānī, *al-Nukat*, 70 (where the category is called *ḥusn al-bayān*), 98-99 (where the category is given the

Similar to Ibn Fāris’s use of the word, *bayān* here refers to a quality inherent in the (Arabic) language, and it too is coextensive with speech that is not direct or explicit (though not quite ‘idiomatic’ as we saw with Ibn Fāris): it refers primarily to speech that implies, or is suggestive of a semantic import not conveyed explicitly on its ‘surface level’.⁴⁰⁶ The entirety of examples adduced for ‘good suggestive expression’ are Qur’ānic, and the semantic import implicitly suggested therein informs, as Bruce Fudge has noted, “of the function, or speech act, of its utterance on the reader/auditor.”⁴⁰⁷ These functions, or rhetorical effects, range from *taḥdhīr* ‘warning’ to *wa’d/wa’id* ‘promise/threat’ to *taqrīr* ‘admonition’ and many more. After each verse cited, al-Rummānī specifies the corresponding function (all in all nineteen verses/passages are cited, falling into ten ‘functional’ categories).⁴⁰⁸ To demonstrate al-Rummānī’s sense of *bayān* we may cite his first example: “The Qur’ān in its entirety is [conveyed] in the utmost good [suggestive] expression; among that is His saying, may He be exalted, *They left how many gardens and fountains, sown fields, and how noble a station* [Q 44:26]: this is an extraordinary [piece] of [suggestive] expression (*bayān*) that affirms a warning against the self-delusion that there will be a granted delay.”⁴⁰⁹

heading *bayān*, 98.1 and 99.1, though *ḥusn al-bayān* is also used, 98.4° and 99.10).

⁴⁰⁶ *Al-Nukat*, 99-101. I am concluding that it is a property inherent in the language at large and not just in the Qur’ānic idiom from al-Rummānī’s prefacing words, *wa-l-bayānu fī l-kalām* [...] “*Bayān* in speech is [...]” rather than, say, *wa-l-bayānu fī l-Qur’ān* or *wa-l-bayānu fī kalāmi -llāh*. Technically speaking, and judging from his wording, *bayān* may very well be a universal linguistic property in al-Rummānī’s conception that is not limited to Arabic.

⁴⁰⁷ Fudge, “*Taḍmīn*,” 484, though Fudge uses this with regards to *taḍmīn* and not *bayān* (on the correspondence of the two see below). Using terminology evocative of Paul Grice’s theory of implicatures is not a bad idea in this case, especially since al-Rummānī’s examples are so aligned with Gricean pragmatics. Fudge refers explicitly to Grice and John Searle in *ibid.*, 486.

⁴⁰⁸ *Al-Nukat* 99-101.

⁴⁰⁹ *wa-l-Qur’ānu kulluhu fī nihāyati ḥusni l-bayāni fa-min dhālika qawluhu ta’ālā* “*kam tarakū min jannātin wa-’uyūnin wa-zurū’in wa-makānin karīm*” *fa-hādhā bayānun ‘ajībun yūjibu l-taḥdhīra mina l-ightirāri bi-l-imhāli*; *al-Nukat*, 99. Also cited in Fudge, “*Taḍmīn*,” 485, with several other examples.

Before delving into the ‘best’ examples of *bayān*, al-Rummānī starts with a neutral explanation of it as a linguistic phenomenon in which a ‘thing’/‘notion’ (*ma‘nā*) may be expressed (or: made known) either by using its designated name/noun (*ism*) or attribute/adjective (*ṣifa*), or by using a combination of words (*ta‘līf*) without reverting to its designated signifier. Illustrations of this last category are *ghulāmu zaydin* ‘Zayd’s slave-boy’ and *qātil* ‘killer’. In the first case we have a combination of words indicating property (*mulk*), i.e. that the slave-boy *belongs* to Zayd, even though the designated word for ‘belonging’ is not used; this is referred to as *dalālat al-ta‘līf* ‘syntactic indication’. In the second case we have a morphological form indicating a slain person (*maqtūl*) and the act of killing (*qatl*), even though the designated words for those two notions are not used; this is referred to as *dalālat al-ishtiqāq* ‘morphological/derivational indication’. Since the bulk of the chapter is devoted to notions expressed *not* via their designated nouns/adjectives, we conclude that *bayān* and *ḥusn al-bayān* refer here primarily to implied, or suggested signification. This renders *bayān* virtually indistinguishable from the eighth category of *balāgha* expounded on by al-Rummānī, namely *taḍmīn* ‘implication’ – a correspondence duly noted by Fudge.⁴¹⁰ As Fudge has shown from fragments of al-Rummānī’s *Tafsīr*, each explanation of a verse is concluded with “and the verse implicitly contains” (*wa-qad taḍammanati l-āyatu*) followed by its appropriate functional purpose (or semantic import), displaying identical categories to the ones we come across in the chapter on *bayān* in the *Nukat*.⁴¹¹

Although *bayān* in al-Rummānī’s notation refers primarily to suggestive language, his chapter actually opens with the philosophical sense of the term (akin to al-Jāḥiẓ’s or Ibn Wahb’s

⁴¹⁰ Fudge, “*Taḍmīn*,” 484-86.

⁴¹¹ *Ibid.*, 481-83.

conception).⁴¹² What is more, several lines later we also come across the lexical meaning of *bayān* as, simply, ‘eloquence’.⁴¹³ In other words, even within a brief account of *bayān* such as al-Rummānī’s, one could come across several senses the word. That the main sense of the word here concerns the function, or extralinguistic purpose of the phrase, is gleaned out of the examples adduced for *bayān*, which demonstrate entirely the ‘suggestive’ expressions, as shown above. This is corroborated by Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī’s treatment of *bayān* in his lexicographical work on semantically related notions. Here *bayān* is discussed in relation to the notion of *fā’ida* ‘communicative value [of an utterance]’ and al-Rummānī is quoted by name.⁴¹⁴ This may suggest that al-Rummānī’s idea of *bayān* was much more ‘technical’ than the *bayān* Ibn Fāris espoused. Despite the differences between the two we are considering both part of the philological sense of *bayān* since they are presented as a phenomenon integral to the (Arabic) language that goes beyond mere ‘clarity of expression’, or ‘eloquence’, to reflect cases in which the meaning of an utterance does not directly, or ‘naturally’, correspond to its wording.

⁴¹² Al-Rummānī defines *bayān* as “the bringing-forth of [something] by which the distinction of a ‘thing’ from another [thing] becomes/is made apparent in perception” (*al-bayānu huwa l-iḥḍāru li-mā yazharu/yuzharu bihi tamayyuzu l-shay’i min ghayrihi fī l-idrāk*); *al-Nukat*, 98.2 (taking *idrāk* as a typo for *idrāk* [corrected in 2nd edition, 1968, p. 106]). This wording tallies well with the sense of *bayān* we are familiar with as ‘a means by which a thing is made known’; cf. Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī’s citation of “‘Alī b. ‘Īsā’s” definition of *bayān* as *mā dhukira li-yu’rafa bihi ghayruhu* “that which is mentioned so that another [thing] may be *known*” (emphasis added); see *al-Furūq fī al-lughā*, ed. Lajnat Ihyā’ al-Turāth al-‘Arabī fī Dār al-Āfāq al-Jadīda, 5th ed., Beirut: Dār al-Āfāq al-Jadīda, 1983, 52.6-7^c (English: ‘[Semantic] Distinctions in the Lexicon’). Al-Rummānī then specifies the four categories of *bayān* as ‘speech’ (*kalām*), ‘situation’ (*ḥāl*, probably natural signs or signs by inanimate beings), ‘gesture’ (*ishāra*) and ‘[codified] sign’ (*alāma*, probably writing); *al-Nukat*, 98.3. Meaningless speech – such as speech that is disordered (in the syntactic [?] sense) or impossible (in the logical sense) (*al-kalām al-mukhallaf wa-l-muḥāl*) – is not considered *bayān* since “the distinction of a thing from another [thing] is not made apparent” (*ibid.*, 98.4-5).

⁴¹³ *Al-Nukat*, 98.4 ff.

⁴¹⁴ *Al-Furūq*, 52-53, and see fn. 412. Al-‘Askarī only mentions the simple syntactic examples provided by al-Rummānī (like *ghulāmu zaydin*) without the more complex Qur’ānic instances revealing the functional import of a verse. For further definitions of *bayān* that al-‘Askarī provides see *al-Furūq*, 53-54, where both the legal-hermeneutical and the philosophical senses of *bayān* are stressed.

The Scribal Sense of Bayān

Among the various senses of *bayān* we are attending to, the scribal sense of the term is the least technical. It seems to be a lexical development out of the third definition of the word by Ibn Manzūr, viz. ‘eloquence’ – a narrowing down of its scope to signify specifically scribal eloquence, or ‘good written style’. This last phrase is inspired by Fuat Sezgin’s translation of a mid-fifth/eleventh century title intended for scribal education. Called *Mawādd al-bayān* and written by the Fāṭimid ‘Alī b. Khalaf al-Kātib (d. after 437/1045), the work aims at providing the essentials to the art of secretaryship (*al-ṣinā‘a al-kitābiyya*) and is clearly not concerned with ‘eloquence’ in general nor with the philosophical concept of ‘imparting knowledge’ (or the other technical meanings of *bayān*).⁴¹⁵ “The Elements [or Stuff] of Good Written Style” is thus an appropriate rendering of the title. The work joins a long tradition of manuals written for secretaries and was quoted widely in the famous mega-manual *Ṣubḥ al-a‘shā* by al-Qalqashandī (d. 821/1418), an encyclopedic specimen of administrative literature.⁴¹⁶

But scribal manuals have come a long way since the third/ninth-century *Adab al-kātib* by Ibn Qutayba, and the *Mawādd* undoubtedly reflects a later permutation of such works. *Adab al-kātib* is a prescriptive work of *philology* par excellence: its author is concerned with rectifying errors in the realm of the lexicon, phonology, morphology and orthography. Mastering such lexical distinctions as the ‘pregnancy’ of a mare versus that of a she-camel or a lioness was something to be expected of an aspiring ‘Abbāsīd scribe, and was duly noted in *Adab al-kātib*. Likewise were chapters on correct orthography of *alif al-waṣl*, hypercorrections in the

⁴¹⁵ For *al-ṣinā‘a al-kitābiyya* see *Mawādd*, 4. The work does contain a chapter on *bayān* that is heavily influenced by al-Jāḥiẓ (ibid., 144-51), but this sense of the word is different from the work’s title and intent.

⁴¹⁶ Ibid., editor’s introduction.

pronunciation of the glottal stop or the semantics of verb form *af‘ala*.⁴¹⁷ Gradually, however, the focus shifted from linguistic prescriptivism to *stylistic* prescriptivism, placing more emphasis on the content of a scribal epistle, especially its ornate prose and stylistic devices. This development may be linked to the rise of the ‘new’ poetic style, the *badī‘*, along with its heightened mannerism and the literature on poetic devices that grew around it. This in turn seems to have influenced the edifying literature on epistolary writing.⁴¹⁸

The (broad) shift in scribal educational literature from philology to style is nicely illustrated by comparing the fourth/tenth century work of Abū Ja‘far al-Naḥḥās called ‘*Umdat al-kuttāb* (or *Ṣinā‘at al-kuttāb*) with ‘Alī b. Khalaf’s work mentioned above, written the following century. Whereas al-Naḥḥās places most of his emphasis on correct orthography, correct titles and endings, appropriateness in addressing, correct morphology and the common scribal errors, ‘Alī b. Khalaf turns most of his attention to the figures of speech (under the heading of *badī‘*), including common errors therein, and intertextuality (literary influence and appropriate allusions).⁴¹⁹ Since ‘Alī b. Khalaf is clearly interested in matters of style in the scribal arts but does not spell out the particular meaning of *bayān* in the title *Mawādd al-bayān*, we may say that

⁴¹⁷ Abū Muḥammad ‘Abd Allāh b. Muslim b. Qutayba, *Adab al-kātib*, ed. Muḥammad Muḥyī al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd, Cairo: al-Maktaba al-Tijāriyya al-Kubrā, [1936], 167, 229-34, 360-68, 436-44, 447-55, respectively (English: ‘The Knowhow [Necessary for] the Secretary’).

⁴¹⁸ On the growing importance of rhymed prose, literary tropes and literary allusions in the *risāla* genre in later centuries see Jaakko Hämeen-Anttila, “The Essay and Debate (*al-risāla* and *al-munāẓara*),” in *Arabic Literature in the Post-Classical Period*, 134-44, here: 134-35, 137, and al-Musawi, “Pre-Modern Belletristic Prose,” 103, 107. Ibn Khaldūn objected to the “poetic styles” found in chancery correspondences (ibid., 108). One should keep in mind, however, that historically speaking it was probably the ‘new’ poetry that was influenced by oratory prose rather than the other way around; see Wolfhart Heinrichs, “Early Ornate Prose and the Rhetorization of Poetry in Arabic Literature,” in Frédérique Woerther (ed.), *Literary and Philosophical Rhetoric in the Greek, Syriac and Arabic Worlds*, Hildesheim: Olms, 2009, 215-34. McKinney shows how the poetry of Ibn al-Rūmī (d. ca. 283/896) evolved in the direction of prose (*Rhyme versus Reason*, 293 ff.), but also treats the phenomenon of prose evolving in the direction of poetry (ibid., 311). In the *Mafātīḥ al-‘ulūm* of al-Khuwārizmī (d. 387/997 or 98), the “prosaic” literary devices (i.e., those used by the chancery scribes) and the poetic literary devices are still listed separately (*Mafātīḥ al-‘ulūm*, 72-79, 94-97; there is minimal overlap).

⁴¹⁹ Al-Naḥḥās, ‘*Umdat al-kuttāb*, table of contents; ‘Alī b. Khalaf, *Mawādd*, table of contents.

bayān as ‘good style’ is a non-technical use of the word. What differentiates this meaning of the word from the original lexical sense of ‘eloquence’ is, once again, the context in which it appears: works of scribal education.

Usage of the word *bayān* in the scribal sense seems scarce, but we can point to some specific occurrences. When we looked at Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd’s ‘refutation’ of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *Mathal* in Chapter 1, we saw that when he criticized the scholar-scribes of Mosul, Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd spoke of Baghdadī scribes as “stallions of eloquence” (*fuḥūl al-balāgha*) who “run in the race-track of good style” (*idhā rakāḍa aḥaduhum fī ḥalbat al-bayān*).⁴²⁰ Here *bayān* and *balāgha* ‘eloquence’ appear in the very same sentence, suggesting they could have distinct meanings – *balāgha* referring to eloquence in general (oral and written) and *bayān* more specifically to good written style. Of course, the *bayān-balāgha* pair could be a mere stylistic variation. A more telling example appears in the *Ṣinā’atayn* of Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī and is later quoted anonymously in Najm al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr’s *Jawhar al-kanz* (Abū Hilāl, too, is quoting from an unnamed source). Here we find the following account, opening the chapter on good openings (*mabādi’* in Abū Hilāl’s terms, *barā’at al-istihlāl* in Najm al-Dīn’s):

qāla ba‘ḍu l-kuttābi aḥsinū ma‘āshira l-kuttābi l-ibtidā’āti fa-innahunna dalā’ilu l-bayān

One of the secretaries said: “O fellow secretaries, master [the skill of writing] openings, for they are the signs of good written style.”⁴²¹

Context would preclude taking *bayān* as a reference to the broader notion of ‘eloquence’ – whether oral or written – because the statement is specifically addressed to the secretaries, and the secretaries deal with the written word (as opposed to, say, the orators). Thus, ‘good written

⁴²⁰ Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd, *al-Falak al-dā’ir*, 34.

⁴²¹ Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī, *al-Ṣinā’atayn*, 451 and verbatim in Najm al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr, *Jawhar al-kanz*, 218.

style' is a more appropriate understanding of *bayān* here, one that demonstrates the lexical development of *bayān* from the more general meaning of 'eloquence'.

3.2. The Phrase 'Ilm al-Bayān

The term *bayān* appears in dictionaries and in a variety of scholarly works prior to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn; this has facilitated our attempt to ascertain its origins and meanings. With the phrase '*ilm al-bayān*', however, we stand on less solid ground and find that tracing its history is trickier. The phrase seems to have appeared *ex nihilo* in the introduction to the work *Dalā'il al-i'jāz* by the great literary theorist (our term) 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081). The work itself was not written within the tradition of the early literary critics, but rather, as Margaret Larkin convincingly shows, as a polemic against Mu'tazilī and non-Mu'tazilī theologians of his day for their inept study of the Qur'ān's inimitable style.⁴²² Al-Jurjānī's intended audience of scholars outside the literary-critical tradition is something one should keep in mind when looking at his use of the phrase '*ilm al-bayān*'.

In a preface that runs over sixty pages in the common printed edition,⁴²³ al-Jurjānī mentions the phrase fairly at the outset, following his extolment of knowledge (*'ilm*) as a virtue above all virtues (*faḍā'il*).⁴²⁴ Within this general domain of knowledge as a virtue, he asserts that

⁴²² Margaret Larkin, *The Theology of Meaning: 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī's Theory of Discourse*, American Oriental Series, vol. 79, New Haven, Connecticut: American Oriental Society, 1995, esp. pp. 14-23. Among the evidence she brings forth, Larkin highlights passages in which 'Abd al-Qāhir tries to convince his audience to take up the (serious) study of poetry: such a defense would not have been needed had his listeners been literary theorists (including those with a bent towards *i'jāz al-Qur'ān*). That he directed his teachings towards Mu'tazilīs and Ash'arīs alike, though he himself was an Ash'arī, can be seen *inter alia* from his treatment of *majāz* (ibid., 99-100).

⁴²³ The editor Maḥmūd Muḥammad Shākir does not demarcate a preface in his appended table of contents; however, the wording of pp. 64-65 of the *Dalā'il* is emblematic of a closing of a preface (see Peter Freimark, *Das Vorwort als literarische Form in der arabischen Literatur*, Inaugural-Dissertation, Westfälischen Wilhelms-Universität zu Münster, 1967, 28).

⁴²⁴ Al-Jurjānī, *Dalā'il*, 5.

one cannot find a knowledge (*lā tarā ‘ilman*) that “has a more solid root, more towering branches, sweeter fruits, fresher water, nobler offspring/results, and a brighter lamp” than *‘ilm al-bayān*.⁴²⁵ Because *‘ilm al-bayān* is seen as a type of *faḍīla*, it is clear that what al-Jurjānī has in mind here is a mental capacity (knowledge)⁴²⁶ rather than a scholarly discipline. That the phrase refers to ‘the knowledge of *bayān*’ and not to *bayān* as a discipline manifests itself in his subsequent elaboration on the benefits of *bayān*. Here al-Jurjānī speaks of *bayān* as a synonym of eloquence and verbal skill, and he describes it as a property that allows the tongue to “weave embroidery, mould a piece of jewelry, articulate pearls, utter enchantment” and so forth, not unlike descriptions we find in earlier works such as the *Ṣinā‘atayn* of al-‘Askarī.⁴²⁷ In later passages within the long introduction, al-Jurjānī discusses *faṣāḥa*, *balāgha*, *bayān* and *barā‘a* ‘[verbal] skill’ all in the same breath.⁴²⁸ The phrase *‘ilm al-bayān* appears only once, in that single occurrence in the *Dalā‘il*’s preface.

Al-Jurjānī is not oblivious to the scholarly field of literary theory. He speaks (critically) of previous scholars and their writings in the field to which he refers as *‘ilm al-faṣāḥa*, *‘ilm al-faṣāḥa wa-l-bayān* or *‘ilm al-balāgha*. These are used interchangeably, and in some instances he probably has the non-technical ‘knowledge of eloquence’ in mind (*‘ilm al-faṣāḥa* seems to be the

⁴²⁵ *thumma innaka lā tarā ‘ilman huwa arsakhu aṣlan wa-absaqu far‘an wa-aḥlā janan wa-a‘dhabu wurdan wa-akramu nitājan wa-anwaru sirājan min ‘ilmi l-bayān* (*Dalā‘il*, 5.1-2^e).

⁴²⁶ And see Larkin’s translation of *bayān* here as “expressive ability” (*Theology*, 20).

⁴²⁷ *Dalā‘il*, 6; al-‘Askarī, *al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 7-9 (where the phrase *‘ilm al-balāgha* is used in a non-technical sense). The entire passage by al-Jurjānī is commonly replicated in later sources that rely directly or indirectly on the work of al-Jurjānī; Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī, Ibn al-Zamlakānī, Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī and Ibn al-Naqīb are a case in point (see Part Two, Chapter 4).

⁴²⁸ *Dalā‘il*, 34, 37, 43. See also his non-technical usage of *‘ilm al-balāgha* in *al-Risāla al-Shāfiya* in Muḥammad Khalaf Allāh and Muḥammad Zaghūl Sallām (eds.), *Thalāth rasā‘il fī i‘jāz al-Qur‘ān li-l-Rummānī wa-l-Khaṭṭābī wa-‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī*, Cairo: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, [1956?], 105-44, here: 108 (passage beginning in 107.4^e) / *Dalā‘il*, 576.3.

most technical).⁴²⁹ In one reference in his *Asrār al-balāgha*, al-Jurjānī speaks of the scholars of the literary-theoretical field as *al-‘arīfīna bi-hādhā l-sha’ni a ‘nī ‘ilma l-khaṭābati wa-naqda l-shi’ri wa-lladhīna waḍa‘ū l-kutuba fī aqṣāmi l-badī’* “those who are knowledgeable in this issue, I mean the science of oratory⁴³⁰ and poetic criticism, and those who wrote books on categories of literary devices.”⁴³¹ Al-Jurjānī is referring here to what we have called collectively the early *naqd* works, and they include treatments of the various figures of speech, especially those associated with the ‘modern’ ‘Abbāsīd poetic style. The phrase *‘ilm al-khaṭāba wa-naqd al-shi’r* hints at earlier writings on the eloquence of preachers and the critical assessment of poetry, and it is probably meant to designate one scholarly endeavor (though possibly two: *‘ilm al-khaṭāba* and *naqd al-shi’r*). The phrase *‘ilm al-bayān* as a reference to a scientific field does not occur.

Modern scholars have recognized the non-technical character of the phrase *‘ilm al-bayān* in al-Jurjānī’s work, and have agreed that disciplinary headings such as *‘ilm al-bayān* and *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* are later ones.⁴³² Nevertheless, it has become common to speak of the *Asrār al-*

⁴²⁹ For *‘ilm al-balāgha* see *Dalā’il*, 174.3, 252.13-14; for and *‘ilm al-faṣāḥa* see *ibid.*, 12.9, 37.5, 455-56 (several occurrences, including one instance of *‘ilm al-faṣāḥa wa-l-bayān*). In some cases the editor Shākīr puts *‘ilm al-faṣāḥa* within quotation marks, presumably those where the phrase refers to a scholarly discipline (I agree with his readings). I did not find any additional references to these phrases, nor to others like *nuqqād*, *naqd al-shi’r*, etc. Phrases such as *‘ulamā’ al-bayān/balāgha/faṣāḥa* do not occur. In *al-Risālā al-shāfiya*, 107 (*l Dalā’il*, 575), al-Jurjānī refers to those who have knowledge in the “states” (*aḥwāl*) and “ranks” (*marātib*) of poets and orators, “and in *‘ilm al-adab* in general” – probably a reference to the knowledge/science of lexicography, grammar, poetry and other philological endeavors (like prosody). For the understanding of philological sciences by fourth/tenth-century scholars – though the term *adab* is usually not used – see Heinrichs, “Classification of the Sciences.” The first list that we have that enumerates linguistic (philological) sciences under the technical heading *al-‘ulūm al-adabiyya* is by the sixth/twelfth-century al-Zamakhsharī (*ibid.*, 121, 138, and below). But even before that, Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī (fifth/eleventh century) makes a distinction between the *‘ulūm adabiyya* and the *‘ulūm shar‘iyya* (linguistic/religious sciences; *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, 3).

⁴³⁰ It is less likely that al-Jurjānī is referring here to rhetoric in the Aristotelian philosophical sense, also termed *khaṭāba*.

⁴³¹ *Asrār*, 368 (and 369 for the phrases *ahl al-khaṭāba wa-naqd al-shi’r* and *ahl al-‘ilm bi-l-shi’r*).

⁴³² Abu Deeb, “al-Djurjānī;” Larkin, *Theology*, 20; Bonebakker, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-Bayān.” Compare ‘Abd al-Fattāḥ Lāshīn, *al-Tarākīb al-naḥwiyya min al-wijha al-balāghīyya ‘inda ‘Abd al-Qāhir*, Riyadh: Dār al-Mirrikh, 1980, 236, where *‘ilm al-bayān* is recognized in a technical sense vis-à-vis grammar.

balāgha as treating imagery (= the later *‘ilm al-bayān*) and of the *Dalā’il* as treating the semantics of syntax (= the later *‘ilm al-ma’ānī*), although al-Jurjānī himself claims no adherence to any discipline (and in any case, the *Asrār* deals with more than just imagery, as the *Dalā’il* deals with more than just semantics of syntax). In a recent study, Khalfallah Nejmeddine argues that al-Jurjānī explicitly sets out to establish a new discipline, according to him termed *‘ilm al-ma’ānī* ‘the science of literary themes’ and aimed at exploring the relations between “ideas-themes” and “reason.”⁴³³ While Nejmeddine is correct to bring into focus al-Jurjānī’s understanding of literary *ma’ānī* (as opposed to the *ma’ānī al-naḥw*), the two passages he relies on simply do not support a reading of *‘ilm al-ma’ānī* as a discipline heading nor do they point to any explicit claim by the author to found a new science.⁴³⁴ In fact, any remarks hinting at al-Jurjānī’s own disciplinary affiliation lead to the science of grammar: beyond his concentration on *naẓm* ‘syntactic arrangement’ as a grammatical, and specifically syntactic principle,⁴³⁵ he states

⁴³³ Nejmeddine Khalfallah, *La théorie sémantique de ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (m. 1078)*, Paris: Harmattan, 2014, 104-106.

⁴³⁴ The passage that Khalfallah claims contains the phrase *‘ilm al-ma’ānī* only has *amr al-ma’ānī* (*Asrār*, 25, and correcting Khalfallah’s citation of p. 26; *Théorie*, 104 fn. 2, 105 fn. 2). Khalfallah himself translates that latter phrase as “l’état des *ma’ānī*” (*Théorie*, 105). The passage that he claims contains an announcement by al-Jurjānī to establish a new science – “*Dalā’il*, 9” (*Théorie*, 104) – is in fact p. 9 of *al-Madkhal fī Dalā’il al-i’jāz min imlā’ihī*, several folios that Rashīd Riḍā (who oversaw the 1912 ‘Abduh edition) placed in the beginning of the *Dalā’il*, and which Shākir places outside the *Dalā’il* (see the title page following the *Madkhal*). The *Madkhal* ends with a poem written by al-Jurjānī, in which he summarizes the tenets of *naẓm* as a syntactic principle (*ḥukm min al-naḥw; al-Madkhal*, 10.1⁶). It reads like a didactic poem (despite the non-didactic meter, *basīṭ*). In line 2 – the line Khalfallah relies on – al-Jurjānī states, “The only way to prove a miracle in syntactic arrangement (*naẓm*) is through that which I set about to reveal” (*mā min sabīlin ilā ithbāti mu’jizatin // fī l-naẓmi illā bi-mā aṣbaḥtu ubdīhī; al-Madkhal*, 9). Khalfallah takes this line as proof of al-Jurjānī’s invention of the science, obviously following the comment made by Rashīd Riḍā, and reproduced in Shākir’s edition, *wa-fī ḥādhā l-bayt taṣrīḥ ayḍan bi-annahū huwa al-wāḍi’ li-l-fann (al-Madkhal*, 9 fn. 6), disclosing Riḍā’s own anachronistic understanding of al-Jurjānī’s work. (The ‘Abduh edition that I consult does not contain the *Madkhal* although it is specified in the table of contents.) It is true that al-Jurjānī is announcing that his work will reveal new insights on the topic (here: the inimitability of the Qur’ān, or “a miracle in syntactic arrangement”), but this type of declaration is a common topos in medieval prefaces.

⁴³⁵ On *naẓm* as a syntactic principle see Larkin, *Theology*, 50-54, and Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 198-99, 213 ff., though they usually prefer to translate *naẓm* with the more softened “composition” or “sentence construction.” With regards to the role of grammar in al-Jurjānī’s thought, Larkin states, “... it is as if grammar [AN: specifically syntax] is a blueprint for the thinking of the originator of discourse.” The idea that semantic relations in a sentence are inextricably tied to syntactic relations (cf. Chomsky) has a long history in the study of grammar, where it is common to say that “syntax (lit. case/mood-endings) is that which distinguishes between meanings” (*al-i rāb huwa al-fāriq*

in the prefatory comments to *al-Risāla al-shāfiya* (on the inimitability of the Qur’ān) that in his discussions he “follows a path that resembles more the convention of the scholars of grammar (‘*ulamā’ al-‘arabiyya*) and goes more in their way.”⁴³⁶ After his own lifetime, we find references to al-Jurjānī as “the grammarian” (*al-naḥwī*), at the very least in the work of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (both in his legal theory and in his rhetoric).⁴³⁷ This does not mean that al-Jurjānī wrote his treatises/lectures on literary theory necessarily in his capacity as a grammarian – especially since they were meant for an audience of theologians (see above) – but it does point to an absence of a well-defined disciplinary home with which his endeavors may align. The tendency in the modern era to view al-Jurjānī’s work anachronistically as the founder of a discipline and as associated therefore with the Standard Theory probably goes back to the modernist reformer Rashīd Riḍā (d. 1935), who edited the *Asrār* and oversaw the edition of the *Dalā’il*. The titles of the works as

bayna al-ma‘ānī; Ibn Fāris, *al-Ṣāhibī*, 66). Al-Rāzī too supports a grammatical understanding of the notion of *naẓm* (*Nihāya*, 277).

⁴³⁶ *wa-ḥadhawtu l-kalāma ḥadhwan huwa bi-‘urfi ‘ulamā’i l-‘arabiyyati ashbahu wa-fī tarīqihim adhabu (al-Risāla al-shāfiya, 107 / Dalā’il, 575)*. Al-Jurjānī’s main grammatical work is the *Muqtaṣid*, a ‘middle-sized’ commentary on Abū Hilāl al-Fārisī’s *al-Idāh* (he also wrote a long and a short commentary on it), and he is also known for his *Mi‘at ‘āmil* (see also Larkin, *Theology*, 1-3). On the phrase ‘*ilm al-‘arabiyya* as a reference to the science of grammar, and even more specifically to syntax, see for instance Ibn Fāris, *al-Ṣāhibī*, 66 (where it is equated with *i rāb*), and the discussions of Ibn Khaldūn above (§2.2).

⁴³⁷ E.g., *Nihāya*, 74; *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 447. Ibn Khaldūn states that al-Jurjānī (along with al-Sakkākī) concentrated on topics that had been part of “the books of grammar” (*Muqaddima* 4: 1229). Al-Muṭarrizī’s (d. 610/1213) study of literary devices in the prolegomenon to his commentary on al-Ḥarīrī’s *Maqāmāt* also incorporates direct quotations from al-Jurjānī’s work, and one must suspect that it was due to al-Muṭarrizī’s endeavors as a grammarian that he was at all aware of al-Jurjānī’s efforts in literary theory. Al-Muṭarrizī (nicknamed “*khalīfat al-Zamakhsharī*”) wrote a popular compendium on Arabic grammar called *al-Miṣbāh fī al-naḥw*, and it was based on three small monographs on grammar by al-Jurjānī himself (R. Sellheim, “al-Muṭarrizī,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*). It should be noted here that in one instance al-Muṭarrizī uses the term ‘*ulamā’ al-bayān* in a direct quotation from al-Jurjānī, but the original passage does not contain that phrase (Nāṣir b. ‘Abd al-Sayyid al-Muṭarrizī, *Hādihā sharḥ laṭīf li-Abī al-Muẓaffar Nāṣir b. al-Muṭarrizī ‘alā al-Maqāmāt allatī ansha ahā al-Imām jamāl al-‘aṣr Abī al-Qāsim b. ‘Alī al-Ḥarīrī*, [Tehran?: s.n.], 1272 [1856], f. 4r [which contains another use of the phrase ‘*ulamā’ al-bayān*, not as part of a quotation]; cf. *Dalā’il*, 66). One suspects the use of ‘*ulamā’ al-bayān* here is indebted to al-Zamakhsharī, especially since the phrase later appears in the context of *iltifāt* (f. 10r; “*Ṣāhib al-Kashshāf*” is cited explicitly in f. 15r). Al-Muṭarrizī elsewhere uses the headings *nuqqād al-kalām* and *ahl al-naqd* (f. 2v) as well as *badī’* (f. 8r ff.), and the framework of his treatment seems to be the notion of *balāgha* (f. 2r) and *faṣāḥa* (f. 5v). Al-Muṭarrizī did pass through Baghdad twice and had disputations with scholars there (Sellheim, “al-Muṭarrizī”), but it was in the year 601 AH, probably before the heading ‘*ilm al-bayān* became in wide use.

they appear in these editions are *Asrār al-balāgha fī ‘ilm al-bayān* and *Dalā’il al-i’jāz fī ‘ilm al-ma’ānī*, respectively.⁴³⁸

It must be pointed out that although the works of al-Jurjānī may have slowly gained traction after his lifetime, al-Jurjānī the man remained little known. In his early work, Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāq cites “the *i’jāz* of al-Jurjānī, called *Dalā’il al-i’jāz*” as well as his *Asrār al-balāgha*, but he takes this al-Jurjānī to be the literary critic and chief judge of Rayy, al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī (d. 392/1002), author of the *Wasāṭa*.⁴³⁹ Even in Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāq’s later work, *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, which aligns itself more closely with ‘standardist’ views, an (imagined) dispute between Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī and al-Jurjānī is presented as one between al-Rāzī and “the Qāḍī”; this is even while we find one citation of al-Jurjānī’s name in full (“al-Imām al-‘allāma ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī”).⁴⁴⁰ And yet, Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāq lists the *Dalā’il* and *Asrār* among the works that are noteworthy of study in the field of *badī’*, later reformulated as *‘ilm al-bayān*.

⁴³⁸ *Asrār al-balāgha fī ‘ilm al-bayān*, ed. Rashīd Riḍā, 4th ed., Cairo: Dār al-Manār, 1947 [originally published 1902]; *Dalā’il*, ed. ‘Abduh – although here the phrase *fī ‘ilm al-ma’ānī* appears within brackets. Kātip Çelebi (d. 1067/1657) in his massive bibliographic work also lists the *Asrār* and the *Dalā’il* as *Asrār al-balāgha fī al-ma’ānī wa-l-bayān* and *Dalā’il al-i’jāz fī al-ma’ānī wa-l-bayān* (*Kashf al-ẓunūn* 1: 83, 759), but the latter phrases are probably descriptive and not part of the title: in the former case the phrase *fī al-ma’ānī wa-l-bayān* is printed in bold, as if part of the title, but in the latter it is not; also, Çelebi lists another work titled *Asrār al-balāgha* (not necessarily a work on literary theory) by the Andalusī-born Syrian-based physician and litterateur ‘Abd al-Mun‘im al-Jilyānī (d. 602/1206, whom Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn alludes to in *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 211), and obviously al-Jilyānī’s work is titled simply *Asrār al-balāgha* (corroborated by al-Jilyānī himself in ‘Abd al-Mun‘im al-Jilyānī, *Dīwān al-Mubashshirāt wa-l-qudsiyyāt*, ed. ‘Abd al-Jalīl Ḥasan ‘Abd al-Mahdī, Amman: Dār al-Bashīr, 1989, 151). Note that the *Dalā’il* is listed by Çelebi under the category *‘ilm dalā’il al-i’jāz* (it is the sole work mentioned therein). Before him Ibn Khaldūn recognizes the indebtedness of the discipline of *‘ilm al-bayān* to the works of al-Jurjānī and al-Sakkākī (*Muqaddima* 4: 1229), but he speaks of their works as being the roots/source (*uṣūl*) for *‘ilm al-bayān*, not as part of a pre-existing *‘ilm al-bayān* (see also al-Ṣafādī, *Nuṣra*, 281-82, who uses similar terms).

⁴³⁹ *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, 89-90; *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, 5. Only in the latter work does Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāq mention the three works – the *Dalā’il*, *Asrār* and *Wasāṭa* – in the same breadth, suggesting that in the earlier *Tahrīr* he may have still been unsure about the identity of the later al-Jurjānī.

⁴⁴⁰ *Badī’ al-Qur’ān*, 177 (and see editor’s fn. 3 on), probably quoting the *Nihāya* – although in *Nihāya*, 172, wherefrom the quotation is taken, the text reads *qāla al-shaykh al-imām*. Al-Jurjānī’s name appears in full most notably in the introduction to the *Nihāya* (p. 74). The “dispute” in question concerns the nature and definition of *majāz*; Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāq is correct to call out al-Rāzī’s initial characterization of *majāz* as incompatible with al-Jurjānī’s notion of *majāz ‘aqlī* (*majāz* on the level of predication, see Part Two), but al-Rāzī ultimately adheres to al-Jurjānī’s theories in full.

In the famous Qur’ānic commentary *al-Kashshāf* by al-Zamakhsharī (d. 538/1144), the phrase *‘ilm al-bayān* takes on a technical meaning, and along with it, *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*.⁴⁴¹ Heinrichs translates *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* as “stylistics” and *‘ilm al-bayān* as “theory of tropical expressions,”⁴⁴² as the terms are later understood in the Standard Theory. The fact of the matter is, however, that we do not know what al-Zamakhsharī had in mind when he used those disciplinary headings. In the preface to his Qur’ānic exegesis, al-Zamakhsharī states that the best equipped scholar to delve into *‘ilm al-tafsīr* – described by him as the most majestic of sciences (*‘ulūm*) – is not the leading lawyer, nor is it the leading theologian, *ḥadīth* expert, preacher, grammarian or lexicographer. Rather, he says, it is he who is proficient in “two sciences that are peculiar to the Qur’ān, and they are the science of *ma‘ānī* and the science of *bayān*.”⁴⁴³ He describes the process of becoming proficient in these fields as a long one, and as one that requires some knowledge of all disciplines (a common trope), within which he singles out grammar and the patterns (*asālīb*) of poetry and prose.⁴⁴⁴ Mention of these two disciplines is not restricted to his Qur’ānic commentary, and in the introduction to his work on prosody, al-Zamakhsharī lists *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* and *‘ilm al-bayān* among the philological sciences (*al-‘ulūm al-adabiyya*), following syntax and preceding prosody.⁴⁴⁵ The terms appear in some of his other

⁴⁴¹ Among the works of al-Zamakhsharī, the *Kashshāf* famously contains strategies from the field of literary theory. His other works, like the dictionary *Asās al-balāgha* or the grammatical work *al-Mufaṣṣal*, are less relevant for our purposes. I did not yet consult his strict *adab* work, *Rabī‘ al-abrār*.

⁴⁴² Heinrichs, “Classification of the Sciences,” 138.

⁴⁴³ Al-Zamakhsharī, *al-Kashshāf* 1: 15-16. He mentions the two sciences again in 1: 20.

⁴⁴⁴ Ibid. 1: 16-17.

⁴⁴⁵ Abū al-Qāsim Jār Allāh Maḥmūd b. ‘Umar al-Zamakhsharī, *al-Qisṭās al-mustaqīm fī ‘ilm al-‘arūd*, ed. Bahīja Bāqir al-Ḥasanī, Baghdad: Maktabat al-Andalus, 1969, 53. The full list can be found in Heinrichs, “Classification of the sciences,” 138.

works as well.⁴⁴⁶ But this too does not lead us to a closer understanding of the denotata of those terms.

In order to better grasp which topics belong specifically to *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* and which topics to *‘ilm al-bayān* one would have to study the contexts of their occurrences within the *Kashshāf*. In his comprehensive study of al-Zamakhsharī’s rhetoric in the *Kashshāf*, Muḥammad Ḥusayn Abū Mūsā devotes a careful account to this very question, and his results are inconclusive.⁴⁴⁷ He finds instances in which the phrase *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* or *‘ulamā’ al-ma‘ānī* points to the study of the semantic and/or pragmatic import of a sentence, inextricably linking it to the later understanding of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* as the study of syntactic structures vis-à-vis their situational functions. But the specific topics that al-Zamakhsharī addresses here do not always find their way into the later *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*. One case involves *ta‘rīd* ~ ‘implicature’, that is, using a syntactic structure that suggests the intended meaning but is not explicit (later normally studied within the standard *‘ilm al-bayān*).⁴⁴⁸ Another case is of a much more poetic provenance, as it involves the question of using images in “correct” situations and addressing themes with what is deemed appropriate for the poetic purpose (*gharaḍ*), such as knowing the terms appropriate for praise (*madḥ*).⁴⁴⁹ This topic is sometimes subsumed within the later standard *‘ilm al-badī’*, but is sometimes absent from the Standard Theory altogether.

⁴⁴⁶ Muḥammad Ḥusayn Abū Mūsā, *al-Balāgha al-Qur‘āniyya fī tafsīr al-Zamakhsharī wa-atharuhā fī l-dirāsāt al-balāghīyya*, [Cairo:] Dār al-Fikr al-‘Arabī, [1974?], 199. Abū Mūsā cites his *A‘jab al-‘ajab* (a commentary on al-Shanfarā’s *Lāmiyyat al-‘Arab*), the *Mufaṣṣal* (grammar book), and his *dīwān*. To these we may add his dictionary: see *Asās al-balāgha*, 8. Abū Mūsā says he was hoping al-Sharīf al-Jurjānī in his commentary of the *Kashshāf* would explain these terms as they appear in the preface, but he does not. This too points to the idiosyncrasy of these phrases in al-Zamakhsharī’s work.

⁴⁴⁷ Abū Mūsā, *al-Balāgha al-Qur‘āniyya fī tafsīr al-Zamakhsharī*, 199-204.

⁴⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, 199-200.

⁴⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, 201-202.

In the case of *‘ilm al-bayān*, Abū Mūsā’s discussion is much terser. He finds instances of *‘ilm al-bayān* that point to the study of imagery in the word of God, referencing *takhyīl*, *tamthīl*, *tashbīh* and *kināya*, but he also finds mention of *‘ilm al-bayān* within the context of syntactic arrangement (*naẓm*), pointing to a non-standard understanding of this field. The topic of *al-faṣl wa-l-waṣl* is a case in point: it studies how sentences connect syntactically to one another into a larger discourse and is later normally discussed under *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*. Abū Mūsā states that al-Zamakhsharī’s use of *‘ilm al-bayān* as a reference to the study of imagery recurs in the *Kashshāf*. The only instance that Abū Mūsā singles out is al-Zamakhsharī’s comments on Q 34:67, “The earth together shall be His handful on the Day of Resurrection, and the heavens shall be rolled up in His right hand,” which is explained in terms of *takhyīl*, here: “a visualisation of an abstract notion such as God’s majesty and omnipotence.”⁴⁵⁰ Interestingly, it is with regards to this “category in *‘ilm al-bayān*” that al-Zamakhsharī speaks of such pictorial depictions as transcending the question of literal or figurative usage (“...without taking the ‘handful’ or the ‘right hand’ into the realm of the literal or that of the figurative”⁴⁵¹). From a ‘standard’ point of view, the study of *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* was just about tantamount to *‘ilm al-bayān* as a whole, although one could argue that the treatment of *tashbīh* ‘comparison’ also transcends the discourse of *ḥaqīqa/majāz*. In any event, we cannot clearly define what al-Zamakhsharī meant by the headings *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* and *‘ilm al-bayān*. In the case of *‘ilm al-bayān*, there is no hint of al-Jurjānī’s non-technical use of the phrase. In fact, in his exegesis al-Zamakhsharī makes only a

⁴⁵⁰ Ibid., 203. Quote taken from Wolfhart Heinrichs, “*Takhyīl*: Make-Believe and Image Creation in Arabic Literary Theory,” in Geert Jan van Gelder and Marlé Hammond (eds.), *Takhyīl: The Imaginary in Classical Arabic Poetics*, [Cambridge, U.K.]: Gibb Memorial Trust, 2008, 1-14, here: 13.

⁴⁵¹ Translated by Heinrichs in *ibid.*, based on *al-Kashshāf* 3: 408-409.

single mention of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī.⁴⁵² It is noteworthy that the phrase ‘*ulamā*’ *al-bayān* occurs more frequently in the *Kashshāf* than the phrase ‘*ulamā*’ *al-ma‘ānī*, but in both cases it is less than a handful of times.⁴⁵³

Almost a century later Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (d. 606/1209) writes an epitome of the *Asrār* and *Dalā’il* and seems unaware of al-Zamakhsharī’s employment of ‘*ilm al-ma‘ānī*’ and ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ as discipline headings. Al-Rāzī’s own use of ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ is only slightly more technical than the one by al-Jurjānī. He reproduces al-Jurjānī’s passage in which the phrase ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ appears, and adds that it was the grammarian ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī who “extracted the principles and rules of this discipline,” thereby charging the term ‘*ilm*’ with a more technical understanding of ‘discipline’.⁴⁵⁴ However, later on al-Rāzī refers to the discipline invariably as ‘*ilm al-faṣāḥa*,⁴⁵⁵ and to *balāgha* ‘eloquence’ as a property rather than a discipline.⁴⁵⁶ I have not come across additional references to this field of inquiry or to its scholars (as a group) in the main body of al-Rāzī’s work.⁴⁵⁷ The scholar most cited – not surprisingly given the commentarial nature of the work – is “*al-shaykh al-imām*,” that is, al-Jurjānī himself. The *Nihāya* is thus not situated within any clearly defined scholarly field but is meant to deal, as its title suggests, with the properties of eloquence as they contribute to one’s understanding of the

⁴⁵² *Al-Kashshāf* 4: 11 (Q 50:39), where he mentions *al-Imām ‘Abd al-Qāhir*. I thank Matthew Keegan for this reference. I also searched a readable PDF version of the work, using the search words “‘Abd al-Qāhir,” “al-Jurjānī,” “Abū Bakr,” “al-Imām,” “al-‘Allāma,” and “al-Naḥwī.”

⁴⁵³ Four instances for ‘*ulamā*’ *al-bayān*, one for ‘*ulamā*’ *al-ma‘ānī*.

⁴⁵⁴ *Nihāya*, 74 (*al-imām majd al-islām ‘Abd al-Qāhir b. ‘Abd al-Raḥmān al-naḥwī al-Jurjānī [...] istakhraja uṣūl hādihā al-‘ilm wa-qawānīnahu [...]*).

⁴⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, 82-84.

⁴⁵⁶ E.g., *ibid.*, 321.

⁴⁵⁷ We do find references to former scholars, but al-Rāzī does not affiliate them with any group. See, e.g., *ibid.*, 231, where al-Rummānī (“‘Alī b. Īsā”) is quoted. He also references the ‘*uqalā*’ ‘wise men’ (e.g., *ibid.*, 233), presumably the theologians, and within the discussion of *i’jāz* he cites al-Qādī ‘Abd al-Jabbār by name (*ibid.*, 381).

Qur'ān's linguistic excellence. Al-Rāzī's treatment of this topic should be viewed not only in light of his activities as a theologian, but also in light of his work as an exegete.⁴⁵⁸ That he did not recognize al-Zamakhsharī's usage of *'ilm al-ma'ānī* and *'ilm al-bayān* suggests that the latter's terms remained marginal in subsequent centuries, and there is a debate if even al-Sakkākī was building on this usage when he spoke of *'ilm al-ma'ānī* and *'ilm al-bayān* in the *Miftāḥ*.⁴⁵⁹

Summing Up

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn does not explain what he means by the phrase *'ilm al-bayān* nor does he claim precedence for its usage. This would suggest that he was exposed to some use of the phrase, but as of yet we have no textual evidence for a broad employment of the term in a disciplinary context prior to his time. Al-Jurjānī's single usage of the phrase was non-technical and was hardly taken up by al-Rāzī; al-Zamakhsharī usage of *'ilm al-bayān* alongside *'ilm al-ma'ānī* remained idiosyncratic in his works, and it debatable if even al-Sakkākī was aware of, or was building on it. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was well familiar with al-Zamakhsharī's Qur'ānic exegesis, as it was an extremely popular work. But if he derived the phrase *'ilm al-bayān* from the *Kashshāf*, one would expect to find some reference to *'ilm al-ma'ānī* as well (and we do not). As we shall see in Part Two, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn engaged directly with the work of al-Jurjānī without explicitly mentioning him. It is thus likely that he picked up on al-Jurjānī's prefatory remark on *'ilm al-bayān*. But whereas for al-Jurjānī the specific word *bayān* was synonymous with *balāgha*,

⁴⁵⁸ For a recent study of al-Rāzī see Tariq Jaffer, *Rāzī: Master of Qur'ānic Interpretation and Theological Reasoning*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2015 (not seen).

⁴⁵⁹ Bonebakker, "al-Ma'ānī wa 'l-Bayān." We mentioned above (fn. 437) one probable exception to the subsequent marginality of al-Zamakhsharī's discipline headings: we come across the phrase *'ulamā' al-bayān* in al-Muṭarrizī's introduction to his commentary on al-Ḥarīrī's *Maqāmāt*, and this usage was most likely inspired by al-Zamakhsharī (*Sharḥ*, f. 4r [two occurrences; the context is *tamthīl 'alā ḥadd al-isti'āra* 'metaphorical illustrative analogy' and *kināya* 'periphrasis']).

faṣāḥa, and *barā'a* and meant 'eloquence' (the third lexical meaning of the word), for Ḍiyā' al-Dīn *bayān* was probably associated with the lexical extension of the word as it was used in scribal circles, namely, 'good written style'. There is no hint in the works of those preceding Ḍiyā' al-Dīn of the theoretical status of *'ilm al-bayān* as a distinct and 'scientific' discipline. As a disciplinary heading *'ilm al-bayān* is best translated as "the science of good style."

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn did not partake in the philosophical – epistemological or metaphysical – discussions of *bayān* as a mechanism of imparting knowledge, nor did he engage in the legal manifestations of the term. He was likely familiar with the philological association of the "language of the ancient Arabs" with *bayān*, but this type of discourse was probably antiquated by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's time.

Part Two: *ʿilm al-bayān* in the Seventh/Thirteenth Century

Introduction

Throughout the seventh/thirteenth century, scholars working in the field of literary theory in the Arabic East adhered to the disciplinary framework of *ʿilm al-bayān*. In Part Two of the dissertation we will take a closer look at some of these works. At the macro level (Chapter 4), we will study the contexts of these works on *ʿilm al-bayān*: their authors, scholarly affiliations, and the structuring of the material within *ʿilm al-bayān* proper. At the micro level (Chapter 5), we will study the concept of *majāz* as a test case for literary-theoretical thinking during this period. The scholars we focus on are Ḍiyāʾ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 637/1239), Ibn al-Zamlakānī (d. 651/1253), Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī (d. after 693/1294, not to be confused with Fakhr al-Dīn), Ibn al-Naqīb (d. 698/1298), and Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī (d. 716/1316).

As in older *naqd* works, authors can reflect different tendencies in literary theory, or *ʿilm al-bayān* in the context of seventh/thirteenth-century Iraq, Syria and Egypt. Ḍiyāʾ al-Dīn reflects the scribal and critical bent of *ʿilm al-bayān*. We closely examine his works and place within the literary critical tradition. Ibn al-Zamlakānī builds on the thought of al-Jurjānī and his work reflects the influx of grammatical thinking (semantic-syntactic) into literary theory. Nevertheless, his conception of *majāz* is in line with older and contemporary views in literary theory proper. Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī reflects a poetic bent of *ʿilm al-bayān*, being a poet himself and a product of Arabic-Persian poetical learning. Ibn al-Naqīb reflects exegetical leanings in *ʿilm al-bayān* and the study of literary theory for the purpose of Qurʾānic hermeneutics. Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī reflects similar tendencies. Al-Ṭūfī slightly exceeds our time frame by flowing into the eighth/fourteenth century, but the way he builds (explicitly) on the work of Ḍiyāʾ al-Dīn merits

his inclusion here. He is the only author whose conception of *majāz* is not in line with that of other scholars in the field. Hence, he is the exception that proves the rule.

Additional works that one might consider in studying *‘ilm al-bayān* in this time and place are those by Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ (d. 654/1256) and Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Tanūkhī (fl. end of 7th/13th century). We looked at Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘’s *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr* and *Badī‘ al-Qur‘ān* in Part One, and references will be made to them when needed in Part Two. Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ reflects scribal and critical tendencies in *‘ilm al-bayān*, as was the case with Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn. Al-Tanūkhī’s *al-Aqṣā al-qarīb* reflects the integration of logic into *‘ilm al-bayān*, although his work is essentially a study of literary devices.

Chapter 4 (“The Critical Landscape”) is meant, in many ways, to give context to the study of *majāz* in *‘ilm al-bayān*, which is our focus in Chapter 5 (“*Majāz* in Literary Theory Revisited”). The resulting contextualization forms an independent study on *‘ilm al-bayān* in the seventh/thirteenth century. If the reader so wishes, s/he may choose to follow the sections on each author in Chapter 4 with the respective treatment of *majāz* in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4: The Critical Landscape

4.1. Diyā' al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (d. 637/1239), al-Mathal, al-Jāmi' and More

Abū al-Faṭḥ Naṣr Allāh b. Abī al-Karam Muḥammad b. Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Karīm b. 'Abd al-Wāḥid al-Shaybānī, known as Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazarī and by his honorific name Diyā' al-Dīn, was a very well-known statesman, vizier, prose writer and critic working in the service of Ayyūbid and Zangid rulers.⁴⁶⁰ He was one of the three renowned Ibn al-Athīr brothers who left their mark on Arabic-Islamic scholarship. The *nisba* al-Jazarī refers to their place of birth, Jazīrat Ibn 'Umar (modern-day Cizre in southeast Turkey) in the historical Jazīra region, where their father, a high official, was stationed by the Zangids of Mosul. All three brothers were known by the name of Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazarī.⁴⁶¹ The eldest brother, Majd al-Dīn Abū al-Sa'ādāt al-Mubārak (d. 606/1210), lived his entire adult life in Mosul and worked in the service of the Atabegs there.

⁴⁶⁰ F. Rosenthal, "Ibn al-Athīr," *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*; Heinrichs, "Ibn al-Athīr"; Brockelmann, *GAL* 1: 357-58, Suppl. 1: 521; Khayr al-Dīn al-Ziriklī, *al-A'lām: qāmūs tarājīm li-ashhar al-rijāl wa-l-nisā' min al-'arab wa-l-musta'ribīn wa-l-mustashriqīn*, 11 vols. in 13, 3rd ed., [Beirut: s.n., 1969?], 8: 354; 'Umar Riḍā Kaḥḥāla, *Mu'jam al-mu'allifīn: tarājīm muṣannifī al-kutub al-'arabiyya*, Damascus: Maṭba'at al-Taraqī, 1957-61, 13: 98-99; D.S. Margoliouth, "On the 'Royal Correspondence' of Diyā'-eddin Eljazari," *Actes du dixième Congrès international des orientalistes, session de Genève, 1894*, Leiden: Brill, 1896, Section III, 7-21; Cahen, "La Correspondance"; van Gelder, *Beyond the Line*, 146; introduction to *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 9 ff. According to Rosenthal, the correct name of the father is probably Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Karīm and not Muḥammad b. Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Karīm (see also introduction to *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 6). For the main biographies on Ibn al-Athīr see Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt* 5: 389-97; Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Aḥmad al-Dhahabī, *Siyar a'lām al-nubalā'*, ed. Muḥibb al-Dīn Abū Sa'īd 'Umar b. Gharāma al-'Amrawī, 19 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Fikr, 1997, 16: 363-64; Ṣalāḥ al-Dīn Khalīl b. Aybak al-Ṣafādī, *Kitāb al-Wāfi bi-l-wafayāt*, 32 vols., Leipzig: Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft, F.A. Brockhaus, 1931-[2013], 27 (ed. Otfried Weintritt, Beirut: In Kommission bei "Das Arabische Buch" Berlin, 1997): 34-39; 'Abd Allāh b. As'ad 'Aḥfīf al-Dīn al-Yāfi'ī, *Mir'āt al-janān wa-ibrat al-yaqzān fī ma'rifat mā yu'tabaru min ḥawādiṭh al-zamān*, 4 vols. in 2, Hyderabad: Maṭba'at Dā'irat al-Ma'ārif al-Nizāmiyya, [1918-1920], 4: 97-100; Jalāl al-Dīn 'Abd al-Raḥmān al-Suyūṭī, *Bughyat al-wu'āt fī ṭabaqāt al-lughawīyyīn wa-l-nuḥāt*, ed. Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm, 2 vols., Cairo: Īsā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, [1964-1965], 2: 315; Abū al-Falāḥ 'Abd al-Ḥayy Ibn al-'Imād al-Ḥanbalī, *Shadarāt al-dhahab fī akhbār man dhahab*, 8 vols. in 4, Beirut: al-Maktab al-Tijārī li-l-Ṭibā'a wa-l-Nashr wa-l-Tawzī', 1966, 5: 187-89 (quoting also from Ibn al-Ahdal [d. 855/1481]).

⁴⁶¹ Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt* 3: 348 ('Izz al-Dīn), 4: 141 (Majd al-Dīn). This could explain the misattribution of *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr* to Diyā' al-Dīn's older brother, who was also a high official (and see next fn.). Ibn Khallikān also refers to Jazīrat Ibn 'Umar as Jazīrat Ibnay 'Umar, an explanation of which is found in *Wafayāt* 3: 349-50.

As a scholar, he is best known for engaging with Qur’ān and *ḥadīth*, and he is also said to have written a work on the secretarial art.⁴⁶² The middle brother, ‘Izz al-Dīn Abū al-Ḥasan ‘Alī (d. 630/1233), was the famous chronicler of Zangid history and the writer of the monumental work of history, *al-Kāmil* (also partial to the Zangids), which is probably best known today due to its detailed account of the crusades.⁴⁶³ Beyond political affiliation, the strong ties the family had to the Jazīra region was also of a financial nature, as it owned real estate in Cizre and in Mosul and invested in commercial enterprises.⁴⁶⁴

The youngest brother Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was the most prominent of the three brothers in political terms, and also the one who attracted the most antagonism. The literary competition he had with his older contemporary, the famous Egyptian epistolographer al-Qāḍī al-Fāḍil (d. 596/1200) was friendly enough,⁴⁶⁵ but as a statesman, he often found himself in dire straits. One would consider it a literary trope to portray a high official fleeing the city in a box or in disguise for fear of retribution, so it is quite telling that in Ibn Khallikān’s biographical entry Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is reported to have done so twice!⁴⁶⁶ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s own style in his scholarly writings reveals him to be of a somewhat arrogant nature, and this is reflected in the combative response to *al-*

⁴⁶² Ibid. 4: 141-42; Rosenthal, “Ibn al-Athīr”; see also Part One, fn. 188. Ibn Khallikān says (*Wafayāt* 4: 141) that “he has a small work on the secretarial craft” (*wa-lahu kitābun laṭīfun* [in the sense of *laṭīf al-ḥajm*] *fī fanni l-kitāba*). This could be the source of the later attribution of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr* to Majd al-Dīn. See also van Gelder, *Beyond the Line*, 146.

⁴⁶³ *Wafayāt* 3: 348-50; Rosenthal, “Ibn al-Athīr.” ‘Izz al-Dīn also wrote religious biographies. Ibn Khaldūn refers to ‘Izz al-Dīn on numerous occasions (see fn. 207).

⁴⁶⁴ Rosenthal, “Ibn al-Athīr”; Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām’s introduction to *al-Istidrāk*, 7.

⁴⁶⁵ Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt* 5: 396 (also Part One, fn. 147). The two served together under Saladin (*Wafayāt* 5: 390), Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn seemingly as his disciple (see below), and Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn wrote a *risāla* of condolence upon al-Qāḍī al-Fāḍil’s death (Margoliouth, “Royal Correspondence,” 10-11).

⁴⁶⁶ *Wafayāt* 5: 390-91, the first time when fleeing Damascus after it had been taken from al-Malik al-Afḍal (Saladin’s son), and the second time when fleeing Cairo after it was conquered by al-Malik al-‘Ādil (Saladin’s brother). According to Ibn Khallikān, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn wrote a *risāla* on the second incident.

Mathal al-sā'ir by the Baghdadi caliphal chancery scribe Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd (see Part One), as well as in other later accounts. Nevertheless, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was held in very high esteem: Ibn al-Mustawfī gave him excessive praise in his *History of Irbil* and Ibn Khallikān related the strong affection his own father had for Ḍiyā' al-Dīn. (Ibn Khallikān regretted never having met Ḍiyā' al-Dīn in person during his frequent visits from Irbil to Mosul.)⁴⁶⁷ This reverence is due, no doubt, to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's fame as an epistolographer. Ibn Khallikān clearly admired his style, as he devoted considerable space in his biographical entry to citations from Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's letters, along with a commentary on the originality of certain images (sg. *ma'nā*).⁴⁶⁸ This was not meant so much as a critique as it was a literary exercise on behalf of Ibn Khallikān, who used it to show his own skill.⁴⁶⁹

The biographical information surrounding Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's life comes largely from Ibn Khallikān's (d. 681/1282) work. Two earlier accounts that Ibn Khallikān relies on – an entry in Ibn al-Mustawfī's (d. 637/1239) *Tārīkh Irbil* and one in Ibn al-Najjār al-Baghdādī's (d. 643/1245) *Dhayl tārīkh Baghdād* – did not survive, and the later biographies rely almost entirely

⁴⁶⁷ Ibid., 391, 396 (he did meet his brother the historian, with whom he was extremely impressed; *Wafayāt* 3: 349). But al-Ṣafadī clearly disliked him, as is apparent both in his refutation of the *Mathal* and in the biography itself. In the latter (*al-Wāfī* 27: 35-36), he claims that people did not like Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's attacks on al-Qāḍī al-Fāḍil, on al-Ḥarīrī and especially on al-Mutanabbī. While it is true that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was especially critical of al-Ḥarīrī, it is not true that he did not hold them in high regard despite the occasional criticism. This is especially evident in the case of al-Mutanabbī, on whom Ḍiyā' al-Dīn wrote an entire commentary, criticizing Ibn al-Dahhān's claims about al-Mutanabbī's many borrowings from Abū Tammām; this is Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's *al-Istidrāk fī l-akhdh 'alā l-ma'ākhidh al-Kindiyya* [referring to al-Mutanabbī] *min al-ma'ānī al-Ṭā'iyya* [referring to Abū Tammām]. Even in the case of al-Ḥarīrī, there is a recognition on the part of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn of his talent (see below). Continuing on the point of rivalries: it has also been reported (*Siyar* 16: 364, preceded by the qualifying *wa-qīla*) that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn had a strife with his brother the historian (later this is mentioned as a fact, without *wa-qīla* in *al-Wāfī* 27: 34 and then again in *Shadharāt* 5: 188, quoting [Ibn Khaldūn's?] "*al-'Ibar*"). This may have to do with the fact that 'Izz al-Dīn did not make mention of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn in his histories. Claude Cahen refutes that there was any rift between the two, based on Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's letters, in "La Correspondance," 37. Ibn Khallikān makes no mention of the strife.

⁴⁶⁸ *Wafayāt* 5: 392-96.

⁴⁶⁹ For another example of this practice see *ibid.* 1: 330 (under the entry of Ja'far al-Barmakī).

on Ibn Khallikān.⁴⁷⁰ But we also have ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s own letters, both official and non-official, as a source for his biography, and Claude Cahen used many of them to reconstruct ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s life (sometimes at odds with the account found in Ibn Khallikān).⁴⁷¹

Serving briefly under Saladin in Egypt, ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn became the vizier of Saladin’s son, al-Malik al-Afḍal in Damascus in 589/1193. ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn followed al-Afḍal to Cairo, Samsat (Sumaysāt, southeastern Turkey) and Salkhad (Şarkhad, southern Syria), with an interval in which he was employed by the emir of Mosul Arslān Shāh. After al-Afḍal, ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn briefly joined al-Malik al-Zāhir Ghāzī (al-Afḍal’s brother) in Aleppo, and then moved to Mosul in 607/1211, followed by Irbil, Sinjar and finally Mosul again. It was in his final stage in Mosul, starting in 618/1221, that ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn became chief chancellor (*kātib al-inshāʾ*) of the Zangid ruler Nāṣir al-Dīn Maḥmūd and his atabeg at the time and later successor, Badr al-Dīn Lu’lu’. ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn died in Baghdad in 637/1239 during a diplomatic mission on behalf of the Mosul governor.⁴⁷²

ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s political allegiance to the region of Greater Syria and the Jazīra translated into literary and scholarly preferences as well. He showed a preference for literary critics from the region to the detriment of others (see Part One, §1.2) especially from central and southern

⁴⁷⁰ *Wafayāt*, 396, for references to the two earlier works (Ibn Khallikān views Ibn al-Najjār, whose work he calls *Tārīkh Baghdād*, as the more reliable one). For the later biographies see above, fn. 460. To get a sense of the historical distance from Ibn Khallikān: al-Dhahabī died in 748/1348, al-Şafādī died in 764/1363, al-Yāfiʿī died in 768/1367, al-Suyūfī died in 911/1505, and Ibn al-ʿImād died in 1089/1679.

⁴⁷¹ For instance, Cahen finds (“La Correspondance,” 35) that ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn was associated with Saladin already in 583/1187 (587/1191 is recorded as the official start date), and that after al-Afḍal’s loss of Damascus, ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn fled to Mosul rather than Cairo (cf. *Wafayāt* 5: 390). For a modern edition of his collected letters (Ibn Khallikān speaks of several volumes of letters, and a one-volume collection of his best letters) see *Rasāʾil Ibn al-Athīr*, ed. Anīs al-Maqdisī, Beirut: Dār al-ʿIlm li-l-Malāyīn, 1959.

⁴⁷² *Wafayāt* 5: 389-97; Cahen, “La Correspondance”; fn. 460 above. For a list of dignitaries to whom, and on behalf of whom, ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn wrote letters see *Rasāʾil Ibn al-Athīr*, 7-8.

Iraq, which he associated with grammatical centers of learning.⁴⁷³ Furthermore, by all accounts he favored the ‘modern’ poets of Syria, like Dīk al-Jinn (d. ca. 245/849), Abū Tammām (d. 232/846), al-Buḥturī (d. 284/897), and al-Mutanabbī (d. 354/965), to the detriment of more Eastern poets, usually of Persian origin, like Abū Nuwās (d. ca. 198/813), Ibn al-Ḥajjāj (d. 391/1001), al-Sharīf al-Raḍī (d. 406/1016) and Miḥyār al-Daylamī (d. 428/1037).⁴⁷⁴ Of course by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s time those favored poets were no longer ‘modern’, and he displays his own traditionalism especially when it comes to visual word play as seen in the *Maqāmāt* of al-Ḥarīrī (d. 516/1122) or in the tree-shaped poems of the Andalusī (turned Syrian) physician and litterateur al-Jilyānī (d. 602/1206).⁴⁷⁵ He also criticizes al-Ḥarīrī’s ‘redundant’ style of *saj’*, which was supposedly also practiced by Ibn Nubāta (d. 374/984-5) in his sermons (the latter not quite ‘modern’!).⁴⁷⁶ He does recognize al-Ḥarīrī’s unique talent in writing *maqāmāt*, but says that this talent did not cross over to the epistolary art, and he describes al-Ḥarīrī’s attempt to become a state scribe in Baghdad as disastrous (perhaps a common trope).⁴⁷⁷

⁴⁷³ This is apparent, e.g., from *al-Istidrāk*, 45-48.

⁴⁷⁴ *Al-Istidrāk*, 59, for a conversation he had with a Damascene friend on his choice of memorizing the *ghazal* of the latter poets versus the *ghazal* of Abū Tammām and al-Mutanabbī. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn compiled a collection of poems by the Syrian poets, mentioned in Ibn Khallikān’s entry (see below). See also Heinrichs, “Ibn al-Athīr,” 315. This is, of course, a general predilection: we find numerous places where the other poets’ material is praised.

⁴⁷⁵ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 210-11. With regards to the visual word plays of al-Ḥarīrī, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn specifically refers to alternations between dotted (*mu’jam*) and undotted (*muhmal*) letters or entire words. In the case of ‘Abd al-Mun’im al-Jilyānī, whom Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn refers to as the *adīb* from *ahl al-maghrib* and not by name (it is understood that he met him personally), Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn concedes that there is some meaning (*ma’nā*) in his poetry but that essentially it is “a kind of drivel (*hadhayān*)” (see also Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt* 7: 50, where an esteemed *adīb* from “the West” mentions a literary session he attended in Mosul at Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr’s place). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is especially harsh on al-Ḥarīrī, situating his technique outside the boundaries of *‘ilm al-bayān*. He also criticizes al-Ḥarīrī on his ‘artificial’ use of *tawshīḥ*, a device which itself is rather artful (when every line of a poem can be disjointed at a certain point, leading to another poem with a different meter; *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 216-17).

⁴⁷⁶ *Ibid.* 1: 278. By *saj’* here he is referring specifically to the use of parallel members. He equates this supposedly bad type of *saj’* with mere verbiage (*taṭwīl*), since the second parallel member is seen as a near-exact repetition of the first.

⁴⁷⁷ *Ibid.* 1: 41-43, 362 (where his prose is adduced), building on the common idea of professionalization (going back to al-Jāhīz): that poets who are good, e.g., in *madīḥ* are not necessarily good in *hijā’*; likewise is the case, he says,

Little is known about ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s education and teachers. Ibn Khallikān tells us that after his early years in Cizre, ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn received his formative education in Mosul, where he studied the religious sciences and memorized the Qurʾān, much of the *ḥadīth*, and a fair share of grammar, lexicography and “*ilm al-bayān*” (or, anachronistically, “*ilm al-maʿānī wa-l-bayān*” in al-Ṣafadī’s terms).⁴⁷⁸ By far the best known account comes from ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn himself, who says in the opening of his work on prosification that he memorized the entire *dīwāns* of Abū Tammām, al-Buḥturī and al-Mutanabbī, a point which later biographers like to dwell on.⁴⁷⁹ A collection of poems that ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn assembled, by Abū Tammām, al-Buḥturī, Dīk al-Jinn and al-Mutanabbī (all Syrian), is said to be a useful anthology to memorize.⁴⁸⁰ We also find out from ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s own account that ʿAbd al-Raḥīm b. ʿAlī al-Baysānī – i.e., al-Qāḍī al-Fāḍil – was a kind of mentor for him, exemplifying what he viewed as the correct approach to the scribal art.⁴⁸¹

What characterizes the writing style of ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn is not so much its *adabī* inclinations (per modern scholars)⁴⁸² but rather its biographical-historical content. Whereas *adab* works are made up of numerous anecdotes that are of a literary nature, ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn’s works are replete

with the writer of prose. A similar claim was made against al-Hamadhānī; see Devin Stewart, “Professional Literary Mendicancy in the *Letters* and *Maqāmāt* of Badīʿ al-Zamān al-Hamadhānī,” in Beatrice Gruendler and Louise Marlow (eds.), *Writers and Rulers: Perspectives on their Relationship from Abbasid to Safavid Times*, Wiesbaden: Reichert Verlag, 2004, 39-49, here: 39, 41. Famously, al-Jāḥiẓ himself could not hold his post as a *kātib* for more than three days (Pellat, “Al-Jāḥiẓ,” 80).

⁴⁷⁸ *Wafayāt* 5: 389, *al-Wāfi* 27: 35. In the future, one might want to check how common the heading *ilm al-bayān* was in Ibn Khallikān’s work (we mentioned one case of *ahl al-bayān* in *Wafayāt* 1: 330).

⁴⁷⁹ *Al-Washy al-marqūm*, 56; *al-Istidrāk*, 37 (Abū Tammām and al-Mutanabbī); *al-Mathal al-sāʿir* 1: 136-37; *Wafayāt* 5: 389; *Siyar* 16: 363; *Mirʾāt al-janān* 4: 97-98; *Bughya* 2: 315 (a point al-Suyūṭī chooses to incorporate even though the entry is a mere paragraph long); *Shadarāt* 5: 188. Al-Ṣafadī, not surprisingly given his animosity toward ʿIyāʾ al-Dīn, does not mention this fact.

⁴⁸⁰ *Wafayāt* 5: 392. The collection did not survive.

⁴⁸¹ *Al-Wahsy al-marqūm*, 54-55, 57.

⁴⁸² Primarily ʿAbbās, *Tārīkh al-naqd al-adabī*, 575-78, and Smyth, “Criticism in the Post-Classical Period,” 394-401.

with personal stories, often preceded by a statement on the place and date in which they occurred.⁴⁸³ To my mind, this puts him in line with the biographical or historical work rather than the *adab* genre. To the personal accounts we may add the citation of personal letters as exemplary illustrations (*shawāhid*), all of which add up to a clear portrait of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's personality. Thus we learn of interactions Ḍiyā' al-Dīn had with laymen such as a Bedouin Nabatean, a Christian, a woman, and a soldier (primarily as troves for verbal pearls of wisdom), or with scholars such as Aristotelian philosophers (whom he thought were irrelevant for the purposes of literary theory) and legal scholars.⁴⁸⁴ Furthermore we learn that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn may have had some knowledge of Syriac and Persian, as he speaks of beautiful instances of indirect speech found in the Christian scriptures and in Iranian lore.⁴⁸⁵ Elsewhere he cites a beautiful

⁴⁸³ Representative examples are *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 100-105 (esp. 103), 229-30; *al-Istidrāk*, 45-46, 59-60; *al-Washy al-marqūm*, 54, 57. Compare this to the *adabī* content in, e.g., *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 29; *al-Istidrāk*, 77.

⁴⁸⁴ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 100-105 (for the laymen), 1: 229-30 and 2: 5-6 (for the Aristotelian philosopher, as well as Ibn Sīnā), and 1: 60 (for the *faqīh*). Here we should reiterate that although he famously criticizes the Aristotelian strand of poetics and rhetoric, in no way did he object to the study of logic (see, e.g., *ibid.* 2: 115, and §1.1, where he models *'ilm al-bayān* on the theoretical status of logic). The passage in which Ḍiyā' al-Dīn criticizes Ibn Sīnā's dealings with Aristotelian rhetoric and poetics has become famous through its inclusion in Vicente Cantarino's translated anthology of Arabic poetics; it is partially translated already in Heinrichs, *Arabische Dichtung*, 110-11, and discussed in *idem*, "Naḵd." In the passage Ḍiyā' al-Dīn states that neither Ibn Sīnā nor even the Greeks themselves made use of such theories in composing their own poetry and ornate prose. The passage was recently translated and discussed in Pierre Larcher, "Rhétoriques "grecque" et "hellénisante" vues par Ḍiyā' al-Dīn Ibn al-'Aḏīr (VII^e/XIII^e siècle)," *Quaderni di Studi Arabi*, N.S. 9 (2014), 115-30 (he is unaware of Cantarino). Like Iḥsān 'Abbās (*Tārīkh*, 575-76), Larcher takes the passage as an attestation to the "permanence" of an anti-philosophical and anti-logical reaction, which I view as an anachronistic 'Ibn Taymiyyan' reading into earlier texts. If anything, I would emphasize the apologetic tone of this passage, as if Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is attempting to ward off any potential claims that someone of his stature should be aware of Aristotelian rhetoric and poetics and should take them into account in his literary theory (see also Introduction, on the increase in interest in philosophy and the Greek sciences in the Arabic East during this time). Heinrichs says that we have no reason to believe Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is speaking to an imaginary opponent here (*Arabische Dichtung*, 17), and see our discussion of *tawassu'* in §5.1. This suggests that some people in his scholarly circles were, in some form or another, engaging with those texts. Readings such as 'Abbās's and Larcher's are reflective of the "marginality thesis" regarding the 'extraneousness' of philosophy in Islam, a thesis that has permeated the scholarly literature of Arabic and Islamic studies. A.I. Sabra calls attention to the falsity of this view in his "The Appropriation and Subsequent Naturalization of Greek Science in Medieval Islam: A Preliminary Statement," *History of Science* 25 (1987), 223-43, and it is discussed in detail in Ahmed, *What is Islam?*, 14-15 (and elsewhere).

⁴⁸⁵ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 3: 75. The chapter deals with *kināya* (generally in his work: a single-word euphemistic metaphor, see §5.1) and *ta'rīd* (generally in his work: implicature). The only concrete example cited is the Iranian one: One of Khosrow's emirs banished his wife because he learned that Khosrow had frequented her. After she informed the king, he called the emir and said, "I heard that you have a spring of sweet water but do not drink from

image he heard in Persian poetry.⁴⁸⁶ From an encounter he had with a Jew, we also learn that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was not oblivious to formal characteristics of the Hebrew language.⁴⁸⁷

Scholarly Works

All of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's scholarly works are concerned with literary criticism and the secretarial art, including a collection of his letters. The best known scholarly work is the two-volume *al-Mathal al-sā'ir fī adab al-kātib wa-l-shā'ir* ('The Current Saying on the Knowhow of the State Scribe and the Poet'), written by Cahen's account around 608 AH.⁴⁸⁸ It created a stir already in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's lifetime. According to the Baghdadi caliphal scribe Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd, it was extremely popular especially among the Mosul scholars (see Part One), and it is the first work that the biographers credit Ḍiyā' al-Dīn with. It was the target of several responses, both positive and negative, the best known being the rebuttals by Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd and al-Ṣafadī.⁴⁸⁹ In Ibn

it. What is the reason for that?" The emir replied, "I heard that the lion comes down to [drink from] it so I was afraid of it." This type of language is euphemistic because it involves the taboo of women and sex (and see §5.1 below).

⁴⁸⁶ Ibid. 2: 33 (it sounds like he heard it directly in Persian: [...] *sami'tu hādhā fī shi'r al-furs li-ba'ḍ shu'arā'ihim*). The image in question is that when the sun shines on the white lotus (*nīlūfar*) its petals open, and when it disappears they close. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn used it in a letter to describe someone's handsome form, saying that even if he walks past a white lotus at night, its petals open. In a more famous passage closing the *Mathal* (4: 12), Ḍiyā' al-Dīn also speaks of Persian poetry which is epic in nature, citing Ferdowsī's *Shāhnāma*, in contradistinction to the Arabic poetic tradition.

⁴⁸⁷ Ibid. 1: 267-68. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn only mentions this Jew whom he met in Egypt (described as a leading scholar in his community) because "even he" thought that Arabic was the best language of all, as it eliminated by his account unnecessary elements found in older languages. The Jew gives as an example the Hebrew pattern of *pō'ēl* (transliterated as *fū'īl* in Arabic) which was supposedly simplified in Arabic to *fa'al*. The word exemplifying this is *gōmēl* (transliterated as *kūmīl*), supposedly the precursor to the Arabic *jamal* 'camel'. I am not sure what Ḍiyā' al-Dīn/the Jew has in mind here – at first glance I thought this was a reference to the *gōmēl* prayer – but it could be that the Hebrew *gāmāl* 'camel' was pronounced at the time and in that locale as *gōmēl*, not unlike the shift we find in Yemeni Hebrew or in European Ashkenazi pronunciation *ā→ō* (*māqōm*→*mōqōm*). However, we should keep in mind that Hebrew was used then as a written language and that if it was spoken, it was for liturgical purposes; this brings us back to the *gōmēl* prayer. *Wa-llāhu a'lam*.

⁴⁸⁸ "La Correspondance," 37, though I wish more evidence had been provided. Ibn Khallikān mentions that the work was in two volumes (*Wafayāt* 5: 391).

⁴⁸⁹ For other responses see *Kashf al-zunūn* 2: 1586 (and cf. *al-Wāfi* 27: 35). Ibn al-'Assāl wrote a *mukhtaṣar* of the work (al-Subkī, *Arūs al-afrāḥ* 1: 159, probably a reference to the Christian scholar active in the 7th/13th century).

Khallikān’s words, it is the most comprehensive work on the secretarial art (*fann al-kitāba*).⁴⁹⁰ It clearly eclipsed the earlier version of the work, *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr fī šinā‘at al-manẓūm min al-kalām wa-l-manthūr* (‘The Large Compilation on the Craft of Versified and Unversified Speech’), as the title does not appear in the biographies and is attributed, rather, to one of his brothers.⁴⁹¹ There is little doubt that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn authored the work.⁴⁹² Also intended for the state scribe is Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *al-Washy al-marqūm fī ḥall al-manẓūm* (‘The Striped Embroidery on Turning Verse into Prose’), on methods for incorporating poetic allusions into epistolary prose.⁴⁹³ This underscores the ‘subjugation’ of the poetic art to epistolography.⁴⁹⁴

The work *al-Miftāḥ al-munshā li-ḥadīqat al-inshā* (‘The Erected Key for the Garden of Letter-Writing’) is a short manual for secretaries in the strict sense, and modern scholars have debated whether the attribution to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is correct.⁴⁹⁵ While it differs from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s

⁴⁹⁰ *Wafayāt* 5: 391 (“he [Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn] did not leave any component concerning the secretarial art unmentioned”).

⁴⁹¹ Al-Subkī, *Arūs al-afrāḥ* 1: 159 attributes the *Jāmi‘* to “his [Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s] brother”; Ṭashköprüzāde in his *Miftāḥ al-sa‘āda* attributes it to the religious scholar Majd al-Dīn. We already mentioned above (fn. 462) that Ibn Khallikān credits Majd al-Dīn with a work on *kitāba* (no title given). According to Kātip Çelebi (*Kashf al-zunūn* 1: 571), the *Jāmi‘* was written by the middle brother, the historian, and the phrase *‘ilm al-bayān* is part of its title (*al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr fī ‘ilm al-bayān*).

⁴⁹² *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, editors’ introduction, 39-40, who see the work as a *muswadda* for the *Mathal*. See also Sallām, *Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn*, 68-69. Besides the identical structure and, many times, contents, here too Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn gives his own letters (and even verse) as *shawāhid*, but at a substantially lower rate and in a more humble manner (e.g., *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 94-95. I am assuming these samples did not make it into the *Mathal* or his *Rasā‘il* collection because his later letters were better.) See also Muḥammad al-Ṭāhir Ibn ‘Āshūr, “Nazra fī kitāb al-Jāmi‘ li-Ibn al-Athīr,” *Majallat Majma‘ al-Lughā al-‘Arabiyya bi-Dimashq* 31 (1961), 672-77, who argues that the *Jāmi‘* is later than the *Mathal* (he lists eight arguments, all of which point to differences between the two works but not to chronological precedence). It might be added that ‘Āshūr sees (p. 674) the *Jāmi‘* as the “theoretical” treatise akin to the works of al-Jurjānī and al-Sakkākī, and the *Mathal* as the “practical” one. Our analysis of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s theory on *majāz* will clearly point to the *Mathal* as the more developed and later work of the two.

⁴⁹³ This includes Qur’ān and *ḥadīth*. A thorough study of this work is Amidu Sanni’s *Arabic Theory of Prosification and Versification*.

⁴⁹⁴ An explicit discussion on the supremacy of prose over poetry closes the *Mathal* (*al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 4: 4-12), and it has become well known through Cantarino, *Arabic Poetics in the Golden Age*, 191-98. As Smyth tells us regarding expressions of ‘superiority’, “for many authors criticism served as an apology for their own work” (“Criticism,” 416).

⁴⁹⁵ The work is intended for the apprentice; on the face of it, it bears little stylistic or thematic resemblance to Ḍiyā’

usual style – the didactic character of the genre demands, after all, a rather limited approach – it is not unlikely that he authored the work. This is borne out by an authoritative preface (formulaic, to be sure, but intended as a model for the apprentice), by the aggrandizement of the chancery among the state offices, by the intimate knowledge of writing conventions relative to Arab/Persian or Muslim/Non-Muslim scribes, and by certain thematic similarities.⁴⁹⁶

His literary-critical work, *al-Istidrāk fī al-akhdh 'alā al-ma'ākhidh al-kindiyya min al-ma'ānī al-ṭā'iyya* ('The Rectification of the Critique of the Kindite Borrowings from the Ṭayyī'ite Motifs'), is a response to the work written by the Baghdadi grammarian Ibn al-Dahhān (d. 569/1174)⁴⁹⁷ on the poetic borrowings of al-Mutanabbī from Abū Tammām. Preceded by a long theoretical introduction,⁴⁹⁸ the work later lays out numerous additional cases not mentioned by Ibn al-Dahhān in which al-Mutanabbī borrowed images from Abū Tammām, and it specifies, when relevant, why al-Mutanabbī's later iteration of the motif is in fact better. As a later work (it

al-Dīn's writings. See Ḍiyā' al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr, *al-Miftāḥ al-munshā li-ḥadīqat al-inshā*, ed. 'Abd al-Wāḥid Ḥasan al-Shaykh, Alexandria: Mu'assasat Shabāb al-Jāmi'a, 1990. The title is not mentioned in the biographies, but it is mentioned in *GAL* Suppl. 1: 521. Abdul Karim Ahmad Abed El-Salem, *Rhetoric in al-Mathal al-Sā'ir: Ibn al-Athīr's Contribution to 'Ilm al-Balāgha*, PhD Dissertation, Cambridge University, 1985 (which I am unable to access), is of the view that the attribution is false (Gully, *The Culture of Letter-Writing*, 139, 161), whereas al-Shaykh, the editor of the *Miftāḥ*, thinks it is correct. Al-Shaykh cites Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's reference to a book he wrote on invocations (*ad'iya*) containing one hundred in number: the *Miftāḥ* itself contains over seventy (*al-Miftāḥ al-munshā*, 36-38).

⁴⁹⁶ *Al-Miftāḥ al-munshā*, 51-54, 61, 83-85. In terms of thematic similarities: (1) as in his other works, the author is committed to the differentiation between *ta'rīd* as (usually) implicature and *kināya* as (at least here) a single-word alluding metaphor (p. 96); (2) here too he is committed to the unit of the *saj'a*, as he presents many of the rhetorical figures (whether sound or sense) in terms relative to the *saj'a* (pp. 91-92, 95, 100, 103). The *saj'a* is the single parallel member of a segment of rhymed prose and it is a unit of speech that he elaborates on in the *Mathal* (see Devin Stewart, "Saj' in the Qur'ān: Prosody and structure," *Journal of Arabic Literature* 21 [1990], 101-139, here: 113 ff.); (3) he ends the work with a snippet of poetry segments, apparently meant to be memorized – this is in line with his view that memorization of poetry aids in the crafting of epistolary letters. Conversely, the *shawāhid* that are adduced are often of ancient poetry. Again, this might be due to the genre that necessitates knowledge of the ancient Arab poetic way. One idiosyncrasy is that the section on rhetorical figures is presented primarily as a tool of the poetic art and only secondarily as relevant for the craft of prose (*al-Miftāḥ al-munshā*, 53).

⁴⁹⁷ According to Ibn Khallikān, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's oldest brother Majd al-Dīn studied grammar from Ibn al-Dahhān (*Wafayāt* 4: 141). The translation of the title is Heinrichs'.

⁴⁹⁸ *Al-Istidrāk*, 25-91, which amounts to about a third of the book (Sallām's edition is less than 200 pages).

was written after the *Mathal*), it exhibits Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's most mature form of poetic criticism and mastery of the poetic art.⁴⁹⁹ The work is a commentary both on al-Mutanabbī's and on Abū Tammām's imagery – the two seem to be his favorite poets⁵⁰⁰ – but in essence, it is a commentary on the very practice of borrowing images.⁵⁰¹ By presenting many of the borrowings (*ma'ākhidh*) as an act of *improving on* earlier images, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn betrays his preference for later poets vis-à-vis the ancients, and implicitly, his preference for the scribal art, of which the entire essence is perfecting old motifs.⁵⁰²

On the face of it, based on Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's known titles, there is nothing hinting at his involvement with the development of *'ilm al-bayān* as a theoretical discipline on the rise. The *Jāmi'* was known under the title *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr fī 'ilm al-bayān*, according to Kâtip Çelebi,⁵⁰³ and it is probably due to this fact that later works on the classification of the sciences specify the *Jāmi'* within the context of *'ilm al-bayān* (see Part One, §2.2). The title and fame of the *Mathal* rested primarily on its character as a resource for the state scribe, so it is not surprising that it did not find its way into the rubric of *'ilm al-bayān* in those later works.

But we do have one work attributed to him that contains the phrase *'ilm al-bayān* in the title: this is *al-Burhān fī 'ilm al-bayān* ('The Proof on the Science of Good Style'), mentioned by Brockelmann but not in the biographical sources.⁵⁰⁴ The manuscript of the work, housed in the

⁴⁹⁹ Ibid., 42, for a reference to the *Mathal*.

⁵⁰⁰ While much of the introduction reads like a stark defense of al-Mutanabbī (against the view of Ibn al-Dahhān), Ḍiyā' al-Dīn does say at one point that he finds Abū Tammām to be *ash'ar* "a better poet" than al-Mutanabbī and any other poet, "as [would] anyone having knowledge of *'ilm al-bayān*" (*al-Istidrāk*, 53, also 44).

⁵⁰¹ See esp. *ibid.*, 77 ff.

⁵⁰² And see *ibid.*, 80, where the method of deciding which poet or poetic line is better is said to be applicable to the scribal art.

⁵⁰³ *Kashf al-zunūn* 1: 571.

⁵⁰⁴ *GAL* 1: 358.

Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin, turns out to be identical, with slight changes, to the *Kifāyat al-tālib fī naqd kalām al-shā‘ir wa-l-kātib* (‘A Primer [lit. what suffices for the student] on Criticizing the Speech of the Poet and the Scribe’), also ascribed to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn and also unspecified in the biographies.⁵⁰⁵ It is not clear how the work came to be known under two different titles; the fact that both are attributed to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn potentially corroborates his authorship of the work. But the style and themes of the work differ markedly from those exhibited in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s other works (much more so than *al-Miftāḥ al-munshā*, which had some hints of his style and themes).⁵⁰⁶ If *al-Miftāḥ al-munshā* was a beginner’s manual for the state scribe, the *Burhān/Kifāya* is a beginner’s manual for the poet, an abridgment of Ibn Rashīq’s encyclopedic work on poetry and poetics, the *‘Umda*.⁵⁰⁷ If Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn did write it, it must have been as an exercise in an early stage of his life, before his own thought on literary criticism developed.⁵⁰⁸ We mention

⁵⁰⁵ MS Wetzstein I 80; Wilhelm Ahlwardt, *Verzeichnis der arabischen Handschriften*, 10 vols., Hildesheim; New York: Georg Olms, 1980-1981 (reprint of the 1887 and 1889-1899 editions), 6: 393-94 (item no. 7248); Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr, *Kifāyat al-tālib fī naqd kalām al-shā‘ir wa-l-kātib*, eds. Nūrī al-Qaysī, Ḥātim al-Ḍāmin and Hilāl Nājī, [Mosul]: Min Manshūrāt Jāmi‘at al-Mawṣil, 1982. One discernible change is that the *Kifāya* opens with a chapter on *badī‘* whereas in the *Burhān* it appears much later (f.70r), after the strictly poetic sections of the work and before the enumeration of rhetorical figures. To the best of knowledge, no modern scholar (West or East) besides Ahlwardt has consulted the text of the *Burhān*.

⁵⁰⁶ One instance of thematic discrepancy is the following: in the discussion of indirect speech (*ishāra*) in the *Burhān/Kifāya* (*Burhān* f.96v, 97v; *Kifāya*, 173-76) there is no hint of his later asserted differentiation between *kināya* (one-word alluding metaphor, usually euphemism) and *ta‘rīd* (implicature), a differentiation found even in the earlier *Jāmi‘* (156-57, 166-69). In terms of style: the work lacks any authoritative voice – indeed, any authorial voice at all.

⁵⁰⁷ On the identification of the work as a digest of the *‘Umda* see *Kifāya*, editors’ introduction, 25, and Taïeb El Achèche, “La *Kifāyat al-tālib* attribuée à Ḍiyā’ al-dīn ibn al-Aṯīr,” *Arabica* 19.2 (1972): 177-89, here: 185-86.

⁵⁰⁸ This is one of the hypotheses posed by El Achèche, who does not settle the matter of attribution (“La *Kifāyat al-tālib*,” 187-88). Sallām mentions it, following Brockelmann and an early modern work on the history of Mosul (*Ibn al-Athīr wa-juhūduhu fī l-naqd*, 72, referring to Sulaymān Ṣā‘igh’s *Tārīkh al-Mawṣil*). Smyth takes Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s authorship of the *Kifāya* for granted (“Criticism in the Post-Classical Period,” 394). Further remarks on attribution: First, the copy that we have of the *Burhān* was written during Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s lifetime, as it contains in the title page an autograph of the legal theorist Sayf al-Dīn al-Āmidī (d. 631/1233). The work was copied by the latter’s son, Yūsuf b. ‘Alī al-Āmidī, who copied it “for himself” (*katabahu li-nafsihi*, f.1r; cf. Ahlwardt, *Verzeichnis* 6: 394, who mentions that it was copied in 650/1252, but I did not find this date). Given Sayf al-Dīn al-Āmidī’s presence in Syria and Egypt and his association at times with Ayyūbid rulers (Bernard G. Weiss, “al-Āmidī, Sayf al-Dīn,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, Three*), it is not unlikely that he came across Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn in person. Second, Ibn Ma‘šūm ascribes the *Kifāya* to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn in his comprehensive compilation on (non-standard) rhetoric, *Anwār al-rabī‘*,

the *Burhān/Kifāya* here because it contains references to the scholarly group called ‘*ulamā*’ *al-bayān*,⁵⁰⁹ so if the work was authored by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, the heading of the discipline had already been in use in his early days. Of course in the *Mathal* and *Jāmi*’, ‘*ilm al-bayān* is a fait accompli, with references to the discipline heading and the scholarly group throughout.

This leads us to the major works that are of interest to us here, the *Mathal* and the *Jāmi*’.⁵¹⁰ The two works are dedicated to the discipline called ‘*ilm al-bayān* – in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s understanding: ‘the science of good style’ – which, according to him, is the theory behind literary composition (see Part One). The structure of both works broadly overlaps. The *Jāmi*’ is divided into two large parts (sg. *quṭb*). The first deals with “general matters” such as prerequisite sciences, methods of learning the scribal art, a prolegomenon on *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz*, and phonological sections concerning the nature of the Arabic language. The second part deals with “particular matters” and is a study of the rhetorical devices (*aṣnāf* ‘*ilm al-bayān*), concerned both with sense (*al-ṣinā’a al-ma’naviyya*) and with sound (*al-ṣinā’a al-laḥẓiyya*).⁵¹¹ In the *Mathal* Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn takes most of the “general matters” in the *Jāmi*’ and turns them into a large prefatory section (*muqaddima*). The *muqaddima* contains several new chapters, e.g., a short one

and assumes it was written after the *Mathal* (following him also the editors of the *Kifāya*: introduction, 25). This cannot be correct, but it may serve as additional evidence that the work was authored by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn. Third, the work does contain themes that are consistent with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s thought, such as the identification of *tashbīh* ‘comparison; simile’ as a type of *majāz* (*al-Burhān* f.86v; *Kifāya*, 157) but this cannot be taken in support of his authorship since already Ibn Rashīq and others viewed *tashbīh* as *majāz* (see §5.1). Also, we find that it is not Abū Tammām that is favored over other poets, as we did in the *Istidrāk*, but rather Ibn al-Rūmī (a non-Syrian) due to his invention of many motifs (*awlā bi-sm shā’ir li-kathrat ikhtirā’ihi*); Abū Tammām is presented as employing too many metaphors (*isti’āra wa-badī’*) (*al-Burhān* f.70v-71r; *Kifāya*, 40-41). This is a direct quotation of Abū ‘Alī al-Ḥasan Ibn Rashīq, *al-Umda fī maḥāsīn al-shi’r wa-ādābihi wa-naqdihi*, ed. Muḥammad Muḥyī al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd, 2 vols., 4th ed., Beirut: Dār al-Jīl, 1972, 1: 286, also 2: 238, 244-45 (English: ‘The Support on the Good Qualities of Poetry, its Customs and Evaluation’).

⁵⁰⁹ *Al-Burhān* f.70r; *Kifāya*, 40.

⁵¹⁰ For a detailed account of their contents see Sallām, *Ibn al-Athīr wa-juhūduhu fī al-naqd*, 75-123.

⁵¹¹ Phonological discussions, both in the *Jāmi*’ (pp. 33-63) and in the *Mathal* (1: 210-69) are found under the chapter dealing with single words (*al-alfāz al-mufrada* / *al-laḥẓa al-mufrada*). The inclusion of phonology is inspired by Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī (*Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, 13-21).

on the (philosophical) “subject-matter” of *‘ilm al-bayān* (to wit: eloquence, *al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha*), and a very long one on turning verse, as well as Qur’ān and *ḥadīth* citations, into artistic prose (i.e., ‘prosification’, later enlarged into a separate work, *al-Washy al-marqūm*).⁵¹² Following the *Muqaddima* are two large sections (sg. *maqāla*), the first on all matters concerning sound (*al-ṣinā‘a al-laḥẓiyya*). The phonological sections that appeared in the *Jāmi‘*’s “general matters” are now situated here, as a preparation for the study of *saj‘* ‘rhymed prose’ and other literary devices concerned with sound.⁵¹³ *Saj‘* plays an important role in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s literary theory and analysis of Qur’ānic style.⁵¹⁴ The second *maqāla* deals with all matters concerning sense (*al-ṣinā‘a al-ma‘nawiyya*), varying from metaphor to brevity, the stylistics of prepositions, literary borrowings (*sariqāt*), and more.

The section that opens the study on sense (*al-ṣinā‘a al-ma‘nawiyya* lit. ‘the mental craft’)⁵¹⁵ is an enlargement of a four-page chapter in the *Jāmi‘* dealing with the invention of motifs or images (*ma‘ānī*). It is often unclear where the boundaries are between this discussion and the one dealing with turning verse into prose (the long chapter appearing in the *muqaddima*, see above).⁵¹⁶ Indeed both sections form a poetics of image-creation, which in turn form part of a poetics of letter-writing. Detailing the mechanism for creating new motifs, and following the

⁵¹² Respectively: *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 1: 39-40 (inspired by al-Khafājī – whose treatment is translated in Cantarino, *Arabic Poetics in the Golden Age*, 152-54) and 1: 125-209 (along with numerous examples from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s own letters). For his statement on enlarging the section in the *Mathal* into an independent work, and in the process correcting errors he had made, see *al-Washy al-marqūm*, 47-48. Conversely, the *Mathal* contains two explicit references to the *Washy* (*al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 1: 161, 2: 36), indicating that he may have continued updating the *Mathal* later on in life or that he wrote the two concurrently.

⁵¹³ This is roughly half of the first volume of the common printed edition, *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 1: 210-414.

⁵¹⁴ Stewart, “*Saj‘* in the Qur’ān,” 113-39.

⁵¹⁵ One should differentiate here Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s idea of *ma‘ānī* vis-à-vis al-Khafājī’s: for the latter, the realm of *ma‘ānī* was purely logical and had no place in it for language (*Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, 225-26), such that metaphor, for instance, was not treated under *ma‘ānī* but rather under *al-alfāz al-mu‘allafa*.

⁵¹⁶ In both sections we find a reference to his *al-Washy al-marqūm* (*al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 1: 161, 2: 36).

lead of Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn distinguishes between two kinds of motifs, namely, those that are not modeled upon previous motifs and those that are.⁵¹⁷ Within the former, motifs can be invented in two ways. The first is creating a motif based on a new, real-life occurrence; it is an imitation (*hikāya*) of what is present before one’s eyes. It is on the basis of this passage that Sallām wonders about the influence of the Greek notion of *muḥākāt* ‘mimesis’ on Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s thought, despite the latter’s explicit eschewal of Greek rhetoric and poetics.⁵¹⁸ The second way of inventing motifs is presented as a much harder method, as it is in essence a creation of images *ex nihilo*.⁵¹⁹ What ensues is a listing of poetic examples that contain supposedly truly invented images (Ar. *ibdā’*, *mubtada’*, *mukhtara’*). And yet when he moves on to adduce prose examples – all of which coming from his own oeuvre – many of the invented images are presented as an extraction (*istinbāt*, *istikhrāj*) from earlier motifs, found primarily in *ḥadīth*.⁵²⁰ It is here where the discussion becomes indistinguishable from the notion of prosification (*ḥall*). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn equates the invention of motifs with the process of finding the unknown in algebraic equations; under the section on turning verse into prose, he presents it as analogous to an elixir in alchemy, in which a new metal is extracted.⁵²¹ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn revisits some of these issues under the long

⁵¹⁷ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 7ff. and 2: 58 ff., respectively. See also Heinrichs, *Arabische Dichtung*, 90-94. The discussion is based on the very short account in al-‘Askarī, *al-Ṣinā’atayn*, 75.13-17.

⁵¹⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 7-20, 141; Sallām, *Ibn al-Athīr wa-juhūdūhu fī l-naqd*, 250-51.

⁵¹⁹ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 20-58. It is noteworthy that the context in which Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn revisits this issue is *tashbīh* (ibid. 2: 141-42), especially when we consider that mimesis was often translated as the hendiadys *tashbīh wa-muḥākāt* (cf. Ibn Rashīq, *al-‘Umda* 2: 294, and our discussion of *tashbīh* below). See also the arguable identity between the *kutub al-mā’ānī* (catalogues of images, like that of Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī) and *kutub al-tashbīhāt* (Beatrice Gruendler, “Motif vs. Genre: Reflections on the *Diwān al-Mā’ānī* of Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī,” in Thomas Bauer and Angelika Neuwirth [eds.], *Ghazal as World Literature I: Transformations of a Literary Genre*, Beirut: Ergon Verlag Würzburg in Kommission, 2005, 57-85, here: 60).

⁵²⁰ Ibid. 2: 32-58. While he is trying to create a model for the aspiring state scribe in creating new images, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn also maintains that this skill is divinely inspired (*ḥayḍ ilāhī*) and cannot be taught (2: 55).

⁵²¹ Ibid. 1: 161.

chapter on poetic borrowings.⁵²²

Unacknowledged Engagement with ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī

Some of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s unique stances stem from his engagement with scholarly works that were not commonly used in literary theory up until his time, namely Ibn Jinnī’s (d. 392/1002)

Khaṣā’iṣ, al-Zamakhsharī’s (d. 538/1144) *Kashshāf*, and ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081) *Dalā’il al-i’jāz*. It is Ibn Jinnī’s deliberations about *majāz* that inspired Ḍiyā’ al-

Dīn’s own theory on the matter in his later-written *Mathal* (one could say he employed *istikhrāj* here!); this will be discussed below (§5.1).⁵²³ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn also appropriated Ibn Jinnī’s

discussions on *shajā’at al-‘arabiyya* lit. ‘the boldness (or courage) of the Arabic language’, a reference to certain ‘irregular’ syntactic phenomena that are inherent in the language (some of

which figured into the early grammatical-hermeneutical discussions of *majāz* in Abū ‘Ubayda’s [d. 209/824] *Majāz al-Qur’ān*).⁵²⁴ Al-Zamakhsharī’s discussions on change in grammatical

person (*iltifāt* lit. ‘turning the face to [s.t. /s.o.]’) inspired Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s own take on the matter.⁵²⁵ Both scholars are mentioned by name.

⁵²² Ibid. 3: 218-92 (*al-sariqāt al-shi’riyya*).

⁵²³ Al-Rāzī also engaged with Ibn Jinnī’s view on *majāz*; *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 468-71.

⁵²⁴ Ibn Jinnī, *al-Khaṣā’iṣ* 2: 360-441; *al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr*, 98-122; *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 170-91 (where the *shajā’at al-‘arabiyya* is restricted to the phenomenon of *iltifāt*, here: ‘change in grammatical person/tense’). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn refers to the *Khaṣā’iṣ* by name. According to 19th-century Buṭrus al-Bustānī, *shajā’at al-‘arabiyya* was a reference to elision (*ḥadhf*), according to some of the rhetoricians (Ar. *ahl al-bayān*); *Kitāb Muḥīṭ al-muḥīṭ ay qāmūs muṭawwal li-l-lughā al-‘arabiyya*, Beirut: [s.n.], 1867-1870, 1055. For some of the overlap with Abū ‘Ubayda’s categories, see those enumerated in John Wansbrough, “*Majāz al-Qur’ān*: Periphrastic Exegesis,” *Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies* 2 (1970), 247-66, here: 248-54. For another discussion stemming from Ibn Jinnī, this time without acknowledgement, see *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 67-69 (and editors’ footnotes). Ibn Jinnī himself states (*al-Khaṣā’iṣ* 2: 446) that many instances of *majāz* are part of the phenomenon of *shajā’at al-lughā*, such as elision, pleonasm, change in word order, change in grammatical gender or number (*al-ḥaml ‘alā l-mā’nā*) and morphological irregularities (*tahrīf*). In Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work *shajā’at al-‘arabiyya* is restricted to syntactic irregularities.

⁵²⁵ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 171-73. For a comprehensive study of literary devices in the *Mathal* (and to a lesser extent the *Jāmi’*) that are indebted to al-Zamakhsharī see Abū Mūsā, *al-Balāgha al-Qur’āniyya fī tafṣīr al-Zamakhsharī*, 539-87, 653-60.

Unnamed is ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī, some of whose passages are quoted without acknowledgement. Whether Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn had direct access to his work is unclear, but evidence suggests that he did. The near-quotations are from *Dalā’ il al-i jāz*, but influences from *Asrār al-balāgha* are also discernible (the latter will be discussed in §5.1).⁵²⁶ The passages in question concern the underlying argument made in the *Dalā’ il*, namely that eloquence does not stem from a single word in isolation but rather from the position of that word within a construction (*naẓm/tartīb* per al-Jurjānī, *tarkīb* per Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn).⁵²⁷ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn adopts this particular point but there is no discernible trace of al-Jurjānī’s resulting elaboration on the “imports of syntax” (*ma ‘ānī al-naḥw*), which forms the heart of al-Jurjānī’s *Dalā’ il*.⁵²⁸ Also, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn derives only a partial notion of al-Jurjānī’s *naẓm*. Like al-Jurjānī, he adduces the Qur’ānic verse “And it was said, *O earth, swallow your water, and O sky, abate (your rain)*; and the water was made⁵²⁹ to subside, the affair was accomplished, and [the ark] settled on [mount] al-Jūdī; and it was said,

⁵²⁶ Bonebakker points out that the *Asrār* and *Dalā’ il* “were inaccessible to some scholars even in the Middle Ages” (Bonebakker, “al-Ḳazwīnī”): perhaps the accessibility to al-Jurjānī’s work was not so partial at this stage in this place (see also the work of Ibn al-Zamlakānī in §4.2). It is of note that the principal manuscript used by Hellmut Ritter in his edition of the *Asrār* was a copy completed in Jumādā II 660/May 1262 in Jabal al-Ṣālihiyya near Damascus (see *Asrār*, editor’s introduction, 25). Although this is some time after Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s death in 637/1239, it is an indication that it was known in the Arabic East before al-Qazwīnī. Nevertheless, al-Jurjānī’s works were definitely not widely known in this time and place.

⁵²⁷ *Dalā’ il*, 43-48 (esp. 45-47, though the discussion runs until p. 65); *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 211-18 (esp. 211, 214); *al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr*, 64-67 (where al-Jurjānī’s claims are taken at face value). Al-Jurjānī is reacting to claims made, *inter alia*, by al-Jāhīz.

⁵²⁸ Al-Jurjānī states (*Dalā’ il*, 100) that discussions on *naẓm* (earlier also referred to as *tartīb* and again later: *ibid.*, 359 ff.) must precede discussions on metaphor (see also *ibid.*, 393). As an example, he shows how the beauty of the famous Qur’ānic *wa-shṭa ‘ala l-ra’su shayban* (Q 19:4) “[my] head is aflame with hoariness” has in fact to do with syntactic matters: predicating “aflame” of “head” rather than “hoariness” directly (similarly Q 54:12 *wa-fajjarnā l-arḍa ‘uyūnan* “we made the earth gush forth springs”; *Dalā’ il*, 102); or expressing the meaning of a possession when no syntactic possessive (*iḍāfa*) is uttered (“the head” instead of “my head”; *ibid.*, 102). The grammatical underpinnings of al-Jurjānī’s theory of imagery deserve a separate study. Heinrichs translates *ma ‘ānī al-naḥw* as “the meanings of syntactic relations” (“‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature* 1: 17; see also Abu Deeb, *Al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 43, 62).

⁵²⁹ I am deliberately translating this in the passive, rather than the usual translation “and the water subsided,” because al-Jurjānī explicitly refers to the passive construction of this and the following verb, as well as to other syntactic features (*Dalā’ il*, 45-46; e.g., the added possessive pronoun *ki* to *ma’aki*, instead of *ibla’ī l-mā’*, or the repetition of *qīla* at the end of the verse). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not repeat any of these details.

Away with the unjust people,” in a paragraph that is almost identical to the one found in the *Dalā`il*. Then Ḍiyā` al-Dīn repeats almost verbatim the idea that one word may be beautiful in one context but ugly in another (the phrase *ayyuhā l-muta`ammil* is sometimes a giveaway for al-Jurjānī’s style).⁵³⁰ But the examples that Ḍiyā` al-Dīn adduces are fundamentally different from the ones al-Jurjānī adduced, showing that he did not quite subscribe to the latter’s theory on the irrelevance of the single word in evaluating eloquence. The examples that al-Jurjānī brings forth involve an independent lexeme, always a noun. The examples reflect a classicizing approach on the part of al-Jurjānī, as the first involves the word *al-akhda`* ‘neck vein’, said to be beautiful in a verse from the *Ḥamāsa* and in a verse by al-Buḥturī (a classicizing poet) but ugly in the verse of Abū Tammām, and in the second example, it is al-Mutanabbī’s use of the word *shay`* that is criticized vis-à-vis beautiful usages in early poetry.⁵³¹ Ḍiyā` al-Dīn would hardly endorse these examples. The ones that he gives, however, do not involve independent nouns but rather dependent constituents, like a verb requiring a prepositional complement, or a prepositional phrase. Thus, the fault is explicitly said to lie in the *tarkīb* (like using a verb without its prepositional complement), missing the whole point al-Jurjānī was trying to make regarding the single word. It is ironic that at this point Ḍiyā` al-Dīn boasts of his thinking and speculation in this subtle matter, “to which no other scholar before him attended.”⁵³² (In their ‘reponses’, Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd and al-Ṣafadī are silent on this matter.)

As it turns out, in the *Mathal* Ḍiyā` al-Dīn holds the exact view that al-Jurjānī was trying

⁵³⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā`ir* 1: 214; *Dalā`il*, 45 (for both paragraphs). The editors of the *Mathal* point to this passage of the *Dalā`il* in their footnotes.

⁵³¹ *Dalā`il*, 46-48. In the earlier-written *Jāmi`* Ḍiyā` al-Dīn had no problem adducing the first example (*al-Jāmi` al-kabīr*, 66-67).

⁵³² *Al-Mathal al-sā`ir* 1: 214-18, and 215 for the boasting (to which the editors respond, fn. 3, with an accusatory tone).

to refute, namely, that words can be beautiful in and of themselves and have not to do with their meaning. (He still agrees with al-Jurjānī regarding the importance of *tarkīb* in evaluating beautiful style.)⁵³³ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn claims that since words are made up of sounds, they either sound beautiful or they do not, just as the ear finds the tune of a string instrument beautiful and the sound of a donkey bray disagreeable, and just as the mouth finds the taste of honey sweet and that of the colocynth (*ḥanḏal*) bitter.⁵³⁴ Thus, it is not that one person would find a certain word ugly and another would find the very same word beautiful: the beauty of words is not a relational property (*iḏāfi*) but rather an inherent one (*dhawawī*, see the comparison to honey/colocynth, which all people find sweet/bitter).⁵³⁵ This is the opposite stance from the position he held in the *Jāmi'*, where the notion of acoustic eloquence (*faṣāḥa*) was said to be relational (see §1.1, p. 39).⁵³⁶ In the *Mathal* Ḍiyā' al-Dīn holds the view that the single evaluator of the beauty of a word is the sense of hearing.⁵³⁷ In contrast, the entire project of the *Dalā'il* was to refute the idea that a word has a certain beauty: the beauty, rather, lies in its meaning (and its relation to the other constituents in the sentence). At one point al-Jurjānī added the stipulation, “unless you mean the composition of tunes, but that is not what we are dealing with at all” (see below).⁵³⁸ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's discussion, so it turns out, revolves precisely around the tune-like quality of single words, a topic that was irrelevant for al-Jurjānī. We might recall that in the *Jāmi'* Ḍiyā' al-Dīn gave a direct quotation from “one of the authors among the scholars” (*ba'd al-muṣannifīn min al-*

⁵³³ Stated generally in *ibid.* 1: 116.

⁵³⁴ *Ibid.*, 219, 221.

⁵³⁵ *Ibid.*, 222.

⁵³⁶ *Al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 77.

⁵³⁷ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 224.

⁵³⁸ *Dalā'il*, 395.

‘*ulamā*’), claiming that in studying the meaning of eloquence one cannot remain on the level of general claims but must delve into the details and exert contemplation, reflection and speculation.⁵³⁹ It was here that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn spoke of the relational nature of eloquence. The fact that this view was abandoned in the *Mathal* shows us that it was not due to his obliviousness to al-Jurjānī’s ideas, but rather due to a conscious departure from his stance. As proof for his claims, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn provides three synonymous words, two of which are beautiful and one of which is not. The fact that all three indicate the intended meaning equally, he says, shows that eloquence goes back to the *lafẓ* rather than the *ma‘nā*.⁵⁴⁰

It is in this context that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn then makes the comparison between the rational basis of eloquence (or ‘*ilm al-bayān*) and the non-rational basis of grammar (or the science of grammar, see §1.1).⁵⁴¹ There can be little doubt that this claim, too, has its origin in al-Jurjānī’s *Dalā’il*. We might recall that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn argues that the categories of grammar (*aqsām al-naḥw*, referring specifically to case endings) were derived from the coiner of the language by imitation (or tradition, *taqlīd*), such that reason (‘*aql*) would not reject it if the subject of a verb-initial sentence were assigned the accusative and the object were assigned the nominative. Compare this to al-Jurjānī’s,

[...] *al-‘ilm[u] bi-l-i‘rābi mushtarakun bayna l-‘arabi kullihim wa-laysa huwa mimmā yustanbaṭu bi-l-fikri wa-yusta‘ānu ‘alayhi bi-rāwīyyati fa-laysa aḥaduhum bi-anna i‘rāba l-fā‘ili l-raḥ‘u awi l-ma‘f‘ūli l-naṣbu wa-l-muḍāfi ilayhi l-jarru bi-‘alāma min ghayrihi wa-lā dhāka mimmā yaḥtājūna fīhi ilā ḥiddati dhihnin wa-quwwati khāṭirin*

⁵³⁹ *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 76-77.

⁵⁴⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 1: 115 (acknowledged also in *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 64-65); cf. *Dalā’il*, 43-44, where excellence is attributed, rather, to the *ma‘nā*.

⁵⁴¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 1: 119-20.

The knowledge of case endings is common to all Arabs and it is not something that is derived by contemplation or aided by reflection, for not one of them [the Arabs] is more knowledgeable than the other with respect to the fact that the case ending of the subject (in a verb-initial sentence) is nominative, or that of the object is accusative, and that of the second term of the construct is genitive: that is not something in which one needs a sharp intellect and an apt mind.⁵⁴²

Then Ḍiyā' al-Dīn goes on to say that this is not the case with the knowledge of eloquence (or the disciplinary *'ilm al-bayān*),

li-annahu -stunbiṭa bi-l-naẓari wa-qaḍiyyati l-'aqli min ghayri wāḍi'i l-lughati wa-lam yuṭtaqar fīhi ilā l-tawqīfi minhu bal ukhidhat alfāẓun wa-ma'ānin 'alā hay'atin makḥṣūṣatin wa-ḥakama lahā l-'aqlu bi-maziyyatin mina l-ḥusni lā yushārikuhā fīhā ghayruhā fa-inna kulla 'ārifin bi-asrāri l-kalāmi min ayyi lughatin kānat mina l-lughāti ya'lamu anna ikhrāja l-ma'ānī fī alfāẓin ḥasanatin rā'iqatin yaladhduhā l-sam'u wa-lā yanbū 'anhā l-ṭab'u khayrun min ikhrājihā fī alfāẓin qabīḥatin mustakrahatin yanbū 'anhā l-sam'u [...]

because [eloquence/*'ilm al-bayān*] was derived by speculation and the judgment of reason without [any influence from] the coiner of the language, and there is no need in this [process/*'ilm*] for him (the coiner) to provide input. Rather, words and meanings were combined (? , *ukhidhat*) according to a particular form, and reason judged it to have an excellence in beauty which is not shared by any other (form). For every person knowledgeable in the mysteries of speech, no matter the language it is in, knows that uttering notions in beautiful clear words, which the ear finds delight in and natural disposition does not move away from, is better than uttering it in ugly loathed words, which the ear finds repugnant [...]⁵⁴³

Compare this to al-Jurjānī's passage preceding the one just quoted,

⁵⁴² *Dalā'il*, 395. Al-Jurjānī goes on to say that what *does* require intellect is to identify the reason (“that which necessitates,” *mā yūjibu, al-waṣf al-mūjib*) for placing a constituent (*shay'*) in the *fā'il* position when it is done figuratively, alluding here to the notion of *majāz ḥukmī* discussed in *Dalā'il*, 293 (a notion not found in the work of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn). The passage above is also translated and discussed in Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 208 (citing also *Dalā'il*, 98). Harb's point is that in al-Jurjānī's mind, eloquence is only truly achieved if there is some kind of reflection and thought on the part of the listener.

⁵⁴³ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 120.

*thumma innā na‘lamu anna l-maziyyata l-maṭlūbata fī hādhā l-bābi maziyyatun fīmā
 tarīquhu l-fikru wa-l-naẓaru min ḡhayri shubhatin wa-muḥālun an yakūna l-lafẓu lahu
 ṣifātun tustanbaṭu bi-l-fikri wa-yusta‘ānu ‘alayhā bi-l-rawiyyati -llāhumma illā an turīda
 ta’līfa l-naghāmi wa-laysa dhālika mimmā naḥnu fīhi bi-sabīlin*

Then we know that the desired excellence in this domain is an excellence in [a matter] that is grasped through contemplation and speculation without a doubt, and it is impossible for a word to have a property that can be derived by speculation or be [determined] with the aid of reflection, unless you mean the composition of a tune, but that is not what we are dealing with at all.⁵⁴⁴

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn takes al-Jurjānī’s idea that in order to evaluate eloquence one must exert speculation, and he takes his idea that knowledge of case endings has not to do with speculation. He also agrees with al-Jurjānī that speculation does not determine the eloquence of single words, but whereas Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn concludes that the knowledge of single-word eloquence is intuitive and universal akin to the perception of beautiful tunes, for al-Jurjānī the single word is simply irrelevant.⁵⁴⁵

Al-Jurjānī’s idea of eloquence finds its way to Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s epitome of the *Asrār* and *Dalā’il*, but the latter’s discussion is much more technical, with the use of such notions as *dalāla waḍ’iyya/lafẓiyya* ‘signification derived from [the sound of] a word coined in the lexicon’.⁵⁴⁶ It is clear that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn did not derive his passages from al-Rāzī but rather directly from the *Dalā’il* (or a source quoting the *Dalā’il*). This is significant for several reasons. First, it shows us that while al-Jurjānī’s work is usually thought to be inaccessible to medieval

⁵⁴⁴ *Dalā’il*, 395.

⁵⁴⁵ We should mention that the discussion in the *Mathal* appears in two places, (a) in one of the chapters of the long *muqaddima* titled *fī l-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha (al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 112), and (b) in the opening of the section on *al-ṣinā’a al-lafẓiyya*, when discussing the euphonic character of the single word (ibid., 1: 210).

⁵⁴⁶ *Nihāya*, 87-117. The chapter that follows (ibid., 117-46) is on cases where eloquence is precisely due to the single word!

scholars,⁵⁴⁷ this is probably less true in the case of the *Dalā'il*. Second, and more importantly, it shows us that it was probably al-Jurjānī more than anyone else who inspired Ḍiyā' al-Dīn to delineate his field in rational terms, and it was probably al-Jurjānī who prompted him to use the phrase *'ilm al-bayān* as the heading for the discipline he was writing in (although al-Jurjānī used the term non-technically). And yet, the project that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn produced was markedly different from that of al-Jurjānī. This goes against the common narrative one finds in the history of Arabic literary theory, namely, that whoever came across al-Jurjānī's work was swept away by his ideas. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn engaged with the periphery of al-Jurjānī's theory ("where does eloquence lie"), first subscribing to it in his early *Jāmi'* (acknowledging the difficulty of determining eloquence based on the single word since it is a relational notion), and then rejecting it in the *Mathal* (in favor of the importance of sound in determining eloquence). As we shall see in our discussion of *majāz*, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn also engaged with some of al-Jurjānī's ideas found in the *Asrār*, but these did not constitute the heart of al-Jurjānī's theories, and the two scholars arrive at very different conclusions regarding the nature of *majāz*.

The differences between al-Jurjānī's views and the views of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn probably have to do with the fact that they approach a similar set of questions from different perspectives. In the passages we discuss above al-Jurjānī is primarily concerned with the way in which eloquence is achieved.⁵⁴⁸ What matters to him is the listener's appreciation of literary speech, and he seeks to understand how (literary) language is processed. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is thinking of eloquence as a science. What matters to him is the critic's evaluation of literary speech, and he seeks to define how literary language can be produced.

⁵⁴⁷ Bonebakker, "al-Ḳazwīnī." As we shall see in §4.2, Ibn al-Zamlakānī is another scholar from the central Arabic-speaking lands who had direct access to al-Jurjānī's *Dalā'il*.

⁵⁴⁸ Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 208.

4.2. Ibn al-Zamlakānī (d. 651/1253), *al-Tibyān*, *al-Burhān* and *al-Mujīd*

Kamāl al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Wāhid b. ‘Abd al-Karīm b. Khalaf al-Zamlakānī, also known as Ibn Khaṭīb Zamalkā, was a Syrian Shāfi‘ī scholar from Zamalkā (or Zamlukā; originally Zamalukā), in the agricultural plain of the Ghūṭa outside Damascus. The little we know of his life and work is associated solely with Syria, where he worked as a judge in Salkhad (Ṣarkhad, southern modern-day Syria), taught at a *madrasa* in Baalbek (modern-day Lebanon) and died in Damascus. He is portrayed in the biographies as having expertise in *al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān*, that is, the standard rhetorical tradition, but is mainly known as the grandfather of the influential Shāfi‘ī scholar and religious leader in Syria, Kamāl al-Dīn Ibn al-Zamlakānī (d. 727/1327). Our Ibn al-Zamlakānī also wrote poetry, a snippet of which has survived.⁵⁴⁹ Most of his works concern the style of the Qur’ān, first and foremost from a grammatical or functional-grammatical point of view, but he also wrote on pure grammar (a commentary on al-Zamakhsharī’s *Mufaṣṣal*) and on creedal and legal issues.⁵⁵⁰

⁵⁴⁹ On ‘Abd al-Wāhid Ibn al-Zamlakānī see Brockelmann, *GAL* Suppl. 1: 736 (also *GAL*, 1st ed., 1: 415); Kaḥḥāla, *Mu‘jam al-mu‘allifīn* 6: 209; Tāj al-Dīn al-Subkī, *Ṭabaqāt al-shāfi‘īyya al-kubrā*, eds. ‘Abd al-Fattāh Muḥammad al-Ḥilw and Maḥmūd Muḥammad al-Ṭanāḥī, 10 vols., [Cairo]: ‘Īsā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, [1964-1976], 8: 316 (*wa-kānat lahu ma‘rifā tāmma bi-l-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān*). The few extant samples of Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s poetry can be found in Ibn al-Zamlakānī, *al-Tibyān fī ‘ilm al-bayān al-muṭli‘ ‘alā i‘jāz al-Qur’ān*, eds. Aḥmad Maṭlūb and Khadija al-Ḥadīthī, Baghdad: Maktabat al-‘Ānī, 1964, editors’ introduction, 10-11 (English: ‘The Clarification on the Science of Clear Speech, Demonstrating the Qur’ān’s Inimitability’). On the grandson Kamāl al-Dīn Ibn al-Zamlakānī, and his complex attitude toward Ibn Taymiyya, see Sherman A. Jackson, ‘Ibn Taymiyyah on Trial in Damascus,’ *Journal of Semitic Studies* 39.1 (1994), 41-85, here: 48. This Ibn al-Zamlakānī was a contemporary of the fellow Damascene and religious leader Jalāl al-Dīn al-Qazwīnī, and it is likely that the two were acquainted (for instance, both were appointed chief judge in the same year, 724 AH – al-Qazwīnī chief Shāfi‘ī judge in Damascus and Ibn al-Zamlakānī chief judge of Aleppo – and both were congratulated by the poet Ibn Nubāta on the occasion. See Thomas Bauer, ‘Ibn Nubāta al-Miṣrī (686-768/1287-1366): Life and Works. Part I: The Life of Ibn Nubāta,’ *Mamluk Studies Review* 12.1 [2008], 1-35, here: 19).

⁵⁵⁰ An updated list of his nine known works can be found in Kamāl al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Wāhid b. ‘Abd al-Karīm al-Zamlakānī, *al-Burhān al-kāshif ‘an i‘jāz al-Qur’ān*, eds. Khadija al-Ḥadīthī and Aḥmad Maṭlūb, Baghdad: Maktabat al-‘Ānī, 1974, 18-24 (English: ‘The Proof, Uncovering the Qur’ān’s Inimitability’). The editor of the *Mujīd* contests the attribution of one of these works to Ibn al-Zamlakānī the grandfather. See Ibn Khaṭīb Zamlakānī Kamāl al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Wāhid b. ‘Abd al-Karīm b. Khalaf al-Anṣārī al-Zamlakānī, *al-Mujīd fī i‘jāz al-Qur’ān al-majīd*, ed. Sha‘bān Ṣalāh, Cairo: Dār al-Thaqāfa al-‘Arabiyya, 1989, 12 (English: ‘The Excellent [Account], On the Inimitability of the Noble Qur’ān’). The latter title is also known as *al-Mufīd* (‘the beneficial’) *fī i‘jāz al-Qur’ān al-majīd (al-Mujīd, 58; al-Tibyān, 12)*.

The three works by Ibn al-Zamlakānī under consideration here are those that merited him knowledge of *al-ma'ānī wa-l-bayān*, although no influence of al-Sakkākī (d. 626/1229), or even Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (d. 606/1209), is apparent.⁵⁵¹ Like Fakhr al-Dīn, Ibn al-Zamlakānī was a direct ‘redactor’ of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081) work, albeit unlike the former, Ibn al-Zamlakānī was solely aware of *Dalā'il al-i'jāz* (and not *Asrār al-balāgha*), commonly described as the more grammatical of al-Jurjānī’s two literary-theoretical works.

We do not know how Ibn al-Zamlakānī became acquainted with al-Jurjānī’s work, which remained little known in the central Arabic-speaking lands until the time of al-Qazwīnī. Ibn al-Zamlakānī probably knew al-Jurjānī in his capacity as a grammarian (see his commentary on al-Zamakhsharī’s *Mufaṣṣal*): it seems that both al-Zamakhsharī and al-Muṭarrizī (d. 610/1213), who wrote books on grammar, were aware of al-Jurjānī via this route as well.⁵⁵² Another explanation is that a teacher from the East brought along with him the knowledge of al-Jurjānī, given the influx of Iranian and Turkic scholars into the Arabic East as the Mongols were making inroads into the eastern Islamic lands.⁵⁵³ But if this were the case, it does not explain why a close reading of ‘Abd al-Qāhir’s work in the Arabic East remained an isolated occurrence (Ḍiyā' al-Dīn’s

⁵⁵¹ Maṭlūb and al-Ḥadīthī surmise (*wa-aghlab al-ḡann; al-Tibyān*, 16) the opposite, that he benefited from both al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya* and from al-Sakkākī’s *Miftāḥ* (without any further evidence). There is one reference to al-Rāzī in the *Tibyān* with regards to the latter’s definition of the noun (*al-Tibyān*, 51), but it is more likely that Ibn al-Zamlakānī found this in another of al-Rāzī’s works, especially since the contested point is alluded to in *Nihāya*, 158-59. As we shall see, the structures of both works differ (although both add a section on rhetorical figures) and Ibn al-Zamlakānī seems to be completely unaware of al-Rāzī’s conception of *majāz*. A single additional reference to al-Rāzī in Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s *Burhān*, on the etymology of the word *majāz*, is in fact taken from the former’s work on legal theory. See *al-Burhān*, 99 and al-Rāzī, *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 396.

⁵⁵² See fn. 437 on al-Muṭarrizī’s digest of several of al-Jurjānī’s grammar books. Ibn al-Zamlakānī must have been aware of al-Zamakhsharī’s *Kashshāf* as well, but as we have noted, the latter only mentions al-Jurjānī there once (fn. 452).

⁵⁵³ On the migration of eastern Ḥanafī scholars due to this reason (among others) see Madelung, “The Spread of Māturīdism and the Turks,” 141. Cf. Khaled El-Rouayheb’s contextualization of eleventh/seventeenth century intellectual history in the Ottoman Empire in his *Islamic Intellectual History in the Seventeenth Century: Scholarly Currents in the Ottoman Empire and the Maghreb*, New York, NY: Cambridge University Press, 2015, 13-59, 131-72. We have no knowledge of Ibn al-Zamlakānī himself traveling to the East nor do we know the identity of his teachers.

engagement with al-Jurjānī was far too implicit). What is more, we would expect Ibn al-Zamlakānī to give more frequent mentions of al-Jurjānī by name.⁵⁵⁴ The fact that he rarely does so also underscores that al-Jurjānī was minimally known in this time and place. Given al-Jurjānī’s primary affiliation as a grammarian (§3.2), the grammar route is the most likely line of influence. It must be noted, however, that knowledge of al-Jurjānī was definitely on the rise in the Arabic East: the principal manuscript used by Ritter for his edition of al-Jurjānī’s *Asrār al-balāgha* was completed near Damascus in 660/1262, that is, not long after Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s death.⁵⁵⁵

Of the three works by Ibn al-Zamlakānī, the best-known and apparently the first one written is *al-Tibyān fī ‘ilm al-bayān*. The book, which the author completed on the 20th of Ramaḍān 637/April 21, 1240, reached a wide circulation fairly quickly, as it was met with a ‘rebuttal’ by the Andalusian Abū al-Muṭarrif Ibn ‘Amīra (d. 658/1260) shortly thereafter (relatively speaking: less than twenty years).⁵⁵⁶ The *Tibyān* is dedicated to a Damascene vizier,

⁵⁵⁴ As we shall see, explicit reference to al-Jurjānī is minimal and two of Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s three works are entirely devoid of any mention of him. Compare this to al-Sakkākī, for instance, who often makes mention of *al-Imām ‘Abd al-Qāhir* (e.g., *Miftāḥ*, 371), and even more so Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī, who mentions *al-Shaykh al-Imām* on almost every page.

⁵⁵⁵ *Asrār*, editor’s introduction, 25. Shākir in his edition of the *Dalā’il* used a manuscript from mid-Rabī‘ al-Awwal 568/November 1172 as one of the two principal manuscripts; it was copied directly from a copy by ‘Abd al-Qāhir himself and contains the latter’s own marginal notes. This suggests that the copy was from the Eastern Islamic world. The other principal manuscript has no date or indication of place. Shākir also consulted the Riḍā edition, which is based on three manuscripts, but we have no information about their provenance. Al-Jurjānī’s epistle on the inimitability of the Qur’ān, *al-Risāla al-Shāfiya*, is part of the 1172 copy.

⁵⁵⁶ Muḥammad Ibn Sharīfa, who edited the ‘refutation’ of the *Tibyān*, relied on a manuscript of the *Tibyān* from the Escorial (MS Escorial 223, not used by Maṭlūb and al-Ḥadīthī), and the above is based on his description of the colophon. See Abū al-Muṭarrif Aḥmad b. ‘Amīra, *al-Tanbīhāt ‘alā mā fī l-Tibyān min al-tamwīhāt*, ed. Muḥammad Ibn Sharīfa, Casablanca: Maṭba‘at al-Najāḥ al-Jadīda, 1991 [apparently a reprint of the edition written in the sixties] 14, 16 (and see p. 15 fn. 50, where Ibn Sharīfa states that he wrote the introduction before the edition of the *Tibyān* appeared) (English: ‘Notifications On What the *Tibyān* Contains of Falsifications’). The earliest manuscript of the *Tibyān* that Maṭlūb and al-Ḥadīthī mention (though did not consult) is a Yale manuscript written in 641 AH (*al-Tibyān*, 20).

one Abū al-Ḥasan ‘Alī al-Amīn.⁵⁵⁷ The second work, *al-Burhān*, was completed in Dhū al-Ḥijja 645/April 1248 and appears to be an expansion of the *Tibyān*.⁵⁵⁸ The third work, *al-Mujīd*, is meant as an abridgement (*ikhtiṣār*) of the *Tibyān*, as explicitly stated by the author at the outset.⁵⁵⁹ The fact that Ibn al-Zamlakānī wrote both a ‘long commentary’ and a ‘short commentary’ on the *Tibyān* also points to the popularity that this work gained during his lifetime. Only the *Tibyān* refers to ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī by name and presents itself as a reworking of his work.⁵⁶⁰ Readers familiar solely with the *Burhān* or *Mujīd* would potentially be oblivious to any link with a former luminary in the field of literary-theoretical studies. In fact, within the *Tibyān* itself, apart from the preface, al-Jurjānī is only mentioned twice.⁵⁶¹

There are slight variations in the structure of the three works at hand, but the nucleus is the same: (i) prefatory remarks on the nature and definitions of ‘*ilm al-bayān*’; (ii) a section on studies at the level of single words (*al-dalālāt al-ifrādiyya* ‘single-word significations’), where a treatment of *majāz* can be found as well as properties of several words and parts of speech in different syntactic contexts (e.g., the function of a noun and verb as predicate, the functional meanings of lexemes such as *kull* ‘every; all’, *kāda* ‘to almost [do s.th]’, and *inna* ‘indeed’); and (iii) a section on the patterns of words in combination (*murā’āt aḥwāl al-ta’līf* ‘regarding the

⁵⁵⁷ *Al-Tibyān*, 32.

⁵⁵⁸ *Al-Burhān*, 318 (for the colophon), 325 (for another manuscript used). The author does not say that this is an expansion of the *Tibyān* – this is my own impression of the work, despite the fact that the structure differs at times. It is clear, though, that much of the contents of the *Tibyān* appear here with more details, and that other relevant chapters were added. In my mind, the section that was omitted – on rhetorical figures – does not impair the fact that the *Burhān* is a faithful extension of the *Tibyān*.

⁵⁵⁹ *Al-Mujīd*, 68.

⁵⁶⁰ *Al-Tibyān*, 30.

⁵⁶¹ *Ibid.*, 65, 126. The rest of the references cited on p. 216 are citations by the editors in the footnotes. This is not to say that Ibn al-Zamlakānī did not give him his fair due: in the preface he introduces him as *al-imām al-‘ālim al-ḥabr al-niḥrīr ‘alam al-muḥaqqiqīn ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī raḥimahu -llāh*.

states/patterns of putting [words] together’), where a treatment of mostly⁵⁶² grammatical, or functional grammatical topics can be found (e.g., change in word order, functions of the various categories of nominal sentences, the adjoining of sentences, and more).⁵⁶³ The *Tibyān* and the *Mujīd* also contain a section on rhetorical devices, conceived of as part of ‘ilm al-badī’ (termed *fī ma’rifat aḥwāl al-lafz wa-asmā’ aṣnāfihi fī ‘ilm al-badī* ‘“on knowing the states/patterns of the wording and the names of its categories within the science of the figures of speech”). In addition, there is an appendix (*lawāḥiq*) in the *Tibyān* that discusses the way in which the Qur’ān’s eloquence makes it inimitable (not repeated in the *Mujīd*).

While the *Burhān* (the ‘long commentary’ of the *Tibyān*) adds many subsections to the nuclear structure laid out above – as well as an entire section on the Qur’ān’s inimitability – it omits the listing of rhetorical figures.⁵⁶⁴ Several chapters have been added to the section on grammatical considerations (‘words in combination’), among which are a handful of rhetorical figures,⁵⁶⁵ but the most discernible expansion is of the section on single words. In addition to addressing a wider variety of lexical items and their functions, we also find a prolegomenon on basic notions of expression, such as the modes of signification (speech, writing, gesturing, etc.), the reference of signification (a notion in the mind or an entity in reality), and more.⁵⁶⁶

Furthermore, the section on *majāz* is now preceded by a treatment of metonymies (or *majāz*

⁵⁶² And yet, it contains some sections that have not quite to do with grammar, like the section on conceptual comparisons termed *tamthīl*, not to be confused with *tamthīl* in the sense of metaphorical analogy, treated under section ii. See *al-Tibyān*, 108-109.

⁵⁶³ Respectively: *al-Tibyān*, 30-33, 37-48, 89-162; *al-Burhān*, 44-50, 105-24, (roughly) 199-301. In *al-Mujīd* this nucleus constitutes the entire work excluding the section on rhetorical figures (157 ff.). We might recall that al-‘Alawī in his *Ṭirāz* reworked the section on *murā‘āt aḥwāl al-ta’līf* to fit *ta’līf* in the sense of literary composition (§2.3).

⁵⁶⁴ *Al-Burhān*, 53-76 (the section on *i’jāz al-Qur’ān*).

⁵⁶⁵ *Ibid.*, 310-15.

⁵⁶⁶ *Ibid.*, 83-88.

ifrādī ‘single-word *majāz*’) and is appended by a chapter on *tashbīh*.⁵⁶⁷ The influence of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī is perhaps more discernible in the *Burhān* than it is in the earlier *Tibyān*, even though this does not change Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s basic presentation of *majāz*, which differs from that of al-Rāzī. The few rhetorical figures discussed in the *Burhān* are now imbedded – much like we find in al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya* – within other sections of the work. Unlike the *Nihāya*, and departing from the *Tibyān*, the illustrations given for these figures are almost entirely Qur’ānic.⁵⁶⁸ This situates the *Burhān* more firmly within the tradition of Qur’ānic stylistics, although in truth, already the *Tibyān* reflects this tendency. As Ibn al-Zamlakānī states in the *Tibyān*, he limited the number of literary devices to twenty-six, since several have already been discussed under the first two sections (single words, words in combination).⁵⁶⁹ In this he implicitly acknowledges that some of his grammatical discussions (one might surmise: *ījāz*, *ḥadhf*) are treated as rhetorical devices by other scholars. It is thus less meaningful, to my mind, that the *Burhān* lacks a section devoted to rhetorical devices.

Since both al-Rāzī and Ibn al-Zamlakānī are direct ‘redactors’ or ‘commentators’ of al-Jurjānī, a glance at al-Rāzī’s structuring of the latter’s work is in order. Al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya* is also predicated on the distinction between studies concerning single words (*fī al-mufradāt*, in al-Rāzī’s terms) and those concerning words in construction (*fī al-naẓm* lit. ‘stringing of pearls’). This is an interesting point of similarity, as it is not an obvious choice in structuring al-Jurjānī’s work, and it could point to Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s familiarity with the *Nihāya*. Like the *Tibyān* and its follow-ups, grammatical topics are treated in the *Nihāya* within the section on *naẓm*, and

⁵⁶⁷ Ibid., 102-104, 125-32. In fact, the discussion of *tashbīh* is done within the context of *tamthīl*, which constitutes the entirety of *al-naw’ al-thālith* in *ibid.*, 120-32.

⁵⁶⁸ One exception is *al-Burhān*, 314, under *iltifāt* (change in grammatical person, or deictic shifting), where a three-line passage by Imru’ al-Qays is adduced.

⁵⁶⁹ *Al-Tibyān*, 166.

majāz and its categories are treated under the *mufradāt*, although they involve more than one word (a point which Ibn ‘Amīra criticized Ibn al-Zamlakānī for!).⁵⁷⁰ But within the *mufradāt*, al-Rāzī makes a distinction between signification on the level of form (*al-dalāla al-lafẓiyya*) and significations on the level of meaning (*al-dalālāt al-ma‘nawiyya*), and it is here that the approach of *Nihāya* and that of the *Tibyān* (and its follow-ups) differ most. Under the *dalāla lafẓiyya* we find phonetic and phonological discussions leading to the figures of speech concerned with sound (like paronomasia, rhyming prose members, anticipation of the rhyme word at the beginning of the line). (Other figures of speech are treated under *naẓm*.)⁵⁷¹ Under *dalālāt ma‘nawiyya* we find chapters on predication, verb complements, sentence types and definiteness, but more importantly, an extensive section on the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dyad, on *tashbīh* ‘comparison/simile’ and on *isti‘āra* ‘metaphor’ (the section on *kināya* ‘periphrasis’ is brief). By contrast, Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s treatment of *majāz* is relatively brief, incongruent with al-Jurjānī’s theory (the latter repeated by al-Rāzī), and impervious to the question of *tashbīh* (although a separate treatment of it is added in the *Burhān*).⁵⁷² Adding to the fact that Ibn al-Zamlakānī is unaware of al-Jurjānī’s *Asrār* (which was used by al-Rāzī), we can safely conclude that if he had any familiarity with the *Nihāya*, it was a vague one, and that any typological resemblance

⁵⁷⁰ *Al-Tanbīhāt*, 55. Ibn al-Zamlakānī should have started, Ibn ‘Amīra maintains, with metonymies (word not used) like ‘touching’ for ‘having intercourse’ etc. It is interesting that in the *Burhān*, this is exactly what Ibn al-Zamlakānī does (though probably not due to Ibn ‘Amīra). We will discuss below why *majāz* is treated under the ‘single word’.

⁵⁷¹ *Nihāya*, 113-46 (for considerations regarding the *dalāla lafẓiyya*, including figures of speech concerning sound); 283-97 (for figures of speech concerning sense, treated under *naẓm*). We are using the terms “concerning sound” and “concerning sense,” but al-Rāzī does not explicitly make this distinction. In fact, he does not even identify them as *badī‘*. At one point he uses the term *maḥāsīn* ‘beauties’ (ibid., 122, or *ḥusn* in 284); elsewhere he speaks of *wujūh* ~ ‘characteristics’ (ibid., 285) that cannot be set into a rule that can be memorized (*thumma laysa li-hādihā l-bābi qānūnun yuhfaẓu fa-innahu yajī‘u ‘alā wujūhin shattā wa-naḥnu nushīru hunā ilā ba‘ḍi l-wujūhi l-mu‘tabara*; ibid., 285).

⁵⁷² Ibn al-Zamlakānī does have a few comments on comparing two things to two other things, as a comment (*tanbīh*) following the discussion of the three *majāz* categories. He also discusses some questions of similarity as a side-note to *isti‘āra*.

between that and the work of Ibn al-Zamlakānī could be coincidental. It is plausible that after writing the *Tibyān*, he was further exposed to topics occurring in the *Nihāya*, but this did not change his basic outlook.

For Ibn al-Zamlakānī, *‘ilm al-bayān* refers primarily to al-Jurjānī’s idea of *tawakkhkhī ma ‘ānī al-naḥw fī al-tarkīb* lit. ‘aiming [one’s attention] at the semantic imports of syntax in a construction’, i.e. studying how divergent syntactic constructions convey different meanings. Lexicography and syntax (*‘ilmay al-lughā wa-l-i‘rāb*), he says, should be prerequisites.⁵⁷³ The term *‘ilm al-ma ‘ānī* does not occur. The definition of *‘ilm al-bayān* is later modified in the *Burhān* to include the study of *ma ‘ānī al-majāz* lit. ‘the meanings of [utterances which] go beyond [the straightforward expression]’, and probably here, ‘the forms of figurative speech’.⁵⁷⁴ An addition such as this to the definition of *‘ilm al-bayān* could be an expression of ‘standardist’ influences, although of course, the standard *‘ilm al-bayān* looks at topics beyond what is strictly viewed as *majāz* (to wit, *tashbīh* and *kināya*).

4.3. Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī (d. after 693/1294), *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*

Not much is known about Zayn al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr al-Rāzī, a Ḥanafī and Ṣūfī scholar originally from Rayy who worked in Egypt, Syria and Turkey. According to one account, the lacuna surrounding his life – he is absent from the biographical dictionaries up until the seventeenth century – has to do with his relative brief presence in the Arabic speaking lands and

⁵⁷³ *Al-Tibyān*, 32-33 (32.13-15 for *tawakkhkhī ma ‘ānī al-naḥw*). Repeated more succinctly in *al-Mujīd*, 68.

⁵⁷⁴ *Al-Burhān*, 44: “As for its [*‘ilm al-bayān*] essence [i.e., definition], it is a science in which the forms (*ma ‘ānī*) of figurative speech are known along with its various levels and the minding of the imports (*ma ‘ānī*) of syntax within a construction.” I suspect that the phrase *ma ‘ānī al-majāz* is used here to complement the phrase *ma ‘ānī al-naḥw*, but I do not think ‘meanings’ or ‘imports’ is an appropriate rendering of the former.

his ensuing move to Konya, where Turkish sources subsequently ignored him as well.⁵⁷⁵ But Zayn al-Dīn was famous in his lifetime, as he was a prolific writer and held several official positions (see below). Zayn al-Dīn wrote an abbreviation of al-Jawharī's famous dictionary *al-Ṣihāh* (or *al-Ṣaḥāh*), several exegetical works, both philologically and doctrinally oriented, collections on positive law (Ḥanafī) and prophetic sayings, a Ṣūfī commentary, two works on literary theory, a short catalogue of novel poetic images, and a commentary on al-Ḥarīrī's (d. 516/1122) *Maqāmāt*.⁵⁷⁶ Traditionally, his death year was set after 666/1276, but evidence from his literary-theoretical work suggests that he lived until the end of the seventh/thirteenth century (see below).

In light of his endeavors in lexicography, literary theory, poetic imagery and poetic (here:

⁵⁷⁵ This is according to Aḥmad Shu'la, the editor of *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*, based on the account of eighteenth-century Ibn al-Ghazzī (d. 1167/1753 or 1754) in his *Dīwān al-Islām*. See Zayn al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr al-Rāzī, *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*, ed. Aḥmad al-Nādī Shu'la, Cairo: Dār al-Ṭībā'a al-Muḥammadiyya, 1982, 20-21 (English: 'The Garden of Eloquence'). He is listed in a few medieval works, like al-Maqrīzī's *Khīṭaṭ* (Brockelmann, *GAL* Suppl. 1: 658). Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām sees him as part of the larger migration of scholars who fled the eastern Islamic world following the advancement of the Mongols. See Zayn al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr al-Rāzī, *Maghānī al-ma'ānī*, ed. Muḥammad Zaghlūl Sallām, Alexandria: Munsha'at al-Ma'ārif, [1987], 29-30 (English: 'The Abodes [or: Manifestations, per Salām] of Images'). According to seventeenth-century Kātip Çelebi, Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī completed his work *Gharīb al-Qur'ān* in 668/1269 (or 1270; *Kashf al-zunūn* 2: 1208), but elsewhere it is stated that he died after 660/1262 (1: 92; see also 1: 297 and 2: 1072-73, where no death year is given). For determining his death date see below. On Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī see also al-Ziriklī, *al-A'lām* 6: 279.

⁵⁷⁶ For a detailed list of eleven works, including *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*, see Brockelmann, *GAL* 1: 478 and Suppl. 1: 658-59; also al-Ziriklī, *al-A'lām* 6: 279; *Rawḍa*, 24-31; *Kashf al-zunūn* (citations in previous footnote); Zayn al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr b. 'Abd al-Qādir al-Rāzī al-Ḥanafī, *As'ilat al-Qur'ān al-majīd wa-ajwibatuhā*, ed. Ibrāhīm 'Aṭwa 'Iwaḍ, Qum: Muḥammad 'Alī al-Anṣārī, 1970 (originally Cairo: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1961), panj-shesh (al-Anṣārī's introduction), alif-bā' ('Iwaḍ's introduction) (English: 'Questions and Answers in the Noble Qur'ān'). In the preface to the *As'ila* – a more doctrinally-oriented work – Zayn al-Dīn refers the reader (p. 1) to his more 'philological' exegetical work, the one dedicated to *wujūh al-i'rāb* and *al-ma'ānī* (here in the general sense of "meanings" – as in the old-fashioned verse-by-verse lexical and syntactic interpretation). This is probably his *Gharīb al-Qur'ān* (*wa-rattaba tartīb al-Jawharī* [alphabetically according to last radical] *ḍamma fīhi shay'an min al-i'rāb wa-l-ma'ānī*; *Kashf al-zunūn* 2: 1208 [in Çelebi's words the *ma'ānī* sound more aligned with the standard 'ilm al-ma'ānī]). Shu'la consulted one manuscript of Zayn al-Dīn's commentary on the *Maqāmāt*; he says that it contains many lexical and literary-critical explanations, as well as references to his work "*Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa fī 'ilm al-bayān*" (*Rawḍa*, 29-30). *Maghānī al-ma'ānī* is the work on novel poetic images, and it is probably identical to what Brockelmann lists as *Mu'ānī al-ma'ānī* (*GAL* 1: 478). Sallām believes it is equivalent to *Kitāb fī al-abyāt allatī yutamaththalu bihā* ('On Verses that People Cite as Examples', manuscript form; *Rawḍa*, 18), but Zayn al-Dīn explicitly refers to verses that are used as quotations and those that are not (*Maghānī*, 37), so this is perhaps a different work.

maqāma) commentary, his interest in philological and poetic studies could not be overstated. His published work on literary theory, *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa* ('The Garden of Eloquence'), bears witness to his other literary-critical undertakings. First, Zayn al-Dīn refers to his now lost *Dawḥat al-balāgha* ('The Great Tree of Eloquence'), which is a study on what he views as the three most important figures of speech – *tashbīh*, *isti'āra*, and *tawriya* 'double entendre' – and their exemplifications in poetry and prose, ancient and modern, eastern and western. He adds that one of the leading poets in constructing beautiful metaphors, both in modern and ancient times, is the Andalusian Ibn Khafāja (d. 533/1138 or 1139), whose exemplar poetry abounds in the *Dawḥa*.⁵⁷⁷ Second, in the *Rawḍa* Zayn al-Dīn hints at his keen interest in the *maqāma*. Although he does not refer explicitly to his commentary on al-Ḥarīrī's *Maqāmāt* – perhaps it was written after the *Rawḍa* – the work is replete with an unusual number of illustrations from the *maqāma* genre, especially compared with other literary-theoretical works.⁵⁷⁸ Zayn al-Dīn also has a predilection for al-Qādī al-Arrajānī (d. 544/1149), whose poetry is the one most cited in his catalogue of

⁵⁷⁷ *Rawḍa*, 88-89, 113, and editor's introduction, 30-31. One wonders if the imagery of gardens and trees with relation to eloquence (*rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*, *dawḥat al-balāgha*) has anything to do with Ibn Khafāja's often nature-centered poetry (on which see Magda M. al-Nowaihi, *The Poetry of Ibn Khafāja: A Literary Analysis*, Studies in Arabic Literature, vol. 16, Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1993, 14 ff. [quoting also Bürgel]). Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī uses the imagery of food to relate to good speech (*adab* in his words); see below.

⁵⁷⁸ Shu'la's index only cites the first occurrence of each scholar/poet mentioned. For references to al-Ḥarīrī's *Maqāmāt* (sometimes also to the commentary by al-Muṭarrizī [d. 610/1213]) see *Rawḍa*, 83, 116, 132, 135, 150, 155-57, 160-61, 166-67, 173, 178-79, 183, 185-86, 188, 190, 192, 195-97, 201-203, 205-207, 209, 215, 217-18, 225-26, 229-30, 235, 242-43, 245, 256, 258-60, 264, 266, 270, 276, 279, 295-96, 298-302, 306, 310. In the last instance (incidentally, the last literary device discussed), al-Ḥarīrī is mentioned under the topic of *iḥtidhā*, a type of literary influence (the term *sariqāt* is not used) in which one follows the style of another without taking his wording or motifs: al-Ḥarīrī is given as an example of "writing (*wad'*) the *maqāmāt* due to [the influence of] Badī' al-Zamān al-Hamadhānī" (*Rawḍa*, 310). As expected, many of the illustrations from al-Ḥarīrī have to do with figures of wording (like *tajnīs*, *tasjī'*), but by no means are they limited to them. The unusual dominance of *shawāhid* taken from al-Ḥarīrī should probably be understood in the context of al-Muṭarrizī, who prefaced his commentary on al-Ḥarīrī's *Maqāmāt* with a prolegomenon on literary devices. Al-Muṭarrizī relies explicitly on 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī as he refers to him by name; al-Muṭarrizī, *Sharḥ*, f. 2r, 4r. In this sense it is also worthy to note that al-Zamakhsharī himself (another Easterner) wrote a *maqāma* collection, which according to Abū Mūsā was well-known (*al-Balāgha al-Qur'āniyya fī tafsīr al-Zamakhsharī*, 55. It differs from al-Ḥarīrī's model: see Jaakko Hämeen-Anttila, *Maqama: A History of a Genre*, Diskurse der Arabistik 5, Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 2002, 179 ff., but it does resemble the common *maqāma* model in its exhortatory character, on which see Ailin Qian, *The Maqāmah as Prosimetrum: A Comparative Investigation of its Origin, Form and Structure*, PhD Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 2012, 167-68).

exemplar images, far more than that of Abū Tammām or al-Mutanabbī, the common luminaries in poetic illustrations.⁵⁷⁹ According to Zayn al-Dīn, no other poet invented as many abstract comparisons (*tashbīhāt ‘aqliyya*) as did al-Qāḍī al-Arrajānī.⁵⁸⁰

The *Rawḍa* also offers some biographical information on Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī. First, he was a poet himself and a writer of epistles (*rasā’il*), samples of which are cited among the repertoire of *shawāhid* adduced (not unlike what we find with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr). All of his verses cited are in praise of rulers and high officials, and one of his prose samples describes a scene in a debate-*majlis*. The verses extol the sultan al-Malik al-Nāṣir (II Yūsuf b. al-‘Azīz, r. 634-58/1236-60 in Aleppo and 648-58/1250-60 in Damascus), the Aleppo vizier Mu’ayyad al-Dīn al-Shaybānī (d. 658/1260), and the sultan al-Malik Najm al-Dīn (Ghāzī II b. Qara Arslan, r. 693-712/1294-1312 in Mardin, southeast Turkey).⁵⁸¹ This suggests that Zayn al-Dīn held some

⁵⁷⁹ *Maghānī*, 121 (compare 122 for Abū Tammām, 123 for Ibn al-Rūmī [d. 283/896] and 127 for al-Mutanabbī).

⁵⁸⁰ *Rawḍa*, 71. Here, too, Zayn al-Dīn refers the reader to the *Dawḥa*, where illustrations of such comparisons can be found. Van Gelder noted Zayn al-Dīn’s unique choices of *shawāhid* in “A Good Cause: Fantastic Aetiology (*Ḥusn al-ta’līl*) in Arabic Poetics,” in Geert Jan van Gelder and Marlé Hammond (eds.), *Takhyīl: The Imaginary in Classical Arabic Poetics*, [Cambridge, U.K.]: Gibb Memorial Trust, 2008, 221-37, here: 230.

⁵⁸¹ Of the eighteen *shawāhid* of his own writing cited, the majority are poetic citations: six are in praise of al-Malik al-Nāṣir (*Rawḍa*, 73-74, 83, 137, 141, 290 – said to be recited in 650 AH, 292 – said to be recited in 645 AH), three are in praise of Mu’ayyad al-Dīn (ibid., 143, 202, 204), three are in praise of Najm al-Dīn (ibid., 77, 145-46 [prose], 237), one is in praise of either the Ayyūbid or the Artuqid ruler (ibid., 137 [*mawlānā al-sultān*]), and one is unattributed (ibid., 283 – the line is nevertheless *madh*). The epithet *mawlānā* precedes the mentioning of both sultans. They are mentioned both in all manuscripts used by Shu‘la; Mu’ayyad al-Dīn is only mentioned in the “Timūrid manuscript,” probably the earliest of the manuscripts as it lacks several sections on poetic forms appearing at the end of the work (ibid., 292 fn. 2). Information on reign dates can be found in Clifford Edmund Bosworth, *The New Islamic Dynasties*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1996, 70-71, 195. For “al-Wazīr al-Qifī” Mu’ayyad al-Dīn Ibrāhīm b. Yūsuf, vizier of Aleppo and brother of the historian Jamāl al-Dīn and also vizier see Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Aḥmad al-Dhahabī, *Tārīkh al-Islām wa-wafayāt al-mashāhīr al-a‘lām*, ed. ‘Umar ‘Abd al-Salām Tadmūrī, 52 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Kitāb al-‘Arabī, 1988, 48: 335-36; al-Ṣafādī, *al-Wāfi bi-l-wafayāt*, 6 (ed. S. Dederig, 1972): 172, 30 (eds. Benjamin Jokisch and Muḥammad al-Ḥujayrī, 2004): 38. For the prose segments of his own writing that Zayn al-Dīn adduces see *Rawḍa*, 102, 123, 146 (a description of one Badr al-Dīn in the *majlis munāzara*), 147, 153. Dating the authorship of the *Rawḍa* is not straightforward. Since all references to the patrons indicate that they were in still rule (with phrases such as *khallada Allāh dawlatahu*, *a‘azza Allāh anṣārah*, etc.), one concludes that he wrote the work while in Aleppo and later updated it in Mardin, where he supposedly dedicated it to the Artuqid sultan Najm al-Dīn (this dedication according to the catalogue in Dār al-Kutub, *Rawḍa*, 18, 34). In one manuscript of the work (*Rawḍa*, 312) the copy date of Sunday, 5 Ramadan 634 is given (corresponding to May 9, 1237), that is, early in al-Malik al-Nāṣir’s rule. (It should be noted that the 5th of Ramadan 634 actually occurred on a Saturday.)

sort of official position in the Ayyūbid court in Aleppo and later in the Artuqid court in Mardin, or he at least enjoyed their patronage. It also suggests that he died after 693/1294, when Ghāzī II came into power, i.e., later than the commonly held date of 666/1276.⁵⁸²

The fact that Zayn al-Dīn was a poet himself may explain his emphatically ‘poetic’ outlook in his small work (*mukhtaṣar*) under discussion, *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*, one that lacks the Qur’ānic perspective that we find in other works on ‘ilm al-bayān.⁵⁸³ For Zayn al-Dīn, ‘ilm al-bayān is situated among the disciplines within ‘ilm al-adab or *funūn al-adab* (here: the Arabic sciences) and is seen as the most important of these. Several laudatory comments on ‘ilm al-bayān are taken verbatim (probably indirectly) from ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s *Dalā’il*, in a section where the latter praises ‘the knowledge of clear speech/eloquence’ (‘ilm al-bayān). Parts of this section find their way into the work of Ibn al-Zamlakānī and Ibn al-Naqīb.⁵⁸⁴ Although Zayn al-Dīn admits that one (or some) contemporary scholar refers to the discipline as *ṣinā’at al-badī’* ‘the craft of rhetorical devices’, he usually refers to the practitioners of the science as ‘ulamā’ ‘ilm al-bayān and to the science itself as ‘ilm al-bayān, sometimes interchanging it with *funūn al-balāgha* or *ṣanā’i’ al-badī’*.⁵⁸⁵ The work reads like a usual listing of literary devices,

⁵⁸² For the common dates see Shu‘la, *Rawḍa*, 23; al-Ziriklī, *al-A‘lām* 6: 279; van Gelder, “A Good Cause,” 230. Sallām prefers the death year 696 AH, without explanation (*Maghānī*, 30). Kâtip Çelebi states that he died after 660/1262 (*Kashf al-zunūn* 1: 92) and yet his *Gharīb al-Qur’ān* is said to have been completed in 668/1269 (or 1270; *ibid.* 2: 1208). According to the catalogue in Dār al-Kutub (*Rawḍa*, 18 fn. 2, 34), Zayn al-Dīn wrote the *Rawḍa* in the name of the sultan Najm al-Dīn b. Qara Arslan Ghāzī II. According to Shu‘la and others, the title ‘sultan’ was also given to members of Ottoman ruling families, so Ghāzī II was not ruler yet when Zayn al-Dīn dedicated his verse to him (*Rawḍa*, 22). The death date I settle on, after 693/1294, is close to Sallām’s unreferenced death year, which I suspect is correct (and wish he explained).

⁵⁸³ Though he does, of course, pay homage to the knowledge of the inimitability of the Qur’ān via ‘ilm al-bayān; *Rawḍa*, 55. For his self-description of the work as a *mukhtaṣar* see 55.2°, 231.

⁵⁸⁴ *Rawḍa*, 55 (*laysa [...] fann arsakh aṣlan wa-absaq far’an wa-aḥlā janān wa-a’ḥab wurdan [...]*); *Dalā’il*, 5-6; *al-Tibyān*, 32; al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 72-73; and see section on Ibn al-Naqīb below.

⁵⁸⁵ *Rawḍa*, 54 ([...] ‘ilm al-bayān alladhī yusammīhi ba‘ḍ al-muta’akhhirīn ṣinā’at al-badī’), 63 (*funūn al-balāgha*), 89 (*funūn ‘ilm al-bayān wa-ṣinā’at al-badī’*), 109 (‘ulamā’ al-bayān), 118 (‘ilm al-bayān, quoting al-Zamakhsharī), 119 (*ṣanā’i’ al-badī’*), 193 (*funūn ‘ilm al-bayān*), 211 (‘ulamā’ al-bayān), 221 (‘ulamā’ al-bayān), 231 (*kutub ‘ilm al-bayān*), 254 (‘ulamā’ ‘ilm al-bayān).

and it is implicitly directed at the beginner poet or secretary as most devices are prefaced with the formulaic “that the poet or secretary do [such and such].”

Some sections in the *Rawḍa* deal exclusively with poetry, such as poetic forms that rely on visual word play or riddles (*muwashshah*, *murabba*'), poetic forms that combine Arabic and Persian verse (*mulamma'*, *tarjama*), and the topic of poetic influence (*mā yaqa' bayn al-shu'arā*).⁵⁸⁶ As the foregoing terms show, it would seem that Zayn al-Dīn displays idiosyncratic terminology for certain rhetorical figures.⁵⁸⁷ However, since there are precedents for some of these terms in early Persian poetics – in the works of Rādūyānī (active 5th/11th cent.), Rashīd al-Dīn al-Waṭwāṭ (d. end of 6th/12th cent.), and Shams-i Qays (fl. first half of 7th/13th cent.) – Zayn al-Dīn's efforts should be understood within the context of that tradition as well.⁵⁸⁸ Zayn al-Dīn

⁵⁸⁶ *Rawḍa*, 293, 294, 296, 305, 307, respectively. The *muwashshah* and *murabba'* here having nothing to do with the well-known strophic forms called *muwashshah* and *murabba'*. *Muwashshah* is the placing of letters or words in certain positions in the lines which ultimately make up the name of the *mamdūh* or an adage; the line Zayn al-Dīn adduces is Arabic but the segments make up an expression in Persian (ibid., 293). *Murabba'* is a poem that can be read horizontally or vertically (ibid., 294). The two devices are to be understood in a Persian context. Yet a different meaning of form II *w.sh.h* in a poetic context is the device called *tawshīh*, which is when the beginning of a verse bears evidence for the listener to guess its final rhyme (Qudāma, *Naqd*, 96-97; al-'Askarī, *al-Šinā'atayn*, 397-99), or according to a different meaning, when every line of a poem can be disjointed at a certain point, leading to another poem with a different meter (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 3: 216-17). Shams-i Qays uses *tawshīh/muwashshah* as a cover term for various devices: (1) *tawshīh*: identical to the *tawshīh* mentioned by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn; (2) *muwashshah*: identical to the *muwashshah* in the *Rawḍa* (but even more elaborate, and the resulting additions of segments yield sayings in Arabic!); (3) *muwashshah*: tree-shaped and other geometrically-shaped poems, which also contain an embedded line (visually); (4) *tawshīh*: poems in “chessboard” shape that can be read horizontally or vertically, seemingly identical to the *murabba'* in the *Rawḍa*. See Shams-i Qays (Shams al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Qays al-Rāzī), *al-Mu'jam fī mā'āyir ash'ār al-'ajam*, ed. Sirius Shamisa, Tehran: Firdaws, 1373 [1994 or 1995], 336-45 (English: ‘A Compendium of the Standards of Persian Poetry’; title translation by N. Chalisova, “Persian Rhetoric: Elm-e Badi' and Elm-e Bayān,” in J.T.P de Bruijn [ed.], *General Introduction to Persian Literature*, London: I.B. Tauris, 2009, 139-71, here: 158). On *mulamma'* see Nargis Virani, “*Mulamma'* in Islamic Literatures,” in Beatrice Gruendler (ed.), with the Assistance of Michael Cooperson, *Classical Arabic Humanities in Their Own Terms: Festschrift for Wolfhart Heinrichs on 65th Birthday Presented by his Students and Colleagues*, Leiden: Brill, 2008, 291-324, esp. 292, where she says that this device is not found in Arabic literary criticism.

⁵⁸⁷ See also van Gelder, “A Good Cause,” 230 (where the term *ta'kīd* covers, *inter alia*, fantastic aetiology). Another instance may be the figure termed *mu'ammā*: commonly denoting a poetic riddle (or enigmatic poem) both in the Arabic and in the Persian contexts, here the *mu'ammā* refers specifically to a line that contains within it hints of the name of the patron or beloved (*Rawḍa*, 305). For the common Arabic understanding (and how it differs from *lughz*) see Erez Naaman, *Literature and Literary People at the Court of al-Šāhib Ibn 'Abbād*, PhD Dissertation, Harvard University, 2009, 103-105; for the common Persian understanding see Chalisova, “Persian Rhetoric,” 156-57.

⁵⁸⁸ Muḥammad b. 'Umar al-Rādūyānī [sic], *Tarjumān al-balāgha*, ed. Ahmed Ateş, Istanbul: İbrahim Horoz

quotes “al-Rashīd al-Waṭwāt” once, but in a section unrelated to the ‘Persian’ literary devices.⁵⁸⁹

No special mention of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is made, but Zayn al-Dīn does cite al-Ghānimī, one of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s sources.⁵⁹⁰ Similarly, no mention of ‘standardist’ scholars is made, though we do come across some terms and notions that are associated with the (eventual) standard tradition. One scholar who is most probably the source of such would-be standard notions is ‘Izz al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Wahhāb al-Zanjānī (active 660/1262), who spent most of his scholarly life in the Islamic East. The third part of al-Zanjānī’s literary theoretical work, *Mi’yār al-nuzzār*, displays several structural similarities with the *Rawḍa*, and it is probably al-Zanjānī who Zayn al-Dīn is referring to in using the term *badī’*, since the former uses ‘*ilm al-badī’*’ as a cover term for “the two sciences of *ma’ānī* and *bayān*” (an appellation found in al-Zamakhsharī and al-Sakkākī).⁵⁹¹ The

Basimevi, 1949, 4-7 (table of contents, Persian text, and e.g. 115-18 for *tarjama*; I am not certain his *murabba’* and *muwashshah* are identical to Zayn al-Dīn’s account) (English: ‘The Interpreter of Eloquence’); Rashīd al-Dīn al-Waṭwāt, *Ḥadāyiq al-sihr fī daqāyiq al-shi’r*, ed. and trans. N.Yu. Chalisova, Moscow: Izdatel’stwo “Nauka,” 1985, esp. 292-304 (Persian text; note especially the identical explanation and *shāhid* for *murabba’*) (English: ‘The Gardens of Enchantment on the Fine Points of Poetry’); Shams-i Qays, *al-Mu’jam*, e.g. 336-45 (the case of *tawshīh/muwashshah*). Note al-Waṭwāt’s choice of title *ḥadāyiq* ‘gardens’ vis-à-vis Zayn al-Dīn’s *rawḍa* and *dawḥa*. None of the Persian works are referenced in the *Rawḍa*, but the Arabic work by al-Waṭwāt is (see above), as well as a line by al-Waṭwāt, adduced anonymously (*Rawḍa*, 76 fn.2). In addition to Persian context, the *maqāma* context is also of relevance, since some of these poetic forms are exhibited in *maqāma* literature: see, e.g., Zayn al-Dīn’s citation of a verse by al-Ḥarīrī in the device called *musammaṭ* (*Rawḍa*, 195, and editor’s fn.1).

⁵⁸⁹ *Rawḍa*, 198, in the section on morphology-based paronomasia (*ishtiqaq*). Here both al-Muṭarrizī and al-Waṭwāt are quoted in succession, the first presumably from his commentary on al-Ḥarīrī’s *maqāmāt*, and the second presumably from his Arabic work on poetics (now lost), since the Qur’ānic example he adduces does not match any of the ones cited in the *Ḥadāyiq* (p. 237; but the argument is the same – namely, that *ishtiqaq* was considered by the specialists as a type of *tajnīs*). Zayn al-Dīn quotes al-Muṭarrizī on another occasion, also in the context of *tajnīs* (*Rawḍa*, 192-93).

⁵⁹⁰ *Rawḍa*, 144, 190. A sample of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s prose is adduced (ibid., 134-35).

⁵⁹¹ Abū l-Ma’ālī ‘Abd al-Wahhāb b. Ibrāhīm al-Kharajī al-Zanjānī, *Mi’yār al-nuzzār fī ‘ulūm al-ash’ār, al-qism al-thālith fī l-badī’*, ed. ‘Abd al-Mun’im Sayyid ‘Abd al-Salām al-Ashqar, Cairo: Maṭba’at al-Amāna, 1995, 3 (English: ‘A Standard for the Students of the Poetic Disciplines’). Here, too, remarks on the merit of the science are derived from ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s famous passage (see above). Here, too, many illustrations by al-Ḥarīrī are provided. Al-Zanjānī is author of the more popular *al-Taṣrīf al-‘Izzī* (‘The Morphology [Book] of ‘Izz al-Dīn’), on which many commentaries were written, the most famous of which is by al-Taftāzānī. See Wolfhart Heinrichs [signed “Eds.”], “al-Zandjānī,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. Similar to Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī, also much of al-Zanjānī’s life is obscure, including his date of death. He spent some time in Mosul and the last part of his life in Baghdad, where he wrote the *Taṣrīf*, but most of his life was spent in various cities in the Islamic East (Brockelmann situates him within the scholars of Baghdad; *GAL* 1: 336-37, Suppl. 1: 497-98). According to al-Ashqar, he wrote the *Mi’yār* in Bukhara (*Mi’yār*, editor’s introduction, 33). This may explain al-Zanjānī’s unawareness of the

Mi'yār is devoted to the entirety of poetic disciplines, including metrics and rhyme, but the third part on rhetorical figures seems to have been a source Zayn al-Dīn was familiar with. Metaphor and figurative language are a case in point and will be discussed below. One last work worthy of mention within the 'standard'-like sphere is al-Zamakhsharī's *Kashshāf*, whose possible influence on Zayn al-Dīn's study of metaphor will also be discussed below.

The *Rawḍa* opens with brief definitions of near-synonyms that mean 'eloquence': *faṣāḥa*, *balāgha*, *bayān* and *ijāz* (*bayān* is said to be close in meaning to *faṣāḥa*; *balāgha* is closely associated with *ijāz*).⁵⁹² Then the ten most noble figures of speech are discussed (*ashraf funūn al-balāgha*). These are primarily devices concerned with sense: simile/comparison (*tashbīh*), metaphor (*isti'āra*), double entendre (*tawriya*, also called *ihām*, *takhyīl* or *mughālaṭa*), appropriate complementing [of an image] (*tanāsub*), emphatic confirmation (*ta'kīd*, which includes the notion of fantastic aetiology, better known as *ḥusn al-ta'līl*), embedded well-known poetic quotation (*taḍmīn*), and embedded quotation from the revelation (*iqtibās*). Some of the ten categories are devices concerned with sound: mirror sentences ('*aks al-jumal*'), mirror words (*qalb*) and paronomasia (*tajnīs*).⁵⁹³ The remainder of the work is devoted to an array of additional literary devices, both concerned with sense (e.g. antithesis, *taḍādd* or *muṭābaqa*; exaggeration, *al-ighrāq fī l-ṣifa*) and concerned with sound or form (e.g., certain poetic forms called *muwashshah*, *murabba'*, *musammaṭ* and more).⁵⁹⁴ It seems that the concluding categories

growing pervasiveness of '*ilm al-bayān*' as a heading for literary-theoretical studies, at least in the central Arabic speaking lands. The only scholar I am aware of who lived in the Islamic East and used the phrase '*ilm al-bayān/ulamā' al-bayān*' is al-Muṭarrizī (see fn. 437); he was probably following al-Jurjānī directly.

⁵⁹² *Rawḍa*, 57-62. Under one of two *ijāz* types the example of *wa-s'ali l-qarya* "ask the city" is adduced (Q 18:82). Ibn al-Zamlakānī counted this as a case of metonymy.

⁵⁹³ *Rawḍa*, 63-193. Many of these ten categories are further divided into sub-categories (for some reason he refers to them as nine categories in *ibid.*, 193).

⁵⁹⁴ *Ibid.*, 194-312, and see our discussion of the Persian context, above.

in the book dealing with poetic forms and with poetic influence (*mā yaqa‘ bayn al-shu‘arā’* ~“that which is up for grabs for the poets”) was added by Zayn al-Dīn in a later iteration of the work.⁵⁹⁵ Interestingly, as a clearly poetic work directed at beginner writers of verse or prose, noteworthy is the absence of a chapter on *majāz*.

4.4. Ibn al-Naqīb (d. 698/1298), Introduction to *Tafsīr*

Jamāl al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Sulaymān, known as “Ibn al-Naqīb the exegete,” was a Palestinian scholar with origins from Balkh who worked in Mamlūk Cairo and Jerusalem. He was born in Jerusalem, and after moving to Cairo he taught at several *madrāsas*, among them the ‘Āshūriyya, and was associated with the al-Azhar mosque. According to the sources, he was a very well respected scholar and a prominent Ṣūfī. The grammarian Abū Ḥayyān al-Andalusī (d. 745/1344) and the historian al-Dhahabī (d. 748/1348) were among his students. Ibn al-Naqīb is known for a single work, an extensive Qur’ānic commentary said to have combined the works of fifty exegetes and a variety of exegetical material. (It numbered eighty volumes according to one account; seventy according to another; yet ninety-nine according to a third.)⁵⁹⁶

⁵⁹⁵ Ibid., 293-312, which is absent from the early Tīmūrid manuscript (see *ibid.*, 292, and above). We should mention here a newer edition of the *Rawḍa* based on a much corrupted manuscript from Chester Beatty; the editor corrects its many errors. This manuscript is even later than the ones Shu‘la used for his edition, as the structure is more developed and additional ‘standard’ terms appear. For instance, all literary devices are numbered – fifty-four in all – and are presented at the outset by the author. Also, a brief note about the disagreement surrounding the definitions of *ma‘ānī*, *bayān* and *badī‘* is given, suggesting that he was now aware of the tripartite terms. Many of the *shawāhid* are different, including those of his own authoring. Less than a handful of illustrations of his own writing are now adduced and no patron is mentioned. See Abū ‘Abd Allāh Muḥammad b. Abī Bakr al-Rāzī, *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*, ed. Khālīd ‘Abd al-Ra‘ūf al-Jabr, Amman: Dār al-Wā‘il, 2005.

⁵⁹⁶ Al-Zirikī, *al-A‘lām* 7: 21; al-Ṣafadī, *Kitāb al-Wāfi bi-l-wafayāt*, 3 (ed. S. Dederling, 1953): 136-37; Muḥammad b. Shākir al-Kutubī, *Fawāt al-wafayāt wa-l-dhayl ‘alayhā*, ed. Iḥsān ‘Abbās, 5 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Thaqāfa, 1973-78?, 3: 382-83; ‘Abd al-Rahmān b. Muḥammad al-Ulaymī, *al-Uns al-jalīl bi-tārīkh al-Quds wa-l-Khalīl*, ed. Muḥammad Baḥr al-‘Ulūm, 2 vols., Najaf: al-Maṭba‘a al-Ḥaydariyya, 1968, 2: 217; Aḥmad b. ‘Alī al-Maqrīzī, *Kitāb al-Sulūk li-ma‘rifat duwal al-mulūk*, ed. Muḥammad Muṣṭafā Ziyāda, 4 vols. in 12, Cairo: Lajnat al-Ta’līf wa-l-Tarjama wa-l-Nashr, 1956-73, 1: 881; and editor’s introduction of Abū ‘Abd Allāh Jamāl al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Sulaymān al-Balkhī al-Maqdisī al-Ḥanafī, *Muqaddimat tafsīr Ibn al-Naqīb* (formerly known as Ibn Qayyim al-Jawziyya’s *al-Fawā’id al-mushawwiq ilā ‘ulūm al-Qur’ān wa-‘ilm al-bayān*), ed. Zakariyyā Sa‘īd ‘Alī, Cairo:

While most of Ibn al-Naqīb's voluminous *tafsīr* did not survive, we do have what is believed to be the introduction to that work, formerly known as *al-Fawā'id al-mushawwiq ilā 'ulūm al-Qur'ān wa- 'ilm al-bayān* and falsely attributed to Ibn Qayyim al-Jawziyya (d. 751/1350).⁵⁹⁷ This introduction is mentioned by Abū Ḥayyān (d. 745/1344) in the preface to his Qur'ānic commentary *al-Baḥr al-muḥīṭ* as one of the two most comprehensive works in “‘ilm al-bayān wa-l-badī’,” the other being Ḥāzīm al-Qarṭājannī's (d. 684/1285) *Minhāj al-bulaghā*. According to Abū Ḥayyān, the work consisted of two volumes and was prefaced to Ibn al-Naqīb's work on *tafsīr*.⁵⁹⁸ Zakariyya Sa'īd 'Alī republished the *Fawā'id* as *Muqaddimat tafsīr Ibn al-Naqīb* after examining a variety of idiosyncratic usages of rhetorical notions in Abū Ḥayyān's *tafsīr* that correspond to usages in the alleged *Fawā'id*, and cross-referenced them with evidence from al-Suyūṭī's (d. 911/1505) *Sharḥ 'uqūd al-jumān*, a rhetorical work within the standard system.⁵⁹⁹ Together with evidence from the preface, which contains phraseology

Maktabat al-Khānjī, 1995, 32-36. Brockelmann does not cite him. 'Ulaymī gives another possible death date of 697/1297. Ibn al-Naqīb's *tafsīr* is titled *al-Taḥrīr wa-l-taḥbīr li-aqwāl a'immat al-tafsīr fī ma'ānī kalām al-Samī' al-Baṣīr (Muqaddimat tafsīr Ibn al-Naqīb*, editor's introduction, 36, citing Kātip Çelebi).

⁵⁹⁷ See the work republished by Zakariyyā Sa'īd 'Alī in the previous footnote. According to 'Alī, various sections of the *tafsīr* remain in manuscript form in Istanbul, Cairo, Rabat, Marrakesh, Tunis and Baghdad (*Muqaddima*, editor's introduction, 37-38, and fn. 5 on pp. 38-39). The edition of the original *Fawā'id* that I consulted is Ibn Qayyim al-Jawziyya, *Kitāb al-Fawā'id al-mushawwiq ilā 'ulūm al-Qur'ān wa- 'ilm al-bayān*, Gujranwala: Dār Nashr al-Kutub al-Islāmiyya, 1974 (which is a reprint of the 1909 Cairo edition, ed. Muḥammad Badr al-Dīn al-Na'sānī).

⁵⁹⁸ *Muqaddima*, editor's introduction, 23; Athīr al-Dīn Abū 'Abd Allāh Muḥammad b. Yūsuf al-Andalusī al-Gharnāfī al-Jayyānī al-shahīr bi-Abī Ḥayyān, *al-Tafsīr al-kabīr al-musammā bi-l-baḥr al-muḥīṭ*, 8 vols., Riyadh: Maktabat al-Naṣr al-Ḥadītha, [n.d.], (reprint of the 1911 Cairo edition), 1: 6.17-21 (English: 'The Large Commentary called The Encompassing Ocean'). Abū Ḥayyān later uses the phrases *'ilm al-balāgha wa-l-bayān* (ibid., 1: 9.11).

⁵⁹⁹ *Muqaddima*, editor's introduction, 21-29. 'Alī also looked at al-Suyūṭī's *al-Itqān fī 'ulūm al-Qur'ān* for some of his corroborations. The idiosyncratic rhetorical usages include notions such as *al-iḥtijāj al-nazarī*, *talmīḥ*, *tawriya*, and more. Among the other evidence 'Alī gives for the misattribution of the work to Ibn al-Qayyim and its identification as the introduction to Ibn al-Naqīb's *tafsīr*, we may mention (i) none of the biographical entries acknowledge a work by Ibn al-Qayyim titled *al-Fawā'id* (*Muqaddima*, editor's introduction, 13-14); (ii) Ibn al-Qayyim – a Ḥanbalī – famously rejected the existence of *majāz* in language, let alone in the Qur'ān, and the alleged *Fawā'id* acknowledges a *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dichotomy (ibid., 15-17); and (iii) there are respectful references in the work to al-Zamakhsharī, al-Rāzī and Abū al-'Alā' al-Ma'arrī (whereas elsewhere Ibn al-Qayyim spoke of them unfavorably). It should be mentioned that 'Alī republished the work under the title *Muqaddimat tafsīr Ibn al-Naqīb fī 'ilm al-bayān wa-l-ma'ānī wa-l-badī' wa-i'jāz al-Qur'ān*, but we do not know the exact title of the work.

grounded in the Qur'ānic commentary tradition, one is strongly inclined to accept the work as the introduction to Ibn al-Naqīb's *tafsīr*.⁶⁰⁰

The subject matter of Ibn al-Naqīb's *Muqaddima* is unequivocally *'ilm al-bayān*. Ibn al-Naqīb dedicates the work to this field and to the various manifestations of it (*'ilm al-bayān*) in the Qur'ān, closely aligning himself with the tradition of writings on *badī'*, or the listing of literary devices.⁶⁰¹ Indeed, the appellation of *'ilm al-bayān* covers the old *naqd* and *badī'* works, as the scholars of this science (*'ulamā' 'ilm al-bayān*) whose work Ibn al-Naqīb says to have consulted include the early Ibn al-Mu'tazz, Abū 'Alī al-Ḥātimī (d. 388/998) and Abū Hilāl al-'Askarī. But *'ilm al-bayān* is represented as a science alongside lexicography and grammar, which together with knowledge of the poems, sermons, letters, *rajaz*-metered verse and primitive rhymed prose of the Arabs, constitute the crux of identifying the Qur'ān's merit.⁶⁰² According to this account, *'ilm al-bayān* is an endeavor distinct from the examination of (*naẓara fī*) the Arabs' literary repertoire, and is thus afforded a 'scientific' status. Recounting a motif we already encountered in the work of Ibn al-Zamlakānī and Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī (and originating from al-Jurjānī), Ibn al-Naqīb states that no discipline in the Islamic sciences has been abandoned and forgotten like that of *'ilm al-bayān*.⁶⁰³ Other *'ilm al-bayān* sources Ibn al-Naqīb cites in his

⁶⁰⁰ Typical commentarial themes include the Qur'ānic "genres" (*amr-nahy, wa'd-wa'id, mawā'iz, qiṣaṣ*, etc.) and the unique idiom that makes it inimitable (*Muqaddima*, 6-11). Furthermore, at the end of the work the author provides definitions for the terms *Qur'ān, sūra, āya, kalima* and *ḥarf*, a section "which should have been mentioned earlier in the beginning of the book" (ibid., 506).

⁶⁰¹ *wa-sanūridu fī kitābinā hādihā uṣūlan mu'aṣṣalatan wa-fawā'idā mufaṣṣalatan min 'ilmi l-bayāni wa-mā warada naẓīruhu fī l-Qur'āni*; ibid., 12. References to *'ilm al-bayān* and *'ulamā' arbāb 'ilm al-bayān* abound (*ulamā' hādhihi l-ṣinā'a* also recurs). Examples are ibid., 15.2-3^e, 20.8, 21.1, 96.4 (*anwā' al-bayān wa-aṣnāf al-badī'*), 148.9, 166.12, 167.4 (*ḍurūb 'ilm al-bayān*), 325.3 (note typo), 380.4, 498.3.

⁶⁰² *wa-innamā ya'rifu faḍla l-Qur'āni man 'arafa kalāma l-'arabi fa-'arafa 'ilma l-lughati wa-'ilma l-'arabiyyati wa-'ilma l-bayāni wa-naẓara fī ash'ari l-'arabi wa-khuṭabihā wa-muqāwalātihā fī mawāḍi'ihā -ftikhārihā wa-rasā'ilihā wa-arājizihā wa-asjā'ihā [...]*; ibid., 12.

⁶⁰³ Ibid., 15; Ibn al-Zamlakānī, *al-Tibyān*, 32 (following al-Jurjānī, *Dalā'il*, 6).

preface are the *Mathal* and *Jāmi*‘ by ʿIyāh al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr, *Kitāb al-Badī*‘ of Usāma b. Munqidh (d. 584/1188), a work called *Nihāyat al-ta`mīl fī kashf asrār al-tanzīl* by Ibn al-Zamlakānī (“Kamāl al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Wāhid b. ‘Abd al-Karīm al-Anṣārī”), and a work called *al-Tafrī‘ fī ‘ilm al-badī*‘ by Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘.⁶⁰⁴ The scholar most cited by name in Ibn al-Naqīb’s work is ʿIyāh al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr.⁶⁰⁵ Others whose imprint in the work is visible are Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (his epitome of al-Jurjānī’s works) and ‘Izz al-Dīn b. ‘Abd al-Salām al-Sulamī (his work on *majāz*). Their influence will be discussed under the deliberation of *majāz*.

Ibn al-Naqīb refers to *badī*‘ as a science – ‘ilm – as well (although, as in the case of Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘, the phrase ‘ilm al-badī’ does not occur). In an idiosyncratic usage, he claims that *badī*‘ as a science refers to the figures of speech pertaining primarily to wording.⁶⁰⁶ Accordingly, what follows is a study of literary devices concerned with sound (*bimā yata`allaqu bi-l-alfāz*), whereas the preceding literary devices were concerned with sense (*fīmā yata`allaqu bi-l-ma`ānī*).⁶⁰⁷ But even within the section on the aural literary devices, or the so-called study of *badī*‘, the scholarly group Ibn al-Naqīb defers to is ‘ulamā’ ‘ilm al-bayān,⁶⁰⁸ revealing a de facto prevalence of the heading ‘ilm al-bayān as the framework of study.

⁶⁰⁴ *Muqaddima*, 12-15. According to Zakariyyā ‘Alī, the latter is equivalent to *Tahrīr al-tahbīr*. The title by Ibn al-Zamlakānī is a work of *tafsīr* (ibid., editor’s introduction, 64); it is mentioned by Kātip Çelebi (ibid., 14, fn. 4). Two unknown works by al-Zanjānī (author of the *Mi`yār*) are also cited by Ibn al-Naqīb as sources (and cf. ibid., 14, fn. 3, and editor’s introduction, 60-62). It is noteworthy that Ibn al-Naqīb attributes both the *Jāmi*‘ and the *Mathal* to the same person (cf. the common misattribution of the *Jāmi*‘ to one of ʿIyāh al-Dīn’s brothers, §4.1).

⁶⁰⁵ Ibid., 642-43.

⁶⁰⁶ The definition he provides runs as follows: *wa-l-badī`u ‘ilmun yubḥathu fīhi ‘an aḥwāli l-lafzi l-mu`allafi min ḥaythu lā yumkinu an yu`tā bihi illā bi-ḥusni -ntizāmin* “*badī*‘ is a science in which the states/patterns of words in composition [as opposed to words in isolation] are examined, such that they can only be uttered in a well-ordered fashion” (ibid., 451; *al-Fawā`id*, 218). It may seem from this definition that the *lafz* is a reference to the hypernym ‘word’, which includes both its wording and its meaning (cf. Ibn Sīnā’s definition of speech as *al-lafz al-mu`allaf*), but in fact, Ibn al-Naqīb is using *lafz* here as a hyponym for ‘wording’.

⁶⁰⁷ *Muqaddima*, 176, 451.

⁶⁰⁸ E.g., ibid., 498, when discussing *tajnīs* ‘paronomasia’.

The *Muqaddima* is divided into three large sections: the first deals with *majāz* and comprises twenty-four categories; the second deals with conceptual figures of speech (*mā yata ‘allaqu bi-l-ma ‘ānī* or *balāgha*) and comprises eighty-four categories; the third deals with aural and rhythmical figures of speech (*mā yata ‘allaqu bi-l-alfāz* or *faṣāḥa*, specifically identified as *badī‘*) and comprises twenty-four categories.⁶⁰⁹ The figures of speech presented are not limited to those that occur in the Qur’ān (despite the author’s original intention), resulting in a collection not unlike other works on *badī‘*. Preceding the first section are some prefatory definitions (of *balāgha*, *faṣāḥa*, *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz*). Following the last section are several ‘appendices’ that include (i) key definitions of Qur’ānic terms (*Qur’ān*, *sūra*, *āya*, *kalima*, *ḥarf*), (ii) a presentation of the various views on the Qur’ān’s inimitability, and (iii) a brief enumeration of nearly a hundred and twenty categories of “[God’s] address” (*khiṭāb*) found in the Qur’ān.⁶¹⁰ The latter enumeration of *khiṭāb* overlaps, to a certain degree, with *majāz* categories, but it is wider in scope. It is presented as a notion constituting all types of variation and ‘deviation’ in speech (*talwīn al-khiṭāb wa-ma ‘dūluhu*), with a focus on lexical ‘deviation’ (such as metonymies) and pragmatic ‘deviation’ (such as implicatures).⁶¹¹ Perhaps it is a testament to the early usage of *majāz* as encompassing all types of non-transparent idiomatic speech.

⁶⁰⁹ *Muqaddima*, 17-176, 176-449, 451-505, respectively. Ibn al-Naqīb states, in error, that the first section comprises eighty-four categories (p. 17), but later the correct number appears (p. 176). On the *balāgha-faṣāḥa* difference see *ibid.*, 20, 451. The aural and rhythmical figures of speech are not devoid of ‘conceptual’ figures. For example, *fakk* (as opposed to *sabk*) refers to a ‘disconnection’ between one hemistich (or parallel member) and another, similar to a parenthetical comment (*ibid.*, 467). Similarly, *al-ḥall wa-l-‘aqd* ‘prosification and versification’ (*ibid.*, 468) does not involve pure wording or rhythm.

⁶¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 19-25 (prefatory definitions), 506-10 (appended definition), 511-25 (*i‘jāz al-Qur’ān*), 526-34 (types of *khiṭāb*).

⁶¹¹ Some examples will be given below, §5.4.

4.5. Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī (d. 716/1316), *al-Iksīr fī ‘ilm al-tafsīr*

Najm al-Dīn Sulaymān b. ‘Abd al-Qawī al-Ṭūfī was an Iraqi scholar from Ṣarṣar who worked primarily in Mamlūk Cairo. He was educated in Baghdad and later in Damascus, where he came in contact with Ibn Taymiyya (d. 728/1328). Al-Ṭūfī wrote prolifically on a variety of themes, from law, exegesis, theology and interreligious polemics, to Ḥadīth and philology, including literary theory. He is an interesting character in the pre-modern scholarly tradition because he does not fit neatly into usual rubrics of identification: known primarily for his Ḥanbalī affiliation – his view on *maṣlaḥa* ‘public interest’ being a contentious point – he was also seen as having Shī‘ī leanings, an accusation which allegedly caused his imprisonment in Egypt. Prior to his imprisonment, al-Ṭūfī held teaching positions at the Manṣūriyya and Nāṣiriyya colleges. Of his notable edited works we may mention the *Commentary on the Christian Scriptures* (recently edited by Lejla Demiri), *Divine Intimations to Doctrinal Investigations* (published by Abū ‘Āṣim Ḥasan b. ‘Abbās b. Quṭb), and *The Banner of Exhilaration on the Science of Disputation* (edited by Wolfhart Heinrichs).⁶¹²

A common thread within al-Ṭūfī’s works is the centrality of Qur’ānic exegesis therein, though not couched in these terms. His *al-Ishārāt al-Ilāhiyya*, noted above, can be described as a

⁶¹² Lajla Demiri, *Muslim Exegesis of the Bible in Medieval Cairo. Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī’s (d. 716/1316) Commentary on the Christian Scriptures. A Critical Edition and Annotated Translation with an Introduction*, Leiden: Brill, 2013 (a critical edition of *al-Ta’ālīq ‘alā l-Anājīl al-arba’a wa-l-ta’līq ‘alā l-Tawrāh wa-‘alā ghayrihā min kutub al-anbiyā’*); *al-Ishārāt al-ilāhiyya ilā l-mabāḥith al-uṣūliyya*, prepared for publication by Abū ‘Āṣim Ḥasan b. ‘Abbās b. Quṭb, 3 vols., Cairo: al-Fārūq al-Ḥadītha li-l-Ṭibā’a wa-l-Nashr, 2002; *‘Alam al-jadhal fī ‘ilm al-jadal. Das Banner der Frölichkeit über die Wissenschaft vom Disput*, ed. Wolfhart Heinrichs, Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1987. On al-Ṭūfī’s life, and the Shī‘ī question, see Khālid b. Fawzī b. ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd Ḥamza, introduction to *al-Ishārāt al-ilāhiyya*, 88-92, and Demiri, *Muslim Exegesis*, 3-15. Both reject the Shī‘ī accusation, though Demiri notes Devin Stewart’s reasons for accepting it (p. 11). But one should note in this context the relatively frequent references al-Ṭūfī gives to the poetry and critical comments of one Ibn al-Muqarrab al-Baḥrānī, an East-Arabian poet-critic of the early seventh/thirteenth century who had strong Shī‘ī leanings (for the citations see the appendix to al-Ṭūfī’s literary critical work discussed below; on Ibn al-Muqarrab see Safā Khulusi, “A Thirteenth Century Poet from Bahrain,” *Proceedings of the Seminar for Arabian Studies* 6 [1976], 91-102). Demiri shows that al-Ṭūfī was not a well-known student of the Ḥanbalī scholar Ibn Taymiyya, but was rather one out of many students who attended his sessions. Demiri includes a very useful, and detailed, appendix of al-Ṭūfī’s works (*Muslim Exegesis*, 529 ff.). See also Brockelmann, *GAL* 2: 132, Suppl. 2: 133-34.

theological commentary on the Qur'ān, whereby the author goes verse by verse, according to the order of the *sūras*, explicating doctrinal and legal-theoretical issues. According to al-Ṭūfī, an examination of the Qur'ān within the field of doctrinal theology has gone by the wayside in his times.⁶¹³ In *al-Ṣa'qa al-ghaḍabiyya*, a defense of the study of Arabic grammar and philology, al-Ṭūfī dedicates the bulk of the work to syntactic analyses of Qur'ānic verses which have a bearing on legal issues.⁶¹⁴ His work on disputation, *ʿAlam al-jadhal*, is likewise a study of Qur'ānic verses, this time from the view point of dialectics. Even his strictly literary-critical work on the poetry of Imru' al-Qays contains methodological measures that are proclaimed to be informative for Qur'ānic exegetical study.⁶¹⁵ He also tackled *tafsīr*, or exegesis, directly, in his commentaries on several *sūras* of the Qur'ān, written during his time in prison.⁶¹⁶ In this sense, his work on literary theory titled *al-Iksīr fī ʿilm al-tafsīr* complements his other engagements with Qur'ānic commentary.⁶¹⁷

⁶¹³ Al-Ṭūfī, *al-Ishārāt* 1: 206 (*wa-innamā ʿadala l-mutaʿakhhirūna fī uṣūli l-dīni ʿani -tibāri l-kitābi wa-l-sunna*).

⁶¹⁴ Abū al-Rabīʿ Najm al-Dīn Sulaymān b. ʿAbd al-Qawī b. ʿAbd al-Karīm al-Ṭūfī, *al-Ṣa'qa al-ghaḍabiyya fī al-radd ʿalā munkirī al-ʿarabiyya*, ed. Muḥammad b. Khālīd al-Fāḍil, Riyadh: Maktabat al-ʿUbaykān, 1997, 329-631 (English: 'The Wrathful Blast of Thunder, On Rejecting Those Who Deny [the Study of] Arabic'). Most of the grammatical questions revolve around the function of particles (*ibid.*, 373); the topics are arranged according to the order of chapters found in *al-Muḥarrar fī al-fiqh*, a Ḥanbalī legal treatise (*ibid.*, 374).

⁶¹⁵ Najm al-Dīn Sulaymān b. ʿAbd al-Qawī b. ʿAbd al-Karīm b. Saʿīd al-Ṭūfī, *Mawāʿid al-ḥays fī fawāʿid Imri' al-Qays*, ed. Muṣṭafā ʿUlayyān, Amman: Dār al-Bashīr, 1994 (English: 'Tables Full of Sweets, On the Meanings of [the Poetry of] Imru' al-Qays', following al-Ṭūfī's explanation of the title, p. 118). Ḥays is an assortment of bread, butter and candy, and what prompted al-Ṭūfī to use this in the title of his work was – besides rhyme considerations – a piece of Ḥays that was thrown to him during one of his travels by a group of people on their way to the pilgrimage: it was, he says, the best Ḥays he ever ate (*Mawāʿid*, 119). This is not the only connection he makes between food and cultural literacy: in his explanation of the word *adab* – referring, in its technical meaning, to philological knowledge – he says that it derives out of the meaning of *adb* 'calling people to come and eat' (*al-Ṣa'qa*, 221; in this he follows the traditional etymology, cf. *ma'duba*). Following the chapter in this book dealing with segments of Imru' al-Qays's poetry that resemble one another across his oeuvre, al-Ṭūfī says that this exercise "has many benefits" and that he employed it in his (now lost) *al-Riyāḍ al-nawāḍir fī al-ashbāh wa-l-nawāzīr*, "a book of commentary" (*wa-huwa kitābu tafsīrin*); *Mawāʿid*, 157. In other words, this method in poetic criticism is useful in studying parallels or analogous passages in the Qur'ān.

⁶¹⁶ Demiri, *Muslim Exegesis*, 530. Note too that Brockelmann treats him under the rubric 'Qur'ānwissenschaften' (*GAL* 2: 132, Suppl. 2: 133-34).

⁶¹⁷ Al-Ṭūfī Sulaymān b. ʿAbd al-Qawī b. ʿAbd al-Karīm al-Ṣarṣarī al-Baghdādī, *al-Iksīr fī ʿilm al-tafsīr*, ed. ʿAbd al-

Al-Ṭūfī's interest in the philological studies went beyond their application to exegesis. In addition to the *Iksīr* and his work on Imru' al-Qays, al-Ṭūfī also authored a commentary on al-Ḥarīrī's *Maqāmāt* and a work on poetics. The latter, titled *al-Shi'ār 'alā mukhtār al-ash'ār* ~“The Distinguishing Token on the Best Poems Spoken,” is a work of pure poetic criticism and it seems to have been an early work by al-Ṭūfī.⁶¹⁸

As its title suggests, the *Iksīr* purports to deal directly with the discipline and rules of exegesis (*'ilm al-tafsīr*, *'ilm al-Kitāb*, *qawā'id al-tafsīr*).⁶¹⁹ The difficulty of the science of *tafsīr*, says al-Ṭūfī in the opening of the work, is something that has preoccupied him for some time. Having found that the authors of exegetical works did not consentaneously attend to this issue, he set out to lay down a rule (*qānūn*) that one could go by and rely on when writing a work of *tafsīr*.⁶²⁰ He precedes this undertaking with a detailed critique of the historical development of exegetical practices, one that resulted in a haphazard and subjective scholarly endeavor (*kathura al-dakhal fī al-tafsīr; taṣrīḥ kathīr min al-mufasssīrīn bi-nisbat aqwālihim ilā anfusihim*).⁶²¹

Interestingly, however, the crux of al-Ṭūfī's efforts lies within the study of stylistics, that is, outside the exegetical practice proper. The awaited *qānūn* that he so forcefully speaks about is in

Qādir Ḥusayn, Cairo: Maktabat al-Ādāb wa-Maṭba'atuhā, 1977 (English: 'An Elixir in the Science of *Tafsīr*'). We do not know when the work was composed. According to Demiri, the book treats “the importance and role of linguistics in Qur'ānic exegesis” (*Muslim Exegesis*, 529). She continues (ibid., parentheses hers): “It also reflects upon the literary (*faṣāḥa* and *balāgha*) and stylistic features (*tjāz-iṭnāb* and *taqdīm-ta'khīr*) of the Qur'an.”

⁶¹⁸ For his *Maqāmāt* commentary see Kātip Çelebi, *Kashf al-zunūn* 2: 1790; Demiri, *Muslim Exegesis*, 534. For his work on poetics see *al-Ishārāt*, editor's introduction 1: 142-43; Demiri, *Muslim Exegesis*, 531. The work was recently edited, based on a unicum in Beyazit State Library: Najm al-Dīn Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Qawī al-Ṭūfī, *al-Shi'ār 'alā mukhtār naqd al-ash'ār*, ed. 'Abd al-'Azīz b. Nāṣir al-Mānī', Riyadh: Jāmi'at al-Malik Sa'ūd, Kursī al-Duktūr 'Abd al-'Azīz al-Mānī' li-Dirāsāt al-Lughā al-'Arabiyya wa-Ādābihā, 2011. It became available to me at the very final stages of writing, and I was unable to incorporate it here.

⁶¹⁹ *Al-Iksīr*, 1, where all three terms appear. Demiri lists the work as *al-Iksīr fī qawā'id al-tafsīr* (*Muslim Exegesis*, 529).

⁶²⁰ *Al-Iksīr*, 1, 11, 16.

⁶²¹ Ibid., 6-11, 15-16, 25-27 (the quotes are taken from p. 6 and p. 9: “much disorder has taken place in exegesis”; “the fact that many exegetes explicitly attribute their opinions to themselves”).

fact marginalized in favor of rhetorical and literary-theoretical issues, which constitute the bulk of the work – a close reworking of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, which is highly praised by al-Ṭūfī at the outset.⁶²² When it is discussed, the *qānūn* does not quite present a neat methodology for the exegete, and judging by al-Ṭūfī's account, it may well explain the alleged lawlessness in the field.⁶²³ The rule goes as follows: whenever the divine discourse is not plainly understood (*bayyin bi-nafsihi, al-mafhūm*), one must have recourse to interpretation relying either on an irrefutable rational proof, an abundantly-transmitted prophetic report, a scholarly consensus, or a solitary report that is sound.⁶²⁴ Things become less clear-cut, however, when none of these measures are applicable. In this case, it must be examined whether weaker evidence may corroborate 'what is understood' (*al-mafhūm, mā fuhima*) from the plain wording or from the implied meanings of the wording – here terminology from legal theory is employed – even if this leads to multiple meanings of the text. Al-Ṭūfī's assertion, according to which all meanings in this case would be plausible, stands somewhat at odds with his earlier critique of the multiplicity of exegetical opinions. To be sure, emphasis is put on interpretation of the *lafẓ* 'wording', as long as it accords with a plausible intention of the speaker (*murād, irāda*) – that is, God's intention.⁶²⁵

⁶²² Devin Stewart characterizes the *Iksīr* as a work on rhetoric of the Qur'ān. He provides instances in which sections of the *Iksīr* repeat Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's statements almost verbatim. See Devin Stewart, "Poetic License in the Qur'ān: Ibn al-Ṣā'igh al-Ḥanafī's *Ihkām al-rāy fī aḥkām al-āy*," *Journal of Qur'anic Studies* 11.1 (2009), 1-56, here: 27.

⁶²³ The explanation of the *qānūn* runs several paragraphs; see *al-Iksīr*, 11-14.

⁶²⁴ Ibid., 11. This puts al-Ṭūfī at odds with the exegetical project espoused by Ibn Taymiyya and, indeed, points to the marginality of the so-called *al-tafsīr bi-l-ma'thūr* (exegesis based on the words of the Prophet-companions-successors) even within Ḥanbalī circles. On the marginal place of the latter in *tafsīr* (but its infiltration, nevertheless, into Western academic scholarship) see the important study by Walid Saleh, "Preliminary Remarks on the Historiography of *tafsīr* in Arabic: A History of the Book Approach," *Journal of Qur'anic Studies* 12 (2010), 6-40.

⁶²⁵ Ibid., 12-13. Here he gives several examples of verses which allow more than one interpretation, glossed *yajūzu* 'permissible'. He calls this *iḥtimāl al-lafẓ li-l-wujūh al-muta'addida* "an utterance/wording allowing several meanings" (ibid., 13.10), and the rationale behind it is explained thus: *wa-ḥīna'idhīn yajibu l-tawaṣṣulu ilā l-murādi l-muta'ayyani bi-tarīqin qawīyyin rājiḥin mina l-ṭuruqi l-mutaqaddimi dhikruhā aw ghayrihā in amkana wa-in lam*

The insistence on a plausible interpretation of plain *lafz* is perhaps the one clear connecting point between the aim of the work and its actual focus, namely, stylistic matters. The study of literary-critical topics is referred to as *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* and *‘ilm al-bayān* interchangeably. The former – *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* – is the nomenclature of al-Sakkākī and others following him in the Islamic East (like al-Zanjānī); there is no direct imprint of al-Sakkākī. The latter – *‘ilm al-bayān* – is undoubtedly taken from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr’s *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, a work al-Ṭūfī praises as the best treatise written on the topic, and one he follows closely in the structuring of the *Iksīr*.⁶²⁶ The practitioners of the field are referred to as *‘ulamā’ al-bayān* (not quotations from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn).⁶²⁷ The phrase *‘ulamā’ al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* does not occur. When discussing the virtue of studying this field, he attends solely to the etymology and noble citations of the word *bayān*, disregarding the word *ma‘ānī* (even though he earlier provides a definition of *ma‘ānī* in the phrase *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān*).⁶²⁸

And yet, al-Ṭūfī is aware of emerging ‘standard’ notions. In passing, he acknowledges

yashtamil ‘alā l-tanāquḍi bal kāna mujarrada -khtilāfin wa-ta‘addudi aqwālin fa-ini -ḥtamala l-lafzu jamī‘aha wa-amkana an takūna murādatan minhu wajaba ḥamluhu ‘alā jamī‘ihā mā amkana sawā’an kāna -iḥtimāluhu lahā musāwīyan aw kāna fī ba‘ḍihā arjaḥa min ba‘ḍin “Then [when there is more than one possibility], one must reach the specific intention [in that context] in a strong method that is preferable to the method mentioned above [i.e., those specified in his *qānūn*], or others if possible, as long as it does not contain a contradiction but is merely a difference of opinion and a plurality of sayings. If the utterance allows all of them [those opinions], and it is possible that it be one intention of it [the wording], then it [the wording] must be taken according to all of them, as far as possible, whether they are all equally acceptable or one is superior to another” (ibid., 12.1^e-13.4). Terms apparently inspired by *uṣūl al-fiqh* are *al-maḥmūm min zāhir al-lafz/fahwāhu/ma‘qūluhu* (ibid., 12), roughly: the immediate meaning of the apparent/literal utterance vs. the implied meaning (*ma‘qūl* and *fahwā* seem to be used here synonymously; in other contexts it is the *maḥmūm* that refers to implied meaning; see Ali, *Medieval Muslim Pragmatics*, 189; Vishanoff, *Formation*, 307).

⁶²⁶ For *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* see e.g., *al-Iksīr*, 22.3^e, 29.2 (cf. editor’s fn. 1), 31.7. For *‘ilm al-bayān* see e.g., 37.1-2^e, 42.8, 42.13-15, 62.14-15, 97.12 (*‘ilm al-bayān wa-l-balāgha*), 109.2. With regards to *‘ilm al-bayān* it should be noted that these instances (besides, perhaps, 109.2) are not a quotation from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work but are rather clearly al-Ṭūfī’s own words. Interestingly, when he speaks of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work, he says it is the best one written on the topic of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* (p. 29). Clearly these headings are used interchangeably.

⁶²⁷ *Al-Iksīr*, 41.3, 37.1-2^e (*arbāb hādhā l-‘ilm*, referring to *‘ilm al-bayān*).

⁶²⁸ Ibid., 34-38. For the definitions of *‘ilm*, *ma‘ānī* and *bayān* see pp. 30-31.

‘ilm al-ma‘ānī separately as a – seemingly – functional-syntactic science that characterized the exegetical works of al-Zajjāj (d. 311/923), al-Farrā’ (d. 207/822 or 208/823) and al-Zamakhsharī (d. 538/1144), along with syntax and morphology.⁶²⁹ Similarly, his ‘philosophical’ definition of the science carries a somewhat functional-syntactic tone, as he speaks of the functions (*aḥkām*) of *alfāz* and *ma‘ānī* and exemplifies his definition with an instance of change in word order (*taqdīm wa-ta’khīr*), a topic later treated within the standard *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī*.⁶³⁰ But when discussing *ma‘ānī* as the (philosophical) ‘matter’ of the field (*mawḍū‘*), he claims it includes all of its non-essential attributes (*‘awārīḍ*), going beyond the confines of functional syntax: in addition to change in word order, elision, brevity and prolixity – topics we later find in the standard section of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* – he also includes *kināya* ‘periphrasis’ and *alghāz* ‘riddles’, topics later subsumed under *‘ilm al-bayān* or *‘ilm al-badī‘*.⁶³¹ The non-philosophical definition of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* is much broader and speaks of a science that is concerned with verbal expressions (*alfāz*) and making intentions (*murād*) clear using expressions.⁶³² In other words, despite the affiliation the phrase *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* has with the emerging standard theory, in al-Ṭūfī’s work it is markedly non-standard. What is more, the contents of the book are arranged in accordance with the structure of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr* (similarly found in his *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir*). This includes sections such as the tools of composition (*ālāt al-ta’līf*), methods of learning composition (*al-ṭarīq ilā ma‘rifat al-ta’līf*), and the merits of prose

⁶²⁹ Ibid., 25. Interestingly, he claims that most of the later exegetical works are based on the verbal sciences, which include lexicography (or knowledge of rare words, *gharīb*), syntax, morphology and variant readings of the Qur’ān (*qirā‘āt*).

⁶³⁰ Ibid., 32-33.

⁶³¹ Ibid., 32. It is probably wrong altogether to speak of the standard notion in this context because at this stage things were not yet clear cut, and al-Ṭūfī reflects this. My point is to show that his use of *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* should not be read as a ‘standard’ appellation.

⁶³² Ibid., 31 (*fa-ma‘nā qawlinā ‘ilmu l-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayāni l-‘ilmu l-murādu bi-l-alfāzi wa-iḥhāri l-murādi bihā*).

over poetry.⁶³³

The study of *‘ilm al-bayān* forms the third part (*al-qism al-thālith*) of al-Ṭūfī’s *Iksīr*,⁶³⁴ which is the most voluminous in the book (the first two sections run twenty-eight pages in the printed edition; the book is over three hundred and thirty pages long). This third part is divided into an introduction and two divisions (sg. *jumla*), the first division dealing with general principles (*aḥkām*) of *‘ilm al-bayān* and the second with particular ones, following Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s structure in the *Jāmi’* (who named his divisions *quṭb*). The introduction, however, is al-Ṭūfī’s own prolegomenon. It includes three points (sg. *baḥth*), the first on definitions, the second on the virtue of the field via a discussion of the merits of *bayān* ‘fine speech’, and the third – which lacks a title – on the existence of an ‘appropriate necessitating [element/entity]’ (*muqtaḍin munāsib*) that makes a certain speech (*kalām*) specific, or particular (*ikhtiṣāṣ, takhṣīṣ*) to a certain context.⁶³⁵ It is on this last point (*al-baḥth al-thālith*) which we shall dwell in a moment.

First we must reiterate the fact that no clear explanation is provided for treating *‘ilm (al-ma’ānī wa-) al-bayān* in a work on meta-*tafsīr* or *‘ilm al-Qur’ān*.⁶³⁶ *‘Ilm al-ma’ānī wa-l-bayān* is cited as the last out of twelve sciences which the Qur’ān – or knowledge of the Qur’ān, or science of the Qur’ān – is said to encompass.⁶³⁷ Besides the proverbial *li-kawnihi min anfas ‘ulūm al-Qur’ān* “since it is the most valuable of Qur’ānic sciences,” no compelling argument is

⁶³³ Ibid., 44 ff., 59 ff. and 100 ff., respectively. It should be noted that the definitions al-Ṭūfī provides are his own (i.e., not taken from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn).

⁶³⁴ Ibid., 29 ff.

⁶³⁵ Ibid., 30-33 (*al-baḥth al-awwal*), 34-38 (*al-baḥth al-thānī*), 39-43 (*al-baḥth al-thālith*).

⁶³⁶ The phrase *‘ilm al-Qur’ān* appears, e.g., in *ibid.*, 18.5°, 27.12.

⁶³⁷ In *al-Iksīr*, 17.2, it is said that the Qur’ān encompasses these sciences, and in 18.5° *‘ilm al-Qur’ān* is used – which would probably mean here ‘knowledge of the Qur’ān’, although ‘science of the Qur’ān’ is also possible. Al-Ṭūfī later states (*ibid.*, 25) that these are the sciences that the exegete (*mufasssīr*) should know.

provided for singling it out in the *Iksīr*.⁶³⁸ One suspects he was aware of al-Zamakhsharī’s use of these headings in his commentary *al-Kashshāf* (see Part One, §3.2). The sciences al-Ṭūfī lists are characterized as being either verbal (*lafẓī*) or non-verbal (*ma‘nawī* ‘mental’) in nature. We alluded above to the high regard he pays to the interpretation of the text’s *lafẓ* as a possible explanation for focusing on *‘ilm al-bayān*. And yet, oddly, *‘ilm al-bayān* is enumerated among the non-verbal (*ma‘nawī*) sciences, alongside disciplines such as physics (*‘ilm wujūdī*), history and legal theory!⁶³⁹ What is more, from his characterization of the exegetical works of al-Zajjāj, al-Farrā’ and al-Zamakhsharī (see above), it would seem that *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī* is actually seen as a verbal science.⁶⁴⁰

Greater clues for the relevance of *‘ilm al-bayān* to Qur’ānic exegesis, and for the very nature of *‘ilm al-bayān* itself, are found almost in passing toward the end of *al-baḥṭh al-thānī* and within *al-baḥṭh al-thālith*, once again, preceding the beginning of the study of *‘ilm al-bayān* proper. In these contexts only *‘ilm al-bayān* is used (not *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān*). The first comment of interest is al-Ṭūfī’s claim that the Qur’ān came down “according to the rule (*qānūn*) of *‘ilm al-bayān*.”⁶⁴¹ In a later, slightly modified remark, he states that the Qur’ān is “based on the utmost level of *‘ilm al-bayān*.”⁶⁴² Here the phrase *‘ilm al-bayān* is not so much used as a referent to a body of knowledge as it is to a force of nature. It would be inappropriate, in this

⁶³⁸ Ibid., 29. For the sake of simplicity, I will refer to the science dealt with in the *Iksīr* as *‘ilm al-bayān*, especially since it is more commonly used in the *Iksīr* (and not as quotations from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, see above).

⁶³⁹ Ibid., 18-22. Al-Ṭūfī clarifies that by ‘verbal’ versus ‘mental’ he means that the former is mediated by linguistic expression (*lafẓ*), whereas the latter is not (p. 27).

⁶⁴⁰ *‘Ilm al-ma‘ānī* is enumerated among the *aḥkām lughawiyya* ‘linguistic functions’ alongside syntax and morphology (ibid., 25).

⁶⁴¹ *Al-Iksīr*, 37.1-2^c (*nazala ‘alā waḥq qānūn ‘ilm al-bayān*).

⁶⁴² Ibid., 42.13 (...*al-Qur’ān al-mutawaqqif ‘alā aqṣā marātib ‘ilm al-bayān*).

context, to separate *‘ilm* as ‘science’ from *bayān*; instead, *‘ilm al-bayān* as a whole seems to refer to ‘fine speech’ as an observable phenomenon and could be interchanged with the single notion of *bayān*. And yet in that same context al-Ṭūfī references the masters of this science (*arbāb hādihā al-‘ilm*).⁶⁴³ Beyond the terminological inconsistency, this demonstrates to what extent the notion of *bayān* and *‘ilm al-bayān* have become recognized as a rational affair, rather than a textually-transmitted knowledge, a development we associate with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s effort (see Part One, §1.1).

The second point to be made, gleaned out of his *al-baḥth al-thālith*, is al-Ṭūfī’s implicit identification of *‘ilm al-bayān* with the process of finding a cause for a specific linguistic choice.⁶⁴⁴ According to al-Ṭūfī, any particular way of speaking appearing in a certain context (*takḥṣīs, ikhtiṣās*) is due to an appropriate necessitating element/entity (*muqtaḍin munāsib*). This holds true for Qur’ānic speech and for regular speech alike (*wurūd al-kalām Qur’ānan kāna aw ghayrahu*; the latter also: *kalām al-ādamiyyīn*).⁶⁴⁵ Were it not that a particular characteristic (pl. *aḥwāl*) of speech – such as change in word order, prolixity, elision, etc. – was singled out for a certain context due to such a necessitating element, that would result in choosing one explanation for that particularity over another without sufficient cause (a process termed *tarjīḥ min ghayr murajjih* lit. “preferring [one option] without something to make [that option] preferred”).⁶⁴⁶ The term *muqtaḍin munāsib* is correlated with the legal notion of *‘illa* and may thus be reduced to the

⁶⁴³ *lā khilāfa anna l-Qur’āna nazala ‘alā waḥqī ‘ilmi l-bayāni bal arbābu hādihā l-‘ilmi kammalūhu mina l-Qur’āni* “there is no dispute that the Qur’ān came down according to the rule of good speech; in fact the masters of this field (*‘ilm al-bayān*) complemented it from the Qur’ān” (ibid., 37.1-2°). Al-Ṭūfī uses *‘ilm al-bayān* first as a denotation of *bayān* ‘good speech’ and second as a denotation of the field of studying good speech.

⁶⁴⁴ Ibid., 39-43.

⁶⁴⁵ Ibid., 39, 42.

⁶⁴⁶ Usually translated in modern scholarship as “preponderance without a preponderator” and sometimes compared to Leibniz’s “principle of sufficient reason.”

notion of ‘cause’.⁶⁴⁷ The entire section (*baḥth*) is devoted to proving the existence of a *muqtaḍin munāsib* (exhibiting, in the process, his mastery of the art of disputation). At one point he even makes the claim, when refuting an objection from an imagined opponent, that determining the question of *ta’līl al-af’āl* ‘whether God’s actions have a reason’ is ultimately based on the study of *‘ilm al-bayān*, endowing the discipline with doctrinal importance.⁶⁴⁸

It is here that we find the starkest tension between al-Ṭūfī’s conception of *‘ilm al-bayān* as a hermeneutical endeavor and his conception of it as a literary one. On one hand, *‘ilm al-bayān* is seen as venue through which one may determine the exact reason (*muqtaḍin munāsib*) of God’s choice of words in any given verse, an undertaking that the exegete is most likely to engage in. This endeavor is similar to but distinct from the question of *i’jāz al-Qur’ān* ‘the Qur’ān’s inimitability’.⁶⁴⁹ On the other hand, he stresses on several occasions that his undertaking concerns “speech in general” (*muṭlaq al-kalām*) and “the speech of humans” (*kalām al-ādamiyyīn*),⁶⁵⁰ and he predicates the entire book on the work of a scholar (Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn) whose primary interest was literary composition. These tensions are emblematic of *‘ilm al-bayān* as a whole, as it developed in the period of the seventh/thirteenth century and in the locale of the

⁶⁴⁷ Ibid., 40-41.

⁶⁴⁸ *ta’līl al-af’āl mabniyy ‘alā ‘ilm al-bayān bi-l-wasā’iṭ al-madhkūra*; ibid., 42. The argument goes as follows: in order to study God’s actions, one must first look at His essence; in order to study His essence, one must study the revealed law (*shar’*); in order to do that, one must study the miracle (*mu’jiz*); in order to do that, one must study Qur’ān, which is the miracle; and in order to do that one must study *‘ilm al-bayān*. The common Ash’arī position regarding the question of *ta’līl al-af’āl* is that God’s actions cannot have a reason. This is in opposition to the Mu’tazilī stance, which holds that His actions are in fact caused by a reason (*mu’allala*), a view shared by the Ḥanbalīs. On this question see Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī, *al-Arba’in fī uṣūl al-dīn*, ed. Aḥmad Hijāzī al-Saqqā, 2 vols., Cairo: Maktabat al-Kulliyāt al-Azhariyya, 1989, 1: 350-54; al-Rāzī ascribes the view in support of *ta’līl* not only to the Mu’tazilīs but also to “most of the recent legal theorists” (*akthar al-muta’akkkhirīn min al-fuqahā’*, p. 350).

⁶⁴⁹ Some discussion of *i’jāz* may be found within the deliberation of the merits of prose over poetry (*al-Iksīr*, 100-101). But al-Ṭūfī does not set out to prove the miraculous nature of the Qur’ān the way earlier literary scholars did; he does not even devote a section to addressing its various explanations.

⁶⁵⁰ *wa-lā shakka annā rattabnā l-baḥtha fī muṭlaqi l-kalāmi lā fī khuṣūṣi kawnihi Qur’ānan* “there is no doubt that we put together the study in [reference to] speech in general, not in its being specifically Qur’ān (*al-Iksīr*, 42.2-3^o). See also ibid., 39.2 (... *wurūd al-kalām Qur’ānan kāna aw ghayrahu*), and above.

Arabic East. And yet, among the scholars we are studying, al-Ṭūfī is the closest one to approach *‘ilm al-bayān* from a standpoint of hermeneutics. This comes across in his analysis of *majāz*.

Chapter 5: *Majāz* in Literary Theory Revisited

Preliminaries

As a technical term in classical Arabic literary theory, *majāz* was an innovation. When it first appeared in literary theoretical writings in the course of the fourth/tenth century, it was used inconsistently and – mostly – in passing. It was only in the fifth/eleventh century, with the works of Ibn Rashīq (d. 456/1065) in the West and ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081) in the East that we may speak of the integration of the concept of *majāz* into the field of literary theory.⁶⁵¹ After that, *majāz* became a common component in literary writings, referring roughly to figurative language.⁶⁵² Thanks to the work of Wolfhart Heinrichs, our knowledge of the early development of the concept, especially before it entered the field of literary theory, is quite firm, and we also know quite a bit about al-Jurjānī’s conception of the notion, especially as it was channeled via later scholars (al-Sakkākī, al-Qazwīnī). But within literary theory proper, the implicit wisdom is that “the potential of the *majāz* theory”⁶⁵³ was never realized in a meaningful way beyond the achievements of al-Jurjānī. Our aim in this chapter is to revisit the integration of

⁶⁵¹ One could debate whether al-Jurjānī should be treated here at all given that his disciplinary affiliations do not align with literary theory (see Part One, §3.2, but cf. Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 227-28). On the occurrences of *majāz* in early literary theory see Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 270-76. He ends with al-Jurjānī but does not mention Ibn Rashīq in this context (a contemporary of al-Jurjānī in the Islamic West), which is surprising given that the two reached a few similar results (Ibn Rashīq in a far more cursory way), and Heinrichs is well aware of Ibn Rashīq’s views on *majāz* (*Hand of the Northwind*, 48-49). There is also the work of al-Rāghib al-İṣfahānī (early fifth/eleventh century), but when he uses the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* pairing he does so in the theological-hermeneutical sense and in the lexicographical sense (using *isti’āra* as well), less in the literary context (see below). Similar is the case of Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī (fifth/eleventh century), who uses *majāz* in the lexicographical sense of the word.

⁶⁵² And yet, even in a later work such as Usāma b. Munqidh’s (d. 584/1188) *al-Badī’ fī naqd al-shi’r*, eds. Aḥmad Aḥmad Badawī and Ḥāmid ‘Abd al-Majīd, Cairo: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1960, there is no mention of *majāz*. The issue of the marginality of *majāz* in literary theory is discussed in §5.3.

⁶⁵³ The quote is taken from Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 271, who is referring here to the use of *majāz* in literary theory prior to al-Jurjānī, but I think it is a fair assessment of the state of the research with regards to *majāz* in literary theory in general. See also Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 140.

majāz into literary theory by focusing on its understanding within the works of *‘ilm al-bayān*. We find that despite the growing dissemination of ‘Jurjānian’ notions, *majāz* in this time and place was not quite a reflection of al-Jurjānī’s thought and that early ideas about the concept in literary theory continued to prevail. What emerges is a different theory of *majāz* in literary theory proper, one that was not explicitly defined but nevertheless posed a viable alternative to the theories of al-Jurjānī.

Before the term *majāz* entered the field of literary theory in the fourth/tenth century, it was used in old philological exegesis of the Qur’ān, in Mu‘tazilī theological circles, and in the realm of lexicography.⁶⁵⁴ In old philological exegesis – Abū ‘Ubayda’s (d. 209/824) *Majāz al-Qur’ān* is the clear example here – *majāz* was not set in opposition to *ḥaqīqa* and it did not (usually) refer to the utterance itself but rather to its explanation (“its *majāz* is so-and-so”). It was thus akin to *ma‘nā*, *taqdīr*, *tafsīr* and *ta’wīl*.⁶⁵⁵ The Qur’ānic utterances that “had” a *majāz* displayed ‘irregularities’ and ‘oddities’ that disrupted the one-to-one correspondence between form and meaning. But these disruptions were primarily of a grammatical nature, and it was rare to encounter figurative language among those *majāz* phenomena.⁶⁵⁶ *Majāz* is best translated here as ‘rewording’ or ‘meaning’.⁶⁵⁷ Mu‘tazilī theologians introduced the innovation of *ḥaqīqa* ‘literal

⁶⁵⁴ For a thorough study of the first two uses of *majāz* see Heinrichs, “Genesis” and *idem*, “Contacts.”

⁶⁵⁵ Fuat Sezgin, *Majāz al-Qur’ān*, editor’s introduction, 18-19; Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 117-29, esp. 124, 128. Almagor situates the use of *majāz* here within the literature of *ma‘ānī al-Qur’ān* (“Early,” 263 [307]). For examples in which *majāz* referred to the utterance itself and not its explanation, or it could be taken either way (like: *majāz al-Qur’ān!*), see Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 119, 125-28 (Heinrichs and Almagor disagree on this point).

⁶⁵⁶ Thus, in Q 41:11 “[God addressing heaven and earth:] *Come willingly or unwillingly!* They (f. dual) said: *we come willingly* (m. pl.),” Abū ‘Ubayda is concerned with heaven and earth speaking first in the feminine dual and then in masculine plural, but not with the fact that they are speaking in the first place! (see Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 119-20). Many of these oddities find their way into Ibn Fāris’ *al-Šāhibī* and al-Tha‘ālibī’s *Fiqh al-lughā*, under the rubric of *sunan al-‘arab* “the way Arabs talk” (lit. “[linguistic] habits of the Arabs”; see Part One, “The Philological Sense(s) of *Bayān*”).

⁶⁵⁷ Or in Udo Simon’s words, “*Majāz* in this context stands for ‘another way to say it’” (Udo Simon, “*Majāz*,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics*, Brill Online. Note, however, that *majāz* is *not* “predominantly

speech' as a counterpart to *majāz*. Now *majāz* applied to the utterance itself and referred mostly⁶⁵⁸ to figurative speech, as a tool to explain anthropomorphic language in the Qur'ān concerning God (like His sitting on a throne). It seems that in the early stages of this usage, theologians/philosophers like al-Kindī (d. 256/873) and al-Nāshī' al-Akbar (d. 293/906) used the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dyad in the realm of reality/ontological truth (the original meaning of *ḥaqīqa*), not in the realm of language: the 'true' existence (that of God) was contrasted with the 'derivative' one (that of mankind), not the literal with the figurative as it would eventually be used.⁶⁵⁹ In the realm of lexicography, *majāz* again was not set in opposition to *ḥaqīqa*: it referred to idiomatic expressions, but unlike the old Abū 'Ubaydan utterances, these were limited to the lexicon, not grammar.⁶⁶⁰ They covered what we would identify today as conceptual metaphors, dead

used for rhetorical devices") I am simplifying Heinrichs' "explanatory re-writing."

⁶⁵⁸ Non-figurative categories listed under *majāz* in the theological context, as well as in legal theory, have been commonly understood to be a relic of the old philological-hermeneutical usage. Thus, ellipsis (*ḥadhf*) and pleonasm (*ziyāda*) are not, strictly speaking, figurative, although in the case of ellipsis the expressions could also be explained by way of figurative usage. The famous example is Q 12: 82 "ask the town": if understood as *ḥadhf*, an elided *ahl* 'people' (of the town) is restored; if understood as *majāz*, the word "town" is taken figuratively to mean, by way of metonymy, its people (Heinrichs, "Contacts," 258-66). There is a parallel tendency in modern Western scholarship: "Some linguists argue that m[etonymy] and synecdoche can often be understood as nonfigurative expressions that result from verbal deletions intended to reduce redundancy" (Wallace Martin, "Metonymy," *The New Princeton Encyclopedia of Poetry and Poetics*, Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1993).

⁶⁵⁹ For al-Nāshī' al-Akbar see Heinrichs, "Genesis," 136-37; "Contacts," 256-57. Al-Kindī uses *majāz* both in a linguistic and in an ontological way in his brief epistle on the "real doer" (*al-fā'il al-ḥaqq*) versus the "doer by extension" (*al-fā'il... alladhī huwa bi-l-majāz*). When *bi-l-majāz* is contrasted with *al-ḥaqq/bi-l-ḥaqīqa* (real doer/doer by extension), he seems to refer to reality: only God, he says, is a real doer, whereas human doers do not actually "do" (and later: that their "action" is not an action in reality). But he also uses *majāz* explicitly on the level of language when he states that all doers "are named 'doers' by extension" (emphasis added; *tusammā fā'ilātin bi-l-majāz*). See *Risālat al-Kindī fī l-Fā'il al-ḥaqq al-awwal al-tāmm wa-l-fā'il al-nāqiṣ alladhī huwa bi-l-majāz*, in Roshdī Rashed and Jean Jolivet (eds. and trans.), *Œuvres philosophiques et scientifiques d'al-Kindī*, vol. 2: *Metaphysique et cosmologie*, Leiden: Brill, 1998, 169-171. See also Vishanoff, *Formation*, 22, on a similar take by al-Ash'arī (d. 324/936). The ontological understanding of *ḥaqīqa-majāz* is later reflected in Sufi thinking and in the famous adage, *al-majāzu qanṭaratu l-ḥaqīqa* "the 'figurative' is the bridge towards the 'proper'," i.e., "the world is the bridge to the Divine" (Heinrichs, "Contacts," 257), to be discussed later in Ahmed, *What Is Islam?*, 393-97 (also Wolfhart Heinrichs, "Paired Metaphors in *Muḥdath* Poetry," *Occasional Papers of the School of Abbasid Studies* 1 [1986], 1-22, here: 17).

⁶⁶⁰ Thus, instead of speaking of "idiomatic expressions" in the context of Abū 'Ubayda the way Heinrichs does, I would prefer "linguistic inconsistencies/anomalies/ambiguities." In the lexicographical context *majāz* referred to the utterances themselves, not their explanation.

metaphors, metonymies, and idiomatic sayings; in other words, they displayed figurative language.⁶⁶¹ Moreover, they all found their way into the dictionaries, either as regular entries or under special headings (*majāz*, *isti'āra/musta'ār*, even *kināya*), but either way they were conceived of as part of the Arabic lexicon.⁶⁶² Unlike the *majāz* of the theologians, these idiomatic lexical expressions did not have, and could not be reworded into, a counterpart *ḥaqīqa*: they were, to use the later terms, themselves part of *ḥaqīqa*.⁶⁶³ *Majāz* is best rendered here as ‘lexical semantic extension’ (and at times, ‘conceptual metaphor’).⁶⁶⁴

⁶⁶¹ This could serve as an important link between the old non-figurative meaning of *majāz* and the new figurative meaning found in theology and legal theory. Heinrichs pondered over what could account for the shrinking in meaning of *majāz* to “metaphorical language,” and his hypothesis in “Genesis,” 139, still does not explain it. Of course, historically, the lexicographical use of *majāz* could have, and very well may have, postdated the theological one. It is of note that already al-Kalbī (d. 146/763) mentions the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dichotomy at the outset of his Qur’ānic exegesis (though not in the body of his work; see Kees Versteegh, *Arabic Grammar and Qur’ānic Exegesis in Early Islam*, Leiden: Brill, 1993, 106, 122, quoted in Simon, “Majāz”), meaning that the use of *majāz* as a reference to some form of figurative speech (perhaps in this lexicographical sense, despite the counterpart *ḥaqīqa*?) was known early on, even before the time of Abū ‘Ubayda (this would change the historical narrative laid out by Ibn Taymiyya). Versteegh thinks that *majāz* by al-Kalbī included the category of *muqaddam wa-mu’akhhkar* (*Grammar and Exegesis*, 106), but this assessment is purely anachronistic. On the authenticity of early *tafsīrs* see *ibid.*, 41-62, but according to Gilliot, the *tafsīr* of al-Kalbī “demeure énigmatique” (Claude Gilliot, “Cornelis H.M. Versteegh, *Arabic Grammar and Qur’ānic Exegesis in Early Islam* [Review],” *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft* 146.1 [1996], 207-211, here: 210).

⁶⁶² My analysis is based on an examination of Ibn Durayd’s *Jamharat al-lughā*, al-Zamakhsharī’s *Asās al-balāgha*, al-Tha’ālibī’s *Fiqh al-lughā*, and Ibn Manẓūr’s *Lisān al-‘arab* (the last as a “control” text). Of course many other sources corroborate my conclusion. For instance, it seems that al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī (fl. ≤ 409/1018) uses *majāz* in this sense, at least in his dictionary; see Key, *Linguistic Frame of Mind*, 131-32 (and see Baalbaki, below). Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī also has this meaning of *majāz* in mind when he speaks of it within the various categorizations of the Arabic lexicon (*Sirr*, 34, 100; he uses the word *kalām* in this context, but also *lughā* and *alfāz* ‘words’). Even the early al-Jāhīz, who uses *majāz* in several distinct senses, may employ the term to refer to conceptual metaphors and idiomatic sayings that are part of the lexicon (see the examples cited in Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 134). The fact that scholars like al-Rāghib and al-Khafājī employ the term *ḥaqīqa* in their discursive pronouncements, even though *majāz* in this sense has no equivalent *ḥaqīqa*, bears witness to the influence that the theological understanding of the term had on adjacent fields, especially in cases like metonymies and conceptual verb metaphors where one could easily postulate a *ḥaqīqa*. We say above that all of the aforementioned idioms were conceived of as part of the lexicon, but it should be stressed that scholars recognized that the lexicon was two-tiered: the primordial vocabulary, and the fully-established conventional vocabulary (e.g., first *yad* referred to the human body part, then it referred to ‘favor’ or ‘power’, which is carried out via one’s hand). Phrases that point to this two-tier aspect are *aṣl*, “[*X*=*Y*] *thumma qīla* [*X*],” “[*X*] *min* [*X*],” and they are preserved in ‘ordinary’ dictionaries as well.

⁶⁶³ Metonymies and conceptual metaphors probably formed the most important tangent point between the theological understanding of *majāz* and the lexical one, because they could easily be said to have a *ḥaqīqa*. See also the early occurrence of the dyad *ḥaqīqa-majāz* in the exegesis of al-Kalbī, fn. 661.

⁶⁶⁴ On semantic extension from a modern perspective applied mostly to modern Arabic see Mohssen Esseesy, “Semantic Extension,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics*, Brill Online.

Majāz of the Lexicographers

Because the lexicographical sense of *majāz* has ramifications for our understanding of *majāz* in literary theory, and because it has not been identified as an independent meaning of *majāz* in modern research,⁶⁶⁵ we should pause on its usage here. The sources often make the assertion that knowledge of *majāz* rests with the *ahl al-lugha* ‘lexicographers’. Al-Jaṣṣāṣ (d. 370/981), who offered the first well-developed account of *majāz* in legal theory, claimed that the lexicographers wrote books on *majāz* in which they state whether a given word is *ḥaqīqa* or *majāz*.⁶⁶⁶ Abū al-Ḥusayn al-Baṣrī (d. 436/1044) is also said to have deferred to the lexicographers in matters of *majāz*.⁶⁶⁷ But according Ibn Taymiyya (d. 728/1328), this was a lie created by the theologians in order to justify their understanding of *majāz* as non-literal language.⁶⁶⁸ Heinrichs concludes that since we do not have such lexicographical works on *majāz* – the closest one, by Ibn Durayd (d. 321/933), contains the term *isti‘āra*, not *majāz* – Ibn Taymiyya was essentially correct.⁶⁶⁹ But too much emphasis should not be placed on this terminological inconsistency,⁶⁷⁰ and evidence from the late fourth/tenth and into the sixth/twelfth centuries shows that ‘figurative’ or ‘borrowed’ uses of words were sometimes mentioned as such in the dictionaries. Unlike the

⁶⁶⁵ It will become clear, however, that *majāz* in this sense is somewhat indistinguishable from *isti‘āra* in its “Koranic” sense, as Heinrichs refers to it (quotation marks his), which he discusses with regards to Ibn Qutayba and al-Rummānī (*Hand of the Northwind*, 14, 30-32, 37, 53). Notably, Heinrichs recognizes (at least in the case of Ibn Qutayba) that the examples cited are “idiomatic,” “an integral part of the language,” and “fixed elements of the language” (ibid., 31). The lexicographical sense of *majāz* later proliferated in the works of legal theory.

⁶⁶⁶ Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 267-68. Heinrichs remarks, “An intriguing statement, to say the least! It is not easy to see what books he might be referring to [...] [I]t looks as if al-Jaṣṣāṣ is talking from hearsay rather than referring to a number of books on his desk (or carpet).”

⁶⁶⁷ Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 116 (see also §5.2 for further examples).

⁶⁶⁸ Ibid.; “Contacts,” 268.

⁶⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁷⁰ In other words, instead of proceeding from the term to its denotatum, I am making the *shawāhid* my point of departure.

claim of al-Jaṣṣāṣ, however, they were not set against the term *ḥaqīqa*. (This does not refute the claim that the theologians were indeed looking to corroborate their theories using ‘outsiders’.)

The clearest example of a dictionary that contains listings of *majāz* usage is *Asās al-balāgha* by al-Zamakhsharī (d. 538/1144). Al-Zamakhsharī follows most root entries with a list of *majāz* usages (“*wa-min al-majāz... [idiom]*”). Although this is a much later dictionary – after *majāz* had been fully developed in legal theory and had taken hold in literary theory – the fact that it does not couple *majāz* with *ḥaqīqa* points to an earlier understanding of the term.⁶⁷¹ (He uses the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dichotomy elsewhere.⁶⁷²) Interestingly, al-Zamakhsharī does not normally provide an explanation for the idiomatic expression, assuming that his audience would know its meaning. His purpose, then, is simply to point out idiomatic expressions in the vocabulary.⁶⁷³

Sometimes, instead of the heading *wa-min al-majāz*, we find *wa-min al-musta‘ār* or *wa-min al-isti‘āra* ‘borrowed/borrowing’ (in fact, most of the entries within the letter ‘*ayn*⁶⁷⁴’); occasionally,

⁶⁷¹ There is some earlier evidence as well. According to Baalbaki, Ibn Fāris (d. 395/1004) in his dictionary *Maqāyīs al-lughā* also included “metaphorical usage” in some lemmata, “normally towards their end.” Similarly, the contemporaneous al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī in his *al-Mufradāt fī ḡharīb al-Qur‘ān* attends to metaphorical usage of words. See the important and long-awaited Ramzi Baalbaki, *The Arabic Lexicographical Tradition: From the 2nd/8th to the 12th/18th Century*, Handbook of Oriental Studies, vol. 107, Brill: Leiden, 2014, 359, 69-70. Al-Zamakhsharī is treated in *ibid.*, 356-63. For Baalbaki, the “general” lemmata in al-Zamakhsharī are taken as the “literal” or “*ḥaqīqī*” usage, even though he recognizes the absence of the term *ḥaqīqa* and notices that there is not always a difference between the words listed as regular entries and the words listed as *majāz*.

⁶⁷² It even appears once in his dictionary, within the stylized preface: “Among them [the book’s special features] is the establishing of rules for good language (? , *faṣl al-khiṭāb*) and eloquent speech, by setting aside the *majāz* from the *ḥaqīqa* and the indirect expression from the explicit one (*kināya/taṣrīḥ*)” (*Asās*, 8; the *saj*‘ rhyme is *faṣīḥ/taṣrīḥ*). Needless to say, in the course of the dictionary there is no mention of *ḥaqīqa*.

⁶⁷³ One doubts that he did so for apologetic purposes due to his Mu‘tazilī affiliation. Rather, we would say that it was his genuine interest in the Arabic lexicon that drove this project. Baalbaki goes further in saying that al-Zamakhsharī wanted to provide the aspiring writer of prose/poetry raw materials for good composition (*Lexicographical Tradition*, 359, 362). It is of note, then, that he incorporated *shawāhid* from the poetry of the *muḥdathūn*, even as late as al-Ma‘arrī (*ibid.*, 362).

⁶⁷⁴ Several exceptions have *wa-min al-majāz*: ‘*th.th*, ‘*dh.b*, ‘*dh.l*, ‘*d.d*, ‘*ff*, ‘*q.s*, ‘*q.l*, ‘*n.n*, and ‘*y.n* (*Asās al-balāgha*, 409, 411, 412, 423, 428, 430, 431, 437, 443). If one were to overanalyze this point, one would postulate that he started writing the dictionary with the letter ‘*ayn*, following the old phonetic ordering of letters, and that he first used the terms found in Ibn Durayd, only to change them to *majāz* later on (al-Zamakhsharī ends up with the *abjad* system).

he uses *wa-min al-kināya* ‘indirect expression’; yet other times, there is no heading at all.⁶⁷⁵ If we compare some of the *majāz* entries listed here with the entries listed in the two sections on metaphorical usage in the end of Ibn Durayd’s dictionary *Jamharat al-lughā*,⁶⁷⁶ we find interesting overlap. Cross-referencing these with al-Tha‘ālibī’s (d. 429/1038) *Fiqh al-lughā*, a work on ‘lexicology’,⁶⁷⁷ and with Ibn Manzūr’s (d. 711/1311 or 2) *Lisān al-‘arab*, a ‘regular’ dictionary amalgamating early sources, we find further overlap. The examples are not necessarily identical, but the linguistic phenomena that they reflect are. In fact, if we revisit the early works of Ibn Qutayba (d. 276/889), *Ta’wīl mushkil al-Qur’ān*, and al-Rummānī (d. 384/994), *al-Nukat fī i’jāz al-Qur’ān*, who tackle metaphorical language in the Qur’ān, we find that the vast majority of *shawāhid* reflect the lexicographical *majāz* we are treating below.⁶⁷⁸ Let us discuss a few

⁶⁷⁵ In other words, even within the general portion of the entry we come across idiomatic usage, and vice versa, some *majāz* words one would expect to find as regular ones (e.g., *a’yān* ‘notables’ is cited under *majāz*; *Asās*, 443). See also Baalbaki, *Lexicographical Tradition*, 360. When the heading *wa-min al-kināya* occurs, it is usually in addition to *wa-min al-majāz*, but without any apparent difference (see, e.g. *Asās*, 449, s.v. *gh.r.f*). Another heading we may come across is *wa-min al-mushtaqq minhu* ‘derivative of it’ (e.g., *Asās*, 23), which may very well be connected to al-Jāhiz’s use of *ishtiqaq* with regards to figurative language (see Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 134, fn. 1).

⁶⁷⁶ The appendices – which do not even follow one another – are titled *bāb al-isti’ārāt* “section on borrowings” and *bāb mā yusta’aru fa-yutakallamu bihi fī ghayr mawḍi’ihi* “section on that which is borrowed and spoken in a place that is not its own.” Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan Ibn Durayd, *Kitāb Jamharat al-lughā*, ed. Ramzī Munīr Ba’albakī, 3 vols, Beirut: Dār al-‘Ilm li-l-Malāyīn, 1988, 3: 1255-57, 1312-1313. On the difference between the two appendices see Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 37-38 (note that what Heinrichs identifies here as verb metaphors are conceptual metaphors; see below). Within the second appendix, Ibn Durayd makes a connection between idiomatic sayings and the old poetic meaning of *isti’āra* as a metaphor containing a ‘foreign’ element (i.e., no substratum), whereby it is a physical object that is deemed ‘borrowed’, not a linguistic element (we elaborate on this in the course of the chapter). Al-Zamakhsharī does not make such distinctions within his *majāz* entries.

⁶⁷⁷ Baalbaki (*Lexicographical Tradition*, 268) lists it under the “multithematic works” of the *mubawwab* lexica (or in Baalbaki’s terms, onomasiological: proceeding from the question “how does one convey X [a notion]?” whereas the alphabetical, semasiological dictionaries proceed from the question “what is the meaning of Y [a word]?”). On the meaning of lexicology vs. lexicography see Part One, “The Philological Sense(s) of *Bayān*”.

⁶⁷⁸ *Ta’wīl*, 103-84 (using the terms *majāz* and *isti’āra*); *al-Nukat*, 79-87 (using the term *isti’āra* [and contrasting it with *ḥaqīqa*]). See also fn. 665. This comes fairly close to saying that there is no real figurative speech in the Qur’ān. But al-Sharīf al-Raḍī (d. 406/1016) does include ‘live’ metaphors in his *Talkhīṣ al-bayān fī majāzāt al-Qur’ān*, although admittedly, they are hard to find. One example is *tabawwa’ū [...] l-īmāna* “made their dwelling in belief” (Q 59:9); al-Sharīf al-Raḍī, *Talkhīṣ al-bayān fī majāzāt al-Qur’ān*, ed. Muḥammad ‘Abd al-Ghanī Ḥasan, Cairo: Dār Iḥyā’ al-Kutub al-‘Arabiyya, 1955, 330. This usage does not appear in the dictionaries (that is, *tabawwa’a* + entity that is not a dwelling place), but Ibn Manzūr does cite it as a case of an utterance *‘alā l-mathal*, which I take to refer to ‘live’ figurative speech (*Lisān al-‘arab* 1: 382, and see the meaning of *mathal* as figurative speech/metaphor below). Interestingly, this is an example Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn dwells on (no pun intended), pointing to his

cases; the following categorization is mine and is meant purely for explanatory purposes.

Conceptual Metaphors

Ibn Durayd tells us that the verb ‘to bury’ originally applied to “the dead” but then extended to “secrets,” as in, “he buried his secret, i.e., concealed it.”⁶⁷⁹ This is an example of a conceptual metaphor: at first glance nothing seems to be metaphorical about ‘burying one’s secret’, but it is, to apply Lakoff and Johnson’s terms, a “metaphor we live by.” It reflects a way in which our conceptual system perceives reality through metaphors, in this case the conceptual metaphor IDEAS ARE PEOPLE (compare: “His ideas will *live on* forever,” “Cognitive psychology is still in its *infancy*,” “Where did you *dig up* that idea?”).⁶⁸⁰ Ibn Durayd lists this entry under his *bāb al-isti’ārāt*. Al-Zamakhsharī has it under the *majāz* listings of the root *d.f.n.*⁶⁸¹ Al-Tha’ālibī does not have this specific example under the section *fī al-majāz*, but *all of the examples* that he does adduce under that section are conceptual metaphors, like *fawqa* ‘above’ applied to something that is ‘less’ (MORE IS UP metaphor, even if it is more ‘smallness’)⁶⁸² or *akala* ‘eating [up]’ in the

interest in ‘live’ metaphors. Another example is the famous “wing of humility” in Q 17:24 *wa-khfīd lahumā janāḥa l-dhullī* “lower unto them [your parents] the wing of humility”: variations of the phrase *khafaḍa janāḥahu* are recorded in the lexicons, but not the combination *janāḥ+dhull* (*Majāzāt al-Qur’ān*, 200; *Asās*, 102 [j.n.ḥ], 170 [kh.f.ḍ], 206-207 [dh.l.l]; *Lisān al-‘arab* 1: 697, 2: 1211, 3: 1513 [in all three cases the verse is adduced but not as a lexical entry]). To those who may be tempted to dismiss the body of Arabic lexicographical works as circular and unreliable, I suggest searching for further examples of Qur’ānic metaphors that are not cited in the dictionaries as part of conventional vocabulary.

⁶⁷⁹ *Jamhara* 3: 1256 (*wa-l-dafnu dafnu l-mayyiti thumma qīla dafana sirrahu idhā katamahu*). To express other extensions in the lexicon he also uses variations of the formula, “X means Y, then it became so prevalent (*kathura*) that they said X₁.”

⁶⁸⁰ George Lakoff and Mark Johnson, *Metaphors We Live By*, Chicago: Chicago University Press, 2003 [originally 1980], 47. The examples are theirs. According to them (p. 46), what structures our conceptual view of the world is metaphorical (in part), and this metaphorical structure is reflected “in our literal language.” Elsewhere they refer to these metaphors as “conventional metaphors” (e.g., *ibid.*, 196-97) or even “literal metaphors” (*ibid.*, 209).

⁶⁸¹ *Asās*, 191 (s.v. *d.f.n.*). For a ‘regular’ entry see Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-‘arab* 2: 1397-98. He preserves the idea of a lexical extension with regards to this word by referring to ‘burying the dead’ as the *aṣl* ‘origin; basic usage’.

sense of ‘consuming entirely’ (‘eating up’ money, a fire ‘eating up’ wood; [NON-ETERNAL/ PERISHABLE] ENTITIES ARE FOOD metaphor).⁶⁸³ The second half of Ibn Durayd’s *bāb al-isti‘ārāt* contains additional conceptual metaphors, like *ẓami’ tu ilā liqā’ika* “I was thirsty [i.e. yearning] to see you” (compare the English “to have a thirst for [something]”; IDEAS ARE FOOD [DRINK] metaphor), also cited by al-Zamakhsharī as one of the *majāz* instances of *ẓ.m.*.⁶⁸⁴

What I am referring to here as conceptual metaphors is not a stand-alone concept (for that see ‘dead metaphor’), but rather a relational one. On the grammatical level, this relation typically involves a verb. The “metaphorical” choice of a certain verb (‘to bury’, ‘to thirst for’) is dictated not by the stand-alone concepts of ‘burying’ or ‘being thirsty’, but rather by a certain metaphor that structures our conceptual system, like IDEAS ARE PEOPLE/FOOD. Such metaphors are part of a system, meaning that they manifest themselves on a variety of literal expressions: the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR yields → ‘defending’ a claim, ‘winning’ an argument, ‘attacking’ one’s weak point, etc.⁶⁸⁵ For our purposes here, we are limiting the notion of

⁶⁸² *Metaphors We Live By*, 15. Lakoff and Johnson’s examples do not cover a case of ‘more in smallness’, but it is clear that is still based on the conceptual metaphor MORE [OF ANYTHING] IS UP. Citing al-Jāhīz, al-Tha‘ālibī provides the stock example Q 2:26 “God is not ashamed to strike a similitude even of a gnat, or aught above it [i.e., anything smaller],” to which al-Farrā’ (d. 207/822) is said to have remarked, “*wa-mā fawqahā* is [said] with regards to small things, but God knows best!” (*Fiqh al-lughā*, 399). In al-Jāhīz’s wording, as it is reflected by al-Tha‘ālibī, *majāz* is connected to the idea of *jawāz* ‘acceptability’ (“The [ancient] Arabs allow [such-and-such]”). Cf. the listing of this meaning of *fawqa*, fairly at the outset, in *Lisān al-‘arab* 5: 3487 (or Lane, *Lexicon*, 2462).

⁶⁸³ *Fiqh al-lughā*, 397-98: *akala l-māl* (“by which they mean nothing but annihilation [or total exhaustion/ consumption],” *wa-innamā yadhabūna ilā l-fanā*), *akalat-hu l-nār* (in al-Zamakhsharī, *akalat al-nār al-ḥaṭab; Asās*, 19). Lakoff and Johnson do not speak of this specific metaphor but an adjacent one, IDEAS ARE FOOD (*Metaphors We Live By*, 46). Whereas *fawqa* was an orientational metaphor (UP/DOWN, FRONT/BACK), these are ontological ones (ibid., 25). To explain how it is that the *fire* is doing the eating (not just the wood being consumed by it), Lakoff and Johnson would say (p. 33) that “[p]erhaps the most obvious ontological metaphors are those where the physical object is further specified as being a person,” i.e., personification. Al-Zamakhsharī specifies the factitive version of the first example, namely *fulān [...] akkala māli wa-sharrabahu ay aṭ’amahu l-nās* (referring to a Robin Hood-type person?). For a listing of these examples as regular dictionary entries see *Lisān al-‘arab* 1: 101 (or Lane, *Lexicon*, 71).

⁶⁸⁴ *Jamhara* 3: 1256; *Asās*, 404 (“I am thirsty to see you”). For the contents of the first half of Ibn Durayd’s *bāb al-isti‘ārāt* see ‘metonymy’ below.

⁶⁸⁵ *Metaphors We Live By*, 4.

conceptual metaphors to those that are based on fundamental human perception of the physical and non-physical world or on human understanding of cause and effect; in other words, those that are fairly universal. (I am excluding metonymy here since it is a single-term figurative expression.) Lakoff and Johnson make no claim for universality, and they stress that some conceptual metaphors are culturally-specific.⁶⁸⁶ I have no intention of getting into a discussion with them, or with any of the modern Western linguists for that matter; my aim, rather, is to provide distinctions that could help illuminate a facet of medieval Arabic linguistic thought. The culturally-specific ‘conceptual metaphors’ are treated under ‘idiomatic sayings’ (e.g., “his garment slept” for “his garment became worn out”).

Dead Metaphors

Dead metaphors refer here to those metaphorical expressions (in Lakoff and Johnson’s terms) that are not part of a full-fledged system: they are isolated instantiations of a certain conceptual metaphor. Grammatically they tend to be nouns. The Arabic *ra’s al-māl* lit. ‘head of property’ i.e. ‘capital’ is a reflection of the conceptual metaphor PROPERTY IS A PERSON, but no additional expressions of this metaphorical concept are reflected in the language (*‘the foot of property’). According to Lakoff and Johnson, “[i]f any metaphorical expressions deserve to be called “dead,” it is these [...]”⁶⁸⁷ Al-Tha‘ālibī’s section titled *isti‘āra* is dedicated to dead metaphors and to idiomatic sayings (some conceptual metaphors as well). What these expressions typically have in common is that they contain a ‘foreign object’, usually but not always a human body

⁶⁸⁶ Ibid., 42, 118, 227, 231.

⁶⁸⁷ Ibid., 55 (52-55 for the “partial nature of metaphorical structuring”). The examples they provide are ‘foot of a mountain’, ‘a head of cabbage’, ‘a leg of a table’. In general, Lakoff and Johnson are loath to refer to their findings as “dead metaphors,” a term they attribute to the ‘objectivist’ strand of linguistics (ibid., 211-12). Identifying the above cases as primarily “noun” metaphors in mine. One cannot help but notice that the vast majority of the conceptual metaphors that Lakoff and Johnson adduce involve a verb; more than that: they are the archetypal ones (see the examples “wasting time,” “attacking positions,” and “going our separate ways” in ibid., 55).

part.⁶⁸⁸ Examples of dead metaphors include *anf al-jabal* ‘the nose of the mountain’ for ‘a prominent part of the mountain’, *kabid al-samā* ‘the liver of the sky’ for ‘the meridian’, *yad al-dahr* ‘the hand of time’ probably in the sense of *yad^a l-dahr* ‘until the [length of the] hand of time’ for ‘never’, or phrases with *umm* ‘mother’: *umm al-kitāb* ‘the essence of the book’ (Q 13:39, 43:4, some say a reference to *al-lawḥ al-mahfūz*), *umm al-qurā* ‘the greatest town’ (Q 6: 92, usually taken as a reference to Mecca), *umm al-nujūm* ‘the milky way’, *ummuhāt al-khayr* ‘the best goods of the earth’. They are listed by al-Zamakhsharī as *majāz* uses.⁶⁸⁹ One might have expected to find here fixed terms such as *asad* ‘lion’ for ‘brave’⁶⁹⁰ or *ḥimār* ‘ass’ for ‘stupid’, but the lexicographers do not mention these occurrences. One exception is *ma’fūn* in the sense of ‘mentally drained out, stupid’: originally, Ibn Durayd and al-Zamakhsharī tell us, *afn* referred to ‘a she-camel whose milk is all drained out’.⁶⁹¹

An example of a verbal dead metaphor (that I would not characterize as a conceptual metaphor) is the verb *arāda* ‘to want’ in the sense of ‘is about to’. Al-Tha‘ālibī cites “so-and-so is about to (*yurīdu*) die” and the Qur’ānic “a wall about to tumble down” (Q 18:77) under the

⁶⁸⁸ Hence this use of *isti‘āra* is tied to the old poetic meaning of the term as ‘object borrowing’ (al-Tha‘ālibī even cites several of the classical poetic ‘borrowings’ in the following section dealing with *isti‘ārāt* found in the Qur’ān and in ancient Arabic poetry). One of the reasons I am placing little to no emphasis on the terms themselves is that Ibn Durayd’s *bāb al-isti‘ārāt* does *not* contain expressions containing ‘foreign objects’! There we find what we are terming here metonymies, conceptual metaphors, and idiomatic expressions. The place where we find ‘foreign objects’ is his *bāb mā yusta‘āru [etc.]* (though more specific cases than *ra’s al-māl*, see below), meaning he is using the term *isti‘āra* in each of the sections differently.

⁶⁸⁹ Al-Tha‘ālibī, *Fiqh al-lughā*, 326-28/al-Zamakhsharī, *Asās*, 23, 113, 711, 21, respectively. Al-Zamakhsharī does not adduce the Qur’ānic *umm* examples; al-Tha‘ālibī does not adduce the non-Qur’ānic ones. The example *yad al-dahr* is vocalized in al-Tha‘ālibī (by the editor?) as *yadu l-dahri*: perhaps it does not mean *abadan* here but rather something like ‘fate’; see Ibn Fāris’ example of *yad^a l-dayr* in Part One, “The Philological Sense(s) of *Bayān*.”

⁶⁹⁰ This should not be confused with the ‘unmarked’ sentences “Zayd is a lion” or “I saw a lion,” which the medieval Arabic scholars give as archetypal examples for ‘live’ metaphors.

⁶⁹¹ This is an example of an entry that appears without the *majāz* heading in al-Zamakhsharī’s work (the heading *majāz* is absent for the root *a.f.n.*; see also Baalbaki’s observations, above). But al-Zamakhsharī preserves the idea of a semantic extension here by stating that the word is “from” (*min*), i.e. originally applied to, *afinat al-nāqa* (Ibn Durayd has *al-afn qillat laban al-nāqa thumma yuqālu [...]*). See *Jamhara* 3: 1256; *Asās*, 19.

heading “section on the attribution of an action to [an entity] which is not the doer in reality.”⁶⁹²

The Qur’ānic example is then glossed as *min tawassu’* (lit. extension) *al-‘arab fī l-majāz wa-l-isti‘āra*, preserving the identification of such a case with the lexicographical terminology of semantic extension.⁶⁹³ Other verbal dead metaphors are clear semantic extensions (expressed by Ibn Durayd via their *maṣdar*) like *wird* ‘coming to’ (originally: coming to a source of water) and *nuj‘a* ‘asking for’ (originally: asking for rain/searching for pasture).⁶⁹⁴

Metonymies

Metonymies form a considerable part of Ibn Durayd’s *bāb al-isti‘ārāt*. Grammatically a noun (or a phrase acting as a single term), a metonymic expression refers to its denotatum not by its original name but rather by the name of an entity/idea that is related to it. There is a variety of metonymic relations; common ones include the part for whole (synecdoche), physical contiguity, producer for product, place for event, etc. Like the conceptual metaphor and dead metaphor, they are fixed expressions in the lexicon. Some of the examples in Ibn Durayd’s *bāb al-isti‘ārāt* appear in al-Zamakhsharī’s dictionary as *majāz* (in general, al-Zamakhsharī does not include many metonymies). Al-Tha‘ālibī does away with the headings *isti‘āra* or *majāz* and opts instead for the more precise [*fīmā*] *yunāsibuhu wa-yuqāribuhu* “section on [expressions] that are related

⁶⁹² *Fiqh al-lugha*, 396-97 (*fī idāfat al-fī’l ilā mā laysa bi-fā’ilin ‘alā l-ḥaqīqa*). The term *ḥaqīqa* refers here to the real world, not to literal language. Two primary cases are discussed, ‘wanting’ and ‘saying’ (*qawl*). Al-Tha‘ālibī himself states (via an anecdote attributed to al-Ṣūlī [d. 267/946]) that *qāla* is not like *arāda* since the latter has a different meaning – “lexically” (*fī l-lugha*) – when applied to “a non-discerning entity” (*ghayr mumayyiz*). In our terms, *qāla* attributed to an inanimate being would be a case of ‘live’ metaphor. The section that immediately follows *fī idāfat al-fī’l [etc.]* is the one on *majāz*.

⁶⁹³ *Ibid.*, 396. Al-Zamakhsharī cites the Qur’ānic example among the *majāz* occurrences of *r.w.y.d* [sic], but with no accompanying explanation (*Asās*, 258). For the listing of this meaning of *arāda* in the regular dictionaries see *Lisān al-‘arab* 3: 1772; Lane, *Lexicon*, 1184.

⁶⁹⁴ *Jamhara* 3: 1255-56; *Asās*, 671 (*warada al-mā’* is placed under the general entry; *warada al-balad* under *majāz*), 621 (*nuj‘a* under the general entry; *intaja‘a* ‘asking for a favor’ under *majāz*). Ibn Manẓūr preserves different interpretations for *warada* in these senses (*Lisān al-‘arab* 6: 4810-11; for *n.j.* ‘ see 6: 4353).

[to the intended meaning] and are [physically] near it.”⁶⁹⁵ Common examples for metonymies are *samā* ‘sky’ for ‘rain’, *ghayth* ‘rain’ for ‘vegetation [produced by the rain]’, and *rāwiya* ‘camel carrying the leather water-bag’ for ‘leather water-bag’.⁶⁹⁶

Idiomatic Sayings

By far most of the entries that we come across in al-Zamakhsharī’s listings of *majāz* are what we would call idiomatic sayings. They are probably a result of some underlying conceptual metaphor, but since they are culturally-specific, it is not always easy to identify them. What is more, they are not systematic expressions of a conceptual metaphor (*sakata* ‘*anhu al-ghaḍab*’ occurs but something like **takallama bihi al-ghaḍab* does not). Examples can also be found in the second part of Ibn Duryad’s *bāb al-isti ‘ārāt* and in his *bāb mā yusta ‘āru fa-yutakallamu bihi fī ghayr mawḍi ‘ihi* (the latter exhibiting ‘misplaced’ entities, usually animal body parts applied to humans or to a different animal). Al-Tha‘ālibī cites them across sections, most notably *isti ‘āra*.⁶⁹⁷ Here are some examples, followed by the place of their citation by the lexicographers; some are akin to proverbs⁶⁹⁸: *nāma thawbī* “my garment became worn out (lit. slept)” [*bāb al-*

⁶⁹⁵ *Fiqh al-lughā*, 348. He also includes here the cases of “a sleeping/wakeful night” (*laylun nā’imun/sāhirun*) for ‘a night in which people go to sleep/stay awake’ (*yunāmu fīhi/yus’haru fīhi*), which we later find in al-Jurjānī. I think they are better aligned with our examples of idiomatic expressions, below.

⁶⁹⁶ Ibn Durayd, *Jamhara* 3: 1255-56. Al-Zamakhsharī cites the metonymic meaning of *samā*’ in *Asās*, 309 (where it is said to refer more specifically to copious rain), but there is no mention of *ghayth* as vegetation or *rāwiya* as the water-bag. For al-Tha‘ālibī’s examples see *Fiqh al-lughā*, 348, but some appear also within the section “mentioning the place and intending who/[what] is in it” (ibid., 346), like “city” for its inhabitants or “pot” for the food inside it.

⁶⁹⁷ *Fiqh al-lughā*, 426-28. All in all, this section contains dead metaphors (of the type *ra’s al-māl*), idiomatic expressions (of the type *tanafassa al-rabī*’, see below), and proverbial sayings (“*adab* is food for the soul,” “youth is the first fruit of life,” “white hair is the address of death.”).

⁶⁹⁸ And yet with regards to clear-cut proverbs al-Zamakhsharī will tell us it is a *mathal* ‘proverb’. One example is *anā a’rifu l-arnaba wa-udhunayhā* lit. “I know the hare along with its ears,” which means something like “I know the issue from all its sides” (*wa-fī l-mathali anā a’rifu l-arnaba wa-udhunayhā ay a’rifuhu wa-lā yakhfā ‘alayya kamā lā takhfā ‘alayya l-arnabu*; *Asās*, 14). The layer of lexicographical writings that deal with *majāz* (*listi ‘āra*) are thus a distant cousin of the lexicographical literature on *amthāl* and in some cases, *gharīb* (on the latter two see Baalbaki, *Lexicographical Tradition*, 63 ff., 100 ff.).

isti 'ārāt; majāz],⁶⁹⁹ *jā 'a nāshiran udhunayhi* “he came threatening/coveting (lit. spreading [pricking up] his ears)” [*bāb mā yusta 'āru; majāz*],⁷⁰⁰ *kashafati l-ḥarbu 'an sāqihā* “the battle became vehement (lit. revealed its shank)” [*isti 'āra; majāz*],⁷⁰¹ *tanaffasa l-ṣubḥu* “morning appeared (lit. sighed/took a breath)” [*isti 'āra; majāz*];⁷⁰² *sakata 'anhu l-ghaḍabu* “his anger subsided (lit. became silent)” [*majāz*];⁷⁰³ *ishta 'ala l-ra 'su shayban/ishta 'ala l-shaybu fī l-ra 's* “the head became full of (lit. was inflamed with) white hair” [*majāz*].⁷⁰⁴

Literary Theory: From Ibn Rashīq and al-Jurjānī to Ibn Abī al-Iṣba '

Old writings on literary theory contained their own vocabulary to refer to figurative language before the influx of the term *majāz*. *Mathal* and *isti 'āra* were the most conspicuous. *Mathal* lit. ‘likeness; proverb’ might refer to an image, an analogy, an analogue (that is, the thing to which a topic is compared), a metaphor, or figurative speech in general. *Isti 'āra* lit. ‘borrowing’ was more technical, and in its old poetic sense referred de facto to instances of personification, or ‘animalization’ in the case of non-human analogues taken from the animal world (like portraying death as a beast of prey). In Heinrichs’ terms, this is the loan metaphor or the analogy-based

⁶⁹⁹ *Jamhara* 3: 1256; *Asās*, 659, s.v. *n.w.m.* The reason I am not counting *nāma* here as a dead metaphor is because there is no evidence that it is applied to other subjects in this sense of ‘becoming worn out’, the way *arāda* did in the sense of ‘is about to’. I am not treating it as a conceptual metaphor because – beyond the fact that it is culturally specific (there are no equivalent expressions in the languages that I know) – there is also no evidence that it is systematic (*“the garment woke up”).

⁷⁰⁰ *Jamhara* 3: 1312 [threatening]; *Asās*, 14, s.v. *'dh.n* [coveting]. Cf. Lane, *Lexicon*, 43.

⁷⁰¹ *Fiqh al-lughā*, 427; *Asās*, 314 (where we find the variation *qāmat al-ḥarb 'alā sāqihā*, instead of *kashafat... 'an*). Cf. Ibn Qutayba’s discussion of Q 68:42 *yawma yukshafu 'an sāqin* in *Ta 'wīl*, 137.

⁷⁰² Al-Tha‘ālibī cites “spring appeared,” which means the verb could perhaps be taken as a dead metaphor. But the fact that *tanaffasa* is reserved for ‘morning’, ‘day’ and ‘spring’ suggests a more specific idiomatic usage here. Al-Tha‘ālibī does not explain the expression, he merely lists it. According to al-Zamakhsharī (and some earlier sources, see *Lisān al- 'arab* 6: 4502, 3rd column), *tanaffasa* here means *tāla* ‘to become extended’, but if *tāla* is taken to mean ‘to extend into the sky’ (Lane, *Lexicon*, 1895), then it is identical with ‘appear’. See *Fiqh al-lughā*, 427; *Asās*, 648.

⁷⁰³ *Asās*, 302; *Lisān al- 'arab* 3: 2046, 3rd column (*sakata l-ghaḍabu*).

⁷⁰⁴ *Ibid.*, 332; *Lisān al- 'arab* 4: 2281. Many of these examples appear in the work of al-Sharīf al-Raḍī (see fn. 678).

metaphor with no substratum (also ‘old’ metaphor).⁷⁰⁵ The term *majāz* itself was absent from early writings on literary theory, like Tha‘lab’s (d. 291/904) *Qawā‘id al-shi‘r* and Ibn al-Mu‘tazz’s (d. 296/908) *Kitāb al-Badī‘*.⁷⁰⁶ Other literary theorists used it in passing. Qudāma b. Ja‘far (d. ca. 337/948) preserves the old sense of *majāz* as *~ma‘nā*,⁷⁰⁷ but also of *majāz* in the sense of lexical extensions discussed above.⁷⁰⁸ In other treatises of this period the term is used again either in passing (‘*Iyār al-shi‘r*’ of Ibn Ṭabāṭabā [d. 322/934], the *Muwāzana* of al-Āmidī [d. 371/981]),⁷⁰⁹ or in a way that blends earlier traditions (the *Šinā‘atayn* of al-‘Askarī [d. after 400/1010]),⁷¹⁰ or in an altogether idiosyncratic sense (*Hilyat al-muḥāḍara* of al-Ḥātimī [d. 388/998]).⁷¹¹

⁷⁰⁵ On the old use of *mathal* see S.A. Bonebakker, “Isti‘āra,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*, Brill Online; Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 14; “Genesis,” 122 (also the “somewhat vague hendiadys” *mathal wa-tashbīh*), 135; *idem*, “Isti‘āra and Badī‘ and their Terminological Relationship in Early Arabic Literary Criticism,” *Zeitschrift für Geschichte der Arabisch-Islamischen Wissenschaften* 1 (1984), 180-211, here: 195. This sense of *mathal* can be found outside literary theory as well. The old hendiadys *tashbīh wa-mathal* resurfaces in later works: see, e.g., *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 2: 364. For *mathal* in the sense of analogy see Al-Qāḍī ‘Alī b. ‘Abd al-‘Azīz al-Jurjānī, *al-Wasāta bayna al-Mutanabbī wa-khuṣūmih*, eds. Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm and ‘Alī Muḥammad al-Bajāwī, 2nd ed., Cairo: ‘Isā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1951, 41 (English: ‘The Mediation between al-Mutanabbī and his Opponents’). On the old use of *isti‘āra* see Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*. Above I use “personification” (or animalization) to represent the literary phenomenon that the *shawāhid* de facto reflect. The theorists themselves did not explain such metaphors in terms of personification, and elsewhere in this chapter I usually defer to Heinrichs’ nomenclature. Theorists were perfectly capable of expressing the notion of personification when they so wished, as in “saying [something] about an inanimate being by [mention of] a human action” (*an tu‘abbira [al-‘arab] ‘ani l-jamād bi-fi‘li l-insān*; al-Tha‘ālibī, *Fiqh al-lughā*, 396) and other similar expressions, found especially in poetic commentaries (see one example in §5.5, with respect to the poetic *wa-mu‘arrasin li-l-ghaythi*).

⁷⁰⁶ Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 271.

⁷⁰⁷ *Ibid.*, 271.

⁷⁰⁸ *Naqd*, 129, with respect to the juxtaposition of ‘blindness’ and eyesight. Specifically, *majāz* is connected to *tawassu‘ al-lughā* [semantic] extension in the lexicon’ (the full phrase is *huwa fī tawassu‘ al-lughā wa-tasammuh al-‘arab fī l-lafẓ jā‘iz ‘alā tariq al-majāz*).

⁷⁰⁹ Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 272-73.

⁷¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 273-74. Even here *majāz* is used fairly in passing. The lexicographical sense of *majāz* that we outlined above takes center stage, mostly under the term *isti‘āra* (*al-Šinā‘atayn*, 274-90). The theological sense of *majāz* can be seen in *ibid.*, 276, when it is claimed that “every *isti‘āra* and *majāz* must have a *ḥaqīqa*.” But once al-‘Askarī reaches the poetic examples (*ibid.*, 290-315) the term *majāz* disappears, suggesting that it was not yet integrated into literary theory proper. See also Kanazi, *Studies*, 150. Al-Ṭūfī seems to be following al-‘Askarī in *al-Shi‘ār*, 81-82.

⁷¹¹ Al-Ḥātimī’s category of *majāz al-shi‘r* means here “going beyond [correct usage] due to poetic necessity,” akin to

In the work of Ibn Rashīq (d. 456/1065) *majāz* has become better integrated as a literary theoretical concept.⁷¹² Here *majāz* is defined as a hypernym and a hyponym. On the first level, what is identified as *majāz* are the “beauties of speech” (embellishments? literary devices in general? *maḥāsīn al-kalām*⁷¹³), like simile and metaphor (*tashbīh, isti‘āra*). *Majāz* as a hypernym thus refers to a category that subsumes several literary devices beneath it. On the second level, *majāz* as a hyponym refers to one of the subcategories (*bāb bi-‘aynihi*) of *majāz*-the-hypernym, primarily, metonymy. Metonymy is referred to by a variation on al-Tha‘ālibī’s [*fīmā*] *yunāsibuhu wa-yuqāribuhu* (see above): *an yusammā al-shay’ bi-sm mā qārabahu aw kāna minhu bi-sababin* “that a thing be called by the name of that which is near it or in some relation to it.”⁷¹⁴ The first example is the stock *samā’* for ‘rain’, but as further examples of this type of *majāz* are adduced, we also come across instances of conceptual metaphors (“eating” for “destroying”) and idiomatic sayings (*shajarun qad šāḥa* “trees crying out” for “growing tall”), which the author presumably viewed as part of conventional Arabic vocabulary and phraseology.⁷¹⁵ One source Ibn Rashīq draws from explicitly with regards to the hyponym *majāz* is Ibn Qutayba.⁷¹⁶

‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī (d. 471/1078 or 474/1081), Ibn Rashīq’s contemporary in the

ḍarūrat al-shi‘r, and is contrasted with *maḥāsīn al-shi‘r*. This is my own interpretation of Abū ‘Alī Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan b. al-Muzaḥḥar al-Ḥātimī, *Ḥilyat al-muḥāḍara fī šinā‘at al-shi‘r*, ed. Ja‘far al-Kittānī, 2 vols., Baghdad: al-Jumhūriyya al-‘Irāqīyya, Wizārat al-Thaqāfa wa-l-I‘lām, Dār al-Rashīd, 1979, 1: 130-31 (esp. the comment by al-Aṣma‘ī), 2: 3-26; cf. Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 275 fn. 50. Heinrichs is correct that some of the phenomena that al-Ḥātimī lists are akin to the phenomena that Abū ‘Ubayda subjects to interpretation (“Contacts,” 274-76).

⁷¹² *Al-‘Umda* 1: 266-68. See also Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 48-49.

⁷¹³ *Ibid.* 1: 266. It is not equivalent to all *badī‘* categories here (cf. 1: 268), but rather to specific devices within *badī‘* that can “admit interpretation” (*iḥtimālihi wujūh al-ta’wīl*, 1: 266; also *Hand of the Northwind*, 49).

⁷¹⁴ *Al-‘Umda* 1: 266.

⁷¹⁵ *Ibid.*, 266-68. The full saying is “In the land of the tribe of so-and-so there are trees that ‘cried out’” (*bi-arḍi banī fulānin shajarun qad šāḥa*). He then rejects some examples as mere lexical extensions (my term) by adducing poetic lines that would suggest otherwise.

⁷¹⁶ *Ibid.*, 267. Ibn Rashīq’s treatment of *majāz* deserves a fuller account than the one given above.

East, also preserves the lexicographical understanding of *majāz* within his theory of the concept, which he thoroughly lays out in the end of his *Asrār al-balāgha*.⁷¹⁷ In fact, it seems that the vast majority of phenomena that al-Jurjānī identifies and examines as *majāz* – in what is perhaps the most extensive treatment of *majāz* to date – are part of conventional language: metonymies, dead metaphors/idiomatic sayings, and most of all, conceptual metaphors.⁷¹⁸ Nothing better attests to the lexicographical dimension of *majāz* than the miniscule number of poetic *shawāhid* in this lengthy theoretical analysis (the *Asrār* otherwise abounds with poetry citations).

Al-Jurjānī introduces the innovative distinction between *majāz fī l-muthbat* lit. “*majāz* in [the single-term concept] that is affirmed/predicated [of something]” (later known as *majāz lughawī* ‘lexical *majāz*’) and *majāz fī l-ithbāt* lit. “*majāz* in the affirmation/predication [of one thing of another]” (later known as *majāz ‘aqlī* ‘*majāz* on the level of reason’, i.e. ‘logical/conceptual *majāz*’).⁷¹⁹ *Majāz fī l-muthbat* amounts to a single-word figurative expression, and the common examples al-Jurjānī adduces for it are metonymies (which occur on the level of the noun), like *yad* ‘hand’ for ‘favor’ or *iṣba* ‘finger’ for ‘positive mark’, noun metaphors (which we would call dead metaphors) like *asad* ‘lion’ for ‘brave’, and verb metaphors (which we would

⁷¹⁷ Al-Jurjānī, *Asrār*, 324-89. The sections in pp. 324-64 (Ritter’s paragraphs 21-23) close the *Asrār*; pp. 365-89 (paragraphs 24-26) are an appendix to the *Asrār*, probably meant as such (see Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 276-77, following Ritter [see §5.2]). In the *Dalā’il*, mentions of *majāz* are sporadic. For modern treatments of al-Jurjānī’s theory of *majāz* (a complete account is still lacking) see Kamal Abu Deeb, *Al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, Warminster: Aris and Phillips, 1979, 189-92, 230-33; Larkin, *Theology*, 72-109 (ch. 4, aptly titled “The Problem of *Majāz*”); Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 276-84, esp. 278-79; Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 198-211.

⁷¹⁸ Cf. the unsubstantiated statement by Simon, “*Majāz*,” that “[*majāz*], as presented by al-Jurjānī, is a communicative strategy meant to go beyond the limits of conventional language and create new fields of associations.” By “conventional language” I am not necessarily limiting the discussion to Arabic. Al-Jurjānī himself recognizes that many of the same tropes occur across languages (like ‘lion’ for ‘brave’; *Asrār*, 32-33). See Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 281 (and cf. 284). Similarly, the conceptual metaphors (our term) that he treats are probably universal. See also, Larkin, *Theology*, 75: “[I]n his treatment of *majāz*, al-Jurjānī undertook [...] to elucidate the cognitive mechanisms underlying the individual rhetorical devices.” I am not trying to suggest that al-Jurjānī was some kind of precursor to the modern cognitive linguists (Lakoff et al.): he was, on the contrary, what they would term an objectivist – seeing similarity as subsisting in truth between two entities (see Larkin, *Theology*, 90).

⁷¹⁹ *Asrār*, 324, 338, 342 ff., 376 ff.; Larkin, *Theology*, 96 ff.

call dead metaphors or idiomatic sayings) like *aḥyā* ‘to bring to life’ with regards to *arḍ* ‘land’ (found in Q 35:9) to denote “a land filled with newly-grown vegetation” (variations of the idiom *aḥyā arḍan mayyita* “to revive dead land” occur in the dictionaries⁷²⁰).⁷²¹ In the case of metonymy, he recognizes explicitly the conventional, non-novel character of the expressions.⁷²² The second category, *majāz fī l-ithbāt*, refers to figurative speech on the level of the sentence because all single words are used literally, according to al-Jurjānī, and it is only the predication (or logical judgment, *ḥukm*) that is figurative. The stock examples are of the type “Time/days/nights made the man perish/the young grow old” or “Spring brought about the blossoms” in which the true doer is God, not the passage of time or the arrival of a season.⁷²³ Although some theological implications are at stake,⁷²⁴ what al-Jurjānī is touching upon here is the (universal) linguistic habit to express causation – i.e., true predication – in terms of

⁷²⁰ Al-Zamakhsharī, *Asās*, 150; Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-‘Arab* 2: 1077 (1st and 2nd columns). As in the case of the dictionaries discussed above, however, *asad* in the sense of ‘brave’ is not listed in the dictionaries.

⁷²¹ Al-Jurjānī, *Asrār*, 325-29, 343-45, 349. The inclusion of *asad* here (ibid., 325) would later become a thorny topic: is the simple equational judgment “Zayd is a lion,” which presupposes the statement “I saw a lion [referring to Zayd],” part of *majāz lughawī* or *majāz ‘aqlī*? For discussion see §5.2. Perhaps it is inaccurate to refer to the *asad* metaphor above as ‘dead’ since it is merely used as an archetypal example for the ‘live’ metaphor. Further research is required here.

⁷²² Ibid., 367-69. He says with regards to the *majāz* cases of ‘hand’-for-‘favor’ (in our words: metonymy), that they are more accurately a case of mimicking former usage, like the proverb (*mathal*), and that the question deserves a separate discussion. It is here that al-Jurjānī invokes Ibn Durayd’s “inaccurate” use of *isti‘āra* to express such cases, and the dictionaries in general (*kutub al-lughā*), and it is here that he recognizes that not every *majāz* is *badī‘*, as is implied by the books of the literary critics. We will revisit these passages in §5.3 (Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī).

⁷²³ Ibid., 342-43, 346, 377. The first is exemplified in poetic (!) citations – for translations see Abu Deeb, *al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 231-32; Larkin, *Theology*, 231-32; Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 278. We should say that not only are all words used literally, but they all have a referent in the real world (or in our conception of it): in “hand of the north wind,” all words are used literally, but hand does not refer to any actual entity. This type of metaphor seems to be excluded from his notion of *majāz fī l-ithbāt*, judging by the *shawāhid* of the latter. *Majāz ‘aqlī* (as it is later known) is therefore not equivalent to *kadhib* (see below). Al-Jurjānī’s discussions of the “doer in reality” are strongly reminiscent of theological discussions of the type we encountered with al-Kindī (fn. 659).

⁷²⁴ “Predicating acts of God is clearly what is at the heart of the discussion [...]” (Larkin, *Theology*, 99). Human agency vis-à-vis God is one theological implication of the discussion; Larkin convincingly shows that al-Jurjānī is in discussion here with ‘Abd al-Jabbār and his Mu‘tazilī ilk. See also al-Kindī.

‘correlation’ (the term *sabab* is sometimes used in this context).⁷²⁵ In other words, he recognizes that humans commonly and by convention conceive of certain events or actions ‘metaphorically’ in the mind.⁷²⁶ Al-Jurjānī further exemplifies this with sentences like “The knife cut,” “The sword killed” and “Seeing you made me happy”, where it is not the ‘knife’, ‘sword’ or ‘seeing’ that are doing the action but are instead co-occurring with it.⁷²⁷ I think it is safe to refer to such cases as conceptual metaphors (as we have used the term above) because they are embedded

⁷²⁵ The idea of correlation is presented rather explicitly in *ibid.*, 347.15-16 (and elsewhere): “Because blossoms come to existence only when spring comes to existence (*lā yūjad illā bi-wujūd al-rabī*), it seems to us as if (*tuwuhhima*) spring has an influence in [bringing about] their existence (*ta’thīr fī wujūdihi*), and hence it [bringing the flowers into existence] was predicated of it [spring].” For *sabab* see, e.g., *Asrār*, 356, 358 – not to be confused with *sabab/ashbāb* in the context of metonymic relations in the single-word *majāz* (e.g., *Asrār*, 367).

⁷²⁶ When he discusses (*ibid.*, 356) how it is that “spring” is made into a doer in such sentences, despite the fact that it is illogical to predicate an action of a non-able being (*ithbāt al-fī lī li-ghayr al-qādir lā yaṣihhu fī qadāyā l-’uqūl*), al-Jurjānī remarks that it is done “according to common convention among people” (*’alā l-’urfī l-jārī bayna l-nās*), and because he speaks of the *’aql* here, he is not staying within the confines of one specific language (see fn. 728). With respect to *fa’ala l-rabī* (saying that *spring* did something), al-Jurjānī maintains that what people do (conceptually, and hence it is reflected in their language) is as follows: at the time when (*fī*) an action(/event) takes place (“exists”), they take the thing that is associated with (*sabab*) the existence of the action of its doer, or the thing that is “like” a thing associated with it (*ka-l-sabab*), and make it as if (*ka-annahu*) it is the [actual] doer (*wa-’alā l-urfī l-jārī bayna l-nāsi an yaj’alū l-shay’a idhā kāna sababan aw ka-l-sababi fī wujūdi l-fī’li min fā’ilihi ka-annahu fā’ilun*; *ibid.*) (By *ka-l-sabab* he might be distinguishing between ontologically ‘real’ association and conceptually ‘perceived’ association). The linguistic habit (here: *isnād* ‘predication’) closely depends on the real-world, physical habit – in his words, the *’āda* that is ordained by God – thus further underscoring the universal and yet conventional aspect of al-Jurjānī’s *majāz fī l-ithbāt*. He says (*ibid.*): “When God, praise be to Him, ordained the habit and made the matter such that trees would put forth leaves [etc.] at the time of spring, it so seemed [*ṣāra yutawahhamu*], on the face of it and by way of habit, as if the existence of these things [leaves on trees, etc.] requires spring, so the verb was predicated of it [i.e., spring] according to this interpretation and ‘reduction’” (emphasis added; *fa-lammā ajrā -llāhu subhānahu l-’ādata wa-anfadha l-qadīyyata an tūriqa l-ashjāru [...] fī zamāni l-rabī’i ṣāra yutawahhamu fī zāhiri l-amri wa-majrā l-’ādati ka-anna li-wujūdi hādhihi l-ashyā’i ḥājatan ilā l-rabī’i fa-usnida l-fī’lu ilayhi ’alā hādihā l-ta’awwuli wa-l-tanzīl*). Note that when he speaks of *isnād* (a linguistic notion), *fī’l* usually means “verb,” but when he speaks of *ithbāt* (a synonym of *isnād* on the linguistic level but also a reference to an extra-linguistic notion of attribution), *fī’l* usually means – at least in this context – “action/event.” Cf. Ritter’s looser translation in *Die Geheimnisse der Wortkunst des Abdalqāhir al-Curcānī*, trans. Hellmut Ritter, Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1959, 415 (23/6); he is correct to draw attention to theological discussions here (fn. 2), but I am not sure this has specifically to do with the “Ash’arī” rejection of causality (cf. al-Kindī’s discussion of the doer).

⁷²⁷ *Asrār*, 356, 358-59, 344. To be more exact, al-Jurjānī provides the examples of the knife cutting and sword killing as linguistic evidence for his argument (*mā yadullu ’alā anna [...] ibid.*, 358). By pointing to so many everyday instances of ‘figurative’ predication, al-Jurjānī is coming closer to a position espoused by Ibn Jinnī, that all language is *majāz* (on which see §5.1). The example by al-Jurjānī “Seeing you made me happy” contains both a *majāz fī l-ithbāt*, as explained above, but also a *majāz fī l-muthbat* because the original Arabic is “Seeing you enlivened me” (*aḥyatnī ru’yatuka*), where the verb *aḥyā* “means *ānasa*, *sarra*, and the like” (*ibid.*, 344). I ‘translated’ the single-word *majāz* above in order to exemplify the ‘logical’ *majāz*. Some aspects of the verbal sentence (or verb in general) vis-à-vis *majāz* are treated by Larkin in *Theology*, 94-96 (highlighting the theological dimension).

universally⁷²⁸ in our everyday, *literal* language.⁷²⁹ Al-Jurjānī is therefore studying the question of *majāz* primarily as a philosophical linguist (who is invested in theology).

Two centuries later, Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā‘ (d. 654/1256) represents a stage in literary theory in which the term *majāz* regularly appeared in treatises of the field. And yet, his work exemplifies two varying traditions of *majāz* in literary theory – the first is the early, supposedly ‘inconsistent’ literary theoretical one, and the second is the model proposed by al-Jurjānī (via the mediation of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī) that differentiates *majāz fī l-muthbat* from *majāz fī l-ithbāt*. In his first book, *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā‘ states that *majāz* is a genus (*jins*) covering many species (*anwā’*), ranging from metaphor (*isti‘āra*), exaggeration (*mubālagha*) and indirect allusions (*ishāra*, *irdāf*) to simile (*tashbīh*) and analogy (*tamthīl*). One of the species (*naw’*) of *majāz* refers to elisions and metonymies (our term) and “the critics [...] kept the name *majāz* for it.”⁷³⁰ In other words, Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā‘ follows Ibn Rashīq in viewing *majāz* as a category for metaphors, similes etc. on one hand, and as a subcategory for certain linguistic conventions on the other.⁷³¹ In Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā‘’s later work, *Badī‘ al-Qur‘ān*, there is little trace of this theory

⁷²⁸ Based partly on al-Jurjānī’s own words in *Asrār*, 345: with regards to the logical judgment (*ḥukm*) that takes place when a sentence-*majāz* is uttered, the author tells us that “the only recourse and way [to understand] it is via pure reason, and [a specific] vocabulary (*luḡha*) has no share in it [...] The Arab [judges] it just like the Persian, and the Persian like the Turk, because the judgments of reason (*qaḍāyā al-‘uqūl*/Ritter: die Urteile des Verstandes) are the foundations and bases upon which other things are built.” (I am reading *fa-l-marji‘u fīhi wa-l-wajhu ilayhi l-‘aqlu l-maḥḍu* for *fa-l-marji‘u fīhi wa-l-wajhu ilā l-‘aqli l-maḥḍi*; see also Ritter, *Geheimnisse*, 402.) This is not the same as saying that the Persian and Turk also *express* such utterances in the same way (not simply decipher them), but it seems that the phenomenon al-Jurjānī is targeting is fairly universal.

⁷²⁹ Lakoff and Johnson include some treatment of causation in *Metaphors We Live By*, 27 (under “Identifying Causes”) and 69-72 (where causation is defined in terms of a ‘prototype’, to wit: direct manipulation). To further underscore the non-‘poetic’ nature of al-Jurjānī’s *majāz*, consider the remarks by Heinrichs (“Contacts,” 278), at least with regards to the sentence-*majāz*, that “it is quite clear that this kind of trope has little relevance for poetry and *balāgha* studies” and that “[i]ts proper place is in the *kalām-tafsīr* discussions.” This begs the question, in what way is al-Jurjānī’s theory of *majāz* a contribution to literary theory proper, and how *isti‘āra* is at all reconcilable with this view of *majāz*!

⁷³⁰ *Tahrīr*, 457-58 (quote taken from p. 457).

⁷³¹ *Ḥadhf* here is reminiscent of the phenomena treated by Abū ‘Ubayda, and see fn. 658 above.

and in its stead we find the notions of single-word *majāz* and *majāz* on the level of predication. Much of the discussion is taken verbatim (and explicitly so) from the work of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī.⁷³²

Majāz as Kadhib

al-majāz akhū l-kadhib “*majāz* is the brother of lie”
- Those who reject the presence of *majāz* in the Qur’ān⁷³³

In the ‘old’ view as presented in Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘ (and Ibn Rashīq before him), *majāz* covered literary devices such as simile and exaggeration⁷³⁴, which were not part of the *majāz* phenomena in the traditions of old Qur’ānic exegesis, theology or lexicography. What did *majāz* mean, then, in a purely literary context? One clue to this answer may be provided by the early Ibn Ṭabāṭabā (d. 322/934), who was the first literary theorist to use the term *majāz* – albeit in passing – and specifically within the context of poetics. In his use of the term, *majāz* is contrasted with *ḥaqīqa* not in the sense of ‘literal speech’ but in its primary sense of ‘reality’. This can be seen both from Ibn Ṭabāṭabā’s ‘theoretical pronouncement’ and from his comment on one of the *shawāhid*. In the first case, he instructs the poet to “use *majāz* that comes close to *ḥaqīqa*.” In the second case, he remarks that having the she-camel complain of the imminent journey using direct speech (*hikāya*), the way al-Muthaqqab al-‘Abdī (pre-Islamic poet) does in two of his lines, is “*majāz* that is remote from *ḥaqīqa*.”⁷³⁵ In both cases, *ḥaqīqa* cannot be referring to the world of language

⁷³² *Badī‘ al-Qur’ān*, 175-79. The little trace we do find for the ‘old’ theory is in *ibid.*, 178-79, but with regards to *majāz*-the-hyponym, not *majāz* as a cover term for simile, exaggeration, etc. See also Part One, §2.3.

⁷³³ This according to Ṭashkōprüzāde: he writes that the minority of scholars who reject the presence of *majāz* in the Qur’ān do so because they mistakenly believe that *majāz* and *kadhib* are one and the same; they are, he says, wrong (*Miftāḥ al-sa‘āda*, eds. Bakrī and al-Nūr, 2: 450).

⁷³⁴ Strictly speaking, Ibn Rashīq does not classify exaggeration as part of *majāz* (as in Ibn Abī al-Iṣba‘), but he does contrast it with *ḥaqīqa*, here: ‘reality’, and *al-ḥaqā’iq* ‘true things’ (*al-‘Umda* 2: 60, in the context of *ghuluww*, seemingly indistinguishable from his category of *mubālagha*; *ibid.*, 53 ff; see §5.1, “The Discourse of *Kadhib*”).

⁷³⁵ Muḥammad b. Aḥmad Ibn Ṭabāṭabā al-‘Alawī, *‘Iyār al-shi‘r*, eds. Ṭāhā al-Ḥājirī and Muḥammad Zaghlūl

(speaking of figurative speech [or something similar] as being close to/remote from literal speech does not make much sense), but rather the physical world. Similarly, in his definition of *majāz*, Ibn Rashīq speaks of expressions that go beyond the *ḥaqāʾiq* but are not completely absurd: here too the reference is to real-world essences and to the law of nature, not to literal expressions.⁷³⁶

Heinrichs has shown that in the early stages of the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* pairing, the domain to which the terms referred “could have gone either way” because *ḥaqīqa* had a primary meaning of ‘reality’ or ‘true essence’ (= real world) and *majāz* had a primary meaning of ‘interpretation’ or ‘idiom’ (= world of language).⁷³⁷ In fact, in early theological circles (and later, in Sufi ones), *ḥaqīqa* referred to the true reality of God and *majāz* to the derivative reality of mankind. If *majāz* affected the term *ḥaqīqa*, the pairing would be placed in the linguistic domain; if *ḥaqīqa* affected the term *majāz*, it would be placed in the ontological one.⁷³⁸ The opposite of *ḥaqīqa* in its ontological sense of ‘truth’ would be *kadhib* ‘falsehood, lie’. Ibn Qutayba recognizes this when he states that those who refute the Qurʾān by pointing out the *majāz* in it are using *majāz* in the sense of *kadhib*, claiming that “a wall does not ‘want’⁷³⁹ and a town is not ‘asked’” (a reference to Q 18:77 and 12:82). Ibn Qutayba rejects this claim saying, “If *majāz* were untrue (*kadhib*), and every action attributed to a non-animal [entity] were false (*bāṭil*), then most of our speech would be corrupt, because we say ‘the plants grew’, ‘the tree extended high’, ‘the fruit ripened’,

Sallām, Cairo: al-Maktaba al-Tijāriyya al-Kubrā, 1956, 119-120; Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 272.

⁷³⁶ *Al-Umda* 1: 266 (it is ambiguous because the subject of the sentence is the *alfāz*; Heinrichs has “proper meaning[s]” for *ḥaqāʾiq* in *Hand of the Northwind*, 48).

⁷³⁷ Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 137.

⁷³⁸ *Ibid.*, 136-37; Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 256; and above.

⁷³⁹ Referring to the idiomatic use of the verb *arāda* in the sense of ‘about to’ (see above).

‘the mountain stood’, and ‘the price was low’.”⁷⁴⁰ These sentences, as we have seen, are part of everyday conceptual thinking and can be seen as ‘literal’ metaphorical expressions (including the common metonymy PLACE FOR INHABITANTS⁷⁴¹).

But an early testimony indicates that *kadhib* can and perhaps did refer to non-‘lexicalized’ figurative language, by none other than the grammarian Sībawayh (d. ca. 180/796), who adduced “I carried the mountain” (*ḥamaltu al-jabal*) and “I drank (all) the water of the ocean” (*sharibtu mā’ al-baḥr*) to exemplify the category of speech termed *mustaqīm kadhib* ‘straight (i.e., grammatical) [and] lie’.⁷⁴² Such expressions do not appear in the dictionaries,⁷⁴³ and one strongly senses that they had a ‘poetic’ meaning along the lines of “I overcame the impossible” or “I ‘conquered the world’.”

Sībawayh’s so-called soundness-classification of speech, where the term *kadhib* appears, forms one of the brief preliminary chapters of his *Kitāb*, referred to collectively as the *Risāla*,

⁷⁴⁰ Ibn Qutayba, *Ta’wīl*, 132 (followed by more examples from everyday language). Ibn Qutayba is pointing here to what we have referred to above as conceptual metaphors. Indeed, al-Jurjānī would also say that such sentences – and *majāz* in general – are not false (Larkin, *Theology*, 86; for al-Jurjānī, *majāz* was not about conformity to truth).

⁷⁴¹ Günter Radden and Zoltán Kövecses, “Towards a Theory of Metonymy,” in Klaus-Uwe Panther and Günter Radden (eds.), *Metonymy in Language and Thought*, Amsterdam; Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 1999, 17-59, here: 41.

⁷⁴² Abū Bishr ‘Amr b. ‘Uthmān b. Qanbar Sībawayh, *al-Kitāb: Kitāb Sībawayh*, ed. ‘Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn, 5 vols., [Cairo]: Dār al-Qalam, 1966-1977, 1: 25-26. *Mustaqīm* ‘straight’ probably refers to grammatical correctness, not semantic or logical soundness (see my “Don’t Be Absurd: The Term *Muḥāl* in Sībawayhi’s *Kitāb*,” in Amal Elesha Marogy [ed.], *The Foundations of Arabic Linguistics: Sībawayhi and Early Arabic Grammatical Theory*, with a forward by M.G. Carter, Leiden: Brill, 2012, 27-58, here: 30-31, 36-37; this in accordance with Jahn [1895], cited in *ibid.*, 30 fn. 12). There is also the odd category of *muḥāl kadhib*, exemplified by the sentence, *‘I shall drink the water of the ocean yesterday’: the utility of this concocted category to linguistic (/philosophical-linguistic) thinking is not in the least clear.

⁷⁴³ Consulting *Asās al-balāgha* and *Lisān al-‘Arab*, s.vv. *ḥ.m.l.*, *j.b.l.*, *sh.r.b.*, *m.w.h.*, *b.ḥ.r.* The first example by Sībawayh should not be confused with conceptual metaphors like ‘bearing’ (*ḥamala*) a sin, on which see *Lisān al-‘Arab* 2: 1001. In the case *sh.r.b.*, Ibn Manẓūr records a line by Abū Dhū‘ayb (1st/7th cent.) that speaks of drinking the water of the sea, but in a more literal (if anthropomorphizing) sense: the clouds are said to drink the water of the sea before pouring down the rain (*Lisān al-‘Arab* 4: 2221; Ibn Manẓūr is only interested in it because of the redundant preposition *bi-* in *sharibna bi-mā’i l-baḥri*). If we were to apply later notions here, Sībawayh’s examples would count as *tamthīl* ‘metaphorical exemplification’ (see §5.1).

and evidence suggests that some ideas expressed therein are extraneous to Sībawayh’s linguistic thinking, and even to linguistic thinking in general; *kadhib* is then no longer treated in the body of the *Kitāb*.⁷⁴⁴ For this reason, we cannot know if Sībawayh himself took those sentences literally or not, and for our purposes, it does not necessarily matter.⁷⁴⁵ In at least one later account we find the phrase *sharibtu mā’ al-baḥr* being used figuratively, and one could certainly surmise that both this sentence and *ḥamaltu al-jabal* had a “meaning,” whether they were concoctions of Sībawayh (/his teachers/peers) or not.⁷⁴⁶ Of course, the idea of *kadhib*, if not specifically related to figurative language, has a long history in relation to poetry, beginning with the famous Qur’ānic verse in *Sūrat al-Shu‘arā’*, in which poets are said to “say what they do not

⁷⁴⁴ For instance, the term *muḥāl* as it is defined in the *Risāla* does not match its actual use in the course of the *Kitāb*, and the term *isnād*, laid out in the *Risāla*, is practically absent (the term, not the notion of predication) from the rest of the work (for the first see Noy, “*Muḥāl*,” and 27-28 fn. 3, 55 fn. 107, for further evaluations of the *Risāla* by Talmon and Carter). I am not an adherent of the Greek Hypothesis regarding the evolution of Arabic grammatical thinking, but I do think that several chapters in the *Risāla* are largely a product of Hellenistic/Roman teachings. Other examples are the brief chapter on polysemy and synonymy which, in this early stage, belongs more to the sphere of logic than to grammar (cf. the opening of Aristotle’s *Categories*), or the discussion of the parts of speech in the opening of the *Kitāb* (cf. the terms used to describe ‘noun’ and ‘verb’ in *De Interpretatione* 16a19 and 16b6; see Ackrill [trans.], 3, 43-44). Therefore, I am not convinced that Sībawayh’s “general principles” of grammar are “totally [my emphasis] foreign” to Aristotle’s works, as Troupeau and others conclude (Gérard Troupeau, “La *Risālat al-Kitāb* de Sībawayhi,” *Mélanges de l’Université Saint-Joseph* 48 [1973], 323-38, here: 324). He is right to point out that the *De Interpretatione* and *Poetics* were not yet translated into Arabic at this point, but postulating a method of *voie diffuse*, especially with regards to the elementary topics, is certainly not unlikely.

⁷⁴⁵ Later scholars tried to make sense of Sībawayh’s classification. See Abū Sa‘īd al-Sīrāfi, *Sharḥ Kitāb Sībawayh*, eds. Ramaḍān ‘Abd al-Tawwāb (et al.), 10 vols., [Cairo]: al-Hay‘a al-Miṣriyya al-‘Āmma li-l-Kitāb, 1986-[2006], 2: 91-92, 94, and Abū ‘Alī al-Fārisī, *Aqsām al-akḥbār*, ed. ‘Alī Jābir al-Manṣūri, *al-Mawrid* 7.3 (1978), 201-20, here: 202-204. Both recognize that *kadhib* here is different from the ‘unverifiable’ lie, like when someone says he went somewhere or did something, but in actuality did not. Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī engages with Sībawayh’s idea of speech-soundness but he reworks it into a classification of *ma‘ānī* (*al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 67). For al-‘Askarī, ‘carrying a mountain’ is not inconceivable: God could potentially ordain it.

⁷⁴⁶ Sayf al-Dīn al-Āmidī relates that he encountered the famous philosopher al-Suhrawardī (d. 587/1191) in Aleppo, where al-Suhrawardī told him that in a dream he saw himself as if he were drinking the water of the ocean (*ka-annī sharibtu mā’a l-baḥri*) and that this meant he would inevitably possess the whole world (*lā budda an amlika l-arḍa*). See Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt* 6: 272 (I thank Geert Jan van Gelder for the reference). My point is not to read al-Suhrawardī into Sībawayh. The above interpretation is my own (and tentative). I think that for the *kadhib* sentences to be meaningless, we would have had to find sentences such as “the *siwāk* was pregnant”: like carrying a mountain and drinking an ocean, it is impossible in reality, but finding a plausible meaning for it is much harder. Cf. the modern “semantically ill-formed” sentences, which are notated with the symbol #: the example Andrew Carnie provides is “#The toothbrush is pregnant,” and as he says, toothbrushes cannot be pregnant “except in the world of fantasy/science fiction or poetry” (I would add very modern poetry; see *Syntax: A Generative Introduction*, 3rd ed., Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell, 2013, 14-15).

do” (Q 26: 226), or the proverbial *aḥsan al-shi‘r akdhabuhu* “the best poetry is the most untruthful,” and continuing with the Aristotelian poetic tradition in Arabic, in which the concept of *aqāwīl kādhiba* ‘false statements’ takes center stage.⁷⁴⁷

The *shawāhid* that the literary theorists adduce for *majāz* are more in line with the *shawāhid* that Sībawayh adduces for *mustaqīm kadhib* than they are with the *shawāhid* that the theologians or lexicographers adduce for *majāz*. This is probably not a coincidence. While Heinrichs is correct in asserting that the conception of figurative expression as ‘untrue’ (or “non-accordance with reality”), which was reflected in Ibn Qutayba, “did not find any followers [...] among the literary theorists,”⁷⁴⁸ this assertion holds mostly at the level of explicit theoretical pronouncements. Once we examine the categories subsumed under *majāz* and the *shawāhid* and commentarial remarks that follow, a more complex picture emerges. The use of a *term* such as *kadhib* in the context of *majāz* had too many negative theological and moral connotations and was probably eschewed early on (in other spheres, the use of literary *kadhib* endured),⁷⁴⁹ but the *notion* of figurative language as an utterance that is not true to reality probably underpinned the

⁷⁴⁷ Abū Naṣr Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Fārābī, *Maqāla fī Qawānīn šinā‘at al-shu‘arā’ li-l-mu‘allim al-thānī*, in *al-Manṭiqiyyāt li-l-Fārābī*, ed. Muḥammad Taqī Dānīsh Pajuh, Qom: Maktabat Āyat Allāh al-‘Uzmā al-Mar‘ashī al-Najafī, 1987, 493.3-4^c, 494.2^c, where poetic statements (*al-aqāwīl al-shi‘riyya*) are subsumed under untrue statements (*al-aqāwīl al-kādhiba*); “Fārābī’s Canons of Poetry,” ed. and trans. Arthur J. Arberry, *Rivista degli Studi Orientali* 17 (1938), 266-78; J. Christoph Bürgel, “„Die beste Dichtung ist die lügenreichste“: Wesen und Bedeutung eines literarischen Streites des arabischen Mittelalters im Lichte komparatistischer Betrachtung,” *Oriens* 23/24 (1974), 7-102, here: 25 ff., 39 ff. The pairing of the logical arts with the truth values of the premises (false premises in the case of poetic statements) goes back to the late Alexandrian commentators of Aristotle and is best represented in Elias’ (fl. 550) commentary on Aristotle’s *Categories* (Heinrichs, “*Takhyīl*,” 3-5).

⁷⁴⁸ *Arabische Dichtung*, 58-59, with a possible exception in al-Jurjānī’s *takhyīl* ‘mock aetiology’ (ibid., 59).

⁷⁴⁹ See §5.1 below, “The Discourse of *Kadhib*.” Heinrichs distinguishes five issues concerning *kadhib* (*Arabische Dichtung*, 56-68): (1) *kadhib* in the general sense of lies; (2) *kadhib* in the context of *majāz*; (3) *kadhib* in the form of hyperbole; (4) *kadhib* in the form of *takhyīl* by ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī; (5) *kadhib* in the form of *ikhtilāq* by the Maghribī Ḥāzīm al-Qartājannī (d. 639/1242). On the problem of falsehood in poetry as depicted by the early theorists see Renate Jacobi, “Dichtung und Lüge in der arabischen Literaturtheorie,” *Der Islam* 49 (1972), 85-99; Bürgel, “Die beste Dichtung”; Mansour Ajami, *The Alchemy of Glory: The Dialectic of Truthfulness and Untruthfulness in Medieval Arabic Literary Criticism*, Washington, D.C.: Three Continents Press, 1988.

literary conception of *majāz*.⁷⁵⁰ In what follows we explore this underlying conception of *majāz* in literary theory, and the results – as will presently become clear – are sometimes messy.⁷⁵¹

5.1. An Alternative Theory of *Majāz*: Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s deliberations on *majāz* and on the categories subsumed under *majāz* offer us an illuminating case study for his literary-theoretical thinking. It is one of the clear topics in which his thought develops from the earlier *Jāmi’* to the later *Mathal*, and it is one of the clear topics in which he offers an innovation that is distinctively different from the discussions produced by other literary theorists.

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s primary innovation in the *Mathal* lies in his conceptualization of *majāz* as encompassing two large categories: *tawassu’* ‘[fictitious] extension [of reality]’ and *tashbīh* ‘figurative comparison’ (including metaphor and analogy). It is with regards to several sub-categories within *tashbīh* and *tawassu’* (the latter of which is afforded much less space) that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn addresses literary phenomena that are not commonly targeted in classical Arabic literary theory, namely, personification, genitive metaphors and verb metaphors. It is noteworthy that no other literary theorist after him followed his classification.⁷⁵² Despite the innovation introduced by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, his underlying theory of *tawassu’* and *tashbīh* reflected an implicit thinking about *majāz* that was prevalent, probably since the early writings of literary theory

⁷⁵⁰ It can also be seen in some of the parallel works in the tradition of Aristotelian Arabic poetics, although not under the technical term *majāz* (see fn. 799 below). It must be stressed that the *majāz* ‘*aqlī*’ associated with al-Jurjānī is not equivalent to *kadhib* (this will be highlighted especially in our treatment of Ibn al-Zamlakānī).

⁷⁵¹ Even the so-called logically-coherent theory of al-Jurjānī is ‘messy’ in that *isti’āra* is not quite reconcilable with his theory of *majāz*. The least ‘messy’ theory of *majāz* and *application thereof* to literary analysis is, without a doubt, the one by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr (cf. Bonebakker, “Isti’āra”).

⁷⁵² Especially revealing is that his ‘refuters’ Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd and al-Ṣafādī did not attend to his classification.

proper, namely, that *majāz* involved a proposition that was untrue (*kadhib*, a term not used).⁷⁵³

This seems to have been the case even as theories on word-transfer explicitly entered the field of literary theory (originally by the hands of al-Rummānī).

By the time Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was writing, the theory of a word transfer had become in wide use in legal theory and it appeared regularly in literary theory as well. We will discuss how the legal notion of *majāz* figured in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's work and how, despite incorporating it in his analysis, he did not feel at home with this theory.⁷⁵⁴ We will also look at other influences on his theory of *majāz* and how his thinking developed from his earlier work to the later one. Then we will delve into Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's own understanding of *tawassu'* and *tashbīh*, and the place *kināya* held within this scheme.

The Legal Underpinnings of Majāz

In both works Ḍiyā' al-Dīn addresses the question of *majāz* in two places: in a general prolegomenon under the preliminary sections (*al-ashyā' al-āmma* in the *Jāmi'*; *muqaddima* in the *Mathal*) and then again in the opening of *al-ṣinā'a al-manawiyya* when discussing metaphor and comparison (this is done peripherally in the *Jāmi'* and more extensively in the *Mathal*).⁷⁵⁵

⁷⁵³ But see *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 29 (to be discussed below). Cf. al-Rāzī, who explicitly distinguishes between *majāz* and *kadhib* in both his literary theory and in his legal theory; *Nihāya*, 169, 181-82, *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 461.

⁷⁵⁴ From the account above it sounds as if the notion of *majāz* was monolithic in legal theory, but it was not. See, e.g. Vishanoff, *Formation*, 56-57, 125-26, 165-69, 240-42. What I mean by a 'legal' understanding of *majāz* is the general idea according to which a word is not used to express the meaning for which it was originally coined. See also Ali, *Medieval Islamic Pragmatics*, 106-109. It must also be added that the legal theoretical discussions of *majāz* originated in theological works (and in general many discussions found in *kalām* eventually migrated into *uṣūl al-fiqh*). Indeed, for the early period, looking at *kalām* (Mu'tazilī at this point) as a source for discussions on *majāz* makes more sense (this is what Heinrichs did in his formative articles on *majāz*), but in the later period – after the discipline of legal theory matured – it is more appropriate to look at the genre of *uṣūl al-fiqh* as a source for this topic since works of *kalām* no longer treated *majāz* as one of its core dogmatic issues. For a historical account on the origin of the *majāz* discussions in classical Arabic sources see Taqī al-Dīn Abū al-'Abbās Aḥmad Ibn Taymiyya, *Kitāb al-Īmān*, ed. al-Sayyid Muḥammad Badr al-Dīn al-Na'sānī al-Ḥalabī, Cairo: Maṭba'at al-Sa'āda, [1907], 34-36, summarized in Heinrichs, "Genesis," 115-17.

⁷⁵⁵ Respectively, *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 28-32, 82-98, and *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 105-12, 2: 70-161. For a partial translation of the latter into English see Hoda El Sadda, "Figurative Discourse in Medieval Arabic Criticism:

This does not include the question of *kināya*, which he treats elsewhere. It too has a bearing on his view of *majāz*, and we will discuss it separately.

Under the preliminary discussion of *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* we find what I refer to as the common legal understanding of the notion, especially in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's *Jāmi'*. As a representative source for the treatment of *majāz* in *uṣūl al-fiqh* I take al-Bāqillānī's (d. 403/1013) *al-Taqrīb wa-l-irshād*. We know from Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's own account that he consulted a work on *uṣūl al-fiqh* by al-Ghazālī in which the topic of *majāz* was treated, but this work did not survive.⁷⁵⁶ In al-Ghazālī's *Mustaṣfā* the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dyad is (oddly) not treated. Thus a work like the *Taqrīb*, written by the Ash'arī al-Bāqillānī, is a good candidate for finding typological similarities, and given its fame, it was probably known to al-Ghazālī. For other ideas that are not found in the *Taqrīb* I use the work of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (*al-Maḥṣūl fī 'ilm uṣūl al-fiqh*), even though the latter's discussions are too discursive to have been of use for Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, and more importantly, they incorporate the theories of al-Jurjānī on the matter, the heart of which Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is either unaware of or purposely ignores (Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's awareness of the *Asrār* – where the topic of *majāz* was comprehensively treated – will be discussed below).⁷⁵⁷ The major common

Introduction and Translation," *Alif: Journal of Comparative Poetics* 12 (1992), 95-109.

⁷⁵⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 88 (the topic he discusses there is mentioned, without acknowledging al-Ghazālī, in *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 28-30, and here Ḍiyā' al-Dīn attributes it to his own thinking!). It is probably this work by al-Ghazālī that al-Rāzī is quoting in *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1. pt. 1, 482-86. I thank Frank Griffel who, in a personal communication during the 222nd meeting of the American Oriental Society in Boston, March 16-19, 2012, corroborated to me that the work in question did not survive.

⁷⁵⁷ In other words, there is no trace of 'single-term *majāz*' and 'logical *majāz*' in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's oeuvre. Al-Rāzī followed al-Jurjānī's theory both in his literary theory (the *Nihāya*) and his legal theory (the *Maḥṣūl*). It seems that al-Rāzī was an anomaly in incorporating the notion of *majāz 'aqlī* in legal theory: usually, it is the single-word figurative usage that one finds in *uṣūl al-fiqh*. As al-Rāzī himself states (*al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 447), *wa-qad jā'a fī l-Qur'āni wa-l-akhbāri mina l-aqsāmi l-thalāthati shay'un kathīrun wa-l-uṣūliyyūna lam yatanabbahū li-l-farqi bayna hādhihi l-aqsāmi wa-innamā lakhkhaṣahu [lahizahu in one ms.] al-shaykhu 'Abdu l-Qāhiri l-naḥwiyyu* "These three categories [viz., *majāz* in the single word, *majāz* on the level of the sentence/proposition, and *majāz* both in the single word and on the level of the sentence] appear a lot in the Qur'an and in the prophetic accounts, but the legal theorists are (were?) not mindful of the distinction between these categories; it was only the Shaykh 'Abd al-Qāhir the grammarian who explained [this issue]." El Shamsy corroborates al-Rāzī's assessment when he glosses *ḥaqīqa/majāz* as "word-level literalism [in the case of *ḥaqīqa*]" and *zāhir* as "sentence-level literalism"; Ahmed El

points found both in the legal accounts and in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's work may be summarized as follows:

[Based on a comparison with al-Bāqillānī's *Taqrīb*:]⁷⁵⁸

As a technical term applied to speech,⁷⁵⁹ the term *ḥaqīqa* refers to a word⁷⁶⁰ (*qawl* per al-Bāqillānī, *lafz* per Ḍiyā' al-Dīn) that is used in accordance with the original meaning for which it was assigned or coined (more Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's use of the term *wad'* below). The term *majāz* refers to what is used to express something other than what the word was originally coined for. When applied to speech, *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* are opposite counterparts, but if *ḥaqīqa* is used in the sense of a thing's quiddity or essence, it does not have a counterpart notion. Every expression used figuratively has a literal meaning, but not every literal meaning has a figurative usage. Some words cannot have a figurative usage, such as proper names (like Zayd and 'Amr; al-Bāqillānī adds the qualification: unless it is used to refer to one's oeuvre or thought, like "I memorized Sībawayh"⁷⁶¹) and the summa genera (categories that have no higher genus, like *ma'lūm* 'what is known'). The difference between *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* is that literal usage can, in essence, be applied universally (*jāriya 'alā l-'umūm fī nazā'ir*), whereas figurative usage cannot be extrapolated to other contexts (*bāb*) by analogy (in al-Bāqillānī's words, *maqṣūr 'alā mawḍi'ihī lā yuqāsu 'alayhi*). Thus, a word like 'knowing' (*'ālim*)⁷⁶² can be applied to anyone who can be said to know, but a word like 'to

Shamsy, "Robert Gleave, *Islam and Literalism: Literal Meaning and Interpretation in Islamic Legal Theory* (Review)," *Islamic Law and Society* 22 (2015), 148-52, here: 151. When he says that "[t]he terms *wad'*, *ḥaqīqa*, and *majāz* refer to individual words, each standing of a specific referent" (ibid., 150), El Shamsy all but confirms that *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* are lexicographical categories (the lexicon being the locus of single words, usually). This is also apparent from Alī, *Medieval Islamic Pragmatics*, 106, 108.

⁷⁵⁸ Al-Qāḍī Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. al-Ṭayyib al-Bāqillānī, *al-Taqrīb wa-l-irshād (al-ṣaghīr)*, ed. 'Abd al-Ḥamīd b. 'Alī Abū Zunayd, 3 vols., Beirut: Mu'assasat al-Risāla, 1998, 1: 352-60; *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 28-30; *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 105-10. These ideas are also found in al-Rāzī, *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 395-486.

⁷⁵⁹ In the later *Mathal* we even find the technical phrase *ḥaqīqa lughawiyya (al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 106), which was so prevalent in works of *uṣūl al-fiqh*.

⁷⁶⁰ 'Word' is more accurate than, say 'expression', since all the examples involve single words, and the definition itself only makes sense if we are dealing with the level of the word (what is 'coined' or 'assigned' is a single word). See also al-Āmidī, *al-Iḥkām*, 1: 36-47, 61-68, 71-73, who in his linguistic preliminaries (*mabādi' lughawiyya*) treats *majāz* under the linguistic category of *ism* 'noun' (not verb, particle, or sentence).

⁷⁶¹ Cf. Lakoff and Johnson's "He likes to read the *Marquis de Sade*. (= the writings of the marquis)" (*Metaphors We Live By*, 35 [parentheses, italics and punctuation theirs]).

⁷⁶² Once more, we see that the idea of *ḥaqīqa* rests on the level of the word: it is not that the active participle *'ālim* is

ask' can be used figuratively only in the same semantic context in which the figurative usage was attested,⁷⁶³ such that “to ask the campsite” is permissible since it is of the same context as “to ask the remains” (the famous address of the pre-Islamic poet to the beloved’s deserted campsite), but one cannot by analogy apply this figurative usage to other contexts and say, “ask the rock” or “ask the beast.”⁷⁶⁴

[Based on a comparison with al-Rāzī’s *Maḥṣūl*:]⁷⁶⁵

When a word is used in a figurative sense, there must be a contextual element (*qarīna*) that points to the fact that the usage is not literal.⁷⁶⁶ The lawyers (or legal theorists, *fuqahā*’ in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s words) differentiate between an original literal usage and conventional usage (*ḥaqīqa* ‘*urfīyya* in legal parlance, or ‘*urf* in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s words). Conventional usage involves a word that people usually recognize as literal, but is in origin a figurative usage of another literal meaning. Such is the case of the word *ghā’iṭ* originally ‘depression in the ground’ that came to denote ‘privy’. However, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn rejects this distinction. According to him, it is true that commoners “like the shoemaker, blacksmith, carpenter and baker” only know this word to mean ‘privy’, but no one should take them into consideration in such matters. When the educated elite hear the word, so his argument goes, they only think of its original literal meaning (‘depression in the ground’).⁷⁶⁷ There are many

perceived here as a phrase that implicitly contains a pronoun (**‘ālim huwa*); rather it is presented as an independent lexeme that is divorced from a ‘doer’. Likewise is the case with verbs (*sa’ala*). This question is tackled explicitly in the work of al-Jurjānī, later summarized in al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 174-76.

⁷⁶³ Compare this with Vishanoff, *Formation*, 166, who concludes from this that “no speaker (not even a divine speaker) is free to invent unprecedented figures of speech” (parentheses his). I do not think this is what al-Bāqillānī is arguing (at least here). One could potentially invent a new figurative usage, but that usage would be singular and could not then be extrapolated to other contexts. Accordingly, if one invents the figurative phrase “the wind is toying with the branches” (from a line by Ibn Khafāja, see §5.3 below), that does not mean that after the expression has become in use one could say “the building is toying with the fence” (my example); rather, it would have to remain within the same attested semantic category (*bāb* in al-Bāqillānī’s words) – in this case weather phenomena affecting nature – like “the raindrops are toying with the leaves” (my example). See also Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 269: one cannot by analogy say “those who beat God” following the Qur’ānic “those who hurt God.”

⁷⁶⁴ Elsewhere in his discussion of *majāz* – in the context of *tawassu’* – Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn treats exactly such cases of speaking animals.

⁷⁶⁵ Al-Rāzī, *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 395-486 (pp. 410-13 and 453-54 for *ḥaqīqa* ‘*urfīyya* [much more space is devoted to *ḥaqīqa shar’iyya*, pp. 414-44, a notion that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not address]; pp. 449-54 and 399-402 for the categories of *majāz mufrad*; the notion of *qarīna* is found *passim* – the most explanatory account on pp. 461, 481); *al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr*, 28-30; *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 108-109, 2: 88-96.

⁷⁶⁶ The notion of a *qarīna* was already known to Ibn Jinnī (*al-Khaṣā’iṣ* 2: 442), but here it is apparent that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is reacting to the legal scholars or lawyers (*fuqahā*’).

⁷⁶⁷ As proof Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn says that otherwise, the Qur’ānic verse in which this word appears (Q 5:6) would not have

categories of *majāz* (al-Rāzī confines this to *al-majāz al-mufrad* ‘*majāz* in the single word’), the vast majority of which are metonymic in nature. The categories presented by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn are based on the account of al-Ghazālī, and there usually is overlap between these and the ones presented by al-Rāzī. Some representative categories are *majāz* based on a relationship of means/end (‘wine’ for ‘grapes’), part/whole (‘face’ for ‘person’), [perceived-] cause/result (‘sky’ for ‘rain’, or place/thing per al-Ghazālī), similarity (or unique attribute, ‘lion’ for ‘brave’: this would count today as a dead metaphor), and physical contiguity (‘a water-bag carrier camel’ [*rāwiya*] for ‘leather water-bag’). Other categories are the (old) notions of “*majāz* by subtraction” (*naqṣ/nuqṣān*) and “*majāz* by addition” (*ziyāda*) – a relic from the early exegetical works like Abū ‘Ubayda’s⁷⁶⁸ – the first referring to an elision of a constituent (Q 12:82 *wa-s’ali l-qarya* “ask the town” for “ask the people of the town”) and the second referring to a superfluous constituent (*ka-* in Q 42:11 *laysa ka-mithlihi shay’un* “like Him there is naught” or *mā* in Q 3:159 *fa-bi-mā raḥmatin mina -llāhi* “it is due to mercy from God”).⁷⁶⁹

To recapitulate, the major legal notions of the *majāz* theory as they figure into the work of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn are: (a) *waḍ’* ‘word coinage/assignment’: if a word is used to convey a meaning other than the one for which it was originally assigned, then that usage is *majāz*; (b) *qarīna* ‘contextual

contained a contextual element that prevents one from understanding it in the sense of ‘depression in the ground’ (*al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 108-109).

⁷⁶⁸ This relic finds its way into a definition of *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* cited by the Mu’tazilī theologian Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Baṣrī (d. 369/980), as it is quoted in al-Rāzī, *al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 399: (for *ḥaqīqa*) *mā -ntaḥama lafḏuhā ma’ nāhā min ghayri ziyādatin wa-lā nuqṣānin wa-lā naqlin*, (for *majāz*) *alladhī lā yantaḥimu lafḏuhu ma’ nāhu immā li-ziyādatin aw li-nuqṣānin aw li-naqlin* “(for literal speech) that [speech] whose wording corresponds [not a common usage of the verb *intaḥama*] to its meaning, without addition, subtraction or transference [of meaning]”/“(for figurative speech) that whose wording does not correspond its meaning, either due to addition or to subtraction or to transference.” Al-Bāqillānī cites this definition, without attribution, as a less acceptable definition (*al-Taqrīb* 1: 353). For the slightly different and more elaborate treatment of this topic in the legal theory of al-Jaṣṣāṣ (d. 370/981) see Heinrichs, “Genesis,” 258-66 (where we find *ḥadhf* ‘ellipsis’ for *nuqṣān*; the term *ḥadhf* is indeed more prevalent in later works, such as the case of ‘Izz al-Dīn b. ‘Abd al-Salām’s *al-Ishāra ilā l-ijāz fī ba’d anwā’ al-majāz* [see §5.4]).

⁷⁶⁹ In the *Mathal* Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn rejects the idea that *ziyāda* is a type of *majāz* (but not *nuqṣān*) since all words are used according to their original coinage, and what it is more, the use of supposedly ‘superfluous’ elements occurs in the speech of the Bedouin (an example is given, after which al-Ghazālī is “excused” from not knowing this, since “eloquence” is not his field; *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 93-94). Al-Bāqillānī explains the reason *ziyāda* is considered *majāz* through the example of *ka-mithlihi* (*al-Taqrīb* 1: 353): here *ka-* denotes here a \emptyset meaning rather than the meaning ‘like’, therefore it is used not according to its original coinage (*li-annahā waradat ghayra mufīdatin wa-hiya fī l-aṣli mawḏū’atun li-l-ifādati fa-ṣārat musta’malatan fī ghayri mā wuḏī’at lahu*).

element’: a *qarīna* indicates that a figurative, rather than literal usage is intended; (c) *ḥaqīqa* ‘*urfīyya* ‘literal usage based on convention’: some words are literal by convention, even though they have a different meaning in the original lexicon; (d) most of the *majāz* categories are metonymic; others are dead metaphor or addition/elision of a constituent; (e) not every linguistic category can have a *majāz* usage: proper names are a case in point; (f) the (observational) difference between literal and figurative usage concerns distribution: literal words may be applied universally in all contexts (*jāriya* ‘*alā l-‘umūm fī nazā‘ir*) whereas figurative ones may only be applied in the same semantic context in which they were attested.

What is conspicuously absent here is the explicit appeal to the terminology of *naql* ‘[word] transfer’. It is, rather, implicit in the writings of al-Rāzī and Diyā’ al-Dīn in the sense that the term *naql* appears but is not explained (and it is completely absent from al-Bāqillānī’s account).⁷⁷⁰ Historically the term *naql* in literary theory was associated with discussions on *isti‘āra* in the sense of a simile-based metaphor, where one word is substituted for another based on a similarity between the two notions expressed therein.⁷⁷¹ It would seem that *naql* was later used in a non-technical sense to refer to the end result of the process of *majāz* usage: if a word is used not according to its original coinage one could colloquially say it transferred from one meaning to another. Al-Rāzī cites a common conceit in which the use of a word not according to its original coinage is similar to something that is transferred from its place (*shabīhun bi-l-muntaqali* ‘*an mawḍi‘ihi*).⁷⁷² When proving one of the many fine points in his discussion al-Rāzī

⁷⁷⁰ But see the definitions of *ḥaqīqa-majāz* attributed to Abū ‘Abd Allāh al-Baṣrī, which explicitly incorporate the notion of *naql* (fn. 768).

⁷⁷¹ Al-Rummānī is the most famous example; see *al-Nukat*, 79 (*al-isti‘āratu ta‘līqu l-‘ibārati ‘alā ḡhayri mā wuḍi‘at lahu fī aṣli l-lughati ‘alā jihati l-naqli li-l-ibānati*; [...] *qad nuqila ‘an aṣlin ilā far‘in*).

⁷⁷² *Al-Maḥṣūl*, vol. 1 pt. 1, 396, reading *mawḍi‘* instead of *mawḍū‘* (as it appears in 4 out of the 6 mss. used; the editor preferred the minority *mawḍū‘*). Speaking of the etymology *majāz* as a physical place [*mawḍi‘*] is so

states that “*majāz* only comes about when a word (*lafẓ*) transfers from one thing (i.e., meaning) to another (*naql al-lafẓ min shay’ ilā shay’*) due to a relationship between them [the two meanings].” This in turn entails three principles, he continues: (a) assigning [the word] an original/primary [meaning] (*waḍ’uhu li-l-aṣl*), (b) transferring it to a derivative [meaning] (*naqluhu li-l-far’*), and (c) a reason for the transfer (*‘illa li-l-naql*).⁷⁷³ Since this account is embedded in al-Rāzī’s deliberation, and even though he does not begin with it and would hardly endorse the idea that there was any *actual* transfer, we can say that the notion of *naql* is inextricable from the idea of *majāz* as “using a word not according to its original coinage.” Thus, I henceforth refer this idea about *majāz*, for short, as “the word-transfer theory.”

Focusing on the *Mathal*, where Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s theory of *majāz* takes its mature form, we find that in the theoretical portions of his treatment he clearly makes the case for a word-transfer theory. Sometimes this is expressed as the transfer of the meaning from the enunciated word (*lafẓ*) that was coined for it to another word (*lafẓ*);⁷⁷⁴ other times this is expressed as the transfer of the enunciated word (or name, *ism*) to another meaning (*musammā* lit. ‘the thing named’, referring to the notion we have in our mind of ‘the thing named’). With reference to the second case, the enunciated word (*ism*) ‘sun’ is said to be transferred to (the meaning) ‘pretty face’ (according to the first understanding, taking the same example, the meaning of ‘pretty face’ would be the thing transferred to the word ‘sun’).⁷⁷⁵ The difference may be benign, and it could

ubiquitous in the medieval writings that there is little doubt that this is the word intended. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn speaks of this etymology as well; see below.

⁷⁷³ Ibid., 473.

⁷⁷⁴ *wa-l-majāz huwa naqlu l-ma’ nā’ ani l-lafẓi l-mawḍū’i lahu ilā lafẓin ākhara ghayrihi* “*majāz* is the transfer of a meaning from the word that was coined for it [in the lexicon] to another word”; *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 107.

⁷⁷⁵ *fā-l-ismu l-mawḍū’u bi-izā’i l-musammā huwa ḥaqīqatun lahu fā-idhā nuqila ilā ghayrihi šāra majāzan* “The word coined vis-à-vis the thing named [i.e., the idea/meaning] is its [the meaning’s] *ḥaqīqa* ‘literal usage’; if it [the *ism*] is transferred to another [meaning] it becomes *majāz*”; *ibid.* And also *ibid.*, *wa-idhā naqalnā l-shamsa ilā l-*

represent for *Ḍiyā' al-Dīn* two sides of the same coin. But then we come across a third usage of *naql*: that of *ḥaqīqa* itself being transferred to *majāz*. Ibn al-Athīr probably means this to be a metadiscourse comment, as he contends the following: “Rather, orators and poets engage extensively in [creating] varieties of motifs (? , *al-asālīb al-ma'nawīyya*) so they transfer literal usage into figurative usage.”⁷⁷⁶ I pause on these different uses of *naql* because they leave an impression that *Ḍiyā' al-Dīn* does not feel at home with the *naql* terminology, and hence, the *naql* theory (and as we will see later, he did not really endorse it).

Another inconsistency arises with regards to the usage of the term *waḍ'* lit. ‘setting down’ to refer to the process in which words are coined in the original vocabulary of the language. We find that it is sometimes the ‘wording’ that is said to be set down for the ‘meaning’ and elsewhere it is the other way around. In the definition of linguistic (*luḡhawīyya, lafẓīyya*) *ḥaqīqa*, it is glossed as *dalālat al-lafẓ 'alā al-ma'nā al-mawḍū' lahu fī aṣl al-luḡha* “the indication of a word to the meaning set down for it in the original (or basic) lexicon [lit. in the basis of the lexicon/language].”⁷⁷⁷ What is ‘set down’ here is the meaning. Immediately following is the definition of *majāz* in which it is the wording that is said to be ‘set down’ for the meaning: (*naql al-ma'nā 'an*) *al-lafẓ al-mawḍū' lahu [li-l-ma'nā]*.⁷⁷⁸ I suspect this type of inconsistency was a common one in literary theory. Like the idea of *naql*, determining which

wajhi l-malīḥi isti'āratān kāna dhālika lahu majāzan lā ḥaqīqa “If we transfer [the word] ‘sun’ to the [intended meaning] ‘pretty fact’ metaphorically, then that [the word ‘sun’] is its [the meaning’s] *majāz*, not [its] *ḥaqīqa*” and *ibid.* 1: 110, *li-naqli l-alfāẓi mīna l-ḥaqīqati ilā ḡhayriḥā* “[...] due to the transference of words from [their] literal usage to something else.”

⁷⁷⁶ *wa-innāmā ahlu l-khaṭābatī wa-l-shi'ri tawassa'ū fī l-asālībi l-ma'nawīyyati fa-naqalū l-ḥaqīqata ilā l-majāzi*; *ibid.* 1: 109. Compare this especially to *fa-idhā nuqila ilā ḡhayriḥi ṣāra majāzan* (mentioned above) “if it is transferred to [another word] it becomes *majāz*.”

⁷⁷⁷ *Ibid.* 1: 106-107.

⁷⁷⁸ *Ibid.* 1: 107. See also several lines down, where the name (*ism*) is that which is said to be ‘set down’ for the named thing (*musammā*): *al-ism al-mawḍū' bi-izā' al-musammā* (see also above) and *waḍ' al-asmā' 'alā al-musammayāt* (*ibid.* 1: 109).

component is set down for the other may reflect two sides of the same coin (no pun intended), although in English, when we speak of ‘coining’ words, it is clear that it is the wording, or enunciated element, that is coined for the meaning. As an example from earlier literary-theoretical works which may explain the odd *al-ma ‘nā al-mawḍū ‘ lahu*, we might cite the perplexing phrase *mawḍū ‘āt al-ma ‘ānī* found in al-Āmidī’s work on the critical comparison between the poetry of Abū Tammām and al-Buḥturī. There, *mawḍū ‘āt al-ma ‘ānī* is mentioned alongside the term *majāzāt*.⁷⁷⁹ In an earlier study (*The Hand of the Northwind*), Heinrichs translates al-Āmidī’s passage in full and renders *mawḍū ‘āt al-ma ‘ānī* as “what is coinable and usable in the way of poetic motifs” and *majāzāt* as “the ways of expression exceeding the proper meaning of language.” In a later work (“Contacts between Scriptural Hermeneutics and Literary Theory in Islam”), he translates the former as “the bases (? *mawḍū ‘āt*) of poetic motifs” (parentheses and question mark his).⁷⁸⁰ Another option could be that *ma ‘ānī* here refers to plain meanings (not poetic motifs) and that *mawḍū ‘āt al-ma ‘ānī* is contrasted with *majāzāt* rather than coordinated with it and thus refers to the original literal way of expressing a certain meaning, literally “[words] coined [for] meanings.”⁷⁸¹ But because of the phrasing of this idea in the *idāfa*

⁷⁷⁹ Al-Āmidī, *al-Muwāzana*, 1: 250.

⁷⁸⁰ Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 17-19; “Contacts,” 273.

⁷⁸¹ *Mawḍū ‘āt* could be translated here as “conventional, normal, usual” (cf. al-Jaṣṣāṣ’s phrase *mawḍū ‘ al-lughā* as a reference to the original vocabulary of the language; Heinrichs, “Contacts,” 269), but it is important to keep in mind that *mawḍū ‘āt al-ma ‘ānī* does not refer to conventional meanings but to the conventional way of expressing those meanings. The context is al-Āmidī’s analysis of Imru’ al-Qays’ famous loan (‘old’) metaphor, “And I said to it (sc. the night) when it stretched out its back and followed up with (its) hind quarters and struggled to get up with (its) breast” (*fa-qultu lahū lammā tamaṭṭā bi-ṣulbihī // wa-ardaḥa a’jāzan wa-nā’a bi-kalkālī*; Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 3-4). In order to explain this image (a long night like a camel slow to rise), al-Āmidī does not fully use the terminology of a ‘night’-‘camel’ analogy (= ‘old’, *tamthīl*-based metaphor) but rather incorporates his recognition of word substitutions (“breast” for “first part of night” etc., i.e. ‘new’, *tashbīh*-based metaphor; more on these below). It is in this latter context that the contrast *mawḍū ‘āt al-ma ‘ānī – majāzāt* should be understood because it is here that we find explanations in terms of word transfer (and he even speaks of the closeness of the metaphors to reality, *haqīqa*). One challenge to my interpretation is the word *wa-l-isti ‘ārāt* ‘[metaphorical] borrowings’ put in square brackets by the editor Ṣaqr; if it is indeed part of the original text, the opposition *mawḍū ‘āt al-ma ‘ānī – majāzāt* is less strong: *man lam ya’rif mawḍū ‘āti al-ma ‘ānī [wa-l-isti ‘ārāti] wa-lā l-majāzāti* “he who does not

construction, it lends itself to the sense that the meanings are the ones coined, akin to the construction of an improper *idāfa* (as if the *ma'ānī* are the ones set down).⁷⁸² Thus the locus of *wad'* could be said, freely and inaccurately, to subsist either in the *ma'nā* or in the *lafz*, just as *naql* was used freely to refer either to a transfer of the meaning to the uttered word, or the uttered word to the meaning, or *ḥaqīqa* to *majāz*. In both cases one gets the sense that *naql* and *wad'* were extraneous notions in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's work, as they originally were in Arabic literary theory in general.⁷⁸³

Philological Underpinnings of Majāz

Beyond the legal layers of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's theoretical exposé of *majāz*, we also find an engagement with the ideas on *majāz* expressed by Ibn Jinnī, a grammarian and philologist from the 4th/10th century. In the *Jāmi'* these ideas are presented without acknowledgement, probably because at this stage Ḍiyā' al-Dīn still endorsed them (thus there was sense in presenting them as his own). Once his thinking on the matter evolved in the *Mathal* and he rejected those ideas, it seems that he had no problem citing Ibn Jinnī by name and source, *al-Khaṣā'is*.⁷⁸⁴ Often

know the proper usages nor the metaphorical borrowings nor the figurative usages" (al-Āmidī, *Muwāzana*, 1: 250). I could not find an explanation to the bracket notation in Ṣaqr's preface. Heinrichs translates the bracketed word in his earlier work but seems to disregard it in the later one.

⁷⁸² The resemblance to the *idāfa ghayr ḥaqīqiyya* is only by form, not meaning. Compare to *maḥmūd al-sīra* 'one whose conduct is praiseworthy', where the first term of the construct is the adjective of the second (see Wright, *Grammar 2*: 221). By contrast, in *mawḍū'āt al-ma'ānī*, the first term may seem as an adjective by form but is a noun in meaning. I might be overanalyzing this point, but my purpose is to show the extraneousness both of *naql* and *wad'* in literary theory, to the extent that literary scholars used them freely and inaccurately (in Arabic, *tasāmuh*).

⁷⁸³ Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd, in his response to the *Mathal*, devotes considerable attention to the 'legal' aspects of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's discussion (*al-Falak al-dā'ir* in vol. 4 of *al-Mathal al-sā'ir*, 79-86, 198-214), and pays *no* attention to the actual categories of *majāz*. We must keep in mind that contrary to other literary theorists, Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd was an accomplished *uṣūlī* (L. Veccia Vaglieri, "Ibn Abī 'l-Ḥadīd," *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*). If Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd's response is somewhat relevant to our discussion because he was a (younger) contemporary of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, the response by al-Ṣafadī is not. His work is reflective of the changes occurring after the advent of the standard theory (see esp. *Nuṣra*, 78-82).

⁷⁸⁴ *Al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 30-32; *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 84-87, and 1: 106, where he refers to him implicitly. For the corresponding discussion see Abū al-Faṭḥ 'Uthmān Ibn Jinnī, *al-Khaṣā'is*, ed. Muḥammad 'Alī al-Najjār, 3 vols.,

characterized in modern research as a remarkable book, and once described as “a veritable encyclopedia of all conceivable topics of interest to the linguist,”⁷⁸⁵ the *Khaṣāʾiṣ* is not a common source for the literary theorist due to its primary concern with grammatical, lexical and phonological meta-questions. (Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī relies on Ibn Jinnī for his phonological and meta-lexical discussions.)⁷⁸⁶ The *Khaṣāʾiṣ* is important in our context because it probably inspired Ḍiyāʾ al-Dīn’s categorization scheme of *majāz*, at least on a terminological level.

Two points that Ibn Jinnī makes find their way into Ḍiyāʾ al-Dīn’s work. The first is that every occurrence of *majāz* displays three elements (*maʿānin*): a semantic extension of a word’s meaning (*ittisāʿ*), a comparison (*tashbīh*), and an exaggeration (*tawkīd*).⁷⁸⁷ Thus in the Qurʾānic “And We admitted him into Our mercy” (Q 21:75, *wa-adkhalnāhu fī raḥmatinā*), there is (a) a semantic expansion in the lexeme *raḥma*, since it now acts as a word of direction or location (*asmāʾ al-jihāt wa-l-maḥāll*); (b) a comparison, since “mercy” is likened to something that can be entered, even though one cannot ‘enter’ mercy; and (c) an exaggeration, since it is made into something that can be seen as a physical entity.⁷⁸⁸ The other point Ibn Jinnī espoused was that

Cairo: Dār al-Kutub al-Miṣriyya, 1952-1956, 2: 442-57 (English: ‘The Special Features [of Arabic]’).

⁷⁸⁵ Kees Versteegh, *Landmarks in Linguistic Thought III: The Arabic Linguistic Tradition*, London: Routledge, 1997, 103.

⁷⁸⁶ Al-Khafājī, *Sirr*, 13-21 (where he relies without acknowledgement on Ibn Jinnī’s *Sirr ṣināʾat al-iʿrāb*), 39-49 (where he relies on the *Khaṣāʾiṣ*). By meta-lexical questions I mean, e.g., the question of the origin of language (or its lexicon). Ḍiyāʾ al-Dīn also incorporates without acknowledgment Ibn Jinnī’s differentiation between *ishtiḳāq ṣaḡhīr* and *ishtiḳāq kabīr* ‘lesser/greater derivation’ in his own discussion on the literary device he calls *ishtiḳāq (al-Mathal al-sāʾir* 3: 195-99).

⁷⁸⁷ See Ḍiyāʾ al-Dīn’s analysis of Ibn Jinnī’s use of *tawkīd* here in *al-Mathal al-sāʾir* 2: 86. I follow him in concluding that by *tawkīd* Ibn Jinnī meant, in this context, exaggeration and not emphasis (and see also *al-Khaṣāʾiṣ* 2: 448, where we come across *li-l-ittisāʿ wa-l-mubālagha wa-tashbīh al-qalīl bi-l-kathīr* rather than *tawkīd*).

⁷⁸⁸ *Al-Khaṣāʾiṣ* 2: 442-44; *al-Jāmiʿ al-kabīr*, 30-31; *al-Mathal al-sāʾir* 2: 85. There is some variation in wording regarding the explanation of the third element. The entire claim regarding *ittisāʿ*, *tashbīh* and *tawkīd* being present in the case of *majāz* is rejected in *ibid.* 2: 85-87.

most of the language's vocabulary was, in fact, *majāz*.⁷⁸⁹ According to him, most verbs displayed this since a verb expresses the genus of an action, but if one says *qāma zaydun* “Zayd stood up,” it is obvious that Zayd did not perform all of the standing in the world, past present or future. Likewise, in *ḍarabtu zaydan* “I hit Zayd,” it is not the entirety of Zayd that is hit, neither is the entirety of his head if it is specified in *ḍarabtu zaydan ra`sahu* “I hit Zayd’s head.”⁷⁹⁰ Both of these ideas by Ibn Jinnī are embraced in the *Jāmi`* and later rejected in the *Mathal*.

Engagement with al-Jurjānī’s Asrār al-balāgha and Philosophical Poetics

In addition to the legal and philological dimensions of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s theoretical discussion of *majāz*, we find some comments that are evocative of al-Jurjānī. We mentioned above that an ‘observational’ difference between *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* was stated, with regards to the distribution of literal versus figurative usage. In the *Mathal* Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn presents another difference between the two, this time of a more literary provenance (in his words, *fi bāb al-faṣāḥa wa-l-balāgha* “in the domain of eloquence”). He uses the same phrasing, in the same paragraph, both with regards to rhetorical speech (or oratorical, *al-kalām al-khaṭābī*) and with regards to figurative speech (*majāz*, later *al-`ibāra al-majāziyya*): that they establish the intended meaning in the soul of the recipient by evoking an image (*al-takhyīl wa-l-taṣwīr*, which I take as a hendiadys),⁷⁹¹ as if it is

⁷⁸⁹ Ibn Jinnī’s views can only be understood against the backdrop of the lexicographical use of *majāz*.

⁷⁹⁰ *Al-Khaṣā`iṣ* 2: 447-57; *al-Jāmi` al-kabīr*, 31-32. This is implicitly rejected in *al-Mathal al-sā`ir* 1: 106, where Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn states that the claims according to which all language is *ḥaqīqa* or all language is *majāz* amount to the same argument, and neither is correct.

⁷⁹¹ This meaning of *takhyīl* would correspond to the meaning of the term in philosophical poetics, namely, “the creation, on the part of the poet, of an image in the mind of the listener”; see Heinrichs, “*Takhyīl*,” 2. But Heinrichs also speaks (p. 1) of the semantics of *khayyala* as a denominative form II verb meaning “creating a *khayāl* in the mind” (Heinrichs speaks of the illusionary dimension of this idea), so admittedly, the dictionary meaning of the word and its philosophical technical meaning are not too far apart. It is possible that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was exposed to some ideas from philosophical poetics, perhaps as they seeped into literary theory proper. For the quintessential character of philosophical poetics as dealing with *al-takhyīl wa-l-taṣawwur wa-l-tamaththul* [*/tamthīl*] *wa-mā ashbahahā* see al-Khuwārizmī’s paragraph-length description of the *Poetics* (*biyūṭiqī*) in *Maḥāṭib al-`ulūm*, 152.

almost seen before one’s eyes (*ithbāt al-gharaḍ al-maqṣūd fī nafs al-sāmi ‘ bi-l-takhyīl wa-l-taṣwīr ḥattā yakādu yunẓaru ilayhi ‘iyānan [...] al-farq bayna al-qawlayn fī l-taṣwīr wa-l-takhyīl wa-ithbāt al-gharaḍ al-maqṣūd fī nafs al-sāmi ‘*).⁷⁹² Thus, when comparing “Zayd is a lion” with its literal version (*ḥaqīqa*) “Zayd is brave,” Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn states that the listener only perceives the idea that Zayd is courageous in the latter case, whereas in the former one has an image (*yukhayyalu ‘inda dhālika*) of the lion’s form (*ṣūrat al-asad wa-hay’atuhu*), including its great might (*quwwat baṭshihī*) and its crushing of its prey (*daqq al-farā’is*).⁷⁹³

This echoes a statement made by ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī in the *Asrār* with regards to the metaphorical (*isti’āra*) “I saw a lion [referring to a brave man],” which is said to plant (*īqā’*) in the soul of the listener the image of a lion (*ṣūrat al-asad*) “in its might (*baṭshihī*), audacity, fortitude, strength, and other characteristics (*ma’ānī*) that are centered in its nature that have to do with courage.”⁷⁹⁴ The same idea is expressed in slightly different terms in the *Dalā’il*.⁷⁹⁵ Whether Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s statement is derived directly from al-Jurjānī is unclear, especially when we consider the following comment by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn. He says that of the more wondrous things a figurative expression (*ibāra majāziyya*) can do is move the listener away from a person’s natural character such that the miser becomes magnanimous, the coward courageous and the reckless judicious. This type of speech, he continues, can have an intoxicating affect on the addressee to

⁷⁹² *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 1: 110-11 (for the second: “the difference between the two expressions [literal and figurative] lies in the evocation of an image and in [this ‘evocative’ mode of] establishing the intended meaning in the soul of the hearer”); also 2: 364.

⁷⁹³ *Ibid.* 1: 111. The subject of *khayyala* here is probably not the listener but rather the thing imagined (*ṣūra* etc.), hence *yukhayyalu* in the passive.

⁷⁹⁴ *Asrār*, 31-32; also 223.14-15.

⁷⁹⁵ E.g., *Dalā’il*, 70-73, where the force of the affirmation (or predication, *ithbāt*, *ījāb*, *ḥukm*) is said to be firmer in the case of a sentence like “I saw a lion [referring to a brave man],” and the difference between this type of speech and a direct one is the *way* of affirmation (*tarīq ithbātihi lahā wa-taqrīrihi iyyāhā*, p. 71), not the meaning itself that is expressed.

such an extent that it can change his behavior.⁷⁹⁶ This point is rather evocative of old sayings about poetry, according to which it can raise the ignorant from lowly rank and lower the perfect from high rank, alluding to the effects of a *madḥ* or *hijā'*.⁷⁹⁷ This notion was thus common in Arabic literary theory, but here Ḍiyā' al-Dīn combines the rhetorical (*al-kalām al-khaṭābī*) with the poetic (making the miser magnanimous etc.) with the figurative (*majāz*, *al-'ibāra al-majāziyya*).⁷⁹⁸ It gives a strong hint to his conception of *majāz* at the logical, or extra-linguistic level (which we will elaborate shortly), rather than the lexical level as his opening definition states, and it comes very close to the idea we find in philosophical poetics (specifically al-Fārābī) regarding the nature of poetic statements as being false (in addition to evoking images and being imitative by use of figurative speech).⁷⁹⁹

⁷⁹⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 111.

⁷⁹⁷ See, e.g., Ibn Rashīq, *al-'Umda* 1: 40 (under the chapter titled *bābu man raḥa'ahu l-shi'ru wa-man waḍa'ahu*); also Ibn Fāris, *al-Ṣāḥibī*, 274, quoting a scholar: “If it [the poetry] is [said] in jest it mocks, and if it is in earnest it is untrue (*kadhaba*).” This idea cannot be divorced from the Qur'ānic statement on poets, “Do you not see how they wander in every valley and say that which they do not do” (Q 26:225-26, *a-lam tara annahum fī kulli wādīn yahīmūna wa-annahum yaqūlūna mā lā yaf'alūna*), cited in the same context, *al-Ṣāḥibī*, 273. See also van Gelder, “Beautifying the Ugly,” 325-26, citing *inter alia* Nizāmī Aruḍī's (mid 6th/12th cent.) *Chahar maqāla*: “Poetry is that art whereby the poet arranges imaginary propositions, and adapts the deductions, with the result that he can make a little thing appear great and a great thing small [...]” For further study of this question see McKinney, *Rhyme versus Reason*, 190-97, along with the more explicit comments in the early sources on making the true appear false and the false true (using the terms *ḥaqq* and *bāṭil*, pp. 194-96).

⁷⁹⁸ Although mixing the rhetorical with the poetic should not be overemphasized, especially since the activity of the *khaṭīb* (later *kātib*) and that of the *shā'ir* were recognized early on as being, in substance, identical. See Heinrichs, “Klassisch-arabische Theorien dichterischer Rede,” 201, and see his citation of the saying by the poet al-'Attābī (d. 208/823 or later), *al-shi'ru rasā'ilu ma'qūdatun wa-l-rasā'ilu shi'run mahlūl* “Poetry is ‘bound’ [in the formal sense of rhyme and meter] epistles and epistles are ‘unbound’ poetry.”

⁷⁹⁹ Among al-Fārābī's (d. 339/950) writings on poetics this can be seen in *Qawānīn ṣinā'at al-shu'arā'*, where poetic statements (*al-aqāwīl al-shi'riyya*) are subsumed under ‘untrue’ statements (*al-aqāwīl al-kādhiba*); al-Fārābī, *Maqāla fī Qawānīn ṣinā'at al-shu'arā'*, 493.3-4^e, 494.2^e. On the pairing of the logical arts with the truth values of the premises see Heinrichs, “*Takhyīl*,” 3 ff. The pairing of the logical arts with the internal faculties (imagination-based in the case of poetic statements) is represented in early on by John Philoponus (6th cent.) and later by Paul the Persian, as preserved in the work of Miskawayh (d. 421/1020) (*ibid.*). As for the aspect of figurative language, al-Fārābī used *takhyīl* and *muḥākāt* in a complimentary way to refer (ultimately) to figurative language; later Ibn Sīnā (d. 428/1037) separated the two, and the connection was resumed again later in the work of the Maghribī al-Sijilmāsī (d. after 704/1304). See Heinrichs, “*Takhyīl*,” 5-6, 8, 10 (a thorough elaboration on al-Fārābī can be found in *idem*, “Die antike Verknüpfung von phantasia und Dichtung bei den Arabern,” *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft* 128.2 [1978], 252-98). A connection between poetic statements and the term *majāz*

The Discourse of Kadhib

The discourse of falsehood (*kadhib*) in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's work is practically non-existent. It appears once in the context of *ifrāṭ* 'hyperbole'.⁸⁰⁰ Here Ḍiyā' al-Dīn exhumes the old controversy about falsehood in poetry which was epitomized in the saying *aḥsanu l-shi'ri akdhabuhu* "the best poetry is the most untruthful," which in turn prompted the reply *aḥsanu l-shi'ri aṣḍaquhu* "the best poetry is the most truthful."⁸⁰¹ For Ḍiyā' al-Dīn the use of hyperbole is commendable precisely because "the best poetry is the most untruthful," and more than that, he adds, "the most truthful [poetry] is the most untruthful" (*bal aṣḍaquhu akdhabuhu*). But Ḍiyā' al-Dīn does not relate cases of hyperbole to *majāz*, even though most of the examples display figurative language, as in 'Antara's (6th cent.) [meter: *kāmīl*]

wa-ana l-maniyyatu fi-l-mawāṭini kullihā

wa-l-ṭa'nu minnī sābiqu l-ājālī

"I am death on all fronts,

was made by Ibn Rushd (Averroes, d. 595/1198); see Abū al-Walīd Ibn Rushd, *Talkhīṣ Kitāb Aristūṭālis fī l-shi'r* (= *al-Sharḥ al-wasīṭ*), in *Fann al-shi'r: ma'a al-tarjama al-'arabiyya al-qadīma wa-shurūḥ al-Fārābī wa-Ibn Sīnā wa-Ibn Rushd*, ed. 'Abd al-Raḥmān Badawī, Cairo: Maktabat al-Nahḍa al-Miṣriyya, 1953, 199-250, here: 243, discussed in Ajami, *Alchemy*, 60-61. See also Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 17-18, and 70-73 for an elaboration on al-Sijilmāsī's understanding of *majāz*. For the connection between *muḥākāt* and metaphors in a Persian context see Justine Landau, "Naṣīr al-Dīn Ṭūsī and Poetic Imagination in the Arabic and Persian Philosophical Tradition," in Ali Asghar Seyed-Gohrab (ed.), *Metaphor and Imagery in Persian Poetry*, Leiden: Brill, 2012, 15-66, here: 44, and 50-52 for the connection between *kadhib* and metaphors. Gregor Schoeler goes so far as to state that "Arabo-Islamic philosophical poetics is essentially a theory of figurative language" and that all figurative utterances are "poetic" (i.e., part of the *aqāwīl shi'riyya*) even if they occur outside poetry – in speeches and in everyday language ("The 'Poetic Syllogism' Revisited," *Oriens* 41 [2013], 1-26, here: 5-6, 17-18, and see references therein to his earlier work on the poetic syllogism, as well as the works of Black and Aouad).

⁸⁰⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 3: 191. See also Ajami, *Alchemy*, 83-85. That hyperbole was one of the contexts in which untruthfulness was discussed in works of 'indigenous' Arabic literary theory (as opposed to the philosophically oriented ones) is discussed, e.g., in Heinrichs, "Klassisch-arabische Theorien dichterischer Rede," 205.

⁸⁰¹ A representative example is al-Marzūqī (d. 421/1030) in his commentary on the *Hamāsa*, an anthology of old Bedouin poetry assembled by Abū Tammām; for discussion see Ajami, *Alchemy*, 9-12. In the *Jāmi'*, 229, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn ascribes the preference for *aḥsanu l-shi'ri akdhabuhu* in the context of *ghuluww* to Qudāma b. Ja'far. See also Jacobi, "Dichtung und Lüge"; Bürgel, "Die beste Dichtung," 55-76 (including the question of exaggeration); and Ajami, *Alchemy*.

my thrust precedes [men's] predestined times of death”⁸⁰²

In the *Jāmi* ‘Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn elaborates on where he sees the exaggeration: “For a thrust cannot precede predestined times of death, because a predestined time of death cannot come sooner or later. Some have claimed that ‘preceding’ makes more sense (*aqrabu amran*) than ‘following’ [the predestined time of death], except that both of them are an exaggeration in expression.”⁸⁰³

Note that the phrase is rather expressive of reality – a thrust did take place, men did die – as opposed to the figurative (and untrue) expression “I am death” (*anā l-maniyyatu*), which Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not comment on.⁸⁰⁴ Part of the disassociation between the discourse of hyperbole/lies and the discourse of figurative language probably lies in the fact that exaggeration was heavily associated with *madīḥ* ‘praise poetry’. This is clear when Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn discusses the opposite of *ifrāt*, namely, *tafrīt* ‘failing to do what one ought’ i.e., “failing to praise appropriately,” where the explicit appeal to *madḥ* (and its conjugations) abounds.⁸⁰⁵ Because hyperbole is contextualized within the framework of praise poetry, which by default involves real people and real occurrences, ‘reality’ is ultimately adhered to, much more so than in the case of ‘unmarked’ figurative speech.

We do find a direct connection between exaggeration and *majāz* in the slightly later work of Ibn Abī al-Iṣḃa‘. In his first literary theoretical study, *Taḥrīr al-taḥbīr*, he espouses the view

⁸⁰² *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 191, and fns. 2-3 for other versions of this verse. I adopt, with some changes, Ajami’s translation in *Alchemy*, 83 (he translates more examples from the *Mathal* on pp. 84-85).

⁸⁰³ *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 228. The example is left uncommented in the *Mathal*.

⁸⁰⁴ For another poetic example and commentary see *ibid.*, 228-29, inspired by an explicit quotation from al-Jāḥiẓ’s *Kitāb al-Ḥayawān*.

⁸⁰⁵ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 178-91. Although all the examples are taken from poetry, it is clear that the entire discussion has special implications for the state scribe, who must learn to address the recipient in appropriate terms (see esp. *ibid.*, 187-91). For more on the question of decorum see J.S. Meisami, “Truth and Poetry,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature* 2: 781-82, here: 781. Note that *tafrīt* can also have the opposite meaning of “praising immoderately” (Lane, *Lexicon*, 2376).

that *majāz* is a genus for several categories, one of which is *mubālagha* ‘exaggeration’.⁸⁰⁶

Because he is following Ibn Rashīq in viewing *majāz* as a hypernym for figurative speech (subsuming metaphor, comparison, exaggeration and indirect allusions) as well as a hyponym for metonymy, we might postulate that it was not uncommon to view *mubālagha* or *ifrāt* as *majāz*.⁸⁰⁷

Despite upholding the view that “the most truthful poetry is the most untruthful,” Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn ends the discussion with an appeal to a midway between *tafrīt* and *ifrāt*, namely *iqtiṣād* ‘moderation’ (complying with the old preference for the golden mean, going back to the Greeks).⁸⁰⁸ Here he adds the common opinion that if one precedes the phrase with *law* ‘as if’ or *yakādu* ‘almost’, the exaggeration is toned down. It is noteworthy that the first example he adduces is the Qur’ānic “The lightning almost snatches away their sight” (Q 2:20, *yakādu l-barqu yakhtaḥafu absārahum*), a common example that figures into many seventh/thirteenth-century discussions on metaphor.⁸⁰⁹ This serves as a direct link between the ‘untruthfulness’ of exaggeration and the ‘untruthful’ nature of figurative speech, as implicitly conceived by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn. His differentiation between a literal statement and figurative one in terms of *al-taṣwīr wa-l-takhyīl*, a hendiadys for ‘evoking images’, links Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s ‘organic’ conception of *majāz* (which we will attend to shortly) to the philosophical poetical association between image-

⁸⁰⁶ *Tahrīr*, 457-58.

⁸⁰⁷ Ibn Abī al-Iṣba’ discusses *mubālagha* under the category termed *al-ifrāt fī al-ṣifa* ‘exaggerating an attribute’ (*Tahrīr*, 147-58, following the nomenclature of Ibn al-Mu’tazz). This chapter too is replete with notions of truth and falsehood. He does not say at the outset that the device is part of *majāz*; some subcategories, rather, are recognized as *majāz* (ibid., 152-53, ending with a comment that suggests that *mubālagha* as a whole is divided into two, “*majāzī*” and “*ḥaqīqī*”). See also also ibid., 321-26, for his discussion of *ighrāq* and *ghuluww*, more extreme forms of exaggeration: here *majāz* is not used.

⁸⁰⁸ Later stated explicitly by Ibn Abī al-Iṣba’, *wa-khayr al-umūr awsāṭuhā* (ibid., 150).

⁸⁰⁹ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 194. This appears in Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya*, Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s *Rawḍa*, al-Zanjānī’s *Mi’yār* and Ibn al-Naqīb’s *Muqaddima* (see §5.4).

evocation and figurative usage, perhaps via al-Jurjānī's discussion of metaphor.⁸¹⁰

Further Engagement with al-Jurjānī: Differentiating Tashbīh from Isti'āra

Before we delve into Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's categorization of *majāz* in the *Mathal*, and without overemphasizing the influence of al-Jurjānī, one must bear in mind that some of the latter's comments on metaphor infiltrate Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's discussion, either by direct or indirect influence. I think it is worth lingering on, especially because al-Jurjānī attends to these points in the *Asrār*, not the *Dalā'il*, a work that did not seem to be accessible to scholars, especially outside of the Islamic East. First, the archetypal examples of *majāz* that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn adduces in the theoretical exposé in the *Mathal* are 'lion' (*asad*) for 'brave', 'sun' (*shams*) for 'pretty face' and 'ocean' (*baḥr*) for 'generous'. Although they common examples (the first already standard in Aristotle), I find it suspicious that the very same examples are found in al-Jurjānī's introductory deliberation on the 'meaningful' (*mufīd*) metaphor (with *badr* in addition to *shams*), the exact place that al-Jurjānī mentions the speaker's planting in the soul of the listener the image of a lion in its might, audacity, etc., which we discussed above.⁸¹¹ More importantly, like al-Jurjānī Ḍiyā' al-Dīn postulates that the essence of metaphor, and that which sets it apart from simile, is that in a metaphor the topic (*primum comparationis*) is 'concealed' and only the analogue (*secundum comparationis*) is mentioned, as in "I saw a lion," whereas in a simile both topic and analogue

⁸¹⁰ This association is not borne out in all works of Arabic philosophical poetics; see fn. 799. Despite the similarity of terms, it is al-Jurjānī's discussion of *metaphor* that probably influenced Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, not his discussion of *takhyīl*, which is a separate literary device conceived by al-Jurjānī as 'fantastic aetiology (/reinterpretation)', that is, assigning a fantastic cause to a certain occurrence.

⁸¹¹ *Asrār*, 31-32; *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 107, 111. The meaningful metaphor is the one that al-Jurjānī pays most of his attention to (*Asrār*, 31 ff.). The non-meaningful or 'inexpressive' metaphor is the one in which body parts are expressed using the corresponding parts in other species, e.g. *marsin* 'nose of a solid-hoofed animal' for *anf* '[human] nose' (*Asrār*, 29 ff.). In other words, there is no conceived 'purpose' (*fā'ida*) in the latter case. For Aristotle's famous example of 'lion' for 'brave' (Achilles) when discussing the difference between simile and metaphor, see *Rhetoric* III, 4 (trans. W. Rhys Roberts, New York: Cosimo, 2010, 126).

are mentioned, as in “Zayd is a lion” (where the particle of comparison is omitted).⁸¹² (There are several terminological inconsistencies in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work: ‘topic’ is referred to as *mushabbah bihi*, *manqūl* or *manqūl ilayhi*, and *musta ‘ār lahu*; ‘analogue’ is called *mushabbah*, *manqūl* or *manqūl ilayhi*, and *musta ‘ār*).⁸¹³ Although the recognition of “Zayd is a lion” as a simile rather than a metaphor is an old one (see, e.g., the *Wasāṭa*),⁸¹⁴ the terms used by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn to elaborate on this recognition seem to be derivative of al-Jurjānī. One of the points al-Jurjānī makes is that not every simile (complete with its particle of comparison) can be rendered into a metaphor in which the topic is not expressed. As an example he provides, *inter alia*, the prophetic saying, *al-nāsu ka-ibilin mi’atin lā tajidu fīhā rāḥilatan* “People are like a hundred camels in which you cannot find one that is fit for riding (or: saddled and conspicuous).” One cannot say, al-Jurjānī contends, “I saw a hundred camels in which you cannot find one that is fit for riding” and mean “I saw people,” as was the case with “I saw a lion” in the sense of “a man like a lion.”⁸¹⁵ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn appropriates this idea and claims – from the opposite direction – that

⁸¹² *Asrār*, 223, 227, 296-300; *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 71-77. For further discussion see Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 202-203.

⁸¹³ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 71.8 (we would expect *mushabbah bihi* for the analogue and *mushabbah* for the topic), 72.7 ff. (where it is the *manqūl ilayhi* that is said to be “mentioned”), 74.1-2 (it is the *manqūl* that is said to be “mentioned”, 77.1 ff. (with *musta ‘ār* and *musta ‘ār lahu* there is consistency). This is a representative sample. These inconsistencies can be added to the ones we discussed above regarding *naql* and *waḍ’*. The discourse of *manqūl-manqūl ilayhi* has a wide scope of reference, as it refers to the two sides of any figurative expression, not just those based on comparison. The most surprising inconsistency is with the terms *mushabbah* and *mushabbah bihi*, and it is probably not an error of a copyist or editor: see the edition of Muḥammad Muḥyī al-Dīn ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd, 2 vols., Cairo: Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1939, 1: 356; a nineteenth century printed edition containing Ibn Qutayba’s *Adab al-kātib* on the margins, Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a al-Bahiyya, 1312 [1894], 138.2°; and an early Būlāq edition (s.d.), 214.4-5°. It is only in the digital domain that we find a ‘rectified’ phrasing: see the Word version prepared by *Maktabat Mishkāt al-Islāmiyya*, where instead of *wa-l-tashbīhu l-maḥdhūfu an yudhkara l-mushabbahu dūna l-mushabbah bihi wa-yusammā sti ‘āratan*, we find the ‘correct’ *wa-l-tashbīhu l-maḥdhūfu an yudhkara l-mushabbahu bihi wa-yusammā sti ‘āratan* (faculty.mu.edu.sa/download.php?fid=6475; identical to the text in <http://www.alwaraq.net/Core/AlwaraqSrv/bookpage?book=157&session=ABBBVFAGFGFHAAWER&fkey=2&page=1&option=1> [p. 126]).

⁸¹⁴ Al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī, *al-Wasāṭa*, 41. It appears that ‘Abd al-Qāḥir al-Jurjānī was influenced by the *Wasāṭa*.

⁸¹⁵ *Asrār* 226-27. For a slightly different version of the prophetic saying see Lane, *Lexicon*, 1055. Al-Rāzī treats this issue in a condensed fashion in *Nihāya*, 246-47. In *Asrār*, 100-101, al-Jurjānī discusses this example in the context of *tamthīl* (see below). Al-Jurjānī’s larger differentiation between *tashbīh* and *isti ‘āra* does not pass over to Ḍiyā’ al-

in those cases in which one can restore (*taqdīr*) the particle of comparison and keep the beauty (*ḥusn, yaḥsunu, istiḥsān, malāḥa*) of the statement intact, one is dealing with a simile (in which the particle was omitted), and in those cases in which restoring the particle results in a statement that is permissible (*yajūzu, jawāz*) but no longer beautiful, one is dealing with a metaphor.⁸¹⁶ Thus, restoring “Zayd is like a lion” for “Zayd is a lion” remains beautiful, but in the case of al-Sharīf al-Raḍī’s (d. 406/1016, quoted without attribution) [meter: *kāmil*]

far ‘ā’u in nahādat li-ḥājatihā

‘ajila l-qaḍību wa-abṭa’a l-di ‘šū

“A full-haired one, whenever she stands up to do her affair

the twig moves quickly and the round sand hill is slow,”⁸¹⁷

restoring “a physique (*qadd*) moves quickly like a twig, and buttocks (*ridf*) are slow like a round sand hill” leads to an uncomely result. What Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not say explicitly is that it is uncomely because restoring the particle of comparison in these cases necessitates the restoration of the unexpressed topic (*qadd, ridf*), which causes the statement to lose its charm. A similar example is provided in the Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *Jāmi’*, where the poetic line and ensuing comment are

Dīn’s work: according to al-Jurjānī, the point of *tashbīh* (“Zayd is a lion”) is to relate that a similarity exists between the two things, whereas the point of *isti’āra* is to relate something else, beyond the existence of a similarity (“A lion is approaching”) (Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 202-203).

⁸¹⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 73-76, 121-22 (the passages are rather repetitive, and the gist of it is expressed on p. 74, *wa-jumlatu l-amri annā narā adāta l-tashbīhi yaḥsunu izḥāruhā fī mawḍi’ in dūna mawḍi’ in fa-‘alimnā anna l-mawḍi’ a-lladhī yaḥsunu izḥāruhā fīhi ghayru l-mawḍi’ i-lladhī lā yaḥsunu izḥāruhā fīhi fa-sammaynā l-mawḍi’ a-lladhī yaḥsunu izḥāruhā fīhi tashbīhan muḍmara l-adāti wa-lladhī lā yaḥsunu izḥāruhā fīhi -sti’āran).*

⁸¹⁷ Ibid. 2: 73 (and fn. 1 for the meaning of *di ‘š*), 75, 76. According to al-Ḥalāwī’s edition of the *dīwān* (*Dīwān al-Sharīf al-Raḍī*, ed. Muḥammad Muṣṭafā Ḥalāwī, 2 vols., Beirut: Sharikat Dār al-Arqam b. Abī al-Arqam, 1999, 1: 585), *dighṣ* ‘corpulent woman’ should be read for *di ‘š*, but this would destroy the symmetry with *qaḍīb* (Ḥulw’s edition runs until the letter *dāl*). *Di ‘š* (with *kathīb*) is a standard, very common image for *ridf*. For *di ‘š* see also Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-‘arab* 2: 1380-81, where a poetic *shāhid* is adduced in which a delicate twig (*qaḍību bānin*) is mentioned in the context of two round sand hills (*di ‘ṣatānī*). On the contrast between quick and slow parts of a woman see also the lines by al-Mu’ammil (a *mukhaḍram* poet), *man ra’ā mithla ḥubbatī / tushbihu l-badra idhā badā || tadkhulu l-yawma thumma tad- / khulu ardāfuhā ghadā* “Who’s seen the like of my beloved? She resembles a full moon. || She herself will arrive today; her bum tomorrow, before noon!” (sometimes adduced as an example of exaggeration; see, e.g., al-‘Askarī, *al-Ṣinā’atayn*, 374; Usāma b. Munqidh, *al-Badī’*, 107). I thank Geert Jan van Gelder for the reference and translation.

taken almost verbatim from al-Jurjānī's *Dalā'il*.⁸¹⁸ I read this as a direct appropriation of al-Jurjānī's idea, according to which not every full-fledged comparison can be expressed in the form of a metaphor (topic unexpressed):

Not every *tashbīh* can be reworked into an *isti'āra* (topic suppressed) [al-Jurjānī]



Not every *isti'āra* (topic suppressed) can be reworked into a beautiful *tashbīh* [Ḍiyā' al-Dīn]

We might add that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn ends his discussion in the *Mathal* with the boasting statement, “So consider carefully what I have pointed to and reflect on it, so that you find that I have mentioned what no one before me has in this manner.”⁸¹⁹ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn made similar statements when he lifted unacknowledged sections from al-Ghazālī (in the *Jāmi'*) and when he quoted without attribution the *Dalā'il* on the virtue of word arrangement (see §4.1).⁸²⁰ (This does not mean that every time Ḍiyā' al-Dīn boasts of his original thinking we should assume plagiarism.) In the case of articulating the essence of metaphor as a comparison in which the topic is not expressed, one can assume direct influence from al-Jurjānī. In the case of differentiating ‘permissible’ reconstructions of a comparison versus ‘beautiful’ reconstructions, and making that the basis of identifying a metaphor versus a comparison with no particle, one can assume an appropriation of al-Jurjānī's ideas – in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's words, a case of *istinbāṭ* or *istikhrāj*.

Further Engagement with al-Jurjānī: Analogy

In a similar vein, earlier in the *Asrār* al-Jurjānī speaks of the process of restoring the unexpressed topic (and along with it, the particle of comparison) in the famous case of the substratum-less

⁸¹⁸ *Al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 84; *Dalā'il*, 450-51. I discuss this passage in §5.5.

⁸¹⁹ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 77.

⁸²⁰ *Al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 28; *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 1: 215.

metaphor epitomized in Labīd’s [meter: *kāmīl*]

wa-ghadāti rīhin qad kashaftu wa-qirratin

idh ašbahat bi-yadi l-shamāli zimāmuḥā

“Many a cold and windy morning I went forth

When its reins were in the hand of the north wind.”⁸²¹

The context is al-Jurjānī’s famous differentiation between metaphors that have a substratum (*shay’ ma lūm yumkin an yunaṣṣ ‘alayhi, shay’ yushār ilayh*, and other expressions), like “I saw a lion” (substratum of lion=Zayd), and metaphors that do not have a substratum, like “hand of the north wind” (substratum of hand=∅).⁸²² In the first case, contends al-Jurjānī, going back and articulating to the full comparison comes easily (*idhā raja ‘ta [...] ilā l-tashbīh [...] wajadtahu ya ‘tīka ‘afwan*), leading to *ra ‘aytu rajulan ka-l-asad* or *ra ‘aytu mithla l-asad* or *shabīhan bi-l-asad* “I saw a man like/similar to a lion.” But in the second case the comparison is not quite *idh ašbaḥa shay’un mithlu l-yadi li-l-shamāl* **“when something like a hand comes to belong to the north wind”*; rather, one must exert reflection (*tu ‘milu ta ‘ammulan wa-fikran*) to reach the following full-fledged comparison (*tashbīh*): “when the north wind, which, in its power to affect the morning, has the semblance of a (man) commanding (*mālik*) in (his ability to) manipulate a thing in his hand [...]”⁸²³ What underlies al-Jurjānī’s differentiation is that the comparison in this type of metaphor is a complex analogy, not a simple simile.⁸²⁴ In his appropriation of this

⁸²¹ *Asrār*, 43. I adopt the translation from Stetkevych, *Abū Tammām and the Poetics of the ‘Abbāsīd Age*, 25.

⁸²² *Asrār*, 42-43. We will look into this differentiation by al-Jurjānī more closely in §5.2.

⁸²³ *Ibid.*, 44-45 (see also 224, 228-31). I read this as a conditional sentence with no apodosis, but see Ritter (trans.), *Geheimnisse*, 66, for an idiomatic rendering that does express an apodosis. Modern thinkers have also attended to the “difficulty of identifying the simile that corresponds to a given metaphor;” see for instance (wherefrom the quote is derived) Donald Davidson, “What Metaphors Mean,” *Critical Inquiry* 5.1 (1978), 31-47, here: 38.

⁸²⁴ Heinrichs, “Paired Metaphors,” 3-4: “A closer analysis shows that the *isti ‘āra* is based on a *tamthīl*, an analogy between [...]” We should state that authors in the standard tradition do not use the term *tamthīl* in this context.

idea Ḍiyā' al-Dīn speaks of cases of *tashbīh* – for him a cover term for both simile and analogy – where it is difficult to restore the particle of comparison, i.e., articulate the full analogy, and it must be done by exerting contemplation (Arabic: *ishkāl fī taqdīr adāt al-tashbīh; yushkilu taqdīr adāt al-tashbīh fīhi wa-innahu yuḥtāju fī taqdīrihā ilā naẓar*).⁸²⁵ The first classification of *tashbīh* (without the particle of comparison), out of several classifications that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn presents in the *Mathal*, is based on grammatical considerations. According to him the further one moves along the categories – five in number – the harder it becomes to reconstruct the full comparison. We will now elaborate on Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's envisioning of the hierarchy of these categories, in order to demonstrate how indebted he is to the discussions in the *Asrār*, and how he nevertheless comes up with his own version of the difficulty in articulating the full comparison of a simile/analogy. His examples (none of which are used by al-Jurjānī) often display what we would identify as metaphors. This is because (a) in the Western tradition, if both topic and analogue are expressed but the particle of comparison is missing, the sentence is viewed as a metaphor, and many of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's examples reflect exactly such cases; (b) in some of his examples the topic is in fact suppressed, and Ḍiyā' al-Dīn often finds justifications for counting them as cases of *tashbīh*.⁸²⁶ This discussion is important also because it illuminates the relationship he envisions between *tashbīh* and *isti'āra*, and it sheds light on little-discussed poetic devices such as genitive metaphors and verb metaphors.

The first category of *tashbīh* presented by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn comes in the form of (*yaqa'u mawqī'a*) a simple equational sentence (*al-mubtada' wa-l-khabar mufradayn* “single noun-initial subject and single predicate”) like “Zayd is a lion.” Here, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn says, the way of restoring

⁸²⁵ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 116, 121.

⁸²⁶ See esp. the discrepancy between *ibid.*: 117.1-3^e and 121.3-8.

the particle of comparison becomes apparent intuitively and immediately (*bi-badīhat al-naẓar* ‘*alā l-fawr*’; cf. al-Jurjānī above).⁸²⁷ In the second category, also a noun-initial sentence, the predicate (*khābar*) is a composite phrase of a genitive construct (*jumla murakkaba min muḍāf wa-muḍāf ilayhi*).⁸²⁸ Here, in order to articulate the full comparison, the word order of the construct must often be inverted (and especially when the *iḍāfa* is indefinite, he adds) as in the case of the prophetic “Truffles are the smallpox of the earth” (*al-kam’atu judariyyu l-arḍ*), which can be articulated in full (rather clumsily by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn) as “Truffles for the earth are like smallpox.” Another example is al-Buḥturī’s (d. 284/897) [meter: *ṭawīl*]

ghamāmu samāhin lā yaḡhibbu laḥū ḡayan

wa-mis’aru ḡarbin lā yaḡī’u laḥū witrū

“(You are) Clouds of generosity, whose abundant rain does not skip a day,
and a stirrer of the fire of war, for whom no blood vengeance is neglected,”⁸²⁹

which is reconstructed as “generosity like clouds” (*samāḡhun ka-l-ghamāmi*, with an implied subject *huwa* referring to the praised one).⁸³⁰ He says that a more difficult case in restoring the particle of comparison in this category (*wa-min ḡadhā l-naw’ mā yushkilu taqḍīr adāt al-tashbīḡ fīh*) is Abū Tammām’s (d. 232/846) [meter: *khafīf*]

⁸²⁷ Ibid. 2: 116-17. See another comment by al-Jurjānī in *Asrār*, 84, [...] *yu’rafu l-maqṣūdu mina l-tashbīḡi fīhi bi-badīhati l-samā’* “... the intention of the simile (or simple comparison) in [this case] is known intuitively upon hearing [it].”

⁸²⁸ Ibid. 2: 116. When he says that the predicate is a *jumla* composed of the first and second term of the construct, he is referring to a group of words (opposite *mufrad*) rather than a complete grammatical sentence (*jumla*). It is true that grammarians presuppose an implicit verb such as *yastaqirru* “to rest, to be settled” in many noun-initial sentences, turning the predicate, essentially, into a sentence, but they do so only in the context of predicates consisting of prepositional phrases (such as *zaydun fī l-dāri*).

⁸²⁹ Ibid. 2: 117 (and fn. 2 for the editors’ correction of the original *yūḡibbu* for *yaḡhibbu*). This is line 15 of al-Buḥturī’s poem beginning with *matā lāḡa barqun* [...] in praise of the patron and army general al-Faḡḡ b. Khāḡān (see *Dīwān al-Buḡturī*, ed. ḡasan Kāmīl al-Ṣayrafī, 5 vols., Cairo: Dār al-Ma’ārif, 1963-1964, 2: 845, and cf. editors’ note in the *Mathal*). The verb *ḡabba* literally means ‘to come every other day’.

⁸³⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 117. The implied pronoun *huwa* is Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s reconstruction.

ayyu mar 'ā 'aynin wa-wādī nasībī
lahabat-hu l-ayyāmu fī malḥūbī
 “What an eye’s pasturage and an amatory prelude’s valley,
 which the days abraded in Malḥūb.”⁸³¹

According to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, “Abū Tammām’s intention is to describe this place as having been beautiful, but then its beauty went away, so he said that the eye used to take pleasure in looking at it just as (*ka-*) the freely grazing livestock [take pleasure] in the pasturage, and that he (the poet) used to recite amatory sections in [his] poems due to [the place’s] beauty and pleasantness.” He continues: “and if we reconstruct (*qaddarnā*) the particle of comparison here we would say, *It is as if the eye had a pasturage (ka-annahu kāna li-l- ‘ayni mar ‘an) and the amatory prelude had an abode and home.*”⁸³² Here we find a tension between Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s adherence to his invented scheme of reconstructing the particle of comparison, which sometimes leads to clumsy results (saying it is as if the eye had a pasturage does not do much more to spell out the analogy than the original “the eye’s pasturage,” despite the added *ka-annahu*), and his more ‘authentic’ parsing of the line in which he articulates the analogy in natural terms (the eye takes pleasure in looking at a place just as livestock take pleasure in grazing in the pasturage).

Like al-Jurjānī Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn takes pains to identify the underlying analogy, but Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not speak of the absence of a substratum in this context (see al-Jurjānī’s discussion of

⁸³¹ Ibid. 2: 118, in praise of the vizier Sulaymān b. Wahb; al-Khaṭīb al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ dīwān Abī Tammām*, ed. Muḥammad ‘Abduh ‘Azzām, 4 vols., Cairo: Dār al-Ma‘ārif, 1957-1965, 1: 122. The place name Malḥūb (in Arabia) is commonly used in poetry according to al-Tibrīzī (ibid.). Another possibility is the reading *mar ‘ā ‘īn* “pasture of kine” and hence *wādī nasīb* “valley of kin” (if anyone would play on the word *nasīb* within the very *nasīb* of a poem, it would be Abū Tammām). According to al-Ṣūlī, some actually read it as *īn*, while others thought *īn* was a misreading (Muḥammad b. Yaḥyā al-Ṣūlī, *Sharḥ al-Ṣūlī li-Dīwān Abī Tammām*, ed. Khalaf Rashīd Nu mān, 3 vols., [Baghdad]: al-Jumhūriyya al-‘Irāqīyya, Wizārat al-I‘lām, [1978?], 1: 225). All in all Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn adduces three examples for the second category: the prophetic saying and the lines by al-Buḥturī and Abū Tammām.

⁸³² *Al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 2: 118. The particle *li-* merely articulates explicitly the idea of ‘belonging’ that is expressed in this type of *iqāfa* (as opposed to *min* or *fī* that are reconstructed in *ka’su fiḍḍatin* and *ṣawmu l-yawmi*, respectively; see Wright, *Grammar* 2: 199-200).

“the hand of the north wind” above). It is critical to point out that although both constructions are *idāfas*, and both contain an element with no substratum, al-Jurjānī’s *yad al-shamāl* is typologically different from Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *ghamāmu samāhin* or *mar ‘ā ‘aynin*. In the former, the element “hand” is necessary for depicting the image (because the “reins” are in it). In the latter, “clouds” and “eye” could – strictly speaking, not artistically – be omitted without impairing the image (generosity pouring constant rain; a pasturage which Time abraded). This is what Wolfhart Heinrichs referred to as an “adjacent” element of a metaphor “dangling in the air” or “semantically [but not poetically] superfluous.”⁸³³ The two are also different from a historical perspective, as the first was more common in ancient poetry, and the second more common in “modern” (*muḥdath*) poetry.⁸³⁴ The fact that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn attends to the more recent phenomenon in poetic metaphors means that the older phenomenon became less and less relevant for the critic, and perhaps it was seen as less beautiful, from a poetic point of view. As we shall see later, many metaphors that were scorned contained in them an ascription of a body part to an inanimate being; perhaps “the hand of the north wind” and “the claws of death” were lumped in that category even though they displayed lively personifications, unlike “clouds of

⁸³³ Heinrichs, “Paired Metaphors,” 7. Also, in “clouds of generosity” the genitive form is an identifying one (clouds=generosity), whereas in “hand of the north wind” it is ascriptive (hand belongs to north wind), on which see §5.2, §5.5.

⁸³⁴ Heinrichs points to the different generating mechanism in the two types of metaphor (ibid., 5): in the first case (here “hand of the north wind,” Heinrichs adduces “claws of death”), “... the ancient poet would start from an analogy and project the analogue onto the topic, thus creating an image which, although possibly containing an imaginary element, would seem natural,” whereas the *muḥdath* poet “would often construct an imaginary element by taking an already existing metaphor (mostly a verb metaphor) and proceeding on the level of the analogue to an adjacent element with no counterpart in the topic.” One example Heinrichs provides is “leading the reins of the pupils” (*iqṭadat... a ‘innata l-ḥadaqī*) from a line by Abū Nuwās, commenting that (ibid., 6) “it would be perfectly possible to turn *al-ḥadaq* (“the pupils of the eyes”) into a direct object of the verb *iqṭadat...*” (he then stresses that he is talking about the semantic level, not the poetical one, since “the ‘reins’ very aptly evoke the image of the spellbound eyeballs moving left and right without any volition of their own” [following the comments of al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī]).

generosity.”⁸³⁵ It is also worth pointing out that the two genitive metaphors that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn adduces by al-Buḥturī and Abū Tammām are not only different from the old “hand of the north wind,” but they are also different from each other. In the vast majority of ‘modern’ genitive metaphors, the metaphorical element is the first term of the construct, as was the case with “clouds of generosity” and “smallpox of the earth” (compare: “young she-camel of praise,” “bowl of drowsiness,” “head of the night,” “mountain-passes of poetry”⁸³⁶). But in “pasturage of an eye” and “valley of an amatory prelude,” the first terms of the construct are used literally: the predicate of the sentence, “abraded,” refers to the pasturage and the valley. Here there is an actual pasturage where an actual eye is looking, and an actual valley where an actual *nasīb* is recited.⁸³⁷ To apply the terms of al-Jurjānī, we would say that the words are used literally – and have a real-world substratum – but the form itself of the genitive construct is figurative (a kind of “*majāz ‘aqlī*” on the level of *iḍāfa*).

Resuming Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s discussion of the difficulty in reconstructing a full-fledged simile out of metaphorical comparisons, we now reach the third category of complexity in *tashbīh* (in which the particle is elided), after the simple equational sentence and the genitive

⁸³⁵ And see *ibid.*, 10-11: “[...] the ancients used the imaginary metaphor predominantly for abstract or non-tangible objects often for the purpose of personification [...]”

⁸³⁶ Some of the many examples adduced by Heinrichs in his “Paired Metaphors” (the first two examples are actually not by *muḥdathūn* poets). All nineteen examples that Heinrichs adduces in his article that contain a genitive metaphor display the metaphorical element in the first term of the construct. The case “mountain-passes of poetry,” also by Abū Tammām (and part of the larger “mountain-passes of earth and of poetry” [*‘iqāb al-arḍ wa-l-shi’r*]), may seem comparable to “a valley of an amatory prelude” (*wādī nasīb*), but in the first case the subject of the statement is the second term of the construct, “poetry” (where the verbal predicate is metaphorical, *fara ‘tu ‘iqāba l-arḍi wa-l-shi’ri mādiḥan lahū* “I ascended the mountain-passes of earth and of poetry praising him” for “I exerted my special poetical talent”; *ibid.*, 15) whereas in *wādī nasīb* the subject is the first term, “valley.” The case of “smallpox of the earth” is slightly different: first, ‘smallpox’ has a substratum (truffles) whereas “mountain-passes of poetry” does not, and second, the two terms are not equated (smallpox ≠ earth, mountain-passes=poetry) and are thus more in line with “hand of the north wind” (even though ‘hand’=∅).

⁸³⁷ Or, even if the whole scene is imagenary, it abides by the laws of nature – unlike wind with a hand. I am still struggling to give a ‘formal’ classification of this metaphor.

construct. It is presented as a case in which both the noun-initial subject (*mubtada'*) and the predicate (*khabar*) are composite phrases (*jumlatayni*⁸³⁸). From the single example adduced, a prophetic saying, it is not too clear what he has in mind: “Is it not the reaped produce of their tongues [speech uttered against others] that makes people prostrate on their noses in the fire of hell?!” (*hal yakubbu l-nāsa ‘alā manākhirihiḥim fī nāri jahannama illā ḥaṣā'idu alsinatihim*).⁸³⁹ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's reconstructed comparison consists of an equational sentence with composite expressions (*iḍāfas* in this case) in the subject and predicate positions, and perhaps this is what he meant by *jumlatayn*: “the speech of tongues is like the reaped seed-produce of the reaping hooks” (*kalāmu l-alsinati ka-ḥaṣā'idī l-manājili*).⁸⁴⁰ He concedes that the analogue⁸⁴¹ “reaping hook” is not expressed, but maintains that its ‘attribute’ (? , *ṣifa*) – “reaped seed-produce” (i.e., what is reaped by the hook) – is. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is not content with a mere metaphorical substitution of *ḥaṣā'id* – surely it would suffice (and would fit his definition of *majāz*). He opts rather for a complete analogy that includes the instrument (tongues=reaping hooks) as well as the result or product (speech=reaped seeds), probably out of a recognition that *ḥaṣā'id* is best perceived here visually, and is thus incomplete without the *manājil*. The visual aspect of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's understanding of metaphor will be discussed in more detail in §5.5.

The fourth and fifth categories of comparison are the hardest, according to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn (*ashkal al-aqṣām al-madhkūra*), to reconstruct as explicit similes/analogies, and people do not

⁸³⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 116. Again, by *jumla* Ḍiyā' al-Dīn does not necessarily mean here a stand-alone sentence, as the grammarians use it.

⁸³⁹ On the rarity of a transitive form I verb (*kabba*) having a corresponding intransitive form IV verb (*akabba*) see Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-'arab* 5: 3803.

⁸⁴⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 118-19. This exact comparison is elaborated on in Lane, *Lexicon*, 582 (under *ḥaṣā'id alsinatihim*).

⁸⁴¹ Here correctly referred to as the *mushabbah bihi* (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 119).

often realize (*lā yatafaṭṭanu lahumā*) that they are cases of *tashbīh*.⁸⁴² Indeed, to the modern reader they read as metaphors. The fourth category comes in the form of a verbal sentence (*yaridu ‘alā wajh al-fi‘l wa-l-fā‘il*);⁸⁴³ we would identify it as a type of verb metaphor. Two examples are adduced. The first is the Qur’ānic “And those who made the abode, and belief, their dwelling place before them” (my literal translation of Q 59:9, *wa-lladhīna tabawwa’ū l-dāra wa-l-‘īmāna min qablihim*).⁸⁴⁴ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn reconstructs the analogy as “they, in their belief, are like a man taking an abode as his dwelling place (*ka-l-mutabawwi’i dāran*), that is, they took ‘belief’ as a house to dwell in, by which [God] describes their becoming firmly established in it.”⁸⁴⁵ What is especially striking about this case is how easily the verb could have been interpreted as a metaphor, just as we see in many other authors who display tendencies of adherence to the word-transfer theory. As we shall see in subsequent sections (especially §5.5), cases comparable to *tabawwa’ū l-‘īmān* would increasingly be seen as unequivocal metaphors in which the *maṣḍar* is used “not according to its original coinage.”⁸⁴⁶ If Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn had adhered to the definition he provided in his theoretical exposé of *majāz*, he would have taken the verb *tabawwa’a* as a metaphor for *ittakhadha* ‘to take’ or something of the like. Instead, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn takes the verb *literally* (*tabawwa’a* as ‘to take s.t. as a dwelling’) and reconstructs an analogy to explain the expression, which he nevertheless views – on the whole – as figurative. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s departure from a different approach, *viz.*, taking the verb as an *isti‘āra*, is a conscious one,

⁸⁴² Ibid.

⁸⁴³ Ibid. 2: 116.

⁸⁴⁴ Ibid. 2: 119 (fixing the typo *al-dāra l-‘īmāna* [rectified in the 2nd printing of 1973, 2: 118]). The *dār* is usually taken as a reference to Medina, and the phrase as a whole to the early *anṣār* of the prophet. Arberry’s translation is “And those who made their dwelling in the abode, and in belief, before them.”

⁸⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁴⁶ And see al-Jurjānī, *Asrār*, 48 ff.

as is evident from him mentioning those scholars who do not realize that the instances in point are cases of *tashbīh* (see above).

In the second example he provides for the fourth category, the distinction between *tashbīh* and the conventional notion of *isti'āra* is much less clear. This is Abū Tammām's [meter: *khafīf*]

nataqat muqlatu l-fatā l-malhūfi

fa-tashakkat bi-fayḍi dam 'in dharūfi

“The eyeball of the anxious young man spoke

and lamented with a river of tears shed”⁸⁴⁷

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn begins by restoring a simile, “the tears of the eye are like the speech of the tongue,” and then proceeds to reconstruct the analogy, “it is as if the crying eye articulates what is in the heart” (*al- 'aynu l-bākiyatu ka-annamā tanṭiqu bi-mā fī l-damīr*).⁸⁴⁸ Attributing speech to inanimate beings has long attracted attention by literary critics, especially early ones, in the context of a pre-word-transfer theory of metaphor, and in this Ḍiyā' al-Dīn displays continuity with the early Arabic literary theoretical tradition (albeit under the heading of *tashbīh*).⁸⁴⁹ We will deal with a different case of applying speech to inanimate objects in the context of *tawassu'*; indeed, according to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's own deliberations, this case could count as *tawassu'*.

⁸⁴⁷ *Dam 'un dharīfun* or *madhrūfun* is the common expression (Lane, *Lexicon*, 963); *dharūf* would be the intensive form of the adjectival *fa'ūl* (on which see Wright, *Grammar* 1: 136). Other renderings for *fayḍ* can be ‘overflow’ or ‘abundant water’; I had Justin Timberlake’s “Cry Me a River” in mind.

⁸⁴⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 119.

⁸⁴⁹ See, e.g., Ibn Qutayba, *Ta'wīl*, 106, 109 ff. and more so Ibn Wahb al-Kātib, *al-Burhān*, 60-62, 143-44, where we find an overlap in *shawāhid*. See also Ibn Rushd, *Talkhīṣ*, in *Fann al-shi'r*, 243. Interestingly, in Ibn Wahb's deliberations of such examples, the “talking campsites” and such are reflective of the *real* world rather than a fictional one (*al-Burhān*, 60-62, 143.12-13) since inanimate beings do impart knowledge. This is connected to his philosophical conception of *bayān* which is closely aligned with al-Jāhīz's philosophical *bayān* (see §3.1). Al-Jāhīz's examples for the signification that is imparted by inanimate beings and deduced by rational ones also reflect true reality (leanness as a sign of illness; “informing” eyes; etc).

The fifth and final category within the ‘grammatical’ classification of *tashbīh* takes the form of “striking an example/similitude” (*al-mathal al-maḍrūb*).⁸⁵⁰ This category, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn maintains, “confuses many scholars of *‘ilm al-bayān* and they mix it with metaphor.”⁸⁵¹ He provides two poetic examples, both are lines by al-Farazdaq (d. ca. 110/728), and then an example which according to him is erroneously identified by scholars as *tashbīh*. The first example is part of an invective against Jarīr [meter: *kāmil*],

mā ḍarra Taghliba Wā’ilin a-hajawtahā
am bulta ḥaythu tanāṭaḥa l-baḥrāni

“It does not damage the (tribe of) Taghlib. B. Wā’il whether you lampoon them
 or piss where the two great rivers [Tigris and Euphrates] collide”⁸⁵²

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn reconstructed the analogy “just as pissing into the junction of the two seas [Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s understanding] has no effect whatsoever, likewise your lampooning of those people (the Banū Taghlib) has no effect whatsoever.”⁸⁵³ The second example is al-Farazdaq’s [meter: *ṭawīl*]

qawāriṣu ta’ tīnī wa-taḥtaqirūnahā
wa-qad yamla’u l-qaṭru l-inā’a fa-yuf’amū

“Biting words come my way, and you hold them of no worth;
 But (even) drops of water can fill a vessel to excess”⁸⁵⁴

⁸⁵⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 116.

⁸⁵¹ *Ibid.* 2: 121.

⁸⁵² Since he is speaking of pissing, and in the context of an invective, it is doubtful that what al-Farazdaq has in mind, as Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn seems to imply (*al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 120), is the Qur’ānic *majma’ al-baḥrayn* (Q 18:60), which refers to a mythical “junction of two seas” and is considered in some Islamic lore to be the abode of al-Khidr (sharing typological affinities with the Water of Life in the Alexander romance; *The Qur’ān*, Hebrew trans. Uri Rubin, 242). Referring to a place that al-Farazdaq and his audience would be well familiar with – Shaṭṭ al-‘Arab, where the Tigris and Euphrates merge – would have a livelier effect on the invective. On *baḥr* as *nahr ‘aẓīm*, including its application to rivers like the Euphrates and Nile, see *Lisān al-‘Arab* 1: 216.

⁸⁵³ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 120; see previous fn. on his understanding of the line as a reference to *majma’ al-baḥrayn*.

⁸⁵⁴ *Ibid.*, and see editors’ fn. 3 for a slightly different version.

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn comments: “he compared the harsh words that come to him, being held of no worth, to drops of water that fill a vessel despite their small size, referring by that to the idea that an abundance (of something) can turn a small issue to a big one.”⁸⁵⁵ In other words, the poet’s persona admits that he is hurt by the petty invective directed at him, since there is so much of it.

Both lines by al-Farazdaq exhibit a “striking of an example” that is virtually indistinguishable from al-Jurjānī’s notion of *tamthīl* lit. “to utter an example/similitude (*mathal*),”⁸⁵⁶ epitomized by the famous “He puts one leg forward and another one backward” to refer to a hesitant man. For al-Jurjānī a *tamthīl* ‘metaphorical exemplification’ is a complex *tashbīh*, which manifests itself grammatically in the form of a sentence (or sentences, or a phrase equivalent to a sentence) rather than the single word.⁸⁵⁷ Al-Jurjānī uses the term *mathal* interchangeably with *tamthīl* and at one point even speaks of “striking” a similitude/giving an example (*al-mathal... qad yuḍrabu*).⁸⁵⁸ The *mathal* is an illustrative (or Ritter: “graphic”)

⁸⁵⁵ Ibid. 2: 120-21.

⁸⁵⁶ Taking *maththala* here as a denominative of *mathal* (see Wright, *Grammar* 1: 32, for the denominative sense of form II verbs). That al-Jurjānī himself endorses this etymology is evident from several of his discussions of *tamthīl*, e.g., *Asrār*, 87, *wa-kullu mā lā yaṣīḥḥu an yusammā tamthīlan fa-lafẓu l-mathali lā yusta ‘malu fīhi ayḍan* “in cases that cannot be called *tamthīl*, you would not use the word *mathal* to describe them either.” Ritter translates *mathal* as “(bildliche) sentenz” (*Geheimnisse*, 112; parentheses his) or “figurative sentence” (also “graphic figurative sentence” and “picturesque”; *Asrār*, editor’s introduction, 14, 17).

⁸⁵⁷ *Asrār*, 92-101, and editor’s introduction, 13-17, for discussion. By “a phrase equivalent to a sentence” I am referring to phrases that contain an element with verbal force like the *maṣḍar*, the participle, etc.

⁸⁵⁸ Ritter presents *mathal*, the figurative/graphic/picturesque sentence (see fn. 856), as a subtype of *tamthīl* (*Asrār*, editor’s introduction, 14). I did not find evidence of a sub-classification in the text; rather, according to my understanding, *mathal* and *tamthīl* are used interchangeably (*Asrār*, 220-223 contain clear examples) and all instances of *tamthīl* display a usage of a graphic sentence (see also Heinrichs’ note in *Hand of the Northwind*, 7.11-13). For more on *tamthīl* see Abu Deeb, *Al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 67-68, 145-46, and especially 237-42. Abu Deeb too speaks of a classification within *tamthīl*, one based on *isti’āra* (i.e., it is a figurative sentence) and one based on *tashbīh* (all words are used literally, and see *Asrār*, 220.3-4, 223.4-6). Abu Deeb also consults the *Dalā’il* in this context (*Al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 238, fn. 32), which I think may be the source of some confusion; in the *Dalā’il* al-Jurjānī may be departing from some views he expressed in the *Asrār*. Once more, to me it currently seems that al-Jurjānī is speaking of only one *tamthīl*, and that his *tamthīl* is identical to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *al-mathal al-maḍrūb*. Al-Jurjānī does provide a gradation of *tamthīl* in *Asrār*, 109.12 ff., differentiating between providing a “rare/unusual and odd” *mathal* and providing a *mathal* that is not unusual. In my understanding, al-Jurjānī does not intend this to be a formal classifying marker, but it is undeniable that the ‘unusual’ case of *tamthīl* is comparable to his notion of *takhyīl*: in both cases, an unusual incidence acts as a corroborating “mock” explanation

sentence that exemplifies, by metaphorical analogy, the topic of discussion. In Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's examples the illustrations were: urinating into the ocean does not add to the water level; filling a vessel with water drops eventually causes it to overflow. Compare the two lines by al-Farazdaq with the following line by Ibn al-Mu'tazz, provided by al-Jurjānī in his discussion of *tamthīl* [meter: *kāmīl*]

iṣbir 'alā maḍaḍi l-ḥasū

di fa-inna ṣabraka qātiluh

fa-l-nāru ta 'kulu nafsahā

in lam tajid mā ta 'kuluh

“Be patient when faced with torment (caused by) an envious person,
for your patience will kill him;

(After all,) fire eats itself out

when it finds nothing else to eat.”⁸⁵⁹

In all these cases the illustrative example, *mathal*, is not too far from the Qur'ānic notion of *mathal*, which generally refers to “any item of discourse featuring one object or event illuminating another [...] reality by comparison.”⁸⁶⁰ The idea of an illustrative analogy as a literary device – once referred to by Heinrichs as a “mock analogy”⁸⁶¹ – is not new with al-

for reality. An affinity between *tamthīl* and *takhyīl* has already been identified by van Gelder in “A Good Cause,” 226, and more so by Heinrichs in “Rhetorical Figures,” 661 (more on this affinity below).

⁸⁵⁹ *Asrār*, 86; translation (with minor changes) from Abu Deeb, *Al-Jurjānī's Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 242; Ibn al-Mu'tazz, *Dīwān*, Beirut: Dār Ṣādir, 1961, 389 (with slight changes: *ḥasad* for *maḍaḍ*, *ba 'dahā* for *nafsahā*).

⁸⁶⁰ A.H. Mathias Zahniser, “Parable,” *Encyclopedia of the Qur'ān*, Brill Online. Zahniser states, however, that not all Qur'ānic *amthāl* exhibit a comparison, and that they usually illuminate “less tangible” reality. In the case of poetry, the reality illuminated is tangible and readily understood – the poets are just being creative in depicting it.

⁸⁶¹ Heinrichs, “Rhetorical figures,” 661 (“because the insinuated aspect of comparison is not valid”); Kanazi goes even further and calls the statement “seemingly absurd” (*Studies*, 179). According to Heinrichs, “[m]ock analogies belong to the category of *takhyīl* ‘phantastic reinterpretation of reality,’ a phenomenon identified by ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī” (“Rhetorical figures,” 661).

Jurjānī.⁸⁶² According to al-Jurjānī himself, Abū Aḥmad al-‘Askarī (d. 382/993, teacher of Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī) treated “this type of speech” under the term *mumāthala*, and to al-Jurjānī’s mind, he should not have differentiated it from *mathal* or *tamthīl*.⁸⁶³ But it is Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī, Abū Aḥmad’s student, who treats this notion under the heading *al-istishhād wa-l-ihtijāj* ‘adducing [mock] evidence (Ar. *shāhid*, *ḥujja*)’.⁸⁶⁴ According to Abū Hilāl, this category – which enables the creation of a new motif (*tawlīd al-ma‘nā*) – acts like the literary device termed *tadhyīl* ~ ‘appending a comment’ (see below), and he explains ‘mock evidence’ thus: “It is when you present a motif and then confirm it by (giving) another motif that acts like evidence for the first and like proof for its correctness.”⁸⁶⁵ One of the examples is the very line by al-Farazdaq on the vessel filled with water drops, which Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn provides.⁸⁶⁶ Abū Hilāl ends the discussion by saying that “most of these examples are also included in the category of *tashbīh*.”⁸⁶⁷ If we look back at Abū Hilāl’s treatment of *tadhyīl* (which is contrasted with *musāwāt* and *ishāra*, but

⁸⁶² See Ibn Rashīq, *al-‘Umda* 1: 277-80.

⁸⁶³ A quick consultation with Abū Aḥmad’s extant works did not yield any results for *mumāthala* (*al-Maṣūn fī l-adab*, ed. ‘Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn, Kuwait: Dā’irat al-Maṭbū‘āt wa-l-Nashr, 1960; *al-Taḍdīl bayna balāghatay l-‘arab wa-l-‘ajam*, ed. Ḥamad b. Nāṣir al-Dukhayyil, Buraydah: Nādī al-Qāsim al-Adabī, [1998]). For Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī, his student, the term *mumāthala* is a periphrastic expression (akin to al-Jurjānī’s *kināya*) but is readily figurative (as opposed to al-Jurjānī’s *kināya*, which in his terms is not. See §5.2 below). An example for Abū Hilāl’s *mumāthala* is “so and so has clean clothes” for ‘pure of blemish’ (almost like a euphemism). In his commentary of the examples, Abū Hilāl often employs the term *tamthīl*. See *al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 364-68.

⁸⁶⁴ *Al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 434-37. See also Kanazi, *Studies*, 178-80. Kanazi too points out the equivalence between this literary device and al-Jurjānī’s *tamthīl* (pp. 179-80).

⁸⁶⁵ *Al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 434: *wa-majrāhu majrā l-tadhyīli li-tawlīdi l-ma‘nā* (lit. “it acts like *tadhyīl* for creating a motif”) *wa-huwa an ta‘tiya bi-ma‘nan thumma tu‘akkidahu bi-ma‘nan ākhara yajrī majrā l-istishhādi ‘alā l-awwali wa-l-ḥujjati ‘alā ṣiḥḥatihi*. I read *istishhād* here in the sense of *shāhid* ‘evidence’, as he then uses *ḥujja*, not *ihtijāj*. See also McKinney, *Rhyme versus Reason*, 288 (a case of “*tawārud*”). For a different understanding see Beatrice Gruendler, *Medieval Arabic Praise Poetry: Ibn al-Rūmī and the Patron’s Redemption*, London: RoutledgeCurzon, 2003, 208, quoted in van Gelder, “A Good Cause,” 226.

⁸⁶⁶ *Al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 435. Otherwise the poetic *shawāhid* are not identical to those found in the *Mathal / Asrār*.

⁸⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, 437: *wa-yadkhulu aktharu hādhihi l-amthilati fī l-tashbīhi ayḍan*. By *tashbīh* he likely means ‘analogy’ here (or at least the more general ‘comparison’).

has no negative connotation)⁸⁶⁸ we again find that an ‘added comment’ is expressed to reinforce the statement, but here, the extra motif (or ‘appendix’) is not imaginary or “mock” as we find in *al-istishhād wa-l-iḥtijāj*, but is rather plainly true to reality. Take the following line by Abū Nuwās (d. ca. 198/813), which is the last example Abū Hilāl adduces for *tadhyīl*, [meter: *kāmīl*]

‘arama l-zamānu ‘alā -lladhīna ‘ahidtahum
 biki qāḥinīna wa-li-l-zamāni ‘urāmū
 “Time has been harsh to those you knew in the past,
 who lived in you [the abode] -- Time is harsh!”⁸⁶⁹

Abū Hilāl comments, “and his saying, *Time is harsh*, is a *tadhyīl*.”⁸⁷⁰

The appended comment (*tadhyīl*) is structurally equivalent to the illustrative analogy (*tamthīl* / *mathal maḍrūb* / *istishhād wa-iḥtijāj*), in that they are uttered as a “commentary” on reality, and usually at the end of the sentence.⁸⁷¹ In the case of *tadhyīl*, the commentary is

⁸⁶⁸ *Musāwāt* is commonly regarded as a correspondence between the amount of words uttered and the intended meaning ($x=y$), and *ishāra* as expressing fewer words to convey the intended meaning ($x=y-1$). In this context, *tadhyīl* (or other terms like it) can sometimes have a negative connotation because it is seen as an unnecessary exceeding of limits ($x=y+1$). (Notation: ‘x’ is the meaning, ‘y’ is the amount of words). In fact Abū Hilāl himself conveys this negative layer by saying that it is most appropriately directly at the ‘slow’ people; this is after he praises the merits of *tadhyīl* (ibid., 387).

⁸⁶⁹ This second line of the poem addresses the abandoned abode mentioned in line 1: *yā dāru mā fa ‘alat biki l-ayyāmu // dāmatki wa-l-ayyāmu laysa tuḍāmu*; see *Dīwān Abī Nuwās al-Ḥasan b. Hāni’ al-Ḥakamī*, eds. Ewald Wagner and Gregor Schoeler, 6 vols., Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1958-2006, 1 (2nd ed., 2001): 126. In fact, the first line also ends with a kind of *tadhyīl*: “O abode, how the Days have damaged you -- Days [themselves] cannot be damaged!”

⁸⁷⁰ *Al-Ṣinā atayn*, 389. See also Kanazī, *Studies*, 153-54.

⁸⁷¹ See Kanazī, *Studies*, 154, for the possibility of *tadhyīl* appearing before the main idea (and a different structure in the first example by al-Farazdaq). I personally find the common structure of the ‘appended commentary’ – whether it is in the form of *tadhyīl* or *tamthīl* – to be one of the more distinctive and beautiful features of classical Arabic poetry. It extends to later Persian poetry as well and is one of the foundations of the so-called *sabk-e hindī*. For but one example, see the following by Kalīm Kāshānī (d. 1061/1651):

The world never lasts, however stubborn your grasp,
 However tightly one closes the fist,
 The color of the henna always fades away

(cited in Shamsur Rahman Faruqi, “A Stranger in the City: The Poetics of *Sabk-e Hindī*,” *The Annual of Urdu*

straightforward because it is (perceived as) ‘real’ and true’. In the case of *tamthīl*, the commentary (or analogy or explanation) is a product of the poet’s imagination, which lends itself to an understanding of that commentary as being ‘untrue’.⁸⁷² I think this is what stands at the basis of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s perception of this type of *tashbīh* as figurative (and how *tashbīh* in general is conceived as *majāz* will be discussed below). It is true that as a literary device, the illustrative analogy was known before al-Jurjānī and that in the case of Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī we even find an identical example to one of the two examples adduced by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn.

Nevertheless, it is likelier that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was influenced by al-Jurjānī here: besides the terminological affinity *tamthīl-mathal*, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn opens the chapter on *tashbīh* by stating that “scholars of ‘ilm al-bayān have distinguished between *tashbīh* and *tamthīl*, devoting separate chapters to each category, even though they are one and the same lexically (lit. in the basis of the lexicon)... I do not know how those scholars (*ulā’ika l-‘ulamā’*) were unaware of this despite its obviousness!”⁸⁷³ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn rather envisioned *tashbīh* as covering both the simple simile (with or without the particle of comparison) and the complex analogy. Whether the phrase “those scholars” actually referred to more than one scholar is unclear; but that it was a reference to al-

Studies 19 [2004], 1-93, here: 30 [with an emended translation], 75, also: 11, 25-26).

⁸⁷² Strictly speaking, every analogy is true. According to the philosopher Nelson Goodman, “anything is *in some way* like anything else” (my emphasis) and Donald Davidson, also a philosopher, goes even further by saying, “everything *is* like everything” (my emphasis); see Robert J. Fogelin, *Figuratively Speaking*, 2nd ed. revised, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2011, 50, 57, but cf. 58 fn. 7 (these statements can apply both to level of the simile and to that of the analogy). See also Borges’ “There are infinite things upon the earth; any one of them can be compared to any other” (from *Averroës’ Search* in Jorge Luis Borges, *The Aleph and Other Stories*, New York: Penguin Books, 2004, 69-78, here: 75). The ‘truthfulness’ of the analogies (from a strict philosophical perspective) are evident in the examples we came across illustrating the *mathal maḍrūb/tamthīl/istishhād*: pissing into a river has no effect = your lampooning has no effect; petty criticisms can pile up over time and effect me = drops of water can eventually fill a vessel to excess; being patient with an envious person can eventually stop his feeling of envy = a fire eventually extinguishes itself; (and see below:) you are dead but still your soul endures = even a sword with no handle or belt can cut. We will resume the question of truthfulness in similarity claims when we discuss the inclusion of *tashbīh* within *majāz*.

⁸⁷³ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 116.

Jurjānī is blatantly evident.⁸⁷⁴

Majāz in the Mathal: A New Classification

As we have seen so far, many of the literary examples discussed in the context of *tashbīh* are indistinguishable from (a modern notion of) metaphor. Other examples outside *tashbīh* may also reflect cases of metaphor. The criterion for classification of *majāz*, then, transcends the conformity or non-conformity to metaphor. We shall now take a step back and look at the larger classification scheme that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn offers in the *Mathal*, departing both from his earlier *Jāmi'* and from earlier literary-theoretical accounts. Hinting at his innovation is his prefacing of the scheme with the words, “It has become manifest to me through sound reflection...,” after which *majāz* is divided into two general categories: ‘extension in speech’ (*tawassu' fī l-kalām*; sometimes *ittisā'*) and ‘comparison’ (*tashbīh*).⁸⁷⁵

‘Comparison’ is further classified into two categories: complete (*tāmm*) and elliptical (*maḥdhūf*), the first referring to cases in which both sides of the comparison are mentioned, and the second to cases in which only the analogue is mentioned, not the topic (see above for

⁸⁷⁴ But see *Asrār*, 84, for a recognition by al-Jurjānī that *tamthīl* is a subtype of *tashbīh*. We mentioned above that besides the two examples for *al-mathal al-maḍrūb* Ḍiyā' al-Dīn also cites a line that scholars erroneously interpret as an illustrative analogy (referred to here by the cover-term *tashbīh*), but is – to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's mind – a case of *isti'āra* (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 121). This example is al-Buḥturī's lament of a boy [meter: *tawīl*] *ta'azza fa-inna l-sayfa yamḍī wa-in wahat // ḥamā'iluhū 'anhū wa-khallāhu qā'imuh* (correcting the typo in vocalization *qā'imahu*) “Take solace, for the sword cuts even if its shoulder belts are too weak to hold it (*'anhu*) and its hilt left its place” (see also al-Buḥturī, *Dīwān* 3: 1956). Although the line is not adduced in the *Asrār* (or *Dalā'il*), this example too points directly at al-Jurjānī, who would likely have considered it to be a case of *tamthīl* (or even *takhyīl*), not *isti'āra*. To me it seems like an unequivocal case of illustrative analogy, but according to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, the lamented boy is the unexpressed topic here, and the intended sense is (*ka-annahu qāla*), “Take solace, for you are like a sword that cuts even though its shoulder belts are too weak and its hilt left its place” (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 121).

⁸⁷⁵ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 71, 1: 106. We addressed above the ‘suspicious’ character of such self-congratulatory phraseology, which may point to an unacknowledged borrowing by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn. In the case of the classification of *majāz*, I have not yet found evidence of an earlier scholar espousing such a scheme. On the level of *terminology*, it is likely that the terms *tawassu'* and *tashbīh* were inspired by Ibn Jinnī's account on the necessary components found in *majāz* (in addition to *tawkid* ‘exaggeration’; see above). On the level of *substance*, it could be the case that his thinking on *majāz* categories was influenced by al-Jurjānī's observations on the difference between metaphor that contains a substratum and metaphor that does not (*Asrār*, 42 ff.): in the case of *tawassu'*, there is usually no substratum.

discussion). It is this latter category, according to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, that is termed *isti'āra* lit. 'borrowing'. But he goes on to say that the term *isti'āra* (as a technical term) was only coined to differentiate the elliptical comparison from the complete comparison (*wuḍi'a li-l-farqi baynahu wa-bayna l-tashbīhi l-tāmm*), but that otherwise, both terms, *tashbīh* and *isti'āra*, could be applied to both categories since they convey a shared meaning (*wa-illā fa-kilāhumā yajūzu an yuṭlaqa 'alayhi -smu l-tashbīhi wa-yajūzu an yuṭlaqa 'alayhi -smu l-isti'ārati li-shtirākihimā fī l-ma'nā*).⁸⁷⁶ In other words, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn blurs the distinction between *tashbīh* and *isti'āra* by ascribing to them the same essential denotation. This denotation is not couched in terms of 'similarity' as one might expect (and as some of the *shawāhid* later show), but rather in terms of 'commonality', 'relation' or 'connection' (primarily *mushāraka*; also *munāsaba*, *wuṣla*, and once *wajh*)⁸⁷⁷ between the two sides of the figurative expression. By blurring the distinction Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is essentially marginalizing *isti'āra* in favor of *tashbīh*, although he later concedes (*wa-in shi'ta qulta*) that *majāz* can be said to have three categories: *tawassu' fī l-kalām*, *tashbīh* and *isti'āra*.⁸⁷⁸ In terms of space, the category that is afforded the most attention is *tashbīh* (totaling 46 pages in the printed edition of al-Ḥūfī and Ṭabāna), then *isti'āra* (20 pages of examples and occasional commentary) (an additional 9 pages on the theoretical difference between *tashbīh* and *isti'āra*, discussed above), and finally *tawassu'* (about 6 pages). In terms of 'chronology', the chapter on *isti'āra* appears first, with an embedded aside on *tawassu'* (and other asides), and the chapter on *tashbīh* appears second.⁸⁷⁹

⁸⁷⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 71.

⁸⁷⁷ *Ibid.* 2: 72, 78, 81-83 (*mushāraka*), 79, 83 (*munāsaba*), 82.8 (*wajh*), 1: 106 (*wuṣla*).

⁸⁷⁸ *Ibid.* 2: 71 (also 83).

⁸⁷⁹ For the chapter titled *fī l-isti'āra* see *ibid.* 2: 70-115. It is the first category (*al-naw' al-awwal*) of the 'mental craft' (*al-ṣinā'a al-ma'nawīyya*) or literary devices concerned with sense. The chapter includes the following discussions: the difference between *isti'āra* and *tashbīh*, *tawassu'*, Ibn Jinnī's analysis of *majāz*, al-Ghazālī's

The category of *tawassu'* is placed and discussed under the chapter titled *fī l-isti'āra*, but Ḍiyā' al-Dīn does not spell out the reason for subsuming the former under the latter. Of course there is little doubt that the two are conceived of as typologically separate. The dividing line between *tashbīh-isti'āra* and *tawassu'* is the element of *mushāraka* just mentioned: whereas the former category(ies) is based on some relation between the two sides of the figurative expression (topic-analogue), in the latter category there is nothing relating one to the other.⁸⁸⁰ (Although we shall see that at least one type of *tashbīh* is essentially indistinguishable from *tawassu'*). I see the placement of *tawassu'* within the chapter on *isti'āra* as a nod to tradition: the examples Ḍiyā' al-Dīn cites for *tawassu'* are commonly identified by previous scholars as instances of *isti'āra*, and he was undoubtedly aware of that.⁸⁸¹ The examples and corresponding commentary show that the 'old' poetic⁸⁸² meaning of the term *isti'āra*, as borrowing an *element* (not a word) from a foreign context and placing it 'on loan' in the context of the topic, is what Ḍiyā' al-Dīn relegates to *tawassu'*. The ascription of a 'foreign' element usually entails personification (a term not used), such as ascribing body parts or speech to non-human and inanimate beings (see examples below). In essence, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is excluding cases of 'ascription' from the domain of *isti'āra*. The other side of the picture is that *isti'āra* now fully conforms to what Heinrichs has identified as 'new' or simile-based metaphors (the "narcissus-for-eye" metaphors; for elaboration see

categorization of *majāz*, and many examples with occasional commentary, appended by a five-page critique of al-Khafājī's understanding of Imru' al-Qays' famous line on the long night which is like a camel slow to rise. This latter 'appendix' is discussed in detail in Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 23-25. For the chapter titled *fī l-tashbīh* (the second literary device concerned with sense) see *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 116-61.

⁸⁸⁰ Ibid. 2: 72, 78.2-3^c, 82.2, 82.2^c.

⁸⁸¹ In other words, I think he is aware "of the change of meaning that has occurred to the term *isti'āra* since the time of al-Khafājī" (cf. Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 24).

⁸⁸² This is in contrast to the old 'exegetical' meaning of *isti'āra*, to wit, the borrowing of words (see, e.g., *Hand of the Northwind*, 53, and our discussion above on its later formulation in *uṣūl al-fīqh*, albeit in the form of the term *majāz*, not *isti'āra*).

below).⁸⁸³ If in the works of literary theory up until the 5th/11th century chapters on *isti'āra* tended to display a mixing of the two types of metaphor, the loan metaphor and the simile-based metaphor⁸⁸⁴ – with Ḍiyā' al-Dīn we find a neat separation between the two. This neat separation is usually associated with the work of al-Jurjānī (and al-Sakkākī following him), who explicitly acknowledged two types of *isti'āra*.⁸⁸⁵ What is interesting with Ḍiyā' al-Dīn – who was likely influenced by al-Jurjānī here – is that he does away with the term *isti'āra* altogether when it comes to the loan metaphor. In effect, his solution is “neater” than the one offered by al-Jurjānī, since *isti'āra* now denotes only one notion, not two.

Once again, speaking of ‘metaphor’ in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn’s classification of *majāz* would be inappropriate since metaphor appears across categories. It is more appropriate to speak of figurative language based on “perceived” mutual relation (usually similarity⁸⁸⁶) between topic and analogue, and figurative language based on “imposed” mutual relation between the two

⁸⁸³ Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 1-3 and *passim*. That Ḍiyā' al-Dīn “adheres to a strict *tashbīh*-based single-term notion of *isti'āra*” has already been identified by Heinrichs (ibid., 24). Heinrichs does not treat Ḍiyā' al-Dīn’s views on *isti'āra* as such, but is more concerned (pp. 23-25) with the latter’s critique of al-Khafājī’s understanding of Imru' al-Qays’ line mentioned above. Of special interest for our purposes is the first point Heinrichs enumerates on p. 24.

⁸⁸⁴ *Hand of the Northwind*, Part Two and Part Three. Strictly speaking, Heinrichs does not give a full account of the *shawāhid* in these scholars’ chapters on *isti'āra* (see. p. 53 for his suggestions for further research), save for the case of Tha'lab’s (d. 291/904) *Qawā'id al-shi'r* (pp. 3-6). However, it seems rather apparent from the *shawāhid* that are discussed that the earlier the scholar, the likelier it is that the examples – regardless of the definition of *isti'āra* – exhibit loan metaphors, or at least that the scholar’s comments on the examples contain “old” phraseology (e.g., “[the poet] borrowed [the object/mental image] X for Y”). In fact in Tha'lab’s case there is a clear discrepancy between a “new” definition of *isti'āra* and “old” *shawāhid* (ibid. 32-33). The analysis of chapters on *isti'āra* ends with the 5th/11th century scholar al-Khafājī (pp. 51-52, out of 16 scholars studied). Ḍiyā' al-Dīn is treated earlier (pp. 23-25, and see previous fn.), but it is not intended as a systematic look at metaphor after the time of al-Jurjānī and al-Khafājī.

⁸⁸⁵ Ibid., 1-2; *Asrār*, 42 ff. Heinrichs commonly speaks of a metaphor based on *tashbīh* and a metaphor based on *tamthīl*, using the “fixed” terms of later theorists (*Hand of the Northwind*, 6-7). We should keep in mind, though, that al-Jurjānī himself does not explain the difference between the two types of metaphors in these terms (as far as I can tell): for him the difference lies in the fact that one has a substratum (*shay' ma'lūm yumkin an yunaṣṣ 'alayhi, shay' yushār ilayh*, and other expressions) while the other does not (*Asrār*, 42 ff., and see our discussion of analogy above; cf. *Hand of the Northwind*, 7).

⁸⁸⁶ And see our discussion below on *kināya*, in which one of the (implicit) relations is contiguity.

(imposed, that is, by the poet). The first type of figurative language is based on a paradigmatic conception of the utterance; the second is based on a syntagmatic⁸⁸⁷ conception. In a syntagmatic conception, the two components are conceived of as simply being juxtaposed side by side (either as verb-subject or *muḍāf-muḍāf ilayhi*, see below), whereas the paradigmatic conception acknowledges a juxtaposition based on substitution (due primarily to similarity, but sometimes due to contiguity, see below). Another way to parse the categories of *majāz* is according to linguistic makeup: whereas *isti 'āra* is a single-word metaphor, *tashbīh* (where the particle of comparison is omitted) and *tawassu'* are sentence metaphors. In this respect, as we shall see, *kināya* aligns closely with *isti 'āra*. The single-word metaphor is the only category in which we find a true conformity between the examples adduced and the definition of *majāz* that speaks of “using a word not according to its original coinage.” Nevertheless, in some of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's comments on examples we find a tension between taking the words literally or figuratively.

Tawassu' (and the Influence of Ibn Sīnā)

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn distinguishes between two types of *tawassu'* or fictional ascription: one is in the form of a genitive construct (*'alā wajh al-iḍāfa*) – its usage is deemed ‘ugly’; the other is in non-genitive forms (*'alā ghayr wajh al-iḍāfa*) – its usage is deemed beautiful.⁸⁸⁸ The genitive ascription is considered ugly because of the remoteness between the two *iḍāfa* terms (*li-bu 'di mā bayna l-muḍāfi wa-l-muḍāfi ilayhi*),⁸⁸⁹ and the examples cited are commonly perceived by earlier

⁸⁸⁷ By this I do not mean to refer to metonymy, as the term commonly denotes, most famously in Roman Jakobson, “Two Aspects of Language and Two Types of Aphasic Disturbances,” in Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle (eds.), *Fundamentals of Language*, 2nd rev. ed., The Hague: Mouton, 1971, 68-96. In metonymy there is a relation of contiguity between the two sides of the figurative expression, whereas in *tawassu'* there is *no* (perceived) relation between the two. What I am referring to as syntagmatic (and paradigmatic) is not the *relationship* between the two components but rather Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's *conception* of the figurative usage.

⁸⁸⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 79, 81.

⁸⁸⁹ *Ibid.* 2: 79.

scholars as ugly *isti 'ārāt*. (Of course it is inconsistent to speak of a remote relation here since the whole premise is an *absence* of relation; see below.) The first two examples are lines by Abū Nuwās, the first listed as a ‘remote’ metaphor in Ibn Rashīq’s *‘Umda* and the second listed as an ugly metaphor in al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī’s *Wasāʿta*;⁸⁹⁰ the context is praise of the patron’s generosity, [meter: *ramal*]

buḥḥa ṣawtu l-māli mimmā
minka yashkū wa-yaṣīḥū

“The voice of money turned hoarse from
complaining about you and screaming (that it does not want to be dispersed)”⁸⁹¹

and [meter: *ramal*]

mā li-rijli l-māli amsat
tashtakī minka l-kalālā

“How is it that the leg of money comes (every) evening
and complains to you of (its) fatigue?!”⁸⁹²

It is not the ascription of an animate action (screaming, complaining) to the inanimate being (money) that bothers Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn here. In fact Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn provides a better way, from a line by Muslim b. al-Walīd (d. 207/823), to express the idea that money ‘complains’ to the patron of his injustice in thinking so little of it by ‘getting rid’ of it (*anna l-māla yataẓallamu min ihānatika iyyāhu bi-l-tamzīq*): this is the verb metaphor *taẓallama l-mālu* (“money complained of the injustice...”).⁸⁹³ Rather, the problem in his view lies in the ascription (*iḍāfa* – not in the

⁸⁹⁰ *Al-‘Umda* 1: 270 (along with the “uglier” case of “leg of separation”); *al-Wasāʿta*, 58.

⁸⁹¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 89; Abū Nuwās, *Dīwān* 1 (2nd ed.): 153.

⁸⁹² *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 79, 154; Abū Nuwās, *Dīwān* 1: 307, 5: 430 (the latter in a section on his poetry that is condemned as being *ghathth*, *bārid*). In other words: if you treated money justly by not scattering it, it would not be fatigued by coming to you daily ‘by foot’ in search for justice. This is what money would say to the patron if it attempted to get justice in the face of its ‘oppression’ (see previous line, *yā Abā Ishāqa law tuṣafu // minka l-mālu qālā*).

⁸⁹³ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 79. According to Usāma b. Munqidh, Muslim was influenced by Abū Nuwās here! (*al-*

grammatical sense, see below) of “voice” – a property, not action – to “money.”⁸⁹⁴ As Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn says of the second example, “ascribing (*idāfa*) a leg to ‘money’ is uglier than ascribing voice [to it]!” For Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn describing money as ‘complaining’ about being given away makes sense, but describing money as having an actual voice does not, let alone a leg. The next two examples are by Abū Tammām, who is said to have used such constructions “a lot” because of his obsession (*tatabbu* ‘lit. ‘making successive or repeated endeavors to attain it’) with lexical and morphological puns (*mumāthala* and *tajnīs*).⁸⁹⁵ In these examples we find that “cutting” (or: skin, or: figure; *qadd*) is ascribed to “separation” (*nawā*), “joint bone” (*ka ‘b*) is ascribed to “honor” (*‘ird*), and “cheek” (*khadd*) is ascribed to “money” (*māl*).⁸⁹⁶

These types of genitive metaphors are still strongly connected to the discourse of comparison in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s thinking, since additional examples thereof are listed under the chapter on *tashbīh* among the ugly comparisons.⁸⁹⁷ In that section Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn states explicitly

Badī’, 187).

⁸⁹⁴ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 80. Although on its own, the phrase *ṣawt al-māl* simply means “the sound of coins”; it was clearly, then, the combination with *buhḥa* that bothered Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn and Ibn Rashīq. Usāma actually liked the verse, and he gives Muslim’s line above as an example of good ‘literary theft’, that is, drawing on a good line (Abū Nuwās’) and keeping it good (*al-Badī*’, 187: *naql al-jazl ilā l-jazl*).

⁸⁹⁵ *Ibid.* 2: 80. *Mumāthala* is used here to refer to puns based on homonyms (*qadd-qadd*), while *tajnīs* refers to other types of paronomasia that are enabled by the Arabic morphology and root system. On Abū Tammām’s proverbial obsession with punning see for instance Arie Schippers, “The Genitive Metaphor in the Poetry of ‘Abū Tammām,” in Rudolph Peters (ed.), *Proceedings of the Ninth Congress of the Union Européenne des Arabisants et Islamisants, Amsterdam 1st to 7th September 1978*, Leiden: Brill, 1981, 248-60, here: 252.

⁸⁹⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 80-81, and see editors’ fns. For additional examples see, e.g., al-Āmidī, *al-Muwāzana* 1: 245-50; Schippers, “Genitive Metaphor,” 256-60. The line by Abū Tammām which contains *qadd* runs as follows [meter: *ṭawīl*]: *wa-kam aḥrazat minkum ‘alā qubḥi qaddihā // ṣurūfu l-nawā min murhafin ḥasani l-qaddī* “How much the vicissitudes of Separation, with its ugly cut, have kept you [the absent loved ones] apart from the slender-waisted figure [i.e., me]!” (and see line 1, al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 2: 109, where it is the poet’s persona speaking). For the various understandings of *qadd* see *ibid.* 2: 110. If *qadd* means “skin” (*adīm*), it refers more precisely to “the freshly frayed skin of a lamb” (*mask al-sakhla*); like ‘figure’, it would then stand metonymically for Separation’s image/appearance. But Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not take it as ‘figure’ since he thinks that the line ends with a *mumāthala*, a play on words based on a homonym, necessitating that the two *qadds* in the line have different meanings.

⁸⁹⁷ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 153-58, esp. 154-55.

that *tawassu* ‘ (referring to the subtype discussed here) is nothing other than a ‘remote’ comparison with no particle of comparison;⁸⁹⁸ in doing so he admits some form of ‘relation’ between the two sides of the figurative expression. In other words, and since he speaks of *tashbīh* here, he recognizes that the figurative expression is based on a comparison (or more specifically analogy), even though this comparison is verbally ill-construed in his eyes (*fa-l-ma ‘nā ḥasan wa-l-ta ‘bīr ‘anhu qabīh*).⁸⁹⁹

It is in the second subtype of *tawassu* ‘ that we find a true case of an absence of relation between the two sides of the figurative expression. If the comments on the genitive metaphors above contained references to *tashbīh* or *bu ‘d*, with the examples of the second subtype the comments are consistently in the form, *idh lā mushāraka bayna... wa-...* “since there is no shared point between X and Y.” This subtype, we may recall, is deemed beautiful by Ḍiyā’ al-

⁸⁹⁸ Ibid. 2: 153-54, ‘*alā annahu [...] idhā [...] kāna bayna l-mushabbahi wa-l-mushabbahi bihi bu ‘dun [...] wal-ladhī yaridu minhu muḍmara l-adāti lā yakūnu dhālika illā fī l-qismi l-wāḥidi min aqsāmi l-majāziyyi* (sic) *wahuwa l-tawassu ‘u* “Although... if... there is a remoteness between topic and analogue... that which comes without a particle of comparison only occurs in one category of the figurative (usage), and that is *tawassu* ‘.” (*Majāzī* also occurs in the edition of ‘Abd al-Ḥamīd, 1: 417, and in the nineteenth century edition of al-Maṭba‘a al-Bahiyya, 160.10.) Then Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn adduces the second example we saw above by Abū Nuwās (*mā li-rijli l-māli...*), followed by the comment, “and he made a leg belong to money (*fa-ja ‘ala li-l-māli rijlan*) and that is a remote comparison (*tashbīh ba ‘īd*), and there is no need to repeat here what we said there [under the chapter on *tawassu* ‘] in its entirety...” (ibid. ed. al-Ḥūfī and Ṭabāna 2: 154). Already in his response to one of the lines by Abū Tammām back in the section on *tawassu* ‘, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn comments, *fa-iḍāfatu l-qaddi ilā l-nawā mina l-tashbīhi l-ba ‘īdi l-ba ‘īd*” (ibid. 2: 80). One should note that some of the examples under *tawassu* ‘ and later under ‘bad comparisons’ are replicated (along with some of the same comments), without acknowledgement, in Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd commentary on *Nahj al-balāgha*; this is the same Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd who wrote the first known response to the *Mathal* (Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd, *Sharḥ Nahj al-balāgha*, ed. Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm, 20 vols., Cairo: Īsā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, 1959, 1: 215-16). In other words, the category of *tawassu* ‘ is rejected by Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd in favor of ‘traditional’ notions. We mentioned above that in the actual refutation of *Mathal*, Ibn Abī al-Ḥadīd is silent with regards to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s new categorization scheme. As an *uṣūlī*, he pays all of his attention to the legal aspects of *majāz*.

⁸⁹⁹ Quote taken from *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 2: 79, in response to the line “The voice of money turned hoarse...” It is interesting to note in this context that the philosopher Ibn Rushd adduces such genitive metaphors (our term) as Abū Tammām’s famous “water of blame” (*mā ‘ al-malām*) and “milk-bowls of death” (*kuthab al-mawt*, both to be discussed in §5.5) within the context of *tashbīh* (also called *muḥākāt* ‘mimesis’), and glosses them as *ghayr munāsib* (Ibn Rushd, *Talkhīs*, in *Fann al-shi‘r*, 223-24). From within the philosophical poetical tradition it is Ibn Rushd’s work that lends itself most to a comparison with literary theory proper, since he suffuses his discussions with examples from poetry of “the Arabs” (and references to notions held “‘*indanā*”), thus going beyond the Greek literary tradition.

Dīn.⁹⁰⁰ And it is this type that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn speaks of when he first introduces the notion of *tawassu'* (using the term *ittisā'*) in his theoretical discussion of *majāz* under the preliminary chapters of the *Mathal*.⁹⁰¹ In other words, it is this subtype that stands at the core of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's conception of *tawassu'*. (Ḍiyā' al-Dīn may have added the genitive metaphors later, recognizing the affinity between the two.) Under the preliminary chapter on *majāz* Ḍiyā' al-Dīn presents the etymology of the word in terms of passing or crossing over (*intiḡāl*, *'ubūr*) from one place (*makān*, *maḡall*) to another, an etymology commonly found in *majāz* discussions. But he then compares two types of physical (*ḡaḡīḡī*) crossing over to figurative crossing over: in the first type there is a connection (*wuṣṡa*, or *mushābaha* more specifically) between the place one is crossing from and one is crossing to, like passing from a smooth terrain to a smooth terrain, or from a rugged terrain to a rugged one (*sahl/wa'r*). Such is the case in the figurative 'passing over' *Zaydun asadun* "Zayd is a lion" (the heading *tashbīh* is not used here). Conversely, passing from a smooth terrain to a rugged one or vice versa is "like their saying in the book *Kalīla wa-Dimna*: *the lion said* or *the fox said*, for there is no connection (*wuṣṡa*) whatsoever between [the notion of] 'saying' (*al-qawl*) and these two [animals]."⁹⁰²

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's appeal to the animal fables of *Kalīla wa-Dimna* as the archetypal examples of *ittisā'/tawassu'* is especially pertinent, since by doing so he admits into the discourse of literary theory the phenomenon of 'fiction'. As has been shown by Rina Drory, the apologetics used by the *maqāmāt* writers in their prefaces often involved a request to their readers "to regard their *maqāmāt* in the same way as they regard fables and stories told by

⁹⁰⁰ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 81-83.

⁹⁰¹ *Ibid.* 1: 106.

⁹⁰² *Ibid.* 1: 105-106. Note that there is no hint here of another type of *ittisā'/tawassu'*, namely, the 'bad' genitive metaphors.

animals or inanimate objects.”⁹⁰³ The representative example for such fables was *Kalīla wa-Dimna*.⁹⁰⁴ Drory writes,

Maqāmāt authors turned to it in order to gain recognition for their literary innovation precisely because of the fundamental poetic basis of evident fictionality they felt was common to both *Kalīla wa-Dimna* and their compositions.⁹⁰⁵

In other words, *Kalīla wa-Dimna* was code for the ‘untrue’ or fictional, and Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was probably well aware of this. Like the fantastic tale (*khurāfa*), discourse surrounding animal fables (mainly in *adab* anthologies) as well as the *maqāmāt* genre contained references to “truth” and “lie/falsehood.” In one account, the *khurāfa* is glossed as *ḥadīthun lā ḥaqīqata lahu* “a story that has no truth” and in another, as *mā yukadhdhibūnahu mina l-aḥādīthi* “stories that people find to be untrue,” such that *ḥaqīqa* is contrasted with *kadhib*.⁹⁰⁶ In this sense, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *tawassu’* aligns well with *kadhib*, the opposite of *ḥaqīqa* (in its non-linguistic sense), making the leap to *majāz* rather seamless.

That Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn was familiar with the apologetic discourse used in the *maqāmāt* is evident from his portrayal of *tawassu’* as something that merely concerns “speech” (*kalām*, *lughā*, *ibāra*). The phrases he uses are *li-ṭalab al-tawassu’ fī l-kalām* “in order to pursue extension in speech,” *tawassu’ fī l-ibāra* “extension in expression,” *ittisā’an maḥḍan* “mere

⁹⁰³ Rina Drory, “Three Attempts to Legitimize Fiction in Classical Arabic Literature,” *Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam* 18 (1994), 146-64, here: 157.

⁹⁰⁴ *Ibid.*, with an elaboration in Rina Drory, *Models and Contacts: Arabic Literature and Its Impact on Medieval Jewish Culture*, Leiden: Brill, 2000, 24 fn. 31.

⁹⁰⁵ Drory, “Three Attempts,” 158.

⁹⁰⁶ The first is from al-Nahrawānī’s (5th/11th cent.) *al-Jalīs al-ṣāliḥ*; the second is from Ibn Manzūr’s definition in *Lisān al-‘Arab* (*ibid.*, 156). The ‘falsehood’ in stories of the *maqāmāt* are not unlike what Kilito terms “opaque” anecdotes with respect to al-Jāḥiẓ (Abdelfattah Kilito, *The Author and His Doubles: Essays on Classical Arabic Culture*, translated by Michael Cooperson with a Foreword by Roger Allen, Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 2001, 57-58).

extension [in speech],” *ṭalab al-tawassu‘ lā ghayr* “to seek ‘extension’ [in speech], nothing else,” *ṭalaban li-l-ittisā‘ fī asālīb al-kalām* “seeking extension in the patterns of speech,” and the important comment, *fa-ammā l-tawassu‘ u fa-innahu yudhkaru li-l-taṣarrufi fī l-lughati lā li-fā`idatin ukhrā* “as for *tawassu‘*, it is mentioned to [show] versatility/artifice (*taṣarruf*) in speech, not for any other purpose.”⁹⁰⁷ That is the same discourse we find Ibn Nāqiyā (d. 485/1092) using in the preface to his *Maqāmāt*, saying that “placing words of wisdom in the tongues of animals [...] is only a [show of] versatility/artifice in expression ([...] *wad‘i l-ḥikmati ‘alā alsinati l-bahā`imi* [...] *wa-innamā huwa taṣarrufun fī l-‘ibāra*).”⁹⁰⁸ The use of *taṣarruf* here alludes to the idea of cunning (*ḥīla*), a term which itself is associated with ‘fictive’ writings.⁹⁰⁹ (Al-Ḥarīrī and Ibn Sharaf acknowledge the fictive character of their *maqāmāt* but do not use the terminology of *kalām/lughā/‘ibāra* as the locus of ‘manipulation’.⁹¹⁰)

Expressions such as *tawassu‘ fī l-kalām* strongly evoke the old philological idea of lexical extensions, or some type of change on the level of speech itself. Why the insistence on *kalām/‘ibāra/lughā* when in fact what is being manipulated or ‘expanded’ is not language but reality? After all, in a sentence like “The lion said,” nothing linguistic is being changed but rather the outside world, to include a speaking lion. One explanation for making this question a

⁹⁰⁷ *Al-Mathal al-sā`ir* 1: 106, 2: 71, 78, 82. Cf. the use of this expression in the context of change in grammatical person (termed by him *tajrīd*) in *ibid.* 2: 163, 165.

⁹⁰⁸ Ibn Nāqiyā, *Maqāmāt* in *Maqāmāt al-Ḥanafī wa-Ibn Nāqiyā wa-ghayrihimā*, [ed. Oskar Rescher], Istanbul: Aḥmad Kāmil, [1914], 123.

⁹⁰⁹ For *taṣarruf* as exhibiting *ṣarf* in the sense of *ḥīla* see Lane, *Lexicon*, 1681. On the use of *ḥīla/ḥiyāl* in the context of ‘*ajā`ib*’ literature see Travis Zadeh, “The Wiles of Creation: Philosophy, Fiction, and the ‘*Ajā`ib*’ Tradition,” *Middle Eastern Literatures* 13.1 (2010), 21-48, here: 32-33, 35 (including al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī’s explanation of *ḥīla* for the purpose of *ḥikma*, p. 33 fn. 43).

⁹¹⁰ Abū al-‘Abbās Aḥmad b. ‘Abd al-Mu`min al-Qaysī al-Sharīshī, *Sharḥ Maqāmāt al-Ḥarīrī*, ed. Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm, 5 vols., Sidon; Beirut: al-Maktaba al-‘Aṣriyya, 1992 [reprint of the Cairo 1970-1976 edition?], 1: 21, 41, 45-46; Ibn Sharaf al-Qayrawānī (d. 460/1067), *Questions de critique littéraire (Masā`il al-intiqād)*, ed. and trans. Charles Pellat, Algiers: Éditions Carbonel, 1953, 4-5.

linguistic one can be found in Ibn Sīnā's (Avicenna, d. 428/1037) commentary on Aristotle's *Poetics*, which incidentally – or not – Ḍiyā' al-Dīn claims he saw passages from.⁹¹¹ According to Ibn Sīnā, a work like *Kalīla wa-Dimna* is excluded from the realm of poetry because it deals with “that which exists only in speech/words” (*fīmā wujūduhu fī l-qawli faqaṭ*) rather than that which exists, or could exist, in the real world (*fīmā wujīda wa-yūjadu*).⁹¹² In this sense, talking about manipulations taking place only on the linguistic plain is appropriate.

We can be fairly certain that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn was familiar with the philosophical notion of things “existing” only in the domain of speech (*qawl/kalām/‘ibāra/lughā*) directly from Ibn Sīnā's *Shifā'*, a book that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn singles out by name in his opening discussion of *ma ‘ānī* ‘motifs; themes; images’. The passage in which Ibn Sīnā speaks of the non-existent aspect of fables and parables (among which is *Kalīla wa-Dimna*) is part of a larger argument that Ibn Sīnā is making, following Aristotle, namely that poetry deals with universals (*al-kullī*), not particulars (*al-juz ‘iyyāt*).⁹¹³ Thus, says Ibn Sīnā, poetry “speaks about one person [i.e., a ‘particular’] as if

⁹¹¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 5-6, and see Introduction, fn. 40, on the question of a semi-*voie érudite* here. I do not know if the *maqāmāt* writers were also influenced by the philosophers here or whether it was a common idea to speak of ‘fiction’ as a reality that subsists in speech alone.

⁹¹² From Ibn Sīnā, *al-Shifā'*, in *Fann al-shi'r: ma ‘a al-tarjama al-‘arabiyya al-qadīma wa-shurūḥ al-Fārābī wa-Ibn Sīnā wa-Ibn Rushd*, ed. ‘Abd al-Raḥmān Badawī, Cairo: Maktabat al-Nahḍa al-Miṣriyya, 1953, 159-98, here: 183. Quoted in Zadeh, “Wiles of Creation,” 43. The contrast here is between animal fables (specifically versified versions thereof), which speak of things that do not exist, and ‘real’ poetry, which speaks of things that can exist (I say “can” or “could” exist based on the beginning of the passage). Compare Ibn Sīnā's passage to Aristotle, *Poetics*, 1451a35-1451b5, where the poet is said to relate not things that have happened, but things that may happen (Aristotle, *Poetics: With the Tractatus Coislinianus, a hypothetical reconstruction of Poetics II, and the fragments of the On Poets*, translated with notes by Richard Janko, Indianapolis: Hackett Publishing Company, 1987, 12). For further discussion and translation of Ibn Sīnā's passage see Bürgel, “Die beste Dichtung,” 47-48; he translates *qawl* as “the words (in question)” (parenthesises his). Because Ibn Sīnā concurs with Aristotle here (see below), the verb *wujīda* in *fīmā wujīda wa-yūjadu* is essentially synonymous with the modal *yūjadu* ‘could exist’ as *wujīda* does not refer to that which *actually* exists but to that which *technically* (potentially) exists. In this sense someone like Mayya ‘exists’ as Dhū al-Rumma's beloved – although she did not actually exist – but speaking lions do not (if we take Mayya to be an invented name, see below). For another translation of this passage see Ismail M. Dahiyat, *Avicenna's Commentary on the Poetics of Aristotle: A Critical Study with an Annotated Translation of the Text*, Leiden: Brill, 1974, 99-100.

⁹¹³ Ibn Sīnā, *Fann al-shi'r*, 183, and Aristotle, *Poetics*, trans. Janko, 12; the explanatory heading that Janko adds for this section is “Poetry should represent universals, not particulars.”

(an occurrence) happened only to him, and they (the poets) make up a name for (that) one person alone, even though he does not exist,”⁹¹⁴ whereas in fact, that person stands for some type of universal character or phenomenon.⁹¹⁵ In this sense, poems that deal with “particular events that [actually] took place” (*aḥwāl juz’iyya qad wujidat*) are of a lesser poetry.⁹¹⁶ The fact that poetry deals with universals (*aḥkama bi-l-ḥukm al-kullī* “makes a universal judgment”) renders it closer to philosophy than any other type of speech.⁹¹⁷ If we check what prompted Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn to speak about Ibn Sīnā in the first place, we find that it was a controversy about whether it was possible to limit “rhetorical themes” (*al-ma’ānī al-khaṭābiyya*) to a set of principles (*uṣūl*), from which poets/orators can benefit. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s claim was that such a reduction, which according to him was first laid out by the Greek philosophers, would only be “general” (*kullī*) and could not possibly cover the endless amount of “particular themes” (*juz’iyyāt al-ma’ānī*).⁹¹⁸ It was this

⁹¹⁴ *wa-ammā dhālika l-naw’u mina l-kalāmi* [i.e., *al-shi’r*] *fa-innamā yaqūlu fī wāḥidin ‘alā annahu ‘arīḍun lahu waḥdahu wa-yakūnu dhālika l-wāḥidu qadi -khturi’a lahu -smu wāḥidin faqaṭ wa-lā wujūda lahu* (Ibn Sīnā, *Fann al-shi’r*, 183). Bürgel (“Die beste Dichtung,” 48) thinks that this statement refers to the types of speech that are *not* poetry (“Jene andere Gattung der Rede”), but this is a mistake: first, on a syntactic level, *dhālika* means “the former” and the previous sentence speaks of *al-shi’r*, *al-falsafa*, and *al-kalām al-ākhar*, making poetry ‘the former’; second – and this becomes clear only if we consult the *Poetics* – Aristotle makes clear that poetry does not deal with actual events (that would be the domain of history, including history in verse), but with events that *may* take place: “[...] it is the function of a poet to relate not things that have happened but things that may happen”; “A universal is the sort of thing that a certain kind of person may well say or do in accordance with probability or necessity—this is what poetry aims at, although it assigns names [to the people]. A particular is what Alcibiades did or what he suffered” (Aristotle, *Poetics*, trans. Janko, 12). Bürgel himself recognizes this last point, but because of the mistranslation he thinks that Ibn Sīnā misunderstood Aristotle. Dahiyat also mistranslates this and takes the statement to be a reference to the fables (*Avicenna’s Commentary*, 100).

⁹¹⁵ To take an example from Arabic poetry, “Mayya” and “Laylā” would be the invented names and those beloveds would stand for The Beloved. I do not know if Ibn Sīnā has any Arabic poems in mind here or only the Greek ones.

⁹¹⁶ *Fann al-shi’r*, 183. Ibn Sīnā says that this type of poetry is not told “according to [the manner of] image evocation” (i.e., there is no need for *takhyīl* because all the events and characters are real), from which I extrapolate that it is of a lesser poetry. If he is following Aristotle, Ibn Sīnā probably has in mind here versified history.

⁹¹⁷ That, together with the fact that poetry deals with the *mawjūd*, probably here: the essences of things, regardless of their actual manifestation in particular ‘existing things’ (because the objects in poetry do not actually exist).

⁹¹⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 3. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn might be talking about the old notion we come across in literary theory that expressions are limited but ideas are limitless. I do not know why he would frame ‘ideas’ here as *ma’ānī khaṭābiyya*, other than to impress certain scholars (cf. fn. 484 and Introduction, pp. 9-10) and to cement the superiority of his theory over other theories, including the Greek theories.

question (to which he provides arguments and counter-arguments) that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn and “a philosopher” were conferring about when the discussion “got carried away [emphasis mine] to something that Abū 'Alī Ibn Sīnā mentioned in the *Rhetoric* and *Poetics*.”⁹¹⁹ Because of the identity in terms, one has reason to suspect that this topic was the question of universals/particulars as the object of poetry. It is then that the philosopher “got up and brought Abū 'Alī's *Shifā'* and showed [Ḍiyā' al-Dīn] what he had mentioned [...]”⁹²⁰ Because the “type of Greek poetry called ‘lagody’ (i.e., tragedy)” is cited here, it is clear that the philosopher showed Ḍiyā' al-Dīn a section from the *Poetics*, not the *Rhetoric*.⁹²¹ It is the passage on the *juz 'iyyāt/kullī* in Ibn Sīnā's *Poetics* that contains the notion that *Kalīla wa-Dimna* deals with *fīmā wujūduhu fī l-qawli faqat*.

It is important to stress that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn and Ibn Sīnā are not in conversation with one another: their point of departure is different, and the question they are arguing is different. But the fact that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn attends to the quintessential statements within *Kalīla wa-Dimna* (“The lion said”) in the context of *majāz* using wording that evokes Ibn Sīnā's discussion of *Kalīla wa-Dimna* reinforces our hypothesis that *majāz* deals with that which does not conform to reality. Although the two scholars are not in dialog, there is an interesting corollary to their discussions.

⁹¹⁹ Ibid. 2: 5. The phrase *fī l-khaṭāba wa-l-shi'r* could either refer the names of the Aristotelian works (as translated above) or to the topic of rhetoric and poetics (“something he mentioned about rhetoric and poetics,” as Heinrichs takes it in *Arabische Dichtung*, 110; cf. Cantarino, *Arabic Poetics in the Golden Age*, 193, who combines the two readings.)

⁹²⁰ Ibid.

⁹²¹ Cf. Larcher, “Rhétoriques “grecque”,” 122-24, who takes a more literal approach and looks for specific passages, both in Ibn Sīnā's *Rhetoric* and *Poetics*, that contain mention of tragedy (so literal that he searches whether ‘tragedy’ is transliterated in those passages with an interdental *dh* or not). I see no tangible connection between the passages that Larcher looks at and Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's discussion; but if we want to take a literal approach – the passage we deal with above on the universal aspect of poetry is immediately followed by a paragraph on tragedy (with an interdental: *trāghūdhīyā*). Jean-Patrick Guillaume may be right to suggest that *lāghūdhīyā* was Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's own play on words with *laghw* ‘empty talk, nonsense’, which Ḍiyā' al-Dīn later uses to qualify Ibn Sīnā's poetics (Larcher, “Rhétoriques “grecque”,” 121 fn. 23). On Larcher's perpetuation of the “marginality thesis” see above, fn. 484.

Ibn Sīnā is arguing that poetry speaks of universals and hence deals with the potentially-existent, not the actually-existent: the details of the poems – persons, places, events – are merely stand-ins for something universal that ‘could’ be real. Hence, one might expect to find *Kalīla wa-Dimna* to be included within this domain: after all, as Bürgel points out, the characters in these fables stand for universal types, like the king, vizier, etc.⁹²² But what takes precedence for Ibn Sīnā in evaluating such fables as non-poetic is *not* the aspect of universals (which would render them ‘poetic’) but the aspect of non-existence. The fact that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn attends to statements within *Kalīla wa-Dimna* in the context of *majāz* might give the impression that for him, it is precisely the aspect of non-existence that would render them poetic.

Regardless of whether one is convinced that Ibn Sīnā had any influence here, the fact remains that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn treats *tawassu’* as an operation taking place in language, as if one can speak of existence in the domain of language – in Ibn Sīnā’s words, *fīmā wujūduhu fī l-qawl*. Whether it is a question of direct influence or the reaching of similar conclusions independently, this topic brings the philosophical-poetical tradition and the ‘native’ Arabic literary tradition closer.⁹²³

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn provides five examples for the commendable type of *tawassu’*, in addition to the archetypal “The lion said” and “The fox said,” mentioned in the preliminary chapter on *majāz*: two are Qur’ānic verses, one is a prophetic saying, and two are poetic verses. They all exhibit clear instances of personification, where a human (*insān*) ‘action’ is ascribed to an

⁹²² “Die beste Dichtung,” 48. Bürgel therefore thinks that Ibn Sīnā misunderstood Aristotle because by Aristotle’s account, such fables would count as universal and hence ‘poetic’. But we should keep in mind that Aristotle did not speak of animal fables in this context, so we do not know how ‘poetic’ he would evaluate them. (I agree with Bürgel that a versified *Kalīla wa-Dimna* would easily lend itself to be considered poetry, just like, say, a versified *Sesame Street*.)

⁹²³ Other questions in which we find typological affinity between the two traditions are figurative speech (in the sense of untrue or fictive), *tashbīh* in the sense of *muḥākāt* (see “Why is *Tashbīh Majāz*?” below), and wonder (Harb, *Poetic Marvels*). See also §4.1.

inanimate object (*jamād*).⁹²⁴ The term Ḍiyā' al-Dīn uses for such ascription or attribution in his comments on the examples is *idāfa* or *nisba: fa-nisbat al-qawl ilā l-samā' wa-l-arḍ min bāb al-tawassu'* “attributing ‘speech’ to the heaven and the earth is a case of *tawassu'*”; *fa-idāfat al-maḥabba ilā l-jabal min bāb al-tawassu'* “ascribing ‘love’ to a mountain is a case of *tawassu'*.”⁹²⁵ It is clear that in this context *idāfa* does not refer to the genitive, but rather to the extralinguistic notion of ascription, and it was the same term Ḍiyā' al-Dīn used to gloss the examples of the genitive metaphors discussed above (“ascribing a leg to money”). I thus choose the term ‘fictional ascription’ to refer to *tawassu'*, but ‘personification’ would also be appropriate. In both subtypes of *tawassu'* it is a human characteristic (body part or action) that is being attributed.⁹²⁶

Most of the comments on the examples include the remark, “And there is no relation (*mushāraka*) between X [the notion ascribed] to Y [the inanimate object].”⁹²⁷ The Qur'ānic examples are Q 41:11 “Then He lifted Himself to heaven when it was smoke, and said to it and to the earth, *Come willingly or unwillingly!* They said, *We come willingly*” and Q 44:29 “Neither heaven nor earth wept for them, nor were they respited.” These examples are discussed by Ibn Qutayba in his *Ta'wīl mushkil al-Qur'ān* in the context of *majāz* and *isti'āra* (which are mostly perceived as lexical items), where he provides his own explanations for the personified heaven and earth (the root *w.s.* ‘ does not occur).⁹²⁸ Similarly, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn adduces the prophetic

⁹²⁴ The most explicit opposition between *insān* and *jamād* is in *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 81.

⁹²⁵ Ibid. 2: 81-82. *Nisba* only occurs once.

⁹²⁶ Note that in the ascription of *qadd* to *nawā* discussed in *ibid.* 2: 80 and above, *qadd* (in my understanding) is a *maṣdar* of *qadda* ‘to cut’, such that it is an *action* that is being ascribed here rather than a body part, making it better aligned with the second type of *tawassu'*.

⁹²⁷ Ibid. 2: 81-82.

⁹²⁸ *Ta'wīl*, 106, 112, 167-70 (see also editors' fns. 1 and 2 in *al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 81). In the second Qur'ānic verse,

account according to which the prophet looked at Uḥud one day and said, “This is a mountain that loves us and that we love.”⁹²⁹

In the second set of examples – two poetic verses – Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn treats the phenomenon of “addressing the [campsite] remains” (*mukhāṭabat al-ṭulūl*) and “asking the rocks” (*musā’alat al-ahjār*), saying that this phenomenon comes “according to this [manner],” i.e., that it reflects a case of *tawassu’*. Here too the fictional character of the material is evident: when the poet (especially the *muḥdath* one!) claims to arrive at the campsite and to ‘speak’ to its remains, it is clear that the occurrence is ‘untrue’. The first is Abū Tammām’s [meter: *ṭawīl*]

a-maydāna lahwī man atāḥa laka l-bilā

fa-aṣbaḥta maydāna l-ṣabā wa-l-janā’ibī

“O abode (*maydān*) of my pleasure, who ordained decay upon you?

You became the race-course (*maydān*) of east and south winds [galloping around]”⁹³⁰

The second is al-Mutanabbī’s [meter: *kāmil*]

Ibn Qutayba’s solution (*Ta’wīl*, 167-68) is to ‘reduce’ the sentence to an idiomatic expression in Arabic: when a very important man dies, to express the gravity of the situation “the Arabs say” that the sun turned dark on him, the moon is eclipsed, and the wind, lightning, heaven and earth cry. It is noteworthy that he takes care to point out that this case does not constitute *kadhib* (ibid., 168); it is, rather, a case of a lexical item that can be used to refer to different notions (i.e., “cry” can be said of a person, of skies, wind, earth, etc). The verb used is *mutawāṭi’ūna*, where the subject of *tawāṭu’* – whether already a technical term or not (~‘univocality’, ‘equal application’) – is things (wind, skies), not words. The rest of the explanations that Ibn Qutayba provides are from former authorities (*wa-qālū...*). Specifically regarding God’s speech (as in His speech to heaven and earth; ibid., 106), it is interpreted as an expression of God’s creation (*ijād li-l-ma’ānī, kawwannāhumā*). Here too the understanding of the figurative component (*qawl*) is ‘reduced’ to a lexical explanation. Ibn Qutayba’s outlook, as opposed to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s, is purely Qur’ānic. For more on Ibn Qutayba’s understanding of *majāz* and *isti’āra*, and his conception of the *majāzāt* as “an integral part of the language as it was used [...] by the ancient Arabs” see Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 30-31, and Chapter 5 Preliminaries.

⁹²⁹ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 82.

⁹³⁰ Ibid. and al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 1: 208 for variations on *bilā*. The east and south winds are a merismus here, or two components (commonly opposites) that stand for everything (cf. Imru’ al-Qays’ vs. 2: *min janūbin wa-sham’alī*). There is a play on words with the first instance of *maydān*: the poet’s persona is clearly addressing the abandoned abode, but by using *maydān* he is also implicitly comparing pleasure (as he later does winds) to horses/camels galloping around the race-course, evoking such idioms as “to ride one’s passion” (*rakiba hawāhu*) or al-Nābigha’s “the steed of folly is youth” (*fa-inna maṭiyyata l-jahli l-shabābū*).

ithlith fa-innā ayyuhā l-ṭalalū

nabkī wa-turzimu taḥtanā l-ibilū

“Be a third (to us), O remains! For we (my mount and I)

are weeping, while the camels below us utter a cry of yearning”⁹³¹

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn responds to the first line by equating the address to “the effaced dwellings and obliterated rocks” to the Qur’ānic *wa-s’ali l-qaryata* “ask the town” (Q 12:82), saying that there is no sense (*wajh*) in addressing anything but “the people” (*ahl*), that is, the people of the dwellings and the people of the town.⁹³² Here Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is mediating, albeit it in passing, between the exegetical discourse of an elided ‘human’ addressee and the literary discourse of fictional ascription. He does not linger on this point, probably because he recognizes that the line only makes sense if the poet’s persona is addressing the landscape itself, not the people who were dwelling there. In other words, the lines can be understood only if one assumes the fictional character of the scene. Invoking the Qur’ānic reference is sign, rather, of the historical merging of exegetical and literary traditions when it comes to interpreting *majāz*.

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn revisits the question of *tawassu’*, along with al-Mutanabbī’s example, when he criticizes Ibn Jinnī’s interpretation of *majāz* as necessarily entailing *ittisā’*.⁹³³ Here Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn glosses *ittisā’* as a case in which “an attribute/adjective (*ṣifa min al-ṣifāt*) is applied to an entity/noun (*mawṣūf*) that is not qualified to be applied to it (*laysa ahlan li-an tujrā ‘alayhi*) due to a remoteness between [the entity] and [the attribute].”⁹³⁴ Although Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is referring to the commendable – and primary – type of *tawassu’*, his definition would apply to the genitive

⁹³¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 82; Abū al-Ḥasan ‘Alī b. Aḥmad al-Wāḥidī, *Dīwān Abī al-Ṭayyib al-Mutanabbī wa-ft athnā’ matnihi Sharḥ al-Imām al-‘Allāma al-Wāḥidī*, ed. Friedrich Dieterici, Berlin: Mittler, 1861, 775.

⁹³² *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 82.

⁹³³ Ibid. 2: 87. On Ibn Jinnī’s view of *majāz* as entailing the three components of lexical extension (*ittisā’*), comparison (*tashbīh*) and exaggeration (*tawkiḍ/mubālagha*) see p. 239 above.

⁹³⁴ Ibid.

metaphor as well (attributing voice to money). He then goes on to say, in what reads like an extraneous insertion, that had there been a relation (*munāsaba*) between the *ṣifa* and *mawṣūf*, it would then have been “a type of analogy/syllogism (*qiyās*) in assessing (lit. taking, *ḥaml*) a thing according to what resembles it (*yunāsibuhu wa-yushākiluhu*), in which case it would be *tashbīh* or *isti‘āra*.”⁹³⁵ Referring to *tashbīh/isti‘āra* in terms of *qiyās* is once again evocative of Ibn Sīnā, who was the clearest among the philosophers to formulate metaphor as the logical conclusion of a syllogistic process, even though Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn earlier ridicules the claim that rhetorical speech (*al-kalām al-khaṭābī*) “is based on two premises and a conclusion.”⁹³⁶ In any event, it is clear that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn singles out *tawassu‘* as the fictive literary device par excellence, in that – unlike *tashbīh (/isti‘āra)* – it does not follow a deductive process and is thus the farthest removed from any real-world logic/knowledge. I am not aware of any later critic who followed up on Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s use of *tawassu‘*.⁹³⁷

Isti‘āra and *Kināya*

As we saw above, *isti‘āra* is distinguished from the other subtypes of *majāz* by being the only category in which the locus of ‘figurativeness’ is the single word. It is what Heinrichs characterized as a *tashbīh*-based single-term metaphor. There is a tension in the text of the

⁹³⁵ Ibid.

⁹³⁶ Ibid. 2: 6. He adds that even when Ibn Sīnā himself composed poetry or rhymed prose he did not have two premises and a conclusion in mind. On Ibn Sīnā’s formulation of metaphor as the conclusion of a syllogism see Deborah L. Black, *Logic and Aristotle’s Rhetoric and Poetics in Medieval Arabic Philosophy*, Leiden: Brill, 1990, 209-18 (al-Fārābī was less explicit); Schoeler, “‘Poetic Syllogism’ Revisited” (and references therein to his earlier “Der poetische Syllogismus: Ein Beitrag zum Verständnis der ‘logischen’ Poetik der Araber,” and other studies). Seemingly, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not equate poetical/rhetorical statements with metaphors, but he does make a connection between the two when he discusses the “literary” difference between *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* (see pp. 240-42 above).

⁹³⁷ A quote from Geert Jan van Gelder will suffice here (on the biases the modern critic): “A certain bias, it is true, is not easily avoided altogether. One cannot escape a sense of frustration when early critics [...] or when a promising start by one critic is not followed up by his successors” (*Beyond the Line*, 208).

Mathal between conceiving this word as a metaphorical substitution for something else, and a literal understanding of the word as the analogue of an omitted topic. Perceiving a substitution here would conform to the ‘legal’ definition of word transfer; indeed, even within the chapter on *isti‘āra* Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn still speaks of a process of *naql*.⁹³⁸ But this stands in opposition to his assuming of an omitted topic: for if the topic is omitted, then the ‘metaphorical’ word cannot possibly stand for that missing element, but it rather must be taken literally as the analogue for that topic. The comments that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn supplies for the (many) examples of *isti‘āra* demonstrate this tension. For instance, in commenting on the first example, Q 14:1 “*Alif lām rā*’, A book we have sent down to you that you may bring forth mankind from the darkneses to the light,” Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn uses the exegetical terminology of a word-metaphor – “Darkneses and light are a metaphor for (*isti‘āra li-*) unbelief and belief or error and right guidance” – but then he reconstructs the underlying intension of the verse which reveals a literal understanding of those words, “It is as if He said, *that you may bring forth mankind from unbelief which is like darkness to belief which is like light.*”⁹³⁹

However, as we read on through the examples, over a dozen printed pages, it becomes clear that the words are used as stand-ins for other notions, especially in the poetic examples, which exhibit ‘worn-out’ metaphors that are sometimes part of larger conceits. Among them are the common ‘gazelle’ for ‘woman’, ‘daisy’ for ‘mouth’, ‘twigs’ for ‘pretty physiques’, and ‘(shooting) star’ for ‘lance’.⁹⁴⁰ A case in which worn-out metaphors form part of a larger conceit

⁹³⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 83. On one hand he speaks of *naql al-mā’ nā min lafẓ ilā lafẓ*, and on the other hand, of *ṭayy dhikr al-manqūl ilayhi*. As a general rule, I do not take one’s own definitions as evidence for their conception of a notion, especially if the *shawāhid* and the comments on them tell us otherwise. But in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s case of *isti‘āra*, the commentary sometimes displays a tension between a ‘literal’ and ‘figurative’ understanding of the word.

⁹³⁹ *Ibid.* 2: 96. See more examples on pp. 96-97.

⁹⁴⁰ *Ibid.* 2: 100-102.

is al-Mutanabbī's [meter: *munsariḥ*]

kullu jarīḥin turjā salāmatuhū
illā jarīḥan dahat-hu 'aynāhā
tabullu khaddayya kullamā -btasamat
min maṭarin barquhū thanāyāhā

“We can hope for the safety of every wounded one,
except for the wounded who was struck by her eyes;
They [her eyes] water my cheeks, whenever she smiles,
with a rain whose lightning is her teeth.”⁹⁴¹

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn comments that what makes the metaphor (*isti 'āra*) in the second line beautiful “is the mentioning of the ‘rain’ along with the ‘lightning’.”⁹⁴² In other words, the worn-out metaphor ‘rain’ for ‘tears’ (flowing on the lover’s cheeks) is then made into a larger conceit by adding a ‘flash of lightning’ to the image, which is supposedly caused by the flash (!) of her smile.⁹⁴³ In fact, though this is not mentioned by the critics, not only is the image of lightning added, but also – implicitly – the image of clouds, expressed by “her eyes,” the syntactic subject.⁹⁴⁴ The single-

⁹⁴¹ Ibid. 2: 107; al-Wāḥidī, *Sharḥ*, 759-60 (where *illā fu 'ādan* appears for *illā jarīḥan*). This is a paradox because normally the eyes that moisten the cheeks belong to the same face; here the poet is playing with the image and having *her* eyes be the source of his wet cheeks (*tabullu* would thus a poetic license for the dual *tabullāni*, unless it is the unnamed woman who pouring the rain, in which case the manipulation of the poetic conceit is less stark; see below). Besides the contemporary Geert Jan van Gelder, critics have not attended to this aspect of the line (elaboration below). Ibn Jinnī treats it from a literal perspective – which leads to a comical result – while the other commentators, and Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, are interested more in the mere concurrence of tears and lightning.

⁹⁴² *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 108.

⁹⁴³ Ibid.

⁹⁴⁴ The eyes are the ones wetting – i.e. pouring rain on – the cheeks. Thus, the beloved is made to be the heaven, being the locus of both clouds and lightning and controlling the rain, whereas the lover is the mere earth, being the locus of the rain and having no control over it. Ibn Jinnī, who recognizes the syntax of the lines correctly, is ridiculed (rightly) by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn and by critics before him for taking the beloved to be literally bending over the lover and wetting his cheeks from her saliva (or tears, per Ibn Fūrajja; al-Wāḥidī, *Sharḥ*, 759-60). This ignites on the part of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn the common grievance that the practitioner of “the art of grammar and syntax” is not that of “the art of eloquence” (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 108-109). Ibn Jinnī was an ‘easy’ target for the ‘real’ critics: on al-Wāḥidī’s more general critique of Ibn Jinnī see Wolfhart Heinrichs, “Obscurity in Classical Arabic Poetry,” *Mediaevalia* 19 (1996 [for 1993]), 239-59, here: 244-45. Al-Wāḥidī’s explanation, however, is not satisfying either since – strictly speaking from the syntax of the lines – it is not *his* tears that are wetting his cheeks. For Ibn Jinnī, the syntax of the lines overrides the literary conceit and his result is comically literal; al-Wāḥidī, however, ignores the

word image (rain for tears) has become so hackneyed that it is practically ‘lexicalized’ in the vocabulary, i.e., it acts as a ‘poetic’ dead metaphor, upon which elaborations of the image can be made.

Other examples are al-Buḥturī’s “five clouds” for “fingers,” to which are added the “thunderbolt” in the “palm of the hand,”⁹⁴⁵ or Abū Tammām’s [meter: *khafīf*]

[two additional lines quoted]⁹⁴⁶

kuntu ar ‘ā l-nujūma ḥattā idhā mā

fāraqūnī amsaytu ar ‘ā l-nujūmā

“I used to watch the stars (i.e., the beloved) so much that even

when they left me, I kept ‘watching the stars’ (i.e., staying up all night)”⁹⁴⁷

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s only comment is that the metaphor occurs in the third line. In the text of the *dīwān*, we find *budūr* ‘full moons’ for the first occurrence of *nujūm*; al-Tibrīzī provides two other readings: *khudūr* ‘woman’s chambers’ and *khudūd* ‘cheeks’, but not *nujūm*,⁹⁴⁸ suggesting that the first *nujūm* might be an error (despite the nice paronomasia with the second *nujūm*). One suspects that by *isti ‘āra* Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is referring to the common noun metaphor *budūr* for “pretty faces,” but even if *nujūm* is not a slip of the pen and is made to stand for the beloved, it is likely that it is this noun that he views as *isti ‘āra* and not the verb *ra ‘ā* ‘to herd; graze’, which is

syntax. This is not the first time that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn mocks others for taking a sentence literally rather than figuratively; see *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 29).

⁹⁴⁵ Ibid. 2: 105.

⁹⁴⁶ In the two preceding lines the poet’s persona deals with the pain of finding the campsite remains, but cf. al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 3: 222-23, where these lines appear after the line quoted above, not before. In light of the ‘atomistic’ discourse of Arabic poetry it is noteworthy that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn often quotes the intended *shāhid* within the context of its preceding/following lines and sometimes (as here) provides the opening line of the poem as well.

⁹⁴⁷ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 104, and editors’ fns. The first *ra ‘ā l-nujūm* literally means “to graze the stars” (see below) and the second *ra ‘ā l-nujūm* “to herd the stars,” but I kept the verb ‘watch’ to convey the identity of the phrase in both hemistichs.

⁹⁴⁸ Al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 3: 222.

also a metaphor. This is because first, only a noun metaphor can stand for an object that is ‘suppressed’ (*maṭwī al-dhikr*⁹⁴⁹), and second, taken in context with the rest of the *shawāhid* and accompanying comments that all point to nouns/nominal phrases, a verb metaphor is unlikely Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s intention here. Once the hackneyed metaphor “X for beloved” is in place, it is further elaborated: first, by a placing it within a verbal phrase (*ra ‘ā l-nujūm/budūr*) which yields the additional metaphor, “grazing the [beloved]” for “kissing the beloved” (if we follow al-Tibrīzī’s explanation for “grazing the cheeks”); and second, by mentioning the proverbial expression “herding the stars” for “staying up at night,”⁹⁵⁰ which builds on the image of moon(s) (if *budūr*) to include the stars (or, if *nujūm*, adds a paronomasia).⁹⁵¹

Since the bulk of the examples in our chapter refer to well-known nominal stand-ins for an unexpressed topic, I shall refer to *isti ‘āra* in this context as ‘poetic dead metaphor’, or the very hackneyed nominal metaphor.⁹⁵² Some instances even verge on the ‘common’ dead

⁹⁴⁹ Used earlier in the chapter, e.g. *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 84, 98 (or variations; e.g., p. 97: *tuwiya... dhikr al-musta ‘ār lahu; ṭayy al-musta ‘ār lahu*).

⁹⁵⁰ Lane, *Lexicon*, 1108 (“waiting for the time when they disappear”). The basis of this expression is not metaphoric but rather metonymic: it is based not on similarity but on the concomitance between night and the appearance of stars. *Ra ‘ā l-nujūm* is an idiomatic phrase of the type we encountered above (*nāma l-thawb* etc.).

⁹⁵¹ The other two variations on *nujūm – khudūd* or *khudūr* – are incompatible with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s theory. In the case of “cheeks,” they can either be taken literally (“grazing” them would be a metaphor for kissing them, but the cheeks remain cheeks) or be taken figuratively to be a metonymy for the beloved (grazing the figurative cheeks=kissing the beloved, not necessarily her cheeks). Neither a literal understanding nor a metonymic one fits the other examples in the chapter. In the case of “woman’s chambers,” if it is literal, “grazing them” would amount to frequent visiting of the beloved’s house, and if it is figurative, it would again be by way of metonymy (visiting the beloved, not necessarily her courtiers). *Nujūm* as a reference to the beloved may be too cryptic, in which case it would be a form of riddle (on which see below). If the line were adduced out of context, one could be made to believe that the *isti ‘āra* referred to the verb metaphor *ra ‘ā*, but as aforementioned, this is unlikely here.

⁹⁵² As always, we should say that the vast majority of examples reflect poetic dead metaphors, but not all of them, especially if we take into account the exegetical underpinnings of such discussions. Thus, in the example Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn provides in *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 96-97, Q 14:46, “mountains” (in the accusative) for “God’s decree” is not a hackneyed image. Given his view of *isti ‘āra*, it is plain to see why he took to criticizing al-Khafājī’s understanding of Imru’ al-Qays’ famous line, “And I said to it (sc. the night) when it stretched out its back and followed up with (its) hind quarters and struggled to get up with (its) breast”: no component here reflects a poetic dead metaphor and Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn rightly treats it as a case of analogy (with no particle of comparison, *tashbīh muḍmar al-adāt*; for more on his critique see Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 23-25).

metaphor, like ‘darkness’ and ‘light’ for ‘wrong’ and ‘right’ (in the Qur’ānic case we saw above, wrong/right belief).

In other cases, especially the examples drawn from everyday speech of the ancient Arabs, including sayings by the Prophet and early orators, *isti ‘āra* is more in line with the idiomatic or proverbial expression, not unlike the second occurrence of *ra ‘ā l-nujūm* above, in the sense of staying up at night. Examples are:

(1) From a prophetic saying, the expression *hādhim al-ladhkhāt* lit. “the eraser of pleasures” for “death.”⁹⁵³

(2) The old Arab adage (apparently corrupted here), said upon seeing the lunar crescent (*inda ru’yat al-hilāl*): *lā marḥaban bi-l-lajīni muqarribi ajalīn wa-maḥlin* “No welcome to ‘stomped-on ground leaves’ (a sign of the approaching collector of debt), bringer of due date and draught!”⁹⁵⁴ The adage apparently refers to debts that need to be paid back at the beginning of the month (when the lunar crescent appears), thus ending the fixed term of the loan and starting a period of hardship (“draught”). The dictionaries/poetic catalogues have slightly different, and more probable versions: *lā marḥaban bi-muḥilli l-dayni muqarribi l-ajali* “No welcome to a collector of debt, bringer of due date!”⁹⁵⁵ and (perhaps the original) *lā marḥaban bi-ḥujayn, muḥilli l-dayn, wa-muqarribi l-ḥayn*, “No

⁹⁵³ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 98. Note that this expression is based on contiguity, not similarity (see below).

⁹⁵⁴ Ibid. The editors vocalize *muqarrib* as *muqarribu ajalīn*. The *lajīn* is a type of paste given to camels, which is made out of “tree leaves that were stomped on” (*waraq al-shajar yukhbaṭu*) mixed with some flour or barley (*Lisān al-‘arab* 5: 4002), but the phrase *khabṭ waraq al-shajar* refers to a man’s coming to seek benefit from someone else without any tie of relationship, “because he who does so must beat the ground with his feet” (Lane, *Lexicon*, 698 [s.v. *khabṭ*]). *Lajīn* (if not corrupted) could have been extended from referencing ‘an approaching seeker of benefit’ to ‘an approaching collector of debt’. *Ajal*, usually ‘(end of) fixed term’, refers here to the “time of falling due” (Lane, *Lexicon*, 25).

⁹⁵⁵ Ibn Manzūr, *Lisān al-‘arab* 2: 974; al-Khalīl, *Kitāb al-‘Ayn* 3: 27. *Ajal* could also be a reference to death here, as an exaggeration of the hardship that would follow (like ‘draught’ in Ḍiyā’ al-Ḍīn’s version; in Ḍiyā’ al-Ḍīn’s version, ‘death’ is less probable, because the following ‘draught’ would be irrelevant for the dead).

welcome to a little hook (i.e., the crescent), collector of debt, bringer of death!”⁹⁵⁶

Because the *hilāl* is a sign of a negative event here – paying back debt – it acts as a bad omen (see below).

- (3) From the famous address of the Umayyad governor al-Ḥajjāj b. Yūsuf (d. 95/714), the expression *nathala kinānatahu wa-‘ajamahā ‘ūdan ‘ūdan* lit. “he cleaned the dust off his arrow-quiver and tested [the arrows] rod by rod” for “he displayed his men and examined them one by one to the utmost diligence.”⁹⁵⁷

These expressions are rooted in the Arabic lexicon. In fact, some of them we may characterize as euphemisms (Ar. *kināya*).⁹⁵⁸ This is especially evident with a case like ‘death’, which constitutes a common social taboo across societies, inviting a use of a euphemistic expression, i.e., an acceptable manner of referring to that taboo.⁹⁵⁹ The case of the sighting of a new moon as an

⁹⁵⁶ Abū al-‘Abbās Aḥmad b. Yūsuf al-Ṭīfāshī, *hadhdhabahu Ibn Manzūr Muḥammad b. Jalāl al-Dīn b. Mukarram, Surūr al-naḥs bi-madārik al-ḥawāss al-khams*, ed. Iḥsān ‘Abbās, Beirut: al-Mu‘assasa al-‘Arabiyya li-l-Dirāsāt wa-l-Nashr, 1980, 78-79. This is the only version that makes any reference to the actual new moon (by mention of *ḥujayn*). ‘Death’ is an exaggeration for hard times, like ‘draught’. Al-Ṭīfāshī (/Ibn Manzūr) includes additional sayings by the Arabs that censure the new moon. I thank Geert Jan van Gelder for alerting me to the additional versions of the *lā marḥaban* adage.

⁹⁵⁷ *Al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 2: 98.

⁹⁵⁸ That euphemisms are listed as entries in the dictionaries has already been noted by Pellat (“Kināya,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*): “It is quite possible in fact, that independent of dialectical variants, the abundance of synonyms is sometimes due to the listing, by the lexicographers, of euphemistic terms whose origin is not indicated.” See also *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 3: 67.1-3^c, where an explanation of the *kināya* in a line by Abū Tammām reads like a dictionary entry. For an opposite example of a dead metaphor identified as a *kināya* see *ibid.* 3: 63 (“water” as a so-called *kināya* for “knowledge”). This is due to the non-technical use of *kanā bi-‘an* as “referring to Y indirectly by saying X” (and see below).

⁹⁵⁹ The relationship between taboo in society and euphemism in the Arabic language in the medieval Arabophone world has been studied in depth by Erez Naaman, “Women Who Cough.” Death is the 11th topic listed in al-Tha‘ālibī’s (d. 429/1039) *Kitāb al-kināya* (*ibid.*, 474-75, and 476 on death as a taboo in other societies). Battle and killing are also loci for euphemistic expressions (*ibid.*) and see *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 2: 100 for a euphemism for ‘war’. See also Ch. Pellat, “Kināya.” For another example of a euphemistic reference to death see *al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 3: 62. Generosity is typically not a target for euphemistic expression due to its high regard in society. In this sense, the *kināya* that ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī is talking about (“having much ashes of the cooking pot”) is not a euphemism. Furthermore, in al-Jurjānī’s notation, *kināya* is a sentence that logically implies the actual meaning intended. By contrast, in the single-term euphemism the word does not necessarily *imply* the intended meaning: there is nothing in the word “touching” to logically imply “having sexual intercourse” or in “stomped-on leaves bringing near death/draught” to necessarily imply “new moon.” Conversely, “having many ashes under the cooking-pot” necessarily

inauspicious occasion (for paying debt) could also demonstrate euphemistic usage.⁹⁶⁰ This leads us to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's discussion of *kināya*, which he identifies explicitly as a subcategory of *isti'āra*.⁹⁶¹ But before we turn to that chapter, we should point out an important remark that he makes with regards to *isti'āra* that highlights the affinity between the two.

According to Ḍiyā' al-Dīn, the occurrence of an *isti'āra* is rare (*qalīl*), both in the Qur'ān and in 'eloquent discourse', namely, letters, sermons and poems (*faṣīḥ al-kalām min al-rasā'il wa-l-khuṭab wa-l-ash'ār*). This paucity Ḍiyā' al-Dīn attributes to the difficulty (*lā yatayassarū*) of composing speech in which the topic is not expressed ("concealed"), as opposed to how easy and common (*kathīr sahl*) it is to produce speech in which both topic and analogue appear together.⁹⁶² Although 'composition' and 'production' are not mentioned explicitly, it is clear that this observation is made from a writer's point of view: the bar that poetic dead metaphors and euphemisms set is quite high, and to create a new one *ex nihilo* without leading to a cryptic result is rather challenging, if not impossible (cf. the cryptic character of *lā marḥaban bi-l-lajīn...*).

From the perspective of creating speech about an unspoken topic, the *isti'āra* shares an affinity

implies that a large amount of food is being cooked, larger than what is needed for the person's family, and hence intended for guests (for further discussion of al-Jurjānī's *kināya* see §5.2).

⁹⁶⁰ Al-Tha'ālibī and the judge Aḥmad al-Jurjānī (d. 482/1089) devote special chapters to inauspicious expressions (Naaman, "Women Who Cough," 477), where they cite the use of antonyms to refer to the inauspicious entities, like "a place of safety" for a waterless desert, due to its inauspicious character (one can die there while traveling). This is not the case in saying that the *lajīn/muḥill al-ḍayn/hujayn* is not welcome, since the expressions are not "beautified." It is euphemistic, rather, because of the refrain from uttering the explicit word for the inauspicious occasion, namely, the time of the month to pay back debt. See also Pellat, "Kināya," and, for an elaboration on the mechanism of euphemism in Arabic, "Women Who Cough," 486-91.

⁹⁶¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 3: 55; Naaman, "Women Who Cough," 472. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's explanation for not addressing *kināya* when he spoke of *majāz* is that he followed the common tradition of treating *kināya* together with *ta'rīd*. He then provides (*al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 3: 56) a poetic line which was wrongly identified, to his mind, as *kināya* rather than *isti'āra*, and acknowledges that it may be difficult at times to distinguish the two (in this case distinguishing the two is made possible by looking at the line in the context of its three subsequent lines: *al-bayt al-awwal* [...] *bi-mufradihi* vs. *al-abyāt fī jumlatihā*). For another example – this time a Qur'ānic one – of an *isti'āra* supposedly wrongly identified by al-Farrā' as a *kināya* see *ibid.* 3: 63. Most probably this is due to the early non-technical use of "X *kināya* 'an Y" as a reference to a (dead) metaphor.

⁹⁶² *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 2: 97.

with the riddle (*uhjiyya*, *lughz*): this is a type of speech that indicates the intended topic “not by way of *haqīqa*, not by way of *majāz*, not by way of pragmatic implication (*mafḥūm*), but is rather something that must be guessed (*yuhdasu wa-yuḥzaru*).”⁹⁶³ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn even states that the riddle may “sometimes resemble a *kināya*.”⁹⁶⁴ Seen from this regard, the poetic dead metaphor (or euphemism) is a riddle that does not demand from the listener any pondering over its meaning.⁹⁶⁵ A conclusion we may draw, then, regarding an important difference between the subcategories of *majāz* is that the composer of speech does not really participate in the creation of an *isti’āra/kināya*,⁹⁶⁶ whereas in the case of other figurative expressions identified as *majāz* (*tashbīh* and *tawassu’*), he does.

The treatment of *kināya* by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn has received some attention in recent

⁹⁶³ Ibid. 3: 85-86, under the chapter titled *aḥājī*, the 21st literary device concerned with sense. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn relates the *aḥājī* also to *mughālaṭāt ma’ nawīyya* ‘deceptions’, a literary device based on double-entendre (3: 76 ff., 84). The *mafḥūm* refers to what the utterance suggests but does not state explicitly – a term he uses with reference to *ta’rīd*, for him: ‘implicature’. The archetypal example is “By God, I am in need, and I have nothing in my hand,” of which the pragmatic import is a request for a handout (*ta’rīd bi-l-ṭalab*; 3: 56-57). The examples for *ta’rīd* are mostly Qur’ānic (3: 72-75), and as Abū Mūsā shows, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s understanding of the notion is inspired by al-Zamakhsharī (*al-Balāgha al-Qur’āniyya fī tafsīr al-Zamakhsharī*, 575-78).

⁹⁶⁴ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 84.

⁹⁶⁵ A clear example of the riddle-like quality that an *isti’āra* may possess comes from the single illustration of *isti’āra* that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn provides from his own letters (ibid. 2: 98-99). The letter, written upon the request of a friend, is a “description” (*an aṣifa lahu*) of two Turkish slaves with whom the friend was infatuated, one wearing a red *qabā’* (long tunic) and the other a black one. The result resembles a very obvious riddle: two “moons on branches,” the clothes of one of whom “comes from the redness of his cheeks” and the other “from the blackness of his (dyed) eyelid.” Likewise, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn adduces a poetic line containing a description that could apply both to a horse and to the male organ (the latter of which would invite a euphemistic expression), and states that it was ‘wrongly’ identified as a riddle rather than a *kināya* (ibid. 3: 84-85, 68-69). This too demonstrates the riddle-like quality that a *kināya* may possess. In another example (3: 75), from “the language of the Persians,” Khosrow says to an emir whose wife he (the king) was having an affair with, “I heard that you have a spring of sweet water but do not drink from it. What is the reason for that?” to which the emir replied, “I heard that the lion comes down to [drink from] it so I was afraid of it.” Once again, the cause for Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s identification of such an example as *kināya* rather than *uhjiyya* stems from the taboo subject of fornication.

⁹⁶⁶ Where the poet/letter writer/preacher does show his creativity with *isti’āra* is when he embeds it with other literary devices into a larger conceit, as we saw with the “lightning” added to the “rain,” and the (more literal) use of “watching the stars” as “watching the beloved,” where “stars” (originally “moons”) stand for the beloved (not to mention, of course, the literary devices concerned with sound, another important locus for creativity.)

scholarship by Charles Pellat and Erez Naaman in their respective studies of the notion.⁹⁶⁷ Both have shown that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn conceives of *kināya* as an expression that can be interpreted both in its literal and in its figurative sense, or in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's words, that both *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* “contend” (*tajādhaba*) for the expression.⁹⁶⁸ The topic is presented under the chapter titled *al-kināya wa-l-ta' rīd*, the nineteenth literary device concerned with sense.⁹⁶⁹ It contains a long discourse on definitions and refutations of false arguments, and in it Ḍiyā' al-Dīn engages in a discussion with the legal theorists (‘*ulamā' uṣūl al-fiqh, a'immat al-fiqh*; al-Shāfi'ī and al-Ghazālī are singled out by name).⁹⁷⁰ The majority of the examples in this rather lengthy chapter of 26 pages (4 of which on *ta' rīd*) are from the Qur'ān, *ḥadīth*, and early anecdotal reports, once again signaling the ‘non-poetic’ character of the notion.⁹⁷¹ When illustrations from poetry are adduced, they either display ‘dead’ usage or riddle-speech concerning a taboo (which invites euphemistic expression).⁹⁷²

Kināya is the only category within Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's system of *majāz* (excluding the legal

⁹⁶⁷ Pellat, “Kināya;” Naaman, “Women Who Cough.” See also Mehren, *Rhetorik*, 41-42, 92.

⁹⁶⁸ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 3: 51, 53, 63. Pellat says, more exactly, that the expression could be interpreted *either* literally *or* figuratively.

⁹⁶⁹ *Ibid.* 3: 49-75.

⁹⁷⁰ *Ibid.* 3: 51, 63.

⁹⁷¹ *Ibid.* 3: 49-66 (strictly speaking, the “examples” section begins on p. 62, but the account preceding it is replete with examples from the Revelation).

⁹⁷² *Ibid.* 3: 66-70. It is only because the poetic riddle-speech concerns a taboo topic that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn excludes it from the more ‘neutral’ category of riddle (*uhjiyya* or *mughālaṭa ma'nawīyya*). A famous anecdote (3: 68-69, 84-85) concerns an early well-known *innīn* ‘impotent’ “who did not have sex with women,” who composes an epigram on what can be taken as a description of a horse but is really a description of his organ. Sometimes the examples are not entirely euphemistic: in a four-line example by Abū Nuwās (3: 69-70), Ḍiyā' al-Dīn deems beautiful the expression *atrāf al-rimāh* “the edges of the lances” for “the intended organ,” but he pays no regard to the following line in which the explicit *ayr* is mentioned. The poetic illustrations are followed by illustrations of “ugly” euphemisms (3: 70-72), which, as Naaman points out, may refer to dysphemisms – offensive, rather than euphemistic, expressions (“shit” instead of “poop”), or to orthophemisms – expressions that are too explicit (“feces”), following the “X-phemistic set” of Allan and Burridge (“Women Who Cough,” 478-85).

discourse) in which we come across figurative speech based on contiguity (a term not used).⁹⁷³ The archetypal ‘touching’ (*lams*) for ‘copulating’ (*jimā*) is the clearest example, where we see a case of *pars pro toto*. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn recognizes that some cases of *kināya* are based on similarity (*shabahiyya*) while others are not. Although his efforts do not yield convincing results, he grapples with these differences head-on. According to him, when *kināya* comes in the form of words in combination, the similarity and correlation (or analogy, *munāsaba*) are stronger when compared with *kināya* in the single word. An example for the first is “so and so has clean clothing” (*fulān naqī al-thawb*, words in combination), where Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn reconstructs “clothing clean of filth are like a reputation unblemished with moral vice.” Conversely, he contends that if we say “touching is like copulating” (a single word *kināya*), “the similarity is not as strong” (*lam takun bi-tilka l-daraja fī quwwat al-mushābaha*).⁹⁷⁴ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn senses that the latter is not like the former – we would say that there is no similarity at all but rather contiguity (“touching is like copulating” is not quite an acceptable sentence)⁹⁷⁵ – but he nevertheless remains committed to the notion of an analogy or likeness (*tamthīl*) underlying *kināya*.⁹⁷⁶ We may also point out that most of the single-word euphemisms he adduces are in fact based on similarity rather than contiguity, like ‘ewes’ (sg. *na’ja*) for ‘women’.⁹⁷⁷ The latter are technically

⁹⁷³ But see above *hādhim al-ladhdhāt* for “death” – which Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn discussed under *isti’āra*.

⁹⁷⁴ Ibid. 3: 59.

⁹⁷⁵ “Category membership is incompatible with assertions of similarity,” such that if “Copper is a metal” is acceptable, then “Copper is *like* a metal” is not acceptable (Boaz Keysar, “On the Functional Equivalence of Literal and Metaphorical Interpretations in Discourse,” *Journal of Memory and Language* 28 [1989], 375-85, here: 380-81, emphasis his). Granted, in our example the relationship between “touching” and “copulating” is not quite class membership (hyponymy) – perhaps (?) it is a part-whole relationship (meronymy) – nevertheless, taken at face-value, the statement is not quite right (although one could imagine a context in which it is said, for instance by a hypersensitive amorous person).

⁹⁷⁶ *Al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 3: 59.

⁹⁷⁷ Ibid. According to him, the common attribute (*wasf jāmi’*) between *na’ja* and woman is their respective femininity (hence, he says, *na’ja* was chosen rather than the masculine *kabsh*; 3: 53).

better suited for Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's conception of *isti'āra* (cf. 'gazelle' for 'woman', above), but once again, because the examples involve a taboo (women, genitalia, etc.), he opts for *kināya*.⁹⁷⁸

The historic nature of *kināya* as a cover term for a variety of "indirect wording" is directly linked to the non-technical expression "X *kināya* 'an Y," that is, "avoiding mentioning Y explicitly by saying X."⁹⁷⁹ Thus, literary expressions that are allusive but not euphemistic also figure into Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's chapter. He tends to the historic⁹⁸⁰ category of *irdāf* '[implying what] logically follows [from the expression]', such as *fulān 'aẓīm al-ramād* "so and so has a great (amount) of ashes" for feeding others with much food, a sign of generosity.⁹⁸¹ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn recognizes that this type of speech subsists in words in combination (*lafẓ murakkab*), rather than a single word. Moreover, he recognizes that the allusive expression is a logical consequence (*lāzim*, also *dalīl* 'proof') of the thing alluded to (specifically an attribute, *ṣifa*) and that this differentiates the category of *irdāf* from other types of *kināyāt* (*bi-khilāf ghayrihā min al-kināyāt*).⁹⁸² Indeed, we would say that the examples reflect periphrasis (or circumlocution), not euphemism.⁹⁸³ He stops short, however, of excluding *irdāf* entirely from the category of *kināya*, even though it does not fit the notion's definition: every word in "having many ashes," and the

⁹⁷⁸ Compare this with his scorning of those who interpret "clothes" as "heart" (*qalb*) by way of *kināya* in Q 74:4 "and your clothes, purify" (*wa-thiyābaka fa-tahhir*), on the pretense that there is no "common attribute" (*wasf jāmi'*) between them. Here – it seems – Ḍiyā' al-Dīn prefers to treat the expression disjunctively (clothes are a *metaphor* for heart) rather than conjunctively (clothes are a *metonym* for the person wearing them), but we must acknowledge that the main reason for rejecting *kināya* here is the lack of a taboo (I follow Naaman's appropriation of the terms 'disjunctive' and 'conjunctive' in "Women Who Cough").

⁹⁷⁹ See also Joseph Dichy, "Kināya," *Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics*, Brill Online.

⁹⁸⁰ See Qudāma b. Ja'far, *Naqd al-shi'r*, 88-90 (the root *k.n.y* does not occur). Ibn Abī al-Iṣba' continues this tradition, as he treats periphrastic utterances under the heading *al-irdāf wa-l-tatbīr* (*Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, 207 ff.) and euphemism under *al-kināya* (ibid., 143 ff.; also *Badī' al-Qur'ān*, 83 and 53, respectively).

⁹⁸¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā'ir* 3: 58, 60-61.

⁹⁸² Ibid. 3: 60.

⁹⁸³ This is not to say that a euphemism cannot come in the form of a periphrasis; for some examples (not in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's work) see Naaman, "Women Who Cough," 491.

proposition as a whole, must be taken literally, and there is no room for *majāz* in its interpretation.⁹⁸⁴ Furthermore, in many of the *shawāhid* that reflect riddle-speech – where the topic of discussion could be understood either literally or as a euphemism for a taboo – *majāz* too, in the sense of a word shift, does not take place.⁹⁸⁵ In other words, although it is within the discussion of *kināya* that we see an explicit conformity to the original definition of *majāz*, there remain many linguistic phenomena subsumed under *kināya* that defy this rule.

A final note must be made on Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s very definition of *kināya* as an expression (specifically word, *lafza*) that can be taken both literally and figuratively.⁹⁸⁶ Besides the Qur’ānic verse that he adduces throughout the chapter, Q 4:43 “[draw not near to prayer when...] Or [when] you have touched women”⁹⁸⁷ – where *lāmasa* could be interpreted (*ḥaml*) both as ‘touching’ and as ‘copulating’ since both actions would require ablution prior to prayer – Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s definition is simply untenable. For it is the only the *majāz* sense – i.e., the euphemistic one – that is intended in *kināya*, not the literal one (e.g., ‘ewe’ for ‘women’ in Q 38:23 “Behold, this my brother has ninety-nine ewes, and I have one ewe”).⁹⁸⁸ Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, in fact, recognizes this. A closer look at his comments on *shawāhid* reveals that what he has in mind, rather, is that both the literal and figurative readings in *kināya* lead to semantically permissible utterances (*yaṣiḥḥu*, *yajūzu* and conjugations), even though it is only the figurative sense that is intended

⁹⁸⁴ This type of *kināya*, which is what ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī has in mind when he speaks of *kināya*, will be discussed in more detail in §5.2. Because al-Jurjānī’s *kināya* is typologically different from euphemism, treating it here, and examining its ramifications on the understanding of *majāz*, would be misleading in the context above.

⁹⁸⁵ Ibid. 3: 62 ff. The examples that do not reflect euphemistic usage, like “having much ashes” for “generosity,” should be read in light of earlier works dealing with *irdāf* (or *kināya* in the sense of *irdāf*).

⁹⁸⁶ Ibid. 3: 51-52 (52.2 for *lafza*).

⁹⁸⁷ Ibid. 3: 51, 53-54.

⁹⁸⁸ The verse is quoted in ibid. 3: 53, 59, without explicitly saying that only the *majāz* sense is intended. Even in the archetypal *lams* for *jimā*’ (without a context), it is really the *majāz* meaning that is intended.

(*arāda, murād, yushīru*).⁹⁸⁹ He states at the outset that what sets *kināya* apart from all other categories of *majāz*, is that in all other categories, taking the utterance at face value (*‘alā jānīb al-ḥaqīqa*) would result in an impossible meaning (*la-staḥāla l-ma‘nā*).⁹⁹⁰ As proof, he adduces the archetypal *tashbīh* utterance, “Zayd is a lion” (particle of comparison omitted): semantically only a *majāz* reading is possible, he says, “because Zayd is not (that) four-legged hairy animal with a tail and fangs and claws.”⁹⁹¹ I use the word “semantically” in this context since Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is basing his assessment of the utterance on one’s knowledge of the world. Indeed, another way to characterize the “semantic impermissibility” (*istaḥāla l-ma‘nā*) of such utterances would be to describe them as false (*kadhib*), but as we saw above, the discourse of *kadhib* was too far removed to be discussed within the context of *majāz*.

This is the closest Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn gets to stating explicitly that all the categories of *majāz* (*aqsām al-majāz*), besides *kināya*, exhibit utterances that are untrue if taken at face value. We shall now turn to the category of *tashbīh* to see to what extent the utterances subsumed therein are untrue.⁹⁹²

⁹⁸⁹ For *yaṣīḥḥu* see *ibid.* 3: 51.15, 63.3^c, for *jāza* – 63.3^c, 64.1^c-65.4, *yajūzu* – 51.4-5^e, *jā‘iz* – 68.6 (opp. *yushīru*, 68.5). For *arāda* and *murād* see 3: 65.3^c-66.3.

⁹⁹⁰ *Ibid.* 3: 51. The opposition between *istaḥāla* and *jāza* in a grammatical (primarily syntactic) sense appears already in Sībawayh (see Noy, “*Muḥāl*,” 31, 37). Here Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is using the dyad in a semantic sense.

⁹⁹¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 3: 51-52. Another case exemplifying this is his commentary on Q 14:46 “[...] so that the mountains will be removed” (*ibid.* 3: 63, and 2: 96-97, where he explains that *isti‘āra* occurs only when *jibāl* is in the accusative, not nominative).

⁹⁹² As we noted above (fn. 952), we must stress that things are not always clear-cut. When discussing a sub-type of *taṣrī‘* (maintaining a rhyme in both hemistichs) called *taṣrī‘ mukarrar*, in which the last word of the two hemistichs is identical (*ibid.* 1: 341), Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn speaks of *majāz* as if it resides in the single word (*al-laḥẓa al-majāziyya*), even though he is referring to a ‘live’ poetic metaphor. The line is Abū Tammām’s (meter: *ṭawīl*) *fatān kāna sharban li-l-‘ufāti wa-marta‘ā // fa-aṣḥaba li-l-hindiyyati l-bīdi marta‘ā* (I follow the orthography in al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 4: 100) “A man in the prime of his life, he was a watering place and a pasture for seekers of subsistence, and for Indian swords – a pasture.” The line is adduced as a superior type of *taṣrī‘ mukarrar*, due to the fact that the repeated word is figurative, “where the meaning can differ” (*laḥẓa majāziyya yakhtalifu l-ma‘nā fihā*). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn might be taking the second instance of *marta‘* in a more literal sense than the first (even though it, too, is part of a figurative sentence): the first instance of *marta‘* would be akin to a hackneyed metaphor (for: he provides food and

Why is Tashbīh Majāz?

In this dissertation I usually translate *tashbīh* as ‘comparison’, and sometimes more specifically as ‘simile’. ‘Comparison’ is a rather loose translation: it does not convey the idea inherent in the verbal noun of form II *shabbaha*, that a comparison is being *made* or *stated*. For our purposes in the present section I would like to translate *tashbīh* in a more accurate manner, but a phrase such as “stating a similitude” is not satisfactory either, since the term *tashbīh* within the works of Arabic literary theory refers ultimately to a literary-linguistic *phenomenon*, not to an act of the poet/letter writer/preacher. ‘Simile’ does refer to the phenomenon itself, but it excludes other cases that the category of *tashbīh* traditionally covers, namely metaphors and analogies.⁹⁹³ For the purpose of evaluating why *tashbīh* is considered *majāz*, I propose “similarity statement.”⁹⁹⁴ Kamal Abu Deeb speaks of *tashbīh* in similar terms when he refers to it as “a process of establishing similarity between objects.”⁹⁹⁵ In our context of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s work, we would say that the similarity is established between objects (single-term simile) and between situations (sentence-long analogies) alike. In modern research similarity statements, or judgments of similarity, have commonly been considered within the purview of philosophy or cognitive psychology, and they have entered the study of metaphor by the hand of the philosophers of

shelter for those seeking it), and in the second instance the poet would be referring to the (deceased) patron as a battle hero literally collecting all the swords of his enemy (in battle). I am not sure what he has in mind here, but in any case Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn reverts to *majāz* on the level of the lexeme for clear reasons: the context of a repeated *lafẓa* in *taṣrī’*. Incidentally, the vocalization that the editors of the *Mathal* provide – *murta’ā* and *marta’ā* – might be reflective of Abū Tammām’s original intention, but for Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn this was a case of *taṣrī’ mukarrar*.

⁹⁹³ By “traditionally” I am referring to works of the high ‘Abbāsīd era or later works that have not been influenced by ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī. By “metaphors” I am referring to sentences of the type “Zayd is a lion,” which Western thought considers a metaphor but in the Arabic tradition is recognized as a *tashbīh muḍmar al-adāt*.

⁹⁹⁴ I am limiting my use of “similarity statement” to this section because, as will become presently apparent, “similarity statement” too is not an appropriate rendering for the literary device of *tashbīh*.

⁹⁹⁵ Abu Deeb, *Al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 67, and *passim* with reference to “similarity.”

language rather than the cognitive linguists.⁹⁹⁶ Speaking of *tashbīh* in terms of a similarity statement will help us determine why *tashbīh* is considered *majāz*, especially in the case of a full-fledged simile (containing the word of similitude).

Al-Jurjānī famously rejects the inclusion of *tashbīh* in the sense of ‘simile’ within *majāz*, or figurative speech, on the grounds that every word therein is used according to its literal sense.⁹⁹⁷ Viewing simile as literal speech was an innovation, and at least one scholar (Ibn al-Naḳīb) ascribes this opinion to “the later scholars” (*muta`akhhirī hādhihi l-ṣinā`a*).⁹⁹⁸ An explicit inclusion of *tashbīh* within *majāz* can be seen in Ibn Rashīq’s *Umda*.⁹⁹⁹ But even before the term *majāz* infiltrated works of Arabic literary theory, there was recognition of two types of similarity statements (*tashbīh*). This differentiation between similarity statements stands at the basis of Ibn Rashīq’s identification of *tashbīh* as *majāz*. Al-Rummānī’s (d. 384/994) epistle on the inimitability of the Qur’ān may reflect the ‘pre-*majāz* stage’ in Arabic literary theory.¹⁰⁰⁰

⁹⁹⁶ The term itself originates in geometry. Representative examples are Amos Tversky, “Features of Similarity,” *Psychological Review* 84.4 (1977), 327-52; Andrew Ortony, “Beyond Literal Similarity,” *Psychological Review* 86.3 (1979), 161-80; Fogelin, *Figuratively Speaking*. (For a criticism of this approach see, e.g., Sam Glucksberg and Boaz Keysar, “Understanding Metaphorical Comparisons: Beyond Similarity,” *Psychological Review* 97.1 [1990], 3-18.) The representative work on metaphor from the perspective of cognitive linguistics is Lakoff and Johnson, *Metaphors We Live By*, whose treatment of conceptual metaphors is usually devoid of discussions on similarity (in fact, they think it is incorrect). Thomas Bauer thinks that modern treatments of metaphor would have been more adequate had they incorporated a theory of comparison (he does not say similarity) within them (“Arabische Kultur,” *Rhetorik*, 296). The modern accounts on metaphor that he has in mind are clearly the more conventional philosophical ones.

⁹⁹⁷ *Asrār*, 222, and see §5.4 for elaboration. In the modern era scholars have normally thought of simile in terms of literal speech, thus any inclusion of *tashbīh* within *majāz* was considered ‘incorrect’ (Heinrichs uses “unexpected” with regards to Ibn Rashīq; *Hand of the Northwind*, 49).

⁹⁹⁸ See §5.4.

⁹⁹⁹ *Al-‘Umda* 1: 266, 268, 286, 2: 294; see also Heinrichs, *Arabische Dichtung*, 57. Before that Ibn Fāris also explicitly includes *tashbīh* within *majāz*, in a brief passage about the nature of *majāz* (*al-Ṣāhibī*, 197-98): note that the second example of *tashbīh* exhibits the particle of comparison *ka-*, meaning that by *tashbīh* Ibn Fāris is not only thinking of ‘metaphors’ containing both topic and analogue and no particle of comparison, but also straightforward similes.

¹⁰⁰⁰ Although he does not use the term *majāz*, the *idea* of a word transfer does come across in al-Rummānī’s work, when he discusses *isti`āra* (*al-Nukat*, 79). On works of *i`jāz al-Qur`ān* being part and parcel of the early *naqd* works see Part One, §1.2.

According to him there are two types of similarity statements (*al-tashbīh ‘alā wajhayn*), “a similarity statement belonging to eloquence” or eloquent comparison (*tashbīh balāgha*) and “a similarity statement belonging to reality” or real comparison (*tashbīh ḥaqīqa*). The first is exemplified by comparing (*tashbīh*) the actions of the unbelievers to a mirage (*sarāb*) in the desert (Q 24:39). The second, he says, “is like [saying], *This dinar is like this dinar so take whichever you like.*”¹⁰⁰¹ In other words, similarity statements in the realm of reality – or ‘real’ similarity statements – are perceived as denoting an identity between two objects: the two dinars are identical. This is supported by the dictionary meaning of *shibh* (and conjugations) which is explained in terms of *mithl* (and conjugations), the latter denoting more of an identity than the former since it is defined as a “word of equality (lit. making equal)” (*kalimat taswiya*).¹⁰⁰²

In the account by Ibn Rashīq (d. 456/1065) a century later, we see that a differentiation between two types of similarity statements is maintained, but here the term *majāz* takes the place of al-Rummānī’s *tashbīh balāgha*. This is facilitated, of course, by the dual sense of *ḥaqīqa* as either ontological reality or literal speech. According to Ibn Rashīq, the difference between *tashbīh* and *wasf* ‘description’ – the latter of which is said to encompass poetry almost entirely – is that in *wasf* one gives information about the essence of a thing (*ikhbār ‘an ḥaqīqat al-shay’*),

¹⁰⁰¹ *Al-Nukat*, 75.

¹⁰⁰² Ibn Manzūr, *Lisān al-‘Arab* 6: 4132 (s.v. *m.th.l*). Ibn Barrī is then quoted as stating that the difference between *mumāthala* ‘resemblance/correspondence’ and *musāwāt* ‘equality’ is that *musāwāt* can be established between two objects of the same genus or two objects of different genera, whereas *mumāthala* is only between two objects of the same genus. From this perspective we gather that *mumāthala* denotes more of an identity than *musāwāt*! *Mithl* and *shibh* are treated as synonyms, but *shibh* is explained by terms of *mithl* (ibid.), not the other way around (ibid. 4: 2189 [s.v. *sh.b.h*]). From the examples it is apparent that among the lexemes (or morphemes) denoting *mumāthala* is *ka-*: “the color of X is like the color of Y” (*lawnuhu ka-lawnihi*), “X tastes like Y” (*ta’ muhu ka-ta’ mihi*), and that if one says “X is completely like Y” (*huwa mithluhu ‘alā l-iṭlāq*), it means “X takes the place of Y” (*annahu yasuddu masadduhu*; ibid. 6: 4132). In sum, it is not a stretch to use the term ‘identity’ in our context above. Cf. the claim by the Andalusian philosopher Ibn Ṭumlūṣ (d. 620/1223), according to which “[w]ith the help of a syllogism [...] a poet induces the belief that two *similar* things are one and the same, i.e., identical” (Schoeler, “Poetic Syllogism’ Revisited,” 9; emphasis his). According to Schoeler, this is not unlike al-Fārābī’s own conclusion.

but *tashbīh* “is *majāz* and *tamthīl*.”¹⁰⁰³ What *majāz* denotes here is not quite figurative speech; *ḥaqīqa* too refers to ontological reality in this context (as it did for al-Rummānī above). The hendiadys *majāz wa-tamthīl* probably refers to a figurative representation of a thing (compare *muḥākāt*), rather than the thing itself.¹⁰⁰⁴ The idea of *tashbīh* as a representation of “an image that is imitated” (*ṣūra tuḥkā*) is present in the *Mathal* itself.¹⁰⁰⁵ Within Ibn Rashīq’s chapter on *tashbīh*, he defines the notion as “a description of a thing by means of that which approximates it (or: is nearly equal to it, *qārabahu*) and resembles it (*shākalahu*) in one aspect or many, not in all of its aspects, because if it agreed with it entirely, it would be it (i.e., the two would be identical).”¹⁰⁰⁶ From this definition it would seem that the similarity described in the similarity statement is a “real” one, if only partial (i.e., the two things compared are, in actuality, similar). But earlier Ibn Rashīq explains the inclusion of *tashbīh* within *majāz* on the grounds that “in most cases the two things resembling one another only resemble one another approximately by ‘indulgence’ and convention, not in reality” (*fa-li-anna l-mutashābihayni fī akthari l-ashyā’i*

¹⁰⁰³ Ibn Rashīq, *al-‘Umda* 2: 294; Heinrichs, *Arabische Dichtung*, 57.

¹⁰⁰⁴ On this aspect of *muḥākāt* see Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 21. It is noteworthy that mimesis was translated from the Syriac in the early work of Abū Bishr Mattā b. Yūnus (d. 328/940) as the hendiadys *al-ḥikāya wa-l-tashbīh* or *al-tashbīh wa-l-ḥikāya/al-tashbīh wa-l-muḥākāt*, and also *al-tashabbuh wa-l-muḥākāt*, with the corresponding verbs *yushabbih wa-yuḥākī* (and conjugations). See Abū Bishr Mattā b. Yūnus, *Kitāb Aristūṭālis fī l-shu‘arā* [sic], in David Samuel Margoliouth, *Analecta Orientalia ad poeticam Aristoteleam*, Hildesheim: Georg Olms Verlag, 2000 [reprint of the 1887 edition], 1-76, here: 1-8. In Badawī’s edition the phrase *tashabbuh wa-muḥākāt* at the opening of the work appears as *al-tashbīh wa-l-muḥākāt* (*Kitāb Aristūṭālis fī l-shu‘arā* [sic] in *Fann al-shi‘r: ma‘a al-tarjama al-‘arabiyya al-qadīma wa-shurūḥ al-Fārābī wa-Ibn Sīnā wa-Ibn Rushd*, ed. ‘Abd al-Raḥmān Badawī, Cairo: Maktabat al-Nahḍa al-Miṣriyya, 1953, 83-145, here: 86). The phrase *al-tashbīh wa-l-muḥākāt* appears again in Ibn Rushd’s (d. 595/1198) commentary on the *Poetics*, along with *al-muḥākūna wa-l-mushabbihūna* (Ibn Rushd, *Talkhīṣ*, in *Fann al-shi‘r*, 204, 206, 222).

¹⁰⁰⁵ *Al-Mathal al-sā‘ir* 2: 141. This is connected to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s differentiation between two mechanisms of creating new motifs, the first based on imitation and the second on creation *ex nihilo* (see §4.1). In the context above Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does not use the term “representation”; he speaks, rather, of comparisons emanating from (*ṣadara ‘an*) different processes, either an image that is seen and hence imitated or an image that is not seen but is invented in the mind. According to him, if the comparison is not based on an actual visual image, the resulting *tashbīh* is more affected (or artful, *aṣna*). Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī, who inspired Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s account here (*al-Ṣinā‘atayn*, 75) does not use any terms derived from the root *h.k.y.*

¹⁰⁰⁶ *Al-‘Umda* 1: 286.

*innamā yatashābahāni bi-l-muqārabati ‘alā l-musāmahati wa-l-iṣṭilāhi lā ‘alā l-ḥaqīqa).*¹⁰⁰⁷ In other words, we ‘grant’ that one object is similar to another object, and this is supported by common usage, but the two are not *really* alike. One is reminded here of John Searle’s example, “Richard is a gorilla,” in the sense that “Richard is fierce, nasty, prone to violence, and so forth”: in reality, research has shown, gorillas are not fierce and nasty at all, but are rather “shy, sensitive creatures, given to bouts of sentimentality.”¹⁰⁰⁸ In this case the similarity statement “Richard is *like* a gorilla” (my example) would be literally false but figuratively true, for what we mean by that statement “according to *iṣṭilāḥ*” is that Richard is fierce, nasty, etc.¹⁰⁰⁹ From Ibn Rashīq’s account we might conclude that the similarity statement that does not (necessarily) reflect ‘real’ similarity is what the literary theorists call *tashbīh*, and because it is not ‘real’, it is identified as *majāz*.¹⁰¹⁰

¹⁰⁰⁷ Ibid. 1: 268.

¹⁰⁰⁸ Searle, “Metaphor,” 118-19.

¹⁰⁰⁹ Searle uses this example to show that metaphorical assertions are not necessarily assertions of similarity (ibid.). While the aim of his work is not to claim that all assertions of similarity in the realm of simile are metaphorical (or figurative), as Ortony and Fogelin are (see below), he does recognize that “[p]erhaps this is one way we might distinguish between figurative similes and literal statements of similarity. Figurative similes need not necessarily commit the speaker to a literal statement of similarity” (ibid., 120), and that “there seem to be a great many metaphorical utterances where there is no relevant *literal* corresponding similarity between *S* and *P*. If we insist that there are always such similes, it looks as if we would have to interpret them *metaphorically* [...]” (ibid., 123, also 124; both emphases added). See also Lakoff and Johnson, *Metaphors We Live By*, 213 ff., on a critique of the ‘objectivist’ account of similarity.

¹⁰¹⁰ Compare this to the “literalist” approach, according to which there are *tashbīhāt* that are true (*mā kāna min al-tashbīh ṣādiqan*), presumably a reference to similarity claims that express ‘real’ similarity, and *tashbīhāt* that are untrue (*al-tashbīhāt al-kādhība*), referring to similarity claims that do not express similarity that exists in the real world. This approach comes across in many of the literary theoretical works, *in addition to and regardless of* statements such as those we are speaking of above (usually in the form of ‘remote’ comparisons, not false ones). For one literalist approach (wherefrom the quotes are taken) see Ibn Ṭabāṭabā, *ʿIyār al-shiʿr*, 23 and 4, respectively. On the latter’s traditionalism in championing ‘truthfulness’ in poetry see Ajami, *Alchemy*, 31-35. A category such as *ḥusn al-tashbīh* also suggests that some similarity claims are perceived as better than others, perhaps in their truthfulness (e.g., Ibn al-Muʿtazz, *al-Badīʿ*, 68). Al-Jurjānī takes a literalist view when he says that metaphor (*istiʿāra*) is meant to establish/affirm “a similarity that is there (i.e., exists)” (*ithbāt shabah hunāka*); see *Asrār*, 252 (the passage and context are discussed in Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 163; also *Asrār*, 154-55 and *Poetic Marvels*, 166). Not surprisingly, a literalist approach is also present in the philosophical tradition (cf. the statements by Davidson and Goodman, also philosophers, that everything/anything is like/in some way like everything/anything else, fn. 872, also expressed by Searle, “Metaphor,” 123: “Similarity is a vacuous predicate: any two things are similar in some

Another differentiation between two types of similarity statements is made by the early philologist al-Aṣma‘ī (d. ca. 208/823) and is preserved in the *‘Umda*.¹⁰¹¹ The first type of similarity statement (*tashbīh*) according to al-Aṣma‘ī is “a determination by conjecture” or estimation (*taqdīr*, *‘alā l-taqdīr*)¹⁰¹² and the second is “an establishment of truth” (*taḥqīq*, *‘alā l-taḥqīq*).¹⁰¹³ The elaboration on this classification reads like Ibn Rashīq’s initial definition: the *tashbīh taqdīr* is a comparison of one aspect only, and the *tashbīh taḥqīq* is a complete comparison or comparison of essence (*nafs*), like comparing (*tashbīh*) a crow to a crow, a redness of an anemone flower to a redness of an anemone flower, etc. (hence, again: comparison = identity). But the use of *taḥqīq*, like al-Rummānī’s *tashbīh ḥaqīqa*, lends itself to an opposition with *majāz* once the latter term enters the works of literary theory proper. It must be stressed, however, that al-Aṣma‘ī’s explanation differs from the argument made by Ibn Rashīq, *yatashābahāni* [...] *‘alā l-musāmaḥa wa-l-iṣṭilāḥ lā ‘alā l-ḥaqīqa*: in this specific argument by Ibn Rashīq, two things that we think are alike may not really be alike, but we say they are alike based on custom (a lion may not really be brave); in al-Aṣma‘ī’s argument, echoed in al-Rummānī’s work and even in Ibn Rashīq’s, if the resemblance is only in one aspect, the two things are not really alike because only identical things (crow-crow, specific redness-specific

respect or other”). When al-Fārābī discusses similarity (*shabah*) in the *Rhetoric* in the context of the philosophical *tamthīl* (analogy or argument from example), it is presented as something that exists in reality (*mawjūd*) and is, strictly speaking, seen as an identity (in species, genus; see the dictionary definition above). Thus, he says, Zayd and ‘Amr “resemble one another in humanhood, animalhood, and bodyhood,” that is, both *are* human, animals, and a substance, in that those properties (sg. *ma‘nā*) exist in them. In the *tamthīl* of the philosophers, an opponent could reject that there is a similarity between the two objects (*daf‘ihi al-shabah bayna l-amrayn*): this implies that in a debate, the truth can be reached on whether or not a similarity actually exists between the two (Abū Naṣr Muḥammad b. Muḥammad al-Fārābī, *Kitāb al-Khaṭāba*, in *al-Manṭiqiyyāt li-l-Fārābī*, 456-92, here: 490-91).

¹⁰¹¹ *Al-‘Umda* 1: 287. The quotations from al-Aṣma‘ī begin on page 286, and the relevant passage above opens with *wa-qāla fī mawḍi‘ ākhar*. After that, the voice of Ibn Rashīq resumes and this is marked by *qāla ṣāḥib al-kitāb*.

¹⁰¹² Lane, *Lexicon*, 2494.

¹⁰¹³ *Ibid.*, 606.

redness¹⁰¹⁴) can really be alike. Regardless of the reasoning behind it, both understandings lead to the same result: the two things that are likened to one another in the second type of *tashbīh* are not *really* alike.

Some modern philosophers have also distinguished between literal statements of similarity and figurative (or non-literal or metaphorical) ones, the latter comprising of metaphors and similes.¹⁰¹⁵ The vast majority of modern accounts, however, tend to identify simile as a literal statement, especially vis-à-vis metaphor.¹⁰¹⁶ Since this debate is not unknown in modern research, I think we are justified in appropriating the modern terms for this discussion. Hence, *tashbīh* as a literary device in the context of those medieval theorists who view it as *majāz* may be appropriately rendered as ‘figurative comparison’.¹⁰¹⁷

Other literary theorists in the Arabic tradition have preserved a distinction between two types of similarity statements, not least of which is Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn himself in his early work, the

¹⁰¹⁴ The genus, in other words, must be identical, even in the case of attributes like redness. Thus, al-Aṣma’ī’s *tashbīh taḥqīq’alā l-taḥqīq* would not include the resemblance of a red flower to red lips, since it is not the same ‘genus’ of redness. The philosophical-linguistic category that encompasses attributes that ‘differ’ depending on the species/genus at hand is termed *tashkīk* (the ‘whiteness’ of a person is not like the ‘whiteness’ of snow, the ‘existence’ of a person is not like the ‘existence’ of God, etc.). On *tashkīk* as a reference to concepts that apply to entities unequally (or in varying degrees: “by modulation”) see Alexander Treiger, “Avicenna’s Notion of Transcendental Modulation of Existence (*Tashkīk al-Wujūd, Analogia Entis*) and its Greek and Arabic Sources,” in Felicitas Opwis and David Reisman (eds.), *Islamic Philosophy, Science, Culture and Religion: Studies in Honor of Dimitri Gutas*, Leiden: Brill, 2012, 327-63.

¹⁰¹⁵ See the works of Tversky, Ortony and Fogelin quoted above.

¹⁰¹⁶ See the discussion in Fogelin, *Figuratively Speaking*, 33-66 (ch. 4). One criterion that is raised for determining the nature of the similarity statement lies in the principle of reversibility or symmetry: if the similarity claim is reversible (“If *a* is like *b*, then *b* is like *a*”), then it is a literal one; if it is not reversible (“*A lion is like a man”), then it is figurative (but both Fogelin, *Figuratively Speaking*, 61, and Ortony, “Beyond Literal Similarity,” 171, recognize that even literal claims of similarity can be asymmetrical). Note that in the Arabic tradition, figurative claims of similarity can be symmetrical: this is the category called *al-tard wa-l-‘aks* (or sometimes simply ‘*aks*’), when the moon is compared to the face of the patron rather than vice versa! (Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn discusses it in *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 158).

¹⁰¹⁷ The term ‘figurative comparison’ as a reference to both metaphor and simile is used most consistently by Fogelin.

Jāmi ‘.¹⁰¹⁸ There Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn combines the various early arguments into one, identifying the complete comparison (a comparison of all aspects) as *ḥaqīqa* and the partial comparison (one aspect) as *majāz*, saying that the latter is true (*ṣawāb*) only in terms of customary usage (‘*urf*).¹⁰¹⁹ This implies that he would take a statement such as “Zayd is like a lion” to be untrue.¹⁰²⁰ In the *Mathal* he does not repeat this passage but rather takes it for granted that *tashbīh* is part of figurative speech. Indeed, in Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s initial classification, *majāz* encompasses only two categories, the first being *tawassu* ‘ and the second – *tashbīh*. The chapter devoted to *tashbīh* includes, as we have seen, cases of ordinary predicative metaphors as well as illustrative analogies, but numerous examples are simple similes, and whether or not the particle of comparison (*ka-*, *ka-anna*) appears in any of the above seems to be irrelevant for the author.¹⁰²¹ Much of the chapter is devoted to ‘psychological’ aspects of similarity claims, such as comparing physical objects to physical objects, mental concepts to objects, mental concepts to concepts, etc. These discussions have been common since the early works of literary theory and

¹⁰¹⁸ *Al-Jāmi* ‘ *al-kabīr*, 90. Another theorist in whose work we find this distinction is al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī (fl. ≤ 409/1018) in his unpublished *Kitāb min kalām al-Rāghib fī l-badī* ‘; see Alexander Key, “Language and Literature in al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī,” in Bruno de Nicola, Yonatan Mendel and Husain Qutbuḍḍīn (eds.), *Reflections on Knowledge and Language in Middle Eastern Societies*, Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2010, 32-62 here: 54 (but note, with regards to fn. 80, that this is not the distinction made by al-Jurjānī). Al-Rāghib also distinguishes between *tjāz* in the realm of *ḥaqīqa* and *tjāz* in the realm of *balāgha* (ibid.). Qudāma takes a literalist’s approach, but his account (*Naqd*, 55-56) is undeniably tied to the distinction between two types of similarity claims. For a later occurrence see Ibn Abī al-Iṣba ‘, *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, 159, 457; he later implicitly renounces this view in *Badī ‘ al-Qur ‘ān*, 58, where he simply speaks of “the technical *tashbīh* [in literary theory]” (*al-tashbīh al-ṣinā ‘ī*).

¹⁰¹⁹ For a full quotation and discussion see §5.4 (including the correction of ‘*arab* to ‘*urf* in *al-Jāmi* ‘ *al-kabīr*, 90).

¹⁰²⁰ The sentence he adduces here is “Zayd is a lion” (a *tashbīh*), not “Zayd is like a lion” (ibid. and §5.4). But cf. the discussion in *al-Mathal al-sā ‘ir* 2: 167-70, under the chapter of *tajrīd* (here: change in grammatical person) and within a reply to Abū ‘Alī al-Fārisī, where Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does exhibit a literalist’s approach when he takes the difference between the courage of the lion and the courage of a person to simply be a matter of degree. This would imply that the real reason “Zayd is not like a lion” is that the word “like” itself denotes identity (cf. the *shibh/mithl* discussion in fn. 1002) rather than similarity. This echoes the two approaches we saw in the ‘*Umda*.

¹⁰²¹ *Al-Mathal al-sā ‘ir* 2: 133-53. See, specifically, pp. 140-41, where a *tashbīh* by al-Buḥturī is compared with a *tashbīh* by Ibn al-Rūmī. That the first contains the particle *ka-* and the second does not is simply irrelevant to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s assessment of those figurative comparisons.

have received much attention in Abu Deeb's study of imagery in al-Jurjānī, and elsewhere.¹⁰²²

Summing Up

Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's primary understanding of *majāz* within two components, fictional ascription (*tawassu'*) and figurative comparison (*tashbīh*), is an innovation in classical Arabic literary theory. It reflects his basic conception of *majāz* as speech that is not semantically true: foxes do not talk; Zayd is not really like a lion. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn then concedes and goes on to recognize *isti'āra* as an additional category of *majāz*, but his initial reluctance signals that *isti'āra* is indeed separate from his understanding of *tawassu'* and *tashbīh*, as it is the only category of *majāz* (and within it *kināya*) that is based on linguistic knowledge. The so-called word shifts that occur in dead poetic metaphors and euphemisms (*isti'āra* and *kināya*) are not typically found in *tawassu'* and *tashbīh*. Technically speaking, one could propose that *ka-* 'like' can be used either literally (literal similarity statements) or figuratively (figurative similarity statements), such that a word shift would occur on the level of the particle of similitude – but this is not an argument that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn makes (or any other Arabic theorist I am aware of, for that matter). The figurativeness lies in extralinguistic knowledge rather than knowledge about words. (It is noteworthy in this context that Ḍiyā' al-Dīn does not treat metonymies, which are deeply rooted in the knowledge of words.) A more important difference between Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's conception of *tawassu'*-*tashbīh* and *isti'āra-kināya* is that the latter reflect dead usage in the lexicon and in poetry/literary prose, including the hackneyed metaphors, whereas the former are continually created by the composer

¹⁰²² Abu Deeb, *Al-Jurjānī's Theory of Poetic Imagery*, esp. chs. 3 and 7. This aspect has been discussed in the context of wonder in Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 91-135. The two types of comparison attributed to al-Jurjānī revolve around the process of discovery and the unusualness of the image. For a detailed account on al-Sakkākī's treatment of *tashbīh* from a 'psychological' perspective see William Smyth, "Some Quick Rules Ut Pictura Poesis: The Rules for Simile in *Miftāh al-'Ulūm*," *Oriens* 33 (1992), 215-229. Early treatments of the subject in Arabic literary theory (before al-Jurjānī) include Ibn Ṭabāṭabā, *Iyār*, 10-11, 17-31; al-Rummānī, *al-Nukat*, 74-75; al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī, *al-Wasāṭa*, 471 ff.; Qudāma, *Naqd*, 55-63 (in his comments on *shawāhid*); Ibn Wahb, *al-Burhān*, 130-31.

of speech. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's primary categorization of *majāz* into *tawassu'* and *tashbīh* should be viewed in light of his practical occupation with literary composition.

That *majāz* is primarily understood by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn as a statement that is untrue and not as a figurative substitution of a word is implicit in his work. In the *Jāmi'* he comes close to stating this explicitly, with his comment regarding the sentence "Zayd is a lion" (a *tashbīh* with no particle of similitude) that Zayd is not really (‘*alā l-ḥaqīqa*) a lion. Here *ḥaqīqa* is used in an extralinguistic sense, as a reference to reality and truth. Juxtaposed with this sense of *ḥaqīqa*, the term *majāz* would readily refer to that which does not occur in reality, rather than a figurative understanding of the word 'lion'.

While Ḍiyā' al-Dīn develops a new categorization scheme for *majāz* in the *Mathal*, his basic thinking about *majāz* is not very different from the one espoused in the *Jāmi'*, not least of which because *tashbīh* is recognized already there as a type of *majāz*. In doing so Ḍiyā' al-Dīn displays continuity with early writings on literary theory (pre-Jurjānī) as well as with writings within the philosophical poetical tradition.

5.2. A Unique Commentary on al-Jurjānī: Ibn al-Zamlakānī

Due to the predominance of syntactic matters in the *Tibyān*, it is perhaps not surprising that the treatment of *majāz* in Ibn al-Zamlakānī's work is rather brief. One comment about the meaning of *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* leads to a brief chapter on the categories of *majāz*: *kināya* 'periphrasis', *isti'āra* 'metaphor' and *tamthīl* 'metaphorical exemplification', in that order.¹⁰²³ Most of the attention is devoted to periphrasis – a category differentiated by al-Jurjānī from *majāz*¹⁰²⁴ – and to metaphor.

The chapter is situated at the very beginning of the *Tibyān*, as it opens the study of *dalālāt ifrādiyya* 'single-word signification'. None of the *majāz* examples or categories display single words, and this raises the question of the rationale behind treating the topic in this particular context. Indeed, it is one of the objections raised by Ibn 'Amīra in his 'refutation' of the work. It is clear, nevertheless, that Ibn al-Zamlakānī stands behind this placement since he repeats it later on in the work, saying that excellence in periphrasis, metaphorical exemplification, and anything displaying *majāz wa-tawassu* 'goes back to the single word (*al-lafẓ al-mufrad*).¹⁰²⁵ What Ibn al-Zamlakānī has in mind here is that the study of periphrasis and metaphors rests on lexicographical knowledge (essentially, a study of single words), whereas other issues rest on grammatical, specifically syntactic, knowledge. To corroborate this understanding, one might be reminded of the prerequisites that Ibn al-Zamlakānī posits to the study of 'ilm al-bayān, namely, lexicography (*luḡha*) and syntax (*i'rāb*).¹⁰²⁶ Since most of his studies are functional-grammatical in essence, it is quite apparent that for the study of *majāz*

¹⁰²³ *Al-Tibyān*, 37-48.

¹⁰²⁴ Al-Jurjānī, *Dalā'il*, 66-67 and more explicitly, al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 272 and al-Sakkākī, *Miftāh*, 403.

¹⁰²⁵ *Al-Tibyān*, 159. This is drawn directly from *Dalā'il*, 429-30.

¹⁰²⁶ *Al-Tibyān*, 33.

syntax is simply irrelevant, hence the appeal to lexicography. The connection of *majāz* to the study of *lughā* is apparent in the works of Ibn Jinnī (d. 392/1001) and Ibn Fāris (d. 395/1004), as channeled into the major later lexicological compendium by al-Suyūṭī (d. 911/1505), *al-Muzhir*. Here the claim is made, as it is in parallel works on legal theory (*uṣūl al-fiqh*), that knowledge of *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* rests in the hands of the lexicographers (*ahl al-lughā*) (and see Chapter 5 Preliminaries).¹⁰²⁷

Several additional comments pertaining to *majāz* are scattered elsewhere in the work, most importantly, under the chapter of *majāz isnādī* ‘*majāz* on the level of predication’, a notion developed by al-Jurjānī (later known as *majāz ‘aqlī*).¹⁰²⁸ Here Ibn al-Zamlakānī recognizes the existence of single-word *majāz* (*majāz ifrādī*, later known as *majāz lughawī*), although only in the *Burhān* does he devote an entire section (albeit brief) to the topic. There, the examples of *majāz ifrādī* reveal that we are dealing with metonymies, although one subclass of dead metaphors also occurs.¹⁰²⁹ Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s understanding of *majāz isnādī* has some repercussions for our understanding of his notion of metaphor that, interestingly, reveal a debate arising already in al-Jurjānī’s thought. This will be discussed below. The other discussions in which the topic of *majāz* comes up are under a literary device termed *tamthīl*, in this context: ‘conceptual comparison’; under the ways of sentence indication (*dalālat al-kalām*); and under

¹⁰²⁷ ‘Abd al-Raḥmān Jalāl al-Dīn al-Suyūṭī, *al-Muzhir fī ‘ulūm al-lughā wa-anwā‘ihā*, eds. Muḥammad Aḥmad Jād al-Mawlā Bek, Muḥammad Abū al-Faḍl Ibrāhīm and ‘Alī Muḥammad al-Bajāwī, 2 vols., 3rd ed., Cairo: Maktabat al-Ḥaram li-l-Turāth, n.d., 1: 362; al-Āmidī, *al-Iḥkām* 1: 45, 61-62; Gleave, *Islam and Literalism*, 114. Not surprisingly, there were backlashes to this view even among early scholars who were unwilling to accept the lexicographers’ authority on such matters (ibid.). By lexicology we mean the theory behind lexicography (see §3.1). It must be said that the other chapters within the *dalālat ifrādiyya* are also under the purview of the lexicographers besides, perhaps, the discussions of the verb and noun in the position of the predicate (*al-Tibyān*, 49-54).

¹⁰²⁸ *Al-Tibyān*, 106-108.

¹⁰²⁹ *Al-Burhān*, 102-104. ‘Naming a thing by the name of that which resembles it’ is exemplified by naming a brave person ‘lion’ and a stupid person ‘ass’. On treating ‘lion’ and ‘ass’ as dead metaphors see Chapter 5 Preliminaries.

the discussion of eloquence (*faṣāḥa*).¹⁰³⁰

What is most striking about Ibn al-Zamlakānī's treatment is that while the opening chapter dealing with *kināya-isti'āra-tamthīl* is titled *fī al-ḥaqīqa wa-l-majāz*, it is not the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* pair that underpins the discussion, but rather the terms *zāhir* 'surface level; apparent [meaning]' and *ghayr al-zāhir* 'non-surface level; non-apparent [meaning]'. The chapter opens with a statement that could have just as well done without these terms, and yet, they supersede the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dyad:

al-bābu l-awwalu fī l-ḥaqīqati wa-l-majāzi fa-naqūlu l-lafzu immā an yurāda bihi zahiruhu fī dhālika l-iṣṭilāḥi wa-huwa ka-l-asadi idhā urīda bihi l-ḥayawānu l-muftarisu aw ghayru zāhirihi wa-huwa l-majāzu thumma l-majāzu madāruhu l-a'ammu 'alā aqsāmin thalāthatin' l-kināyati wa-l-isti'ārati wa-l-tamthīl

Chapter one, on literal and figurative speech. What is meant by a verbal expression is either its surface meaning in that [particular linguistic] convention, and that is like 'lion' if what is meant by it is the beast of prey, or its non-surface meaning, and that is figurative speech. Now figurative speech broadly revolves around three categories: periphrasis, metaphor and metaphorical exemplification (or illustrative analogy by way of metaphor) [...].¹⁰³¹

We say that Ibn al-Zamlakānī could have done without the *zāhir-ghayr zāhir* terminology because in many of the parallel texts we come across, we essentially find the same argument using only the terms *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz*: the notion of linguistic convention (*iṣṭilāḥ*) is associated with the literal/figurative discourse; adducing the meaning of lion as a beast of prey is commonly done under the *ḥaqīqa* umbrella. In fact in the *Mujīd*, and probably as an effort to simplify the

¹⁰³⁰ *Al-Tibyān*, 108-109 (not to be confused with *tamthīl* in the sense of metaphorical exemplification), 154-55, and 159-62, respectively. In the context of pp. 154-55 it seems that Ibn al-Zamlakānī is using *kalām* in its grammatical sense of '[independent] sentence', rather than 'speech' in general. The discussion of 'conceptual comparison' in the *Mujīd* is done under the heading *tashbīh* rather than *tamthīl* (*al-Mujīd*, 124-25).

¹⁰³¹ *Al-Tibyān*, 37.

discussion, he minimizes the use of *ẓāhir* in favor of *ḥaqīqa*.¹⁰³² In the *Burhān* he adds a more legally-oriented presentation of *ḥaqīqa-majāz*, to the detriment of the notion of *ẓāhir*.¹⁰³³ The discourse of *ghayr ẓāhir* is taken directly from al-Jurjānī, in a passage in which the category of “intending the non-surface level” (*al-murād bih ghayr ẓāhiriḥ*) is presented as one encompassing both *kināya* and *majāz* (making clear that *kināya* and *majāz* should be distinguished from one another).¹⁰³⁴ In the discussion that ensues al-Jurjānī makes use of the notion of *ẓāhir* (not quite a technical term) by mentioning it alongside expressions such as *ẓāhir al-amr* and *ẓāhir al-lafz*,¹⁰³⁵ but by no means does this come at the expense of a theory of *majāz*. Unlike al-Jurjānī, Ibn al-Zamlakānī is equating *ghayr ẓāhir* with *majāz* (*ghayru ẓāhirihi wa-huwa l-majāz*),¹⁰³⁶ a process which results in: (i) identifying *kināya* as a category of *majāz*; and (ii) marginalizing the very relevance of *majāz* to *kināya*, *isti‘āra* and *tamthīl*.

It should be noted parenthetically that *ẓāhir* as a technical term is commonly associated with legal theoretical thinking and refers to an obvious, default meaning of a text, but it does not overlap with *ḥaqīqa*. In fact, it emerged as a category of speech that, on one hand is plainly understood, and on the other, could admit differing interpretations. Coincidentally or not, it was a Shāfi‘ī Ash‘arī – Ibn Fūrak (d. 406/1015) – who developed this notion into its evolved state (al-Jurjānī too was a Shāfi‘ī and Ash‘arī). According to David Vishanoff, the development reflected

¹⁰³² *Al-Mujīd*, 73. The simplified version runs as follows: *matā urīda bi-l-lafzi ẓāhiruhu fī dhālika l-iṣṭilāḥi fa-huwa l-ḥaqīqatu wa-illā fa-huwa l-majāzu* “Whenever what is meant by a verbal expression is its apparent meaning in that linguistic convention – it is literal speech; otherwise – it is figurative speech.”

¹⁰³³ *Al-Burhān*, 98-99.

¹⁰³⁴ *Dalā‘il*, 66.

¹⁰³⁵ *Ibid.*, 69, 71, 73.

¹⁰³⁶ *Al-Tibyān*, 37.

a marginalization of the category of *majāz* in several strands of legal theory.¹⁰³⁷ Whether al-Jurjānī's use of *zāhir* is in any way indebted to this type of legal thinking is a question for further research. On the face of it (no pun intended) it seems that al-Jurjānī's usage of *zāhir* is more akin to its non-technical instantiations in grammatical writings, as a reference to the prima facie meaning of a sentence.

The passage opening Ibn al-Zamlakānī's discussion is not the only manifestation of the lesser-relevance of *majāz* in his literary theory. In a later passage under the discussion of 'sentence indication' (*dalālat al-kalām*), he states that *kināya*, *isti'āra* and *tamthīl* constitute utterances that derive their meaning from what the meaning of the sentence logically indicates (*mustafād min dalālat ma'nāhu*) rather than what the meaning of the sentence plainly is (*mustafād minhu*). The latter is termed *ma'nā* and the former *ma'nā ma'nā l-lafz* 'the meaning [or implication] of the sentence meaning'. The term *majāz* is not used.¹⁰³⁸ Presenting *kināya-isti'āra-tamthīl* as instances of 'sentence indication' can be traced directly to al-Jurjānī's discussion of *ma'nā al-ma'nā*.¹⁰³⁹ The examples Ibn al-Zamlakānī discusses are solely cases of periphrasis, such as "late morning sleeper (f.)" (*na'ūm al-duḥā*), an expression meaning (*maqṣūd*) that a woman is living in luxury and has people who tend to her needs (therefore obviating her need to wake up early in the morning).¹⁰⁴⁰ Here the term *ḥaqīqa* is used, in that the

¹⁰³⁷ Vishanoff, *Formation*, 194-95, 208. According to him, it was the law-oriented theorists (as opposed to the theology-oriented theorists) who marginalized *majāz*. The *zāhir* meaning does not take into account the speaker's intention (al-Tahānawī, *Kashshāf* 3: 173). On the general legal sense of *zāhir* see also Ali, *Medieval Islamic Pragmatics*, 128-30; Gleave, *Islam and Literalism*, 49-52; El Shamsy, "Islam and Literalism (Review)," 151.

¹⁰³⁸ *Al-Tibyān*, 154-55.

¹⁰³⁹ *Dalā'il*, 262-63.

¹⁰⁴⁰ The cultural Bedouin context of this phrase is provided in some detail by al-Sakkākī in *Miftāḥ*, 402. The phrase comes from Imru' al-Qays' celebrated *mu'allaqa* (not typically used in other texts, except as a quotation of Imru' al-Qays). Judging by the dictionaries it is not clear whether it is an idiomatic expression: al-Zamakhsharī does not cite it in the *Asās*, but it does appear in *Lisān al-'arab* 6: 4584.

phrase “late morning sleeper” indicates from a literal perspective (*yadullu min jihat al-ḥaḳīqa*) the notion of “sleeping late in the morning” (*al-nawm fī l-duḥā*).¹⁰⁴¹ And yet the actual meaning of the phrase is presented under the headings *maqṣūd* and *murād* ‘intention’ rather than the *ḥaḳīqa*-counterpart, *majāz*, in spite of the fact that he explicitly subsumes such cases under *majāz* in the beginning of his work. Resorting to rubrics such as *ghayr zāhir* or *ma ‘nā ma ‘nā al-lafz* seems to alleviate an implicit problem Ibn al-Zamlakānī has with the notion of *majāz*, and especially with regards to *kināya* where all words are used literally and the predication is literal (in our example: she really does wake up late in the morning). To explore what exactly this ‘problem’ is, let us turn to the categories that Ibn al-Zamlakānī subsumes under *majāz*.

Kināya

The section on *kināya*, containing the largest number of poetic examples, is in fact a chapter on two types of periphrasis, following al-Jurjānī’s discussion in the *Dalā’il*.¹⁰⁴² Ibn al-Zamlakānī treats the two via his discussion of *shawāhid*;¹⁰⁴³ all but one of the examples (the last one) are

¹⁰⁴¹ *Al-Tibyān*, 154.

¹⁰⁴² *Dalā’il*, 306-14 (and see below). For the sociolinguistic significance of *kināya* see Erez Naaman’s “Women Who Cough,” which opens with a theoretical introduction on *kināya* as a rhetorical notion (pp. 469-73). The distinction al-Jurjānī draws between the two types of *kināya*, and its contextualization within his engagement with ‘predication’ (see below), has been largely overlooked in modern scholarship (including Dichy’s thorough entry, “Kināya,” and Pellat’s “Kināya”). Abu Deeb does mention “another type of *kināya*” (*Al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 166), but his discussion is solely from the perspective of the image and the associations it evokes (and see also pp. 76-80, 164-67). The two types (and later third) are cited in Ali Ahmad Hussein, *The Rhetorical Fabric of the Traditional Arabic Qaṣīda in Its Formative Stages: A Comparative Study of the Rhetoric in Two Traditional Poems by ‘Alqama l-Fahl and Bashshār b. Burd*, Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, vol. 98, Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 2015, 44-45 (he attends to the truthfulness of the expressions but reaches a different result; his translation of *kināya* here as ‘metonymy’ is confusing). Harb addresses some aspects of *ithbāt* with respect to *kināya* (*Poetic Marvels*, 201, 204) but only speaks of one category of *kināya*.

¹⁰⁴³ In other words, he does not start with a clear-cut “*al-kināya ‘alā ḍarbayn*” or the like. The way he does it is thus: after stating the archetypal examples of the type “having many ashes” (=category #1), Ibn al-Zamlakānī adduces a poetic line which is in fact an example of category #2, and then a second line which is an example of category #1. Then, with the following verse illustrations, he says whether they are equivalent to (*naẓīr*) the first example or to the second one. A “neater” presentation of the categories can be found in al-Sakkākī (three categories, see below) and in later standard rhetoric, channeled into Hussein, *Rhetorical Fabric* (see previous fn.) via Mehren.

derived from al-Jurjānī.¹⁰⁴⁴ The first category of *kināya* is equivalent to the example above, the archetype being “so-and-so has many ashes of the cooking-pot” (*fulān kathīr ramād al-qidr*) intending a large number of meals being served to guests (*wa-l-murād kathrat al-qirā*), and hence, a hospitable man.¹⁰⁴⁵ Three poetic examples of this case are adduced and they all play on the same theme of generosity. First is the anonymous (1st/8th cent.) [meter: *wāfir*]

wa-mā yaku fīyya min ‘aybin fa-innī
jabānu l-kalbi mahzūlu l-faṣīlī

“There is no blemish in me, for I am one whose
dog is a coward and whose young camel is emaciated”¹⁰⁴⁶

The explicit version would be (*wa-law ṣarraḥa la-qāla*), “it is known that my ‘front yard’ [or house] is frequented, my dog does not growl in the face of guests who visit me, and I slaughter she-camels and leave their youngsters thin [because they can no longer suckle from their mothers].”¹⁰⁴⁷ The second example is (probably) Nuṣayb’s (d. ca. 108/726) [meter: *mutaqārib*]

<i>li-‘Abdi l-‘Azīzi ‘alā qawmihī</i>	<i>wa-ghayrihimū minanun zāhirah</i>
<i>fa-bābuka as’halu abwābihim</i>	<i>wa-dāruka ma’hūlatun ‘āmirah</i>
<i>wa-kalbuka ānasu bi-l-zā’irīna</i>	<i>mina l-ummi bi-l-ibnati l-zā’irah</i>

“Abd al-Azīz (b. Marwān, Umayyad governor of Egypt) [bestows] on his people,
and on others, visible benevolences
For your door is the easiest among their doors [to open],
your house is frequented and prosperous,

¹⁰⁴⁴ *Dalā’il*, 306-14, sometimes with slight variations in the wording of the line or in its attribution. The *shāhid* cited in *al-Tibyān*, 41, is indeed absent from one of the mss. (editors’ fn. 2).

¹⁰⁴⁵ *Al-Tibyān*, 37.

¹⁰⁴⁶ The editors attribute the line to Ibn Harma (1st/8th cent.), but it does not occur in his *Dīwān* and all the other critics who quote it attribute it to an anonymous poet.

¹⁰⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, 38. The line is quoted anonymously. Strictly speaking, the *faṣīl* refers to a young camel that has just weaned from its mother, but it can also mean a young camel in general, weaned or not. See Lane, *Lexicon*, 2406-2407.

and your dog is more gladdened by visitors
than a mother is by her visiting daughter”

The third example is (probably) Ibn Harma’s (1st/8th cent.) [meter: *ṭawīl*]

yakādu idhā mā abšara l-ḍayfa muqbilan
yukallimuhū min ḥubbihī wa-hwa a‘jamū

When [the dog] noticed a guest coming near,
he would almost speak to [the guest] out of love for him, though he cannot speak”¹⁰⁴⁸

All word usages in these examples are literal ones, and the propositions expressed therein – exaggerated, to be sure – could also be taken literally. That is, dogs that are exposed to many visitors are indeed more amicable to people than dogs that are not. Hospitable people who host many guests do indeed slaughter more camels. But a non-literal meaning of these propositions is also possible if one assumes, for instance, that these generous people were not in possession of dogs to begin with!¹⁰⁴⁹

There is reason to believe that Ibn al-Zamlakānī did not, in fact, take such propositions as literally true, and this can be deduced from the second type of *kināya* presented in the chapter. Here a certain characteristic is attributed not directly to the person, but (usually) to an imagined entity that is metonymically connected to that person. Examples include (I am citing four out of the ten adduced) Ziyād al-A‘jam’s (d. ca. 100/718) [meter: *kāmil*]

inna l-samāḥata wa-l-murū‘ata wa-l-nadā

¹⁰⁴⁸ Ibid., 39. The last line, according to the editors, is either by Ibn Harma or al-Nābigha al-Ja’dī (the early critics attribute it to the former).

¹⁰⁴⁹ Cf. Larkin, *Theology*, 87; Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 201; Hussein, *Rhetorical Fabric*, 45. Al-Jurjānī himself is ambiguous here (*Dalā‘il*, 66): he does not say explicitly that the expression of the *kināya* is true on a literal level, but because he uses the phrases *ridfuhu fī l-wujūd* “its logical consequence in existence [reality?]” and *min sha‘nihi an yardafahu fī l-wujūdi wa-an yakūna idhā kāna* “it is its nature to logically follow it in existence, and to take place if that takes place,” one assumes that he views it as an actual reflection of reality. One wonders how Ibn al-Zamlakānī read this passage, in light of his views (below).

fī qubbatin ḍuribat ‘alā -Bni l-Ḥashrajī

“Generosity, virtue and liberality are
in a round tent pitched over Ibn al-Ḥashraj”;¹⁰⁵⁰

Yazīd b. al-Ḥakam’s (d. ca. 102/720) [meter: *munṣariḥ*]

*aṣḥaba fī qaydika l-samāhatu wa-l-maj
-du wa-faḍlu l-ṣalāḥi wa-l-ḥasabī*

“Generosity, nobility, excellence, rightness and good conduct
are [bound] in your shackle”;

the more curious (*gharāba*) case such as al-Buḥturī’s [meter: *kāmil*]

*a-wa-mā ra ‘ayta l-majda alqā raḥlahū
fī Āli Ṭalḥata thumma lam yataḥawwalī*

“Did you not see [how] Nobility unloaded its camel’s saddle [i.e. stayed]
among the people of Ṭalḥa, then did not go away?!”

and this anonymous segment, which represents a “wondrous type” (*fann gharīb*) of the category
[meter: *ṭawīl*] (“said with regards to the Barmakids”)

*sa ‘altu l-nadā wa-l-jūda mā lī arākumā
tabaddaltumā dhullan bi-‘izzin mu ‘abbadī
wa-mā bālu rukni l-majdi amsā muhaddaman
fa-qālā uṣibnā bi-Bni Yahyā Muḥammadī
fa-qultu fa-hallā muttumā ‘inda mawtihi
wa-qad kuntumā ‘abdayhi fī kulli mashhadī
fa-qālā aqamnā kay nu ‘azzā bi-faqdihi
masāfata yawmin thumma natlūhu fī ghadī*

“I asked Generosity and Liberality, *why is it I see you’ve*
taken lowliness in exchange for eternal high rank?
and why is it that the pillar of nobility got torn down?

They said, *we were afflicted by (the death of) Ibn Yahyā Muḥammad*

¹⁰⁵⁰ Translation adopted from Naaman, “Women Who Cough,” 469 (with minor changes).

I said, *but did you not die along with his death?*
for you had been his servants at every assembly
 They said, *we stuck around so that we'd be consoled by [reflecting upon] his loss*
*for a stretch of one day, then we'll follow him the next day*¹⁰⁵¹

In all of the examples above, the attribute (*ṣifa*) that is predicated or asserted (*ithbāt*) of the patron is said to reside not within the person itself, but next to him: in a tent pitched over him, in his shackle, or as a personified entity following him around (this last type being ‘strange’ and ‘wondrous’). It is not difficult to see that this subcategory within *kināya* is more in line with metaphor than it is with the first subcategory because – unlike the “late morning sleeper” – the propositions expressed therein are evidently false: generosity is not really in a tent or shackle, let alone an entity that can speak or “take a load off.” Ibn al-Zamlakānī does not spell out how the second subcategory of *kināya* differs from *isti‘āra* (which we will discuss shortly), a category that also contains false propositions. We may surmise nevertheless that it is because a proposition in the former is based on contiguity whereas a proposition in the latter is based on similarity.¹⁰⁵²

¹⁰⁵¹ For the poetic examples above see *al-Tibyān*, 38-41. Regarding the last poetic segment, see a similar two-liner by Abū Nuwās dedicated to Yahyā b. Khālid (*Dīwān* 1: 339). For uses of this motif by other poets, including al-Mutanabbī, see Usāma b. Munqidh, *al-Badī‘*, 236-37 (within the section on “intertextuality”: *bāb al-sābiq wa-l-lāḥiq wa-l-tadāwul wa-l-tanāwul*, pp. 222-49). The Barmakids were known – at least as a literary conceit – for their exceeding generosity (e.g., Antonella Gheresetti, “An Unpublished Anthology of the Mamlūk Period on Generosity and Generous Men,” *Mamluk Studies Review* 13 [2009], 107-20, here: 116). The idea in this passage is that now that Ibn Yahyā Muḥammad has died, no instance of generosity and liberality can live up to what it was through him, thus those qualities are better off (i.e., they would get “eternal high rank”) by dying along with him.

¹⁰⁵² This distinction is somewhat alluded to in *al-Burhān*, 125, where Ibn al-Zamlakānī says that the explicit particle of comparison (*ka-*) cannot be reconstructed in the case of *kināya*. It is probably due to such contiguous relations that *kināya* is often still translated in modern scholarship as ‘metonymy’. For recent examples see Pierre Larcher, “Pragmatics,” *Oxford Handbook of Arabic Linguistics*, 196-97; Ali Ahmad Hussein, “The Rhetoric of Hudhalī Wine Poetry,” *Oriens* 43 (2015), 1-53, here: 28-29 (also in his new *Rhetorical Fabric*); and Dichy, “Kināya.” Cf. Naaman, “Women Who Cough,” 471-72. Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 201 fn. 643, recognizes that *kināya* does not mean ‘metonymy’ in al-Jurjānī’s work, but elsewhere she translates *kināya* as metonymy (e.g., 49, 69, 81-82, 87, 234; perhaps in the philosophical poetical context *kināya* does mean ‘metonymy’ – it is not explained what the philosophers mean by it). According to Bauer (“Arabische Kultur,” *Rhetorik*, 295), *kināya* overlaps with the “less precisely defined categories” of circumlocution, metonymy and synecdoche. Strictly speaking, metonymy is a single-word affair of the type “the pen” for “writing” or “the press” for “journalism,” whereas the examples above are more aligned with periphrasis or circumlocution, i.e., a longer textual unit reflecting a roundabout way of

Also left unanswered is why the two subcategories are subsumed together under *kināya* in the first place. In the corresponding deliberation in the *Dalā`il*, al-Jurjānī provides an illuminating explanation, where he draws a distinction between the *ṣifa* and *ithbāt al-ṣifa*.¹⁰⁵³ As he sees it, “just as they resort to alluding and hinting (*kināya wa-ta`rīd*, also *ramz* and *ishāra*) with regards to the very attribute (*nafs al-ṣifa*), likewise they do so with regards to affirming (/asserting/predicating) that attribute (*ithbāt al-ṣifa*) [of a person].”¹⁰⁵⁴ In “late morning sleeper” or “having an emaciated young camel” what is alluded to is the very attribute itself: rich, generous. In addition to *ṣifa* it is also termed *wasf* and *ma`nā*.¹⁰⁵⁵ In “generosity is in a tent/shackle, etc.” the very attribute is stated explicitly (“generosity”) but the person to whom it is attributed is alluded to in a roundabout way. It is two sides of the same coin: in attributing B to A, either B is expressed indirectly or A is expressed indirectly (or more precisely, the attribution to A).¹⁰⁵⁶ This is an important aspect of al-Jurjānī’s conception of *kināya* (a topic not treated in

expression. See the entries “metonymy” and “periphrasis” in Thomas O. Sloane (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Rhetoric*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2001 and Baldick, *The Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms*. In the Arabic works there is usually a clear distinction between utterances of the periphrastic *kināya* type and regular metonymies, which may be discussed under the heading *majāz* or the more technical *majāz ifrādī/mursal* (or, in the old works like that of Ibn Durayd, *isti`āra*). It is true that in non-technical usage, especially in earlier works, we sometimes come across the expression “X *kināya`an* Y” in the sense of metonymy (e.g., al-Sharīf al-Raḍī, *Talkhīṣ al-bayān fī majāzāt al-Qur`ān*, 353, with reference to Q 74:4 *wa-thiyābaka fa-tahhir*, if “clothes” are taken as a metonym for the person wearing them).

¹⁰⁵³ *Dalā`il*, 306-14.

¹⁰⁵⁴ An idiomatic rendering of [...] *kamā yaṣna`ūna fī nafsi l-ṣifati bi-an yadhhabū bihā madhhaba l-kināyati wa-l-ta`rīdi ka-dhālika yadhhabūna fī ithbāti l-ṣifati hādihā l-madhhaba*; *Dalā`il*, 306. The phrase *min jānib al-ta`rīd wa-l-kināya wa-l-ramz wa-l-ishāra* occurs in *ibid.*, 306.9-10. One is tempted to conclude that in al-Jurjānī’s use, *kināya* is not quite a technical term, and cf. al-Jāhīz’s use of the phrase *al-kināya wa-l-ta`rīd* in his *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* as quoted in Dichy, “Kināya”.

¹⁰⁵⁵ E.g., *Dalā`il*, 306.12-13, 307.1, 307.9-10, 312.8. When al-Jurjānī first introduces the notion of *kināya* (*ibid.*, 66), he speaks of *ithbāt ma`nan min al-ma`anī* (not predicating the attribute of someone but simply asserting its existence), thus *ma`nā* is used synonymously with *ṣifa*. This might explain Harb’s description of *kināya* as “words that can be employed to affirm another statement” rather than a statement in and of itself (*Poetic Marvels*, 204).

¹⁰⁵⁶ Al-Sakkākī develops this distinction even further. He sees the connection between B and A as a matter of *takhṣiṣ* ‘specification’ (making a certain attribute specific to someone) that can manifest itself not only via predication (*isnād*) but also through annexation (*idāfa*); see *Miftāḥ*, 407-408 (he also identifies a third subtype of *kināya*, p. 404).

the *Asrār*) as it reveals his underlying interest in logical predication (*ithbāt*), particularly of an attribute, which one might say underpins many of his other discussions, not least of which is the basic notion of *isti'āra* (predicating “lion” of a person, for “brave”).¹⁰⁵⁷

Isti'āra as Majāz Isnādī

While the reader of Ibn al-Zamlakānī may be oblivious to the underlying preoccupation with predication present in the *Dalā'il*, the discussion of *isti'āra* reveals that the notion of *majāz* here is logical (on the level of predication) rather than lexical. The chapter opens with an enumeration of two types of *isti'āra*: one in which something is made into something else and one in which something is made to own something else.¹⁰⁵⁸ “I saw a lion” is an example of the first (the said person was “made into” a lion), and for the second, the famous hemistich by Labīd (d. 41/661) is adduced, “when the reins of [the morning] were in the hand of the north wind” (the north wind is “made to own” a hand). The type “I saw a lion” is then carefully differentiated from the more explicit “Zayd is a lion,” in which the topic (Zayd) is mentioned, and hence reflects a “comparison/simile by way of exaggeration,” not a metaphor (a common distinction from the very early critical works). The crux of the distinction lies in the degree to which something is ‘confirmed’ or ‘asserted’ in the mind of the recipient: *nazala manzilat al-shay' al-thābit alladhī lam tabqa lahu ḥāja ilā l-akhdh fī ithbātīhi* “is in the status of a confirmed/established thing

¹⁰⁵⁷ This requires further research, but see *Dalā'il*, 71-73, 431-32, 438-42 for the importance of *ithbāt* and *khavar* within the poetic context of *kināya*, *isti'āra* and *tamthīl* (Larkin recognizes in passing the focus on *ithbāt* rather than the *muthbat* in the context of *majāz* in *Theology*, 55, and Harb goes into further detail in *Poetic Marvels*, 190 ff., with some interesting results, especially with regards to *tashbīh/tamthīl*). Al-Jurjānī's other concerns with predication are of a more grammatical nature. See, for instance, the discussion on the morphosemantic distinction between predicating an imperfect verb (of the *yaf'alu* form) of a topic versus predicating a participle (of the *fā'il* form), in terms of gradation of the attribute; *Dalā'il*, 173-77. His more famous treatment of predication includes the functional distinction between a definite and indefinite predicate (ibid., 177 ff. [the chapter starting on p. 173 is titled *al-qawl 'alā furūq fī al-khavar*]). This is an important and overlooked tangent point between al-Jurjānī's grammatical theory and his poetics (with theological implications in the background).

¹⁰⁵⁸ *Al-Tibyān*, 41-42. This distinction will be elaborated upon when we discuss Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī.

which is in no need of affirmation.” In “I saw a lion,” Zayd is being asserted as a lion to such a degree that the identity is immediate (*min awwal wahla*); conversely, in “Zayd is a lion” the identity is spoon-fed, as the utterance/speaker “instructs you of/makes you understand that an essence of a human-being is claimed to be an essence of a lion” (*afhamaka ḥaqīqata insāninī - ddu ‘iya annahā ḥaqīqatu asadin*).¹⁰⁵⁹ It is once again the notion of *ithbāt* that is at the crux of the argument, but this time it is acknowledged that there are degrees in the affirmation of an identity. Paradoxically, when the thing being identified as something else is not mentioned, the identity is stronger, since it leaves no trace of a false attribution.

Interestingly, the poetic examples of *isti ‘āra* – only three are adduced – reflect a different type of metaphor, one in line with the type “Zayd is a lion,” because in all three cases the topic of comparison is stated. Ibn al-Zamlakānī provides them as examples of eloquent metaphors (*balīgh al-isti ‘āra*).¹⁰⁶⁰ In doing this he is directly following al-Jurjānī, who adduced them when discussing unique metaphors (*al-khāṣṣī al-nādir*) as opposed to everyday hackneyed ones (*al-‘ammī al-mubtadhal*).¹⁰⁶¹ Later in the *Burhān*, however, Ibn al-Zamlakānī recognizes the discrepancy and now presents those examples as cases “oscillating between metaphor and explicit simile” (*yataraddadu/dā’ir bayna l-isti ‘āra wa-ṣarīḥ al-tashbīh*).¹⁰⁶² (In the *Mujīd* no poetic examples are provided besides the archetypal metaphors.) The first example is the anonymous [meter: *basīṭ*]¹⁰⁶³

¹⁰⁵⁹ Ibid., 42.

¹⁰⁶⁰ Ibid., 42-43.

¹⁰⁶¹ *Dalā’il*, 74-78.

¹⁰⁶² *Al-Burhān*, 113-15. He is also embedding here al-Jurjānī’s notion of phantastic aetiology (though the term *takhyīl* is not used).

¹⁰⁶³ All three examples are from *al-Tibyān*, 42-43; cf. *Dalā’il*, 76-78.

al-yawmu yawmāni mudh ghuyyibta 'an baṣarī

naṣī fidā'uka mā dhanbī fa-a 'tadhirū

umsī wa-uṣbiḥu lā alqāka wā-ḥazanā

la-qad ta'annaqa fī makrūhiya l-qadarū

“[Each] day is two since you’ve been absent from my eye

My soul is your ransom; what is my sin so that I could give an excuse for it?

I go night and day not encountering you; O the grief!

Indeed Fate has found delight in my calamity [inflicted by him]¹⁰⁶⁴

The second is Ibn al-Mu‘tazz’s [meter: *tawīl*]

yunājīniya l-ikhlāfu min taḥti maṭliḥ

wa-takhtaṣimu l-āmālu wa-l-ya'su fī ṣadri

“False Promise is whispering [a secret] to me in its state of delaying [its fulfillment],

while Hopes and Despair are going at it in my breast”¹⁰⁶⁵

The third example is a segment “recited by al-Jāḥiẓ” [meter: *tawīl*]

la-qad kunta fī qawmin 'alayka aṣhiḥḥatin

bi-naṣsika illā anna mā ṭāḥa ṭā'ihū

yawaddūna law khāṭū 'alayka julūdahum

wa-lā yadfa'u l-mawta l-nufūsu l-shaḥā'ihū

[addressing himself:]

“You were among people miserly towards you of yourself (they would not let you go),

but whatever goes must be going

They wish they could sew their skins over you [so as to never let you go]

¹⁰⁶⁴ Literally *ghuyyiba 'an* means ‘to cause s.o. to be absent’. The indicative verbal mood in *fa-a 'tadhiru* is a poetic license for the subjunctive. For the common pausal form following the particle of lamentation *wā* see Wright, *Grammar* 2: 93. The text in *al-Tibyān*, 42, mistakenly has *wā-ḥarabā* (vocalizes by the editors *wa-āharabā*; correct in the *Dalā'il*). The phrases *lā alqāka* and *ta'annaqa fī makrūhī* could be a playful allusion to the phrase *laqiyahu bi-makrūh* ‘he did to him a thing disliked’ (Lane, *Lexicon*, suppl., 3012). The notion of Fate taking delight in afflicting calamities should also be understood in light of the phrase *makāriḥ al-dahr*.

¹⁰⁶⁵ For *ikhlāf* as the future-tense equivalent of *kadhib* (which is used with respect to the past) see Lane, *Lexicon*, 794. The phrase *min taḥti* literally means ‘under’. See ‘Abd Allāh b. Muḥammad al-Mu‘tazz bi-Allāh, *Dīwān ash'ār al-Amīr Abī 'Abbās*, ed. Muḥammad Badī' Sharīf, 2 vols., Cairo: Dār al-Ma'ārif, 1977-1978, 2: 259. The *Dār Ṣādir* edition, 232, has a rather different version for the first hemistich: *tujādhibunī l-aṭrāfu bi-l-waṣli wa-l-qilā* “My arms are pulling me in a tug of war between bond and hate.”

But [even] Miserly Souls cannot ward off death”¹⁰⁶⁶

In these lines all words are used according their literal meaning, besides perhaps the idiomatic ‘ransom’ in “your soul is my ransom.” Otherwise, the metaphors are instances of personification: fate finding delight in calamity; false promise whispering a secret; hope and despair struggling one another; miserly souls warding off death (hence they are capitalized above).

Do these cases conform in Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s mind to al-Jurjānī’s idea of *majāz fī l-ithbāt* (which he also terms *majāz ḥukmī* ‘*majāz* on the level of the proposition’)?¹⁰⁶⁷ Ibn al-Zamlakānī attends to this notion under the heading *majāz isnādī* ‘*majāz* on the level of predication’ (discussed under part II of his book) and it, indeed, seems inseparable from his idea of *isti’āra*. Following al-Jurjānī, it is said of this type,

*hādhā l-fannu dākhilun ‘alā l-nisbati lā ‘alā dhawāti l-kilami [sg. kalima] l-mufradati
wa-mithāluhu qawluka nahāruka ṣā’imun wa-layluka qā’imun wa-nāma laylī wa-tajallā
hammī fa-l-tajawwuzu fī ṣā’imun wa-qā’imun laysa min jihati dalālatihi l-ifrādiyyati wa-
lākin min jihati ijrā’ihimā khabarayni ‘alā l-nahāri wa-l-layli*

¹⁰⁶⁶ The poet is probably saying that he wishes to go fight and expose himself to danger, but his fellow tribesmen will not allow him, thereby alluding to Q 33:18-19, “God would surely know those of you who hinder, and those who say to their brothers, ‘Come to us’, and come to battle but little, being niggardly towards you.” The version in *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn* 1: 50 runs slightly different: *lawlā anna man tāḥa...* and *wa-hal yadfa’u...* The lines are attributed here to “al-Agharr *al-shā’ir*,” perhaps – as Hārūn notes – one of the two poets of the tribe Yashkur b. Wā’il called thus in Abū al-Qāsim al-Ḥasan b. Bishr al-Āmidī, *al-Mu’talif wa-l-mukhtalif fī asmā’ al-shu’arā’ wa-kunāhum wa-alqābihim wa-ansābihim wa-ba’d shi’rihim*, ed. F. Krenkow, reprint, Beirut: Dār al-Jīl, 1991, 48. Yet in another source, each line is attributed to a different poet, although the two lines are cited in succession (the second attribution within square brackets): the first to Muṭarrif b. Ja’wana al-Ḍabbī, the second to one al-M.shr.k (unvowelled) al-Mawṣilī; see al-Khālidiyyān (Abū Bakr b. Muḥammad al-Khālīdī and Abū ‘Uthmān Sa’īd b. Hishām al-Khālīdī), *al-Ashbāh wa-l-naẓā’ir min ash’ar al-mutaqaddimīn wa-l-Jāhiliyya wa-l-mukhaḍramīn*, ed. al-Sayyid Muḥammad Yūsuf, 2 vols., Cairo: Lajnat al-Ta’līf wa-l-Tarjama wa-l-Nashr, 1958, 1965, 2: 204.

¹⁰⁶⁷ Al-Jurjānī refers to this type of figurative speech in various ways; for *majāz ḥukmī* see, e.g., *Dalā’il*, 296, 298-99 (or *fī l-ḥukm* or *fī aḥkām*, recurring in *ibid.*, 293-301). In the *Asrār* we find *majāz fī l-ithbāt* recurring (e.g., *Asrār*, 342 ff.) and also *majāz min ṭarīq al-ma’nā wa-l-ma’qūl*, which Ritter translates as “trope in the domain of reason” (editor’s introduction, 24). Also the rare *majāz ‘aqlī* occurs (e.g., *Asrār*, 380), a term which would later become standard. In his later *Burhān*, Ibn al-Zamlakānī refers to it as *majāz ‘aqlī* (*al-Burhān*, 100).

This type enters upon the [level of] predicative relation, not the single words themselves, like saying “your day is fasting, your night is rising [for prayer]” [for: you are fasting in the day during Ramaḍān and praying at night] and “my night slept and my worry became manifest” [for: instead of sleeping at night, I was up with distress]. For the transgression in ‘fasting’ and ‘rising’ is not from the perspective of its single signification but rather from the perspective of making them act as predicates of ‘day’ and ‘night’.¹⁰⁶⁸

Then, surprisingly, when discussing the poetic illustrations, both aspects of Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s archetypal metaphor come to the surface: (1) the idea of an affirmation of identity; and (2) the ascription of an object to something else. Below are the poetic illustrations Ibn al-Zamlakānī provides for *majāz isnādī*, along with the comments that align them with his declared notion of *isti ‘āra*. Al-Mutanabbī’s well-known [meter: *wāfir*]

badat qamaran wa-mālat khūta bānin
wa-fāhat ‘anbaran wa-ranat ghazālā

“She appeared – a moon, leaned over – a delicate twig,
 let out a sweet scent – ambergris, and gazed – a gazelle”

[Identity: “[the poet] made her the very moon itself” (*ja ‘alahā ‘ayna l-qamar*). This is not equivalent to “she appeared moon-like” (*ḥadhf muḍāf taqdīruhu mithl*) because the resulting meaning would be less “grounded” (*aq ‘ad*)]¹⁰⁶⁹

Al-Khansā’s [meter: *basiṭ*]

tarta ‘u mā rata ‘at ḥattā idhā -ddakarāt
fa-innamā hiya iqbālun wa-idbārū

[said of a she-camel whose foal died:]

“She pastures as she pleases, until she becomes reminded of it,
 then she is nothing but a movement forward and backward”

¹⁰⁶⁸ *Al-Tibyān*, 106-107; cf. *Dalā’il* 293-303, 449-50.

¹⁰⁶⁹ *Al-Tibyān*, 107.

[Identity: “as if the she-camel in its entirety is the going forward and backward such that it’s as if she had embodied it” (*ka-anna l-nāqata bi-jumlatihā iqbālun wa-idbārūn ḥattā ka-annahā tajasammat minhā*)]¹⁰⁷⁰

The very line by Labīd presented at the outset of the *isti‘āra* discussion [meter: *kāmil*]

wa-ghadāti rīhin qad kashaftu wa-qirratin
idh aṣbaḥat bi-yadi l-shamāli zimāmuhā

“Many a cold and windy morning I went forth
When its reins were in the hand of the north wind”

[Ascription: “There is nothing there that can be claimed to be similar to the hand such that the hand would be an analogue of it, but rather it is imagination and fancy (*takhyīl wa-wahm*) of an existence of something [a topic, a substratum] for which that [the hand] was borrowed [...] the idea is that [the poet] likened the north wind in its handling (or directing) of the morning as it occurs in nature to a reins of a camel in his [the camel rider’s] hand, such that he handles it according to his will; when [the poet] meant that, he made a hand belong to the north wind (*ja‘ala li-l-shamāli yadan*) and reins over the morning.”]¹⁰⁷¹

And finally, the anonymous *rajaz* hemistich:

tasqīka kaffū l-layli ak‘usa l-karā
“The hand of night is giving you cups of sleep to drink”

[Ascription: “[the poet] gave ‘cups’ on loan to ‘sleep’ (*ista‘āra li-l-karā l-ak‘us*) [i.e., sleep is made to own ‘cups’] [...] when [the poet] made it [the night] be a cupbearer, then he made it own a hand (*ja‘ala lahu kaffan*).]”¹⁰⁷²

¹⁰⁷⁰ Ibid. I am avoiding the more idiomatic translation of Alan Jones’: “it runs forwards and backwards” in order to express that very idea of identity of which Ibn al-Zamlakānī is speaking (Alan Jones, *Early Arabic Poetry, Select Poems: Edition, Translation and Commentary*, 2nd ed., Reading: Ithaca Press, 2011, 136).

¹⁰⁷¹ *Al-Tibyān*, 107. I take *takhyīl wa-wahm* here as a hendiadys for the non-technical ‘fancy’. Heinrichs touches upon this non-technical sense of *takhyīl* in “*Takhyīl*,” 2.

¹⁰⁷² *Al-Tibyān*, 107-108. The version in *Dalā‘il*, 461, is *saqat-hu kaffū l-layli akwāsa l-karā*. The line is by Abū Nuwās (*Dīwān* 2: 300), from a hunting *urjūza*. The ‘vulgar’ *akwās* (from *kās*, for *ka’s*) appears as *ak‘us* in al-Qāḍī al-Jurjānī, *al-Wasāta*, 211.

This final example is then explicitly identified as a metaphor, and specifically a ‘groomed metaphor’ (*tarshīḥ al-isti‘āra*, see §5.5), based on the equation “the intoxication of sleep is like the intoxication of wine.” What Ibn al-Zamlakānī does not spell out is this: because the analogue is taken from the realm of wine, ‘cups’ were added to elaborate the metaphor from the analogue’s perspective (i.e., to “groom” the metaphor).¹⁰⁷³ He then provides another example of ‘cup borrowing’ (*isti‘ārat al-ka’s*), following al-Jurjānī, namely, [meter: *basīṭ*]

wa-qad saqā l-qawma ka’sa l-na’sati l-saharū

“Sleeplessness has given the people a cup of drowsiness to drink,”¹⁰⁷⁴

and it is once again assumed that the ‘cup’ has no substratum in the topic domain – hence, it may be taken literally. In sum, all the examples adduced under *majāz isnādī* are identical, structurally and semantically, to the cases discussed under Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s chapter on *isti‘āra*.

Although it is afforded only one paragraph in the *Tibyān*, the third category subsumed under *majāz – tamthīl* – also points to a logical basis of *majāz*. Ibn al-Zamlakānī presents it essentially as a metaphor (following al-Jurjānī), as he maintains, “It is *majāz* only if it comes in the manner of a metaphor (*‘alā ḥadd al-isti‘āra*).” The category of *tamthīl* – which, as we have seen in al-Jurjānī, refers to metaphorical exemplification or illustrative analogy (by way of metaphor) – is not exemplified by poetic illustrations. Instead, only archetypal sayings are adduced, such as “So-and-so puts one leg forward and the other one backward” (“said with regards to a hesitant man”), or “You are blowing on a non-fire” (“for someone who is doing

¹⁰⁷³ The case of *tarshīḥ al-isti‘āra* will be discussed in some detail under Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī. More information on it is provided by Ibn al-Zamlakānī in *al-Burhān*, 100-101. As far as I am aware it is absent from the work of al-Jurjānī. The generating mechanism of metaphors such as ‘hand of night giving cups of sleeps to drink’, in which the element ‘hand’ is semantically, though not poetically, redundant (the meaning would be the same if it were simply ‘night’ giving the cups, not the ‘hand’ of night) – is treated by Heinrichs in “Paired Metaphors,” 5 ff.

¹⁰⁷⁴ *Al-Tibyān*, 108; *Dalā’il*, 461. The line is by Abū Dahbal al-Jumaḥī in Abū Tammām’s *Ḥamāsa* (Abū ‘Alī Aḥmad b. Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan al-Marzūqī, *Sharḥ Dīwān al-Ḥamāsa*, eds. Aḥmad Amīn and ‘Abd al-Salām Hārūn, 2 vols., Beirut: Dār al-Jīl, 1991, 2: 1350).

something and not achieving the goal”). The explicit version, “In your hesitance you are like someone who puts one leg forward and another backward,” it is stated, would not be part of *majāz* (*lam yakun min bāb al-majāz*). We may conclude from this statement that it is the form of direct predication, or direct attribution, that stands at the basis of *tamthīl*, much like we saw with the identity-based metaphor.¹⁰⁷⁵ This statement also suggests, implicitly, that Ibn al-Zamlakānī followed al-Jurjānī in excluding *tashbīh*, or any sentence containing *ka-* and other particles of comparison, from the domain of *majāz* (cf. the stance of his younger contemporary, Ibn al-Naqīb, below).

Unlike the *shawāhid* of *isti‘āra* in which both topic and analogue were mentioned, in the case of *tamthīl* the topic is indeed not mentioned. Here the unexpressed topic is the attribute (or ‘action’) of being hesitant (or ineffective, in the second example). In this respect *tamthīl* is more in line with *kināya* (type #1):

So-and-so has many ashes → is generous

So-and-so puts one leg forward and the other one backward → is hesitant

Because *tamthīl* aligns with *kināya* (at least one subtype of it) with respect to expressing an attribute/action – the predicate of the sentence – in a roundabout way, it adds another rationale for viewing *kināya* and *tamthīl* as belonging to the same category. That category seems to be the extra-linguistic notion of *majāz*.

A Departure from al-Jurjānī’s Majāz fī l-Ithbāt

To corroborate Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s equation of *majāz* in literary theory as, essentially, *majāz isnādī*, it is useful to look at the later *Burhān*, where Ibn al-Zamlakānī all but says so explicitly.

¹⁰⁷⁵ For *tamthīl* see *al-Tibyān*, 44 and *Dalā’il*, 68-69. In the *Burhān* he enlarges the discussion (*al-Burhān*, 120-132) to include also a treatment of similarity (*tashbīh*).

Here, as already mentioned, the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* chapter is enlarged, and it now includes – in addition to definitions – a section devoted to ‘*majāz* in the single word’ (*majāz ifrādī*). The discussion is markedly *uṣūlī* in tone: all examples are Qur’ānic (or *ḥadīth*) and we even find an explicit reference to the *uṣūliyyūn*.¹⁰⁷⁶ The examples are primarily metonymies of the type ‘hand’ (*yad*) for ‘power’ (*qudra*) or ‘town’/‘caravan’ (*qarya*, *ṭr*) for ‘the people of the town/caravan’.¹⁰⁷⁷ Following this chapter is the triad *kināya-isti‘āra-tamthīl*, presented under the heading “[cases] in which the usage of *majāz* is predominant” (*fīmā yaghlibu -sti‘āra min al-majāz*).¹⁰⁷⁸ Since it appears immediately after *majāz ifrādī*, it is not a big leap to assume that those three categories are conceived of as *majāz isnādī*. And yet, he is reluctant to spell out this conception.¹⁰⁷⁹ The reluctance we find both here and earlier in the *Tibyān* reflects, what I believe to be Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s recognition that his implicit conception of *majāz* – statements that do not conform to reality – is at odds with the prevalent rejection of a notion like *kadhīb* in the domain of *majāz*.

As we conclude Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s treatment of *majāz*, it is important to stress that his interpretation stems solely from the *Dalā’il*, which reflects a later development in al-Jurjānī’s thinking (it was written after the *Asrār*).¹⁰⁸⁰ Whereas the *Asrār* was appended by a very long

¹⁰⁷⁶ *Al-Burhān*, 103. The section runs from p. 102 to p. 104.

¹⁰⁷⁷ *Ibid.*, 102-104. We also come across metonymies in verbs (or verbal dead metaphors), as in the first example *sāla l-wādī* ‘the river flowed’ for ‘came’ (*al-qābil*). The famous case of Q 12:82 *wa-s’ali l-qaryati llatī kunnā fihā wa-l-ṭra* is commonly interpreted in the sources as an elision (*ḥadhf*) of the first term of the construct (*ibid.*, 104). As we have seen (Chapter 5 Preliminaries, fn. 658), interpreting it as a metonymy or as deletion were common in the early sources. We will look at metonymies in more detail when we discuss Ibn al-Naqīb.

¹⁰⁷⁸ *Ibid.*, 105.

¹⁰⁷⁹ See *ibid.*, 119, where al-Khansā’ ’s line is adduced as a case of *majāz isnādī* “equivalent to” (*naẓīr*) metaphor.

¹⁰⁸⁰ And note too Larkin’s treatment of *majāz*, which relies almost entirely on the *Asrār* (*Theology*, 73). Her main concern, we might recall, is to contextualize al-Jurjānī’s work vis-à-vis the theological tradition and especially the work of ‘Abd al-Jabbār.

treatment of *majāz*, in the *Dalā'il* a full treatment of *majāz* is deemed by al-Jurjānī unnecessary, and comments about the concept are thus scant.¹⁰⁸¹ In the *Asrār*, al-Jurjānī in fact devotes attention to the very question of whether metaphors such as “I saw a lion” reflect *majāz* by means of the vocabulary of the language (lexical *majāz*) or *majāz* by means of reason (logical *majāz*). His conclusion is decidedly in support of the former view: although, he says, the person is claimed to be within the species of ‘lion’ and he is imagined as one of the lions, it is still the case – he maintains – that the resulting usage of the word *asad* here is not according to its original coinage since it is only the limited notion of ‘courageousness’ that is ultimately expressed, not the entirety of the lion’s features.¹⁰⁸² In the *Dalā'il* we find some indications that his view may have evolved to the opposite position: equating *isti'āra* with *kināya*, he says that the way to comprehend the former – like the latter – is via the *ma'qūl* (what is conceived in the mind by way of reason) and not the *lafẓ* (the wording itself).¹⁰⁸³ He also stressed the notion of metaphor as *iddi'ā* ‘making a claim’.¹⁰⁸⁴ But without knowledge of the *Asrār*, one is unaware that al-Jurjānī had already taken these ideas into account when reaching what was perhaps his

¹⁰⁸¹ *Dalā'il*, 66: “Discussion of that [*viz.*, *majāz*] can be long, and I already mentioned elsewhere the correct view; here I will limit myself to mentioning what is most common of it and apparent.” The mere fact that the treatment of *majāz* is relegated to the end of the *Asrār* (pp. 324-64), which is then appended by what reads like a separate *risāla* on *majāz* (pp. 365-89) is, in itself, meaningful. According to Ritter (editor’s introduction, 24), it may have started out as a separate treatise, but was then added, possibly by al-Jurjānī himself, to the *Asrār*. See also Chapter 5 Preliminaries.

¹⁰⁸² *Asrār*, 279-81 (a fascinating discussion which deserves closer study).

¹⁰⁸³ *Dalā'il*, 439-40.

¹⁰⁸⁴ *Ibid.*, 434-45, 437. But consider the rather explicit comment made in *Dalā'il*, 367, according to which “if we study [this question] thoroughly/look at the true nature [of this question] (*idhā haqqaqnā*), we do not find that the word (*lafẓ*) ‘lion’ is necessarily used for something other than what it was coined for [...] and this, if you get the essence [of my argument] (*idhā haṣṣalta*), is a ‘going beyond’ (*tajawwuz*) on your part in the meaning of the word, not the word itself (*fī ma'nā l-lafẓ lā l-lafẓ*).” It is probably this comment that al-Rāzī is referring to with regards to al-Jurjānī’s view in the *Dalā'il*. What makes this passage slightly ambiguous is al-Jurjānī’s recognition that there still is a *tajawwuz* present in the “meaning of the word,” and perhaps this is a reference to the sentence as a whole (*ma'nā l-lafẓ* as “the implication of the wording”) even though *lafẓ* had just been used with reference to a single word.

final verdict in favor of the ‘lexical *majāz*’ (later termed *majāz lughawī*) with respect to identifying metaphors.¹⁰⁸⁵

In the later commentarial tradition of al-Jurjānī’s work (via Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī and al-Sakkākī), the view of metaphor as a case of *majāz lughawī* won the day.¹⁰⁸⁶ What seems to have been the issue here is that recognizing such metaphors as *majāz ‘aqlī* would make them inseparable from a false claim (*kadhib, bāṭil*),¹⁰⁸⁷ even though, as we have seen in the Preliminaries to Chapter 5, this is not borne out in al-Jurjānī’s own work. Since the *shawāhid* al-Jurjānī adduced were all reflective of a truthful occurrence (gray hair did actually appear; plants did actually grow in the spring; the speaker was actually happy to see the addressee), one could hardly say that he espoused the view of *majāz fī l-ithbāt* as a reflection of falsehood. The problem arises, I would say, with al-Jurjānī’s classification of *isti‘āra* as a subcategory of *majāz*

¹⁰⁸⁵ In other words: even if the way to comprehending a sentence like “I saw a lion” (in reference to Zayd) is by reason and not by wording – i.e., understanding that Zayd is claimed to be part of the species ‘lion’ – this does not contradict the fact that at the end of the day, the word *asad* itself is being used metaphorically, since its specific meaning here is ‘very courageous’. Conversely, it could indeed be the case that al-Jurjānī now espoused the view that “I saw a lion” is a case of – to use the later term – *majāz ‘aqlī* (as evinced, e.g., by *Dalā‘il*, 367 or 295, where *ra‘aytu asadan* is commented on in the context of *majāz hukmī*; also, al-Rāzī is perspicacious enough for us to trust his judgement, when he says in *Nihāya*, 236, that al-Jurjānī went back and forth on this question). It should be clarified that “I saw a lion” is the archetypal stock example of an (implicitly creative) identifying metaphor and should not be confused with what I refer to as dead metaphors which are seen as single-word *majāz* that have become part of the Arabic vocabulary (see also Ibn al-Naṣīb below).

¹⁰⁸⁶ The later works in the Standard Theory are largely uncharted territory, so to make any claim regarding the later rhetorical tradition is rather tentative. Especially important would be the works of two scholarly luminaries in Tamerlane’s court, “al-Sa‘d” and “al-Sayyid” – that is, Sa‘d al-Dīn al-Taftāzānī (d. 793/1389) and al-Sayyid al-Sharīf al-Jurjānī (d. 816/1413) – both of whom wrote commentaries on al-Qazwīnī’s work. This is a question I hope to study in a future project. For now what can be said is that al-Rāzī supports the view of *majāz lughawī* (he references the discussion in both the *Asrār* and *Dalā‘il*; *Nihāya*, 235-37), and so does al-Sakkākī – who goes so far as to reject the notion of *majāz ‘aqlī* altogether (*Miftāḥ*, 370-72, 400-401, who also relies on al-Jurjānī’s debate on the matter; cf. al-Ṣafādī, *Nuṣra*, 79). Al-Qazwīnī follows the *majāz lughawī* line as well; *Talkhīṣ*, 267-72. See also Bonbakker, “Isti‘āra,” and the late take by Ibn Ma‘šūm (d. 1107/1705): according to him, viewing *isti‘āra* as *majāz lughawī* was the opinion of the *jumhūr* (‘Alī Ṣadr al-Dīn Ibn Ma‘šūm al-Madanī, *Anwār al-rabī‘ fī anwā‘ al-badī‘*, ed. Shākir Hādī Shukr, 7 vols., Karbala: Maktabat al-‘Irfān, 1968-69, 1: 244-45). The debate carried on to later Persian poetics; see de Tassy, *Rhétorique*, 43-44.

¹⁰⁸⁷ E.g., al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 237, citing al-Jurjānī’s stance that viewing *isti‘āra* as *majāz* on the level of *ithbāt* would amount to *kadhib* (al-Jurjānī is concerned here with false predications of God).

in the first place, because the examples he adduces for *isti 'āra* constitute ‘false’ statements.¹⁰⁸⁸

Indeed, the discourse of *kadhib* so prevalent in early works on poetics has all but disappeared in works of the seventh/thirteenth century. What *majāz* may have been – in the context of literary theory proper in this time and place – was a notion superimposed on the old idea of *kadhib*. Ibn al-Zamlakānī’s efforts reflect therefore a unique interpretation of al-Jurjānī’s work, much in line with former – and contemporaneous – views about the nature of *majāz* in literary language, as expressed in works of *‘ilm al-bayān* written in Greater Syria and Egypt.¹⁰⁸⁹

5.3. Persian Poetics in the Arabic East: Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī

The most conspicuous aspect of Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s views on non-literal speech is the resounding absence of a chapter on *majāz* in his literary-theoretical work, *Rawḍat al-faṣāḥa*. This does not mean that the work does not merit an examination of the *majāz* question, as Zayn al-Dīn does refer to it on the odd occasion. What emerges from the following account is that despite the absence of such a chapter, Zayn al-Dīn probably has a sense of what *majāz* means, but because of the absence of such a chapter, he assigns a very peripheral role to it in the study of literary theory or *‘ilm al-bayān*.

The primary figure of speech said to be a part of *majāz* is metaphor (*isti 'āra*).¹⁰⁹⁰ Two

¹⁰⁸⁸ The problem is even starker in al-Jurjānī’s second category of *isti 'āra*, namely, a metaphor with no substratum of the type “hand of the north wind.” As we have seen in Chapter 5 Preliminaries, al-Jurjānī’s treatment of *majāz* was essentially a study of metaphorical conceptual thinking (including metonymy) from a philosophical linguistic perspective – a topic for which *isti 'āra* is rather irrelevant. What makes *isti 'āra* or *kināya* relevant to al-Jurjānī’s theory of *majāz* seems to be the question of predication, not ‘figurative speech’. But al-Jurjānī says repeatedly that *isti 'āra* is a subcategory of *majāz*: would he view it as *majāz 'aqlī* despite the fact that the statements therein are ‘untrue’? It certainly does not seem compatible with *majāz lughawī* since all words in “hand of the north wind” are used literally. Cf. Abu Deeb, *al-Jurjānī’s Theory of Poetic Imagery*, 233. This question deserves a separate study.

¹⁰⁸⁹ Note, however, that Ibn al-Zamlakānī was not alone in this interpretation. The Easterner al-Muṭarrizī also takes *majāz* as a category (*jins*) that includes *isti 'āra*, *tamthīl* and *kināya* (*Sharḥ*, f. 2v; cf. Sallām, *Ibn al-Athīr wa-juhūduhu fī l-naqd*, 316, who reads *ījāz* for *majāz*).

¹⁰⁹⁰ *Rawḍa*, 90 (*al-isti 'āra qism min aqsām al-majāz*). In the later version of the work (ed. al-Jabr) slight variations

additional figures “connected to metaphor” (*yattaṣīlu bi-l-isti ‘āra*) are also conceived of as *majāz*, namely, metaphorical exemplification (*tamthīl*), as in “I see you put one leg forward and the other one backward” (for a hesitant man), and periphrasis (*kināya*), as in “he has many ashes [of the cooking-pot]” (for a generous man). The latter two are only briefly touched upon.¹⁰⁹¹ The section on *isti ‘āra* is imbued with what was to become standard rhetorical notions, such as the differentiation between a metaphor based on identification or predication (“making something [become] something [else] that is not it”) and one based on ascription (“making something belong to something else that it does not have”), a metaphor in which the analogue is only alluded to (such as ‘beast of prey’ in “death sinking its claws in”), and the notions of *tarshīh* and *tajrīd*.¹⁰⁹² Furthermore, when discussing the verb metaphor, Zayn al-Dīn differentiates between a metaphor “from the side of the subject [or agent or doer, *fā’il*]” and one “from the side of the object [or patient, *maf’ūl*].”¹⁰⁹³ All these are reminiscent of notions originating in ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī, especially since the ‘standard’ terms are not used.¹⁰⁹⁴ The editor Shu‘la in fact adds the standard terms as titles – *isti ‘āra taṣrīhiyya* ‘explicit metaphor’, *isti ‘āra makniyya* ‘metaphor by allusion’ and [*isti ‘āra*] *taba’iyya* ‘secondary metaphor’ or ‘non-noun metaphor’ – but it is evident that they did not originate with the text.¹⁰⁹⁵ Zayn al-Dīn could have had direct knowledge

in this and other chapters occur. These will be mentioned when relevant.

¹⁰⁹¹ Ibid., 109-13.

¹⁰⁹² Ibid., 91-92, 107. The topic of *tarshīh/tajrīd* will be discussed under Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī.

¹⁰⁹³ Ibid., 95-97.

¹⁰⁹⁴ *Asrār* 42-45 and *Dalā’il*, 67 (for the difference between an identifying metaphor and an ascriptive one), *Asrār* 50-51 (for verb metaphors from the point of view of the *fā’il* or *maf’ūl*). See the corresponding passages, and in slightly different terms, in al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 232, 243-45. The discussion of a metaphor alluding to an analogue without explicitly mentioning it is found in *ibid.*, 251, and I am not sure it directly originates in al-Jurjānī. A hint of this notion can be found in *Asrār*, 43-44, and it is inseparable from the ascriptive metaphor.

¹⁰⁹⁵ All titles within the section on *isti ‘āra* and most titles within the chapter on *tashbīh* seem to have been added by the editor (*Rawḍa*, 63-113). Evidence for the former: Zayn al-Dīn starts by presenting the two types of metaphor, the

of ‘Abd al-Qāhir’s work, but it is more likely that it was mediated by his redactors like Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī (though he uses what was to become standard terms), Ibn al-Zamlakānī, ‘Izz al-Dīn al-Zanjānī (not a direct redactor), or another source.

Marginalizing Majāz

Zayn al-Dīn opens the chapter on *isti‘āra* with, what I read as, a contrast between its classification within the categories of *majāz* and its true nature, or actual definition:

al-isti‘āratu qismun min aqsāmi l-majāzi wa-hiya fī l-ḥaqīqati tashbīhun ḥudhifa minhu ḥarfū l-tashbīhi lafẓan wa-taqdīran wa-li-hādihā qāla ba‘duhum fī ḥaddi l-isti‘ārati hiya -ddi‘ā‘u ma‘nā l-ḥaqīqati fī l-shay‘i mubālaghatan fī l-tashbīhi wa-mithāluhu annaka idhā qulta ra‘aytu asadan wa-anta turīdu bihi rajulan shujā‘an fa-aṣlu murādika an taqūla ra‘aytu rajulan huwa ka-l-asadi fī shajā‘atihi wa-shiddati baṭshihī fa-qulta ra‘aytu asadan fa-kāna dhālika ablaghu li-annaka ja‘alta l-shajā‘ata wājibatan lahu lāzimatan limā [lammā?] ja‘altahu ‘ayna l-asadi bi-i‘āratika -sma l-asadi lahu

Metaphor is one of the categories of figurative speech but (*wa-*)¹⁰⁹⁶ it is in reality (or: true essence) a comparison in which the particle of comparison was omitted [both] on the surface level and the underlying level [or: both on the level of the wording and when restoring the intended wording], and this is why someone said in the definition of metaphor [probably referring to al-Zanjānī], “It is the claiming of the essence/meaning of the literal word in something [else] in order to exaggerate a comparison.” An example of it is that if you say “I saw a lion” and you mean by it ‘a brave man’, then your original

one based on predication and the one based on ascription, and then smoothly goes on to say *wa-l-farq bayna l-qismayn* (ibid., 91-92). The title “*al-farq bayna l-isti‘āra l-tasrīḥiyya wa-l-makniyya*” appearing right prior to it breaks the organic continuation between p. 91 and p. 92. What is more, in no other place does Zayn al-Dīn mention the *tasrīḥiyya-makniyya* division. To add to that, the other category (*wa-min al-isti‘āra qism ākhar*; ibid., 107) that Zayn al-Dīn mentions in which the analogue (e.g. ‘beast of prey’) is not mentioned is also given the title *isti‘āra makniyya*, the same one used for metaphor based on ascription. Similarly, the other titles in these chapters read as insertions in the text. The newer edition of the *Rawḍa* (ed. al-Jabr, 42-58) does not have such titles, and in the chapter on *tashbih* they are put in square brackets.

¹⁰⁹⁶ Even if we do not take the *wa-* to be a contrast warranting the translation “but” and translated it as “Metaphor is one of the categories of figurative speech. It is in reality a comparison [...]” – the opposition between *majāz* and *tashbīh* via the phrase *fī l-ḥaqīqa* would indicate that by Zayn al-Dīn’s time, *tashbīh* had been commonly excluded from *majāz*. Hence, stating that metaphor is *majāz* and in reality a type of *tashbīh* (= non-*majāz*) also expresses that contrast.

intention is to say “I saw a man who is like a lion in his bravery and in the intensity of his courage,” and then you said “I saw a lion.” That is more eloquent because you made ‘bravery’ a necessary [attribute] for him [that is] intrinsic since you made him be/become the lion itself by your lending to him [i.e., the man] the name/noun ‘lion’.¹⁰⁹⁷

That Zayn al-Dīn intended to contrast between the common inclusion of *isti‘āra* within *majāz* and its actual essence as a comparison is corroborated in the chapter on metaphor found in the newer edition of the work. Here a differentiation is made between the meaning of *isti‘āra* “in the dictionary sense” (or literally, *fī l-lughā*), “in essence” (? , *fī l-ma‘nā*) and “as a technical term” (*fī l-iṣṭilāḥ*). The *majāz* inclusion is mentioned under the first meaning.¹⁰⁹⁸ Admittedly, I am not quite sure how the essential meaning and the technical meaning differ, nor do I understand why *majāz* is mentioned on the level of the *lughā* (and here the text may be corrupted), but it is clear to me that metaphor is essentially (*fī l-ma‘nā*) understood by him as a comparison, possibly rendering its inclusion within *majāz* as irrelevant. As he later reiterates, “comparison [...] is the original intention behind metaphor” (*al-tashbīh... huwa al-maqṣūd al-aṣlī min al-isti‘āra*).¹⁰⁹⁹ One assumes that by Zayn al-Dīn’s time, the exclusion of *tashbīh* from *majāz* was widely recognized (see Ibn al-Naḳīb’s remarks in §5.4), and therefore, by recognizing *isti‘āra* as *tashbīh* Zayn al-Dīn is implicitly excluding *isti‘āra* from *majāz*. The notion of a ‘claiming’ (*iddi‘ā*) of an essence (*ma‘nā*) of a thing to be within something else – a notion originating with al-

¹⁰⁹⁷ *Rawḍa*, 90. Al-Zanjānī’s chapter on metaphor opens with the definition *hiya -ddi‘ā’u ma‘nā l-ḥaqīqati fī l-sha’y* (*Mi’yār*, 67), therefore it is possible that Zayn al-Dīn is alluding to him (al-Jurjānī has *iddi‘ā’ ma‘nā al-ism; Dalā’il*, 437). With regards to the notion of the absence of the particle of comparison *lafẓan wa-taqdīran*, I am not sure why it also includes the underlying level (perhaps the absence of the topic ‘man’). It might be connected to a comment made by al-Muṭarrizī (*Sharḥ*, 3v), according to which the topic in *isti‘āra* is omitted *lafẓan wa-taqdīran*. In *Rawḍa*, ed. al-Jabr, we find that what is being lent is the *musammā* ‘the thing named’ (the referent in the mind) rather than the *ism* ‘name’ itself. Cf. *Asrār*, 42, where al-Jurjānī also speaks of (in his earlier iteration of the metaphor theory) transference (*naql*) of the *musammā*.

¹⁰⁹⁸ *Rawḍa*, ed. al-Jabr, 51.

¹⁰⁹⁹ *Rawḍa* (ed. Shu‘la), 92.

Jurjānī¹¹⁰⁰ – also opens the possibility of making *majāz* superfluous, at least on the level of the lexeme.

And yet later in the chapter we see that metaphor is not merely about logical judgments (*iddi 'ā'*). Zayn al-Dīn conceives of *isti 'āra* as something entering the *lafẓ* 'wording' (*wa-l-lafẓu - lladhī tadkhaluhu l-isti 'āratu*), confining it to the level of the two parts of speech, noun and verb.¹¹⁰¹ On the level of the noun two categories are differentiated (and see above): (i) the identifying metaphor, *an taj 'ala l-shay'a l-shay'a laysa bihi*, such as identifying a man with a lion in "I saw a lion," and (ii) the ascriptive metaphor, *an taj 'ala l-shay'a li-l-shay'i laysa lahu*, like ascribing 'humility' to a wing in "lower unto them the wing of humility" (Q 17:24). The difference between the two, it is stated, is that the first type is easily reduced to a simile/explicit comparison – "I saw a man who is like a lion," but the second type is not – *"lower unto them of humility something like a wing".¹¹⁰² Here he says, in a passage derived almost verbatim probably from al-Zanjānī's *Mi 'yār* (originally in al-Jurjānī's *Asrār*), that those who attempt to find a substratum (*shay'un yumkinu l-ishāratu ilayhi* "something that can be pointed to") in every metaphor, as in the second category, may end up anthropomorphizing God.¹¹⁰³ It is in this passage that we find one of the only references to the pair of terms *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* throughout the chapter, when speaking of the borrowed word (*al-ism al-musta 'ār*) in the literal state and in the figurative state (*ḥālat al-ḥaqīqa/ḥālat al-majāz*).

¹¹⁰⁰ *Dalā'il*, 437, where he retracts the notion of *naql* in favor of *iddi 'ā'*. Since al-Jurjānī speaks of *iddi 'ā' ma'nā al-ism* rather than *ma'nā al-ḥaqīqa*, he possibly had a more 'grammatical' *ma'nā* in mind, that is, 'meaning' instead of 'essence'.

¹¹⁰¹ *Rawḍa*, 91.

¹¹⁰² *Ibid.*, 91-93.

¹¹⁰³ *Ibid.*, 93-94 (and corrections in parsing the paragraph in *Rawḍa*, ed. al-Jabr, 52-53); *Mi 'yār*, 85; *Asrār*, 47; *al-Tibyān*, 108. For a similar claim made by al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī see Key, *Linguistic Frame of Mind*, 194, and one suspects that it originated with the theologians (not necessarily Mu'tazilī, for al-Jurjānī was an Ash'arī).

If the explanations and illustrations surrounding the noun metaphor are not unique to Zayn al-Dīn, the same holds true for the verb metaphor. All illustrations are identical to the ones found in Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya*, including an illustration from al-Ḥarīrī (al-Zanjānī uses them as well, and adds several more).¹¹⁰⁴ Explanatory comments are brief: if a metaphor enters a verb it is either metaphorical vis-à-vis the doer (/subject) or vis-à-vis the entity to which something is done (/object). One minor variation occurs. Zayn al-Dīn provides Q 2:20 “The lightning almost snatches away their sight” (*yakādu l-barqu yakhtaḥfu abṣārahum*) as an example for the *fā’il* aspect (i.e., lightning is only metaphorically snatching), whereas al-Rāzī gives it as an example for both the *fā’il* and *maf’ūl* aspects (also sight is only metaphorically snatched). Both readings rest on extralinguistic assumptions: lightning cannot snatch; eyesight cannot be snatched (or, if Zayn al-Dīn’s omission is intentional, eyesight can be snatched [by God]). What is not explained, and remains unclear (also in the *Nihāya* and *Mi’yār*), is whether a mere substitution of verb would reflect the literal meaning. For even if we posit more literal verbs like ‘take away’ or ‘eliminate’ for *yakhtaḥfu*, predicating them of ‘lightning’ would still remain metaphorical. (This example is not provided by al-Jurjānī.)

Comparison in the Form of Iḍāfa

Metaphors come in all manner of syntactic guises. The favorite one for philosophers is the predicative metaphor. The favorite one for the poet is probably the genitive metaphor.
- Andrew Ortony, *Understanding Metaphors*¹¹⁰⁵

In the discussion following the comments on the verb metaphor Zayn al-Dīn presents a classification of metaphor from a different aspect (*wa-‘lam anna l-isti‘ārata tanqasimu bi-ṭarīqin*

¹¹⁰⁴ *Rawḍa*, 95-97; *Nihāya*, 243-44; *Mi’yār*, 71-74. See also Ibn al-Naqīb, *Muqaddima*, 105-106.

¹¹⁰⁵ Andrew Ortony, *Understanding Metaphors*, Champaign: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign; Cambridge, MA: Bolt, Beranek and Newman, 1980, 16.

ākhara ilā qismayni).¹¹⁰⁶ This, from what I can tell, is Zayn al-Dīn’s own classification, or at least it is the only notion within the chapter not derived from al-Rāzī and al-Zanjānī (nor from Ibn al-Zamlakānī). The first category of this new classification is “applying the name of the analogue [i.e., the word signifying the analogue] to the topic without a genitive construct” (*an yutlaqa -smu l-musta ‘āri ‘alā l-musta ‘āri lahu min ghayri idāfatin*), as in “I saw a lion” for “a brave man.” In the later edition of the work it is termed the ‘unrestricted’ metaphor (*iṭlāqī*). The second category is “annexing [within a genitive construct] the name of the analogue to the topic” (*an yuḍāfa -smu l-musta ‘āri ilā l-musta ‘āri lahu*), later termed the ‘annexed’ metaphor (*idāfi*). This type of metaphor, he says, occurs more commonly than the first type.¹¹⁰⁷ Not incidentally, it is very common in Persian poetry, and the notion could be derived from Persian poetics.¹¹⁰⁸ What is meant here is what Wolfhart Heinrichs calls a non-imaginary identifying genitive metaphor based on a simile, where “the central element of the analogue is retained in the image and forms a genitive metaphor with the topical element it is meant to interpret.”¹¹⁰⁹

The single example Zayn al-Dīn provides for the ‘genitive metaphor’ is a line by the Andalusian Ibn Khafāja: [meter: *kāmil*]

wa-l-rīḥu tal ‘abu bi-l-ghuṣūni wa-qad jarā
dhahabu l-aṣṭī ‘alā lujayni l-mā’i

¹¹⁰⁶ *Rawḍa*, 98.

¹¹⁰⁷ *Ibid.*; ed. al-Jabr, 53-54.

¹¹⁰⁸ Though I did not find evidence of this in the works of Rādūyānī, al-Waṭwāt, Shams-i Qays or for that matter, the later compilation by the polymath Kamāl al-Dīn Ḥusayn al-Wā‘iz Kāshifī (d. 910/1504 or 1505), *Badāyi ‘al-afkār fī ṣanāyi ‘al-ash ‘ār*, ed. Rahim Musul’mankulov, Moscow: Nauka, 1977 (English [trans. Marta Simidchieva]: ‘Wondrous Thoughts on Poetical Tropes’). A category of ‘genitive metaphor’ (here in the sense of ascriptive genitive) does appear – in the Persian Wikipedia entry of metaphor! Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn also dealt with metaphors (*tashbīh* in his words) that occur in the form of a genitive; see his parsing of al-Buḥturī’s *ghamāmu samāhin* and Abū Tammām’s *mar ‘ā ‘aynin* and *wādī nasīb* in §5.1, “Further Engagement with al-Jurjānī: Analogy.”

¹¹⁰⁹ Heinrichs, “Paired Metaphors,” 9, 12. For more on Heinrichs’ classification see discussion under Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī.

“The wind is toying with the branches while
gold of late afternoon flows on silver of water”

Here ‘gold’ (analogue) *is* ‘late afternoon’ (topic) and ‘silver’ (analogue) *is* ‘water’ (topic), and what is meant is “to compare the yellowness of the sun during sunset to gold and the whiteness of the water to silver.”¹¹¹⁰ At least on the level of the lexeme, ‘gold’ and ‘silver’ are intended literally. One should stress that ‘gold’ and ‘silver’ are not acting here as color adjectives as would, say, *aḥmar al-wajh* “red-faced,” that is, as what the grammarians call *idāfa ghayr ḥaqīqiyya* “improper [!] annexation.” Rather, they are proper nouns denoting the chemical elements of gold and silver. This should also not be confused with cases in which the material (like silver) is annexed the noun and acts as its adjective, but occupies the position of the *muḍāf ilayhi* (second term of the construct), not the *muḍāf* (first term of the construct), like *bayḍatu fiḍḍatin* ‘a silver egg’ or *thawbu ḥarīrin* ‘a silk dress’. In the latter type of *idāfa* the grammarians insert an elided *min* “[made] of,” which is inappropriate in our example above.¹¹¹¹ According to Wright, the type of *idāfa* expressed above – in fact, he cites a single example, *lujayn al-mā’*! – is identified by the medieval grammarians as a case of *idāfat al-tashbīh* “comparative genitive construct.”¹¹¹² I am not sure who these grammarians are, but they are probably later ones. As stated by Wright, the expression *lujayn al-mā’* would be parsed as “*al-lujaynu -lladhī huwa l-*

¹¹¹⁰ *Rawḍa*, 99. The original utterance, he says (see ed. al-Jabr , 54), would be “the rays of sun, which are like gold, fall upon the surface of the water, which is like silver.”

¹¹¹¹ Wright, *Grammar 2*: 199-200, 202. Wright does adduce one instance of a *muḍāf ilayhi* (“genitive” in his words) that indicates the form of a material, in which case the material would be the first term of the construct: *fiḍḍatu l-darāhimi* ‘the silver of the dirhams’ (ibid. 2: 199, his translation). I am not sure how this phrase differs from *dirhamu fiḍḍatin*, but in any case, here too ‘silver’ is not meant as a color adjective.

¹¹¹² According to them it is a special case of *idāfat al-tafsīr/al-bayān* (ibid. 2: 232, 234.). It is the single example adduced for the “comparative annexation” (his words). I am not aware of grammatical discussions of this type of *idāfa* during this time.

mā`u, i.e. *al-mā`u -lladhī huwa mithlu l-lujayni*”¹¹¹³ or in our words, “silver that *is* water” = “water that is *like* silver.” Judging by this parsing, what we have here is a likeness between entities ($T_1 \approx T_2$) expressed as an identity between entities ($T_1 = T_2$), not in the form of an equational sentence (“Zayd is a lion”) but in the form of an *idāfa* (~“the lion of Zayd”). What is figurative in *lujayn al-mā`*, then, is not simply the verbal form of an *idāfa* (in that silver does not “belong” to water), but the implicit expression of a comparison as an identity (in the form of the *idāfa*). The genitive metaphor that Zayn al-Dīn treats here is therefore similar – on a theoretical level – to the simple equational metaphor. But artistically, of course, the two are different, and appealing explicitly to *idāfa* in the context of discussions of metaphors was rare. In fact, Zayn al-Dīn is the only literary theorist I am aware of who identifies the ‘equational’ genitive metaphor as a distinct category and who uses the explicit term *idāfa*.¹¹¹⁴

Positing a Literal Substrate

In order to connect the new classification of metaphor (unrestricted/annexed) with the former classification (noun/verb), Zayn al-Dīn asserts that the annexed metaphor is limited to nouns, whereas the unrestricted one can occur in nouns and in verbs. It is here that he sheds some light on his conception of the verb metaphor, where for the unrestricted verb metaphor in Ibn Durayd’s (d. 321/933) *wa-shta`ala l-mubyaddu fī muswaddihī* [meter: *rajaz*] “the whiteness flamed through its blackness” Zayn al-Dīn presupposes the full *wa-dabba l-bayādu fī l-sawādi wa-sa`ā fīhi ka-dabībi l-nāri fī l-shay`i l-mushta`ili* “the whiteness spread through the blackness

¹¹¹³ Ibid. 2: 232.

¹¹¹⁴ As we may recall, Ḍiyā` al-Dīn recognizes a type of figurative speech based on *idāfa* (*al-Mathal al-sā`ir* 2: 79), but for him, this was not a type of metaphor! More importantly, perhaps, is that Ḍiyā` al-Dīn’s genitive metaphor (i.e., what we may term ‘genitive metaphor’) was based on attribution, not identification. It is plausible that the notion of a genitive metaphor was known in Persian poetics, but as aforementioned, I did not find evidence for this. Or perhaps it was via the grammarians.

and advanced quickly in it like the spreading of a fire in a burning thing.”¹¹¹⁵ In other words, with regards to the verb metaphor, Zayn al-Dīn takes a non-literal approach (i.e., literal verbs can be presupposed instead of the metaphorical ones), whereas with the noun metaphor, all nominal elements were taken literally: ‘lion’ (as something claimed of a man), ‘wing’ (as something ascribed to humility without there necessarily being a substratum), or ‘gold’/‘silver’ (as the analogues of sunset/water). It would seem that while *majāz* with respect to *isti‘āra* on the level of the verb is conceived as a straightforward linguistic notion, *majāz* with respect to *isti‘āra* on the level of the noun is conceived as an extralinguistic notion: the words are used literally but the predication or ascription of one to the other is figurative, superficially akin to ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s *majāz fī l-ithbāt*. According to this interpretation, providing the example of lightning snatching away eyesight would be a mere expression of following the received wisdom (for it is more than a lexical verb metaphor) rather than one of Zayn al-Dīn’s own views.

To add to the complexity of the matter, in a very short list of “elegant” (*laṭīfa*) metaphors provided by Zayn al-Dīn, a distinction may be drawn between the Qur’ānic examples and the poetic ones. One might presume that these examples are all of Zayn al-Dīn’s choosing (one is from his own prose epistles) and therefore reflect a more authentic picture of his conception of metaphor. And yet, it is hard to reach a conclusion: in the Qur’ānic examples, both nouns and verbs can be reverted into literal counterparts, pointing to a very linguistic, indeed lexical, understanding of the notion; the metaphors in the poetic examples are, *inter alia*, of the simile-based identifying genitive metaphors mentioned above, where the nouns must be taken literally. It does not help that Zayn al-Dīn does not add any commentary to these favorable metaphors. The Qur’ānic examples are (literal substitutions of metaphorical expressions are notated as

¹¹¹⁵ *Rawḍa*, 100.

SUB):¹¹¹⁶ the head being “afame” with hoariness (Q 19:4, SUB “spread”); the “keys” of the unseen (Q 6:59, SUB “access”); “white/black thread of dawn” (Q 2: 187, SUB day/night or light/darkness).

The poetic examples display extended parallel images of the topic and analogue, very common in *muhdath* poetry, and are initially constructed on a simile-based identifying genitive metaphors (many of which are conceits):¹¹¹⁷ the live coal of the cheek burning the ambergris of the mole, from which the smoke betrays the first growth of the beard (image of the topic: first hairs growing on the [red] cheeks wherein lies a mole || image of the analogue: live coal burning ambergris [black] and creating smoke that emits good fragrance || elements with no SUB: live coal [unless it refers to the black hair of the beard], burning, smoke);¹¹¹⁸ inciting one to ride [SUB take on] the brisk winning racehorses of pleasure before the sun of forenoon sucks the saliva of [SUB dries] the morning rain from the mouths [or teeth, SUB petals] of the daisies (image of the topic: hastening one to enjoy worldly pleasures early in the morning, before the sun dries up the daisies from the morning rain || images of the analogue: riding a brisk horse that comes in first in a race; sucking saliva from, or kissing, the beloved’s mouth || elements with no SUB: briskness,

¹¹¹⁶ Ibid., 101.

¹¹¹⁷ Ibid., 101-102.

¹¹¹⁸ Likening the mole to ambergris (or a disk of ambergris) is a common trope both in Arabic and in Persian poetry, where the blackness of ambergris is commonly contrasted with the ‘burning’ red cheeks. Many examples are cited in Adam Talib, “Woven Together as Though Randomly Strung: Variations in Collections of Naevi Poetry Compiled by al-Nuwayrī and al-Sarī al-Raffā’,” *Mamluk Studies Review* 17 (2013), 23-43. See also David Pinault, *Story-Telling Techniques in the Arabian Nights*, Leiden: Brill, 1992, 67, 92; Geert Jan van Gelder, “The Ḥammām: A Space Between Heaven and Hell,” *Quaderni di Studi Arabi*, N.S. 3 (2008), 9-24, here: 13; Edward G. Browne, “Biographies of Persian Poets Contained in Ch. V, §6, of the *Tārīkh-i-Guzīda*, or ‘Select History’, of Ḥamdu’llāh Mustawfī of Qazvīn,” *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* (Oct. 1900 and Jan. 1901), 721-62, here: 737. The metaphor above is taken from a line by one ‘Imād al-Dīn al-Maḥallī (fl. 7th/13th cent.), quoted anonymously in the *Rawḍa* (he and his line are mentioned in Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt* 6: 251) [meter: *khafīf*]: *jamratu l-khaddi aḥraqat ‘anbara l-khā//li fa-min dhālika l-dukhāni ‘idhārū* (or *‘idhārūh*, per Ibn Khallikān, and cf. *Rawḍa*, ed. al-Jabr, 57). Al-Ṣafadī compiled an entire anthology on moles in poetry (*Kashf al-ḥāl fī waṣf al-khāl*), and mole-verses are collected within larger anthologies by early and later litterateurs alike (see Talib, “Woven”).

winning racehorses);¹¹¹⁹ (in a prose sample from one of Zayn al-Dīn’s letters) marveling at the way the sucked lustre of the front teeth glitters, and the tower of glass gleams, and the sun of wine shines (identifying metaphors: tower = wineglass, sun = wine).¹¹²⁰ As evident from these examples, the elements that cannot be reduced to a literal phrase are often constructed in order to expand the realm of the analogue in a process sometimes referred to as *tarshīh* ‘grooming’. In fact, Ibn Ḥamdīs’s lines on taking pleasures in the morning are also discussed under this category.¹¹²¹ The notions of *tarshīh* and its opposite, *tajrīd*, will be discussed under the views of al-Ṭūfī, but for now suffice it to say that all lexical constituents are meant to be taken literally. The ‘extension’ of metaphors is one of the major processes analyzed by Heinrichs in his study of imagery in *muḥdath* poetry.¹¹²²

To this range of noun and verb metaphors we might add the additional type of metaphor mentioned at the end of the chapter, namely the one in which the analogue is alluded to but not mentioned. “Death sinking its claws in” is one of the stock examples – the analogue ‘beast of

¹¹¹⁹ These are the two lines by the Sicilian Ibn Ḥamdīs (d. 527/1133) [meter: *sarī*]: *bākir ilā l-ladhdhātī wa-rkab lahā // sawābiqa l-lahwi dhawātī l-mirāḥ | min qabli an tarshufa shamsu l-duḥā // rīqa l-ghawādī min thughūri l-aqāḥ*. The *sawābiqa* are things that come first, and are here – esp. due to the concomitant verb *wa-rkab* – a reference to horses coming in first in a race (cf. the expression *sabaqa l-faras fī l-ḥalba*; Lane, *Lexicon*, 1299). The prepositional phrase *lahā* probably means “for (the sake of) them [these pleasures].” Literally, *dhawāt al-mirāḥ* translates as ‘having exceeding briskness’ (ibid., 2705).

¹¹²⁰ *mā taraqrāqa ḡalmu[a?] thanāyā murshaf wa-ta’allaqa burju zujājīn wa-ashraqat shamsu qarqaf*.

¹¹²¹ *Rawḍa*, 103; ed. al-Jabr, 56. According to Zayn al-Dīn’s later version (ibid.), “when the poet mentioned the hastening (*mubākara*), he borrowed for it [the notion of] riding (*rukūb*), then he ‘groomed’ the metaphor with what it (the domain of the analogue) demands, and that is the mentioning of the horses coming in first and the briskness; likewise when he says in the second line, “before the sun of forenoon sucks the saliva of the morning rain,” the analogue is the sucking and the topic is the sun [?, the text might be corrupted] and he added to the analogue, which is the sucking, by mentioning the saliva and the mouth, and the meaning of it is the sun’s removal of the shade, when rising, from the mouths [sic!] of the daisies that are located in the highest tops of mountains, elevated places and hills” (*lammā dhakara l-mubākarata -sta’āra lahā l-rukūba thumma rashshahāhā* [cf. editor’s fn. 2] *bi-mā yaqtaḏīhi wa-mā nāhu izālātu l-shamsi l-zilla ‘inda l-shurūqi min thughūri l-aqāḥi* [sic] *-llatī hiya bi-a’lā ru’ūsi l-jibāli wa-l-rawābī wa-l-ākāmi*). In the earlier edition it is simply stated that [the notion of] “sucking” is for “the sun’s diminishing of the shade,” which was then extended (“groomed”) by the mention of saliva and mouth.

¹¹²² Heinrichs, “Paired Metaphors,” esp. 5-9 (the term *tarshīh* is not used).

pray’ is alluded to by the verbal phrase but is not mentioned – but a Qur’ānic example, Q 2:27 “Those who unravel [usually translated: break] God’s covenant” (*alladhīna yanquḍūna ‘ahda - llāhi*), strongly points to the influence of al-Zamakhsharī, who discusses this verse in the very same terms. (The verse is not cited in the works of Fakh al-Dīn al-Rāzī, Ibn al-Zamlakānī or al-Zanjānī and the type of metaphor is left unnamed.) Here the unstated analogue is ‘rope’ (*ḥabl*), which was supposedly ‘lent’ (*‘alā annahu qadi -stu ‘īra*) to the notion of a covenant, leading in turn to the choice of the verb *naqada* ‘to unravel, untwist’, said of a rope.¹¹²³ In both examples, all nouns and verbs are meant at the literal level.

Toward a Unifying Principle?

Looking now at the range of metaphorical examples discussed in the chapter, one is hard-pressed to draw a conclusion as to how they can all be subsumed under a single notion of *majāz*. (The same holds true if one tries to draw a conclusion regarding *isti ‘āra*.) To find a unifying principle underlying Zayn al-Dīn’s conception of the notion, let us turn to the other categories he classified as *majāz*: *tamthīl* ‘metaphorical exemplification’, as in “I see you put one leg forward and the other backward” (for a hesitant man), and *kināya* ‘periphrasis’, as in “he has many ashes [of the cooking-pot]” (for a generous man). The section is very brief, and it opens thus:

*wa-mimmā yattaṣilu bi-l-isti ‘ārati ayḍani l-tamthīlu wa-l-kināyatu li-shtirāki l-thalāthati
fī kawnihā majāzan wa-fī kawnihā ka-l-furū ‘i li-l-tashbīhi -lladhī huwa ḥaqīqatun bi-lā
khillāfīn bayna ‘ulamā ‘i l-bayāni fa-li-dhālika alḥaqtuhumā bi-himā*

Among [the categories that] are also connected to metaphor [i.e., in addition to *tarshīh*,
tajrīd and the implied-analogue metaphor – all of which are part and parcel of metaphor]

¹¹²³ *Rawḍa* 107-108 (and see Shu‘la’s note on p. 108); al-Zamakhsharī, *al-Kashshāf* 1: 268. We as outsiders would say that the case of *naqada* is part of the ‘lexicographical’ notion of *majāz*, because it has become lexicalized.

are the metaphorical exemplification and periphrasis because all three [*isti'āra*, *tamthīl* and *kināya*] share the fact that they are *majāz* and that they are like derivatives of the simile (or: comparison), which is indisputably literal speech (*ḥaqīqa*) according to the scholars of the science of *bayān*, and that is why I appended them (*tamthīl* and *kināya*) to them (*tashbīh* and *isti'āra*).¹¹²⁴

Zayn al-Dīn recognizes, following one of al-Jurjānī's signature observations later reiterated by al-Rāzī, that simile (*tashbīh*) is literal speech (*ḥaqīqa*), but unlike al-Jurjānī, that periphrasis (*kināya*) is not.¹¹²⁵ Here the imprint of Ibn al-Zamlakānī is discernible (see §5.2), where *kināya* was presented as the very first type of *majāz* and *tamthīl* was given the caveat that if the full comparison was stated, it would no longer count as *majāz* ("I see that in his hesitation he is like someone who puts one leg forward and the other one backward").¹¹²⁶ Al-Zanjānī in the Islamic East differentiated between *kināya* and *majāz* like al-Rāzī, but a vestige of a possibly older view is found within his chapter on *majāz*, where *majāz* is said to be a genus (*jins*) of *isti'āra*, *tamthīl* and *kināya*.¹¹²⁷ It seems to have become common wisdom during this time to view *kināya* as *majāz*.

The definition that Zayn al-Dīn provides for *kināya* does not explicitly explain why it is part of non-literal language: "It is expressing a notion by [mentioning] one of its [logical] consequents" (*fa-hiya l-ta'bīru 'ani l-ma'nā bi-ba'di lawāzimihī*). In our example, the logical consequent of being generous is cooking a lot of food for one's guests, resulting, in turn, in many

¹¹²⁴ *Rawḍa*, 109.

¹¹²⁵ Al-Jurjānī, *Asrār*, 221-22 and al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 222 (for *tashbīh*); *Dalā'il*, 66-67 and *Nihāya*, 272 (for *kināya*).

¹¹²⁶ *Al-Tibyān*, 37, 44. This last assertion explicitly excludes *tashbīh* from *majāz*.

¹¹²⁷ *Mi'yār*, 90, 95 (where *majāz* and *kināya* are differentiated) and 20 (where the former is said to encompass the latter: *wa-l-majāzu a'ammu mina l-isti'ārati wa-l-tamthīli wa-l-kināyati fa-huwa jinsun lahā*). As a reminder, this opinion has nothing to do with Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's views on *kināya*, which for him was a different phenomenon altogether: (usually) a single-term euphemistic expression.

ashes under the cooking-pot.¹¹²⁸ Here all lexical constituents are meant at the literal level, and the predication is meant at the literal level, but the intended meaning nevertheless involves an implied one beyond the literal one stated. In this way, so it seems, Zayn al-Dīn makes a connection between periphrasis and metaphor: just as the intention of saying that a man “has many ashes” is not that he has many ashes, likewise the intention of saying “she shot me an arrow whose feather is kohl” is not that the woman shot an arrow at the man.¹¹²⁹ As we have seen with Ibn al-Zamlakānī, there was also a structural resemblance between *kināya* and *tamthīl*, in that they both express an attribute/action indirectly. Does *majāz* for Zayn al-Dīn mean nothing but al-Jurjānī’s *ma ‘nā al-ma ‘nā* “the meaning [or: implication] of the meaning [of the sentence],” which encompassed both *majāz* and *kināya*?¹¹³⁰

Zayn al-Dīn’s conception of *majāz* seems to go beyond the notion of implied or indirect sentence meaning. After all, there are other categories among the rhetorical devices that embody this notion but are not considered by him to be *majāz*, like “the apposite request/eloquent beggary” (*husn al-ṭalab*) and “deduced praise” (*al-madh al-mufarra*’), which involve implicatures, i.e. utterances that hint at the intended meaning but do not express them explicitly.¹¹³¹ One common principle found among the categories of *isti ‘āra-tamthīl-kināya* is that they are all imbued with images: burned ambergris, ashes under cooking-pots, moving legs. The use of images for the purpose of communicating an intended idea could stand at the basis of Zayn al-Dīn’s conception of *majāz*, especially since he sees the variety of *majāz* categories as

¹¹²⁸ Al-Sakkākī more accurately identifies a series of logical consequences, not just one (*Miftāh*, 405).

¹¹²⁹ The example is taken from *Rawḍa*, 103, discussed under the ‘groomed’ metaphor (*tarshīh*).

¹¹³⁰ E.g., *Dalā’il*, 262-63.

¹¹³¹ *Ibid.*, 245-48. On the former literary device see Geert Jan van Gelder, “The Apposite Request: A Small Chapter in Persian and Arabic Rhetoric,” *Edebiyât* 12 (2001), 1-13, from which I take the phrase “eloquent beggary” (p. 8).

harking back to the notion of *tashbīh* (*ka-l-furū' li-l-tashbīh*) – a device concerned with images par excellence (and even though in *kināya* no comparison is involved!). But interpreting *majāz* as the use of imagery in speech is also not free of caveats. First, there is nothing etymological connecting the term *majāz* with “images” (usually it is the idea of “going beyond” that stands at the etymological basis of the term).¹¹³² Second, following this rationale, one would expect to find *tashbīh* among the categories of *majāz*, especially given the remark *ka-l-furū' li-l-tashbīh*. While the ‘theoretical status’ of *tashbīh* in Zayn al-Dīn’s work is not made clear, one of the subtypes of *tashbīh* is in fact considered to be a part of metaphor (*qism min aqsām al-isti'āra*), and by implication, *majāz*. This is the “emphasized simile” (*tashbīh mu'akkad*), in which “one thing is compared to another in meaning(?) and in intention without the particle of comparison” (*tashbīhu l-shay' i bi-l-shay' i ma'nan wa-irādatan min ghayri adāti l-tashbīhi*).¹¹³³ The examples are of the type “she let pour [SUB shed] a pearl [SUB tear] from a narcissus [SUB eye]” (*fa-amṭarat lu'lu'an min narjisin*), where each constituent reflects a common conceit for the notion of the topic (raining pearls for shedding tears; narcissi for eyes).¹¹³⁴ In some examples both topic and analogue are mentioned.¹¹³⁵ This seems to be a relic of the old controversy of whether an

¹¹³² The same holds true for the phrase *'ilm al-bayān* in standard rhetoric which refers, de facto, to the study of imagery: there is nothing connecting the term *bayān*, etymologically, with imagery.

¹¹³³ *Rawḍa*, 78; ed. al-Jabr, 47, which contains the addition: *fa-yuj'ala l-mushabbahu 'ayna l-mushabbahi bihi* “so that the topic becomes the very analogue itself.” Al-Zanjānī also identifies a type of *tashbīh* that is *majāz*, whose rule (*ḥukm*) is that of the metaphor, but for him it is the sentence type “I see you move one leg forward and the other backward” (*Mi'yār*, 98). Al-Zanjānī explicitly states (ibid., 66) that the only type of simile/comparison considered to be *majāz* by the “the scholars of *bayān*” is the one that comes “in the manner of the metaphor” (*'alā ḥadd al-isti'āra*). As an aside, it is not clear whether *'ulamā' al-bayān* denotes here the students of the standard second subfield *'ilm al-bayān* or the scholars of literary theory in general.

¹¹³⁴ *Rawḍa*, 82, from a line by al-Wa'wā' al-Dimashqī (d. ca. 385/995).

¹¹³⁵ E.g., in a line by Zayn al-Dīn himself, in praise of al-Malik al-Nāṣir (who ruled in Aleppo and Damascus): “His cheeks are apples, his eyes a narcissus, his side [of the mouth?] is a myrtle, his saliva wine” (ibid., 83). He also mentions the more archetypal “Zayd is the lion” (sic: *Zaydun' l-asadu*, comparing it with *Zaydun ka-l-asadi*; ibid., 84).

utterance displaying both topic and analogue of the type “Zayd is a lion” is a metaphor or a simile (as opposed to “I saw a lion,” where the topic is not mentioned), preserving one tangible connection between the notions of *majāz* and *tashbīh*.¹¹³⁶

If we compare Zayn al-Dīn with Ibn al-Zamlakānī, we find that both viewed *majāz* as a category comprising *isti'āra*, *tamthīl* and *kināya*, and both rejected the inclusion of *tashbīh* therein (Ibn al-Zamlakānī implicitly, Zayn al-Dīn explicitly). They both seem to take the *majāz* as expressing ‘untrue’ propositions (unlike al-Jurjānī), but understand *tashbīh* as expressing ‘true’ propositions (following al-Jurjānī). They are preserving, on one hand, an older implicit understanding of *majāz* as *kadhib* (=Ibn Rashīq, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn), but on the other hand, they take an ‘objectivist’ stance with regards to the simile by treating the ‘figurative’ similarity claim the same way they would the ‘literal’ similarity claim (≠ Ibn Rashīq, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn). Conceiving of *majāz* as incompatible with *tashbīh* says not so much about their view on *majāz* as it does of their view on *tashbīh*. In other words, an underlying understanding of *majāz* as “literary *kadhib*” still persists for scholars like Ibn al-Zamlakānī and Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī, but an understanding of *tashbīh* as ‘false’ comparison does not.

To conclude Zayn al-Dīn’s treatment of non-literal speech we must return to the fact that no chapter on *majāz* is included in the book – a *mukhtaṣar*, to be sure – but nevertheless a work on literary theory. By the seventh/thirteenth century, any work touching upon stylistics, poetics and rhetoric customarily included at least some comment about the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dyad, and the fact that this work does not merits our attention. The fact that we are hard-pressed to find a

¹¹³⁶ Not all instances of *tashbīh mu'akkad* lack the particle of comparison: in Zayn al-Dīn’s classification, the “reversible” simile, where the more salient is compared to the less salient (the full moon is like one’s face/forehead), is part of *tashbīh mu'akkad*, and here the example exhibits the explicit *mithl* (ibid., 84). He terms this device “turning the source into a derivative and the derivative into a source.” The more common term for this device, *tashbīh al-'aks*, is used by Zayn al-Dīn for another device (the one immediately following), the “mirroring” simile, in which both A is compared to B and B to A, in the same line (even if the comparison is from different aspects).

common denominator between the *majāz* categories is not unique to Zayn al-Dīn’s work, and it would be tempting to conclude that the author realized this as well. More reasonable would be first, to point out that he took for granted the reader’s knowledge on *majāz*, and second, to be reminded of the fact that his outlook was primarily poetic (as opposed to, say, Ibn al-Zamlakānī).

Majāz is Not Necessarily Badī‘

Al-Zanjānī from the Islamic East also had a uniquely poetic outlook – the first two parts of the *Mi ‘yār* deal with meter and rhyme – but he *did* include the common prolegomenon on *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz*. His treatment is relatively brief and highly indebted to al-Jurjānī and al-Rāzī, as it contrasts lexical *majāz* (*majāz fī l-muthbat* ‘*majāz* in the predicate/the thing affirmed’) with logical *majāz* (*majāz fī l-ithbāt* ‘*majāz* on the [level of] predication/affirmation’).¹¹³⁷ And yet, he later makes an interesting comment about *majāz* when explaining why it is broader than *isti‘āra*: first, in every metaphor there must be an intended exaggeration, a condition that does not apply for *majāz* (this is irrelevant for our purposes), and second, every metaphor is a part of *badī‘* but not every *majāz* is (*kull isti‘āra min al-badī‘ wa-laysa kull majāz minhu*).¹¹³⁸ What al-Zanjānī means here by *badī‘* is not the field he terms ‘*ilm al-badī‘*’ (which encompasses the sciences of *ma‘ānī* and *bayān*), since *majāz* is considered part of it by the mere treatment of it in the book.¹¹³⁹ Rather, what is meant by *badī‘* is either the narrow scope of poetic embellishments – those figures of speech considered to be beautifying elements (*maḥāsīn*), whose treatment is preceded by the phrase *wa-min aqsām al-badī‘* – or the abstract notion of ‘something novel,

¹¹³⁷ *Mi ‘yār*, 17-24 (the entire chapter), esp. 20-24 (the lexical/logical *majāz*). Incidentally, it is here that al-Zanjānī “slips” and considers *kināya* to be a part of *majāz* as well (p. 20). It is also noteworthy that he, too, refers to the third part of his work (or the work as a whole) as a *mukhtaṣar* (ibid., 400).

¹¹³⁸ Ibid., 68 (*wa-l-isti‘āratu akḥaṣṣu mina l-majāzi idh qaṣḍu l-mubālaghati shartun fī l-isti‘āra dūna l-majāzi wa-ayḍan fa-kullu -sti‘āratin mina l-badī‘i wa-laysa kullu majāzin minhu*).

¹¹³⁹ See ibid., 3 (‘*ilm al-badī‘ al-mushtamil ‘alā ‘ilmay al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān*), and §4.3 above.

original’, which is what *badī*‘ literally means.¹¹⁴⁰ Since the embellishments are clearly demarcated by al-Zanjānī by the use of *wa-min aqsām al-badī*‘ and metaphor falls outside this demarcation,¹¹⁴¹ it is likely that *badī*‘ refers here to novel and original poetic speech (including artistic prose). By this account, not every instance of *majāz* is novel since much of it has become lexicalized, that is, part of the conventional lexicon. Metaphors would thus be part of the original and novel types of speech, whereas *majāz* may be excluded from it by not always displaying novelty.¹¹⁴²

Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī was probably familiar with this notion, which harks back to al-Jurjānī’s *Asrār*. There, al-Jurjānī made the claim that it would be preposterous (*bayyin al-fasād*) to view every *majāz* as *badī*‘, but the context of his claim was specifically the metonymy (a term not used), a figurative word based on contiguity (*sabab*, *mulābasa*, etc.), not metaphor, a

¹¹⁴⁰ See Heinrichs, “*Badī*‘,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature* 1: 122-23, here: 122, for the literal meaning. Literary devices within the narrower scope of embellishments in al-Zanjānī’s work include echo (repeating the rhyme word at the beginning of the line, *radd al-‘ajuz ‘alā l-ṣadr*), antithesis (*taṭbīq*), and more (*Mi‘yār* 206, 219, preceded by the phrase *wa-min aqsām al-badī*‘). There is another meaning of *badī*‘ not relevant for our purposes, namely, ‘the new style of poetry’, the essence of which was the use of ‘bold’ metaphors (imaginary metaphors with no substratum, based on analogy, and usually combined with other rhetorical devices; Heinrichs, “*Isti‘āra and Badī*‘,” esp. 180, 187, 190-91, 195, 200 fn. 34, 204).

¹¹⁴¹ This is contrary to the early Ibn al-Mu‘tazz, who treats *isti‘āra* as one of the major figures in *badī*‘ (Heinrichs, “*Isti‘āra and Badī*‘,” 187).

¹¹⁴² Ibn Rashīq (and many others) also makes a connection, albeit implicitly, between *badī*‘ as “innovation” (*ibdā*‘) and metaphors/similes, because all of the *shawāhid* he adduces for newly-created images (*ma‘ānī*) are metaphors and similes/analogies (*al-‘Umda* 1: 262-65; he titles the chapter *bāb al-mukhtara‘ wa-l-badī*‘ but later tries to distinguish *badī*‘ from *ikhtirā*‘ in an unconvincing argument). See also the case of the “catalogues of images” (*kutub al-ma‘ānī*) which are essentially collections of *tashbīhāt* (fn. 519). Alexander Key elaborates on the idea of *badī*‘ with regards to al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī (fl. ≤ 409/1018) and argues that the term *badī*‘ as ‘innovation’ is indistinguishable from *badī*‘ as ‘rhetorical figures’ because all rhetorical figures require from the poet/prose writer an innovative use of language (*Linguistic Frame of Mind*, 175 ff., esp. 177, 179). The authors that we are dealing with here do not necessarily display this. First, some *isti‘ārāt* – esp. the single-word ‘hackneyed’ ones (Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn’s understanding) – do not involve innovation (and Ḍiyā‘ al-Dīn all but says so, see pp. 290-91 above). Second, authors usually attend to ‘conventional *majāz*’ in these works (the *majāz* of the lexicographers: metonymy, conceptual metaphor, etc.), and it too is not part of innovative language. I have not seen al-Rāghib’s ms. on *badī*‘ (*Linguistic Frame of Mind*, 53, 180-85), and one wonders if he treats ‘lexicalized’ metaphors here. It will be mentioned that the work contains a chapter on the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* dyad (ibid., 180; used here in the lexical sense?). According to Key (ibid., 197), any form of “literary innovation” (*badī*‘) may become part of the lexicon, provided that it becomes sufficiently widespread: Key is probably speaking of the innovations of the ancient Arabs here.

figurative word based on similarity (*tashbīh*).¹¹⁴³ Al-Zanjānī may have recognized that many expressions, beyond metonymy, that were tagged as *majāz* by older scholars (inside and outside literary theory) were lexicalized and hence not *badī‘*. As a scholar of poetics, he would mostly be interested in novel expressions, not those that can be found in the dictionaries. Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī probably had a similar view, and accordingly, marginalized the place of *majāz* within literary-theoretical studies.¹¹⁴⁴

Lastly, we must return to the fact that Zayn al-Dīn’s work is closely aligned with early Persian works on poetics. Within this early Persian tradition, *majāz* too played no role in the study of literary devices. Both Rādūyānī (active 5th/11th cent.), who wrote the first Persian work on stylistics, and Rashīd al-Dīn al-Waṭwāṭ (d. end of 6th/12th cent.) in his *Hadāyiq al-sihr* ‘Gardens of Enchantment’ do not mention the notion of *majāz* (although they do speak of a proper [*haqīqī*] word/meaning when briefly explicating the notion of *isit ‘āra*).¹¹⁴⁵ Shams-i Qays does make use of *majāz* but only as a terse prolegomenon to metaphor.¹¹⁴⁶ According to Benedikt Reinert, because the Persian literary tradition lacked the sacrosanct equivalent of the Qur’ān, the Qur’ānic hermeneutical component so prevalent in the Arabic works was non-

¹¹⁴³ *Asrār*, 368 (24/5, esp. ll. 15-18). In the appendix to the *Asrār* (paragraphs 24-26), al-Jurjānī begins with the type ‘hand’-for-‘favor’ – what we would call metonymy – and the word (*qawl*) he uses for this type is simply *majāz* (*Asrār*, 366.6). But later he uses *majāz* in a more general sense of figurative language (e.g., 368.3-5). As a side note, it is not clear why al-Jurjānī would make the very obvious claim (ibid.) that every *isti ‘āra* is *majāz* but not every *majāz* is *isti ‘āra*: surely, this was in no need of proof. I wonder if by *isti ‘āra* he specifically meant here metonymy, like Ibn Duryad, whom he quotes the following page. (Later al-Jurjānī uses *isti ‘āra* in the strict sense of figurative expression based on similarity.)

¹¹⁴⁴ In this respect Key is correct to say that “for [al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī] and many of his contemporaries the term *badī‘* primarily served to isolate and recognize innovation” (*Linguistic Frame of Mind*, 177), but what I would add is that this puts *badī‘* – a literary notion – at odds with *majāz*, a linguistic notion.

¹¹⁴⁵ *Tarjumān*, 40-43; *Hadāyiq*, 256-57 (Persian text).

¹¹⁴⁶ *Al-Mu‘jam*, 317-18. Tellingly, Landau translates *majāz* here as “image” vis-à-vis “reality” (*haqīqat*), although she later uses the more common “figurative/proper use”; see Justine Landau, *De rythme et de raison: Lecture croisée de deux traits de poésie persans du XIII^e siècle*, Paris: Presses Sorbonne Nouvelle, 2013, 149.

existent in Persian rhetoric.¹¹⁴⁷ By this rationale, the notion of *majāz* as figurative language which emerged in the context of Qur’ānic hermeneutics was irrelevant for the Persian literary theorists. It just so happens that the Persian context tallies well with a more “native-Arabic” marginalization of *majāz* that was occurring at the same time, namely, by Ibn al-Zamlakānī (§5.2).

5.4. Literary Theory in the Context of *Tafsīr*: Ibn al-Naqīb

In contrast to many of the other works we are looking at, Ibn al-Naqīb devotes a considerable portion of his work to the topic of *majāz*. Just the mere volume of the study suggests that *majāz* by Ibn al-Naqīb entails more than a narrow scope of non-literal usage. The study forms the first out of three sections in Ibn al-Naqīb’s *Muqaddima* and is partially indebted to a work on *majāz* written by the slightly earlier ‘Izz al-Dīn (“al-‘Izz”) b. ‘Abd al-Salām (d. 660/1262), the famous Damascene Shāfi‘ī jurist and judge, nicknamed *Sulṭān al-‘ulamā* ‘Sultan of the scholars’.¹¹⁴⁸ Al-‘Izz’s work, *al-Ishāra ilā al-ijāz fī ba‘d anwā‘ al-majāz*, serves as a framework to Ibn al-Naqīb’s section on *majāz* but much of its contents are revised (especially the sections we will look at), probably due to the *uṣūlī* underpinnings of the former. It would seem that the fact that it was a reflection of views prevalent in legal theory did not go unnoticed by Ibn al-Naqīb. Suffice it to

¹¹⁴⁷ B. Reinert, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-bayān; In Persian,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition* (and a more extreme, and inaccurate, position in Faruqi, *Sabk-e Hindi*, 35: “[...] all Arab literary theory originated from exegeses on the Qur’ān”). To be sure, Reinert is thinking here of the Sakkākian model of rhetoric, but in fact, none of the earlier works of Arabic literary theory can be understood without the Qur’ānic context. I am therefore generalizing his observation.

¹¹⁴⁸ ‘Izz al-Dīn ‘Abd al-‘Azīz b. ‘Abd al-Salām al-Sulamī, *al-Ishāra ilā l-ijāz fī ba‘d anwā‘ al-majāz*, Medina: al-Maktaba al-‘Ilmiyya, [196-?] (several other recent editions have come out, apparently due to al-‘Izz’s modern-day popularity. English: ‘Pointing to Conciseness on some of Types of Non-literal Speech’). On al-‘Izz’s life see E. Chaumont, “al-Sulamī,” *Encyclopaedia of Islam, second edition*. The *Ishāra* is also referred to as *Majāz al-Qur’ān*, seemingly because of the overwhelming Qur’ānic examples and the large section on Qur’ānic illustrations of *ḥadhf al-mudāf* (elision of the first term of the construct), arranged according to the order of the *sūras*. Ibn al-Naqīb refers to this work as *al-Majāz (wa-qāla l-shaykhu l-imāmu ‘Izzī l-Dīnī -bni ‘Abdi l-Salāmi fī kitābihi l-ma‘rūfī bi-l-majāz; Muqaddimat tafsīr Ibn al-Naqīb*, 70). See also fn. 1152 below.

mention the conspicuous absence of *isti'āra* in the long list of 'Izz al-Dīn's *majāz* categories to situate the work within a different tradition.¹¹⁴⁹

The section on *majāz* in Ibn al-Naqīb's *Muqaddima* contains twenty-four categories that range from metonymies and metaphors to brevity and change in word order. In case there is any doubt that this range of linguistic phenomena constitutes a part of *majāz* in Ibn al-Naqīb's thought, he ends the discussion with an affirmation that each of "the twenty-four categories that we have mentioned among the categories of *majāz*" could be further classified into many more subcategories, if one endeavored to do so.¹¹⁵⁰ The vast majority of these categories are metonymies, synecdoches and dead metaphors, and these are the ones closely aligned with 'Izz al-Dīn's work on *majāz*: e.g., referring to 'what is known' (*ma'lūm*, or other passive notions expressed by the passive participle) by using the word 'knowledge' (*ilm*, or other *maṣḍars*), referring to the outcome (*musabbab*) by its cause (*sabab*), referring to the whole (*al-kull*) by the part (*al-ba'd*), dead metaphors ('light' for 'belief', 'lion' for 'brave man'), and many more.¹¹⁵¹ Many of these cases are lexicalized instances of *majāz*, that is, they have become part of the very lexicon of Arabic. Only three categories do not reflect this lexical tendency, and not incidentally, they are not derived from 'Izz al-Dīn's *Ishāra*. These are metaphor (*isti'āra*), simile (*tashbīh*),

¹¹⁴⁹ The term *isti'āra* is briefly mentioned as a possible synonym of *majāz*; see *al-Ishāra*, 29-30. The work by al-'Izz deserves a separate study. Zakariyyā 'Alī, the editor of Ibn al-Naqīb's *Muqaddima*, conducted an initial comparison between the contents of the two works; see *Muqaddima*, 65-66.

¹¹⁵⁰ *Muqaddima*, 176.

¹¹⁵¹ *Muqaddima*, 25 ff. (under the category of *majāz al-ta'bīr bi-lafẓ al-muta'allaq bihi* 'an *al-muta'alliq*, roughly: a figurative word in which a thing is expressed by using a word that is grammatically [?] connected to it), 36 ff., 46 ff., 68 (under the category *al-tajawwuz fī al-asmā'*; the term 'dead metaphors' is ours). We noted above the absence of *isti'āra* in 'Izz al-Dīn's work: it should be reminded that dead metaphors do not conform to the typical discussions of *isti'āra* in Arabic literary theory, despite the fact that the stock example is 'lion' for 'brave man'. Ibn al-Naqīb's discussion of *isti'āra* reflects the diversity of metaphor in poetry, and many of the examples would not count as dead metaphors.

and change in word order (*taqdīm wa-ta'khīr*).¹¹⁵² In all three, the discussion begins with the query, *hal huwa min al-majāz am lā* “is it part of *majāz* or not?”, suggesting a conscious engagement on Ibn al-Naqīb’s part with the suitability of certain linguistic phenomena with the concept of *majāz*.¹¹⁵³

Rejection of Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī

Considering that some of the theoretical deliberation is adopted from Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s *Nihāyat al-ījāz fī dirāyat al-i’jāz* (the epitome of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s *Dalā’il al-i’jāz* and *Asrār al-balāgha*), it is interesting to see how those views are reconciled with Ibn al-Naqīb’s *majāz* classification, especially those sections not derived from al-‘Izz’s *Ishāra*. In this case, one must decide which impulse takes precedence in assessing his conceptions: the quoted material from earlier scholars or the ‘metadata’ material, that is, Ibn al-Naqīb’s arrangement and choice of categories. On one hand, the latter impulse should take precedence, since it constitutes a more conscious and deliberate act than quoting from stock sources in the field. In this sense, the arrangement of material (the one not derived from al-‘Izz) is akin to the analyses of poetic illustrations (*shawāhid*) in that it may reveal a more genuine view by the author rather than an accepted view or received wisdom. But on the other hand, if the quoted material is from a revered source, and one that is recognized as such, it may perhaps be the arrangement of the

¹¹⁵² Another category that does not display ‘lexical’ types of *majāz* is the one titled *al-ījāz wa-l-ikhtisār* ‘brevity’ (*Muqaddima*, 139-65) which is closely aligned with *ḥadhf* ‘ellipsis’, usually here: common syntactic deletions. Rather than lexical ‘idiosyncracies’, what we have here are primarily syntactic ones. *Ḥadhf* was treated extensively by ‘Izz al-Dīn but he did not subsume it under *majāz* (*al-Ishāra*, 6-27, with nineteen subcategories). I think that because the *Ishāra* was known as a book on *majāz*, readers took it as a matter of course that ‘Izz al-Dīn would consider *ḥadhf* as *majāz*, following the tradition dating back to Abū ‘Ubayda. The fact that the Ibn al-Naqīb does not open the chapter on brevity with the query, *hal huwa min al-majāz am lā*, may attest this.

¹¹⁵³ *Muqaddima*, 88, 112, 139, 166. Several subsections within the category termed *al-tajawwuz fī al-af’āl* also do not confirm to the vast range of metonymies and dead metaphors, but rather to morphological ‘non-transparency’ (*Muqaddima*, 69 ff., such as the use of the form *yaf’alu* to express a past tense, *fā’ala* for future tense, the declarative form for the imperative, and more). On the other hand, many categories within *ījāz* are instances other than *ḥadhf* ‘elision’, and would reflect discussions found in al-‘Izz’s *Ishāra*.

material that reflects the received wisdom and the recounted opinion that reflects the personal view. In the case of Ibn al-Naqīb's conception of *majāz* it seems that the metadata material takes precedence.¹¹⁵⁴

The most prominent case in point illustrating the complexity of Ibn al-Naqīb's views on *majāz* is *tashbīh* 'simile; comparison'. Occupying the twenty-first category of *majāz*, the discussion of *tashbīh* opens with the explicit debate regarding its inclusion within *majāz*.¹¹⁵⁵ There is little doubt that the brief section titled *hal huwa min al-majāz aw lā* concludes in the negative:

ammā l-awwalu [hal huwa mina l-majāzi aw lā] fa-lladhī 'alayhi jumhūru ahli hādhihi l-ṣinā'ati anna l-tashbīha min anwā'i l-majāzi wa-taṣānīfuhum kulluhā tuṣarriḥu bi-dhālika wa-tushūru ilayhi wa-dhahaba l-muḥaqqiqūna min muta'akkkhīrī hādhihi l-ṣinā'ati wa-ḥudhdhāquhum ilā anna l-tashbīha laysa mina l-majāzi li-annahū ma'nān mina l-ma'ānī wa-lahu ḥurūfun wa-alfāzun tadullu 'alayhi waḍ'an kāna l-kalāmu ḥaqqiqatan aw majāzan fa-idhā qulta zaydun ka-l-asadi wa-hādihā l-khabaru ka-l-shamsi fī l-shuhrati wa-lahu ra'yun ka-l-sayfi fī l-maḍā'i lam yakun mithla naqli l-lafzi 'an mawḍi'ihī fa-lā yakuna majāzan

As for the first (question) [is it part of *majāz* or not], the opinion that the majority of the scholars of this craft hold is that simile is [counted] among the types of figurative speech, and all of their writings make this explicit and mention it. [But] the independently-minded critical thinkers and thoroughly learned from among the later [scholars] of this craft hold the view that simile is not [a type] of figurative speech because it is one of the meanings/notions [that exist], and [therefore] has particles and words that signify it by original coinage, whether the utterance is literal or figurative. So if you say "Zayd is like a lion," "This account is like the sun in [its] conspicuousness," and "He has an opinion

¹¹⁵⁴ In this sense, Ibn al-Naqīb's choices of arrangement would be different than the early compilatory efforts of scholars like al-'Askarī in his *Ṣinā'atayn*. The latter, for instance, is commonly understood to be pure amalgamation without much thought behind it (see, e.g., Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, 45). I think the deliberation below will show that Ibn al-Naqīb's choices betray a more tightly-knit theory than was the case with earlier literary-critical compilations.

¹¹⁵⁵ The topics that are discussed in the chapter of *tashbīh* revolve primarily around the types of comparisons: physical versus conceptual, simple versus composite, and more (*Muqaddima* 114-33). He also includes the topics of *tamthīl*, here: the illustrative analogy (or metaphorical exemplification, *ibid.*, 135), and proverbs (*ibid.*, 135-38).

that is like a sword in [its] sharpness,” it is not like transferring a word from the original meaning for which it was coined (*mawḍū*) and is thus not figurative speech.¹¹⁵⁶

One such “independently-minded critical scholar” is Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī, whose explanation of the non-inclusion of *tashbīh* within *majāz* is taken almost verbatim and without acknowledgement by Ibn al-Naqīb, an explanation which, in turn, is closely adopted from al-Jurjānī’s deliberation in the *Asrār*.¹¹⁵⁷ There, al-Jurjānī speaks of the notion of ‘likening’ as a notion/concept (*maʿnan min al-maʿānī*) that has words signifying it. Thus, using those words – seemingly a reference to *ka-*, *ka-anna*, *mithl*, and the like – reflects a literal usage of speech, as would be the case with any other notion (*sāʿir al-maʿānī*) expressed using the word for which it was coined (*mawḍū*):

li-anna l-tashbīha maʿnan mina l-maʿānī wa-lahu ḥurūfun wa-asmāʿun tadullu ʿalayhi fa-idhā ṣurriḥa bi-dhikri mā huwa mawḍūʿun li-l-dalālati ʿalayhi kāna l-kalāmu ḥaqīqatan ka-l-ḥukmi fī sāʿiri l-maʿānī fa-ʿrifhu

Because ‘likening’ is a notion; it has particles and nouns that signify it. So if the mentioning of that [i.e., the word] which is coined/set down to signify it [i.e., the notion of ‘likening’] is made explicit – then the utterance is literal, just as is the case with [all] other notions. So know that!¹¹⁵⁸

¹¹⁵⁶ *Muqaddima*, 113, and see editor’s fn. 2. The *muḥaqqiq* is a scholar who employs *tahqīq* ‘independent critical research’ rather than *taqlīd* ‘uncritical continuation of early work’ (and see El-Rouayheb, *Intellectual History*, 28, 32-33). The *ḥurūf wa-alfāz* (that signify a notion) could be taken as a hendiadys to simply mean ‘words’ (al-Jurjānī uses *ḥurūf wa-asmāʿ*; *Asrār*, 222). As for the contentious *maʿnan min al-maʿānī*, Bonebakker takes this term as “a principle of syntax” in the context of al-Jurjānī’s discussion of *naẓm*, and thus as “a way of formulating a common syntactic construction” with respect to *tashbīh* (Bonebakker, “al-Maʿānī wa ʿl-Bayān”). I do not think, however, that the expression is connected here to al-Jurjānī’s notion of *maʿānī al-naḥw*, or semantic implications of certain syntactic relations. Rather, it seems to refer simply to a concept, notion or meaning, for which there is mirror a word that can denote it. For evidence see below.

¹¹⁵⁷ Al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 222; al-Jurjānī, *Asrār*, 221-22. When Ibn al-Naqīb later quotes again from al-Rāzī, anonymously, he precedes it with once more with a reference to the “independently-minded critical scholars” (*fa-qāla l-muḥaqqiqūna min ʿulamāʾ hādihā l-shaʿn*; *Muqaddima*, 114, and see also 104).

¹¹⁵⁸ *Asrār*, 222. As a terminological aside, note that the term *mawḍūʿ* is used by al-Jurjānī and Ibn al-Naqīb to denote both sides of the same coin, viz. the original usage of a word. Ibn al-Naqīb uses *mawḍūʿ* (in the passage quoted above) to refer the original *meaning* for which the word was coined; al-Jurjānī uses it to refer to the original *word* coined for a certain meaning (as he does in his purely grammatical work, *Kitāb al-Muqtaṣid fī sharḥ al-Īdāḥ*, ed.

For al-Jurjānī, then, a sentence containing the particle of comparison, or any other explicit expression of comparison, would unequivocally be a literal one.¹¹⁵⁹

Whether Ibn al-Naqīb fully accepts al-Rāzī's view is questionable. First, when stating that there are words that signify the notion of 'likening', he adds the stipulation: "whether the utterance [perhaps here: sentence] is literal or figurative" (*kāna l-kalāmu ḥaqīqatan aw majāzan*). This opens the possibility of admitting either a literal or figurative understating of a sentence that contains the notion of likening (i.e., the particle of comparison). Second, and reinforcing the latter conclusion, one of the two definitions Ibn al-Naqīb provides for *tashbīh* also admits either a literal or figurative understanding. Both definitions are again unacknowledged quotations, this time from Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's *Jāmi'* (not repeated in the *Mathal*). According to the definition in question, *tashbīh* is "indicating [the fact that] two things share a property (*ma'nan min al-ma'anī*), and that one of them may take the place of the other, *whether it is by way of ḥaqīqa or majāz*" (emphasis added; *al-dalālatu 'alā -shtirāki shay'ayni fī ma'nan mina l-ma'anī wa-anna aḥadahumā yasuddu masadda l-ākharī wa-yanūbu manābahu sawā'an kāna dhālika ḥaqīqatan aw majāzan*).¹¹⁶⁰

The *ḥaqīqa* case is then explained as a case in which one says with regards to two entities, that one of them resembles the other in all of its qualities (*jamī' awṣāfihi*), like two black entities, or white ones, and the like. The *majāz* case is explained as a case in which one says

Kāzīm Baḥr al-Marjān, 2 vols., [Baghdad]: al-Jumhūriyya al-'Irāqiyya, Wizārat al-Thaqāfa wa-l-I'lām, Dār al-Rashīd li-l-Nashr, 1982, 2: 71).

¹¹⁵⁹ Ibn al-Zamlakānī followed al-Jurjānī in taking the *ḥurūf wa-asmā'alfāz* are a reference to the particles and words of similitude: *a-lā tarā annaka idhā shabbahta zaydan bi-l-asadi bi-dalālatihi l-waḍ' iyyati qulta zaydun yushbihu l-asada fī shajā'atihi* "Don't you see that if you likened Zayd to a lion using its original signification you, would say 'Zayd resembles a lion in his courage'" (*al-Burhān*, 122).

¹¹⁶⁰ *Muqaddima*, 113; *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 90. This definition is the second, and more elaborate, of the two definitions provided by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn; it is preceded by *yuqālu*, which may indicate that it was less favored (in Ibn al-Naqīb's version, it is preceded by *wa-qāla qawmun*).

with regards to two entities, that one of them resembles the other in one of its qualities (*ba‘ḍ awṣāfihi*), like saying “Zayd is a lion.”¹¹⁶¹ The critical statement is what follows:

fa-hādhā l-qawlu [zaydun asadun] ṣawābun min ḥaythu l-‘urfī wa-dākhilun fī bābi l-mubālaghati illā annahu lam yakun zaydun asadan ‘alā l-ḥaqīqa

This saying [“Zayd is a lion”] is correct in terms of conventional usage and is included within the category of exaggeration, except that Zayd is not really (or: in truth) a lion.¹¹⁶²

The key terms here are *ṣawāb* and *‘alā l-ḥaqīqa*, which point to the realm of the real world, or actual reality, rather than the realm of language. It would seem, then, that the opposite of *ḥaqīqa* – *majāz* – is too understood, at least in the context of *tashbīh*, on the ontological level.¹¹⁶³ Not only is Ibn al-Naqīb implicitly rejecting al-Rāzī’s inclusion of simile within *majāz*, his understanding of *majāz* seems to differ entirely by forsaking its linguistic aspect.¹¹⁶⁴

As we have seen, the tension between an ontological and linguistic understanding of the

¹¹⁶¹ *Muqaddima*, 113-14; *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 90. See also our discussion of *tashbīh* in §5.1. As a reminder, a sentence like “Zayd is a lion” (no particle of comparison) has long been considered a simile in classical Arabic thinking rather than a metaphor (as would be in the Western tradition), since the topic (“Zayd”) is mentioned.

¹¹⁶² *Muqaddima*, 114; *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 90. Note the lacuna in *al-Fawā‘id*, 55, rectified in the *Muqaddima*, based on an earlier edition of the *Fawā‘id*. As the editor ‘Alī notes, the wording here rectifies a typo in the text of the *Jāmi‘*, where *‘urf* should be read instead of *‘arab* (and see *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 90, fn. 2, explaining why the editor inserted [*kalām*] *al-‘arab*). Heinrichs translates *‘alā l-ḥaqīqa* in Ibn Qutayba’s *Ta‘wīl* as “in truth” in the context of God’s speech (“Genesis,” 131).

¹¹⁶³ See also Chapter 5 Preliminaries and §5.1.

¹¹⁶⁴ Perhaps as additional evidence for his inclusion of *tashbīh* within *majāz*, we may cite Ibn al-Naqīb’s use of the term *majāz al-tashbīh* elsewhere in his work (e.g., *Muqaddima*, 37, 86), although this term is probably derived from al-‘Izz’s *Ishāra*. There, a large section on *tashbīh* occupies the forty-fourth category of *majāz*, in which a hundred and nine subcategories of *tashbīh* are enumerated. The notion of *tashbīh* by al-‘Izz differs fundamentally and would probably best be understood as lexicalized cases of dead metaphors based on some kind of comparison, such as using the notion of *istiḳāma* ‘straightness’ to denote good deeds (*al-Ishāra*, 88). In this sense, the lexicographical sense of *majāz* is clearly preserved. Let us add that al-‘Izz too admits either a literal or figurative sense for *tashbīh*, but for a different reason (*al-Ishāra*, 85): when the particle of comparison is expressed, it is a case of *tashbīh ḥaqīqa*, and when it is not, it is *tashbīh majāz*. An example for the latter would be Q 33:6 *wa-azwājuhu ummuhātuhum* “his wives are their mothers” – a case not unlike the ones found in Ibn al-Naqīb’s work, but once again, the vast majority of examples that follow this short preamble (under the heading *majāz al-tashbīh*) are cases of dead metaphors (*al-Ishāra*, 87-136).

ḥaqīqa-majāz pairing was a hallmark of early (third/ninth century) theological deliberations.¹¹⁶⁵ In this sense, ‘Izz al-Dīn’s *Ishāra* is reflective of that tradition – not the literary tradition of Ibn Rashīq et al. – and some of the ambiguity surrounding the ontological/linguistic aspect passes on to Ibn al-Naqīb’s *Muqaddima*. Many of the metonymic sections, for instance, are explained by reverting to ‘reality’ and ‘real existence’, especially with respect to God’s actions. The key expression here is, once more, ‘*alā l-ḥaqīqa* ‘really, in truth’, but also *fī l-ḥaqīqa* ‘in actuality’ and *ḥaqīqī* ‘real’ occur. For instance, with respect to ‘scheming’ (*makara*) and ‘deceiving’ (*khādi*) mentioned in several Qur’ānic verses, it is not the possible meanings of the words that are discussed, but rather the extralinguistic possibilities of what God actually *did* (*yaḥtamilu an yakūna makru-llāhi ḥaqīqiyyan*).¹¹⁶⁶ Similarly, certain verbs are understood as being attributed to God rather than the expressed subject, since it is He who performed them *in truth* (*al-muqaddim/al-mukhrij/al-nāzi* ‘*alā l-ḥaqīqa huwa-llāh ta’ālā*).¹¹⁶⁷ This operation is not limited to God: the verb *akhadha mīthāq* ‘to take a covenant’ is understood as figurative when said of women, since “the taker *in truth* is the person in authority and the woman is the one who gives permission” (*al-ākhidhu ‘alā l-ḥaqīqati huwa l-waliyyu wa-l-mar’atu l-ādhinatu fīhi*).¹¹⁶⁸ Once again, the interpreter (Ibn al-Naqīb, ‘Izz al-Dīn) appeals to the real world when assessing this instance of *majāz*.

If the case of *tashbīh* and many of the metonymic categories of *majāz* point to an extralinguistic notion of *majāz*, with *isti’āra* we have a more conventional proceeding grounded

¹¹⁶⁵ See Chapter 5 Preliminaries and fn. 659.

¹¹⁶⁶ *Muqaddima*, 36-37.

¹¹⁶⁷ Ibid., 42. The verbs ‘bringing forth [a calamity]’, ‘repelling’, and ‘driving out’ are originally predicated of either unknown entities or Satan. Cf. the early discussion of al-Kindī regarding *al-fā’il al-ḥaqq* in fn. 659.

¹¹⁶⁸ Ibid. (with respect to Q 4:21 *wa-akhadha minikum mīthāqan ghalīẓan* “they have taken from you a strong covenant”).

in language and reflective of both ‘classical’ literary theory and ‘standard’ rhetorical notions.

Much of the chapter is adopted from al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya* and includes standard categories such as

the ‘imaginary metaphor’ (*isti ‘āra takhyīliyya*) and ‘metaphor by allusion’ (*isti ‘āra bi-l-*

kināya).¹¹⁶⁹ And yet, the chapter may provide some context for Ibn al-Naqīb’s cautionary attitude

toward Fakhr al-Dīn. As previously mentioned, here too the question *hal huwa min al-majāz am*

lā precedes the discussion, but this time al-Rāzī is mentioned by name as the single scholar who

went against the decidedly mainstream opinion that holds metaphor to be a type of *majāz*.

According to Ibn al-Naqīb, al-Rāzī claims there to be “no [word/meaning] transfer” (‘*adam al-*

naql) in the case of metaphor, thus excluding it from being figurative speech.¹¹⁷⁰ This view is not

quite observed, one might state, in al-Rāzī’s *Nihāya*.¹¹⁷¹ However, we have seen from examining

al-Jurjānī’s own thesis on *majāz* (metonymies, conceptual metaphors, etc.), that it is hard to

reconcile *isti ‘āra* with *majāz*. Obviously no scholar would explicitly exclude *isti ‘āra* from *majāz*,

and the fact that Ibn al-Naqīb ascribes this view to al-Rāzī shows that the latter, while recognized

as a *muḥaqqiq*, was not necessarily perceived as being right.¹¹⁷² Ibn al-Naqīb probably has al-

¹¹⁶⁹ Ibid., 107, 110. See Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī’s treatment above and Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī’s below. Still, we also find references to Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *Jāmi’* (ibid., 102, 106). As aforementioned, a chapter on *isti ‘āra* is absent in ‘Izz al-Dīn’s *Ishāra*. The editor of the *Muqaddima* also cites unacknowledged references to al-Zanjānī’s *Mi ‘yār*.

¹¹⁷⁰ *Muqaddima*, 89.

¹¹⁷¹ At certain points (e.g., *Nihāya*, 232, 234) it does indeed seem like al-Rāzī is rejecting the notion of *majāz* with regards to *isti ‘āra*, despite other textual evidence pointing to the contrary (ibid., 213, 237). For instance, in proving that *naql* ‘transference’ occurs only in meaning (*ma ‘nā*) and not wording (*lafẓ, ism*), he analyzes the cases of “Zayd is a lion” and “reins in the hand of the north wind” (from the famous Labīd line) in terms of *iddi ‘ā* ‘a claiming’ rather than *naql*, a deliberation from which one could conclude that the notion of *majāz* is rejected altogether (ibid., 234). Furthermore, and perhaps more importantly, when glossing his own definition of *isti ‘āra* (ibid., 232, and repeated with acknowledgement in *Muqaddima*, 91), al-Rāzī explains that the stipulation “for the purpose of exaggerating the comparison” (*li-ajli l-mubālaghati fī l-tashbīh*) is mentioned in order for it “to be distinguished from *majāz*” (*li-tatamayyaza bihi ‘ani l-majāz; Nihāya*, 231 [all but the principal manuscript have *li-yatamayyaza*, see editor’s fn. 4]). Al-Rāzī is possibly referring here to dead metaphors (*majāz* cases based on similarity, but no ‘exaggeration’ thereof) and to metonymies (*majāz* cases based on contiguity rather than similarity). In any event, it is true that in some of his comments al-Jurjānī (not mentioned by Ibn al-Naqīb) in his later work, the *Dalā’il*, espouses the view that *isti ‘āra* does not concern word transfer.

¹¹⁷² This can be seen from Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥā’’s late work as well: we may recall that in the *Badī’ al-Qur’ān* he

Rāzī's 'eccentric' position on *isti'āra* in mind when dealing with the question of *tashbīh*. The case of *taqdīm wa-ta'khīr* (change in word order) – the other category that opens with *hal huwa min al-majāz am lā* – exemplifies again the noncommittal attitude of Ibn al-Naqīb towards the boundaries of *majāz*. The reason for non-inclusion, namely the absence of a word/meaning transfer, seems theoretically sound, as did the reason for the non-inclusion of *tashbīh* within *majāz*. But once more, we must rely on the mere choice of placing this category within *majāz* to glean Ibn al-Naqīb's support of its inclusion therein.¹¹⁷³

Idiomatic Language vis-à-vis Majāz

The actual definitions of *majāz* and *ḥaqīqa* reflect, not surprisingly, a linguistic understanding of the terms, which was well in place in legal and theological works. Probably following the wording of al-Rāzī, a distinction is made between *majāz* on the level of single words (*fī l-mufradāt*) and *majāz* on the level of sentences (*fī l-jumal*).¹¹⁷⁴ The preceding account suggests, however, that Ibn al-Naqīb did not heed these definitions. Also telling is the paragraph opening the theoretical discussion on *majāz* (which contains the various definitions and stipulations), which speaks of the reason due to which the Arabs use *majāz* in their language (*al-ma'nā alladhī ista'malat al-'arab al-majāz min ajlihi*). Here the old discourse of *al-ittisā' fī l-kalām*

abandons the older 'literary' view of *majāz*, which was present in his *Tahrīr al-taḥbīr*, in favor of the theory laid out by al-Rāzī. But he is also willing to criticize al-Rāzī when necessary (*Badī' al-Qur'ān*, 128), either due to a warranted reason or as a show of "counter-*taḥqīq*."

¹¹⁷³ *Muqaddima*, 166. The reason provided for counting *taqdīm wa-ta'khīr* within *majāz* is that mentioning first what deserves to be mentioned later is equivalent to (*ka-*) something transferred (*manqūl*). Early sources famously include change in word order in the purview of *majāz*, such as Ibn Qutayba. This category too is absent from 'Izz al-Dīn's *Ishāra*.

¹¹⁷⁴ *Muqaddima*, 23; *Nihāya*, 169-73. Ibn al-Naqīb also alludes, briefly, to discussions found in 'Izz al-Dīn's *Ishāra* (*Muqaddima*, 24; *Ishāra*, 28) on the degrees of 'connectivity' between a *ḥaqīqa* and *majāz* (for al-'Izz here: 'pragmatic' *majāz*, or implicatures, like saying to a woman one wishes to divorce *i'taddī wa-stabri'ī raḥimaki* "Observe the *'idda* period [~three menstruation cycles] and keep your womb 'clean'" for "abstain from intercourse during this period"). Ibn al-Naqīb states that more information on the degrees of connectivity can be found in works dealing with *uṣūl al-fiqh*, presumably viewing the work of 'Izz al-Dīn as part of the tradition of legal theory.

‘extensiveness in speech’ comes up, and the ‘pleasure’ the Arabs take in expressing a plethora of meanings, evoking the older understanding of *majāz* as ‘idiomatic language’. Following this motif, Ibn al-Naqīb states that Arabs used *majāz* so much that it was more in use than ‘transparent speech’ (*al-ḥaqā’iq*).¹¹⁷⁵ This leads us to the closing section of Ibn al-Naqīb’s work, in which over one hundred categories of non-transparent or ‘deviant’ types of linguistic phenomena found in the Qur’ān are enumerated.¹¹⁷⁶ This appendix of-sorts resembles a table of contents for many of the *majāz* categories, but interestingly, here Ibn al-Naqīb does not use the term *majāz* (*al-tajawwuz bi-X ‘an Y* occurs for several categories after the ninety-ninth one). Rather, the list is presented as types of address (from God) that encompass all kinds of eloquent usage, either deviating from transparent wording or not. De facto, the vast majority of categories reflect the non-transparent usage.¹¹⁷⁷

The terminology of deviation in this appendix presents a distinction between *talwīn al-khiṭāb wa-ma ‘dūluhu* “variation and deviance in address” or *ma ‘dūl bihi ‘an ḥaqīqatihi ilā masmū ‘ihi* “[speech] which is diverted from its literal/real [meaning] to the [meaning] of what is heard from it,” on one hand, and *bāqin ‘alā aṣli madlūlihi wa-mawḍū ‘ihi* “remaining in accordance with its original referent and meaning for which it was coined,” on the other.¹¹⁷⁸ Despite the absence of the term *majāz* here, the term *ḥaqīqa* is present and represents the basic form from which ‘divergence’ occurs (*ma ‘dūl bihi ‘an ḥaqīqatihi*). It would seem that *this* list of non-transparent usage reflects the purely linguistic notion of *majāz*, akin to the old philological

¹¹⁷⁵ *Muqaddima*, 22-23.

¹¹⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, 526-34.

¹¹⁷⁷ The handful of transparent speech categories include cases such as ‘addressing a species’, ‘addressing an individual’, ‘the address of praise’, ‘the address of blame’; see *ibid.*, 526-27.

¹¹⁷⁸ *Ibid.*, 526. The term *masmū ‘* seems to be taken from legal theory.

use of the term. Not surprisingly, all examples display lexicalized usage, that is, usage that has become part of the convention of the Arabic language, even if not originally ‘transparent’. This is in opposition to a case like *tashbīh*, which pointed to an ontological understanding of *majāz*, or what we may term ‘the poetic *majāz*’.

To highlight the difference between the poetic *majāz* and lexicalized *majāz*, it may be useful to say a few more words about the appendix. The variety of ‘deviating’ speech categories enumerated in the appendix include grammatical deviation, such as addressing the singular by using the plural; lexical deviation, such as using the word ‘force’ to express ‘weapon’ (i.e., metonymies; the majority of categories falls under this rubric); morphological deviation, such as using the *fa’ala* form (*al-māḍī*) to express a future tense; and pragmatic deviation, such as using the declarative mood to express a prohibition.¹¹⁷⁹ All instances are germane to conventional everyday speech, not poetic speech. It is noteworthy that *tashbīh*, *isti’āra* and *taqdīm wa-ta’khr* are absent from this long list, especially since Ibn al-Naqīb presented the list as encompassing all types of eloquent language.¹¹⁸⁰ What is more, the phrase *khāṭaba al-‘arab bi-lisānihim* “He addressed the Arabs using their tongue” (to explain God’s wording) points to everyday speech, not poetic. The grounding of the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* pairing in a purely linguistic discourse appears towards the end of the list, when Ibn al-Naqīb enumerates deviant usage of particles (what we would regard as lexical deviation). Here one of the particles is glossed as being used *ḥaqīqatan fī [...] wa-majāzan fī* “literally/originally [to denote X] and non-transparently/idiomatically [to denote Y].” More often, however, we find that the opposition is made between *ḥaqīqatan fī [...]*

¹¹⁷⁹ Ibid., 527, 530 and 533, respectively.

¹¹⁸⁰ Ibid. 527 (*funūn al-balāgha wa-ḍurūb al-faṣāḥa wa-ajnās al-tajnīs wa-badā’i’ al-badī’ wa-maḥāsīn al-ḥikam wa-l-amthāl*). Notably, the editor characterizes the entire section as a general overview, or table of contents, for the categories of eloquence (*funūn al-balāgha*) that had been mentioned previously (ibid., 526 fn. 1, 686).

and *tajawwaza bihā ‘an [...]* “it [the particle] is used beyond [its original, transparent meaning] to [denote Y].”¹¹⁸¹ The relative absence of the term *majāz* in this section in favor of *tajawwaza*, and the presence – nevertheless – of the term *ḥaqīqa*, may point to a different understanding of *majāz* in the body of Ibn al-Naqīb’s work, one that has ontological reality at its core (as reflected in language), rather than language proper. What is more, despite the Qur’ānic bent of his work, Ibn al-Naqīb preserves an understanding of *majāz*, at least in the body of his work, that is markedly poetic.

5.5. Putting Theory into Unusual Practice: Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī

Following Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr in *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, Najm al-Dīn al-Ṭūfī presents his meta-discourse on *ḥaqīqa-majāz* under the first division of the work dealing with “general properties of ‘ilm al-bayān,” whereas the individual figures of speech (*anwā‘ ‘ilm al-bayān*), among them those that reflect figurative language, under the second division dealing with “particular properties of ‘ilm al-bayān.”¹¹⁸² Al-Ṭūfī does not normally specify whether a certain figure of speech is literal or non-literal, *isti‘āra* being a notable exception.¹¹⁸³ As in other chapters, the chapter on *ḥaqīqa-majāz* follows closely that found in the *Jāmi‘*, with notable modifications. Al-Ṭūfī does not take as a minority view the notion that the word *ḥaqīqa* is a homonym, as did Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn in the *Jāmi‘*. Rather, it is presented as a homonym from the outset, signifying both the essence of a thing (*dhāt, māhiyya*), i.e., an extra-linguistic notion, and a word used according

¹¹⁸¹ Ibid., 533-34.

¹¹⁸² *Al-Iksīr*, 60-67 and 109 ff.

¹¹⁸³ *wa-bi-hādhā l-qaydi tanfaṣilu ‘an sāriri wujūhi l-majāz* “with this restriction [the purpose of exaggerating similarity] it [*isti‘āra*] is set apart from the other types of non-literal speech” (ibid., 109.8-9).

to its original coinage, i.e., a linguistic notion.¹¹⁸⁴ *Majāz* is introduced as the counterpart to the linguistic notion of *ḥaqīqa*.¹¹⁸⁵ Al-Ṭūfī presents a list of *majāz* categories, the contents of which we may classify as metonymies and dead metaphors. He limits the list Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn specified (derived from al-Ghazālī) to ten categories, reflecting ten major relations between concepts. These include, *inter alia*, effect-cause (metonymy: naming wine ‘grapes’), whole-part (synecdoche: naming a single *sūra* or verse ‘Qur’ān’), physical contiguity (synecdoche: naming the leather water-bag a *rāwiya* ‘camel carrying the water-bag’) and similarity (dead metaphor: naming a stupid person ‘ass’).¹¹⁸⁶

Limiting Majāz to the Single Word

Despite his presentation of a shorter list of *majāz* types, al-Ṭūfī acknowledges that the number of relations and associations (*al-‘alāqāt wa-l-munāsabāt, jihāt al-‘alāqa*) between things or concepts (*ashyā’*) is limitless.¹¹⁸⁷ The relation between concepts, presented at times as one between words (*lafẓān*), is referred to as *al-‘alāqa al-mujawwiza* ‘transgressing relation’ and could not be overstated in al-Ṭūfī’s conception of *majāz*.¹¹⁸⁸ In an earlier comment under one of the preliminary sections of the work, he observes two opinions regarding the formation of

¹¹⁸⁴ The definition offered by al-Ṭūfī to the linguistic notion is formulated more rigorously to accommodate the notions of *ḥaqīqa shar’iyya* ‘legal literal usage’ (as in *ṣalāt* in the sense of the Islamic ritualistic prayer) and *ḥaqīqa ‘urfiyya* ‘customary [rather than original to the lexicon] literal usage’ (as in *dābba* in the sense of four-legged animal). See *ibid.*, 60. Compare Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *al-lafẓ al-dāll ‘alā mawḍū’ihi al-aṣlī* “a word indicating its original coinage” (*al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr*, 28) with al-Ṭūfī’s *al-lafẓ al-musta‘mal fī mawḍū’ihi al-mutakhāṭab bihi ‘inda irādat al-takhāṭub* “a word used according to the coinage that was spoken at the time the discourse was intended” (*al-Iksīr*, 60).

¹¹⁸⁵ *Al-Iksīr*, 60.9.

¹¹⁸⁶ *Ibid.*, 60-62.

¹¹⁸⁷ *Ibid.*, 64.11-12; see also 60.12.

¹¹⁸⁸ *Ibid.*, 60.12. Here he is limiting the relation to *mushābaha* ‘similarity’, but this is probably an oversight. In choosing the word ‘transgressing’ I follow Vishanoff, *Formation*, 21 (without the negative connotation it has in English). For *lafẓān* see *al-Iksīr*, 66.7.

figurative usage. According to the first, perhaps alluding to the position espoused by scholars such as the Ash‘arī al-Bāqillānī, *majāz* is determined according to transmitted knowledge (*naql*), that is, previous Arabic usage (*isti‘māl*). According to the second position, favored by al-Ṭūfī and seemingly most of the scholars of ‘*ilm al-bayān*’ (‘*ulamā’ al-bayān*’), *majāz* is conditioned upon a word transfer (*naql*) that stems from an apparent relation (‘*alāqa zāhira*’): “whenever we find it [this condition] we ‘transgress’ and use [the figurative expression].”¹¹⁸⁹ In other words, it is due to the ‘*alāqa*’ that one may create (a word not explicitly used by al-Ṭūfī) new figurative expressions. However, this position is at odds with the examples provided in the *ḥaqīqa-majāz* chapter, all of which reflect usage that has become part of the lexicon. What is more, the remark reveals the place *naql* ‘word/meaning transfer’ holds in the conception of *majāz*. Although not specified elsewhere, it is clear that the notion of *naql* is implicitly understood to stand at the basis of figurative usage, limiting the phenomenon to the single word (*lafẓ*). At one point al-Ṭūfī even states that the pillars (*arkān*) of *majāz* are the two words (*lafẓān*) and the relation between them (‘*alāqa*’), giving credence to this limitation.

We now move to the study of *isti‘āra* by al-Ṭūfī to determine how a limited notion of *majāz* is reconciled with metaphors that may not display single word tropes. Here, al-Ṭūfī turns out to be more rigorous in his presentation, as he displays independence both in the structuring of the chapter as well as in analyses of specific metaphors that contradict the view of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn. First, al-Ṭūfī is explicit in stating that *isti‘āra* is a type of *majāz*. He repeats the definition he gave for *majāz* almost verbatim – a use of a word not according to its original coinage – adding the condition that its purpose is to exaggerate a comparison, a restriction that separates *isti‘āra*

¹¹⁸⁹ *Al-Iksīr*, 41, and repeated in 66. The resumptive pronoun in *fa-ḥaythu wajadnāhu tajawwaznā wa-sta‘malnā* refers to *sharḥ al-majāz* (41.6). For al-Bāqillānī’s view see §5.1, “The Legal Underpinnings of *Majāz*.”

from other *majāz* types.¹¹⁹⁰ Ḍiyā' al-Dīn did not speak of original word coinage in this context, and in the *Jāmi'* he did not even associate *isti'āra* with *majāz* explicitly. To be sure, this is the only place *majāz* is mentioned by al-Ṭūfī within the chapter of *isti'āra*.

Second, the rigor al-Ṭūfī displays can be demonstrated by the poetic examples he adduces (those that do not appear in the *Jāmi'*) and by the commentary he provides on them. The first poetic example in the chapter is one not mentioned by Ḍiyā' al-Dīn. It is designed to show that in the archetypal metaphor, the topic of comparison is absent (“I saw a lion” – topic not mentioned, versus “Zayd is a lion” – topic mentioned), but more importantly, it implicitly suggests that the archetypal metaphor is a noun metaphor. The line is from Zuhayr's *Mu'allaqa* (d. ca. 609)

[meter: *ṭawīl*]

ladā asadin shākī l-silāhi muqadhdhafin

lahū libadun azfāruhū lam tuqallamī

“Before a lion, [his] weapon iron-sharp, full of flesh,

He has manes, his nails not cut”¹¹⁹¹

Noun metaphors, adjective metaphors, verb metaphors and particle metaphors are categories that

¹¹⁹⁰ *isti'mālu l-laḏī fī ḡhayri mā -ṣṭuliḡa 'alayhi fī waḏ'ī l-takhāṭubi li-l-mubālagha fī l-tashbīhi wa-bi-hādhā l-qaydi tanfaṣilu 'an sā'iri wujūhi l-majāz; al-Iksīr, 109.*

¹¹⁹¹ *Ibid.*, 109. In my translation I follow the main interpretations presented in the commentaries by Abū Bakr al-Anbārī (d. 328/940) and al-Shantamarī's (d. 476/1083 or 1084). *Muqadhdhaf* is glossed as *kathīr al-laḡm* but could also mean “being thrown [blows] at.” See Abū Bakr Muḡammad b. Qāsīm al-Anbārī, *Sharḡ al-qaṣā'id al-sab' al-ṭiwāl*, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Muḡammad Hārūn, Cairo: Dār al-Ma'ārif, [1963], 277-79 (where the version of the verse is slightly different); Abū al-Ḥajjāj Yūsuf b. Sulaymān b. 'Īsā al-A'lam al-Shantamarī, *Sharḡ dīwān Zuhayr b. Abī Sulmā al-Muzanī*, [Cairo:] al-Maṭba'a al-Ḥamīdiyya, 1323 [1905 or 1906], 10-11. The commentators acknowledge that by *asad* Zuhayr means (*arāda*) ‘army’ (*jaysh*), and that the rest of the line is grammatically predicated of ‘lion’ (*wa-ḡamala laḏ' al-bayt 'alā al-asad* in al-Shantamarī; *wa-l-laḏī 'alā l-asad* in al-Anbārī). Al-Anbārī recognizes that it is a metaphor by saying that the lion is a *mathal* for the army (see Chapter 5 Preliminaries on the early meaning of *mathal*). Al-Shantamarī does not use the terminology of *mathal* or *isti'āra* here. His focus is on the use of ‘nails’ to refer to ‘weapon’, and the verb he uses to express this trope is *kanā* ‘to allude, call’ (*kanā bi-l-azfār 'an al-silāḡ*). Incidentally – or not – the first poetic example for *isti'āra* cited by al-Qazwīnī is this one (it was not used by al-Sakkākī); see al-Qazwīnī, *Talkhīs*, 268 and *al-Īḏāḡ*, 407 (it was also discussed by al-Zamakhsharī with regards to Q 2: 18 *ṣummun bukmun 'umyun* “Deaf, dumb, blind” in *al-Kashshāf* 1: 205, on whether there is any element alluding to the topic, hence rendering it a *tashbīh balīgh*, not *isti'āra*).

al-Ṭūfī explicitly designates later on in the chapter.¹¹⁹² One may surmise that he preferred to start with Zuhayr’s line rather than the first poetic example adduced by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn since the latter contained a verb metaphor. This is the second example al-Ṭūfī adduces, Ibn al-Mu‘tazz’s (not mentioned by name) [meter: *madīd*]

athmarat aghṣānu rāḥatiḥī

li-junāti l-ḥusni ‘unnābā

“The branches of the palm of his hand produced
 jujube fruit for the harvesters of beauty”¹¹⁹³

Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn limited his gloss to the noun metaphors, in a passage derived almost verbatim from al-Jurjānī’s *Dalā’il* (unacknowledged, of course).¹¹⁹⁴ The focus was on fingers-for-branches, seekers of beauty-for-harvesters, and (implicitly) henna-dyed fingertips-for-jujube fruit. Al-Ṭūfī adds to these and spells out the verb metaphor in *athmarat* (= ‘to appear’) as well. Moreover, whereas Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, following al-Jurjānī, explicated the metaphor, and others like it, in terms of a comparison, al-Ṭūfī’s commentary betrays a consistency of conceiving of *isti‘āra* as a word transfer/borrowing:

[Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, following al-Jurjānī]

a-lā tarā annaka law kallafta naḥsaka an tuḥira l-tashbīha wa-tuḥṣiḥa bihi -ḥtajta ilā an taqūla athmarat aṣābi‘u yadihi -llatī hiya ka-l-aghṣāni li-ṭālibi l-ḥusni shibha l-‘unnābi min aṭrāfiḥā l-makhḍūlati [should be makhḍūba] wa-man lahu adnā tashabbuthin bi-

¹¹⁹² *Al-Iksīr*, 112. According to Ibn al-Naqīb (*Muqaddima*, 106), this section appears already in the *Jāmi‘*. In legal theory the discussion of *majāz* is customarily confined to the noun (e.g. al-Āmidī, *al-Iḥkām* 1: 36 ff., assuming that metaphor is a subtype of *majāz*). Al-Zamakhsharī states that *isti‘āra* may appear in nouns, adjectives (*ṣifāt*) and verbs (*al-Kashshāf* 1: 204); al-Ṭūfī may be following al-Zamakhsharī here. Before al-Zamakhsharī (and before al-Jurjānī), al-Rāghib al-Iṣfahānī makes a distinction between metaphors occurring in nouns, verbs, particles, and more, in his work on *badī‘* (Key, *Linguistic Frame of Mind*, 180).

¹¹⁹³ *Ibid.*, 110 and *al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 84; Ibn al-Mu‘tazz, *Dīwān* (ed. Sharīf), 1: 228.

¹¹⁹⁴ *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 84; *Dalā’il*, 450-51.

hādhīhi l-ṣinā'ati ya'lamu l-faḍīlata bayna mā taḍammanahu hādhā l-baytu mina l-isti'ārati wa-bayna iḥhārihi ilā l-tashbīhi fa-'rif dhālika wa-qis 'alayhi

Don't you see that if you take it upon yourself to make the comparison visible and utter it explicitly, you would need to say: "The fingers of his hands, which are like branches, produced for the seeker of beauty something jujube-like from its moist [should be: dyed (with henna)] edges." Anyone with the least grounding in this craft can distinguish the excellence that the metaphor in this line has from its formulation as an explicit simile. So know that and deduce from it!¹¹⁹⁵

[Al-Ṭūfī]

fa-sta'āra l-ithmāra li-l-zuhūri wa-l-aghṣāna li-l-aṣābi'i wa-l-ijtinā'a li-l-ṭalabi wa-l-'unnāba li-l-anāmili l-makhṣūṣati [again, probably al-makhḍūba] fa-law aḥhara l-tashbīha bi-an qīla ḥahara min aṣābi'i yadihi -llatī hiya ka-l-aghṣāni li-ṭālibī l-ḥusni shibhu l-'unnābi la-ṭāla l-kalāmu wa-rakka wa-zāla rawnaquhu

[The poet] borrowed [the word] "producing (bearing fruit)" for [the notion of] "appearing" and [the word] "branches" for [the notion of] "fingers" and [the word] "harvest" for [the notion of] "quest" and [the word] "jujube" for [the notion of] the given [or (henna-)dyed] "fingertips." Had he made the comparison/simile explicit by saying, "There appeared from the fingers of his hand, which are like branches, for the seekers of beauty something jujube-like," then the utterance would be lengthy and weak, and its splendor would disappear.¹¹⁹⁶

Although al-Ṭūfī embeds Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's reformulation of the metaphor as a simile, the discourse he uses accentuates the idea that a *word* has been borrowed. His response to *shawāhid*, both Qur'ānic and poetic, strictly follow the formulaic *fa-sta'āra X li-Y* "he borrowed X for Y," or more often, *fa-sta'āra lafẓ al-X li-Y* "he borrowed the word X for [the notion] Y," whether the metaphor is a noun or a verb (in which case the verb is reduced to its *maṣdar*).¹¹⁹⁷ This type of

¹¹⁹⁵ *Al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 84; al-Jurjānī, *Dalā'il*, 450-51. The passage is discussed in Harb, *Poetic Marvels*, 211; it later appears in al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 248, al-Zanjānī, *Mi'yār*, 69-70, and elsewhere.

¹¹⁹⁶ *Al-Iksīr*, 110.

¹¹⁹⁷ *Ibid.*, 110.10-11, 111.6 (for *fa-sta'āra X li-Y*), 113.12, 113.3^c-114.2, 114.5, 114.14-15, 115.9, 115.13, 115.1^c-116.1 (for *fa-sta'āra lafẓ al-X li-Y*). In one instance *lafẓ* is replaced with *ism*; see 115.7.

phraseology is not to be confused with the “old” phraseology of the loan metaphor, in which formulas such as *fa-sta ‘āra li-Y X* (or the like) referred to the borrowing of an object (or the mental image of that object), not the borrowing of a word.¹¹⁹⁸

In light of al-Ṭūfī’s strict evaluation of metaphors as word borrowings, it is revealing to see how he resolves sentence-long ascriptive metaphors (loan-metaphors in Heinrichs’ nomenclature). Heinrichs has pinpointed a development in the notion’s theory in which *isti ‘āra* was reduced from an analogy-based, sentence-long notion to a single-term notion. He notes the final stage of this evolution with al-Sakkākī’s reworking of the loan-metaphor (“death sinking its claws in,” the so-called “‘old’ metaphor”) into single-term metaphors.¹¹⁹⁹ We do not know if al-Ṭūfī was directly influenced by al-Sakkākī but it is likely that he was exposed to standardists’ theories. The important difference between al-Sakkākī’s ‘reduction’ and al-Ṭūfī’s one is that the latter maintains a nomenclature of word-transfer whereas al-Sakkākī does not.¹²⁰⁰ Our interest here lies in what al-Ṭūfī’s solution may tell us about his conception of *majāz*.

Commentary on Shawāhid

Al-Ṭūfī’s does not resolve sentence-long metaphors in a uniform way. Several cases he subsumes under the categories of *tarshīh* and *tajrīd*, subclasses of metaphor which seem well established by al-Ṭūfī’s time. And yet other cases he keeps in line with the word-transfer theory, a choice that may strike us as odd. Beginning with the latter alternative, let us consider the following line by Abū Tammām: [meter: *kāmil*]

¹¹⁹⁸ On the “old” phraseology see Heinrichs, *Hand of the Northwind*, e.g., 32-33.

¹¹⁹⁹ *Ibid.*, 14.

¹²⁰⁰ Al-Sakkākī, *Miftāḥ*, 376-77, 378-79. Although at certain points al-Sakkākī does employ the terminology of “naming Y ‘X’” (*an tuḥliqa ‘alā [...] ism [...]*); see 377.1, 377.7, 377.11-12.

wa-mu'arrasin li-l-ghaythi takhfiqū baynahū
rāyātu kulli dujunnatin waṭfā'ī

“Many a place for the rain to settle in for the night, where
the banners of every low-hanging dark cloud flutter”¹²⁰¹

In praising this line, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn employs the terminology of *ja' l al-shay' li-l-shay'* “making something belong to something else,” a phrase commonly used in the analysis of ‘old’ ascriptive metaphors, as Heinrichs has demonstrated.¹²⁰² What is being ascribed here is ‘banners’ to ‘clouds’ and Ḍiyā' al-Dīn seems to be using the phrase to denote a genitive metaphor. According to him, the poet “made the banners [tug banners or banners hung horizontally] belong to the clouds” because “the cloud that is hanging down, which becomes evident in the sky [lit. ‘air’] to the observer when the cloud is pouring forth, is similar (*mushābih*) to the dangling forelocks of the banners [in their string-like manner].”¹²⁰³ According to this analysis, the genitive metaphor is an identifying one (the banners are the rainclouds) and is based on the comparison: just as banners look when they dangle down, likewise clouds look when they are pouring rain. (In other words, it is not an attributive genitive metaphor of the type “claws of death,” despite the wording

¹²⁰¹ Ibid., 113; *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 85 and the commentaries by al-Khaṭīb al-Tibrīzī (d. 502/1109) and Ibn al-Mustawfī (d. 637/1239) on Abū Tammām's *dīwān*: al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 1: 26-27; Abū al-Barakāt Sharaf al-Dīn al-Mubārak b. Aḥmad al-Irbilī al-ma'rūf bi-Ibn al-Mustawfī, *al-Niẓām fī sharḥ shi'r al-Mutanabbī wa-Abī Tammām*, ed. Khalaf Rashīd Nu'mān, 12 vols., Baghdad: Dār al-Shu'ūn al-Thaqāfiyya al-Āmma, 1989, 1: 231-32. The preceding line is Abū Tammām's famous *lā tasqinī mā'a l-malāmi fa-innanī // ṣabbun qadi -sta dhabtu mā'a bukā'ī* “Do not give me water of blame to drink, for I am in love [and] have found the water of my tears [lit. weeping] to be sweet.” The literal translation of (*takhfiqū baynahū* above is “(to flutter) in front of it [the resting place for the night].”

¹²⁰² A summary can be found in *Hand of the Northwind*, 1-2. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn praises the line, but it is still placed below the highest level of metaphors, those that are in the Qur'ān and are inimitable; see *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 85.

¹²⁰³ *fa-ḥaythu ja'ala li-l-sahābati rāyātin kāna dhālika munāsiban li-anna l-haydaba -lladhī yastabīnu li-l-nāẓiri fī l-jawwi 'inda -nsikābi l-sahābati yakūnu mushābihan li-dhawā'ibi l-rāyāti*; *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 85. When the low-hanging cloud pours out rain, it looks like strings (see the definitions of *haydab* in Ibn Manẓūr, *Lisān al-'arab* 6: 4629). The banner Abū Tammām is referring to may be a tug banner, a pole with circularly arranged horse or yak tail hairs at the top. Tug banners are commonly associated with the Mongols but may have been known earlier in the Middle East. The white-haired tug banner symbolized peacetime whereas the black-haired one symbolized wartime. In our case the black tug banner would be appropriate since the clouds are dark and the cacophony of heavy rain would resemble that of war (cf. pre-Islamic images of lightning, below). Alternatively, this could simply be a reference to a banner hung horizontally with unwoven strings at the bottom (*hudb al-qaṭīfa*; see *ibid.* and below).

ja 'l al-shay' li-l-shay'.) As Heinrichs has shown, this type of genitive metaphor became common in the poetry of the *muḥdathūn* and is made possible by a concomitant verb metaphor – in our case ‘flutter’.¹²⁰⁴ In glossing the verb (*qawl*) *yakhfiqū*, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn adds an auditory component to the image in addition to the visual one, saying that “when the wind blows on the banners, they flutter due to their swaying, and they sound like a cloud when it pours rain, especially [in the case of] a heavy low-hanging cloud.”¹²⁰⁵

Al-Ṭūfī glosses the line differently. Because he goes word by word, explicating what each one stands for (*fa-sta 'āra lafẓ al-mu 'arras li-..., wa-lafẓ khufūq al-rāya* [to refer to the verb *yakhfiqū*] *li-..., etc.*), he breaks down the image to its basic constituents. Thus, the word ‘banner’ stands for “a cloud approaching the earth” (*hudb al-saḥāba*), as if it were “the unwoven ends of the extremities of a garment” (*hudb al-qaṭīfa*), and the word ‘fluttering’ stands for “the brisk movement [within] the cloud while it pours rain” (*hubūb al-saḥāba 'inda humūlihā wa-nṣībābihā*).¹²⁰⁶ According to this interpretation, there is no longer a unified visual image of a banner fluttering, for it is now the clouds that are conceived of as fluttering (metaphorically), not the banner. Instead of an animated and auditory image, what we have is a series of discrete static

¹²⁰⁴ According to Heinrichs' scheme, this metaphor would be classified as a “non-imaginary ‘old’ metaphor plus verb metaphor” and more accurately, as an “old” metaphor, non-imaginary (vs. imaginary), containing an identifying genitive construction (vs. attribute genitive construction), based on a simile (vs. not based on a simile). This is a theoretical classification based on Heinrichs' observations and does not directly reflect medieval classifications. See Heinrichs, “Paired Metaphors,” 4, 9. It is an ‘old’ metaphor since it contains “the intrusion of an element into a context that is foreign to it in the real world” (ibid., 4). It is non-imaginary because banners are not being truly ascribed to the rainclouds (unless the rainclouds are likened to army troops, in which case the banners would be truly ascriptive). The genitive metaphor is based on a simile because, at least according to the analyses of Ḍiyā' al-Dīn and al-Ṭūfī, there is a direct similarity between the banners and the rainclouds (we would probably say it is not based on a simile; see Heinrichs, “*Isti 'āra* and *Badī'*,” 197, and fn. 27, where he describes such metaphors as less typical).

¹²⁰⁵ *wa-ammā qawluhu yakhfiqū fa-huwa ayḍan ḥasanun marḍiyyun li-anna l-rīḥa idhā habbat 'alā l-rāyāti khafaqat bi-nawdhā wa-jā'a lahā ṣawtun ka-ṣawti l-saḥābati fī -nṣībābihā [wa-] humūlihā wa-nṣībābihā; al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 85. Sound images for thunder/wind in pre-Islamic poetry are rare but they do exist (see below).

¹²⁰⁶ *Al-Iksīr*, 113-14. He glosses the meaning of *khufūq* as *iḍṭirāb* ‘flickering’ (cf. images in pre-Islamic poetry, below).

snapshots: first, a banner hanging down, then the brisk change of composition (‘fluttering’) within the cloud while it rains. To be sure, each constituent of the metaphor is based on a similarity (conforming to al-Ṭūfī’s *isti‘āra* definition) – at one point he even uses the word *jāmi‘* ‘common attribute’ to express this – but there is no longer a perception of an animated analogy.¹²⁰⁷ Note that although he changes Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s interpretation, al-Ṭūfī still uses the same expressions, such as *hubūb* (used by the former in reference to the wind), *humūl wa-nṣībāb* (used by the former in the context of the storm’s sound), etc.

It should still be underscored that al-Ṭūfī’s interpretation of this image is inspired directly by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s account: the banners/the fluttering are a metaphor for the raining cloud. For if we look at the poetic commentaries on Abū Tammām’s poetry, we find that the interpretations of “the fluttering banners of the dark rainclouds” differ entirely. According to Abū al-‘Alā’ al-Ma‘arrī (d. 449/1058), whose commentary is preserved by his student al-Tibrīzī (d. 502/1109), the banners of the rainclouds stand for “lightning” (*burūq*, no mention of the verb ‘to flutter’).¹²⁰⁸ According to al-Ṣūlī (d. 335/946), as recorded by Ibn al-Mustawfī (d. 637/1239), the fluttering of the banners refer to “the abundance of rain in this place” (emphasis on rain, not cloud).¹²⁰⁹

¹²⁰⁷ Heinrichs points out to the loss of the unity of the image within the elaborate metaphor-scheme of al-Sakkākī (W.P. Heinrichs, “Metaphor,” *Encyclopedia of Arabic Literature*, 1: 522-24, herer: 524). The loss of the unity of the image is thus also observed in non-Sakkākian traditions (but that share a primarily Qur’ānic, rather than literary-minded approach). The question I am trying to answer is how a non-animated view of the image (due to the breaking down of the sentence metaphor) reflects on critics’ view of *majāz*.

¹²⁰⁸ Al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 1: 27 (*wa-l-rāyātu ya‘nī bihā l-burūqa li-annahā tushabbahu bihā [...] wa-innamā arāda l-barqa li-annahā yushabbahu bi-l-rāyāti*). In this case, if we return to Heinrichs’ analysis of metaphor, the genitive construction would be attributive (the banners are not the rainclouds). But it would still be a non-imaginary metaphor (?) because a substratum – albeit unstated – exists (i.e., ‘lightning’, as opposed to the ‘claws’ of death which have no equivalent). A case like this is perhaps what Heinrichs alludes to in stating that there exist other analogy-based metaphors besides the ‘inexpressive’ ones (‘hoof’ for ‘foot’), in which the transferred element has a counterpart in the domain of the topic (banners = lightning). See Heinrichs, “Metaphorologie-Traditionen,” 220.

¹²⁰⁹ Ibn al-Mustawfī, *al-Nizām* 1: 231 (*takhfiqū fīhi [sic] rāyātun hādhā mathalun arāda kathrata l-maṭari fī hādhā l-mawḍi‘i*). Note that he uses the old term *mathal* here to designate ‘metaphor’.

Images from pre-Islamic poetry could probably support all interpretations (if at all Abū Tammām was influenced by them).¹²¹⁰

The poetic commentaries are useful for another reason. They reveal that neither Ḍiyā' al-Dīn (in the *Jāmi'*) nor al-Ṭūfī dwell on the sentence metaphor *wa-mu'arrasin li-l-ghaythi* “many a place for the rain to settle in for the night,” a metaphor that takes center-stage in the commentators' accounts. Al-Ma'arrī sees the phrase as metaphorical (*min al-musta'ār*) since the term *ta'rīs* ‘alighting at a place during the latter part of the night’ (*al-nuzūl fī ākhir al-layl*) is only known for beings that have a corporeal form such as animals (*dhawī al-shukhūṣ min al-ḥayawān*).¹²¹¹ In other words, he takes it as a case of personification, since rain does not have a corporeal form and therefore cannot be attributed the act of settling in for the night. One commentator, as quoted by Ibn al-Mustawfī, reinforces this view by using the terminology *ja'ala li-l-ghaythi mu'arrasan* “he [the poet] made the rain have a resting place for the night,” saying that the poet did so “by way of metaphor” (*'alā l-isti'āra*).¹²¹² Al-Ṣūlī has a different

¹²¹⁰ Descriptions of clouds and rain within the context of pre-Islamic ‘lightning scenes’ are very common. See Ali Ahmad Hussein, *The Lightning-Scene in Ancient Arabic Poetry: Function, Narration and Idiosyncrasy in Pre-Islamic and Early Islamic Poetry*, Arabische Studien 3, Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz, 2009, 190-224. A direct connection between a low-hanging cloud (usually *haydab*) and lightning is, however, not a common one in pre-Islamic poetry, but it does exist; see *ibid.*, 197, 224. Common images for lightning during that period were lamps, horses, fire, and less frequently, a sword, a shield, the fluttering of a wing (*ka-takhfāqi l-janāhi*), and a white cloth; see *ibid.*, 182-90. Banners could be a development of the sword image as another type of element from the battlefield, or it could be a take on the fluttering of a wing (note the same verb use. I am not certain about how the image of a wing fluttering stands for lightning: probably its swift, blink-of-the-eye action). If the banners refer however to the raining cloud, it could be a take on the image of the flickering (verb *iḍṭaraba*) of a low-hanging raincloud due to the blowing of the wind (*ibid.*, 224). In this case the verb *iḍṭaraba* is used for the clouds, but it could also refer to the lightning (Hussein notes the phrase *iḍṭaraba l-barqu fī l-saḥāb*, *ibid.*). Another option is that the banners (*rāyāt*) are a take on the image of the heavy leathern water bags (*rawāyā*) – and note the paronomasia – that pour out water (*ibid.*, 201-202). Images for the sounds made by the storm (as we found in Ḍiyā' al-Dīn) are rare (*ibid.*, 223-24, 227). For exemplar images, both ‘ancient’ and ‘modern’ (‘Abbāsīd), of “clouds, rain, lightning, thunder, snow and frost” see Abū Hilāl al-‘Askarī, *Dīwān al-ma'ānī* 2: 3-12. Arie Schippers cites this metaphor in his list of genitive metaphors found in the poetry of Abū Tammām; he takes it for granted that the “banners of the dark rainclouds” refer to flashes of lightning (“Genitive Metaphor,” 256).

¹²¹¹ Al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 1: 26-27.

¹²¹² Ibn al-Mustawfī, *al-Niẓām* 1: 232. The name of the source Ibn al-Mustawfī is quoting is illegible in the manuscript (see editor’s fn. 17).

understanding: when *mu'arras* is used in the context of people (*qawm*), it refers to their stopping place in the latter part of the night, but when it is used in the context of rain, it refers to the place where rain pours.¹²¹³ In other words, he is assigning a *literal* sense to the phrase by expanding the lexical meaning of the verb *'arrasa*. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn does not attend at all to this image. For al-Ṭūfī, this is simply a single-word metaphor, rather than a sentence metaphor: the word (*lafẓ*) *mu'arras*, which refers to the place of alighting at night, was borrowed to refer to the place of rainfall.¹²¹⁴ Any notion of personification, and more broadly of an animated, rather than static image, is absent.¹²¹⁵

Another result of al-Ṭūfī's (impressive) conformity to his theory of metaphor is that it may come at the broader expense of regarding an image as visual at all (not just as animated). The following line by Abū Tammām, which Ḍiyā' al-Dīn deemed very ugly, may demonstrate the process: [meter: *khafīf*]

yawma fathīn saqā usūda l-ḍawāhī

kuthaba l-mawti rā'iban wa-ḥalībā

“On the day of conquest he gave the desert lions

milk bowls of death to drink, both thickened milk and fresh”¹²¹⁶

¹²¹³ Ibid.

¹²¹⁴ *Al-Iksīr*, 113 (*fā-sta'āra lafẓa l-mu'arrasi wa-huwa mawḍi'u l-ta'rīsi li-mawḍi'i wuqū'i l-ghaythi*).

¹²¹⁵ In Ḍiyā' al-Dīn's later scheme in the *Mathal*, this case would align with *tawassu'*. We might add that another major theme in the commentaries is to explain how *dujunna* ‘darkness’ – a word used to describe ‘night’ – is used in reference to ‘clouds’. For al-Ṭūfī, once more, the solution is simple: the word was borrowed for the notion of ‘black cloud’ (ibid., 114). For another example of al-Ṭūfī's avoidance of interpreting a sentence metaphor as an animated image for the sake of conformity to his theory see ibid., where *ša'ubat* [*al-khamr*] “the wine was hard” is glossed as “wine that was impossible to drink [without water],” and *rāḍa l-mā'u* “the water tamed [it]” as “made [its drinking] easier” (from a line taken from the same poem by Abū Tammām). But we might point out here that in his gloss, Ḍiyā' al-Dīn makes no mention of the verb metaphors (*al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 86).

¹²¹⁶ *Al-Iksīr*, 114-16; *al-Jāmi' al-kabīr*, 88; al-Tibrīzī, *Sharḥ* 1: 179; Ibn al-Mustawfī, *al-Niẓām*, 2: 254. *Kuthba* could mean a small portion of milk or the quantity of one milking or the quantity that is contained in a bowl or cup of the kind called *qadah*; see Lane, *Lexicon*, 2592. ‘Bowl’ seems to be appropriate for all meanings (a small portion of milk and a quantity of one milking could fit in it). According to one copy of al-Ṣūlī's (?) commentary, *kuthab al-*

In the *Jāmi* ‘Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn rejects the metaphor as having no point of comparison (*tabā’ud*) probably because he pictures a visual image of milk bowls – with its variety of milk – given to the enemy. (The terminology he uses is “making the milk bowls belong to death”).¹²¹⁷

Considered visually, the representation of inflicting death on the enemy using milk bowls is indeed out of the ordinary (‘creative’ in our terms). But for al-Ṭūfī, this is deemed an outstanding metaphor because he ingenuously identifies a very precise topic for the analogue of ‘thickened milk’ (coagulated milk) and ‘fresh milk’, namely, those who died slowly in battle versus those who died immediately.¹²¹⁸ If one assumes this interpretation, the words *rā’ib* and *ḥalīb* are simply meant to trigger in the mind of the recipient the analogy of slow/fast death rather the visual image of *actual* milk bowls given to the enemy. In al-Ṭūfī’s solution the poet is no longer creating a visual allusion, but rather an intellectual one. Similarly, Abū Tammām’s depiction of his patron’s generosity using the images of the “head/hump/skin/stomach-waste (*farth*)/veins/bones of generosity” is not deemed ugly by al-Ṭūfī the way it was by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, but rather seen as a reference to the famous Umayyad anecdote in which al-Farazdaq (d. *ca.* 110/728) ascribes those body parts to ‘poetry’ (and which he thinks Abū Tammām is explicitly alluding to).¹²¹⁹ Once more, the image al-Ṭūfī conceives of is intellectual, not visual.¹²²⁰

mawt is glossed as *jura’ al-mawt* ‘mouthfuls/doses of death’ (*wa-ḥī nuskhatin* [in reference to *qāla l-Ṣūlī?*] *kuthaba l-mawti ay jura’a l-mawti*; *al-Niẓām* 2: 254). The meaning of *al-ḍawāḥī* according to al-Ṣūlī (ibid.) is *mā zahara min kulli shay’in* “any object that is visible,” similar to the meaning of *ḍāḥiya* as anything (place, object, body part) that is exposed to the sun (*Lisān al-‘Arab* 4: 2561-62). On *ḍāḥiya* as *bāḍiya* see ibid. 4: 2562, 1st column.

¹²¹⁷ *Al-Jāmi’ al-kabīr*, 88. What is more, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn thinks ‘death’ should be expressed via a negative metaphor, not a positive one like ‘milk’.

¹²¹⁸ *Al-Iksīr*, 115-16. He also refutes Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s point on negative images of death by giving an example of pre-Islamic poetry in which death is depicted as a glass of wine given to the enemy to drink (here too he finds a point of similarity in the form of ‘absence of mind’ [*ghayba*] caused both by death and by intoxication).

¹²¹⁹ Ibid., 116. Al-Ṭūfī refers both to ‘poetry’ and to ‘generosity’ as “abstract notions” (?), *ma’nayayn*), to which the anecdote can be related. The anecdote in question is al-Farazdaq’s allegory of the history of poetry, in which poetry is described as a slaughtered camel, and the present-day (Umayyad) poets as having only the remains of that

Repurposing *Tarshīh* and *Tajrīd*

Returning now to the other mechanism by which al-Ṭūfī resolves sentence metaphors, this is done by means of *tarshīh al-isti‘āra* lit. ‘grooming a metaphor’ and *tajrīd al-isti‘āra* lit. ‘making a metaphor bare’, two categories or tendencies in the creation of metaphor.¹²²¹ These have become common notions in literary theory during this time: they were treated by al-Zamakhsharī (not quite in those terms), Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī, al-Sakkākī, al-Zanjānī, Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī and Ibn al-Naqīb (but not by al-Jurjānī or Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn).¹²²² In the case of *tarshīh* ‘groomed metaphor’, the domain of the analogue (*musta‘ār* or *musta‘ār minhu*) is ‘supported’ with additional elements whereas in *tajrīd* ‘bare metaphor’, it is ‘deprived’ and the domain of the topic (*musta‘ār lahu*) is

magnificent camel. See Abū Zayd Muḥammad b. Abī al-Khaṭṭāb al-Qurashī, *Jamharat ash‘ār al-‘arab fī al-jāhiliyya wa-l-islām*, ed. ‘Alī Muḥammad al-Bajāwī, Cairo: Nahḍat Miṣr, n.d., 63, 67.

¹²²⁰ The discussion of this metaphor ends with a statement which is slightly corrupted in the manuscript and which I am unable to make sense of. After stating that no one would reproach al-Farazdaq nor accuse him of “making ‘poetry’ an actual camel” (*ja‘alta l-shi‘ra jamalan ‘alā l-ḥaqīqa*), al-Ṭūfī concludes: *wa-l-isti‘āratu fī al-ḥaqīqati hiya l-tashbīhu fī l-ma‘nā* (this is the editor’s understanding of the corrupted original wording: *wa-l-isti‘āra hiya al-ḥaqīqa al-tashbīh fī l-ma‘nā*; see *ibid.*, fn. 3) lit. “metaphor in actuality is a comparison in meaning [or abstract notion, see previous fn.]” This seems to mean that metaphor amounts to a comparison between notions, or finding within a notion a certain likeness (to something else), akin to the statements we came across in Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī, that metaphor is in essence a comparison. The phrase *al-tashbīh fī l-ma‘nā* could also mean something like “giving a corporeal body (here: camel body parts) to an abstract notion (here: poetry, generosity)” (cf. the religious meaning of *tashbīh* as ‘anthropomorphism’), but it is an unlikely reading (it would refute al-Ṭūfī’s own analyses of metaphor, where we find no visual image).

¹²²¹ *Tarshīh* originally refers to the grooming, licking, and prodding that an animal does to its young (*Lisān al-‘arab* 3: 1649) or to the practice of a (human) mother putting milk in her baby’s mouth bit by bit, so that the baby can get used to suckling (*ibid.*; Ibn Ya‘qūb al-Maghribī, *Mawāhib al-fattāh fī talkhīṣ al-miftāh* in *Shurūh al-talkhīṣ*, 4 vols., reprint, Beirut: Dār al-Kutub al-‘Ilmiyya, n.d., 4: 130). I use the word ‘creation’ (of a metaphor) above because in explaining the processes of these two tendencies, it is the poet who is the subject of the various verbs constituting those processes (*an ya‘tiya*, *an yadhkura*, *rā‘ā*; *al-Iksīr*, 111-12). For a different sense of *tajrīd* see Heinrichs, “Rhetorical figures,” 659. For yet another sense of *tajrīd* see below.

¹²²² Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī, *Nihāya*, 249-51; al-Sakkākī, *Miftāh*, 385-87; al-Zanjānī, *Mi‘yār*, 74-79; Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī, *Rawḍa*, 103-106; Ibn al-Naqīb, *Muqaddima*, 107-108. In the case of al-Zamakhsharī, who seems to have been the first scholar to point out these phenomena, he calls the first category *al-majāz al-murashshaḥ* (*al-Kashshāf* 1: 193, 200 [Q 2:16-17]; *Asās*, 440 s.v. ‘*w.m*), and the second category is described but the term *tajrīd/mujarrad* is not used (see also Abū Mūsā, *al-Balāgha al-Qur‘āniyya fī tafsīr al-Zamakhsharī*, 421-24 [Q 16:112]). Ibn al-Zamlakānī, as a close ‘redactor’ of al-Jurjānī, does not treat it. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn heard of *tajrīd*, probably in the context of *isti‘āra*, but did not know its meaning (see below).

taken more into account.¹²²³ For instance, in the first line al-Ṭūfī adduced, *ladā asadin shākī l-silāhi* “before a lion, [his] weapon iron-sharp,” the expression *shākī l-silāh* reflects a *tajrīd*, since the mentioning of an iron-sharp weapon belongs to the domain of the topic (army troops), not the analogue (lion). Had the poet used the phrase *wāfī l-makhālib* “having ample claws,” says al-Ṭūfī, this would have been *tarshīh* (as ‘claws’ are an additional element in the domain of the analogue). Indeed, he continues, the poet did use a *tarshīh* by mentioning later in the line the manes and the uncut nails (*lahu libadun azfāruhu lam tuqallamī*), thus “combining both a *tarshīh* and a *tajrīd* in one line.”¹²²⁴

Al-Ṭūfī repurposes the common notion of *tarshīh* to include the classic loan-metaphor examples treated by Heinrichs. These are (1) the famous line by Imru’ al-Qays (6th cent.), *fa-qultu lahū lammā tamaṭṭā bi-ṣulbihī // wa-ardafa a ‘jāzan wa-nā’a bi-kalkalī* “And I said to it [the night] when it stretched out its back and followed up with [its] hindquarters and struggled to get up with [its] breast,” and (2) the famous line by Abū Dhu’ayb (1st/7th cent.), *wa-idhā l-manīyyatu anshabat azfārahā // alfayta kulla tamīmatin lā tanfa’ū* “When death sinks its claws in, you find all amulets of no avail.”¹²²⁵ The passage detailing these poetic examples are clearly inspired by someone other than Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, as the latter was unaware of the terms *tarshīh* and *tajrīd* in this sense.¹²²⁶ What is more, the presentation, as well as the use of terms, is quite

¹²²³ For *musta’ār* see *al-Iksīr*, 111.8, 112.4 (cf. editor’s fn. 2); *musta’ār minhu* is used later in 112.10.

¹²²⁴ *Ibid.*, 112; also *Nihāya*, 249-51; *Rawḍa*, 103-106; *Mi’yār*, 74-79; *Muqaddima*, 107.

¹²²⁵ Translations are Heinrichs’; see *Hand of the Northwind*, 3-4. The early critics’ theoretical analysis of the line by Imru’ al-Qays is carefully detailed by Heinrichs in the second part of his book (*ibid.*, 16-25; the latest critic cited is Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn, whose discussion is a response to Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī’s analysis, pp. 23-25).

¹²²⁶ In the *Jāmi’* there is no mention of these categories. In the *Mathal*, Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn does include a chapter on *tajrīd* – by his own account, a word (*ism*) he had heard but did not know the meaning of – but he basically made up its substance (*wa-dhakartu mā ataytu bihi min dhāt khāṭirī*) based on some preliminary remarks by Abū ‘Alī al-Fārisī (*Mathal* 2: 162 ff.). In his conception (which is not in fact his own), *tajrīd* lit. ‘abstraction’ refers to ‘internal dialogue’ expressed by an address of the poet using the second person. On this see Geert Jan van Gelder, “The Abstracted Self in Arabic Poetry,” *Journal of Arabic Literature* 14 (1983), 22-30, here: 26, 29. It is noteworthy that

polished. The line by Imru' al-Qays is given as an example of *tarshīh* containing an added element from the analogue-domain that is explicit (*muṭābaqatan wa-taṣrīhan*). Thus, since the poet described the night as “stretching out” (*tamaṭṭī*), he completed the description with elements “demanded by [the image of stretching]” (*bi-mā yastad'īhi; bi-mā yaqtaḍīhi*), namely “back, hindquarters and breast.”¹²²⁷

Ironically, this analysis restores the ‘original’ analogy that Heinrichs believes to have stood at the basis of the line: “the night – being so slow to depart – is compared to a camel that is unwilling to rise and go away,” rather than taking *kalkal*, *ṣulb* and ‘*ajuz* as “figurative equivalents of the beginning, middle, and end of the night respectively.”¹²²⁸ Indeed, from al-Ṭūfī’s analyses of *shawāhid* discussed above, it would seem most likely that he would espouse the latter, simile-based understanding of single-word metaphor. On one hand, this may indicate that the *tarshīh-tajrīd* discussion is extraneousness to al-Ṭūfī’s own thinking, especially since it precedes al-Ṭūfī’s own poetic analyses. What is more, the line by Abū Dhu’ayb is given as an example of *tarshīh* containing an added element from the analogue-domain that is implicit (*iltizāman wa-kināyatan*), a solution that is strongly reminiscent (at least at its core) of al-Sakkākī’s *isti‘āra bi-l-kināya* ‘metaphor by allusion’. According to the latter interpretation, the ‘sinking claws’ mentioned by the poet are necessary attributes of the unstated analogue, namely, lion.¹²²⁹ But on the other hand, it may not contradict al-Ṭūfī’s theory of single-word substitutions

while *tajrīd* lost any connection to *isti‘āra*, it appears in the *Mathal* immediately following the chapters on metaphor and simile. The source he consulted (oral or written) probably preserved that connection.

¹²²⁷ *Al-Iksīr*, 111.

¹²²⁸ *Hand of the Northwind*, 4.

¹²²⁹ On *isti‘āra bi-l-kināya* as an allusion to an unstated analogue see al-Sakkākī, *Miftāḥ*, 378-79; Heinrichs, “Metaphor,” 523. The notion is associated with *isti‘āra takhyīliyya* ‘imaginary metaphor’, that is, when the poet imagines an entity (like death) to be something else (like predator), and then annexes to it elements from the imagined domain (like fangs and claws); *Miftāḥ*, 376-77. Heinrichs adds that the *isti‘āra takhyīliyya* is characterized

after all: it would merely bypass it. The elements “back,” “breast,” “claws” etc., would be in no need of a metaphorical interpretation because they are now ‘free’ to be interpreted literally thanks to the process of ‘grooming the image’. Bypassing the need to interpret certain words metaphorically also solves the apparent incompatibility between the poetic notion of *isti‘āra* and a rigid definition of *majāz*. I am not aware of other theorists who treat the famous lines by Imru’ al-Qays and Abū Dhu’ayb as cases of *tarshīh*.

Evidence of the ‘discord’ between *isti‘āra* and *majāz* crops up in al-Ṭūfī’s work itself, where two idiosyncrasies in the text have *isti‘āra* and *majāz* grammatically contrasted. In the first instance, after adducing Qur’ānic examples that supposedly display metaphors in particles (*hurūf*), al-Ṭūfī concedes that they are “in fact [a case of] *majāz*, not *isti‘āra*, since there is no comparison in them”.¹²³⁰ We could resolve this by simply saying that *isti‘āra* is merely more specific than *majāz*. The second instance is harder to resolve. Under the chapter of *kināya* (here periphrasis or euphemism), al-Ṭūfī discusses the difference between *kināya* and *majāz*, preceded by the comment that “the difference between *isti‘āra* and *majāz*” has already been stated.¹²³¹ The interesting thing is that *kināya* is never claimed to be subsumed under *majāz* – the two are in fact conceptually contrasted (*humā diddān*)¹²³² – which may lead one to assume that *isti‘āra* and *majāz* are also distinct, rather than genetically related concepts. None of this discussion is inspired by Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn; in the *Jāmi‘* he defined *kināya* in tropical terms, using both the

by the lack of a substratum, since in ‘claws of death’ there is no underlying simile in which a part of ‘death’ could be likened to ‘claws’. See Heinrichs, “*Takhyīl*,” 13.

¹²³⁰ *wa-l-ḥaqqu anna hādihā majāzun wa-laysa -sti‘āran idh lā tashbīha fīhi; al-Iksīr*, 113. The examples are Q 25:59 “so ask him about one well informed” (*fa-s’al bihi khabīran*), where *bihi* means ‘*anhu*’; and Q 19:97 “we have made it [the Qur’ān] easy by your tongue” (*fa-innamā yassarnāhu bi-lisānika*), where (an elided?) ‘*alayhi*’ should be understood. See *al-Iksīr*, 112.

¹²³¹ *al-farqu bayna l-isti‘ārati wa-l-majāzi mā sabaqa... wa-bayna l-kināyati wa-l-majāzi...*; *ibid.*, 120-21.

¹²³² *Ibid.*, 121.

terminology of *majāz* and the terminology of using a word not according to its original coinage (*bi-ghayr lafẓihi al-mawḍū‘ lahu*).¹²³³

This leads us to the sources of al-Ṭūfī’s *Iksīr* other than Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn’s *Jāmi‘*, sources that we may qualify as having ‘standardist’ leanings but were probably not Fakhr al-Dīn al-Rāzī or al-Sakkākī. One such source is Ibn al-Muqarrab al-Baḥrānī, referred to only as “al-Baḥrānī,” an East-Arabian poet-critic of the early seventh/thirteenth century who had strong Shī‘ī leanings (al-Ṭūfī, we may recall, was suspected of having Shī‘ī leanings).¹²³⁴ A consultation with the *Iksīr*’s appendices reveals that Ibn al-Muqarrab is cited ten times, citations that comprise both poetic *shawāhid* and critical comments. (The name of his work is not mentioned.) This makes Ibn al-Muqarrab the most quoted critic in the *Iksīr* after Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr, and seemingly the only literary-critical source he directly consulted outside the *Jāmi‘*.¹²³⁵ Ibn al-Muqarrab is quoted within the context of *kināya* as saying that the difference between *kināya* and *majāz* is that in *kināya*, “the original meaning [...] is also intended” (whereas in *majāz* it is not)¹²³⁶ – interestingly, a view that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn later espouses in the *Mathal*. The clear differentiation between *kināya* and *majāz* is something we may associate with standard rhetorical theories.

Another hint at standard rhetorical notions is al-Ṭūfī’s parenthetical recognition that verb metaphors could be taken as *majāz* on the level of predication, rather than a tropical usage of the

¹²³³ *Al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr*, 156.

¹²³⁴ See Khulusi, “A Thirteenth Century Poet from Bahrain”; *al-Iksīr*, 90, editor’s fn. 3. According to Brockelmann (*GAL* 1: 302), Ibn al-Muqarrab spent some time in Mosul, where he met Yāqūt (d. 626/1229) in 617/1220, and died in Baghdad in 629/1232. This would place Ibn al-Muqarrab in close proximity with Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn.

¹²³⁵ *Al-Iksīr*, 363-67. Only three out of the ten citations are literary-critical remarks, but even so, it is more than any other literary scholar referenced. Quotations from Abū Hilāl al-‘Askari, al-Ghānimī and Ibn Sinān al-Khafājī, which outnumber the times al-Baḥrānī is quoted – turn out to be mere embedded quotations from the *Jāmi‘*. Of course, al-Ṭūfī probably consulted other works and left those references unacknowledged.

¹²³⁶ *Ibid.*, 121.

actual verb (*wa-li-qā`ilin an yaqūla hādhā majāzun fī l-nisbati lā fī nafsi l-fī l*).¹²³⁷ This notion, indirectly indebted to ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī’s *majāz fī l-ithbāt*, is incompatible with the views al-Ṭūfī expresses throughout his analyses of *shawāhid*, as we have seen.

Al-Ṭūfī’s ‘commentary’ on the work of Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is an interesting one, and his treatment of *majāz* reveals that he is the exception that proves the rule. Whereas the works that we have studied were usually expressly committed to the word-transfer theory, it was rarely applied to actual analyses of poetic illustrations, thus showing that underlying the declared theory was a different one entirely: either an explicit appeal to an extra-linguistic notion (i.e., reality) or an appeal to the linguistic idea of predication, the affirmation of which rests on non-linguistic knowledge. Al-Ṭūfī is the only one – and much more so than the standard al-Sakkākī – who applies the declared theory to actual *shawāhid* analyses. His results yield unusual interpretations indeed of poetic specimens.

¹²³⁷ Ibid., 112.

Summing Up

Put the lights out when you finish in the living room.

Amelia Bedelia thought about this a minute. She switched off the lights. Then she carefully unscrewed each bulb. And Amelia Bedelia put the lights out. “So those things need to be aired out, too. Just like pillows and babies. Oh, I do have a lot to learn.”

-Peggy Parish, *Amelia Bedelia*¹²³⁸

To me this is like the story about the Byzantine emperor who had someone recite to him al-Mutanabbī’s line, “As if camels of good breed were made to lie down on my eyelids // and when they were roused to get up, (the tears) could (finally) flow,” and then asked about the meaning and they translated it for him, to which he said: “I’ve never heard of a poet more untruthful! Have you ever seen anyone have a camel lie down on his eye that did not kill him?!”

-Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr, *al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 29¹²³⁹

The contribution of ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī to Arabic literary thinking could not be overstated; his lengthy deliberations on metaphor (*isti‘āra*) and mock analogy and aetiology (*tamthīl*, *takhyīl*) are cases in point. But on the issue of *majāz* – which he relegates to the very end of the *Asrār* – al-Jurjānī’s contribution is primarily linguistic. He studies expressions that exhibit figurative language but are grounded in the lexicon (and hence listed in the dictionaries), first and foremost metonymies and conceptual metaphors, to use Lakoff and Johnson’s terms. The linguistic objects of his theorizing are such expressions that Amelia Bedelia would take literally: they are part of our literal language. Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn on the other hand, and others in the literary-

¹²³⁸ Peggy Parish, *Amelia Bedelia*, New York, NY: Harper Collins, 1992 [originally 1963].

¹²³⁹ The meter is *wāfir*; *anākha* (“make to lie down”) means more specifically to make a camel lie down on its breast with its legs folded, as is done on the occasions of mounting and dismounting, etc. (Lane, *Lexicon*, 2864). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is criticizing here the “Baghdadi” literary critic Ibn Ḥamdūn (d. 562/1167), who took too literally the following two lines by saying in response that “the apparition does enter through the eyelid but is rather imagined in the soul!”: [meter: *basīl*] “I’ll rip through a woman’s veil if it’s ‘playing hard to get’ but won’t penetrate if it’s ‘easy’ || just as the nightly apparition refuses to enter the eyelid when it’s open and will only enter it when it’s closed” (*al-Mathal al-sā’ir* 2: 28). To Ibn Ḥamdūn’s take Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn responds, “This is what someone who hasn’t tasted from tree of eloquence would say!” (ibid., 2: 29). If the poet adhered to the ‘true’ nature of the apparition’s workings and made it be imagined in the soul, the analogy would, of course, be lost. The fact that Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn is using the discourse of *kadhib* to refer to a false reading of figurative speech as literal speech (*mā sami’u bi-akdhaba min hādihā l-shā’ir*) accentuates the negative connotations *kadhib* remained to convey in the context of figurative language (cf. Ibn Qutayba’s attack, Chapter 5 Preliminaries). For some context on the story of the Byzantine emperor and al-Mutanabbī’s line above, which was already recounted in al-Khafājī, *Sirr al-faṣāḥa*, 40-41 (and even earlier?), see Geert Jan van Gelder, “Camels on Eyelids and the Bafflement of an Emperor: A Line of al-Mutanabbī «Translated» into Greek,” *Proceedings of the XIIth Congress of the International Comparative Literature Association, 1988 Munich. vol. 3: Space and Boundaries of Literature*, Munich: Iudicium Verlag, 1990, 446-51.

theoretical tradition of *'ilm al-bayān* (as well as some of the early *naqd* works), aim their theorizing at poetic expressions, like the line by al-Mutanabbī above: ‘live’ metaphors rather than ‘dead’ ones. For Lakoff and Johnson this differentiation is moot because in their mind what generates the non-conventional metaphor is exactly the conceptual metaphor expressed in our literal language.¹²⁴⁰ Classical Arabic literary theorists, however, would and did make such a distinction – at least implicitly. Despite the many theoretical pronouncements pointing to the understanding of *majāz* as ‘shifts’ on the level of the word, the *shawāhid* and *majāz* categories that literary theorists treat make the case for a primarily extra-linguistic understanding of the term. What makes certain utterances *majāz* is the fact that they are untrue (or not necessarily true, as in the case of “having many ashes”), akin to the old negative notion of *kadhib* ‘lie’. Conventional figurative expressions like “the tree shouted out” for “grew tall” are also, strictly speaking, false, but because they have become ‘lexicalized’ they are understood to be true. The *majāz* of the literary theorists is therefore not equivalent to *majāz 'aqlī* – at least not in al-Jurjānī’s conception of the notion as a truthful statement (likewise with al-Rāzī; their term is *majāz fī l-ithbāt*). Al-Rāzī was an influential figure in the development of *'ilm al-bayān*, even though literary production held a minimal place in his study, and he challenged the critics, especially on the question of *majāz*. Someone like Ibn Abī al-Iṣḥāq appropriated al-Rāzī’s views wholeheartedly by backing down, in his later work, from his earlier inclusion of simile and exaggeration within the purview of *majāz*. But someone like Ibn al-Naqīb, who was a closer follower of al-Rāzī in terms of the occupation with Qur’ānic style, did not. This indicates that the so-called ‘old’ way of literary theory had an alternative and defensible theory to offer, and that *majāz* could be a meaningful – and creative – component in literary production.

¹²⁴⁰ *Metaphors We Live By*, 139 ff., and esp. 147 ff.

Conclusion

Studies on classical Arabic poetry have taken a new turn in recent years: from translation and commentary the focus is slowly shifting to the literary devices occurring in the poem. The devices in question are not modern Western ones superimposed on the medieval Arabic text (a method useful in its own right), but are indigenous categories as they are presented and explained by the medieval Arabic literary theorists. One can no longer understand Ibn al-Rūmī without knowing about the critics' treatment of *istiḡṣā' al-ma'ānī* 'exhausting an image to death',¹²⁴¹ nor can one further understand the departure from pre-Islamic poetic conventions without going into the nitty-gritty of the literary devices line by line¹²⁴² -- reinforcing the claim once made by van Gelder, that "[t]o study ancient Arabic theory and criticism [...] is to study the poetry itself."¹²⁴³ But in order to make this shift in research a valid and compelling one, we must get the literary theory right.¹²⁴⁴ The fact of the matter remains that we still know less than we think. Arabic literary theory is usually seen to evolve to its 'coherent' disciplinary form with the scholastic *'ilm al-balāgha*: we now see that a crystallization of the field was taking place in the Arabic East already in the seventh/thirteenth century in the framework of *'ilm al-bayān*, and independent of what was to become the Standard Theory. Arabic literary theorists like Ḍiyā' al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr and Ibn Abī al-Iṣḡā' are usually understood to be oblivious to al-Jurjānī: we now see that they engage with him either directly or through the mediation of al-Rāzī, leading at times to different

¹²⁴¹ McKinney, *Rhyme versus Reason*, 228-55.

¹²⁴² A trend started most clearly by Hussein in "The Rhetoric of Hudhalī Wine Poetry" (2015) and now *Rhetorical Fabric* (2016), following Heinrichs' lead in "Muslim b. al-Walīd und *badī'*," in Wolfhart Heinrichs and Gregor Schoeler (eds.), *Festschrift Ewald Wagner zum 65. Geburtstag*, Studien zur arabischen Dichtung 2, Beirut: Franz Steiner, 1994, 211-45.

¹²⁴³ Van Gelder, *Beyond the Line*, 208.

¹²⁴⁴ For instance, the category *majāz 'aqlī* is being applied for this type of study, even though scholars are probably superimposing their own understanding of the term unto (at least) al-Jurjānī's view.

theoretical results. *Majāz* as a component of literary theory is usually seen to make sense only in the theory laid out by al-Jurjānī: we now see that it is non-Jurjānīan concepts of *majāz* that are more suitable to explain the compatibility of *majāz* and *isti‘āra* (especially of the type “death sinking its claws in”), and that anyway, we do not fully know what al-Jurjānī meant by *majāz*. Finally, looking ahead to further research, al-Qazwīnī is commonly understood to be part of the school of al-Sakkākī: one now suspects that his attention to *badī‘* is better understood in light of the nature of *‘ilm al-bayān* and that he viewed the ‘hermeneutics’ of al-Jurjānī and al-Sakkākī as a necessary element for ‘poetics’, or literary composition, thus reviving an outdated claim by Bonebakker.¹²⁴⁵

I appeal to recent trends in the study of classical Arabic poetry to demonstrate the value that literary theory may have beyond the study of poetics, rhetoric and literary criticism.¹²⁴⁶ But the contribution of *this* dissertation has been emphatically to literary theory as a discipline and to theory itself, both literary and linguistic (because the two are not always easily distinguishable). It would be tempting to draw a connection between the theorists’ perception of *majāz* as *literal* utterances that do not conform to reality and the poets’ perception of “metaphor as fact” which

¹²⁴⁵ Bonebakker, “al-Ma‘ānī wa ‘l-Bayān,” and see §2.1. According to Shihāb al-Dīn al-Ḥalabī, head of the Damascus chancery in the early eighth/fourteenth century who authored a book on the epistolary art, the works of al-Rummānī, al-Jurjānī (‘Abd al-Qāhir, mentioned later), al-Rāzī, al-Sakkākī, and al-Khafājī (presumably Ibn Sinān) – which are mentioned in the same breath – are necessary for scribal education, that is, for learning to *produce* literary speech, not interpret it. For al-Ḥalabī, these authors are associated both with the Standard Theory (*‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān wa-l-badī‘*) and with works concerned with *i‘jāz al-Qur‘ān* (Shihāb al-Dīn Maḥmūd b. Sulaymān al-Ḥalabī, *Ḥusn al-tawassul ilā šinā‘at al-tarassul*, Cairo: al-Maṭba‘a al-Wahbiyya, 1298 AH, 11-12 [English: ~‘The Best Path to the Epistolary Craft’]; in al-Nuwayrī’s version, *Nihāya* 7: 35, “Ibn al-Athīr” is mentioned as well). I thank Elias Muhanna for this reference. See also al-Ṭūfī, *al-Shi‘ār*, 15, where *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān* (later *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān wa-l-badī‘*) – which includes the works of ‘standard’ and non-‘standard’ authors alike (ibid., 25-27) – is glossed as “the knowledge of composing speech according to the best manner” (*ma‘rifat ta’līf al-kalām ‘alā l-wajh al-aḥḍal*).

¹²⁴⁶ That is, seeing classical Arabic literary theory beyond the lens of a “normative poetics” to being a constructive source of “practical poetics” (for a critique of this notion see Hamori, “Schemes of Reading,” 13-14; the idea of normative/practical poetics is inspired by Dan Pagis in ibid., 14 fn. 5).

enabled them to “go on to create further metaphors from that fact.”¹²⁴⁷ But I leave that judgment for others to make.

¹²⁴⁷ On this poetic practice see Heinrichs, “Paired Metaphors,” esp. 17; Bürgel, “Die beste Dichtung,” 87 ff. The quote itself is from Faruqi, *Sabk-e Hindi*, 73, speaking of the later Persian poets (cited in Ahmed, *What Is Islam?*, 390). Poetic ‘riddles’ are no more than an extension of this practice (see the analysis in Yaron Klein, *Musical Instruments as Objects of Meaning in Classical Arabic Poetry and Philosophy*, PhD Dissertation, Harvard University, 2009, 83-100). The study of ‘paired metaphors’ by Heinrichs is, in my view, his single most important contribution to our understanding of mature classical Arabic poetry. I would have titled it “The Architecture of Arabic Metaphor.”

Arabic Technical Terms: A Tentative Glossary

Bayān lit. ‘sign/expression [of a thing]’; ‘clarity/distinctness’; ‘eloquence’

‘Divine communication concerning the law’ (al-Shāfi‘ī).

‘A means to signify *ḥikma*, divine wisdom/wisdom of worldly things’ (al-Jāḥiẓ, *al-Hayawān*).

‘A means to impart knowledge or signify meaning’ (al-Jāḥiẓ, *al-Bayān wa-l-tabyīn*).

‘Knowledge of an essence of a thing’ (Ibn Wahb al-Kātib), or: ‘existence/essence of a thing’ (Ibn Ḥazm, to a lesser extent Ibn Wahb). Probably two sides of the same coin (cf. definitions of *‘ilm* as the *ma‘lūm*).

‘The unique eloquence of the Arabic of the ancient Arabs’ (Ibn Fāris).

‘Suggestive expression’ (al-Rummānī, who also calls it *taḍmīn*). Statements or morphosyntactic constructions that have a semantic import not conveyed on the ‘surface level’.

‘Good style’, esp. written style (an extension of the lexical meaning of *bayān* as ‘eloquence’ among the chancery secretaries).

Additional meanings of *bayān*: a synonym of ‘Qur’ān’; ‘the ability to distinguish [between right and wrong, etc.]’ (occurs in some Qur’ānic commentaries); ‘clarification’; and more.

‘Ilm al-Bayān lit. ‘the science of eloquence/clear speech’

‘The science of good style’: the common name for the discipline of literary theory as a whole starting in the 7th/13th century in the Arabic East. The discipline was understood to be ‘theoretical’ and ‘rational’, and earlier works on literary theory were often tagged retroactively with the heading *‘ilm al-bayān*.

‘The science of expressing ideas by way of images, or: the science of figures of speech concerned with imagery’: the second subfield within the tripartite *‘ilm al-balāgha* ‘science of eloquence’ or standard rhetoric, which was part of the *madrasa* curriculum starting in the 8th/14th century. *‘Ilm al-bayān* dealt with *tashbīh* (comparison), *majāz* (figurative language), and *kināya* (periphrasis).

‘The science of standard rhetoric’: sometimes used interchangeably with *‘ilm al-balāgha*. *‘Ilm al-balāgha* is also referred to as *‘ilm al-ma‘ānī wa-l-bayān*.

Isti‘āra lit. ‘borrowing’, usually: ‘metaphor’

‘Ascriptive metaphor based on ‘object’ borrowing’; ‘analogy-based metaphor’: the old poetic sense of *isti‘āra*, in reference to such metaphors as “the hand of the north wind.” Grammatically they tend to be genitive metaphors or verb metaphors.

There is usually no separate term for ‘genitive metaphor’ (Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr and especially Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī are exceptions).

‘Single-term hackneyed metaphor, poetic dead metaphor’ (literary theorists esp. after the 4th/10th century): in reference to such metaphors as “full moon” for “pretty face.” These metaphors are based on a simile, and grammatically they tend to be nouns. Sometimes they are euphemistic (“gazelle” for “woman”). Ḍiyā’ al-Dīn implicitly recognizes the conventional character of *isti’āra* when he states that it is hard for the poet/orator to create (our term) new ones.

Kināya lit. ‘indirect expression’

‘Euphemism’ (a range of literary scholars). An expression that refers indirectly to a notion considered taboo in the culture (e.g., women, sex) or considered bad omens (e.g., the crescent moon). Euphemisms can occur as noun metaphors (see *isti’āra*), single-term metonymies, and proverbs.

‘Metonymy’ (a range of literary scholars, philologists, religious scholars). Grammatically a noun (or phrase acting as a single-term notion). The term is used to refer to such semantic extensions as “sky” for “rain” or, in some cases, “town” for “people of the town.” Other terms are used for this phenomenon, like *isti’āra* (Ibn Durayd), *majāz mursal* (later followers of al-Jurjānī), or the more precise *fīmā yunāsibuhu wa-yuqāribuhu* “expressions that are based on association or contiguity with the intended meaning” (al-Tha’ālibī).

‘Periphrasis’ (al-Jurjānī and followers). A roundabout phrase that expresses the intended meaning via allusion (the common early term is *irdāf*). Although the intended meaning is logically connected to the meaning of the surface phrase, it is not a metonymy (which is a single-word affair). *Kināya* is of two types (al-Jurjānī, Ibn al-Zamlakānī): (i) expressing the *attribute* indirectly (“has a coward dog” for “generous”), (ii) expressing the *attribution* indirectly (“generosity is in so-and-so’s shackle” for “generosity is in so-and-so”). For Ibn al-Zamlakānī, *kināya* was part of *majāz* in that it was literally untrue, or not necessarily true (the generous person in question might not literally have a dog [or might not literally be cooking food for his guests]; generosity is not literally in a shackle [or in a tent]). Periphrasis is seen as *majāz* also in the work of Zayn al-Dīn al-Rāzī and in one passage of al-Zanjānī.

Majāz lit. ‘going beyond’

‘Linguistic anomalies; seemingly incorrect usage’ (Abū ‘Ubayda [more precisely: the *meaning* or *rewording* of linguistic anomalies], al-Ḥātimī) The term *ḥaqīqa* ‘literal speech’ is not used as a counterpart.

‘Idiomatic expressions in the lexicon’, ranging from conceptual metaphors (in the modern sense of the word, like “burying” a secret), metonymies (like “sky” for “rain”), dead metaphors (“the nose of the mountain” for “the prominent part of the mountain”) and idiomatic sayings (“his garment slept” for “his garment became worn out” or “morning sighed” for “morning appeared”) (lexicographers; ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī [pending further research]). The *shawāhid* that are adduced as *majāz* are all listed in the dictionaries, either as regular entries or under special headings.

~‘Figurative language’ (common in early theology), esp. anthropomorphic expressions concerning God. Perhaps it is the language concerning humans (esp. predication of actions) that is seen as *majāz* and the language concerning God that is seen as *ḥaqīqa* lit. ‘reality’. *Majāz* could mean derivative reality vis-à-vis the true reality of God. There is always a counterpart *ḥaqīqa* ‘true reality’ or ‘literal speech’. Discussions of *majāz* in theology usually included some non-figurative speech phenomena, like pleonasm and ellipsis.

‘Figurative use of [single] words’ (common in legal theory), esp. metonymies and dead metaphors (i.e., single words or expressions that act as single words).

‘Figurative language’ (a range of literary theorists, common among those who did not follow al-Jurjānī). Language that is untrue to reality or *kadhib* ‘lie’ (a term that had too many negative connotations to be used in this context). This includes all ‘live’ metaphors (*isti‘āra*), explicit similes (*tashbīh*), and, depending on the scholar, periphrasis (*kināya*). Most theorists also included within the category of *majāz*, beyond the ‘live’ metaphors (a.k.a. *badī‘*), the idiomatic expressions of the lexicographers, i.e., dead usage, including euphemisms and single-term hackneyed metaphors (what I call ‘poetic dead metaphor’, like “daisy” for “mouth”).

Majāz fī l-ithbāt ‘conceptual metaphor’ (al-Jurjānī)

Literally ‘*majāz* on the level of predication’, a term coined by ‘Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī. Also known as *majāz isnādī*, *majāz ḥukmī*, and later *majāz ‘aqlī* ‘logical *majāz*’. It seems (pending further research) that by *majāz fī l-ithbāt* al-Jurjānī is referring to conceptual metaphors (to use Lakoff and Johnson’s terms) that are reflected in everyday *literal* language, especially to instances of correlation that are conceived in the mind as causation (“spring brought about blossoms,” “seeing you made me happy,” “the knife cut”). Al-Jurjānī was probably following theological notions of *majāz* here. *Majāz fī l-ithbāt* is not *kadhib* ‘untruth’, and is therefore not equivalent to the conception of *majāz* that was implicit in the works of many literary theorists both before and after al-Jurjānī. Al-Jurjānī’s theory of *majāz* is a contribution to linguistics, not poetics (thus it is relegated to the end of his *Asrār al-balāgha*). See also: *majāz* ‘idiomatic expressions in

the language'. Because Ibn al-Zamlakānī followed the implicit *majāz-as-kadhib* theory, we cannot translate *majāz fī l-ithbāt* in his work as 'conceptual metaphor'. The relationship between *majāz fī l-ithbāt* and *isti'āra* in al-Jurjānī's own thought is debated upon.

Majāz fī l-muthbat 'lexical *majāz*', usually: metonymy (al-Jurjānī)

Literally 'majāz on the level of the predicate', a term coined by al-Jurjānī. Later termed *majāz ifrādī* and *majāz lughawī* (the latter term became standard). It refers to single-term lexical extensions, usually metonymies. See also *majāz* 'figurative use of [single] words' and 'idiomatic expressions in the lexicon'.

Tamthīl lit. 'striking an example, similitude (*mathal*)' (also: ***al-mathal al-maḍrūb***)

'Metaphorical exemplification; mock evidence; illustrative analogy': an illustrative sentence that exemplifies, by metaphorical analogy, the topic of discussion (or provides the allure of evidence for it). 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī terms it *tamthīl* or *mathal*. Abū Aḥmad al-ʿAskarī terms it *mumāthala*. Abū Hilāl al-ʿAskarī terms it *al-istishhād wa-l-iḥtijāj* 'adducing [mock] evidence (Ar. *shāhid*, *ḥujja*)'. Ḍiyā' al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr terms it *al-mathal al-maḍrūb*. In poetry it usually occurs at the end of a line, as a kind of 'commentary' on reality. Since the commentary is not 'real', we may refer to it as 'mock analogy' (Heinrichs' term). It became common in Persian poetry as well. The archetypal example by al-Jurjānī is "so-and-so put one leg forward and the other one backward" to convey that he was hesitant. A common poetic example is al-Farazdaq's

"Biting words come my way, and you hold them of no worth;
But (even) drops of water can fill a vessel to excess."

Tashbīh lit. 'stating a similitude'; 'similarity claim'; 'comparison'

'Simile': according to many literary theorists, even after 'Abd al-Qāhir al-Jurjānī, simile is not part of literal speech. It was seen as a figurative similarity claim or figurative comparison, as opposed to a literal similarity claim.

'Predicative metaphor': in Arabic terms, this is a 'simile' in which the particle of similitude is suppressed, of the type "Zayd is a lion." In Western terms, this is the most common metaphor discussed by linguists and philosophers: the predicative metaphor.

Tawassu', also ***ittisā'*** lit. 'extension'

'lexical extension': as a non-technical term, *ittisā'* refers to the *majāz* of the

lexicographers, that is, semantic extensions in the lexicon that have become part of conventional vocabulary. It is usually used as a hendiadys with *majāz* (*ittisāʿ an wa-majāzan*). *Ittisāʿ* has a possibly related technical meaning in grammar.

‘fictional ascription’: metaphors in which there is no ‘perceived’ relation between the topic and the analogue; rather, the relation between the two is ‘imposed’ (by poet). The term is Ḍiyāʿ al-Dīn Ibn al-Athīr’s. One subtype of *tawassuʿ* is equivalent to the old poetic notion of *istiʿāra* (in the form of genitive metaphors). Another subtype covers the phenomenon of speaking animals found in *Kalīla wa-Dimna* (sentence metaphors), revealing a probable influence by Ibn Sīnā on Ḍiyāʿ al-Dīn’s thinking.

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