

11 Aralık 2015

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Sa/
for

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✓ *Andrea*

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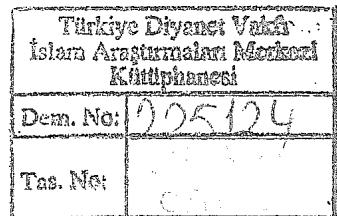
22 Haziran 2015

Osmanen und Islam in Südosteuropa

Herausgegeben von
Reinhard Lauer und Hans Georg Majer

Redaktion
Natalya Maisheva und Aleksandra Laski

MADDE YAYIMLANDIKTAN
SONRA GELEN DOKÜMAN



De Gruyter

— Padışah (160001)

Raja – ein Schlüsselbegriff islamischer Staatlichkeit und
seine Geschichte

TILMAN NAGEL

26 Agustos 2015

Zur Einführung

Wer sich jemals von Beschreibungen des islamischen Orients hat fesseln lassen, wird auf den Begriff der *raja*¹ gestoßen sein. Er bezeichne, so der Tenor der Erläuterungen, die nichtmuslimischen Untertanen des Sultans; seit dem 18. Jahrhundert sei jedenfalls diese Bedeutung anzunehmen.² Bisweilen wird einer solchen knappen Definition hinzugefügt, die Tatsache, dass der Sultan über *raja* herrsche, zeuge von der Duldsamkeit seiner Religion gegen Andersgläubige; doch kann man auch von Drangsalierungen der *raja* lesen. zieht man das 1866 erschienene *Türkisch-arabisch-persische Handwörterbuch* von Julius Theodor Zenker zu Rate, wird man unter dem Lemma *ra‘ījat* dahingehend belehrt, dass dieses arabische Wort ursprünglich die weidende Herde meine; der Plural *ra‘ājā*, im Deutschen zu *raja* verballhornt, stehe allgemein für die Untertanen, im engeren Sinn jedoch für diejenigen, die sich nicht zum Islam bekennen. Unter einem eigenen Eintrag für *ra‘ājā* erhält man bei Zenker zusätzlich den Hinweis, es handle sich um jene Teile der osmanischen Bevölkerung, die zur Zahlung der Kopfsteuer verpflichtet seien; der – arabische – Plural werde von der osmanischen Verwaltung wie ein Singular gebraucht: ein *raja*, ein Angehöriger der *ahl-i zimmet*,³ d.h. der andersgläubigen „Schützlinge“ des islamischen Reiches.

1 Auch die Schreibung *raya* findet sich.

2 So im *Großen Brockhaus* von 1997. Wahrscheinlich geht diese zeitliche Eingrenzung auf den Artikel *rajat* in der *Bol'saja Sovetskaja Enziklopedija* von 1975 zurück. Dieser Artikel enthält keine Angaben über Forschungsliteratur, jedoch einen Querverweis auf *randżbar*, einen einst in Aserbeidschan gängigen Begriff für den Pächter oder Lohnarbeiter eines Grundherrn. Nach der Eroberung der transkaukasischen Territorien durch Russland im Jahre 1846 sei dieses Wort im Sinne von „Leibeigener“ verwendet worden; hiervon sei der osmanische *raja* zu unterscheiden.

3 Der arabische Begriff *ahl ad-dimma*, „Leute des Schutzes“, bezeichnet seit frühislamischer Zeit die nichtmuslimischen Bevölkerungsgruppen innerhalb des islamischen Territoriums. Diese „Schützlinge“ haben in einem fiktiven Vertrag auf einen Teil ihrer Rechte verzichtet – z.B. auf die freie Religionsausübung, den Waffenbesitz, die gesellschaftliche Gleichrangigkeit mit den Muslimen – und erlangen dadurch den „Schutz“ der muslimischen Obrigkeit, dürfen also nicht beraubt oder ohne einen Rechtsgrund getötet werden. Die jährliche Kopfsteuer wird als ein Entgelt für diesen „Schutz“ betrachtet (vgl. Bat Yeor 2002).

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MALAK
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Ce livre comporte des listes de souverains de l'Asie Centrale, arrangees par dynasties, depuis la fin des Séleucides jusqu'au XIII^e siècle : les empries grecs et nomades de la Bactriane et de l'Inde (après les Séleucides) — les empries nomades de l'Asie Centrale (Hsiung-nu, Hsien-pi, T'o-pa, Juan-juan, Tang-ch'ang, T'u-yü-hun) — les royaumes tibétains — les villes souveraines du Turkestan (Yarkand, Khotan, Turfan etc.) — les empries turcs et ouïgours — les empries nomades des Hsi-hsia, Parhae, Liao, Qara-Qitai et Chin — les Huns, Avars, Bulgars, Khazars — les Etats musulmans de l'Asie Centrale du XI^e au XIII^e siècle (Tahirides, Saffarides, Samanides, Banū Farīgūn, Ghaznavides, Gurides, Seldjoukides, Qara-khanides, Khwarezmshahs) et les Hindu-Śāhīs. Les listes de dynasties sont accompagnées de cartes qui montrent la situation géographique et l'extension de chaque empire. Un index des noms des souverains complète l'ouvrage. Ce livre constituera sans aucun doute un instrument de travail fort utile qui sera apprécié par étudiants et chercheurs.

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أَنْظَرْهُمْ رَوْلَةً كَأَطْبَرِ الْمَحَالِكَ وَرَسُومَ فِصْرٍ

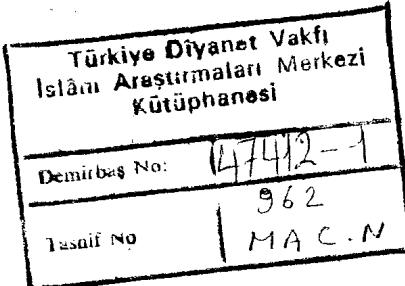
دراسة شاملة للنظم السياسية

— ٤١ — (٢٧ - ٤١)

تأليف

الدكتور عبد المنعم ماجد

أستاذ التاريخ الإسلامي
 بكلية الآداب بجامعة عين شمس



ملتزم الطبع والنشر
مكتبة الأنجلو المصرية
١٦٥ شارع محمد بن نجيب (عمارة التربية سابقاً)

١٩٩٣ - ١٤٢٤

الفصل الأول

السلطان

اختيار السلطان — ألقابه — سلطنته ازمنية — الساطلة البدنية — مظاهر الخلقة
المبابية في مصر — ألقاب الخليفة — توسيع السلطان — مبابة الخليفة — حقوقه .

وقد كان على رأس المالك السلطان ، وهو يأتي في الغالب نتيجة لاختيار الأمراء له ، وليس نتيجة للوراثة ؛ فهو بذلك الأول بين أمرائهم :
Primus inter Pares^(١) . وقد حاول بعض السلاطين البحريين أو البرجية إدخال المبدأ الوراثي ، ولكن أمراء المالك لم يأخذوا به^(٢) ، ولم يكن للأبن الأكبر للسلطان حق ملزم في التولية بعد أبيه ؛ غير وصية أبيه له .

ومع ذلك ، فقد كانت هناك ظروف تحدد هذا الاختيار ، وهي :
الوصول إلى السلطة ، منها على الخصوص كثرة عدد المالك عند الأمر المأذف إلى السلطة ، فكان يقال إن مقام الأمراء بـ *بِمَا لَكُمْ*^(٣) ؛ فبضمهم عنده خمسة آلاف ، أو سبعة آلاف ، أو حتى اثنا عشر ألفاً^(٤) . ومن ناحية أخرى ؛ لكن يحتفظ السلطان بالسلطة كان عليه أن يخنق ويقتل ويسجن وينفي أعداءه ، أو أن يتقارب من كبار الأمراء ويوزع عليهم الإقطاعات والوظائف ، أو أن يليها ليجعل كبار الأمراء يعيشون معه

ب - في عهد المالك البرجية أو الجركسية

ميلادي	Hegri	
١٣٨٢ - ١٢٧٧	٧٨٠ - ٧٧٩	المتوكل على الله محمد
١٣٨٣ - ١٢٨٣	٧٨٨ - ٧٨٥	الواقي باق عمر
١٣٨٩ - ١٢٨٩	٧٩١ - ٧٨٨	المستحب باقز كربلا (مرتبانية)
١٤٠٥ - ١٢٨٩	٨٠٨ - ٧٩١	المتوكل على الله (مرتبانية)
١٤١٢ - ١٤٠٥	٨١٥ - ٨٠٨	المستعين باق العباس
١٤١٢ - ١٤١٢	٨٤٥ - ٨١٥	المتضدد باق داود
١٤١٢ - ١٤١٢	٨٥٥ - ٨٤٥	المسكن باق سليمان
١٤٠٥ - ١٤٠٥	٨٥٩ - ٨٥٥	القائم باق حزة
١٤٠٥ - ١٤٠٥	٨٨٤ - ٨٥٩	المستجد باق يوسف
١٤٩٢ - ١٤٧٩	٩٠٣ - ٨٨٤	المتوكل على الله عبد العزيز
١٤٩٢ - ١٤٩٧	٩٢٢ - ٩٠٣	المستمد باق يعقوب
١٥١٦ - ١٤٩٦	٩٢٣ - ٩٢٢	المتوكل على الله محمد

(١) انظر . La Syrie, xxx. : Demomb

(٢) انظر صيرم في المصادر المملوكية .

(٣) المقريزي ، كتاب البلاوك ، (خطاط) بدار الكتب ، برقم ٤٤٢ ، ٤٥٥ .

ورقة ٤٣٤ . أوردهما على إبراهيم ، المالك البحري ، ص ٣٠ .

(٤) ابن إيس ، ٢ من ٤١ من ٢ ، ١ من ٣١٥ من ٣ ، ١ من ١٢٩ من ٣ . انظر أيضاً

المخطاط ، ١ من ١٥٣ .

1991 SAYMA 6

KİTABIN ADI: YÖNETİM-DİN İLİŞKİLERİ AÇISINDAN OSMANLI DEVLETİNDE SİYASET VE DİN ■ YAZARI: DR. DAVUT DURSUN ■ DİZİN: RIZA KURTULUŞ ■ TASHİH: İŞARET ■ KAPAK VE İÇ DÜZENLEME: YAZIEV İLETİŞİM HİZMETLERİ ■ KAPAK RESMİ: III. SELİM'İN DEVLET ERKANI İLE BAYRAMLAŞMA TÖRENİ - TOPKA-PI SARAYI, AKALAR KAPISI / TABLO SAHİBİ BİLİNMİYOR ■ BA-SİLDİĞİ YER: İSTANBUL ■ BİRİNCİ BASIM: MAYIS 1989 ■ DİZGİ: MAVİ MATBAA ■ BASKI: GÜMÜŞ BASIMEVİ ■ CİLT: BAYRAK MATBAACILIK

lerinde kullardan yararlanılmıştır. Memlûklu, Abbâsi, Selçuklu ve diğer yönetimlerde kulların önemli işlevler gördüklerini biliyoruz. Ortaçağ İslâm yönetimlerinin kullardan yararlanma geleneğini Osmanlılar da sürdürmüştürlerdir.

Genel özellikleri, yukarıda özetlenen Osmanlı siyasi-idarî sisteminde yer alan kurumlara gecebiliriz. Osmanlı yönetiminde etkin rol oynayan kurumlar Padişahlık, Saray, Divan-ı Hümayun ve Kadıkhâtit. İlk üçü merkezde, kadılık ise taşra yönetiminde etken olmuşlardır. Bunların dışında diğer çeşitli kurumlar üzerinde durulabilirse de önem itibarıyle yukarıda verilen kurumların incelenmesi gerekmektedir. Kurumlar ele alınırken, daha çok din ve dini örgütlenme ile olan ilişkilerine dikkat edilecektir.

A. Padişah

1. Genel Olarak Osmanlı Padişahı ve Sistem İçindeki Yeri:

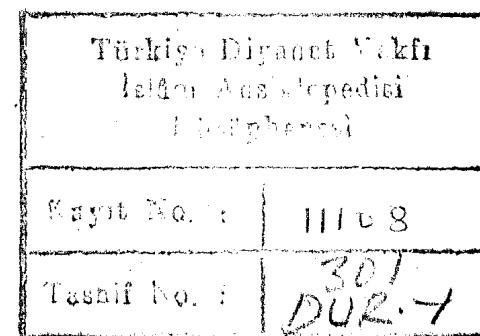
Osmanlı siyasi-idarî sisteminin merkezinde bulunan Osmanlı Padişahı yönetimin temel taşıdır. Siyasi, idarî, dini ve her türlü iktidarı elinde bulundurmuş ve tarihin akışı içinde birtakım değişiklikler geçirmiştir. Yönetilenlerin (reâyâ) ve yönetenlerin (askerî) kendisine bağlılık duydukları tek kişi (82) olan Osmanlı Padişahları, devletin örgütlenmeye başladığı ilk yillardan itibaren çeşitli unvanlar kullanmışlardır. İlk örgütlenme döneminde «Bey» unvanının yanı sıra «Gazi» unvanının kullandığını daha önce belirtmişik.

Osmanlı padişahları, «Sultan» unvanını I. Murad'tan itibaren kullanmaya başlamışlardır. M. Nuri Paşa'nın anlatıklarına göre I. Murad (Murad Hü-

YÖNETİM-DİN İLİŞKİLERİ AÇISINDAN OSMANLI DEVLETİNDE SİYASET VE DİN

DR. DAVUT DURSUN

Radişah (208-227)



İşaret

Ankara Cad. no: 107/63 Cağaloğlu-İstanbul Tel: 519 17 28

davendigâr Gazi), Mısır'da bulunan Abbasî Halife-sine, hükümetinin şer'ilığını onaylaması için bir elçi göndermiş ve Mısır'daki Abbasî Halifesine de I. Murad'ın hükümetinin İslâmî kurallara uygun olduğunu bir «İcazettâme» ile onaylamıştır. Halife, ayrıca I. Murad'a «Sultan Murad», Devletine «Devlet-i Osmaniye», saltanat sülâlesine de «Osmanlılar» adlarını vermiştir (83). IX. Yüzyıldan itibaren İslâm dünyasında ortaya çıkan çeşitli oligarşik prensliklerin ve Türk-İslâm Devletleri'nin hükümdarları, fiili siyasi otoritelerini Bağdad'taki Halifeye tasdik ettirdiklerini ve Halifeden çeşitli unvanlar aldıklarını biliyoruz. Selçuklular bahsinde belirtildiği gibi, Tuğrul Bey'i Bağdad Halifesi «Doğunun ve Batının Hükümdarı» ilan etmekle birlikte o'na «Sultan» unvanı da vermişti. Halifenin Tuğrul Bey'e «Sultan» unvanı vermesi, her türlü dünyevî iktidarı kullanabilme hakkını teyid etme anlamına geliyordu (84). Fiili iktidarın Halifeye tasdik ettirilmesi geleneğini Osmanlı yönetiminin de sürdürmüş olduğu anlaşılmıyor. M. Nuri Paşa'nın anlatıldığı bu olay, uydurma bile olsa, belli bir anlamı bulunmaktadır. Osmanlı iktidarı, Halifenin meşrulaştırıcı (dinin meşrulaştırıcı işlevi demek daha doğru olacaktır) işlevinden yararlanmak ihtiyacını duymuştur. Sanıyorum ki, bu uygulama, yönetilenlerin zihniyet dünyalarında olumlu etkisini gösteriyordu.

Osmanlı padişahları; «Bey», «Gazi», «Sultan» unvanlarının dışında «Han», «Hüdavendigâr», «Emir», «Hünkâr» ve «Padişah» unvanları kullanmış bulunuyorlar. Türk geleneğindeki hükümdarlık unvanı olan «Han» ve «Hakan»ın kullanılması, Eski Türk geleneklerinin nisbeten devam ettiğinin işaretini sayılmalıdır. I. Bayezid döneminde Osmanlı hanedanının

(83) Bk. M. Nuri Paşa, 1-11, s. 13 ve 73-74.

(84) Nikita Elisséef, L'Orient Musulman..., s. 212.

نهاية الكتاب

فنونه الأدب

تأليف

شہاب الدین احمد بن عبد الوہاب النوری

١٢٣٦ھ - ١٩١٧م

السفر الخامس

لنسخة مصورة عن طبعة دار الكتب

وزارة الثقافة والادارة المدنية
المؤسسة المصرية العامة
للتأليف والترجمة والطباعة والنشر

الجزء السادس

وَقَالَتِ الْحَكَمَاءُ : يَحْبَبُ عَلَى الْمَلِكِ أَنْ يَتَبَلَّسَ بِثَلَاثَ خَصَالٍ : تَأْخِيرُهُ الْعَقوَبَةُ فِي سُلْطَانِ الْعَضْبِ ، وَتَعْجِيلُ مَكَافَأَةِ الْحَسْنِ ، وَالْعَمَلُ بِالآتَاهُ فِيهَا يَجْدُثُ ؛ فَإِنْ لَمْ فِي تَأْخِيرِ الْعَقَوبَةِ إِمْكَانًا ، وَفِي تَعْجِيلِ الْمَكَافَأَةِ بِالْإِحْسَانِ الْمَسَارِعَةُ فِي الطَّاعَةِ مِنَ الرُّعْيَةِ ، وَفِي الْآتَاهُ آنْسَاحُ الرَّأْيِ وَإِيَاضَ الصَّوَابِ .

وَقَالُوا : يَنْبَغِي لِلَّكَ أَنْ يَأْنُفَ أَنْ يَكُونَ فِي رِعْيَتِهِ مَنْ هُوَ أَفْضَلُ مِنْهُ دِينًا ، كَلَّا يَأْنُفَ مِنْ أَنْ يَكُونَ مِنْهُمْ مَنْ هُوَ أَنْفَذُ مِنْهُ أَمْرًا .

وَقِيلَ : لَا يَنْبَغِي لِلَّكَ أَنْ يُسْرِعَ إِلَى حَبْسِ مَنْ يُكْفَنَ لَهُ بِالْجُفَاءِ وَالْوَعِيدِ .

وَقَالُوا : يَنْبَغِي لِلَّكَ أَنْ تَعْرِفَهُ رِعْيَتِهِ بِالْأَمَانَةِ ، وَلَا يُعَجِّلَ بِالْعَقَابِ وَلَا بِالثَّوَابِ ، فَإِنَّ ذَلِكَ أَدُومُ لَحْوَ الْخَائِفِ وَرَجَاءِ الرَّاجِيِ .

وَقَالَ بَعْضُ حَكَمَاءِ الْفَرْسِ : أَحْزَمُ الْمُلُوكَ مِنْ غَلْبِ جَهَنَّمَ ، وَقَهَرَ رَأْيَهُ هَوَاهُ ، وَعَبَرَ عَنْ ضَمِيرِهِ فَعَلَهُ ، وَلَمْ يَخْدُعْهُ رَضَاهُ عَنْ حَظِّهِ ، وَلَا غَضَبُهُ عَنْ كِيدِهِ .

الباب الثاني

من القسم الخامس من الفن الثاني

فِي صَفَاتِ الْمُلُوكِ وَأَخْلَاقِهِ وَمَا يُفَضِّلُ بِهِ عَلَى عَيْرِهِ ، وَذِكْرُ مَا نُفِّلَ مِنْ أَفْوَالِ الْخَلْفَاءِ وَالْمُلُوكِ الدَّالِلَةِ عَلَى عَلَوِيهِمْ وَكُرْمِ شَيْمِهِمْ

قَالَ أَحْمَدُ بْنُ مُحَمَّدٍ بْنَ عَبْدِ رَبِّهِ : السُّلْطَانُ زِمامُ الْأَمْوَارِ ، وَنِظامُ الْحُقُوقِ ، وَقِوَامُ الْحَدُودِ ، وَالْقُطْبُ الَّذِي عَلَيْهِ مَدَارُ الدِّينِ وَالْأَدْنِيَّةِ ، وَهُوَ حِمَى اللَّهِ فِي بِلَادِهِ ، وَظَلَمُهُ الْمَدُودُ عَلَى عَبَادِهِ ، بِهِ يُمْنَعُ حِرْيَمُهُمْ ، وَيُنْصَرُ مَظْلُومُهُمْ ، وَيُقْعَدُ ظَالِمُهُمْ ، وَيُؤْمَنُ خَائِفُهُمْ .

الْحَالَةُ ضَرُرٌ عَلَيْهِمْ ، لَأَنَّهُ يَدْعُهُمْ بِلَا إِمَامٍ وَيَعْرُضُهُمْ لِلْأَجْهَادِ فِي نَصْبِ غَيْرِهِ ، وَقَدْ يُصْبِيُونَ فِي ذَلِكَ أَوْ يُخْطُلُونَ .

فَصَلٌ - وَإِذَا أَمَرَ الْإِمَامَ أَمْرًا وَأَسْتَقْضَى قَضَاهُمْ مَاتَ ، كَانَ أَمْرُهُ وَقَضَاهُ عَلَى أَعْمَالِهِمْ كَمَا كَانُوا فِي حَيَاتِهِ وَلَا يَعْزِلُونَ ، وَلَيْسُوا كَالْوَكِيلِ يَعْزِلُ بِمَوْتِ الْمَوْكِلِ ، لِأَنَّ الْوَكَالَةَ نِيَابَةٌ ، وَالْوِلَايَةُ شَرْكَةٌ . هَذَا مَا قَالَهُ الْحَلِيمِيُّ ، وَاللَّهُ تَعَالَى أَعْلَمُ . فَهَذِهِ الشَّرِيعَةُ الَّتِي لَا بُدْ مِنْهَا فِي حَقِّ الْإِمَامِ .

* * *

وَأَمَّا الشُّرُوطُ الْعَرْفِيَّةُ وَالْأَصْطَلَاحِيَّةُ ، وَهِيَ مَا يَنْبَغِي أَنْ يَأْتِيَهُ الْمُلِكُ مِنْ جَيْلِ الْفَيَالِ ، وَيَدْرِهُ مِنْ قَبِيحِ الْحِصَالِ .

قَالَ مَعَاوِيَةَ بْنَ أَبِي سَفِيَّانَ : مَهْمَا كَانَ فِي الْمُلِكِ فَلَا يَنْبَغِي أَنْ تَكُونَ فِيهِ نِحْسُ خَصَالٌ : لَا يَنْبَغِي أَنْ يَكُونَ كَذَابًا ، فَإِنَّهُ إِذَا كَانَ كَذَابًا فَوْعَدَ بِخَيْرٍ لَمْ يَرْجِعْ ، وَإِنْ وَعَدَ بِشَرٍ لَمْ يَنْفِعْ ؛ وَلَا يَنْبَغِي أَنْ يَكُونَ بَخِيلًا ، فَإِنَّهُ إِذَا كَانَ بَخِيلًا لَمْ يَاصْحَاحَهُ ، وَلَا تَصْلُحُ الْوِلَايَةُ إِلَّا بِالْمُنَاصَحةِ ؛ وَلَا يَنْبَغِي أَنْ يَكُونَ حَدِيدًا ، فَإِنَّهُ إِذَا كَانَ حَدِيدًا مَعَ الْقَدْرَةِ هَلَكَتِ الرُّعْيَةُ ؛ وَلَا يَنْبَغِي أَنْ يَكُونَ جَسُودًا ، فَإِنَّهُ إِذَا كَانَ جَسُودًا لَمْ يُشَرِّفْ أَهْدَأَهُ ، وَلَا يَصْلُحُ النَّاسُ إِلَّا عَلَى أَشْرَافِهِمْ ؛ وَلَا يَنْبَغِي أَنْ يَكُونَ جَبَانًا ، فَإِنَّهُ إِذَا كَانَ جَبَانًا أَجْتَرَ عَلَيْهِ عَدُوَّهُ .

وَقَالَ أَبْنَ الْمَقْفعِ : لَيْسَ لِلَّكَ أَنْ يَغْضِبَ ، لِأَنَّ الْقَدْرَةَ مِنْ وَرَاءِ حَاجَتِهِ ، وَلَيْسَ لَهُ أَنْ يَكْذِبَ ، لِأَنَّهُ لَا يُقْدِرُ عَلَى أَسْتَكْرَاهِهِ عَلَى غَيْرِ مَا يَرِيدُ ، وَلَيْسَ لَهُ أَنْ يَخْلُ ، لِأَنَّهُ أَقْلَى النَّاسَ عَذْرًا فِي خَوْفِ الْفَقْرِ ، وَلَيْسَ لَهُ أَنْ يَكُونَ حَقُودًا ، لِأَنَّ خَطْرَهُ أَعْظَمُ مِنِ الْجَازِيَّةِ .

نظام وله كأطقم المعايك ورسوم مصر

دراسة شاملة لنظم البلاط ورسومه

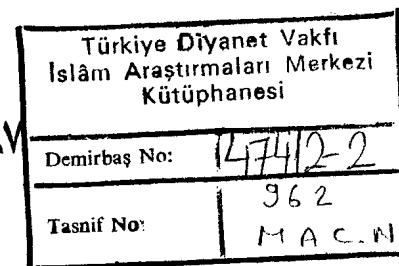
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تأليف

دكتور عبد المنعم ماجد

أستاذ التاريخ الإسلامي بكلية الآداب بجامعة بن شمس
ورئيس قسم التاريخ بالنيابة



١٩٩٧ كASIM 1997

الناشر
مكتبة الأخبلو المصرية
١٩٥ شارع محمد فريد
القاهرة

- ١٥١ -

ويقبلون يده . فإذا فرغوا ، حضر الخليفة وجلس مع السلطان على التخت ؛ ليلبسه بيده الخلعة المسمى (١) : الخلعة الخليفي أو السواد الخليفي ، وهو زى السلطان الرسمى ، الذى وصفناه سابقاً . فيقرأ كبير موظفى ديوان الإنشاء (كاتب المر) المختص بالمكاتب الرسمية – تقليد الخليفة للسلطان على البلاد الإسلامية بما فيها مصر والشام والمحجاز واليمن وديار بكر والفرات والجزيرة ، وما يضاف إليها ، وما يفتح من بلاد الكفر ، ولا سيما هذه العبارة : «فوضت إلية ذلك» ، وكذا يشهد كبار قضاة المسلمين على عقد التفويض . وقد يخطب الخليفة في هذه المناسبة ؛ فإذا كان قوى الشخصية دعا السلطان إلى أن يكون رحيمًا بالرعية . ثم يقبل الأمراء الأرض للسلطان من جديد ، ويجلبون له على المصاحف بأن لا يخونوا ولا يغدروا ولا يثروا عليه ؛ إذ أن المسلمين كانوا دائمًا مهددين من قبل الأمراء . وبعد ذلك ، يصافح السلطان أمير المؤمنين ، بعد أن يمنحه التشاريف ، وينجم بالرجال الدولة حتى أنها قد تبلغ أكثر من ألف ومائتي خلعة (٢) .

وقد يخرج الأمراء ورجال الدولة وعلى رأسهم السلطان في شوارع القاهرة ؛ حيث يحمل التقليد ، الذي منحه الخليفة إياه في كيس من الحرير الأسود يوضع على رأس الوزير (٣) ؛ وتكون القاهرة قد زينة (٤) .

- ١٥٠ -

- ٥ - الجلوس للقصد من الملوك الضخام والرسل .
- ٦ - جلوس قضاء المظالم .
- ٧ - جلوس المولد النبوى .

١ - تولية السلطان (١)

يقام بالضرورة في القلعة باحتفال كبير ؛ لأن سلطنته لا تتم إلا بدخوله قاعة الجبل . فيخرج السلطان من داره راكباً فرسه ، ومعه خواص أمرائه ، إلى الإيوان – وهي القاعة الضخمة ذات الأعدة – بشعاع السلطنة من آلات خاصة وبنود وأبواق ، وقد ظللها لوانان أسودان ، مشوران على رأسه ، كما يوجد في عنق فرسه قاش أسود «مشدّ» ، وعليه برذعة سوداء؛ إذ أن اللون الأسود يرمز إلى الشعار العباسى . وذلك لتأكيد صبغة الدولة السننية . فيدخل السلطان إلى الإيوان من باب اسمه باب النحاس ، أو من باب آخر اسمه سر القصر الكبير ؛ حيث يوجد هذه درج يقف عنده فرس السلطان .

ويكون جلوس السلطان في هذا الاحتفال على تخت في أعلى مكان . فيقبل الأمراء الأرض بين يديه على قدر مراتبهم ، ثم يتقدمون إليه .

(١) ابن حبيب ، درة الأسلام في دولة الأتراك ، عموماً (B. N.) ، برقم ٤٦٨٠ .
١ ورقة ٩٨ ب؛ صبح [ط. دار الكتب] ، ٣ من ٢٨١ – ٢٨١ ؛ الخطاط ، ٣ من ٤٣٤ .
(٢) السلوك ، ٢ من ٤٠٢ وما يبعدها ؛ حسن المحاضرة ، ٢ من ٤٠ ؛ مفضل ، الفرج .
(٣) نفس ، ٢ من ٤٨ – ٤٨ .
(٤) مورد المطافة ، من ٩٣ .

السديد والدرالفرید فيما يمدداً في ابن الهميد (Pat. Or., t12; Fase 3. Paris) .
١ - ١٢١ ، ١٢١ ، ٥٥ ، ورقات ١٢١ .
٤٢٤ - ٤٢٥ ؛ المقصد ، زيدة ، ١ - ١٢١ ب؛ زيدة ، ١ من ٤٨ .
ابن الحاس ، ١ من ٩٨ ، ٩٨ ؛ انظر . ماجد ، نظام الماليك ، ١ من ٣٧ - ٣٨ .

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-Addet
-Sultan

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Vol.VII, No.3, Spring 1989

ایران نامه، سال هفتم

می آید و با دقت و وسوسات عالمانه یک یک مقاله های رسیده را می خواند، و با یادداشت های طریق ولی مثنی کمی منابع را می نمود، زیادیها را می کاست، تندگوییها را ملایم می کرد، جدولها و عکسها و نقوش لازم را نشان می داد و اوراق چیده شده را بر قمی رسید و غلظت گیریها را باز می دید و به تویستن گان نامه ها می نوشت و درنگ کاریها و سهل انگاریها و کمی ها را طوری تذکر می داد که دلزدگی بیار نیاید. همکارانش هم بیدریغ و هترمدادانه کار می کردند: همت و دانش منوچهر کاشف از لابلای صفحات دانشنافه آشکار است و تخصص و فرزانگی و کارآمدی پُرڈز اکْرُش رو
در همه موارد پیدا. گزینش چنین همکارانی خود یک هنر است.

چاپ این کتاب مفصل و بسیار نفیس مایه آبرومندی ایرانیان است و بیار آمدن و بدشت رسیدن مجلدات بعدی، آرزوی همه مشتاقان ایران و میراث پهناور آن. خداوند بزرگ استاد یارشاطر را تدرست نگهداشاد و همت بلندش در انجام این هدف متعالی را کامیاب گرداناد که وی اگر هیچ اثر دیگری هم نساخته بود با همین «کاخ بلند» نام حاوی دید جسته است.

یادداشت:

و بنده، چه مؤید در ایران نامه سال دوم، شماره ۳، بهار ۱۹۸۸ ص ۱۱-۱۶ و M. Dresden in AJOS 105, 1985, pp. 164-62.

R. Mottahedeh in *The Middle East Journal* 41, 1987, p. 446.

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J. Calmard in *Studia Iranica* 17, 1988, pp. 106-110.

احمد کاظمی موسوی

سلطان عادل در شیعه

ولایت عامله فقیه در فقه امامیه

نوشتہ عبدالعزیز عبد الحسن ساجدینا

نیو یورک: چاپ دانشگاه آکسفورد، ۱۹۸۸

صفحه ۴۸۱

«سلطان عادل» عنوان بحثی است درباره نیابت، ولایت و رهبری فقهای شیعه

نظرة على طرق المماليك ورسوم مصر

دراسة شاملة لنظم البلاط ورسومه

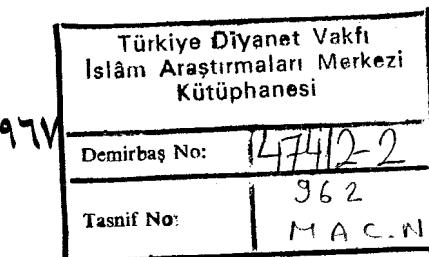
- ٨١٤ -

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تأليف

دكتور عبد المنعم ماجد

أستاذ التاريخ الإسلامي بكلية الآداب بجامعة منشى شمس
ورئيس قسم التاريخ بالنيابة



١٩٧٢ KASIM 1997

الناشر
سلسلة الأخبار المصورة
١٦٥ شارع محمد بن عبد الله
القاهرة

- ٧١ -

"وأعلن زى" السلطان الام ، الذي لدينا عنه معلومات وافية ، هو زيه حين توليه السلطة^(١) ، وهو ما يسمى بالسوداء الخليفي ، أو الخلعة الخليفي ، او خلعة السلطنة^(٢) ، أو حتى قاشه الخدمة^(٣) ، وذلك لأن الخليفة العباني ، الذي أقامه المماليك في مصر ، كان هو الذي يلبسه إليها في إحتفال كبير ، كما أنها تميزت باللون الأسود ؛ لأن هذا اللون يدل على مذهب الخلعة العباسية السنى ، الذي هو مذهب مصر الرسمي منذ أن سقطت خلافة الفاطميين الشيعية في مصر على يد الأيوبيين . ومع ذلك ؟ ففي مناسبات أخرى يسمى زى السلطان : قاشه الموكب^(٤) ، مما يبين أنه يلبس في مناسبة الموكب الرسمية .

فكما كان السلطان يلبس عمامة صغيرة سوداء مدورة على الرأس - مع أنها كانت للخليفة الفاطمي مستطيلة^(٥) - تسمى : التخفيفة^(٦) ، وتكون بعذبة ، ترسل بين كتفيه قدر ذراع . وقد عرفنا له عمامة أخرى ، تسمى^(٧) :

(١) انظر . Dopp .

Le Caire vu par les voyageurs Occidentaux du Moyen Age.
B. S. R. G. d'Eg, 1950-1953. p. 138

عشور ، مصر في دولة المماليك البحرينية ، من ١٢٢ - ١٢٨

(٢) ابن قری بردى ، مورد المطافة ، من ٤٠ ، ٤٢ ، ٢٨ ، ١٠٢ ، ١٠٤ ، ابن ایاس ، ١

Op. Cit.p. 78: Mayer .

١ من ١٠١ س ٢٢ ؛ انظر .

(٣) القصد ، ورقة ١٢١ .

(٤) التجوم (P) ، ٦ من ١٢٣ .

(٥) صبح ، ٣ من ٤٢٣ .

(٦) ابن ایاس (K. M.) ، ٤ من ٢١٢ س ٤٢٣ ، ٩٢ س ١٨ - ١٩ . الخطاط ،

٣ من ٣٤٠ س ٧ ؛ القصد ، ورقة ١٢١ ، ٥٥ . التخفيفة عمامة صغيرة ،

انظر . Suppl. I. p. 386. Dozy .

(٧) ابن ایاس (K. M.) ، ٤ من ٢١٢ س ١٣ س ٣٣٢ ، ١٣ س ١ - ٢٦ . Mamluk Costume, 1952, p. 16-17.

س ٩ ؛ انظر . Mayer .

ربما هذا الاسم آخر من أن الناورة - وهي الساقية - تدبرها الأغار .

- ٧٠ -

وفي الصفحات التالية نعرض بالتفصيل الملابس المملوكية ، التي سيتبين منها التائق والابتكار .

زي السلطان :

وكان المواكب وغيرها تتطلب من السلطان لبس آخر وأنفس ملابسه في كل مناسبة^(١) ، وكان سلاطين مصر ذوق كبير في لبسهم . يقتربون في الرى ، ويتعلمون على تطوره . فيكون أن ذكر من السلاطين المنافقين الناصر محمد بن قلاوون ، الذي ليس قياساً ، فتجرون أو بدن ،^(٢) من صوف ، جوخ ، وهو ثوب قصير من غير بطانة من تحته . ولاغشاء منه شيئاً كثيراً .

وكان السلطان يلبس لشكل مناسبة رسمية زياً ؛ وإن كنت لا نعرف بدقة لبسه في كل مناسبة ، كذلك يغير قاشه على حسب الفصول^(٣) ؛ ففي الصيف يكون لبسه الأقمشة الخفيفة البيضاء ، وفي الشتاء الجوخ ، الصوف ، والفراء . حتى أنه كان يختطف بلبس الصوف^(٤) ؛ وذلك بالخروج به في موسم رسمي . كما أنه قد يلبس زى الحرب^(٥) ، مثل بقية الأمراء . وكان السلطان إذا خلع رداءه مرة ، لا يلبسه مرة ثانية مطلقاً ، حيث توزع ملابسه المستعملة في مكان خاص ، وقد ينبع بها على أمرائه وخاصته .

(١) صبح ، ٤ من ٥٣ .

(٢) الخطاط ، ٣ من ١٦٠ . قبور جهاد فاجن . انظر . Dozy . Suppl. 2, p. 403. : Dozy . Suppl. I. 58 : Dozy .

(٣) صبح ، ٤ من ٤٠ س ٤٠ . حوادث ، من ١٢٤ س ٤ زيدة ، ٨٨ .

(٤) زيدة ، من ٨٦ س ١٥ - ١٦ . كان يلبسه إن جاء الغريف ، السحاوي .

الثير للسبوك ، من ١٢ .

(٥) فإن السلطان الظاهر كان يلبس زرديبة مسلحة .

القريري ، السلوكي ، ١ / ٢ من ٦٠-٨ س ١٢ .

صُبْحُ الْأَعْشَى

في

صِنَاعَةِ الْإِنْسَانِ

(٤٥-٤٦) Sultan

تألِيف

أَحْمَدُ بْنُ عَلِيِّ الْقَلْقَلِيُّ

الموتى ٨٢١ هـ - ١٤١٨ ميلادية

دار الكتب العلمية

سابق

شرحه وعلق عليه وقابل نصوصه

محمد حسين شمس الدين

٨٩٢.٧

KAI

الجزء الرابع

- خُبِطَتْ وَقُوُبِلَتْ عَلَى طَبْعَةِ دَارِ الْكُتُبِ الْمَصْرِيَّةِ
وَعَلَى الْمَصَادِرِ الْأَسَاسِيَّةِ لِنَصْوُصِ الْكِتَابِ .

- مُدْبِلَةٌ بِاسْتِدَارَاتٍ وَتَصْوِيَاتٍ وَهُوَ امْشَنْ تَوْضِيْحَةٌ .

- مُسْتَفِدَةٌ مِنَ الدَّرَاسَاتِ وَالْأَبْحَاثِ الَّتِي كَيْتَ حَوْلَ
هَذَا السِّقْفِ التَّقِيسِ مِنْ مَكَتَبَتِيَّةِ الْعَرَبِيَّةِ .

دار الكتب العلمية

نشروت - لشان

٤٥

صُبْحُ الْأَعْشَى

طويل الْكُمُّ؛ وَيُرْخُونَ ذُؤْبَةً لطيفةً عَلَى الأذنِ الْيُسْرَى لَا تَكَادْ تَلْعَنِي الْكَتْفَ،
وَيَرْكَبُونَ الْبَغَالَ بِالْكَنَابِيَّشِ عَلَى نَحْوِهَا تَقْدِمَ.

الطائفة الرابعة

أَرْبَابُ الْوَظَافِفِ الْدِيَوَانِيَّةِ

أَمَا أَعْيَانُهُمْ كَالْوَزَرَاءِ وَمَنْ ضَاهَاهُمْ، فَيَلْبِسُونَ الْفَرَاجِيَّ الْمَضَاهِيَّ لِفَرَاجِيِّ
الْعُلَمَاءِ الْمُتَقَدِّمَةِ الذِّكْرِ، وَرِبِّما يَلْبِسُوا الْجِبَابَ الْمَفْرَجَةَ مِنْ وَرَاهِهَا. وَقَدْ ذُكِرَ
فِي «مَسَالِكَ الْأَبْصَارِ»: أَنَّ أَكْبَرَهُمْ كَانُوا يَجْعَلُونَ فِي أَكْمَامِهِمْ بَادْهِنَجَاتٍ^(١)
مُفْتَوِّحة، وَقَدْ صَارَ ذَلِكَ الْآنَ قَاصِرًا عَلَى مَا يَلْبِسُونَهُ مِنْ التَّشَارِيفِ. وَمَنْ دُونْ
هُؤُلَاءِ يَلْبِسُونَ الْفَرَجِيَّاتِ الْمَفْرَجَةِ مِنْ وَرَاهِهَا عَلَى مَا تَقْدِمَ.

وَأَمَارِكُوبِهِمْ فِي ضَاهِيَّ رِكْبِ الْجَنْدِ أَوْ يَقْارِبُهِ. قَالَ فِي «مَسَالِكَ الْأَبْصَارِ»:
وَتَجْمَلُ هَذِهِ الطائفة بِمَصْرِ أَكْمَلَ مَا هُمْ بِالشَّامِ فِي زِيَّهُمْ وَمَلْبُوسِهِمْ، إِلَّا مَا
يَحْكِيُّ عَنْ قَبْطِ مَصْرِ فِي بَيْوَتِهِمْ مِنْ آتِسَاعِ الْأَحْرَالِ وَالنَّفَقَاتِ، حَتَّى إِنَّ الْوَاحِدَ مِنْهُمْ
يَكُونُ فِي دِيَوَانِهِ بِأَدْنِي الْلِّبَاسِ وَيَأْكُلُ أَدْنِي الْمَأْكُولِ، وَيَرْكِبُ الْحَمَارَ، حَتَّى إِنَّهُ صَارَ
فِي بَيْتِهِ آتَيْنَلِيَّاً حَالَ إِلَى حَالٍ وَخَرَجَ مِنْ عَدْمٍ إِلَى وَجْهٍ، قَالَ: وَلَقَدْ تَبَالَغَ النَّاسُ
فِيمَا تَحْكِيُّ مِنْ ذَلِكَ عَنْهُمْ.

المقصود الخامس

فِي هَيَّةِ السُّلْطَانِ فِي تَرْتِيبِ الْمُلُوكِ، وَلِهِ ثَلَاثَ^(٢) هَيَّاتٍ

الهَيَّةُ الْأُولَى

هَيَّتَهُ فِي جُلوْسِهِ بِدَارِ الْعَدْلِ لِخَلَاصِ الْمَظَالِمِ

عَادَهُ هَذَا السُّلْطَانُ إِذَا كَانَ بِالْقَلْعَةِ فِي غَيْرِ شَهْرِ رَمَضَانَ أَنْ يَجْلِسَ بَكْرَةً يَوْمَ

(١) أَوْ بِاَذْهَانِهِمْ. مِنَ الْفَارَسِيَّةِ: بَادْ وَأَهْنَجَ أَيْ سَاحِبِ الْهَرَاءِ أَوْ مَدْخَلِهِ، وَهِيَ نَافِذَةُ أَوْ فَتْحَةُ لِلنَّهَرِيَّةِ.

(٢) تَأْصِيلُ الدُّخْلِ: ص ٣٥.

(٣) الصَّوابُ: سَعَ، كَمَا سَرَى.

..... الجزء الرابع

كَتْفِيهِ ذُؤْبَةٍ تَلْعَنِي قَرْبُوس^(١) سَرْجِهِ إِذَا رَكَبَ، وَمِنْهُمْ مَنْ يَجْعَلُ عَوْضَ الذُّؤْبَةِ
الْطَّلِيسَانَ الْفَائِقَ، وَيَلْبِسُ فَرَقَ ثَيَابَهُ دَلْقاً^(٢) مُتَسَعَ الْأَكْمَامِ طَوِيلَهَا مَفْتُوحًا فَوْقَ كَتْفَيهِ
بِغَيْرِ تَفْرِيجٍ، سَابِلًا عَلَى قَدَمِهِ. وَيَتَمَيَّزُ قُضَاءُ الْقَضَاءِ الشَّافِعِيُّ وَالْحَنْفِيُّ بِلَبْسِ طَرْحَةٍ
تَسْرُّ عَمَامَتِهِ وَتَسْدِلُ عَلَى ظَهْرِهِ، وَكَانَ قَبْلَ ذَلِكَ مُخْتَصًا بِالشَّافِعِيِّ؛ وَمَنْ دُونْ هَذِهِ
مِنْهُمْ تَكُونُ عَمَامَتِهِ الْأَلْفَ، وَيَلْبِسُ بَدْلَ الدَّلْقِ فَرَجِيَّةً مَفْرَجَةً مِنْ قَدَامِهِ مِنْ أَعْلَاهَا
إِلَى أَسْفَلِهَا مَزَرَّةً بِالْأَزْرَارِ، وَلَيْسُ فِيهِمْ مَنْ يَلْبِسُ الْحَرِيرَ، وَلَا مَنْ يَلْبِسُ فِيهِ
الْحَرِيرَ؛ وَإِنْ كَانَ شَتَاءً كَانَ الْفَوْقَانِيُّ مِنْ مَلْبُوسِهِمْ مِنَ الصُّوفِ الْأَيْضُنِ الْمَطْلِيِّ،
وَلَا يَلْبِسُونَ الْمَلْوَنَ إِلَّا فِي بَيْوَتِهِمْ، وَرِبِّمَا لَبِسَهُمْ بَعْضُهُمْ مِنَ الصُّوفِ فِي الْطَرَقَاتِ،
وَيَلْبِسُونَ الْخِفَافَ مِنَ الْأَدِيمِ الطَّافِئِيِّ بِغَيْرِ مَهَامِزِهِ.

الْأَمْرُ الثَّانِي (مَرْكُوبُهُمْ). أَمَّا أَعْيَانُ هَذِهِ الطائفةِ مِنَ الْقُضَاءِ وَنَحْرِهِمْ
فَيَرْكَبُونَ الْبَيْنَالِ الْفَقِيسِيَّةِ الْمَسَاوِيَّةِ فِي الْأَئْمَانِ لِمُسَوَّمَاتِ الْخَيْوَلِ، بِلَجْمِ ثَقَالِ
وَسَرْجِ مَدْهُونَةٍ غَيْرَ مَحَلَّةٍ بِشَيْءٍ مِنَ الْفَضَّةِ، وَيَجْعَلُونَ حَوْلَ السَّرْجِ قَرْقَشِينَ مِنْ
جُوْخٍ. قَالَ فِي «مَسَالِكَ الْأَبْصَارِ»: وَهُوَ شَبِيهُ بِشَوْبَ السَّرْجِ مَخْتَصِّرٌ مِنْهُ،
وَيَجْعَلُونَ بَدْلَ الْعَبَيِّ الْكَنَابِيَّشَ مِنَ الصُّوفِ الْمَرْقُومِ مَحَاذِيَ لِكَفْلِ الْبَغْلَةِ، وَيَمْتَازُ
قَضَاءُ الْقَضَاءِ بِأَنَّهُ يَجْعَلُ بَدْلَ ذَلِكَ الزَّنَارِيِّ مِنَ الْجُوْخِ، وَهُوَ شَبِيهُ بِالْعَبَاءَةِ مَسْتَدِيرَ
مِنْ وَرَاءِ الْكَفَلِ وَلَا يَعْلُو بِرَدْعَةٍ وَلَا قَوْشَ، وَرِبِّمَا رَكِبُوا بِالْكَنَابِيَّشَ^(٣). وَأَمَّا مِنْ دُونِ
هُؤُلَاءِ مِنْ هَذِهِ الطائفةِ فَرِبِّمَا رَكِبُوا الْخَيْوَلِ بِالْكَنَابِيَّشِ وَالْعَبَيِّ.

الطائفة الثالثة

مشابخ الصوفية

وَهُمْ مُضَاهُونُ لِطائفةِ الْعُلَمَاءِ فِي لَبِسِ الدَّلْقِ إِلَّا أَنَّهُمْ يَكُونُونَ غَيْرَ سَابِلِ، وَلَا

(١) هُوَ حُنُورُ السَّرْجِ، وَهُمَا فَرِبُوسَانِ، وَالْجَمِيعُ قَرَابِيُّسِ . (الْوَسِيْطِ: ٧٢٣).

(٢) لِبَاسٍ يَلْبِسُهُ الْعُلَمَاءُ وَالْقُضَاءُ وَالصَّوْفِيَّةُ، وَيَكُونُ مِنَ الصُّوفِ غَالِبًا، وَهُوَ شَعَارُهُمْ . (مَصْطَلِحَاتِ

الصَّبِحِ: ١٣٨).

(٣) رَاجِعُ الْحَاشِيَةِ رقم ١ في الْفَصَحَّةِ ١٢ مِنْ هَذِهِ الْجَزِئِ.

الملكية وولاثة الحكم في التاريخ الإسلامي

لأستاذ أحمد موسى سالم

ولمود إلى كتاب الدكتور محمود الضاربة مع أعدائها الذين ينقل المؤلف إسماعيل، الحركات السرية في الإسلام، العربي المهزوم آرائهم العدوانية والمصلحة لنكشف عن هذا المدى المسرى الذي يغير اكتراث ا

كتبه وراءه، بالدارسة والتنبأ فذكر المؤلف في مقدمة هذا الكتاب يبدأ المؤلف المؤلف العربي المهزوم قومياً، والأسير باسم العلم في أغلال نظريات الاستشراق الأموي والعصر العباسي فيصف الأول بأنه «النظام الملكي الهرقليلي الأموي»، وبصف الآخر بأنه «الحكومة الكسرية ولله بالتقليد، أو الانهزام عن الحق أن يقلب بغير مبالاة حقائق التاريخ العربي العباسية»، ثم ينطلق وراء عقله الباطن والإسلامي رأساً على عقب، وأن ينشط فنكر ظالم، وأسلوب غاشم لتفسيره فيصفهما بأنهما « الحكومات الدينية»، أو مدلول الأمة العربية في عهود إسلامهما بني فراطية كابسهما ويدعى عليهما من أصالتها، وهو يكتب لهم الجرافية بالنهج اليوناني والغربي لهذا المصطلح. ثم يسفر حل مع هواه الموجه فيري أن تسقط هذه الحكومات العربية بغيرها العبر التي صلّى الله عليه وسلم، وعصر الخلفاء الراشدين، وعمر الأموي والعصر العباسي، ثم يكون ذلك كله في هذه الظروف التي تناضل فيها الأمة في نظره أنه أوجب على من ساق قوى العروبة والظل واليسار من ملاحدة العربية من أجل واحدة أجزاءها، وتنسبط مقواتها، في حربها المصرية

وزراطة أن

ومنتهي - في صورة هؤلاء المعارضين الحركات السرية للثورة عليها، لأنها - في أجب الأخلاق المنطقية الموقوف قد حدث بذكراها الجبرى الشهرين الإسلامى عن جادة الشريعة، وأنه من أجل ذلك - وبالضدية العلم والعلماء - قد صار لهؤلاء المعارضين التأثيرين الملحوظ المذكور

فالقضية عند قيسي لها بالمنهج الاستشرافي للمؤلف تنتهي إلى أنها من حق الملاحقة وعلاء الاستعمار الفارسى أن يناظروا الحركات العربية الدينية الشرعية على أرضها ووسط جماعي ما من المؤمنين وذلك باستعمال وسائل الإلحاد الجوسى وإسرائييليات وفلسفات هيلينية يونانية والإسرائييليات والفلسفات والوثنيات في حربهم السرية المقدرة خسداً هذه الحكومات العربية الشرعية الدينية، مما لم تعارض مع جوهر الإسلام، ١١١، والقضية بهذا الالتباس المنزع من مقدمة الكتاب إلى خاتمه لا يهدى إلا أحد اثنينين هنا أن المؤلف المصري وتلميذه بندلي جوزى الماركسي وأمثال على الوردي وصالح أحمد العدل من شعرية العراقي ورى أن «الإسلام لا يعارض في جوهره، الميراث الضارى الوثقى»، «الضمخ، أي عن تعاليم وفناهم التجوسبة والوثنيات والإسرائييليات والهيلينيات، ولذلك أباح لمعارضيه الشريعة في عصره، ملائكة وباطنية

- أنظر أيضاً:
- حقوق الرعية
- نصيحة الحكام

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2. Studies. Graf, *GCAL*, ii, 371-446 *passim*; A. Mallon, *Cat. des scales de la B.N. de Paris.*, in *MFOB*, iv (1910), 57-90; A. Sidarus, *Bibliographical introduction to medieval Coptic linguistics*, in *Bull. Soc. d'Archéol. Copte*, xxix (1990), 83-5; idem, *Coptic lexicography of the Middle Ages*, in R. McL. Wilson (ed.), *The future of Coptic studies*, Leiden 1978, 125-42; idem, *Les lexiques onomasiologiques gréco-copto-arabes du Moyen Age et leurs origines anciennes*, in R. Schulz and M. Görg (ed.), *Lingua restituta orientalis (Festschrift Julius Assaf)*, Wiesbaden 1990, 348-59; idem, *Onomastica aegyptiaca ou la tradition des lexiques thématiques en Egypte ...*, in *Histoire, Epistémologie, Langage*, xii/1 (1990), 7-19; idem, *Manuscrits sahiques de philologie gréco-copto-arabe*, in *MME*, vii (1995).

(A. SIDARUS)

SULTĀN (A.), a word which is originally an abstract noun meaning "power, authority", but which by the 4th/10th century often passes to the meaning "holder of power, authority". It could then be used for provincial and even quite petty rulers who had assumed *de facto* power alongside the caliph, but in the 5th/11th century was especially used by the dominant power in the central lands of the former caliphate, the Great Saljuks [see SALDJUKIDS, II, III.1], who initially overshadowed the 'Abbāsids of Baghdād. In the Perso-Turkish and Indo-Muslim worlds especially, the feminine form *sultāna* evolves to denote a woman holder of power. A denominative verb *tasalṭana* was formed, with the somewhat contemptuous diminutive *mutasalṭin* for a petty prince, whilst in Spanish Muslim sources, *sulatān* was used to designate Alfonso VII of Castile after he had come to the throne as a child only (Dozy, *Supplément*, i, 674).

1. In early Islamic usage and in the central lands of Islam.

The native Arabic verb *salata* "to be hard, strong" (cf. Akkad. *šalātu* "to have power") often occurs in ancient poetry, but not in the *Kur'ān*. *Sultān*, on the other hand, occurs frequently in the *Kur'ān*, with the denominative verb *sallata fulān*"*alā fulān*" "to empower s.o. over s.o." appearing in IV, 92/90, and LIX, 6. *Sultān* has there most often the meaning of a moral or magical authority supported by proofs or miracles which afford the right to make a statement of religious import. The prophets received this *sultān* from God (cf. e.g. sūra XIV, 12, 13) and the idolators are often invited to produce a *sultān* in support of their beliefs. Thus the dictionaries (like *T'A*, v, 159) explain the word as synonymous with *hudjja* and *buhān*. There are also six passages in the *Kur'ān* where *sultān* has the meaning of "power", but it is always the spiritual power which Iblīs exercises over men (XIV, 26; XV, 42; XVI, 101, 102; XVII, 67; XXXIV, 20). Now it is this meaning of power, or rather of governmental power, which is attached to the word *sultān* in the early centuries of Islam. The word and its meaning were undoubtedly borrowed from the Syriac *shultānā*, which has the meaning of power, and, although rarely, also that of the wielder of power (Payne-Smith, *Thesaurus Syriacus*, col. 4179; Nöldeke, *Beiträge zur semitischen Sprachwissenschaft*, Strassburg 1910, 39; A. Jeffery, *The foreign vocabulary of the Qur'ān*, Baroda 1938, 176-7). The *Kur'ānic* sense of the word may probably also be derived from the meaning of power (some lexicographers try to explain it as the plural of *salāt*, "olive oil"). Later, an attempt was made to connect the title *sultān* with the meaning of "argument", and it was paraphrased as *dhu l-hudjja* (*T'A*, loc. cit.).

In the literature of *Hadīth*, *sultān* has exclusively the sense of power, usually governmental power (the

sultān is the *wāli* for him who has no other *wāli*, al-Tirmidhī, i, 204) but the word also means sometimes the power of God. The best-known tradition, however, is that which begins with the words *al-sultān zill Allāh fi l-ard* "governmental power is the shadow of God upon earth" (cf. Goldziher, *Muhammedanische Studien*, ii, 61, Eng. tr. ii, 67, and idem, *Du sens propre des expressions Ombre de Dieu, Khalife de Dieu, pour désigner les chefs dans l'Islam*, in *RHR*, xxxv [1897], 331-8). Al-'Utbī quotes this tradition at the beginning of the *Kitāb al-Yamīnī*, and his commentator al-Manīnī says that it was transmitted by al-Tirmidhī and others as going back to Ibn 'Umar (*al-Faṭḥ al-wahbī*, *Sharh al-Yamīnī*, Cairo 1286, i, 21). This tradition later played a part in the theories of the Sultanate because an allusion to the title was wrongly seen in it. Apart from *Hadīth*, Arabic literature to the end of the 4th/10th century only knows the word *sultān* in the sense of governmental power (among the many examples, cf., e.g. al-Ya'kūbī, *Kitāb al-Buldān*, 346, 349; Ibn 'Abd al-Hakam, *Futūh Misr*, ed. Torrey, 183, where it is said that in ancient times the residence of the *sultān* of Ifrīqiya was Carthage, and Ibn Hawqal, ed. de Goeje, 143, where al-Mawṣil is called the residence of the *sultān* and of the *dīwān* of al-Djazīra) or of the person who at a particular time is the personification of the impersonal governmental power, as opposed to *amīr*, which is rather in the nature of a title. This last meaning, which is sometimes more completely rendered by *Dhu l-Sultān* (e.g. in *Hadīth*), and is totally different from the first, is found as early as the Egyptian papyri of the first century (for the governor of Egypt, cf. Becker, *Beiträge zur Geschichte Aegyptens*, 90, n. 6) and in the following centuries sometimes also for the caliphs (the caliph al-Manṣūr is called *Sultān Allāh* in a *khuṭba*, al-Tabarī, iii, 426; the caliph al-Muwaffaq is called *Sultān*, *ibid.*, iii, 1894; and again in 997 the caliph al-Kādir, al-'Utbī, *op. cit.*, 265). This practice of designating a person by the word which indicates his dignity has parallels in all languages (see e.g. for Turkish official language, H. Ritter, in *Islamica*, ii [1927], 475); it even appears that the Assyrian form *siltān* was applied to foreign sovereigns (according to Ravaisse in *ZDMG*, lxiii [1909], 330). The meaning of "power, government", has been maintained in Arabic literature to the present day.

The transition in meaning from an impersonal representative of political power to a personal title is a development the stages of which are difficult to follow. Authorities writing later than this development make statements which can only be accepted with reserve. Thus Ibn Khaldūn (*Muqaddima*, ed. Quatremère, ii, 8, tr. Rosenthal, ii, 8-9) says that the Barmakī Dja'far was called *sultān* because he held the most powerful position in the state and that, later, the great usurpers of the power of the caliph obtained *lakabs* like *amīr al-umara'* and *sultān*. The same thing is recorded of the Būyids (A. Müller, *Der Islam in Morgen- und Abendland*, i, 568) and of the Ghaznawids. Ibn al-Athīr (ix, 92) says that Maḥmūd of Ghazna obtained the title of *sultān* from the caliph al-Kādir. This statement is not confirmed by al-'Utbī himself, who, in giving the various *alkāb* conferred on Maḥmūd by the caliph (*op. cit.*, i, 317), makes no mention of this title. It is, however, true that al-'Utbī himself always calls Maḥmūd *al-Sultān*, giving in explanation the fact that Maḥmūd had become an independent sovereign (*op. cit.*, 311); but to al-'Utbī *sultān* cannot yet have been an official title, since he gives the same epithet to the caliph (see above). The first Ghaznawid on whose coins the title appears is Ibrāhīm b. Maṣ'ūd (451-92/1059-99),

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HELD: *The Root ZBL/SBL in Akkadian, Ugaritic and Biblical Hebrew*

and Alalakh-Amarna *massu* respectively. In other words, the biblical poet draws his pair of synonyms from two different layers of the NW Semitic dialects, the earlier one represented by *sēbel* (*Mari: sablum*), the later one represented by *mas* (Alalakh-Amarna: *massu*).

It now becomes abundantly clear that biblical scholarship errs in deleting *ns'* in the expression *ns' sabbāl* in I Kings 5: 29 and in reading *sabbāl* alone on the basis of II Chr. 2: 1, 17. It should be borne in mind that at least II Chr. 2: 1 has the idiom *'s sabbāl*, not just *sabbāl* alone.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁸ There seems to be no escape from the conclusion that the attestation of *sabbāl* "porter" in biblical Hebrew is altogether doubtful. Thus, in II Chron. 2: 17 the word *'yš* has accidentally been omitted as is evident from verse 1 where the reading *'yš sēbel* is by now self evident. Note that even in a prosaic text the parallel to *ḥsb bhr* would surely be *'yš sēbel* not just *sbl* alone. It also stands to reason to read in Neh. 4: 4 *kṣl khassēbel wh'pr hrbh* and to render: "The basket carriers are worn out for there is too much earth (to be carried in the corvée baskets!)." More problematic

Once again it need only be pointed out for our ready acceptance that the 'correct and original reading of our idiom is certainly *'s sēbel* which is but a variant of, and in no way different in meaning from, *ns' sēbel*. Such a reading is not only corroborated by the Akkadian expression ERÍN GI.ÍL = *sāb tupšikki* "man of the basket, basket carrier,"¹⁰⁹ but also by the Alalakh-Amarna idiom *awilūti massi/a* "men of the corvée."¹¹⁰

In short, when we render such Akkadian expressions as *nāš/zābil tupšikki/kudurri* into biblical Hebrew, we obtain *nōšē sēbel* or **sobēl sēbel*; similarly, a rendering into Hebrew of the Akkadian *ṣāb tupšikki* and Alalakh-Amarna *awilūti massi/a* yields *'s sēbel* and *'anšē mas* respectively.

is II Chron. 34: 13 where *sabbālim* "porters" can hardly be correct. The word may denote here "corvée masters." Note the *mnšym* "overseers" in our verse and cf. *l hammas* "corvée master" (e.g., I. Kings 4: 6).

¹⁰⁹ P. Kraus, *Altbab. Briefe*, II (1932), p. 63:5.

¹¹⁰ Observe that in all its occurrences, both in Alalakh and in Amarna, the idiom is always *LŪ.MEŠ massi/a = awilūti massi/a*.

MILITARY POLITICS IN THE MUSLIM DYNASTIC STATES, 1400-1750 *

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Nearly half of the political systems in the Middle East late in the 1960s were Islamic monarchies. Two of them, in fact, dated back to the period before the European imperial powers engulfed the Muslim world. Military politics in the eight surviving monarchies, in some respects, resembled military politics of the preimperial dynastic states more closely than of the post-imperial Middle East Islamic republics of the twentieth century. Even in some of the republican polities, particularly those that have fallen under military rule, there are traces of preimperial influence. Moreover, the popularity of the military coup d'état in the postwar Middle East undoubtedly

owes a great deal to the fact that the violent seizure of political power had become an accepted mode of changing political leaders and policies in the Muslim dynastic states. The key to military politics in the preimperial Islamic dynastic states was the failure to fix a policy on succession. It was this ambiguity, as we shall see, that invited military intervention into politics.

The latest possible date at which the general community of Muslim states was still relatively free from the subordinating influence of European imperialism was the turn of the eighteenth century. At that time the present-day area of the Middle East, stretching from Morocco to Afghanistan and Pakistan, comprised four large Muslim dynastic states—the Ottoman (Turkey), the Safavi (Persia), and the Mughal (India) empires, and the 'Alawi kingdom of Morocco. There were, in addition, many small tribal principalities in the Arabian Peninsula and North Africa into

* This paper has been adapted from a chapter in my forthcoming *Middle East Politics: The Military Dimension* (working title), which was completed under the sponsorship of the Council on Foreign Relations and the School of International Affairs at Columbia University, and will be published in 1968.

The salient features of the State envisaged in these sixteen points laid down by the Holy Qur'an are as follows:

- a) This State is brought into existence by a conscious resolve on the part of a politically free nation to renounce all claims to sovereignty in favour of God Almighty, to surrender its autonomy accepting the position of vicegerency under Him, and to work according to precepts and directions given by the Book of God and the Sunnah of His Apostle.
- b) It is theocratic insofar as it is based on the doctrine of sovereignty of God but, in actual and practical realisation of this doctrine, it is vitally different from theocracy. Instead of delegating the vicegerency of God to a particular order of priests and vesting them with the full powers to rule, it vests the believers whose deeds are good with the right of Caliphate.
- c) It is democratic in the sense that the formation of government, change in its administrative set-up, and its working wholly depend upon the general will. But the rights of the people in this system are not so unlimited that they may change the law of the State, its ideology, its internal and external policy, and its resources according to their own sweet will. On the other hand, the Supreme Law of God and His Apostle with its legal and moral code provides a permanent and inviolable check which always keeps the life of the community on the right keel and on a broad pattern which can be changed neither by the executive, nor by the legislature, nor by the judiciary, nor even by the whole nation unless it decides to renounce the religion of God and break its pledge with Him.
- d) It is an ideological State which must be run only by those who accept its basic ideology and principles whole heartedly. As for those who do not subscribe to its ideology but live within its territorial bounds, the State guarantees them the same civil rights as are enjoyed by the other inhabitants provided they pledge to behave as law-abiding citizens.
- e) It is a State which makes no discrimination whatsoever on grounds of race or colour and is not bound by any linguistic or geographical barriers. It is a purely ideological State. All peoples, no matter to whatever race, nation, or country they belong, can accept this ideology and become equal partners in all the affairs of the State. Such an ideological State bids fair to become a world State. But even if more than one such States are established.

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— A.R. Rahmani

Politics and Leadership

The Qur'an mentions how political leaders have in the past exploited people and their weaknesses and established their aggressive and oppressive domination over them. It mentions the tyrannous role of the Pharaohs:

"And Pharaoh said, 'O Chiefs! I know not that you have a god other than me, so kindle for me a fire, O Haman, to bake bricks out to clay, and build for me a lofty tower in order that I may survey the God of Moses; and truly I deem him (Moses) of the liars'" (28:38).

"And he and his hosts were arrogant and insolent in the land without right, and thought that they would never be brought back to Us" (28:39).

And in the same Surah, we read:

"Truly Pharaoh exalted himself in the earth and broke up its people into sections, depressing a small group among them. He slew their sons and spared their women. And truly he was of those who make mischief" (28:3-4).

And in *Surah Al-Zukhruf* are these words:

"And Pharaoh proclaimed among his people, saying, 'O my people! Does not the dominion of Egypt belong to me, (witness) these streams flowing underneath my (palace)? What ! See you not then?'

Am I not better than this (Moses) who is a contemptible wretch and can scarcely express

himself clearly?...Thus did he make fools of his people and they obeyed him. Truly they were a people rebellious (against God)" (43:51-54).

The Qur'an then mentions how God wanted to raise the depressed to power and bring down the tyrant:

"And We desired to show favour to those who were oppressed in the land, and to make them leaders and make them heirs" (28:5).

In these verses, the whole panorama of the political scene, its corruption, bargaining techniques and mass psychology, and the use of slogans and creeds by the chiefs and leaders is summed up in a very beautiful and impressive way. Thus, *the Qur'an* refers to the arrogance of the 'Ad people:

"Do you build a landmark on every high place for vain delight? And do you get for yourselves fine strong buildings in the hope of living therein (for ever)? And when you exert your strong hand, do you exert it like tyrants?" (26:128-130).

And to the people of Thamud:

"Will you be left secure in that which is here before us, in gardens and watersprings and tilled fields and heavy-sheathed palm-trees, though you hew out dwellings in the mountain with great skill?" (26:146-149).

Then *the Qur'an* gives its view of the state and its political and legal powers and functions.

Supremacy of Law: The Qur'an asserts the supremacy of law in these words:

"No believing man nor any believing woman should exercise choice in their affair once God and His Messenger have decided upon some matter. Anyone who disobeys God and His Messenger had wandered into manifest error" (33:36).

SULTAN *sultān*, presumably an Assyrian word which at an unknown period, but certainly prior to Islam, infiltrated into Arabic by way of Syriac, designating the concept of power bestowed by God. Originally

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understood in the purely moral or ethical sense - as such it occurs in the Koran (*sūrah* XVII, 35; LXIX, 29; LI 38) - it subsequently connoted also the worldly aspects in the form of sovereign might and authority. Under the early 'Abbāsids* the term was shifted from the sphere of the abstract to that of the concrete and came to signify the embodiment by the will of God of all power, spiritual and secular, in the person of the caliph, the supreme ruler. As soon, however, as the prestige of the caliphs started to decline they were forced to delegate an ever increasing part of their prerogatives upon their minister of state, the vizier*. Simultaneously the term *sultān* appeared in titles which these all-powerful dignitaries insisted on having conferred upon them such as *Sultān al-Dawlah* (Possessor of the Authority in the State). To some extent they may have wanted to emphasize their exalted rank; but of equal weight probably was the need they felt to drape with a semblance of sacred right in the eyes of the people with the exercise of functions which in reality they held only by usurpation. The first one who had the title *al-sultān* appear on his coins was the great chieftain of the Saljūq Turks, Toghruł Beg (†1063), vizier and regent of the caliphate at the time of the 'Abbāsid* Caliph al-Qā'im (1031-1075). A similar motive of legitimizing their position acquired by the force of arms led the heterodox Fātimid* caliphs to assume the epithet 'Sultans of Islam'. They set an example which henceforth was followed not only by their successors on the throne of Egypt, Sultan Salāh al-Dīn (Saladin) of the house of the Ayyūbids* (1169-1252) and the Mameluke* (1250-1517) 'Sultans of Islam and the Moslems', but also by numerous other princes in various Islamic countries. Most of them did not fail to follow the time-honoured practice of having the caliph bestow the title upon them or at least solemnly sanction its use. A remembrance of the former nimbus and splendour of this royal distinction was carried over into the twentieth century by the Sultan-Caliphs of the Ottoman Empire, until on the first of November 1922 the Grand National Assembly at Ankara declared that their office had ceased to exist. At present the title Sultan is borne by the sovereigns of Morocco, the rulers of Muscat and 'Umān* and some of the more important chieftains in the Aden Protectorate*.

السلطات الثلاث

بـ محمد البكر

أنظر أيضاً:
قاضي القضاة -

القضائية وشخصية القاضي. القاهرة:

١٩٦٧ - البكر، محمد عبد الرحمن. السلطة

الزهراء للاعلام العربي، ١٩٨٧ م

ص. ٧٨٩

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عبدالجبار الرفاعي، موسوعة مصادر النظام الاسلامي، ج. الثامن،
"الإمامية، السياسة"، KTP 070928، ١٤١٧م

citadel at al-Salt, and stationed troops there. He also renovated the town's mosque. Mamlük period sources describe al-Salt as being prosperous and noted for its orchards. It came within the *wilāya* of al-Balkā², the sixth *wilāya* of the southern *safka* of Damascus. The administrative status of al-Salt varied, but towards the end of the Mamlük period it had eclipsed both Ḥiṣbān (Esbous) and ‘Ammān. Its residents probably followed the *Shāfi‘ī madhab*, for it is known that the town had a *Shāfi‘ī kādī*, and that the amīr Sayf al-Din Begtimur al-Ḥusāmī (d. 729/1328) founded a *Shāfi‘ī madrasa* there. A number of learned men with the name of al-Saltī are listed in the biographical dictionaries of this time.

The Ottoman *tapu defters* provide significant information about al-Salt. In 954/1538 it was the seat of a *nāhiya* comprising two *mahallas*: Awāmla east of the citadel and Maḥallat Akraḍ west of the citadel; between them there were 168 households, ten bachelors, four imāms, ten Christians, and six soldiers who manned the citadel. An order by the sultan of 959/1551 states that al-Salt was in a ruinous state, which corroborates the population decline recorded in the *tapu defter* of 1005/1596. Both *defters* detail the sum of 12,000 *akçe*s in dues that were collected from al-Salt as part of the allowances of the *mīr liwā* of ‘Adjlūn. Christians paid the poll tax at the rate of 80 *akçe*s per head. At the time, al-Salt was a market place for the district, while Ḥiṣbān is reported as having been derelict.

The citadel at al-Salt continued to be well maintained. In 1033/1623, Fakhr al-Dīn al-Ma‘nī II visited al-Salt and installed a garrison of fifty men there. It is claimed that the citadel was destroyed by Ibrāhīm Pasha [q.v.] during his presence in Syria between 1247/1831 and 1256/1840, and only ruins survive today, including trenches that give the neighbourhood the name of Khandak.

Little data is available about al-Salt during the 17th, 18th, and early 19th centuries, but there is plentiful information from the second half of the 19th century in connection with the measures taken by the Ottomans to rejuvenate the region during the *Tanzimat* period. Al-Salt's importance increased, but it remained administratively dependent upon either the Hawrān, Karak or Nābulus. Thus in 1313/1895, it was a seat of a *kādā*² within the *liwā* of Karak, that included its own *nāhiya* and the *nāhiyas* of ‘Ammān, Djiza and Mādaba. *Sāl-nāmes* and other sources report about 300 villages belonging to this *kādā*², but it is difficult to accept this figure unless derelict sites are included.

Al-Salt had a *kā’immaṭām*, Islamic and civil courts, and special courts for non-Muslims. In addition, it had departments for education, health, land registry, taxation, postal and telegraph services, and religious endowments. The various villages, quarters, tribes and Christian communities each had its own *mukhtār*. The town attracted people from the regions of Damascus, Ḥamā and Palestine, and particularly from Nābulus, and these new settlers were responsible for the flourishing of business and increased construction of houses, shops, baths, and other buildings; Christians, many from Palestine, also came to settle in the city, and were the pioneers in business; along with others, they came to dominate land ownership in the neighbouring villages. A number of missionary groups came to al-Salt, and it had several churches, among them Greek Orthodox, Roman Catholic, Greek Catholic and Protestant. A Chamber of Commerce was instituted in 1301/1884, and a Municipal Council in 1305/1888. The town enjoyed security,

and through its military garrison maintained control over the region, especially the Abad, ‘Adwān, and Banū Ṣakhr tribes. This security attracted the influx of capital, which is reflected in the town's Ottoman-style mansions, many of which survive today.

Al-Salt was ahead of the rest of the country in education because of the number of both state and missionary schools that were established there. The first secondary school in Jordan was established there in 1344/1925, and it accordingly had an important early role in building the modern state of Jordan.

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(M.A. AL-BAKHIT)

SALTANA (A.) “sovereignty, ruling power”, from the verb *salṭana* “become ruler, exercise power”, with *salṭa* meaning “force” (*kahr*), thence by extension the holder of power. *Sultān* is found in the Kur’ān; see for a detailed discussion of the Islamic origins of the term and its later developments, **SULTĀN**. The Arabic papyri from the first century of Islam have such expressions as *kharāḍi al-sultān* or *bayt māl al-sultān*, with the sense of “authority of the government, or of the governor, *wālī* or *hākim*”. In the standard Arabic dictionaries (Ibn Durayd, *Djamhara*, iii, 27; Ibn Sīdūh, *Mukhassas*, iii, 133 ff.; Ibn Fāris, *Mu‘jam makāyīs al-lugha*, iii, 95; *LĀ*, iii, 2065-6; al-Fīrūzābādī, *Kāmūs*, ii, 365-6; *TĀ*, v, 158-60; Butrus al-Bustānī, *Muhiṭ al-muhiṭ*, i, 680), *sultān* is invariably connected with the idea of constraint. In popular Arabic usage, *salṭ* means “oil”, in Yemen, “sesame oil”, and *sultān* is thus connected with *salṭ* because oil, it is asserted, serves to make things clear, just like political authority. Hence *amīrs* are described as *sultāns* because the latter term is the divine proof which is used to put the proof into practice.

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PĀ or *bā³-i fāṣī* or *bā³-i ḥāḍīmī*, i.e. the *bā³* with three points subscript, invented for Persian as supplement to the Arabic *bā³* and to represent the unvoiced, as opposed to the voiced, bilabial plosive (for the voiced *b*, see BĀ²). It is sometimes interchangeable with *bā³* (e.g. *asp* and *asb*, *dabīr* and *dapīr*) and, more frequently, with *fā³* (e.g. *sapid* and *safid*, *Pārs* and *Fārs*). The regular use of the letter in manuscripts is comparatively modern, but it is found in good ones of the 7th/13th century while at the same time it is often omitted in manuscripts of much later date (GIPh, 1/iv, 74; G. Lazar, *La langue des plus anciens monuments de la prose persane*, Paris 1963, 142).

The usage of the letter *pā³* passed into Ottoman Turkish, for both original Turkish words (early Turkish had distinguished both voiced and unvoiced versions of the sound, and the first writing system for Turkish, that of the Yenisei and Orkhon inscriptions (7th-8th centuries A.D.), had had separate signs for *p* and *b*, see Talât Tekin, *A grammar of Orkhon Turkic*, Bloomington, Ind. 1968, 24, 27 n. 10, 75) and for Persian loanwords (see J. Deny, *Grammaire de la langue turque (dialecte osmanli)*, Paris 1921, 51-2, 77-8). *Pā³* is likewise used in Urdu both for Persian and Turkish loanwords and for words stemming from the Indo-Aryan basis of the language.

In loanwords into Arabic, *pā³* may be rendered as *bā³*, e.g. in *bāshā* for Turkish *pasha*; *būstā/būsta* for Italian *posta*; *bātūl* for Fr./Eng. *pétrole/petrol*. But it was often rendered, especially in Classical Arabic at a time when Persian cultural influences were strong, as *fā³* also, e.g. *fūrāni* < MP *parvānak*, NP *parwāna* "messenger, courier with despatches"; *fānidh* < Skr. *phāṇita*, NP *pānūd* "sugar-cane syrup"; *firind* < NP *parand* "damascening on a sword" (see A. Siddiqi, *Studien über die persischen Fremdwörter im klassischen Arabisch*, Göttingen 1919, 71).

(R. LEVY-[C.E. BOSWORTH])

PĀDHŪSPĀN [see RŪYĀN].

PĀDISHĀH (P.), the name for Muslim rulers, especially emperors. The Persian term *pād-i shāh*, i.e. (according to M. Bittner, in E. Oberhummer, *Die Türken und das Osmanische Reich*, Leipzig 1917, 105) "lord who is a royalty" in which the root *pad* is connected with Sanskrit *patis*, lord, husband, fem. *patni*, Greek *τόντα* and *δεσ-τόντης*, Lat. *potens* (G. Curtius, *Griech. Etymol.*, 377), was originally a title reserved exclusively for the sovereign, which in course of time and as a result of the long intercourse of the Ottomans with the states of the West also came to be approved for certain Western rulers. In the correspondence of the Porte with the Western powers, the grand vizier Kuyudju Murād Pasha (d. 7 Dju'mādā II 1021/5 Aug. 1612) probably for the first time applied the title *pādishāh* to the Austrian emperor Rudolf II. At the conference of Nemirov (1737), Russia demanded the title for its Tsars (cf. J. von Hammer, *GOR*, vii, 488) and claimed it again at the negotiations at Bucharest (1773; cf. *ibid.*, viii, 412). When *pādishāh* came to be applied to the sultan, the *pādishāh-i āl-i Othmān*, does not seem to be exactly known. In any case it is found in conjunction with all kinds of rhyming words as early as the beginning of the 10th/16th century in Ottoman documents. *Pādishāh* therefore may have come to be used towards the end of the 9th/15th century,

presumably instead of *khunkār* (from *khudāwendkār*; cf. JA, ser. ii, vol. xv, 276/572), an obsolete word, as well as *sultān* (cf. *Isl.*, xi [1921], 70) already found in dervish Sufism, and was regularly used till the end of the sultanate (cf. the cry of *pādishāhimiz čok* or *biñ yasha* with which the sultan was greeted by his troops and subjects).

In Persian usage, followed by that of the Indo-Muslim rulers such as the Mughal emperors, *pādishāh* became a normal designation for the ruler, though regarded as lower than that of *shāhanshāh* [see SHĀH], and in more recent times it was used by Persian monarchs in diplomatic documents addressed to European kings. Already the *Hudūd al-ālam* (end of the 4th/10th century) uses *pādshā(h)* "ruler" and *pādshāhī/pādshāhī* even for petty princes of the upper Oxus region and northern Afghanistan (tr. Minorsky, 108, 109, § 23.65, 75; idem, *Addenda to the Hudūd al-ālam*, in BSOAS, xvii [1955], glossary, 257). When 'Alī, son of the head of the Safawī order Haydar b. Djunayd, adopted the title of *pādishāh* in his struggle with the Ak Koyunlu [q.v.] towards the end of the 9th/15th century, it was a clear indication of the ambitions of the Safawī family (see R.M. Savory, *Iran under the Safavids*, Cambridge 1980, 20). In the later half of the 19th century, A. de Biberstein Kazimirski noted that some of the officials of Nāṣir al-Din Shāh [q.v.] had taken to describing their master, not only as *shāhanshāh*, but also as *pādishāh-i kull-i mamālik-i Irān*, apparently in imitation of the Tsar's designation "Emperor of all the Russias" (*Menoutchehri, poète persan du 11^e siècle de notre ère (du 5^e siècle de l'hégire)*, Paris 1887, 359-60).

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(F. BABINGER-[C.E. BOSWORTH])

PADRI, the name of a major Islamic revivalist movement in Minangkabau [q.v.], Sumatra, 1803-38. The appellation Padri is derived from *orang Pidari* "men of Pedir (Pidiē)", in reference to those who made the pilgrimage to Mecca by way of the Atjehnese port of Pidiē. The Padri built on earlier Minangkabau reform movements initiated by the two major Sufi *tarekat* which had been the instrument for converting the central highlands of Sumatra, the Nakshabandiyah (Nakshbandiyya [q.v.]) and the Syattariyah (Shattāriyya [q.v.]). Operating by the late 18th century in a society which was only very partially Islamicised, these *tarekat* flourished around *surau* or centres for religious studies which attracted hundreds of students from throughout Minangkabau.

In the 1780s the hilly regions surrounding some of the major *surau* in the valley districts of Agam, Tanah

V. MUSLIM INSTITUTIONS

HALIFE

A. Caliphate

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SULTAN~~

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CALIPH AND SULTAN

V. V. BARTOLD

(Translated by N. S. DONIACH)

FOREWORD BY THE TRANSLATOR

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VASILIY VLADIMIROVICH BARTOLD (1869–1930) was an outstanding Russian orientalist whose works on the history of Central Asia have gained him universal acclaim. He published over four hundred articles and books of which perhaps the best known is his study of Turkestan in the epoch of the Mongol invasion. This was translated into English by Professor Sir Hamilton A. R. Gibb and is, to this day, a standard work of reference.

Professor Bernard Lewis drew my attention to Bartold's study 'Caliph and Sultan', which was published in the *Mir Islam* in 1912, and suggested that I should translate it into English because of its importance for all interested in the history of Muslim countries. The draft version was fairly literal, but barely comprehensible for the English reader, and I have been compelled to translate rather more freely than had been my original intention. I hope, however, that the argument is now clear and that the points made by Bartold can be readily appreciated by the English reader.

CALIPH AND SULTAN

*Revised
16*

To analyse the political history of the Muslim world is an even more difficult task than to analyse the history of Islam as a religion. The reason for this lies in deep-rooted prejudices which are both religious and academic in nature. In spite of progress in the field of oriental studies, the view taken by the Muslim historians of the 'Abbāsid epoch still dominates research to this very day. According to this view, after the first four 'rightful' (*al-rāshidūn*) Caliphs, a purely temporal dynasty ruled in the persons of the Umayyads from A.D. 661 to 750. With the exception of 'Umar II (717–20), they had no religious authority whatsoever. It was held that religious leaders throughout the entire period of Umayyad domination were only to be found in the opposition. The extermination of the Umayyads and the transfer of power to the relatives of the Prophet was held to be a transfer from impious 'emperors' to genuine 'Caliphs',

where "Halife" preferred

DAMAS

Bulletin d'études Orientales, XVIII (1963-1964)

UN TRÉSOR DE DINARS GAZNAWIDES ET SALĞŪQIDES DÉCOUVERT EN AFGHANISTAN*

PAR
DOMINIQUE SOURDEL

Le trésor publié ci-après provient de Tchardara, dans le district de Qunduz, localité située dans le nord de l'Afghanistan à une cinquantaine de km au sud de l'Amu Darya. Il a été découvert en novembre 1960 et déposé au Musée de Caboul. Le directeur de ce Musée, Monsieur A. A. Motamedi, à qui j'adresse ici tous mes remerciements, a bien voulu m'autoriser à en entreprendre l'étude et c'est à la Délégation archéologique française en Afghanistan que je dois d'avoir eu communication de la documentation photographique utilisée (1).

Les pièces, qu'accompagnaient des fragments de bijoux en or (2) et un morceau de laiton en forme de botte, se trouvaient dans des récipients de poterie, mais on ne possède pas de renseignements plus détaillés sur les circonstances de la trouvaille. Ces pièces ont fait l'objet à Caboul d'un premier classement et ont reçu alors des numéros qui ont été conservés dans le présent inventaire (3).

* ABRÉVIATIONS BIBLIOGRAPHIQUES

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(1) MM. Marc Le Berre et Charles Kieffer se sont chargés de réunir la documentation photographique et d'établir un tableau de correspondance entre les clichés et les pièces.

(2) Ces fragments reproduits à la planche VIII comportent, outre deux éléments d'un bracelet torsadé, des médaillons et pendentifs de formes diverses décorés, selon la technique du filigrane, de motifs

de perles et de tresses dessinant des figures géométriques simples, notamment des rosettes à multiples pétales.

(3) Ce numérotage comportait les séries suivantes: F 1 à F 18, i 1 à i 64, im 1 à im 36, x 1 à x 4, X 1 à X 37 (X 38 étant en miettes), A 1 à A 54. Les pièces reproduites dans les planches suivent l'ordre ainsi défini.

THE SULTAN & THE CONSTITUTION

Muhammad Kamil Awang



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**Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka
Kuala Lumpur
1998**

- P 2524
- SULTAN

maintained along purely personal lines. In the selection of officials, loyalty to the ruler supersedes all other concerns. Officials are selected from among the ruler's personal attendants.⁷ Professional training and specialization are not considered necessary prerequisites. Promotions depend not on objective criteria but on the ruler's favor. The ruler makes his officials' economic compensation completely subject to his discretion with no provision for hereditary service. Officials never constitute a corporate group or a monopolistic, legally autonomous sodality.⁸ In brief, the basic features of the patrimonial bureaucracy stem from its personal-patrimonial character. According to Weber the household characteristics of the patrimonial state were maintained "to a grotesque degree. . . at the Turkish court" up to the nineteenth century.⁹ Weber also observes that in the course of financial rationalization the patrimonial state in general moves imperceptibly toward a rational bureaucratic administration.¹⁰ In their conceptual approach, recent studies on Ottoman bureaucracy rely to a great extent on Weber's typification. Even when these studies tend to define Ottoman "sultanism" as being modified by an autonomous bureaucracy and objective laws, *kanuns*, they essentially follow Weber's theory.

Most recently Cornell Fleischer, in his book on Mustafa 'Ali, suggested that in its most developed form in the late sixteenth century, Ottoman government was highly bureaucratized.¹¹ Before the sixteenth century, he alleges, "the position of the bureaucracy, the initially undifferentiated chancery and financial organization of the men of the pen, fell somewhere between the sword and learning and shared characteristics (administrative responsibilities and literacy respectively) with both."¹² In the sixteenth century, "the need to regularize the empire-wide administrative practice and to cope with growing financial problems led to the formation of an increasingly professionalized bureaucratic establishment. . . ." In conclusion, Fleischer speaks of "an independent bureaucratic career track" and the growth of *kanun* consciousness in the late-sixteenth-century Ottoman empire.

The question we raise is this: taking into account this bureaucratic development, are we justified in rejecting Weber's initial characterization of the Ottoman state as a "sultanism" based on arbitrary patrimonialism? One can argue that this development can never be interpreted as a real bureaucracy and Ottoman *kalemiye* (bureaucracy) always remained a complete tool of sultanism. It may be argued that the Ottoman political system could never allow the emergence of a corporate bureaucratic establishment in Weber's sense. Therefore, it is of key importance whether the bureaucratic group really attempted to assert itself as an autonomous body with well-defined responsibilities guaranteed under the *kanun* and attempted to carry out government activities within the pre-established rules and regulations. The argument is that their attacks on clientship, favoritism, and bribery institutions, which were inseparable from a patrimonial system of government,

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DECISION MAKING AND CHANGE IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE, Missouri,

Halil INALCIK

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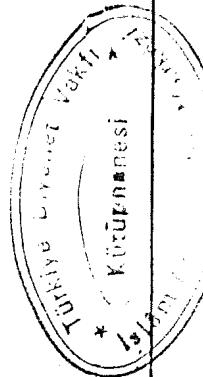
apparently were for the purpose of establishing such a bureaucratic system.¹³ *Kanun*, as an objective rule in the conduct of government affairs, would bring a certain rationality and objectivity and ensure a controlling position to the bureaucrats in government.

I believe this is what Cornell Fleischer examined in the biography of Mustafa 'Ali. It is true that throughout Ottoman history there were periods when members of the *kalemiye* became more influential with the sultan and thus participated more directly in the decision-making process than other times. This, however, was possible only through a typical patrimonial institution, *musahibilik*.¹⁴ One can argue that as a rule *küttâb* were regarded as simple employees or tools providing technical expertise to the responsible men representing sultanic authority. Mention of the *kalemiye* or *ahl al-kalam* side by side with the *seyyiye* (men of the sword), and *ilmiye* (men of learning) occurred only in a later period. In the earlier works on government and politics the hierarchy ranks first, *seyyiye*, followed next by *ilmiye*, without any mention of *kalemiye*.¹⁵

Let us first examine the question of how absolute the power of the sultan really was. The Ottoman, or Middle Eastern, concept of *Padişah* (emperor) implied an autocrat concentrating all power and means of power in his own hands.¹⁶ He was considered to be chosen and supported by God and God alone. This concept manifested itself in practice in every facet of governmental dispositions. All governmental decisions, appointments, and title deeds are issued in the sultan's name. When his officials made reports or took decisions, the documents always ended with the phrase *baki emr Sultanimdir*, "ultimate command belongs to the sultan." His will and authorization expressed in diplomas (*berats*, *menzûrs*, *mülknames*) is the only means of legitimization for the exercise of power. From grand vizier or patriarch of the Orthodox Church to the simple district *imam* or guild master, every person exercising authority had to obtain the sultan's *berat* and exercise authority in the name of the sultan. "Land and subjects belong to the sultan" is the fundamental principle of sultanism as expressed in the Ottoman law codes. This "constitutional" principle, aimed at abolishing all hereditary rights with political or so-called feudal implications, gave the sultan absolute control over the land and the peasants so that he would be able to create and maintain a unified empire and his absolute imperial power. His power was so perfectly absolute because his accession was believed to be determined by God, and the sultan, God's shadow on earth, was the only legitimate source of power.

But in reality the situation was not so simple. Every new succession in Ottoman history represented a revolution. Upon the death of a sultan no legitimate authority is considered to exist. All his legal dispositions, appointments, and titles to possessions become null and void. In order to prevent anarchy the grand vizier tried to conceal the sultan's death, even

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the second being the content (chiefly social) in which the derived theme is applied. On the first point, a word which means 'seek' in G will almost certainly mean the same thing in Gt, because the reflexive is contained already in the ground theme. On the second, where the context is a restricted one, e.g. dealing with legal procedures, a verb such as 'draw near' is quite likely to take on a meaning which appears to be a far cry from the ground theme; thus in Christian ecclesiastical literature *qarraba* is used for 'giving Holy Communion' and the same word in old military contexts has been used for 'putting one's sword in one's scabbard', both usages deriving from an extended application of 'being near'. Space forbids the presentation and explanation of many such unusual themes, but it is hoped that the simple scheme proposed herein will be judged on its merits.

27 MAYIS 1996

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London-1963, s. 117-135.



CALIPH AND SULTAN

V. V. BARTOLD

(Translated by N. S. DONIACH)

FOREWORD BY THE TRANSLATOR

VASILIY VLADIMIROVICH BARTOLD (1869-1930) was an outstanding Russian orientalist whose works on the history of Central Asia have gained him universal acclaim. He published over four hundred articles and books of which perhaps the best known is his study of Turkestan in the epoch of the Mongol invasion. This was translated into English by Professor Sir Hamilton A. R. Gibb and is, to this day, a standard work of reference.

Professor Bernard Lewis drew my attention to Bartold's study 'Caliph and Sultan', which was published in the *Mir Islamia* in 1912, and suggested that I should translate it into English because of its importance for all interested in the history of Muslim countries. The draft version was fairly literal, but barely comprehensible for the English reader, and I have been compelled to translate rather more freely than had been my original intention. I hope, however, that the argument is now clear and that the points made by Bartold can be readily appreciated by the English reader.

CALIPH AND SULTAN

To analyse the political history of the Muslim world is an even more difficult task than to analyse the history of Islam as a religion. The reason for this lies in deep-rooted prejudices which are both religious and academic in nature. In spite of progress in the field of oriental studies, the view taken by the Muslim historians of the 'Abbāsid epoch still dominates research to this very day. According to this view, after the first four 'rightful' (*al-rāshidūn*) Caliphs, a purely temporal dynasty ruled in the persons of the Umayyads from A.D. 661 to 750. With the exception of 'Umar II (717-20), they had no religious authority whatsoever. It was held that religious leaders throughout the entire period of Umayyad domination were only to be found in the opposition. The extermination of the Umayyads and the transfer of power to the relatives of the Prophet was held to be a transfer from impious 'emperors' to genuine 'Caliphs',

d'une question complexe et, dans l'ensemble, encore assez mal connue; elles ont aussi la valeur d'un témoignage : celui d'un homme qui a vécu la plupart des événements au cours desquels le nationalisme arabe s'est peu à peu forgé et qui a pu ainsi suivre les lents cheminements d'une pensée qu'il a par ailleurs lui-même, dans ses écrits, puissamment contribué à élaborer, à définir et aussi à répandre.

Traduit de l'arabe par M. Colombe

LES PAYS ARABES

ET LE SULTANAT OTTOMAN

ORIENT, année: 6 / numéro: 21

1962 (Paris) S. 119-134.

D. 1908

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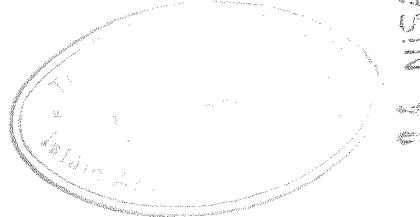
A l'aube du XIX^e siècle, au moment où « l'idée de nation » allait commencer à jouer en Europe un rôle de premier plan, les pays arabes étaient, depuis de longs siècles, des parties intégrantes du sultanat ottoman, à l'exception toutefois du Maghreb extrême d'une part, du Hadramaout et du centre de la péninsule arabique d'autre part.

L'occupation de ces pays n'avait pas coûté au sultanat de nombreuses guerres. Seuls, en effet, les souverains régnants et non les populations, avaient dû être combattus : quelques engagements armés entre les troupes ottomanes et celles des Mameluks assurèrent l'entrée de la Syrie, de l'Égypte et du Hidjaz sous le pouvoir ottoman ; quelques combats entre l'armée ottomane et les troupes persanes firent passer l'Irak au sein de l'empire ; enfin quelques batailles navales entre les flottes ottomanes et espagnoles garantirent l'annexion de Tunis et de Tripoli de Barbarie. Quant à Alger, son rattachement, sans guerre ni combat, fut dû à la seule volonté de l'amiral Khair al-din Barberousse.

Après la conquête, le sultanat ottoman n'eut pas de

P M HOLT

The sultan as ideal ruler: Ayyubid and Mamluk prototypes



The more one reads and sifts the more dubious become all these chronicles,
the more questionable becomes every assertion in them.

Lord Rosebery, *Napoleon: the last phrase*

I

In Shawwāl 581/December 1185 Saladin was stricken with a prolonged illness, so serious that his life was despaired of. Andrew Ehrenkreutz, the least sympathetic of his modern biographers, has suggested in the form of a rhetorical query, that if in fact he had died at this time, his career would have presented an appearance remarkably different from that which has been conventionally ascribed to it over the last eight centuries.¹ At the time of Saladin's illness, to develop Ehrenkreutz's point, the crowning mercies of the defeat of the Franks at Hattīn and the restoration of Jerusalem to Islam lay nearly two years in the future. The previous eleven years since the death of Saladin's lord, Nūr al-Dīn b. Zangī, in 569/1174 had revealed a consistent and dominant purpose in his policy and actions, namely to usurp the rule over the Zangid possessions in Syria and Mesopotamia. To achieve this he was already provided with a base in Egypt, which he had ruled since 564/1169 as Nūr al-Dīn's viceroy. Saladin's bearing as an over-mighty subject had aroused his lord's apprehensions, and only Nūr al-Dīn's death had ended the growing tension between the two. In the ensuing decade, during

1 Andrew S Ehrenkreutz, *Saladin* (Albany 1972), 237.

The sultan as ideal ruler: Ayyubid and Mamluk prototypes

which Saladin gained possession of the two Zangid capitals in Syria, Damascus in 570/1174 and Aleppo in 579/1183, his dealings with the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem resemble those of his predecessors – an unstable relationship of warfare alternating with truces between Muslim and Christian parties which were equally involved in the vicissitudes of regional politics.

If, then, Saladin had died in 1185, during, one may note, operations against Mosul, the capital of Zangid Mesopotamia, his career, as Ehrenkreutz suggests, would hardly have attracted more notice than those of other warlords of the period, who in striving to establish themselves might more or less incidentally become embroiled with the Frankish states, and thus sanctify a part of their blood-letting as holy war. The death of Saladin, had it occurred at this time, would moreover have denied him his most influential apologist, Bahā' al-Dīn Ibn Shaddād, whose short, well-written and persuasive biography, *al-Nawādir al-sultāniyya wa'l-mahāsin al-Yūsufiyya* ('The rare merits of Sultan Yusuf') was used by later Arabic historians, and as published with a Latin translation in 1732 was the principal primary source on Saladin available to Gibbon and Stubbs. Bahā' al-Dīn was certainly acquainted with Saladin in 1185, but only because he had twice come to him as the ambassador of the Zangid lord of Mosul. It was not until 584/1188 that he changed masters. Returning from the pilgrimage to Mecca, he visited the newly recovered holy city of Jerusalem, and was dissuaded by Saladin from returning to Mosul. So at least he tells us.

Bahā' al-Dīn was therefore in Saladin's personal entourage only during the last five years of the sultan's life. He wrote *al-Nawādir* after Saladin's death but when he himself was still in Ayyubid service as the judge of Aleppo, having been appointed by Saladin's son, al-Zāhir Ghāzī. The structure of the biography is interesting and significant. In the published edition edited by the late Gamāl al-Dīn al-Shayyāl,² a short preliminary chapter, one page in length, covers Saladin's early years from his birth in 532/1137–8 to his participation in the expedition to Egypt led by his uncle, Shīrkūh, in 558/1163. This is followed by eight chapters dealing with his virtues, and taking up twenty-eight pages. Of the remainder of the book, forty pages cover events of the quarter-century from 558–83/1163–87, while no less than 170 pages are devoted to the following six years to Saladin's death in 589/1193. This chronological imbalance in itself imposes a certain perspective of events on the reader.

2 Bahā' al-Dīn b. Shaddād, *al-Nawādir al-sultāniyya wa'l-mahāsin al-Yūsufiyya*, ed. Gamāl al-Dīn al-Shayyāl (Cairo 1964). Hereafter *Nawādir*.

- P2-324
- Sultan

maintained along purely personal lines. In the selection of officials, loyalty to the ruler supersedes all other concerns. Officials are selected from among the ruler's personal attendants.⁷ Professional training and specialization are not considered necessary prerequisites. Promotions depend not on objective criteria but on the ruler's favor. The ruler makes his officials' economic compensation completely subject to his discretion with no provision for hereditary service. Officials never constitute a corporate group or a monopolistic, legally autonomous sodality.⁸ In brief, the basic features of the patrimonial bureaucracy stem from its personal-patrimonial character. According to Weber the household characteristics of the patrimonial state were maintained "to a grotesque degree. . . at the Turkish court" up to the nineteenth century.⁹ Weber also observes that in the course of financial rationalization the patrimonial state in general moves imperceptibly toward a rational bureaucratic administration.¹⁰ In their conceptual approach, recent studies on Ottoman bureaucracy rely to a great extent on Weber's typification. Even when these studies tend to define Ottoman "sultanism" as being modified by an autonomous bureaucracy and objective laws, *kanuns*, they essentially follow Weber's theory.

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letler hukuku eğitiminde ve öğretiminde karşılaşılan bazı ana meseleler üzerinde, Devletler hukuku ve komşu dallarda öğretim yapan ve çalışan arkadaşlarımız ve meslektaşlarımızla hep birlikte düşünmenin ne kadar yerinde olacağına işaret etmek istiyoruz.

Milletlerarası münasebetler ve Devletler hukuku alanında memleketimizde başlıca ilmî çalışma merkezleri olan, İstanbul Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesindeki Milletlerarası Münasebetler ve Devletler Hukuku Türk Enstitüsü ile, Ankara Üniversitesi Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesindeki Dış Münasebetler Enstitüsünün, bir tartışma grubu halinde ve belirli bir çalışma planı içinde ilgilileri bir araya getirebileceklerini sanıyoruz. Böyle bir ilmî toplantıya, halen bu konularda ve komşu konularda çalışmakta olanlarla, memleketimizde bu konuları uzun zaman okutmuş olanların ve tatbikatçıların da dâvet edilmesi, herhalde faydalı olacaktır. Devletler hukuku öğretimi ve çalışmaları hakkında bir ilmî toplantı tertiplendiği takdirde, Devletler hukuku öğretimi tartışmalarına esas hazırlamakta, bu yazımızın da malzeme sağlamasını umuyoruz.

Böyle bir ilk toplantıda öne sürülecek görüşler ve varılabilcek sonuçlar, memleketimizde Devletler hukuku öğretiminin gelişmesine şüphesiz büyük ölçüde faydalı olacaktır.

Ankara Üniversitesi Siyasal Bilgiler
Fakültesi Dergisi, c. XIV/1 (1959)

Ankara s. 69 - 94.

18 TEMMUZ 1995



OSMANLILAR'DA SALTANAT VERÂSETİ USÜLÜ VE TÜRK HAKİMİYET TELÂKKİSİYLE İLGİSİ

Prof. Dr. Halil İNALCIK

Osmanlı padişahlarının soy kutüğüne bir göz atarsak, I. Ahmed (1603-1617) in ölümüne kadar tahtın daima babadan oğula geçmiş olduğunu, ondan sonra kardeşlerin de tahta çıkmaya başladığını görüyoruz. Bu durumu, Hammer¹, şöyle açıklamaya çalışmıştır: Osmanlılarda, aslında, Cengiz Han'dan kalmış *ekberiyet* kaidesi hâkimdi, yani taht, büyük oğula, sonra ölen sultanın akrabasından en yaşlısına ait oluyordu. Fakat kardeş öldürme âdetinin bir neticesi olarak bu kaide kardeşler için tatbik sahâsi bulamamış ve ilk defa 1617 de, ölen Sultanın kardeşi hayatı bulunduğuandan uygulanabilmiştir. Giese² bu görüşü red ederek Osmanlılarda *saltanat verasetini düzenleyen herhangi bir kanun veya kaide olmadığını* ileri sürdü. Daha önce Radloff³ Türk kavimlerinden hiç birinde muayyen bir saltanat veraseti kanunu olmadığına dair misaller vermiştir. Son defa F. Laszlo⁴ meseleyi daha geniş bir açıdan ele alarak kesin bir şekilde ifade etmiştir ki, Türklerde "bütün hanedan âzası hakimiyet hâkâsına maliktir, ne *primogenitura* ve ne de *senioratus* şeklinde bir veraset tarzı yoktur".

Bununla beraber son zamanlarda, Türk devletlerinde hükümdarlığın intikalinde *senioratus*'un yani, hanedan içerisinde yaşça en büyük olanın tahta geçmesi kaidesinin hâkim olduğunu söyleyenler olduğu gibi, *primogenitura*, yani ancak büyük oğulun tevarüs hakkının tanındığını iddia edenler de vardır. Z. V. Togan'a⁵ göre "memlekette büyük hakanlık rütbesi biraderler arasında yaşı olana geçtiğinden onun bulunduğu ülke memleketin merkezi oluyordu. Bu husus, Kök Türklerin halefleri olan

¹ Hist. de l'empire ottoman, terc. J. J. Hellert, c. VIII, Paris, 1837, s. 237 - 38. Kırım hanlarında en yaşlı tahta geçerdi (Es - seb'üs - seyyâr, s. 262).

² Fr. Giese, Das Seniorat im osmanischen Herrscherhause, MOG, II (1925), s. 248 - 256.

³ Kudatku bilik mukaddimesinde, s. LII, Giese tarafından zikred.

⁴ Kağan ve Ailesi, Körösi Czoma Archivum, III, 1 (1940), s. 1 - 39 dan tercüme, S. Baştav, Türk Hukuk Tarihi Dergisi, I (1944), s. 42.

⁵ Umumi Türk Tarihine Giriş, İstanbul 1946, s. 42.

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الطبعة الأولى

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Dernik No.	146746
Tasrif No	320.297 181.5

26 SUBAT 1997

دار المرواء

دار المرواء للطباعة والنشر

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STUDIA ORIENTALIA, vol. 82, Helsinki -1997
s. 144-157. 10.510

THE SULTAN AND THE COMMON PEOPLE

Irmeli Perho

According to Sunni political theorists, such as Nizām al-Mulk (d. 485/1092), the highest authority in Islamic society was invested in one person, the ruler – be he the Caliph or the Sultan to whom the Caliph had delegated his power. Nizām al-Mulk wrote in his *Siyāsat nāme* that ‘God (be He exalted) has created the king to be the superior of all mankind.’ (Nizām al-Mulk 1960: 192.) The ruler – *imām* – was appointed by God and therefore had to be seen as God’s representative on earth. This is illustrated by Nizām al-Mulk with a story where Caliph al-Mu'tasim (ruled 218/833–227/842) is reported to have said ‘[...] a man who does not fear God (to Him be power and glory) will not be afraid of me.’ (Nizām al-Mulk 1960: 61.)

The view of one supreme ruler was shared also by the later theorists Ibn Taymīya (d. 728/1328) and Ibn Jamā'a (d. 733/1333) both of whom lived after the abolition of the universal Caliphate. More explicitly than their predecessors they presented the actual wielder of power as the *imām*, the lawful ruler of the Muslims. Ibn Taymīya wrote that all those who had power (*wilāya*) were God’s representatives (Laoust 1939: 299). Similarly Ibn Jamā'a held the opinion that the Sultan was the Shadow of God upon earth and he accepted the Sultan as the direct link between the people and God (Lambton 1981: 140).

The view that the ruler was God’s representative entailed that opposition to the ruler was actually rebellion against God and as such the gravest of sins. However, the ruler was not identical with God but a human being and prone to error. Therefore the scholars limited the obedience to the ruler with the hadith ‘There is no obedience in sin.’ Only a ruler who respected the *shari'a* should be obeyed, not a ruler who demanded something illegal. In this way the demand for obedience was balanced with a demand of justice. Whereas the ruler was permitted to ask for obedience, the ruled were entitled to a just ruler.

These mutual obligations were described by Ibn Jamā'a as rights (*huquq*). Apart from obedience and respect the Sultan had also the right to demand guidance from the population. The people should be prepared to advise him and help him to carry out his duties (Lambton 1981: 142; Laoust 1939: 312). They were also expected to protect the Sultan ‘with their words, deeds, possessions and lives.’ (Lambton 1981: 142.)

As for the people, they had the right to demand protection of the lands of Islam against the attacks of enemies. The Sultan was also expected to support the scholars, see that *shari'a* was implemented and take care of his administrative duties (Lambton 1981: 143).

Ibn Taymīya described the ideal situation for an individual in a state as cooperation, not submission: each member of the society had to participate in the state affairs either by

DERLEYEN

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— NECDET ÖKLEM —



SALTANATIN KALDIRILMASI

Türkiye Diyanet Vakfı
İslâm Araştırmaları Merkezi
Kütüphanesi

Demirbaş No:	26897
Tasrif No	956.0812 SAL. K

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Evren Tarih Yayımları : 1

İZMİR - 1972

ANADOLU SELÇUKLU DEVLETİNDE "SULTAN"

Öğrt. Gör. Adem ARI*

GİRİŞ

Selçuklu hanedanı 24 Oğuz boyundan Kınık boyuna mensuptur.¹ Kınık boyu da Oğuz Han'in altı oğlundan biri olan Deniz Han'ın boyudur.²

Deniz Han, Oğuz'un küçük oğullarından (üç oğlardan) biridir ki: Bu üç küçük oğlan Batı'ya gönderilmişlerdir. Kınık boyu Divân-ı Lügâtit-Türk'de en üstte zikredilirken daha sonraki şecerelerde altı larda yer alması siyasi olaylarla ilgilidir. Selçuklu egemenliği döneminde yazılan eserler, Kınık boyunu öne çıkarmışlardır.

Anadolu Selçuklu Devleti, Süleyman Şah tarafından kurulmuş, 1243 Kösedağ Savaşı'yla iyice yıpranmış fakat 1277'ye kadar vezir Pervane Muineddin Süleyman Moğollara karşı mücadele ile devleti ayakta tutarak "Pervane Devri" yaratmıştır.³ Moğol tahtakkümü altında devlet gölge hakimiyet olarak

* AKÜ, Fen Ed. Fak. Yeniçağ Öğr. Gör.

(1) Osman Turan, *Türk Cihan Hakimiyyeti Mefkuresi Tarihi*, İstanbul, 1979, s. 179

(2) Richard Peters, *Batı Gözü ile Türk Tarihi*, Tercüme: Dr. Razi Maner, İstanbul, 1975, s. 26. (F.Sümer'in Oğuzlar-Türkmenler kitabından)

(3) Osman Turan, *Selçuklular Zamanında Türkiye*, s. 644-645.

(4) Oğuz Ünal, *Horasandan Anadoluya*, Ankara 1980, s. 176

1318'e kadar yaşamıştır⁴. Bu tarih 1308 olarak da gösterilir. Konu tartışmalıdır.

Anadolu Selçuklu Devleti yükselme devrinde, şekil itibarıyle tam bir Ortaçağ İslam Devleti manzarası arz eder.⁵ Ayrıca Büyük Selçuklu İmparatorluğunun İranlı-İslam hüviyetindeki idare sistemini miras almış olan Anadolu Selçuklu Devleti, bununla beraber hakim hüviyetin altında eski Türk hususiyetlerini muhafaza etmiştir.⁶ Aynı zamanda Bizans'la doğrudan münasebetlerle Bizans'tan da etkilenmiş olmalıdır.

"Sultan" Kelimesinin Anlamı ve İlk Kullanılışı

"Sultan" kudretli bir emiri veya muayyen bir bölgenin müstakil hükümdarını ifade etmek için H. IV. (M. XI.) asırdan itibaren görülen bir ünvandır. Kelime ve manası (Arapça'ya) Süryanice "Sultana" dan alınmıştır. Kelimeye "iktidar, idari iktidar" manası İslamın ilk asırlarında verilmiştir.

Tugrul Bey, keza paralarında Sultan lakabını veya daha ziyade ünvanını ve buna ılaveten "al-sultan al-muazzam" terkibini kullanan ilk İslam hükümdarıdır. Ünvanın aslı unsurundan olan "al-muazzam" sıfatı kısa bir müddet sonra resmi dil haricinde terk olunmuştur. Böylece Sultan, Selçuklular ile hakiki bir hükümdar ünvanı haline gelmiştir. Az sonra Anadolu Selçukluları da Sultan ünvanını almışlardır. Bu ünvan Kılıç Arslan II. den itibaren onların paralarında da görülür.⁷ Nitekim Süleyman Şah da ken-

(5) Nejat Kaymaz, *Anadolu Selçuklu Devleti'nin İhitatında İdare Mekanizmasının Rolü*,

(6) Nejat Kaymaz Aynı Makale, s. 97-98

(7) J.H. Kramers, "Sultan" maddesi I.A., C. XI., s. 24-28

Poeditur

28262

The Just Ruler (*al-sultān al-‘ādil*) in Shi‘ite Islam

*The Comprehensive Authority
of the Jurist
in Imamite Jurisprudence*

Abdulaziz Abdulhussein Sachedina

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1988

"*sunna* equals *hadīth*," although one would also agree with Schacht that the tendency seems to have begun in Iraq.⁹⁰

What we thus see illustrated by the major third century collections of *hadīth* in their almost total reliance on Prophetic material to the exclusion of any other, and what we see reflected in the rejection of *sadl* for *qabd* by the later Sunnī *madhhabs* (and several later Mālikis) is the rejection of *sunna* as transmitted by '*amal*' in favor of *sunna* as transmitted by *hadīth*. In both cases this *sunna* was understood as being the *sunna* of the Prophet. What differed was the methodology by which such knowledge was arrived at, and thus the details of its practical expression, namely, the differences in the details of *fiqh*. The rejection of '*amal*' in favor of *hadīth* was the triumph of the methodology of "one from one" over that of "one thousand from one thousand" and, as the report from Rabi'a continues, "One from one would tear the *sunna* right out of your hands." This suggests that if we want to arrive at a clearer picture of the original "*sunna* of the Prophet," we would do better to look at Madinan '*amal*' than at the classical collections of *hadīth*.



⁹⁰ See Schacht, *Origins*, 58, 59, 77, 80, where the shift in definition of the word *sunna* evident from al-Shāfi'i's writings is most forcefully noted. (This indeed I consider the strongest point in Schacht's critique. What I disagree with is his understanding of what *sunna* meant before it became redefined as *hadīth*.) For this shift happening via Iraq, see, for example, Zafar Ishaq Ansari, "The Early Development of Islamic Fiqh in Kufa" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, McGill University, 1968), *passim*, esp. 14, 23-24, 176, 212, 234, 243, 250, 370, 377, 381; also *Origins*, 73, 77, 80, 223, where Schacht argues that Islamic jurisprudence—which one can see as the formalisation of '*amal*'—began in Iraq. Note also the attitude expressed in Abū Yūsuf's comment in n. 89 above.

THE JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS OF THE SULTĀN IN CIVIL CASES ACCORDING TO THE MĀLIKIS UP TO THE SIXTH/TWELFTH CENTURY*

HIROYUKI YANAGIHASHI

Tohoku University

Abstract

In the earliest Mālikī texts, civil cases in which the *sultān* plays a role can be divided into four groups: (i) those in which the *sultān* plays an instrumental role to help in claiming a right that is substantively endorsed by the *fiqh*; (ii) those in which the *sultān* is called upon to adjudicate for a practical reason; (iii) those in which the *sultān* adopts a solution required by equity; and (iv) those which fall under the *sultān*'s exclusive jurisdiction. Whereas the earliest Mālikis held that the *sultān*'s judgment can be reversed by the *qādi* only if it is manifestly corrupt, later Mālikis introduced the notion of delegation of judicial power and the idea that a *mujtahid*, a *qādi* or a *mufti* has a general right to redress an erroneous judgment.

Introduction

MUSLIM JURISTS (*fuqahā'*, sg. *faqīh*) made few attempts to articulate the judicial powers of the *sultān*. With the exception of the Mālikis, Sunnī legal texts do not devote any attention to the *mazālim* courts.¹ The earliest Mālikis, such as Mālik b. Anas (d. 179/795), Ibn al-Qāsim (d. 191/806) and Sahnūn (d. 240/854), treat the *sultān*'s administrative and judicial functions only in a sporadic manner. It was not until the Shāfi'i jurist, al-Māwardī (d. 450/1058) wrote *al-Ahkām al-sultāniyya* that the *mazālim* courts headed by the caliph or the *sultān* were treated in a theoretical and systematic manner.

The lack of attention by Muslim jurists to the judicial functions of the *sultān* can be explained by their conviction that *fiqh* is the unique law to be applied to Muslims and that cases involving Muslims fall under the jurisdiction of the *qādi*, who, as a *faqīh*, is expected to judge in strict accordance with *fiqh*, whether by himself or assisted by *muftis*.

This is not to say that the earliest Mālikis, or Muslim jurists in general, were always satisfied with positive rules of *fiqh*. There are

* I wish to express my special thanks to the Executive Editors of *Islamic Law and Society* for their helpful comments on draft versions of this essay.

¹ Emile Tyan, "Judicial Organisation," in *Law in the Middle East*, ed. Majid Khadduri and Herbert B. Liebesny (Washington D. C.: The Middle East Institute, 1955), 268; Jørgen S. Nielsen, "Mazālim," in *EJ*².

İstanbul - 1946, s. 713 - 733.

suliyet yüklenmemekte haklı olduğu gibi, davacı da kendi kanununun verdiği haktan fazlasına sahip olmamalıdır derler. Bu kaide daha ziyade ceza hukukundaki suçlunun lehine hareket etme prensibinden doğmaktadır. Halbuki bir hâdiseye tatbik edilecek kanun meselesi hâkimiyet esasına da yanır. Aynı hâdisede ise muhtelif iki devletin hâkimiyeti aynı zamanda cereyan edemez [31].

cc) Ecnebi karasularında vaki çatmalarda ise karasularında çatma vaki olan devletin kanunu tatbik edilmek gereklidir. Hâdisede bir Türk gemisi bahis mevzuu ise çatma nerede vaki olursa olsun Türk kanunu tatbik edilir derler [32]. Yabancı ve yerli ekseri müellifler bu kaideye taraftar iseler de, bu prensip her zaman hukuki bir esasa dayanmaktadır. Bu sebepten Ripert ecnebi karasularında vaki çatmalarda bir Fransız gemisi methaldar olsa da, ecnebi kanunun tatbikini icap eder görmektede ve buna bir çok Fransız Temyiz Mahkemesi içtihatlarını da şahit olarak göstermektedir. Bu prensip daha mantıkıdır.

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[31] M. Rasit Sevig, sah. 237-238; Ripert, no. 2077.

[32] M. Rasit Sevig, sah. 237-238; Schaps, sah. 684.

TÜRKİYEDE SULTANLARIN TEŞRİİ SİFAT VE SALÂHİYETLERİ VE KANUNNÂMELER

Prof. Ömer Lütfi BARKAN

Örfî hukuk sahasına ait salâhiyetler:

Osmanlı padişahlarının kendilerine ayrılmış olan sahâlarda *din kitaplarını karıştırmağa* lüzum görmeden ve kendi mutahassis idare adamlarının tecrübelarından başka kimseye danışmadan şeriat kaidelerinden ayrı bir takım kanun ve nizamları istedikleri gibi vazetmek hususundaki sıfat ve salâhiyetlerini burada münakaşa etmeye lüzum görmüyoruz. Çünkü islam memlekelerinde prensip olarak, sultanlara ait olan bu gibi sıfat ve salâhiyetlerden bundan evvelki yazımızda bahsetmiştık [1].

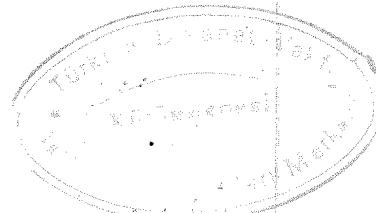
Hükümdarın üstünlük ve iktidarına dair Roma âmme hukukunun bazı umumî fikirlerini benimsemiş gözüken ve Bizans imparatorlarının tahtlarında oturan Osmanlı padişahlarının, imparatorluk dahilinde en yüksek otorite olarak, askeri, mülki ve dîni salâhiyetlerle, teşrii, icraî ve kazâî kuvvetleri nefislerinde cemetmiş oldukları da biliyoruz. Gerçekten, Osmanlı padişahları, veryüzünde peygamberin vekili mukaddes bir şahsiyet sıfatiyle cismanî iktidara ruhani sıfat ve salâhiyetlerini de ilâve eden bir devlet reisi olarak, ne *Sena* şeklinde herhangi bir meclisin ne de şeyhülislâmlâk gibi bir makamın tasdik veya, işbirliği yapmasını temine lüzum görmeden kanunları çıkarmak hususunda nazari olarak veya hiç olmazsa tatbikatta, serbest gözükmeğtedir [2].

[1] Hukuk Fakültesi Meemuası, cilt 11, sayı 3-4, Sf. 203. Aynı surette «XV ve XVI nci asırlarda, Osmanlı imparatorluğunda zirai ekonominin hukuki ve mali esasları» 1945 isimli kitabımızın mukaddemesi (sf. XIII) ne takınız.

[2] Osmanlı imparatorluğunda sultanların teşrii sıfat ve salâhiyetleri ile onların muhtelif sahâlardaki icraatlarında arzu ve iradelerini tâyin ve takyit eden bir takım kanunu mevzuatın mevcudiyetinin bahis mevzuu edilip edilemeyeceği meselesi. Avrupa'lı mütefekkîr ve tarihçileri ötedenberi meşgul eden bir «mesele» teşkil etmiştir. Bunlar arasında *Legislation orientale* (Amsterdam 1778) nam eserin müellifi *Anquetil Duperon*'nın yürüttüğü tenkit ve mülâhazaları burada hatırlamak faydalı olabilir. Ger-

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Doğu Batı, yil: 13, sy: 54, 2010 Ankara, ss. 9-22



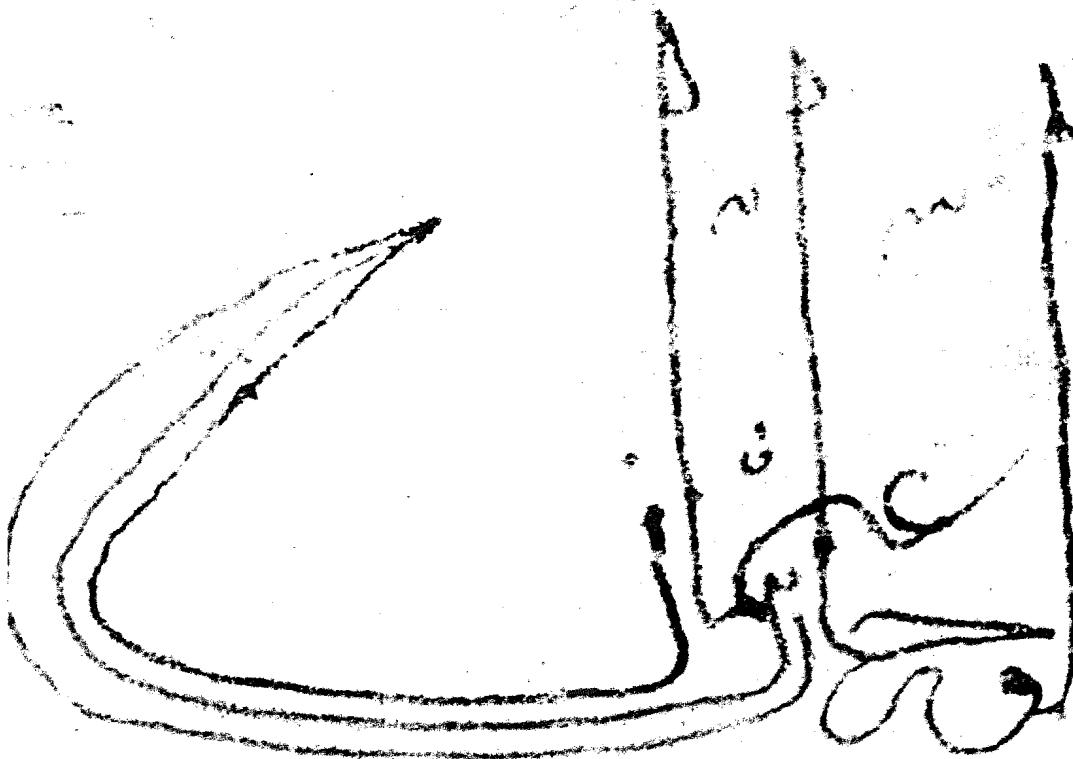
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OSMANLI PADİŞAHI *

Halil İnalçık

MADDE YAYIMLANDIKTAN
SONRA GELEN DOKUMAN



Orhan Gazi'nin kullandığı ilk tuğra-1348

1. *Pâdişâh ve Hâkimiyetin Menşei, Hilâfet*: Fatih Mehmed kendi şahsında Osmanlı Padişâhi tipini yaratmış olan ilk padişâhtır. Orta Asya Türk devlet telâkkisi, Osmanlılar'a, Selçuklular ve Moğollar vasıtasiyla olduğu kadar uçlarda (askerî hudud bölgeleri) hâkim Türkmen çevresi yolile de intikal etmiş olmalıdır. 15. asır başlarında Germiyanlı şair Ahmedî, Moğol hanlarını kanuna bağlı, adaletli hükümdarlar olarak övmekte idi: II. Murad zamanında Yazıcı-zâde, eski Türk devlet ananesini şururla ve hararetle canlandırırken, şüphesiz, muhitine tercüman olmaktadır: Yazıcı-zâde, Osman Gazi'nin eski Türk töresine göre Türk kabileleri tarafından seçilmiş olduğunu iddia ediyor, Osmanlı hanedanını Oğuz Han'a bağlıyor, böylece bu hanedanın bütün Türk kavimleri üzerinde meşru hâkimiyete namzet yegâne hanedan olduğu iddiasında bulunuyordu. Aslında bu iddia, romantik bir Türkçülük hareketinden doğmuş olmayıp pratik bir ihtiyaçtan, siyasi maksatlardan doğmuştur. Osmanlılar, bu surette Doğu'daki Timur oğullarına karşı bağımsızlık, hattâ üstünlük iddialarını meşrulaştırmak gayesini takip etmekteydi. Fatih'in oğlu Sultan Cem, oğluna Türk destanlarının en büyük şahsiyeti Oğuz Han'ın adını veriyor ve Oğuz ananesi üzerinde bir eser (*Câm-i Cem-âyîn*) yazdırıyor. Osmanlı hükümdarları 14. asırdan beri *Han* unvanını isimlerine eklemektedirler.

* Makalenen ilk versiyonun yayımlandığı yer: *Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Dergisi*, Cilt XVIII, Yıl: 1958, Sayı 4'ten ayrı baskı, Yeni Matbaa, Ankara, 1958

David Ayalon

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EUNUCHS, CALIPHS
AND SULTANS ✓

A Study in Power Relationships

27 MAYIS 2000

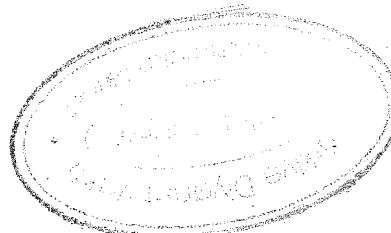
Türkiye Diyanet Vakfı İslâm Araştırmaları Merkezi Kütüphanesi	
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The Magnes Press, The Hebrew University, Jerusalem

1999

18. yüzyıl başlarında yönetici elitin sultanatın meşruiyet arayışına katılımı*

Tülay Artan**



Tarihçilik tartışmalarını izleyenlerin bildiği gibi, bugün Osmanlı-Türkiye tarihçiliği alanında derece derece gerilikler söz konusu. Aile, toplumsal cinsiyet, zihniyet, materyal kültür, gündelik yaşam ve standartları, tüketim biçimleri vb. alanlarını da içine alan bir "total tarih" arayışı doğrultusunda atılan adımlar, en ileri iktisat tarihçileri tarafından dahi, bütünü parçaya, *grand narrative'i* küçük ölçüde feda ettikleri kuşkusyla, genel olarak Yeni Tarihçiliğe yöneltilen "postmodernlik", "salt estetik arayışı", "hafif ve eğlenceli konularla uğraşmak" suçlamalarına maruz bırakılıyor; ya da "belge yok" veya "tek başına altından kalılamayacak kadar çok/dağıtık" türü mülahazalarla "ciddi" tarihçilerin ilgi alımı dışında tutulmaya devam ediyor.¹

Bu bağlamda, tarih anlayışımızı kökten değiştirmese bile hayli zenginlestirebilecek alanlardan olan biyografiler, aile tarihleri, prosopografik çalışmalar, hatta hanedan üyelerinin yaşam öykülerinin yanısıra, sultanat biçimleri, iktidar kavgaları ve meşruiyet arayışlarına ışık tutacak araştırmalar dahi, bugün hâlâ bir elin parmaklarıyla sayılacak kadar azdır.² Rical ile hanedan üyesi kadınların

(*) Bu makale ilk olarak Türkiye Ekonomik ve Toplumsal Tarih Vakfı'nın 24-26 Mayıs 1993 tarihinde Ankara'da topladığı, "Osmanlı'dan Cumhuriyet'e. Problemler, Araştırmalar, Tartışmalar" başlıklı I. Uluslararası Tarih Kongresi'ne sunulmuş; ancak 1998'de yayınlanan aynı başlıklı kongre kitabına bir teknik hata sonucu girmemişti. Burada dipnotlar güncellendirilerek yayımlanmaktadır.

(**) Sabancı Üniversitesi, Sanat ve Sosyal Bilimler.

1 Bu bağlamda bir istisna oluşturan Cemal Kafadar'ın çalışmalarına dikkat çekmek istiyorum: C. Kafadar, 1986; 1989; 1992a; 1992b; 1994.

2 1985'te Suraiya Faroqhi, bu konularda son otuz yılda yapılmış olan çalışmaların gözden geçirmiştir: S. Faroqhi, 1985. Ayrıca C. Kafadar'ın yukarıda sözü edilen 1989 makalesi de ayrıntılı bir bibliyografyayı içeriyor. Metinde yeri geldikçe, özellikle son on yılda yapılmış çalışmalarla işaret edeceğim. Bu makalede özellikle faydalandığım bazı incelemeleri ise tekrarlarmayı yararlı buluyorum.

bireysel tarihi, genellikle "asıl" tarihe "ek" düzeyinde ele alınırken, iktidar ortağı bu iki grup arasında gerçekleşen evliliklerin, yönetici sınıfın ittifak ve dayanak arayışlarında bir araç olarak kullanılmasının üzerinde hemen hiç durulmamış bulunuyor. Bu yüzden, örneğin 1730 isyanıyla patlayan bunalımı hâlâ "Lale Devri" efsanesi ile Sultan III. Ahmed ve Nevşehirli Damad İbrahim Paşa'nın tenperver kişilikleri üzerinde yoğunlaşarak "okur"ken, arka plandaki ailevi bağlar örtütüsünü, çıkar çatışmalarını, gerilim çizgilerini ve kopuş noktalarını hiç görmeyebiliyoruz (Münir Aktepe'nin *Patrona İsyani* adlı araştırması ve Reşad Ekrem Koçu'nun isyancı konu alan *Patrona Halil* adlı tarihsel romanı bu genellemenin dışında kalan nadir yaklaşımlardır [Aktepe, 1958; Koçu, 1967]). Oysa bu isyanın ardından evlilik ve akrabalık ilişkilerine sosyal tarih açısından tekrar, yakından ve çok dikkatle eğilmek gereklidir, çünkü önemizde serilen ve yer yer içinden çıkmaz gibi gözüken, 18. yüzyılın ilk çeyreğindeki ailevi bağlantılar sıklaşması, aslında Osmanlı tarihinde bir kopuşa işaret ediyor.

Menfaat şebekelerinin ihmali edilen boyutları

1730 isyanının kurbanları olan Damad İbrahim Paşa, Kaymak Mustafa Paşa ve Kethüda Mehmed Efendi etrafındaki bu örütü söyle bir ortamda gelişmiştir: Tahta geçtiği 1703 tarihini izleyen on beş yıl içinde on iki sadrazam değiştiren III. Ahmed uzun yıllardır hizmetinde bulunan Nevşehirli İbrahim Paşa'yı önce damat, hemen ardından da 1718'de sadrazam yaptı. Bu andan itibaren, İstanbul'da sadaret, meşihat, kaptan-ı deryalık, yeniçi aglığı, nişancılık, sadaret kethüdaliği ve defterdarlık (hatta darphane eminliği, tersane eminliği, matbah-ı âmire eminliği) gibi en üst mevkilerde, 1730 yılına kadar pek az değişme gözle尼yor (Aktepe, 1958: 107).

Ama bu durum genel bir hoşnutluğa işaret etmekten çok uzaktı. Tersine, 1730'da Patrona Halil isyanına neden olan sosyo-ekonomik bunalım, Aktepe'nin de ifade ettiği gibi "sadece İstanbul halkına ve taşrada zulüm ve haksızlığa uğrayıp işleri bozulanlara, esnaf ve küçük memurlara, görevden düşmüş veya sürgünde bulunan vüzera ve ulemaya, savaş ganimetlerinden yoksun yeniçi zümresine" münhasır kalmamıştı (age.: 122). Uzun süredir en yüksek mevkileri işgal etmeye çalışan bürokratlar ve ulema, hatta Damad İbrahim Paşa'nın

rum: Akalın, 1955; Derin, 1958 ve 1959; Uluçay, 1959; Mardin, 1969; Türk ve Derin, 1969; Faroqhi, 1974 ve 1975; Kunt, 1975, 1977 ve 1983; Zilfi, 1977; Mayer, 1978; Findley, 1980; Reindl, 1983; Fleischer, 1986; Atasoy ve Atasoy, 1990; Dankoff 1991. Bunlara ek olarak J. von Hammer, A.D. Alderson, M. Süreyya, R.E. Koçu, M.C. Uluçay ve Y. Özturna'nın bazı çalışmalarını ile ansiklopedilerdeki biyografi maddelerini sayabiliriz. Bu arada sanatçılara, özellikle mimarlara dair şu monografiler de dikkati çekiyor: Ahmed Refik, 1932 ve 1936; Altan, 1941; Orgun, 1941; Öz, 1943; Erdoğan, 1954, 1955a, 1955b, 1958, 1960 ve 1962; Akalın, 1958; Uzunçarşılı, 1959; Gökyay, 1976; Eycice, 1979; Crane, 1987. Mimar Sinan'ın hayatı ilişkin çok sayıda araştırma arasında şunlar dikkati çekiyor: Konyali, 1948 ve Meriç, 1965.