JOURNAL OF

NEAR EASTERN STUDIES

Volume VIII

JULY 1949

Number 3

A NINTH-CENTURY FRAGMENT OF THE "THOUSAND NIGHTS" NEW LIGHT ON THE EARLY HISTORY OF THE ARABIAN NIGHTS

NABIA ABBOTT

INTRODUCTION

The appearance of Arabic papyri on the American scene is a rare event. Scientific preoccupation with such papyri is even rarer. To the author's best knowledge, only two of America's great universities, Chicago and Michigan, have a working collection of these, the earliest of Islamic documents, and, so far, Michigan has not published any of its collection.

The Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago has acquired, on several occasions since World War I, small but valuable collections of Arabic parchment and paper documents some of which the

¹ This general unawareness, in this country, of Arabic papyri and their significance for the earliest phases of Islamic history and culture is all the more regrettable now that work on the great collections of Egypt and Central Europe has slowed down to all but a complete halt as an aftermath of World War II. Grohmann's latest volume on the Arabic papyri of the Egyptian National Library at Cairo was published in 1939. Replies to recent inquiries about the European situation indicate that most of the well-known Arabic papyri collections have escaped the incendiary bomb. However, little work is now being done on any of the collections, and even that little is hampered by the general lack of funds and facilities for research and publication. "The fate of the Berlin collection," writes a fellow-scholar in a private letter, "is deplorable. . . . The bulk of the collection has been deported to the Soviet Union . . . and must be considered lost to the Western world. A small part of the collection is said to have been destroyed by bombs."

present writer has published from time to time. The latest addition to our growing collection was purchased in 1947 through Director Thorkild Jacobsen of the Oriental Institute. The collection, like its predecessors, came out of Egypt, and like them, too, it contains but few early paper documents—6 out of a total of 331 pieces. But one of these 6, incredible as it may at first seem, is an early ninth-century fragment of the Alf Lailah or "Thousand Nights."

Arabic papyri definitely dated or readily datable as of the late seventh and early eighth centuries are generally known to be comparatively rare. But the even greater rarity of known Arabic paper documents dated or datable as of the late eighth and early ninth centuries have received little notice since Karabacek published his pioneer work on the origin and manufacture of paper in the Islamic world of that same period.² These rare Islamic documents, papyri or paper, represent either matters of state administration and taxation or some phase of private or commer-

² Josef von Karabacek, "Das arabische Papier," Nationalbibliothek, Mittheilungen aus der Sammlung der Papyrus Erzherzog Rainer, Parts II-III (paged continuously) (Wien, 1887), pp. 87-178. cial correspondence. Furthermore, parchment Quroāns excepted, known Arabic manuscripts of book or pamphlet length, irrespective of the writing materials but dating from this same early period, are even rarer than the above-mentioned documents. Unlike these latter, the book manuscripts contain literary text of hadith or Islamic tradition and related subjects.

The early Moslem world had its light and entertaining literature. But extant manuscripts representative of this class of literary productivity consist of trade or private copies, usually dating from periods considerably later than that of the original work. This is particularly the case in respect to the greatest and best-known compilation of this type of literature, namely, the Arabian Nights. The earliest manuscript of the Nights hitherto known is dated to about the mid-fifteenth century by scholars best acquainted with the complicated history of the known manuscripts of the Nights. Controversial problems relative to the origin, content, and early literary history of the Nights have challenged eminent Arabists for several generations. The discovery, therefore, of a paper manuscript fragment, aged and tattered, but one that yields nevertheless the title-page and the first page of the text of a ninth-century version of the *Nights* is an event of major importance. It presents us with the earliest known extant paper book in Islam and with a date of prime significance for the early history of the Nights. This being the case, it is thought best not to delay the publication of the fragment until the completion of a volume of Arabic papyri in the Oriental Institute now in its

³ Cf. M. H. Zotenberg, "Notice sur quelques manuscrits des Mille et une nuits," Notices et extraits des manuscrits de la Bibliothèque nationale, XXVII (1887), 167–218; D. B. Macdonald, "A Preliminary Classification of some MSS of the Arabian Nights," in A Volume of Oriental Studies Presented to Edward G. Browne, ed. Arnold and Nicholson (Cambridge, 1922), pp. 304–21, esp. p. 307 and references there cited.

initial stages of preparation. We shall proceed, therefore, first to the task of decipherment and translation, follow up with a discussion of the contribution of the piece to Arabic paleography and to the history of paper and paper books in early Islam, and conclude with a section on the significance of the manuscript for the early history of the *Arabian Nights*.

T

ORIENTAL INSTITUTE NO. 17618

Description.—Two joined folios of light-brown paper of fine texture, discolored in part and considerably damaged with much of the lower half of both folios lost. 24.2×13 cm. Reference to the manuscript will be by page rather than by folio.

Contents.—The manuscript contains six distinctly different entries, the chronological order of which, judged by the factors of space relationships, the different types of scripts, and the overlapping of the inks, seems to be as follows:

- 1. The Alf Lailah or "Thousand Nights" fragment
 - 2. Scattered phrases on pages 2 and 3
- 3. Outline drawing of the figure of a man on page 2
- 4. A second group of scattered phrases in different hands on page 2
 - 5. Rough draft of a letter on page 1
- 6. Formulas of legal testimony dated Safar A.H. 266/October, A.D. 879 written on the margins of all four pages

These will be considered below in the above order.

1. THE "THOUSAND NIGHTS" FRAGMENT

The two folios on hand consist of the flyleaf, originally blank, and the first folio of the "Thousand Nights." The latter, in its turn, consists of the title-page and the first page of text. Reference to the fragment will be by page rather than by folio.

Script.—The script of this first entry on

our pages is an excellent sample of the good book hand of the early Moslem world. It bears, in general, an over-all resemblance to the so-called $k\bar{u}fic$ -nask $h\bar{i}$ of the book hand of the third century of Islam. It is best described as a script in which the angularity of letters generally associated with the $k\bar{u}fc$ script and the cursiveness usually credited to the $naskh\bar{\imath}$ script are both present to a degree. It is a light but well-schooled hand used at the time primarily for the smaller Qurans4 and occasionally for other valued works of a religious⁵ and linguistic character.⁶ On the other hand, the script bears a marked general resemblance to the Christian Arabic writing of the same century evolved in the Asiatic provinces of Islam under the influence of the Syriac script. The main

4 Cf., e.g., B. Moritz, Arabic Palaeography (Bibliothèque khédiviale, "Publications," No. 16 [Cairo, 1905]), Pls. 41, 45, and 46. Moritz has reproduced only these few samples. However, on a recent visit to the National (former Khedivial) Library at Cairo, whence Moritz himself drew his materials, I was privileged to see literally dozens of these small parchment Our ans and permitted to examine a goodly number of them minutely. It was most gratifying to find such ample confirmation of my earlier published statement in regard to the relationships of these small Quroans to the larger and more pretentious ones of the same period, particularly with reference to their widespread use and the development and character of their script. Cf. the writer's "Arabic Paleography" in Ars islamica, VIII (1941), 79-80.

I wish to take this opportunity of expressing my sincere thanks to Dr. Mohammed Sabry, director of the Egyptian National Library at Cairo and to his staff, particularly Mr. Mohammed Husain among the latter, for willing co-operation and numerous courtesies extended to me beyond the fard al-kifāyah, during the autumn months of 1946 spent in their hospitable city.

⁵ Cf. William Wright (ed.), Facsimilies of Inscriptions and Manuscripts ("Oriental Series" [London: Palaeographical Society, 1875–83]), Pl. VI; J. David-Weill (ed.), Le Djāmi d'Ibn Wahb ("Publications de l'Institute français d'archéologie oriental: Textes Arabes," Tome III [2 vols.; Cairo, 1939–41]), Pls. 1 ff.

⁶ E.g. Oriental Institute No. 17619, a third-century fragment on grammar.

⁷ For a discussion of the relationship of early Christian Arabic scripts to early Moslem scripts see the writer's *The Rise of the North Arabic Script and Its Early Kur'ānic Development* ("Oriental Institute Publications," Vol. L [Chicago, 1939]), pp. 20–21 and references there cited.

factor to note in this connection is the tendency to give the vertical strokes, particularly those of the alif and l, somewhat of the wave that is found in the Syriac script. However, when it comes to a closer analysis of the script and of the individual letters and their varied forms, the script of the "Nights" finds no close parallel in either the Islamic or Christian book hand now extent. This is not surprising, for the "Nights" manuscript is most probably the oldest Arabic book extant to come out of the Asiatic provinces if not indeed the oldest book extant of all Islam, the Quroāns alone excepted. We will return later to the question of the "where" and the "when" of the present manuscript after its several texts have yielded their contribution to the answers sought.

In the present entry of the manuscript, the fairly rounded letters are, for the most part, distinctly formed and, up to a point, carefully executed. Letter forms of special interest are the two alifs—that with and that without the bend to the right. The horizontal stroke of the second form varies considerably in extent as seen, for example, in the basmalah or invocation formula heading the text. Also to be noted is the use of the two forms of final y—that with a loop to the left and that with a horizontal stroke reversed to the right. Initial m has a number of minutely differentiated forms that play no mean roles in the decipherment of the text. The two letters that are most readily confused and confusing, because they are least carefully differentiated both as to form and size, are the final n and r. The hamzah is not indicated.

Diacritical points are used sparingly except in the first few lines of the text. Where a letter calls for two or three points these are neither consistantly grouped together, nor are they accurately placed above or below the letter to which they be-

long. Dotted letters are, in the order of the Arabic alphabet, b, t, j, z, d, z, f, q $(q\bar{a}f)$, n, and y.

A further characteristic of the script as a whole needs to be especially emphasized, as it is not only a marked feature of all early Arabic writing but it also plays a decisive role in the decipherment of one particularly significant word in the piece. This is the practice of writing the vertical stroke of the *alif* and of the *l* downward, regardless of these letters' position in the word.

TEXT (Pls. XV and XVI)

a) The title-page.

- (1) A book
- (2) of tales from a
- (3) Thousand Nights. There is neither strength
- (4) nor power except in God the
- (5) Highest, the Mightiest.

Comments.—It is to be noted that the title is not كتاب الف لعلة, "Book of a كتاب حديث الف Thousand Nights," or "Book of the Tales of a Thousand

Nights," both of which would indicate the entire "Thousand Nights" collection of tales. The translation of the title as given above describes accurately the nature of the volume to which the present fragment originally belonged, namely, a volume containing selected tales from the "Thousand Nights." We will return later to the consideration of the significance of this fact on the early history of the Nights.

The paleography of these few short lines calls for but little comment over and above the observation already made under the general heading of "Script." Note should be taken of the triangular form of the final h of lailah in line 3, particularly the initial slanted stroke of the letter. This is to be contrasted with the corresponding, but in this case perpendicular, stroke in the h of Allah in line 4. Both forms appear in the text on the following page. The division of a word at the end of a line, as in line 4, is another well-known practice among the scribes of the first centuries of Islam. It is generally common when the initial letter of the word is either separate, as in the present case, or one of the letters of the alphabet that may not be joined to the letter following, for example, $d\bar{a}l$, $dh\bar{a}l$, etc.

b) Text of the "Thousand Nights":

- بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم ليلة
 - (2)
- فلما كانت تلك الرلم) ملة القابلة
- قالت دينازاد يام(لم)ذتي أن كنت (4)
 - غير نايمة تحدثيني بالحديت (5)
- الذكي اوعدتيني به واضربي (المثل) عن ا (6)
 - لفضل والنقص والحول والجهل
 - والسخا والبخل والشجاعة والجبن
 - (9) [ي]كون ُفي الانسان غريزة او طريفة (10) [او] يخص معلمه او ادب شامي
 - - (11) [او اع]رابي

TRANSLATION

- (1) In the name of Allah the Merciful, the Compassionate.
- $(2) \qquad \qquad N I G H T$
- (3) And when it was the following night
- (4) said Dīnāzād, "O my Delectable One, if you are
- (5) not asleep, relate to me the tale
- (6) which you promised me and quote striking examples of the
- (7) excellencies and shortcomings, the cunning and stupidity
- (8) the generosity and avarice, and the courage and cowardice
- (9) that are in man, instinctive or acquired
- (10) or pertain to his distinctive characteristics or to courtly manners, Syrian
- (11) or Bedouin.
- (12) [And Shīrāzād related to her a talle of elegant beauty
- (13) [of So-and-So the ? and] his [f]ame (or [c]raft)
- (14) [sh]e becomes more worthy than they who are (or do) not
- (15) [or] else more crafty (or malicious) than they.
- (16) [(traces only at the end of the line)]

Comments.—Lines 1-5. Though our scribe uses the diacritical points liberally in the first few lines of the text, he is not always particularly careful about placing them with the letters to which they belong, nor is he consistent about their group spacing: the two dots of t in tilk are far apart, and the first dot is too far out to the right; the dots of y in lailah are even farther apart, with the second dot too much to the left and so falling before the adjoining h; again, the two dots of y in $D\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}z\bar{a}d$, though each is quite distinct, are crowded together and allowed to fall below the preceding d. Both these dots and the one above z are faint, but clear nevertheless. Note the use of the y for hamzah in $n\bar{a}$ imah of line 5. The omission of the second l in al-lailah of line 3 is obviously a scribal error.

Line 6. Note especially the separate reversed y in al- $ladh\bar{\iota}$. The alif at the end of

the line is similar to that of al-rah $\bar{i}m$ in line 1. Attention has already been drawn, under the general characterization of the script, to the early practice of splitting a word at the end of a line. The phrase offers some difficulty. If one is strictly to follow the great majority of the dictionaries, the phrases should be translated as "leave aside," or "turn away," or "depart, from." But quite obviously such a meaning in the present context would be strange indeed. It is extremely improbable that Dīnāzād in requesting a story should instruct the storyteller to set aside so inclusive a list of such good story materials and at the same time stop short of specifying the type of story she actually desired. Lane (Lexicon, "daraba," p. 1780, col. c) quotes the Asās of Zamakhsharī and after him the $T\bar{a}j$ al- ${}^{\varsigma}Ar\bar{u}s$ as explain-عرَّف to mean اضرب عنه

"to inform about (a thing or person)," which meaning fits very well with our text. Lane, however, proceeds to point out that this is a scribal error for عزف عنه , "to abstain from." While this error could very well be, one still cannot help wondering if it really is so, in view of the applicability of to the present text. Be that as it may, the Arabic ضرب, as its English equivalent "to beat," is very rich in idiomatic usage. One could conceivably translate as "beat about"—whence beat about the bush—in the sense of "approach indirectly" as one does in a story meant to entertain in contrast with the more lucid scientific treatment of the theme of the story. Perhaps the difficulty should be resolved by assuming that المثل, "parable," "proverb," "Example," has dropped by scribal error—as the l of al-lailah in line 3 —from the phrase.

Line 7. The upper stroke of the d of the first word is very faint. The first reconstruction to suggest itself for the broken third word of the line was $\ddot{\mathbf{x}}$. However, further examination brought to light a separate l as the final letter of the word and also the remaining traces of the head of the w.

Lines 8-9. Note the absence of hamzah in $sakh\bar{a}^{>}$ of line 8. Space permits the reconstruction of only one letter at the beginning of line 9, which must obviously be a y. The last word of the line, like that of line 8, is crowded for space resulting in the almost miniature size of the first three letters of the word, particularly with respect to the loop of the t. This latter should, however, be compared with the not too large loop of z of line 12 and the almost equally small loop of d of line 6 and s in line 10.

Lines 10-11. As the passage grows, it presents a problem in punctuation and opens up the possibility of more than one

rendering. I am grateful to Professor Sprengling for generous and valuable suggestions which have been incorporated in the translation of these lines and in the following comments.⁸

The stroke of the y in yakhuss appears too high but is no higher than the stroke of n in $ins\bar{a}n$ of line 9. Its high position above the line is the result of its being placed over the kh as in the case of the b over the kh of bukhl of line 8. At first glance the third word of line 10 appears to be بعلبه, "by his learning," in which case it would be referring to man's consciously acquired knowledge in contrast to his natural endowments or his chance environmental acquisitions. However, strong light and a microscope reveal an initial m, small and faded but definitely there. This suggests 'x, "his particular mark or characteristic." But it is also possible to read and translate this as "cavalier courage" in contrast to "refined or courtly manner." It is possible to punctuate with a semicolon after maclamahu and link the second verbal clause of line 6 to the last phrase in the paragraph, and render the result as ("and quote striking examples of) courtly manners, Syrian or Bedouin."

The decipherment of the last word of line 10 as $sh\bar{a}m\bar{\imath}$ calls for some comment. At first sight it looks as though there are but two of the three "teeth" needed for the initial sh. But enlarged photographs and careful microscopic examination of the manuscript itself confirmed the writer's suspicion that the scribe, having first written the three-toothed sh, lifted his pen to write the alif from up downward in the characteristic manner of all the scribes of early Islam—a practice already referred to above under the general heading

⁸ For a fuller list of opposite qualities that pertain to man, cf. Tauḥīdī, $Al-Imt\bar{a}^c$ wa $al-Mu^a\bar{a}nasah$ (3 vols.; Cairo, 1939–44), I, 149.

PLATE XV



ORIENTAL INSTITUTE No. 17618. PAGE 3. TITLE-PAGE OF Alf Lailah

PLATE XVI



Oriental Institute No. 17618. Page 4. Text Page of $Alf\ Lailah$

PLATE XVII



ORIENTAL INSTITUTE No. 17618. PAGE 1. PRIVATE LETTER

PLATE XVIII



Oriental Institute No. 17618. Page 2. Figure Drawing and Scattered Entries

of "Script." In the crowded space at the end of the line the lower end of this downward stroke of the alif overlapped almost all—but not quite all—of the third tooth of the sh. The next letter of this word, initial m, broken and crowded over the final y, is similar to the three m's of the invocation formula in line 1, but is closest to the first of these, namely, the m of bism. Both these m's have a curved stroke at the right which extends at the top beyond the rest of the head of m, instead of either failing to meet the stroke at the left, as in the m of line 3, or of meeting it in a neat corner, as in the m of line 5.

The extent of the space lost at the beginning of line 11 would seem, at first, to call for more than the restoration given above. But, by actual measurement, the three restored letters, a, w, and a, occupy very little more space—5–6 mm. at the most—than the three identical letters written in the very same order in line 10. This extra space can be readily accounted for either by a slight extension of the lower horizontal stroke of one or both alif's or by a very little more spacing between the three separate letters themselves.

Lines 12–15. The partial restoration and translation of these lines are perforce largely a matter of scientific conjecture. They most probably held the definite answer to the Arabicized form of the storyteller's name and to her relationship to Dīnāzād. They certainly held the key to the title and nature of the tale they introduce. All these points will be fully discussed in the third section of the present article.

Line 12. Line 12 permits, at the most, a two- or three-word restoration, depending on the number and size of the letters involved, in addition to the two or three letters of the broken حديث or the more likely خديث. The reconstructed phrase is given preference over others because it

seems to meet the textual, stylistic, and paleographic requirements as indicated by the preceding lines: a new paragraph is introduced with fa as in line 3; the storyteller is granting the request of Dīnāzād, who asks: "relate to me the tale," ددیثینی بالحد یث the remains of the broken word fit best with the noun, "tale," حديث, and this in turn calls for the most likely verb in this context, namely, "told, related," جىد ; the feminine pronominal suffix -ha seems the most called for under the circumstances, though it must be pointed out that it could be replaced with the plural suffix -hum, if one is to keep in mind the interested king who, though not mentioned in the text on hand, is undoubtedly listening, along with Dīnāzād, to the narrator's story. Furthermore, this being the introduction to the first "Night" in this particular copy, the name of the storyteller is definitely called for. Finally, the suggested phrase can be filled in neatly with no smaller letters and no more crowding than are seen in the rest of the line. However, the f of the first word and the b of the third will have to be written in keeping with the script of the page, namely, not to the right of, but directly above the following h as the t and l over the two h's in line 5, to cite the most relevant of the many comparable instances on the page.

 Juli, and so forth. It is impossible to determine whether or not the k is joined to a preceding letter. The three-letter words k-r-h or t and k-z-h or t can be read in more than a dozen ways, as any dictionary will substantiate. But none of these three-letter words seems to fit so well as some of the many possibilities that can be formed when at least one letter, separated or joined, is placed before the k. Of the words thus formed s-s-s, "his fame," and s-s-s-s, "his craft," are preferred for reasons which will be explained below.

Line 14. The s of the first word was originally joined to one or more letters now lost. The feminine prefix t, could be readily replaced by the masculine y. "worthier," could also be read ''lighter"; there is a bare possibility that the alif could be a case or adverbial ending belonging with the preceding word. A less likely alternative for t is a very crowded t, "to them," with only part of the lower loop of t still remaining.

Line 15. Though the final r's and n's are not sufficiently differentiated in several instances on this one page, r seems to be the more probable in comparison with the several r's of lines 13–15 and in contrast with the one n of line 14.

2. SCATTERED PHRASES ON PAGES 2 AND 3

(Pls. XVIII and XV respectively)

a) Page 2, upper section, three lines in a fine and careful book hand, but different from that of the *Nights* text.

(3) بحليه هادينا.

- In the name of Allah, the Merciful, the Compassionate.
- (2) We are your kin and you are our leader. It is sufficient for us that one like you
- (3) should guide us through his kindly wisdom.

b) Page 3, just below the initial entry on the title-page:

(1) A testimony (2) that is deemed proper by the [faithful].

This undoubtedly refers to the statement in lines 3–5 above it.

c) Below these two lines are two separate entries of the phrase بسم الله, each phrase beginning a new line, but the first Allah seems to have been altered to الذي with the y reversed. The tail end of the bend of the alif of the next word is still visible. The line, therefore, most probably consisted of either the usual basmalah or else of the slightly less familiar invocation, بسم الذي لا الد عو, "In the name of him than whom there is no other god." The second and last phrase seems to stand alone.

The remaining initial phrase of the basmalah formula seems to stand alone.

The entries (a) and (b) are neither in the same hand nor yet in the same ink. What they have in common is the pious tone of the phrases and the fact that, except for the earlier text of the Nights, both entries have priority to space on their respective pages. The succeeding entries are fitted into the remaining space.

3. OUTLINE OF A FIGURE OF A MAN (Pl. XVIII)

Page 2, lower half:

A rough outline of a man's form is crudely drawn in heavy strokes of thick blue-green ink that has grayed with time. This seems to have been filled in later with white paint, which as mixed with the ink gives the latter a greenish-blue shade. It is barely possible that a name or short phrase is worked into the strokes on the left side. The misproportioned and dwarfed figure shows the outline of the

head, short thick neck, folded arms, and feet that point out sideways in a straight line. Later attempts to wash out the outline of the head were not altogether successful and have left the paper damaged and slightly crinkled from the rubbing. The face is pierced through, leaving a fair-sized hole. This latter was probably intentional and in keeping with the popular belief that orthodox Islam condemned the representation of animate beings.

It seems hardly possible that this crude "work of art" has any relationship to the original, well-written manuscript of the "Nights" that is before us. Furthermore, it is difficult to tell if, when it was first introduced later, it was meant to illustrate some tale or incident in the book. It could conceivably be no more than an amateur's product in an idle moment with scrap paper ready at hand. Spacing and the overlapping of different inks "dates" the figure as "post" the scattered phrases already considered and "pre" the second group of scattered phrases appearing on this same page of the manuscript.

The lone ornament on the left top corner of the opposite page seems to be drawn in the same blue-green ink that was used in the figure.

4. A SECOND GROUP OF SCATTERED PHRASES IN DIFFERENT HANDS

(Pl. XVIII)

Page 2:

- a) Roughly circling the head of the figure described above are some short phrases written upside down. They read, from the inner side of the page outward: الله كبير "Allah is, "Allah is great," and الكبير الله, "the great one is Allah." The three phrases are in the same shade of ink. The strokes are uneven and the script generally poor.
 - b) Upper section of page, two lines of

text in a later *mutlaq* common everyday hand in contrast to the book hand of the earlier entry:

- (1) Your nearest (or dearest) will not patiently endure an adverse change in your relationships;
- (2) nor will patience itself endure the loved one's anger.

While there can be no question that the figure preceded the scattered phrases, the relative chronological order of either the figure alone or of the figure and the phrases to the entry below cannot be determined with equal certainty; for here neither the space element nor yet the paleography of the nondescript writing can come to our aid. The odds in favor of either order being about equal, it is preferred to treat entries 5 and 6 in succession for reasons that will be seen presently.

5. ROUGH DRAFT OF A LETTER ON PAGE 1 (Pl. XVII)

TRANSLATION

- (1) [In the name of Allah, the Merciful,] the Compassionate,
- (2) [May Allah] prolong your life
- (3) [and continue you in powler and grace

- (4) [and complete his blessin]gs towards you
- (5) [and increase] his benefits
- (6) [to you] and honor you in this world and
- (7) [the] next by his mercy. I wrote you,
- (8) may Allah make me your ransom, from Antioch
- (9) of the arrival of Aqjambar together with the soldiers' pay
- (10) I, myself, and those who are with me are in good health and praise be
- (11) to Allah for that. The blessings of Allah be upon Mohammed.

Comments.—That this is but a rough copy of a letter and not the actual letter itself is evidenced by several factors. The most important of these latter are that it is still attached to the next folio and that it bears no indication of an address nor yet any signs that it had ever been folded or rolled for mailing, as was the practice of the century. The script, too, is a "rough" specimen of the mutlag or common variety of nondescript cursive current among the people. It is in a class with the script of (a) on page 2, but not identical with it, as a careful comparison of the alif's and the k's in both specimens readily reveals. In the former the head of the alif is either straight or shows a slight hook to the right; in the letter, the alif is either straight or it and the l show a marked hook to the left. Again, the in the former consists of two separate pen strokes, the initial and the added above it; in the letter it is formed in one continuous pen operation as in line 3 and in the k of An $t\bar{a}k\bar{\imath}a$ in line 8.

The greetings of lines 2-7 are among the commonest in use in the correspondence, official or private, of the third century. The present version, however, offers one difficulty, namely, the second word of line 6, which I have assumed to be a scribal error for the usually met with in similar greetings. If, however,

it is to be read as a four-letter word, the following are some of the possibilities: عَبْرِك ,"afford you passage"; عَبْرِك ,"provide for your future"; or perhaps even an incorrect عيذك for عيذك , or عاذك "afford you protection."

Lines 8-9. The first two words of line 8 are run together. The word read غرف and translated as "soldiers' pay" can also mean either "a share of an inheritance" or "fees"; read as غرف, it means "loan received." Any one of these three renderings can fit in with the text. The reason for giving the preference to "soldiers' pay" will be discussed later in connection with the early history of the Nights. For the present it is to be noted that these lines refer to a Turk who is transporting and delivering (army) funds to a second man who had but recently been in Antioch.

6. FORMULA OF LEGAL TESTIMONY DATED \$AFAR A.H. 266/OCTOBER, A.D. 879 (Pls. XV-XVIII)

We come now to the last set of entries on these repeatedly used and much scribbled-over pages. By the time these two folios have reached the hands of a certain Ahmad ibn Maḥfūz, professional witness to formal legal contracts, they had not only parted company with their fellowfolios of the "Nights" but had been deprived of their identity as folios and returned to their original state of a flat sheet of paper—only this time of waste paper. Ahmad, therefore, proceeded to scribble the formula of his trade—legal testimony —all over the margins of the four pages, and a few more blank spaces available. He seems to have been conscious of the central division of the sheet into pages, though in one instance he disregarded this when he began his formula on the inner margin of page 4 and finished it on the adjoining inner margin of page 1. He was neither careful nor consistent in his scribbled entries, which seem to be the fruits of an idle moment.

The basic form and terminology of the legal formula with its several, but slight, variations are those most commonly met with in the third century of the Hijrah. The script, too, is true to type for the function and the period, though not so neatly executed as in some of the actual legal documents themselves. It is extremely cursive and unduly complicated with unorthodox ligatures. These latter not only join letters that should be left unconnected within the word but frequently run several words together. Careless ab-

breviations and the absence of all diacritical points complicate and slow down the task of decipherment, particularly in respect to names and dates. Fortunately, the repetitions and numerous entries, of which there are at least fifteen, provide the opportunity for minute comparisons and repeated checking in respect to both the full name of the witness and the date of his testimony.

It is impossible to determine the order in which Aḥmad made his entries. But in as much as this order itself is of no significance for us, the simplest course is to follow the page order of the manuscript.

Page 1: (a) Inner margin, lower half of page:

- (1) And Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz ibn Aḥmad al-Jurhamī testified to their agreement
- (2) to all that is in this document. And he wrote (his testimony) with his own hand, on the last of Şafar.

the clearest in this entry. The phrase مانى is the clearest in this entry. The phrase مانى is run together as is also the phrase بط بخطه, with بخرصفر, with بخرصفر, with بخرصفر , with بخرصفر , with بخرصفر is likewise run together except for the initial alif. These and other ligatures are quite common and will be pointed out only as they first occur. The appreviations are used less frequently. Both practices are extremely common in third century legal testimony.

b) Part of the top margin and upper half of the inner margin:

- (1) to their agreement
- (2) to all that is in this document.
- (3) this document this document.

The fourth line in this section is upside down to the three lines above. It is the continuation of the entry of the formula begun on page 4 and will be considered in connection with that page.

It is to be further noted that the phrase سفا الكتاب, "this document," occurs twice more in between lines 8-10 of the preceding letter.

⁹ Cf., e.g., the writer's "Arabic Marriage Contracts among the Copts," ZDMG, XCV (1941), 67-70; Adolph Grohmann, Arabic Papyri in the Egyptian Library (APEL) Vol. II (1936), Index, "Abbreviations" and "Ligatures."

Page 2: (a) Upper margin, last three lines written upside down:

- (1) Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz al-Jurhamī, testified to their agreement
- (2) to all that is in this document, and that in Safar of the year 'six and sixty and two-hundred.
- (3) this document as of its date. This document with his own hand and as of its date.

Comments.—A line in the same ink as the formula runs through the text of line 1. The first five words of line 2 are run together, as are also ذلك في and سنة ست; these last are at the end of the line, with the rest of the date written right below them with the following وستين و ligatured. Note the stroke that is meant for the hamzah carrier—or more probably here for the tooth of the first y—in the last word. The stroke is long enough to be an alif in ligature with the following letter. In other words, we have a choice of several common practices of writing the Arabic for "two hundred"—مايتين or میتیر. The unorthodox ligatures met with in this line are not so extreme as in some dates yet to follow. There are very numerous illustrations in early Arabic papyri and papers of this unhappy practice of overcrowding the letters and joining several or all the words of dates meant to be written out in full.10

The second part of line 3 is ligatured right through except for the last word. The abbreviations, as already stated, are common.

- b) About the middle of the page and toward the outer margin appears the ligatured name of the witness, الحمد بن احمد . معفوظ بن احمد .
- c) Below the above are traces of three lines written upside down:

(1) Aḥmad (2) al-Jurhamī (3) in all that

These three lines most probably constituted originally the complete formula.

d) Lower inner margin, touching the outline of the figure of the man:

Page 3: The title-page of the "Nights".

(a) Upper margin, three lines written upside down:

(1) [شهد] احمد بن محفوظ بن احمد الجرهمى على اقرارهما (2) [بجميع] ما في هذا الكتاب وكتب بـخطة في صفر من سنة ست وستين وميتين (3) هذا الكتاب على
$$\nabla V = \nabla V$$

- (1) Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz ibn Aḥmad al-Jurhamī testified to their agreement
- (2) to all that is in this document and he wrote (his testimony) with his own hand in Şafar of the year six and sixty and two-hundred.
- (3) (See comments below under this line.)

Comments.—Lines 1-2. The name, محفوظ, written with the walways ligatured

¹⁰ Cf. Karabacek, op. cit., pp. 93-95; Grohmann, APEL, Vol. II, Nos. 88 and 90; N. Abbott, "Arabic Papyri of the Reign of Ğa'far al-Mutawakkil...," ZDMG, XCII (1938) 110-11.

to the z, is about as clear here as in any of the rest of the entries. Note in the plate the lone word at the end of line 1, not introduced into the text above. The date in line 2 is extremely crowded. Having first written , سنة ست , all ligatured, Ahmad slides his pen back to start with ستين and then completes the date in the crowded space at the end of the line.

Line 3. This line probably represents two separate "operations," the first of which is definitely linked with line 2 and consists of the clear-cut entry of the date in Coptic letter numerals. This practice of repeating the Arabic date in Greek or Coptic numerals was very common in the Egypt of the third and fourth centuries of the Hijrah.¹¹ The σ , sigma, and ζ , stau(digamma in the old Greek alphabet), for 200 and 6, respectively, offer no paleographic difficulty. The middle letter looks as though it might be a γ , gamma or ν , nu. Actually however, it represents a known Coptic form of \geq , xi, or 60 as seen in other early documents.12

The second "operation" of this line relates to the rest of its contents. Here Ahmad seems to be toying with the phrase, على, and the word, على,

no doubt from the familiar على اقرارهها, as he has toyed with other scattered phrases of the formula in several places in the manuscript. He seems to be doing precisely the same thing with the one Arabic and the several Greco-Coptic letters that follow. The Arabic s can be read either as an abbreviation for the word سنة, "year," or as the numeral 60;13 the two letters following it are, as already seen, the Greco-Coptic numerals for 60 and 200. This still leaves two more letters that look like two gammas to be considered. I venture to suggest that these are no more than incomplete forms of the xi, or 60, needing but the extended stroke of an adjoining but here absent sigma to complete them, as is indeed the case with the two letters preceding them. It is my belief that Ahmad is here scribbling the different numerals, alone or in combination, of the date 266, just as he scribbles the different words and phrases of the formula.

Page 3: (b) Inner margin:

- (1) Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz ibn Aḥmad al-Jurhamī testified to all that is in
- (2) this document after having read it. He testified to their agreement on the last of Safar
- (3) of the year six and sixty and two [hundred].

من بعد ما Comments.—The phrase, أحراه, introduced just this once in this set, occurs with variations in other testimony

¹¹ Cf. Grohmann, APEL, Vol. I, Nos. 39, 41, 48; Vol. II, Nos. 89, 96, 98, 114, 126, 127; Vol. III, Nos. 181–88, 190, 196, and 198, dating from A.H. 209 to 293; for fourth-century specimens cf. Karabacek, op. cit., pp. 90–91.

¹² Cf. Ludwig Stern, *Koptische Grammatik* (Leipzig, 1880), pp. 131 ff., and especially the table of forms at the end of the book. I am indebted to Dr. T. G. Allen for the reference to Stern and to Professors Edgerton and Wilson for the confirmation of my reading of this particular date.

is ligatured and extremely crowded. The date in line 3 is written in two units, the slight break coming between the ست and the ستيد.

The last of Safar A.H. 266 corresponds to the twentieth of October, A.D. 879.

¹³ For the early use of Arabic letter numerals cf. the writer's "Arabic Numerals," Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1938, pp. 277-80.

¹⁴ Cf., e.g., Grohmann, APEL, I, 74:11, 88:14-15, 245:20.

c) Lower margin, five fragmentary lines:

- (1) testified (2) to their agreement (3) year six and sixty (4) Ahmad testified
- (5) their agreement to all that is in this document

Comments.—Lines 1–3 and 4–5 represent two separate entries of the formula. What remains of the fragmentary date in

line 3 is run together.

Page 4: Text page of the "Nights."
(a) Upper margin, two lines upside down:

- (1) Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz ibn Aḥmad al-Jurhamī testified
- (2) to their agreement to all that is in this document and that in Safar of the year six and sixty and two hundred.

صفر من سنة Comments.—The words ست are run together. The rest of the date is completed with ستين, "sixty," above this and the ميتين, "two hundred,"

above this again.

b) Outer margin, two lines, the first of which is broken:

- (1) [to all] that is in this document and that in Safar
- (2) of the year six and sixty and two hundred. [Testified] to

Comments.—The date here looks hopelessly broken, but in reality it offers no more serious difficulties to the experienced eye than any of the other date entries. It

c) Lower margin, three broken lines:

- (1) [Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz ibn Aḥmad al-Jurhamī testified] to all that is in
- (2) [this document]. Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz ibn Aḥmad al-Jurhamī [testified
- (3) to their agreement to all that is in this document.

Comments.—The three lines quite obviously contain two separate entries of the formula. Between the three lines and the text of the "Nights" there is an extended stroke in the same light ink of the

formula. It is most probably the final b of الكتاب. This would indicate either a very crowded third entry of the formula or a less crowded scribbling of the phrase هذا الكتاب.

d) Inner margin, one line running the length of the page:

The rest of the formula is entered on the inner margin of page 1 and consists of the date in Arabic words and Greco-Coptic letter numerals:

Aḥmad ibn Maḥfūz ibn Aḥmad al-Jurhamī testified to their agreement to all that is in this document and that in Ṣafar of the year six and sixty and two-hundred, 266.

Comments.—The writing of the date is the largest and the clearest of all the date entries. It is in three units, the first break coming after ..., and the second after ستير. The numerals overflow into the unusually large loop of the last n. They consist, as in the previous case discussed above, of the numbers sigma or 200, xi or 60, and stau or 6. However, Ahmad has, in this instance, reversed the order of the six and the sixty. This may be a reflection of the practice, met with sometimes in early Islam, of writing the letter numerals without regard to the relative position of the units and tens. 15 Or, again, it could well be an unconscious reflection of the commoner practice, in reference to the order of the numerals in spoken Arabic, namely, two hundred and six and sixty. The Coptic numerals are written from left to right in this same order.

There are here fifteen separate entries of the legal formula exclusive of the several scattered phrases of the same. Seven of these entries provided a complete date, four of which are still preserved in full: manuscript page 2, section (a); page 3, section (a); and page 4, sections (a) and (d). The date of the remaining three is but partially preserved: manuscript page 3, sections (b) and (c), and page 4, section (b). But, as already seen, enough of the date of these three is available to make possible the complete restoration of each date as fully written out in words. Furthermore, two of the dates of the complete entries, manuscript page 3, section (a), and page 4, section (d), are reinforced with the date in Greco-Coptic numerals. Thus we have the year 266 of the Hijrah written no less than nine times in all, while the month of Safar occurs seven times, and the further specification of the last day of Şafar is given twice: manuscript page 1, section (a) and page 3, section (b). These facts lead to a significant conclusion. The double dating along with the terminology and paleography had left no room for doubt in the mind of the writer that the third century was actually the century involved. But with the first realization that Ahmad was merely practicing the formula of his trade, the possibility that he may have chosen at random some third-century date or dates called for consideration. That Ahmad should be practicing the writing of dates already passed seemed less probable than that he should be considering a date or dates yet to come. Here again common sense would seem to suggest a time not too far in the future. However, as the decipherment of Ahmad's entries progressed and the same date, to the month and the day occurred repeatedly, it seemed reasonably sure that Ahmad was actually practicing the formula as he needed it for current use, if not on the last day of Safar, then during that month of the year 266 of the Hijrah, that is, October, A.D. 879. This date, therefore, is here accepted as a terminus ante quam for the

¹⁵ Cf. above, n, 13. See also Stern, op. cit., table at end of the book for the different paleographic forms of these letter numerals.

earlier date of the Alf Lailah or "Thousand Nights" text.

II

With the task of decipherment and translation accomplished, the next step is to bring the results, along with other pertinent materials, to bear on the problem of the provenience and the date of the present paper manuscript. The questions that need to be answered are the "where" and the "when" of the first entry of the manuscript, namely, the Alf Lailah or "Thousand Nights" fragment.

First as to the "where." The fact that the manuscript is on paper that had already become waste paper by 266/879 would seem to exclude Egypt as even a remote possibility for consideration as to provenience. For Egypt, the home of the papyrus, continued to use that writing material, almost exclusively, throughout the third century of Islam. It is true that paper as an article of trade was known in Egypt at the time, but the manufacture of paper in that country was introduced in the first half of the fourth century of Islam or the first half of the tenth century of our era. 16 Thus while one might expect a few paper documents to come out of third-century Egypt, no one would ever expect the Egypt of the early third century to produce a paper book on any subject whatsoever. This is adequately confirmed by the evidence of material remains on hand, for the third-century Arabic paper documents so far brought to light number about two dozen, 17 in great

contrast to the hundreds, if not indeed the thousands, 18 of Arabic papyrus documents of the same century. On the other hand, the much smaller number of Islamic book manuscripts definitely known to have originated in third century Egypt are either parchment Quroans or books of traditions written on either parchment or papyrus, while third-century books coming out of the Asiatic provinces are either on parchment or paper. Not only is the present manuscript on paper, like these latter, but it has closer paleographic affinities with them than it does with the Egyptian group, a fact which will be considered with the question of the "when" of the manuscript.

We must turn out attention, therefore, to the three Asiatic Arab provinces of the early Abbāsid Empire, namely, Ḥijāz, Irāq, and Syria. The first had settled down to being the "sacred province" of Islam. It lagged behind the other two in the production of strictly secular literature. But as the most distinguished province of Arabia proper, its ancient traditions and legendary heroes, both of the desert and of the sown, continued to be rich sources of material and inspiration for the Syrian and Irāqī littérateurs of these fruitful centuries of early Islam. Hence, as the probable provenience of the manuscript, Hijāz is the least likely of the three provinces under consideration. The

¹⁶ Karabacek, op. cit., p. 98; N. Abbott, The Kurrah Papyri from Aphrodite in the Oriental Institute ("SAOC," No. 15 [Chicago, 1938]), pp. 22-23, and references there cited.

¹⁷ Of these, two only are assigned to the first half of the third century. The definitely dated documents are but five, with their dates extending from A.H. 260 to 297 or A.D. 873–909 (cf. Karabacek, op. cit., pp. 90–91; Papyrus Erzherzog Rainer, Führer durch die Ausstellung [hereafter PERF (Wien, 1894)], p. 226, No. 845 and p. 246, Nos. 924–26; Corpus Papyrorum

Raineri archiducis Austriae. III, Series Arabica, ed. Adolf Grohmann [hereafter CPR III (Vindobonae, 1924....)], Vol. I, Part 1, p. 58; Albert Dietrich, "Arabische Papyri aus der Hamburger Staats- und Universität-bibliothek," Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, XXII, Part 3 [Leipzig, 1937], 49 and 63–64). A few other third-century paper documents, dated or otherwise, will no doubt come to light as research and publication on early materials progress. There is, for instance, Oriental Institute No. 13782, a paper fragment with two lines of invocation on Aḥmad ibn Tūlūn of Egypt (254–70/868–83).

¹⁸ To gain an idea of the wealth of Arabic papyri that came out of Egypt cf. Grohmann, *CPR* III, Vol. I, Part 1, p. 10.

real choice is, therefore, reduced to one between Irāq and Syria.

It is a generally well-known fact that the Persian Hazar Afsāna or "Thousand Fanciful Tales" is the starting point in any consideration of the early history of the Nights. It is equally well known that it was first translated from Old Persian or Pahlevi into Arabic sometime in the hevday of the early Abbasids, who had promoted Iraq to the imperial province and created and maintained Baghdad as its political and cultural capital. Therefore, all things being equal, Irāq, rather than Syria, would be the logical choice as the source of our manuscript. But that all things are not equal in the case on hand is amply indicated by the manuscript itself.

First we learn from the draft of the letter on the flyleaf of the "Nights" that the manuscript was at that time in the possession of someone who had but recently left Antioch in northern Syria. Again, the manuscript was originally either an extract of selected tales from a then current version of the *Nights* or a new composition or compilation of tales of like character.¹⁹

The third significant fact is provided by the fragmentary text itself, namely, tales of Syrian and Bedouin Arab origin are singled out for special mention. The Bedouin Arab was, as he is still today, a familiar figure of fact and fiction in all the Arab provinces of the empire. His mention, significant enough for the content of the manuscript, is neither here nor there in considering its place of origin. On the other hand, the mention of Syrian tales is highly significant, for these three facts, namely, the presence in Syria of the owner of the manuscript, the selective nature of the original volume which our fragment represents, and the emphasis in its introductory paragraph on Syrian tales, must be taken together and when so taken

19 Cf. above, p. 132, and below, p. 154.

clearly point away from 'Irāq and to Syria as the answer to the "where" in respect to the origin of the manuscript. Furthermore, it is difficult to consider an 'Irāqī origin for so "Syrian" a manuscript when one recalls the long and bitter rivalry, political and cultural, of these two great provinces of early Islam.

A legitimate question to raise at this point is, granted that this "Nights" manuscript originated in Syria, how did it find its way to Egypt? It is seldom that one is able to give more than a general answer to questions of this nature, particularly in reference to a manuscript that is at once so early and so fragmentary. Books, like other desirable articles, found their way across the provincial borders in the company of their owners, be these scholars or book collectors and traders. In the present instance we are fortunate in being able to suggest an extremely likely answer as to the how and when of the transfer of the manuscript from Syria to Egypt.

Aḥmad ibn Ṭūlūn (254-70/868-83), the founder of the Tulunid vassal dynasty of Egypt, was extremely anxious to expand his dominions at the expense of Syria. He fought, at first, a diplomatic war with the court at Baghdad, then a "cold war" with his immediate rival, Ahmad ibn al-Mudabbir,²⁰ on the Egyptian scene itself, and finally broke out in open rebellion in A.H. 264–65, when he and his Turks proceeded to annex Syria. Ahmad himself participated in the expedition and in Muharram of 265/September, A.D. 878 took the lead in the final and complete reduction of the key port city of Antioch in northern Syria. After some fighting on the Byzantine border, he moved quickly south to complete the conquest of the entire province before he returned to Egypt that

²⁰ For the bitter struggle between the two Aḥmads, cf. the writer's "Arabic Papyri of the Reign of Ğa'far at-Mutawakkil . . . , " ZDMG, XCII (1938), 101–4.

same year of A.H. 265, to nip in the bud the revolt of his own son.²¹

Once more the information in the draft of the letter on the flyleaf of the "Nights" must be put to significant use. In the light of the above historical facts, the mention of Antioch in the letter, the fact that the possessor of the manuscript had but recently left that city, the reference to money received by him as having been recently delivered by Agjambar, obviously a Turk, and, finally, the appearance of the manuscript itself in Egypt the very next year seem, to the present writer, to total up to a reasonably certain answer to our question. To put it more directly, the manuscript was most probably both a casualty and a price of the war of 264-65 between Egypt and Syria. Broken and misused, it found its way out of Syria in the company of Ahmad ibn Tūlūn's victorious Turkish army returning home to Egypt. It is thanks to this likely mishap and to the soil of Egypt, so kind to ancient documents, that we today are in possession of this fragmentary and most unexpected find with its extremely significant evidence on the early history of the Nights.²²

The answer to the "when" of the origin of our manuscript must take into consideration several related yet distinct sets of facts. The first of these, as in the case of the "where," centers around the writing material, namely, paper. It is desirable, to begin with, to review briefly the history of the use and manufacture of paper in early Islam as that history is known from the literary sources and then to follow this with the testimony of the few extant paper documents and books of the third century.

It is hardly necessary to dwell here on the early Chinese origin of paper or on its spread westward to Khurāsān, where the Arabs first came into contact with it in the second half of the seventh century of our era. But it was not until A.D. 751 in the course of the final subjugation of the province and its great city of Samargand that Chinese captives in that city were made to yield the trade secrets of paper manufacture to their Arab captors. These latter, not being themselves artisans, set their Persian freedmen to the task of its manufacture.²³ The Chinese evidently produced several types of paper differing in their basic composition from grasses and reeds to mixtures of these with hemp and other plants or to mixtures that included part rag and finally to rag paper proper.24 The formula(s) which the Chinese passed on to the Arabs at this point is not stated. The Arab sources distinguish their own early product, generally known as Khurāsānian and Samarqandian paper, as linenrag paper.²⁵ Microscopic analysis of the hitherto earliest known specimen confirms the statements in the literary sources.²⁶ Microscopic analysis of the pa-

 $^{^{21}}$ Tabarī, $Ta^{5}rikh$ (Annales), ed. de Goeje (15 vols.; Lugduni Batavorum, 1879–1901), III, 1929; Mas'ūdī, $Mur\bar{u}j$ al-Dhahab (Les Prairies d'or), ed. C. Barbier de Meynard (9 vols.; Paris, 1861–77), VIII, 67–71; Ibn Taghrībirdī, $Nu\bar{u}m$ al-Zāhirah (Annals), ed. W. Popper (Berkeley, Calif., 1909——), II, 40–41.

²² In the light of the above, it is quite probable that the only other known third-century documents to come out of Syria and survive to our day were not unearthed in southern Syria as previously suggested but rather shared the above war mishap in Syria and later protection in the Egyptian soil. These are the three papyrus documents drawn up in Damascus in 241/855-56. They were purchased for the Oriental Institute by Professor Sprengling and have already been published by the present writer in ZDMG, XCII (1938), 88-135, under the title, "Arabic Papyri from the Reign of Ğa'far al-Mutawakkil 'alā-llāh."

²³ Cf. Karabacek, Das arabische Papier, pp. 106-14.

²⁴ Julius v. Wiesner, "Über die ältesten bis jetzt aufgefundenen Hadernpapiere," Sitzungsberichte der Kais. Akademie der Wissenchaften in Wien, Vol. CLXVIII (1911), Abh. V, 1–26.

²⁵ Karabacek, Das arabische Papier, pp. 114-17.

²⁶ Julius v. Wiesner, "Die Faijûmer und Uschmûneiner Papiere, *MPER*, II–III (Wien, 1887), 179–260, esp. pp. 191–218 and 242.

per of our "Nights" fits in with these known literary and material facts, for it, too, proved to be an all-linen paper.²⁷

Though fine-quality Chinese paper continued to be sought after for generations to come, it was the paper of Samarqand that came into widespread use throughout the Asiatic provinces of the empire. It gained rapidly and steadily over the leather and parchments imported from Persia and the papyrus that came from Egypt. Its spectacular victory was accomplished in the last five years of the eighth century when Harūn al-Rashīd and his Barmakid wazirs, the brothers Fadl and Jacfar, patronized the industry, adopted paper for use in the state chancellory,28 and urged the public to use it for their needs even for Quroānic codices.29 This would seem to indicate that paper had already become generally acceptable for fine books, otherwise it would not have been even suggested for Quroanic writing.

This did not mean that other writing materials went out of use rapidly, but rather that paper soon became the preferred material³⁰ in the Asiatic provinces where local factories began to supplement the imported Khurāsānian variety.³¹ This

- ²⁷ The fibers revealed by 250–530 magnifications are similar to linen fibers shown on pp. 195 and 198 of the preceding reference. I am indebted to Mr. P. Delougaz, curator of the Oriental Institute Museum, for technical assistance in the above analysis.
- ²⁸ Cf. Karabacek, Das arabische Papier, pp. 117-21.
- 29 Qalqashandī, $Subh~al\text{-}A^csh\bar{a}~(14~\text{vols.};~\text{Cairo},~1913-19),~\text{II},~475.$
- ³⁰ E.g., the Tāhirid governor of Baghdād, finding himself short of paper during the wars of Musta^cin and Mu^ctazz (248–51–55/862–65–69), instructed his secretaries to write a small hand and to be brief, since papyrus was not desirable (cf. Tha^cālibī, Khaşş al-Khaşş [Cairo, 1236], p. 71, and Tabarī, III, 1506, 1510–11).
- ³¹ Karabacek, *Das arabische Papier*, pp. 121–25, argues for the rapid spread of paper factories, while Adam Mez, *Die Renaissance des Islam* (Heidelberg, 1922), pp. 439–41, believes the progress to have been slower. More recent summaries of the history of Arabic paper draw on these two authors. New mate-

being the case, one should expect to find some reference to paper books originating in these parts in the first half of the ninth century.³² One very significant reference, dating from the reign of Ma³mūn (198– 218/813-33), relates to Hunain ibn Ishāq and his secretary-copyist, al-Azrag, whose books, both for content and penmanship, literally commanded their weight in silver dirhams. Therefore, to increase their cash value, these books were "written in large heavy Kūfic letters with lines far apart and on paper that was three to four times the normal thickness of the paper manufactured at the time."33 There is also the reference to a fine forty-volume work, each volume of two hundred or more pages of the Talhī variety of Khurāsānian paper—named after Talhah ibn Tāhir. governor of Khurāsān (207–213/822–28)³⁴ —written by Mohammed ibn Ḥabīb (d. 245/860) for the wazir Fath ibn Khāgān.³⁵

Turning now to the testimony of the few extant third-century paper manu-

- ³² Note must be taken of the fact that the sources do not, as a rule, specify the writing material of a book mentioned in passing. Even more disconcerting is their use of qirtas, kāghid, and waraq interchangeably, though the first generally means "papyrus," the second "paper," and the third is used for both papyrus and paper (cf. Qalqashandī, II, 475–77).
- 33 Ibn Abī Usaibī'ah, ' $Uy\bar{u}n$ al- $Anb\bar{a}$ ' fi $Tabaq\bar{a}t$ al- $At\bar{\nu}b\bar{a}$ ', ed. August Müller (2 vols.; Cairo and Königsberg, 1882–84), I, 187 and 197. This was, in all probability, after Ma'mūn's return from Khurāsān to Baghdād in 204/819. It indicates the manufacture in Baghdād of paper made to order according to the buyer's specifications. It is significant to note in this connection that, in time, the paper of Baghdād came to be considered as the very best because of its thickness coupled with pliability, while the paper of Damascus took second place (cf. Qalqashandī, II, 476).
- ³⁴ Cf. Karabacek, Das arabische Papier, p. 118; Fihrist, p. 21.
- 35 Fihrist, pp. 106–7. Some twenty volumes of the work survived to Nadīm's day, who is describing them firsthand.

rials so far on hand suggest a modification of both positions, as I hope to be able to show at some later date. For the present, the controversy is of no major significance here, since the widespread use of paper in the ninth century, regardless of its place of manufacture, is not questioned.

scripts that have so for come to light, one must keep in mind that papyrus and paper documents and books originating in these regions had small prospects, ordinarily, of long survival³⁶ unless chance, as with our "Nights" manuscript, carried them off to the desert of Sinai or the sands of Egypt. The wonder is not that so few have survived but that any have survived at all. The oldest dated paper manuscript hitherto known is a copy of the Gharīb al-*Ḥadīth* of Abū 'Ubaid al-Qāsim ibn al-Sallām (d. ca. 230/844) of Irāq and Khurāsān. The copy now in Leiden is dated 252/866 and is illustrated in Wright's Facsimiles, Plate VI.37 The only other dated paper book of the third century that has come to my attention is a copy of the $Mas\bar{a}$ il of Ibn Hanbal (d. 241/855) as transmitted by Abū Daoūd (d. 275/888) and dated 266/879. The manuscript is in the Zāhirīyah Library³⁸ at Damascus where I was recently privileged to see and examine it.39

That the Oriental Institute manuscript of the "Nights" is earlier than the lastmentioned book goes without saying. That it is earlier than 252/866 is almost equally apparent, fourteen years being far too few to age a book of its type. Book production of the time was slow and expensive, even when hastily executed by professional scribes from the author's dictation.⁴⁰ The script of the "Nights" places

it among the more carefully executed and time-consuming enterprises of some author or copyist. This in turn suggests that the copy on hand was an expensive and valued possession long treasured by some owner ere time and misfortune rendered its pages scraps of paper. A conservative estimate would allow some half a century, at the least, for this aging and repeated misuse. This throws back the date of the original manuscript to about the first or. at the most second, decade of the third century of the Hijrah or, roughly, to the first quarter of the ninth century of our era. Thus on the evidence, so far, of the manuscript itself, we have here the oldest known extant paper book to come out of the Islamic world.

This leads to the consideration of the extant third-century Arabic books on papyrus and parchment or vellum. The second half of the century yields the Jāmi^c of Ibn Wahb, a collection of Traditions written at Asnā in Egypt on papyrus and dated 276/889. The manuscript has been published in part⁴¹ and is now in the Egyptian National Library at Cairo, where the present writer recently had the pleasure of working with it firsthand. The four other dated Arabic manuscripts from this period are all on parchment or vellum and deal with Christian literature. The first, believed to be the earliest dated Christian Arabic manuscript extant, is a treatise on Christian theology dated 264/ 872.42 The second contains lives of saints and ascetic discourses copied in 272/885

³⁵ Cf. the writer's "An Arabic Papyrus in the Oriental Institute," JNES, V (1946), 169.

 $^{^{\}rm 27}$ Cf. also M. J. de Goeje in $ZDMG,~{\rm XVIII},~781-807.$

²⁸ Cf. Der Islam, XVII (1928), 250, and Brockelmann, Geschichte der arabischen Litteratur, Suppl., I (1937), 310.

³⁹ Thanks to the courtesy of the director of the library, Mr. ⁴Umar Riḍā Kaḥṇālah, who not only put the facilities of the library at my disposal but kindly accompanied me on several trips to see some well-known private manuscript collections.

 $^{^{40}}$ The famous al-Firā $^{\circ}$ (d. 207/822), tutor to Ma $^{\circ}$ mūn's sons, outwitted his publisher's greed, which made his books too expensive for the general public,

by starting to dictate his next work direct to the people; cf. Abū Bakr al-Khaṭīb, Ta^2rikh $Baghd\bar{a}d$ (14 vols.; Cairo and Baghdād, 1931), XIV, 150, and Yā-qūt, $Irsh\bar{a}d$ ("Dictionary of Learned Men") ("Gibb Memorial Series" [7 vols.; Leyden, 1907–27]), VII, 227–28.

⁴¹ Cf. p. 131, n. 5.

⁴² Cf. A. S. Lewis and M. D. Gibson, "Forty-one Facsimiles of Dated Christian Arabic Manuscripts," Studia Sinaitica, Vol. XII (Cambridge, 1907), Pl. XX.

by an 'Irāqī monk in Palestine for a monastery in Mount Sinai.⁴³ The third is of similar nature written by the same monk in the same year of 272,⁴⁴ and the fourth is New Testament material completed in 279/892.⁴⁵

Next to our "Nights," the only other known manuscript that dates from the first half of the third century is a manuscript now in Heidelberg. This is the story of the prophets in the tradition of Wahb ibn Munabbih and his immediate transmitters. It is of Egyptian origin, written on papyrus, and is dated 229/844.46 Its script bears little resemblance to that of the "Nights." This difference in the scripts of two manuscripts so close together in their dates can be explained, I believe, by the fact that the one is on papyrus and represents a current Egyptian book hand while the other is on paper and represents an early variety of the book hand of the Asiatic provinces. Being also the earliest extant specimen of this latter book hand, the present manuscript affords a new landmark in the study of Arabic paleography.

To sum up our findings: the third century of Islam has yielded hitherto, parchment Qurōāns excluded, but eight dated Arabic books of either Moslem or Christian origin. Of these, two are on papyrus, dated 229 and 276; two are on paper, dated 252 and 266; and four are on parchment, dated 264, 272, and 279. Therefore, our manuscript of the "Nights," aged and tattered by 266, is certainly older than the paper and parchment manuscripts of 252 and 264, respectively. Furthermore, this manuscript, originating most likely in the

earlier decades of the century, as we have tried to show above, emerges, exclusive of parchment Qur³āns, not only as definitely the earliest Arabic *paper* book known to come down to us out of the Moslem world but also as most probably the earliest known Arabic book extant, irrespective of the writing material, to come out of the Arab world, Christian or Moslem.⁴⁷

With continued research and new discoveries the present manuscript may have to yield, sooner or later, some of its multiple honors. But the one distinction it is least likely to surrender at any time, if ever, is the fact of its being the earliest manuscript extant of the *Alf Lailah* or "Thousand Nights."

III

Thus far this study has been limited more or less to the evidence of the manuscript, direct or inferred, in seeking the answer to the when of this particular fragment of the Alf Lailah or "Thousand Nights." But the larger and more complex questions of the relationship of the ancient Persian Hazār Afsāna to the Arabian Nights and of the early history of the latter bring us to the consideration of the early Arabic sources bearing on

⁴⁷ There are several other undated manuscripts that are attributed to the third century, largely on paleographic grounds alone. They are all Christian manuscripts on parchment with the exception of one that is on paper and one parchment manuscript that consists of Islamic Traditions written in Kufic. Cf. M. D. Gibson, Apocrypha Arabica, Studia Sinaitica, VIII (London, 1901), x and Pl. I; Fleischer, op. cit., III, 388-94; Wright, op. cit., Pls. XIX and CXL; and the writer's "Arabic Paleography," op. cit., pp. 81-82, this latter for special comment on the Islamic manuscript. Oriental Institute No. 12027 is an incomplete paper copy of Baghawi's (d. 210 or 14/825 or 829) Mu'jam al-Şaḥābah and was believed by Moritz, from whom it was bought, to be an autograph copy of the author. This I very much doubt, though the manuscript itself is probably from the third century. Further work on the text itself may yet yield some clues for a more definite dating within the century. Cf. Brockelmann, Suppl., I, 278, where the fragment there mentioned is very likely none other than that now in the Oriental Institute.

⁴³ Cf. Wright, op. cit., Pl. XX.

⁴⁴ Cf. H. L. Fleischer, *Kleinere Schriften* (3 vols.; Leipzig, 1888), III, 393-94.

⁴⁵ Ibid., pp. 389-90.

 $^{^{46}}$ Cf. the writer's "An Arabic Papyrus in the Oriental Institute," $JNES,\ V\ (1946),\ 169-70,\ and\ references there cited.$

these problems. These sources themselves now take on added significance, since they can be checked and supplemented by the very existence of our manuscript at so early a date as well as by its textual contribution. The earliest and most relevant source materials are the well-known passages from Mascūdī's Murūj al-Dhahab and Nadīm's Fihrist written in the first and second half of the fourth century of the Hijrah, respectively, or late in the first and second half of the tenth century of our era. Hence, our manuscript is better than a century older than the earliest reference to the *Nights* hitherto known. The literary pasages in question have been much quoted and discussed since von Hammer⁴⁸ first pointed them out, more than a century ago, as a sequel to Galland's spectacular introduction of Arabian *Nights* to the Western world. They have since formed the basis of searching investigations by such first-rate scholars as de Sacy, Zotenberg, Lane, Nöldeke, Oestrup, Macdonald, and Littmann. It is not intended to outline here the long history of these investigations with the numerous controversies arising out of them in regard to the origin, date, title, framework, and content of the early Nights. 49 The aim is rather to center the attention primarily on those controversial points on which the present manuscript throws sufficient light either to settle the issue involved or to point to a fresh line of approach in the search for the probable answer.

In the interest of ready reference, it is

best to begin with a translation of the source passages referred to above.⁵⁰ Variant readings are in square brackets.

Many of those well acquainted with their (pseudo-historical tales of Abid [cUbaid] ibn Sharyah and others of the court of Mu^cāwīyah)⁵¹ state that these akhbār are apographal, embellished, and fabricated, strung together by those who drew nigh to the kings by relating them and who duped their contemporaries with memorizing and reciting them (as authentic. They state, furthermore), that they are of the same type as the books which have been transmitted to us and translated for us from the Persian [Pahlavi], Indian and Greek—books composed in like manner as the above mentioned—such as the book of Hazār Afsāna, or translated from the Persian to the Arabic of a Thousand Khurāfāt, (fantastic tales) for khurāfa in Persian is called afsāna. The people call this book A Thousand Nights [and a Night]. It is the story of the king and the wazir and his daughter and her nurse for maid, or sister, or the wazir and his two daughters] named Shīrāzād [Shīrazād] and Dīnāzād [Dīnārazād] and such as the Book of Farza [Jalicad] and Shīmās and what is in it of the stories of the kings of India and their wazirs. And such as the Book of Sindbād and other books of this nature.52

The *Fihrist* passage reads as follows:

The first who made separate compilations of *khurāfāt* into books and placed these latter into libraries and in some gave speaking parts to beasts were the early Persians. Thereafter the Ashghanian kings, who were the third

⁴⁸ For his bibliography on the *Nights*, cf. Victor Chauvin, *Bibliographie des ouvrages arabes*, IV (1900), 1-2

⁴⁹ See *ibid.*, Vol. IV, for the earlier bibliographical materials; for the more recent studies cf. J. Oestrup, *Studien über 1001 Nacht* (1891), trans. O. Rescher (Stuttgart, 1925), Foreword (not paginated), and pp. 5–21 (3–26 in the original Danish); Enno Littmann, *Die Erzählungen aus den Tausend und Ein Nächten* (6 vols.; Leipzig, 1928), VI, 770–71.

⁵⁰ There are several textual difficulties involved in these passages. This in turn has resulted in somewhat varying translations. I shall make grateful use of those offered by de Sacy and Macdonald, altering them only where the text in its context would seem to demand the change.

⁴¹ Abīd ibn Sharyah, Akhbār (Hayderabad, 1347/1928-9), paginated consecutively with Wahb ibn Munabbih's Kitāb al-Tijān, pp. 312-13; cf. Brockelman, Suppl., I, 100-101.

⁵² Mas'ūdī, Murūj al-Dhahab, IV, 90-91; cf. Silvestre de Sacy, "Les Mille et une nuits," Mémoires de l'Académie royale des inscriptions et belles-lettres, X (1833), 30-64, esp. pp. 38-41, 62-64; Duncan Black Macdonald, "The Earlier History of the Arabian Nights," JRAS, 1924, pp. 353-97, esp. pp. 362-63.

dynasty of kings of Persia, became deeply absorbed in these. Thereafter that (kind of books) increased and spread in the days of the Sassanian kings. The Arabs translated these into the Arabic tongue. Then the eloquent and the rhetoricians took them in hand and revised them and re-wrote them in elegant style and composed, along the same idea, books that resembled them.

The first book that was made along this (khurāfāt) idea was the book of Hazār Afsāna which means a Thousand Khurāfāt. The reason for its composition was that one of their kings whenever he had married a woman and passed a night with her, killed her on the morrow. Presently he married a maiden of royal descent, possessed of understanding and knowledge, who was called Shahrāzād. And when she was first with him, she began telling him khurāfāt carrying the story along at the end of the night in such a way as to lead the king to preserve her alive and to ask her on the following night for the completion of the story until she had passed a thousand nights. . . . And the king had a stewardess (qahramānah) who was called Dīnārzād and she assisted her in that.

The truth is—Allah willing—that the first to whom stories were told at night was Alexander the Great. He had people who used to make him laugh and tell him *khurāfāt*, not that he was seeking pleasure thereby but only as a means of keeping vigilant and on his guard. After him the kings used for that purpose the book of *Hazār Afsāna*. It contains a thousand nights and less than two hundred night stories, for the narration of a story often lasted through several nights. I have seen it in its entirety several times. It is in reality a worthless book of silly tales.

Ibn 'Abdūs al-Jahshiyārī, the author of Kitāb al-Wuzarā', began to compile a book in which he made choice of a thousand night-stories, alf samar, out of the night-stories of the Arabs, Persians, Greeks, and others, each part independent in itself and unconnected with another. He summoned the tellers of night-stories and took from them the best of what they knew and in which they excelled. Then he selected from books of night stories and khurā-fāt what was to his taste and what was supe-

rior. So, out of all these, he brought together 480 nights, for each night a complete story consisting of fifty pages, more or less. But death overtook him before he had accomplished his intention of completing (the collection of) a thousand night-stories. I have seen several parts of the collection in the handwriting of Abū al-Ṭaiyib the brother of al-Shāfī-ī.

Now previous to this (activity of Ibn cAbdūs) there were a group of men who composed night-stories and *khurāfāt* giving speaking parts to people, birds, and beasts. Among them were cAbd Allah ibn al-Muqaffac, Sahl ibn Harūn and cAlī ibn Daɔūd the secretary of Zubaidah, and others. 53

Before going any further with these and other early sources, it is possible to settle definitely, on the evidence of the earlier text of our manuscript, some of the controversies relative to the original title of the *Nights*, to the names of the two women in the frame story, and to these women's relationship each to the other.

First as to the title. Though Mascūdī and Nadīm both equate a "thousand afsāna" with a "thousand khurāfāt," neither mentions specifically an Arabic book, translated or original, bearing the title of a Thousand Khurāfāt. Furthermore, Mascūdī states that in his day the Arabic translation of the Hazār Afsāna circulated among the people under the Arabic title of Alf Lailah. Our manuscript fragment also yields the title Alf Lailah. This would seem to indicate that the change from a "thousand khurāfāt" to a "thousand nights" was made either at the time of the first translation of the $Haz\bar{a}r$ $Afs\bar{a}na$ or more probably became currently popular soon after. This is understandable if one recalls the leading role originally given to the night in the very inception of the Hazār Afsāna and the long tradition of relating at night not only the

⁵² Fihrist, p. 304; Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 364–66. For some of the "others" mentioned by Nadīm in passing, cf. below, p. 155,

khurāfāt or fantastic tales but also the akhbār—or legends and quasi-historical tales—as well as the asmār or nightstories proper. These three categories of tales, whatever their distinctive character and precise differences, have, nevertheless, much in common. It is therefore not surprising that they soon came to share the night between them. Perhaps in a moment of passing insight, some of the eloquent rhetoricians referred to in the passage translated above made the change to the appropriate and pleasantly alliterative title of Alf Lailah or A Thousand Nights.⁵⁴ It is not clear when this title vielded in turn to the longer Alf Lailah wa Lailah, A Thousand and One Nights. But inasmuch as the number "a thousand and one" is absent in the Fihrist passage quoted, it is improbable that any Arabic book of night-stories bore this longer title before the end of the fourth century of the Hijrah or the tenth century of our era.⁵⁵

It is unfortunate that our fragment does not yield the name of the storyteller herself. However, in giving the dotted form of the name of her companion, it not only settles that issue but also provides a likely clue to the original Persian name of the heroine. It makes certain that the companion's name was Dīn-āzād and not Dunyāzād nor yet Dīnārazād. Furthermore, Dīnāzād is actually met with in the greater number of the manuscripts

of Mascūdī's text, and this usually in combination with Shīrāzād—a fact which led de Sacy to accept these as the original forms.⁵⁶ Thus in eliminating Dunvāzād, "World Freer," doubt is thrown on the form neatly coupled with it, namely, Shahrāzād, "City Freer." Two such names could well belong to two sisters, though one would expect the older to be called Dunyāzād and the younger Shahrāzād. But they would hardly be bestowed, in the same household, on the daughter of the house and on her nurse or maid even in this second order, let alone the first. It is to be further noted that in the known manuscripts of Mascūdī's text, the names Dīnāzād and Shīrāzād are met with more frequently in combination with dāyah, "foster-mother" or "wet-nurse" and jāriyah, "maid-servant," than with ukht, "sister."57 These names sharing the word āzād, "free, pure, noble," between them are distinguished by $d\bar{\imath}n$, "religion, faith," and by shīr, "lion." One may freely translate Dīnāzād as "of noble religion" or "pure in faith"—a quality much sought after in trusted personal servants for the young—and Shīrāzād as "Lionhearted." The lion itself being the symbol of Persian royalty and courage, this latter name is aptly descriptive of both the royal birth and the outstanding personal courage of the heroine of the Nights.

In the Oriental Institute manuscript Dīnāzād addresses the heroine as her "delectable one." Now an older sister may use this and similar romantic terms of endearment toward a younger sister; but in

 $^{^{54}}$ Cf. Oestrup, pp. 86–87. (119–20), where he seems at a loss to explain this change.

ss For the different early views on these numbers, their changes and their significance, cf. Oestrup, pp. 84–87 (116–21) and Littmann, VI, 696–97. See also Richard Burton, Nights, X, 75. The edition available to me gives no place and date of publication. It is, nevertheless, the ten volumes of The Book of a Thousand Nights and a Night and the seven volumes of The Supplemental Nights, published by the so-called "Burton Club"—a nom de plume of a certain Boston publisher—presumably in Boston, in 1903. It is, except for splitting Volume III of the Supplemental Nights into two volumes, a facsimile of the original Benares edition of 1885–88; cf. Norman M. Penzer, An annotated Bibliography of Sir Richard Francis Burton (London, 1923), pp. 126, 130–32.

⁵⁶ Op. cit., pp. 38-41, 62-64.

⁵⁷ The fact that qahramānah, "stewardess," does not seem to appear in any copy of Mas'ūdī's text would seem to indicate that the word is either a later addition or else belongs with Nadīm's version of the frame story which makes Shīrāzād's companion not one who accompanied her from her father's home, but a woman of the king's household. But in the latter case she would be a stranger and therefore not likely to be so familiar or affectionate with the heroine as our text implies.

all oriental countries, up to very modern times, etiquette demanded that a younger sister show due respect rather than lighthearted affection in addressing an older sister or any other older person for that matter. On the other hand, wet-nurses and personal maids generally make use of a long list of fantastic and superlative endearments in speaking to or of their precious charges. Thus the use of this early ninth-century fragment of the Nights to control⁵⁸ and supplement the next earliest reference to the collection, namely, Mascūdī's account of more than a century later, permits us to conclude that in the earliest Arabic version of the Nights the names of the two women in the frame work were Shīrāzād and Dīnāzād and that the latter was almost certainly not a younger sister but an older nurse.59

The contribution of the precious fragment so far, significant as it is, is minor in comparison to the light that the manuscript throws on the much wider problems of the origin and early evolution of the Nights. Here two major lines of approach need to be followed and explored. The first leads to the consideration of the time and the nature of the first impact of the Persian Hazār Afsāna on the Arabic literary world. The second seeks the steps in the subsequent development of the Nights up to Nadīm's time, that is, the late tenth century of our era. 60

The passages from Mascūdī and Nadīm already translated above need to be sup-

plemented at this point with other materials from these same early authors and from a few others. It is Mascūdī who informs us that the first wave of literary and scientific translation among the Arabs took place in the reign and under the patronage of the Abbāsid caliph Manşūr (A.H. 135-58/A.D. 754-75). Among the books then translated was that of Kalīlah and Dimnah which Nadīm includes, along with the Hazār Afsāna, in his section on khurāfāt and asmār.61 Some of the other books mentioned in these passages as of the same category as the Hazār Afsāna are also known to have been translated in the eighth century. These facts led several scholars to accept the translation of the Hazār Afsāna itself either in Mansūr's time or soon after as not at all improbable. Oestrup went as far as to suggest that an Arabic Nights bearing the title mentioned by Mascūdī already existed at the beginning of the ninth century.62 On the other hand, other noted scholars have insisted that Mascūdī's passages yield nothing definite beyond the fact of the existence of an Arabic Nights in the early tenth century and that Ibn Abdus' (d. 331/942) unfinished collection of about the same time represents the first attempt to edit and literalize the Arabian Nights. Broadly stated, the two points of view have over a century as a major issue between them.63

The Oriental Institute manuscript, itself of the early ninth century, establishes beyond a doubt the existence of an Arabic version of the *Nights* at that time. But it does much more than that by virtue of its literary style and the nature of its text. These latter, when tested by Nadīm's

⁵⁸ It is to be noted that this control can be extended up to a point and used as a factor in determining the relative chronological age of the available manuscripts of this section of Mas'ūdi's Murūj and of the relevant section of Nadim's Fihrist.

⁵⁹ de Sacy, in his reconstruction of Mas'ūdi's text, arrived at these same conclusions; cf. above, p. 150.

⁶⁰ The equally wide and fascinating problem of the origin and earlier history of the Hazār Afsāna itself, on the one hand, and of the post-tenth-century development of the Nights, on the other, fall outside the scope of the contribution of the Oriental Institute manuscript.

⁶¹ Mascūdī, VIII, 290-91; Fihrist, pp. 304-5.

⁶² Op. cit., p. 91 (126); cf. below, pp. 160-61.

⁶³ Oestrup summarizes the arguments, pro and con, on these points up to his time; cf. esp., pp. 9, 80–82, 91, 99, 105–6 (9, 111–14, 126, 137, 146–47) and corrects on p. 81 (112) Manṣūr's dates to read not 712–55 but 754–75. For more recent developments in both camps, cf. Littmann, VI, 695–96, 705–6.

three evolutionary stages of this class of Arabic literature in general and, by logical and justified inference, also of the Nights in particular, are seen already to have passed the initial stage of literal translation to those of literary revision and of creative imitation. For the brief passage is certainly written in an elegant style already familiar in the second century of the Hijrah or eighth century of our era. This is the literary device of $A dd\bar{a}d$, the treatment of a subject and its opposite, or the treatment of the same subject pro and con.64 Again, the text, while not necessarily excluding tales of non-Arabic origin, does definitely specify Syrian and Bedouin stories cast within the framework of the Hazār Afsāna. This is evidence enough of Nadīm's third stage, namely, creative imitation. That this stage should have been already reached by the early ninth century is further evidence that the Hazār Afsāna must have made its first impact on the Arabic literary world in Mansūr's time or very soon thereafter.

Again, attention must be drawn to the accumulative evidence, including the emphasis of the text on Syrian tales, that points to Syria as the provenance of our manuscript. ⁶⁵ It would be strange indeed if the capital province of 'Irāq, where Persian influence was certainly greater than in Syria, had not kept up with the latter in production of this type of literature. It becomes necessary here to consider at some length the relationship of the Oriental Institute manuscript to the still earlier Arabic manuscripts of the *Nights*, the

contemporary existence of which is demanded by the very nature of our manuscript. For it is reasonable to expect that the very first attempt to put into written form any or all of what was to be an Arabic Nights, either by direct translation from or by imitation of the Hazār Afsāna, would certainly call for the inclusion of an adequate introduction that would give the setting and the framework for these tales. Our manuscript, intact in its title-page, pious invocation, and short introductory paragraph, nevertheless lacks this necessary complete introduction. Its title is not a clear-cut Kitāb Alf Lailah, "Book of a Thousand Nights";66 it plunges headlong into a "following night" without any setting for the tales; and it uses part only of a known framework that it does not itself introduce or explain. These are factors that indicate that the man behind the manuscript, be he author, compiler, or copyist, meant to produce nothing more than either an actual "selection" from the Nights or new tales intended to pass as a "selection" from that work. The great probability is that our manuscript is in the tradition of other likewise partial compilations, these being either descendants of or accretions to an earlier manuscript version(s) containing the necessary introduction with the complete framework. It is highly probable, therefore, that the parent Arabic Nights originated in Iraq and that 'Irāq itself had its own "selections" in circulation by the beginning of the ninth or the end of the eighth century. It is perhaps too much to hope that any of these have survived.

Again the Oriental Institute manuscript is a starting point for the tracing of the development of the Nights through the ninth century and up to Ibn Abdūs' collection of night-stories in the early tenth century. The accelerated speed and

 $^{^{64}}$ For late second- and early third-century works of these types produced by some of the outstanding scholars of the day, including $A_{\rm S}$ and $(d.\ 216/831)$ and $J\bar{\rm a}hi_2$ (d. 255/869), and written from linguistic and literary points of view, cf. Brockelmann, op. cit., I, 103, 105, 117, 153, and Suppl. I, 167, 246, and 249; August Haffner, Drei Arabische Quellenwerke über die $^{\rm A}{\rm A}d\bar{\rm d}\bar{\rm a}d$ (Beirut, 1913).

⁶⁵ Cf. above, pp. 144-45.

⁶⁶ Cf. above, p. 132.

increasing momentum of the many faceted literary movement that had already produced an Arabic Nights by the late eighth, or at the most early ninth, century continued to grow throughout the period under consideration. The ninth and tenth centuries yielded a literary harvest that was not to be surpassed in the entire history of Islam. Copius literary evidence indicates that the lighter literature, the khurāfāt and asmār to which class the Nights belong, shared all along the way in this rapid and extensive movement, though generally on a somewhat lower level of respectability. The list of those who contributed to it is quite impressive for its continuity from the last of the reign of the Umayyad caliph Mucawiyah (41-60/661-80) to the reign of the Abbasid caliph Muqtadir (295–320/908–32). It is equally impressive for the rich diversity and the caliber of some of its contributors, several of whom were polyglots engaged in translations from the Greek and the Persian. There is little to be gained in giving here the long list of names and dates of all of these: suffice it to say that they included Abid ibn Sharyah of the court of Mu^cāwiyah, ⁶⁷ Jablah ibn Sālim⁶⁸ of the time of Hishām (105-25/724-43), Ibn al-Muqaffa⁶⁹ of the reign of Manşūr (135–58/754–75), al-Atābī⁷⁰ and Hishām al-Kalbī⁷¹ of the reign of Hārūn al-Rashīd (170-93/786-809), Mufaddal ibn Salama (c. 250/865), 72 Ahmad ibn Abī Ţāhir (d. 280/893), 73 Ibn Abdūs (d. 321/942), 74 and Ḥamzah al-Işfahānī (d. 360/970).

It is the tenth century with its Mascūdī

and Nadīm, as already seen, that yields the most significant literary references to this entire class of literature. Three other references from this same century supplement, in some measure, our still too scanty knowledge. Sūlī, court scholar and tutor to Prince Mohammed, son of the caliph Muqtadir, writing in 320/932, reports the following incident. In the midst of a lesson on Arabic literature tutor and pupil were rudely disturbed when servants from the palace of grandmother Shaghab walked silently in, collected all the young prince's books, and departed with them, leaving Mohammed in a rage. Sūlī calmed his young charge and future caliph, al-Rādī (322-29/934-40), by pointing out that the queen and her party were probably checking on his reading and that he should not object to this opportunity of letting it be known that his books were of the very best. Several hours later the servants returned with the books to be greeted by the prince with, "Tell them who sent you, 'You have seen these books and found them to be books of tradition, jurisprudence, poetry, language, history, and the works of the learned—books through the study of which God causes one to benefit and to be complete. They are not like the books which you read excessively such as The Wonders of the Sea, The Tale of Sindbād, and The Cat and the Mouse.' "75

The second reference comes from the pen of Ḥamzah al-Iṣfahānī, who informs us in his general history (finished in 350/961) that Alexander the Great, after his conquest of Persia, divided the country into petty kingdoms under the Ashganian kings who thereafter engaged not in war but in contests of difficult questions, "so that in their days were composed the books which are now in the hands of the people, such as the Book of Marūk, and

⁶⁷ Cf. above, p. 150, n. 51, and Fihrist, pp. 89-90.

⁶⁸ Fihrist, pp. 305, 244-45.

⁶⁹ Ibid., pp. 305-6, 118.

⁷⁰ Ibid., pp. 308, 121.

⁷¹ Ibid., p. 97.

⁷² Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 371-72.

⁷³ Fihrist, pp. 308, 146-47.

⁷⁴ Ibid., p. 305; cf. Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 367-72, for general analysis of Fihrist, pp. 305-13.

⁷⁵ Akhbār al-Rādī wa al-Muttaqī (from K. al-Awrāq, ed. J. Heyworth Dunne [Cairo, 1354/1935], pp. 5-6).

the Book of Sindbad, and the Book of Barsanās and the Book of Shimās and the like, about seventy books in all." Here quite obviously Hamzah is dealing with the same khurāfāt and asmār literature with which Mascūdī and Nadīm are concerned. He in part confirms and in part supplements both of these authors' accounts, particularly in his mentioning specific titles and in giving a general estimate of the number of foreign books of that type current in the first half of the tenth century. It would seem therefore that he was readily acquainted with the history of this literature if not indeed with its current supply. His context, he may have felt, did not call for more than this passing remark. At any rate we know that he was interested in the Arab and Jewish counterpart of this same literature; for he is eager to add from the Persian stock of such tales one that was as yet unknown to the Arabs and places this story in the same class as the Arab tales of Luqman ibn Ad and the Jewish tales of Ūj and Bulūqiyā.⁷⁷ Again he selects a list of Arab khurāfāt that had given rise to proverbs still current in his day and appends these to his larger work of Arabic proverbs.⁷⁸ Hamzah, therefore, must have been acquainted with both the Persian Hazār Afsāna and the Arabic Alf Lailah, both of which, according to Mascūdī's account, were popular among the people in Hamzāh's own day. 79 It is therefore not unlikely that some of his unpublished works may vet reveal with certainty both the fact and the extent of his familiarity with these particular works.

The third reference is to the *Hazār Afsāna* itself, but only as typifying the entire class of *khurāfāt*. It comes from Tauḥīdī, who, writing in 374/984, characterizes these narratives as "containing unfounded statements, mixed with the impossible, conjoined to the marvelous and the entertaining, and incapable of derivation and verification." There is also the implication that such tales are particularly enjoyed by women and youths.⁸⁰

The next problem for consideration is the absence of more frequent and specific mention of the Arabic Alf Lailah in works of Arabic literature. Hitherto this problem has centered largely on the scarcity of materials from the late tenth century onward, for those who interpreted Mascūdī's reference to mean that the first Arabic Nights took form about his own time, dismissed the question of earlier references as irrelevant. On the other hand, those who believed Mascūdī's passage to mean an eighth-century translation of the Hazār $Afs\bar{a}na$ and a ninth-century Arabic AlfLailah seem to have tacitly assumed the loss of earlier references to both these books including Mascūdī's own sources. But now that we know definitely of the existence of an Arabic Nights between the late eighth and the early ninth centuries, attention needs to be focused as much on this lack of tangible pre-tenth-century references as on their subsequent rarity.81 Allowing for some necessary time lag between the appearance of a literary phenomenon and its subsequent treatment by literary historians, the eighth century is

 $^{^{76}}$ $Ta^{2}rikh$ ("Analium"), ed. J. M. E. Gottwaldt (2 vols.; Lipsica, 1848), I, 41-42; cf. Oestrup, pp. 30-31; Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 361-62.

⁷⁷ Ta²rīkh, I, 64; cf. Eugen Mittwoch, "Die literarische Tätigkait Ḥamza al-Iṣbahānīs," Mitteilungen des Seminars für orientalische Sprachen (MSOS), XII (1909), 140.

⁷⁸ Mittwoch, op. cit., pp. 141–47, and in MSOS, XVI (1913), 37–50. I have been unable to discover any urther work by Mittwoch on these as expected by Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, p. 362.

⁷⁹ Cf. Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 361-62.

 $^{^{80}}$ Tauḥīdī, $Al\text{-}Imt\bar{a}^c$ wa $al\text{-}Mu^{\flat}\bar{a}nasah,$ I, 23. I am indebted to Professor Von Grunebaum for this reference.

 $^{^{81}}$ For the few later references to either the $Haz\bar{a}r$ $Afs\bar{a}na$ or the $Alf\ Lailah$, cf. Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 367, 379–80, 390; Littmann, VI, 697; Oestrup, p. 98 (135–36).

obviously too early to expect much from it in this respect.⁸² Not so the ninth century. One wonders, for instance, if the movement could have really escaped the

⁸² There is a tantalizing reference to an Alf Lailah by al-Aşma^ci (122-216/739-831) that is reported by

E. J. W. Gibb in Burton (Supplemental Nights, III, 41-

42) and passed over by both without comment. The reference itself is made by the Turkish author 'Alî 'Azīz Efendī of Crete in his Mukhayyalāt-i Ledun-i Illāhī ("Phantasms from the Divine Presence"), written in 1211/1796-97 and published at Constantinople in 1268/1851-52. The author cites as his source (Turkish text, p. 3), a Khulāşat al-Khayāl, "Extracts of Phantasms," compiled from the Syriac, Hebrew, and other languages. He adds: "When it had been entirely perused and its strange matter considered, as one would from an esoteric scrip or a philosophic volume, such as would cause heedfulness and consideration, and yield counsel and admonition, like the 'Ibret-numā of Lami and the Elf Leyle of Aşma (الف اللملي) in the Turkish text), certain of the strange stories and wonderful tales of the book were selected and separated, and having been arranged, dervishfashion in simple style, were made the adornment of the pen of composition and offered to the notice of them of penetration. For all that this book is of the class of phantasms, still, as it has been written in conformity with the position of the readers of these times, it is of its virtues that its perusal will of a surety dispel sadness of heart" (cf. Burton, op. cit., III, 41-47, for Gibb's extracts, in translation, and comments).

The resulting Mukhayyalāt contains three phantasms, each consisting of a principal story supported by several subordinate tales. These, in their style and objective, seem to have much in common with the allegorical romances in verse and prose of the famed Lāmi'ī (d. between 1530 and 1532) (cf. E. J. W. Gibb, A History of Ottoman Poetry [6 vols.; London, 1900-9], III, 20-34, 353-74). The 'Ibret-numā (not available to me) is a prose romance characterized by Gibb as "a collection of wild and fantastic allegories" (ibid., III, 21). The Mukhayyalāt indeed justifies its title and carries out the main objective of the author who presents us with highly imaginative and fairly entertaining romances wherein pious men "yield counsel and admonition" through the exercise of supernatural powers. Not only is there a common ground between these phantasms and the didactic and supernatural elements of the Nights, but the first phantasm (Turkish text, pp. 3-73) actually consists largely of tales from the following stories of the Nights: Qamar al-Zaman and Prince Amjad, The Enchanted Horse, and Zain al-Asnām, all woven into one cycle. Thus while the author's reference to the Alf Lailah is not inappropriate, his crediting Aşmacı with an edition of that work remains somewhat a puzzle. That Aşma'î edited a "Thousand Nights" which remained unknown and unnoticed through the centuries before and after 'Alī 'Azīz Efendī seems hardly possible. On the other hand, in view of the Oriental Institute manuscript confirming the existence of a "Thousand Nights" in Asma's own day, it does not seem improbable that this famed and prolific scholar made reference to the collection in some of his works still unknown to us. The answer may

attention of the encyclopedic Jāḥiẓ (d. 255/869), whose unusual talents were most certainly appreciated by Mascūdī⁸³ among many others. Be that as it may, the reason for this marked rarity of reference early or late to the *Alf Lailah* is to be sought, up to a point, in influences that are common to both periods.

The main factors to consider in this respect are the very nature of this khurāfāt literature and its standing among the Arabs. Khurāfah, from whom this class of story takes its name, is supposed to have been a contemporary of Mohammed to whom, among others, he related his experiences in the world of the jinns. Mohammed, in turn, is said to have repeated this and similar tales to Aishah and the other members of his harem. Khurāfah's story as reported by Mufaddal ibn Sa $lama^{84}$ (ca. 250/865) is an artless tale with no line drawn between the worlds of the jinn, man, and other creatures wherein any one of these may assume not only the characteristics but also the form of the other. Whether the Khurāfah-Mohammed link is an invention or not, the tale itself was definitely known in the last quarter of the eighth century, 85 hence affording, along with similar tales, ready basis for comparison with the Persian Afsāna, "wherein speaking parts were given to beasts," as Nadīm informs us. There is, of course, no question of their widespread and increasing popularity from the ninth

or may not be in 'Alī 'Azīz's source, the $Khul\bar{a}sat$ al- $Khay\bar{a}l$ which title, however, is not to be found in either Ḥajī Khalifah or Brockelmann.

Since the above note was written, Dr. Von Grunebaum has kindly loaned me his "advance" complimentary copy of a more recent and critical analysis of the $Mukhayyal\bar{a}t$ and its sources, though this, too, throws no more light on the $Khul\bar{a}sat$ $al-Khay\bar{a}l$ (cf. Andreas Tietze, "Azīz Efendis Muhayyelat," Oriens, I [1948], 248–329, esp. pp. 308 ff.).

⁸³ Murūj, VIII, 33-35.

⁸⁴ Fākhir, ed. C. A. Storey (Leyden, 1915), pp. 137–40; for translation and comment, cf. Macdonald *JRAS*, 1924, pp. 372–79.

⁸⁵ See preceding note.

century on, but generally on the level of folk tales that were considered good enough media for the amusement and instruction of the ignorant and frivolous and of women and children, but seldom considered sufficiently dignified for the serious attention of reputable littérateurs and scholars. 86 Thus this somewhat paradoxical situation: the khurāfāt, along with other imaginative and fantastic fiction, though growing more and more popular, fell increasingly to the lot of little known and/or anonymous writers. Only on rare occasions were they to be rescued for mention in the historical record by either the unusually curious or the exceptionally cosmopolitan and encyclopedic authors. Thus one can understand, at one and the same time, Rādī's contemptuous reference to sea adventures and animal fables. Mascūdī's guarded yet critical account of legendary akhbār and Nadīm's poor opinion of the Hazār Afsāna. And since all these elements were to be found in the Alf Lailah, this representative collection par excellence went merrily rolling along all over the Moslem world, flourishing in its anonymity, cherished by the common man, and ignored by the highbrow, down almost to our own times.

But what of the content of the earliest Arabic Nights? Here the evidence of the Oriental Institute fragment, direct or indirect, is more general than specific. But, as will be seen presently, it is, nevertheless, highly significant. As already stated in the section on the "when" of the fragment, this latter represents the last stage outlined in Nadīm's account, namely, imitation, and therefore presupposes an Arabic translation of the Hazār Afsāna. It becomes necessary now to consider its

⁸⁶ Cf. Macdonald, *JRAS*, 1924, pp. 368–71, where he is right to emphasize the acceleration of these factors from the ninth century on but fails to point out that the situation was inherent in the Arab's general outlook on this as on all types of highly fantastic and imaginative fiction.

bearing on some of the points in a related group of long-standing controversial questions. Was this Arabic translation a literal one or merely a paraphrase? Was it complete or partial? And did this translated material, whatever its literary style and extent, constitute the first Arabic Nights or was this latter a combination of Persian and Arabic elements? Or, again, was the first Arabic collection genuinely Arabian consisting entirely of Arabic stories and borrowing only the framework and a modified version of the Introduction of the Hazār Afsāna. In that case there would have to be two separate but contemporary collections of the Nights: the earlier Hazār Afsāna current in Mascūdī's time in an Arabic version entitled Alf Lailah and an imitative but distinctly separate collection of Arabic stories bearing the same title. Were definite answers to all these general questions forthcoming, there would still be the further problem of identifying the specific tales, Persian, Arabic, or both, that would be involved at any given point.

We turn again to our fragment, this time in search of clues to the general nature of the collection it represents and to the specific story or cycle of stories that headed the manuscript itself. It will be recalled that lines 10-11 of the text emphasize Syrian and Bedouin Arab tales. However, there is nothing in the text itself that would necessarily exclude stories of other localities, Arab or otherwise, since the insān of line 9 is meant for MAN, Homo sapiens. Hence, it is quite possible that the present "selection" of the Nights could have contained tales of Arab and of foreign origin, the most probable sourse of the latter being the Hazār Afsāna because of its close affinity with the Alf Lailah. Yet there is no reason to exclude the possibility of other foreign sources of the same category as contributing to the

Arabic Nights even at this early stage. It seems reasonably certain that the theme of the first story in the manuscript is makr. It is to be noted that this word makr and its synonym kaid are used in their numerous shades of meaning as artifice, cunning, trick, wile, ruse, strategem, craft, deceit, and malice throughout the Nights, in connection with both men and women, though the latter are portrayed as more cunning, crafty, and malicious than the men. Makr is a theme alike for short anecdotes as for longer stories and for entire cycles of stories. The probability is that it is one of these latter that is involved in our manuscript. Among the tales generally considered as part of the $Haz\bar{a}r \ Afs\bar{a}na$ and one that also has the craft and malice of women for a theme is the story of Qamar al-Zamān and the Lady Budur. The same theme plays a major role in two cycles of tales that existed in the eighth century as works similar to, but independent of, the Hazār Afsāna, but that were later incorporated into the Arabic Nights, though how much later is precisely the question that concerns us at this point. These two are the well-known book-sized stories of King Jalīcād (or Farza and other variants) and his wazir Shimās (or Shīmās) and the story of Sindbād the Sage (as distinguished from Sindbād the Sailor) known also as the story of "The King and His Seven Wazirs." In this latter the long cycle of tales revolves around Sindbād's reputation as the wisest tutor and preceptor of his day and around the clever stratagems and craft of both men and women, kaid or makr al-rijāl as contrasted with *kaid* or makr al- $nis\bar{a}$. It is, therefore, the story of human craft par excellence. The book enjoyed an early popularity comparable to that of Kalīlah wa Dimnah. Along with this latter, it was cast from Arabic prose into Arabic verse by Abān al-Lāḥiqī (d. 200/815).87 The prose version must therefore have been readily available in the period before our manuscript to which it is time to return.

The lost space in line 13 of the text could easily accommodate any one of the following phrases:

```
اعن قمر الزمان وذ] كرة , of Qamar al-Zamān and his fame; وعن قمر الزمان وذ] كرة , of King Jali (or some variant of the name) and his fame; وذ] كرة , of Shīmās the wazir and his fame; وذ] كرة أحن شيماس الوزير وذ] كرة , of Sindbād the Sage and his fame; or واعن كيم وذ] عن كيد الرجل و م]كرة وماكرة وماكرة
```

Line 15 could then be referring to the popular belief that women are more crafty than men, the obvious point of all three stories. In the story of Sindbād, the palace favorite, herself guilty, seeks to prove that women are not so crafty and certainly not craftier than the men using the phrases in the men, "or in the men," or in the men, "or in the men," or in the men, "or in the men," or in the men," or in the men, "or in the men using the phrases."

than they" (masculine plural).88 This last phrase is actually in our text, line 15, preceded by y, "except, or else." Now if

⁸⁷ Cf. Nöldeke, ZDMG, XXXIII (1879), 513-27,
esp. pp. 518 and 521; Oestrup, pp. 82, 99 (113, 137);
Burton, X, 93; Josef Horovitz, ZDMG, LXV (1911),
287-88; Brockelmann, Suppl., I, 107, 219, 238-39.

⁸⁸ Cf. Alf Lailah wa Lailah, ed. Maximilian Habicht (12 vols.; Breslau, 1825–43), XII, 299; ed. W. H. Macnaghten (4 vols.; Calcutta, 1839–42), III, 142; (Bulāq, 1279/1823), III, 92.

we take lines 14 and 15 together, they would seem to be saying that either "a man becomes," if we read يصير, or "a woman becomes," if we read the feminine "more worthy," رحق, "or else more," crafty than other men" والا امكر منهم. This could mean that the comparison is either between men only or that it is between men and women. Considering the ever present battle of the sexes in some form or another in the society of the Nights, the probability is somewhat in favor of the second alternative. In that case the text would seem to be adequately describing a situation in the story of Sindbad the Sage. For the very first tale of the first wazir dramatizes the praiseworthy conduct of a virtuous woman who by a clever stratagem restrained the king from forcing his attentions on her in her husband's absence;89 but, ere the cycle of tales is done, woman is nevertheless proved to be more malicious than man.

If we have interpreted our meager clues correctly, then we have here the identification of the story and through the story proof that foreign sources other than the $Haz\bar{a}r$ $Afs\bar{a}na$ formed part of the earliest collection of the Nights in the late eighth or early ninth century. But so weighty a conclusion demands further corroborative evidence before it can be claimed as certain.

A more positive identification of the story of the Oriental Institute manuscript and of a group of stories contemporaneous with it can perhaps be arrived at through the combination of several or all of the elements afforded by the text, only one of which remains yet to be considered. This last is the sentence, "O my delectable one, if you are not asleep, relate to me

the story which you promised me," taken as a whole and also phrase by phrase. The first phrase has already been touched upon.90 The second, "if you are not asleep," appears, though not consistently, in some of the printed editions, 91 and the last, "the story which you promised me," like the first, has not been met with so far despite a liberal sampling of the printed editions. To put to the utmost use all our manuscript's textual data, the definite, the implied, and the uncertain, requires an exhaustive study of all extant manuscripts of the *Nights* with a view to forwarding their classification chronologically and geographically. This is quite obviously a task not to be lightly undertaken; for, aside from the time element, it calls for a scholar familiar with the history of the extant manuscripts of the Nights and experienced in their textual criticism. It is a task for one both willing and able to put to good use the late Professor Duncan Black Macdonald's magnificent collection of manuscript and printed editions of the Nights now in the library of the Hartford Theological Seminary.

Fortunately, we are not entirely dependent on the results of such a project before we can exhaust the evidence of our manuscript on the question of the content of the early Nights. The significance of early dates mentioned in the Nights has been for long a center of controversy. Some hold that these early dates, specific or implied by association with historic characters and events, are either errors of figures and/or names or else are later interpolations. Others again have inclined strongly toward the view that these dates are authentic and therefore significant both as the approximate date of the entry of the particular story in which they occur

⁸⁹ Nöldeke pointed out that this particular story had a basis in Persian history (*ZDMG*, XXXIV, 523); cf. also Oestrup, p. 29 (38).

⁹⁰ Cf. above, p. 152.

⁹¹ E.g., ed. Habicht, I, 31–32, 36–37, 41–42, 44–45, 49–50, 55; ed. Macnaghten, I, 25, 30.

in the Nights and of the nature of the content of the Nights as a whole. This latter view, fully and brilliantly presented by Oestrup, 92 points to the fisherman's statement, in the story of "The Fisherman and the Jinn," that Solomon had been dead these eighteen hundred years, to indicate that an Arabic version of the Hazār Af $s\bar{a}na$ existed as early as about A.D. 800, since in Moslem popular belief there is a thousand years between Solomon and Christ. Again, there is the statement of Abū Ḥasan of Khurāsān, that he fled from Baghdād to Basrah during the civil wars of Muntașir and Musta în (248–52/862– 66). Finally, there is the exactness of the date, Friday the tenth of Safar, 263/second November, 876, mentioned by the Barber of Baghdad in the Hunchback cycle. These confirmed Oestrup's belief in an early translation of the Hazār Afsāna, as already seen above, 93 and furthermore convinced him that a certain part of the Nights had already received its final form in the ninth century. Yet even he cautiously adds: "But although I am absolutely inclined to accept this, yet I dare not consider the matter as definitely certain; but it is not at all impossible that in the various manuscripts will be found materials that will provide a final solution to this complicated question."94

Little did anyone then dream of so dramatic a confirmation of his view and of so definite a solution to the problem as the Oriental Institute manuscript indeed supplies. For the very existence of such an early manuscript that also lays emphasis on the Arabic tales gives just that needed extra evidence in order to give full credence to these early internal dates. These dates, it must be noted, occur alike in the thoroughly Persian tale, despite its added Islamic color, of "The Fisherman and the

Jinn," the purely Arabic story of "Abū Ḥasan of Khurāsān," and in the Hunchback cycle which combines both Persian and Arabic elements. Hence, the combined evidence of our manuscript, of the literary sources, and of the text of the Arabian Nights as we now have them, leave no room to doubt the existence of a ninth-century version of the Nights that was composite in its content. The Hazār Afsāna, until definite proof to the contrary is forthcoming, must be considered as the one certain source of the Persian tales, with the Book of Sindbad and the Book of $Jali^{c}\bar{a}d$ and $Shim\bar{a}s$ as further probable sources. All foreign materials seem to have been Islamized in the process of adoption. So far as the Arabic elements of such a version are concerned, the great probability is that the pre-Islamic Arab materials competed with the Persian from the start, followed closely by the tales and anecdotes of the early caliphs and of the Umayyads and their times. As for tales and anecdotes of the early Abbasids, these were probably contemporaneous, or nearly so, with the characters and events to which they belong with few exceptions, the most outstanding of which being Hārūn al-Rashīd and his times (170–93/ 786–809). The stories that are woven around this caliph fall into two groups: those that actually refer to him and his courtiers and those that have been transferred to him from characters and events that came either before or after his reign. The first could well have found their way into manuscripts parent to or collateral with the Oriental Institute manuscript. The stories in the second group are necessarily later and the probability is that they found their way into the Nights singly or in groups, at different times and in different places. Those of Asiatic setting, controlled by other internal criteria, such as the absence or negligible presence of

⁹² Op. cit., pp. 88-92 (122-28).

⁹³ Cf. p. 153. 94 Op. cit., p. 91 (126).

the fantastic and the supernatural, as Nöldeke pointed out⁹⁵ had probably been absorbed into the Nights by the time of Ibn c Abdūs' collection in the early tenth century. Those of Egyptian color with the supernatural in control are almost certainly of later Egyptian origin.

Ibn 'Abdūs' cosmopolitan collection of the "night-stories of the Arabs, Persians, Greeks, and others" was unquestionably meant to be more inclusive than any other single collection of its kind. This is amply indicated by the multiplicity of the editor's sources both oral and written; by the contemplated number of stories—an exact thousand in contrast to the less than two hundred of the $Haz\bar{a}r Afs\bar{a}na$; and by the size of each story—some fifty pages more or less. It had a definite plan of organization, since the stories of each people were to be grouped together as a complete and independent unit. But unfortunately we do not know the exact title of this large collection of many volumes. Neither do we know the racial distribution of the 480 stories that were actually completed ere death overtook the editor and halted this magnificantly conceived but ill-fated project. Hence, the exact relationship, in respect to specific content, of this tenthcentury Alf Samar, "Thousand Night Stories," to the ninth-century Alf Lailah, "Thousand Nights," and the eighth-century Hazār Afsāna, "Thousand Fanciful Tales," remains uncertain to an even greater degree than does the comparable relationship of the Alf Lailah to the Hazār Afsāna. But in the over-all picture there can be no doubt that the incomplete Alf Samar borrowed largely from its two wellknown and popular predecessors and in turn contributed liberally to the international Alf Lailah wa Lailah that we know today.

Further rapid and certain progress relative to the what and whence of the Nights, particularly in the earlier stages of the collection, must await the discovery of new evidence. There still is the possibility, remote as it may seem, that the Egyptian soil or some obscure and neglected collection in either East or West may yet yield one or more of the following: the Persian Hazār Afsāna known to be still in existence in the eleventh century, 97 a more generous portion of the ninth-century Alf Lailah than our precious fragment proved to be, and a volume or more of the Alf Samar that were current in Nadīm's day. There is, however, the greater probability of finding an additional historical reference or two to one or all of these three works, particularly in the hitherto unpublished works of outstanding encyclopedists of the ninth and tenth centuries, such as Hishām al-Kalbī, Jāḥiz, Mascūdī, and Hamzah al-Isfahānī. 98 And, finally, there is the certainty of discovering an increasing number of literary parallels to the anecdotes and tales, particularly those of Arabic origin, that are in the *Nights*.

This brings us to the wider problem of the interrelationships of the Nights and the literary sources, using this latter phrase in the widest sense with the emphasis on literary, historical, and even scientific materials. The problem has been long recognized and in some of its many phases partly solved. But a renewed and intensified search for literary parallels is indicated, since availability of materials, published or in microfilm, is steadily increasing. The search may even bring to light some hitherto unknown or neglected manuscript that could compare to Jāhiz's

 $^{^{95}}$ Cf. $ZDMG,\; XLII,\; 68-72;\; Oestrup,\; pp. 72-79 (99-108).$

⁹⁶ Cf. above, p. 151.

 $^{^{97}}$ Oestrup, pp. 7, 81–82 (6, 112–13); Burton, X, 71, 93; Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 367, 397.

⁹⁸ Cf. above, pp. 155-56.

(pseudo) Maḥāsin, Mascūdī's Murūj and the $Agh\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, by far the most fruitful early sources of literary parallels yet known. Newly discovered parallels together with those already known could then be subjected to the test of textual literary criticism to determine, in so far as this is possible, which of these materials have a common source and which are more directly interdependent, being lifted, so to speak, from the literary sources into the Nights or even vise versa.99 Such a project should help to set close enough limits certainly a quo and probably also ad quem for most of the largely Arabic materials of the Nights. Hitherto little-known anthologies containing some parallels to the *Nights*, such as the Constantinople manuscript discovered by Ritter and described by Littmann¹⁰⁰ may prove to have been intermediary between earlier and later versions of the Nights as well as between earlier and later literary sources. It was some of these later works taken at their face value. at a time when earlier materials were either unknown or unavailable, that helped in misleading Lane to assign so late a date to the Arabian Nights. 101 But with our present knowledge of this problem of interrelationships, it does not seem at all improbable that some of these later sources known to him had themselves borrowed from the earlier Nights.

Having exhausted the evidence of the Oriental Institute manuscript, direct or indirect, specific or general, it is best to give here a summary of its contribution to the early history of the *Nights*. While the fragment does not settle all the long-standing controversies in the field, it definitely confirms the title *Alf Lailah* and the

name Dīnāzād and, by implication, also the name Shīrāzād and the relationship of the former to the latter as that of a nurse. It establishes with greater certainty than was hitherto possible an earlier origin and a more rapid and steady growth for the collection than was generally conceded. In these respects it confirms the general lines long discerned by von Hammer and Oestrup; for it was the former who first accepted an eighth-century Arabic translation of the Hazār Afsāna and the latter who was convinced that a composite section of the growing Nights had already attained a definite form in the ninth century.

Based on this firm foundation and the few subsequent literary references, it becomes possible to modify and supplement the general outline of the long history of the *Nights* as submitted by Macdonald.¹⁰² The successive steps in the evolution of the collection may be stated as follows:

- I. An eighth-century translation of the $Haz\bar{a}r$ $Afs\bar{a}na$. It is my belief this was most probably a complete and literal translation perhaps entitled Alf $Khur\bar{a}f\bar{a}t$.
- II. An eighth-century Islamized Arabic version of the *Hazār Afsāna* entitled *Alf Lailah*. This could have been either partial or complete.
- III. A ninth-century composite Alf Lailah containing both Persian and Arabic materials. While most of the former came undoubtedly from the Hazār Afsāna, other current story-books, especially the Book of Sindbād and the Book of Shimās, are not improbable sources. The Arabic materials, as Littmann has already pointed out, were not so slight or insignificant as Macdonald believed them to be.

IV. The tenth-century Alf Samar of Ibn Abdūs. Whether this was meant to

 $^{^{99}}$ Cf. Burton, X, 132–52; Suppl., VII, 426; C. C. Torrey, "The Story of 'Abbās ibn el-Ahnāf...," JAOS, XVI (1894), 44–70; Oestrup, pp. 35–36 (46–47); Macdonald, JRAS, 1924, pp. 358–61; Littmann, VI, 707 ff.

¹⁰⁰ Op. cit., VI, 692, 702-4.

¹⁰¹ See his "Review" at the end of his Vol. III.

 $^{^{102}}$ JRAS, 1924, pp. 390–91; cf. Littmann, VI, 705–7; for earlier grouping see, Burton, X, 93–94; Oestrup, pp. 106–9 (147–54).

include, among other materials, all the current *Alf Lailah*, and so supersede it, is not clear.

V. A twelfth-century collection augmented by materials from IV and by Asiatic and Egyptian tales of local Egyptian composition. The change of title to Alf Lailah belongs, in all probablity, to this period.

VI. The final stages of the growing collection extending to the early sixteenth century. Heroic tales of the Islamic countercrusades are among the most prominent additions. Persia and Irāq may have contributed some of the later predominantly Far Eastern tales in the wake of the thirteenth-century Mongol conquest of those lands. The final conquest of Mameluke Syria and Egypt by the Ottoman Salīm I (1512–20) closed the last chapter of the history of the Arabian Nights in its oriental home land.

Though the framework and an inkling of some of the stories of the Nights had found their way into Europe as early as the fourteenth century, 103 it was not until the turn of the eighteenth century that the collection itself was introduced into Europe by the Frenchman Jean Antoine Galland (1646–1715). Thereafter, the history of the Arabian Nights in its European domicile offers in several respects a subtle yet instructive parallel to the early history of the Nights. The Galland manuscript, like the Hazār Afsāna, has been translated, literally and otherwise. It has been, up to a point, Europeanized as the *Hazār* Afsāna was likewise Islamized. The initial edition represented by the Galland manuscript has grown and multiplied from generation to generation as did indeed the

103 Cf. Littmann, VI, 687-88.

original Hazār Afsāna from century to century. The Arabic manuscripts of Syria and Egypt, like the non-Arabic editions of the various countries of Europe, present us with a bewildering variety of versions and/or selections that abound, in part for this same reason, in differences as well as in duplications. And just as the Hazār Afsāna was imitated by the Arabs, so was the Arabian Nights at first imitated in the West. But, unlike their Arabic counterpart which united with the Hazār Afsāna, these Western imitations remained apart from the oriental collection. These broad historical parallels reflect a wide and steady demand and constitute an eloquent testimony to the lasting and universal appeal of the Arabian Nights.

If a major catastrophe—which Allah forfend!—were to overtake our world comparable in some measure to the progressive decline of the Perso-Arab world subsequent to the Mongol, Turkish, and Western conquests, the history of the Arabian Nights could again prove difficult indeed to piece together. And if in such a world a student of this subject, working with whatever atomic destruction may have chanced to spare, were to come on a few pages sketching a part of that history, he could hardly be more surprised or delighted than was the present writer when Oriental Institute No. 17618, a tattered paper fragment, proved to be the earliestknown manuscript of the Alf Lailah or "Thousand Nights" with a significance that far outweighed its size, and, for good measure, turned out to be also the earliest-known extant evidence of any paper book outside the ancient Far East.

ORIENTAL INSTITUTE
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO