Bei Postversand	bitte ausfüllen!
-----------------	------------------

☐ Druckreif nac	ch Berücksichtigung der	Änderungen	
Datum	Unterschrift		
☐ Ich erbitte	zusätzliche Sonderdr	ucke	
(Kosten pro Exemplar: € 0,20 × Seitenzahl; zzgl. Versand € 0,40)			
☐ Ich benötige	keine zusätzlichen Sond	derdrucke	

Spiritual Practice in the Arabic Hagiography of the Chinese Ğahrīya Sufi Order

By FLORIAN SOBIEROJ, Jena

Summary: The hagiography of the Chinese branch of the Naqšbandīya order of Islamic mysticism called Ğahrīya has been recorded, in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, in some Arabic and Persian language texts. These include stories about the founder of the Sufi order, Ma Mingxin (d. 1781), and his successors in the first few generations and many of the literary units revolve around the contemplative discipline declared obligatory for the followers of the brotherhood. Ma Xuezhi gives a description, in his Kitāb al-Ğahrī, of the works which include practices believed to have been transmitted to Mingxin during his sojourn on the Arab peninsula. Besides offering a positivist approach description of the practices on the basis of the hagiographical writings, some codicological reflections will also be included in the presentation.

1 Introduction

The hagiography of the Chinese branch of the Naqšbandīya order of Islamic mysticism called Jeherenye (of Arabic Čahrīya),¹ established mainly in the provinces of Gansu, Ningxia and Yunnan,² has been recorded in a small number of writings composed in the 19th and early 20th centuries in the Arabic, partly also in a hybrid Arabo-Persian language. The most important are the Rašahāt 熱什哈爾 of Guanli Ye 閱裏爺 Ma Xianzheng 馬先正 (d. 1862),³ Kitāb al-Ğahrī (Daotong shi zhuan 道統史傳) of Muḥammad Manṣūr Ma Xuezhi 馬學智 (d. 1923) and Manāqib (Mannageibu 曼納給佈) of ʿAbd al-Āḥad Zhan Ye 氊爺 (d. 1924).⁴ As the Arabo-Persian text of the Rašahāt, the oldest of these texts, is not generally accessible (however, a Chinese translation thereof has been published), I concentrate on the

¹ On the order see Fletcher 1995a, pp. 1–46; Aubin 1960–2004, pp. 491–572; Lipman 1997, pp. 85–93; Sobieroj 2016, pp. 133–169, 136, fn. 19 for further references.

² Cf. Saguchi 1960–2004a, vol. 4, pp. 553–555 ("Kansu"), 1960–2004b, vol. 11, pp. 346–347 ("Yunnan").

³ Cf. Ma Xin 馬鑫, pp. 180–181; Guanli Ye 1993, p. 7 (introd.).

⁴ Ma Xin 馬鑫, op. cit., p. 192.

hagiography as contained in the other two works (extant as facsimile manuscript editions and partly also in translation).⁵

The hagiography in the three above-mentioned works is made up mainly of stories about the founder of the Sufi order Ma Mingxin 馬明心 Wiqāyat-ullāh al-Guanchuanfūwī (d. 1781)⁶ and his successors in the first few generations. Many of the stories deal with the contemplative discipline declared obligatory for the followers of the brotherhood and they include mainly the following practices, all mentioned by MA XUEZHI in K. al-Ğahrī:

Recitation of Qur'ān and prayer formulas; <u>dikr</u>, i.e. remembrance of God, silently and vocally; chanting of 'canonical' texts <u>Muḥammas</u> and <u>Madā'iḥ</u> in praise of the prophet Muḥammad.

The canonical texts used in the practice which are designated as *jing* (經) in the Chinese translations of the hagiography are believed by the Ğahrīs to have been brought to them by their masters, from Arabia, i. e. Yemen. This provenance is confirmed by the stories in *K. al-Ğahrī* and *Manāqib* and it is implied in the *isnād* or list of authorities added to the *Madāʾiḥ*. The mode of recitation of the *Muḥammas* on the other hand is said to have been taught to Mingxin by "Ibn Zain, aš-Šaiḥ al-kabīr al-Yamanī", who initiated him into the Naqšbandīya Sufi order. In their perception, the masters of the Ğahrīya have stood in a line of initiatory transmission connecting them with the Arab representatives of Sufism, being united with them according to the formula *li qi* 寒七 wai ba 外入, 'seven masters from inside', i.e. Arabia, and 'eight masters from outside', i.e. China. 9

1.1 Terminology

Spiritual practice, in the Arabic hagiographical texts, has been subsumed under the generic term 'amal (work).¹⁰

⁵ Occasionally, the main body of the manuscript texts is interrupted by paratexts in the Chinese language transcribed in Arabic script, the so-called xiao(er)jing (cf. Sobieroj: Xiaojing and Manuscripts in Sino-Arabic script [forthcoming]).

⁶ Cf. Forbes 1960–2004, pp. 850–852; Sobieroj 2016, pp. 135–136.

⁷ To be identified with Muḥammad b. [al-]Zain, the brother of 'Abd al-Ḥāliq b. Zain b. M. 'Abd al-Bāqī al-Mizǧāǧī of Zabīd (d. 1740), not with the latter himself (against MA Tong 2000b, p. 90; cf. Sobieroj 2014, p. 105, fn. 56; id. 2016, p. 145, fn. 68).

⁸ The Naqšbandīya had been introduced to Zabīd by the Indian Sufi Tāğ ad-Dīn Zakarīyā' al-'Utmānī (d. 1640; Fletcher 1995a, p. 7) whose supporter was Muḥammad 'Abd al-Bāqī (Rеіснмитн 2009, p. 21), father of az-Zain (d. 1725); the latter authorized vocal dikr (Fletcher 1995a, pp. 24–25).

⁹ Cf. Ye Fudong 冶福東 2009, p. 167; Sobieroj 2016, p. 139, fn. 39.

¹⁰ Cf. Feng Zenglie 馮增烈 2007, p. 142; Yang Wanbao 楊萬寶 in Guanli Ye 1993, p. 11, fn.

In K. al-Ğahrī, p. 37 the practices are also referred to as 'ibāda (service, worship) or more specifically as *qurubāt* (i.e. works that make the disciple draw closer to God) and in the Chinese trans. the expressions gonggan 功干, gongxiu 功修 and gongke 功課 have been used (MANṣūR/MA 1997, pp. 23-24). The practitioners are called sālik (pl. sālikūna; MANSŪR 1933, p. 8), a term which is translated as xiugong 修功 bandaode ren. The term 'amal by extension also denotes the banquet (majlis al-'amal, walīma, yan 宴) which includes a meal and thereafter the collective performance of the ritual practice, done in the Sufi convent (gongbei, of Persian gubba) or in the house of a sympathizer with the Sufi order.

The practices were a means in Sufism to walk along the mystical way, tarīqa, a term that is also used to denote the Sufi order (menhuan 門宦), e.g. tarīga nagšbandīya, and tarīga was the bridge connecting law (šarī a) and mystical reality (haqīqa) which were considered inseparable (mutadāhila wa-mutamāziğa; Mansūr 1933, p. 8).

2 The practices

2.1 Connecting with the master in the heart

In order to be successful in his spiritual practice the novice must, as a precondition, join a master (šaih, shaihai 篩海; maulā, maolia 毛倆; shifu 師傅) in whose perfection he believes and with whom he becomes connected in the heart. 11 He surrenders to him unreservedly and the extent to which obedience is required from him, in K. al-Ğahrī, is illustrated by a simile that is commonplace in classical Sufi literature. As MA XUEZHI explains in an endnote to his introduction, the novice's attitude to his master must correspond to that of a corpse under the hands of the corpse-washer. 12 Mansūr also stipulates that the novices must not make any alterations, without the šaih's permission (idn; kouhuan 口喚), to the practices which they have been initiated into (al-'ibāda al-mulaggana). While they believe that their masters are

¹¹ Arabic: rābiṭa ("Herzensbindung"; cf. Meier 1994, pp. 49, 53; "bonding the heart with the shaykh, cf. Buehler 1998, pp. 131-134). The rābiṭa is declared the last of three methods of dikr which the šaihs of the Naqšbandīya-Muğaddidīya have instituted in order to refine the laţā'if 'ālam al-amr ("subtle substances of the world of the [divine] command"; Mazhar 1896, p. 190; cf. fn. 16, 103).

¹² Mansūr 1933, p. 14; also Mazhar 1896, p. 219: "As long as the novice does not consider himself vis-à-vis his master as dust or a corpse under the hands of the washer he will not reap any fruit". Originally (e.g. with Sahl at-Tustarī [d. 283/896]) the simile served to illustrate the Sufi ideal of trust in God (tawakkul), later-from the 6th/12th c. onward-the concept was transferred to the novice's relationship of obedience to his šaih (cf. Gram-LICH 1976, vol. 2, p. 243).

the most perfect of all šaiḥs—a reflection of the hubris of the Naqšbandīya which sees itself as superior to the other Sufi orders¹³—they also hold that their masters' spiritual works (qurubāt) are the finest of all.¹⁴ As a result, the novices make efforts to imitate their qualities of character (tahalluq bi-ahlā-qihim) and observe the ādāb or "good manners" toward their masters as outlined in the manuals of wayfaring (kutub as-sulūk; cf. Manṣūr 1933, p. 14); probably the best known of these texts in Chinese Sufism is the Persian language Mirṣād al-'ibād of Naǧm al-Dīn Rāzī (d. 654/1256) of which manuscript copies of Chinese provenance could still be seen (until recently) in the Sufi convents in the region.¹⁵

The novice must also be aware that his master sees him everywhere and he must see him as well. This is shown in a story of the *Manāqib* in which the disciple, Qalandar, is praised by Mingxin for having cultivated this awareness of the presence of the šaih controlling him. The anecdote is concluded with the address to the disciples by Mingxin to be assiduous in the performance of their spiritual practice (*iğtahidū fī s-sulūkāt wa-r-riyāḍāt*) and there follows a relevant quotation from the *Muḥammas* which either he himself recited to legitimate his advice to the disciples or it is quoted by the author with the same motivation¹⁷.

The story is that his favourite disciple, Qalandar of Honglefu 鴻樂府 convent (in Jinjibao 金積堡), was rejected by some students and to convince them

¹³ Bahā' ad-Dīn an-Naqšbandī, the eponymous founder, declared that its point of departure was the end of all other paths (Algar 1976, p. 40, quoting Минаммар Микар [d. 1721]). Algar, loc. cit. relates this claim to the method of *dikr*, viz. silent, practised by the Naqšbandīs. Elsewhere (p. 43) he mentions that the claim was also based on the disdain of the *karāmāt*, "miracles"; on this subject also see Buehler 1998, p. 121.

¹⁴ For instance: their retreats (*i* 'tikāf'). Qi Baba reports from the Šaiḫ of Pingliang that he went into seclusion for 100 days thereby modifying the traditional practice of solitary retreat for 40 days (*Arbaʿīnīya*, described e. g. by Suhrawardī 2009, in 'Awārif, ch. 26–28) to do acts of devotion (Zhan Ye, p. 76). By doing so, the šaiḫ prayed to God—by dint of a mediatory function—to avert an impending catastrophe.

¹⁵ E.g. in the *Taizi Gongbei* of Linxia (Qadirīya); also in the *Banqiao daotong* of Wuzhong (Gahrīya).

¹⁶ An allusion to the exercise of visualizing the image of one's šaiḥ: "During remembering [God] he represents, opposite to his heart, the image of his master from whom he received the dikr [formula] through [observing] perfect manners with him" (wa-yušabbis qubālata qalbihī ṣūrat aš-šaib etc.; Maṭhar 1896, p. 194 [for this work see fn. 23]). Through visualization of the image of his šaib (tašbīṣ ṣūratihī) the practitioner obtains inspiration (faid) while believing that the master is his personal gate to the godhead (Maṭhar 1896, p. 190). Also in the performance of "the first method" of dikr [cf. fn. 11] which can be done either with the "Greatest Name" or with the formula of negation and affirmation, there is involved a visualization of the šaib (Maṭhar 1896, p. 194); this imaging is called taṣawwur-i šaib by Indian Naqšbandīs (cf. Buehler 1998, pp. 134–138).

¹⁷ Zhan Ye [n.d.], p. 28; Zhan Ye/Ma 2012, p. 14; *Muḥammas*, p. 18.

of his excellence, Mingxin asked everyone to slaughter two doves which he gave to the *murīds* at a place where he could not see them or where they could not see him. While they went to various corners of the monastery (saumi'; daotang 道堂) slaughtering the doves, Qalandar refrained and being asked by Mingxin why he did not follow the order, he explained that the master sees him at every place. Mingxin praised him for this: "Sublime is the portion (nasīb; pinji 品級 [rank]) of him who looks at me whether I am absent or present and sublime is his spiritual practice" (wa-mā a'zama sulūkahū).

The verses of the Muhammas include Sufi teachings relating to the treatment of the lower self which is compared with a suckling that should be weaned not too late in order for it to overcome attachment to its mother's breast (verse of Būṣīrī's original poem). The carnal soul must be controlled (hifz an-nafs) in every circumstance, especially with respect to things forbidden. It must be checked through performance of spiritual works, through observation (murāgaba) and asking it to account for what it did (Tabādkānī's poetic elaboration):

Ihfaz li-nafsika fī kulli l-umūri wa-lā / tuhāwihā fī l-manāhī tabtanī 'amalā / ḥāsib wa-rāqibhā yauman ḥalā wa-malā / wa-n-nafsu ka-ṭ-ṭifli / in tuhmilhu šabba ʻalā / ḥubbi r-riḍāʻi wa-in tafṭimhu yanfaṭimū

"Control your carnal soul in all affairs and do not let it fall into the forbidden matters, to perpetrate [bad] works / Ask it to give account and observe it when you are alone or amidst the people / The soul is like a small child, if you neglect it, it will grow up / loving to be caressed, but if you wean it, it will abstain".

2.2 The five *qurubāt* practices

MA XUEZHI MANŞŪR gives a description, in the introduction to *K. al-Ğahrī* (pp. 1–15), of five spiritual practices which he calls qurubāt mulagganāt, i.e. works taught by the masters that make the disciple draw closer to God.

2.2.1 Recitation of the Qur'an

The first practice consists in reciting the Qur'an while respecting the "subtle conditions and beautiful customs" (ma'a š-šarā'iṭ ad-daqīqa wa*l-ādāb al-ğamīla*) thereof—not specified in *K. al-Ġahrī*—and completing the recitation on Sunday night (al-hatma lailat kull al-itnaini) or the day [after] (K. al- $\check{G}ahr\bar{i}$, p. 9). 18 In order to alleviate the exercise of reading the

¹⁸ Muḥammad b. Ḥafīf aš-Šīrāzī (d. 371/982), in a collection of prayers, recommends formulas to be said at that occasion (cf. Šarḥ al-faḍā'il, ch. 120) for, according to a ḥadīt quoted, God answers prayers when offered after completing a Qur'an recitation and there will also be planted a tree for him in paradise.

Qur'ān within one week, the revealed text has been divided in seven parts $(ahz\bar{a}b)$. 19

2.2.2 Recitation of the Suwar al-Hwāğagān

The second practice is the recitation, on Thursday night, of the "Sūras of the Hwāǧagān" related to the masters of the proto-history of the Naqšbandīya, 20 i.e. a specific series of Qur'ānic verses and passages. 21 The *K. al-Ğahrī*, p. 27 includes a story which claims that this practice had been instituted by Ma Mingxin ("the pathfounder"; daozu 道祖) in his Menhuan when he was proselytizing among the Turcophone ethnic group called Salar, 22 in the Xunhua area of Eastern Qinghai/Northeastern Tibet:

Six Sālārī men went to his Highness, the honourable (ǧanāb al-ḥaḍrat [sic!]) Wiqāyatullāh—God santify his secret! His Highness said to them: "Every Thursday night you perform the 'amal-practice (innakum ta'malūna)", i. e. they recite the Suwar al-Ḥwāǧagān [addition by Manṣūr]. 'The participation of [at least] seven persons is obligatory. You are six. Count me as one [extra] person.'

The story implies that Mingxin claimed that he participated in the ritual practice through a mystical presence, for which reason he declared it permitted to include him in the counting to reach the prescribed number of seven participants.

Manṣūr, by contrast, explains how to recite the *Suwar al-Ḥwāǧagān* by referring to the *Manāqib Aḥmadīya wa-l-Maqāmāt as-Saʿdīya/Saʿīdīya* of the Nagšbandī šaih [Muhammad] Mazhar²³:

By kneeling down he [i.e. they] formed a circle (dā'ira), at the three prayer times of the morning prayer (subḥ; chen libai 晨禮拜), midday prayer (zuhr, shang 晌) and evening prayer (magrib, hun 昏), and he recited in the congregation the words which the šaiḥs of the Naqšbandīya used to recite (al-ḥatm al-mansūb ilā l-mašā'iḥ al-kirām).

¹⁹ In the core countries of the Islamicate world, by contrast, the text has been divided into 30 portions $(a\check{g}z\bar{a}^2)$, which corresponds to the number of days in Ramaḍān (cf. WATT 1991, p. 57).

²⁰ The order had not yet crystallized into a form having a definite identity (Algar 1976, p. 41; also cf. Sobieroj 2016, pp. 141–142); for the Ḥwāǧagān cf. Fletcher 1995a, pp. 4–5.

²¹ The *Ḥatm al-Ḥwāğagān* has also been designated "the weekly congregational dikr" which took place Thursday or Friday night after the evening prayer (MEIER 1994, pp. 188–201).

²² Both Apaka Ḥwāğa (cf. fn. 53) and his father had preached among the Salars and taught them Rūmī's *Maṭṇawī* (cf. Fletcher 1995a, pp. 13–14).

²³ The above work treats the life of Aḥmad Saʿīd al-Fārūqī al-Ḥanafī an-Naqšbandī (d. 1276–1277/1860; Маҳнак 1896, p. 73), a descendant of the Imām Rabbānī (d. 1034/1624), and was written by Миӊаммар Маҳнак аl-Аӊмарī аl-Мараnī, the youngest of his sons (born in Dihlī in 1248/1832–1833; cf. Murād 1882–1883, p. 115; also Sobieroj 2016, p. 138, fn. 35).

The recitations end with prayers in which the merit of this practice is dedicated to the šaihs of the Naqšbandīya whose intercession is implored.²⁴

2.2.3 Dikr

Dikr, remembering God, as explained by MANṣūR is performed in two ways, silently by the individual (hafīyan), and vocally in the assembly (ğahran). As a spiritual practice of Sufism dikr means becoming aware of God's presence in order to become annihilated in him through an act of grace. This can be achieved by reciting the kalimat at-tauhūd or formula of the unity (qingzhen yan 清真言), by calling on any of God's names or by repeating a specific prayer formula.

2.2.3.1 Dikr hafī

As to dikr hafī (an nian 暗念), Manṣūn's third practice (K. al-Ğahrī, pp. 10–11), silent remembrance is to be performed after night prayer and recitation of Muḥammas and before the morning prayer (fī t-tarafain). In the Ğahrīya, it consists of three formulas, namely, prayers on the Prophet (salawāt),²⁷ asking God for forgiveness (istiġfār) and the tauḥīd-formula, and they are to be recited—mentally—1200 times (in total). Some practitioners—Manṣūn says—perform dikr by using the name of the divine essence (ism ad-dāt), i.e. Allāh ["the remembrance of the heart"; cf. Buehler 1998, p. 127], or by using the word of praise (tasbīh; nian zansong ci), i.e. subḥāna llāh, in this context. Šaiḥ Ḥaqīqullāh (Ma Yide 馬以德 Siyueba Taiye; d. 1849), Mingxin's third successor, made changes to the traditional sequence (tartīb) of the dikr formulas by adding the word of praise to be said 100 times at the beginning and reducing the total number of repetitions to 1000 times only.²⁸

²⁴ Manṣūr 1933, p. 10; Manṣūr/Ma 1997, intr., p. 6. The dedication of the reward of one's prayers to the dead may again be rewarded by God (cf. IBN ḤAFĪF, Šarḥ, fo. 109v).

²⁵ According to Sufi tradition, vocal *dikr* was taught by the prophet to his son-in-law 'Alī who passed it on to "the mass of sufi orders" while silent *dikr* is derived from Muḥammad by way of Abū Bakr, the latter's father-in-law; the Naqšbandī *silsila* passes through Abū Bakr (cf. Algar 1976, p. 41; Buehler 1998, p. 56).

²⁶ Zhan Ye/Ma 2012, p. 7.

²⁷ The "prayer on the Prophet" (ṣalāt 'alā n-nabī; ZHAN YE, Manāqib, pp. 207–208) is translated as zansheng 讚聖 in ZHAN YE/MA 2012, p. 93; for text formulas and other aspects of this prayer cf. IBN HAFĪF, Šarb, ch. 57–61).

²⁸ As an aid in counting, prayer beads (*subḥa* [Qušairī 1940, p. 21]) may have been used as did Ma Mingxin himself. The pathfounder, on the eve of the deportation of his spouse, the Ṣauyā'quwīya, and his daughters, from Gansu to Xinjiang, handed over his *tasbīḥ* to his wife, and she in turn passed it on to her daughter, the Sangu Taitai, when they were about to be separated (Ma Xin, pp. 16, 22–23).

As to the remembrance of God using the *kalimat at-tauhīd*, it consists of two parts, negation of the non-divine (*lā ilāha*) and affirmation of God's existence (*illā llāh*).

Ma Mingxin, in K. al-Ğahrī, has given a description of the practice of dikr using the kalimat at-tauhīd by appealing to the authority of Ibn Zain from whom he said he received the instruction. He uses the traditional imagery of a mysticism of love in which the Sufi aspires after union with God whom he adores as the object of his yearning. He distinguishes between two forms of remembrance using the formula which correspond to a process of internalization that leads from a vocal to a more inward, 'contracted', recitation. In justification of this teaching he quotes verses from the Qur'ān and sayings ascribed to Prophet Muḥammad.²⁹

Mingxin also underlined, by quoting his teacher, that *dikr* must by no means be performed without the guidance of an authorized šaiḫ: "Without the direction of the *muršid* the person who performs the remembrance on his own initiative is accursed and rejected in both worlds". In Zhan Ye, *Manā-qib*, p. 10 (Zhan Ye/Ma 2012, p. 7) the warning is ascribed to the founder of the Naqšbandīya order himself, Bahā' ad-Dīn: "The word *lā ilāha illā llāh Muḥammadun rasūlullāh* is the best formula of remembrance etc. [...] He who recites it without a šaiḫ's permission is a disbeliever etc."

The account in *K. al-Ğahrī*, p. 58 ends with a saying ascribed to Mingxin explanatory of the physical movements which the Sufi performs during *dikr*

²⁹ "When you return from the vocal recitation of the formula of declaring the unity (al-kalima at-taiyiba al-ĕahrīya) to the inaudible recitation (dinian 低念; al-kalima al $haf\bar{i}ya$ al-ahfa), you say: $\bar{l}a$ 'in [Y]. The $\bar{l}a$ of $\bar{l}a$ indicates the unification of lover and beloved after the separation (ğam' iftiraq al-'āšiq wa-l-ma'šūq). The [syllable] in of illā llāh indicates the real union (wiṣāl ḥaqīqī) between lover and beloved. At this place separation has been overcome (dahaba l-firāq), and unification (ǧā'a l-wisāl) has occurred. The two have met in a mystical union (haṣala ğam' al-ğam'), the divinity and the created existence have become one (ittaḥadat al-ilāhīya wa-l-kaunīya; renzhu heyi 人主合一 [MANSŪR/ MA 1997, p. 45]; Manāqib, p. 11, has the variant: ittaḥadat al-'ubūdīya wa-l-ulūhīya). It is as God says: 'Truth has appeared and falsehood has been dispelled' (Sūra 17/81). This is the subtlety (latīfa) of / the subtle substance referred to by [the hadīt] 'I have a moment with God'. The Sufis call this the station (martaba) '[distance] of two bows' lengths or nearer' (Sūra 53/9). This is the reality of 'There is no god but God'. Therefore the reciter must be attentive, watchful and must not ignore these secrets". For the recitation of the kalima as lā in see also the story in ZHAN YE, Manāqib, p. 201 (Chin. trans., p. 89): In the first year of the Xianfeng period (i.e. 1851), while commemorating the death of one of the masters, Tab'atullāh Shisan Taive Ma Hualong (馬化龍, lived 1810-1871; MA XIN, pp. 95-102), the fourth successor, ordered that as part of the aurād the disciples should recite the lā in-formula as often as the lā ilāha illā llāh, namely 66 times each, adding that the last 33 recitations must be done with perfect concentration while severing all internal attachments (wa-qṭaʿū taʿalluqāt kullahā).

The movement of the head toward the right side during *dikr* recitation relates to the negation (i. e. there is no deity), the movement of the head toward the left side relates to the affirmation (i. e. only God exists), for the left side is the place at which the heart and the belief are situated (*maḥall al-qalb wa-l-īmān*).³⁰

A description of the required mode of performing the *dikr* is also given in Zhan Ye, *Manāqib*, p. 66: While initiating his successor, the Chuanchang 船廠 Taiye Ma Datian 馬達天 Quṭb al-ʿālam, ³¹ into the secrets of the order, the Pingliang 平涼 Taiye Mu Xianzhang 穆憲章 Kullu risāla ³² explained to him how to remember God. The instruction was given in answer to the successor's question which group of people would first enter hell-fire in the hereafter:

"Those who keep the eyes open during *dikr* and who are not concentrated in their heart will enter hell-fire the first, in the hereafter. When one recites the *kalima*, one has to close the door, extinguish the light and close one's eyes. Only then are you able to remember God perfectly and you can dispel from your heart the self-centred thoughts" (waswasat al-bayāl). There follows in the text of the Manāqib a quote, probably added by Zhan Ye, which he excerpted from al-Bahǧa as-sanīya³³ to confirm the šaiḫ's words: "During dikr close the eyes! When the eyes are closed it is as though the five senses were closed. The closing of the five senses is the cause for the opening of the heart." There follows a quote from the Qur'ān: "Alike of you is he who conceals his saying (man asarra l-qaul), and he who proclaims it (man ǧahara bihī) etc." (Sūra 13/10).

The context of the description linked with the threat of exposure to hell-fire underlines the importance ascribed to observing the injunctions as transmitted in the Naqšbandīya.

³⁰ The theory referred to is indebted to the mysticism of the *latā'if*, "subtle substances", developed in the Indian Naqšbandīya-Muğaddidīya: Man, according to the Imām Rabbānī is composed of ten *latā'if*, five relating to the 'ālam al-amr ("world of the decree"), viz. qalb, rūḥ ("spirit"), sirr ("secret"), al-bafī ("the hidden"), al-abfā ("the most hidden"), as well as five relating to the 'ālam al-balq ("world of the creation"), viz. the nafs and the four elements. The *latā'if* have their "root" (aṣl) above the throne, but these uṣūl are forgotten by man until the šaiḥ, designated kāmil mukammil ("perfect and perfection-bestowing"), enlivens them (yatawaǧǧahu lahā). Then the roots are remembered and an inclination to them is brought forth through divine attraction (bi-ǯadabāt ilāhīya). The first five laṭā'if have a specific place in the body activated through dikr (MAZHAR 1896, p. 195). For the correspondences cf. Buehler 1998, p. 111; a model of Naqšbandī cosmology is op. cit., p. 107, figure 5.

Died in 1817 (cf. YANG 2010, p. 128).
 Died in 1812 (cf. MA XIN, p. 71).

³³ Probably: *al-B. as-s. fī ādāb aṭ-ṭarīqa al-ʿalīya al-Ḥālidīya an-Naqšbandīya*, of Muḥammad b. ʿAbdallāh al-Ḥānī al-Ḥālidī (d. 1279/1862; cf. DARNīQA 1987, p. 149).

In one of the stories of *K. al-Ğahrī* (including a polemic against Ming-xin's rival, Ma Laichi 馬來遲 Abū l-Futūḥ; d. 1766) there is a connection between the *kalimat al-tauhīd* and a reference to certain wild animals.

A disciple of Mingxin, the San Ahong ('ālim tālit) of Gongchangfu, had been haunted, when he followed Abū l-Futūḥ, by the vision of a crocodile and a leopard/panther which appeared before his inner eye during the recitation of the formula:

While performing the remembrance of God, I faced great danger. When I recited the word of the negation and that of the affirmation, I kept seeing a crocodile and a leopard.³⁴ Neither could I throw them off nor could I resist them (Manṣūr 1933, pp. 24–25).

It may be worthy of note that the story involves a transfer of symbols which is further enriched through the Chinese translation.³⁵ In the imagery, the author of the Arabic text connected with a tradition in Persian literature where the non-divine has been symbolized as a crocodile, *nahang-i lā*, i.e. the crocodile of negation. The famous poet and member of the Naqsbandīya Nūr ad-Dīn ǧāmī (d. 898/1492) has written a tract³⁶ commenting on a verse of the Indian poet Amīr Husrau (d. 725/1325) which includes this imagery. Possibly through Ğāmī whose works have been studied in Chinese Madrasa education (Jingtang jiaoyu), the Chinese Ğahrīya became aware of the imagery. As for the [black] leopard (nimr), 37 this animal has been employed in Arabic Sufi literature as a symbol for the carnal soul. ABD AL-QADIR AL-ĞĪLĀNĪ (d. 561/1166) whose Qādirīya Sufi order is still widespread in Islamicate China, 38 in his Sirr al-asrār, 39 p. 55 includes the leopard in a series of beasts (sibā'āt), besides lion, wolf and pig, which the dreaming person sees under the influence of his blameworthy qualities (al-aḥlāq ad-damīma). The Minhāğ al-'ābidīn of AL-ĠAZĀLĪ (d. 505/1111), fo. 20v, on the other hand, includes some sections about the discrimination between various types of inspiration, divine, angelic, psychic, diabolic etc., and in this context the carnal soul (an-nafs), as the origin of one type of inspiration is compared with the leopard (nimr).

³⁴ Ya'tī rağul qāhir at-timsāḥ wa-bāṭiš an-nimr ("here comes a man who defeats the crocodile and seizes the leopard"; Manṣūr 1933, p. 24, quoting Mingxin).

³⁵ The Chinese translation renders the names of the beasts called crocodile and leopard in the Arabic text as dragon and tiger.

³⁶ Risāla dar šarḥ-i bayt etc. (cf. Sobieroj 2016, p. 161, fn. 156); for the wider reception of Ğāmī's works see now Papas 2018.

³⁷ Mansūr 1933, p. 77.

³⁸ Cf. Ma Tong 2000c, pp. 547–576.

³⁹ Mazīdī 2007 (ed.); a Chinese trans. is Ma Tingyi 1998.

2.2.3.2 Vocal *dikr*

The vocal *dikr*, performed in the congregation, constitutes Mansūr's fourth spiritual practice.

Mansūr quotes various literary sources such as the Qur'an commentary Tafsīr Rūḥ al-bayān [of Ismā'īl Ḥagqī al-Brūsawī (d. 1137/1724)]⁴⁰ and a collection of Hanafī Fatwas (al-Fatāwā l-Hairīya) [of Hair ad-Dīn al-Fārūgī (d. 1081/1671)] as well as the Prophetic tradition to justify the view that the vocal remembrance (ad-dikr bi-raf as-saut) is more effective in dispelling strav thoughts (qam' al-hātir) from the novice's heart than is silent remembrance.41

As to the contents of this practice, MANSŪR equates the vocal dikr with the recitation of the "noble prayer litanies" (halqat ad-dikr 'alā l-ğahr ya'nī l-Aurād aš-šarīfa).

2.2.3.2.1 al-Aurād aš-šarīfa

Prayers designated as Aurād (pl. of Arabic wird), 42 centred around a "word of praising [God]" and two series of divine names, were taught to Mingxin by Ibn Zain, before he sent him back to China as his missionary ("this word of praises must also be recited in our litanies", aurādunā š-šarīfa). The text of the praises, beginning with subhāna l-abad al-abad, 43 is included in K. al-*Gahrī*, pp. 19–20 and it used to be recited after the morning prayers.⁴⁴

Mingxin, in his turn, taught the Aurād aš-šarīfa, translated as the "precious word of praise" (zungui de zanci 讚詞),45 to his followers. Among them there was a young Ahong who had gained the pathfounder's favour⁴⁶ and who then asked Mingxin to allow him to place Sūra 7/23 in front of the *Aurād*-prayers: As Mingxin agreed, the Ahong inserted the Qur'ānic verse. 47 The story ends with the note that the šaih eventually separated himself from

On the polemical literature written against the practice of vocal dikr by the Central

Asian 'ulamā' see Babadjanov 2004, p. 297.

⁴³ Chinese: zansong yongheng de zhu qingjing 讚頌永恒的主清淨 (MANSŪR/MA 1997, pp. 3-7); also: zanci.

44 Cf. YANG, in GUANLI YE 1993, p. 9, fn. 4.

⁴⁵ Manşūr 1933, p. 59; Manşūr/Ma 1997, p. 47.

⁴⁷ Manşūr 1933, p. 59; Manşūr/Ma 1997, p. 47.

⁴⁰ Died in 1137/1724 (Brockelmann 1937–1949, vol. 2, p. 581). The commentary is also read by contemporary Indian Nagšbandīs (cf. Buehler 1998, p. 164, fn. 71).

⁴² CHIH 2016, pp. 520-544 describes the Aurād as litanies and prayers taught by the master to the disciple to be recited at specific moments of the day and the night in addition to the ritual prayers (cf. p. 538) and she gives an outline of the Aurād as practiced by the members of the Halwatīya order in 18th c. Egypt (pp. 538-539).

⁴⁶ Mansūr 1933, p. 59; for the reasons of Mingxin's temporary inclination to the Ahong cf. Sobieroj 2016, p. 157.

the Ahong because he had followed the whims of his carnal soul. This may be interpreted as meaning that he was wrong in asking for an alteration of the arrangement of the transmitted prayers which must be accepted as taught by the masters 'through license and initiation' (fī l-iǧāza wa-t-talqīn).

That not only the addition of passages to the *Aurād aš-šarīfa* was strongly disapproved but also the change in the frequency of their recitation is evinced by other stories in K. al- $\check{G}ahr\bar{\iota}$.

The Wu Ahong (al-'Ālim al-'adīm), active in Qinzhou 秦州 (today: Tianshui, Gansu), who at the occasion of a visit of Mingxin, in order to arrive in his presence quicker, did not recite the prayers starting with subḥāna l-abad al-abad according to the required frequency, was reprimanded for this. Because of his anxiety he had become inattentive and oblivious of the number of recitations already performed (ġafaltu ḥīnan).⁴⁸

The *Aurād* which the Pathfounder had himself assembled (*rakkabtuhā*), by dint of this origin, were believed to be of incalculable worth and they could only be recited with the šaiḥ's permission, without additions and omissions.⁴⁹

The subsequent story in K. al- $\check{G}ahr\bar{\iota}$ contains further explanations given by Mingxin himself for the reader to understand why the arrangement of the $Aur\bar{a}d$ must not be altered: He explains that his method, "my religion" $(d\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath})$, is comparable to a prescription for the treatment of illnesses. In order for the therapist to treat a patient successfully the dose of the medicament must not be altered arbitrarily and the same applies to the spiritual instruction. 50

In this anecdote, a disciple who asked the pathfounder for initiation into the practice of [the silent] dikr (dikran mulaqqanan min ladun al-ḥadra) was rejected as he had reduced, without permission, the number of recitations of the Aurād of the morning prayer from twice to once.⁵¹ Thanks to his clairvoyance, Mingxin recognized that the disciple had been inattentive in his prayers ("Why did you recite, this morning, the words subḥāna l-abad al-abad only once?").⁵²

⁴⁸ In the manuscripts of some Naqšbandī prayer texts there are explicit references to the number of recitations prescribed for the transmitted prayers (e.g. BSB Munich Cod. arab. 1791, fo. 44r [Duʿāʾ-i batm-i Ḥwāġagān]). In the Aoladi (aurād) of the Huasi Menhuan of Linxia the indications are included, in the printed edition, in Chinese.

⁴⁹ Manṣūr 1933, p. 30; Manṣūr/Ma 1997, p. 17.

⁵⁰ Manṣūr 1933, pp. 30–31; Manṣūr/Ma 1997, p. 17; Guanli Ye 1993, p. 102.

⁵¹ Mansūr 1933, p. 31; Mansūr/Ma 1997, p. 17.

⁵² A prayer including the ta'wīd-formula said by Mingxin in the context whereby he invoked God's protection against omitting, adding, changing and altering [the order of the transmitted prayers (na'ūdu billāh min an-nuqṣān wa-z-ziyāda wa-t-taġyīr wa-t-tabdīl)] underlines the severity of the breach of this injunction (ta'wīd-prayers recommended by Muḥammad against various afflictions, in IBN ḤAFĪF, Šarh, ch. 210).

Prayer formulas were taught to the disciples not only as part of their daily duty of *dikr* but also as *therapeutic aid*. Besides underlining the psychotherapeutic aspect of the prayers, some of the relevant stories also include a polemic against the rivals of the Ğahrīya order, firstly Abū l-Futūḥ Ma Laichi, and secondly against another branch of the Naqšbandīya active in the Gansu/Qinghai area, the Mufuti, i. e. Mufti order of Ma Shouzhen 馬守貞.⁵³

Mingxin advised the Mullā ad-Dahabī (Chinese: Jin 全 Manlā) of a place called Didao 秋道 in Southern Gansu to recite the prayer subḥāna llāh ('praised be God') three times when he turned to the master seeking his help. In his imagination the mullā felt threatened by a large cat whenever he began the ritual prayer with the words "God is greater" (takbīr al-iftitāḥ). The same formula had been recommended to the mullā by the founding šaihs of the Mufuti and Huasi 花寺 orders which he himself had belonged to earlier.

However, the prayer recommended by the two šaihs did not show any effect with the mullā. Only when the words "praised be God" were recommended to him by Mingxin, did the animal remove itself, at the first recitation. At the second it disappeared from his eyes and at the third recitation of the formula all the disquiet had come to an end (tanazzaha 'an kulli tašwīš).⁵⁵

Also Qi Baba [Ye] (七爸爸爺),⁵⁶ the saintly father of the Chuanchang Taiye, had been a follower⁵⁷ of Abū l-Futūḥ at first. He is said to have been very conscientious in the performance of the religious duties.⁵⁸ At night he refrained from sleeping but at some time he entered a mental crisis. During dikr a red light flashed before his eyes, and from behind a white light appeared. He recited incessantly: lā ḥaula wa-lā qūwata illā billāh al-ʿalī al-ʿazīm ("there is no strength nor power except through God, the high, the great"; Zhan Ye 2012, p. 18).⁵⁹

He went to Abū l-Futūḥ telling him that he was in danger. The latter told him that it is an illness, saying: "In Xiguan (ribāṭ fanā' al-maġrib) [a district of Hezhou] there is a good physician. Go to him and have yourself be treated!" However, secretly Qi Baba said to himself: It is a psychic condition and no physical illness. He went back home disappointed. Soon after

⁵³ Both Sufis stood in the tradition of the Uyghur saint Apaka (Āfāq) Ḥwāǧa who was made governor by the Oirat Mongols in 1679 (Ma Tong 2000b, p. 36; Aubin 1960–2004, p. 338; cf. Fletcher 1995a, pp. 10–11, 15–20 [on Abū l-Futūh's carrier]).

⁵⁴ For prayers to be said before and after the *takbīr al-iftitāh* cf. IBN ḤAFĪF, Šarḥ, ch. 19–21.

⁵⁵ Manṣūr 1933, pp. 44–45; Manṣūr/Ma 1997, pp. 32–33. For the permissibility of changing one's spiritual mentor, with Indian Naqšbandīs, cf. Buehler 1998, p. 162.

⁵⁶ For his biography cf. Ma XIN, p. 82 (he attributes to him the name Ma Wensheng 馬文生).

⁵⁷ Jiaoxia 教下, jiaotu 教徒 (ZHAN YE/MA 2012, p. 10).

⁵⁸ Zai gangong fangmian 在干功方面 (ZHAN YE/MA 2012, p. 10).

⁵⁹ For traditions on the merits (fīfadl) of reciting this formula cf. IBN ḤAFĪF, Šarḥ, ch. 53.

he hurried to the pathfounder. He met him in his lodge in Xiguan and he renewed his intention (nawā nīyatan ǧadīda). He told the maulā what had happened to him in the performance of dikr. Mingxin said: "You are noble and intelligent. In front of you the light of prophecy has appeared and behind you the light of sanctity. The two lights have united in your pure back. If God wills, several generations of saints will emerge from your back." 60

The stories above emphasize that, in terms of charisma and empowerment, Mingxin was superior to his rivals. In the last anecdote, a vision of lights which appeared to Qi Baba is interpreted by Mingxin as an announcement of the birth of his second successor, the Chuanchang Taiye.

Besides the prayer of praise, Zanci, which Mingxin is said to have received from Ibn Zain, there is also a connection between a collection of $Aur\bar{a}d$ as recited in the Huasi Menhuan of Abū l-Futūḥ, and their teacher 'Aqīla under whom they both studied in Mecca. At the end of the $Aur\bar{a}d$ included in a booklet printed 2012 in the Lao Huasi mosque of Hezhou (Linxia), there is a prayer headed $Du'\bar{a}$ al-aurād in which forgiveness is implored for the Muslims in general and for certain saints in particular, viz. Abū l-Futūḥ aṣ-Ṣīnī whose name is preceded by that of Muḥammad b. Aḥmad 'Aqīla, Bahā' ad-Dīn an-Naqšbandī and 'Abdalqādir al-Ğīlānī.

Ma Laichi is also believed to have obtained from his teacher 'Aqīla the two-volume *Maulūd* on the birth of the Prophet which according to MA ToNG⁶⁴ is recited during the 'amal-gatherings of the Huasi Sufi order in Hezhou.⁶⁵

⁶⁰ Zhan Ye [n. d.], pp. 16–19.

⁶¹ There is a report in Manṣūr 1933, p. 44, in which Mingxin informs Abū l-Futūḥ about the death of ʿAqīla.

⁶² An endowment stamp on the back cover of my personal copy carrying the characters *Qingzhen laohuasi waigefu* 外格夫, i.e. *waqf*, is placed over the injunction that the text must not be removed from the prayer hall.

⁶³ On connections between the Qādirīya and Naqšbandīya orders cf. ALGAR 1976, p. 45. 64 Ma Tong 2000b, p. 32; here, the name is transcribed as "Agelai" (阿格萊). He is

mentioned by Fletcher 1995a, p. 16 but he fails to identify him.

Sesides, the *Minšār* is another text Ma Laichi is believed to have brought with from Yemen [Fletcher 1995a, pp. 16–17: as a gift from one Maulānā Maḥdūm to whom he was sent by 'Aqīla (!)]. The text, a collection of Qur'ānic verses, prayers, qaṣīdas and lists of authorities, partly written in Persian, is sold in Western Gansu (Guanghe) and the Xunhua area of Qinghai as a facsimilated manuscript as also in the form of a printed booklet (Lanzhou, Xiaoxihu). It mentions the names of both Muḥammad b. A. 'Aqīla and of M. Abū al-Futūḥ al-Ṣīnī. Both versions are entitled *Muṣār* [!] and *K. al-Muṣār*, resp. The (correct) Arabic work title *Minṣār* has been traditionally transcribed by Chinese Mingsha(le) 明沙 or 冥沙 or 冥沙勒 (cf. Lipman 1999, p. 556, fn. 12; Ma Tong 2000a [1980], p. 163; idem 2007, p. 337; Fletcher 1995a, p. 17 [who failed to identify the title]). It should be added that the Arabic word *minṣār* denotes "saw" which is an obvious reference to the

The scholar 'Agīla whose memory is invoked both in the order of Ma Mingxin and that of Ma Laichi is to be identified with the author Muḥammad b. Ahmad 'Aqīla al-Yamanī whose collection of Prophetic traditions entitled *al-Fawā'id al-ǧalīla* is still extant. In the collection there is included a chain of hadīt transmitters which includes the name of a Nagšbandī master called Tāğ ad-Dīn al-Hindī an-N. (cf. BSB Cod.arab. 2126, fo. 2r), confirming the link between 'Agīla and the Sufis of Gansu.66

2.2.4 Recitation of Muhammas and Madā'ih

Mansūr explains in his introduction that the fifth spiritual exercise consists in the melodious recitation of the Muhammas and the Mada'ih, in praise of the Prophet (qirā'at al-qasā'id an-nabawīya wa-l-madā'ih an-nabawīya bil-gina'), and he adds that the recitation has to be performed according to specific conditions that must not be divulged to the unworthy.⁶⁷

At the same time, the texts of *Muhammas*, *Madā'iḥ* and *Aurād* were also meant to be recited publicly, by contrast to the other practices which were performed secretly (inaudibly). The Manāqib (ZHAN YE, p. 30) makes this distinction in a story about the meeting between an old divine of Tuochangbao 駝場堡, Lao Ahong (al-'ālim al-mašīb), and Mingxin. The scholar complains in front of him that, because of the hostilities of the numerous enemies of the Gahrīya in the village only the secret, not the public practices could be performed:

The performance of the secret spiritual practices ('amal al-'ibādāt al-hafīyāt; ancang de 暗藏的 gongke) is easy to me, but not so the vocal ones ('amal alğahrīya; mingyang de 明揚的 gongke). I grieve over the fact that it is not possible to recite the Aurād, Madā'ih and Muhammas [aloud].68

The recitation of *Muḥammas* and *Madā'iḥ* by chanting⁶⁹ provoked the protest of other Muslims (Sufis). To justify this mode of recitation, MANSŪR,

68 Mingxin comforts the old man with the promise that his successor, the Pingliang

Taive, would cause the order to flourish again.

dikr-i arra (or dikr-i minšār) or "remembrance of the saw" (designated as such because of the rasping sound it produces; ALGAR 1976, p. 42), that used to be practised, i.a., in the turkophone Sufism of Ahmad-i Yasawī (cf. Fletcher 1995b, p. 115; Babadjanov 2004, pp. 297, 299), one of the šaihs included in the above lists (Mušār, p. 48).

⁶⁶ For 'Aqīla (d. 1150/1737) who had given licences for hadīt and Sufi transmissions to 'Abd al-Ḥāliq b. az-Zain al-Mizǧāǧī, cf. Reichmuth 2009, p. 22.

⁶⁷ Manṣūr/Ma 1997: "by relying on secret transmission".

⁶⁹ Cf. Ma Tong 2000b, p. 93: "In the execution of the praise of the Prophet and the 'amal [the texts] are to be recited aloud, in the Yamanī accent (y. diao), while placing an emphasis on the melody (zhongshi yinyun). It is encouraged that one recites expressively, "through a rhythmical recitation which varies according to the mood. In the recitation (songnian) one

just as he did with regard to vocal dikr (K. al-Ğahrī, p. 13), appeals to various literary works, such as i.a. Rūḥ al-bayān (a tafsīr), Durr al-aurād (on prayer), al-Fatāwā l-hairīya (on law), Ihyā' 'ulūm ad-dīn of AL-ĠAZĀLĪ:

Certain people may heed my advice: They try to forbid the recitation, with melody, of Muhammas und $Mad\bar{a}$ 'ih, while believing that this mode of recitation is incorrect. These people may study the $R\bar{u}h$ al-bayān and the other classics carefully etc.

MANSŪR also, in this context (K. al-Ğahrī, pp. 12–13), contrasts the Chinese -it may be added: Muslim-scholars' concentration on the "study of grammar and morphology" ('ilm an-nahw wa-s-sarf) which he identifies as the cause of their error (\$\darkapa a \times a va) with the Sufis' focus on spiritual meanings. The latter, he says, transform the consonants and vowels of the canonical texts into subtle allusions and fine secrets (baddalū l-hurūf wa-l-harakāt li-l-išārāt). To legitimate this neglect of phonetic considerations, the Iranian mystic Habīb al-'Ağamī,⁷⁰ one of the legendary forefathers of Sufism is appealed to. Habīb, a non-Arab is shown to be superior to the renunciant Hasan al-Başrī⁷¹ who by Sufi tradition is believed to have been in communication with 'Alī, the Prophet's cousin.⁷² Hasan al-Basrī, in an anecdote narrated by MANSŪR, doubts the legitimacy of Habīb's ritual prayer because of his demonstrated inability to correctly pronounce the pharyngeal consonant ha' of al-hamdu lillah. In a dream Allah scolded him for his concentration on phonetics adding that only because of having stood behind Habīb in the ritual⁷³ all his previous prayers have become accepted (literally: 'sealed').74 Thus, with MANSŪR, the

must express solemnity, joy, sorrow, sadness, happiness as well as a deep sentiment of grief. The recitation must not only transport a musical emotion, it must also possess a quality of agitation (gudong xing) and attraction." For the public recitation of the Qaṣīdat al-Burda in the Arab countries see DAUB 2016, pp. 32–39 ("Rezitation und Gesang"). Listening to Sufi music, 'the most vocal of all activities of remembrance', was generally declared forbidden by (legally-minded) Naqšbandīs (cf. BUEHLER 1998, p. 128, fn. 104).

⁷⁰ For Habīb (d. 156/772) cf. Gramlich 1976, p. 172, fn. 921.

⁷¹ Died in 110/728; for his biography cf. RITTER 1933. In the vita of Ibn Ḥafīf there is included a story illustrating the superiority of Ḥabīb-i 'Ağamī in relation to Ḥasan b. Abī l-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī (sic!). In the story Ḥabīb dwelt on an island and Ḥasan was unable to walk over the water to meet him as the science ('ilm) which he had taught Ḥabīb did not provide him with the means necessary to accomplish this feat (Dailamī 1955, pp. 118–119).

⁷² Cf. Gramlich 1976, p. 172.

⁷³ A variant version of the story about Hasan's unwillingness to pray behind Habīb can already be found in Qušairī 1940, p. 194 (= Gramlich 1989, p. 527).

⁷⁴ Also in Zhan Ye, *Manāqib*, p. 200 (Zhan Ye/Ma 2012, p. 89), the concentration on Arabic grammar is contrasted with a focus on spiritual meanings. Here however not the exoteric scholars are criticized for their limited perspective on spirituality but the disciples of Shisan Taiye Ṭabʿatullāh (cf. fn. 37). Two disciples, al-Aq Aḥūnd al-Fučiānī and al-Qāʿā Aḥūnd al-Mālaysī, were disputing over what is the correct pronunciation of

discourse on the Ğahrīya practices turns into an apology of the authenticity of Chinese Islam against its critics from the core countries.

2.2.4.1 Muhammas

The *muḥammas* in question is an elaboration composed by the Iranian poet Muḥammad Tabādkānī al-Maulawī of Ṭūs (d. ca. 900/1494)⁷⁵ of five verses (taḥmīs; wu ye muhanmaisi) of al-Būṣīrī's (d. c. 694/1294) famous "Mantle poem", the Qaṣīdat al-Burda. Manṣūr underlines the importance of the text in the Ğahrīya by quoting verses from it (v. 125), without however identifying his source, to end Mingxin's vita in *K. al-Ğahrī* (p. 70).

Manṣūr, in his section on the practices, ascribes to the recitation of the *Muḥammas* the function of remedying the deficiencies in the execution of the ritual prayers previously performed. Besides, he claims that through the recitation of the poetical text Sufi path, mystical reality and religious law become united: "Thereby, for the wayfarers (as-sālikūna), ṭarīqa (path) and ḥaqīqa (reality) become integrated into the šarī a (K. al-Ğahrī, p. 8)."

According to Manṣūn, the *Muḥammas* was to be recited every evening after the night prayer. In this, the poem was read in individual sections, i. e. every evening a specific passage of the canonical text was recited. As a result,

the expression Allāhu akbar in the litanies. Al-Fučiānī said that "he", probably the šaiḥ, recited Allāhu akbar while pronouncing the second of the two words with initial vowel a (qara'a Allāhu akbar bi-fatḥ al-alif); the scholar of Malay (al-'ālim al-Mālaysī), on the other hand, claimed that "he" recited initial alif while suppressing vowel a ([bi-]sukūn al-alif). When they went to the šaiḥ telling him about their dispute he rebuked them for only knowing the outside of the liturgical formula (zāhir al-kalima) without understanding the esoteric subtlety (wa-lā tafqahū [!] l-latīf al-bāṭin). He also pointed out to them that to pronounce akbar while supressing initial vowel a, the letter alif merges (literally: enters) with the letter hā' of Allāh, and the "form" (ṣūra) of Allāhu akbar changes to Allāhu kbar. This however—he explained—signifies attainment of the level of two bows' lengths (huwa l-bulūġ ilā martabat qāba qausaini), i.e. the state the Prophet reached during his ascension according to Sūra 53/9.

⁷⁵ Cf. Hāǧǧī Halīfa 1835–58, vol. 4, p. 527; Sobieroj 2014, p. 107.

⁷⁶ The analogous view that the supererogatory prayers (nawāfīl) are necessary in a compensatory sense is expressed in the hadīt, "they will overwhelm the imperfections of the corresponding farā'id [obligatory prayers] on Judgment day" (cf. Chodkiewicz 1993, p. 116).

The tries to explain how this happens by referring to the simile of a chicken egg: "Šarī'a, tarīqa and haqīqa can be compared with a chicken egg. If you bore a hole in its shell with a small needle it is intact outwardly and one can eat it. However the chick cannot emerge from it through the embrace and hatching of the hen. When there is the slightest defect in the (execution) of the šarī'a, the tarīqa cannot be performed with success, let alone the haqīqa" (Manṣūr 1933, p. 9, quoting the Ğahrī master Ḥaqīqullāh).

⁷⁸ Xiao li 育礼; ṣalāt al-'išā'(cf. Yang Zongshan 2007, p. 312b); also Ma Tong 2000b, p. 33 writes that the Ğahrīs were obliged to recite (songdu) the poem after the hufudan, i. e. night prayer.

the headings of the sections even served the Ğahrīs as a device for dating, as appears for instance in a story in the *Manāqib* related by the Shagou maulā [Ma Yuanzhang] concerning the visit of some disciples to the šaiḫ of Pingliang.⁷⁹

Some disciples were more gifted as reciters than others and those credited with the greater talent were allowed by the šaihs to read the *Muhammas* in the assemblies which generated envy among their ranks. Duanbozi ('ālim qaṣīr al-'unuq ["short necked Ahong"]), according to *K. al-Ğahrī*, used to recite the poem in the presence of the Chuanchang Taiye until it occurred to the Pingliang Taiye that his successor may replace the short-necked by his son Ḥaqīqullāh. The Ahong reacted with hate and he severed the connection with the Chuanchang Taiye.⁸⁰

In the Ğahrīya order, the text of the *Muḥammas*, unless re-activated from memory, nowadays is usually read from a manuscript copy written by the hand of Riyāḍ ad-Dīn Ṣadīqullāh Muḥammad Nūr Ma Yuanzhang 馬元章 (d. 1920),⁸¹ who was the seventh generation master, and it has been published in facsimile.⁸²

Ma Mingxin and, thereafter, his followers searched for clues in the text of the *Muḥammas* helping them to gain spiritual orientation and tackle the hardships they faced in their daily life which for many was characterized by war and persecution.⁸³

⁷⁹ "In the era of the Pingliang Taiye, Jalāl, Qalandar, Wotaidi and Niu Ahong [...] entered the šaiḥ's house. He attended on them and allowed them to dwell with him. They stayed with him for some time, and at the evening of the *Hal ḥaqā'iq* [i.e. when the chapter of the *Muḥammas* starting with these words was recited] the maulā spoke to them about the secrets which the Pathfounder had received from the Grand šaiḥ in Yemen. He told them the whole history of the Ğahrīya order from its advent in China and the time of its blossoming until the uprisings etc." (Zhan YE, pp. 66–70; Zhan YE/Ma 2012, pp. 28–29).

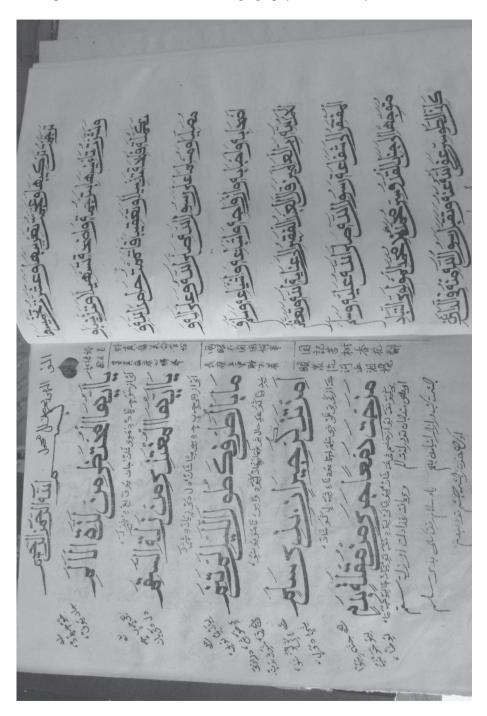
⁸⁰ Manşūr 1933, p. 115; Manşūr/Ma 1997, p. 103.

⁸¹ Cf. Muhammas (Beijing: Chaohua chuban she 2012), p. 332; MA Tong 2000b, p. 33; for the vita of the Shagou 沙沟 Taiye see MA XIN, pp. 34-41.

⁸² E.g. Beijing: Chaohua chuban she 2012. A facsimile copy of this text written by another scribe has been seen in the possession of a Ğahrī imām in Xiji, Ningxia (see figure on facing page). The first verse of Būṣīrī's poem is made up of the last two hemistichs on this page and it is preceded by three lines of the elaboration composed in the same metre and with the same rhyme. The style of writing is a bold ornamental $hatt-i ṣīm\bar{\imath}$. There follow three lines of a Persian translation written in a smaller hand but again ending with letter $m\bar{\imath}m$. The rasm of the Arabic poem of 163 verses is fully vocalized. Chinese translations of the verses have been added in the margins: The inner margin displays a hanzi translation which is repeated written in the Arabic script (xiaojing) on the outer margin. Between the lines a translation in a Chinese vernacular has been added, again written in Arabic letters.

⁸³ The disputes over the correct performance of *dikr* and the revolt in 1784 led the Qing government to adopt an anti-Muslim policy (Fletcher 1995b, p. 115).

Spiritual Practice in the Arabic Hagiography of the Šahrīya Sufi Order 173



Mingxin justified his line of action as a missionary for a renewal of the Chinese Naqšbandīya by referring to specific verses of the *Muḥammas*: For instance, whenever he became aware of the existence of individuals considered receptive for his message he would send out to them an invitation to join his school or he would go himself.

According to the riwāya in K. al-Ğahrī,84 Mingxin supported this programme of practising da'wa by quoting verse 116 of the Muḥammas including a verse from the amplification in which the Muslims are asked to "Hold on to the generous (i.e. the Prophet) when he sympathizes with us / Good tidings, people of islam, for we have / From divine care, a pillar that does not collapse" (fastamsikū bi-karīmin in yaḥinna lanā / bušrā lanā ma'šara l-islāmi inna lanā / min al-'ināyati ruknan ġaira munhadimī). The quotation evinces that Mingxin identified with the Prophet and that he considered selection by him to be a reason for joy.

His first successor, the Pingliang Taiye, was the preeminent target of such an election and the story how his allegiance was gained through the initiative of Mingxin's missionary, Qalandar, 85 is the content of the subsequent riwāya in K. al-Ğahrī. 86

There is an interesting parallel to the story about Qalandar's mission in *Rašaḥāt*.⁸⁷ The author of this work quotes verses of the *Muḥammas* (v. 152) to illustrate the psychological state, i.e. despair of Muḥammad Muḥyī ad-Dīn Qalandar who was at the verge of dying from hunger on the way to Pingliang, where he was ordered by Mingxin to rush, in only three days, to collect the young preacher of the Upper Mosque:

Qad ʿayya lī markabu s-sairi l-maḥūḍu bihī / fa-fī l-fayāfī man-i l-malǧa l-malūḍu bihī

"The riding beast which I spur on in my way has become weak / Who can serve as the place of refuge in the deserts?"88

Miraculously, soon after there appeared a jar of water and two loaves of bread on the way. Qalandar and his travel companion Watadī quickly realized that

⁸⁴ Manşūr 1933, pp. 63–64; Manşūr/Ma 1997, pp. 50–51.

⁸⁵ In Zhan Ye, p. 31, Qalandar's spiritual state is praised: "Q. reached the highest rank which a man can reach. He spoke about the mysteries and admonished his brethren every day to be conscientious in their performance of the practices 'for there are many secrets on the way'. He also said: 'In our order (*jiaomen* 教門) there are individuals from whose mouths flowers are ejected.'"

⁸⁶ Manşūr 1933, p. 64.

⁸⁷ Guanli Ye 1993, p. 74.

⁸⁸ The translator Yang Wanbao identifies the poem by mentioning its name but fails to give the verse number. Ibn Ḥafīf has devoted ch. 75 of Šarh al-fadā'il to prayers one should say while travelling on one's riding-beast.

it was their šaih's love (qing 情) that had brought the food to them to save their lives.

The Ğahrīs also found specific acts and character qualities of their masters reflected in the poetical verses which guided them in coming to terms with their šaiḥs' activities that, at times, bewildered them.

An example is the dissimulation of Ḥaqīqullāh, son of the Chuanchang Taiye who, when his father was interrogated at the justice court of Lanzhou, pressured to confess his alleged crimes, ⁸⁹ feigned ignorance: "My father did not teach me anything other than [the knowledge] of planting trees from which I take clubs⁹⁰ while I beg." The text continues:

When Wang Ye, a disciple, heard these words of Ḥaqīqullāh, he was deeply moved and he said: 'The ambition (himma) of this man is truly great! The school in Lugouzha (i.e. Jinjibao)'¹ will prosper under his guidance. He has a very clear mind and only pretends to be confused (jiazhuang hutu 假装糊涂; yatağāhalu wa-yatanākaru). He hides his true personality and does not follow [the rulers] as did the Jewish and Christian divines in the Prophet's presence. ⁹² As Būṣīʀī, the author of the Muḥammas (!), says:

Do not be puzzled by the envious who negates it (i. e. the Qur'ānic revelation) / He pretends being ignorant while in truth he is skilful and understanding (lā ta'ǧaban li-ḥasūdin rāḥa yunkiruhā / taǧāhulan wahwa ʿainu l-ḥādiqi l-fahimī; v. 103)."

2.2.4.2 Madā'iḥ (maidayiha 邁達伊哈)93

The Ğahrī Sufis were also required to recite the *Madā'iḥ* on a daily basis. They believed that Ma Mingxin brought the *Madā'iḥ* to China returning from Yemen where he had received the text from Ibn Zain. They discovered references to the names of their masters, both Arab and Chinese, encoded, in particular verses of the *Madā'iḥ*.

In the manuscript of K. al- $\check{G}ahr\bar{\iota}$, the "crimes" are transcribed in Xiaojing by four unintelligible words of which the last two are gan, gou (Mansūr 1933, p. 123).

⁹⁰ The Chin. trans. adds: "to drive away the dogs".

⁹¹ Cf. Yang Xuelin 2010, p. 127.

⁹² Manşūr/Ma 1997, p. 110; Manşūr 1933, p. 124.

⁹³ In a facsimile reproduction of a manuscript published recently in Kunming (for a description cf. Sobieroj 2014, p. 104), the text is followed by a prayer in which the name of Bahā' ad-Dīn an-Naqšbandī is mentioned.

⁹⁴ Cf. Ma Tong 2000b, p. 34.

⁹⁵ Cf. Nuṣratullāh 2009, pp. 6–9; for the names of their masters they discovered in the *Muḥammas* cf. Sobieroj 2016, p. 139, fn. 39.

Analogously to the *Muḥammas*, the *Madā'iḥ* were recited with a melody, while the reciter's voice rose and fell. That this method of recitation has been approved by the Pathfounder becomes clear through a story included both in Guanli Ye 1993, p. 10 and Manṣūr 1933, p. 20 which ends with the mention of one of Mingxin's ten favourite disciples called Sa'd ad-Dīn who knew how to recite the *Madā'iḥ* with melody.

The main part of the text, i.e. chapters 3–16, have been recited by the Ğahrīya as an antiphonal singing, namely with reciter and congregation chanting alternately. The chapters are divided in three parts each, riwāya, ğawāb and bait, i.e. transmission, answer and poetic verse. The performance starts with the singer's riwāya relating to Muḥammad's vita and his recitation is answered by the assembly and concluded with a verse which is recited jointly by singer and assembly; in this arrangement a conducting šaiḥ is present who directs both. In a facsimile manuscript written by the calligrapher Wang Yaocheng (玉耀成, Hongkong, Tianma chuban she, 2011) special devices have been used involving red colour to mark the three constitutive sections.

The *Manāqib* of Zhan Ye includes an example of a *Madā'iḥ* performance. Ḥaqīqullāh appears as the favourite reciter of the text in the presence of the Pingliang Taiye and in the story the šaiḥ and the disciple recited the poem antiphonally. They sat in a circle on their knees and when the šaiḥ recited, the disciple fell silent and when Ḥaqīqullāh recited the šaiḥ moved his hand to the right and to the left (directing the congregation). The disciple was also allowed to choose the poetical verse as well as the Prophetic tradition which he wanted to recite as he had been taught the melody by Qalandar, ⁹⁸ Mingxin's disciple.

Manṣūr 1933, pp. 21–22 includes the description of an 'amal-ceremony in which Qur'ānic verses were recited as well as parts of the *Madā'iḥ*, and in particular the "Great praise" (daliao de ermaili), and a poem introduced by the words šaribnā ("we have drunk"). The prayers traditionally referred to as Daliao 大 7 99 begin with the Fātiḥa and continue with selected verses of the second Sūra possibly also including the prayers with names of God (p. 229) as printed in the facsimile edition of the manuscript of the *Madā'iḥ* published in Hongkong. The identification of the Daliao as the said verses

⁹⁶ Cf. Yang, in Guanli Ye 1993, p. 10.

⁹⁷ Cf. Ma Xuehua 馬學華, imam at the Cangzhou Xisi-mosque 滄州西寺, in *Madā'iḥ*, Hongkong 2011, preface.

⁹⁸ Qalandar, according to Guanli Ye 1993, p. 46, witnessed how Mingxin handed over a copy of the *Muḥammas* to one Taizi Wang Ahong.

⁹⁹ The term is explained by NuṣRATULLĀH 2009, p. 12.

can be understood from the printed headings added to the manuscript text on p. 217. In the hagiographical story, the ceremony was occasioned by the containment—through Mingxin's supernatural intervention—of the inundation of a river which had threatened the Muslims' villages. The divines of the surrounding villages were invited and animals were slaughtered for the feasting.

2.2.4.3 Physiology of recitation

In one of the stories of *K. al-Ğahrī* a glimpse of the physiology of reciting the canonical texts can be caught. There also arises the impression that both *Muhammas* and *Madā'ih* have been recited by the same method:

One of the disciples came to Mingxin with a complaint. He said: "Our maulā, when I enter the circle of remembrance and the assembly of [reciting] the Madā'iḥ and Muḥammas, I feel disquieted, I tremble and shout." The master asked: "Have you felt [anything] (a-ahsasta)?" [...] He said: "You did not draw upward the middle breath" (lam taǧdab anta nafasak al-ausat; tiqi zhongqi 提起中氣). He also said: "Draw upward the middle breath", while pointing with his blessed finger to my umbilicus (surra). When he made the gesture with his finger I felt as if a thread (al-ḥait) was suspended (!, yudallā) from beneath the umbilicus to the top of my scull. ¹⁰⁰ From then on did I feel settled, I became quiet and was not agitated anymore. ¹⁰¹

While the Chinese expression *tiqi zhongqi* may be understood to refer to meditation practices involving the mysterious energy flow called Qi, the original Arabic text mentions the breath (*nafas*) which is central to *dikr* techniques of Central Asian Sufism (Yasawīya, Naqšbandīya)¹⁰² that can be explained without assuming a borrowing of concepts from the Chinese environment.¹⁰³

¹⁰⁰ Literally: 'brain' (fauq ad-dimāģ); cf. GRAMLICH 1976, p. 398 ("Naqšbandīyadikr"); for the location of laṭīfas (the nafs has been established by some Naqšbandīs in the dimāģ) cf. Buehler 1998, p. 111.

¹⁰¹ Mansūr 1933, pp. 51–52; Mansūr/Ma 1997, p. 39.

¹⁰² Both Sufi orders share the same ancestor, viz. Yūsuf Hamadānī (d. 535/1140), the first of the Hwāǧagān (supra; fn. 20; Algar 1976, p. 42). With Yūsuf's successor, Ġiǧduwānī, the exclusive practice of silent dikr becomes established and with Bahā' ad-Dīn silent dikr finally became normative. However, one of Ġiǧduwānī's successors, Maḥmūd Faġnawī, again introduced vocal dikr into the silsila (Algar 1976, pp. 42–43). Algar mentions on p. 45 as instances of vocal dikr practiced by Naqšbandīs under Yasawī influence, i. a., certain "obscure Naqshbandī-Yasawī groups in Kansu, Shensi and Sinkiang". Aḥmad Sirhindī al-Muǧaddidī, besides Ḥālid al-Baġdādī, according to Algar 1976, p. 46, had both "reaffirmed the excellence of silent dikr".

 $^{^{103}}$ The second of the three methods of \underline{dikr} of the Muğaddidīya (cf. Mazhar 1896, p. 197; supra, fn. 16), operating with the negation and affirmation formula, is said to

2.3 Divine grace and predestination versus human works

Notwithstanding the great importance ascribed to the scrupulous performance of the spiritual practices there are indications that it was understood that the goal of mysticism can only be reached as an act of grace by God. Grace is implicitly referred to in the use of the concept of *ğadba*, attraction, exerted by God to the benefit of chosen individuals.

Ma Mingxin taught, while also explaining the <u>ğadba</u> concept, that there are two types of mystics (ahl aṭ-ṭarīqa) which he calls <u>ğahrī</u> and <u>bafī</u>, respectively: "<u>Ğahrī</u> is he who experiences <u>ğadba</u> (dedao tisheng 提升 ['becomes uplifted']); then he is guided to the mirṣād ('check-point') and thereafter he travels on the straight path. As to the <u>bafī</u>, he is <u>bafī</u> first and then experiences <u>ğadba</u>." The translator explains that the latter type of mystic first walks along the way of the practices and thereafter he becomes 'uplifted', i. e. becomes object of God's 'pulling'. ¹⁰⁴

The author of the *Manāqib* invokes the ḥadīt to justify the concept of a divine attraction: "The Prophet said: 'The uplifting by God (ğadabāt al-ḥaqq) exceeds the spiritual works of both men and Jinn.'" Qi Baba (al-Bābā as-sābi') is referred to by way of example (sālik mağdūb [attracted way-farer]; zhijie tiba 直接提拔): "With one step he ascended to heaven (taraqqā bi-riğl wāḥid) and he reached a level in which he stood between God and humankind."

The efficacy of spiritual practices—and human works generally—is also infringed upon by God's predestination which the Sunnī Muslims of the Ğahrīya order have believed in: One Li Ahong from Shandong complained to the Pathfounder that in spite of his assiduously performed devotions of farā'iḍ and nawāfil, i.e. obligatory and voluntary ritual prayers, he did not reach the experience of entering into God's proximity. Mingxin explained that this was due to the divine predestination referred to in Sūra 21/101–3, "But as for those unto whom already the reward has gone forth before from Us, they shall be kept far from it" [i. e. from hell].¹⁰⁶

consist in enclosing the breath beneath the umbilicus (an yaḥṣura n-nafas taḥta s-surra wa-yaṣʿada minhā bi-kalimat lā) and in raising the word lā, "through the tongue of the imagination" (al-ḥayāl), until it reaches the brain. Buehler 1998, p. 110 refers, i.a. to Taoist equivalents (e. g. 'elixir of fields') and quotes Rouselle 1960 as his source.

¹⁰⁴ Manşūr 1933, p. 58; Manşūr/Ma 1997, p. 46; for ğadba, with Indian Naqšbandīs, cf. Buehler 1998, pp. 121–123.

¹⁰⁵ Zhan Ye [n. d.], pp. 16–19; Zhan Ye/Ma 2012, pp. 10–11.

¹⁰⁶ Manşūr 1933, p. 31.

Conclusion

The performance of the spiritual practices described in K. al- $\check{G}ahr\bar{\iota}$, and that of remembrance $(\underline{d}ikr)$ in particular, was designed to bring about, in the novice's consciousness, a state of proximity to God and even an experience of unification through a mystical realization of the $kalimat\ at$ - $tauh\bar{\iota}d$.

The *liqi waiba* formula testifies to the Ğahrīya's belief that their Sufism has been inherited by the Chinese masters from the Arab mystics through an uninterrupted chain of initiatory transmission. The canonical texts used in the practices, according to the Ğahrī tradition, were transmitted to Mingxin in Yemen by his šaih Ibn Zain al-Mizǧāǧī. However, as to the *Aurād*, only through Mingxin's assembling and ordering of the textual units have they been deemed fit to be used in the practices. This, in turn, underlines the importance ascribed to emulating the spiritual master: Without the initiatory intervention of the šaih the practices could not bear fruit. He guided the novice through the pitfalls encountered in the pursuit of the practices by interpreting the mystical states, activating the *laṭīfas* and occasionally also by modifying the *qurubāt*.

Although the Chinese Sufis did their best to assimilate the Arabic language texts and liturgy, i.a. by copying the manuscripts, they knew full well that their mastery of Arabic philology and maybe also their performance of the Islamic ritual was imperfect; wherefore, according to ManṣūR, by way of compensation, they contrasted the exoteric scholars' concentration on Arabic grammar with their own focus on spiritual meanings: The prayers of the Mesopotamian renunciant Ḥasan al-Baṣrī were only accepted by God because in the ritual practice he stood behind Ḥabīb-i 'Aǧamī, a non-Arab Sufi saint.

Bibliography

Sources

Dailamī, 'Alī 1955: *Sīrat aš-Šaiḥ al-Kabīr Abū 'Abdallāh Ibn al-Ḥafīf aš-Šīrāzī*. Ed. A. Schimmel-Tari. Ankara.

AL-ĠAZĀLĪ, MUḤAMMAD: Minhāğ al-ʿābidīn. SUB Göttingen, Cod. MS. arab. 321. AL-ĞĪLĀNĪ, ʿABD AL-QĀDIR 2007: Sirr al-asrār wa-mazhar al-anwār fī-mā yaḥtāğu ilaihi l-abrār. Ed. A. AL-MAZĪDĪ. Beirut 1428 [2007]. Chinese trans. MA TINGYI 馬廷義 1998: Xuanji yu zhenguang 玄機與真光. Lintan 臨潭 (?).

Guanli Ye 関裏爺 1993: Reshihaer 熱什哈爾. Trans. Yang Wanbao 楊萬寶. Ed. Zhang Chengzhi et al. Beijing.

HĀĞĞĪ ḤALĪFA 1835–1858: Kašf az-zunūn 'an asāmī l-kutub wa-l-funūn. Ed. [and trans.] G. Fluegel. Vol. 1–7. Leipzig [repr. New York/London].

- IBN ḤAFĪF, MuḤAMMAD: Šarḥ al-faḍāʾil. Ms. Süleymaniye, Feyzullah Efendi 1296. Manṣūr Ma Xuezhi 馬學智 1933: Kitāb al-Ğahrī. Chinese trans. Ma Yi 馬義 et al. 1997: Daotong shi zhuan 道統史傳. Xiji, Beidasi.
- Маҳнак, Миӊаммар 1896: Manāqib al-aḥmadīya wa-l-maqāmāt as-saʿīdīya. Kazan. Murāp, Muḥammap 1882–1883: Nafāʾis as-Sāʾiḥāt [printed in the margins of Kāšifī: Rašaḥāt ʿain al-ḥayāt]. Al-Maṭbaʿa al-Mīrīya ʿAkkār al-Maḥmīya [stamp]. 1300 [1882–1883].
- Nuṣṇatullāh, Ma Guoquan 馬國權 2009: Tārīḫ al-Ğabrīya. Zheherenye shi 哲赫忍耶史. Yinchuan.
- AL-QUŠAIRĪ, 'ABD AL-KARĪM 1940: ar-Risāla al-Qušairīya. Cairo 1359 [1940].
- AS-SUHRAWARDĪ, 'UMAR 2009: 'Awārif al-ma'ārif. Ed. NAĞĀḤ ṢIYĀM. Kairo.
- ZHAN YE 氊爺, 'ABD AL-AḤAD: *Manāqib*. Published as a facsimile ms. by MA WEIZHI 馬維智. Chin. trans: MA SIREN 馬思仁 2012: *Mannageibu* 曼納給佈. Zhongwei, Ningxia.

Secondary literature

- ALGAR, H. 1976: "Silent and vocal dhikr in the Naqshbandī order." In: Akten des VII. Kongresses für Arabistik und Islamwissenschaft. Ed. A. DIETRICH. Göttingen, pp. 39–46.
- Arberry, A. J. 1996: The Koran interpreted. New York [repr.].
- Aubin, F. 1960-2004: "Taṣawwuf: In Chinese Islam." In: EI² 10, pp. 337a-339a.
- 1990: "En Islam Chinois: Quels Naqshbandis?" In: *Naqshbandis. Cheminements* et situation actuelle etc. Ed. M. Gaborieau [et al.]. Istanbul/Paris, pp. 491-572.
- BABADJANOV, B. 2004: "Ritual Practice of Sufi Communities in Mavara'annahr (18th–19th centuries)." In: Central Asia on Display: Proceedings of the VII. Conference of the European Society for Central Asian Studies. Wien, pp. 297–308.
- Brockelmann, C. 1937–1949: Geschichte der arabischen Litteratur. Vol. 1–2. Suppl.-vol. 1–3. Leiden.
- Buehler, A.F. 1998: Heirs of the Prophet. The Indian Naqshbandiyya and the Rise of the Mediating Sufi Shaykh. Columbia.
- Cнін, R. 2016: "Le livre pour guide: éthique (adab) et cheminement spirituel (sulūk) dans trois manuels soufis etc." In: Ethics and spirituality in Islam. Ed. Снід-вотті, F. [et al.]. Leiden, pp. 520–544.
- Chodkiewicz, M. 1993: An Ocean without shore. Albany.
- DARNĪQA, M.A. 1987: aṭ-Ṭarīqa an-Naqšbandīya wa-aʿlāmuhā. Ṭarābulus 1407 [1987].
- Daub, F.-W. 2016: Formen und Funktionen des Layouts in arabischen Manuskripten etc. Wiesbaden.
- FENG ZENGLIE 馮增烈 2007: "Amal 爾買裏." In: Zhongguo yisilan baike quanshu 中國伊斯蘭百科全書. [Encyclopaedia of Chinese Islam]. Chengdu, p. 142.
- FLETCHER, J. 1995a: "The Naqshbandiyya in northwest China." In: Studies on Chinese and Islamic Inner Asia. Ed. B. F. Manz. Aldershot [et al.], XI, pp. 1–46.
- 1995b: "The Naqshbandiyya and the dhikr-i arra." In: Studies on Chinese and Islamic Inner Asia. Ed. B.F. Manz. Aldershot [et al.], VI, pp. 114–119.

- Forbes, A.D. 1960-2004: "Ma Ming-Hsin." In: EI² 5, pp. 850b-852b.
- GRAMLICH, R. 1976: Die schiitischen Derwischorden Persiens. Zweiter Teil: Glauben und Lehre. Wiesbaden.
- 1989: Das Sendschreiben al-Qušayrīs über das Sufitum. Wiesbaden (Freiburger Islamstudien 12).
- LIPMAN, J. 1997: Familiar strangers: a history of Muslims in Northwest China. Seattle/London.
- 1999: "Sufism in the Chinese Courts etc." In: Islamic Mysticism Contested. Ed.
 F. DE JONG/B. RADTKE. Leiden/Boston/Köln, pp. 556-575.
- MA TONG 馬通 2000a (1980): Zhongguo yisilan jiaopai yu menhuan zhidu shilüe 中國伊斯蘭教派與門宦制度史略. Yinchuan.
- 2000b: Zhongguo yisilan jiaopai menhuan suyuan 中國伊斯蘭教派門宦溯源. Yinchuan [repr. of the 1985 edition].
- 2000с: "A Brief History of the Qâdiriyya in China." Tr. and intr. J. LIPMAN. In: Journal of the History of Sufism 1-2, pp. 547–576.
- 2007: "Ma Laichi." In: Zhongguo yisilan baike quanshu. Chengdu, pp. 337–338.
- MA XIN 馬鑫: Zheherenye renwu zhi 哲合忍耶人物志. Neibu. No place. [Ca. 2015]. MEIER, F. 1994: Zwei Abhandlungen über die Nagšbandīya. Istanbul.
- Papas, A. 2018: Jami in Regional contexts. The Reception of 'Abd al-Rahman Jami's Works in the Islamicate World, ca. 9th/15th-14th/20th Century. Leiden (HdO I.128).
- REICHMUTH, S. 2009: The World of Murtada al-Zabidi (1732-91). Cambridge.
- RITTER, H. 1933: "Hasan al-Baṣrī. Studien zur Geschichte der islamischen Frömmigkeit." In: *Der Islam* 21.
- ROUSSELLE, ERWIN et al. 1960: "Spiritual Guidance in Contemporary Taoism [1933]." In: *Papers from the Eranos Yearbooks. Eranos 4: Spiritual Disciplines*. Princeton, New Jersey, pp. 59–101.
- SAGUCHI, T. 1960–2004a: "Kansu." In: EI² 4, pp. 553b–555a.
- 1960-2004b: "Yunnan." In: EI² 11, pp. 346-347.
- Sobieroj, F. 2014: "Arabic manuscripts on the periphery: Northwest Africa, Yemen and China." In: *Manuscript Cultures: Mapping the Field*. Ed. J. Quenzer [et al.]. Berlin, pp. 79–112.
- 2016: "The Chinese Sufi Wiqāyatullāh Ma Mingxin and the Construction of his Sanctity in Kitāb al-Jahrī." In: Asia 70(1), pp. 133–169.
- WATT, W.M./R. Bell 1991: Introduction to the Qur'an. Edinburgh [repr. of the 1970 ed.].
- YANG XUELIN 楊學林 2010: Zheherenye 哲赫忍耶. Yinchuan.
- YANG ZONGSHAN 楊宗山 [et al.] 2007: "Libai 禮拜 (al-Ṣalāt)." In: Zhongguo yisilan baike quanshu. Chengdu, pp. 311–313.
- YE FUDONG 冶福東 2009: Guanyu Zheherenye Yemen qi bei chuanren etc. In: Naigeshibandiye de yuan yu liu 乃格什班底耶的源與流. Ed. YE FUDONG. Hongkong.