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Jews and Arabs in Pre- and Early Islamic Arabia



Professor Michael Lecker (Photo: Douglas Guthrie, Jerusalem) Michael Lecker

Jews and Arabs in Pre- and Early Islamic Arabia



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PREFACE

The articles included in this volume were published between the years 1985–97. As can be seen from the table of contents, they are not arranged chronologically but according to subjects. I have taken the opportunity to correct some slips and add several notes. The extensive index prepared for this volume, while giving away a love for details, demonstrates the egalitatian nature of Islamic historiography which accords thousands of men and women a name and a voice of their own.

The study of Islamic history and literature is a relatively young field of research, hence the large number of unexplored Arabic sources. In fact, the gap between current research and the potential evidence seems to be growing as more and more sources, some of which are quite voluminous, arrive at our libraries. Considering the difficulties of language and interpretation, progress is bound to be arduous and slow. However, we are now better equipped than ever before to study the history and literature of Islam during its formative centuries.

The tradition of philological training in Arabic is still alive in Jerusalem which is a hub of research into a variety of Islamic texts. Theories come and go, but in order to thoroughly study the history of Islam and the emergence of Islamic historiography we must explore the broadest possible spectrum of the textual evidence.

Grateful acknowledgment is made to Professor M.J. Kister and Professor L.I. Conrad for initiating this volume.

My thanks are due to the editors and publishers of the journals in which the articles originally appeared, for permission to reprint them in this volume: Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam (II, VIII, IX, X, XI); the American Oriental Society (XIV); Journal of Near Eastern Studies, and the University of Chicago Press (III, VII); Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society and Cambridge University Press (XV); Journal of Semitic Studies and Oxford University Press (XVI); Le Muséon (I, VI); Oriens and E.J. Brill, Leiden (IV); al-Qantara (XII); Quaderni di Studi Arabi (V); Studia Islamica (XVIII); Die Welt des Orients (XIII); and Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft (XVII).

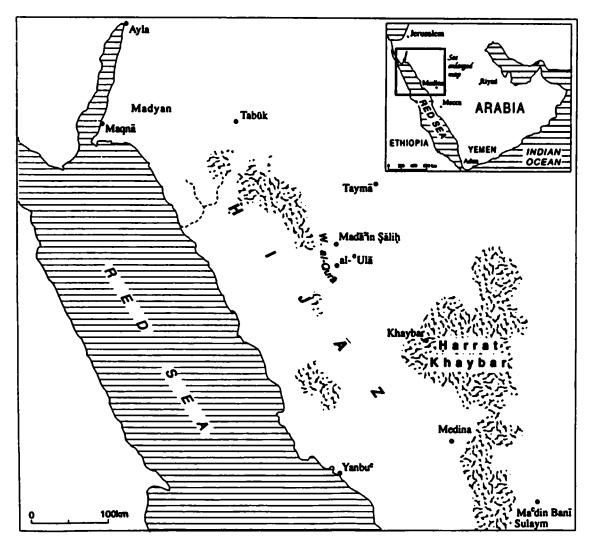
I am grateful to Dr John Smedley and Mrs Ruth Peters for their good counsel and help with regard to the organization and production of this volume.

Jerusalem August 1998

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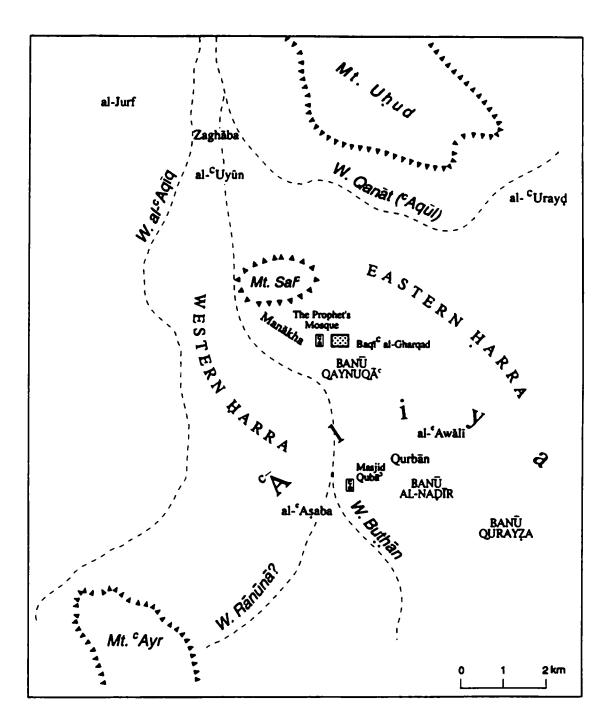
The articles in this volume, as in all others in the Collected Studies Series, have not been given a new, continuous pagination. In order to avoid confusion, and to facilitate their use where these same studies have been referred to elsewhere, the original pagination has been maintained wherever possible.

Each article has been given a Roman numeral in order of appearance, as listed in the Contents. This number is repeated on each page and quoted in the index entries.



Map 1: North-Western Arabia

Reproduced by kind permission of E.J. Brill, Leiden.



Map 2: Medina and its surroundings

Reproduced by kind permission of E.J. Brill, Leiden.

IDOL WORSHIP IN PRE-ISLAMIC MEDINA (YATHRIB)

Maqrīzī's universal history *al-Khabar 'ani l-bashar* includes a few passages which add considerably to our knowledge of pre-Islamic idol worship in Arabia in general and in Medina in particular².

Magrīzī obviously collected these passages over a long period of time from different sources which he does not specify³. However, a little earlier in the MS (p. 425) 'Umar b. Shabba (d. 264/877) is quoted as the source of a report concerning the idol Sa'd (situated near Jedda). Ibn Shabba could well be the source of the information about the idols of Medina also, or at least of part of it, although the text discussed in this article could not be found in the printed edition of his Akhbār al-Madīna. But, as is well-known, the MS on which this edition is based is incomplete⁴. Alternatively, if Ibn Shabba is indeed the source, then the information could come from another book of his. A few pages earlier than the text discussed here Magrizi guotes Ibn Shabba's Akhbar Makka, and it is quite feasible that this work was the source of Magrizi's information. There is some indirect evidence in support of this possibility: Samhūdī quotes from Akhbār Makka a notice about Mukaymin, an idol located in the 'Agig near Medina⁵. If the Akhbar Makka has information on an idol near Medina it may well contain information on idols inside it also.

The Arabic text examined here appears at the end of the study. Its eight passages have been rearranged in the discussion for the sake of lucidity.

¹ The first draft of this study was read in Jerusalem in July 1987 at the Colloquium "From Jähiliyya to Islam". I wish to thank the participants for their comments and suggestions. I am indebted to M. J. Kister for commenting on the final draft of this paper. Thanks are also due to S. Hopkins for the many improvements he suggested. Ever since 1 first came across the following passages 1 have tried in vain to find an Arabic text which will establish the readings of the idols' names.

² MS Cairo, Dār al-Kutub, Ta'rīkh 947, vol. III,iii, 426-7. 1 wish to thank the authorities of the Dār al-Kutub for their kind permission to work there in December 1983.

³ Al-Khabar 'ani l-bashar was one of Maqrīzī's last works and he was still working on it in 844/1441 (i.e., shortly before his death in 845 A.H.); C. BROCKELMANN, Geschichte der arabischen Literatur, Suppl. II, Leiden, 1938, 37f.

⁴ Hamad al-Jāsir, "Mu'allafāt fī ta'rīkhi l-Madīna", no. 3, in Majallat al-'arab, IV.iv (January 1970), 327f; Majd ad-Dīn Muḥammad b. Ya'qūb al-Fīrūzābādī, al-Maghānim al-muțāba fī ma'ālim tāba, Riyād, 1389/1969, Introduction, p. zāy.

⁵ Samhūdī, Wafā, s.v. Mukaymin, II, 1311 (wa-fi akhbār Makka li-'bn Shabba annahu kāna bi-Jammā'i l-'Āqir bi-'Aqīqi l-Madīna sanam yuqālu lahu l-Mukaymin).

1. The list of clans and idols

(1). He said: Every clan (*bain*) of the Aws and the Khazraj, who are the Anşār, had an idol in a room (*bayi*) belonging to the whole clan which they honoured and venerated and to which they sacrificed.

- 1. The Banū (henceforward: B.) 'Abd al-Ashhal had al-Harīsh.
- 2. The B. Hāritha had Şakhr.
- 3. The B. Zafar had Shams⁶.
- 4. The B. Mu'āwiya had al-B.hām.
- 5. The B. 'Amr b. 'Awf had al-Qayn.
- 6. The B. Khatma had Shafr.
- 7. The Qawāqila had al-Habs⁷.
- 8. The B. Umayya had Ghayyān.
- 9. The B. Salima had Isaf.
- 10. The B. 'Adī b. an-Najjār had Samūl.
- 11. The B. Dīnār b. an-Najjār had Husā (Husan).
- 12. The B. Mālik b. an-Najjār had at-Ţamm (Altam?).
- 13. The B. Zurayq had as-Samh.

This passage (some of the readings and vocalizations are naturally uncertain) significantly increases our knowledge of pre-Islamic idolatry because the idols mentioned in it (presumably with the exception of no. 9 in the list, on which see below) are unknown to us from other sources⁸. The first six clans and the eighth are of the Aws and the rest are of the Khazraj. It seems unlikely that the other clans of the Aws and the Khazraj did not have idols; our information simply is incomplete.

Each bain had an idol of its own. That 'Abd al-Ashhal, Hāritha, Zafar etc. were buin is confirmed by the genealogical information⁹.

2. The Aws

For some reason Maqrīzī's information is most detailed concerning the idols of a subgroup of Aws called Nabīt. To this group belong the first four *buţūn*: 'Abd al-Ashhal, Hāritha, Zafar and Mu'āwiya¹⁰.

⁶ Cf. the idol Shams of Tamim, e.g. WELLHAUSEN, Reste, 60-1; HOFNER, Die Stammesgruppen, 467f.

⁸ WELLHAUSEN, *Reste*, 215, has remarked correctly that we know only a fraction of the names of the Arabian idols.

⁹ See for example Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 338 ('Abd al-Ashhal, Hāritha and Zafar are each defined as a bain), 358 (Salima are defined as a bain).

¹⁰ In fact the Mu'āwiya were not included in the genealogy of Nabīt although they cooperated with them. For an attempt of 'Abd al-Ashhal, Zafar, *Mu'āwiya* and "the people of Rātij" on the eve of the Hijra to ally Quraysh see LECKER, *Muḥammad at Medina*,

⁷ For 'Ubāda b. aṣ-Ṣāmit of the Qawāqila see below, p. 340.

Concerning the idols of the 'Amr b. 'Awf, no. 5 in the list, it should be noted that Sahl b. Hunayf of the Hanash subdivision of 'Amr b. 'Awf is said to have destroyed the idols of his clan. He reportedly brought the wooden debris to a destitute Muslim woman in Qubā' to be used as firewood. Sahl was among the closest supporters of 'Alī b. Abī Tālib and it comes as no surprise that the story is told on 'Alī's authority¹¹.

2.1. Qays b. al-Khațīm's wife

(6) Hawwa' bint Yazīd was the wife of Qays b. al-Khaṭīm. She said: "Qays was a man whom others did not dare to challenge (*lā yurāmu*). One day I assaulted his idol and destroyed it. When he entered he looked at it and said: "What is this? Did you do this?" She(!) said: 'No, the ewe butted it'". So he went to the ewe and slaughtered it.

This comic passage is a further reference to idol worship among the Nabīt to which both Hawwā' and her husband, the renowned poet Qays b. al-Khatīm, belonged. Hawwā' was of the *bațn* called 'Abd al-Ashhal, more precisely of the abovementioned Za'ūrā', as is shown by her pedigree: Hawwā' bint Yazīd b. Sakan b. Kurz b. Za'ūrā' b. 'Abd al-Ashhal¹². Qays b. al-Khatīm was of the *bațn* called Zafar¹³.

2.2. Idols and genealogy

Al-Harīsh of the 'Abd al-Ashhal¹⁴ and al-Ghayyān of the Umayya (viz. nos. 1 and 8 in the list) are of interest because their names can be traced in the genealogies of the respective clans. Perhaps these two were ancestor statuettes (images of dead kin), in which case we may expect them to have been at least roughly anthropoid¹⁵.

44; M. J. KISTER, On strangers and allies in Mecca, in JSAI, 13 (1990), 142f. We do not hear of idols belonging to the Za'ūrā', a bain of the Nabit (IBN HAZM, Ansāh, p. 338), presumably because they were Jewish; cf. LECKER, op. cit., 44f.

¹¹ IBN HISHAM, II, 138-9. Cf. BALADH., Ansab, I, 265 ('Abdallah b. Jubayr [of the 'Amr b. 'Awf; cf. Işāba, IV, 35] and Sahl b. Hunayf used to break the idols and bring the debris to the Muslims). BUHL, Leben, 79, remarks correctly that the household idols were made of wood since they were usually said to have been burnt.

¹² Sa'd b. Mu'ādh of 'Abd al-Ashhal was Hawwā's matemal uncle; Usd, V, 431:13.

¹³ See also IBN SA'D, VIII, 323-4; Usd, V, 431:12; Işāba, VII, 589-90.

¹⁴ Cf. WELLHAUSEN, *Reste*, 64 (who notes the appearance of al-Ashhal in the theophoric name 'Abd al-Ashhal).

¹⁵ Cf. perhaps J. HENNINGER, Einiges über Ahnenkult bei arabischen Beduinen, in J. HEN-NINGER, Arabia Sacra, Göttingen, 1981, 170f. (originally published in W. HOENERBACH [ed.], Der Orient in der Forschung: Festschrift für Otto Spies, Wiesbaden, 1967, 301f.). Also K. VAN DEER TOORN, The Nature of the Biblical Teraphimn in the Light of the Cuneiform Evidence, in The Catholic Biblical Quarterly, 52 (1990), 203f. (where it is argued that the teraphim are more likely to have been ancestor figurines than household idols), 207. Al-Harīsh is 'Abd al-Ashhal's brother and the eponym of the B. al-Harīsh, a brother-clan of the B. 'Abd al-Ashhal¹⁶. At some stage the Harīsh were incorporated into the 'Abd al-Ashhal¹⁷, which should perhaps be linked to the fact that the idol al-Harīsh is said to have been worshipped by the B. 'Abd al-Ashhal.

The Ghayyān were a subdivision of the B. Khatma (no. 6 in the list)¹⁸. We find Ghayyān b. 'Āmir b. Khatma in the pedigree of the Prophet's Companion Khuzayma b. Thābit b. al-Fākih b. Tha'laba b. Sā'ida b. 'Āmir b. Ghayyān b. 'Āmir b. Khatma¹⁹.

The Umayya said by Maqrīzī to have worshipped Ghayyān were a subgroup of Khatma: the abovementioned Ghayyān had a brother called Umayya who was presumably the eponym of another branch of Khatma. This Umayya appears in the pedigree of the Prophet's Companion 'Umayr b. 'Adī b. Kharasha b. *Umayya* b. 'Āmir b. Khatma²⁰. In other words the statement "the B. Umayya had Ghayyān" involves two different branches of Khatma; similarly the statement "the B. 'Abd al-Ashhal had al-Harīsh" involves two clans who were (initially) brother-clans.

The late Islamization of the Khatma and their indifferent or even hostile attitude to the Prophet account for the scarcity of information about them in the genealogical sources²¹. These deal with the Khatma very briefly and mention only a few of them, including the abovementioned Companions Khuzayma and 'Umayr. It so happens that both of them are said to have destroyed the idols of the Khatma²².

On the basis of the above data alone one could argue that idol worship was most widespread among the Nabīt while the 'Amr b. 'Awf had only one idol (al-Qayn), the Khatma had two (Shafr and al-Ghayyān) and the

¹⁶ IBN HAZM, Ansāb, 338; IBN AL-KALBI, Jamharat an-nasab, ed. N. HASAN, Beirut, 1407/1986, 633. IBN QUDĀMA, Istibsār, 299f., dedicates to the Harīsh a separate item. (Another Harīsh, of the 'Amr b. 'Awf, does not concern us here: al-Harīsh b. Jahjabā was the forefather of the pre-Islamic leader Uhayha b. al-Julāh. It is not clear why az-Zubayr [b. Bakkār] says that al-Harīsh b. Jahjabā is the only Harīsh in the genealogy of the Anṣār, the rest being Harīs [with a sīn]; IBN MĂKULĂ, al-Ikmāl, ed. AL-YAMĀNĪ, Hyderabad, 1381/1962, II, 420.)

¹⁷ Cf. LECKER, Muhammad at Medina, 45, n. 115 (Harish figures as 'Abd al-Ashhal's son in the pedigree of a Companion).

¹⁸ The *Tāj al-'arūs* mentions two groups in Medina called Ghayyān: B. Ghayyān b. 'Âmir b. Hanzala (read: Khaṭma!) of the Aws and the B. Ghayyān b. Tha'laba b. Ṭarīf of the Khazraj. The former are meant here.

¹⁹ IBN HAZM, Ansāb, 343f. He was nicknamed Dhū sh-shahādatayni; see Usd, II, 114; Işāba, II, 278-9.

²⁰ Incidentally, 'Umayr assassinated the Jewish poetess 'Asmā' bint Marwān; IBN HAZM, Ansāb, 343.

²¹ E.g. IBN HAZM, Ansab, 343.

²² Usd, II, 114:6; Istī'āb, III, 1218. See also Isāba, II, 278 (Khuzayma).

rest of the Aws, namely the Imru'u al-Qays b. Mālik (the Wāqif and the Salm) and the Murra b. Mālik (the Umayya, the Wā'il and the 'Aṭiyya) had none. But this would be wrong. For example, the idols of the Wāqif are mentioned elsewhere in the context of the Islamization of one of them²³.

3. The Khazraj

Maqrīzī's text mentions idols of the Qawāqila (a subdivision of the 'Awf b. al-Khazraj), the Salima, the Zurayq and three subdivisions of the Najjār²⁴. We shall mention below references to the idols of the Hārith b. al-Khazraj (section 3.3), the Sā'ida and the Bayāda (section 3.5).

3.1. The Najjār

A man of Najjār was in charge (?) of their idols. This is shown by the report about the expulsion, at the Prophet's behest, of the Munāqifūn (the hypocrites) from the Prophet's mosque. Abū Ayyūb of the Ghanm b. Mālik b. an-Najjār, a subdivision of the Mālik b. an-Majjār (cf. no. 12 in the list), violently expelled 'Amr b. Qays who was of the same subdivision from the mosque. We are told in this context that 'Amr was in the Jāhiliyya in charge(?) of their idols (kāna ṣāḥiba ālihatihim fī l-jāhiliyya)²⁵.

Three prominent members of Najjār reportedly destroyed idols when they embraced Islam: As'ad b. Zurāra, 'Umāra b. Hazm and 'Awf b. 'Afrā'²⁶. They destroyed the idols of the Mālik b. an-Najjār²⁷. All three were of the Ghanm b. Mālik b. an-Najjār²⁸.

²³ Usd, V, 66, s.v. Hilâl b. Umayya al-Wāqifi (... wa-kāna yukassiru asnāma B. Wāqif).

²⁴ Owing to our incomplete evidence there is no mention of an idol belonging to the fourth component of Najjär, the Mäzin b. an-Najjär.

²⁵ IBN HISHAM, II, 175. The 'Amr b. Qays of the Ghanm b. Mālik mentioned in the dictionaries of the Companions is identical with our 'Amr b. Qays (although the dictionaries tell us nothing of his attitude to the Prophet). 'Amr's pedigree shows that he was of a subdivision of the Ghanm called B. Sawād b. Ghanm b. Mālik (or Sawād b. Mālik b. Ghanm b. Mālik); IBN QUDAMA, *Istibṣār*, 64f., 68; *Iṣāba*, IV, 671; Usd, IV, 127:4 from bottom; *Istī'āb*, III, 1199; IBN SA'D, III, 495.

²⁶ 'Awf b. al-Hārith, also called 'Awf b. 'Afrā' (after his mother), was killed at Badr; IBN SA'D, III, 493. He was As'ad's relative: his mother 'Afrā bint 'Ubayd was the sister of As'ad's grandfather; cf. IBN HISHAM, II, 71; IBN SA'D, III, 608. See on 'Awf *Isāba*, IV, 739; Usd, IV, 155-6 (cf. s.v. 'Awdh b. 'Afra', op. cit., 153; Isti'āb, III, 1247, 1225-6).

²⁷ IBN SA'D, III, 609f. (... yukassirüna aşnāma B. Mālik b. an-Najjār). See also IBN SA'D, III, 486.

²⁸ The Ghanm are a separate group in the entries on the participants of Badr found in IBN SA'D, III, 484-97. The same list appears in WAQ., I, 161-3, who has an even more detailed account of Ghanm's subdivisions. Wāqidī and Ibn Sa'd (who mention the same people) follow basically the same order of names; however. Ibn Sa'd lists the *hulufā* of the Ghanm after the Ghanm themselves while Wāqidī incorporates them in the relevant Ι

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Of these three As'ad b. Zurāra was by far the most important figure. His position, we are told, was unparalleled by that of other Anṣārī leaders. A report going back to his grandson (from his daughter; As'ad had no sons) claims that at the 'Aqaba-meeting he was ra's an-nuqabā'²⁹.

As'ad is associated with another close supporter of the Prophet, Abū I-Haytham b. at-Tayyihān. It is reported that Abū I-Haytham and As'ad hated the idols and were disgusted by them, and they believed in monotheism (yakrahu l-aṣnāma... wa-yu'affīfu bihā wa-yaqūlu bi-ttawhīd). Both were among the first Anṣār to embrace Islam (which they did in Mecca, before the Hijra)³⁰.

3.2. The Salima

(2). Every nobleman (*rajul sharif*) had one of these idols. In the house of 'Amr b. al-Jamūh there was an idol called Sāf (cf. above, section 1 no. 9) which was destroyed by Mu'ādh b. Jabal (may God be pleased with him) and Mu'ādh b. 'Amr b. al-Jamūh.

14. Al-Barā' b. Ma'rūr had an idol called ad-Dībāj.

15. Al-Jadd b. Qays had an idol called az-Zabr.

(8) The Salima had an idol called Manāf (cf. above, section 1, no. 9). One of them, a man called al-Jamūh (read: Mu'ādh b. 'Amr b. al-Jamūh) attacked it, bound a dog (i.e. dog's carrion) to it and then threw it into a well where it was found. Al-Jamūh (read: 'Amr b. al-Jamūh) said:

"Praise be to God, the Great, the conferrer of favours, indeed He has disgraced Manāf, the sullied one;

I swear: had you been a god you would not have been bound together with a dog in the middle of a well".

This is a garbled fragment of a report found in other sources as well. According to Ibn Ishāq's report concerning the Islamization of 'Amr b. al-Jamūh³¹, 'Amr was one of the sayyids of the Salima and one of their noblemen (sayyidan min sādāt B. Salima wa-sharīfan min ashrāfihim).

subdivisions of the Ghanm. Similarly, the Ghanm form a separate group in the information on the territory of the B. Mälik b. an-Najjär: it is reported that the Ghanm built a fortress called Fuwayri'; in its place the court of Hasan b. Zayd b. Hasan b. 'Ali b. Abī Țălib was later situated; SAMHODI, Wafa', 1, 210.

²⁹ IBN SA'D, III, 602, 611, quoting Wāqidī, from Ma'mar b. Rāshid, from Zuhrī, from (As'ad's grandson) Abū Umāma b. Sahl b. Hunayf. Abū Umāma's name was As'ad: he received both the name and the kunya of his famous grandfather; IBN SA'D, III, 471; Tahdh., I, 263-5; Işāba, I, 181-2 (d. 100/718-9). Cf. BALADH., Ansab, I, 243:13 (naqīb an-nuqabā').

³¹ Ibn Hishäm, II, 95-6.

³⁰ IBN SA'D, III, 448.

In his house he had a wooden idol, as was common among the noblemen. They would take for themselves an idol, honour and purify (i.e. consecrate) it (kamā kānati l-ashrāf yaşna'ūna, tattakhidhuhu ilāhan tu'azzimuhu wa-tutahhiruhu)³².

The name of the idol in the source just quoted, Manāt, is identical to the name of the main idol of the Anṣār which was located at al-Mushallal near the seashore. But the letter $f\bar{a}$ is consistent in Maqrīzī's text and it seems that the version Manāf is preferable³³. Manāf is presumably identical with the idol of the Salima and the idol of 'Amr b. al-Jamūh, mentioned above as "Isāf" and "Sāf"³⁴.

The verses of 'Amr b. al-Jamūh belong to a pattern known from similar stories of idol worshippers who repented having realized, upon the humiliation of their idol, the falsity of their belief. The Muslim youths who attacked the idol included 'Amr's son Mu'ādh; conflict between fathers and sons is a prevalent topic in the $s\bar{r}a$.

Abū Nu'aym adduces another piece of Ibn Ishāq's report, not preserved by Ibn Hishām, on the Islamization of 'Amr b. al-Jamūh³⁵. After the rest of the (Salima) clan had embraced Islam, 'Amr expressed readiness to follow suit. However, before doing so he went to consult the idol (called here: Manāt!). Whenever they wanted to talk to the idol, the report goes on, an old woman came, stood behind it and answered on its behalf. However, when 'Amr came, the old woman was concealed (*wa-ghuyyibati l-'ajūz*). 'Amr talked to the idol for a long time but it could not answer. 'Amr said (crossly): "I think that you are angry although I have not done anything yet" (*azunnuka qad ghadibta wa-lam aşna' ba'du shay'an*), and he broke it to pieces. The story of the frustrated dialogue ridicules the gullibility of the naive worshipper.

³² Cf. ABU NU'AYM, Dalā'il, 266: 'Amr washed his idol, purified and perfumed it after it had been rescued from a dung pit. In other words he "reconsecrated" it after it had been profaned.

³³ WELLHAUSEN, Reste, 28 (= Ibn Hishām) thought that Manāt of Medina was an image of the main idol Manāt; see also BUHL, Leben, 80, n. 217. Cf. T. FAHD, Le panthéon de l'Arabie centrale à la veille de l'hégire, Paris, 1968, 29; 122, n. 11 (read: Salima instead of Salama); and see on Manāt HOFNER, Die Stammesgruppen, 454f; FAHD, op. cit., 123-6; El², s.v. Manāf and Manāt (T. Fahd). Fahd's location of Manāt "about 15 km. from Yathrib" (373R) must be a misprint.

³⁴ Isaf is also the name of a Meccan idol; cf. WELLHAUSEN, Reste, 92 (the occurrence of the name Isaf among the Khazraj suggests a link with Quraysh). IBN KALBI, Aşnām, 32, mentions an idol called Manäf which appears in the Qurashite theophoric name 'Abd Manäf; WELLHAUSEN, Reste, 3, 56f.; BUHL, Leben, 75, n. 195; HÖFNER, Die Stammesgruppen, 453f.; 1D., Die vorislamischen Religionen Arabiens, 367.

³⁵ Dalā'il, 267-8; Minjāb b. al-Hārith (d. 231; Tahdh., X, 297-8), from Ziyād b. 'Abdallāh al-Bakkā ī, from Ibn Ishāq, from his father Ishāq b. Yasār, from a man of the Salima. In addition we learn from Maqrīzī that there were at least two other idols of Salima, one belonging to al-Barā' b. Ma'rūr of the 'Ubayd subdivision of Salima and the other to al-Jadd b. Qays of the same subdivision. ('Amr b. al-Jamūh was of the Harām subdivision of the Salima). We realize that in addition to the idol worshipped by the whole clan of Salima (*jamā'ati l-bațn*, section 1), plausibly kept by 'Amr b. al-Jamūh, two noblemen of the Salima, viz. al-Barā' b. Ma'rūr and al-Jadd b. Qays, had idols of their own. Domestic idols presumably existed in every household. In other words, we may speak of a hierarchy of idols which correlated with the social status of their owners.

Another correlation which is noteworthy is the one between idols and fortresses. Of the three noblemen of Salima mentioned above, two are known to have owned fortresses: al-Barā' of the 'Ubayd subdivision owned one called al-Ashnaq and 'Amr of the Harām subdivision owned Jā'is³⁶.

3.3. The Harith b. al-Khazraj

(3). When the seventy who participated in the 'Aqaba-meeting arrived, they began destroying the idols. 'Abdallāh b. Rawāḥa (may God be pleased with him) entered the house of an old man, bound up his idol with some carrion, then laid it at his door. The old man woke up and saw it. He said: "Who did this to our god?" He was told: "This is the deed of Ibn Rawāḥa". Ibn Rawāḥa came to him and told him: "Are you not ashamed, being one of our distinguished men, to worship wood which you made with your own hand?" The old man said: "I do not attack it, I am worried about my young children". Bashīr b. Sa'd laughed³⁷ and said: "Does it have the power to harm or benefit?" Then 'Abdallāh b. Rawāḥa broke it and the old man embraced Islam.

The old man was presumably of the Hārith b. al-Khazraj because both 'Abdallāh b. Rawāha and Bashīr b. Sa'd were of this clan³⁸. The report

³⁶ SAMHUDI, Wafā', I, 202. This leaves us on one hand with the third nobleman al-Jadd and on the other with a fortress of the 'Ubayd called al-Atwal the owner of which is unspecified; SAMHUDI, Wafā', loc. cit. Perhaps it should be suggested that al-Jadd was the owner of al-Atwal. Incidentally, al-Jadd was Barā's paternal cousin; Usd, I, 274. In other words, we can talk of the leading family of the 'Ubayd subdivision.

³⁷ Bashīr b. Sa'd's abrupt appearance on the scene shows that this is an abridged version of the report.

³⁸ Bashīr was married to 'Abdallāh's sister; IBN SA'D, III, 531; WAQ., II, 476; IBN QUDĂMA, *Istibṣār*, 112-3. Both 'Abdallāh and Bashīr were literate before Islam; IBN SA'D, III, 526, 531. 'Abdallāh was also one of the Prophet's scribes; *Iṣāba*, IV, 83. concerning 'Abdallāh b. Rawāha and Abū d-Dardā' (see below), who was also a member of the Hārith, points in the same direction.

'Abdallāh, who was at the 'Aqaba-meeting the *naqīb* of the Hārith b. al-Khazraj³⁹, was chosen by the Prophet to break the news of the victory at Badr to the people of the 'Āliya of Medina⁴⁰. There are also other indications that 'Abdallāh was trusted by the Prophet. He and Mu'āđh b. Jabal (above, p. 336) were in charge of the shares from the crops of Khaybar given to the Hārith b. al-Khazraj and the Salima, respectively⁴¹. 'Abdallāh was sent by the Prophet to Khaybar as evaluator of its produce of dates as a basis for deciding the Muslims' share. He continued in this office until he was killed in the battlefield of Mu'ta⁴².

(4). Abū d-Dardā' was the last person in the territory of his clan (or his family) to embrace Islam. 'Abdallāh b. Rawāḥa used to urge him to embrace Islam but he refused. And he was his friend. He waited for an opportunity and when Abū d-Dardā' left (the house), 'Abdallāh entered his house and broke his idol, reciting: "I repudiate the names of the devils, all of them. Verily, everything which is associated with God in prayer is void". His wife said: "You have ruined me, O Ibn Rawāḥa".

⁴⁰ IBN SA'D, III, 526. Note that the territory of the Harith was considered part of the 'Âliya; SAMHUDI, Wafa', I, 198-9.

⁴¹ WAQ., II, 690. See also IBN SA'D, III, 526 ('Abdallāh in command of an expedition to Khaybar to kill a Jewish leader); WAQ., II, 566 ('Abdallāh and three others collect intelligence in Khaybar). Cf. the report on the aftermath of the battle of Uhud: Mu'ādh brought the women of the Salima and 'Abdallāh brought the women of the Hārith to bewail the death of the Prophet's uncle Hamza b. 'Abd al-Muttalib; WAQ., I, 317.

⁴² IBN SA'D, III, 526. WAQ., II, 691 and SUYUT, ad-Durr al-manthur fi t-tafsir bi-lma'thur, Cairo, 1314 A.H., II, 284:14, report on attempts by the Jews to bribe him. It is not clear who replaced him after his death: Abū l-Haytham b. at-Tayyihān, or Jabbār b. Sakhr, or Farwa b. 'Amr; WAQ., II, 691. Jabbar b. Sakhr (of the 'Ubayd subdivision of Salima) reportedly replaced 'Abdallah after the latter had held the office of evaluator for one year; Majma' az-zawā'id, III, 76; Isāba, I, 449. It is said of Jabbār: wa-kāna khārisa ahli I-Madīna wa-hāsibahum; Işāba, I, 450. These three, together with Zayd b. Thabit, were the "dividers" (qussām) who helped 'Umar b. al-Khattāb re-allocate the crops of Khaybar after the expulsion of the Jews; WAQ., II, 718 (read: Jabbar instead of Hubab; see WAQ., II, 720, 721). Farwa (on whose role in destroying idols see section 3.5 below) was very skilful in evaluating crops; Isāba, V, 365. He had been in charge of Bayāda's share in the crops of Khaybar; WAQ., II, 690. According to another report he was put in charge of the spoils of Khaybar; IBN SA'D, III, 599. There are reports that Farwa carried out evaluation in Medina itself. This is important because it indicates that the Prophet received a fixed share from the crops of Medina. The reports on this are explicit; see IBN SA'D, loc. cit.; wa-'sta'malahu rasūlu 'llāhi (Ș.) 'alā l-maghānimi yawma Khaybar wa-kāna yab'athuhu khārisan bi-l-Madīna; Isāba, V, 364-5: anna n-nabiyya (Ş.) kāna yab'athu ... Farwa b. 'Amr fa-yakhrusu thamra ahli l-Madina. Also Usd, IV, 179:4: wa-kāna n-nubiyyu (Ş.) yab'uthuhu yakhruşu 'alā ahli l-Madīna thimārahum.

³⁹ Usd, III, 157.

Then he left. Abū d-Dardā' came (and found) his wife crying. He said: "What is the matter with you?" She said: "Your brother (i.e. friend) Ibn Rawāḥa entered and said: "Had there been in this (idol) any good it would have defended itself". So he came to the Prophet (in order to embrace Islam).

This is an abridged version of a report found elsewhere in its entirety. In the complete version we find two important additional details: $Ab\bar{u}$ d-Dardā' hung a veil (*mindīl*) on his idol and it was placed in a room (*bayt*) inside his house possibly dedicated to the idol (cf. "an idol in a room", *sanam fī bayt*; above, section 1)⁴³.

Like 'Abdallāh b. Rawāḥa, Abū d-Dardā' was of the Hārith b. al-Khazraj. Abū d-Dardā''s Islamization, we are told, was slightly belated and he was the last person in the territory of his clan to embrace Islam⁴⁴.

16. (7). The B. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj worshipped (literally: "took for themselves") an idol called Huzam which was situated in their majlis, (also) called Huzam⁴⁵, in Buțhān⁴⁶.

3.4. The 'Awf b. al-Khazraj

(5). Ka'b b. 'Ujra's Islamization was belated and he had an idol in his house (*fī baytihi*)⁴⁷. 'Ubāda b. aṣ-Ṣāmit was a friend of his. One day he entered Ka'b's house (*manzilahu*) when Ka'b was absent and broke his idol. When Ka'b returned and saw what had been done to it he said: "This (idol) is of no use". Then he came to 'Ubāda's house. 'Ubāda suspected that he wanted to slander him but Ka'b said: "I realize that had it been of any use it would not have let you do to it what I have seen"⁴⁸.

⁴³ Mustadrak, III, 336-7 (from Wāqidī). The word bayt in the report is used in the sense of both "house" and "room": once he was in Abū d-Dardā's bayt (house), Ibn Rawāha entered with his adze (qadūm) the bayt (room) in which the idol was placed, brought it down (from an elevated place such as a shelf; this suggests that the idol was a small object) and started cutting strips (of wood) out of it, fa-dakhala baytahu (Abū ad-Dardā"s room, a room in Abū d-Dardā"s house) "lladhI kāna fihi ş-şanam wa-ma'ahu l-qadūm fa-anzalahu wa-ja'ala yuqaddiduhu fildhan fildhan. See also WAQ., II, 871; Lisān al-'arab, s.v. f.l.dh. (Hind bint 'Utba destroys an idol in her house using an adze).

⁴⁴ Ta'akhkhara islāmuhu qalīlan (note the apologetic phrasing!) wa-kāna ākhira ahli dārihi islāman; Usd, V, 185; Istī'āb, IV, 1646. Cf. DHAHABI, Nubalā', II, 340.

⁴⁵ The name is vocalised in the MS in both places.

⁴⁶ The territory of the Härith was east of Buthan and Turbat Su'ayb; SAMHODI, Wafa', I, 198.

⁴⁷ Read fi bayt ("in a room") instead of fi baytihi? Later in this report Ka'b's house is called manzil.

48 See a similar text in DHAHABI, Nubalā', III, 53 (from Wāqidī).

At the time of the Hijra Ka'b b. 'Ujra was 23 years old: he died in 52 A.H. aged 75⁴⁹. Ibn al-Kalbī says that his Islamization was belated⁵⁰. Indeed Ka'b plays no role before Hudaybiyya at the end of 6 A.H.⁵¹

There are conflicting reports concerning Ka'b's status and tribal affiliation. According to some he was a full-fledged Anṣārī while others say that he was originally a client of foreign ancestry. As usual we choose the less flattering option: Wāqidī's claim that Ka'b was an Anṣārī is duly rejected by Ibn Sa'd who states that he was of the Balī tribe, a client of the Anṣār. The identity of the Anṣārī clan with which Ka'b was associated is much disputed but the evidence points to the 'Awf b. al-Khazraj⁵².

'Ubāda died in 34/654 aged 72^{53} . At the time of the Hijra he was 38 years old. He was the *naqīb* of his subdivision, the Qawāqila (cf. no. 7 in the list)⁵⁴. His prominence among the Qawāqila is reflected in his role in the siege and expulsion of the Jewish tribe Qaynuqā'⁵⁵. 'Ubāda's loyalty to the Prophet was rewarded: he was appointed as a tax-collector⁵⁶.

3.5. People of the Sā'ida and the Bayāda destroy the idols of their respective clans

Indirect evidence on idol worship among the Sā'ida (Khazraj) is gained from reports about three devoted Muslims who destroyed the idols of their clan: Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, al-Mundhir b. 'Amr (who were both *nuqabā'*) and Abū Dujāna. When they embraced Islam they destroyed the idols of the Sā'ida⁵⁷.

49 Mustadrak, III, 479.

⁵⁰ Usd, IV, 244 (according to Ibn al-Kalbī, Ka'b adopted the genealogy of the 'Amr b. 'Awf; he probably means the B. Ghanm b. 'Awf b. 'Amr b. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj, i.e., the Qawāqila; IBN QUDAMA, Istibşār, 188).

⁵¹ Cf. WAQ., II, 578; TABARI, Jāmi' al-bayān fī tafsīr al-qur'ān, Būlāq, 1321-1330.

⁵² Işāba, V, 599; Usd, IV, 243-4. The sources mention the Hāritha b. al-Hārith (of the Aws), the 'Awf b. al-Khazraj and the Sālim; Usd, loc. cit.; a report in the Işāba, V, 600, presents him as a member of the Sālim. In fact 'Awf (b. al-Khazraj) and Sālim are not in disharmony: the latter were a subdivision of the former. But Ka'b's association with 'Ubāda b. aş-Ṣāmit, a member of the Qawāqila (who are also called: Qawāqil), lends weight to yet another version: he was a hallf of the BQawqal/Qawāqila; IBN QUDĂMA, Istibṣār, 195.

⁵³ Mustadrak, III, 355.

⁵⁴ Usd, III, 106:11 (incidentally, his mother was the great-granddaughter of Mälik b. al-'Ajlän who struggled against the Jewish king al-Fityawn); IBN SA'D, III, 546.

⁵⁵ Işabā, III, 625 (wa-kāna lahu mina l-hilfi mithlu 'lladhī li-'Abdillāh b. Ubayy).

⁵⁶ Usd, III, 106 (wa-'sta'malahu n-nabiyyu [Ş.] 'alā ba'di s-şadaqāt).

⁵⁷ IBN SA'D, III, 614 (from Wäqidī).

As to the Bayāda (Khazraj), Farwa b. 'Amr and Ziyād b. Labīd destroyed their idols when they embraced Islam⁵⁸.

Farwa and Ziyād, like other loyal supporters of the Prophet mentioned in this study, were rewarded for their loyalty and during the Prophet's lifetime held offices of authority. Farwa's financial skills were put to use when he served as an evaluator of agricultural produce, while Ziyād held a far more important position: he served as the Prophet's governor in Hadramawt and was still its governor when the Prophet died⁵⁹.

4. Conclusions

1. It appears that three different types of idols are to be discerned in the short passages preserved for us by Maqrīzī:

a. Clan idols worshipped by the whole clan (*jamā'at al-bațn*) and probably used in public cult. They were kept in rooms presumably dedicated to their worship (which is possibly true for the idols of the other categories as well).

b. Idols held by each nobleman (rajul sharif) of the Aws and the Khazraj.

The case of the Salima (above, section 3.2) suggests that the clan idols are a subgroup of the idols held by the noblemen: their clan idol Isāf is presumably identical with the idol of the nobleman 'Amr b. al-Jamūh, Sāf/Manāf. The nobleman in charge of the clan idol, i.e. the one worshipped by *jamā'at al-bain*, must have been the recognized leader of the whole clan⁶⁰.

c. Lesser idols of the domestic family cult which were presumably part of every household in Medina. The idols of the former categories had names while those of this domestic category were perhaps anonymous. "The idols of B. so-and-so" reportedly destroyed by certain Companions are above all these domestic idols⁶¹.

2. The association of the clan idol with the clan's *majlis* on one hand (see the end of section 3.3) and with the clan leader on the other (the Salima) suggests that the *majlis* was near the leader's house. When the leadership shifted to another, the *majlis* shifted with it.

⁵⁸ Ziyād belonged to a small and distinguished group of people who were both Muhājirūn and Anṣār: he set out to Mecca to join the Prophet and stayed with him until his Hijra to Medina; IBN SA'D, III, 598, 599.

⁵⁹ Majma' az-zawā'id, III, 76 and above, n. 42 (Farwa); IBN SA'D, III, 598 (Ziyād).

⁶⁰ The concept being that the idol is an image of a god and that control of the idol means control of the god?

⁶¹ See for instance above, n. 23. Cf. on the manufacturing and sale of idols in Mecca P. CRONE, Meccan trade and the rise of Islam, Princeton, 1987, 107.

3. One thing is certain: the Arabs of Medina on the eve of the Hijra were immersed in idol worship⁶². The extent of this is surprising indeed because the Jewish inhabitants of Medina are believed to have had an immense spiritual influence on their Arab neighbours⁶³.

4. Unsurprisingly, idols figure in the stereotypical stories of conversion to Islam which have a recurrent pattern: the destruction of the idol by the former pagan (or by his friend) signifies a break with past superstitions and symbolizes loyalty to the new faith. These stories are of little value as a direct historical source but they are a true reflection of conditions in Yathrib.

5. Since the worship of idols was closely connected with the tribal leadership, the destruction of idols (especially clan idols) defied the old leadership and undermined its authority. In other words, in the historical context of the Prophet's struggle against many of the leaders of Medina the destruction of idols was a political act.

6. The destroyers (or alleged destroyers) of idols belonged unmistakably to the front-line of the Prophet's supporters among the Anṣār. A few of them were $nuqab\bar{a}$ ' at the great 'Aqaba-meeting and some were rewarded for their loyalty with important offices in the emerging Islamic state.

⁶² Cf. U. RUBIN, Hanifiyya and Ka'ba: An Inquiry into the Arabian pre-Islamic Background of din Ibrahim, in JSAI, 13 (1990), 98 (a Medinan hanif who abandoned idol worship).

63 The fact that Qays b. al-Khatim does not mention in his poetry Manät, Allät and other idols (BUHL, Leben, 203) should not be given too much weight. Cf. A. J. WENSINCK, Muhammad and the Jews of Medina, trans. and edited by W. Behn, Freiburg im Breisgau, 1975, 4, who says about the inhabitants of Yathrib: "Their receptiveness for monotheism can only be explained by their long contact with the Jews". Goldziher quotes approvingly Dozy's words that "religion, of whatever kind it may have been, generally had little place in the life of the Arabs, who were engrossed in wordly interests like fighting, wine, games and love"; Muslim studies, ed. S. M. STERN, trans. C. R. Barber and S. M. Stern, London. 1966, I, 12. Goldziher, basing himself on the testimony of Arabic poetry, has in mind the tribes which inhabited central Arabia, whose religious sense he contrasts with the monuments of South Arabia. Concerning the inhabitants of Yathrib he writes (13f.): "At Yathrib the indigenous disposition of immigrant tribes from the south produced a mood more easily accessible to religious thought which was a great help to Muhammed's success". Goldziher obviously thinks of the influence of Yemenite monotheism on the Arabs of Yathrib. But the widespread idol worship among them seems to suggest that whatever the extent of this influence, it did not make them abandon their idols.

١. قال: كان لكل بطن من الاوس والخزرج وهم الاتصار صنم في بيت لجماعة البطن يكرمونه ويعظمونه وينبحون له. وكان في بني عبد الاشهل صنم يدعا الحريش وصنم في بني حارثة يقال له صخر وصنم في بني ظفر يقال [له] شمس وصنم في بني معوية يقال له البهام وصنم في بني عمرو بن عوف يقال له القين وصنم في بني خطمة يقال له شفر وصنم القواظة يقال له الحبس وصنم في بني امية يقال له غيان وصنم في بني ملمة يقال له اساف وصنم في بني عدي بن النجار يقال له سمول وصنم في بني دينار بن النجار يقال له حسا وصنم في بني الطم وصنم في بني الما يقال له معول وصنم الطم وصنم في بني إلى السمح.

٢. ولكل رجل شريف صنم من هذه الاصنام. وكان في بيت عمرو بن الجموح صنم يقال له ساف كسره معاذ بن جبل رضي الله عنه ومعاذ بن عمرو بن الجموح وللبرا بن معرور صنم بقال له الديباج وصنم للجد بن قيس يقال له الزبر.

٣. فلما قدم للسبعون الذين شهدوا العقبة جعلوا يكسرون الاصنام فدخل عبدالله بن رواحة رضى الله عنه على شيخ منهم قديم فربط مع صنمه ميتة ثم وضعه على بابه فاصبح الشيخ فراه فقال: من صنع هذا بالاهنا؟ فقيل له: هذا عمل ابن رواحة فاتاه ابن رواحة فقال له: اما تستحي وانت من كبراينا تعبد خشبة انت عملتها بيدك؟ فقال الشيخ: اني غير متعرض له اخاف على صبيتي. فضحك بشير بن سعد وقال: وهل عنده ضر او نفع؟ فكسره عبدالله بن رواحة واسلم الشيخ.

٤. وكان لبو الدردا اخر داره اسلاما وكان عبدالله بن رواحة يدعوه الى الاسلام فيابا وكان له صديقا فتحينه فلما خرج ابو الدردا دخل عبدالله منزله فكسر صنمه وهو يقول الترا من اسما الشياطين كلها الاكل ما يدعا مع الله باطل فقالت امراته: اهلكتني يابن رواحة. وخرج وجا ابو الدردا وامراته تبكي. فقالت امراته: المكتني يابن رواحة دخل فصنع ما ترى. فغضب ثم فكر فقال: ما لك الاكان عند هذا خير لدفع عن نفسه. فاتي النبي صلى الله عليه فكار وسلم.

Ι

٥. وكان كعب بن عجرة تاخر اسلامه وله صنم في بيته. وكان عبادة بن الصامت له صديقا فدخل منزله يوما وكعب غليب عن منزله فكس صنمه. فلما جا كعب فراى ما صنع به قال: ما عند هذا طايل. واتى منزل عبادة فظن عبادة انه يريد ان يقع به فقال: قد رايت انه لو كان عنده طايل ما تركك تفعل به ما رايت.

٦. قال: وكانت حوا بنت يزيد امراة قيم بن الخطيم فقالت: كان قيم لا يرام فعدوت يوما على صنمه فكسرته فلما دخل نظر اليه وقال: ما هذا؟ النت فعلت هذا؟ قالت: لا ولكن الشاة نطحته. فقام الى الشاة فذبحها.

٧. قال: واتخذت بلحرث بن الخزرج صنما يقال له هزم وكان موضعه في مجلسهم الذي يقال له هزم ببطحان.

٨. وكان لبني ملمة صنم يقال له مناف فعدا عليه رجل منهم يقال له الجموح فربطه بكلب ثم طرحه في بير فوجد فيها فقال الجموح: الحمد لله الجليل ذي المنن قبح بالفعل منافا ذا الدرن العسم لو كنت الاها لم تكن انت وكلب وسط بير في قرن

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- IBN HAZM, Ansâb: IBN HAZM AL-ANDALUSI, Jamharat ansâb al-'arab, ed. 'A. as-Salâm Hârûn, Cairo, 1382/1962.
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A NOTE ON EARLY MARRIAGE LINKS BETWEEN QURASHIS AND JEWISH WOMEN

The commercial interests of Quraysh, the tribe of the Prophet Muhammad, went far beyond Arabia, and along its routes of commerce Ouravsh maintained a system of links of various kinds with the local tribes and communities. The relations with Medina are of major importance because of implications for the Prophet's activity there after the Hijra. We shall examine here several cases of marriages with Jewish women from Yathrib/ Medina and from Khaybar. The more significant cases contribute to the discussion of the extent of Muhammad's knowledge of Jews and Judaism before the Hijra. Their contribution is enhanced by the fact that some data refer to a rather early period in terms of the Islamic literature, i.e. a few generations before the Prophet. The case of a Jewish woman marrying a number of men successively is of some interest, since, as she was of noble extraction, this pattern of marriage probably was aimed at forming a solid link between her clan and the various clans in Quraysh into which she married. In addition, links amongst the Qurashi clans themselves were strengthened, each of them now including half-brothers and half-sisters.

Before turning to the facts, one question should be raised, namely the nature of the marriages between Jewish women and pagans. There are three possibilities: 1. that the woman remained Jewish and she and her kin did not consider that marrying a pagan was a problem; 2. that she turned her back upon her faith in order to marry a pagan; 3. that the pagan to whom she was married embraced Judaism. The first possibility must be ruled out: the Jews of Medina (and obviously also the Jewish converts among the Arabs of Medina) remained faithful to the Holv Law¹ and cannot be

^{*} This is a revised version of a paper read in the 8th Congress of Jewish Studies on August 19, 1981.

¹ See M.J. and Menahem Kister, "On the Jews of Arabia — Some Notes", in *Tarbiz*, 48 (1979), pp. 231-247, esp. pp. 236-243.

considered to have acted so carelessly in such matters. For similar considerations the second possibility should also be rejected. As a result, we are left with the third possibility in at least some of the cases. But conclusions concerning so sensitive a matter, and one relating to some important personalities in Quraysh, must be based on more solid grounds.

Most of the following details relating to marriages with Jewish women are quoted from the book of Muhammad b. Habib (d. 245/860) Kitāb al-munammaq fī akhbār quraysh,² which has a special section on "the Qurashīs who were sons of Jewish women" (pp. 506-7). This section appears amongst similar sections dealing with "the Qurashīs who were borne by Abyssinian women" (pp. 503-5), "the sons of Sindi women" (p. 505), "the sons of Nabatean women" (pp. 505-6) and "the sons of Christian women" (p. 508).³

Since Jewish origin is not considered in the Islamic literature to be praiseworthy,⁴ one wonders why Muslim compilers found it appropriate to preserve records concerning the Jewish origin of prominent people from the tribe of Quraysh who had died many years before the records were put to writing. (The same question applies, though with less vigor, to the other similar sections.) Tracing the early compilations of reports in which these facts were first recorded may lead us to a possible answer.

The central report in the following pages derives from a book of Abu "Ubayda Ma^cmar b. al-Muthanna (d. 210/825) called *Kitāb al-mathālib* ("the Book of Faults"). A similar matter is mentioned, as will be shown below, in *Kitāb al-munammaq*, which does not specify its sources (the section on "the sons of Jewish women" does not mention any source at all;

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² Ed. Khurshid Ahmad Färiq, Hyderabad, 1384/1964; C. Brockelmann, Geschichte der arabischen Literatur (GAL) — Suppl., I, pp. 165-6.

³ And see also Ibn Habib, *Kitāb al-Muhabbar*, ed. I. Lichtenstaedter, Hyderabad, 1361/1942, which has an item on the sons of Christian women (pp. 305-6) and the sons of Abyssinian women (pp. 306-9). Ibn Rusta, *al-A claq an-nafisa*, ed. de Goeje, Leiden, 1892, (BGA VII), p. 213 has an item on the Ashraf who were sons of Christian women.

⁴ "Ibn al-Yahûdiyya", "the son of a Jewish woman", is always used in a pejorative manner. According to one report the Prophet's Jewish wife Safiyya bint Huyayy b. Akhtab came to her husband and complained that his other wives had insulted her by calling her yahūdiyya bint yahūdiyyayni ("O Jewish woman, the daughter of a Jewish father and a Jewish mother"). The Prophet is reported to have consoled her by saying, "Would you not answer them: 'My father is Aaron, my uncle is Moses and my husband is Muhammad?" According to one commentary, Qur'an 49:11 was revealed in connection with her, ace al-Wahidi, Asbāb an-muzūl, Cairo 1387/1968, p. 224 (who quotes "Ikrima <Ibn "Abbās). Cf. Ibn Sa"d, at-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, Beirut 1380/1960, VIII, p. 127.

cf. below, n. 7). A contemporary of Abū 'Ubayda, Ibn al-Kalbi (d. 204/819) also compiled a book titled *Kitāb mathālib al-'arab.*³ Although we know of several other compilations on the same topic⁶ one may perhaps suggest that Abū 'Ubayda and Ibn al-Kalbi were possible sources for the records in Ibn Habib's *Kitāb al-munammaq*, since Ibn Habib was a pupil of them both.⁷ The *Mathālib* compilations, which came into existence in the second half of the second Hijri century as part of the huge literary movement aimed at preserving records of the pre-Islamic and Islamic history of the Arabs, were of a very special nature in that they endeavoured to preserve details concerning faults in the conduct or pedigree of people from prominent families, mainly Qurashis. A sincere interest in the past, combined with some taste for "historical gossip" and, more often than not, a nasty tendency to tease an adversary, resulted in the preservation of these details, even though they are somewhat embarrassing. We may now turn to the facts concerning those marriages.

It is appropriate to start with the most important among Qurashi clans, the clan of B. 'Abd Manäf.

B. 'Abd Shams b. 'Abd Manaf

A very unusual story is told concerning Umayya the son of 'Abd Shams, who was the grandfather of Abū Sufyān b. Harb, the great Meccan enemy of the Prophet Muhammad and the great-grandfather of the caliph Mu'āwiya. He went to Shām (Palestine) and stayed there for ten years. He had intercourse with Turnā, a Jewish slave-girl of the Lakhm tribe who inhabited Şaffūriya (= Sipori in the lower Galilee). She had, at that time, a Jewish husband in Şaffūriya. Turnā gave birth to a son called Dhakwān, and Umayya, alleging that he was the father, adopted him (*fa-'dda'āhu umayya wa-'stalhaqahu*) and gave him the *kunya* Abū 'Amr. Afterwards he

⁵ See F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, I, (GAS), Leiden, 1967, p. 270.

⁶ See GAS, pp. 271, 261, 272.

⁷ Al-Khatib al-Baghdadi, Ta'rikh baghdad, Cairo, 1349/1931, II, p. 277; Ibn an-Nadim, Fihrist, ed. Flügel, Leipzig, 1872, p. 106, 23; Yaqūt, Irshād al-arib, ed. Margoliouth, Leyden, 1907 (Gibb Memorial Series), VI, pp. 473-4. At the beginning of the item on the sons of Sindi women, Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 505 the words *qāla hishām* appear, and it seems that Hishām b. Muhammad, that is Ibn al-Kalbt, is referred to. And see below, n. 8. See esp. M.J. Kister and M. Plessner, "Notes on Caskel's Gamharat an-nasab", in Oriens, 25-26(1976), pp. 64f.

brought him to Mecca. As a result the Prophet told 'Uqba b. Abi Mu^cayt (b. Abi ^cAmr b. Umayya): "You are but a Jew from the people of Şaffüriya" (innamā anta yahūdī min ahl şaffūriya).⁸

Among the B. 'Abd Shams b. 'Abd Manaf there were others who had Jewish wives. Sufyan, son of Umayya b. 'Abd Shams (from another

⁸ Ibn Outsybs, Kitab al-ma 'arif, ed. Tharwat 'Ukasha, Cairo, 1969, p. 319, quoting Ibn al-Kalbi (probably from his Kitab al-mathalib, Kister-Plessner, "Notes..." pp. 65-6); al-Bakri, Mu^cjam ma'sta ^cjama, ed. Mustafa as-Saqqa, Cairo, 1364/1945f, s.v. Saffuriya; Abu "Ubayd al-Bakri, Fasl al-magal fi sharh kitabi l-amthal, ed. Ihsan "Abbas and "Abd al-Majid Abidin, Beirut, 1401/1981, p. 401; al-Maydani, Majma ul-amthål, ed. Muhammad Muhyt d-Din 'Abd al-Hamid, Cairo, 1374/1955, I, p. 191, no. 1018; al-Himyari, ar-Rawd al-mi 'tar fi khabari l-agtar, p. 363, s.v. Saffuriya; al-Baladhuri, Ansab al-ashraf, IVa, ed. Schloessinger - Kister, Jerusalem, 1971, p. 2, 1.10; Ibn Habib, Munammaq, pp. 104-107. According to al-Haytham b. Adi's (d. 206/821 or 207/822, GAS, p. 272) Kitab al-mathalib, Dhakwan/Abu 'Amr was Umayya's slave, see Abu I-Faraj al-Işfahani, Kitâb al-aghāni, Cairo, 1285, I, pp. 7-8; and see I. Goldziher, Muslim Studies, ed. S.M. Stern, London, 1967, I, pp. 177f. Cf. at-Tabari, Ta'rikh ar-rusul wa-l-muluk, ed. Muhammad Abu I-Fadi Ibrahim, Cairo, 1380/1960f, II, p. 155; El¹, s.v. Umaiya b. Abd Shams (G. Levi Della Vida). Ibn Abi 1-Hadid, Sharh nahji l-balagha, Cairo, 1329/1911, III, p. 475, 1.5 quotes a report on the authority of Ibn al-Kalbt according to which Umayya used to steal from the pilgrims when he was a youngster, and he was called Haris (= "thief", cf. Lisan al- carab s.v. h.r.s.). Baladhurt, Ansab al-ashraf, MS., fol. 796a reports that Abū 'Amr/Dhakwān married Umayya's wife, Amina bint Aban b. Kulayb b. Rabi^ca (see on her Ibn Hazm, Jamharat ansab al- carab, ed. Muhammad 'Abd as-Salám Hárún, Cairo, 1382/1962, p. 280, 1. 6; Mus ab, Nasab, p. 99, 1. 14) who bore him Abu Mu^cayt = Aban and Musafir, Ibn Hazm, p. 114; Mus^cab, Nasab, pp. 135-137; Aghàni, VIII, pp. 48f; Ibn Hisham, as-Sira an-nabawiyya, ed. as-Saqqa, al-Abyari, Shalabi, Beirut, 1391/1971, I, 158-159 (all the above sources quote verses of Musafir boasting of feeding and supplying water to the pilgrims, as well as of the ownership of the well of Zamzam; on Musafir see also Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat an-nasab, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 17a; and see al-Qurtubi, al-Jamic li-ahkami k gur'an, (Tafsir al-gurtubi), Cairo, 1387/1967, V, p. 103. Ibn Habib, Munammaq, pp. 106-107 (who mentions only Aban) adduces another version: and some say that Dhakwan on his part adopted Aban. Al-Jahiz (see Ibn Abi I-Hadid, Sharh nahj al-balagha, III, pp. 464-465) argues that Umayya permitted his son Abu cAmr to marry his wife while he was still alive and she bore him Abu Mu'ayt. This is obviously a lie. The other version concerning the pedigree of the Saffuriya woman depicts her as free-born, see Mustab az-Zubayri, Nasab Quraysh, ed. L. Provençal, Cairo, 1953, p. 100, 1. 8; Cf. Kister - Plessner, p. 66, n. 108; Kister (above, n. 1), p. 236, n. 19. On the circumstances of Umayya's exile and the contest for nobility (munifara) see also Ibn Sacd, I, p. 76; ash-Shami, Subul al-huda wa-r-rashad fi sirati khayri l-sibad (as-Sira ash-shamiyya), I, ed. Mustafi sAbd al-Wahid, Cairo, 1392/1972, pp. 319-20; at-Tabart, Ta'rikh ar-rusul wa-l-muluk, ed. Muhammad Abù 1-Fadl Ibrahim, Cairo, 1380/1960f, II, p. 253; al-Baladhuri, Ansab alashrdf, I, ed. Muhammad Hamidullah, Cairo, 1959, pp. 60-1. According to one report, the munifara was between Hashim b. 'Abd Manaf, the great-grandfather of the Prophet, and Harb b. Umayya, Tabart, op. cit., pp. 253-4 (quoting Ibn Saed < Ibn al-Kalbi), but this is just the second part of the report on the Jew protected by 'Abd al-Muttalib, see below, p. 37.

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woman)" married a Jewish woman: her name was ar-Ribáb, "from the people of Yathrib" and her mother was a Jewish woman of noble extraction (*sharīfa yahūdiyya*). She gave birth to al-Huşayn.¹⁰ Another member of that family married a Jewish woman, though in much later times. Umāra, the son of "Uqba b. Abī Mu^cayt b. Abī 'Amr b. Umayya, who was the great-grandson of Abū 'Amr/Dhakwān, married a Jewish woman of the people of Dūrān, and she gave birth to a son named 'Isá (*sic!*).¹¹

- ⁹ Harb b. Umayya, the father of Abū Sufyan, was also born to the same woman. These two, together with other sons of Umayya, were called al-cAnabis ("the lions"), see e.g. Muscab, Nasab, p. 100; Ansab al-ashraf, IVa, p. 3, 1. 2 and the notes.
- ¹⁰ Ibn Habib. Munammaq, p. 507: wa-l-husayn b. sufyän b. umayya b. cabd shams, waummuhum (that is, the mother of al-Husayn and of three other Qurashis) wähida yuqälu lahä ar-ribāb min ahl yathrib, wa-ummuhā (sic) sharifa yahūdiyya. In the MS. of al-Munammaq, ummuhumā appears in both places, and the editor corrected as quoted. See Mus^cab, Nasab, p. 200. (Perhaps wa-ummuhum should be preferred in the latter place as well; the text is not smooth, however.) Mus^cab mentions a fuller pedigree of that woman without referring to the fact that she was Jewish: ar-Ribāb bint al-Hārith b. Hubāb. On ahl yathrib see JSAI 6 (1985), p. 43. Al-Husayn is not mentioned among the sons of Sufyān b. Umayya in al-Balādhurt, Ansāb al-ashrāf, IVb, ed. Max Schloessinger, Jerusalem, 1938, p. 124.
- ¹¹ Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 507. The editor suggests (loc. cit., n. 9) that one should read here: Dawran, and identify it with the village Dhu Dawran between Qudayd and al-Juhfa (roughly in the middle of the way between Mecca and Medina, on the shore), see Yaqut, Mu jam al-buldan, Beirut, 1957, s.v. Dawran. Indeed, al-Juhfa near Dawran was inhabited by Jews in the time of the Prophet, see e.g. az-Zurgani, Sharh cala l-mawahib al-laduniyya, Cairo 1329, I. 362, 1. 13, but the place referred to in Munammag is Duran, which was, according to Yaqut, Buldan, s.v. a locality behind the bridge of Kufa incorporating the castle of Isma 91 al-Qasri, the brother of Khalid b. 'Abdallah al-Qasri, who was one of the governors of Kufa in the Umayyad period. The reason is that Umara was an inhabitant of Kufa and it is plausible that he married a woman from the neighbourhood of Kufa, see Ibn Hajar, al-Isaba fi tamyizi s-sahaba, ed. al-Bijawi, Cairo, 1392/1972, IV, p. 585; Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat an-nasab, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 17b supra; Muscab, Nasab, p. 140, 1. 3. raha cumara ("the mill of Umara", see Yaqut, Buldon, s.v.) was a quarter (mahalla) in Kufa, named after Umara b. Uqba b. Abi Mu'ayi; and see Ibn al-Faqih, Mukhtasar kitabi l-buldan, ed. de Goeje, Leiden, 1885 (BGA, V), p. 183. Umara's brother al-Walid was governor of Kufa under Uthman b. Affan, Ibn Hajar, Isaba, VI, pp. 616, 618. The family of Abu Mu'ayt had contacts with Persia in the pre-Islamic period, as is indicated by the fact that Uqba b. Abi Mucayt, among other Qurashis, most prominently Abu Sufyan b. Harb, embraced the faith of Mazdak, Ibn Habib, Kitab al-muhabbar, ed. Ilse Lichtenstaedter, Hyderabad, 1942; M.J. Kister, "al-Hira", Arabica, 15(1968), p. 145 (they are reported to have "learnt the zandaga from the Christians of Hira). Uqba b. Abi Mu ayt is reported to have been a wine-seller, Ibn Rusta, al-A claq an-nafisa, p. 215, 1. 6; he probably imported it from the region of Hira, cf. A. Oppenheimer in collaboration with B. Isaac and M. Lecker, Babylonia Judaica in the Talmudic Period, Tubinger Atlas des vorderen Orients, Dr. Ludwig Reichert Verlag, Wiesbaden, s.v. Neharpanya.

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Also in another branch of B. 'Abd Shams a marriage with a Jewish woman can be found. Al-Walid b. 'Utba b. Rabf'a b. 'Abd Shams was married to a Jewish woman, who bore him 'Āşim.¹² In another source¹³ we learn of her identity, although here her faith is not mentioned. It is reported that two of the children of al-Walid b. 'Utba, namely 'Äşim and Hind, were born to him from Hind (she had the same name as her daughter) bint Jarwal b. Málik b. 'Amr b. 'Aziz b. Málik b. 'Awf b. 'Amr b. 'Awf b. al-Aws. As this detailed pedigree reveals, she was from one of the lesserknown (but not necessarily less important) families of B. 'Amr b. 'Awf (from the Aws), B. 'Aziz b. Málik.¹⁴ The Jewish wife of al-Walid b. 'Utba

Also the brother of 'Umāra's grandfather, Musāfir b. Abi 'Amr (see above, n. 8) had contacts with Hira, *Kitāb al-aghāni* (Bulāq), VIII, pp. 48-51; Yāqūt, *Mu'jam al-buldān*, s.v. Hubāla. His affair with Hind bint 'Utba b. Rabi'a, who finally married Abū Sufyān b. Harb (see below) is of some interest, especially the report according to which he asked the help of an-Nu^cmān b. al-Mundhir, the King of Hira (580-602; other versions have 'Amr b. Hind, but an-Nu^cmān is preferable due to chronological considerations) in this matter — an-Nu^cmān was the son of a Jewish slave-girl taken captive at Fadak, see M.J. Kister, "On the wife of the goldsmith from Fadak and her progeny", in *Le Muséon*, 92(1979), pp. 322-324.

The item dealing with "the sons of Nabatean women", Munammaq, p. 506 lists another son of "Umara, called "Umar, which means that "Umara was married to a "Nabatean" woman as well. The epithet "Nabatean" can also apply to a Jewish woman, see the "Nabatean" woman from Sūrā, who was the mother of "Aqtī b. Ja'da b. Hubayra al-Makhzūmi, Munammaq, p. 506. See on Ja'da Ibn Hajar, Isába, I, pp. 527-8 (his mother was Umm Háni bint Abī Talib, "Alī b. Abī Talib's sister; Ja'da was governor of Khurāsān under "Alī). As is well-known, a majority of the inhabitants of Sūrā were Jewish, at least by the beginning of the 10th century AD, al-Qifti, Ta'rīkh al-hukamā', ed. Lippert, Leipzig, 1903, p. 194.

- ¹² Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 507. Ibn Hajar, Isåba, III, p. 575 lists cÅsim among the companions of the Prophet Muhammad. According to him, he was eight years old at the time of the Hajjat al-Wada^c (10AH). Strangely enough, Baladhurt, Ansåb al-ashråf, fol. 804a reports that after the death of al-Walid b. Utba at Badr, Hind bint Utba claimed that a man named cÅsim was his son (fa-'dda cat...rajulan yuqālu lahu cāsim annahu bnuhu). cÅsim was for a short time a governor of Medina under Mu^cawiya. Balādhurt also says that Utba b. Rabi^ca had no offspring except the descendants of al-Mughira b. cAmmar b. cÅsim b. al-Walid b. Utba, who are in Shām.
- 13 Muscab, Nasab, pp. 153-4.
- ¹⁴ In Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat an-nasab, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 251a; Ibn Hazm, Ansàb, p. 334 Hind's father Jarwal and her brother Zurära are mentioned. The latter rebelled against the caliph 'Uthman b. 'Affan. When Busr b. Arta'a carried out a punitive expedition under Mu'awiya, he destroyed his house in Medina, which was located in the market, see Ibn 'Asakir, Ta'rikh dimashq, X, ed. Muhammad Ahmad Dahman, Damascus, 1383/1963, p. 10, 1. 16.

was not from one of the main Jewish clans but from B. ^cAmr b. ^cAwf, and it seems that one of her ancestors embraced Judaism.¹⁵

Fascinating links between the family of 'Utba b. Rabf'a and the Jews of Medina are revealed in a report on a marriage which took place in Mecca before Islam. When Abu Sufyan b. Harb married Hind bint 'Utba b. Rabf'a (who afterwards bore him Mu'āwiya, the first Umayyad caliph), 'Utba sent his son al-Walid (who, as mentioned, was, or was to be, married to a Jewish woman) to B. Abi l-Huqayq, the leading house of B. Nadir (in Medina), and he borrowed jewellery from them. Al-Walid and a group from B. 'Abd Shams personally guaranteed the jewellery's safe return (the text implies that they remained in Medina as hostages; however, it is clear that al-Walid was permitted to return to Mecca). Al-Walid carried the jewellery to Mecca and one month later it was brought back in its entirety and the hostages were released.¹⁶

¹⁵ It may not have been a coincidence that another son of Utba, Abù Hudhayfa, also married a woman from B. 'Amr b. 'Awf, from a family called B. 'Ubayd b. Zayd (see on them Ibn Hazm, Ansåb, p. 334). After the marriage she lived in Mecca and made the Hijra to her home-town: Ibn Hajar, *Isåba*, VII, pp. 547-8. She was Thubayta bint Ya'ar (there are also other versions regarding the name of her father) b. Zayd b. 'Ubayd b. Zayd b. Målik b. 'Awf b. 'Amr b. 'Awf. She was the woman who freed Salim, the mawlå of Abù Hudhayfa. Ibn Hajar (p. 548) objects to the statement of Abù 'Umar (= Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, see his al-Isti'âb fi ma'rifati l-ashåb, ed. al-Bijâwi, Cairo, n.d., IV, p. 1799) that she was from the early Muhâjirât; she was, he says, from the Ansår. However, there seems to be no difficulty here, because she moved to Mecca following her marriage to Abù Hudhayfa. As an outcome of 'Utba's contacts with the inhabitants of Medina, among them the Jewa, two Khazrajts, As'ad b. Zuråra and Dhakwan b. 'Abd al-Qaya, referred to him for arbitration. However, when they heard of the Prophet Muhammad they went to him and embraced Islam, Ibn Hajar, *Isdba*, I, p. 54 (quoting al-Waqidi).

¹⁶ Ibn Sa^cd, VIII, p. 236, quoting Wāqidi < Ibrāhim b. Muhammad b. Shurahbil al-^cAbdari < his father (Ibrāhim and his father are also included in the chain of transmitters attached to a report on the battle of Uhud, Wāqidi, Kitāb al-Maghāzi, ed. M. Jones, London, 1966, I, p. 239). On Ibrāhim (b. Muhammad b. Thābit b. Shurahbil) see al-Bukhāri, at-Ta'rikh al-kabir, Hyderabad, 1380, I, pp. 320-1; Ibn Abi Hātim, al-Jarh wa-t-ta'dil, Hyderabad, 1371/1952f., II, p. 125. On his father see Bukhāri, Ta'rikh, I, p. 50; Ibn Abi Hātim, Jarh, VII, pp. 215-6 (Muhammad b. Thābit b. Shurahbil al-Qurashi, and some say: Muhammad b. Shurahbil). Text: lammā banā abū sufyān b. harb bi-hind bint 'utba b. rabi^ca ba'atha 'utba b. rabi^ca bi-'bnihi l-walīd ilā banī abī l-huqayq fa-'sta'āra huliyyahum. wa-rahanahumu l-walīd nafsahu fi nafar min banī 'abd shams wa-dhahaba bi-l-huliyyi fa-ghāba shahran. thumma raddūhu wāfiran wa-fakku r-rahna.

Hind bint al-Walid b. Utba, who was born, as mentioned, to a Jewish woman from B. 'Amr b. 'Awf, married Qudâma b. Maz^cun al-Jumahi (and also al-Muhâjir b. Abi Umayya al-Makhzumi), Mus^cab, Nasab, pp. 153-4, see on both Caskel, II, index, s.vv. Qudâma b. Maz^cun and al-Muhâjir b. Hudaifa, respectively. It may not have been a coincidence that Π

B. al-Muțțalib b. 'Abd Manāf

Al-Muttalib b. 'Abd Manaf himself had children from a Jewish woman: she gave birth to Makhrama and Abu Ruhm (Unays).¹⁷ The identity of this woman will be mentioned below. A Jewish woman of the people of Khaybar (a slave-girl) gave birth to Qays b. Makhrama.¹⁸ While *Kitāb al-munammaq* says merely that she was "from the people of Khaybar" (wāḥida min ahl khaybar) another source reveals her identity: she was Asmā' bint 'Abdallāh b. Subay^c (or Sab^c) b. Mālik b. Junāda b. al-Ḥārith b. Sa^cd b. 'Anaza b. Asad b. Rabī'a b. Nizār. It seems that she belonged to an 'Anazī family which embraced Judaism and settled in Khaybar.¹⁹

Qudama also married a Jewish woman, who bore him his son 'Amr. She is referred to by a very extraordinary epithet: min yahudi l-ansår, that is, from "the Jews of the Ansår", meaning: from the Ansår who were Jewish, Ibn Habtb, Munammaq, p. 507. It seems that, in this case as well, the woman was not a member of one of the main Jewish clans in Medina (this expression will be mentioned again, below, p. 26). Ibn Sa'd, III, p. 401 does not mention 'Amr among Qudama's sons. His kunya was Abû 'Umar, and it is reported that Hind bint 'Utba bore him 'Umar and Fâțima. Cf. the other version found in Ibn Hajar, *Isâba*, V, p. 423, according to which his kunya was Abû 'Amr. This version was more common, Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *Isti'ab*, III, p. 1277.

- ¹⁷ Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 506; Yaqut, Buldan, s.v. Hubasha (quoting the Kitab al-mathalib of Abu "Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, see below); Mus'ab, Nasab, pp. 92, 16, 1. 12. See also Caskel, Gamharat an-nasab..., I, no. 15, II, index, s.v. Mahrama b. al-Muttalib. Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat an-nasab, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 7a infra mentions only Makhrama.
- ¹⁸ Ibn Habib, Munammaq, pp. 506-7; Caskel, II, index, s.v. Qays b. Mahrama. Qays b. Makhrama and the Prophet were born at the same time, Ibn Hajar, *Işâba*, V, p. 501; Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba, IV, p. 226; Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *Isti'âb*, III, p. 1299. One wonders whether its Jewish background had any connection with the bad reputation of this family, see Balâdhurt, Ansâb al-ashrâf, MS., fol. 806b where it is reported that 'Abdallâh b. Qays b. Makhrama was appointed as governor of Mecca under 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Aziz (see also Ibn al-Kalbi, *Jamharat an-nasab*, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 20a) and al-Hajjāj appointed him governor of Medina or Mecca. On the latter occasion 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwan said to Hajjāj, that be had chosen a member of the most unwitty of the families of Quraysh (laqad wallaytahu min ahmaqi bayt fi quraysh. wa-kāna 'abdu l-malik yaqūlu: ahmaqu bayt fi quraysh āl qays b. makhrama). 'Abdallāh served, however, as governor of Iraq under 'Abd al-Malik, Ibn Hajar, Işâba, V, p. 23.
- ¹⁹ Muş^cab, Nasab, pp. 92, 398. Ibn ^cAbd al-Barr, op. cit., says that Makhrama's wife was a slave-girl (umm walad), while Ibn al-Athir, op. cit., has: Bint ^cAbdallâh b. Sab^c b. Mâlik b. Junăda from B. ^cAnaza (al-Ghanawiyya in Ibn Hajar, op. cit. should read: al-^cAnaziyya. Similarly ^cUtba in Hassân b. Thâbit, Diwân, ed. W. ^cArafât, London, 1971, I, p. 381, n. 1, should read: ^cAnaza). See Hassân, loc. cit. for slightly different pedigrees of that woman. Hassân, who dedicated to Qays a few verses of hijâ', refers to his mother in the diminutive

B. Nawfal b. 'Abd Manaf

^cAdi b. Nawfal b. ^cAbd Manáf was married to ar-Ribåb bint al-Hårith b. Hubåb, the noble woman from Yathrib, who was also married to Sufyân b. Umayya b. ^cAbd Shams (above, p. 20). She gave birth to al-Khiyår.²⁰

We can trace marriages to Jewish women also in other Qurashi clans.

B. Jumah

'Abd Manaf b. 'Umayr b. Uhayb al-Jumahi was linked to the 'Anazi woman from Khaybar who was also linked to Makhrama b. al-Muttalib b. 'Abd Manaf (see above, p. 24). She gave birth to Musafi^{c, 21} As was already

form: Sumayya, and in the margin of one of the manuscripts it is said that she was taken captive (sabiyya), as is confirmed by the second verse, which calls her umayyatu saw (or sū'), "a bad slave-girl". Cf. the typical case of a slave-girl in Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba, IV, pp. 115-116; Isti'āb, III, p. 1184: the mother of 'Amr b. al-'Åş as-Sahmi was an-Nåbigha bint Harmala, a slave-girl from B. Jallân of 'Anaza (Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, p. 294) who was taken captive and sold in 'Ukāz to al-Fākih b. al-Mughira al-Makhzumi. Then 'Abdallâh b. Jud'ân at-Taymi bought her and afterwards she became the property of al-'Åş b Wâ'il and bore him 'Amr b. al-'Åş. 'Amr had two half-brothers, one from B. 'Adi b. Ka'b and the other from B. Fihr, as well as a half-sister from B. 'Abd Shams b. 'Abd Manâf, which means that his mother had been the property of at least three other Qurashis; Balādhuri, Ansāb al-ashrāf, MS., fol. 885a: the mother of 'Amr b. al-'Åş was an-Nābigha bint Khuzayma (read: Harmala) from 'Anaza who was taken captive, and some say that she belonged to people who alighted in Mecca (wa-yuqālu innahā mimman saqata ilā makka).

The presence of ^cAnaza in or near Khaybar is important. M. von Oppenheim, *Die Beduinen*, I, Leipzig, 1939, p. 65 (followed by E. Graf, *El*², s.v. ^cAnaza, p. 482) thought that the ^cAnaza appear in Khaybar in the 12th century and connected this with the movements of the Qarmatians in Eastern Arabia. However, the case of Makhrama b. al-Muttalib and Asmá' al-^cAnaziyya from the people of Khaybar, in the sixties or seventies of the sixth century, proves that by that time they had already been there. Moreover, this is no doubt the factual basis of the identification between the ^cAnaza and the Jewish inhabitants of Khaybar, cf. von Oppenheim, p. 66. And see al-Ålüst, *Bulügh al-arab fi ma ^crifati ahwäli l-^carab*, Cairo, 1342/1924, I, p. 192 (*qīla kānat li-l-^camāliqa thumma şārat li-bani ^canaza b. asad b. rabī^ca*).

- ²⁰ Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 507. And see Caskel, I, no. 16; Mus^cab, Nasab, p. 200. The hand of al-Khiyär b. ^cAdi was cut off in the Jähiliyya as a punishment for theft, Ibn Rusta, al-A ^clàq an-nafisa, p. 194, 1. 1; Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 530. Cf. perhaps the marriage link between ^cAdi al-Akbar (that is the elder of the two sons who carried the name ^cAdi) b. al-Khiyär and Uthatha/Hind bint Sufyan b. Umayya b. ^cAbd Shams, Mus^cab, Nasab, p. 201.
- ²¹ Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 506; Caskel, I, no. 24 (Musafi^c b. ^cAbd Manaf b. ^cUmayr b. Uhayb b. Hudhafa b. Jumah). Cf. Caskel, II, index, s.v. Uhaib b. Hudafa and s.v. Musafi^c b. ^cAbd Manaf. Baladhuri, Ansab al-ashraf, fol. 882a erroneously identifies ^cAbdallah b. ^cUmayr with ^cAbd Manaf b. ^cUmayr: musafi^c b. ^cabd manaf wa-huwa ^cabdallah b. ^cumayr b. uhayb ash-shā^cir.

pointed out (above, n. 16) Qudâma b. Maz^cun was married to a woman min yahūdi l-anṣār, i.e. from the Jewish Anṣār, or from the Anṣār who were Jewish. The brother of ^cAbd Manāf, ^cAbdallāh b. ^cUmayr, also married a Jewish woman, who gave birth to ^cAmr, i.e., Abu ^cAzza the poet. The

woman was ar-Ribåb, the noble woman from Yathrib, two other husbands of whom were mentioned above.²²

B. Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzza

Habib b. Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzzā was married to a woman *min yahūdi l-anşar* (cf. above, n. 16) who gave birth to Tuwayt.²³ Az-Zubayr b. Bakkār says that she was aş-Şa'ba bint Khālid b. Şa'l, while his uncle Muş'ab az-Zubayri has: aş-Şa'ba bint Khālid b. Şuql. The latter tells us that she was from B. Jahajabā. Aş-Şa'ba was married to the father of Habib, Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzzā, and bore him three sons. After Asad's death Habib married his late father's wife and she bore him, as mentioned, Tuwayt.²⁴ A full and slightly different pedigree of that woman is reported by Ibn al-Kalbi²⁵ who mentions two sons borne by her to Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzzā. She was aş-Şa'ba bint Khālid b. Şa'l b. Mālik b. Ama b. Dubay'a b. Zayd b. 'Amr b. 'Awf b. Mālik b. al-Aws b. Hāritha. It was an old marriage link with a woman of one of the B. 'Amr b. 'Awf groups. B. 'Amr b. 'Awf obviously maintained close connections with Mecca in pre-Islamic times (cf. also above, p. 22).

- ²² Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 507; Muşcab, Nasab, pp. 397-8 (who does not mention his mother). On Murra b. Abi cAzza see Ibn Hajar, Isaba, VI, p. 81 (he is called here: Murra b. Abi cAzza b. cAmr b. CUmayr b. Wahb etc.). And see Caskel, I, no. 24; II, index, s.vv. cAbdallah b. CUmair and cAmr b. cAbdallah A. cAzza.
- ²³ Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 507; Caskel, II, s.vv. Habib b. Asad and Tuwait b. Habib; Jamhara, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 26a. According to Ibn al-Kalbi Tuwayt's mother was a slave-girl of al-cAbbas b. cAbd al-Muttalib called Majd; and see Baladhuri, Ansab al-ashrāf, Ms., fol. 821a. On Tuwayt see also az-Zubayr b. Bakkār, Jamharat nasab quraysh wa-akhbārihā, I, ed. Mahmud Shākir, Cairo, 1381, pp. 434-5, 439. Habib b. Asad and his brother Nawfal b. Asad were killed in the battle of Fijār al-Ākhir, Balādhuri, MS., fol. 812a infra; Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat an-nasab, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 24a. On this battle see Ibn cAbd Rabbihi, al-ciqd al-farid, ed. Ahmad Amin et al., Cairo, 1384/1965, V, pp. 253-260.
- ²⁴ Loc. cit.; Muş^cab, Nasab, pp. 206-207, 211 (on p. 211 she is called: aş-Şa^cba bint Khalid b. Tufayl, Tufayl being a *lectio facilior* for Sa^cl or Suql).
- ²⁵ Jamharat an-nasab, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 24a; cf. fol. 24b.

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B. 'Amir b. Lu'ayy

The Jewish woman who was married to ^cAdi b. Nawfal b. ^cAbd Manäf (above, p. 25) and to Sufyan b. Umayya b. ^cAbd Shams, as well as to ^cAbdallah b. ^cUmayr al-Jumahi, was also married to al-Husayn b. Rabi^c from B. ^cAmir b. Lu'ayy and gave birth to ^cUmayr.²⁶ This Jewish woman, who was of noble extraction, was married to men from four different clans of Quraysh, and to each of them she bore a son.

B. Zuhra

^cUtba b. Nawfal az-Zuhri was married to a "Nabatean Jewish woman" named Qāmi, who bore him Hāshim and ^cĀmir.²⁷

We may turn now to an early link which is by far the most interesting, between the great-grandfather of the Prophet Muhammad, Häshim b. ^cAbd Manäf, and a Jewish woman.²⁸ His brother al-Muttalib b. ^cAbd Manäf was linked to the same woman. It must immediately be added that ^cAbd al-Muttalib b. Häshim, the grandfather of the Prophet Muhammad, was borne to Häshim from another woman.

It is worthy of note, however, that Hashim's links with the Jewish woman and with the mother of 'Abd al-Muttalib seem to have come about as a result of his connections in Medina or his commercial activi-

²⁶ Muş^cab, Nasab, p. 200. Al-Huşayn b. Rabi^ca is mentioned on p. 431, 1. 4. After mentioning his son ^cUmayr, p. 432, 1. 15, Muş^cab says that his mother was ar-Ribåb (vocalised: ar-Rabåb) bint al-Härith b. Hubåb and mentions his half-brothers al-Khiyär b. ^cAdi, Abù ^cAzza, ^cAmr b. ^cAbdallåh al-Jumahi and al-Huşayn b. Sufyän b. Umayya b. ^cAbd Shams; Balådhuri, Ansåb al-ashråf, MS., fol. 874a mentions as ^cUmayr's half-brothers only the first two, al-Khiyär and Abù ^cAzza.

²⁷ Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 507. See Caskel, I, no. 20, II, index, s.v. ^cUtba b. Nawfal. ^cUtba was a brother of Makhrama b. Nawfal b. Uhayb b. ^cAbd Manaf b. Zuhra, who was born to Ruqayqa (printed: Ruqayya) bint Abi Şayfi b. Hashim b. ^cAbd Manaf (see below, n. 51), Mus^cab, Nasab, pp. 262-3.

^cUtba b. Nawfal obviously lived in the time of the Prophet, cf. perhaps as-Suyûţt, Jam^c al-Jawāmi^c aw al-Jāmi^c al-Kabir, Cairo, 1978, II, p. 812, 1. 10 from bottom (Marāsil Muhammad b. Shihāb az-Zuhri): ^can ma^cmar^cani z-zuhri, gāla: nakaha rajul min gawmi fi ^cahdi n-nabiyyi s 'mra'atan min ahli l-kitāb.

²⁸ See already Muhammad Hamidulläh, Le prophète de l'Islam, Paris, 1959, I, p. 392.

ties. Hashim played a central role in widening the scope of Ourashi trade and formed links with the Byzantine emperor and with Bedouin tribes on the route to Syria. He died in Gaza.²⁹ Concerning his marriage to the mother of 'Abd al-Muttalib we are told that he led a Qurashi caravan through Medina. The caravan camped in "the market of the Nabateans" (sug an-nabat)³⁰ where the annual fair took place. The people of the caravan were conducting their business when they saw a woman who stood elevated in the market. She was giving instructions for the purchase and sale of goods on her behalf. She was a resolute, strong and beautiful woman. When Hashim asked whether she was married, he was told that she was unmarried at that time. She had been previously married to Uhayha b. al-Julah and gave birth to 'Amr, Ma'bad and Unaysa. Afterwards she was separated from him. She refused to marry another man because of her nobility among her people (li-sharafiha fi gawmiha) unless he complied with the following conditions: that she would be free to sever the marriage if she so desired and that should she dislike her husband, she would separate from him (on her initiative). The woman was Salma bint 'Amr b. Zayd b. Labid b. Khidash b. 'Amir b. Ghanm b. 'Adi b. an-Najjar. She was from the clan of B. Adi, one of the B. an-Najjar clans.³¹ Her former husband, Uhavha b. al-Julah, was one of the leaders of B. ^cAmr b. ^cAwf.³² Hashim married her and this marriage became by far his

- 29 See M.J. Kister, "Mecca and Tamim", in JESHO, 8(1965), pp. 116ff; idem, "Some reports concerning Mecca", in JESHO, 15(1972), pp. 61-64.
- ³⁰ Cf. M.J. Kister, "The market of the Prophet", in JESHO, 8(1965), pp. 274-5 (Suq an-Nabit = Suq an-Nabat is probably identical with the market of B. Qaynuga^c).
- ³¹ For a reference to "Abd al-Muttalib as Ibn Salmå see al-Kalå", al-Iktifå" fi maghäzi rasüli llähi wa-th-thaläthati l-khulafa", ed. Mustafa "Abd al-Wahid, Cairo, 1387/1968, I, pp. 160, 161. According to ash-Shāmi (above, n. 8), I, pp. 308-9 Häshim came to Medina for trade and dwelt in the house of "Amr b. Zayd, Salmå"s father. Häshim was a friend of both "Amr b. Zayd and his father, Balädhurt, Ansåb al-ashråf, I, p. 64, 1. 8. It was reported that "Abd al-Muttalib used to frequent his uncles and was kind to them (wa-yabarruhum), ash-Shāmi, p. 310; Balädhurt, p. 65, 1. 16. Salmå was a woman who had the freedom to separate from her husband (on her own initiative) because of her nobility and rank, Ibn Habib, Muhabbar, p. 398; Salmå in her time was like Khadija in later times, ad-Diyārbakri, Ta'rikh al-khamis, Cairo, 1283AH, I, p. 158, 1. 3; and see Mus^cab, Nasab, p. 15, 1. 4 from bottom. Cf. al-Mufaddal b. Salama, al-Fåkhir, ed. "Abd al-"Altim at-Tahāwt, Cairo, 1380/1960, p. 97; Caskel, II, index, s.v. Häshim b. "Abd Manäf."
- ³² Uhayha b. al-Juláh b. al-Harish b. Jahjabá o. Kulfa b. 'Awf b. 'Amr b. 'Awf b. al-Awa, Ion Sa'd, I, p. 79; as-Suhayii, ar-Rawd al-unuf, ed. Tahá 'Abd ar-Ra'úf Sa'd, Cairo, 1391/1971, I, p. 162; Caskel, II, index, a.v. Uhaiha b. al-Juláh; Ion Hazm, Anadb, p. 335; al-Baghdádi,

most important one since Salma gave birth to 'Abd al-Muttalib, the grandfather of the Prophet. She bore, as well, a daughter called Ruqayya, who died in childhood. According to another version³³ she bore, besides 'Abd al-Muttalib, a daughter named ash-Shifa'.

The first names on the list of Qurashis who were born to Jewish women in Ibn Habib's *Kitab al-munammaq* are Şayfi and Abû Şayfi, the sons of Hashim b. 'Abd Manaf. Concerning their mother, Ibn Habib says merely that she was a Jewish woman from Khaybar. We may assume that she was the first woman who bore Hashim children, because Abû Şayfi is said to have been his firstborn.³⁴ One has to trust that their mother was Jewish. Firstly, no one would dare invent such a story concerning the phet's great-grandfather. Secondly, there is some corroborative evidence to this effect. Among the sons of Jewish women Ibn Habib also mentions

Khizānatu l-adab, ed. ^cAbd as-Salām Hārùn, Cairo, 1969f, III, p. 357-8. Cf. Ibn Hajar, *Işāba*, VI, p. 326, s.v. Muhammad b. Uhayha b. al-Julāh al-Ansārī and his biography in Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba, IV, p. 310. According to Suhayli, I, p. 130, she bore Uhayha ^cAmr and Ma^cbad ["]after Hāshim", that is, after she had divorced him or after he had died; and see Ibn Qudāma al-Maqdisi, *al-Istibşār fi nasabi ş-şahāba mina l-ansār*, ed. ^cAlī Nuwayhid, Beirut, 1392/1972, p. 312, 1. 12: *qila: khalafa uhayha ^calā asmā* (read: Salmā) ba^cda hāshim fa-waladat lahu ^camran wa-ma^cbadan wa-unaysa. Al-Maqdist tries to harmonize the two versions: it is possible that Uhayha married her again after Hāshim had died in Gaza. J. Wellhausen, Skizzen und Vorarbeiten, 4. Heft. Berlin, 1889, p. 27, n. 2, who quotes Abū l-Faraj al-Işfahāni, Kitāb al-aghāni, Bulāq, 1285AH, XIII, p. 124, erroneously rejects the report on the marriage of Hāshim to Salmā. A rare report found in Ibn Qudāma, *al-Istibşār*, p. 314, 1. 14 accords Muhammad b. ^cUqba b. Uhayha b. al-Julāh a role in the digging of the well of Zamzam: *a^cāna akhāhu ^cabda l-muttalib ^calā hafr zamzam*; ^cAbd al-Muttalib was in fact a half-brother of Muhammad b. ^cUqba's uncles^cAmr: and Ma^cbad when Zamzam was discovered he slaughtered a hundred sacrifice animals and fed the people of Mecca.

- ³³ Al-Yaequbi, Ta'rikh, Beirut, 1379/1960, I, p. 244, 1. 13; Museab, Nasab, pp. 15, 1. 18, 16-7. Ibn al-Kalbi (Caskel, I, no. 4) lists ash-Shifa' among Hashim's children along with Asad, Shayba (= cAbd al-Muttalib), Sayfi, cAmr (= Abû Şayfi) and Nadla.
- ¹⁴ Ibn Sa^cd, I, pp. 79-80. Baladhuri, Ansåb, I, p. 87, 1. 9 states that Hashim called Abû Şayfi ¹⁴ 'Amr, in his own name. According to Ibn Durayd, Kitâb al-ishtiqâq, ed. 'Abd as-Salâm Harûn, Cairo, 1378/1958, p. 69 the name of Abû Şayfi was 'Abd 'Amr, "according to what has been contended" (za^camû). According to one report, the kunya of Hāshim was Abû Yazid, and according to another it was Abû Asad, after his son Asad born to a woman from B. al-Muştaliq, Ibn Sa^cd, I, p. 80. (I could not find a son called Yazid among Hāshim's sons.) According to ash-Shāmi, I, p. 319 the kunya of Hāshim was Abû Nadla; and see also Ya^cqūbi, Ta'rikh, p. 243; Caskel, II, index. s.vv. Şaifi b. Hāshim; 'Amr b. Hāshim Abû Şaifi. As it seems that both Şayfi and Abû Şayfi were born when Hāshim was still a young man, it has to be remarked that the choice of the name looks somewhat unusual. According to Ibn Durayd, Ishtiqāq, pp. 69, 163 the name Şayfi derives from the verb asāfa, which means: to have a child at an old age. Şayfi is therefore "he who was born to an old man".

30

Makhrama b. al-Muttalib b. 'Abd Manåf (above, p. 24), and we are told that Makhrama was the half-brother of Şayfi and Abu Şayfi, from the same mother.³⁵ This means that the two brothers, Håshim and al-Muttalib, sons of 'Abd Manåf, had children from the same woman.

The woman's exact identity, however, is disputed. Our sources seem to differ over the question whether she was a slave-girl or free-born. According to Ibn al-Kalbī and Muş'ab az-Zubayrī she was free-born. Ibn al-Kalbī records the following pedigree: Hind bint 'Amr b. Tha'laba b. al-Hārith b. Mālik b. Sālim b. Ghanm b. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj.³⁶ Muş'ab has: Hind bint 'Amr b. Tha'laba b. Salūl b. al-Khazraj.³⁷ According to these pedigrees she was from the Khazraji clan of B. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj, to which 'Abdallāh b. Ubayy, the obstinate adversary of the Prophet, belonged.³⁸ Moreover, the name Sālim in Ibn al-Kalbi's more detailed pedigree indicates that she was from the family to which Ibn Ubayy belonged, namely B. Sālim b. Ghanm b. 'Awf, also referred to as B. al-Hublā (al-Hublā, "the pregnant woman", was Sālim's nickname — he reportedly had a big belly). ³⁹

Although Ibn Habib was the pupil of Ibn al-Kalbi, his statement that the mother of Şayfi and Abu Şayfi was a Jewish woman from Khaybar hardly conforms to the statement of Ibn al-Kalbi and it cannot be argued that they complement each other. Indeed, it is clear that there were Jew-

- ³⁵ Thus Ibn al-Kalbt, quoted in Ibn Sa^cd, I, pp. 79-80; Yáqût, Buldán, s.v. Hubásha, who quotes Abû Ubayda's Kitâb al-mathâlib also mentions that Makhrama was the brother of Şayfi and Abû Şayfi from the same mother (and see on this source below). Cf. Hassán b. Thábit, Diwán, I, p. 380, II, p. 280.
- ³⁶ Ibn Sa^cd, *loc. cit..* Ibn al-Kalbi, *Jamharat an-nasab*, Ms. Br. Mus., fol. 7a is less detailed: Hind bint ^cAmr b. Tha^claba from B. ^cAwf b. al-Khazraj. And see Baladhuri, *Ansab al-ashraf*, I, p. 87, who quotes Ibn al-Kalbi: the mother of Şayfi and Abu Şayfi was Hind bint ^cAmr b. Tha^claba from Khazraj. In addition Baladhuri has another version: and some say that the mother of Abu Şayfi was a slave-girl (*wa-yuqalu inna aba şayfi li-umm walad*).

³⁷ Muş^cab, Nasab, p. 92. This pedigree is probably quoted from Ibn al-Kalbi as well, see his Jamharat an-nasab, Ms. Br, Mus., fol. 7a infra, 20a (Hind bint ^cAmr b. Tha^claba b. Salūl from the Anşār); Caskel, II, index, s.v. ^cAmr b. Hāshim Abū Şaifi. Hassān b. Thābit, Diwān, II, p. 280 (see below) has: Hind bint ^cAmr b. Tha^claba b. Salūl b. Mālik b. Qays b. ^cAbd b. ^cAwf b. al-Khazraj.

- ³⁸ See about them Ibn Hazm, Ansåb, pp. 353-355; Ibn Qudama, al-Istibsar fi nasabi s-sahåba mina l-ansår, pp. 184f.
- ³⁹ Below, pp. 31-2; Ibn Qudâma, al-Istibsår, pp. 184-187; cf. Samhúdi, Wajá' al-wajá biakhbår dåri l-mustajá, Cairo, 1326AH, I, pp. 141-2 (p. 141, 1. 15: al-Hublâ = Mâlik b. Sálim b. Ghanm etc.); Caskel, II, index, s.v. Abdulláh b. Ubayy.

ish converts among the B. 'Awf, and it may not be surprising to find some of them in Khaybar at some period.⁴¹ But Ibn al-Kalbi's report seems to be a variant of a report on the authority of another teacher of Ibn Habīb's, Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthannā. In his Mu'jam albuldan, s.v. Hubasha, Yaqut al-Hamawi records two reports, one on the authority of 'Abd ar-Razzaq < Ma'mar < Zuhri,⁴² and another from Abu Ubayda's Kitab al-mathalib. The first report relates how Khadija bint Khuwaylid, before she married Muhammad, had dispatched him, together with another man from Quraysh, to a market called Hubasha.⁴³ The other report, from Abu Ubayda, is rare. It says that Hashim b. Abd Manaf was the father of Şayfi and Abū Şayfi, the latter being 'Amr or Qays." Their mother was Hayya, a black slave-girl, who had been previously the property of Malik or 'Amr b. Salul, the brother of Ubayy b. Salul, who was the father of Abdallah b. Ubayy b. Salul the munafiq (this seems impossible, Ibn Ubayy's uncle lived much later). She was bought in the market of Hubasha, which belonged to Qaynuqa^c.⁴⁵ Both versions, of Ibn

- ⁴¹ Cf. the exile of B. Haritha (Aws) in Khaybar for almost a year, Samhudi, I, p. 136, 1. 12.
- ⁴² Abd ar-Razzaq d. 211/827 (GAS, 99); Macmar (b. Råshid) d. 154/770 (op. cit., p. 290f); and Zuhri d. 124/742 (op. cit., p. 280f).
- ⁴³ On the Prophet's travel to Hubásha in the service of Khadija see also Zurqáni (above, n.11), I, p. 198, 1. 12; Tabari, Ta'rikh, II, pp. 281-2; 'Abd ar-Razzáq, al-Muşannaf, ed. Habib ar-Rahmán al-A^czami, Beirut, 1390/1970f, V, p. 320; al-Bayhaqi, Dalā'il an-nubuwwa, ed. 'Abd ar-Rahmán Muhammad 'Uthmán, al-Madina, 1389/1969, I, 338.
- ⁴⁴ Cf. above, n. 34 and cf. Kister-Plessner (above, n. 7), p. 66.
- ⁴⁵ The market of Hubasha appears in other reports as well and its location can be determined with considerable precision.

According to a report in Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Isti'áb, II, p. 543 the mawlà of the Prophet, Zayd b. Háritha al-Kalbi, who became the Prophet's adopted son, was taken captive and Hakim b. Hizām bought him in the market of Hubāsha, "which is a market in the neighbourhood of Mecca" (*bi-nāhiyati makka*; on its exact location see below). It was a gathering place (*majma*') of the Bedouins and there they would carry out trade every year. Hakim, who was a nephew of Khadija bint Khuwaylid, the Prophet's first wife, bought him for Khadija, who gave him to the Prophet. Another report has that Hakim bought him for his aunt Khadija in the market of 'Ukáz for the sum of 400 Dirham, Isti'áb, II, p. 543-4; Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba, II, p. 224. According to a third report the Prophet himself bought him in the Bathā' of Mecca with Khadija's money.

In the story of the journey which the Prophet undertook for Khadija, Hubasha is sometimes replaced by Hawran. This is also the case with the story of the mysterious death of one of the sons of Abu Lahab, the Prophet's uncle, following a curse put on him by the Prophet (cf. U. Rubin, "Abu Lahab and Sura CXI", in BSOAS, 42 (1979), pp. 24-25). The market of Hubasha is mentioned in the Diwan of Hassan b. Thabit, ed. W. "Arafat, London, 1971, II, p. 310, in a quotation from the margin of one of the Mss, which refers to a poem compiled

al-Kalbi and of Abu Ubayda, link the woman to B. al-Hubla and may be considered variants of one and the same report. The names Hind and Hayya are similar in the Arabic script, especially when written without

by Hassan against 'Utayba b. Abt Lahab. In the introduction to the poem itself, I, p. 429 it is only said (without specifying the direction) that 'Utayba set out on a journey with people from his tribe. Following the curse of the Prophet he was killed by a wild beast. The first verse of the poem addresses B. al-Ash'ar, that is al-Ash'ariyyûna, a southern tribe, the territory of which was indeed south of Mecca, in the vicinity of Hubasha (see below). In the margin of the Ms. there is a report according to which 'Utayba (the text has: 'Utba) went in the direction of Yemen (*ilâ nâhiyati l-yaman*) to the market of Hubasha. It is also reported that the Prophet went to the market of Hubasha with Maysara, Khadija's slave and that this market was close to Mecca. Some say, it is added, that 'Utayba went to the Hawran; those who read in the first verse sâ'il bani l-ash'ar state that he went to the market of Hubasha, while those who read sâ'il bani al-asfar state that he went to Hawran. Cf. as-Suyùti, al-Khaşâ'iş al-kubrâ, ed. Muhammad Khalil Haras, Cairo, 1387/1967, I, p. 368 (sâ'il bani l-ashqar). And cf. Suyûți, op. cit., pp. 366-9; Bayhaqi, Dalâ'il, II, pp. 96-7; Baladhuri, Ansàb al-ashràf, I, p. 131.

The market of Hubasha has a place of honour in the history of Arabic literature, because we owe it, or rather the people's ignorance of it, the compilation of Yaqut's *Mu jam albuldan*, see Yaqut's introduction to his dictionary, I, p. 10. The pre-Islamic poet ash-Shanfara was killed by people from the tribe of Azd who ambushed him after he had been seen in the market of Hubasha, *Mufaddaliyyat*, ed. Lyall, Oxford, 1921, I, p. 198, 1. 10; *Aghani*, XXI, p. 137.

It seems that the market of Hubasha should be reckoned as one of the main markets of Arabia before Islam and in the beginning of the Islamic period. Ibn Hajar, Fath al-bari sharh sahih al-bukhari, Bulaq, 1301AH, III, p. 473, 1. 19 (quoting al-Fakihi) reports that it was in the territory (diyar) of Bariq, in the neighbourhood (nahw) of Qanuna, at a distance of six days from Mecca in the direction of Yemen. On B. Bariq b. 'Adl b. Haritha b. 'Amr Muzayqiya' see Ibn Hazm, Ansab, pp. 367, 473; Ibn Durayd, Ishtiqaq, pp. 480-1; Yaqut, Buldan, s.v. Bariq.

Fath al-bari records the details on Hubasha on the margin of a report in Bukhari which mentions Dhù l-Majaz and Ukaz as being markets before Islam (that is to say, at the time of pilgrimage). When Islam came, they seemed to hate it (that is, dealing with commerce during the period of pilgrimage), until the Qur'anic verse 2,198 was revealed: laysa calaykum junāhun an tabtaghū fadlan min rabbikum — fi mawāsimi l-ḥajj (the last three words are an exceptical addition). The report, on the authority of Ion Abbas, runs as follows: kana dhu l-majāz wa-ʿukāz matjara n-nās fi l-jāhiliyya fa-lammā jā'a l-islām ka-annahum karihū dhālika hattā nazalat: laysa calaykum junāhun an tabtaghū fadlan min rabbikum fi mawasimi l-hajj. And see M.J. Kister, "Some reports concerning Mecca" JESHO, 15 (1972), p. 76. According to Fakihi, Hubasha was not mentioned in the report because it was not included in the pilgrimage rites and the market took place there in Rajab. Fakihi also reports that the markets of Dhu I-Majaz, Ukaz, Majanna and Hubasha were existent in the Islamic period as well. The first to be abandoned was Ukaz, and that took place in the time of the Kharijites, in 129AH. (And see al-Qastallani, Irshad as-sari li-sharh sahihi l-bukhari, Bulaq, 1304, III, p. 259, 1. 12.) The last to be abandoned was Hubasha, in the time of Da'ud b. Isa al-Abbast, in 197AH. Azraqi (Akhbār Makka, ed. Wüstenfeld, pp. 131-2; ed. Rushdi Malhas, Beirut, n.d., I, pp. 191-2) supplies additional data on Hubasha. He mentions it together

the diacritical point. Nevertheless there is an important difference between them. The pedigree of Ibn al-Kalbi presents her as a free-born

with the markets of Ukaz, Majanna and Dhù l-Majáz and says that it was the market of Azd, in the territory of the Awsam, from Bariq (on the Awsam see W. Caskel, Gamharat an-Nasab, I. no. 202). Hubásha was located at the upper part (sadr) of Wádi Qanúná and Haly, in the Yemen (min nahiyati l-yaman) and it is at a distance of six days from Mecca. It was the last of the Jahiliyya markets to be destroyed. The governor of Mecca would appoint a person to deal with it and would give him troops. The troops would stay in the market for three days at the beginning of Rajab. Things went on in this manner until the Azd killed a person from Ghani who had been appointed to be in charge of the market, in 197AH. Da'ud b. Isa b. Musa who had appointed that person, consulted the scholars of Mecca, who advised him to destroy the market. See also Alust, Bulugh al-arab fi ma rifati alwali l- carab, Cairo, 1342, I, p. 267; Sa@d al-Afghani, Aswaq al-carab fi l-jahiliyya wa-l-islam, Damascus, 1356/1937, pp. 222-4. It should be pointed out that in spite of its importance, the market of Hubasha is not mentioned in the list of markets in Ya-qubi, Ta'rikh, I, pp. 270-1; al-Marzuqi, Kitab al-azmina wa-l-amkina, Hyderabad, 1332, II, pp. 161-70; Hamdani, kitab sifat jazirati l-carab, ed. Müller, Leiden, 1884, pp. 179-80; ed. Muhammad b. cAli al-Akwac al-Hawali, Riyad, 1394/1974, p. 332. Bakrt Mu jam, s.v. al-Hubasha ("and some say: Hubasha, without the article") says, that it was a well-known market of the Bedouins, in the vicinity (nahiya) of Mecca, and was the greatest market of Tihama. It took place every year for eight days. Hereafter Bakri quotes Hakim b. Hizam, who said: "I saw the Messenger of God taking part in it and there I bought from him (minhu, the word is missing in two Mss. of Bakrt, and should possibly be omitted) cloth from the cloth of Tihama". The location reported by Bakri is not different from what has already been reported: "at the upper part (sadr) of Qanuna, and its territory belongs to Bariq".

The place-name Qanuná leads us to a more exact location of Hubásha. Wádi Qanuná is one of the Wádis which descend from the Sarât mountains westward to the sea, see Yáqut, Buldan, s.v. Sarât, p. 205 left column. Yáqut mentions in the lower part of the Sarât the Wádis al-Lith and Qanawnä (thus vocalised); cf. Bakrt, Mu^cjam, s.v. Qanawná; al-Isfaháni, Bilad al-carab, ed. Hamad al-Jásir and Sálih Ahmad al-cAlt, Riyád, 1968 pp. 415-6; Kuthayyir ^cAzza, Diwán, ed. Ihsán ^cAbbás, Beirut, 1971, pp. 215, 217, 221, 222. An independent corroboration of the link between Hubásha and Qanuná can be found in Ya^cqubi, Kitâb al-buldan, ed. de Goeje, Leiden, 1892 (BGA VII), p. 317: from mecca to San^cá' there is a distance of twenty-one days, and Qanuná is at a distance of six days from Mecca; as mentioned above, Hubásha was at a distance of six days from Mecca.

Wadi Qanùna appears on the modern maps. It flows into the sea at al-Qunfudha, about the latitude 1900N. Further south Wadi Yaba, and to its south, at about the latitude 1840 the above-mentioned Wadi Haly flow into the sea. (Along Wadi Qanùna, before it flows to the sea, there is a place called Süq al-Ahad, at about 1910.) The region is presently called 'Asir, see the study of Mahmud Shākir, Shibh jazirati l-'arab: 'Asir, in the series Mawațin ash-Shu'üb al-Islāmiyya fi Āsiyā, published by al-Maktab al-Islāmi, n.d. And see Kahhāla, Jughrāfiyyat shibh jazirati l-'arab, Mecca, 1284/1964, pp. 74, 221; El², s.v. 'Asir (R. Headley, W. Mulligan, G. Rentz); United States Board on Geographic Names, Official Standard Names Gazetteer, Saudi Arabia, p. 260 (Wādi Qanūnah, also called Wādi Qanūnak, located at 1908N, 410SE).

There was also another Hubasha, to the south of the Hubasha of the market; the latter Hubasha cannot be identical with the Hubasha mentioned in Bakri, $Mu^{c}jam$, s.v. Darwan,

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woman, whereas Abū 'Ubayda states clearly that she was a black slavegirl.⁴⁶

We have mentioned three versions concerning the mother of Sayfi and Abū Sayfi: 1. Ibn Habib: a Jewish woman from Khaybar; 2. Ibn al-Kalbi: Hind bint 'Amr from B. Sálim/al-Hublā (a free-born woman); and 3. Abū 'Ubayda: Hayya, a black slave-girl, who had been the slave-girl of Málik or 'Amr b. Salūl, the brother of Ubayy b. Salūl. Fortunately, a few *hijā'* verses are preserved which enable us to add a fourth version: 'Aqila (a slave-girl).⁴⁸ Hassán b. Thábit, who composed *hijā'* verses against Qays b. Makhrama b. al-Muttalib b. 'Abd Manåf (a son of a Jewish woman from Khaybar, see above, n. 19) also dedicated some verses to Makhrama b. al-Muttalib (Qays' father) and Abū Sayfi b. Háshim b. 'Abd Manåf, who were borne by the same woman. The faith of that woman is not mentioned in the verses, but her name appears in the first verse: 'Aqila.⁴⁹

III, p. 859, 1. 7 and in Hamdani, *Sifat jazirati l-carab*, ed. Muller, I, p. 110, 1. 9; ed. Muhammad al-Akwa^c, p. 241, 1. 2 (in the item concerning the territory of Hamdan). On Darwan see also Hamdani, *Kitab al-iklil*, ed. Muhammad al-Akwa^c, Cairo, 1383/1963, pp. 33.

It remains for us now to deal with the link between the market of Hubásha and B. Qaynuqá^c. As mentioned Abù ^cUbayda states that the market of Hubásha belonged to Qaynuqá^c. Al-Firùzábádi, *al-Qámús al-muhit*, s.v. Hubásha says, that there were two Hubáshas, one of them was the old market of Tiháma and the other was another market, belonging to B. Qaynuqá^c. Samhúdi, *Wafá^c al-wafá* (above, n. 39), II, p. 326, 1. 3 quotes the *Qámús*: Hubásha, a market which belonged to B. Qaynuqá^c. Al-Afgháni, *Aswáq al-^carab*, p. 222 argues as well that there were two markets called Hubásha. However, we have at out disposal quite extensive descriptions of Medina, including its markets (see JSAI 8, 1986), and as far as I could find there was no market in Medina carrying that name. One is inclined to accept that Qaynuqá^c, or a branch of them, controlled a market at a considerable distance from Medina; however, the statement of Abù ^cUbayda needs further corroboration.

- ⁴⁶ Cf. the case of the grandmother of 'Umar b. al-Khattåb. According to Muş'ab, Nasab, p. 347, 1. 14 the mother of al-Khattåb b. Nufayl, who was 'Umar's father, was Hayya bint Jåbir b. Abi Habib al-Fahmi. However, according to Ibn Habib, Muhabbar, p. 306 Hayya was an Abyssinian slave-girl of Jåbir b. Abi Habib. (See also loc. cit. for the epithet "Ibn as-Sawdå", "the son of the black woman", directed to 'Umar, as mentioned, it refers to his grandmother, not his mother.) And cf. the differences over the pedigree of the mother of Abu 'Amr/Dhakwan, above, n. 8.
- 48 Hassan b. Thabit, Diwan, I, p. 380, II, p. 280.
- ⁴⁹ Idhå dhukirat ^caqilatu bi-l-makhāzi taqanna^ca min makhāzihā l-li'āmu abū şayfi lladhi qad kāna minhā wa-makhramatu d-da^ciyyu l-mustahāmu idhā shutimū bi-ummihim tawallaw sirā^can mā yabinu lahum kalāmu.

A note found on the margin of one of the manuscripts leads us to the identity of those who attached to this woman a Khazraji pedigree (presenting her as free-born): 'Aqila was the mother of both of them (that is, Makhrama b. al-Muttalib and Abù Şayfi b. Hāshim), and her offspring claim that she was from the Khazraj ('aqila ummuhumā jamī'an wa-wulduhā yansibūnahā ilā l-khazraj).

It is difficult to determine which of the versions concerning this woman's identity should be preferred. One is inclined, however, to choose the "less praiseworthy" reports, which present her as a black slave-girl bought in the market of Hubasha. It seems, as mentioned above, that no one would have dared to invent such reports.

All of Abu Şayfi's descendants perished except those from his daughter Ruqayqa, and Şayfi died young.⁵¹ Two sons of Şayfi, ad-Dahhāk and ^cAmr, are mentioned among those who took part in the signing of the treaty between ^cAbd al-Muttalib and the tribe of Khuzā^ca.⁵² On the other hand, Ibn Durayd⁵³ says that Şayfi b. Hāshim was among those participating in the conclusion of that treaty. Ibn Hazm,⁵⁴ who mentions

³¹ Yatqubi, Ta'rikh, I, p. 244; Mustab, Nasab, p. 16, 1. 12 (printed: Ruqayya); Mu'arrij as-Sadusi, Hadhf min nasab guraysh, ed. al-Munajjid, Cairo, 1960, p. 4. The item on Rugayga bint Abi Şayfi in Ibn Sa'd, VIII, pp. 222-3 includes the name of her mother: Hala, and some say Tumadir, bint Kalda b. (printed: bint) 'Abd Manaf b. 'Abd ad-Dar. Ruqayqa married Nawfal b. Uhayb from B. Zuhra and bore him Makhrama, Şafwan and Umayya, Mustab, Nasab, p. 16, 1. 13, 262. 1. 15 (both places have: Ruqayya); above, n. 27; Ibn Safd, loc. cit. And see Ibn Hajar, Isaba, VII, pp. 646-7; and also Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Isti 'ab, IV, pp. 1838-9; Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba, V, pp. 454-5 (Ruqayqa bint Şayfi; Ibn Sa^cd, Viii, pp. 51-2 also has: Ruqayqa bint Şayfi, and it seems that it should be corrected: Ruqayqa bint Abi Sayfi). And see "Ali b. Burhan ad-Din al-Halabi, Insanu l- Guyun fi sirati l-amini l-ma'mun (as-Sira al-halabiyya), Cairo, 1320AH, I, p. 110, L 26: Ruqayqa bint Abi Şayfi, and the following zawjat cabdi l-muttalib should read: lidat cabdi l-muttalib, meaning that Ruqayqa and Abd al-Muttalib were born at the same time, Ibn Sad, I. pp. 89-90: Zurgani (above, n. II), I, p. 82, I. 11 from bottom; Baladhuri, Ansab al-ashraf, I, pp. 82-3. From this we may infer that Abu Sayfi was much older than 'Abd al-Muttalib and that the link of Hashim with Hind/Hayya took place many years before his marriage to Salma. And cf. above, n. 34.

⁵³ Ibn Durayd, Ishtiqåq, p. 69.

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⁵² Hassán b. Thábit, Diwán, II, p. 17, 1. 3; Ibn Sa^cd, I, p. 85. Cf. Baládhurt, Ansáb al-ashráf, I, p. 71, 1. 13.

⁵⁴ Ansāb, p. 14, l. 14.

only Abū Şayfi, but not Şayfi (adding that his offspring perished)⁵⁵ mentions by name ^cAmr b. Abī Şayfi.⁵⁶

The Prophet's grandfather, then, had elder brothers of Jewish extraction, borne by a Jewish woman. From this fact one cannot necessarily draw the conclusion that the Prophet Muhammad had direct links with Jews and Judaism before the revelation. These links can be deduced from the data concerning contacts between Mecca and Medina before the Hijra. The Jews played a dominant role in Medina before the Hijra and links with them, including some knowledge of their faith, were an inevitable result of the contacts between Mecca and Medina.

It can be shown that contacts with Medina continued in the family of the Prophet also after his great-grandfather Häshim b. 'Abd Manäf. The sources preserve records pertaining to the Prophet's grandfather 'Abd al-Muțtalib, his father 'Abdalläh and his mother Âmina. (Usually the Jews

³⁶ Ibn Hazm, *loc. cit.* referred briefly to an intriguing affair from the period prior to the conquest of Mecca by the Prophet, in 8AH. He said that it had been 'Amr b. Abi Şayfi who had manumitted his slave-girl Såra. Såra carried with her a letter, written by Håtib b. Abi Balta'a al-Lakhmi, warning Quraysh against the Prophet's imminent attack. However, 'Ali b. Abi Tålib and az-Zubayr b. al-'Awwâm followed her and took the letter. (Hâtib was a *halif* of B. Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzzâ, the Qurashi clan to which az-Zubayr belonged; and some say that he was a *halif* of az-Zubayr himself, Ibn Hajar, *Işâba*, II, p. 4). And see Ibn Hishâm, IV, pp. 40-1 (who records two versions regarding that woman: according to one version, she was from Muzayna, while according to the other she was Såra, "a slave-girl of one of Banu 'Abd al-Muttalib'', 52-3; Wâqidi, *Maghāzī*, I, p. 39 (Sára, the slave-girl of 'Amr b. Hâshim b. al-Muttalib - sic, and it seems that the above-mentioned Sâra is meant here), 43 (Sâra, the slave-girl of 'Amr b. Hishâm - read: Hâshim), III, pp. 825, 860. And cf. op. cit., pp. 797-9.

On a grandchild of Abù Şayfi called Umayma see Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghàba, V, pp. 403-4; Ibn Hajar, Isàba, VII, p. 511. On a slave-girl of Abù Şayfi b. Hâshim called Thuwayba who nursed the Prophet and al-CAbbas b. 'Abd al-Muttalib see Abù 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, "Tasmiyat azwâji n-nabiyyi ş wa-awlâdihi", ed. Nuhâd al-Mûsa, in Majallat ma'hadi l-makhtūtāti l-'arabiyya, 13(1967), pp. 277; but see the editor's note to this place.

⁵⁵ Ibn Hisham, as-Sira an-nabawiyya, ed. as-Saqqa, al-Abyari and Shalabi, Beirut, 1391/1971, I, p. 113 has the same. According to Ibn Hisham, Hind bint 'Amr bore Hashim Abu Sayfi and Hayya (!). Ad-Diyarbakri (above, n. 31), I, p. 158 has: Hamna instead of Hayya. As-Suhayli (above, n. 32), I, p. 130, remarks on it that according to what is common among the genealogists the mother of Hayya was a woman from Thaqif named Jahl (read Jahd bint Hubayyib, Ibn Makula, al-Ikmal, ed. al-Yamani, Hyderabad, 1381/1962, II, p. 392). Ibn Sa^cd, I, p. 80 lists among Hashim's children Hanna (read: Hayya), whose mother was 'Udayy bint Habib ath-Thaqafiyya, and it is clear that the same daughter is referred to. Also Ya^cqubi, *Ta'rikh*, I, P. 244 has: Hanna, and her mother: Umm 'Udayy bint Habib ath-Thaqafiyya, and see also Mus^cab, Nasab, p. 16, 1. 17; Baladhuri, Ansab al-ashraf, I, p. 87, 1. 15 (Hayya, her mother was from Thaqif).

of Medina are not specifically mentioned in these records.) Of interest is the report concerning the links between 'Abd al-Muttalib and a Jew from Najran which is typical of commercial partnerships between Meccans and people from other localities who did business investing the Ourashis' funds and enjoying their protection. It is reported that the Najrani Jew acted as a commercial agent for 'Abd al-Muttalib and traded in the markets of Tihāma (as mentioned above, n. 45, the market of Hubāsha was in Tihāma) with the latter's money. His name was Udhayna (one report has: Adhanya = 'Azanya?) and he was under the protection of 'Abd al-Muttalib.⁵⁷ The details concerning this relationship appear in a report on a contest over glory (munafara) between 'Abd al-Muttalib and Harb b. Umayya, Abu Sufyan's father. Harb was a boon companion of 'Abd al-Muttalib. He was enraged by the fact that the Jew Udhayna, who was under the protection of 'Abd al-Muttalib, handled the latter's money in the markets of Tihama. He incited young people from Quraysh against him, saying, "This stranger ('ilj) who comes to you from long distances and enters your country with a great fortune, without protection (sic) and without military power to defend him (literally: and without horses), by Allah, if you killed him and took his money, you would not have to fear a request of blood-money and nobody would ask to revenge his blood". Two of the young people ('Amir b. 'Abd Manaf b. 'Abd ad-Dar and Sakhr b. 'Amr b. Ka'b b. Sa'd b. Taym b. Murra) assaulted the Jew and murdered him. When 'Abd al-Muttalib discovered what had happened, he demanded that Harb hand over to him the two killers, so as to revenge Udhayna's death. Harb refused and an arbitration was agreed upon which was to decide who was more meritorious (munafara). The arbiter, Nufayl b. Abd al-Uzza (the grandfather of Umar b. al-Khattab) decided in favour of Abd al-Muttalib. The latter insisted on receiving from Harb compensation for the killing. So Harb gave a hundred she-camels to the Jew's cousin.⁵⁸ In another source ⁵⁹ a different reason for Harb's anger towards

⁵⁷ Balådhurt, Ansåb al-ashråf, I, pp. 72-3; Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 94 (he adds to what is said in Ansåb al-ashråf, that it was a Jew from Najrån); ash-Shāmi, I, pp. 310-1 (quoting Balådhurt). Ibn Habib, Munammaq, p. 64 has: A.dh.n.ya.

⁵⁸ Text (Baladhuri, loc. cit., quoting Muhammad b. as-Sa'ib al-Kalbi and others): kåna 'abd al-muttalib min hulamä'i quraysh wa-hukkāmihā, wa-kāna nadīmahu harb b. umayya b. 'abd shams b. 'abd manāf. wa-kāna fi jiwār 'abdi l-muttalib yahūdiyyun yuqālu lahu udayna (sic, with a dāl). wa-kāna l-yahūdiyyu yatasawwaqu fi aswāqi tihāma bi-mālihi. fa-ghāza dhālika harban, fa-allaba 'alayhi fityānan min quraysh, wa-gāla: hādhā l-'ilju lladhī yaqta 'u

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the Jew is reported: the Jew had talked to him rudely in one of the markets of Tihama.

^cAbd al-Muttalib's family relations in Medina were of great benefit to him: when his uncle Nawfal b. ^cAbd Manaf tried to deprive him of a tract of land which he owned in Mecca, ^cAbd al-Muttalib turned to B. an-Najjar, and they aided their relative preventing the wrongful act.⁶⁰

The Prophet's father 'Abdallah died in Medina while returning from Gaza with a Qurashi caravan. He stopped in Medina, became ill, went to stay with his father's uncles B. 'Adi b. an-Najjar and died.⁶¹ Another version of 'Abdallah's death also reflects his contacts with Medina.⁶² According to this version, 'Abd al-Muttalib sent 'Abdallah to Medina to get dates for him. According to a third version, which is not essentially different, 'Abdallah came to visit his father's uncles, fell ill and died.⁶³

Âmina, the Prophet's mother, died in al-Abwa', between Mecca and Medina. She brought Muhammad to visit his grandfather's uncles, B. 'Adi b. an-Najjar, and on their way back to Mecca, she died.⁶⁴ According to

ilaykum wa-yakhūdu bilādakum bi-māl jamm kathir min ghayr jiwār wa-lā khayl, wa-'llāhi law qataltumühu wa-akhadhtum mālahu mā khiftum tabi^catan wa-lā ^carada lakum ahad yatlubu bi-damihi. fa-shadda ^calayhi etc. For the expression yatasawwaqu...bi-mālihi cf. Ion ^cAsākir, Ta'rikh dimashq (the volume beginning with ^cUbāda b. Awfā), ed. Shukri Fayşal et.al., Damascus, 1402/1982, p. 122; al-^cAbbās b. ^cAbd al-Muttalib had twenty slaves, who were merchants and traded with his money (kulluhum tājirun, mālī fī yadihi).

- ⁵⁹ Al-Halabi (above, n. 51), l, p. 4, 1. 11; see also al-Ålüsi, Bulügh al-arab, Cairo, 1924, I, p. 323.
- 60 See e.g. Tabari, Ta'rikh, II, pp. 248f.

⁶¹ In the house of a man from B. 'Adi b. an-Najjär, see e.g. Ibn Sa⁻d, I, p. 99. Waqidi (who is quoted by Ibn Sa⁻d) thinks that this is the most trustworthy version concerning the death of 'Abdallah. Cf. al-Halabi, I, p. 50, 1. 16; ad-Diyarbakri, I, p. 229, 1. 22; Zurqani, I, pp. 109-10; Tabari, *Ta'rikh*, II, p. 246. Al-Halabi, *loc. cit.*, has a report which says that the Prophet recognized the house after the Hijra and said that his mother had lodged him in it and that his father had been buried there. It is also reported on the authority of the Prophet, that he swam well in the pool of B. 'Adi b. an-Najjär, and see Zurqani, I, p. 164; Samhudi, II, p. 126.

According to another version (al-Halabi, *loc. cit.*, 1. 24) 'Abdallah died and was buried in al-Abwa' between Mecca and Medina (al-Halabi suspects this version and thinks that it is a confusion resulting from the fact that the Prophet's mother was buried in al-Abwa').

The family relations with B. 'Adl are reflected in the fact that Umm Burda Khawla bint al-Mundhir from B. 'Adl, who was a cousin of 'Abd al-Muttalib's mother Salmä, nursed the son of the Prophet, Ibrahim, Ibn Qudama (above, n. 32), pp. 41-2; ash-Shami, I, p. 460.

- 63 Baládhuri, Ansāb al-ashrāf, I, p. 92, 1. 11.
- ⁶⁴ Ibn Hishåm, I, p. 77 (there are different versions regarding the age of the Prophet when she died); Zurqåni, I, pp. 163f. According to one version her grave is in Mecca, al-Halabi, I, pp. 105-6; ad-Diyårbakri, I, p. 229; Balådhuri, Ansåb al-ashråf, I, p. 95, 1. 3.

⁶² Ibn Sa^cd, I, p. 99.

another version, when Muhammad was six years old, his mother visited, as she did regularly, the tomb of her late husband in Medina, escorted by 'Abd al-Muttalib and Umm Ayman, Muhammad's nurse. In al-Abwa', on their return to Mecca, she died and was buried.⁶⁵ According to another version, 'Abd al-Muttalib visited his maternal uncles B. an-Najjar, and took with him Āmina and Muhammad. On their way back to Mecca, in al-Abwa', Āmina died.⁶⁶

One should not attach too much weight to the reports on marriages between Qurashis and Jewish women (even when they deal with the Prophet Muhammad's great-grandfather), but because of their potential bearing on early Islam they should not be overlooked. They form only one aspect of the system of links between Mecca and Medina prior to the Hijra, the pursual of which is of great benefit for the study of the life of the Prophet.

- 65 Baladhuri, Ansab al-ashraf, I, p. 94.
- 66 Loc. cit.

ZAYD B. THĀBIT, "A JEW WITH TWO SIDELOCKS": JUDAISM AND LITERACY IN PRE-ISLAMIC MEDINA (YATHRIB)*

I. INTRODUCTION

^CABDALLAH b. Mas^cūd is said to have disparagingly referred to Zayd b. Thabit as a former Jewish boy with two sidelocks. While we cannot of course be certain that Ibn Mas^cūd actually made this insulting comment, we have evidence that Zayd in his early years learned the Arabic script, and probably the Aramaic/Syriac script as well, from a member of a Jewish group called the Banū Māsika which lived in the lower part or sāfila of Medina. I submit that for an unknown length of time between the ages of six and eleven, i.e., between his father's death in the Battle of Bu^cāth and the Hijra, Zayd was educated by the Jews and might well have been brought up as a Jew.

II. DISPARAGING COMMENTS ABOUT ZAYD B. THABIT'S ASSOCIATION WITH THE JEWS

The backdrop of this discussion is the preparation of the official edition of the Qur³ān with which the caliph ^cUthmān b. ^cAffān is credited, more precisely, the personal rivalries over this matter among three Companions of the Prophet Muhammad who were among the most prominent scholars of their time. Zayd b. Thābit's selection by the caliph for the task of preparing this edition¹ embittered two older competitors, Ubayy b. Ka^cb and ^cAb-dallāh b. Mas^cūd, of whom the former is mentioned as the scribe of many of the Prophet's letters.² He reportedly said:

I read the Qur³ān while this Zayd was still a boy with two locks of hair³ playing among the Jewish children in the literacy (or Torah) school (*maktab*).⁴

* This paper was presented at the Seventh International Colloquium "From Jāhiliyya to Islam" (Jerusalem, 28 July-1 August 1996). I wish to thank the participants, in particular Harald Motzki, for their helpful comments.

¹ Cf. A. Neuwirth, "Koran," in H. Gätje, ed., Grundriß der arabischen Philologie, vol. 2, Literaturwissenschaft (Wiesbaden, 1987), pp. 96–135, at pp. 103-4; Gätje, The Qur⁵ān and Its Exegesis, trans. and ed. by A. T. Welch (London and Henley, 1976), pp. 24-25.

² Ubayy is even said to have been the first [Muslim] who wrote at the end of a letter the formula wakataba fulān b. fulān; al-Suyūți, Al-Wasā²il ilā ma^crifat

© 1997 by The University of Chicago. All rights reserved. al-awā³il, ed. Ibrāhīm al-^cAdawī and ^cAlī Muḥammad ^cUmar (Cairo, [1400/1980]), p. 129. Reportedly, Ubayy was the first who wrote Qur³ānic verses dictated by the Prophet (huwa awwal man kataba l-waḥy bayna yaday rasūli llāh [s]); Ibn Kathīr, Bidāya, vol. 5, p. 341 (< Ibn Abī Khaythama).

³ I.e., the typically Jewish sidelocks?

⁴ La-qad qara⁵tu l-Qur⁵ān wa-Zayd hādhā ghulām dhū dhu⁵ābatayni yal^cabu bayna sibyāni l-yahūd fī l-maktab; Ibn Abī l-Hadīd, Sharh nahj al-balāgha, 2d ed., ed. Muḥammad Abū l-Fadl Ibrāhīm (Cairo, 1378/ 1959–1383/1964; reprint, Beirut, 1407/1987), vol. 20, p. 26. (I thank I. Hasson for this reference.) Cf. Charles C. Torrey, *The Jewish Foundation of Islam* (New York, 1933), p. 31: "Schools of some sort must have been ancient institutions in the Hijaz, even though we know nothing in regard to them"; B. Dodge, *Muslim Education in Medieval Times* (Washington, 1962), p. 1: "At the time of the Prophet Muhammad no organized system of education existed in Arabia." Ubayy (who probably died in the early thirties of the first century A.H.)⁵ and Zayd belonged to different subgroups of the Mālik b. al-Najjār (a subdivision of the Khazraj); the former was of the Hudayla,⁶ while the latter was of the ^cAbd ^cAwf b. Ghanm.⁷ Ubayy in fact argued that his longer acquaintance with the Qur³ānic text, going back to a time when Zayd was still playing with Jewish boys, gave him precedence over the latter. Of course, Ubayy was also alluding to Zayd's study at the Jewish *maktab* (or *kuttāb*), not just to his playing there.⁸ (As we shall see, Ubayy himself graduated—a decade or more before Zayd—from the same school.)

A similar utterance is ascribed to Ibn $Mas^{c}\bar{u}d.^{9}$ It exists in several versions (with *isnāds* going back to Ibn $Mas^{c}\bar{u}d$'s companions), which are mere variations on the theme "Ibn $Mas^{c}\bar{u}d$'s (unbecoming) reaction to ^cUthmān's selection of Zayd." One of these versions is of particular importance for us here:¹⁰ Ibn $Mas^{c}\bar{u}d$ claimed that his own *qirā²a* or reading of the Qur²ān was superior to that of Zayd, adding that before Zayd embraced Islam, he had been Jewish:¹¹

... It was said [i.e., teasingly] to ^cAbdallāh [b. Mas^cūd]: "Would you not read [the Qur³ān] according to the reading of Zayd?"

He said: "What business do I have with Zayd and the reading of Zayd? I took from the mouth of the Messenger of God seventy sūras, when Zayd b. Thābit was still a Jew with two locks of hair" $(dhu^2\bar{a}bat\bar{a}ni)$ [i.e., sidelocks].¹²

⁵ Mizzī, vol. 2, pp. 271-72.

⁶ Ibid., p. 262.

⁷ See p. 5, n. 29 below; T. Nagel, Medinensische Einschübe in mekkanischen Suren (Göttingen, 1995), p. 127.

p. 127. ⁸ J. M. Landau, *El*, 2d ed., s.v. *Kuttāb*, p. 567b, writes that "*kuttāb* has also been known to designate Jewish *heder*-type schools in Arabic speaking countries," adding, however, that there are no precise indications as to when the Islamic *kuttāb* was first established. But there can be little doubt that the Islamic *kuttāb* was the continuation of its Jewish predecessor.

⁹ A. Sprenger, *Das Leben und die Lehre des Mohammad*, 2d ed. (Berlin, 1869), vol. 3, p. L: "Ibn Mas^cūd verbarg seine Eifersucht gegen Zayd nicht, doch wußte er nichts Erhebliches gegen seinen Text vorzubringen."

¹⁰ Some of the versions are quoted, for example, in Maṣāḥif, pp. 14-17; al-Nasā²ī, Sunan (Cairo, 1348/ 1930), vol. 8, p. 134. Al-Zuhrī, a representative of the official Umayyad point of view who counted among his teachers at least two of Zayd's offspring, namely, a son and a grandson (see p. 8, n. 53 below) was critical of Ibn Mas^cūd's reaction (Maṣāḥif, p. 17, l. 19; *Two Muqaddimas*, p. 20 [with the correct word order]). The sympathy of the author of Maṣāḥif was, however, with Ibn Mas^cūd who "was a Badrī while the other one [i.e., Zayd] was not; he [Zayd] was only appointed [to prepare the edition of the Qur²ān] because he was the Messenger of God's scribe"; see Maṣāḥif, pp. 17-18.

Zayd is said to have written for the Prophet both Qur³anic verses (al-wahy) and letters to the kings;

Tabarāni, Kabir, vol. 5, p. 108. See a specific case of the former category in Kabir, pp. 123-24, 132-33, 146. See also Ahmad b. Hanbal, Fadā'il al-sahāba, ed. Waşiyy Allāh b. Muhammad 'Abbās (Mecca, 1403/ 1983), vol. 1, p. 391: wa-ahlu l-Madina yusammūna Zayd b. Thabit katiba I-wahy. Besides Quranic verses, of which Zayd is said to have written more than any other Companion, he reportedly wrote many of the Prophet's letters; see Isti[<]āb, vol. 1, p. 68. See also Mas^cūdi, Tanbih, p. 283: yaktubu ilā l-mulūk wa-yujibu bi-hadrati l-nabiyyi (s); al-Jahshiyārī, Al-Wuzarā² wa-I-kuttāb, ed. al-Saqqā, al-Abyārī, and Shalabī (Cairo, 1401/1980), p. 12; see p. 9, n. 58 below. However, a perusal of the sections in Ibn Sa^cd dealing with the Prophet's letters and the tribal delegations which came to him (vol. 1, pp. 258-91), in which Zayd is not mentioned even once, does not inspire much trust in the statement concerning the letters.

¹¹ The reference was brought to my attention by M. J. Kister to whom I am also indebted for comments on a draft of this study. On Ibn Mas^cūd, see J.-C. Vadet, *El*, 2d ed., s.v. Ibn Mas^cūd (Vadet erroneously says [p. 873b] that al-Zubayr b. al-'Awwām belonged to the Zuhra subdivision of Quraysh; in fact, he was of the Asad b. 'Abd al-'Uzzā). About him, see also Kister, "Land Property and Jihād," in Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient 34 (1991): 270-311, at pp. 271-76.

¹² Qila li-^cAbdillāh: alā taqra⁵u ^calā qirā⁵ati Zayd? Qāla: mā li wa-li-Zayd wa-li-qirā⁵ati Zayd? la-qad akhadhtu min fi rasūli llāhi [ş] sab^cina sūra wa-inna Zayd b. Thābit la-yahūdī lahu dhu⁵ābatāni; Ibn Shabba, vol. 3, p. 1008, 1. 4. Cf. my Muslims, Jews and Pagans: Studies on Early Islamic Medina (Leiden, 1995), p. 150

The proximity of $yah\bar{u}d\bar{i}$ to $dhu^{2}\bar{a}bat\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ shows that in this case Ibn Mas^c $\bar{u}d$ is supposed to have referred to the typically Jewish sidelocks called in Hebrew $pe^{2}ot$ (sing. $pe^{2}a$).

Admittedly, two locks of hair usually mark the young age of their owner.¹³ Even two locks tucked behind one's ears are not necessarily proof of one's Jewishness: Ibn Mas^cūd himself is said to have had two locks of hair (dafiratani) behind his ears.¹⁴ In the Anṣārī environment to which Zayd belonged, however, this hairstyle was considered an emulation of a Jewish custom:

In the very early period after the death of the Prophet some young boys kept their side curls uncut. Anas b. Mālik was enraged when he saw a young boy with such curls and ordered him to shave them immediately because this was the fashion of the Jews.¹⁵

I could not find this version of Ibn $Mas^c \bar{u}d$'s utterance outside of Ibn Shabba's $Ta^2 rikh$ al-Madina al-munawwara. Muslim scholars must have considered it rather distasteful. Even a modern monograph about Zayd b. Thābit avoids this version, although its author no doubt saw it in Ibn Shabba's book.¹⁶

Some versions of Ibn Mas^cūd's saying preserve the dual form *dhu⁵ābatāni*. For example, Ibn Mas^cūd says:

I read from the mouth of the Messenger of God seventy sūras, when Zayd b. Thābit still had two $dhu^{2}\bar{a}bas$ and was playing in Medina.¹⁷

One version associates $dhu^2\bar{a}bat\bar{a}ni$ or two locks of hair with $kutt\bar{a}b$ (i.e., the Jewish literacy/Torah school).¹⁸ Also attested to is a combination of $kutt\bar{a}b$ and one $dhu^2\bar{a}ba$ (i.e., a lock of hair hanging down loosely from the middle of the head to the back, or over the

12 (1989): 321-53, at p. 324. Cf. E. Zimmer, Society and Its Customs: Studies in the History and Metamorphosis of Jewish Customs (Jerusalem, 1996), pp. 63-65 [in Hebrew].

¹⁶ Şafwân ^cAdnân Dāwūdī, Zayd b. Thābit, kātib al-wahy wa-jāmi^c al-Qur³ān (Damascus, 1411/1990). On p. 127, Dāwūdī quotes from Ibn Shabba's book a rather benign version of Ibn Mas^cūd's saying:... wa-inna Zaydan la-dhū dhu³ābatayni yal^cabu bi-l-Madīna (see below).

¹⁷ Ibn Shabba, vol. 3, p. 1006, l. 1. See also Ahmad, vol. 1, p. 411, l. -8: khaiabanā ^cAbdullāh b. Mas^cūd fa-qāla: la-qad akhadhtu min fī rasūli llāhi (ş) bid^can wa-sab^cīna sūra wa-Zayd b. Thābit ghulām lahu dhu-²ābatāni yal^cabu ma^ca l-ghilmān. Cf. Mustadrak, vol. 2, p. 228 (instead of Hamza b. Mālik, read: Khamt/Khumayr b. Mālik; Ibn Mākūlā, Al-Ikmāl, ed. ^cAbd al-Rahmān b. Yahyā al-Yamānī [Hyderabad, 1381/1962], vol. 3, p. 191): ... wa-Zayd b. Thābit dhu dhu²ābatayni yal^cabu ma^ca l-sibyān; al-Dāraquīnī, Al-Mu²talif wa-l-mukhtalif, ed. Muwaffaq b. ^cAbdallāh b. ^cAbd al-Qādir (Beirut, 1406/1986), vol. 2, p. 672: wa-inna Zaydan dhū dhu²ābatayni/wa-inna Zaydan lahu dhu-²ābatāni yal^cabu ma^ca l-sibyān.

¹⁸ ... La-qad qara²tu min fi rasūli llāh (ş) sab^cina sūra wa-inna Zayd b. Thābit lahu dhu²ābatāni fi l-kuttāb; Ţabarānī, Kabir, vol. 9, p. 70. In Two Muqaddimas, p. 30, Ibn Mas^cūd speaks of seventy-three sūras, adding; wa-inna Zaydan la-ghulām fi l-kuttāb.

⁽Ibn Mas^cūd learned from the Prophet more than ninety, or more than seventy, sūras; on p. 150, n. 2, read, instead of Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 2, p. 339: Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 2, p. 355. I now realize that "seventy" is probably the correct reading). Regarding the phrase used by Ibn Mas^cūd cf. Tahdhib, vol. 8, p. 154 (mā lanā wa-li-^cAnbasa?); TMD, Mukht., vol. 11, p. 307 (mā lanā wa-laka yā ^cUbāda); Tabarī, vol. 3, p. 379, 1. 5 (mā li wa-lakum). See also Judges 11:12: mah lī va-lakh, "What have I to do with you."

¹³ For the dhu²ābatāni of young Labid b. Rabi^ca, see Ibn al-Anbāri, Sharņ al-qaşā³id al-sab^c al-țiwāl (Cairo, 1969), p. 506. (I thank A. Arazi for this reference.) See also TMD, Mukht, vol. 17, p. 6: qāla ^cUrwa [b. al-Zubayr]: kuntu ghulāman lī dhu²ābatāni. See also p. 4, n. 19 below.

The two locks of hair typical of young boys were also called qarnāni or quşşatāni; see Ibn al-Athir Majd al-Din, Al-Nihāya fī gharib al-ḥadīth wa-l-athar, ed. Țāhir Aḥmad al-Zāwi and Maḥmūd Muḥammad al-Ţanāḥī (Cairo, 1385/1965), vol. 4, p. 71: wa-minhu ḥadīth Anas [b. Mālik]: wa-anta yawma²idhin ghulām wa-laka qarnāni aw quşşatāni.

¹⁴ Lahu dafiratāni yursiluhumā min warā⁵i udh(u)nayhi; TMD, vol. 39 (^cAbdallāh b. Mas^cūd—^cAbd al-Hamīd b. Bakkār), ed. Sukayna al-Shihābi (Damascus, 1986), p. 11, 1. 3; TMD, Mukht., vol. 14, p. 46. ¹⁵ Kister, "Do Not Assimilate Yourselves ...: Lā

¹⁵ Kister, "Do Not Assimilate Yourselves . . . : Lā Tashabbahū", in Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam

forehead, etc.).¹⁹ In some versions, Ibn Mas^cūd merely refers to the fact that Zayd was still a young boy when he himself was already an authority on the Qur⁵ān. For instance: "I read . . . when Zayd was still a boy" (*wa-Zayd şabī*).²⁰ According to other versions, Zayd (who is not explicitly mentioned) was at that time in the loins of an unbeliever,²¹ or was still a nonbeliever—he did not yet believe in God.²²

Incidentally, Ibn Mas^cūd's abusive remark regarding Zayd's former faith is reminiscent of a comment attributed to him regarding the famous Jewish convert, Ka^cb al-Ahbār:

A man came to ^cAbdallāh [b. Mas^cūd] and said: "Ka^cb sends you his regards and informs you that this verse was not revealed concerning you: 'Reckon not that those who rejoice in what they have brought'"... [Qur³ān 3:188]. He [Ibn Mas^cūd] said: "Inform him that it was revealed when he was still a Jew."²³

At this point some further biographical details are in place. The age difference between Ibn Mas^cūd and Zayd was roughly twenty years. When Ibn Mas^cūd died in 32/652-53 or 33/653-54, he was over sixty years old. According to some, he was sixty-three.²⁴ In A.H. 32, Zayd, who was eleven years old when the Prophet came to Medina,²⁵ was forty-three. According to Wāqidī, Zayd died in 45/665-66 aged fifty-six.²⁶

Zayd lost his father in the Battle of Bu^cāth (617 C.E.).²⁷ In an alleged autobiographical report Zayd says:

The Battle of Bu^cāth took place when I was six years old. It was five years before the Hijra of the Messenger of God, and when the Messenger of God came to Medina, I was eleven. I was brought to the Messenger of God, and they [i.e., those who presented Zayd to the Prophet] said: "[This is]

¹⁹ Qara⁵iu min fi rasūli llāhi (ş) sab^cina sūra wa-Zayd b. Thābit lahu dhu²āba fi l-kuttāb; Aḥmad, vol. 1, p. 389, 1. -7. For the use of wa-lahu dhu²āba in the sense of "he was then a young boy," see the entry about Bishr b. Mu^cāwiya al-Bakkā²i in Usd al-ghāba, vol. 1, p. 190; Ma^crifat al-şaḥāba, vol. 3, p. 88. See also ghulām lahu dhu²āba; Naşr b. Muzāḥim, Waq^cat Şiffin, 3d ed., ed. ^cAbd al-Salām Hārūn (Cairo, 1401/ 1981), p. 520, 1. 5.

²⁰ Ibn Shabba, vol. 3, p. 1006, I. 7. In the version of this report found in Ahmad, vol. 1, p. 414, I. 9, the words wa-Zayd şabi are missing. Cf. Abū Nu^caym al-Işfahānī, Hilyat al-awliyā⁵ (Cairo, n.d.; reprint, Beirut, 1387/1967), vol. 1, p. 125, I. 4 (where the context of Ibn Mas^cūd's utterance is missing): ... wa-Zayd b. Thâbit la-şabi mina l-şibyân, wa-anā ada^cu mā akhadhtu min fi rasūli llâhi (ş)?

²¹ La-qad qara²tu ^calā rasūli Ilāh (ş) sab^cina sūra, fa-qāla li la-qad ahsanta, wa-inna lladhi yas²alūna an aqra²a ^calā qirā²atihi fi sulb rajul kāfir; Ibn Shabba, vol. 3, p. 1006, l. 12. It is noteworthy that the version of this saying quoted by al-Zuhri via a grandson of Ibn Mas^cūd's brother (^cUbaydallāh b. ^cAbdallāh b. ^cUtba b. Mas^cūd) gives Ibn Mas^cūd far less credit than the one quoted above: la-qad aslamtu wa-innahu la-fi sulb rajul kāfir; see Two Muqaddimas, p. 20. Does kāfir mean here "Jewish"? ^cAlī b. Abi Ţālib is said to have called the former Jew, al-Ash^cath b. Qays, munāfiq b. kāfir; see my article "Judaism among Kinda and the Ridda of Kinda," in The Journal of the American Oriental Society 115 (1995): 635-50, at p. 641, n. 28.

²² La-qad qara⁵tu min fi rasūli llāh (ş) sab^cina sūra wa-inna Zayd b. Thābit la-kāfir bi-⁵llāh mā āmana bihi; Tabarānī, Kabir, vol. 9, p. 73. ²³ Akhbirūhu annahā nazalat wa-huwa yahūdi; al-

²³ Akhbirūhu annahā nazalat wa-huwa yahūdi; al-Tabari, Jāmi^c al-bayān fi tafsir al-Qur⁵ān (Būlāq, 1321/1903-1330/1912), vol. 4, p. 139, l. 9. Cf. ibid., p. 135, l. -10. Cf. Ibn Mas^cūd's prohibition to query the Ahl al-Kitāb; Ibn ^cAbd al-Bart, Jāmi^c bayān al-^cilm wa-fadlihi, ed. Abū l-Ashbāl al-Zuhayrī (al-Dammām, 1414/1994), vol. 2, pp. 800, 804.

 ²⁴ TMD, vol. 39, ed. Sukayna al-Shihābi (Damascus, 1986), pp. 135-39.
 ²⁵ Zayd was one year older than Anas b. Mālik (al-

²³ Zayd was one year older than Anas b. Målik (al-Dhahabi, Ma^crifat al-qurrā² al-kibār ^calā l-tabaqāt wa-l-a^cşār, ed. Muḥammad Sayyid Jād al-Ḥaqq [Cairo, 1969], vol. 1, p. 36), who was ten when the Prophet arrived at Medina; Işāba, vol. 1, p. 126. But cf. Ma^crifat al-şaḥāba, vol. 2, pp. 197, 202-3 (Anas was then either ten, nine, or eight years old).

²⁶ Dhahabi, Nubalā², vol. 2, p. 441 (other versions mention A.H. 51 and 55); Mizzī, vol. 10, p. 31. Yet others date his death to A.H. 48 and calculate his age then as fifty-nine. This is based on the claim that at the Battle of the Ditch (A.H. 4) his participation was confirmed, i.e., he was then fifteen years old; see Tabarānī, Kabir, vol. 5, p. 109. ²⁷ Dhahabi, Nubalā², vol. 2, p. 427; cf. Wāqidi,

²⁷ Dhahabi, Nubalā³, vol. 2, p. 427; cf. Wāqidī, vol. 2, p. 448; A. J. Wensinck, *El*, 1st ed., s.v. Zaid b. <u>Th</u>ābit.

a boy of the Khazraj who read sixteen sūras." I was not yet permitted [to fight] in the Battles of Badr and Uhud but was allowed [to fight] in the Battle of the Ditch.²⁸

Zayd's widowed mother, al-Nawār bint Mālik of the 'Adī b. al-Najjār, married 'Umāra b. Hazm who belonged to the same subgroup of the Mālik b. al-Najjār as her deceased husband, namely, the ^cAbd ^cAwf b. Ghanm.²⁹ As is well known, the Prophet settled in the midst of the people of the Najjār. Zayd's mother boasted that her house (bayt) was the tallest among those surrounding the Prophet's mosque (or his "place of prayer"); Bilāl [b. Rabāh]³⁰ used to make the call to prayer from the roof of her house until the Prophet constructed his mosque.31

Zayd's stepfather, ^cUmāra b. Hazm, merits some attention. His brother, ^cAmr b. Hazm, was raised by the Jewish Nadir as a Jew; when the Nadir were expelled from Medina, ^cAmr, then a boy of eleven, went with them.³² The stepfather himself was considered an expert on amulets,³³ a field of magic also practiced by the Jews of Medina.³⁴

Zayd was considered an authority on calendrical calculations,³⁵ the mastery of whichas the following report implies—he received from a Jewish teacher: Zayd's son, Khārija (d. 99/717 or 100/718),³⁶ reported that 'Āshūrā' was celebrated at different times during the year ("it went around the year," i.e., in the Islamic period). The people used to come to so-and-so the Jew and ask him (i.e., about its time). When the Jew died, they came to Zayd b. Thabit and enquired of him (about it).³⁷

III. ARABIC TUTORING BY A JEW IN PRE-ISLAMIC MEDINA

Further evidence about Zayd's education takes us beyond the Jewish maktab/kuttāb mentioned above. He is said to have learned "the script of the Jews"³⁸ (or Aramaic/Syriac

²⁸ Muntazam, vol. 5, p. 214.

²⁹ Ibn Qudāma, Istibsār, pp. 69 f., 73; Isāba, vol. 8, p. 144; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 8, pp. 419-20. See also Wāqidī, vol. 2, p. 448 (^cUmāra jokingly stole Zayd's weapons at the Battle of the Ditch); Wāqidī, vol. 3, p. 1003; TMD, Mukht, vol. 1, p. 165 (during the Tabük expedition, the banner of the Mälik b. al-Najjär was taken from ^cUmara and given to Zayd).

³⁰ On whom see El, 2d ed., s.v.

³¹ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 8, p. 420: kāna bayti atwala bayt hawla I-masjid fa-kāna Bilāl yu²adhdhinu fawqahu min awwali mā adhdhana ilā an banā rasūlu llāh masjidahu fa-kāna vu²adhdhinu ba^cdu ^calā zahri lmasjid wa-qad rufi^ca lahu shav² fawqa zahrihi. Zayd's statement that he was the Prophet's neighbor emphasizes that he was always at hand: kuntu jāra rasūli llāh (ș) fa-kāna idhā nazala l-waḥy arsala ilayya fakatabtu I-wahy; Maşāhif, p. 3.

³² See my article, "CAmr b. Hazm al-Ansāri and Qur³ān, 2,256: 'No Compulsion is There in Religion',' in Oriens 35 (1996): 57-64. Incidentally, one of Zayd's sons married a daughter of 'Amr b. Hazm; Ibn Sa'd, vol. 5, p. 265. ³³ *Işāba*, vol. 4, pp. 313, 579.

34 'Abd al-Malik b. Habib, Mukhtasar fi 1-tibb, ed. Camilo Álvarez de Morales and Fernando Girón Irueste (Madrid, 1992), p. 96, 1. 7. Cf. my article "The Bewitching of the Prophet Muhammad by the Jews: A

Note à propos 'Abd al-Malik b. Habib's Mukhtaşar fi 1-tibb," in al-Qantara 13 (1992): 561-69.

³⁵ Cf. A. Moberg, El, 2d ed., s.v. Nasi²; al-Birūnī, Chronology, ed. E. Šachau (Leipzig, 1923), pp. 11-12. ³⁶ Mizzī, vol. 8, pp. 8-13; *TMD* (Dār al-Fikr), vol.

15, pp. 397-99. Khārija, a Medinan who transmitted hadith from his father and was described as kathir alhadith, owned a court (dar) in Damascus; TMD (Dar al-Fikr), vol. 15, p. 391.

³⁷ Tabarāni, Kabir, vol. 5, p. 138: ... wa-kāna yadūru fi I-sana, fa-kāna I-nās ya[>]tūna fulānan alyahūdiyya fa-yas⁵alūnahu, fa-lammā māta l-yahūdī ataw Zayd b. Thabit fa-sa²aluhu. When Zayd died, Abū Hurayra reportedly remarked: "Today, the rabbi of this nation (habr hadhihi l-umma) died, perhaps God will make Ibn 'Abbās his successor"; see Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 2, p. 362. A. J. Wensinck, El, 1st ed., s.v. Zaid b. Thabit, wrote: "His quickness of understanding, his sagacity and his knowledge are praised by his contemporaries; he was called 'the rabbi of the community" But it would seem that the term habr was used here with reference to Zayd's knowledge of Jewish matters.

³⁸ Not their language, as correctly observed by A. Sprenger, Das Leben und die Lehre des Mohammad, 2d ed., vol. 3, p. xxxix, n. 1; cf. N. Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, vol. 2, Qur³anic Commentary and Tradition (Chicago, 1967), pp. 8, 257-58.

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or Hebrew; see below) in madāris (variant: midrās) māsila.³⁹ But māsila is a corruption of Māsika: Zayd received his instruction at the midras of a Jewish clan called Māsika.⁴⁰ The Māsika inhabited a village called al-Quff⁴¹ in the lower part or sāfila of Medina. Since there is evidence that al-Quff was the village of the Qaynuqa^c, one assumes that the midrās of the Māsika was identical to the bayt al-midrās of the Qaynuqā^c mentioned elsewhere; it is less likely that there were in this village two institutions of this kind. The precise relationship between the Māsika and the Qaynuqā^c is not clear. Either the former were a subgroup of the latter or, perhaps more plausibly, both were independent groups. Whereas the Qaynuqa^c may well have been the dominant component in the population of al-Ouff, the village was also inhabited by other Jewish groups,⁴² including the Masika.

It is perhaps possible to identify the man who was Zayd's teacher (or "headmaster"). According to Zayd's above-mentioned son, Khārija, a certain woman (al-Sha^cthā⁵) mentioned in verses by Hassan b. Thabit was

the daughter of ^cAmr, from the Jewish Banū Māsika whose houses were in the area of al-Quff. Her father was the head of the Jews who were in charge of the House of Torah Study and was a man of stature among them.43

A crucial report by Wāqidī about literacy in pre-Islamic Medina lists Zayd along with other Arabs who were literate before Islam (and obviously learned to read at different periods). It is quoted in the Subh al-a^cshā of al-Qalqashandī (d. 821/1418), which was completed in 814/1412:44

³⁹ TMD, Xerographic edition of the Zāhiriyya MS (Amman, n.d.), vol. 6, p. 559, 1. -5 (... lbn Sa^cd < Wāgidī ... ^cAbdallāh b. Abi Bakr b. Muhammad b. ^cAmr b. Hazm): kāna Zayd b. Thābit yata^callamu fī madāris [var. midrās] māsila [TMD (Dār al-Fikr), vol. 19, p. 305, has at this point: madaris basila, var. māsila; Tarātīb idāriyya, vol. 1, p. 204, quoting this report from Ibn 'Asākir, has: midrās Māsika] fa-^callamahu kitābahum [sic; Tarātīb idāriyya: fa-ta-^callama k.t.b.hum] fi khamsa ^cashrata layla ḥattā kāna ya^clamu mā harrafū wa-baddalū (the choice of words is clearly polemical; cf. F. Buhl, El, 1st ed., s.v. Tahrif). The plural form madaris is also attested to in the report about the encounter between Abū Bakr and the Jewish leader, Finhāş b. 'Azūrā'; see al-Tha'labi, al-Kashf wa-l-bayān (MS Br. Lib., 9060), fol. 109a: fadakhala Abū Bakr dhāta yawm madārisahum. (I thank E. Kohlberg for this reference.) For bayt madārisihim mentioned with regard to the same encounter, see my article "Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān and 'Ammār b. Yāsir, Jewish Converts to Islam," in Quaderni di studi arabi 11 (1993): 149-62, at p. 159.

40 According to the Arab lexicographers, the midras of the Jews is their house in which the Book of the Law revealed to Moses is repeatedly read, or their house in which the Book of God is read, or read repeatedly, or their synagogue, as well as one who reads, or reads repeatedly, or studies, the books of the Jews; see E. W. Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon (London, 1863-93), p. 871b. The Islamization of the term is reflected in Lisān al-^carab (Beirut, 1968), s.v., p. 80a: wa-l-midrāsu l-baytu lladhi yudrasu fihi l-Qur⁵ān.

⁴¹ See my article "Muhammad at Medina: A Geographical Approach," in Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam 6 (1985): 29-62, at p. 39; Samhūdi, vol. 1, p. 164, l. 2: . . . wa-kāna lahumu l-utumāni lladhāni fī l-Quff, fi l-garya; al-Samhūdi, Khulāsat al-wafā biakhbār dār al-mustafā (Medina, 1392/1972), p. 158, who provides details about the location of the village's remains. Ibn Rusta, Al-A^clâq al-nafisa, ed. M. de Goeje (Leiden, 1892), p. 62, l. 6; Ibn al-Athir, Kāmil, vol. 1, p. 656, l. 6 (printed: māsila). In Kitāb al-manāsik waamākin turug al-hajj wa-ma^cālim al-jazira, ed. Hamad al-Jäsir (Riyad, 1401/1981), p. 402, the name Mätika in the phrase masjid Bani Mātika is probably a corruption of Māsika ("the mosque located in the former territory of the Banū Māsika"). ⁴² Cf. my article "Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān," pp.

160–61. ⁴³ Wa-kāna Abū I-Sha^cihā⁵ gad ra⁵asa I-yahūda Ilaii tali bayta l-dirāsa li-l-tawrāt wa-kāna dhā gadr fihim; Abū l-Faraj al-Isfahānī, K. al-aghānī, 3d ed. (Cairo, 1345/1927-1394/1974), vol. 17, pp. 169-70; Hassān b. Thabit, Diwan, ed. W. CArafat (London, 1971), vol. 1, p. 176; vol. 2, p. 208. The information about ^cAmr is valid even if the woman in question was, as some argued, the daughter of another Jewish leader, namely, Sallām b. Mishkam of the Nadīr; Isāba, vol. 7, p. 727.

44 C. E. Bosworth, El, 2d ed., s.v. al-Kalkashandi, p. 510a.

Wāqidī reported [the following], with an *isnād* of his going back to Sa^cd b. Sa^cīd [of the Mālik b. al-Najjār]:⁴⁵

Literacy (al-kitāba)⁴⁶ in Arabic among the Aws and Khazraj was rare. A Jew of the Yahūd Māsika was instructed in it (^cullimahā) and used to teach it to the [Arab] children. When Islam came, some ten of them were literate. They were: Sa^cīd b. Zurāra, al-Mundhir b. ^cAmr, Ubayy b. Ka^cb, Zayd b. Thābit—who could write in both Arabic and Hebrew—Rāfi^c b. Mālik, Usayd b. Huḍayr, Ma^cn b. ^cAdī, Abū ^cAbs b. Jabr,⁴⁷ Aws b. Khawlī, and Bashīr b. Sa^cd.⁴⁸

Another version of Wāqidī's report is found in Balādhurī's Futūh al-buldān.⁴⁹ The latter version, however, which contains no mention of Māsika, is corrupt with regard to the link between the unspecified Jew and his young Arab students; it is as if the Jew's command of Arabic and the students' study of it were unrelated to each other.⁵⁰ Yet from the Futūh version we learn the names of three literate Arabs who are not listed in the Şubh al-a^cshā: Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda (who appears at the beginning of the list, where the Şubh al-a^cshā places the obscure Sa^cīd b. Zurāra), Sa^cd b. al-Rabī^c, and the munāfiq, ^cAbdallāh b. Ubayy. The Futūh adds the following passage about an important social concept common in pre-Islamic Medina, at the same time restating two of the three names only found in this source, i.e., Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda and ^cAbdallāh b. Ubayy:

And "the perfect men" (al-kamala) among them—"a perfect man" was one who combined literacy (al-kitāb) with [the skills of] shooting and swimming⁵¹—were Rāfi^c b. Mālik, Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda,

⁴⁵ Elsewhere Wāqidī (vol. 1, p. 152) quotes from Ibn Abi Sabra (= Abū Bakr b. ^cAbdallāh b. Muhammad b. Abi Sabra al-Qurashī al-^cĀmiri; Mizzi, vol. 33, pp. 102-8) < Sa^cd b. Sa^cid, who was "Yaḥyā's brother." On Sa^cd b. Sa^cid b. ^cAmr (d. 141/758-59), see Mizzī, vol. 10, pp. 262-65; on Sa^cd, Yaḥyā, and ^cAbd Rabbihi, the sons of Sa^cid b. Qays b. ^cAmr (or Sa^cid b. Qays b. Qahd), see Dhahabī, *Nubalā²*, vol. 5, pp. 468-81 (Yaḥyā), 482. Sa^cd belonged to a subgroup of the Mālik b. al-Najjār called ^cUbayd b. Tha^claba b. Ghanm. His grandfather, Qays b. ^cAmr/ Qahd was a munāfiq: Iṣāba, vol. 5, pp. 491-92, 496-97; Ibn Qudāma, Istibṣār, p. 61; see my Muslims, Jews, and Pagans, p. 118.

- ⁴⁶ Literally, the art of writing.
- ⁴⁷ Erroneously printed: Abū ^cAbs b. Kathir.

48 Subh al-a^cshā (Cairo, 1331/1913-1338/1919), vol. 3, p. 15; ed. Muhammad Husayn Shams al-Din (Beirut, 1407/1987), vol. 3, pp. 14-15: ... rawā l-Wāgidī bi-sanadihi ilā Sa^cd b. Sa^cīd, gāla: kānati l-kitāba l-^carabiyya qalilan [sic] fi l-Aws wa-l-Khazraj wa-kāna yahūdi min yahūd Māsika qad ^cullimahā fakāna yu^callimuhā l-sibyāna, fa-jā^sa l-Islām wa-fīhim bid^cata ^cashara yaktubūna, minhum Sa^cid b. Zurāra wa-I-Mundhir b. ^cAmr, wa-Ubayy b. Ka^cb, wa-Zayd b. Thābit—yaktubu l-kitābayni jamī^can l-^carabiyya wa-l-^cibrāniyya—wa-Rāfi^c b. Mūlik, wa-Usayd b. Hudayr, wa-Ma^cn b. ^cAdi, wa-Abū ^cAbs b. Kathir [!] wa-Aws b. Khawli, wa-Bashir b. Sa^cd. See also Jawad ^cAli, Ta²rikh al-^carab qabla l-Islām (Baghdad, 1950-60), vol. 7, pp. 59, 65-66. The editor of the more recent edition of the Subh al-acshā, Shams al-Din, wrongly

replaced Māsika with Māsikha, whom he identified as a group of the Azd. ⁴⁹ Balādhurī's report was mentioned by J. Well-

⁴⁹ Balådhuri's report was mentioned by J. Wellhausen, Reste arabischen Heidentums, 2d ed. (Berlin, 1897; reprint, Berlin, 1961), p. 93; R. Leszynsky, Die Juden in Arabien zur Zeit Mohammeds (Berlin, 1910), p. 21; Th. Nöldeke, Geschichte des Qorāns, 2d ed., vol. 2, ed. F. Schwally (Leipzig, 1919), p. 139; F. Buhl, El, 1st ed., s.v. al-Madina, p. 86a; J. Obermann, "Islamic Origins: A Study in Background and Foundation." in N. A. Faris, The Arab Heritage (Princeton, 1944), pp. 58-120, at p. 68; H. Z. Hirschberg, Yisra⁵el be-^carav (Tel Aviv, 1946), pp. 194, 316, n. 25 [in Hebrew]; N. Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, vol., 1, Historical Texts (Chicago, 1957), p. 28.

⁵⁰ Balådhuri, Futūh, 473, İ. -4: kāna l-kitāb bi-l-^carabiyya fi l-Aws wa-l-Khazraj qalilan wa-kāna ba^cdu l-yahūd qad ^callama [sic; read: ^cullima] kitāba l-^carabiyya wa-kāna ta^callamahu [sic; read: yu^callimuhu] l-şibyān bi-l-Madina fi l-zamani l-awwal, fajā²a l-lslām wa-fi l-Aws wa-l-Khazraj ^cidda yaktubūna wa-hum Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda b. Dulaym ... wa-Sa^cd b. al-Rabi^c... wa-^cAbdullāh b. Ubayy al-munāfiq.

⁵¹ Cf. H. Lammens, Le berceau de l'Islam: L'Arabie occidentale à la veille de l'hégire (Rome, 1914), pp. 244-45; idem, Etudes sur le règne du calife Omaiyade Mo^câwia l^{er} (Paris, London, Leipzig, 1908), p. 330. Note a father's obligation to teach his son literacy, swimming, and archery; for example, in al-Suyūţī, Al-Durr al-manthūr fī l-tafsir bi-l-ma³thūr (Cairo, 1914/ 1896), vol. 3, p. 194, 1. 15: haqqu l-walad ^calā l-wālid an yu^callimahu l-kitāba wa-l-sibāha wa-l-ramy. See

Usayd b. Hudayr, ^cAbdallāh b. Ubayy, and Aws b. Khawli. Those among the people of Yathrib who combined these skills in the Jāhiliyya [i.e., unlike the others, they died before the Hijra] were Suwayd b. al-Ṣāmit and Hudayr al-Katā⁵ib (Hudayr-of-the-Battalions).

Only Zayd b. Thābit is credited with the knowledge of two languages (or rather two scripts), Arabic and Hebrew, which he acquired before Islam $(fa-j\bar{a}^{2}a \ l-Isl\bar{a}m \ wa-f\bar{i} \ l-Aws \ wa-l-Khazraj \ cidda \ yaktubūna)$. Some, however, claimed that he only became literate after the Hijra. One account (slightly smacking of anti-Anṣārī polemics) links Zayd's literacy in Arabic to the aftermath of the Battle of Badr:

Some of the [Meccan] captives were literate, while among the Anṣār there was nobody who was proficient at writing. And there were among them [i.e., the captives] some who had no money, so the instruction of ten young men in the skill of writing was accepted from them as a precondition for setting them free. At that time Zayd b. Thābit, among other young Anṣār, learned how to write.⁵²

Also Zayd's study of "the Jewish script" was said to have taken place after the Hijra. The following report goes back to Zayd himself through his son, Khārija:⁵³

⁵² Wa-kāna fi l-asrā man yaktubu wa-lam yakun fi l-anşâr ahad yuhsinu l-kitāba fa-kāna minhum man lā māla lahu fa-yuqbalu minhu an yu^callima ^cashara mina l-ghilmāni l-kitāba wa-yukhallā sabīluhu, fayawma[>]idhin ta^callama l-kitāba Zayd b. Thābit fi jamā^ca min ghilmati l-anṣār; quoted in Ya^clā b. Muhammad al-Khuzā^ci, Takhrij al-dalālāt al-sam^ciyya, ed. Ihsan 'Abbas (Beirut, 1405/1985), pp. 84-85. See also Tarâtib idāriyya, vol. 1, pp. 48-49. In Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 2, p. 22 we find in the same context a report of 'Amir al-Sha^cbi containing the following explanation: wakāna ahl Makka yaktubūna wa-ahlu l-Madina lā yaklubūna; another report in the same source, again from al-Sha^cbi, links Zayd's literacy to the same circumstances: fa-kāna Zayd b. Thābit mimman ^cullima. A report in Magrizi, Imta^c, p. 101 tells of an Anșari boy who, having been beaten by his Qurashi teacher, came crying to his father. The latter said, "that infidel, he seeks to avenge the blood of those killed at Badr" (alkhabith, yatlubu bi-dhahl Badr) and released the boy from further study. Elsewhere the number of Muslims to be trained by each captive is said to have been two; Masānid Abi Yaḥyā Firās b. Yaḥyā al-Muktib al-Kūſī, Jam' al-Hafiz Abi Nu'aym al-Isfahūni, ed. Muhammad b. Hasan al-Misri (Riyad, 1413/1993), p. 73: man lam yakun lahu fidā⁵ fa-l-yu^callim rajulayni ınina I-muslimīna I-kitābata. Qāla Zayd: fa-kuntu mimman ^cullima l-kitāb.

The following report possibly belongs here: the Prophet is said to have ordered 'Abdallāh/al-Hakam b. Sa^cid/Abī Uhayha b. al-'As b. Umayya b. 'Abd Shams (said to have been killed at Badr, or at Mu'ta, or at Yamāma; the last-mentioned version was the one held by most people) to teach literacy in Medina; TMD.

vol. 34 ('Abdallāh b. Sālim-'Abdallāh b. Abī 'Ā'isha), ed. Muta^c al-Tarabishi (Damascus, 1406/1986), p. 50 (< al-Zubayr b. Bakkār: he was killed at Badr); Muș^cab b. 'Abdallāh al-Zubayri, Kitāb nasab Quraysh, ed. E. Lévi-Provençal (Cairo, 1953), p. 174) (he was killed at Mu²ta); Khalifa b. Khayyāt, Ta²rikh, ed. Suhayl Zakkār (Damascus, 1968), vol. 1, p. 91 (< Abū Ma^cshar: he was killed at Yamāma); Usd al-ghāba, vol. 3, p. 175 (who says about the Yamāma version: wa-huwa akthar). TMD, vol. 34, p. 52 contains this curious statement: wa-kāna l-Hakam (= 'Abdallāh) b. Sa^cid vu^callimu l-hikma; this is quoted from the Musnad of Abū I-CAbbās al-Thagafi al-Sarrāj (d. 313/925); see Isāba, vol. 2, p. 103; F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, vol. 1 (Leiden, 1967), p. 173 (hereafter GAS). See also TMD, vol. 34, p. 53: wakāna vu^callimu l-ķikma bi-l-Madina; Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat al-nasab, ed. Nāji Hasan (Beirut, 1407/1986), p. 44: wa-ja^calahu [i.e., the Prophet; the object is al-Hakam/cAbdallah] yucallimu l-hikma bi-l-Madina; al-Balādhuri, Ansāb al-ashrāf, vol. 4b. ed. M. Schloessinger (Jerusalem, 1938), p. 130 = vol. 4i, ed. Ihsān Abbas (Beirut, 1400/1979), p. 433. It seems that in this context hikma can only mean "literacy." For hikma in the sense of khatt or writing see Taratib idariyya, vol. 1, p. 49 (regarding Qur⁵an 2:269).

⁵³ See p. 5, n. 36 above. It is of course no accident that Zayd's son was involved in transmitting reports about his father. Al-Zuhri received from an unspecified grandson of Zayd (< his father, Sulaymān < his grandfather, Zayd) a report on the Prophet's dictation of the Qur²ān to Zayd; see al-Sūlī, Adab al-kuttāb, ed. Ahmad Hasan Basaj (Beirut, 1415/1994), p. 171. The grandson in question was probably Sa^cīd b. Sulaymān b. Zayd (d. 132/749), the onetime qādī of Medina, who was one of al-Zuhri's teachers; Mizzī, vol. 10, pp. 482–83. Zayd's grandson, Sulaymān b. Khārija (Mizzī, vol. 11, pp. 398–99) reported (< his father,

also Tarātīb idāriyya, vol. 2, p. 239 (quoting Al-Durr al-manthūr); Murtadā al-Zabīdī, Hikmat al-ishrāq ilā kuttāb al-āfāq, in Nawādir al-makhītītāt, 2d ed., ed. ^cAbd al-Salām Hārūn, vol. 2 (Cairo, 1393/1973), p. 66.

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The Messenger of God ordered me to study for him the script of the Jews, and he said to me: "I do not trust the Jews with regard to my correspondence" [i.e., correspondence with the Jews, written in their script].⁵⁴ Not even half a month passed until I learned it and I used to write for him to the Jews, and when they wrote to him, I read their letter.⁵⁵

A fuller version of this report provides an historical context: the Prophet's order that Zayd should learn *kitāb yahūd* was given shortly after the Hijra, following the Prophet's examination of the boy's command of Qur⁵ān.⁵⁶ A different motive is given in another report (again said to go back to Zayd himself):⁵⁷

The Messenger of God told me: "There are letters coming to me from certain people which I do not want anyone to read. Are you capable of studying the Hebrew script"—or perhaps he said: "the Aramaic/Syriac script?" I said: "Yes." And I learned it within seventeen days.⁵⁸

So according to one view, Zayd learned the Arabic script and the Aramaic/Syriac/ Hebrew script before the Hijra in the Jewish *maktab/kuttāb/midrās*, while according to another view, he learned both after the Hijra. Presumably, the latter option is tendentious and apologetic: it substitutes for Zayd's pre-Hijra education in the Jewish institution a study of the Arabic script from a Qurashī Arab and a study of the Aramaic script (probably in the same institution) at the Prophet's behest.

IV. REFLECTIONS OF WAQIDI'S LIST OF LITERATE ARABS IN IBN SACD'S TABAQAT

Wāqidī was Ibn Sa^cd's main source, and hence most of the relevant entries in the latter's *Ţabaqāt* reflect the evidence included in Wāqidī's list of literate Arabs:

- 1. Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda of the Sā^cida (Khazraj).⁵⁹
- 2. Al-Mundhir b. ^cAmr of the Sā^cida.⁶⁰

⁵⁵ Balādhuri, Futūh, p. 474, l. 11: amarani rasūlu llāhi (ş) an ata^callama lahu kitāba yahūd wa-qāla li: innī lā āmanu yahūdan ^calā kitābī, fa-lam yamurra bī nişf shahr hattā ta^callamtuhu fa-kuntu aktubu lahu ilā yahūd, wa-idhā katabū ilayhi qara²tu kitābahum.

⁵⁶ In this version, Zayd is said to have known seventeen sūras by heart; Mizzī, vol. 10, p. 28. See, similarly, in *Işāba*, vol. 2, pp. 593-94, the version quoted from the *Musnad* of 'Abd b. Humayd (on whom see *GAS*, vol. 1, p. 113 [where his name is vocalized: 'Abd b. Hamīd!]), with an *isnād* going back to Zayd himself via Thābit b. 'Ubayd (see the following footnote): qāla lī l-nabī (ş): inni aktubu ilā qawm fa-akhāfu an yazīdū ^calayya aw yanquşū, fa-ta^callami l-siryāniyya. Fa-ta^callamtuhā fi sab^cata ^cashara yawman = al-Muntakhab min musnad 'Abd b. Humayd, ed. Şubhī al-Badrī al-Sāmarrā⁻ī and Maḥmūd Muḥammad al-Ṣa^cidī (Cairo, 1408/1988), p. 108.

⁵⁷ Through Thäbit b. ^cUbaydalläh; read probably: Thäbit b. ^cUbayd. He was Zayd's *mawlā* and pupil; Mizzī, vol. 4, pp. 362–63; *Tahdhīb*, vol. 2, p. 9. ⁵⁸ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 2, p. 358: ... innahu ya²tini kutub min unās lā uhibbu an yaqra³ahā ahad, fa-hal tastați^cu an ta^callama kitāba l-^cibrāniyya, aw qāla: l-siryāniyya?... Cf. Ţabarāni, Kabir, vol. 5, p. 155: innahu ya²tini kutub mina l-nās wa-lā uhibbu an yaqra³ahā kull ahad, fa-hal tastați^cu an tata^callama kitāba l-siryāniyya?

Muntazam, vol. 5, p. 214, adduces this legendary report: "Zayd b. Thäbit was the interpreter (*turjumān*) of the Messenger of God and his scribe [who wrote his letters] to the kings. He learned Persian from Khusro's messenger within eighteen days and Greek (*al-rūmiyya*), Ethiopic, and Coptic from the slaves (khadam) of the Messenger of God."

Some dated the Prophet's order to A.H. 4: the Prophet explained that he feared "lest the Jews alter his letter" (*lā āmanu an yubaddilū kitābi*); Maqrīzī, *Imtā^c*, pp. 187, 194; Țabarī, vol. 2, p. 561. ⁵⁹ Wa-kāna Sa^cd fi l-jāhiliyya yaktubu bi-l-

⁵⁹ Wa-kāna Sa^cd fi l-jāhiliyya yaktubu bi-l-^carabiyya, wa-kānati l-kitāba fi l-^carab qalīlan [sic], wa-kāna yuḥsinu l-^cawm wa-l-ramy, wa-kāna man aḥsana dhālika summiya l-kāmila; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 613, l. 12.

⁶⁰ Wa-kāna I-Mundhir yaktubu bi-I-^carabiyya qabla I-Islām, wa-kānati I-kitāba fi I-^carab qalilan [sic]; ibid., p. 555, l. 3.

Khārija) about Zayd's writing of the waḥy; Maṣāḥif, p. 3. Khārija b. Zayd was al-Zuhri's source for a report about Zayd's search for a missing verse; see Maṣāḥif, pp. 19, 29.

pp. 19, 29. ⁵⁴ Cf. Muntazam, vol. 5, p. 214: inni lā āmanuhum an yubaddilū kitābī.

3. Ubayy b. Ka^cb of the Najjār (Khazraj).⁶¹ Later in his entry Ibn Sa^cd mentions Ubayy's role in writing down Qur³ anic verses at the time of the Prophet (which confirms his literacy) and the claim, doubtless coming from Ubayy's own family, that God Himself ordered the Prophet to dictate the Our³ān to him.⁶²

4. Rāfi^c b. Mālik of the Zurayq (Khazraj).⁶³

5. Usayd b. Hudayr of the 'Abd al-Ashhal (Aws). His entry also includes evidence about his father, Hudayr al-Katā²ib (see p. 8 above), who led the Aws in the Battle of Bu^cāth in which he was killed.⁶⁴

6. Ma^cn b. ^cAdī of the Balī, a client of the ^cAmr b. ^cAwf (Aws).⁶⁵

7. Abū ^cAbs b. Jabr of the Hāritha (Aws).^{66 c}Umar b. al-Khattāb and ^cUthmān b. ^cAffān employed him as a tax collector (yusaddigu l-nās).⁶⁷ Indeed, one expects to find literacy combined with arithmetic, both of which were necessary for the state administration.68

8. Sa^cd b. al-Rabi^c of the Hārith (Khazraj).⁶⁹

9. Aws b. Khawli of the ^cAwf (Khazraj).⁷⁰ His literacy is supported by the report that the Prophet asked him to inscribe the Hudaybiyya treaty.⁷¹ Aws and ^cAbdallāh b. Ubayy (Ibn Ubayy) belonged to a subdivision of the ^cAwf known as the Banū l-Hublā;⁷² moreover, the former was the latter's nephew.⁷³

10. Bashir b. Sa^cd of the Harith (Khazraj).⁷⁴

⁶¹ Wa-kāna Ubayy yaktubu fi l-jāhiliyya qabla l-Islām, wa-kānati l-kitāba fī l-^carab galilatan.

62 Wa-kāna yaktubu fī l-Islāmi l-waḥy li-rasūli llāhi (s), wa-amara llāhu tabāraka wa-ta^cālā rasūlahu an yaqra^sa ^calā Ubayy l-Qur^sāna, wa-qāla rasūlu llāh (s): aqra⁵u ummati Ubayy; ibid., p. 498.
⁶³ Wa-kāna Rāfi^c b. Mālik mina I-kamala, wa-kāna

l-kāmil fi l-jāhiliyyati lladhi yaktubu wa-yuḥsinu l-^cawm wa-l-ramy, wa-kāna Rāfi^c ka-dhālika, wakānati l-kitāba fī l-gawm galīlan [sic]; ibid., p. 622, l. 1. Cf. Samhūdi, vol. 1, p. 206, l. 15: wa-kāna yuqālu li-Rāfi^c b. Mālik: l-kāmil, li-anna ahla l-jāhiliyya kānū yaqülüna li-man kāna kātiban shā^ciran[!]: l-kāmil. Note that Rafi^c was married to the sister of another literate Arab, namely, ^cAbdallāh b. Ubayy (Ibn Ubayy). The marriage took place many years before the Hijra: two of their sons are said to have participated in the Battle of Badr; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 621; vol. 8, p. 382. 64 ... Wa-kāna yaktubu bi-l-^carabiyya fi l-jāhiliyya,

wa-kānati l-kitāba fī l-^carab galilan [sic], wa-kāna yuķsinu l-^cawm wa-l-ramy, wa-kāna yusammā man kānat hādhihi l-khişāl fihi: l-kāmil, wa-kānat qadi jtama^cat fi Usayd, wa-kāna abūhu Hudayru l-katā⁵ib yu^crafu bi-dhālika aydan wa-yusammā bihi. Concerning the father, Hudayr, it is reported: wa-kāna ... sharifan fi l-jāhiliyya; while about the son it is said: wakāna . . . ba^cda abihi sharifan fi qawmihi fi l-jāhiliyya wa-fi l-Islām, yu^caddu min ^cuqalā²ihim wa-dhawi ra²yihim; ibid., vol. 3, p. 604. For Hudayr's command in Bu^cāth, see Ibn al-Athīr, Kāmil, vol. 1, pp. 680-81.

⁶⁵ Wa-kāna yaktubu bi·l-^carabiyya qabla l·lslām, wa-kānati I-kitāba fī I-carab galilatan; Ibn Sacd, vol. 3, p. 465, I. 4. On Macn, see my Muslims, Jews and Pagans, pp. 136, 140.

66 Wa-kāna Abū ^cAbs yaktubu bi-l-^carabiyya qabla

I-Islām, wa-kānati I-kitāba fi I-^carab galilan (sic); Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 450. ⁶⁷ Ibid.

68 Cf. TMD, Mukht., vol. 25, p. 7 (the Prophet prays to God to teach Mu^cāwiya al-kitāb wa-l-hisāb). ⁶⁹ Wa-kāna Sa^cd yaktubu fi l-jāhiliyya, wa-kānati

I-kitāba fi I-carab galilatan; Ibn Sacd, vol. 3, p. 522, 1. -2. Sa^cd b. al-Rabi^c was killed in the Battle of Uhud. In due course, Zayd b. Thabit married his daughter, Umm Sa^cd (Jamila), who was born several months after her father's death. It was a fruitful marriage: she bore Zayd twelve children, eight boys and four girls; Dhahabî, Nubalā², vol. 2, p. 428; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 522, l. 14; vol. 5, pp. 262-64; vol. 8, p. 477. ⁷⁰ Wa-kāna Aws b. Khawli mina l-kamala, wa-kāna

l-kāmil ^cindahum fi l-jāhiliyya wa-awwali l-Islāmi lladhi yaktubu bi-l-^carabiyya wa-yuhsinu l-^cawm wa-lramy, wa-kāna qadi jtama^ca dhālika fī Aws b. Khawlī; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 542, 1. 10. ⁷¹ Wāqidī, vol. 2, p. 610.

⁷² Ibid., vol. 1, p. 166 (both are listed as Badris).

⁷³ Being the son of Jamila bint Ubayy; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 542. After the Hijra, the two adopted different attitudes towards the Jews: while Ibn Ubayy remained loyal to his alliance with them (which earned him the title munafiq), Aws supported the Prophet. According to some, he was among those sent to Khaybar to assassinate the Nadir leader, Ibn Abi I-Hugayg; Isaba, vol. 1, p. 153. Ibn Ubayy died after a short illness at the time of the Prophet (Wāqidī, vol. 3, pp. 1057-60), whereas Aws lived to the time of 'Uthman; Işāba, vol. 1, p. 154.

⁷⁴ Wa-kāna Bashir yaktubu bi-l-^carabiyya fi ljāhiliyya wa-kānati l-kitāba fl l-^carab galilan [sic]; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 531, l. 14.

11. Sa^cid b. Zurāra. No such person could be traced in the sources. The name Sa^cid could have been a corruption of As^cad, but As^cad b. Zurāra's entry in Ibn Sa^cd⁷⁵ includes no mention of literacy. Perhaps the $y\bar{a}^{2}$ of Sa^cid is superfluous and As^cad's infamous brother, Sa^cd b. Zurāra, is meant here.⁷⁶

12. For obvious reasons, Ibn Sa^cd has no entry on the munafiq ^cAbdallah b. Ubayy.

13. Finally, Zayd b. Thābit's entry in Ibn Sa^cd⁷⁷ does not include the typical passage about literacy found in most of the relevant entries, but it does contain two reports on the Prophet's order that he should learn Hebrew/Syriac.

V. OTHER LITERATE ARABS IN PRE-ISLAMIC MEDINA

Wāqidī's list of literate Arabs, at least in the versions available to us now, is incomplete, as can be shown by reference to two further entries in Ibn $Sa^{c}d$:

14. In the entry on ^cAbdallāh b. Zayd of the Hārith (Khazraj) we find evidence of his pre-Islamic literacy.⁷⁸ Indeed, ^cAbdallāh wrote the Prophet's letter to the Hadas, a subdivision of the Lakhm.⁷⁹

15. Similar evidence appears in the entry on ^cAbdallāh b. Rawāḥa of the Ḥārith (Khazraj). Literacy is again combined here with an official position: the Prophet sent ^cAbdallāh to Khaybar as evaluator of its produce of dates.⁸⁰

More literate Arabs can be added from other sources. The first two are of course particularly interesting for our discussion:

16. Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān, a former Jew,⁸¹ was literate: he "used to write down for the Prophet the quantity computed by conjecture of the fruit on the palm-trees of the Hijāz" (yaktubu kharşa l-Hijāz).⁸²

17. Mu^cādh b. Jabal, probably a former Jew,⁸³ is listed as one of the Prophet's scribes.⁸⁴

⁷⁵ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, pp. 608-12.

⁷⁶ Sa^cd was a munăfiq; al-Balădhuri, Ansāb alashrāf, vol. 1, ed. Muhammad Hamidullāh (Cairo, 1959), p. 274; Mizzi, vol. 5, p. 504; Tabarāni, Kabir, vol. 3, p. 167; Isāba, vol. 3, pp. 60-61; cf. Ibn Qudāma, Istibsār, p. 59 (fi islāmihi shakk wa-fi annahu akhū As^cad b. Zurāra nazar).

⁷⁷ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 2, pp. 358–62.

⁷⁸ Wa-kāna ... yakiubu bi-l-^carabiyya qabla l-Islām, wa-kānati l-kitāba fi l-^carab qalīlan [sic]; ibid., vol. 3, pp. 536, 1. -4. On ^cAbdallāh, see Işāba, vol. 4, pp. 97-98.

pp. 97-98. ⁷⁹ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 1, pp. 266-67; *Misbāh mudi³*, vol. 1, p. 157; Ibn Kathir, *Bidāya*, vol. 5, p. 350 (erroneously written Jurash; read Hadas); Hamīdullāh, *Wathā²iq*, p. 128, no. 41.

⁸⁰ Wa-kāna ... yaktubu fi l-jāhiliyya. wa-kānati lkitāba fi l-^carab qalīlaian: Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 526, 1. 3; TMD (^cAbdallah b. Jābir—^cAbdallāh b. Zayd), ed. Sukayna al-Shihābī and Muțā^c al-Tarābīshī (Damascus, 1402/1981), p. 306, l. 5, quoting Wāqidī (... qalilan); see my article "Idol Worship in Pre-Islamic Medina (Yathrib)," in Le Muséon 106 (1993): 331-46, at p. 339.

A. A. Ambros kindly drew my attention to several

errors which escaped me when I proofread the abovementioned article. On p. 340, l. 3, a few words were left out. Read: "Ibn Rawäha entered and did what you see." And he became angry. Then he reflected and said: "Had there been...." On p. 344, l. 13, read fa-aşbaha, instead of fa-aşba^ca. On p. 344, l. -5, the word asmā is missing. Read atabarra³u min asmā l-shayāțini kullihā. On p. 345, l. 4, the word law is missing. Read ra³aytu annahu law kāna ^cindahu tāyil....

Incidentally, Bashīr b. Sa^cd (no. 10, p. 10 above) was married to ^cAbdallāh b. Rawāḥa's sister, ^cAmra; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 531.

⁸¹ See my article "Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān."

⁸² Mas^cūdī, Tanbih, p. 282. Cf. Abū Manşūr ^cAbd al-Malik b. Muhammad al-Tha^cālibī, Laia² if alma^cārif, ed. P. de Jong (Leiden, 1867), p. 40 (kharş tamri l-Hijāz); Muhammad Bāqir al-Majlisī, Bihār alanwār (Tehran, 1376/1957-), vol. 22, p. 248 (şadaqāt al-tamr).

⁸³ See again my article "Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān," p. 152.

⁸⁴ Al-Ya^cqūbī, *Ta⁵rikh* (Beirut, 1379/1960), vol. 2, p. 80.

18. Muḥammad b. Maslama of the Ḥāritha (Aws). His entry in Ibn Sa^cd⁸⁵ contains no reference to literacy, but in his *Kitāb al-kuttāb* ^cUmar b. Shabba lists him among the Prophet's scribes.⁸⁶ Indeed, he wrote one of the Prophet's letters.⁸⁷ (Among the Prophet's scribes listed by Ibn Shabba we also find, among others, the above-mentioned Ubayy b. Ka^cb, ^cAbdallāh b. Rawāḥa, and, rather surprisingly, ^cAbdallāh b. Ubayy.)⁸⁸

19. and 20. Zayd b. Arqam of the Hārith (Khazraj) and Anas b. Mālik of the ^cAdī b. al-Najjār (Khazraj). Zayd was an orphan who grew up in the care of the above-mentioned ^cAbdallāh b. Rawāḥa.⁸⁹ His entry in Ibn Sa^cd⁹⁰ contains no mention of literacy, but Anas transmitted *ḥadīth* from him using the *kitāba* or *mukātaba* technique;⁹¹ i.e., they were both literate. In addition, Anas is said to have been one of those who dictated or wrote down the Qur⁵ān at the time of ^cUthmān.⁹²

21. Thābit b. Qays b. Shammās of the Hārith (Khazraj) wrote the Prophet's letters to the delegation of the Thumāla and the Huddān, to ^cUmayr(a) b. Afşā of the Aslam, and to Qatan b. Hāritha of the Kalb.⁹³

22. Abū Ayyūb al-Anṣārī of the 'Abd 'Awf b. Ghanm,⁹⁴ the subgroup of the Mâlik b. al-Najjār to which Zayd b. Thābit belonged, is listed among the Prophet's scribes.⁹⁵

23. ^cUbāda b. al-Ṣāmit of the ^cAwf (Khazraj), according to his own testimony, taught literacy ($kit\bar{a}b$) and Qur⁵ān to some of the *ahl al-ṣuffa.*[%] Although both entries about ^cUbāda in Ibn Sa^cd⁹⁷ do not mention literacy, it is also suggested by the fact that at the

⁸⁵ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, pp. 443–45.

⁸⁶ Ibn Shabba is quoted in two books by Andalusian authors, the Isticab by Ibn Abd al-Barr (d. 463/ 1071), vol. 1, p. 69 (wa-dhakara . . . dhālika ^cUmar b. Shabba wa-ghayruhu[?] fi kitāb al-kuttāb); and al-Suhayli (d. 581/1185), al-Rawd:; al-unuf. ed. Tähä Abd al-Raouf Sacd (Cairo, 1391/1971), vol. 4, p. 36 (dhakarahum [= Muhammad b. Maslama and others] ⁽Umar b. Shabba fi kitābi l-kuttāb lahu). Obviously, Ibn Shabba's book (Yāqūt. Mucjam al-udubā', ed. Ihsån Abbas (Beirut, 1993), vol. 5, p. 2093, l. 13; it is not mentioned in GAS, vol. 1, pp. 345-46) was available in al-Andalus during the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The same passage is also quoted in Ibn Qudama Muwaffaq al-Din, al-Tabvin fi ansab al-Qurashivvin, ed. Muhammad Näyif al-Dulaymi (Beirut, 1408/1988), pp. 94-95; Misbāh mudi', vol. 1, p. 28.

⁸⁷ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 1, p. 286. In Ibn Kathir, *Bidāya*, vol. 5, p. 354, read instead of Murra: Mahra; Hamīdullåh, Wathā⁵ig, pp. 251–52, no. 137.

làh, Wathā⁵iq, pp. 251-52, no. 137. ⁸⁸ Whose mention as the Prophet's scribe must have caused some unease. Indeed, whereas the passage in the *Isti^cāb* quoted from Ibn Shabba's *Kitāb alkutāb* has "'Abdallāh b. Ubayy b. Salūl," the quotation from the same source in Suhayli, vol. 4, p. 36 has Ibn Ubayy's son, 'Abdallāh b. 'Abdallāh b. Ubayy b. Salūl. As we have seen, the father, not the son, appears in Wāqidi's list of literate Arabs. In addition, the son's entry in Ibn Sa^cd, pp. 540-42, includes no mention of literacy.

⁸⁹ Later, Zayd settled in Kufa, became a close supporter of ^cAlī and fought on his side in Şiffin; Ibn Qudāma, *Istibşār*, pp. 120-21; *Tahdhīb*, vol. 3, p. 395 (wa-kāna min khawāşşihi).

⁹¹ Tahdhib, vol. 3, p. 394 (kitābatan), Isāba, vol. 2, p. 590. On Anas, see p. 4, n. 25 above. For the transmission technique called kitāba/mukātaba, see al-Hākim al-Naysābūri, Ma^crifat ^culūm al-hadīth, ed. Mu^c azzam Husayn (Hyderabad, n.d.; reprint, Medina, 1397/1977), pp. 256, 259, 260-61; Ibn al-Şalāh, ^cUlūm al-hadīth, ed. Nūr al-Din ^cltr (Medina, 1972), pp. 153-55; al-Suyūţi, Tadrib al-rāwi, ed. ^cAbd al-Wahhāb ^cAbd al-Latif (Cairo, 1392/1972), vol. 2, pp. 55-58.

 ^cAbd al-Laţif (Cairo, 1392/1972), vol. 2, pp. 55-58.
 ⁹² Ibn Hajar al-^cAsqalāni, Fath al-bāri sharh şahih al-Bukhāri (Būlāq, 1301/1884; reprint, Beirut, n.d.), vol. 9, pp. 16-17. For further evidence that Anas was literate, see Aslam B. Sahl al-Wāsiţi, Ta⁵rikh Wāsiţi, ed. Kurkis ^cAwwād (Beirut, 1406/1986), pp. 63-64.

⁹³ Ibn Sa²d, vol. 1, pp. 286, 353-54; Misbāh mudi², vol. 1, p. 80; Ibn Kathir, Bidāya, vol. 5, pp. 341-42 (Thumāla and al-Huddān). On ^cUmayr(a), see Isāba, vol. 4, p. 711; Usd al-ghāba, vol. 4, pp. 139-40. See also Ibn al-Athir Majd al-Din, Manāl al-Iālib fi sharh tiwāl al-gharā²ib, ed. Maḥmūd Muḥammad al-Ṭanāḥi (Mecca, [1399/1979]), p. 44 (Qaṭan). Thābit is listed among the Prophet's scribes in Mizzi, vol. 1, p. 196. ⁹⁴ Ho. Outfarmed al-Tanāhi (Mecca, Interpretation of the scribes in Mizzi, vol. 1, p. 196.

⁹⁴ Ibn Qudāma, Istibşār, p. 69.

⁹⁵ Mişbāh mudi⁵, vol. 1, p. 90. He was Zayd b.
 Thăbit's son-in-law; Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 484.
 ⁹⁶ Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistāni, Sunan, ed. Ahmad Sa^cd

³⁰ Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistāni, Sunan, ed. Aḥmad Sa^cd ^cAlī (Cairo, 1371/1952), vol. 2, p. 237 (^callamtu nāsan min ahli l-şuffa l-kitāb wa-l-Qur²ān). Cf. Mizzî, vol. 4, p. 134 (where there is no mention of kitāb).

p. 134 (where there is no mention of kitāb).
 ⁹⁷ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 3, p. 546; vol. 7, p. 387.

⁹⁰ Ibn Sa^cd, vol. 6, p. 18.

time of the Prophet he officiated as a tax-collector.⁹⁸ It is perhaps relevant for us here that ^cUbāda, like his fellow literate tribesman from the ^cAwf, ^cAbdallāh b. Ubayy, was an ally of the Jewish Qaynuqā^c.⁹⁹

Further research will probably guide us to more literate Arabs in pre-Islamic Medina. They studied at the maktab/kuttāb or midrās of Māsika, where literacy must have been taught through texts from the Old Testament in Arabic translation.¹⁰⁰ The Jews supposedly attempted to convert their young Arab students and in certain cases, probably including that of Zayd b. Thābit, they succeeded.¹⁰¹

VI. PRE-ISLAMIC LITERACY AND THE CAQABA MEETING

At the second, or great, ^cAqaba meeting, there were reportedly twelve $nuqab\bar{a}^{\circ}$ or tribal representatives, nine of the Khazraj and three of the Aws. A comparison between the list of $nuqab\bar{a}^{\circ}$ and that of literate Arabs produced significant results.

- 1. As^cad b. Zurāra (Najjār, Khazraj)
- 2. Sa^cd b. al-Rabi^c (Hārith, Khazraj)—literate
- 3. ^cAbdallāh b. Rawāha (Hārith, Khazraj)—literate
- 4. Rāfi^c b. Mālik (Zurayq, Khazraj)—literate
- 5. al-Barā⁵ b. Ma^crūr (Salima, Khazraj)
- 6. ^cAbdallāh b. ^cAmr b. Harām (Salima, Khazraj)
- 7. ^cUbāda b. al-Şāmit (^cAwf, Khazraj)—literate
- 8. Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda (Sā^cida, Khazraj)—literate
- 9. al-Mundhir b. ^cAmr (Sā^cida, Khazraj)—literate
- 10. Usayd b. Hudayr (^cAbd al-Ashhal, Aws)—literate
- 11. Sa^cd b. Khaythama (Ghanm b. al-Salm, Aws)
- Rifā^ca b. ^cAbd al-Mundhir (Umayya b. Zayd, Aws) or: Abū l-Haytham b. al-Tayyihān (a client of the ^cAbd al-Ashhal, Aws).¹⁰²

The twelve $nuqab\bar{a}^{\circ}$ included seven literate men, three of whom were of the so-called perfect ones. It can be argued that the literate Arabs who helped the Prophet Muhammad obtain a foothold in Medina, where idol worship was still predominant, were members of a monotheistic élite educated by the Jews.

⁹⁸ Mustadrak, vol. 3, p. 354 ($ba^{c}athahu^{c}al\bar{a}$ lsadagāt). ⁹⁹ Saa for example al-Bayhaoi Dalā⁵il al-

⁹⁹ See, for example, al-Bayhaqī, Dalā²il alnubuwwa, ed. ^cAbd al-Mu^ctī Qal^caji (Beirut, 1405/ 1985), vol. 3, p. 174. However, compare the report going back to ^cUbāda b. al-Ṣāmit in Ibn ^cAbd al-Ḥakam, Futūh mişr wa-akhbāruhā, ed. Torrey (New Haven, 1922), p. 272: kunnā fī l-masjid nataqarra²u... wanahņu ummiyyūna yaqra²u ba^cdunā ^calā ba^cd.

¹⁰⁰ About the oral translation of the Torah at the time of Muhammad (which continued a pre-Islamic practice), see Kister, "Haddithū ^can banī isrā³ila wa-lā haraja," in Israel Oriental Studies 2 (1972): 215-39 (reprinted, with additional notes, in idem, Studies in Jāhiliyya and Early Islam [London, 1980], no. 14) who at p. 238 quotes from Bukhāri ([Cairo, n.d.], vol. 6, p. 25) that "the Jews [literally: the People of the Book] used to read the Torah in Hebrew and interpret it to the people of Islam in Arabic" (kāna ahlu l-kitāb yaqra³ūna l-tarwāt bi-l-^cibrāniyya wa-yufassirūnahā bi-l-^carabiyya li-ahli l-Islām). See also Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, vol. 2, pp. 257-58; A. Geiger, Was hat Mohammed aus dem Judenthume aufgenommen? (Bonn, 1833), p. 21.

101 Al-Zirikli, Al-A^clām, 2d ed. (Cairo, 1373/1954-1378/1959), vol. 1, p. 82 may be pushing the evidence a bit too far when he says about Ubayy b. Ka^cb: kāna qabla l-Islām habran min ahbāri l-yahūd.
 102 Ibn Hishām, Al-Sira al-nabawiyya, ed. al-Saqā,

¹⁰² Ibn Hishām, Al-Sira al-nabawiyya, ed. al-Saqqā, al-Abyārī, and Shalabī (Beirut, 1391/1971), vol. 2, pp. 86-87.

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'AMR IBN HAZM AL-ANṢĀRĪ AND QUR'ĀN 2,256: "NO COMPULSION IS THERE IN RELIGION"*

1. 'Amr's grandson is reviled by an aristocratic lady

The story begins with a marital dispute looked into by the $q\bar{a}di$ of Medina sometime in the late eighties or early nineties of the first Islamic century. Both husband and wife belonged to aristocratic families of the Quraysh tribe: they were the grandson of 'Uthmān b. 'Affān, Zayd b. 'Umar¹ b. 'Uthmān and the granddaughter of 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib, Sukayna bint al-Husayn b. 'Alī (d. 117/735).²

The details of the marital dispute, though not uninteresting, are irrelevant to us here because we are mainly concerned with the judge. The clue which must be followed in order to discover 'Amr b. Hazm's association with the Jews is a remark made by Sukayna during the court session. The session took place when 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Az1z was the governor of Medina, that is sometime between 86/705 (or 87/706) and 93/712.³ Asked by Sukayna to intervene in the dispute, the governor delegated the matter to the judge, Ibn Hazm. At a certain stage during the session (which is artfully and humorously described in the source quoted here), the temperamental Sukayna, following some invective between herself and the judge, said:

By God, had the people of the Harra [=presumably the Umayyad troops who fought the Medinans at the Battle of the Harra, 63/683] been alive, they would have stopped this Jewish slave when he reviled me.⁴ You enemy of God! You revile me, while your

[•] I wish to thank Prof. Yohanan Friedmann for his comments on an earlier draft of this paper. He is now working on a study entitled *Religious Tolerance and Religious Coercion in the Islamic Tradition* (forthcoming).

¹ Not 'Amr, as correctly observed by J.C. Vadet, "Une personnalité féminine du Higaz au I"/VII" siècle: Sukayna, petite-fille de 'Ali", *Arabica* 4 (1957), 261–87, at 271, n. 4 = Mus'ab b. 'Abdallāh al-Zubayri, *Kitāb nasab Quraysh*, ed. E. Lévi-Provençal, Cairo 1953, 120. See another dispute over this wāw 'Amr in op. cit., 110:9.

² El¹, s.v. Sukaina (H. Massé): Vadet, "Une personnalité féminine". See an entry on her in Ibn 'Asåkir, Ta'rikh madinat Dimashq (Tarājim al-nisā'), ed. Sukayna al-Shihābi, Damascus n.d., 155-71.

³ Taqi al-Din al-Fāsi, al-^cląd al-thamin fi ta'rikh al-balad al-amin, ed. Fu'ād Sayyid, Cairo 1378/1958-1388/1969, VI, 332.

⁴ It should be remarked that the judge's father was killed at the Battle of the Harra; see n. 12 below.

grandfather⁵ went into exile with the Jews [i.e., the Nadlr], keeping tenaciously to their religion, when the Messenger of God expelled them to Jericho! You son of Fortuna!⁶

Fartanā (=Fortuna) is "a slave-girl and a whore".⁷ While the judge's mother was definitely not a slave-girl,⁸ Sukayna may have been referring to another ancestress of his.⁹

It will be argued here that Sukayna's remark about Ibn Hazm must have been based on some fact, or it would have been futile to make. The Jews in question are the NadIr who were expelled by the Prophet in A.H. 4. It is true that other Jewish tribes were also expelled from Medina at the time of the Prophet, but only the NadIr are said in Islamic tradition to have been joined by certain Arabs (on whom see below). The mention of Jericho also supports the assertion that the NadIr are meant here since when they were expelled by the Prophet, part of the tribe went to Jericho.¹⁰

This evidence is important not only because it is historical, but also because it is rare. It is the only name known so far of an Arab who went into exile with the Jewish Nadir. In other words, we knew that there were Arabs who chose to join them, but we did not have a specific name.

The following are some biographical details on the judge's family which are

⁷ Cf. Ibn Manzūr, Lisān al-'arab, s.v. f.r.t.n.: al-ama wa-l-zāniya. Ibn al-fartanā (sic, with an article) is ibnu l-amati l-baghiyyi, wa-l-'arab tusammi l-ama Fartanā. Cf. Muhammad b. 'Umar al-Wāqidi, Kitāb al-maghāzi, ed. Marsden Jones, London 1966, II, 860:1 (where two singing-girls are mentioned, one named Fartanā and the other Arnab); 825:11; Ibn Hajar al-'Asqalāni, al-Isāba fi tamylz al-sahāba, ed. 'Ali Muhammad al-Bijāwi, Cairo 1392/1972, VIII, 82.

⁸ Cf. Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabagat, V, 69.

⁹ Cf. 'All b. Ahmad al-Wāhidl, *Asbāb al-nuzūl*, Cairo 1387/1968, 223-24 (on Qur'ān 49,11): someone referred to the Companion Thābit b. Qays b. Shammās as *Thābit b. fulāna, fulāna being* a "mother" (i.e., an ancestress) with regard to whom he was reviled in the Jāhiliyya (wa-dhakara umman kānat lahu yu'ayyaru bihā fi l-jāhiliyya).

¹⁰ M.J. and Menahem Kister, "On the Jews of Arabia—some notes", *Tarbiz* 48 (1979), 235, n. 19 (in Hebrew); al-Suyūți, *al-Durr al-manthūr fi l-tafstr bi-l-ma'thūr*, Cairo A.H. 1314, VI, 191:24.

⁵ Wa-abūka, see below.

⁶ Abū l-Faraj al-Isfahāni, Kitāb al-aghāni, Būlāq A.H. 1285, XIV, 171:19 [=Dār al-Kutub ed., XVI, ed., Mustafā al-Saqqā, Cairo 1381/1961, 156:13] (<Zuhri): amā wa-'llāhi law kāna ashābi fl l-Hira [read, as in the Dār al-Kutub edition: ashābu l-Harra] ahyā'a, la-kaffū wa-'llāhi l-'abda lyahūdiyya [Dār al-Kutub: la-qatalū hādhā l-'abda l-yahūdiyya] 'inda shatmihi iyyāha. 'Aduwwa llāhi, tashtumuni wa-abūka l-khāriju ma'a yahūda danānatan [Dār al-Kutub: sabābatan] bi-dīnihim lammā akhrajahum rasūlu llāhi (s) ilā Arthā', yā bna Fartanā. Cf. Vadet, "Une personnalité féminine", 276; H. Lammens, L'arabie occidentale.avant l'Hégire, Beyrouth 1928, 66. Ab in this case means "grandfather", not "father"; cf. E.W. Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, London 1863-93, s.v., 11c ("A grandfather, or any ancestor"). See more on this below. Cf. al-Madā'ini, Kitāb al-murdifāt min Quraysh, in Nawādir al-makhtūtār², ed. 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn, Cairo 1392/1972, 1, 66; Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, Beirut 1380/1960-1388/1968, VIII, 475; Muhammad b. Habib, Kitāb al-muhabbar, ed. 1. Lichtenstaedter, Hyderabad 1361/1942, 438; Ibn Qutayba, al-Ma'ārif, ed. Tharwat 'Ukāsha, Cairo 1969, 214. (Vadet, "Une personnalité féminine", 264, and passim, wrongly vocalises murdafāt.)

pertinent here. Judge Ibn Hazm was not the son, but the great-grandson, of a man called Hazm. His full lineage was: Abū Bakr b. Muhammad b. 'Amr b. Hazm (d. *ca.* 120/738).¹¹ Sukayna's words *wa-abūka l-khāriju ma'a yahūda*, etc. could not have been a reference to Ibn Hazm's father, Muhammad, because he was born in A.H. 10, some six years after the expulsion of the Nadir.¹² Sukay-na must have been referring to the judge's grandfather, 'Amr b. Hazm.

In the entries on 'Amr we look in vain for the significant biographical detail mentioned by the angry Sukayna;¹³ sensitive details of this kind were often censored.

The data concerning 'Amr's age when the Nadir were expelled from Medina (A.H. 4) are important for us here. It is reported that in A.H. 10, when 'Amr was only seventeen, the Prophet appointed him as the governor of Najrān.¹⁴ We can thus calculate that when the Prophet came to Medina, 'Amr was seven years old and when the Nadir were expelled, he was eleven. This conforms with the report discussed below on Arab children who were raised as Jews by the Nadir.

Closely related to 'Amr's age is the question of the first battle fought by him, about which only unreliable statements are to be found. Some sources reported that he fought at the Battle of the Ditch (A.H. 5).¹⁵ Both 'Amr b. Hazm (b. Zayd b. Lawdhān) and his close relation, Zayd b. Thābit (b. al-Dahhāk b. Zayd b. Lawdhān—'Amr and Zayd's father, Thābit, were first cousins¹⁶) are includ-

¹³ See, for example, TMD MS, XIII, 421-28; al-Mizzi, Tahdhib al-kamål, XXI, 585-87.

¹⁴ Ibn Qudāma al-Maqdisi, al-Istibsār fi nasab al-sahāba min al-ansār, ed. 'Ali Nuwayhid, Beirut 1392/1972, 74 ('Amr died in the early fifties). For an assertion that he died at the time of 'Umar b. al-Khattāb, see Ibn Hajar, al-Isāba, IV, 621. 'Amr's Shi'ite sympathies are alluded to in 'Abd al-Razzāq b. Hammām al-San'āni, al-Musannaf, ed. Habib al-Rahmān al-A'zami, Beirut 1390/1970--1392/1972, XI, 240.

¹⁵ See, for example, Ibn Qudāma, Istibşār, 74.

¹⁶ See W. Caskel, *Gamharat an-Nasab: Das genealogische Werk des Hišām ibn Muḥammad al-Kalbi*, Leiden 1966, I, 186; II, 603 (Zayd), 176 ('Amr). In a forthcoming article I investigate 'Abdallāh b. Mas'ūd's claim that before his conversion to Islam, Zayd was Jewish.

¹¹ See on him al-Mizzi, Tahdhib al-kamāl fi asmā' al-rijāl, ed. Bashshār 'Awwād Ma'rūf, Beirut 1405/1985-1413/1992, XXXIII, 137-43.

¹² And died fighting the Umayyads at the Battle of the Harra; Ibn Sa'd, *al-Tabaqāt*, V, 69-70. At that battle, he was reportedly in command of the Khazraj; Ibn 'Asākir, *Ta'rtkh madinat Dimashq*, Facsimile edition in 19 vols, 'Ammān n.d. (*=TMD MS*), XV, 811:4. On his fighting see also 813:2 from below - 814. Muhammad b. 'Amr b. Hazm was one of the five Muhammads who participated in the murder of 'Uthmān b. 'Affān some three decades before the Battle of the Harra; see Muhammad b. Yahyā al-Māliqi, *al-Tamhid wa-l-bayān fi maqtal al-shahtd 'Uthmān*, ed. Mahmūd Yūsuf Zāyid, al-Dawha 1405/1985, 232-33. Cf. the complaint of the besieged 'Uthmān, directed at Muhammad b. 'Amr b. Hazm: *innā nurmā min qibalika bi-l-layl*, "stones are being thrown at us during the night from your direction". Muhammad's answer was that it was God who threw them, to which 'Uthmān later reacted: "He lied. Had God thrown [stones] at me, he would not have missed me"; *TMD MS*, XV, 813:15. We know from elsewhere that the courts of 'Amr b. Hazm and 'Uthmān were adjacent: 'Uthmān's murderers infiltrated his court by climbing the wall separating the two courts from each other; Ibn 'Asākir, *Ta'rtkh Madinat Dimashq*: 'Uthmān b. 'Affān, ed. Sukayna al-Shihābi, Damascus 1404/1984, 413:22. On 'Uthmān's stoning see also *op. cit.*, 439:14, 370-71.

ed in the list of boys aged fifteen who were sent back by the Prophet from the battlefield of Uhud (A.H. 3). Later on at the Battle of the Ditch, their participation was reportedly confirmed.¹⁷ With regard to Zayd, there was a dispute as to whether his first battle was at Uhud or the Ditch.¹⁸ Since Zayd was four years older than 'Amr, both claims are more or less plausible, because when the Prophet came to Medina, Zayd was eleven. At the time of the Battle of Uhud he was fourteen, and of the Ditch, sixteen. 'Amr, on the other hand, was only seven when the Prophet came to Medina. During the former battle he was ten, and at the time of the latter, twelve, and probably far away from Medina with the expelled Nadir. Precisely where he then was is not clear. Perhaps he went with the Nadir only as far as Khaybar, where some of them settled. At the beginning of 7 A.H., Khaybar was conquered by the Muslims, and this could have been the time of 'Amr's return to Medina.¹⁹

In any case, after 'Amr had come back to Medina, the Prophet enlisted him in his new administration and sent him to Najrān. The letter with which the Prophet equipped him is often quoted in Islamic literature.²⁰ It is of interest to us here because its preservation probably links our judge, Ibn Hazm=Abū Bakr b. Muhammad b. 'Amr b. Hazm, with his grandfather, 'Amr b. Hazm. Some nine decades after the Prophet's era this letter was given new relevance in Islamic society in the context of the major Umayyad attempt to record the Prophet's sunna. After he ascended the throne, 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz sent a messenger to Medina whose task it was to copy one of the Prophet's documents, and another belonging to 'Umar b. al-Khattāb, both relating to [rates of] taxation (sadaqāt). The latter document was kept by the descendants of 'Umar b. al-Khattāb and the former, by those of 'Amr b. Hazm,²¹ i.e., probably by our Ibn Hazm.

Ibn Hazm had long been associated with 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Aziz. As we have seen, when 'Umar was the governor of Medina, some ten years before he became

¹⁷ Ibn Hishām, al-Stra al-nabawiyya, ed. al-Saqqā, al-Abyāri and Shalabi, Beirut 1391/1971, II, 70.

¹⁸ See, for example, Ibn Hajar, al-Işāba, II, 593.

¹⁹ To be sure, in A.H. 9 he was already in Medina: he took part in the Tabūk expedition in that year; Wāqid1, III, 1010:15. At that time he was roughly sixteen.

²⁰ See e.g. Muhammad Hamidulläh, Majmű'at al-wathā'iq al-siyāsiyya li-l-'ahd al-nabawi wal-khilāfa al-rāshida⁵, Beirut 1405/1985, 206–11.

²¹ Ibn Zanjawayh, Kitāb al-amwāl, ed. Shākir Dhib Fayyād, Riyād 1406/1986, II, 800 (lammā stukhlifa 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz arsala ilā l-Madīna yaltamisu kitāba rasūli llāh [s] fi l-sadaqāt wa-kitāb 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb. Fa-wajada 'inda āl 'Amr b. Hazm kitāb rasūli llāh [s] ilā 'Amr b. Hazm fi l-sadaqāt wa-wajada 'inda āl 'Umar kitāb 'Umar fi l-sadaqāt mithla kitāb rasūli llāh [s], qāla: fa-nusikhā lahu). This is an important testimony concerning the preservation of documents from the time of the Prophet, on which subject see my forthcoming article "On the preservation of the letters of the Prophet Muhammad", in L.I. Conrad (ed.), History and Historiography in Early Islamic Times: Studies and Perspectives, Princeton: Darwin Press.

caliph, Ibn Hazm was the judge there.²² After 'Umar ascended the throne, he appointed Ibn Hazm governor of Medina. It is not surprising that as governor Ibn Hazm played a role in the recording of the Prophet's sunna. We have Mālik b. Anas' testimony concerning 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Aziz's instructions to his governor in Medina to record "knowledge" for him from two prominent local informants (... wa-kataba ilayhi 'Umar an yaktuba lahu l-'ilm min 'indi 'Amra bint 'Abdi l-Rahmān wa-l-Qāsim b. Muhammad). 'Abdallāh b. Wahb, who reports all this, asked Mālik whether al-'ilm refers to al-sunan. Mālik confirmed this to him, adding that he asked Ibn Hazm's son, 'Abdallāh, about "these books" (i.e., the collections of hadiths recorded by Ibn Hazm) and was told that they had been lost.²³ From another source we know of a specific question the caliph addressed to his governor, who in turn asked the same question the above-mentioned 'Amra bint 'Abd al-Rahmān. The query concerned the legal status of al-Katība, which was one of the Khaybar fortresses.²⁴

It may perhaps be added here that the legal status of al-Katiba was not merely an academic question for the pious caliph: he actually appointed an official to be in charge of al-Katiba whose role it was to distribute agricultural produce to the inheritors of those who had received such allocations from the Prophet, according to a list where their names were recorded.²⁵

2. Qur'an exegesis on Arab boys who went into exile with the Nadir

'Amr's connection to the Jews belongs of course to the wider issue of Arabs in pre-Islamic Medina who were Jewish converts. Much of the evidence on this matter is found in Qur'ān exegesis. A commentary on Qur'ān 3,272, "Thou are not responsible for guiding them; but God guides whomsoever He will ...",²⁶

²² See also Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, al-qism al-mutammim li-tābi'i ahl al-Madina wa-man ba'dahum, ed. Ziyād Muhammad Mansūr, Medina 1408/1987, 125.

²³ Al-Mizz1, Tahdhlb al-kamāl, XXXIII, 140. Cf. M. Lecker, "Biographical notes on Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhr1", in JSS 41 (1996), 21-63, at 39, n. 73.

²⁴ Wäqidi, II, 692: wa-haddathani ... 'an Abi Bakr b. Muhammad b. 'Amr b. Hazm (printed wrongly: Hizām), qāla: kataba ilayya 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Aziz fi khilāfatihi ani fhaş li 'ani l-Katiba ... fa-sa'altu 'Amra bint 'Abd al-Rahmān fa-qālat ... fa-katabtu ilā 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Aziz bi-dhālika, etc.

²⁵ Al-Balådhurt, Futüh al-buldān, ed. 'Abdallāh Ants al-Tabbā' and 'Umar Ants al-Tabbā', Beirut, 1407/1987, 40: ... wallānt 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Aziz l-Katība (printed wrongly: al-Latība, but the de Goeje edition, Leiden 1866, 28:10, has correctly, al-Katība) fa-kunnā nu'ti warathata lmut'amīna, wa-kānū muhsayna (sic) 'indanā. Ph. Kh. Hitti, The Origins of the Islamic State, I, New York 1916, 49 (where al-Karībah is printed wrongly instead of al-Katība) renders: "... and we used to give the heirs of the recipients of the Prophet's bestowals their due, those heirs being numbered and recorded by us". See also O. Rescher, El-Belâdorî's "kitâb futûh el-buldân", Leipzig 1917, 25: "... wir gaben den Erben der Leute, denen (ehedem) der Prophet Zuweisung an Naturalien gemacht hatte, ihre bestimmten Rationen; ihre Namen waren aber alle bei uns in eine Liste eingetragen".

²⁶ The translation of this passage and of the other passages from the Qur'an quoted below is from A.J. Arberry, *The Koran Interpreted*, London 1964.

mentions "people of the Ansār who had family relations with the Qurayza and the Nadır. They strongly guarded themselves from giving them alms, wishing them to embrace Islam".²⁷ Å commentary on Qur'ān 4,144, "O believers, take not the unbelievers as friends instead of the believers ...", says:

The reason for this prohibition is that the Anşār in Medina were linked to the Nadīr and the Qurayza by alliance, friendship and foster-brotherhood. And [when these relations were severed, following the revelation of this Qur'ānic verse] they said: "Messenger of God, whom shall we take as friends?" He said: "The Muhājirūn".²⁸

There is a reference to marriage links and foster-brotherhood between Jews and Muslims (i.e., Muslims who were former Jews) in a commentary on Qur'ān 2,44: "Will you bid others to piety, and forget yourselves while you recite the Book? Do you not understand?"²⁹ The asserted association between a Qur'ānic verse and its commentary is clearly far from being certain, but the state of affairs reflected in the commentary, namely, one of marriage and fosterage links between Jews and Arabs (i.e., Arabs who converted to Judaism) is, I submit, historical.

The commentaries on Qur'ān 2,256, "No compulsion is there in religion ...",³⁰ are far more informative than those mentioned above and include the most important evidence known to me on Arabs who went with the Jews into exile. I would argue that these commentaries provide the context of Sukayna's remark on the judge's grandfather.

The following is a typical interpretation of the verse which, significantly, speaks about "sons of the Anşār". It will be remembered that when the Nadīr were expelled, 'Amr b. Hazm was eleven years old:

A woman [i.e., of the Ansar] whose offspring did not survive, would vow that if a son of hers remained alive, she would have him converted to Judaism. And when the Banū l-Nadīr were expelled, there were among them sons of the Ansar. And they [the

²⁷ Suyūți, Durr, I, 357:24 (kāna unās mina l-Anşār lahum ansāb wa-qarāba min Qurayza wal-Nadir, wa-kānū yattaqūna an yataşaddaqū 'alayhim wa-yuridūnahum an yuslimū).

²⁸ 'Alī b. Muhammad al-Khāzin, Lubāb al-ta'wil fi ma'ānt al-tanzil, Cairo A.H. 1381, I, 511:4 (wa-l-sabab fi hādhā l-nahy anna l-Anşār bi-l-Madina kāna lahum min yahūd Bant l-Nadir wa-Qurayza hilf wa-mawadda wa-ridā', fa-qālū: yā rasūla llāhi, man natawallā? Fa-qāla: lmuhājirina).

²⁹ Suyūtt, Durr, I, 64:25 (nazalat hādhihi l-āya fl yahūd ahli l-Madīna. Kāna l-rajul minhum yaqūlu li-sihrihi wa-li-dhawt qarābatihi wa-li-man baynahu wa-baynahum ridā^c mina l-muslimina: thbut 'alā l-dīni lladht anta 'alayhi wa-mā ya'muruka bihi hādhā l-rajul, ya'nūna Muhammadan [s], fa-inna amrahu haqq. Wa-kānū ya'murūna l-nāsa bi-dhālika wa-lā yaf'alūnahu). At the interim stage reflected in this commentary the Jews were still in Medina, while the Arabs who had with them marriage and fosterage links were gradually embracing Islam.

³⁰ Cf. on this verse R. Paret, "Sure 2, 256: lā ikrāha fl d-dīni. Toleranz oder Resignation?", Der Islam 45 (1969), 299-300. (The Qur'ān verse, he argued, is not a sign of tolerance but of resignation. Since the pagan Arabs were forced to embrace Islam, the verse is not a prohibition, but a statement that it is impossible to force one to come to the true belief.) See also *idem*, "Toleranz und Intoleranz im Islam", in Saeculum 21 (1970), 344-65, at 346-47.

Anşār] said: "We shall not leave our sons" [i.e., we shall not let them go into exile] (kānati l-mar'a takūnu miqlātan fa-taj'alu 'alā nafsihā in 'āsha lahā walad an tuhawwidahu. Fa-lammā ujliyat Banū l-Nadtr kāna fihim min abnā'i l-anṣār. Fa-qālū: lā nada'u abnā'anā. Fa-anzala llāhu ...).³¹

A miqlāt is either "a woman of whom no child lives" or "a woman who brings forth one child, and does not bring forth any after that".³² In the commentary just quoted, the former, "a woman of whom no child lives", seems preferable.

As if he were addressing himself to the case of 'Amr b. Hazm, one commentator remarks:

The separation (*fasl*) between them [i.e., between those who chose to remain Jewish and those who decided to embrace Islam] was the expulsion of the Banû l-Nadîr by the Messenger of God. Those of them who were Jewish and did not convert to Islam went along with them, and those who became Muslim remained.³³

In one version of this commentary it is specified that the Nadtr were expelled to Khaybar; those (of the Arabs) who chose Islam stayed, and those who refused went on to Khaybar. Other commentaries speak of foster-brotherhoods; fosterage was probably the social institute that facilitated the absorption of Arab children by Jewish clans.

One commentator, Mujāhid, mentions at this point the Aws instead of the Anşār in general.³⁴ Now the phenomenon may well have been more widespread

Al-Sha'bi speaks in the same context of groups of the Anşār who were living among the Jews when Islam came (fa-adraka tawā'ifa mina l-anşāri l-islāmu wa-hum ft l-yahūd); Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām, Kitāb al-nāsikh wa-l-mansūkh ft l-qur'ān al-'aztz, ed. Muhammad b. Şālih al-Mudayfir, Riyād 1411/1990, 281. Elsewhere al-Sha'bi (as quoted, for example, in Suyūți, Durr, I, 329:17), does not refer specifically to their living among the Jews: ... fa-jā'a l-islām wa-tawā'if min abnā'i l-anṣār 'alā dtinihim Abū Dāwūd al-Sijistāni, Sunan, ed. Ahmad Sa'd 'Ali, Cairo 1371/1952, II, 53-54 (... < Sa'id b. Jubayr < Ibn 'Abbās) has: ... fa-lammā ujliyat Banū l-Nadtr kāna fihim min abnā'i l-Anṣār, fa-qālū: lā nada'u abnā'anā, fa-anzala llāhu ...; also Ibn Qayyim al-Jawziyya, Ahkām ahl al-dhimma, ed. Şubhi al-Şālih, Beirut 1401/1981, I, 70, quoting Abū Dāwūd. But one word added in another source, again quoting Abū Dāwūd, appears to render the text slightly smoother: fa-lammā ... kāna fihim kathir min abnā'i l-Anṣār; Muhammad Ṣiddiq Hasan

³¹ Al-Jabari, Jāmi' al-bayān fl tafstr al-qur'ān, Būlāq A.H. 1321–1330, III, 10:7 (... < lbn 'Abbās). Cf. on this practice H.Z. Hirschberg, Yisra'el be-'arav, Tel-Aviv 1946, 168 (Hebrew).

³² See Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v.

³³ Quoted in Tabari, Jāmi' al-bayān, III, 10:18.

³⁴ Tabari, Jāmi' al-bayān, III, 11. Also Suyūti, Durr, I, 329:23 (Mujāhid): kānati l-Nadīr arda'at rijālan mina l-Aws. Fa-lammā amara l-nabī (ş) bi-ijlā'ihim gāla abnā'uhum mina l-Aws: la-nadhhabanna ma'ahum wa-la-nadīnanna dīnahim. Fa-mana'ahum ahlūhum wa-akrahūhum 'alā l-islām. Fa-fihim nazalat hādhihi l-āya. A commentary of the above-mentioned verse, by Muslim b. Khālid al-Zanjī (d. 179/795; F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, Leiden 1967f, 1, 38), does not seem to take into consideration the possibility of the foster-children following their foster-parents: kāna nās min Qurayza wa-l-Nadīr qad arda'ū, gāla, li-unās mina l-muslimīna, gāla, fa-lammā umira bi-ijlā'ihim [=the Nadīr; the Qurayza were not expelled] bakā ūlā'ika l-sibyān mina l-muslimtna 'alā ābā'thim wa-ummahâtihimi lladhīna arda'ūhum, fa-ja'ala ābā'uhum mina l-muslimīna yadribūnahum, gāla, fa-nazala "lā ikrāha fī l-dīn"; see al-Juz' fihi tafstr al-qur'ān li-Yahyā b. Yamān (etc.), ed. Hikmat Bashīr Yāsīn, Medina 1408/1988, 71.

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among the Aws than it was among the Khazraj, because the former were both geographically and politically closer to the main Jewish tribes than the latter.³⁵ But there were certainly also Arab foster-children who belonged to the Khazraj. Apart from 'Amr b. Hazm himself, mention should also be made of 'Abdallāh b. 'Atīk of the Salima, a subdivision of the Khazraj.³⁶ We find a reference to his Jewish background in the chapter of the *sīra* dedicated to the assassination of the Nadīr leader Abū Rāfi' Sallām b. Abī l-Huqayq, who was among those of his tribe who went to Khaybar. 'Abdallāh b. 'Atīk was a member of the expedition force sent by the Prophet to Abū Rāfi', and it is reported in this context that his foster-mother was a Jewish woman living in Khaybar (*wa-qad kānat umm 'Abdillāh b. 'Atīk yahūdiyyatan bi-Khaybar arḍa'athu*).³⁷

Abstract

'Amr ibn Hazm of the Najjär was a young boy when the Prophet Muhammad came to Medina. From a remark made several decades later by an angry aristocratic woman it may be concluded that 'Amr was raised as a Jew by the Jewish Banu I-Nadir. When they were expelled from Medina, 'Amr, then a body of eleven, went with them. He later returned to Medina and at seventeen became the Prophet's governor in Najran.

³⁵ See M. Lecker, Muslims, Jews and Pagans: Studies on Early Islamic Medina, Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1995, passim. The story of the assassination of the Nadir leader Ka'b b. al-Ashraf includes further evidence of foster-brotherhood among the Aws. Two members of the expedition force sent to Ka'b were his forster-brothers; Waqidi, I, 188:21: fa-kāna Abū Nā'ila wa-Muhammad b. Maslama akhawayhi mina l-ridā'a. Abū Nâ'ila Silkān b. Salāma was of the Jewish clan Za'ūrā', which at some stage became part of the 'Abd al-Ashhal (a subdivision of the Nabit); see Lecker, "Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān and 'Ammār b. Yāsir, Jewish converts to Islam", in Quaderni di Studi Arabi 11 (1993), 149-62, at 158. Cf. Ahmad b. al-Husayn al-Bayhaqi, Dalā'il al-nubuwwa, ed. 'Abd al-Mu'ti Qal'aji, Beirut 1405/1985, III, 192 (Silkān is Abū Laylā, Ka'b is Abū Nā'ila). Muhammad b. Maslama was of the Hāritha (another subdivision of the Nabit); Ibn Hazm al-Andalusi, Jamharat ansāb al-'arab, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn, Cairo 1382/1962, 341:15. According to others, Muhammad was the son of Ka'b's sister; Ibn Hajar al-'Asqalāni, Fath al-bāri sharh şaḥih al-Bukhāri, Būlāq A.H. 1301, VII, 260:23. He might have been both Ka'b's foster-brother and his nephew, or there might have been some confusion concerning the precise nature of their relationship. The same source tells us that Abū Nā'ila was Ka'b's boon companion; op. cit., VII, 261:2.

³⁶ Ibn Hazm, Ansab, 361:2.

³⁷ Wāqidi, I, 391:9. She was not his biological mother; cf. G.D. Newby, "The *strah* as a source for Arabian Jewish history: problems and metaphors", in JSAI 7 (1986), 121-38, at 132-35. The relevant passage is correctly translated by J.N. Mattock, "History and fiction", in Occasional Papers of the School of Abbasid Studies, 1 (1986), 80-97, at 90: "Abd Allâh b. 'Attk's [foster-]mother, a Jewess, was at Khaybar". (Whether 'Abdallâh actually lived in Khaybar for some time, as Mattock [pp. 92, 93, 96] assumes, or his mother belonged to the expelled Nadir, or to their clients, is not clear.)

Khân, Husn al-uswa bi-mā thabata min allāh wa-rasūlihi fl al-niswa, ed. Hudā Mahmūd Qarā'a, Cairo 1401/1981, II, 414–15.

HUDHAYFA B. AL-YAMÂN AND 'AMMĂR B. YĀSIR, JEWISH CONVERTS TO ISLAM^{*}

1 Hudhayfa and 'Ammär are asked to return to Judaism

Qur'an 2,109 says:

"Many of the People of the Book wish they might restore you as unbelievers, after you have believed, in the jealousy of their souls, after the truth has become clear to them; yet do you pardon and be forgiving, till God brings His command; truly God is powerful over everything" (trans. Arberry).

One commentary on this verse is both our starting point and the centrepiece of the present study. The commentary, which exists in more than one version, purports to describe the precise circumstances in which the verse was revealed. We begin with the version of this commentary adduced by al-Fakhr al-Rāzī (d. 606/1209).¹ This version is indeed rare: it is the only version of the commentary known to me which specifically mentions a *return* to Judaism:

Finhās b. 'Āzūrā', Zayd b. Qays and a group of Jews said to Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān² and 'Ammār b. Yāsir after the Battle of Uhud: "Have you not seen what befell you? Had you had a true religion, you would not have been defeated. So *return to our religion* because it is better for you and more advantageous, since our divine guidance is superior to yours".

"Ammār said: "What is your opinion about the breaking of one's pledge"? They said: "[It is] a grave matter". He said: "I swore to God that I would not repudiate Muhammad as long as I live". The Jews said: "As to this one, he departed [from one religion to another ---- i.e. from Judaism to Islam --- M.L.]".

Hudhayfa said: "As to me, I am content with Allâh as god, with Islam as religion, with the Qur'an as guide, with the Ka'ba as *qibla* and with the believers as brothers". Then

^{* 1} am indebted to Professor M.J. Kister for his comments on a draft of this study.

¹ On whom see El², s.v. Fakhr al-Din al-Rāzi (G.C. Anawati).

² "Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān" al-Azdī, said to have been the Prophet's governor in Dabā (Ibn Hajar, *Işāba*, VII, p. 220, quoting al-Wâqidī's Kitāb al-ridda; Ibn Sa'd, V, p. 527), is a corruption of Hudhayfa b. Mihşan; Yâqūt, Buldān, s.v. Dabā, p. 435b (quoting Wâqidī).

they came to the Messenger of God and informed him [of what had happened]. He said: "You have achieved blessing and prosperity". Then this verse was revealed.³

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There is no question of accepting this commentary (a typical sabab nuzul) as straightforward historical evidence. It is doubtful that such proposal to return to Judaism took place and that these are the circumstances in which the verse was revealed. Yet the one detail which concerns us here is, I submit, historical, namely, the implied former faith of Hudhayfa and 'Ammār. The casual manner in which this detail appears in the commentary paradoxically enhances its reliability. One could of course argue that it was invented by people hostile to these two prominent Companions of the Prophet, Hudhayfa and 'Ammär. But this was probably not the case, because the report is not hostile to the two. To the contrary, its main aim is to praise their steadfastness in their newly adopted faith, particularly at the hard times of insecurity and danger which followed the Muslim defeat at the battlefield of Uhud. In this typical fadā'il report, which tells of a frustrated attempt to tempt them away from the Prophet, their former Jewish faith is at the background of the Jews' proposal. Considering their special circumstances, the option of returning to their former religion, thereby achieving the support and sympathy of the Jews of Medina, was appealing indeed. Yet they resisted the temptation.⁴

- Rāzī, Tafsīr, III, p. 236; Khāzin, Tafsīr, I, p. 82: 8 (the text quoted below is from al-Rāzī; variants from al-Khāzin are adduced between square brackets): ... ruwiya anna Fihhāş b. 'Āzûrā' wa-Zayd b. Qays wa-nafaran mina l-yahūd qālū li-Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān wa-'Ammār b. Yāsir ba'da waq'ati Uhud: a-lam taraw mā aşābakum? wa-law kuntum 'alā l-haqq mā huzimtum [harabtum], fa-'rji'ū [fa-'rji'ā] ilā dīninā fa-huwa khayr lakum wa-afdalu wa-nahnu ahdā minkum sabīlan. Fa-qāla 'Ammār: kayfa naqdu l-'ahd fīkum? Qālū: shadīd. Qāla: fa-innī qad 'āhadtu [add. llāha] annī lā akfuru bi-Muhammad mā 'ishtu. Fa-qālati l-Yahūd: ammā hādhā fa-qad şaba'a. Wa-qāla Hudhayfa: wa-ammā anā fa-qad radītu bi-'llāhi rabban wa-bi-l-islām dīnan wa-bi-lqur'ān imāman wa-bi-l-Ka'ba qiblatan wa-bi-l-mu'minīna ikhwānan. Thumma atayā rasūla llāhi (ş) wa-akhbarāhu. Fa-qāla: aşabtumā khayran wa-aflahtumā. Fa-nazalat hādhihi l-āya.
- ⁴ Note that Hudhayfa and 'Ammår are linked with each other in other contexts as well: according to both Ibn Ishåq and Wäqidi, the Prophet formed a "brothering" (mu'äkhåt) between them; al-Dhahabi, Siyar a'läm al-nubalä', ed. Shu'ayb al-Arnäwüt et al., Beirut: Mu'assasat al-Risala, 1981, II, p. 362. This took place in the framework of the mu'äkhåt between the Muhäjirün and the Anşär; Ibn Hishâm, Sira, II, p. 152. In the mu'äkhåt, concluded during the first year of the Islamic era, Hudhayfa figures as an Anşäri. This is important in the context of the claim (see below) that he and his father emigrated from Mecca shortly before the Battle of Badr (2 A.H.). It can also be mentioned that the merits of both Hudhayfa and 'Ammår are listed in the same chapter of Bukhäri, Sahih,

The early Qur'an exegete Muqatil b. Sulayman (d. 150/767) has a very similar commentary. The degree of similarity is such, that both commentaries can be considered versions of one and the same report. Muqatil died four and half centuries before al-Razī, yet in relative terms his version is later: the crucial point of the *return* to Judaism is replaced by a lifeless (and hence presumably redacted) "call to convert to Judaism".⁵

Comparing what the two versions of the commentary say about the Jews' reaction to 'Ammär's strong declaration of loyalty to the Prophet, we find two passages, one short and another long. In al-Rāzī the Jews say: ammā hādhā faqad şaba'a. In Muqātil we find: ammā 'Ammār fa-qad dalla wa-şaba'a 'ani l-hudā ba'da idh başşarahu llāhu, "As to 'Ammār, he strayed from the right way and departed [from one religion to another, i.e. from Judaism to Islam] after God had made him see [i.e. enlightened him concerning the true religion]". The "right way" to which the Jews refer in Muqātil's longer version is, of course, Judaism. In other words, while Muqātil's version has, instead of the return

Cairo 1378/1958, V, pp. 31-32: Bāb manāqib 'Ammār wa-Ḥudhay/a raḍiya llāhu 'anhumā.

5 Mugātil, Talsīr, MS Saray, Ahmet III 74, fol. 19b: wa-dhālika anna nafaran mina lyahūd minhum Finhās wa-Zayd b. Qays, ba'da gitāl Uhud, da'aw Hudhay/ata wa-'Ammāran ilā dīnihim wa-gālū lahumā: innakumā lan tusībā khayran li-'lladhī asābakum yawma Uhud mina l-balā. [Wa-]qālū lahum: dīnunā afdalu min dīnikum wa-nahnu ahdā minkum sabīlan. Oāla lahum 'Ammār: kayfa nagdu l-'ahd fīkum? Qālū: shadīd. Qāla 'Ammār: fa-innī 'āhadtu rabbī an lā akfura bi-Muḥammad abadan wa-lā attabi'a dīnan ghayra dīnihi. Fa-qālati l-Yahūd: ammā 'Ammār fa-qad dalla wa-şaba'a 'ani l-hudā ba'da idh (cf. Theodor Nöldeke, Zur Grammatik des classischen Arabisch, ed. Anton Spitaler, Darmstadt: Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 1963, p. 165; the reference was given to me by Professor Simon Hopkins] başşarahu llâhu, fa-kayfa anta yâ Hudhayfa, a-lā tubāyi'unā? Qāla Hudhayfa: allāh rabbī wa-Muhammad nabiyyī wa-l-qur'ān imāmī, utī'u rabbī wa-aqtadī bi-rasūlī wa-a'malu bi-kitābi llāh rabbī hattā ya'tiyanī l-yaqīn 'alā l-islām, wa-'llāhu l-salām wa-minhu l-salām. Fa-gālū: wa-ilāhi Mūsā, la-gad ushribat gulübukum hubba Muhammad. Fa-gāla 'Ammār: rabbī ahmaduhu wa-rabbī akrama Muhammadan wa-minhu shtaqqa l-jalālata an yuhmada Ahmad huwa Muhammad [cf. Hassan b. Thabit, Diwan, ed. Walid 'Arafat, London: EJ.W. Gibb Memorial Series, 1971, I, p. 306, no. 1: shaqqa lahu min ismihi kay yujillahu 🛛 fa-dhû l-'arshi Maḥmûdun wahadha Muhammadu; the reference was given to me by Professor Uri Rubin). Thumma atayā l-nabī (ş) fa-akhbarāhu. Fa-qāla: mā radadtumā 'alayhimā[!]? Fa-qālā: qulnā llāhu rabbunā wa-Muhammad rasūlunā wa-l-gur'ān imāmunā, llāha nutī'u wa-bi-Muḥammad naqtadī wa-bi-kitābi llāhi na'malu. Fa-qāla l-nabī (ş): aşabtumā akhā lkhayr wa-aflahtumā.

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to Judaism, "a call to convert to Judaism", it contains a clearer statement concerning 'Ammär's former faith.

Finally, a similiar report, which is yet another version of the commentary discussed here, is found in the Qur'ān commentary of al-QurţubI where it is attached to Qur'ān 3,69: "There is a party of the People of the Book yearn to make you go astray; yet none they make to stray, except themselves, but they are not aware" (trans. Arberry). Unfortunately, only a fragment of this version survived. It is valuable nonetheless, because we find in it, in addition to Hudhayfa and 'Ammār, a third person: Mu'ādh b. Jabal. The Jews in question are identified as men of the Nadīr, Qurayza and Qaynuqā'. This report does not speak of a *return* to Judaism, and in this sense it is closer to Muqātil's version than it is to al-Rāzī's.⁶ The juxtaposition of the above versions suggests that Mu'ādh, like the other two, had been Jewish before his conversion to Islam.⁷

These three prominent members of the nascent Islamic community, who were of humble origin, later held important positions in the administration of the early Islamic state.⁸

* * *

It could be argued that, rather than being a piece of reliable historical evidence, the above-mentioned *return* to Judaism is merely a reflection of Qur'ān 2,109: "Many of the People of the Book wish they might *restore* you as unbelievers, after you have believed". But concerning Hudhayfa we have totally independent evidence showing that he was indeed Jewish (see below), while concerning 'Ammār we have the Jews' remark about his departure from one religion to another. Corroborative evidence relating to Mu'ādh is still missing.

- 6 Abū 'Abdallāh al-Qurţubī, al-Jāmi' li-aḥkām al-qur'ān³, Cairo: Dār al-Kutub, 1387/1967 (reprint), IV, p. 110: nazalat fī Mu'ādh b. Jabal wa-Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān wa-'Ammār b. Yāsir ḥīna da'āhumu l-yahūd min banī l-Nadīr wa-Qurayza wa-banī Qaynuqā' ilā dīnihim.
- ⁷ For Mu'ādh's governorship in the Yemen cf. M. Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda and the *ridda* of Kinda", in *JAOS* (forthcoming).
- ⁸ Hudhayfa and 'Ammär became important supporters of 'Alī b. Abī Ţālib; cf. Etan Kohlberg, "Some Imāmī Shī'i views on the şaḥāba", in JSAI 5 (1984), pp. 153-55 (reprinted in *idem, Belief and Law in Imāmī Shī'ism*, Aldershot: Variorum, 1991, no. IX); Ignaz Goldziher, *Muslim Studies*, trans. C.R. Barber and S.M. Stern, ed. S.M. Stern, London: George Allen & Unwin, 1966, II, p. 123. Hudhayfa's two sons Ṣafwān and Sa'id pledged 'Alī their allegiance, following the last will of their late father, and were killed at Şiffīn fighting on 'Alī's side; Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *Isti'āb*, I, p. 335; al-Mas'ūdī, *Murûj al-dhahab*, ed. Ch. Pellat, Beirut: al-Jāmi'a al-Lubnāniyya, 1966-74, III, p. 131 (the latter source was referred to by Goldziher).

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The independent evidence concerning Hudhayfa Is closely linked with his tribal affiliation and a fortress in Medina called 'Āşim which was located in the territory of the 'Abd al-Ashhal (a subdivision of the Nabit, which was a sub-group of the Aws). The reports on the fortress, which at first sight seem to be conflicting, are from an Important book on Medina most of which is still unavailable in a printed edition: Majd al-Din Muhammad b. Ya'qūb al-Firūzābādī (d. 817/1415), al-Maghānim al-mutāba fī ma'ālim Tāba.⁹ There are three different statements concerning the 'Āşim fortress:

- 1. It was built by the Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal and was situated on the hillock ('alā l-faqāra) near the houses of the Banū al-Najjār.
- 2. It belonged to a Jewish group (*hayy*) whose members were the ciients of the 'Abd al-Ashhal (literally: "they were in the Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal").
- 3. It belonged to the family (rah!) of Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān, the client of the 'Abd al-Ashhai.¹⁰

The first statement is the only one mentioning the location of the fortress: it was on the "vertebra", presumably a hillock,¹¹ near the territory of the Banū l-Najjār (in other words, it was at the edge of the 'Abd al-Ashhal territory). But we are more concerned here with the owners of the fortress. I submit that there is no conflict between the three statements. It may have been built by the 'Abd al-Ashhal, as we are told in the first statement, however, as the second and third statements indicate, its owners on the eve of Islam were not the 'Abd al-Ashhal themselves but their clients. The second statement uses the preposition $f\bar{i}$ to indicate their reliationship with the 'Abd al-Ashhal: the Jewish $hayy^{12}$ was

- 10 Maghānim, s.v. 'Āşim, p. 242: uļum bi-l-Madīna btanāhu Banū 'Abdi l-Ashhal, wa-kāna 'alā l-faqāra fī adnā buyūt Banī l-Najjār, wa-yuqālu: kāna li-hayy mina l-yahūd, wakānū fī Banī 'Abdi l-Ashhal, wa-yuqālu: bal kāna li-rahļ Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān halīf Banī 'Abdi l-Ashhal. Samhūdī, Wafā', s.v. 'Āşim, p. 1260 has the first statement only: uļum li-Banī 'Abdi l-Ashhal kāna 'alā l-faqāra fī adnā buyūt Banī l-Najjār. Another fortress of the same name was located in Qubā'; see Samhūdī, Wafā', I, p. 163; M. Lecker, Muslims, Jews and Pagans: Studies on Early Islamic Medina (forthcoming), Index, s.v. On the fortresses of the 'Abd al-Ashhal see also Samhūdī, Wafā', I, pp. 190-91.
- Cf. a mountain called al-Faqār; Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v.; for another called Dhū l-Faqāra or al-Faqāra see Abū 'Ubayd al-Bakrī, Mu'jam mā sta'jama, ed. Mustafā al-Saqqā, Cairo, 1364/1945-1371/1951, I, p. 156: 5; III, p. 1026.
- 12 For another Medinan Jewish group designated hayy see e.g. Samhūdī, Wa/ā', 1, p. 165: 4.

⁹ Ed. Hamad al-Jāsir, Riyād: Dār al-Yamāma, 1389/1969.

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"in" the Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal. In other words, the members of the hayy were the clients of the 'Abd al-Ashhal. Finally, according to the third statement, the owners of the fortress were the *raht* of Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān, who was the client (halīf) of the 'Abd al-Ashhal.¹³ Obviously, all the members of the *raht*, not only Hudhayfa, were the clients of the 'Abd al-Ashhal.

In sum, the ' \bar{A} sim fortress at the edge of the 'Abd al-Ashhal territory did not belong to the 'Abd al-Ashhal themselves, but to the members of a small Jewish clan who were the clients of the 'Abd al-Ashhal; Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān was one of these clients. It follows that he was himself Jewish. This interpretation of the passage from al-Maghānim al-muṭāba fī ma'ālim Tāba conforms with the commentary quoted by al-Rāzī about the Jews' call to Hudhayfa (and to 'Ammār), after the Battle of Uḥud, to return to Judaism.¹⁴

The propitious meeting of evidence from Qur'an exegesis on the one hand and a history of Medina on the other clearly demonstrates the advantage of combining evidence from different sources in the study of early Islam.

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It is interesting that after the Conquests, Hudhayfa married a Jewish woman: in a discussion of the legitimacy of marriages with women of the People of the Book it is reported that Hudhayfa b. al-Yamān married a Jewish woman when he was already married to two Arab women (*tazawwaja* yahūdiyya wa-'indahu 'arabiyyatāni). Another, independent, report says that Hudhayfa's marriage to the Jewish woman took place in Madā'in (*tazawwaja* Hudhayfa yahūdiyyatan bi-l-Madā'in).¹⁵

* * *

While no detailed biography of Hudhayfa is intended in the present

- 13 In connection with Hudhayfa's sister Fâțima bint al-Yamân it is similarly reported that "they (i.e. her clan) were the clients (*hulafā*') of the Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal"; Ibn Sa'd, *Tabaqât*, VIII, p. 325; Caskel, *Gamharat an-Nasab*, II, p. 328, s.v. Hudaifa b. Husail.
- At that battle a Muslim killed Hudhayfa's father by mistake; see e.g. Wāqidī, I, p. 233; Mizzī, *Tahdhīb al-kamāl*, V, 500 (Zuhrī, from 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr). Perhaps the Jews expected Hudhayfa to bear the Muslims grudges.
- ¹⁵ Abū 'Ubayd al-Qâsim b. Sallām, Kitāb al-nāsikh wa-l-mansūkh fī l-qur'ān al-'azīz, ed. Muḥammad b. Ṣāliḥ al-Mudayfir, Riyād: Maktabat al-Rushd, 1411/1990, pp. 88, 90-91; cf. p. 100 (where there is a report, rejected by Abū 'Ubayd, that Hudhayfa married a Zoroastrian woman). One of Hudhayfa's Arab wives was of the Fazāra; Ibn Sa'd, *Tabaqāt*, VIII, p. 482. Hudhayfa's knowledge of Isrā'iliyyāt should perhaps be linked with his former faith and with the above-mentioned marriage; see a question referred to him concerning the Banū Isrā'il, in Abū Nu'aym, Hilya, I, pp. 278-79. Hudhayfa's offspring lived in Madā'in, where Hudhayfa died in 36/656; Ibn Sa'd, *Tabaqāt*, VI, p. 15.

study, two points are of interest for us, namely the settlement of an ancestor of his in Medina and the claim that Hudhayfa, together with his father, emigrated

The link between Hudhayfa's family and Medina was established five generations before his own time. It was an ancestor of his called Jirwa who first came there. We find him mentioned in the pedigree of Hudhayfa's father: Husayi¹⁶ b. Jābir b. 'Amr b. Rabī'a b. Jirwa¹⁷ b. al-Hārith b. Qutay'a¹⁸ b. 'Abs b. Baghīd b. Rayth b. Ghatafān. Al-Yamān, "the Yemenite", was not Hudhayfa's father but his ancestor Jirwa: it is reported that he shed the blood of a fellow tribesman, fled to Medina and became a client of the 'Abd al-Ashhal. His fellow tribesmen called him "the Yemenite" because of his link with the Yemenites, i.e. the Aws who were of the Yemenite tribe Azd.¹⁹

from Mecca to Medina.

Having stated that Hudhayfa's ancestor Jirwa/al-Yamān settled in Medina five generations before Hudhayfa's own time, we may conclude that

1. Hudhayfa's clan (referred to as hayy mina l-yahud and raht, respectively)

- ¹⁶ Or Hisl; see, for example, Mizzi, *Tahdhib al-kamāl*, V, p. 499 (where 'Alī b. al-Madīnī's claim is quoted that Hudhayfa's father Hisl was nicknamed al-Yamān).
- 17 Thus vocalised in Mizzi, Tahdhib al-kamāl, V, pp. 496, 497. Cf. Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat al-nasab, p. 440 (Jurwa, Jarwa); Caskel, Gamharat an-Nasab, I, p. 132 (Jurwa). In Lisān al-'arab, s.v. jr.w., p. 140b a clan (bațn mina l-'arab) called Banū Jirwa is mentioned. The vocalisation Jarwa is also attested; see, for example, Dāraquţni, Mu'tali/, I, p. 351. In Ibn Hajar, Işāba, II, p. 74, where we find a different version concerning the above pedigree, "Farwa" is erroneously printed instead of Jirwa.
- 18 Ibn Hazm al-Andalusi, Jamharat ansāb al-'arab, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn, Cairo: Dār al-Ma'ārif, 1382/1962, p. 250; Caskel, Gamharat an-Nasab, I, p. 132. Hudhayfa's father Husayl was al-'Absī al-Quţa'i, Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Isti'āb, I, p. 351.
- ¹⁹ Ibn Qudâma, Istibşâr, p. 233: Husayl ... wâlid Hudhay/a b. al-Yamân, wa-l-Yamân jadduhu Jirwa, summiya bi-dhālika li-annahu aşāba daman /î qawmihi Banî 'Abs /a-haraba ilā l-Madīna [it was still called Yathrib at that time] fa-ḥālafa Banî 'Abdi l-Ashhal fa-sammāhu qawmuhu l-Yamān li-muḥālafatihi l-yamāniyya. See also Ibn al-Kalbī, Jamharat al-nasab, 440. An alternative, and probably imaginary, interpretation of the nickname al-Yamān was proposed by al-Wāqidī: Husayl was called al-Yamān because he used to go to the Yemen on trade journeys, and when he came (i.e. returned) to Medina, they would say: "the Yemenite arrived" (qad jā'a l-Yamānī); al-Balādhurī, Futūḥ al-buldān, ed. 'Abdallāh Anīs al-Tabbā' and 'Umar Anīs al-Tabbā', Beirut: Mu'assasat al-Ma'ārif, 1407/1987, p. 430. Cf. similarly al-Suhaylī, al-Rawd al-unuf, ed. Tāhā 'Abd al-Rā'ūf Sa'd, Cairo: Maktabat al-Kulliyyāt al-Azhariyya, 1391/1971, III, p. 176: 5 from below: wa-kāna Jirwa qad ba'uda 'an ahlihi fī l-Yaman zamanan tawīlan thumma raja'a ilayhim fa-sammawhu l-Yamāniya. Hudhayfa never ceased to be a member of the 'Abs: when he was on his deathbed in Madā'in, some of the 'Abs came to

may well have grown to a considerable size.

2. When Jirwa settled in Medina, the Jews were at the peak of their power.²⁰ Perhaps they made him convert to Judaism upon his arrival.

* * *

Considering the old link between this family and the 'Abd al-Ashhal, one is surprised to find a report implying that shortly before the Battle of Badr, Hudhayfa and his father lived in Mecca. It is an apologetic report going back to Hudhayfa himself, which accounts for the fact that he and his father did not participate in the Battle of Badr:

The only thing which prevented me from participating in the Battle of Badr was [this:] I set out [i.e. from Mecca] with my father Husayl, and the unbelievers of Quraysh captured us and said: "You want [to join] Muḥammad". We said: "We do not want [to join] him, we only want [to go to] Medina". And they made us pledge by God that we would go [directly] to Medina and not fight with him [i.e. with the Prophet, against Quraysh] And we came to the Messenger of God and reported the matter to him. He said: "Go [to Medina], we shall fulfill their pledge and seek help from God against them".²¹

We are further told that Hudhayfa emigrated to the Prophet (i.e. from Mecca to Medina) and that the Prophet gave him the choice between the status of a Muhājir and that of an Anşārī. He chose the latter (wa-hājara ilā l-nabī |s| fa-khayyarahu bayna l-hijra wa-l-nuşra fa-'khtāra l-nuṣra).²² In the source just quoted the report on the choice given to Hudhayfa is in the third person, while elsewhere we find it in the first person (wa-kāna Hudhayfa yaqūlu: khayyaranī rasūlu llāhi |s| bayna l-hijra wa-l-nuṣra fa-'khtartu l-nuṣra).²³ This indicates that the statement originated with Hudhayfa himself. In actual fact, the statement about the choice given to him is but one element of a report making Hudhayfa and his father complete strangers in Medina:

Hudhayfa mingled for a while with the *ahl al-su/a*, and hence he and his father, [who were both] of the Muhājirūn, were thought to have been of them [i.e. of the *ahl al-*

visit him; Abū Nu'aym, Hilya, I, p. 282: 12.

- ²⁰ Cf. M.J. Kister, "Al-Hira: some notes on its relations with Arabia", in Arabica 15 (1968), pp. 143-49.
- 21 Muslim b. al-Hajjāj, Şahih, ed. Muhammad Fu'ād 'Abd al-Bāqī, Cairo 1374/1955. Cf. al-Ţabarānī, al-Mu'jam al-Kabīr², ed. Hamdī 'Abd al-Majīd al-Salafī, Cairo 1400/1980f, III, pp. 162, 164, 165.
- ²² Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba fī ma'rifat al-şahāba, Cairo: al-Maţba'a al-Wahbiyya, 1280 A.H., I, pp. 390-91.
- ²³ Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Isti'āb, I, p. 335.

suffa - M.L.] The Prophet gave him the choice between the status of a Muhäjir and that of an Anşārī. He chose the latter, became a client of the Anşār and turned one of them [or rather one of their clients - M.L.]²⁴

Clearly, we have here a conflict concerning the history of this family. Either it lived in Medina for several generations, as Ibn al-KalbI tells us, or Hudhayfa was, as he himself reports, a Muhājir. The choice is between an "external" claim and an "internal" one, or between a statement made by a genealogist and another, made by the interested party itself. Obviously, one is inclined to prefer the former claim; the family had a long history in Medina before the advent of Islam.

The identity of the sub-group of the 'Abd al-Ashhal with which this clan of the Banū 'Abs was associated is of some interest. The identity of Hudhayfa's mother gives us a clue: his mother, who was also the mother of his brothers Sa'd, Şafwān and Mudlij and of his sister Laylā, was al-Rabāb bint Ka'b b. 'Adī b. Ka'b b. 'Abd al-Ashhal.²⁵ Al-Rabāb's pedigree shows that she belonged to a sub-group of the 'Abd al-Ashhal called Banū Ka'b b. 'Abd al-Ashhal.²⁶ Her closest relative known to us from the genealogical literature was al-Daḥhāk b. Khalīfa b. Tha'laba b. 'Adī b. Ka'b.²⁷ A comparison between the pedigrees of al-Rabāb and al-Daḥhāk shows that al-Daḥhāk's father, Khalīfa, was al-Rabāb's paternal cousin. Al-Rabāb, who was married to a Jew, must have been Jewish herself; it is not surprising that her relative al-Daḥhāk was accused of nifāqand love of the Jews.²⁸ He must have been a former Jew himself.

- Abū Nu'aym, Hilya, I, p. 354: khālaţa ahla l-şuffa muddatan fa-nusiba ilayhim huwa wa-abūhu mina l-muhājirīna. Fa-khayyarahu l-nabī (ş) bayna l-hijra wa-l-nuşra fa-'khtāra l-nuşra wa-hālafa l-Anşār fa-'udda fī jumlatihim. Cf. the term 'adīd in the sense of client: in the list of the Anşār killed at the Battle of the Harra we find a certain Hakīm who was 'adīd lahum min ahli l-Yaman; Khalifa b. Khayyāţ, Ta'rīkh, ed. Suhayl Zakkār, Damascus: Wizārat al-Thaqāfa wa-l-Siyāha wa-l-Irshād al-Qawmī, 1968, I, 310.
- ²⁵ Ibn Sa'd, *Tabaqāt*, VIII, p. 320 (where the latter Ka'b is missing, cf. lbn Hajar, *Işāba*, VII, p. 639); Ibn Sa'd, *Tabaqāt*, VII, p. 317 (where the pedigree is correct); Muhammad b. Habīb, *Kitāb al-muhabbar*, ed. llse Lichtenstaedter, Hyderabad 1361/1942, p. 417: 6. For an entry on Şafwān see, for example, Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *Isti'āb*, II, p. 726. I could not find an entry on Mudlij. There are entries on Hudhayfa's sisters Khawla, Fāțima and Laylā in, e.g., Ibn Qudāma, *Istibşār*, pp. 235-36. (Khawla and Fāțima may have been born by a woman other than al-Rabāb).
- 26 Ibn Qudāma, Istibşār, pp. 225-27.
- 27 On whom see Ibn Qudama, Istibşār, p. 225.
- 28 Ibn Hishām, Sīra, II, p. 172: wa-lam yakun fī Banī 'Abdi l-Ashhal munāfiq wa-lā

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There is yet another marriage link which is relevant for our discussion. Hudhayfa's sister Laylā was married to a man called Thābit b. Waqsh, whom she bore a son, 'Amr.²⁹ Now before his conversion to Islam, Thābit had been Jewish. This is shown by his tribal affiliation: he was of the Banū Za'ūrā',³⁰ a Jewish clan which at some stage was incorporated into the 'Abd al-Ashhal.³¹ It stands to reason that Laylā, who was married to a Jew, was herself Jewish.

The link between these two families is also reflected in the curious story about the death of Hudhayfa's father Husayl in the Battle of Uhud: before the battle, Husayl and the above-mentioned Thābit b. Waqsh, who were both old men (wa-humā shaykhāni kabīrāni) were put in a fortress together with the women and children. They decided to join the warriors in the battlefield and were both killed: Husayl, by the Muslims who mistook him for an enemy, and Thābit, by the pagans.³² The old Thābit was not only Husyal's companion, but also his son-in-law. Another version mentions as Husayl's partner Thābit's brother Rifā'a b. Waqsh.³³ In any case, both versions reflect the link between the two families.

2 Finhāș b. 'Āzūrā' and the Jewish Banū Marthad

It remains to discuss in some detail the identity of one of the two Jews who reportedly suggested to Hudhayfa and 'Ammär that they return to Judaism. While Zayd b. Qays could not be identified, some evidence about Finhäş b. 'Āzūrā' could be found. According to 'Ubayd b. 'Umayr (presumably the famous $q\bar{a}ss^{34}$), the one Jew who said that 'Uzayr was the son of God (cf. Qur'ān 9,30) was Finhāş b. 'Āzūrā' (innamā qāla hādhā l-qawla rajul wāhid mina l-yahūd smuhu. .).³⁵

munāfiqa yu'lamu, illā anna l-Ņaḥḥāk b. Thābit (=b. Khalīfa) ... qad kāna yuttahamu bi-l-nifāq wa-ḥubb yahūd.

- 29 Ibn Qudāma, Istibsār, p. 236.
- ³⁰ Ibn Hajar, Isāba, IV, p. 608 ('Amr b. Thâbit b. Wuqaysh/Uqaysh b. Zughba b. Za'ūrā' b. 'Abd al-Ashhal). Cf. op. cit., p. 609 (... kāna lahu riban fī l-jāhiliyya fa-kariha an yuslima hattā ya'khudhahu).
- 31 Samhūdī, Wa/ā', I, p. 164: 10 (Banū Za'ūrā appear in the list of the Jewish clans); Lecker, "Muḥammad at Medina", pp. 44-46.
- 32 Ibn Hishām, Sīra, III, pp. 92-93.
- 33 Wāqidī, I, 233: 11.
- ³⁴ On whom see Mizzi, Tahdhib al-kamāl, XIX, pp. 223-25. Also Muḥammad b. Waddāh al-Qurțubi, Kitāb al-bida', ed. M.º I. Fierro, Madrid: Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas, 1988, pp. 175-76 ('Ubayd and Ibn 'Abbās).
- 35 See Rāzī, Tafsīr, XVI, p. 33: 14. Other commentaries mention a group of Jews who held

Elsewhere we find a commentary going back to 'Ubayd b. 'Umayr's son 'Abdallāh, in which Finḥāş (without "b. 'Āzūrā") is associated with the cynical utterance, "Surely God is poor, and we are rich" (Qur'ān 3,181)³⁶. Further identification of Finḥāş is made possible if we follow the clue of this commentary. Al-Balādhurī, in his Ansāb al-ashrāf, includes the following passage in the section dealing with the Jewish leaders ('uzamā' yahūd) who were of the Banū Nadīr:

... Finhās, who heard the word of God "... and lend to God a good loan" (Qur'ān 73,20), and said: "I think we are richer than Muhammad's god because³⁷ he asks us for a loan". And the following verse was revealed concerning him: "God has heard the saying of those who said, 'Surely God is poor, and we are rich'. We shall write down what they have said"...³⁸

The context in which this passage appears in al-Balādhurī's book suggests that Finhāş was one of the Nadīr. But this conflicts with the more trustworthy evidence which points to the Qaynuqā'.

We arrive at the association between Finhāş b. 'Āzūrā' and the Qaynuqā' through al-Khāzin's commentary on Qur'ān 3,181. It tells of an encounter between Abū Bakr and two Jews, the learned Finhāş b. 'Āzūrā' (wa-kāna min 'wlamā'ihim), and a habr called Ashya'³⁹, which took place when the Prophet sent Abū Bakr to Yahūd Banī Qaynuqā' ("the Jewish Banū Qaynuqā'") in order to deliver a letter demanding that they embrace Islam. This happened in bayt madārisihim (read: bayt midrāsihim). Following a sharp exchange between Abū Bakr and Finhāş (who said, among other things, that "God is poor and we are tich"), the former slapped the latter, saying: "Had it not been for the treaty ('ahd) between us and you, I would have cut off your head". Finhāş complained

this view; cf. Hava Lazarus-Yafeh, "Ezra-Uzayr: metamorphosis of a polemical motif", in Tarbiz 55 (1986), pp. 362, n. 9; 368 (in Hebrew); *idem, Intertwined Worlds: Medieval Islam and Bible Criticism*, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1992, pp. 52, n. 7; 61, n. 33.

³⁷ *Hina*, literally: "at the time of".

³⁸ Ansāb al-ashrāf, I, ed. Muhammad Hamīdullāh, Cairo 1959, p. 284: 4 from below (written: la-qad kafara lladhīna qālū, instead of: la-qad sami'a llāhu qawla lladhīna qālū).

³⁹ Printed erroneously: 's.b.y.'.

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³⁶ Jabari, Jāmi' al-bayān, X, p. 78: 11 (wa-qālati l-yahūdu 'Uzayru bnu llāhi, qāla: qālahā rajul wāhid qālū inna smahu Finhāş wa-qālū: huwa lladhī qāla: inna llāha faqīr wanahnu aghniyā').

to the Prophet about this^{40,} denying that he had said what had been ascribed to him, but the above-mentioned Qur'an verse was revealed, confirming Abū Bakr's testimony.⁴¹

Ibn Ishāq lists Finhāş (=Finhāş b. 'Āzūrā') and Ashya' among the adversaries of the Prophet who belonged to the Banū Qaynuqā'.⁴² Elsewhere Finhāş al-Yahūdī is said to have been the *sayyid* of the Banū Qaynuqā'.⁴³ To all this evidence concerning the tribal affiliation of Finhāş we should add the location of the *Bayt al-Midrās*: it was in al-Quff, the village of the Qaynuqā'.⁴⁴ In sum, the evidence accumulated above shows that Finhāş b. 'Āzūrā' was of the Qaynuqā'.

* * *

It seems that we can go one step further and identify the sub-group within the Qaynuqā' to which Finhāş belonged. In his exegesis of Qur'ān 3,181, Tabarī quotes a commentary of al-Suddī (d. 128/745⁴⁵) which is in fact an abridged version of the report concerning the encounter between Abū Bakr and Finhāş. Yet on two points al-Suddī's report is different. He mentions as Finhāş's clan the Banū Marthad, and calls the treaty between the Prophet and this Jewish clan a hudna, or truce: la-qad sami'a llāhu ... qālahā Finhāş al-Yahūdī min Banī Marthad, laqiyahu Abū Bakr ... fa-qāla Abū Bakr [i.e. not when the

- 40 Abraham Geiger, Was hat Mohammed aus dem Judenthume aufgenommen?, Bonn, 1833, pp. 15-16; 2nd revised edition, Leipzig 1902, pp. 15-16, who quotes this report, has fa-shakalahu instead of fa-shakāhu, and his translation is consequently wrong. The error was transferred to the English translation, entitled Judaism and Islam, trans. by F. M. Young, Madras, 1898, pp. 11-21.
- ⁴¹ Khāzin, Tafsīr, I, p. 384: 14 (quoting 'lkrima, al-Suddī, Muqātil and Ibn Ishāq); see a fragment of this report in Muqātil, Tafsīr, MS Saray, Ahmet III 74, I, fol. 66b. Cf. Tabarī, Jāmi' al-bayān, IV, p. 129: 10 (from ... Ibn Ishāq ... 'Ikrima, from Ibn 'Abbās); Ibn Hishām, Sīra, II, pp. 207-208 (in both there is a partial version of the report, omitting any mention of the Prophet's letter to the Jews).
- ⁴² Ibn Hishām, Sīra, II, p. 161: 7. The two are also mentioned in the commentary on Qur'ān 3,187 and 3,188; Țabarī, Jāmi' al-bayān, IV, pp. 135: 5, 137: 15 (in both: ... Ibn Ishāq ... 'Ikrima, from Ibn 'Abbās); cf. Ibn Hishām, Sīra, II, p. 208.
- ⁴³ Ţabarī, Jāmi' al-bayān, IV, p. 133: 7 from below (quoting 'lkrima). See also al-Suyûţî, al-Durr al-manthūr fî l-tafsîr bi-l-ma'thūr, Cairo 1314 A.H., II, p. 296: 23: Finhāş, ra's yahūd Qaynuqā' (Ibn 'Abbās, commentary on Qur'ān 5,64).
- ⁴⁴ Lecker, "Muhammad at Medina", pp. 37-38; Lecker, Muslims, Jews and Pagans: Studies on Early Islamic Medina (forthcoming), Index. Cf. on the Jewish midrash in Medina: Nabia Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, II, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1967, p. 8.
- ⁴⁵ Fuat Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, Leiden: Brill, 1967f, I, pp. 32-33.

event was taking place, but later — M.L.]: fa-lawlā hudna kānat bayna l-nabī (ş) wa-bayna Banī Marthad la-qataliuhu.⁴⁶

The double affiliation of Finhās, to the Qaynuqā' on the one hand and to the Marthad on the other, is of course problematic.⁴⁷ There are three possibilities:

- 1. Qaynuqā' and Marthad were identical, the former being a nickname, and the latter, a proper name.
- 2. Qaynuqā' were the dominant group in al-Quff, the village of the Qaynuqā', hence members of smaller clans such as the Marthad were wrongly thought to have been of the Qaynuqā'.⁴⁸
- 3. The Marthad were a sub-group of the Qaynuqā'.

Because of the strong evidence associating Finhāş with the Qaynuqā', I find the last mentioned possibility the most appealing one.

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lbn 'Abd al-Barr, Yüsuf b. 'Abdalläh al-Namarī. al-Istī'āb fī ma'rifat al-asķāb, ed. 'Alī Muķammad al-Bijāwī, Cairo: Maktabat Nahdat Mişr, n.d.

- ⁴⁶ Tabarī, Jāmi' al-bayān, IV, p. 129: 30. The truce between the Prophet and the Marthad is of course relevant to the question, which cannot be discussed here, of the treaties which the Prophet concluded after the Hijra with the Jewish clans in Medina.
- 47 For the name Marthad cf. Dāraquinī, Mu'talif, IV, pp. 2030-34; Ibn Mākulā, al-Ikmāl, VII, ed. Nāyif al-'Abbās, Cairo: Dār al-Kitāb al-Islāmī, n.d., pp. 229-32.
- ⁴⁸ This possibility is rather appealing. Al-Quff, like other settlements in the Yathrib/Medina area, was presumably inhabited by a mixture of small tribal groups, the dominant among them being the Qaynuqā'. Similarly Zuhra, which was called "the village of the Banū 1-Nadīr", was inhabited by groups of various tribes (jummā'), among them the Banū Tha'laba b. al-Fityawn; Lecker, "Muhammad at Medina", pp. 33, 41-43.

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YAHŪD / 'UHŪD: A VARIANT READING IN THE STORY OF THE 'AQABA MEETING*

As is well known, the 'Aqaba meeting between the Prophet Muhammad and the Ansār¹ took place shortly before the Prophet's Hijra. The story of the meeting in the biography of the Prophet by Ibn Hishām includes a gloss which suggests that the Ansar and the Prophet already envisaged at that stage, even before the Hijra, a break between the Ansār and the Jews of Medina. In this article it will be argued that the original version did not in fact contain any reference to a break with the Jews. While both parties may well have considered such a break to be an inevitable outcome of their alliance, one would not have expected to find this mentioned, or even alluded to, in the story of the 'Aqaba meeting.

The 'Agaba ("mountain road"), or 'Agabat Minā² is some two miles east of Mecca in the direction of Minā³. In the report of the 'Aqaba meeting we are told that at a certain stage one of the participants, Abū

^{*} This study benefitted immensely from the advice and criticism of Patricia Crone, Uri

Rubin, and especially Simon Hopkins, who contributed the Appendix (see below). ³ On which see G. MÉLAMEDE, "The meetings at al-'Akaba", in *Le Monde Oriental* 28 (1934), 17-58; M.J. KISTER, "Notes on the papyrus account of the 'Aqaba meeting", in Le Muséon 76 (1963), 403-17; N. ABBOTT, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, I, Historical Texts, Chicago, 1957, 61-64. Cf. El², s.v. bay'a (E. TYAN).

² Taqī al-Dīn AL-FASI, Shifā' al-gharām bi-akhbār al-balad al-harām, ed. 'U. 'Abd al-Salām TADMURI, Beirut, 1405/1985, I, 13.

³ YAQUT al-Hamawi, Mu'jam al-buldan, Beirut, 1957, s.v. 'Aqaba, 134b. The location of masjid al-bay'a is marked (as no.10) in Appendix 3, map no. 7, in AL-FAKIHI, Akhbār Makka, ed 'ABD AL-MALIK B. 'ABDALLAH B. DUHAYSH, Mecca, 1407/1987, vol. V. Appendix 2 of the same volume includes, under no. 15, a photo of shi'b al-bay'a or shi'b al-Ansår, and under no. 16, a photo of the above-mentioned mosque. Shi'b (see E.W. LANE, Arabic-English Lexicon, London, 1863-93, s.v.) is "a road in a mountain" or "a ravine, or gap, or pass, between two mountains". The meeting place was described as fol-Iows: fi aşli l-'aqaba fi l-shi'bi l-ayman idhā nhadarū min Minan asfala l-'aqaba haythu I-masjidu I-yawm; IBN FAHD, Ithaf al-warā bi-akhbār Umm al-Qurā, ed. F.M. SHALTŪT, Mecca, 1404/1983-84, I, 339; IBN SA'D, al-Tabagāt al-kubrā, Beirut, 1380/1960-1388/1968, I, 221 (where the words fi asli 1-'aqaba are missing). Elsewhere we find: 'inda masjid shi'bi l-'aqaba, 'an yasārika wa-anta dhāhib ilā Minan; AL-SAMHŪDĪ, Wafā` al-wafā bi-akhbār dār al-musiafā, ed. M. MUHYI AL-DIN 'ABD AL-HAMID, Cairo, 1374/1955 (reprint Beirut), I, 232.

l-Haytham b. al-Tayyihān⁴, interrupted an exchange between another participant, al-Barā' b. Ma'rūr, and the Prophet, which concerned the commitments of the Anşār, in order to raise the following matter:

"There are treaties $(hib\bar{a}l)$ between us and the people and we are going to break them, i.e., the Jews. If we do so, and if God gives you victory, perhaps you will return to your people and leave us?"

The Prophet smiled and said: "On the contrary, our alliance is real" [literally: the exaction of your blood-revenge is like the exaction of mine, and if your blood is shed without retaliation, it is as if my blood is shed so]. I am of you and you are of me, I shall war whomever you war and appease those whom you appease"⁵.

⁴ Of the Balī, a client of the Za'ūrā' or the 'Abd al-Ashhal. See on him M. LECKER "Muḥammad at Medina: a geographical approach", in JSAI 6 (1985), 29-62, at 52, n. 152; AL-FAKIHI, Akhbār Makka, IV, 237 (ḥalīf banī 'Abdi l-Ashhal). But cf. AL-TABRISI, l'lām al-warā bi-a'lām al-hudā, Beirut, 1985, 90: wa-kāna rajulan mina l-yaman ḥalīfan fi banī 'Amr b. 'Awf. According to some, he was a naqīb but there was no unanimity about this; IBN HISHĀM, al-Sīra al-nabawiyya, ed. AL-SAQQĀ, AL-ABYĀRI and SHALABI, Beirut, 1391/1971, II, 87, 1.12, 88, 1.6; other variants of his father's name are: al-Tayhān and al-Tayyahān, AL-DĀRAQUŢNI, al-Mu'talif wa-l-mukhtalif, ed. M. B. 'A. B. 'ABD AL-QĀDIR, Beirut, 1406/1986, I, 299 n.

⁵ See also A. GUILLAUME, The Life of Muhammad, Oxford, 1955, 203-204; The history of al-Tabarī, vol. VI, translated by W.M. WATT and M.V. McDONALD, Albany, 1988, 133. AL-ZAMAKHSHARI, al-Fā'iq fī gharīb al-hadīth, ed. AL-BUAWI and M. ABU L-FADL IBRAHIM, Cairo, 1971, I, 252, who interprets hibāl as 'uhūd, says: yurīdu in ţuliba damukum fa-qad ţuliba damī wa-in uhdira fa-qad uhdira damī li-stihkāmi l-ulfa. Each party undertook to cooperate in exacting blood revenge, except in cases where the wronged party gave up the retaliation; AL-ABI, Nathr al-durr, ed. M. 'ALI QARNA, Cairo, 1980-81, I, 213: yurīdūna: taţlubu bi-damī wa-aţlubu bi-damika wa-mā hadamta mina ldimā'i hadamtu, ay mā 'afawta 'anhu wa-ahdartahu 'afawtu 'anhu wa-ahdartuhu. Usually, the meaning of dam is not disputed (although there is a variant, ladam, see below); it was had(a)m which caused more difficulty. Other interpretations suggested were: hadam is a grave, or a house (manzil), or a wrecked house (al-binā'u l-mahdūm); hadm with sukūn means ihdār dami l-qatīl, "letting the blood of the murdered man go unavenged"; IBN AL-ATHIR, al-Nihāya fī gharīb al-hadīth wa-l-athar, ed. T.A. AL-ZāWI and M.M. AL-TANĂHI, Cairo, 1385/1965, s.v. h.d.m.

AL-AZHARI (quoted in IBN MANZÜR, Lisän al-'arab, Beirut, 1968, s.v. h.d.m., 604) presented the two variants of the root h.d.m. in the relevant passage, hadam and hadm. The former means the destruction of strength and honour, while the latter means the giving up of blood revenge: damī damuka, in qatalanī insān țalabta bi-damī kamā taṭlubu bi-dami waliyyika ayi bni 'ammika wa-akhīka, wa-hadamī hadamuka, ay man hadama lī 'izzan wa-sharafan fa-qad hadamahu minka, wa-kullu man qatala waliyyī fa-qad qatala waliyyaka, wa-man arāda hadamaka [erroneously printed hadmaka] fa-qad qaşadanī bidhālika. Qāla l-Azharī: wa-man rawāhu: al-damu l-damu wa-l-hadmu l-hadmu, fa-huwa 'alā qawli l-ḥalīf: taṭlubu bi-damī wa-anā aṭlubu bi-damika, wa-mā hadamta mina ldimā' hadamtu, ay mā 'afawta 'anhu wa-ahdartahu fa-qad 'afawtu 'anhu wa-taraktuhu. A further report which immediately follows, perhaps going back to Azhāri as well, relates to the inheritance which was an integral part of such agreements: wa-yuqālu: innahum idhā ḥtalafū qālū: hadamī hadamuka wa-damī damuka wa-tarithunī wa-arithuka, thumma nasakha llāhu bi-āyāti l-mawārīth mā kānū yashtariţūnahu mina l-mīrāth fī l-ḥilf.

Abū 'Ubayda (quoted in AL-ĀBI, Nathr al-durr, loc. cit.) says that the formula was alhadamu l-hadamu wa-l-ladamu l-ladamu, adding ay hurmatī ma'a hurmatikum wa-baytī Text: (amr al-'aqaba al-thāniya):... inna baynanā wa-bayna l-rijāl hibālan wa-innā qāṭi'ūhā — ya'nī l-yahūd — fa-hal 'asayta, in nahnu fa'alnā dhālika, thumma azharaka llāhu, an tarji'a ilā qawmika watada'anā? Qāla: fa-tabassama rasūlu llāhi (ş) thumma qāla: bali l-damu l-damu wa-l-had(a)mu l-had(a)mu, anā minkum wa-antum minnī, uhāribu man hārabtum wa-usālimu man sālamtum⁶.

We may expect to find some variation in the location of the gloss $ya'n\bar{n} l-yah\bar{u}d$. One source has:

inna baynanā wa-bayna aqwām — yaʻnī l-yahūd — ḥibālan wa-innā gāṭi'ūhā⁷.

Another has:

inna baynanā wa-bayna l-rijāl — ya'ni l-yahūd — ḥibālan wa-naḥnu gāṭi'ūhā⁸.

ma'a baytikum. AL-ZAMAKHSHARI, al-Fā'iq, I, 252 has it in reversed order: al-ladamu lladamu wa-l-hadamu l-hadamu. He interprets ladam as the plural of ladīm, "a woman beating her face in grief when her husband dies", hence "women" in general, and interprets hadam as "house". He concludes: ay huramī huramukum wa-manzilī manzilukum. M. ULLMANN, in Wörterbuch der Klassischen Arabischen Sprache, II, s.v., states correctly that (the version of the Prophet's answer) bali l-ladamu l-ladamu wa-l-hadamu lhadamu is "alter Fehler für bali d-damu d-damu".

IBN HISHĂM (Sĩra, II, 85) has a variant reading for al-damu l-damu wa-l-had(a)mu lhad(a)mu: wa-yuqālu: l-hadamu l-hadamu ya'nī l-hurma, ay dhimmatī dhimmatukum wa-hurmatī hurmatukum. But dhimma is no doubt a corruption of dam and the old edition of Ibn Hishām, by F. WÜSTENFELD (Göttingen, 1858-60, I, i, 297) is superior at this point: wa-yuqālu l-hadamu l-hadamu, ya'nī l-hurma, yaqūlu: hurmatī hurmatukum wa-damī damukum (in this order).

⁶ IBN HISHÄM, Sīra, II, 85; M. HAMĪDULLÄH, Majmū'at al-wathā'iq al-siyāsiyya li-l-'ahd al-nabawī wa-l-khilāfa al-rāshida³, Beirut, 1405/1985, 49-50, no. */d. AL-FÄKIHĪ, Akhbār Makka, IV, 237 has a slightly different version of the Prophet's words: bali ldamu bi-l-dami, wa-l-kadmu bi-l-hadmi, anā minkum wa-antum minnī, damī ma'a dimā'ikum wa-hadmī ma'a hadmikum, uhāribu man hārabtum wa-usālimu man sālamtum. See the version in AL-SAMHÚDI, Wafā' al-wafā, I, 233, 1.9 (where the rijāl mentioned by Abū l-Haytham are not glossed): bali l-damu l-damu wa-l-hadmu l-hadmu l-maḥyā maḥyākum wa-l-mamāt mamātukum wa-uḥāribu man ḥārabtum wa-usālimu man sālamtum.

⁷ IBN FAHD, *lthāf al-warā*, I, 342. Cf. A. b. al-Husayn AL-BAYHAQI, *Dalā'il al-nubuwwa*, ed. 'Abd al-Mu'tī QAL'Afi, Beirut, 1405/1985, II, 447: *inna haynanā wa-bayna aqwāmin hibālan wa-innā qāți'ūhā* (without a gloss). Note also that there must have been some uneasiness about *wa-innā qāți'ūhā* or it would not have been replaced by another, more benign, formulation; *wa-innā in qața'nāhā aw qața'ūhā*; AL-MAILISI, *Bihār al-anwār*, new ed., Tehran, 1362-66, XIX, 26.

⁸ AL-SAMHUDI, Wafā' al-wafā, I, 229, 1.3 from below. See also AL-DIYARBAKRI, Ta'rīkh al-khamīs, Cairo, 1283 A.H., I, 318, 1.24: inna baynanā wa-bayna l-nās — ya'nī l-yahūd — hibālan etc. VI

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The solemn declaration formula was used by the Prophet in order to calm the fears of the Anṣār that he would finally abandon them and return to his hometown Mecca. The formula was widely used in Mecca and elsewhere in Arabia in connection with the creation of alliances. Abū Hilāl al-'Askarī (d. after 400-1010)⁹ describes different types of "fires" common before Islam, among them "the fire of alliance" (nār al-taḥāluf/al-ḥilf). He records the following ḥilf-formula: wa-kānū yaqū-lūna 'inda 'aqdi l-ḥilf: al-damu l-damu al-hadamu l-hadamu mā balla baḥrun ṣūfatan wa-mā rasā Thabīrun aw ghayruhu mina l-jibāl, kullu qabīla kānū yadhkurūna l-jibāla llatī ya'rifūnahā, "... as long as a sea wets a portion of ṣūf (i.e., sea-weed resembling wool)¹⁰ and as long as Mt. Thabīr or another mountain — every tribe used to mention the mountains it knew — remains firm in its place¹¹. It was also used by a client attaching himself to a master¹².

⁹ El², s.v. al-'Askari (J.W. Fück).

¹⁰ LANE, Arabic-English Lexicon, 1748b.

¹¹ AL-'ASKARI, al-Awā'il, ed. M. al-Sayyid AL-WAKIL, Tanța 1408/1987, 36-37 = ed. M. AL-MISRI and W. QASSAB, Damascus, 1975, 1, 36-37. Both må balla and Mt. Thabir in Mecca are attested to in a verse by a Meccan poet adduced by KISTER, Studies in Jahiliyya and Early Islam, London, 1980, no. I (Additional Notes to KISTER, "Mecca and Tamin [aspects of their tribal relations]", in JESHO 8 [1965], 113-63, at 2, 1.8 from below). Cf. AL-BAKRI, Mu'jam mā sta'jama, ed. M. AL-SAQQA, Cairo, 1364/1945-1371/1951, s.v. al-Salif, III, 824; AL-JAHIZ, al-Hayawan², ed. 'Abd al-Salam HARUN, Cairo, 1385/1965, IV, 470-71. The 4th/10th century Abū Ishāq Ibrāhīm b. 'Abdallāh AL-NAJIRAMI, in his Aymān al-'arab fī l-jāhiliyya², ed. M. al-Dīn AL-KHAŢIB, Cairo, 1382 A.H., 34-35, has this quotation from Abū 'Ubayda: kānū fī l-jāhiliyyati l-ūlā idhā taḥālafū wa-ta'āhadū awgadū nāran wa-danaw minhā ḥattā takāda taḥriquhum wa-ʻaddadū manāfi'a l-nār wa-da'aw 'alā nāqid tilka l-yamīn wa-l-nākith li-dhālika l-'ahd bi-ḥirmān tilka l-manāfi', wa-yataṣāfaḥūna 'indahā wa-yaqūlūna: al-damu l-damu wa-lhadamu (sic.voc.) l-hadamu, wa-l-ma'nā dimā'ūnā dimā'ukum wa-hadamunā hadamukum, wa-l-hadamu smu l-binā'i l-mahdūm ay fa-mā hudima lakum min binā' aw sha'n fa-qad hudima lanā wa-mā urīga lakum min dam fa-gad urīga lanā, yalzamunā min nuşratikum mā yalzmunā min nuşrati anfusinā, wa-'abarū (read: wa-ghabarū) 'ala sti'māl dhālika yatawārathūnahu ilā an atā llāh ta'ālā bi-l-islām wa-kāna l-hilf bayna rasūli llāh (ș) wa-bayna l-anșār, fa-qāla șalawātu llāh wa-salāmuhu 'alayhi lahum: aldamu l-damu wa-l-hadamu l-hadamu. See the text also in Ch.D. MATTHEWS, "The Kitāb Aimān al-'Arab wa-Ţalāqihā fi'l-Jāhilīya of an-Najīramī", in JAOS 58 (1938), 615-37, at 630, where we find "Abū 'Ubayd" instead of "Abū 'Ubayda". This is probably a misprint because elsewhere in this small treatise Abū 'Ubayda is quoted twice, whereas Abū Ubayd is not mentioned. In any case, the latter, who was a student of the former, quoted him on many occasions and was even the compiler of a book entitled K. al-Ayman wa-lnudhūr; I. GOLDZIHER, "Notice sur la littérature des Ajmân al-'Arab (serments des anciens Arabes)", in Mélanges Hartwig Derenbourg, Paris, 1909, 221-30, at 222; YAQOT, Mu'jam al-udabā', ed. I. 'ABBĀS, Beirul, 1993, V, 2201. On al-Najīramī see F. SEZGIN, Geschichte des arabischen Schriftums, Leiden, 1967f, VIII, 243-44; YAQUT, Mu'jam aludabā', I, 87-89.

¹² See Qatāda's commentary to Qur'ān 4, 33, quoted in AL-ȚABARI, Jāmi' al-bayān fi tafsīr al-qur'ān, Būlāq, 1321-1330 A.H., V, 34, 1.8: kāna l-rajulu yu'āqidu l-rajula fi lThe gloss found in Ibn Hishām, ya'nī l-yahūd, was generally adopted by scholars who utilized this text. A.J. Wensinck said that according to "tradition... the Medinans already had made their decisive choice between Muhammad and the Jews at the so-called second 'Aqabah''.

Wensinck translates Abū I-Haytham's words as follows:

"O Messenger of God, there are ties between us and other men (i.e., the Jews of Medina) and look, we break them"....

Wensinck must have sensed that something was not in order, because he commented:

"Certainly Islam had severed the ties of the Jähilīyah, but this presentation of the affair is inaccurate. The Prophet himself still did not know how his relationship with the Medinans was to develop. He had expected approaches from the Jews, but when these did not materialize his policy became anti-Jewish. It was only then that Banū Qaylah [i.e., the Aws and the Khazraj — M.L.] had to choose between the new prophet and their old allies"¹³.

M. Gil assumed that the Prophet adopted an anti-Jewish policy already at the 'Aqaba:

"Through his alliance with the Arab tribes of Medina the Prophet gained enough strength to achieve a gradual anti-Jewish policy, despite the reluctance of his Medinese allies, who had formerly been those of the Jews. This point was already very well grasped by the participants in the second 'Aqaba meeting. It was Abū'l-Haytham b. al-Tayyihān who expressed it in his question to the Prophet about what would happen after the ties with the Jews had been severed. He speaks there about *hibāl* which are "between us and some people", referring to the ties between them and the Jews. What will happen if we sever them? The Prophet smiles and gives an appeasing answer; he will respect and follow their alliances"¹⁴.

jāhiliyya fa-yaqūlu: damī damuka wa-hadmī hadmuka wa-tarithunī wa-arithuka wataţlubu bī wa-aţlubu bika. (P. CRONE, Roman, Provincial and Islamic Law: The Origins of the Islamic Patronate, Cambridge, 1987, 53 calls this "a hilf formula which sounds extremely convincing".)

¹³ A.J. WENSINCK, Mohammed en de Joden te Medina, Leiden, 1908, translated and edited by W. BEHN, Muhammad and the Jews of Medina, Freiburg im Breisgau, 1975, 32-33. See also F. BUHL, Das Leben Muhammeds², trans. H. SCHAEDER, Leipzig, 1930 (reprint Heidelberg, 1955), 213, n. 29: "O Gesandter Gottes, es gibt Bande, die uns an die Männer (nämlich die Juden) binden und die wir jetzt brechen [...]".

¹⁴ M. GiL, "The constitution of Medina: a reconsideration", in *Israel Oriental Studies*, 4 (1974), 44-66, at 64; cf. M. GiL, A *History of Palestine*, 634-1099, translated by E. BROIDO, Cambridge, 1992, 11 (where he says about the 'Aqaba meeting that "Muhammad... concluded an agreement with them [= the Anṣār] to terminate their endless violent feuding and abolish their bond with the Jews of that city"). And see on Abū I-Haytham's question also J. LASSNER, *Islamic Revolution and Historical Memory: An Inquiry into the Art of 'Abbdsid Apologetics*, New Haven, 1986, 78-79; Lassner wonders whether the "others" with whom ties will have to be severed are an analogue to the 'Alids.

"The Jews had no part in inviting Muhammad to Medina, and no Jews were present at the 'Aqaba negotiations. Yet the potential awkwardness of their presence in Medina under the new order was obvious to all. Fealty to the Prophet and his cause meant the dissolution of other bonds and alliances, those not protected by alliances have no rights. Thus, it was clear to all concerned that eventually the Jews would have to go."¹⁵

The identification, submitted in this article, of ' $uh\bar{u}d$ as the original reading (as we shall see, it is supported by some variant readings of the crucial passage) means that Abū l-Haytham did not refer to the Jews at all¹⁶.

A text containing what I consider the original, correct, version, is to be found, for example, in the 7th/13th century commentary of al-Khāzin, who quotes Ibn Ishāq "and other historians" (wa-ghayruhu min ahli lakhbār):

inna baynanā wa-bayna l-nās ķibālan — ya'nī 'uhûdan — wa-innā gāți'ūhā¹⁷.

¹⁵ N.A. STILLMAN, The Jews of Arab Lands, Philadelphia, 1979, 10.

¹⁶ Admittedly, the papyrus account of Wahb b. Munabbih includes a mention of the Jews by the Prophet's uncle al-'Abbās who reportedly accompanied his nephew at the 'Aqaba meeting; MÉLAMÉDE, "The meetings at al-'Aqaba", 50-51: fa-inna jīrānakum fī baladikum yahūd wa-hum lahu a'dā, rendered: "... for your neighbours in your country are the Jews, and they are most hostile to him". But "dy is a plural form, "enemies" (cf. S. HOPKINS, Studies in the Grammar of Early Arabic, Oxford, 1984, 23, &21b); see a'dā=a'dā" already in KISTER, "Notes on the papyrus account of the 'Aqaba meeting", 405; Kister deciphers further in the text of the papyrus: wa-lam yazal yatakhawwafuhum 'alayhi, "And he [=al-'Abbās] did not cease to rouse their fears about him (i.e., about the messenger of Allah)". Cf. R.G. KHOURY, Wahb ibn Munabbih: der Heidelberger Papyrus PSR Heid Arab 23, Wiesbaden, 1972, I, 124 (...wa-lam na[z]al natakhawwafuhum 'alayhi, "... und ihretwegen [viz., the Jews] fürchten wir im[mer] für ihn"). Khoury was unaware of Kister's corrections, published nine years before his book. See also KISTER, "On the papyrus of Wahb b. Munabbih": an addendum", in BSOAS 40 (1977), 125-27.

¹⁷ 'Alī b. M. al-Baghdādī AL-KHAZĪN, Lubāb al-ta'wīl fī ma'ānī al-tanzīl, Cairo, 1381 A.H., I, 333, 1.21. See similary 'Alī b. Abī Bakr AL-HAYTHAMI, Majma' al-zawā'id wamanba' al-fawā'id, Beirut, 1967, VI, 44, 1.15: inna baynanā wa-bayna l-rijāl hibālan wainnā qāți'ūhā, wa-hiya l-'uhūdu; Ahmad b. M. AL-THA'LABI, al-Kashf wa-l-bayān fī tafsīr āyi l-qurān, MS Tel Aviv University, 508750, 138 has: inna baynanā wa-bayna l-nās hibālan ya'nī 'uhūdan; IBN AL-JAWZI, al-Wafā bi-ahwāl al-mustafā, ed. MUŞTAFA 'ABD AL-WAHID, Cairo, 1386/1966, I, 226: inna baynanā wa-bayna l-nās hibālan wa-innā qāți'ūhā — ya'nī l-'uhūd. Cf. AL-BALADHURI, Ansāb al-ashrāf, I, ed. M. HAMIDULLÂH, Cairo, 1959, 143, where a Qurashī who embraced Islam says to another Qurashī who did not: inna l-islāma qad qata'a l-'uhūda baynanā wa-baynakum.

Most unusual is the version found in the 11th/17th century Sīra Halabiyya which contains two glosses, obviously taken from two different sources:

inna baynanā wa-bayna l-rijāl — ya'nī l-yahūd — ḥibālan — ay 'uhūdan¹⁸.

* *

If they were not the Jews of Medina, who were then the people mentioned by Abū l-Haytham? I propose that he simply referred to Quraysh and the links between them and the Anṣār (or rather the inhabitants of Medina before Islam, the would-be Anṣār). Three versions of his words which have *al-qawm* instead of *al-rijāl*, and to a somewhat lesser extent the version quoted above with *aqwām*, lend this assumption some support, because *al-qawm* is again mentioned later in the same passage, where it clearly means Quraysh:

inna baynanā wa-bayna l-qawm hibālan wa-nahnu qāņi'ūhā, fa-nakhshā [read: fa-'asā?] ini llāhu a'azzaka wa-naṣaraka an tarji'a ilā qawmika¹⁹. In this passage, the slightly vague qawm is explicated by qawmika, showing that Abū l-Haytham speaks of Quraysh.

Qawm and ilā qawmika are also attested to in another version:

inna baynanā wa-bayna l-qawm ḥibālan wa-innā qāṭiʿūhā, fa-hal 'asayta, in naḥnu bāyaʿnāka wa-kharajnā maʿaka, thumma naṣaraka llāhu waaẓharaka, an tarjiʿa ilā qawmika wa-tadaʿanā²⁰?

Finally, the following is a most valuable, though slightly garbled, formulation:

inna baynanā wa-bayna qawmihi [!] raḥiman wa-innā qāṭi'ūhā fīka, fa-hal 'asayta, in naḥnu bāya'nāka wa-aẓharaka llāhu, an tarji'a ilā qawmika wa-tada'anā²¹?

Obviously, *qawmihi* is corrupt. I suggest it be replaced by *qawmika*. One assumes that originally the passage had *qawmika* twice²². In this inter-

¹⁸ 'Ali b. Burhan al-Dîn AL-HALABI, Insân al-'uyûn fî sîrat al-amîn al-ma'mûn, Cairo, 1320 A.H., II, 16, 1.3 from below.

¹⁹ AL-ĀBI, Nathr al-durr, 1, 213.

²⁰ Muwaffaq al-Dîn IBN QUDÂMA, al-Istibşār fī nasab al-şaḥāba min al-anṣār, ed. 'ALI NUWAYHID, Beirut, 1392/1972, 228.

²¹ IBN HIBBAN al-Bustī, al-Sīra l-nabawiyya wa-akhbār al-khulafā', ed. 'Azīz BAKK et al., Beirut, 1407/1987, 122.

²² However, even if we assume that the former was *qawm*, the purport of the passage will not change.

esting version Abū l-Haytham speaks of the severance of family relationships (*raḥim*) between the Anṣār and Muḥammad's *qawm*, Quraysh, i.e., links created by intermarriage. But this severance, a sure outcome of the 'Aqaba agreement, was not the main object of Abū l-Haytham's concern. Rather, he was worried that, at a later stage, the Prophet would return to his *qawm*, to Quraysh. The Jews are not mentioned at all. At stake was the prospect of an imminent war with Quraysh, not with the Jews²³.

The term habl, pl. $hib\bar{a}l^{24}$ can designate "treaty, alliance" in general. For example, an Anṣārī from among the Khazraj told the Prophet that between the Khazraj and their brothers of the Aws there were $hib\bar{a}l maqt\bar{u}'a^{25}$. Qat al- $hib\bar{a}l$ denotes the severance of a treaty (e.g. in order to form an alliance with another party)²⁶. So, the $hib\bar{a}l$ referred to by Abū l-Haytham might have been alliances in general.

But it should be observed that in some contexts *habl* meant safe conduct. While between Mecca and Medina there existed before Islam connections of various kinds, the safe conduct must have been of major significance in their relationship.

In an alleged *khuiba* of 'Alī b. Abī Ṭālib in which there is reference to the role of the Anṣār at the time of the Prophet, the *habā'il* (which are synonymous with *hibāl*) are their treaties (i.e., safe conducts) with the

²³ We have an alternative version of Abū I-Haytham's words in ABŪ NU'AYM AL-IŞFAHANI, Dalā'il al-nubuwwa², ed. M.R. QAL'AJI and 'ABD AL-BARR 'ABBAS, Beirut, 1406/1986, I, 304-305; the importance of this text was pointed out thirty years ago by KISTER, "Notes on the papyrus account of the 'Aqaba meeting", 411; the relevant passage is on p. 416: yā rasūla llāhi, la'allaka idhā hārabnā l-nāsa fika wa-qaṭa'nā mā baynanā wa-baynahum mina l-jiwār wa-l-hilf wa-l-arḥām, wa-ḥamalatnā l-ḥarb 'alā sīsā ihā [IBN AL-ATHIR, Nihāya, s.v.: ḥamalatnā l-'arab (!) 'ala sīsā ihā — sīsā'u l-ẓahri mina ldawābb, mujtama' wasaṭihi, wa-huwa mawdi'u l-rukūb] fa-kashafat lanā 'an qinā'ihā, laḥiqta bi-baladika wa-taraktanā, wa-qad ḥārabnā l-nāsa fika? Fa-tabassama rasūlu llāhi (\$) thumma qāla: al-damu l-damu wa-l-hadamu l-hadamu. There is no specific mention of the Jews in this alternative version of Abū l-Haytham's words.

²⁴ The variants, as we have seen, are rahim, and al-jiwar wa-l-hilf wa-l-arham.

²⁵ AL-ȚABRISI, *l'lām al-warā*, 87.

²⁶ Cf. the verse of 'Amr b. Darrāk al-'Abdī in Lisān al-'arab, s.v. s.d.m., 285b; cf. AL-MAS'UDI, Murūj al-dhahab, ed. Ch. PELLAT, Beirut, 1966-74, II, 201; M. b. 'Abd al-Mun'im AL-HIMYARI, al-Rawd al-mi'jār fi khabar al-aqiar, ed. I. 'ABBAS, Beirut, 1975, 308b, 1.15; AL-JAHIZ, al-Hayawān², VI, 157: wa-innî in qaja'tu hibâla Qaysin wa-hālaftu l-Mazūna 'alā Tamīmi etc. Bedouin (al-'arab), while hilf is their alliance with the Jews²⁷. A safe conduct with a Bedouin tribe, amān/habl, sometimes 'ahd²⁸, was naturally limited in scope and did not amount to a full-fledged alliance or hilf²⁹. There is a reference to hibāl in the sense of safe conducts between the Prophet and some unspecified foreign group: on his way back from the Battle of Uhud, when he was at Hamrā' al-Asad, Abū Sufyān met a caravan carrying goods to Medina, wa-baynahum wa-bayna l-nabiyyi (s) hibāl³⁰. Clearly, these hibāl were reciprocal safe conducts guaranteeing the safety of the caravan at Medina and guaranteeing the safety of the Prophet's Companions in the territory of the people of the caravan. Similarly, habl is used in the sense of a foreign ruler's charter obtained for Quraysh by one of the children of 'Abd Manāf. For example, "Naufal {b. 'Abd Manāf] obtained the habl from the Chosroes (al-Akāsira) and they (i.e., the merchants of Quraysh) frequented al-'Irāq and Persia"³¹.

²⁷ Fa-lammā āwawu l-nabiyya (ş wa-ālihi wa-aṣḥābihi)...ramathumu l-'arab 'an qaws wāḥida fa-taḥālafat 'alayhimi l-yahūd wa-ghazathumu l-qabā'il qabīla ba'da qabīla. Fatajarradū li-nuṣrati dīni llāhi wa-qaṭa'ū mā baynahum wa-bayna l-'arab mina l-ḥabā'il wa-mā baynahum wa-bayna l-yahūd mina l-ḥilf; IBN ABI L-ḤADID, Sharḥ nahj al-balāgha, Cairo, 1329 A.H., I, 145, 1.4 from below. Cf. Sa'd b. Mu'ādh's advice to the Prophet before the Battle of Badr: ... fa-ḥulla [read probably: fa-ṣil, see below] ḥibāla man shi'ta wa-'qṭa' ḥibāla man shi'ta wa-sālim man shi'ta wa-'ādi man shi'ta wa-khudh min amwālinā mā shi'ta; IBN ABI SHAYBA, Ta'rīkh, MS Berlin 9409, fol. 30b-31a. Cf. AL-WÂQIDI, al-Maghāzī, ed. M. JONES, London, 1966, I, 48-49 (...wa-şil man shi'ta wa-'qṭa' man shi'ta). Cf. IBN HISHĂM, Sīra, II, 267; AL-ȚABARI, Ta'rikh al-rusul wa-l-mulūk, ed. M. ABU L-FADL IBRĂHIM, Cairo, 1380/1960-1387/1967, II, 435.

²⁸ 'Ahd replaces habl e.g. in AL-YA'QUBI, Ta'rīkh, Beirut, 1379/1960, I, 244 (after the death of Hāshim b. 'Abd Manāf, 'Abd Shams travelled to the Negus, fa-jaddada baynahu wa-baynahu l-'ahda). Cf KISTER, "Mecca and Tamīm", 117-18 (the terms 'ahd, amān, hilf, 'isām, isām and habl designate the charters of the rulers).

²⁹ Cf. e.g. AL-'ASKARI, Awa'il, ed. AL-WAKIL, 26-ed. AL-MISRI and QASSAB, 18: wa-liläf kitäb amän yu'amminuhum bi-ghayr hilf. Trade at 'Ukäz could be carried out without safe conducts because it took place in a sacred month. 'Uyayna b. Hisn says of 'Ukäz (the context is the second Fijär war; cf. E. LANDAU-TASSERON, "The Sinful Wars: religious, social and historical aspects of hurūb al-fijār", in JSAI 8 [1986], 37-59, at 39-41): "I see the people gathering without a safe conduct or pact" (bi-lä 'ahd wa-lā 'aqd); IBN QUTAYBA, al-Ma'ārif, ed. Th. 'UKASHA, Cairo, 1969, 603-604.

³⁰ AL-TABARI, Jâmi' al-bayân, IV, 120, 1.10 (commentary to Qur'ân 3, 173)

³¹ KISTER, "Mecca and Tamīm", 118 = AL-TABARI, Ta'rīkh, II, 252; above, n. 28. Further on the use of habl see AL-AZHARI, Tahdhīb al-lugha, ed. 'A. DARWISH, Cairo, 1384/1964-1387/1967, XV, 379a (from Ibn al-A'rābī): ashābu l-īlāf arba'atu ikhwa...fakānū yu'allifūna l-jiwāra yutbi'ūna ba'dahu ba'dan yujīrūna Qurayshan bi-miyarihim, wa-kānū yusammawna l-mujīrīna, fa-ammā Hāshim fa-innahu akhadha hablan min maliki l-Rūm...fa-kāna tujjār Quraysh yakhtalifūna ilā hādhihi l-amsār bi-hibāl hā'ulā'i l-ikhwa fa-lā yuta'arradu lahum. Cf. CRONE, Meccan Trade and the Rise of Islam, Princeton, 1987, 130 (Nawfal), 204-14 (īlāf).

Instead of *l-mujīrīna*, read perhaps: *l-mujīzīna*. It is often difficult to choose between *j.w.r.* and *j.w.z.*; in this context; cf. *tujawwizuhā* in the verse of al-A'shā below, n. 33. Cf. also the following passage, where one must read the verb as the second form of *j.w.z.*: *fa*-

According to Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām's interpretation of *habl*, one of its meanings is 'ahd, i.e., guarantee of security $(am\bar{a}n)^{32}$. The Arabs, he says, used to frighten $(yukh\bar{i}fu)$ each other in the Jāhiliyya. When someone wanted to travel, he took an 'ahd from the chief (sayyid) of a certain tribe which secured him as long as he was in the territory of that tribe, until he reached the tribe beyond and repeated the same procedure. Abū 'Ubayd quotes a verse from a panegyric by al-A'shā mentioning a journey during which the poet obtained (literally: "took") an amān when travelling from one tribe to the other³³.

The evidence showing that habl often meant safe conduct is important for this discussion; it seems that the $hib\bar{a}l$ mentioned by Abū l-Haytham were above all reciprocal arrangements of safe conduct agreed upon between the Anṣār and Quraysh. They secured the free access of the Anṣār to Mecca and beyond to the Yemen. (It should be born in mind that the Anṣār were "Southern" while Quraysh were "Northern"³⁴.) Needless to say, the relationship between Mecca and Medina before Islam (this Arabian "Tale of Two Cities") is still awaiting a thorough investigation.

Fortunately, some evidence relevant for our discussion of the nature of the $hib\bar{a}l$ in question is found in the story of the 'Aqaba meeting itself, as told in Ibn Hishām's biography of the Prophet. Sa'd b. 'Ubāda of the Anṣār used to guarantee the security of merchants working for two prominent Qurashīs while they traded in Medina. When, after the 'Aqaba meeting, Sa'd was captured by the Qurashīs, his two trade associates came to his rescue. It is reported that, having been captured, Sa'd was advised to mention any connections he had in Mecca: $a-m\bar{a}$ bay-

kharajū bi-tijāra 'azīma wa-kharaja Hāshim yujawwizuhum wa-yūfihim īlāfahumu lladhī akhadha lahum mina l-'arab, fa-lam yabrah yūfihim dhālika wa-yajma'u baynahum wabayna ashrāfi l-'arab hattā warada bihimi l-Shāma wa-ahallahum qurāhā; IBN HABIB, al-Munammaq fi akhbār Quraysh, ed. Kh.A. FARIQ, Beirut, 1405/1985, 43.

³² Abū Ubayd implies that the guarantee of security was in the form of a written document.

³³ ABU 'UBAYD al-Qāsim b. Sallām, Gharīb al-hadīth, Hyderabad, 1384/1964-1387/ 1967, IV, 102: wa-qāla l-A'shā yadhkuru masīran lahu wa-annahu kāna ya'khudhu lamāna min qabīla ilā qabīla ... [the poet refers to his she-camel]: wa-idhā tujawwizuhā hibālu qabīlatin akhadhat mina l-ukhrā ilayka hibālahā. See also Lisān al-'arab, s.v. h.b.l., 135a-b; AL-A'SHĀ Maymūn b. Qays, Dīwān al-A'shā al-kabīr, ed. M.M. HUSAYN, Cairo, 1950, 29, no. 18. On habl in ancient South Arabian see R.B. SERJEANT, "The sunnah jāmi'a ...", in BSOAS 41 (1978), 1-42, 7, n. 26; also A.F.L. BEESTON et al., Sabaic Dictionary, Louvain-la-Neuve and Beirut, 1982, s.v. "Alliance, Pact, Contract of Sale"; J.C. BIELLA, Dictionary of Old South Arabic: Sabaean Dialect, Chico, 1982, s.v. "Bond, Alliance, Sale Contract".

³⁴ For the role of genealogy in the pre-Islamic security arrangements see KISTER, "Mecca and Tamīm", 128f (the Mudar did not harass Mudarī merchants etc.).

naka wa-bayna aḥad min Quraysh jiwār wa-lā 'ahd? Sa'd did have such connections: la-qad kuntu ujīru li-Jubayr b. Muţ'im b. 'Adī ... tijārahu wa-amna'uhum mimman arāda zulmahum bi-bilādī; Sa'd used to provide the same services also to the merchants of al-Ḥārith b. Ḥarb b. Umayya. The two Qurashīs confirmed the existence of a jiwār (agreement) with Sa'd, and that he used to secure their merchants and protect them from injustice in his land³⁵. A comparison between the above text from Ibn Hishām and a text from Ibn Isḥāq as quoted by Ibn 'Asākir in his History of Damascus³⁶ produces two important variants. Instead of Jubayr b. Muţ'im, Ibn 'Asākir has: Muţ'im, and instead of tijār ("tradesmen"), he has rakā'ib, pl. of rikāb, "travelling-camels, used for riding", or "camels that go forth for corn (ta'ām) to be brought back upon them"³⁷.

Mut'im, not Jubayr b. Mut'im, is the correct reading: elsewhere we are told that Sa'd was rescued by Mut'im b. 'Adī who was his *şadīq* or friend³⁸. Further evidence on the identity of the rescuer is derived from a problematic verse by Hassān b. Thābit, included in a group of verses in Ibn Hishām accompanying the story of Sa'd's capture after the 'Aqaba meeting. The verse mentions one Abū Wahb whose identity caused the editor of Hassān's $D\bar{i}w\bar{a}n^{39}$ some difficulty. There were several claimants to the title of "Sa'd's rescuer". In addition to the above-mentioned Mut'im b. 'Adī and al-Hārith b. Harb b. Umayya, we also find, in the introduction to Hassān's poem, Umayya b. Khalaf and al-Hārith b. Hishām, and in the margin of one of the MSS of the $D\bar{i}w\bar{a}n$, Umayya b. Khalaf's son, Ṣafwān, is mentioned⁴⁰.

The key to the identity of Sa'd's rescuer, or one of his rescuers, is of course the identity of the Abū Wahb mentioned in Hassān's verse⁴¹. The editor of the $D\bar{i}w\bar{a}n$, Walid 'Arafat, comments (II, 169-70n) that he did not find in the *nasab* books evidence that any of those mentioned as Sa'd's rescuers had a son called Wahb. Yet Ṣafwān b. Umayya b. Khalaf is a serious candidate and the evidence is curiously from one of the sources utilized by 'Arafat, namely Nasab Quraysh by Mus'ab b. 'Abdallāh al-Zubayrī. This source does tell us that Ṣafwān b. Umayya's

³⁹ HASSAN B. THABIT, Diwan, ed. W. 'ARAFAT, London, 1971.

³⁵ IBN HISHAM, SIra, II, 92-93.

³⁶ Ta'rīkh madīnat Dimashq, Facsimile edition, 'Amman, n.d., VII, 115-16 (...Yūnus b. Bukayr, from Ibn Ishāq); cf. Tahdhīb ta'rīkh Ibn 'Asākir, ed. 'Abd al-Qādir Efendi BADRĀN, Damascus, 1399/1979, VI, 88, 1.6.

³⁷ See LANE, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v. rikāb.

³⁸ AL-BALADHURI, Ansāb al-ashrāf, I, 254, 1.3 from below. See also IBN SA'D, al-Ţabaqāt al-kubrā, I, 223, 1.4 from below (Muț'im and al-Hārith b. [Harb b.] Umayya).

⁴⁰ Diwān, I, 224; II, 169.

⁴¹ IBN HISHÄM, SIra, II, 94, 1.4; Diwán, I, 224, no. 5.

kunya was Abū Wahb⁴². So Ṣafwān could have been identical with the Abū Wahb mentioned by Hassān. As if to complicate things further, Muț'im's kunya was also Abū Wahb⁴³. Confronted by these two Abū Wahbs, Ṣafwān and Muț'im, the latter would be a better choice because of the *sīra* report, attached to Hassān's verses, about Muț'im's trade links with Sa'd and because of the remark quoted above that Muț'im was Sa'd's *şadīq.*⁴⁴

The evidence for the business links between Sa'd b. 'Ubāda and Mut'im b. 'Adī, associated above all with the story of the 'Aqaba meeting, demonstrates the *hibāl* mentioned by Abū l-Haytham, which were presumably reciprocal arrangements of safe conduct. In other words, the very story of the 'Aqaba meeting shows how such arrangements worked, or were supposed to have worked: protection in Medina in return for protection in Mecca.

The biography of the Prophet Muhammad should be studied in the context of Islamic society of the first Islamic century. In most cases one should not expect to find in it straightforward historical evidence but

⁴² Ed. E. LÉVI-PROVENÇAL, Cairo, 1953, 388. See also IBN HAJAR AL-'ASQALANI, al-Işāba fī tamyīz al-şahāba, ed. AL-BUAWI, Cairo, 1392/1972, III, 432. Cf. IBN QUDAMA, al-Tabyīn fī ansāb al-Qurashiyyīn, ed. M. Nāyif AL-DULAYMI, Beirut, 1408/1988, 452, 1.1 from below (Ṣafwān's kunya was Abū Umayya); and especially IBN 'ABD AL-BARR, al-Istī'āb fī ma'rifat al-aṣhāb, ed. AL-BUAWI, Cairo, n.d., II, 718 (who mentions both kunyas, Abū Wahb and Abū Umayya, adding: wa-humā kunyatāni lahu mashhūratāni).

⁴³ AL-BALADHURI, Ansah al-ashraf, MS Süleymanie Kütüphanesi (Reisülküttap Mustafa Efendi, 597/598), 808; AL-TABRISI, I'lam l-wara, 85.

⁴⁴ For a variant version of Hassän's verse, mentioning Abū Hassän instead of Abū Wahb, with reference to a member of the Sahm, see IBN 'Asäkir, Ta'rikh madinat Dimashq, Facsimile edition, VII, 116, 1.8 from below.

Mut'im is said, in the margin of one of the $D\bar{i}w\bar{a}n$'s MSS, to have sheltered Sa'd b. 'Ubāda on another occasion: "Sa'd entered Mecca performing an 'umra after the Battle of Badr". 'Arafat remarks that the sources available to him do not mention Sa'd's entrance to Mecca after the battle of Badr; HASSAN, $D\bar{i}w\bar{a}n$, II, 169, n. 1. However, one of them does mention Sa'd's arrival (while dating it before, not after, Badr). It is again Mus'ab al-Zubayrī, who says about Mut'im: wa-huwa lladhī atlaqa Sa'd b. 'Ubāda min aydī Quraysh ba'da mā ta'allaqū bihi, wa-kāna Sa'd qadima mu'tamiran. Mus'ab even preserves a verse of Hassān composed in gratitude for this event, which praises Mut'im's father, 'Adī; Nasab Quraysh, 200. The verse is quoted (without the story accompanying it) in the $D\bar{i}w\bar{a}n$, I, 522. The manuscript report about Mut'im sheltering Sa'd after Badr is problematic though: according to Muş'AB (loc.cit), Mut'im died before Badr. 'Arafat suggests that a contamination occurred between the stories of Sa'd b. 'Ubāda and another Sa'd of the Anṣār, Sa'd [b. al-Nu'mān] b. Akkāl, who was captured in Mecca after Badr upon performing the 'umra, see e.g. IBN HISHAM, Sīra, II, 305-306.

VI

study the *sīra* from some distance in order to see it in proper perspective.

The conflict between the Anṣār and Quraysh shaped many a chapter in the $s\bar{i}ra$, and the story of the 'Aqaba meeting is but one of them. The Anṣārī informants responsible for the story convey a clear picture of a clash between the Anṣār and Quraysh. Whether this picture is historical or not is another matter altogether.

Abū 1-Haytham's alleged utterance discussed here implies that the Anṣār took into consideration a possible break (or severance of hibal) with the Prophet's tribe Quraysh, but decided to take the risk. However, they were concerned about the possibility that, once victorious, the Prophet would abandon them and return to his tribe in Mecca. The Prophet assured them, using a common formula of solemn declaration, of his commitment to the alliance with them, totally repudiating his attachment to his own tribe. For some later historians or scribes this formulation was too blunt, and they replaced the allusion to Quraysh (qawmika) with a more obscure, hence a more benign, reference to "people" in general (al-qawm etc.).

The assumption that the alliance between the Anṣār and the Jews of Medina was mentioned by Abū l-Haytham at the 'Aqaba meeting is based on a faulty reading: the gloss ya'nī l-yahūd, as has been argued above, is a corruption of ya'nī l-'uhūd, preserved in transmissions of Abū l-Haytham's words outside Ibn Hishām's recension. This gloss relates to hibāl, not to qawm/aqwām/rijāl/nās.

One could argue that even if we adopt the reading ' $uh\bar{u}d$ as the original one, the text could still refer to the severance of the alliances with the Jews. But, again, one should distance oneself from the text: the question is not what was said at the 'Aqaba meeting about the alliances with the Jews, which were about to be severed by the Anṣār, but what is the *sīra* likely to tell us about such a matter. The traditional story (which, I believe, reflects historical fact) suggests that when the Prophet arrived at Medina, he sincerely hoped to convert its Jews to Islam.

APPENDIX

I.a. It is not at all impossible that the transition in written sources from 'uhūd "pacts" to yahūd "Jews" argued in this paper was facilitated by a greater acoustic similarity between the two words than the classical Arabic orthography reveals. The occurrence together of the two gutturals, pharyngal 'ayn and laryngal hā', in the root 'hd led in some old Arabic dialects to various shifts in the articulation of the first two radicals. Among these one could mention the reading of Quran 36,60 attributed to Tamim 'a-lam 'ahhud 'ilaykum "Did I not enjoin you?" = textus receptus 'a-lam 'a'had, quoted from Ibn Hālawaih's Sammlung nichtkanonischer Koranlesarten, ed. G. BERGSTRÄSSER (Cairo, 1934) 125 by C. RABIN, Ancient West Arabian (London, 1951) 85, 92 n. 10 (where read 'ahhud etc.) or la wa-hahdi llāhi "no, by the covenant of God" quoted by H. KOFLER, WZKM 47 (1940) 110 from A. HAFFNER, Texte zur arabischen Lexikographie (Leipzig, 1905) 24. In certain Aramaic dialects the corresponding root belongs to the verba mediae infirmae and appears as 'wd, for which see R. DUVAL, Traité de grammaire syriaque (Paris, 1881) 37 n. 1; K. VOL-LERS, Volkssprache und Schriftsprache im alten Arabien (Strassburg, 1906) 97; the literature adduced by F. BUHL, Wilhelm Gesenius' hebräisches und aramäisches Handwörterbuch (¹⁷ Leipzig, 1915) 568b; F. SCHULTHESS, Grammatik des christlich-palästinischen Aramäisch (Tübingen, 1924) §20.2; C. BROCKELMANN, Lexicon Syriacum (Halle, 1928) 513b. Note also the Negev Bedouin idiom $a'\bar{a}d$ + pronominal suffix = clasical 'ahdī bihī etc. discussed by F. STEWART, Studia Linguistica et Orientalia Memoriae Haim Blanc Dedicata, ed. P. WEXLER, A. BORG, S. SOMEKH (Wiesbaden, 1989) 277-8, in which likewise 'wd seems to correspond to 'hd; see H. BLANC, The Arabic Dialect of the Negev Bedouins (Jerusalem, 1970 = Proceedings of the Israel Academy of Sciences and Humanities IV/7) 37 (148). The root 'hd was regarded as a "Nebenform" of 'wd by H.L. FLEI-SCHER, Kleinere Schriften, II (Leipzig, 1888) 649, for which see also J.A. THOMPSON, JSS 10 (1965) 234/5.

b. Closer to the question of 'uhūd-yahūd is the pronunciation of 'hd with 'alif instead of 'ayn as attested in various layers of Arabic. A fairly old example 'acts'' is recorded in S. HOPKINS, Studies in the Grammar of early Arabic (Oxford, 1984) §28 and such forms are well attested in modern dialects, e.g. Baghdad and Aleppo as noted by H. BLANC, Communal Dialects in Baghdad (Cambridge, Mass., 1964) 147. It may be taken as certain that this pronunciation of 'hd as 'hd was much more widespread than the conservative orthography of classical Arabic discloses. Such is the situation with regard to this very root in western Syriac, for whereas the orthography usually retains the ' \tilde{e} , Barhebraeus tells us that the pronunciation is in fact with *ālaph*, see Th. NOLDEKE, Kurzgefasste syrische Grammatik (² Leipzig, 1898) §37; A. MOBERG, Buch der Strahlen. Die grössere Grammatik des Barhebräus, Einleitung und zweiter Teil (Leipzig, 1907) 29, 96. A pronunciation 'uhūd < 'uhūd on a rather wide scale may hence be considered not at all unlikely.

II.a. The background of the Arabic terms for "Jew(s)", viz., yahūdiyy "Jew(ish)", yahūd (with initial ya-) and hūd (pl. tantum from a root hwd) "Jews" is not fully clear. For general information see A. JEFFERY. The Foreign Vocabulary of the Qur'an (Baroda, 1938) 293/4. J. HOROVITZ, Koranische Untersuchungen (Berlin-Leipzig, 1926) 154 well recognized that there is no direct route connecting the Arabic forms with their presumed Hebrew and Aramaic etymons, Hebrew yahudi, Jewish Aramaic yahudāyā etc. Horovitz regarded Arabic yahūd as a backformation from the loaned nisba $y(a)h\bar{u}diyy$ remodelled after yaf ul, a nominal pattern often used for proper names, for which examples may be found in J. BARTH, Die Nominalbildung in den semitischen Sprachen (² Leipzig, 1894) 227; concerning hud he noted that this plural presupposes an unused singular *'ahwad. Whatever the precise history of Arabic yahud, it seems fairly clear that the word contains a non-original, probably restituted *a*-vowel which arose within Arabic itself. It is very unlikely that this *a*-vowel was present in the Hebrew/Aramaic etymon. In Syriac the normal form (beside yudāyā without h, for which see NOLDEKE, Syr. Gr. §38 end) is (')ihudāyā according to the shift in that language (and in Mandaic, see below) of initial $*y_{2}>i$, often written with alaph as 'i (NÖLDEKE §40C; DUVAL, Traité §106.Ia). As for other Aramaic dialects, the same phonological feature is known, but is there sporadic rather than regular as in Syriac and Mandaic; see the examples and literature in S.E. FASSBERG, A Grammar of the Palestinian Targum Fragments from the Cairo Genizah (Atlanta, 1991) 69 §19f, 98/9.

b. This shift *ya> (')*i* is also regular in Mandaic, Th. NOLDEKE, Mandäische Grammatik (Halle, 1875) §55, but it so happens that the word for "Jews" in Mandaic is y'hwt'yy' = iahuțaiia with an a-vowel in the first syllable. However, one will not be tempted to find here the source of the same vowel in the Arabic yahūd. iahuțaiia is not an inherited Aramaic form but a malicious polemical modification playing on associations with y'ht' "abortion, miscarriage" and \sqrt{ht} "sin", as noted by NOLDEKE, Mand. Gr. 43 n. 2 and R. MACUCH, Handbook of Classical and Modern Mandaic (Berlin, 1965) 429 n. 71, e.g. iahuțaiia iahția unipșia "Iudaei, abortus et excrementa" NOLDEKE, 320 = M. LIDZ-BARSKI, Ginzā. Der Schatz, oder das grosse Buch der Mandäer (Göttingen-Leipzig, 1925) 232 "die Juden, die Abortūs und Abgänge"; mitiqrin iahuțaiia d-hțun MACUCH, *ibid.* = LIDZBARSKI, Ginzā 43 "Sie werden Juden genannt, weil sie gesündigt haben" with n. 2 and a similar passage 225, 20.

c. It seems that beside the classical Arabic $yah\bar{u}d$ with initial ya- there were current in Arabia and the southern Semitic world Aramaic-like forms of the type *'ih $\bar{u}d$ "Jews" opening with alif + i as in Syriac 'ihu $d\bar{a}y\bar{a}$: 'yhd "Jews" apparently appears in ESA and 'ayhud (pl. tantum remodelled on the pattern 'af'ul) is frequent in Ge'ez. This situation is reflected in modern dialects. For example, in the Syrian dialect area reflexes of classical Arabic yah $\bar{u}d$ are ubiquitous, occasionally even occurring with a lengthened first syllable: $y\bar{a}h\bar{u}d$, H. GROTZFELD, Laut-

und Formenlehre des Damaszenisch-Arabischen (Wiesbaden, 1964) §107c; A. BLOCH & H. GROTZFELD, Damaszenisch-arabische Texte (Wiesbaden, 1964) 78,9. Beside these ya- forms we also find continuations of *'ihūd with initial 'i-: Aleppo īhūd "Juifs", līhūd "les Juifs" in A. BARTHÉLEMY, Dictionnaire Arabe-Français. Dialectes de Syrie: Alep, Damas, Liban, Jérusalem (Paris, 1935-1969) 918 [but yähūdi "Geizkragen", O. JASTROW & S. KAZZARAH, ZAL 5 (1980) 98 n. 10]; Damascus īhūdi msāfer, the name of a certain dish, J. MALINJOUD, JA 204 (1924) 287 ult. [but yāhūd 285, 6].

Within Arabic, then, the word for "Jews" has from early times existed as a doublet: some forms, historically the earlier ones, reflect quite closely their Hebrew/Aramaic origin and begin with 'i-, while others have been repatterned within Arabic and open with ya-. This is a relationship similar to that which obtains between literary yad "hand" and vernacular *id*, for which, in order to account for the attested forms, a Proto-Semitic doublet was posited by BARTHÉLEMY, Dictionnaire 21; cf. on this subject Th. NOLDEKE, Neue Beiträge zur semitischen Sprachwissenschaft (Strasburg, 1910) 116.

III. If we suppose a pronunciation ' $uh\bar{u}d$ (for ' $uh\bar{u}d$) "pacts" on the one hand, and a pronunciation ' $ih\bar{u}d$ (for $yah\bar{u}d$) "Jews" on the other, then it becomes plausible to imagine, especially in the light of the notorious instability of u and i and the possible alternation ' $uh\bar{u}d$ -' $ih\bar{u}d$, that the textual change of ' $uh\bar{u}d$ to $yah\bar{u}d$ might have been helped by the phonetic circumstances, viz. a similarity (or even identity) in the pronunciation of the two words which remains hidden behind the standard orthography. If so, the case of ' $uh\bar{u}d > yah\bar{u}d$ discussed in this paper may have further implications regarding the manner of transmission of early Arabic texts.

WĀQIDI'S ACCOUNT ON THE STATUS OF THE JEWS OF MEDINA: A STUDY OF A COMBINED REPORT*

I. WAQIDI'S GARBLED TEXT

In studying the biography of the Prophet Muhammad, the *sira*, we sometimes come across evidence of outstanding importance. One such piece of evidence is a passage from Wāqidī's introduction to the story of the assassination of the Jewish leader Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf.¹ The passage deals with the divisions in the population of Medina at the time of the Hijra. I submit that the passage, in its present form in Wāqidī's book, is corrupt: in fact, rather than stating that the Jewish clans of Medina were the clients of the Arab clans, as has hitherto been supposed, this passage states that they were the strongest element in the population of Medina.

J. Wellhausen considered the passage a reflection of the political situation in pre-Islamic Medina: Wāqidī rightly describes, he says, the population of pre-Islamic Medina as comprising two groups: the ruling group, i.e., the Anṣār, and the clients, i.e., the Jews and the Jewish proselytes.²

The passage in question follows here:

Translation

Ibn al-Ashraf was a poet. He would satirize the Prophet and his Companions, and in his poetry instigate against them the infidels of Quraysh. When the Messenger of God came to Medina, its population was a mixture (akhlāt); among them there were Muslims who were united by the call (da^cwa) of Islam, including the people (viz., the owners) of weapons $(halqa)^3$ and fortresses (husūn). And among them there were allies of the two clans $(hulafa^5 li-l-hayyayni jami^can)$, the Aws and the

• The first section of the present study is based on my doctoral thesis entitled "On the Prophet Muhammad's Activity in Medina" (Ph.D. diss., Hebrew University, 1982) (in Hebrew). Cf. M. Sharon, Revolt: The Social and Military Aspects of the 'Abbasid Revolution (Jerusalem, 1990), p. 164, n. 53. I wish to thank Michael Cook for his comments on this section when it was still part of my monograph on the 'Aliya of Medina (Muslims, Jews and Pagans: Studies on Early Islamic Medina [Leiden, 1995]. I also wish to express my gratitude to Simon Hopkins for a thor-

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¹ The sayyid of the Banû al-Nadîr; 'Alî b. Burhān al-Dîn al-Halabi, Insān al-^cuyûn fi sirat al-amin alma²mûn (al-Sira al-Halabiyya) (Cairo, A.H. 1320), vol. 2, p. 108, l. 25; M. J. Kister, "The Market of the Prophet," Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient 8 (1965): 276, n. 4. ² J. Wellhausen, Skizzen und Vorarbeiten, vol. 4

² J. Wellhausen, Skizzen und Vorarbeiten, vol. 4 (Berlin, 1889), pp. 73-74, 75: "Richtig unterscheidet Vaqidi in dem vorislamischen Medina eine herrschende Bevölkerung, die Ançâr, und Beisassen, die aus jüdischen und judaisirten Sippen bestehen."

³ Halqa means coats of mail or weapons in general; E. W. Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v. 16

Khazraj. The Messenger of God wanted, when he came to Medina, to conclude a treaty with all of them and to make a truce with them. And it would happen that a man was a Muslim and his father an idol worshiper. The idol worshipers and the Jews among the people of Medina would harass the Messenger of God and his Companions a great deal, but God enjoined his Prophet and the Muslims to bear this patiently and to forgive them.⁴

The text is somewhat vague concerning the identity of the groups who made up the population of Medina which it describes as "a mixture" (akhlāt). It is clear that something is missing from what follows later on: the Jews and the idol worshipers, who are not mentioned earlier, appear toward the end of the passage (fa-kāna l-mushrikūna wa-l-yahūd, etc.).⁵

Wāqidī created the account of the assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf by combining reports from three earlier sources. He does not conceal the technique by which this combined report was created (see more below) but provides the names of his informants and their sources at the beginning of the story (Text I, 1. 2).⁶ He then says: fa-kullun qad haddathanī bi-tā²ifa, fa-kāna lladhī jtama^cū lanā ^calayhi, qālū, "each of them transmitted to me part (of the story), and this is what they agreed upon (in what they transmitted) to us."⁷

The sources Wāqidī used are:

1. ^cAbd al-Hamid b. Ja^c far al-Awsi (d. 153/770) < Yazid b. Rūmān (d. 130/747).⁸

2. Ma^cmar (b. Rāshid, d. 154/770) < Zuhrī (d. 124/742) < Ibn Ka^cb b. Mālik, viz., ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik (d. 97/716 or 98/717);⁹ and

⁴ Wāqidi, vol. 1, p. 184 (see Text I, pp. 29-30 below):

Inna bna I-Ashraf kāna shā^ciran wa-kāna yahjū I-nabiyya ş wa-aşḥābahu wa-yuḥarriḍu ^calayhim kuffāra Quraysh fi shi^crihi. Wa-kāna rasūla llāhi ş qadima I-Madina wa-ahluhā akhlāţ,

minhumu l-muslimüna lladhina tajma'uhum da'watu l-islām fihim ahlu l-ḥalqa wa-l-ḥuşūn, wa-minhum ḥulafā' li-lḥayyayni jami'an al-Aws wa-l-Khazraj.

Fa-arāda rasūlu Ilāhi ş hīna qadima I-Madina stişlāhahum kullihim wa-muwāda^catahum. Wa-kāna I-rajulu yakūnu musliman wa-abūhu mushrik. Fa-kāna I-mushrikūna wa-I-yahūd min ahli I-Madina yu²dhūna rasūla Ilāhi ş wa-ashābahu adhan shadīdan, fa-amara Ilāhu ^cazza wa-jalla nabiyyahu wa-lmuslimīna bi-1-şabri ^calā dhālika wa-I-^cafwi ^canhum... Falammā abā bnu I-Ashraf an yanzi^ca ^can adhā I-nabiyyi ş wa-adhā I-muslimīna wa-qad balagha minhum [at this point, Wāqidi switches from one source to another; see p. 25].

Fa-lammä qadima Zayd b. Häritha bi-l-bishāra min Badr biqatli l-mushrikina wa-asri man usira minhum fa-ra²ä l-asrä mugarranina kubita wa-dhalla etc. ⁵ Cf. the use of *akhläj* in Ahmad Zayni Dahlän, *al*-

⁵ Cf. the use of akhlä; in Ahmad Zayni Dahlän, al-Sira l-nabawiyya wa-l-âthâr al-muhammadiyya (Cairo, A.H. 1310), vol. 1, p. 184, l. 23: they include Muslims, idol worshipers, and Jews (fa-idhā fi l-majlis akhlā; mina l-muslimina wa-l-mushrikina ^cabadati l-awthān wa-l-yahūd).

⁶ Wāqidī, vol. 1, p. 184.

⁷ For qalū, which refers to the original collective isnad, see J. M. B. Jones, "The Maghazi Literature," in A. F. L. Beeston et al., eds., The Cambridge History of Arabic Literature: Arabic Literature to the End of the Umayyad Period (Cambridge, 1983), p. 348 (hereafter CHALUP). For a less felicitous interpretation of Wāqidi's qāl@, see Jones, "Ibn Isḥāq and al-Wāqidī: The Dream of ^cAtika and the Raid to Nakhla in Relation to the Charge of Plagiarism," BSOAS 22 (1959): 50 (by it Wāqidī "is referring to the majority opinion amongst his original sources").

⁸ CAbd al-Hamid: Tahdhib, vol. 6, pp. 111-12; Abū CAbdallāh Muhammad b. CUthmān al-Dhahabī, al-Kāshif fi ma^crifat man lahu riwāya fi l-kutub al-sitta (Cairo, 1392/1972), vol. 2, p. 149. Yazīd: F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, vol. 1 (Leiden, 1967), p. 284 (hereafter GAS).

Ma^cmar: GAS, vol. 1, pp. 290 f. Zuhri: GAS, vol. 1, pp. 280 f. 'Abdalläh: Mizzi, vol. 15, pp. 473 f.; Tahdhib, vol. 6, p. 369 (it is explicitly mentioned that he was a teacher of Zuhri; the same is said about his son 'Abd al-Rahmān; see n. 18 below). According to another version of Zuhri's report, however, quoted from Zuhri on the authority of Shu^cayb b. Abi Hamza, Zuhri transmitted this report from 'Abd al-Rahmān b. ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik < his father ^cAbdalläh; see pp. 17-18 below. The nearer Zuhri draws to the generation of the Prophet's Companions, the more prestigious and respectable his isnad, which is a good reason to prefer the "less prestigious" 'Abd al-Rahman b. 'Abdallah version, in which two transmitters, not just one, separate Zuhri from the Companion Kacb b. Mālik. All this brings to mind the accusation of tadlis, "the concealment (of a fault)," leveled at Zuhri, which, in this case, means the false ascription of a hadith to an earlier authority while concealing the intermediary.

3. Ibrāhīm b. Ja^cfar (b. Maḥmūd b. ^cAbdallāh b. Muḥammad b. Maslama al-Ḥārithī) < his father (Ja^cfar b. Maḥmūd) < Jābir b. ^cAbdallāh (d. 78/697).¹⁰

As is always the case in combined reports, Wāqidī does not provide us with the source for each individual part of the story. Fortunately, the text of the specific passage quoted above, which is crucial in connection with the status of the Jews, is preserved elsewhere in a different form.

The Kitāb al-aghānī by Abū l-Faraj al-Işfahānī may not be where one would normally expect to find parallels for Wāqidī's Kitāb al-maghāzī. Yet Abū l-Faraj adduces many extracts from earlier sources,¹¹ and we find in his book a passage which is almost identical to the one quoted above.¹²

Although there are a few differences, this is clearly the same report. But the Aghānī report is more complete concerning the components of the "mixture" of which the population of Medina was made. There were not only two categories of inhabitants, as Wellhausen assumed, following Wāqidī's text; rather, there were three: Muslims, Jews, and idol worshipers. Furthermore, at that time, the Jews were *the* owners of weapons and fortresses in Medina. In other words, rather than reporting that the Jews were subordinated by the Arab population of Medina, this passage, in fact, says that the Jews were the strongest element in the population of Medina. Hence $hulafā^3$, in this context, are not "clients" but "allies."

The source of the Aghāni report is unknown. Although al-Işfahānī died in 356/967, a century and a half after Wāqidī, who died in 207/823, the latter's Kitāb al-maghāzī could not have been the source of the more complete text found in the Aghānī. Both texts are based on a report going back to one of the three sources listed by Wāqidī. The identity of this source can be established with the help of a third source, the Dalā²il al-nubuwwa of Abū Bakr Aḥmad b. al-Ḥusayn al-Bayhaqī (d. 458/1066), who records one of the reports which Wāqidī used for his combined report about the assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf (see Text II, pp. 30-32 below).

We should be grateful to Bayhaqī for two things. Firstly, unlike Abū l-Faraj al-Isfahānī, Bayhaqī provides a chain of transmitters, so we know exactly where his report comes from. Secondly, unlike Wāqidī, Bayhaqī does not create a combined report but provides an atomistic report. Bayhaqī's chain of transmitters goes back to [...] Shu^cayb [b. Abī Hamza] < Zuhrī < ^cAbd al-Raḥmān b. ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik; another chain attached to the same report goes back to the father of ^cAbd al-Raḥmān b. ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik

¹⁰ Ibrāhim: Ibn Abi Hātim, al-Jarh wa-l-ta^cdil (Hyderabad, 1371/1952-1373/1953), vol. 2, p. 91. Ja^cfar: see Mizzi, vol. 5, pp. 107 f. (a variant genealogy omits ^cAbdallāh; it is noteworthy that he lived in Khaybar and used to transmit the reports on the expedition of Khaybar, kāna yaskunu Khaybar, kāna yarwi ghazwata Khaybar). Jābir: Dhahabi, Tadhkira, vol. 1, pp. 43-44; Mizzi, vol. 4, pp. 443 f.

¹¹ Cf. GAS, vol. 1, pp. 378 f.

12 Aghāni, vol. 19, p. 106:

Kāna Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf yahjū l-nabiyya ş wa-yuḥarridu ^calayhi kuffāra Quraysh fi shi^crihi. Wa-kāna l-nabiyyu ş qadima l-Madina wa-hiya akhlāţ.

minhumu l-muslimüne lledhine tajme^cuhum de^cwetu l-nebiyyi ş. we-minhumu l-mushriküne lledhine ye^cbudüne l-ewthän, wa-minhumu l-yahūd, wa-hum ahlu l-ḥalqa wa-l-ḥuṣūn wahum ḥulafā⁵u l-ḥayyayni l-Aws wa-l-Khazraj.

Fa-arāda 1-nabiyyu ^calayhi 1-şalātu wa-1-salām idh qadima stişlāhahum kullihim, wa-kāna 1-rajulu yakūnu musliman waabūhu mushrik wa-yakūnu musliman wa-akhūhu mushrik. Wa-kāna 1-mushrikūna wa-1-yahūd ḥīna qadima 1-nabiyyu ş yu'dhūnahu wa-aşhābahu 1-adhā. Fa-amara llāhu nabiyya şu wa-1-muslimīna bi-1-şabri ^calā dhālika wa-1-^cafwi ^canhum. Wa-anzala fi sha²nihim: "la-tasma^cunna mina Iladhīna ūtū I-kidāba min qablikum," al-āya. Wa-anzala fihim: "wadda kathīrun min ahli 1-kidā law yaruddūnakum ba^cda Imānikum," ilā qawlihi: "wa-²şfaḥū," fa-lammā abā Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf an yanzi^{ca c}an adhā 1-nabiyyi ş wa-aşhābihi, amara 1-nabiyyu ş Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh, etc.

VП

18

(viz., ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik).¹³ Bayhaqī's *isnād* makes us realize that the opening section of Wāqidī's combined report comes from the second chain of transmitters (see above), namely, Ma^cmar < Zuhrī < Ibn Ka^cb b. Mālik (viz., ^cAbd al-Raḥmān b. ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik).¹⁴ Whereas Wāqidī received this report from Zuhrī through Ma^cmar b. Rāshid, Bayhaqī, as we learn from this *isnād*, received it from Zuhrī through Shu^cayb (viz., Shu^cayb b. Abī Ḥamza).¹⁵

Significantly, with regard to the Jews of Medina, the expression ahl al-halqa wa-l-huşūn is repeated in another report which 'Abd al-Razzāq cites from Ma^cmar b. Rāshid < Zuhrī < 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Ka^cb b. Mālik [sic].¹⁶ According to this report, after the Battle of Badr the Meccan infidels demanded that the Jews of Medina fight the Prophet. They addressed them as ahl al-halqa wa-l-huşūn. The name of Zuhrī's informant in this report, 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān (and not the reverse, as in our report, i.e., 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Abdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik) is attested in other sources which cite it.¹⁷ The correct name, however, was probably 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Abdallāh (in this order). We infer this from what we know about this family: Ka^cb b. Mālik had a son called 'Abdallāh who had a son called 'Abd al-Raḥmān. Ka^cb b. Mālik had also a son called 'Abd al-Raḥmān who had two sons, but neither of these sons was called 'Abdallāh.¹⁸ Thus the occurrence of the expression ahl al-halqa wa-l-huşūn in two separate reports (though probably coming ultimately from the same source) is indeed remarkable.

We may conclude that Wāqidī's combined report, which misled Wellhausen (and many later scholars), includes a corrupt version of the original report. It appears that Wāqidī is to blame (although the possibility of a scribal error cannot be ruled out). While he was combining the reports which he had received from his three informants about the assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf into one coherent story, Wāqidī probably unintentionally changed the statement concerning the status of the Jews.

We may thus conclude that it was mainly the Jews who were the principal owners of fortresses and weapons in Medina; they were the allies (not the clients) of the Aws and the Khazraj.¹⁹ "The Jews" in our text refer mainly to the two tribes Nadīr and Qurayza.

II. COMBINED REPORTS IN ORIENTALIST RESEARCH

The combined report (hereafter called CR) is the result of a very early and widespread technique, and an understanding of its workings is of paramount importance in the study

¹³ Bayhaqī, vol. 3, pp. 196 f. (see Text II, pp. 30-31 below):

minhumu l-muslimüna lladhina tajma^cuhum da^cwatu rasüli llähi ş, wa-minhumu l-mushriküna lladhina ya^cbudüna l-awthän, wa-minhumu l-yahüd, wa-hum ahlu l-ḥalqa wal-ḥuşün, wa-hum ḥulafā⁵ li-l-ḥayyayni l-Aws wa-l-Khazraj.

Fa-arāda rasūlu liāhi ş ķīna qadima 1-Madīna stişlāķahum kullihim. Wa-kāna 1-rajul yakūnu musliman wa-abūhu mushrik wa-1-rajul yakūnu musliman wa-akhūhu mushrik, etc.

¹⁴ The words *can abihi* should be added; see Abū Dāwūd, vol. 2, p. 138. In other words, the story reportedly originated with *cAbd al-Raḥmān's father cAbdallāh b. Kacb b. Mālik. See n. 9 above.* ¹⁵ On his transmission from Zuhri, see my forthcoming article "Biographical Notes on Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhri," in *Journal of Semitic Studies*.

¹⁶ See ^cAbd al-Razzāq, vol. 5, pp. 358 f.

¹⁷ See, for example, Ibn Hajar al-^cAsqalāni, *Fath* al-bāri sharh sahih al-Bukhāri (Būlāq, A.H. 1301), vol. 7, p. 255, l. 4.

¹⁸ Ibn Hazm al-Andalusi, Jamharat ansāb al-^carab, ed. ^cAbd al-Salām Hārūn (Cairo, 1382/1962), p. 360. See an entry on ^cAbd al-Raḥmān b. ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik in *Tahdhīb*, vol. 6, pp. 214 f. (it is explicitly mentioned here that ^cAbd al-Raḥmān b. ^cAbdallāh, who died during the caliphate of Hishām b. ^cAbd.al-Malik, was one of Zuhrī's teachers; cf. n. 9 above).

¹⁹ Cf. the contempt for the Jews' military prowess shown by a warrior of Hanifa, who said to an Anşāri: "Do you consider us similar to the Hijāz Jews whom

Akhbarani...anna Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf al-yahūdi kāna shā^ciran wa-kāna yahjū rasūla llāhi ş wa-yuḥarriḍu ^calayhi kuffāra Quraysh fi shi^crihi. Wa-kāna rasūlu llāyhi ş. qadima l-Madīna wa-ahluhā akhlāțan(!),

of early Islamic historiography. It was I. Goldziher who first noticed Zuhri's method of combining many reports into one account molded according to his personal taste ("nach seinem persönlichen Geschmacke"). As an example, he cited the *hadith al-ifk*, which Zuhri created from the reports of four earlier authorities.²⁰

Plausibly and, as we shall see, correctly, Goldziher assumed that in the process of combining disparate reports into one narrative, the composer of the CR takes into consideration his own inclinations. Significantly, Goldziher did not use the term "Sammelisnād," "collective *isnād*," an expression later used by other scholars implying that the original reports were more or less in agreement.²¹ In fact, in the secondary literature we find two different conceptions of the nature of the CR and, in particular, of the role played by its composer.

H. A. R. Gibb observed that Zuhri "is credited with having been the first to combine traditions from several sources into a single narrative (e.g., the *hadith al-ifk*), which marks an advance in historical presentation, though one open to abuse by less scrupulous

isnad in Bukhari are fragments of the hadith al-ifk and the same is true for Ahmad; Goldziher, "Neue Materialien," p. 474. See also J. Horovitz, "Zur Muhammadlegende," Der Islam 5 (1914): 43-44: "Berichte, die im wesentlichen übereinstimmten, aber auf verschiedene Gewährsmänner zurückgingen, wurden von ihm unter Voranstellung eines Isnāds, in dem sämtliche Gewährsmänner genannt wurden, zu einem Bericht vereinigt und dann Abweichungen der einzelnen Gewährsmänner in deren Namen jedesmal besonders nachgetragen." Most recently, see also S. Humphreys, Islamic History: A Framework for Inquiry, 2d ed. (Princeton, 1991), p. 73: "In principle, it was thought proper for a compiler to abridge or paraphrase the akhbar found in his sources, and he might even blend a number of them together into a single account so long as he did no violence to their substance (italics mine). (In the scholarly literature, this latter procedure is often called a 'collective tradition')." G. Widengren defines the CR accurately ("Oral Tradition," p. 241), observing that "traditions from the outset entirely independent of each other, nay even in apparent contradiction, and thus to be classified as parallel versions of one episode, are combined into one narrative by being arranged in a chronological order." See also pp. 259 f.: "there existed different traditions about the call of Muhammad and ... ultimately there was created by the authors of the strah a harmonized version by means of an altogether artificial chronological arrangement. We should like to emphasize that principle of composition: the artificial chronological arrangement." J. M. B. Jones mentions Mūsā b. 'Uqba's use of "collective isnād," for which the following example is given: "Ibn Shihāb < ^cAbd al-Rahmān b. Ka^cb b. Mālik of [!] al-Sulamī and other traditionists"; "The Maghāzi Literature," CHALUP, p. 347 = A. Guillaume, The Life of Muhammad (Oxford, 1955), p. xliv. Instead of al-Sulami, read al-Salamī ('Abd al-Raḥmān b. Ka'b b. Mālik was of the Banū Salima, a subdivision of the Khazraj; Sam^cānī, s.v. al-Salami). In addition, Mūsā b. ^cUgba was merely quoting a collective isnād of Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī.

you met (in the battlefield)?" (a-taḥsibu annā ka-man lāqaytum min yuhdāni l-Ḥijāz); Muwaffaq al-Dīn Ibn Qudāma al-Maqdisī, al-Istibṣār fl nasab al-ṣaḥāba min al-anṣār, ed. ^cAlī Nuwayhid (Beirut, 1392/1972), p. 221 (printed erroneously buhdān). For the plural yuhdān, which is pejorative, see Ḥassān b. Thābit, Dīwān, ed. W. ^cArafat (London, 1971), vol. 1, p. 192.

²⁰ Goldziher ("Neue Materialien zur Literatur des Uberlieferungswesens bei den Muhammedanern," *ZDMG* 50 [1896]: 474; reprinted in his *Gesammelte Schriften*, ed. J. Desomogyi [Hildesheim, 1967-73], vol. 4, p. 78) quotes from Ahmad b. Hanbal (vol. 6, p. 194) Zuhri's own description of his method:

Wa-kulluhum haddathani bi-tā⁵ifa min hadithihā waba^cduhum kāna aw^cā li-hadithihā min ba^cd wa-athbata qtişāşan wa-qad wa^caytu ^can kulli wāḥid minhumu l-ḥadītha lladhi ḥaddathanī, wa-ba^cdu ḥadīthihim yuşaddigu ba^cdan.

See also F. Buhl, Das Leben Muhammeds, 2d ed., trans. H. Schaeder (Heidelberg, 1955), pp. 372-73 (quoting Goldziher); J. Horovitz, "Alter und Ursprung des Isnåd," Der Islam 8 (1918): 43. Cf. on hadith alifk, G. Widengren, "Oral Tradition and Written Literature among the Hebrews in the Light of Arabic Evidence with Special Regard to Prose Narratives," Acta Orientalia 23 (1954): 256 f. Note that "combined story" in E. Landau-Tasseron, "Process of Redaction: The Case of the Tamimite Delegation to the Prophet Muhammad," BSOAS 49 (1986): 256, 261, 262 (where she speaks of "the fusion of the various accounts into one, resulting in combined stories"), is not the same as "combined report" in the strict technical sense in which it is used in the present study.

²¹ Horovitz, for example, speaks of "Sammelisnāde, in welchen die Namen all der verschiedenen Gawährsmänner, die einen Bericht im wesentlichen übereinstimmend überliefern, zusammengestellt werden, und denen dann der vereinheitlichte Bericht folgt." He mentions that they are not a pecularity of Ibn Ishāq, as Caetani believed, and can be found in Bukhāri and Ahmad as well (idem, "Alter und Ursprung des Isnād." pp. 41 f.). All but two of the cases of combined

traditionists."²² The introduction of "collective *isnād*" by Zuhrī is also mentioned by A. A. Duri, who considers this "an important step towards continuous historical writing."⁶³ According to Duri, Zuhrī "did make an important contribution when he adopted the collective *isnād*, collecting numerous accounts into a smooth, uninterrupted story preceded by a list of the authorities from whom the original accounts were taken. In this way, he took an important step towards continuous historical narrative."²⁴

As we shall see (section V below), the term CR is more accurate than combined/ collective $isn\bar{a}d$ (or "Sammelisnäd") because it suggests manipulation through redaction. The latter term may apply where the compiler found two (or more) earlier sources providing the same report or slightly different variations of the same report. Obviously, the question of how a CR is composed is not merely a textual or philological one; to the extent that research in the history of Islam is based on CRs, it also belongs in the sphere of historical inquiry.

III. Ahmad b. Hanbal and Wāqidi

Wāqidī was born in A.H. 129 or $130,^{23}$ i.e., five or six years after the death of Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī. He did not invent the technique of CR which, as just mentioned, was introduced by Zuhrī. Wāqidī was severely criticized for using this technique, which was considered an unsatisfactory method of *hadīth* transmission by other *muhaddithūn*, among them Ahmad b. Hanbal (d. 241/855). According to them, the ideal transmission was the word-for-word repetition of received knowledge. The clash between these two schools of thought can best be seen in Ahmad b. Hanbal's critical statements on Wāqidī's reliability as a *hadīth* transmitter.

Ibn Hanbal opposed the practice of CR and expressed his objection in connection with Wāqidī. We learn about this in the context of the defense of Wāqidī's practices by Abū Ishāq Ibrāhīm b. Ishāq al-Harbī (d. 285/898).²⁶ Al-Harbī claimed that the only thing in connection with Wāqidī to which Ibn Hanbal had objected was his lumping together of *isnād* and the creation of one harmonized text, which *suppressed the differences among his informants*. One variant of Ibn Hanbal's words, as cited by al-Harbī, suggests that Ibn Hanbal objected to other things as well (*mimmā ankarahu ^calayhi jam^cuhu l-asānīda wamajī²uhu bi-l-matni wāḥidan*), but another variant (as cited by al-Ḥarbī) suggests that the use of CR by Wāqidī was Ibn Ḥanbal's only criticism. In the latter variant, Ibn Ḥanbal

²² "Tarikh," in S. J. Shaw and W. R. Polk, eds., Studies on the Civilization of Islam (Boston, 1962), pp. 111 f. (originally published in *El*, 1st ed., Supplement [Leiden, 1938], p. 235).

²³ A. A. Duri, *The Rise of Historical Writing among the Arabs*, ed. and trans. by L. I. Conrad (Princeton, 1983), p. 29. See also Duri, "Al-Zuhri," *BSOAS* 19 (1957): 8.

²⁴ Idem, Rise, p. 111. Duri has the same praise for Ibn Ishāq: "In using the *isnād*, he was not as rigorous as the scholars of *hadīth* would have demanded, but he sufficiently advanced the method of using the collective *isnād* so that he was able to offer an engaging story from his accounts"; ibid., pp. 35 f. The same method is found in Wāqidī, who uses it "to present the essential information for each expedition, and then cites individual accounts to present further details or divergent reports"; ibid., p. 38.

²⁵ Dhahabi, *Ta³rikh*, pp. 362-63 (the latter date was given by Wäqidi himself).

²⁶ See his biography in al-Harbi, *Gharib al-hadith*, ed. Sulaymān b. Ibrāhīm al-ʿĀyid (Mecca, 1405/1985), vol. 1, pp. 17-51. Note that on p. 22, the editor al-ʿĀyid is misled by the fact that the entries in Yāqūt's geographical dictionary (s.v. al-Harbīyya) are not divided into paragraphs; he also "corrects" the verb *khariba* to *wa-kharrabū*, the result being that according to the above-mentioned editor, in 147/764 the Khazars attacked the suburbs of Baghdad. See also n. 29 below. explicitly refers to the suppression of divergent reports through the CR technique and says: "The only thing that I disapprove of concerning him is his collecting of *isnāds* and producing one text with an orderly narrative transmitted from a group of people who are often in disagreement" (laysa unkiru ^calayhi shay²an illā jam^cahu l-asānīda wa-majī²ahu bi-matn wāḥid ^calā siyāqa wāḥida ^can jamā^ca wa-rubbamā khtalafū).²⁷

Al-Harbi's answer to Ibn Hanbal's criticism is a restatement of what we already know: "This is not a fault (^cayb)," he says, "Zuhrī and Ibn Ishāq did the same." According to another version, al-Harbī was more specific, saying: "Ibn Ishāq used to do this. He would say: "Āşim b. ^cUmar, ^cAbdallāh b. Abī Bakr and so-and-so transmitted to me', and Zuhrī too used to do this."²⁸ Like Wāqidī, Ibn Hanbal and al-Harbī lived in Baghdad. For many years al-Harbī was Ibn Hanbal's student, but his opinion of Wāqidī differed from his teacher's. The reason for this difference in outlook is obvious: Ibn Hanbal had little respect for history (see below). Al-Harbī, probably following in the footsteps of Wāqidī and using his materials, was the compiler of a book entitled Kitāb al-maghāzī.²⁹

Al-Harbī often spoke favorably of Wāqidī. Of special interest for our discussion is an anecdote told by al-Harbī in which Wāqidī's CR technique is compared with the methods of other *muhaddithūn*. Al-Harbī cites it from a traditionist called al-Musayyabī:³⁰

We saw Wāqidī once sitting at a column in the mosque of Medina reading (or reading repeatedly, or studying, *yadrusu*).³¹

We asked: "What are your reading?"

He said: "My set portion of the maghāzī" (presumably, of his Kitāb al-maghāzi).³²

We said to him once: "Concerning reports in which you lump together the sources, saying: 'So-andso and so-and-so transmitted to us', which you then follow by adducing one text. If only you

27 Ta²rikh Baghdād, vol. 3, pp. 15-16. In Muḥammad b. CAbd al-Bāgi al-Zurgāni, Sharh Calā l-mawāhib al-laduniyya (Cairo, A.H. 1329), vol. 1, p. 163, l. 17, the phrase dakhala hadith $ba^{c}dihim$ fi $ba^{c}d$, which is common in the introduction of CRs, is interpreted as follows: ma^cnāhu anna l-lafza li-majmū^cihim fa-^cinda kullin minhum mā nfarada bihi cani l-ākhar, "the wording belongs to all of them (i.e., all of them contributed to the wording; the wording does not contradict what each of them says), and each one of them has details which the others do not have" (i.e., such details which are not included in the CR). In other words, the CR represents the common denominator. It can also be said that its composer circumvents all controversial matter. Ibn Hanbal's accusation (Ta²rikh Baghdād, p. 13) that Wāqidī yurakkibu l-asānīda possibly relates to the same practice.

²⁸ Al-Harbi is also quoted in Wāqidi, introduction, p. 29; see also Jones, "Ibn Ishāq and al-Wāqidi." In yet another version, al-Harbi also mentions Hammād b. Salama as one who practiced this technique; $Ta^{2}rikh$ Baghdād, vol. 3, p. 16.

²⁹ Ibn al-Nadim, Fihrist (Cairo, A.H. 1347; repr. Beirut, 1398/1978), p. 323. Hamad al-Jäsir praised Wāqidī's technique and supported al-Harbi's attitude; see Kitāb al-manāsik wa-amākin juruq al-hajj wama^cālim al-jazīra, ed. Hamad al-Jäsir (Riyād, 1401/ 1981), p. 100. Jāsir (who assumed that the Manāsik had been compiled by al-Harbl) wrote an extensive biography of al-Harbl, pp. 9-256. ³⁰ Muhammad b. Ishāq, from Medina, who later

³⁰ Muhammad b. Ishāq, from Medina, who later lived in Baghdad, d. 236/850; Sam^cāni, s.v. al-Musayyabi.

³¹ Vocalized in the source quoted here (Dhahabi, Nubalä²; see below): yudarrisu.

³² The source quoted here has: juz²l, "my juz" or "part/division." See the same also in Wäqidi, introduction, p. 5. But the correct reading appears to be hizbl mina l-maghāzl, "my set portion of the maghāzl," as in Ion Sayyid al-Nās, vol. 1, p. 18. Hizb is usually associated with the Qur²ān or with prayer: it is a set portion which one imposes upon himself to recite on a particular occasion or is accustomed to perform (see E. W. Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v.). The Companions of the Prophet used to read the Qur²ān in seven ahzāb, the last of which was the Mufaşşal; U. Rubin, "Exegesis and Hadith: The Case of the Seven Mathāni," in G. R. Hawting and Abdul-Kader Shereef, eds., Approaches to the Qur²ān (London, 1993), p. 155, n. 58.

Wāqidī seems to be ridiculed: he learns the maghāzi as if they were on a par with the Qur³ān or with prayer. Cf. Sira Shāmiyya, vol. 4, p. 20 (Zayn al-ʿĀbidin ʿAlī b. al-Husayn b. ʿAlī said: kunnā nuʿallamu maghāziya rasūli llāhi ş kamā nuʿallamu l-sūrata mina l-qur³ān).

transmitted to us the hadīth of each of them separately" (hādhā lladhī tajma^cu l-rijāl, taqūlu: haddathanā fulān wa-fulān, wa-ji²ta bi-matn wāhid, law haddathtanā bi-hadīth kulli wāhid ^calā hida). He said: "It will be lengthy."

We said: "We accept this."

He disappeared for one week and then brought us the (story of the) Uhud expedition in twenty volumes. We said: "Return us to the former mode (al-amr al-awwal)."³³

This humorous story is, in fact, an eloquent defense of the CR technique. Wāqidī is encountered here by the much younger al-Musayyabī and others, who initially considered his technique unsatisfactory. Wāqidī accepts the challenge and within a week produces, from his "fieldwork" records, which he keeps at home, a collection of *hadīth* to meet their stringent standards. He proves himself capable of accomplishing the task according to their demands, but those who challenged him regret their request and openly admit that, for purely practical reasons, his harmonizing method is superior.

Ibn Hanbal, however, was steadfast in his attitude to the CR, and he also criticized Ibn Ishāq for using this technique. Asked whether he would accept as authentic (i.e., for legal purposes) a *hadīth* transmitted by Ibn Ishāq alone (*infarada*...*bi-hadīth*), he gave this uncompromising answer: Ibn Ishāq would transmit a *hadīth* from a group of informants without "separating their words" (*inni ra²aytuhu yuhaddithu ^can jamā^ca bi-l-hadīthi l-wāhid wa-lā yafşilu kalām dhā min kalām dhā*).³⁴ Ibn Sayyid al-Nās (d. 734/1334), who cites Ibn Hanbal,³⁵ defends Ibn Ishāq by claiming that the group of informants may have reported identical *hadīths*. Furthermore, if their *hadīths* were not verbally identical, their contents may have been the same.³⁶ Both claims of the defense should be rejected: when Ibn Hanbal criticized Wāqidī saying that his sources for the CRs were often in disagreement (*warubbamā khtalafū*), he certainly did not mean the transmission of the same report or of the same report in different words.

Ibn Hanbal's objection to the CR, which derived from its suppression of divergent reports, might also be voiced by modern scholars. Precisely like Ibn Hanbal, we too would like to learn about the history of Islam from original reports which have not been tampered with and are free from redaction and "harmonization." After all, the CR creates an illusion of coherence where there might be dispute and of consistency where, in fact, major differences might exist. Generally speaking, the introduction of the CRs is unfortunate from the point of view of the modern historian (the possibly good intentions of their composers notwithstanding) because they blur our perception of the earlier stages in the formation of the *sira*. Moreover, unlike Ibn Hanbal, we are also interested in finding out what the composers of CRs suppress and why.

Although opinions about Wāqidī's status as a *hadīth* transmitter varied (we also encounter views which are favorable to him, ones which even express admiration), it can be demonstrated that Ibn Hanbal's negative attitude was generally accepted by the leading *hadīth* experts. There is only one *hadīth* of Wāqidī in the six canonical *hadīth* collections,

³³ Dhahabi, Nubalā³, vol. 9, p. 460. The text in Ta^{3} rikh Baghdād, vol. 3, p. 7, is garbled. Cf. Jones, "Ibn Ishāq and al-Wāqidī," pp. 50 f. (who quotes this report without the climax). ³⁴ Tahdhib, vol. 9, p. 43, l. 11. Cf. perhaps these

³⁴ Tahdhib, vol. 9, p. 43, l. 11. Cf. perhaps these words of praise for Ibn Ishāq (from Ibn Hibbān): wahuwa min ahsani l-nās siyāqan li-l-akhbār; ibid., p. 46, l. 2. Cf. the phrase siyāqa wāḥida, p. 21 above. ³⁵ Ibn Sayyid al-Näs, vol. 1, p. 11 (idhā tafarrada bi-hadīth taqbaluhu? qāla: lā wa-⁵llāhi, innī ra⁵aytuhu yuhaddithu ^can jamā^ca bi-l-hadīthi l-wāhid walā yafşilu kalām dhā min kalām dhā). ³⁶ Ibid vol. 1, p. 14 ć.

³⁶ Ibid., vol. 1, p. 14 (wa-qad tattaķidu alfāzu ljamā^ca wa-in ta^caddadat ashkhāşuhum wa-^calā taqdir an lā yattaķida l-lafz fa-qad yattaķidu l-ma^cnā). namely, in the Sunan of Ibn Māja; significantly, Ibn Māja does not name Wāqidī in the *isnād*, referring to him instead as *shaykh lanā* (one of our shaykhs).³⁷ That such harsh judgments could be voiced concerning this central figure in Islamic historiography is evidence of a rift between *muhaddithūn* such as Ahmad b. Hanbal, who pursued legal matters and adhered to the verbal transmission of *hadīth*, and other *muhaddithūn* who were also historians. Their different outlooks and their different approaches to the question of transmission were the principal areas of conflict among them.³⁶

IV. MORE ABOUT THE DIVERGENT APPROACHES TO THE REPRODUCTION OF TRANSMITTED TEXTS

Goldziher observed that in their hadith criticism Muslim scholars differentiated between "hadiths which dealt with questions of what was allowed and what forbidden (halāl wa-harām), i.e., legal traditions or such as could serve as sources for legal and dogmatic deductions" and "hadiths which did not belong to the category of the law but offered pious tales, edifying maxims, and ethical teachings in the name of the Prophet. Though falsifications in this field were not actually approved of, it was nevertheless said that the isnāds of such sayings need not be quite as stringently examined as those of sunna, i.e., legal, traditions."39 Asked to give his opinion about Ibn Ishāq, Ibn Hanbal, out of contempt, did not even specify the types of literature which he considered unworthy: he stated without objection that people wrote "these hadiths" from him, which the informant of this report somewhat insecurely identifies as "maghāzi and the like." Ibn Hanbal then explained in which particular category Ibn Ishaq must not be trusted: "When something comes to you which concerns what is lawful and forbidden, we want people who are like this," and the informant, imitating Ibn Hanbal's gesture, drew together the fingers of both hands except for the thumb.⁴⁰ The division between "these hadiths" vs. halal wa-haram is clear as is Ibn Hanbal's disdain for the former category. The low esteem in which legal experts held the authorities on the maghāzi is also revealed by Ibn Hanbal's contemporary Yahyā b. Ma^cīn (d. 233/847), who stated that

³⁷ Dhahabī, Nubalā³, vol. 9, pp. 463 f., 469 (Dhahabī explicates that Ibn Māja did not dare to mention Wāqidī explicitly because of his "weakness" in the eyes of the *hadith* scholars: fa-mā jasara bn Māja an yufsiha bihi wa-mā dhāka illā li-wahni l-Wāqidī ^cinda l-^culamā³). Further negative evaluations of him by hadīth experts could easily be adduced. Cf. Wāqidī, introduction, p. 30.

³⁸ The fact that Zuhri was guilty of adopting the same technique had to be overlooked: Islamic tradition could do without Wāqidi, but Zuhri was too important to criticize; see my forthcoming article "Biographical Notes on Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhri," in JSS.

³⁹ Goldziher, *Muslim Studies*, ed. S. M. Stern, trans. C. R. Barber and S. M. Stern (London, 1967– 71), vol. 2, p. 145. Goldziher quotes (n. 3) the testimony of Ahmad b. Hanbal (al-Khațib al-Baghdādi, *Kijāya*, p. 134):

ldhā ruwinā ^can rasūli llāhi ş fi l-ḥalāl wa-l-ḥarām wa-l-sunaņ wa-l-ahkām tashaddadnā (variant: shaddadnā) fi l-asānīd wa-idhā ruwinā ^cani l-nabi ş fī fadā⁵ili l-a^cmāl wa-mā lā yada^cu ḥukman wa-lā yarfa^cuhu tasāhalnā fī l-asānīd. ⁴⁰ Bayhaqī, vol. 1, pp. 37 f.:

Wa-ammā Muḥammad b. Isḥāq fa-huwa rajul tuktabu 'anhu hādhihi l-aḥādlth—ka-annahu ya'nl l-maghāziya wa-naḥwahā—fa-ammā idhā jā'aka l-ḥalāl wa-l-ḥarām aradnā qawman hākadhā wa-qabaḍa... aṣābi'a yadihi l-arba' min kulli yad wa-lam yaḍumma l-ibhāma.

Kister, "The Sirah Literature," CHALUP, p. 357, observes: "It was considered less binding as a duty to narrate the maghāzi than to transmit utterances of the Prophet. Scholars refrained from recording hadith utterances transmitted by unreliable scholars while they did not hesitate to relate maghāzi material on their authority. It was only later, in the first half of the second century, that hadith scholars reacted strongly against the popular Sirah literature and made attempts to discard dubious folk-stories by applying strict rules of hadith criticism. They did not, however, succeed."

Ziyād b. ^cAbdallāh al-Bakkā⁵ī was generally unreliable ("worthless") but for the field of *maghāzī*, where there was no objection to him.⁴¹

Ibn Hanbal's approach to his own received material was diametrically opposed to the methods used by the composers of CRs. As noted by Goldziher, Ibn Hanbal meticulously reproduced the text, paying attention to the smallest differences (even the reading of wa- vs. aw, which would have had no effect on the contents).⁴² Of course Ibn Hanbal lived too late to change the course of Islamic historiography, and his elitist views were unlikely to have been accepted by many. Moreover, he came too late to influence even the legal *hadith*, his main concern.

A prominent example of meticulous transmission is Ibn Hanbal's contemporary Abū ^cUbayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām (d. 224/839), whose recension in his *Kitāb al-amwāl*, of the document known as "the Constitution of Medina" is quoted from Zuhrī through two informants having identical *isnāds*. Having compared the two texts at his disposal and having concluded that they were identical, Abū ^cUbayd introduced the text of the "Constitution" using the word $q\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, "they both said." But, at one point, he interrupts his recension in order to indicate that his informants differ about one word, indeed one letter, an *alif.*⁴³ This is a model of faithfulness to a written text.⁴⁴

Ibn Hanbal was critical of Wāqidī's CR technique even though he held the maghāzī and other non-fiqh types of literature in low esteem. In any case, it is clear that according to Ibn Hanbal, legal hadīth and maghāzī were two separate disciplines, each taking its own course. Apart from the evident difference in outlook, there was a gap between the experts in the two disciplines in connection with the isnād. In general, the isnād was not especially important for the maghāzī experts and was often omitted altogether. (Paradoxically, the historians' indulgent attitude to the isnād makes the isnāds in their compilations look more reliable.) Criteria for evaluating the rijāl or transmitters were developed by the professors of fiqh, not the experts in maghāzī, who, by definition, were less particular about their informants.⁴⁵ In the formative stages, when the bulk of new material

⁴¹ Tahdhīb, vol. 3, p. 375: laysa bi-shay² wa-kāna ^cindi fi l-maghāzi lā ba⁵sa bihi. Cf. Sīra Shāmiyya, vol. 4, p. 22: Ziyād ... al-Bakkā[>]i ... wa-huwa şadüq thabt fi l-maghāzî wa-fi ḥadīthihi 'an ghayri bni Isḥāq lin. Cf. Sufyan b. 'Uyayna's remark that from Baqiyya one must not hear mâ kâna fi sunna but only mâ kâna ft thawab wa-ghayrihi; Muslim Studies, vol. 2, p. 230, n. 1 = al-Khațib al-Baghdādi, Kifāya, p. 134. A similar attitude to legal matters is attributed to Muhammad Ibn Sirin (d. 110/729) who was humorous and liked to jest (sāhib dahik wa-mizāh, Dhahabī, Tadhkira, vol. 1, p. 78); yet one could easily tell when the conversation moved into the realm of figh and halal wa-haram: the color of his face was transformed, and he changed to a degree that you could hardly recognize him (taghayyara lawnuhu wa-tabaddala hattā ka-annahu laysa bi-³lladhi kāna); Ibn Sa^cd, al-Tabagāt al-kubrā (Beirut, 1380/1960-1388/1968), vol. 7, p. 195; cf. Abū Nu^caym, Hilyat al-awliya² (Cairo, n.d.; repr. Beirut, 1387/1967), vol. 2, p. 264; p. 274 (he frowned when a hadith mina l-sunna was mentioned). See GAS, vol. 1, p. 633, for more about him.

⁴² Goldziher, "Neue Materialien," pp. 499 f.; Gesammelte Schriften, vol. 4, p. 103 ("In der Mittheilung seiner Texte befolgte bereits A. b. H. die denkbar peinlichste Genauigkeit und Akribie").

⁴³ Abū ^cUbayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām, Kitāb al-amwāl, ed. Muņammad Khalil Harrās (Cairo, 1396/1976), pp. 260 f. Cf. Ibn Zanjawayh, Kitāb al-amwāl, ed. Shākir Dhib Fayyād (Riyād, 1406/1986), vol. 2, p. 467.

⁴⁴ Cf. what Goldziher (*Muslim Studies*, vol. 2, p. 218) says about Bukhārī (d. 256/870): "In al-Bukhārī's times, and largely through his influence, the rules for preserving traditions began to assume strict forms. So conscientious a collector as al-Bukhārī never deviated an inch from the strictest discipline. Literal accuracy—with which people were not overmuch concerned before—became the watchword in reproducing what had been heard; the receiver was permitted to pass on what he had heard, whether it was *isnād* or *main*, only in the same form as he had obtained it."

⁴⁵ Cf. the many individuals whose names can only be found in Sayf b. ^cUmar's reports; E. Landau-Tasseron plausibly assumes, and in some cases proves, that Sayf did not "create" people (or places); see her "Sayf Ibn ^cUmar in Medieval and Modern Scholarship," *Der Islam* 67 (1990): 19. Sayf's narra-

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was first being recorded, the compilers of Islamic historiographical works were required by the pioneering nature of their "fieldwork" to interview anyone claiming to have new evidence or accounts. They did not investigate the credentials of their informants but drew their records from anyone who possessed, or claimed to possess, new information about the history of his family or clan.

V. THE DRAWBACKS OF THE COMBINED REPORT

I return now to Waqidi's CR about the assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf with which this study began. As stated above, one of the three sources used by Wāqidī is preserved by Bayhaqī. We now possess two pieces of the jigsaw puzzle instead of one, so to speak, and we can check Waqidi's editorial work with reference to one of his sources (see Texts I and II below). Wagidi guotes from this source the introduction to the story which deals with the causes of the assassination. After the words fa-lammā abā bnu l-Ashraf an yanzi^ca ^can adhā l-nabiyyi ş wa-adhā l-muslimīna wa-qad balagha minhum (note the last three words on p. 30, l. 4; they are not in Bayhaqī, see p. 31, l. 8 from below, and may be Wāqidī's own contribution to the CR), he leaves this source (viz., Zuhrī < ^cAbd al-Rahmān b. ^cAbdallāh b. Ka^cb b. Mālik) and shifts to another. The shift, which is obvious, is made through the word fa-lammā: fa-lammā gadima Zayd b. Hāritha, etc.⁴⁶ From the second piece of the jigsaw puzzle, viz., Bayhaqi, we now know what Wāqidī chose not to incorporate in his CR. Zuhri's report < the grandson of the Companion Ka^cb b. Mālik, is, in fact, a complete story: it goes on to tell of the assassination itself, the shock among the Jews, their complaint to the Prophet about the murder of one of their leaders (Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf), the Prophet's response, and, finally, the treaty concluded between the Jews (the Banū al-Nadīr) and the Prophet. Toward the end of the CR, Wāqidī again takes up Zuhri in describing the Jews' shock, their complaint, and their treaty with the Prophet (p. 30, 1. 7; p. 32, 1. 3).47

Through Bayhaqi's text we are now in a position to discover what is missing as a result of Wāqidi's redactional work. There are two omissions and one major drawback. Wāqidi broke off his quotation from Zuhri (through Ma^cmar) precisely when the Prophet was about to issue orders for the assassination of Ka^cb:

The Messenger of God instructed Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh to send a party to kill him, so he sent to him Muḥammad b. Maslama al-Anṣārī, more precisely, al-Ḥārithī, Abū ^cAbs al-Anṣārī, and Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh's nephew al-Ḥārith, in a company of five, etc.⁴⁸

⁴⁶ Cf. A. Noth, Quellenkritische Studien zu Themen, Formen und Tendenzen frühislamischer Geschichtsüberlieferung (Bonn, 1973), pp. 54 f., 155 f. See also Widengren's observation in connection with the growth of the sira literature ("Oral Tradition," p. 235): "the single tradition is more trustworthy than the context where it is found."

⁴⁷ Wāqidī, vol. 1, p. 192, 1. 10; Bayhaqi, vol. 3, p. 198, 1. 7 (with some differences).

⁴⁸ In Bayhaqi, the name of Sa^{cd} b. Mu^cādh is erroneously repeated; see correctly in Abū Dāwūd, vol. 2, p. 138; Aghāni, vol. 19, p. 106, l. 24.

tives mention many people who are missing from other sources because "not all the traditions which were in circulation were eventually put in writing, and not all the important people were recorded in the books" (p. 20). Especially relevant for us here are the examples she gives of transmitters of material on Jerusalem who are not found in the *rijāl* books (p. 21). It may be observed that the first priority for the *rijāl* experts was, after all, to provide auxiliary materials to be used in conjunction with the major *hadith* compendia. Transmitters whose materials were left out of these compendia are less likely to be found in the *rijāl* literature.

In Zuhri's report we have here three names out of five, in addition to Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh to whom the task of killing Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf was entrusted. The name of the man put in charge of the assassination plot is no small matter: in sira literature, we often encounter disputes over the identity of people who carried out different actions. In Zuhri's report, the protagonist is Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh, while Muhammad b. Maslama is given a secondary role. In Wagidi's CR, however, because of his switch from Zuhri to another source, it is the reverse: Sa^cd b. Mu^cadh is relegated to a secondary role and Muhammad b. Maslama becomes the protagonist. According to the scene described in the CR (Wāqidī, vol. 1, p. 187, l. 8), Muhammad b. Maslama complied with the Prophet's request to rid him of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf and had direct contact with the Prophet (which he did not have in Zuhri's report), while Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh is made a military adviser (the Prophet reportedly told Muhammad b. Maslama: $sh\bar{a}wir Sa^{c}d b$. $Mu^{c}\bar{a}dh$ fi amrihi). In other words, concerning the identity of the man put by the Prophet in charge of the operation, a matter of paramount importance in the environment in which these reports first emerged, Wāqidī's CR is not a reliable reproduction of his sources.

We can now identify which of Waqidi's sources is responsible for the report making Muhammad b. Maslama the protagonist: one of Waqidi's three sources of information for the CR is Ibrahim b. Jacfar, whose lineage reveals his link with Muhammad b. Maslama: Ibrāhīm b. Ja^cfar b. Mahmūd b. ^cAbdallāh b. Muhammad b. Maslama al-Hārithī (see p. 17 above) < his father < Jābir b. ^cAbdallāh. In other words, there can be no doubt that Waqidi received this part of the CR from the great-great-grandson of Muhammad b. Maslama, who cited his father, Muhammad b. Maslama's great-grandson.⁴⁹

The other omission in Wāqidī's CR is that of a detail concerning the preservation of the above-mentioned treaty between the Prophet and the Jews (i.e., the Banū al-Nadīr). On the morning which followed the assassination,⁵⁰ while the Jews were in a state of shock, "the Messenger of God called on them to conclude between him and them and the Muslims [sic] a pact (kitāb) which would be binding for them. And the Prophet wrote between him and them and all the Muslims a treaty (sahifa) which the Prophet wrote under the palm tree (or: the palm tree with its fruit) which was in the court of [Ramla] bint al-Hārith.⁵¹ After the Prophet's death the treaty was kept with ^CAlī b. Abī Ţālib, may God be pleased with him" (below, p. 32, 1. 6).52 In the Waqidi account (below, p. 30, 1. 11), Alī's preservation of this document is not mentioned. Instead, we find a sentence which may well be Wāqidī's own contribution to the CR (below, p. 30, l. 7 from below): "And the Jews were cautious, they feared and became submissive ever since the killing of Ibn

⁴⁹ In his own CR on the assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf, Ibn Ishaq adduces the same report from Abdallāh b. al-Mughith b. Abī Burda al-Zafari; see Ibn Hishām, al-Sira al-nabawiyya, ed. al-Saqqā, al-Abyāri, and Shalabi (Beirut, 1391/1971), vol. 3, pp. 55 (where the sources for the CR are listed) and 58 f. Some changes notwithstanding, this is the same report, significantly used in two different CRs. The changes should presumably be ascribed to the different informants quoted by Wāqidī and Ibn Ishāq.

⁵⁰ See U. Rubin, "The Assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf," Oriens 32 (1990): 68. ⁵¹ On this court, see my forthcoming article "Juda-

ism among Kinda and the ridda of Kinda," in JAOS.

52 Bayhaqi, vol. 3, p. 198:

Wa-da^cāhum rasūlu llāhi ş ilā an yaktuba baynahu wabaynahum wa-bayna l-muslimina kitaban yantahū(na) ilā mā fihi, fa-kataba l-nabi ş baynahu wa-baynahum wa-bayna l-muslimina fämmatan sahifa katabahā rasūlu llāhi s tahta l-^cadhqi lladhi kāna fi dāri bnati l-Hārith. Wa-kānat tilka l-șahifa ba^cda rasūli llâhi ș ^cinda ^cAli.

Cf. Aghāni, vol. 19, p. 107; Abū Dāwūd, vol. 2, p. 138. Cf. Kister, "The Sirah Literature," CHALUP, p. 364 = 'Abd al-Razzāq, vol. 5, p. 343 (Zuhri confirmed Ibn 'Abbās's claim that it was 'Ali who had written the Hudaybiyya treaty).

Ashraf" (fa-hadhirati l-yahūd wa-khāfat wa-dhallat min yawmi qatli bni l-Ashraf). This sentence is presumably from the pen of Wāqidī himself because it does not occur in Zuhrī's report at the end of which it is placed and because it is followed immediately by a new isnād belonging to a new report.

It can be argued that the assumption that Wāqidī made this second omission is not fully watertight. We recall that Bayhaqī received Zuhrī's report through Shu^cayb b. Abī Hamza, while Wāqidī received it through Ma^cmar. There is a possibility, then, that the reference to ^cAli had been omitted by Ma^cmar before the report reached Wāqidī. For the time being, however, and until we recover elsewhere Ma^cmar's report from Zuhrī omitting the mention of ^cAlī, we may assume that the second omission should be ascribed to Wāqidī's editing of the text, as he combined various reports for the CR.

The major drawback of the CR is that Wāqidī's report on the assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf is new in that it did not exist in this form in any earlier source, and it can thus be seen as Wāqidī's creation (although his contribution to its wording is minimal).⁵³

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Zuhrī and, to a greater extent, Ibn Ishāq and Wāqidī, already display a certain technical sophistication in the arrangement of the materials which they received from their predecessors and can be said to represent a rather advanced stage in the formation of the *sīra* literature.⁵⁴ By reconstructing, where possible, the sources used by Zuhrī and later compilers in their CRs, we can arrive at the earliest stratum of Islamic historiography.

The rapidly growing corpus of Islamic literature available for research makes it potentially easier than ever before to look over the shoulder of the early Islamic compiler/ historian at the materials which he used in his work. Ideally, one would like to have all the sources used for compiling a CR at one's disposal. A comparison would then reveal areas of difference and of agreement.

Since the formation of the CR involved conscious choices made between often conflicting versions in this "battlefield of early Islamic historiography," we may, as a result of the reconstruction of the earliest stratum of the *sira*, end up with several rival "truths" rather than just one.⁵⁵ But this would be a price worth paying if we want to have an idea of how early Islamic historiography evolved.

⁵³ Cf. Landau-Tasseron, "Process of Redaction," pp. 262 f., who says concerning the reports on the Tamim delegation to the Prophet: "... the fusion of the various accounts into one... should not necessarily be considered as deliberate falsification, for it may have come about as the natural result of the presuppositions and formulaic thinking of the Muslim scholars, who apparently saw and presented things as they perhaps ought to have been and not as they were." Also her concluding sentence, p. 270: "The historical material underwent considerable changes not only as a result of tendentious forgeries but also through the mere process of redaction, which was for the most part carried out in good faith."

⁵⁴ Kister, "The Sirah Literature," CHALUP, p. 352, observes that the sira literature "developed in

the first half of the first century of the *hijra*, and by the end of that century the first full-length literary compilations were produced." ⁵⁵ A striking parallel can be found in an observation

³⁵ A striking parallel can be found in an observation made by J. Lassner concerning the reports on the ^cAbbāsid revolt. In his *Islamic Revolution and Historical Memory: An Inquiry into the Art of Abbāsid Apologetics* (New Haven, 1986), p. 31, he considers a case where "several variants have been fused into a unique version which defies separation," in which case "the recovery of the individual levels is largely, if not entirely, a matter of conjecture. Prudence may ultimately dictate that such difficult sources be set aside until the component parts can be sorted out, however restrictive and even punishing this may at times seem to a scholar with bold inclinations."

In breaking up CRs we are assisted by the two opposing attitudes which obtained in the Islamic community concerning the legitimacy of the redaction of texts (or *hadiths*) received from an earlier generation.⁵⁶ The different viewpoints of "conservative" and "progressive" traditionists is highly instructive for the study of Islamic historiography because, as we have just witnessed in the comparison of the texts of Wāqidī (Text I) and Bayhaqī (Text II), early Islamic literature developed simultaneously along two parallel lines, with "edited" texts (Wāqidī's CR which incorporates parts of three earlier sources) on the one hand and "unedited" texts (Bayhaqī's reproduction of one of these sources) on the other. We thus have a powerful tool: by comparing an "edited" text with an "unedited" one, we can learn what the "editing" consisted of. One will assume classification as "edited" and "unedited" to be no less important (it is probably more important) than classification as "early" and "late." Thus an "edited" text, which in relative terms must be late, may date back to the earliest days of Islamic historiography (Zuhrī), while an "unedited" text, which in absolute terms is earlier, may have been found in a recent source compiled just a few centuries ago.

Thus, the CR plays an important role in early Islamic historiography, and awareness of its precise nature is crucial. As mentioned above, it was Goldziher who drew attention to Zuhri's method of combining many reports to create one account molded according to his personal taste. Shortly thereafter, Wellhausen published his *Prolegomena zur ältesten Geschichte des Islams* in which he commented on Wāqidī and other historians:

They are not compilers of disparate and contradictory traditions, but are rather representatives of a unified historical outlook, to which all the data collected by them corresponds, with certain explicitly stated exceptions. As a rule, then, one need go no further into the motley *isnāds* of separate traditions (*Einzeltraditionen*), but on the contrary may treat historians like Abū Mikhnaf, Ibn Ishāq, Abū Ma^cshar, al-Wāqidi, etc. as his ultimate authorities. This is what al-Balādhurī and al-Ṭabarī do when they are content to say, "Ibn Ishāq says," "al-Wāqidī says," without adducing the *isnād* on which these latter rely. It can be asserted, in fact, that for us the value of the *isnād* depends on the value of the historians merit trust if they give no *isnād* at all, simply noting that "I have this from someone whom I believe." All this permits a great simplification of critical analysis.⁵⁷

Wellhausen's position is no longer tenable. Study of the CR, following Goldziher, shows that to acquire an accurate picture of early Islamic historiography, one cannot stop at the histories of Ibn Ishāq, Wāqidī, and the other historians but that one has to go further back, attempting to reconstruct the sources on which these based their histories.

To close, it must be emphasized regarding Islamic historiography in general and the *sira* literature in particular that a thorough analysis of the disparate and, at times, con-

197. In Noth's "Işfahān-Nihāwand: Eine quellenkritische Studie zur frühislamischen Historiographie," ZDMG 118 (1968): 295, one finds the first clues of these views. See also P. Crone, Slaves on Horses: The Evolution of the Islamic Polity (Cambridge, 1980), p. 10. She observes, with reference to Noth's "Sammlungen": "The works of the first compilers—Abū Mikhnaf, Sayf b. ^cUmar, 'Awāna, Ibn Isḥāq, Ibn al-Kalbī and so forth—are ... mere piles of disparate traditions reflecting no one personality, school, time or place"; see also ibid., p. 13, note.

³⁶ This touches upon the dispute over verbal reproduction of *hadith*, *bi-l-lafz*, as opposed to transmission of the contents, *bi-l-ma^cnā*. Cf. n. 36 above.

⁵⁷ Wellhausen, Prolegomena, p. 4, but I quote here the translation of Humphreys, Islamic History, pp. 82 f. A. Noth argued against Wellhausen's assumption that the early major historians were "representatives of a unified historical outlook" ("Vertreter einheitlichen historischen Anschauung") in his "Der Charakter der ersten großen Sammlungen von Nachrichten zur frühen Kalifenzeit," Der Islam 47 (1971): 168 f.,

flicting evidence concerning the assassination of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf will no doubt provide a sound foundation for historical reconstruction of this event. Of course, the details will have differing degrees of probability—an aspect of the study of early Islam which modern researchers have to accept and tolerate. Paradoxically, contradictions in our sources have their benefits. They not only highlight the matters which the early Islamic community considered worth disputing, but they often provide us with information which, because it is shared by otherwise conflicting sources, has a strong claim to historical veracity.

TEXT I: WĀQIDI

قتل ابن الأشرف

وكان قتله على رأس خمسة وعشرين شهرًا في ربيع الأُوَّل .

حدَّثى عبد الحَميد بن جعفر ، عن يزيد بن روبان ، ومَعْمَر ، عن الزُّهرىّ ، عن ابن كعب بن مالك ، وإبراهيم بن جعفر ، عن أبيه ، عن جابر بن عبد الله ؛ فكلٌ قد حدَّثى بطائفة ، فكان الذى اجتمعوا لنا عليه قالوا : إنَّ ابن الأَشرف كان شاعرًا وكان يهجو النبيّ صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم وأصحابه ، ويُحرّض عليهم كُفَّار قُرَيش فى شعره .

وكان رسول الله صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم قدم المدينة وأهلُها أخلاط – منهم المسلمون الذين تجمعهم دعوة الإسلام ، فيهم أهل الخَلْقَة والحُصون ، ومنهم حلفاء للحيَّين جميعاً الأوس والخزرج . فأراد رسول الله صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم حين قدم المدينة استصلاحهم كلَّهم وموادعتهم ، وكان الرجل يكون مسلماً وأبوه مشركاً . فكان المشركون واليهود من أهل المدينة يُوذون رسول الله صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم وأصحابه أذَى شديدًا ، فأمر الله عزَّ وجلَّ نبيّه والمسلمين بالصبر على ذلك والعفو عنهم ، وفيهم أنزل : ﴿ وَلَتَسْمَعُنَّ مِنَ الَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الكِتَابَ مِنْ قَبْلِكُمْ وَمِنَ الَّذِينَ أَشْرَكُوا أَذًى كَثيرًا وَإِنْ نَصْبِرُوا وَتَتَّقُوا فَإِنَّ ذَلك مِن عَزْمِ الأُمُورِ)^(١).وفيهم أنزل الله عزَّوجلّ : ﴿ وَدَّ كَثِيرٌ مِن أَهْلِ الكِتابِ..﴾ الآية . فلمَّا أبى ابن الأَشرف أن ينزع عن أذى النبيّ صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم وأذى المسلمين |، وقد بلغ منهم |، فلمّا قدم زيد بن حارثة بالبشارة من بدر بقتل المشركين وأَشر من أيسر منهم ، فرأى الأَسرى مُقرَّنين ، كُبت وذَلَّ ، ثم قال لقومه : ويلكم ، واللهِ لَبطن الأَرض خيرٌ لكم من ظهرها اليوم !

ففزعت اليهود ومن معها من المشركين ، فجاءوا إلى النبى صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم حين أصبحوا فقالوا : قد طُرق صاحبنا الليلة وهو سيّد من ساداننا قُتل غِيلةً بلا جُرم ولا حَدَث علمناه . فقال رسول الله صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم : إنَّه لو قرّ كما قرّ غيره ممّن هو على مثل رأيه ما اغْتِيل ؛ ولكنه نال منَّا الأذى وهجانا بالشعر ، ولم يفعل هذا أحدً منكم إلاَّ كان له السيف . ودعام رسول الله صلَّى الله عليه وسلَّم إلى أن يكتب بينهم كتاباً ينتهون إلى ما فيه ، فكتبوا بينهم وبينه كتاباً تحت العَدْق فى دار رَمْلَة بنت الحارث . فحذرن اليهود وخافت وذلَّت من يوم قَتْل ابن الأَسْرِف .

Text II: Bayhaqī

اخبرنا أبو بكر أحمد بن الحسن القاضي قال : أخبرنا أبو سهـل أحمد بن محمد بن عبد الله بن زياد القطان ، قال : حدثنا عبد الكـريم بن الهيثم، قال : حدثنا أبو اليمان، قال : حدثنا شعيب عن الزهري، قال : أخبـرني عبد الـرحمن ابن عبدالله بن كعب بن مالك وكانَ من أحد الثلاثة الذينَ تِيبَ عليهم بـريد كعب

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ابن مالك ان كعب بن الأشرف اليهودي كان شاعراً، وكان يهجو رسول الله ويحرض عليه كفار قريش في شعره، وكان رسول الله अ قدم المدينة وأهلها أخلاطاً منهم المسلمون الذين تجمعهم دعوة رسول الله अ ، ومنهم المشركون الذين يعبدون الأوثان، ومنهم اليهود وهم أهل الحلقة والحصون ، وهم حلفاء للحيَّينَ : الأوس ، والخزرج، فأراد رسولُ الله अ حين قدم المدينة استصلاحهم كلُهمْ ، وكان الرجل يكون مسلماً وأبوه مشرك ، والرجل يكون مسلماً وأخوه مشرك.

وكان المشركون واليهود من أهل المدينة حين قدم رسول الله ، يؤذون رسول الله في وأصحابه أشد الأذى فأمر الله تعالى رسوله والمسلمين بالصبر على ذلك والعفُو عنهم ففيهم أنزل الله جل ثناؤه : ﴿ ولتسمعنُ من الذين أوتوا الكتـاب من قبلكم ومن الذين أشركوا أذى كثيراً ﴾ الآية .

وفيهم أنـزل الله ﴿ ود كثير من أهـل الكتاب لـو يردونكم من بعـد إيمانكم كفاراً حسداً من عند أنفسهم من بعدما تبين لهم الحق فاعفوا واصفحوا حتى يأتي الله بأمره ﴾

فلما أبى كعب بن الأشرف ان ينزع عن أذى رسول الله يه وأذى المسلمين ، وأمر رسول الله على سعد بن معاذ أن يبعث رَّمْطاً ليقتلوه ، فبعث إليه سعد ابن معاذ ، ومحمد بن مسلمة الأنصاري ثم الحارثي ، وأبا عبس الأنصاري ، والحارث ابن أخي سعد بن معاذ في خمسة رهط أتوه عشية ، وهو في مجلسهم بالعوالي ، فلما رآهم كعب بن الأشرف أنكر شانهم وكان يذعر منهم . فقال لهم : ما جاء بكم ؟ فقالوا : جاءت بنا إليك حاجة . قال : فليدن إلي بعضكم فليحدثني بها فدنا إليه بعضهم فقال : جئناك لنبيعك أدراعاً لنا لنستنفق أثمانها فقال والله لئن فعلتم ذلك لقد جهدتم قد نزل بكم هذا الرجل ، فواعدهم أن يأتو عشاء حين يهدي عنهم الناس ، فجاءوا فناداه رجل منهم فقام ليخرج فقالت

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امرأته ما طرقـوك ساعتهم هـذه لشي، مما تحب . فقـال : بلى إنهم قد حـدثوني حديثهم ، فاعتنقه أبو عبس، وضربه محمـد بن مسلمة بـالسيف ، وطعنه بعضهم بالسيف في خاصرته ، فلمـا قتلوه فزعت اليهـود ومن كان معهم من المشـركين، فغدوا على رسول الله अ حين أصبحوا فقالوا : إنه طرق صاحبنا الليلة وهو سيـد من ساداتنا فقتل ، فذكرهم رسول الله अ الـذي كان يقـول في أشعاره وينهـاهم به ، ودعاهم رسول الله अ إلى أن يكتب بينه وبينهم وبين المسلمين كتاباً ينتهـوا إلى ما فيـه، فكتب النبي ، بينه وبينهم وبين المسلمين كتاباً ينتهـوا رسول الله م تحت المـذقي الـذي كان في دار ابنـة الحـارث ، وكـانت تلك الصحيفة بعد رسول الله عند علي بن أبي طالب رضي الله عنه .

ABBREVIATIONS OF ARABIC TEXTS

- ^cAbd al-Razzāq. ^cAbd al-Razzāq b. Hammām al-Ṣan^cānī. *al-Muṣannaf*. Ed. Ḥabīb al-Raḥmān al-A^czamī. Beirut, 1390/1970-1392/1972.
- Abū Dāwūd. Abū Dāwūd, Sulaymān b. al-Ash^cath al-Sijistānī. Sunan. Ed. Ahmad Sa^cd ^cAlī. Cairo, 1371/1952.
- Aghāni. Abū l-Faraj al-Isfahāni. Kitāb al-aghāni. Būlāq, А.Н. 1285.
- Bayhaqi. al-Bayhaqi, Abū Bakr Ahmad b. al-Husayn. Dalā²il al-nubuwwa. Ed. ^cAbd al-Mu^cți Qal^caji. Beirut, 1405/1985.
- Dhahabi, Nubalā³. al-Dhahabi, Abū ^cAbdallāh Muḥammad b. ^cUthmān. Siyar a^clām alnubalā³. Ed. Shu^cayb al-Arnāwūț et al. Beirut, 1981.
- Dhahabi, Tadhkira. al-Dhahabi, Tadhkirat al-huffāz, 3d ed. Hyderabad, 1376/1956.
- Dhahabi, Ta²rikh. al-Dhahabi, Ta²rikh al-islām wa-wafayāt al-mashāhir wa-l-a^clām, the volume of A.H. 201-10. Ed. ^cUmar ^cAbd al-Salām Tadmurī. Beirut, 1411/1991.
- Ibn Sayyid al-Nās. Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, Fath al-Din Muhammad b. Muhammad al-Ya^cmarī. ^cUyūn al-athar. Cairo, 1956.
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MUHAMMAD AT MEDINA: A GEOGRAPHICAL APPROACH*

For the study of the early Islamic history of Medina, a geographical approach seems particularly appropriate. The geographical sourcematerial is relatively abundant. In addition, geographical data can usually be trusted – a substantial advantage, considering that reports about the Prophet's life are often controversial. Some incidents are so disputed, that it is doubtful whether the truth can ever be established. On the other hand, geographical data (as is the case with casual reports of any kind) contain information which is practically undisputable. Needless to say, Medina underwent radical changes after the Hijra. Many place-names fell into oblivion in the course of time, but fortunately, the old place-names are preserved in the Islamic historical tradition.

I

A unique passage ¹ relates the acquisition of land by the Prophet Muhammad shortly after the Hijra. It is mentioned in the context of the dispute over the question of whether the first *sadaqa* ("charitable endowment") in Islam was the Prophet's (as the Anşār claimed) or ^cUmar's (as the Muhājirūn claimed):

... The messenger of God, immediately after he came to Medina, found (*wajada*) a large tract of land in Zuhra, which had belonged to the people of Rātij and Husayka. They were expelled from Medina before the Prophet's arrival, leaving behind a large tract of land; part of it was a spacious piece of land with no'seed-produce or trees on it (*minhā barāh*) and part of it included unirrigated palm shoots named al-Hashshāshina. He gave

[•] This study is extracted from a Ph. D. thesis written under the supervision of Prof. M.J. Kister at the Hebrew University, Jersusalem.

¹ Quoted from ^cUmar b. Shabba, probably from his Akhbar al-madina, see GAS, 345.

^cUmar some of it: (the estate called) Thamgh, and he (i.e., ^cUmar) bought land adjacent to it from some Jews. It was an estate which excited admiration.²

Zuhra, Rātij, Husayka, al-Hashshāshīna and Thamgh were, as is to be expected, in the same area, probably to the northwest of Medina.

Samhūdī says that Rātij was to the northeast of (the mountain) Dhubāb, on which the mosque of the Banner (masjid ar-rāya)³ was erected; further to the east was the abode of Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal. He objects to al-Matarī's view that Rātij was west of Buthān, in the direction of Masājid al-Fath ("the mosques of the victory").⁴ Masjid Banī⁵ Rātij was one of the nine mosques in Medina whose worshippers could hear the adhān of Bilāl in the Prophet's time.⁶ The mosque of Rātij is the name of a fortress near Banū Jāsim to the east of Dhubāb.⁷

Rātij and Husayka are mentioned several times in the context of the siege of Medina during the battle of Khandaq ("the ditch"). Cavalrymen led by the Qurashī commander Khālid b. al-Walīd waited at Rātij to be joined by Banū Qurayza.⁸ 'Umar b. al-Khattāb was on guard near Husayka, between Dhubāb and Masjid al-Fath.⁹ The pagans would ride

- ² Samhûdī, 11, 273-274: sa'alnā 'an awwal man habasa fî l-islām, fa-qāla qā'il: sadaqatu rasūli llāhi ş wa-hādhā qawlu l-anşār. wa-qāla l-muhājirūna: sadaqatu 'umar, wa-dhālika anna rasūla llāhi ş, awwala mā qadima l-madīna, wajada ardan wāsī atan bi-zuhra li-ahl rābih (!) wa-husayka, wa-qad kānū ujlū 'ani l-madīna qabla maqdami n-nabiyyi ş wa-tarakū ardan wāsī atan, minhā barāhun wa-minhā mā fihi wādin (read wadiyy) lā yusqā, yugālu lahu l-hashshāshina, wa-a'tā 'umara minhā thamghan. wa-'shtarā 'umaru ilā dhālika min qawmin min yahūda, fa-kāna mālan mu'jiban.
- ³ Cf. M.J. Kister, "The Battle of the Harra", in *Studies in Memory of Gaston Wiet*, ed. M. Rosen-Ayalon, Jerusalem, 1977, 44-45.
- ⁴ Samhudi, II, 62-63: ...wa-qala l-matari inna fi gharbiyyi wadi buthan min jihati masajidi l-fath jabalayni saghirayni ahaduhuma yuqalu lahu ratij wa-yuqalu lilladhi ila janbihi jabal abi (read: bani, Samhudi, I, 152, I. 10) ^cubayd...
- ⁵ Cf. below, pp. 43-52 for a discussion of Ratij's inhabitants.
- ⁶ ^cUmdat al-akhbār, 115, 1. 9 (printed: Rābih). Cf. Samhūdī, II, 62, 1. 4 from bottom: wa-masjid banī rātij min banī ^cabdi l-ashhal. qultu (=Samhūdī): wa-sawābu l-^cibāra masjid rātij. And see al-^cUmarī, Masālik al-absār, I, ed. A.Z. Bāshā, Cairo, 1342/ 1924, 131; Abū Dāwūd, al-Marāsīl, Cairo, 1310, 4: ... wa-masjid banī rābih (!) min banī ^cabdi l-ashhal.
- ⁷ Qalyūbī, 30a (he has: Rā'ih, Hāsim). On Jāsim see below, n. 152. Cf. op. cit., 36a (Bir J.S.M., in Wādī Rānūnā).
- ⁸ Wāqidī, II, 466, 1. 3 from bottom.
- ⁹ Wāqidī, 11, 466, 1. 2 from bottom.

and turn around (*yujīlūna khaylahum*) between al-Madhād and Rātij.¹⁰ The Khandaq itself stretched from al-Madhād through Dhubāb to Rātij, and Sal^c was at the Muslims' back.¹¹ In another report, Jabal ("the mountain of") Banī ^cUbayd ¹² replaces al-Madhād: the Muhājirūn dug from Rātij to Dhubāb and the Ansār – from Dhubāb to Jabal Banī ^cUbayd.¹³ According to another report, the ditch ran from Jabal Banī ^cUbayd, in Khurbā, to Rātij; the Muhājirūn dug the section between Dhubāb and Rātij and the Ansār the section between Dhubāb and Khurbā.¹⁴ Khurbā was in the abode of Banū ^cUbayd, as can be inferred from the fact that Masjid al-Khurbā belonged to them.¹⁵

The area of Rātij corresponds, perhaps only in part, to what is called the Jabbāna ("burial-ground; level, elevated land"). This is borne out by two accounts¹⁶ of the place in which the Bedouins pitched their tents in "the year of drought" (*cām ar-ramāda*), in the days of *c*Umar. One report simply states that they camped in the Jabbāna. The other is more detailed: they camped within the area demarcated by: the top of the Thaniyyat ("the long mountain that lies across the road and which the road traverses") al-Wadā^c ("of Farewell" ¹⁷) – Rātij – Banū Hāritha – Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal – Baqī^c (i.e., Baqī^c al-Gharqad¹⁸) – Banū Qurayza. Some (*tā'ifa*) of them camped in the neighbourhood (*bi-nāḥiyati*) of Banū Salima; and they (i.e., all of them) surrounded Medina. The Khandaq was dug in the Jabbāna of Medina.¹⁹ The cemetery of Banū

- ¹⁰ Wāqidī, II, 468, 1. 4 from bottom.
- ¹¹ Wāqidī, 11, 445. Cf. loc. cit., 1. 2; am nakūnu qarīban wa-najēala zuhūranā ilā hādhā l-jabal (i.e., Sa1^c). Cf. below, n. 54.
- ¹² Banů ^cUbayd belonged to the Khazrajī clan Banů Salima, see Samhůdī, I, 142, 1. 4 from bottom.
- ¹³ Wāqidī, II, 446, 1. 2. Cf. op. cit., 449-450 (^cUmar b. al-Khattāb digging near Jabal Banī ^cUbayd).
- 14 Waqidī, II, 450.
- ¹⁵ Samhūdī, I, 142, 1. 2 from bottom (al-Khurba written with a tâ' marbūța). Cf. loc. cit.,
 1. 12: Khurbā was the name of the court of Banū Salima.
- ¹⁶ Ibn Sa^cd, III, 316, 317: Cf. below, n. 161.
- ¹⁷ See Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v.; Samhūdī, II, 275-278.
- ¹⁸ See below, n. 38.
- ¹⁹ Abū 'Awāna, Musnad, IV (Hyderabad, 1385/1965), 376: hattā balaghū l-jabbāna wabarazū min dūri l-madīna 'nsarafū ilā ahlīhim wa-ra'suhum yawma'idhin 'abdullāh b. ubayy... thumma kānat waq atu l-ahzāb... yawma khandaqa rasūlu llāhi s wa-l-muslimūna bi-jabbānati l-madīna. On the Khandaq see also Wensinck, 18-21; F. Wüstenfeld, Das Gebiet von Medina, Göttingen, 1873, 115; El¹, s.v. (A.J. Wensinck); El², s.v. (W.M. Watt); M. Hamidullāh, The Battlefields of the Prophet Muhammad, Woking, 1373/1953, 26-27.

Sā^cida will be discussed below (III). There was also a Jewish cemetery in the same area, namely in Sal^c (see above, note 11).²⁰

The Prophet's sadaqat and the property of Jewish clans

Ibn Shabba's account of the origin of the sadaqāt (the Prophet reportedly "found" them; the verb is rather peculiar in this context) conflicts with other accounts. It is usually reported that the Prophet inherited his sadaqāt from a Jew named Mukhayrīq.²¹ In any case, estates of several Jewish clans, among them the main Jewish clans in Medina, can be shown to have been in the Rātij – Zuhra – Husayka area.

Banú Thaclaba b. al-Fityawn

The sources have contradictory remarks about Mukhayriq's extraction. According to one of them, he was from Banu Tha'laba b. al-Fityawn.²² Banu Tha'laba inhabited Zuhra.²³ They owned the two fortresses on the road of al-'Urayd (which were located at the point) where the road descends from the Harra.²⁴ Bu'ath was between (the abode of) Qurayza and Harrat al-'Urayd.²⁵ The "healthiest" part of Medina (*asahhu al-madina*) was between the Harrat Bani Qurayza and al-'Urayd.²⁶ Zuhra itself was a plain (*al-ard as-sahla*) between the Harra and

- ²⁰ Ta'rikh Tubari. VII. 600. The companions of Muhammad b. 'Abdalläh an-Nafs az-Zakiyya were crucified between Thaniyyat al-Wadā' and the court of 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz. Then they were cast 'alā l-mafrah (should probably read: al-Mudarraj, see Samhūdī, II, 370: ism muhdath li-thaniyyati l-wadā') min sal', wa-hiya (!) maqbaratu (var. matmūratu, cf. Lane, s.v.) l-vahūd. thumma ulqū fī khandaq (sic), bi-asl dhubāb. Cf. Ibn Kathīr, Bidāya; VII, 191, 1, 10: wa-'azamū 'alā an yudfana (i.e., 'Uthmān b. 'Affān) bi-maqbarati l-yahūd bi-dayr (read: bi-dabr, "behind"; dabr means however "in the Abyssinian language" a mountain, see Lane, s.v.) sal'. Hamīdullāh, Battlefields, 19, mentions a tribal graveyard of Banú Harám (from the Khazraji Banú Salima) on the Mount Sal'. Cf. Abū Dāwūd, al-Marāsīl, 32-33.
- ²¹ See e.g. Samhudi, II, 152, 1. 13.
- 22 Ibn Hishām, 11, 161.
- ²³ Samhúdi, I, 115, 1. 8 from bottom; Aghání, II, 176, 1. 19 (al-qi(yawn [!; see ed. Dár al-Kutub, Cairo, 1347/1929, III, 40: al-fi(yawn) sāhib zuhra).
- ²⁴ Samhūdī, I. 115, I. 7 from bottom; cf. Samhūdī, 11, 319-320 (al-Ird instead of al-Urayd).

26 Zurgānī, 1, 362, 1. 21.

²⁵ Wāqidī, I, 190.

the Safila, near al-Quff.²⁷ The eastern Harra was known also as Harrat Zuhra.²⁸

The descriptions of the *sadaqāt* are interwoven with descriptions of the estates of other Jewish clans as well.

Banú Nadir

According to one account, Zuhra was the village of Banū Nadīr.²⁹ It was close to several *sadaqāt* of the Prophet.³⁰ Various accounts mention that the *sadaqāt* had previously belonged to Banū Nadīr.³¹ The *sadaqa* known as Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm had belonged to Sallām b. Mishkam an-Nadīrī.^{31a} Another estate, ad-Dilāl, is said to have belonged to a woman from Nadīr.³² According to one report, Mukhayrīq was from the Banū Nadīr.³³ Banū Nadīr had lands to the west of Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm. This can be inferred from the location of the *sadaqa* of az-Zubayr b. al-^cAwwām, called also Baqī^c az-Zubayr and az-Zubayriyyāt. The Prophet's *sadaqa* was adjacent to az-Zubayr's *sadaqa*.³⁴ The latter was in the territory of a Jewish clan called Banū Muḥammam,³⁵ to the west of Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm. The southern side of the Mashraba

- ²⁷ Samhūdī, II, 319, 1. 3 from bottom. Cf. Ibn Rusta, 59-60; Samhūdī, I, 110, 1. 6 from bottom.
- 28 Samhūdī, 11, 320, 1. 1.
- ²⁹ Sira halabiyya, II, 263, 1. 10; and see Fā'id b. al-Mubārak, Mawrid az-zam'ān, Ms. Kilic Ali, 767, 1b; Tafsir al-khāzin, VII, 47, 1. 21.
- 30 Samhúdí, II, 320, J. 4.
- ³¹ Ibn Sa^cd, I, 502.
- ^{31a} Loc. cit., l. 2 from bottom. According to Ibn Sa^cd. VIII, 120, l. 14, he was from Qurayza; and see Kitāb al-ma^cārif, 138.
- ³² Samhūdī, II, 153, l. 1. She was the master of Salmān al-Fārisī. (Cf. below.) Ad-Dilāl is said to have belonged to Banū Nadīr because it was watered by Mahzūr, "and it is well-known that Mahzūr waters only the estates of Nadīr"; however Samhūdī objects to this: "The torrent known to belong to Nadīr is Mudhaynib, and Mahzūr belongs to Qurayza".
- ³³ Samhūdī, II, 153, I. 17 (Wāqidī); Balādhurī, Ansāb al-ashrāf, I, 518 (quoting Ibn Ishāq). See also Wensinck, 26, n. 12.
- ³⁴ Samhūdi, II, 68, 1. 8.
- ³⁵ See on them Samhudī, I, 115, I. 5. They owned the estate called Khunāfa, see also below, n. 36. For the vocalization Muhammam see Wüstenfeld, Medina, 30. It seems that Muhammam was used in a pejorative manner ("the one whose face was blackened with charcoal"); cf. Ta'rikh Tabari, VII, 562, I. 14: kāna muhammad (i.e., Muhammad b. 'Abdallāh an-Nafs az-Zakiyya) ādama shadīda l-adma... wa-kāna yulaqqabu l-qariyya min admatihi, hattā kāna abū ja'far yad'ūhu muhammaman.

sadaqāt), both belonged to Banū Muhammam.³⁶ Az-Zubayr's sadaqa was in part his share in the lands of Banū Nadīr.³⁷ Az-Zubayriyyāt, where the mosque of the sadaqa (i.e., the sadaqa of az-Zubayr) was located, was on the side of Baqī^c al-Gharqad.³⁸ The area between Baqī^c az-Zubayr and Baqī^c al-Gharqad was called al-Baqqāl.³⁹ Al-Baqqāl was to the east of Baqī^c az-Zubayr.⁴⁰ Baqī^c az-Zubayr itself was to the east of the abode of Banū Zurayq.⁴¹ It was also to the east of the courts which were close to the southern side of the Prophet's mosque, and was bounded by the abodes of Banū Zurayq, Banū Ghanm (from Najjār) and al-Baqqāl.⁴²

A report on the court of Huyayy b. Akhtab should be added to these remarks on the estates of Nadīr. One of the mosques in which the Prophet prayed was the mosque of Banū 'Amr, i.e., Banū 'Amr b. Mabdhūl (from Najjār), near Baqī^c az-Zubayr.⁴³ It was the mosque nearest to the mosque of the Prophet.⁴⁴ Besides Banū 'Amr b. Mabdhūl,

- ³⁶ Samhūdī, II, 68, 1. 4 mentions the mosque of az-Zubayr in Banū Muhammam (Ibn Zabāla) or in the sadaqa of az-Zubayr in Banū Muhammam (Ibn Shabba): qultu (=Samhūdī): wa-dhālika bi-l-jiz^c al-ma^crūf bi-z-zubayriyyāt gharbiyya mashrabati umm ibrāhīm, wa-qiblatuhā bi-qurb khunāfa wa-l-a^cwāf, wa-humā min amwāl banī muhammam.
- ³⁷ Samhūdī, II, 68, I. 9 (Ibn Shabba): anna n-nabiyya s aqaiafa z-zubayr mālahu lladhī yuqālu lahu banū muhajjam (!) min amwāl banī n-nadīr fa-biāfa ilayhi z-zubayr ashyā' min amwāl bani muhammam fa-taşaddaga bihā falā wuldihi. Cf. Ibn Safd, III, 103:... anna rasūla llāh s lammā khaita d-dūr bi-l-madīna jafala li-z-zubayr baqīfan wāsīfan.
- ³⁴ Qalyūbī, 39a, 30a: "The mosque of the sadaqa, to the west of the Mashraba (written: Mashrafa), in Hārat al-Khuddām, at the edge of BaqF al-Gharqad..."; cf. op.cit., 39a: Hārat al-Khuddām, near BaqF az-Zubayr. And see al-Hāzimī, al-Amākin, 30b-31a: BaqF al-Gharqad in Medina, ... and BaqF az-Zubayr, in Medina as well, in it there were courts and houses (written: wa-manār; cf. ^cUmdat al-akhbār, 243, 1. 2: .. fīhi dūr wa-manāzil).
- ³⁹ Qalyūbī, 37b (ism limā bayna... mina l-buyūt wa-ghayrihā). See also Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v. Baqqāl; 'Umdat al-akhbār, 241, 1. 9: ...ilā janbi baqī'i z-zubayr bi-l-baqqāl, wa-bihi dūr yujāwiru ba'duhā li-baqī'i z-zubayr wa-ba'duhā li-baqī'i l-gharqad.
- ⁴⁰ ^cUmdat al-akhbar, 243, 1. 3...wa-la^calla r-rahba llatt bi-harati l-khuddam (see above, n. 38) bi-tariq baqi^ci l-gharqad minhu.
- 41 Qalyūbī, 29b lists among the mosques in which the Prophet prayed the mosque of Baqī^{*} az-Zubayr, to the east of Banū Zurayq, near (*bi-jānib*) al-Baqqāl.
- ⁴² Samhūdi, I, 150, 1. 5 from bottom. And see Ibn Sa^cd, III, 51: aqta^ca rasūlu llâh ş li-^cubayda b. al-hārith wa-t-tufayl wa-akhawayhi mawdi^c khutbatihimi l-yawm bi-l madina fimā bayna baqi^c az-zubayr wa-bani māzin (from Najjār).
- ⁴³ Qalyūbi, 29b; and see ^cUmdat al-akhbār, 183, 1. 1: ...fi masjid bani ^camr b. mabdhūl wa-manziluhum ^cinda baqī^c az-zubayr.
- ⁴⁴ ^cUmdat al-akhbar, 115, 1. 5; Abū Dāwūd, al-Marāstl, 4.

another group, called Banū Mālik b. Mabdhūl is mentioned. Samhūdī lists three fortresses which belonged to Banū Mabdhūl: 1 al-Salj;⁴⁵ 2 a fortress which belonged to Banū Mālik b. Mabdhūl and was in the court of the family (al) of Huyayy b. Akhṭab; 3 a fortress which was in the court of Sirjis, the mawlā of az-Zubayr, which was near Baqr az-Zubayr.⁴⁶ The location of the second fortress is significant, because it bears clear evidence of the proximity of Huyayy's fortress to the Prophet's mosque.

Banu Qurayza

One of the sections (*arbā*^c) of Medina was known as Banū Qurayza.⁴⁷ Some *sadaqāt* of the Prophet had previously belonged to Banū Qurayza. Burqā and Mīthab belonged to az-Zabīr b. Bātā. Salmān al-Fārisī planted dates on them,⁴⁸ and they were part of what God bestowed (on the Prophet) from the estates of Qurayza.⁴⁹ The estate al-A^cwāf, which was mentioned above, is reported to have belonged to Khunāfa the Jew, who was from Banū Qurayza.⁵⁰ The Prophet housed Māriya the Copt in his *sadaqa* in Banū Qurayza.⁵¹ (Cf. Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm, mentioned above; Māriya was the mother of the Prophet's son Ibrāhīm.) Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm was to the north of (what became later known as) "the mosque of Banū Qurayza," near the eastern Harra, in a place called ad-Dasht, among the palm trees.⁵² "The mosque of Banū Qurayza" was built in the fortress of az-Zabīr b. Bātā. It was a considerable distance east of Masjid ash-Shams ("the mosque of the

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⁴⁵ Wüstanfeld, Medina, 49 has: al-Falaj.

⁴⁴ Samhûdī, I, 150, I. 8 from bottom. See Saleh Ahmad al-Ali, in *Islamic Culture*, 35(1961), 79. On the court of Şafiyya bint Huyayy see Samhûdī, II, 104, I. 17. On her bayt see Samhûdī, I, 329, I. 5; 327, I. 17.

⁴⁷ Al-Jāsir, *al-Manāsik*, 412. From the lack of mention of sections belonging to Banū Nadīr and Banū Qaynuqā^c one may possibly infer that these two clans were nearer than Qurayza to "the centre" of Medina.

⁴⁸ Cf. above, n. 32.

Samhudi, II, 153, I. 7. Qalyubi, 30a lists among the mosques in which the Prophet prayed the mosque of Banu Mithab, near Burqã and the other sadaqāt; al-Burqã is a name of one of the sadaqāt, near the mosque of Mithab, *ibid.*, 37b.

⁵⁰ Samhūdī, 11, 153, 1. 8. Cf. above, n. 36.

³¹ Ibn 'Abd al-Hakam, Futuh misr, ed. C. Torrey, New Haven, 1922, 52, 1. 19.

³² Al-Mațarī, 50a; cf. Samhūdī, 11, 36, 1. 18: the Mashraba is a mosque to the north of Banū Qurayza. And cf. Qalyūbī, 28a: Masjid al-Mashraba to the east of Masjid Banī Qurayza.

sun"), close to the eastern Harra, at the gate of a fruit-garden called Hājiza.⁵³ Bu^cāth was between Zuhra and Banū Qurayza.⁵⁴ According to a different account (above, p. 32), it was between (the court of) Qurayza and Harrat al-^cUrayd. It seems to follow that Zuhra corresponds to Harrat al-^cUrayd. The warriors who took part in the expedition against Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf retreated in the following course: Banū Umayya b. Zayd – Qurayza – Bu^cāth – Harrat al-^cUrayd, "and when they reached the Baqī^c al-Gharqad they cried 'Allāh Akbar'" (above, note 25). In Bu^cāth, which was one of the estates of Banū Qurayza, there was a cultivated field (*mazra^ca*) known as Qawrā.⁵³ Samhūdī suggests

ad-Dilāl (which was one of the Prophet's sadaqāt).⁵⁶ When Banū Qurayza left the Sāfila and moved to the 'Aliya they settled beside the torrent Mahzūr.⁵⁷ Mahzūr flows from the territory (min jihat) of Banū Qurayza and passes through Medina. Al-Baqī^c (i.e., Baqī^c al-Gharqad) and the mosque of the Prophet are along its course. At its end there is a heap of earth referred to as Kūmat Abī l-Hamrā'.⁵⁸ In another report, Mahzūr flows from Harrat Shawrān and passes the estates of Banū Qurayza, then it flows to Medina, waters it and continues on, passing the mosque of the Prophet.⁵⁹ Several sadaqāt of the

identifying it with Qawran, an orchard to the east of Medina, "below"

³³ Samhūdī, 11. 34; al-Mațarī, 49a-49b; al-Marăghī, 121. See also al-Jarh wa-1-ta² dīl, 11, 463.

Prophet (and other estates as well) seem to replace the estates of Banū

- ⁵⁴ Wăqidî, II, 460-461 describes the course taken from the Khandaq to Banû Qurayza: Sal^c - Rătij - ^cAbd al-Ashhal - Zuhra - Bu^cāth - Qurayza. See already F. Buhl in El¹, s.v. Bu^cāth. Banū Qurayza were on the way of the ^cAliya/^cAwāli people from the Khandaq to their houses. They had to go to Sal^c, then enter Medina, then go to the ^cAliya, Wāqidī, II, 474, I. 5 from bottom; cf. *ibid.*, 451 (Banū Wāqif were ordered to take their weapons when they went home for fear from Banū Qurayza).
- ³⁵ Yăqût, Buldân, s.v. Bu^cāth; and see Aghânt, XV, 163, I. 3 from bottom; ibid., 164, I. 3: fa-'nhazamati l-aws... fa-wallaw muş^cidina fi harrati qawrā nahwa al-^curayd wadhālika wajh tarīq najd.
- 56 Samhūdī, 11, 364, 1. 1; see also ibid., 262, 1. 16.
- ³⁷ Aghāni, XIX, 95, I. 7; Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v. Mahzūr (wa-qāla abū ^cubayd: mahzūr wādī qurayza). And see above, n. 32.
- ⁵⁸ Qalyūbī, 33b. On the Kūma see below (IV).
- ⁵⁹ ^cUmdat al-akhbār, 317. Samhūdī's reading (11, 216, 1. 3 from bottom): fa-yasqīhā was preferred to: fa-yashuqquhā.

Qurayza in other descriptions of the course of Mahzūr,⁶⁰ among them, Burqā, Mīthab and ad-Dilāl.⁶¹

Banú Qaynuqá^c

Elsewhere it is stated that Mukhayrīq was from the remnants (baqāyā) of Banū Qaynuqā^c.⁶² He was the wealthiest man among Banū Qaynuqā^c.⁶³

Banū Qaynuqā^c had a village which was close to two of the *sadaqāt*, Hasnā and Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm. The Bayt al-Midrās of the Jews was located in the village; a meeting of the Jewish scholars, one of whom was Ibn Ṣūriyā, took place there, as well as the scholars' dispute with the Prophet over the affair of the stoning.⁶⁴ The house (*manzil*) of ^cAbdallāh b. Salām (who is usually said to have belonged to Qaynuqā^c) ⁶⁵ was near the mosque of the Mashraba and the *sadaqa* called Hasnā, which was to the east of the Mashraba.⁶⁶

The name of Banū Qaynuqā^c's village can be inferred from the sources. As noted above, the Bayt al-Midrās was in the village of Banū Qaynuqā^c. According to one report the Prophet was invited by some Jews to come to al-Quff,⁶⁷ and he came to the Bayt al-Midrās (i.e., in al-Quff).⁶⁸ In addition to this, both Hasnā and the Mashraba were *in* (cf. above) al-Quff.⁶⁹ It may therefore be suggested, that al-Quff was the

- Samhūdi, II, 337, 1. 7 from bottom: wa-taqaddama anna ş-şāfiya wa-mā ma'ahā mina ş-şadaqāt mutajāwirāt bi-a^clā ş-şawrayni, qaşr marwān, wa-anna sayl mahzūr yasqīhā, thumma yufdī ilā ş-şawrayni, qaşr marwān, thumma ya'khudhu baina l-wādī 'alā qaşr banī yūsuf, thumma yaşubbu fī l-baqī^c (printed: an-naqī^c).
- ⁶¹ Samhūdī, II, 152, l. 18: fa-ammā ş-şāfiya wa-burqa (written with a tā' marbūța) wa-ddilāl wa-l-mīthab fa-mujāwirāt li-aflā ş-şawrayni min khalfi qaşr marwān b. alhakam wa-yasqīhā mahzūr; on aş-Şawrayni see also Bakrī, s.v. aş-Şawrāni; Wāqidī, II, 498, 499; Samhūdī, II, 337, l. 15.
- 42 Samhūdī, 11, 152, l. 14.
- ⁶³ Ibn Sa^cd, I, 502 (aysaru bani qaynuqā^e); see also at-Ţabarsī, l^clām al-warā, n.p., 1312, 46 (wa-kāna aktharahum mālan wa-ḥadā'iqa).
- " "Umdat al-akhbār, 347, l. 11 (written: al-Hasaniyya).
- ⁴⁵ Cf. Samhūdī, I, 115, l. 11.
- " "Umdat al-akhbar, 328, (Hasna written with a ta' marbûta).
- 67 Cf. Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v.: 'alamun li-wādin min awdiyati l-madīna 'alayhi māl liahlihā.
- 64 Samhūdi, II, 362, 1. 3 from bottom.
- ⁶⁹ On the Mashraba see Samhûdī, II, 36, l. 13: ... ft l-mâli lladhî yuqâlu lahu l-yawm mashrabatu umm ibrâhîm bi-l-quff. Bayt al-Midrās is mentioned in the instructions prepared for those who want to go to the Mashraba, loc.cit., 1. 2: fa-idhâ khallafta bayt midrâsi l-yahûd fa-ji'ta mâl abî ^cubayda b. ^cubayd allâh b. zam^ca al-asadî, fa-

village of Banū Qaynuqā^c and that the Bayt al-Midrās was in al-Quff. Al-Quff had orchards ⁷⁰ and pasture land.⁷¹

There are also other reports which indicate the proximity of Banū Qaynuqā^c to the land obtained by the Prophet in Zuhra. Al-Quff was near Zuhra.⁷² Part of the land in Zuhra had unirrigated palm shoots known as al-Hashshāshīna. Al-Hashshāshīna is reported to have been in the abode of Banū Qaynuqā^c.⁷³ They owned an estate (*māl*) called Hibra, near al-Hashshāshīna. Hibra was also the name of a fortress in Medina.⁷⁴ Another report says that Banū Qaynuqā^c had two fortresses near al-Hashshāshīna, near the estate called Hibra.⁷⁵ The two fortresses near al-Hashshāshīna appear to be the two fortresses belonging to Banū Qaynuqā^c referred to, in a different account, as near their famous market. Banū Qaynuqā^c settled near the edge (*muntahā*) of the bridge of Buṭhān on the side of the ^cĀliya; one of the markets of Medina (i.e., the market of Banū Qaynuqā^c) was there. They owned the two fortresses which were near the edge of the bridge, "on your right hand side when you go from Medina to the ^cĀliya if you choose (the road which crosses)

mashrabatu umm ibrāhīm ilā janbihi. Bayt al-Midrās (midrās al-yahūd) was on "Umar b. al-Khaţţāb's way to his estate in the "Āliya, Tafsir ţabari, I, 334, 1. 24: kāna li-sumar b. al-khaţţāb ard bi-a^clā l-madīna fa-kāna ya'tīhā wa-kāna mamarruhu 'alā ţarīq midrāsi l-yahūd etc. On Hasnā see Samhūdī, II, 362, 1. 7 from bottom: wa-sabaqa anna hasnā' (sic) aş-şadaqa bi-l-quff tashrabu bi-mahzūr wa-anna z-zāhira annahā lmawdī'u l-ma'rūf bi-l-husayniyyāt, wa-yu'ayyiduhu anna l-husayniyyāt fī shāmiyyi lmashraba bi-qurbihā wa-hiya mina l-quff.

- See above, n. 67: Samhūdī, II, 362-363 (... ft hā'iiin bi-l-quff). "Uthmān b. "Affān bought a fruit-garden in al-Quff which had belonged to an Ansārī. It was called Khamsūna because he paid fifty thousand (Dirham). Samhūdī suggests to identify it with an estate near al-Husayniyyāt called ath-Thamin.
- ¹¹ Samhūdī, II, 362, l. 4 from bottom: ...anna n-nabiyya ş kāna lahu qir^catu ghanam tar^cā bi-l-quff tarūhu ^calā māriya. On al-Quff see already Saleh Ahmad al-Ali (above, n. 46), 75.
- ⁷² Samhūdī, II, 319, l. 3 from bottom.
- ⁷³ Samhūdī, II, 291, I. 7 from bottom: Hishshan... jam^c hashsh... wa-huwa l-bustan, ism utum li-yahūd 'alā yamini t-tariq min shuhadā' uhud. wa-l-hashshāshina bi-şīghati l-jam^c aydan, bi-manāzil bani qaynugā^c. Cf. Samhūdi, II, 154, 1. 3: kānat amwāl rasūli llāh ş min amwāl bani n-nadīr hashshāshina wa-mazāri^c wa-ublā fa-gharasahā l-umarā' ba^cdu wa-'amilūhā. wa-hiya sab^catu amwāl, wa-dhakara l-hawā'ita l-mutaqaddima.
- ¹⁴ *Condat al-akhbar*, 260.
- ⁷³ Samhūdī, II, 284, s.v. Hibra (... 'inda l-māl lladhī yugālu lahu khaybar (!). Samhūdī remarks however that the reading should be Hibra. Later on the fortress Hibra was included in the court of Sālih b. Ja^cfar, Yāqūt, Buldan, s.v. Hibra. Cf. below, n. 176.

the bridge", and other fortresses as well.⁷⁶ One of the fortresses near the bridge is known by its name.⁷⁷ A list of the fortresses which the Banū Qaynuqā^c owned includes two fortresses near the bridge, two fortresses (apparently the same ones) near al-Hashshāshīna, close by an estate referred to as Hibra, and another fortress near the orchard referred to as Dhū sh-Shahr.⁷⁸

Two more Jewish groups should be noted.

Banū Hujr⁷⁹

They lived near the Mashraba which was close to the bridge. They had a fortress which carried their name.⁸⁰ It seems that the Mashrabat Umm Ibrahim and the bridge of Buthan (which is mentioned a few lines above in Samhudi) are being referred to here.

Banù Másika

Al-Quff was also inhabited by another Jewish clan called Banū Māsika. They lived near the *şadaqa* of Marwān b. al-Ḥakam, on the side of the Prophet's *şadaqa*. They owned the two fortresses which were in al-Quff, "in the village." ⁸¹ Several *şadaqāt* were located behind Marwān's *qaşr*.^{81a}

The historical background

Before elaborating on the identity of the other groups which inhabited the Rātij area it seems appropriate to look into the circumstances which facilitated the acquisition of land in that area by the Prophet. Fortunately we are well-informed about developments before the Hijra concerning two areas, which have a direct bearing on this subject. These are Husayka and Rātij, the people of which (according to Ibn Shabba) had owned the land that the Prophet "found" in Zuhra; "they were expelled from

- ⁷⁸ *Cumdat al-akhbar*, 23, 13. For more details on the market see below (111).
- ⁷⁹ See also Ibn Rusta, 62. For the vocalisation see Wüstenfeld, Medina, 30.
- ⁸⁰ Samhūdī, I, 115, I. 9 from bottom.
- ⁸¹ Loc.cit., l. 3; they are also mentioned in Ibn Rusta, 62; Ibn al-Athīr, Kamil, I, 656, l. 6 (Banū Māsila).
- ^{81a} See above, nn. 60, 61; and see Samhūdī, II, 362, 1. 3.

⁷⁶ Samhūdī, I, 115, I. 12.

⁷⁷ Samhüdī, II, 373, I. 8: Murayh ... yamīna gaşidi l-madina (cf. the preceding note); al-Hāzimī, al-Amākin, 174b has: Murbih; ^cUmdat al-akhbār 359: Marah. On the bridge see Wāqidī, I, 366, 374.

Medina before the Prophet's arrival" (wa-qad kānū ujlū cani l-madīna qabla maqdami n-nabiyyi s).

Husayka, which was near Dhubab, or, more precisely, between Dhubāb and Masājid al-Fath,⁸² was also called Husayka adh-Dhubāb.⁸³ Jews who had inhabited Husayka were driven out by the Khazrajī Banū Salima. Before the Prophet set out for Badr he camped at buyut as-Sugya, where Banu Salima had camped before their attack on the Jews of Husayka, who had many houses (manāzil) there and were the strongest Jewish group at that time (wa-hum acazzu yahūd kānū yawma'idhin). The Jews were defeated and since that day, the rest of the Jews were subordinate to Banū Salima. The name of the place used to be al-Buq^c, but the Prophet changed it on that day to as-Suqyä.⁸⁴ It is not clear whether the statement concerning the strength of the inhabitants of Husayka should be accepted at face value: reports on the strength, or the relative strength of the Arab and the Jewish clans in Medina are a most sensitive issue in accounts of pre-Islamic Medina. For this and other reasons, which cannot be discussed here, the veracity of the report on the subordination of the rest of the Jews (i.e., in Medina) to Banu Salima is doubtful. However, one thing can be established: as a result of a clash, which probably remained local, the Jewish inhabitants of Husayka were compelled to leave their homes. For some reasons Banū Salima failed to pick the fruits of their victory, and the Prophet evidently profited from this failure.

A broadly similar process is traceable in Rātij as well. Its population underwent considerable changes before the Hijra, which are summarized in a report dealing with three phases in this process: 1 Jews; 2 Banū i-Jadhmā'; and 3 the people of Rātij (*ahl rātij*), who were confederates (*hulafā'*) of Banū ^cAbd al-Ashhal.⁸⁵ It seems that Banū l-Jadhmā' had

⁸² Samhūdī, II, 291, 1. 10. It is followed by a more detailed description: nāhiyat ard ibn māqiya ilā qaşr ibn abl ^camr ar-rābid ilā qaşr ibni sh-sham^cal ilā adānt l-jurf; and see Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v.

⁸³ Waqidi, I, 23, l. 2.

⁴⁴ Waqidi, I, 21, 22-23. See already Hirschberg, 127.

⁸⁵ Samhūdī, I, 152, 1. 4: wa-kāna bi-rātij nās mina l-yahūd. wa-kāna rātij utuman summiyat bihi tilka n-nāhiya, Ihumma şāra li-banī l-jadhmā', thumma şāra ba'du liahl rātij lladhīna kānū hulafā'a bant 'abdi l-ashhal. Cf. above, n. 6. The abode of Banū l-Jadhmā' before they moved to Rātij is also recorded, Samhūdī, I, 115-116: wakānat banū l-hadhmā' (!) ...wa-hum hayy mina l-yaman, mā bayna maqbarati banī 'abdi l-ashhal wa-bayna qaşri bni 'arāk, thumma 'ntaqalū ilā rātij. They are listed

already left Rātij, or alternatively, had mingled with the other groups comprising "the people of Rātij" (the expression will be discussed below), by the time the Prophet arrived at Medina. When Ibn Shabba reports that "the people of Rātij" were expelled before the Prophet's arrival, this has to be interpreted as only pertaining to some of them, because Rātij was also populated by "the people of Rātij" after the Hijra, as will be shown below.

There is mention of the expulsion of Jewish groups from the area between Medina and Uhud in two other places. These sources discuss the villages Zuhra and Yathrib, which played a major role in the economic activities of both pre-Islamic and Islamic Medina. However, these reports probably refer to events in the days of the Prophet.

Zuhra was inhabited by $jumm\bar{a}^c$ (see below) of Jews, and it was one of the greatest ($a^c zam$) villages of Medina; its inhabitants have vanished ($wa-qad \ b\bar{a}d\bar{u}$).⁸⁶ Since both Nadīr and Thaclaba b. al-Fityawn inhabited Zuhra, the reference may be to the expulsion of Nadīr and of Thaclaba b. al-Fityawn.⁸⁷ According to az-Zubayr b. Bakkār, Zuhra was the biggest village in Medina ($a^c zamu \ qarya \ bi-l-madīna$) and it had three hundred (Jewish) goldsmiths.⁸⁸

As to Yathrib, its Jewish inhabitants, who were also *fummā*^c, also vanished and not a single one remained (*wa-qad bādū*, *fa-lam yabqa minhum ahad*).⁸⁹ On the expulsion of Jews from Yathrib see below (IV).

The Yathribī Jews had a special status within the Jewish population of Medina. The Aghānī⁹⁰ refers to them in the following statement: fakāna yaskunu yathrib jamā^ca min abnā'i l-yahūd fīhimi sh-sharaf wa-

among the Bedouin groups which "were with the Jews", Samhūdī, I, 114, I. 2; Aghānt, XIX, 25, I. 13: Banū l-Hirmān (!); Ibn Rusta, 62, I. 4: Banū l-Jadhmā (with an alif maqsūra), hayy mina l-yaman. Qaşr Ibn 'Arāk was in the neighbourhood of the cemetery of Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal, on the road to Uhud, Samhūdī, II, 361; Qaşr Ibn 'Awwān seems an error (this is Samhūdī's opinion); it it reported that Banū l-Jadhmā' settled in its southern side, Samhūdī, II, 361-362, quoting Yāqūt (Buldan, s.v.). Wüstenfeld, Medina, 31 has: Ibn 'Arrāk.

- ¹⁶ Samhūdī, I, 115, l. 6 from bottom.
- ¹⁷ The expulsion of the latter clan is probably referred to in Muhabbar, 112: thumma sanatu thalāth. fīhā ajlā rasūlu llāhi ş banī l-fītyawn 'an ghayr qitāl. fa-lahiqū bi-sh-shām.
- ¹⁴ Al-Maghānim al-muļāba, 173. Cf. below, n. 93.
- ¹⁹ Samhūdī, I, 116, l. 11.
- ⁹⁰ XIX, 95, I. 11.

th-tharwa wa-l-cizz calā sā'iri l-yahūd. The edition of Dār al-Kutub⁹¹ records a variant reading on the margin of the text. It has: jummā^c min umanā (!) l-yahūd. The reading jummā^c, which is a lectio difficilior, is preferable. Translation: "And Yathrib was inhabited by people from various Jewish clans,⁹² who excelled the rest of the Jews in nobility, wealth and power." This is corroborated by a report on the beginnings of the Jewish settlement in Medina. According to this report, they (i.e., the bulk of the settlers) settled in Zuhra, while the nobility among them (jumhūruhum) settled in Yathrib.⁹³

Rātij, Husayka, Zuhra and Yathrib were adjacent localities to the northwest of Medina. The accounts of the first two localities brought above explain the vacuum which was created in the area shortly before the Hijra. It was filled by the Prophet after the Hijra. The inhabitants of the latter two localities, or some of them, were expelled in Islamic times. The arrival of the Prophet at Medina can be viewed as completing a process which had already begun some time before the Hijra.

- ⁹¹ XXII, ed. ^cAbd al-Karīm Ibrāhīm al-^cAzbāwī and Mahmūd Muhammad Ghunaym, 1393/1973, 109.
- 92 On abnā' (al-yahūd) cf. Naqā'id, Glossary, s.v.
- ⁹³ Samhūdī, I, 113, I. 2: fa-kāna jamī^cuhum bi-zuhra wa-kānat lahumu l-amwāl bi-ssāfila . . . wa-nazala jumhūruhum bi-makān yugālu lahu yathrib bi-mujtamati s-suyūl mimma yall zaghaba. On jumhur see Lane, s.v. Among other meanings, the following meaning is recorded: "the eminent, elevated or noble of men, or people", quoted from Tāj al-^carūs: al-jumhūr mina n-nās jalluhum wa-ashrāfuhum. Cf. however Ta'rīkh Tabart, III, 462. Cf. al-Maraghi, 7b-8a. He reports, that Yathrib was the abode (manazil) of Banu Haritha b. al-Harith, a bain from Aws. It had been, before the settlement of Aws and Khazraj, the main village of Medina (umm qurd l-madina) and in it were most (mu²zam) of the Jews, who were the rulers of Medina (wa-l-ghalibina cala l-madina) after the Amalekites. And there were in it three hundred Jewish goldsmiths. According to al-Maraghi, al-Matari reported this on the authority of Ibn Zabāla, This, he adds, should however be looked into (wa-fthi nazar), because another report of Ibn Zabāla states that the three hundred goldsmiths were in Zuhra (cf. above, n. 88), which was one of the biggest villages of Medina. The report quoted from Ibn Zabala appears in al-Matari, fol. 11. Samhudí (I, 7, 1. 11) thought, that al-Matari added the piece of information concerning the goldsmiths out of misunderstanding: he thought that Yathrib and Zuhra were the same place: wa-qad naqala dhalika l-jamal al-matart sanhu, wa-zāda fī n-naql, annahu kāna bihā thalāthumi'ati sā'igh mina lyahûd, wa-ibn zabâla innamâ dhakara anna dhâlika kāna bi-zuhra (printed: bizuhwa), wa-gad ghâyara (printed: ghâmara) baynahâ wa-bayna yathrib, wa-ka-anna ljamāl fahima 'ttihādahumā. "The place in which the market of Banū Qaynuqā^e was located" (cf. below, n. 194) is also connected with the beginnings of the Jewish settlement in Medina; Samhudi, I, 110, 1. 14: fa-nazalü fi mawdi^c süq bani qaynuqå^c.

The abundance of source-material about Rātij facilitates a detailed discussion of its inhabitants, with an emphasis on their tribal affinities. Rātij was inhabited after the Hijra, and probably also shortly before it (i.e., in the "third phase", see above) by "the people of Rātij" (ahl rātij), who were confederates (hulafā') of Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal. The expression "the people of" is unusual (although a name of a locality sometimes becomes a name of a tribal group). Watt observes: "... We find units like the 'people of Rātij' which was an amalgamation of fragments joined together for mutual defence, and becoming in course of time also linked by blood"; and elsewhere he says: "... in some cases, like that of the 'people of Rātij', organization by kinship appeared to be giving place to organization by locality".^{93a} This inspiring observation needs further corroboration. At any rate the expression "the people of" also appears together with names of other localities in the vicinity of Medina.⁹⁴ These localities were invariably inhabited by Jews – they are all mentioned in the chapter in which Samhūdī deals with the Jewish population of Medina. They seem to have had a peculiar kind of population, as can be learned from the term jummā^c. It appears with regard to two of these localities: Zuhra: wa-kānat bi-zuhra jummā^c mina l-yahūd,95 and Yathrib: ahl yathrib, wa-kānū jummā^can mina l-yahūd;* jumma^c means: people from various tribes who have the same status, or, what seems more appropriate in our case: groups from various tribes.⁹⁷

On dealing with the inhabitants of Rātij special attention will be paid to their pedigrees.

Banú ^cAbd al-Ashhal

This clan seems to have played the most important role in the area. Actually they did not live in Rātij itself but on its outskirts; their abode

⁹⁵ Samhūdī, I, 115, I. 6 from bottom.

⁹³⁶ Watt, 173, 241, respectively.

See Samhūdī, I, 115, I. 18 (Zuhra); 116, I. 6 (ash-Shawi); I. 11 (Yathrib). The same probably applies to al-Anābis, al-Wālij and Zubāla, I. 5; see I. 8: "the people of al-Wālij"; and perhaps also to Husayka, see above, n. 2.

^{*} Samhūdī, I, 116, l. 11.

⁹⁷ Az-Zamakhshari, al-Fā'iq, ed. M.A. Ibrāhim and 'A.M. al-Bijāwi, Cairo, 1364/ 1945-1367/1948, 1, 216: al-ashābih min qabā'il shattā; Ibn al-Athīr, an-Nihāya fī ghartbi l-hadīth wa-l-athar, ed. T.A. az-Zāwī, and M.M. at-Ţanāhī, Cairo, 1383/1963, s.v.: jamāfāt min qabā'il shattā mutafarriqa.

was between Rātij and Zuhra.⁹⁸ In the battle of Khandaq they dug a ditch around their abode, going from Rātij to the back of the abode.⁹⁹ Their abode was at the edge of the eastern Harra.¹⁰⁰ The area was named for Wāqim, one of their fortresses.¹⁰¹ The eastern Harra (Harrat Zuhra) was also called Harrat Wāqim and Harrat Banī Qurayza, since they settled on its southern side.¹⁰²

"The people of Rātij" were, as was already mentioned, the confederates of 'Abd al-Ashhal. This relationship began before the Hijra. They are mentioned together with 'Abd al-Ashhal, Zafar and Banū Mu^cāwiya in connection with an attempt carried out by these groups to ally with Quraysh.¹⁰³ 'Abd al-Ashhal and Zafar belong to the tribal group Nabīt.^{103a} Mu^cāwiya originally belonged to the tribal group cAmr b. 'Awf,¹⁰⁴ (which belonged, like Nabīt, to Aws), but they broke away from their group and moved to another section of Medina.¹⁰⁵

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In one passage they are referred to as "the people of Rātij".¹⁰⁷ They settled in the vicinity of (what became later known as the) Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm, and had a fortress near it.¹⁰⁸ In the battle of Bu^cāth,

- 98 See above, n. 54.
- Wāqidī, 11, 450, 1. 2 from bottom: wa-khandaqat banū sabdi l-ashhal salayhā minimā yalī rātij ilā khalfihā.
- 100 Samhudi, I, 134, I. 3 from bottom.
- ¹⁰¹ *Ibid*, 134–135.
- ¹⁰² Samhūdī, 11, 289, 1. 8 from bottom.
- ¹⁰³ Munammaq, 32.
- ^{103a}Ibn Hazm, Ansåb, 338.
- ¹⁰⁴ They appear as such in Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 335.
- ¹⁰⁵ (Apparently forming a new alliance), Samhūdī, I, 137, l. 3 from bottom.
- ¹⁰⁶ See already Th. Nöldeke, Beiträge zur Kentniss der Poesie der alten Araber, Hannover, 1864, 54-56, esp. 56, n. 1; J. Horovitz, Koranische Untersuchungen, Berlin – Leipzig, 1926, 158.
- ¹⁰⁷ Ibn Hazm, Ansåb, 338: wa-za^cūrā^c, bain, wa-hum ahl rātij. And see al-Qalqashandī, Nihāyatu l-arab fī ma^crifat ansābi l-^carab, ed. Ibrāhīm al-Abyārī, Cairo, 1378/1959, 271; Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v. Rātij: ... wa-huwa li-banī za^cwarā (sic; see below, n. 114) b. jusham b. al-hārith b. al-khazraj b. ^camr, wa-huwa n-nabīt b. mālik b. al-aws. Ibn al-Kalbī, Jamhara, Ms. Br. Mus., Add. 22346, 55b mentions Za^cūrā^c also as ^cAbd al-Ashhal^s son, see below.
- ¹⁰⁸ Samhúdi, I, 115, 1. 10: banú za^cúrā' ^cinda mashrabati umm ibrāhīm b. an-nabiyyi ş, wa-lahumu l-uţumu lladhi ^cindahā. And see ibid., II, 36-37 (Sayf al-Qabr should read: Abū Sayf al-Qayn, see *Isāba*, VII, 197). On Banū Hujr, who were also near the Mashraba, see above, p. 39.

Banū Za^cūrā' joined the Jewish clans together with Nabīt; however, they are still referred to as being "from Ghassān" and are presented as being distinct from the Nabīt.¹⁰⁹ Ibn Zabāla does not mention Za^cūrā' among the clans of Nabīt either, or even among the clans of the Anṣār.¹¹⁰ The reason seems to be that he had already listed them among the Jewish clans of Medina.

Genealogies which refer to a period after Bu^cāth reflect Za^cūrā"s incorporation into the tribal group Nabit. There are, however, divergent accounts of their Nabîtî pedigree. According to Ibn Hazm, who mentions Zacūrā' among the clans of Nabīt, Zacūrā' was the son of Jusham b. al-Hārith b. al Khazraj b. 'Amr (= Nabīt). Thus Za'ūrā' "became the brother" of Jusham's other sons 'Abd al-Ashhal, 'Amr and al-Harīsh.¹¹¹ It is reported that Banū Za^cūrā' b. Jusham, from the people of Rātij, who were the nephews of 'Abd al-Ashhal (banū akhīhim), settled near them.¹¹² But another account, referring to an incident during the battle of Uhud, seems to indicate that at that time (3AH) Za^cūrā' were in fact living in the abode of 'Abd al-Ashhal. The Za'uri Salama b. Salama "came to (the abode of) 'Abd al-Ashhal and informed his people" etc.¹¹³ This report indicates, that in what seems to be the second stage of their incorporation into Nabit, they were incorporated into 'Abd al-Ashhal. This can be corroborated by pedigrees of Za^cūra'. According to one version Za'ura''s father, Jusham, was the son of 'Abd al-Ashhal.¹¹⁴ In another version, Zacura' himself was the son of 'Abd al-Ashhal.¹¹⁵

- ¹⁰⁹ Aghānī, XV, 162, 1. 15.
- ¹¹⁰ Samhūdī, I, 136, I. 15.
- ¹¹¹ Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 338. And see al-Qalqashandī, loc.cit.
- ¹¹² 'Umdat al-akhbār, 28, 1. 11.
- ¹¹³ (See on him Isāba; III, 148, s.v. Salama b. Salāma b. Waqsh b. Zughba b. Za^cūrā' b. ^cAbd al-Ashhal.) Wāqidī, 1, 208: wa-kharaja salama b. salāma b. waqsh (erroneously vocalised: waqash) ... hattā idhā kāna bi-adnā l-^cird ... jā'a ilā mazra^catihi bi-adnā l-^cird fa-kharaja hattā atā banī ^cabdi l-ashhal fa-khabbara qawmahu bi-mā laqiya minhum. And see op. cit., 211: wa-qāla iyās b. aws b. ^catīk (from Za^cūrā', Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 340): yā rasūla llāhi, nahnu banū ^cabdi l-ashhal ...
- ¹¹⁴ Ta'rikh Khalifa, I, 33: wa-min ahl ràtij iyâs b. aws b. ^catik (see the preceding note)... b. za^cwarā (see this reading in Ibn Hishām, II, 342) b. jusham b. ^cabd al-ashhal.
- ¹¹⁵ See above, n. 113. And see Ibn Sa^cd, VIII, 321-324 (with one exception, p. 321: Umm 'Amr...b. Za^curā' b. Jusham, the brother of 'Abd al-Ashhal b. Jusham); in Ibn Sa^cd, III, 439 both pedigrees appear. Cf. also another Nabītī group, Banū 1-Harīsh. It was already said above, that al-Harīsh was the son of Jusham; however in the pedigree of one Şayfī b. Qayzī, Harīsh figures as 'Abd al-Ashhal's son, *Isaba*, III, 455 (his mother was as-Ṣa^cba, Abū 1-Haytham b. at-Tayyihān's sister, see below, n. 120).

The technique by which Za^cūrā' were incorporated into the tribal system of Nabīt and of 'Abd al-Ashhal is called dukhūl fi (lit. "entering into"), i.e., affiliating with a tribal group and adopting its pedigree. Anmār "entered into" Banū l-Hujaym and "said" (i.e., reported their pedigree as being:) Anmār b. Hujaym.¹¹⁶ Banū 'Awf b. Lu'ayy b. Ghālib "entered into" Banū Dhubyān b. Ghatafān b. Qays 'Aylān and they are (known as) Banū Murra b. 'Awf b. Sa^cd b. Dhubyān. When they report their pedigree (*yantamūna*) they say: Banū 'Awf b. Sa^cd b. Dhubyān.¹¹⁷ Tha^claba b. Sa^cd b. Dhubyān "declared" 'Awf b. Lu'ayy his brother and the latter became known as 'Awf b. Sa^cd b. Dhubyān.¹¹⁸

Banů 'Amr b. Jusham 119

It has already been said that 'Amr was 'Abd al-Ashhal's brother. Several women from this group are said to have been "from the people of Rātij".¹²⁰

- ¹¹⁶ Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 207, I. 2; and see *ibid*, 269, I. 11; 332, I. 12; Durr manthür, II, 191,
 I. 6 from bottom.
- ¹¹⁷ Ibn Hazm, Ansab/13 (the editor preferred the reading min ghatafan).
- ¹¹⁸ Ta'ríkh Ya^cqūbí, 1, 235: ... wa-ja^calahu lahu akhan, fa-sara nasabuhu fi ^cawf b. sa^cd b. dhubyân.
- ¹¹⁹ Ibn Hazm, Ansab, 338.
- ¹²⁰ Muhabbar, 417: hind bint sahl... b. camr b. jusham, min ahl râtij. Cf. Ibn Sacd, VIII, 324, On Mulayka, Abū I-Haytham b. at-Tayyihān's wife, see Muhabbar, 417; Ibn Sa^cd, VIII, 325. On his sister as-Sa^cba see the same sources and above, n. 115. And see Ibn Sa^cd, III, 449: wa-qadi 'nqarada aydan wuld ^camr b. jusham b. al-hārith b. alkhazraj mundhu zamān ṭawīl, wa-hum ahl rātij, illā anna fī ahl rātij gawman min ghassan min wuld culba b. jafna khulafa'uhum (!; the Leiden ed., vol. 111,, 21, is also erroneous) al abī sa id, wa-lahumu l-yawm 'agibun yaskunūna s-safrā'a bi-nāhiyati lmadina, wa-yadda^cūna annahum min wuld rāfī^c b. sahl, wa-anna ^cammahum cabdallah b. sahl alladhi shahida badran; see also ibid, 449: the wife of Cubayd b. at-Tayyihan was as-Sa^cba bint Rafi^c b. ^cAdī b. Zayd b. Umayya, min wuld ^culba b. jafna al-ghassani, ha-hum hulafa uhum. Rafic b. Sahl seems to have been the grandfather of Wahba bint Sulayman b. Rafi^c b. Sahl b. ^cAdI b. Zayd b. Umayya b. Mazin b. Sa^cd b. Qays b. al-Ayham b. Ghassan, from the inhabitants of (min sakint) Ratij (printed: Rābikh), who were the confederates of Banū Zacūrā' b. Jusham, (Zacūrā' being) the brother of Abd al-Ashhal b. Jusham; in times of war they (i.e., the inhabitants of Rātij) were mobilized with Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal (wa-da^cwatuhum ft bant 'abdi lashhal); Ibn Sa^cd, IV, 373. ^cAbdallah b. Sahl is listed by Ibn Ishāq among the Za^cūrī participants in Badr; according to another version quoted by Ibn Hishām (11, 343) he was from Ghassan; see also Isaba, IV, 122. And see below, n. 151.

Al-Ja^cādira

Rātij had also inhabitants from another branch of Aws, namely Banū Murra b. Mālik b. al-Aws. Murra had two sons, ^cĀmir and Sa^cd.¹²¹ According to one account, the Ja^cādira included all Banū Murra; in different accounts they included only the descendants of either ^cĀmir or Sa^cd.¹²² All of Banū Murra, the descendants of both ^cĀmir and Sa^cd, inhabited Rātij.¹²³

We can hypothesize that Banū Sa^cd, and perhaps Banū ^cÅmir as well, shifted their loyalty at some undefined date (however not long before the Hijra) from Banū Zacūrā' to Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal. Probably, they were following Banū Zacūrā' themselves. In this case the statement that Banū Zacūrā' were "the people of Rātij" is to be interpreted in the following way: they, together with other tribal groups who were their confederates, were "the people of Rātij". The Zacūrī Salama b. Salāma was married to a woman "from the Jacadira, from the inhabitants of Rātij (min sākinī rātij), from Aws, confederates (hulafā') of Banū Za^cūrā' b. Jusham".¹²⁴ The pedigree of that woman supposedly reflects the pre-Islamic conditions at Rātij because it seems that by the Hijra Zacūrā' had lost their independent tribal organization. She was from Banū Sa^cīd (cf. above, note 121) b. Murra.¹²⁵ Another report states, that the Jacadira, "who are Banū Sacīd b. Murra b. Mālik b. al-Aws",¹²⁶ were incorporated into (lit. "are in") Banů Abd al-Ashhal (wa-hum fi bani ^cabdi l-ashhal)¹²⁷ – this apparently refers to a later development. Some

- ¹²¹ Ibn Hazm, Ansab, 345; Caskel, I, no. 184 has: 'Amira and Said; Ibn al-Kalbi (above, n. 107), 56b has 'Amir and Saida.
- ¹²² Ibn Hazm, loc.cit: wa-hā'ulā'i banū murra... wa-humu l-ja^cādira; and see Caskel, Index, s.v. Samhūdī, I, 139, I. 11 lists only the three butūn which were the descendants of cĀmir b. Murra: wa-wa'il wa-umayya wa-catiyya banū zayd humu l-ja^cādira. On the other hand Ibn Sa^cd, VIII, 358 lists only the Banū Sa^cId (sic; cf. above, n. 121) b. Murra: wa-mina l-ja^cādira, wa-hum banū sa^cId etc. Ibn Khaldūn, clbar, II, 85 says, that Banū Sa^cd are the Ja^cādira. Cf. Samhūdī, loc. cit., I. 16; al-Marāghī, 8b; Ibn Hazm, loc. cit., I. 12.
- ¹²³ On Sa^{cd} b. Murra see Ibn Hazm, Ansåb, 345, 346; Samhüdī, I, 152, I. 7 (quoting Ibn Hazm). On ^cAmir b. Murra see ^clqd, 111, 377, I. 11: ^camira (sic, cf. above, n. 121), hum ahl rābikh (read: rātij), b. murra b. mālik b. al-aws, minhum wā'il b. zayd b. gays b. ^cāmira wa-abū gays b. al-aslat.
- ¹²⁴ Ibn Sa^cd, III, 439, 1. 13.

¹²⁵ Isaba, VIII, 265.

¹²⁶ Cf. above, n. 122.

¹²⁷ Ibn Sa^cd, VIII, 358; see also Isaba, VII, 706 (... Sa^cd b. Murra...): mina l-ja^cAdira, wa-cidAduhum ft bant cabdi l-ashhal. The preposition ft (cf. the expression dakhala ft, above, p. 46) indicates the status of confederates, see Waqidi, III, 1082, 1. 5: ...

corroborative data can be adduced. A man of Ghassani extract was from the inhabitants of Rātij, who were the confederates of Banū Zacūrā' b. Jusham, (Za^cūrā' being) the brother of ^cAbd al-Ashhal b. Jusham; in times of war they (i.e., the inhabitants of Rātij) were mobilized with Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal (above, note 120; the last statement may reflect a later period, after Zacura' themselves were incorporated into 'Abd al-Ashhal). A man from Azd Shanū'a is said to have been from Zacūrā', or a confederate of Zacūrā'; other passages say: from cAbd al-Ashhal; a confederate of cAbd al-Ashhal (below, note 151). The famous nagib Abū I-Haytham b. at-Tayyihan, who is reported to have been from Bali was, according to one version, from Za^cura'. In a different passage he is described as a confederate of Zacūrā'. Yet another report states that he was a confederate of 'Abd al-Ashhal (see below, note 152). All this reflects the following development in Rātij, which probably took place before the Hijra: the decline of the Ghassani Banu Zacura' and the rise of 'Abd al-Ashhal. The divergent pedigrees of Za'ura' and of the other inhabitants of Rātij are clear indications of this process.

Banu I-Harith b. al-Khazraj

Rătij was also inhabited by Khazrajī clans, among them Banū l-Hārith b. al-Khazraj. A report about the temporary settlement of a man from Banū l-Hārith in the Rātij area mentions ash-Shawt locality. Ash-Shawt was between Medina and Uhud,¹²⁸ to the north of Dhubāb, near the houses (*manāzil*) of Banū Sā^cida and the Kūmat Abī l-Hamrā['].¹²⁹ It was in the Jabbāna, as was Dhubāb.¹³⁰ Rātij was to the northeast of Dhubāb.¹³¹ Ash-Shawt was once inhabited by Jews.¹³² The people of ash-Shawt owned a fortress called ash-Shar^cabī, which was the fortress behind Dhubāb.¹³³ In one of his verses Qays b. al-Khatīm mentions a

rahtun min aslam kānu fīnā. hulafā' lanā; and see Balādhurī, Ansāb al-ashrāf, 1, 284, 1. 6: wa-ka^cb b. al-ashraf at-tā'ī min banī nabhān, halif banī n-nadīr; Bayhaqī, Dalā'il an-nubuwwa, ed. 'Abd ar-Rahmān Muhmmad 'Uthmān, al-Madīna, 1969, II, 456: wa-kāna ka^cb b. al-ashraf al-yahūdī wa-huwa ahadu banī n-nadīr aw fihim. Cf. the editor's note: hiya ka-dhālika bi-l-asl wa-s-sahīh annahā "aw qayyimuhum".

- 128 Yaqut, Buldan, s.v. ash-Shawt.
- 129 Samhūdī, II, 332, I. 13.
- ¹³⁰ Loc.cit., l. 16:... bi-sh-shawt mina l-jabbana. Cf. above. p. 31.
- ¹³¹ See above. n. 4. Cf. above, n. 7.
- ¹³² Samhūdī, I, 116, l. 5; above, n. 94.
- 133 Samhûdî, loc. cit.

battle ("the day of as-Sarrára") which took place between ash-Shar'abī and Rātij.¹³⁴ As-Sarrára was a place near Medina, between ash-Shar'abī and Ratij.¹³⁵

On the settlement of the Hārithī the following data can be adduced: Banū Jusham and Banū Zayd, who were both (i.e., Jusham and Zayd) the sons of al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj and were twins, lived in as-Sunh¹³⁶ after they had left the abode, shared by all of Banū l-Hārith b. al-Khazraj.¹³⁷ A descendant of Jusham, 'Inaba b. 'Amr b. Khadīj broke away from his clan, settled in ash-Shawt and heaped up the heap of earth (al-Kūma) known as Kūmat Abī-Hamrā'. Afterwards he returned to as-Sunh.¹³⁸ This incident was evidently short-lived.

A section of Banū l-Hārith which actually settled in the Rātij area was Banū Khudāra b. 'Awf b. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj. They broke away from their tribal group and settled in the court referred to as Jirār Sa'd ("the jars of Sa'd", i.e. Sa'd b. 'Ubāda, from the Khazrajī Banū Sā'ida), near the market of Medina.¹³⁹ Jirār Sa'd were probably in Rātij (see below, III).

Whereas the time of Banū Khudāra's settlement in Rātij is not reported, the time of 'Inaba's can be deduced: it took place approximately two generations before the days of the Prophet, because 'Inaba was the grandfather of one of the Prophet's companions,

- 135 Bakrī, s.v. as-Sarrāra (printed: Rābikh).
- ¹³⁶ See Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v.; Samhūdī, II, 325, I. 1; Bakrī, s.v. Sunuh.

¹³⁴ Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v. ash-Sharfabī; Diwān, ed. Nāsir ad-Dīn al-Asad, p. 125.

¹³⁷ Samhūdī, I, 140, I. 12.

¹³⁸ Samhūdī, I, 140, 1. 7 from bottom: wa-kharaja ^cutba (!) b. ^cumar (!) b. khadīj b. ^cāmir b. jusham b. al-hārith b. al-khazrajī (sic) fa-sakana sh-shawia wa-kawwama l-kūma yuqālu (!) lahā kūmat abī l-hamrā', thumma raja^ca fī s-sunh. On the Kūma see below (IV).

¹³⁹ Samhūdī, I, 140, I. 5 from bottom: wa-kharajat banū khudra (!) b. ^cawf b. al-hārith b. al-khazrajī (sic) hattā sakanū d-dāra llatī yugālu lahā jirār sa^cd mimmā yalī sūga l-madīna; and see Samhūdī, I, 148, I. 16; Samhūdī, II, 62, I. 6:... anna n-nabiyya ş wada^ca yadahu ^calā l-hajari lladhī fī ujum sa^cd b. ^cubāda ^cinda jirār sa^cd wa-sallā fī masjid banī khudāra. Cf. ^cAbd ar-Razzāq, V, 490: the Prophet visited Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda before Badr in (the abode of) Banū l-Hārith b. al-Khazraj. According to another report the domain of Banū Khudāra was to the south of the abode of Banū Sā^cida, between this abode and Budā^ca, near the market of Medina, al-Matarī, 78a. The text has "this abode", but before that the mosque of Banū Khudāra, near the fortress which is in Jirār Sa^cd, is mentioned. It was "to the south of the abode of Banū Sā^cida and between (!) Budā^ca".

Khubayb b. Isāf b. ^cInaba.¹⁴⁰ He may have attempted to take over and cultivate a tract of land that offered excellent conditions for farming; the area was also of commercial significance (see below, IV).

The rise of Banū l-Hārith occurred about the same time. As was shown by Prof. M. J. Kister, Nadīr and Qurayza, who had carried out the collection of taxes from Aws and Khazraj for the Persians, were replaced by 'Amr b. al-Itnāba al-Khazrajī, who lived in the second half of the sixth century.¹⁴¹ 'Amr belonged to one of the groups of Banū l-Hārith, namely the Banū Mālik al Agharr.¹⁴² He was the grandfather of one of the Prophet's companions, Qaraza b. Ka^cb b. 'Amr.¹⁴³ Thus we see that two generations before the Hijra a man from Banū l-Hārith was entrusted by the Persians with the collection of taxes in Medina, and two generations before the Hijra a Hārithī attempted to obtain an important tract of land to the northwest of Medina. Perhaps the settling of Banū Khudāra in the area of Rātij should also be connected with the rise of Banū l-Hārith at that period.

Awsī, or even Nabītī pedigrees of people who were (according to an earlier pedigree) from Banū l-Hārith are quite unique. Khubayb b. Isāf is called al-Awsī.¹⁴⁴ 'Abdallāh b. Zayd and his brother al-Hārith, who were from another group of Banū l-Hārith, are mentioned by Ibn Hazm in a passage dealing with that group. The following pedigree is recorded: 'Abdallāh b. Zayd b. 'Abd Rabbihi b. Tha'laba b. Zayd b. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj.¹⁴⁵ Ibn Hazm remarks, however, that according to another account they were from Banū Jusham b. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj; ostensibly, this does not make much difference, because Jusham was Zayd's brother, and at any rate the latter version leaves them in the ranks of the Khazrajī Banū l-Hārith b. al-Khazraj. But the "Jusham b. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj" who is probably referred to here can be found

- ¹⁴¹ M.J. Kister, "al-Hīra", in Arabica, 15(1968), 145-149.
- ¹⁴² Ibn Hazm, Ansab, 363, 365.
- ¹⁴³ "Al-Hīra" (above, n. 141), 148 (footnote); 'Amr's granddaughter Kabsha bint Wāqid was 'Abdallāh b. Rawāḥa's mother, *Iṣāba*, IV, 83.
- ¹⁴⁴ Işaba, II, 261 (... b. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj b. al-Aws al-Anşārī al-Awsī). Cf. Istrāb, II, 443; Usd al-ghāba, II, 101-102.
- ¹⁴⁵ Ibn Hazm, Ansab, 361.

¹⁴⁰ Işâba, II, 261. On the settlement of another group from al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj, namely Banů Khudra (al-Abjar) in a new abode see Samhůdi, I, 140, 1. 4 from bottom. It should perhaps be connected with the Kûma-affair and the settlement of Banů Khudāra.

in the pedigree of 'Abdallāh b. Zayd's grandson: Bashīr b. Muhammad b. 'Abdallāh b. Zayd b. 'Abd Rabbihi b. Tha'laba b. Zayd b. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj b. Jusham b. al-Hārith b. al-Khazraj b. 'Amr, i.e., an-Nabīt, b. Mālik b. al-Aws.¹⁴⁶ Possibly, part of Banū l-Hārith was incorporated into the tribal system of Nabīt by "becoming" the sons of the Nabītī Jusham and the brothers of 'Abd al-Ashhal.¹⁴⁷ Finally, it is noteworthy that a member of a once powerful group in Medina, the grandson of the above-mentioned tax collector 'Amr b. al-Itnāba, Qaraza b. Ka'b, was a confederate of Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal.¹⁴⁸

The data concerning some groups of Banū l-Hārith b. al-Khazraj seem to indicate that peculiar pedigrees may reflect a later stage than that recorded as the "standard genealogical system" in the *nasab* compilations. On the other hand these pedigrees reflect a process which was also discernible in discussions of other Rātijī groups, namely the growing influence of 'Abd al-Ashhal or perhaps of Nabīt in general.

Three more Khazrajī clans inhabited Rātij: Banū Sā^cida¹⁴⁹ and Banū Zurayq – passages relating to their abodes will be brought below, III – and Banū Hudayla (from Najjār).¹⁵⁰

An important component in the population of Rātij was people of Bedouin extraction and Bedouin clans (i.e., parts of clans), perhaps in the process of becoming sedentary. The first category included people

- ¹⁴⁷ This is perhaps reflected in Samhūdī's interpretation of a statement quoted from Ibn Zabāla which concerns ash-Shawt. 'Inaba from Banū Jusham b. al-Hārith from Khazraj settled in ash-Shawt (see above); Ibn Zabāla's words seem to refer to the Khazrajī Jusham b. al-Hārith, while Samhūdī says that the group from Nabīt is meant here, Samhūdī, 1, 116, 1. 6: wa-kāna li-ahli sh-shawt al-utumu lladht yuqālu lahu sh-shartabl, wa-huwa l-utumu lladht dūna dhubāb, wa-qad sāra li-bant jusham b. al-hārith b. al-khazraj (now comes Samhūdī's interpretation:) ayi l-asghar, yafnī ikhwata banī 'abdi l-ashhal.
- ¹⁴⁴ Ibn Hazm, Ansab, 365; Ibn Sa^cd, VI, 17.
- ¹⁴⁹ Banū Sā^cida seem to have been in the Prophet's time (at least in 9AH) the owners of ash-Shawt. Abū Usayd as-Sā^cidī (see on him *Isāba*, V, 723-724) reports that he brought the woman from Banū I-Jawn whom the Prophet had married to as-Shawt, behind Dhubāb, to a fortress, see Ibn Sa^cd, VIII, 146, 1.9; and see Usd al-ghāba, V, 398, 1.3 (hā^cit yuqālu lahu sh-shawt... wa-qad utiya bi-l-jawniyya fa-unzilat fī bayt min nakhl). According to a similar report (with an almost identical chain of transmitters), on the authority of the same person, he brought her to the fortress of Banū Sā^cida, Ibn Sa^cd, VIII, 144, 1. 15; and see *loc. cit.*, 1. 6.

¹⁴⁶ Ta'rikh dimashq, X, ed. Muhammad Ahmad Dahman, Damascus, 1383/1963, 163 (wafada 'alā 'umar b. 'abd al-'azīz).

¹⁵⁰ See below, n. 153.

from Azd Shanū'a¹⁵¹ and Balī,¹⁵² while the second made up (parts of) Kilāb (b. Rabī^xa), Damra and ad-Dīl, who inhabited the Jabbāna.¹⁵³ The Jabbāna corresponds, perhaps only in part, to Rātij (see above, p. 31). Other Bedouin clans could be added; the Sulamī Banū Dhakwān seem to be of special interest (see below).

¹⁵¹ Hājib b. Zayd (or Yazīd) and Sahl b. 'Adī were both killed at Yamāma, Ta'rīkh Khalīfa, I, 94-95. Hājib was from 'Abd al-Ashhal, or, according to another account, their confederate, from Azd Shanu'a, *Isaba*, I, 561-562. According to other accounts he was from Za'urā', or was a confederate of Za'urā', from Azd Shanu'a, *Usd al-ghāba*, I, 315; *Isti'āb*, I, 280.

Sahl b. ^cAdī was from Banú ^cAmr b. Jusham (see above, p. 46). He was however killed at Uhud, *Isti^cab*, II, 666: Sahl b. ^cAdī b. Zayd b. ^cĀmir b. ^cAmr b. Jusham etc. Cf. *Isaba*, III, 203 (^cAmr is missing). Cf. however Usd al-ghāba, II, 368, I. 8: rawā ^curwa b. az-zubayr fī tasmiyati mani 'stushhida yawma l-yamāma mina l-ansār, thumma min banī ^cabdi l-ashhal: sahl b. ^cadī min banī tamīm halīf lahum. One Suhayl b. ^cAdī is recorded among those killed at Yamāma, and he was from Azd Shanū'a, a confederate of ^cAbd al-Ashhal, *Isāba*, III, 212.

- ¹⁵² The famous naqtb Abû l-Haytham b. at-Tayyihân inhabited Râtij: his well, Jâsim, was in Rātij, Ibn Sa^cd, I, 503 (listing the wells from which the Prophet used to drink): wakāna yashrabu min jāsim, bi'r abī l-haytham b. at-tayyihān bi-rātij; Samhūdī, 11, 62, 1. 15:...anna n-nabiyya s sallā fī masjid rātij wa-shariba min jāsūm (sic) wa-hiya bi'r hunaka. Samhûdî remarks (l. 18): wa-sa-ya'tî anna jāsûm bi'r abî l-haytham b. attayyihan wa-anna n-nabiyya ş şalla fi ha'itihi. Both versions of the well's name appear in Samhūdī, 11, 131-132. According to one account he was from Zacūrā', Isāba, VII, 449: Abû l-Haytham b. at-Tayyihân b. Mâlik b. Atīk b. Amr b. Abd al-Aslam b. 'Amir b. Za' ura'; according to another (ibid.) he was from Ball, a confederate of Banu "Abd al-Ashhal: dhakara ibn ishag anna aba l-haytham min balt min bant "amr b. alháf b. gudāʿa, hàlafa banī ʿabdi l-ashhal. On the mu'ākhāt with ʿUthmān b. Maz̄ʿūn see below, n. 168. And see Ibn Saed, VIII, 325: umayma bint abi l-haytham målik b. at-tayyihan b. malik b. balt guddea, haltf bant eabdi l-ashhal b. jusham. According to yet another account Abū l-Haytham and his brother were from Ball and were confederates of Banu Zacura', Waqidi, I, 157-158. The order of words is erroneous. The edition has; wa-min bani 'abd b. katb b. 'abdi l-ashhal bani zatura: satd b. malik b. cabd b. kacb. wa-salama b. salama b. waqsh etc. Sacd is the only warrior from Banu "Ubayd (sic) b. Kacb b. "Abd al-Ashhal who took part in Badr, Ibn Hisham, II, 342. He is called here: Sacd b. Zayd b. Malik b. "Ubayd. The words "Banu Zacura" in Waqidi should be transferred to their appropriate place: before the name of Salama. Abu l-Haytham and his brother, as well as 'Abdallah b. Sahl (see above, n. 120) are mentioned at the end of the list of participants from Zacura', the first two were hallfani lahum min bali. In the passage on Banu Zacura', Ibn Hazm, Ansab, 340 refutes the Qudaci pedigree: ...qila innahumā (i.e., Abū l-Haytham and his brother) halīfāni li-lansar min quda^ca, wa-hadha khata' bi-la shakk, li-annahu lam yakun ahadun mina nnuqabā' haltfan, wa-innamā kāna n-nuqabā' mina ṣ-ṣamīmi ṣ-ṣartḥ.
- ¹³³ See al-Jäsir, al-Manasik, 412 (listing arba^c al-madīna): thumma l-jabbāna, wa-hiya manāzil banī kilāb wa-banī damra wa-d-dīl wa-banī hudayla mina l-ansār wa-banī hāritha.

The market of the Prophet ¹⁵⁴ was in (what was previously) the cemetery of the Khazrajī Banū Sācida.¹⁵⁵ The cemetery, and the market, were in Rātij. The cemetery extended from the court of Ibn Abī Dhi'b ¹⁵⁶ to the court of Zayd b. Thabit.¹⁵⁷ According to Samhūdī, both courts were at the eastern side of the market, the former at its north-eastern end and the latter at its south-eastern end.¹⁵⁸ Now the court of Ibn Abi Dhi'b was in Rātij. This can be inferred from a report on a Sulamī clan, namely Banū Dhakwān. They (i.e., part of them) settled "with the people of Rātij, the Jews," (i.e., in Rātij),¹⁵⁹ between the court of Qudāma (i.e., Qudāma b. Maz^cūn al-Jumahī) and the court of al-Hasan b. Zayd,¹⁶⁰ in the Jabbāna.¹⁶¹ It follows that these two courts were in Rātij. The same goes for the court of Ibn Abī Dhi'b, which was at one end of the cemetery, because the court of Qudāma was at its rear.¹⁶² We may conclude that the Prophet chose Rātij as the site of his market. Since, then, both the Prophet's sadagat and his market were in Ratij, it is not unexpected to find evidence that one of his sadagat can be identified with his market. (After all he granted the market to the Muslims as a charitable endowment; see below.)

According to one report, the Mashrabat Umm Ibrāhīm was called Mahrūz.¹⁶³ On the other hand Mahrūz was the name of the market of

- ¹⁵⁴ See M.J. Kister, "The Market of the Prophet", in JESHO, 8 (1965), 272-276.
- ¹⁵⁵ Ibid., 275 (quoting Samhūdī, I, 540).
- 156 See on him Mizan al-istidal, III, 620.
- ¹⁵⁷ Samhūdī, I, 540, I. 11: wa-kānat maqābiruhum mā hāzat dār ibn abi dhi'b ilā dār zayd b. thābit.
- ¹⁵⁸ Loc. cit., l. 13; Samhūdī stresses, that the above-mentioned cemetery was not the whole market of Medina, but only part of it.
- ¹⁵⁹ Cf. Wüstenfeld, Medina, 124: "... unter dem Jüdischen Stamme Rätij".
- ¹⁶⁰ Cf. perhaps Samhūdī, I, 149, I. 7: fa-'bianā banū ghanm b. mālik (from Najjār) utuman yuqālu lahu fuwayri^c, wa-fi mawdi^cihi dār hasan b. zayd b. hasan b. ^calt b. abī tālib (radiya llāhu ^canhu); and cf. above, n. 153.
- ¹⁶¹ Samhūdī, I, 550, I. 7: wa-qad nazalat banū dhakwān min banī sulaym mata ahl rātij mina l-yahūd mā bayna dār qudāma ilā dār hasan b. zayd bi-l-jabbāna.
- ¹⁶² Samhūdī, I, 550, 1. 8: gultu: wa-dār qudāma hiya l-murāda bi-qawli bni shabba fī dūr banī jumah: wa-'ttakhadha qudāma b. maz^cūn ad-dāra llatī fihā l-majzara ^calā fūhati sikkati banī damra wa-dubra dār āl abī dhi'b ^calā yamīnika wa-anta dhāhib ilā banī damra, wa-'llāhu a^clamu; and see p. 548, 1. 3 from bottom; 542, 1. 6 from bottom.
- ¹⁶³ Işâba, VI, 58: ... mashrabat umm ibrâhîm lladhî yuqâlu lahu (!) mahrûz (in ed. Cairo 1325/1907, VI, 73: Mahzûr). The source is az-Zubayr b. Bakkâr, Akhbàr al-madīna (GAS, 318), quoting Ibn Zabála.

the Prophet. He granted it to the Muslims as a charitable endowment.¹⁶⁴ This case for the identity of one of the Prophet's sadaqāt and his market can be taken a little further. The Mashraba was in (or, on another report: near) al-Quff, which was the village of Banū Qaynuqā^c (above, p. 37). The site chosen by the Prophet was therefore close to the market of Qaynuqā^c. Indeed only the Musallā separated the bridge (of Buthān) and the market of Medina, as is shown by an account of the course taken by Banū Nadīr when they were expelled from Medina.^{164a}

Ibn Shabba's report on the land obtained by the Prophet in Zuhra can possibly be linked with his market. It was already suggested (above, p. 38) that the two fortresses which belonged to Qaynuqa^c near al-Hashshāshīna and near the estate called Hibra, were identical to the two fortresses of Qaynuqā^c near the bridge of Buthān. Al-Hashshāshīna was a name of unirrigated palm-shoots in the land of Zuhra which the Prophet "found", according to Ibn Shabba. Finally it is noteworthy that the Mashraba was near the bridge, i.e., the bridge of Buthān (above, p. 39).

The strategic sites held by Banū Sā^cida may account for their position among the Ansār. Banū ^cAmr and Banū Tha^claba, the sons of al-Khazraj b. Sā^cida, settled in the abode of Banū Sā^cida, which is between the market of Medina and Banū Damra, on the north-eastern side of the market of Medina.¹⁶⁵ Another sub-clan of Sā^cida settled at one of the market's edges: Banū Abī Khuzayma, the clan of Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda. Their abode was called Jirār Sa^cd (see above, p. 49).¹⁶⁶ One of the fortresses

¹⁶⁴ Lisän, s.v. hrz: Mahzūr: wädi qurayza bi-l-hijäz. wa-ammä bi-taqdimi r-rä'i salä z-zäy fa-mawdi^e süqi l-madina, tasaddaqa bihi sayyidunä rasülu llähi ş salä l-muslimina; Täj al-sarüs, s.v. hrz: Mahrūz: ism mawdi^e süqi l-madina lladhi tasaddaqa bihi etc.; az-Zamakhshari, al-Fä'iq (above, n. 97), III, 204 (s.v. hzr): wa-mahrüz, salä l-saks: mawdi^e süqi l-madina etc.; and see al-Maghänim al-mutäba, 397, s.v. Mahrūz (quoting al-Fä'iq). Cf. ar-Rawd al-mi^etär, s.v. Mahzūr, p. 560: wa-qila mahzūr mawdi^e süqi l-madina etc.; Bakri, s.v. Mahzūr: wa-qila mahzūr mawdi^e süqi l-madina etc.; slqd IV, 283, 1. 16: wa-taşaddaqa rasūlu llähi ş bi-mahzūr, mawdi^e sūqi l-madina, salä lmuslimina etc.

144 Waqidi, I, 384.

¹⁶⁵ Samhüdf, I, 147, I. 5 from bottom. For Damra cf. above, nn. 153, 162.

¹⁶⁶ Samhūdī, I, 148, I. 6. Samhūdī prefers to locate Jirār Sa^cd at the northern side of the market (and not at its eastern side), near Thaniyyat al-Wadā^c, Samhūdī, I, 148, I. 8; II, 62, I. 8; I, 540, I. 16. Wüstenfeld (*Medina*, 47, n. 2) thought, that Hirār Sa^cd (see also Bakrī, s.v.: jam^c harra, wa-hiya maqābir sa^cd b. ^cubāda li-l-muslimīna - sic), being a cemetery, was another place. However, Jirār Sa^cd has to be read here also. Bakrī's

of the Banū Tha^claba b. al-Fityawn and the people of Zuhra was near the estate of Sa^cd b. ^cUbåda.¹⁶⁷

Finally some suggestions – which can only be considered tentative, due to the problems involved – can be made concerning the relations between some Muhājirūn and the inhabitants of Rātij. They deal with the settlement in Medina of Muhājirūn from two branches of Quraysh.

Banù Jumah

As already said, the court of Qudāma b. Maz^cun was in Rātij. It is not unexpected to find Qudāma's brother, ^cUthmān b. Maz^cun, linked in the *mu'ākhāt* with Abu l-Haytham b. at-Tayyihān,¹⁶⁸ who was an inhabitant of Rātij.¹⁶⁹ The court of Qudāma was in (the abode of) Banu Zurayq.¹⁷⁰ A man from Banu Zurayq was adopted (in the Jāhiliyya) by a Jumahi.¹⁷¹ When they came from Ethiopia to Medina, the Zuraqi's two sons and their brother from the same mother (Shurahbil son of Hasana) settled with Banu Zurayq in their abode (*rab*^c).¹⁷²

Banú Nawfal b. 'Abd Manáf

Jubayr b. Mut^cim's court was in Rātij. This can be inferred from its location: it was between the courts of Zayd b. Thābit and Ibn Abī Dhī'b.¹⁷³ Banū Nawfal had allies from Sulaym, namely Banū Ri^cl and

modern editor as-Saqqā referred in a footnote to s.v. Jirār Sa^cd, and rémarked: wahirār sa^cd hunā bi-l-hā', fa-la^calla hādhihi ghayru tilka. Cf. al-Maghānim al-mutāba. s.v. Jarr Hishām; Samhūdī, I, 541, I. 3.

¹⁶⁷ CUmdat al-akhbār, 23, 1. 4 from bottom: wa-kāna banū tha^claba wa-ahl zuhra wa-hum rahţu l-fiţyawn (printed: al-qiţyawn)... wa-kāna lahumu l-uţumu lladhī cinda māl sa^cd b. ^cubāda wa-l-uţumāni lladhāni ^calā ţarīgi l-^curayd. The latter two were recorded by Samhūdī, cf. above, n. 24.

- 169 See above, n. 152.
- ¹⁷⁰ Samhūdī, I, 552, l. 6.
- 171 IstFab, II, 631. s.v. Sufyan b. Macmar b. Habīb b. Wahb b. Hudhāfa b. Jumah al-Qurashī al-Jumahī, (quoting Ibn Ishāq): wa-kāna sufyān mina l-ansār, thumma ahada bant zurayq... qadima makka fa-aqāma bihā, wa-lazima macmar b. habīb b. wahb b. hudhāfa b. jumah fa-tabannāhu wa-zawwajahu hasanata, wa-lahā waladun yusammā shurahbīl b. hasana min rajul ākhar, wa-ghalaba macmar b. habīb calā nasab sufyān hādhā wa-nasab banīhi, fa-hum yunsabūna ilayhi.
- ¹⁷² Usd al-ghaba, 11, 391, 1. 9.
- ¹⁷³ Samhūdī, 1, 542, i. 4.

¹⁶⁸ Ibn Sacd, III, 296.

Banū Dhakwān; Jubayr's grandmother was from Banū Ri^cl.¹⁷⁴ The fact that Banū Dhakwān, (i.e., part of them) inhabited Rātij may have played some role in the settlement of Jubayr in Rātij. On the other hand Jubayr had connections with Sa^cd b. ^cUbāda, who was also an inhabitant of Rātij: Sa^cd would grant protection (in the Jāhiliyya) to the merchants who were in Jubayr's service when they arrived at Medina.¹⁷⁵

IV

^cUmar's share in the tract of land which the Prophet "found" in Zuhra became afterwards a *sadaqa* called Thamgh (above, p. 30).¹⁷⁶ However according to another version, Thamgh was obtained as spoils from "the Jews of Banū Hāritha".¹⁷⁷ The latter version can be corroborated by a report on the expulsion of "the Jews of Banū Hāritha" from Medina in the Prophet's time.¹⁷⁸ Banū Hāritha, and evidently also "the Jews of Banū Hāritha", lived in Yathrib (cf. above, notes 93, 153); they were however only one component in its population (cf. above, p. 41). Originally Banū Hāritha, a Nabītī clan, lived with Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal, who also belonged to Nabīt, but later they settled to the west of Hamza's tomb, "in the place known today as Yathrib".¹⁷⁹ The area to the west of Hamza's tomb offered excellent conditions for agriculture and was also a centre of commercial activity. It was therefore the site of old Yathrib,

- ¹⁷⁴ See M.J. Kister, "The Expedition of Bi'r Ma^cūna", Arabic and Islamic Studies in Honor of Hamilton A.R. Gibb, Leiden, 1965, p. 352, quoting Sam^cānī, Ansāb (Gibb Memorial, XX), fol. 255a, s.v. ar-Ri^clī; Mus^cab, Nasab, 97, 198-199. The text is (p. 198): ... banū ri^cl wa-dhakwān, wa-hum hulafā' banī nawfal etc. The court of another Nawfali was in the same area. It was in the Jabbāna, near the mahalla of Banū d-Dūl (cf. above, n. 153), Samhūdī, 1, 549, 1. 3.
- ¹⁷⁵ He also cooperated with al-Hārith b. Harb b. Umayya b. "Abd Shams (see on him Mus^cab, Nasab, 123), Ibn Hishām, II, 92: la-qad kuntu ujīru li-jubayr b. mu^cim... tijārahu wa-amna^cuhum mimman arāda zulmahum bi-bilādī, wa-li-l-hārith b. harb b. umayya etc.
- ¹⁷⁶ According to another report ^cUmar had an estate called Thamgh in Khaybar, Samhūdī, II, 273, I. 13; Ibn Sa^cd, III, 357, I. 3 from bottom. Cf. above, n. 75.
- 177 Samhūdī, 11, 273, 1. 18: anna ^cumara radiya llāhu ^canhu asāba ardan min yahūd banī hāritha yuqālu lahā thamgh.
- 178 See e.g. Abd ar-Razzáq, VI, 54-55: ...wa-ajlá rasúlu lláhi ş yahúda l-madina kullahum, bani qaynuqá^s, wa-hum qawm sabdilláh b. salám, wa-yahúd bani hāritha wa-kulla yahúdi kāna bi-l-madina.
- ¹⁷⁹ Samhūdī, I, 134, I. 6 from bottom; 135, I. 7; 136, I. 8 (they settled in their new abode after they had stayed for a year at Khaybar). On Yathrib see also Hamīdullāh (above, n. 20), 19; EI¹, s.v. al-Madīna (F. Buhl), 83-84.

which is connected with the beginnings of the Jewish settlement in Medina (above, p. 42).

Lands in Yathrib and its vicinity were intensively cultivated before and after the Hijra. They were blessed with the best water supply in the whole region: Yathrib was near Zaghāba, in the confluence of the main torrents in the vicinity of Medina.¹⁸⁰ There were there twelve springs.¹⁸¹ Two other localities near Yathrib were connected with the storage of water: Zubala and the Kuma (the heap of earth; it was perhaps a dam, cf. below, note 190). Zubāla was one of the boundaries of Yathrib: Yathrib extended from Qanāt to al-Jurf¹⁸² and from the estate called al-Barnī to Zubāla.¹⁸³ Zubāla was to the north of Medina, between Medina and Yathrib.¹⁸⁴ It was "the beginning of Yathrib" to the north of Medina (awwalu yathrib mimmā yalī shāma l-madīna), near the Kūmat Abī l-Hamra'.¹⁸⁵ The people of Zubala (ahl zubala), who were Jewish, owned the two fortresses near Kümat Abī l-Hamrā' ar-Rābid, and what was behind them (i.e., behind these two fortresses).¹⁸⁶ Important water reservoirs were located in the area of the Kūma. The Kūma itself was near the point where the torrent Mahzur meets the torrent Qanat.¹⁸⁷ One account holds that Zubala was so named because it was a place where water was stored (li-hifzihā l-mā').¹⁸⁸ Whether or not it was the reason

- ¹⁸⁰ Samhūdī, I, 113, l. 3: bi-mujtama^ci s-suyūl mimmā yalī zaghāba; and see Samhūdī, II, 318, l. 8: zaghāba... mujtama^cu s-suyūl ākhira l-^caqīq gharbiyya qabr hamza... bi-mujtama^ci l-asyāl min rūma, bayna l-jurf wa-zaghāba.
- ¹⁸¹ Al-Jäsir, al-Manāsik, 412, l. 1 (followed by a list of 13 springs).

- ¹⁸³ Samhûdī, I, 7, 1. 9 (Ibn Zabāla): wa-kānat yathrib umm qurā l-madīna wa-hiya mā bayna taraf qanāt ilā tarafi l-jurf wa-mā bayna l-māli lladhī yuqālu lahu l-barnī ilā zubāla; Ibn Rusta, 62, has: al-buwā, instead of: al-barnī. Barnī is a kind of dates, see Lisān, s.v.
- ¹⁴⁴ Samhūdī, II, 317, s.v. Zubāla (az-Zujj is an error, and belongs to the following entry; cf. al-Maghānim al-muțāba, s.v., note).
- ¹⁸⁵ *Condat al-akhbār*, 291, 1. 3.
- ¹⁸⁶ Samhūdī, I, 116, 1. 10: wa-kāna li-ahl zubāla al-utumāni 'inda kūmati abi l-hamrā'i r-rābid wa-'lladhī dūnahumā; see below, n. 190.
- 187 Samhūdī, 11, 217, 1. 7: wa-ākhiruhu kūmatu abī l-hamrati (sic), thumma yamdī fayaşubbu fī wādī qanāt
- ¹⁸⁸ CUmdat al-akhbār, 291, 1. 4 (wa-qīla summiyat bi-zubāla bint mas^cūd mina l-^camālīq nazalat mawdi^cahā fa-summiyat bihā).

¹⁸² Cf. above, n. 180.

for its name it is clear that water was stored in Zubāla. Naturally in later periods irrigation projects were carried out in that area.¹⁸⁹

But the significance of 'Umar's sadaqa was, most likely, also commercial. Thamgh, the sadaqa, was near Kūmat Abī l-Hamrā', as is shown by an account of the battle of the Harra.¹⁹⁰ In nearby Zubāla during the Jāhiliyya there used to be a market, "in the area called Yathrib".¹⁹¹ It would seem that the market was actually located in Zubāla.

Finally, another Jewish group that was probably affected by the developments in the area can be added to "the Jews of Banu Hāritha", who inhabited Yathrib. Banu Murāna ¹⁹² are listed among the Jewish groups which remained in Medina when Aws and Khazraj settled there. They settled to the north of Banu Hāritha.¹⁹³ According to another report they were "in the place of" (*fi mawdi*)¹⁹⁴ Banu Hāritha and owned the fortress called al-Khāl.¹⁹⁵ Another fortress of Banu Murāna was ash-Shab^cān. It was in Thamgh, the *sadaqa* of ^cUmar b. al-Khattāb.¹⁹⁶

- 193 Samhūdī, I, 116, l. l.
- ¹⁹⁴ This expression usually appears when the former or the later owners, function etc. of a locality is indicated; cf. above, the end of n. 93 and n. 164.
- ¹⁹⁵ Aghānī, XIX, 95, 1. 12.
- Samhūdī, I, 116, I. 2. Samhūdī, II, 273, I. 17 has: ash-Sha^cbān. And see al-Maghānim al-muļāba, s.v. ash-Shab^cān: uļum min āļāmi l-madīna fī diyār usayd b. mu^cāwiya (?)

¹⁸⁹ See e.g. Maräghī, 7b. He says that Yathrib is "now" a name of a land (*ard*) to the west of Hamza's tomb and to the east of the place called al-Birka (which is) the outlet (*masrif*) of "Ayn al-Azraq; the pilgrims call it (i.e., the spring) "Uyûn Hamza. And see Kister (above, n. 3), 43, n. 50.

¹⁹⁰ Samhudi, II, 273, 1. 6 from bottom (Waqidi): ...thumma dhakara mubăraza waqa'at yawma'idhin fi jihat dhubâb ilâ kûmati abî l-hamrâ'. thumma qâla: kûmatu abî lhamrâ' qarya (read: qarība) min thamgh; see Samhudī, II, 366, 1. 4: kûmatu abî lhamrâ'î r-râbid: kûmatu turâb ka-annahâ âtâm garība min thamgh, fi shâmiyyi l-madīna; 'Umdat al-akhbâr, 248, 1. 4 (quoting Khulâşat al-wafâ'): Thamgh: ...mâl shâmiyya lmadīna qurba kûmati abî l-hamrâ' etc.

¹⁹¹ Samhūdī, I, 8, 1. 3 (Ibn Shabba): wa-kāna bi-l-madīna fi l-jāhiliyya sūq bi-zubāla fi n-nāhiya llati tud^cā yathrib. Yathrib was a long covered passage (saqīfa) with many whores in it, and people would come to them from long distances (yudrabu ilayhinna mina l-buldān); in the village of Yathrib they would bring back in the evening eighty black camels, in addition to camels of other colours, Samhūdī, I, 113, 1. 4.

¹⁹² Ibn Rusta, 62: Mazāya (not vocalized), Ms. Marāya; Wüstenfeld, *Medina*, 31: Mazāta (which he preferred to Marāya in the text).

Conclusions

- 1. The community of the Muhājirūn led by the Prophet had, shortly after the Hijra, a territorial basis. It was in the Rātij area, where the Prophet's *sadaqāt* and his market were located, and in the adjacent areas of Zuhra, al-Quff, Husayka'and Yathrib.
- 2. Developments in Medina before the Hijra account for the political vacuum in that area, which paved the way for the creation of this territorial basis.
- 3. The build-up of the Muslim power in Medina and the Prophet's relations with the Jews are inseparably interwoven, due to the propinquity of estates owned by the Jews to the territorial basis of the Muhājirūn.
- 4. The rise of Banū 'Abd al-Ashhal seems one of the main features on the Anṣārī scene. This is reflected in the virtual "annexation" of Rātij by the incorporation of its inhabitants into the Ashhalī genealogical system.

ABBREVIATIONS

- 'Abd ar-Razzáq 'Abd ar-Razzáq, al-Muşannaf, ed. Habib ar-Rahmán al-A'zami, Beirut, 1390/1970 - 1392/1972.
- Aghāni Abu l-Faraj al-Işfahāni, Kitāb al-aghāni, Bulaq, 1285.
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- al-Hazimi, al-Amakin Ms. Laleli, 2140.
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- Ibn al-Athir, Kamil al-Kamil fi t-ta'rikh, Beirut, 1385/1965.
- Ibn Hishâm Ibn Hishâm, as-Sira an-nabawiyya, ed. as-Saqqâ, al-Abyâri, Shalabi, Beirut, 1391/1971.
- Ibn Hazm, Ansāb Ibn Hazm al-Andalusi, Jamharat ansābi l-'arab, ed. 'Abd as-Salām Hārun, Cairo, 1382/1962.
- Ibn Kathir, Bidāya Ibn Kathir, al-Bidāya wa-n-nihāya, Beirut, 1974.
- Ibn Khaldun, 'Ibar ed. Cairo, 1355/1936.
- Ibn Rusta Ibn Rusta, al-A'laq an-nafisa (BGA VII), Leiden, 1891.
- Ibn Sa^cd Ibn Sa^cd, at-Tabaqat al-kubra, Beirut, 1380/1960 1388/1968.
- ^cIqd Ibn ^cAbd Rabbihi, al-^cIqd al-farid, ed. Ahmad Amin et al., Cairo, 1384/1965
- Isāba Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Isti'āb fi ma'rifati l-ashāb, ed. al-Bijāwi, Cairo, n.d.
- al-Jarh wa-t-ta^cdil Ibn Abi Hatim, al-Jarh wa-t-ta^cdil, Hyderabad, 1371/1952 1373/1953.
- al-Jāsir, al-Hajarī Hamad al-Jāsir, Abū 'Alī al-Hajarī wa-abhāthuhu fī tahdīdi l-mawādi', Riyād, 1388/1968.
- al-Jasir, al-Manasik Abu Ishaq al-Harbi (?), Kitab al-manasik..., ed. Hamad al-Jasir, Riyad, 1389/1969.
- Kitāb al-ma^cārif Ibn Qutayba, Kitāb al-ma^cārif, ed. Tharwat ^Ukāsha, Cairo, 1969.
- Lane E.W. Lane, An Arabic English Lexicon..., London, 1865-1893.
- Lisân Ibn Manzur, Lisân al-carab, Beirut, Dar Şadir, n.d.
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- al-Marâghi Tahqiq an-nușra bi-talkhiș ma'ālim dări l-hijra, Ms. Ra'is al-Kuttāb, 3034.
- al-Mațari at-Ta^crīf bi-mā ansati l-hujra min ma^cālim dāri l-hijra, Ms. Lāla Ismā^cil, 62.
- Mīzān al-i^ctidāl adh-Dhahabi, Mīzān al-i^ctidāl fī nagd ar-rijāl, ed. al-Bijāwi, Cairo, 1382/1963.
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- Munammaq -, al-Munammaq fi akhbar quraysh, Hyderabad, 1384/1964.
- Muş'ab, Nasab Muş'ab az-Zubayri, Nasab quraysh, ed. E. Levi Provençal, Cairo, 1953.
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- Qalyubi Ahmad b. Ahmad al-Qalyubi, an-Nubdha al-latifa fi bayan maqasidi l-hijaz wa-ma^cālimihi sh-sharifa, Ms. Nur Osmaniya, 2935/3442.
- ar-Rawd al-mi^ctār Muḥammad b. 'Abd al-Mun^cim al-Ḥimyari, ar-Rawd almi^ctār fi khabari l-aqtār, ed. Iḥsān 'Abbās, Beirut, 1975.
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- Tafsīr Qurțubī Abū 'Abdallāh al-Qurțubi, al-Jāmi' li-aḥkāmi l-qur'ān, Cairo, 1387/1967.
- Tafsir Tabari Jāmi' al-bayān fi tafsir al-qur'ān, Bulaq, 1321-1330 (repr. Beirut, 1392/1972).
- ^cUmdat al-akhbār Aḥmad b. ^cAbd al-Ḥamīd al-^cAbbāsī, Kitāb ^cumdat al-akhbār fī madīnati l-mukhtār, qāma bi-tashīḥihi... Muḥammad aṭ-Ṭayyib al-Anṣārī, awdaha ghawāmidahu... As^cad Ṭarabzūnī, n.p., n.d.
- Usd al-ghāba Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba fī ma^crifati s-sahāba, Cairo, 1280.
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ON THE MARKETS OF MEDINA (YATHRIB) IN PRE-ISLAMIC AND EARLY ISLAMIC TIMES*

Many details are still vague surrounding the events leading up to the Prophet Muhammad's rule of Medina. An understanding of the state of affairs in Medina on the eve of the Hijra is vital in this context. Of significant advantage is the readiness of the sources to supply quite prolific material concerning pre-Islamic Medina, a readiness which is not matched with regard to the Islamic period. In a short time, Medina had changed completely and the former place-names were mostly forgotten, but there are, nevertheless, reports which do preserve them. A close scrutiny of these reports and their connecting links enables us to form some conception of the town, or rather the cluster of villages, as it was when the Prophet arrived.

This paper deals with two issues: 1. the markets of pre-Islamic Medina; 2. the Hijra and later developments concerning the markets.

1. The markets of pre-Islamic Medina

Besides the famous market of B. Qaynuqa^c there were three other markets in pre-Islamic Medina. The four markets were in the following places: 1. in Zubala; 2. at the bridge (i.e., the bridge of Wadi Buthan), in the court of B. Qaynuqa^c; 3. in aş-Şafaşif, which is in al-^cAşaba; and 4. in a place which later became known as the Zuqaq (lane) of Ibn Hubayn. The place used to be called Muzahim, and the market was held there in the Jahiliyya and in the early days of Islam (*awwal al-islâm*).¹ There is also a

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¹ Samh., I, pp. 539, I. 3 from bottom-540. The source is Ibn Shabba, see on him GAS, I, pp. 345f.

report on a market in Quba² but this is possibly a reference to no. 3 (see below).

1. Zubala lay north of Medina, between Medina and the village called Yathrib: Yathrib extended from Qanat to al-Jurf and from the estate called al-Barni to Zubala. Zubala was "the beginning of Yathrib" to the north of Medina (awwalu yathrib mimmā yalī shāma l-madīna), near the Kūma ("the heap of earth"; perhaps a dam) of Abi l-Hamra'. The people of Zubala (ahl zubāla), who were Jewish, owned the two fortresses near the Kūma. Zubala and the nearby Kūma were places where water was stored. As a result, irrigation projects were later carried out in that area. Yathrib is reported to have been west of the tomb of the Prophet's uncle Hamza b. 'Abd al-Muțtalib and east of the place called al-Birka, which was the outlet (maṣrif) of 'Ayn al-Azraq. The pilgrims call this spring 'Uyūn Hamza.³ The expression ahl zubāla denotes that it was inhabited by people who were from various tribes; Zubāla, like the other villages in that area, was populated by Jews.⁴

2. The famous market of B. Qaynuqā^{c5} will be discussed in some detail below, p. 139.

3. The market of as-Safasif was possibly in the territory of B. Jahjaba, who were among the clans comprising B. 'Amr b. 'Awf. It was not their original court, but a court they inhabited after they had left their former court, following the settling of a blood-feud with another of the B. 'Amr b. 'Awf clans. Al-'Asaba was, according to Samhudī, west of Masjid Quba'.⁶

4. The owner of the market of Muzahim can also be identified. The place was later known as Zuqaq Ibn Hubayn. The Zuqaq is a demarcation line of the court granted by the Prophet to B. Ghifar. It was northwest of the market of Medina, near the (later) castle (*hisn*) of the governor of Medina. Ibn Hubayn was a *mawla* of al-'Abbas b. 'Abd al-Muttalib, the Prophet's uncle.⁷ The name Muzahim appears elsewhere in

² Ibn al-Athir, al-Kāmil fī t-ta'rikh, Beirut, 1385/1965, I, p. 659, 1. 9 (the war of Sumayr). Cf. below, nn. 19, 20.

³ JSAI, 6(1985), ch. IV and the notes.

⁴, JSAI, 6(1985), the beginning of ch. II.

⁵ JSAI, 6(1985), chs. I, III.

⁶ Samh., II, pp. 345-346, s.v. (there are various ways of pronouncing the name; the place is also called al-Mu^cassab). Cf. Yáqūt, *Buldān*, s.v. ^cUşaba.

⁷ Samh., I, p. 547, 1. 8. And see *ibid*, 549, 1. 10

the reports on pre-Islamic Medina: it was the name of 'Abdallah b. Ubayy's fortress.⁸ The fact that the market and the fortress had the same name suggests that the market of Muzahim was controlled by Ibn Ubayy, that obstinate opponent of the Prophet Muhammad, and that it was held near his fortress. It is noteworthy that the market was also held in the early days of Islam. It was obviously a source of wealth and political power for Ibn Ubayy, and this was true for the other market owners in Medina as well.

Quba', which was mentioned in the passage on the market of as-Safăşif, is also connected to the market of Muzahim. Ibn Ubayy belonged to B. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj, more specifically, to the tribal group called B. al-Hubla. (Al-Hubla was a nickname of their eponym; his real name was Salim. They are not to be confounded with another of B. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj groups, called B. Salim'). The court of B. al-Hubla, which was named after them, was between Quba' and the court of B. al-Harith b. al-Khazraj which was east of Wadi Buthan and Su'ayb.¹⁰

Different parts of B. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj were allied with the Jewish B. Qaynuqa'. For the sake of the present discussion, it suffices to note the propinquity of the market of Muzahim to the market of B. Qaynuqa' and to the market of as-Şafaşif, in al-'Aşaba. This propinquity can be deduced from what is known about the territories of various groups belonging to B. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj. One of their groups was called al-Qawaqil and one of their fortresses was called *utum al-qawaqil*. Al-'Aşaba is mentioned in a report concerning the location of this fortress: it was the fortress on the side of the houses of B. Salim (not al-Hubla, see above), which belonged to B. Salim b. 'Awf, near al-'Aşaba.'' The court of B. Salim was at the edge ('ala taraf) of the western Harra, west of the valley in which the Masjid al-Jum'a ("the Mosque of the Friday-prayer") was situated, in

⁸ Samh., II, p. 373, s.v.: utum kāna bayna zahrānay buyūt banī l-hublā; (this is followed by the statement concerning the market, but there is no attempt to establish a link between the two). On the fortress Muzāhim see also Aghāni, XV, pp. 164, l. 7 from bottom; 165, l. 13 (the report on Bu^cāth). Qays b. al-Khatim mentions in a verse the fortresses (*djām*) surrounding Muzāhim, Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v.; Diwān, ed. Nāşir ad-Din al-Asad, Beirut, 1387/1967, p. 86.

⁹ Ibn Hazm, Ansab, pp. 354-355.

¹⁰ Samh., I, p. 141, I. 14. Cf. Ibn Hazm, Ansåb, p. 355, I. 1: känat däruhum bayna där bani n-najjär wa-bayna där bani sä^cida.

¹¹ Samh., I, p. 141, 1. 7: utumu l-qawāqil, wa-huwa lladhī fi taraf buyūt banī sālim mimmā yalī nāhiyata l-casaba, kāna li-banī sālim b. cawf.

Wadi Ranuna.¹² In conclusion, the market of Muzahim, which was situated somewhere in the court of B. 'Awf b. al-Khazraj, was not far from al-'Asaba, which also had a market, and both places were not far from the western Harra. However, the market of B. Qaynuqa^c was also in that neighbourhood, as can be deduced from the details of the course of Wadī Ranūna. As-Safasif is a place between the dam (sadd) of 'Abdallah b. 'Amr b. 'Uthman and as-Sa biyya or, according to another report, between al-'Asaba and the dam of 'Abdallah al-'Uthmani (i.e., 'Abdallah b. 'Amr b. 'Uthman).¹³ Ranuna flows through the dam of 'Abdallah b. 'Amr b. 'Uthman, then it separates (yatafarraqu) at as-Safasif, then it flows into the land of Isma^cil and Muhammad, the sons of al-Walid, in al-'Aşaba (printed: al-Qaşaba), then it enters al-'Aşaba (thumma yastabtinu l-gasaba [!]) until it advances towards Quba', which is to its right (hattà ya'tarida qubà'a yaminan). Later on (a few other place-names on its course are mentioned) it enters (yastabtinu) as-Sarrara, until it passes through the pool (al-Birka). Then it divides into two branches, one flowing into Wadi Buthan after making a turn and the other flowing into Buthan directly.¹⁴

The above description of Ránūná mentions all four markets of pre-Islamic Medina. First mentioned was as-Safásif, followed by Muzáhim, because Masjid al-Jum^ca of B. Sálim b. ^cAwf b. al-Khazraj was at some point along the Wádi.¹⁵ It then passed the market of B. Qaynuqá^c who had settled near the edge (*muntahā*) of the bridge of Buthán on the side of the 'Aliya and owned the two fortresses which were near the edge of the bridge, "on the right side when one goes from Medina to the ^cAliya, if one chooses (the road which crosses) the bridge".¹⁶ It is presumable that the point where the Ránūnā flows into Buthán was at the bridge of Buthán. It is reported that Ránūnā reached Masjid al-Jum^ca, in the court of B. Salim, then it flowed into Buthán.¹⁷ The branch which flowed directly into Buthán is perhaps meant here. According to one report,

- ¹⁶ JSAI, 6(1985), chs. I, III.
- ¹⁷ Samh., II, p. 214, l. 6 (al-Matari).

¹² Samh., I, p. 141, I. 3.

¹³ Samh., II, p. 335, s.v. Cf. Samh., II, p. 321, s.v. as-Sudd: sudd 'abdillâh b. 'amr b. 'uthmân ya'ti minhu rānùnā' fihā (?) On 'Abdallâh b. 'Amr b. 'Uthmân b. 'Affân see Muş'ab, Nasab, Index.

¹⁴ Samh., II, p. 213, l. 14. Cf. op.cit., I, p. 145, l. 13.

¹⁵ E.g. Yaqut, Buldan, s.v. Ranuna'.

Buthan begins near the bridge of Buthan.¹⁸ As to the fourth market at Zubala, it seems to have been at some distance from the other three markets, further to the northwest. Yathrib, near Zubala, was east of a place called al-Birka and, as mentioned above, Ranuna flowed through Birka before it divided and flowed into Buthan; it is tempting to identify these two Birkas, but it seems impossible since Zubala was near the confluence of the torrents of Medina, further to the northwest.

In sum: all four markets were in the western part of what came to be known as Medina, and their order from south to north was: aş-Şafâşif, Muzaḥim, Qaynuqā^c and Zubāla. Two out of four (Qaynuqā^c and Zubāla) were controlled by Jews while Muzaḥim was controlled by their close ally 'Abdallāh b. Ubayy.

The study of place-names can be extended a little further to reveal a curious link between B. Qaynuqa^c and an Awsī clan. From the reports on Yawm Sumayha, or Yawm Sumayr, which took place before Islam, it can be deduced that the court of B. Qaynuqa^c was between the court of B. Salim of B. ^cAwf b. al-Khazraj and Quba^{'.19} Between B. Salim and Quba' there was a place called Safina.²⁰ This place-name is probably identical with Safna, which was between B. ^cAmr b. ^cAwf (that is, Quba', because B. ^cAmr b. ^cAwf were among the inhabitants of Quba') and B. al-Hubla, "in the Sabkha".²¹ Details concerning the location of Safina and Safna are

¹⁸ This is a wise deduction made by Samhudi on the basis of what Ibn Shabba writes concerning the torrent Buthân; Samhudi says (II, p. 213, l. 9), wa-yufhamu min atrāf kalām ibn shabba anna btidā'a wādī buthān min jisr buthān, wa-dhālika bi-qurbi l-mājishūniyya, wa-ākhirahu gharbiyya masājidi l-fath etc. Indeed Ibn Shabba mentions several other localities along this torrent before it reaches the bridge (i.e., the bridge of Buthân); however it is only at that point, according to Samhudi, that it becomes known as Buthân, loc. cit., l. 3: hattā yarida l-jisra, thumma yastabtinu wādī buthān hattā yasubba fī zaghāba.

¹⁹ Hassan b. Thabit, Diwan, ed. W. 'Arafat, London, 1971, II, pp. 37, 41; the first battle was fought in the fadå' (open area) between B. Salim and Quba', the village of B. 'Amr b. 'Awf (see also the following note); the second battle was fought in the fadå', near the wells which were cased with stones (a_twa') of B. Qaynuqa', or, according to another version, in the fada', near the fortress (u_twn) of B. Qaynuqa' — this is probably a reference to the same fadå'; the third battle took place behind (dubra) B. Salim, op.cit., p. 42.

²⁰ Aghāni, II, p. 176, l. 6 from bottom (the war of Sumayr): fa-ltaqaw bi-s-safina, bayna bani sālim wa-bayna qubā', qaryati bani 'amr b. 'awf; see also Samh., II, p. 336, s.v. Cf. Aghāni, II, p. 177, l. 4: thumma ltaqaw bi-l-fadā' (printed: bi-l-fasl, and corrected in the Dar al-Kutub edition) 'inda ātām bani qaynuqā'.

²¹ Yáqůt, Buldán, s.v. Şafna. And see Wáqidi, II, p. 451, l. 13: "We deviated from (the road of) the bridge (i.e., the bridge of Buthán) and Şafna and took the road to Qubá".

almost identical, as are their names. It can be assumed, then, that B. Qaynuqa^c inhabited Safina, or at least that Safina, or part of it, was part of their court. The wells cased with stones (i.e., in the court of Qaynuga^c) were between B. Salim and Quba; and on the other hand, Safina was also between B. Salim and Ouba'. Now an Awsi clan called B. 'Atiyya is reported to have inhabited Safna (=Safina, according to our suggestion), "above" (fawga) B. al-Hubla. There they built a fortress named Shas, which belonged to one of them, Shas b. Qays. The fortress was on the left side in the large vacant area (rahba) of the Mosque of Quba' when one stands facing south.²² B. ^cAtiyya were of the clans comprising the Awsi group of B. Murra b. Malik. The combination of reports concerning the courts of B. Qaynuqa^c and B. ^cAtiyya would not prove significant were it not for one more piece of information. Shas b. Qays, who is evidently the owner of the above-mentioned fortress, is listed among the adversaries of the Prophet from B. Qaynuga^{c, 23} However, the exact relationship between B. Qaynuqa^c and B. ^cAtiyya has yet to be established.

2. The Hijra and later developments concerning the markets

It may prove useful to compare the information concerning the Prophet's activity among the markets of Medina with the details concerning the area in his possession, or rather his "territorial basis" which was formed shortly after his arrival at Medina.²⁴ We are only concerned here with material relating to the main Jewish clans in Medina, B. Nadir, B. Qurayza and B. Qaynuqã^c.

A unique report of "Umar b. Shabba tells us that immediately after he had come to Medina, the Prophet "found" a large tract of land in Zuhra, which had belonged to the people of Rātij and Husayka. They had been expelled from Medina before the Prophet's arrival. Two more place-

²⁴ JSAI 6(1985), pp. 29ff. The data in the following passage is drawn from that paper.

Cf. ^cUmdat al-akhbār, p. 309, l. 4: "Şafna — a place in Medina; and another version says: in Quba'".

²² Samh., I, p. 139, l. 7; and see Samh., II p. 327, l. 5 from bottom: shās — utum bi-rahbati masjid qubā' calā yasārika mustaqbilu l-qiblati, kāna li-shās, akhi bani catiyya b. zayd.

²³ Ibn Hishâm, as-Sira an-nabawiyya, ed. as-Saqqâ, Abyâri, Shalabi, Beirut, 1391/1971, II, p. 161, l. 8; and see op.cit., Index.

names appear in this report. It is said that part of that tract of land had unirrigated palm shoots, named al-Hashshāshīna; 'Umar b. al-Khattāb was granted the estate called Thamgh. In the article mentioned above (n. 24) the present writer endeavoured to show in some detail that the land in Zuhra was, in fact, in the middle of an area densely populated by various Jewish clans, including the three main clans. A few more remarks attempting to pinpoint the location of these places in Medina may not be superfluous.

Zubala: Thamgh, which was 'Umar's share in the land in Zuhra was near the heap of earth called Kumat Abi l-Hamra'. Zubala was also near that Kuma. As was pointed out, a market used to take place in Zubala, "in the area called Yathrib" (*mina n-nahiya llati tud'ā yathrib*), which seems to indicate that the market was actually located in Zubala. Therefore it was suggested that the land granted to 'Umar was also of commercial value.²⁵

The market of B. Qaynuqa^c: It is evident that from the outset the Prophet owned lands close to the market of B. Qaynuqa^c. The name of the palm shoots included in the plot of land in Zuhra was al-Hashshāshīna and al-Hashshāshīna is reported to have been in the court of B. Qaynuqa^c. In addition, B. Qaynuqā^c had two fortresses near al-Hashshāshīna. They appear to be the two fortresses of B. Qaynuqā^c near their market.²⁶

The Prophet granted land to az-Zubayr b. al-^cAwwâm and this land can also be linked with the market of B. Qaynuqā^c. The land, called Baqi^c az-Zubayr and az-Zubayriyyāt, is said to have been in the territory of a Jewish clan called B. Muhammam. However, at least part of it was evidently the market of B. Qaynuqā^c. (It is noteworthy that according to one report, that land was az-Zubayr's share in the lands of B. Nadir when they were exiled from Medina;²⁷ cf. the involvement of Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf from B. Nadir in the Prophet's attempt to obtain a market of his own, below, p. 140). This can be deduced from the two parallel reports on the market of the Prophet.²⁸ According to one report; when the Prophet wanted to make a market for Medina (*an yaj^cala li-l-madina sūqan*) he came to the

²⁵ Ibid, ch. IV.

²⁶ *Ibid*, ch. l.

²⁷ Loc.cit.

²⁸ Cf. M.J. Kister, "The Market of the Prophet", in JESHO, 8 (1965), pp. 273-274.

market of B. Qaynuqa^c; then he came to the market of Medina.²⁹ (For possible references to pre-Islamic commercial activities in what was to become the market of the Prophet see below, p. 144.) According to another report, the Prophet pitched a tent "in the place of Baqi^c az-Zubayr" (that is, the place which came to be known as Baqi^c az-Zubayr) and said, "This is your market". Ka^cb b. al-Ashraf (who was at that time the sayyid of B. Nadir or was elected to that post shortly afterwards³⁰) entered the market and cut the ropes of the tent. The Prophet said, "In truth, I shall move it to another place, and that will be for him more outrageous" (*la-anqulannahu ilā mawdi^c huwa aghyazu lahu min hādhā*); and he moved it "to the place of the market of B. Qaynuqā^c was identical with Baqi^c az-Zubayr, in other words, the Prophet granted az-Zubayr b. al-^cAwwām the market of B. Qaynuqā^c.

The market of the Prophet was not far from the market of Qaynuqa^c; the Prophet's market (which was, in fact, one of his Şadaqāt) was separated from the market of Qaynuqā^c only by the Muşallā. We know this because the Muşallā is reported to have been between the bridge of Buthān (where the market of Qaynuqā^c was located) and the market of Medina.³² Another report to the same effect is that the Şadaqa of the Prophet was adjacent to az-Zubayr's Şadaqa.³³ No wonder, then, that both the market of the Prophet and the market of B. Qaynuqā^c are mentioned in reports on the market of Medina in the time of the Umayyad caliph Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik. Samhudi preserved for us Ibn Zabāla's detailed report on the court of the governor of Medina, Ibrāhīm b. Hishām (a maternal uncle of the caliph³⁴) which included the market of Medina.³⁵ Ibn Zabāla's report is completed by passages from Ibn Shabba which refer to the localities mentioned in it.

²⁹ Samh., I, p. 539, I. 6 from bottom.

³⁰ ^cAli b. Burhán ad-Din al-Halabi, Insán al-^cuyūn fi sirati l-amin al-ma'mūn (as-Sira al-halabiyya), Cairo, 1320, II, p. 108, l. 25; Kister (above, n. 28), p. 276, n. 4.

³¹ Samh., I, p. 540, I. I.

³² JSAI 6(1985), ch. III.

³³ JSAI 6(1985), ch. I.

³⁴ Samh., I, p. 541, l. 15. See on him *Tahdhib ta'rikh dimashq*, II, Damascus, 1330, p. 305f.

³⁵ Samh., I, pp. 541, l. 8 (aḥdatha...dāran akhadha bihā sūga l-madīna, wa-sadda bihā wujūha d-dūri sh-shawāri^c fī s-sūg)-543.

The market of the Prophet: It was located in what had been previously the cemetery of B. Sa^cida of the Khazraj. The cemetery extended from the court (i.e., what later became the court) of Ibn Abi Dhi'b to the court of Zayd b. Thabit.³⁶ Fortunately, these two courts appear in the description of the market of Ibrahim b. Hisham and are said to have been along its eastern wall.³⁷ We may conclude that the market of the Prophet later became part of Ibn Hisham's much larger market.

The market of B. Qaynuqä^c: The Şadaqa of az-Zubayr, that is, Baqi^c az-Zubayr, previously the market of B. Qaynuqä^c, was on the northeastern side of the market of Ibn Hishām, as can be deduced from the list of estates along the eastern wall, from south to north.³⁷ Baqi^c az-Zubayr was not, however, part of Ibn Hishām's market. It is true, as Ibn Zabāla reports, that Baqi^c az-Zubayr was not excluded from the construction projects of Ibn Hishām. There he built vaults and leased them to the merchants; however Samhūdi emphasises that Ibn Zabāla meant to say that Ibn Hishām built in the open area (*fadà*') of Baqi^c az-Zubayr a court similar to the court in which he incorporated the market. It should not be interpreted, he adds, that Baqi^c az-Zubayr was part of the market of Ibn Hishām.³⁸ So if Samhūdi is right, then unlike the market of the Prophet, the market of B. Qaynuqā^c, although obviously bordering it, was not included in the market of Ibn Hishām.

The Muşallā: As was already pointed out, the Muşallā separated the market of B. Qaynuqā^c from the market of Medina. In the Prophet's time the Muşallā was a piece of wide flat land with no buildings on it (*şaḥrā'* lā binā'a bihā), and the Prophet prohibited any construction there. It is

³⁷ Samh., I, p. 542, I. 4: thumma (akhadha) wajha dār zayd b. thābit wa-ja^cala li-ţtarīq manfadhan, thumma wajha dār jubayr b. mut^cim llatī fihā ashābu l-^cabā', thumma wajha dāri l-qāriziyyīna (sic), thumma wajha dāri l-^cabbās b. ^cabd al-muttalib, ay ath-thāniya llatī kāna ^cabdullāh b. ^cabbās yaskunuhā, wa-ja^cala li-banī damra tarīqan mubawwaban, thumma wajha dār ibn abī dhi'b, thumma dār āl shuwayfi^c, thumma sadaqatu z-zubayr, waja^cala li-banī d-dīl tarīqan mubawwaban. qultu (= Samhūdī) wa-hādhā t-tarīq ^cinda nihāyati hādhā l-jidāri sh-sharqiyyi mimmā yalī sh-shām, qurba thaniyyati l-wadā^c. wa-t-turuqu lmadhkūra qablahu kulluhā fi l-jidāri l-madhkūr fi l-mashriq.

³⁸ Samh., I, p. 543, I. 8 (där hishäm b. 'abd al-malik llati akhadha bihä s-süq): thumma banä dhålika buyùtan fa-ja'ala fihä l-aswâq kullahä...wa-fa'ala dhålika fi baqï'i z-zubayr, wa-daraba 'alayhi täqät wa-akrähä wa-sadda wujùha dürihim, wa-ja'ala li-s-sikak manfadhan yughlaqu. qultu (= Samhūdi): wa-muråduhu annahu ja'ala fi fadå' baqï'i zzubayr däran ka-däri s-süq, wa-lä yutawahhamu min dhålika anna baqï'a z-zubayr min jumlati s-süq, li-mä sa-ya'ii fi tarjamatihi.

³⁶ JSAI 6(1985), ch. III.

noteworthy that the wording reportedly employed by the Prophet (lā vudavvaau wa-la vuntagasu minhu shay') is very similar to the wording of his prohibition regarding his market.³⁹ Mu^cawiya b. Abi Sufyan bought the court of Abu Sufyan b. al-Harith b. 'Abd al-Muttalib and attached it to the Musalla of the Prophet.⁴⁰ From the report on the court of Abū Sufvan b. al-Harith it can be inferred that the Musalla was also included in the market of Ibn Hisham.⁴¹ Indeed, Ibn Zabala says that along its width ('ard), the market of Medina extends from the Musalla to Jirar Sa'd (b. 'Ubada "the jars of Sa'd b. 'Ubada", from the Khazraji clan of B. Să^cida); Samhūdī assumes that the Musalla was the southern boundary of the market, not its western boundary.⁴² The wheat-sellers were in the Musalla.43 The tomb of Malik b. Sinan, the father of Abu Safid al-Khudri, who was killed in the battle of Uhud, was in the mosque near the cloak-sellers (ashab al-'aba'), on the side of the wheat-sellers. According to another report, he was buried near the mosque of the cloak-sellers which belongs to the old market of Medina.⁴⁴ According to yet another report he was buried "in the place of the cloak-sellers" (i.e., in the place which later became theirs), near Dar Nakhla.⁴⁵ The place called Ahjar az-Zayt was near his tomb.46 (On Dar Nakhla and Ahjar az-Zayt see below.)

Az-Zawrā': Az-Zawrā' is mentioned quite often. The tomb of Malik b. Sinān, which was reported to have been at the old market of Medina, or alternatively near Dar Nakhla, is said in another report to have been in, or near, az-Zawrā': it is reported that the court of al-'Abbās b. 'Abd

³⁹ Samh., II, p. 6, 1. 8. See Samh., II, p. 12, 1. 1: kharaja rasūlu llāhi ş ilā l-muşallā, fa-qāla: hādhā mustamtarunā wa-muşallānā, li-adhānā wa-fitrinā, lā yudayyaqu wa-lā yuntaqaşu minhu shay'; cf. Kister (above, n. 28), pp. 273f.

⁴⁰ Samh., I., p. 547, l. 7 from bottom; M.J. Kister, "The Battle of the Harra", in Studies in memory of Gaston Wiet, ed. M. Rosen-Ayalon, p. 43, n. 48.

⁴¹ (Ibn Shabba):...inna abā sufyān b. al-hārith b. ^cabd al-muţţalib ttakhadha dāran bi-l-muşallā fī mawdi^ci l-hajjāmīna, thumma btā^cahā mu^cāwiya wa-zādahā fī muşallā nnabiyyi ş, thumma akhadhahā ba^cdu hishām b. ^cabd al-malik fī dārihi llatī akhadha bihā s-sūq, thumma hudimat.

⁴² Samh., I, p. 148, I. 8; JSAI 6(1985), n. 166.

⁴³ Samh., II, p. 3, l. 13: *'inda l-hannātīna bi-l-muşallā*. On the cuppers see above, n. 41.

⁴⁴ Samh., II, p. 106, l. 13. Cf. above, n. 37; JSAI 6(1985), the end of ch. III.

⁴⁵ Waqidi, I, p. 312, l. 3.

⁴⁶ Samh., II, p. 118, l. 1 from below; Saleh Ahmed al-Ali, "Studies in the Topography of Medina", in *Islamic Culture*, 35 (1961), p. 80.

al-Muttalib was in az-Zawrá', near the tomb of Málik b. Sinān.⁴⁷ Another court, called Dár Nakhla, was next to the court of al-^cAbbás, near the end of the Balāt; there is a similar description concerning al-Ghars, on the southeastern edge of the court in which Ibn Hishām incorporated the market of Medina.⁴⁸ Another report describes Dár Nakhla as "the market near az-Zawrá'ⁿ.⁴⁹ Next to Dár Nakhla there was the court of Ma^cmar b. ^cAbdallāh al-^cAdawi, in the court-yard of which the man in charge of the market (*şāḥib as-sūq*) used to sit.⁵⁰ The Prophet is said to have granted Ma^cmar his court which is in the market; this is the court in which the ^c*āmil as-sūq* sits.⁵¹ The above-mentioned courts were along the eastern wall of the market of Ibn Hishām (above, n. 37). Another court along that wall was that of Ibn Mas^cūd. His nephew, 'Abdallāh b. ^cUtba b. Mas^cūd was appointed by ^cUmar b. al-Khatţāb to control the market.⁵²

From other reports it is clear that az-Zawrá' was along the edge of the market of Medina. The forepart (*muqaddam*) of the market of Medina was near the end of al-Balāț and the area around it was called az-Zawrá'.⁵³ In az-Zawrá' there was a market of potash and the people would descend to it by steps.⁵⁴ The place called Ahjár az-Zayt was near az-Zawrá'.⁵⁵ In keeping with the findings concerning the market of Medina, it is reported that the tomb of Mālik b. Sinān was inside the (later) wall

⁴⁷ Samh., I, p. 541, l. 7 from bottom:...khātimati l-balāt, ayi lladhi ^cinda dāri l-^cabbās bi-z-zawrā', bi-gurb mashhad mālik b. sinān.

⁴⁸ Samh., I, pp. 541–542: qāla ibn zabāla caqiba dhikrihi li-btidā'i d-dūr min khātimati l-balāţ: fa-madā bihā hattā sadda bihā wajha dāri l-cabbās b. cabd al-muţţalib, ayi llati cinda khātimati l-balāţ, wa-dāra nakhla, wa-kānat lī-āl shayba b. rabīca, wa-innamā summiyat dāra nakhla li-nakhla kānat fihā.

49 'Umdat al-akhbår, p. 278.

⁵⁰ Samh., I, p. 542, l. 1: thumma där ma ^cmar al-^cadawi llati käna yajlisu sähibu s-süg bi-finä'ihä.

⁵¹ Işâba, VI, p. 189:...anna n-nabiyya ş aqta^ca ma^cmar b. ^cabdillâh dârahu llatî bi-s-sûq, wa-hiya llatî yajlisu ilayhâ ^câmilu s-sûq.

⁵² Işâba, IV, p. 166, l. 11; as-Suyuți, Tanwir al-hawâlik sharh 'alā muwația' mâlik, Beirut, 1973, I, p. 266, l. 7; cf. Işâba, III, p. 27, l. 4 from bottom; Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Isti'âb fi ma'rifati l-aşhâb, ed. al-Bijâwi, Cairo, n.d., II, p. 576, l. 2 from bottom.

⁵³ Samb., I, p. 544, I. 15:...anna muqaddam süqi l-madina mimmä yali khätimata I-balät wa-mä hawla dhälika käna yusammä bi-z-zawrä'. Cf. Yäqüi, Buldän. s.v. Zawrä', p. 156:...wa-z-zawrä': mawdi^c cinda süqi l-madina qurba l-masjid;...huwa murtafi^c ka-l-manăra; wa-gila: bali z-zawrä' süqu l-madina nafsuhu. Sec already al-Ali, (above, n. 46), p. 88.

⁵⁴ Samh., I, p. 544, l. 16: adraktu sügan bi-z-zawrå' yugålu lahu(!) sügu l-hurud (printed: al-hurus), kåna n-näs yanzilüna ilayhä bi-daraj.

⁵⁵ Samh., II, p. 242, l. 3 from bottom.

of Medina, attached to it (mulasigan lahu), in the western area of Medina, in the old market.⁵⁶ Other reports connect az-Zawra' with a place called Baqi^c al-Khayl. This connection is of some interest because the market of the Prophet is involved. It is reported that some of those who were killed at Uhud were buried in Baqi^c al-Khayl (printed: al-Jabal), near the court of Zayd b. Thabit, in the market, that is, the market of camels (sug az-zahr).⁵⁷ The court of Zayd b. Thabit is located at one edge of the cemetery of B. Sacida, which became the market of the Prophet (above, p. 141). Bagi^c al-Khayl (obviously a pre-Islamic name) seems to have been the site of commercial activities before the Hijra. The area was not, then, merely a cemetery. Az-Zawra' is the name of a place in the market of Medina, in Baqi^c al-Khayl, near the tomb of Malik b. Sinan, and also a name for the tomb of the Prophet's son Ibrahim (see below).⁵⁸ It would seem that the northern gate of Medina was called (in later times) Bab al-Bagi^c because of Bagi^c al-Khayl.⁵⁹ We also know that Bagi^c al-Khayl was close to Mt. Sal^c (above, n. 57).

56 Qalyubi, fol. 32b.

⁵⁷ Waqidi, I, p. 312, l. 1; Yaqut, Buldān, s.v. Khayl. Cf. sūq al-ghanam, which seems identical to sūq az-zahr, being near the other court demarcating the market of the Prophet, that is, the court of Ibn Abi Dhi'b, Samh., I, p. 548, l. 1 from bottom. The same goes for mirbad an-na^cam, Samh., II, p. 52, l. 8 (it is related to the war of Khandaq).

The market of Medina used to be called Baq^r al-Khayl, Samh., I, p. 544, l. 5 from bottom: kana yuqalu li-suqi l-madina baqi cal-khayl; 1.3 from bottom: thumma camida ila bagi^c al-khayl, wa-huwa sugu l-madina. Samh., II, p. 264 reports that Baqf^e al-Khayl is "the place of the market of Medina which is adjacent to the Musalla" (mawdi' sugi l-madina al-mujawir li-l-musalla. Samhudi goes on to identify Baqr al-Khayl as Baqr al-Musalla. (Cf. al-Maghanim al-mutaba, s.v. al-Balat: janubu l-musalla.) The Baqi^c referred to is that part of the market of Medina which is close to al-Musalla and is also called Baqi^c al-Musalla, Samh., I, p. 545, I. 6. Sug al-Musalla (Samh., I, p. 546, I. 3 from bottom) is identical to Sug al-Baqr, i.e., Baqr al-Muşalla, Samh., I, p. 545, I. 10. Another report has Baqi al-Madina as a name of its market, al-Fakhr ar-Razi, at-Tajsir al-kabir, Cairo, n.d., XVI, p. 172:...wa-innaka la-tabicu l-garaza yawma'idhin bi-baqici l-madina. Cf. however Samh., II, p. 264, l. 4 from bottom: baqi^c al-khayl: mawdi^c sharqiyya (!) l-madīna al-mujāwir (!) li-1musallà (in a verse which follows there is mention of Baqr al-Musalla). Baqr al-Khayl was close to Mt. Sal^c, Qalyubi, fol. 27b. He says, that those who claim that the Prophet prayed the salat al-cid in the Baqi^e are wrong, unless it is interpretated as referring to Baqi^e al-Khayl, which is close to Mt. Sal^e. Sal^e was in the market of Medina.

58 Qalyubi, fol. 39a.

⁵⁹ Az-Zurqáni, Sharh 'alā l-mawāhibi l-laduniyya, Cairo, 1329, II, p. 18, l. 22 (quoting Samhudi):... wa-huwa (= Mt. Uhud) jabal mashhūr bi-l-madīna 'alā agalla min farsakh minhā, li-anna bayna awwalihi wa-bayna bābihā l-ma'rūf bi-bābi l-baqī' mīlayni waarba'ata asbā' mil tazīdu yasīran.

A considerable amount of construction seems to have taken place under 'Uthman b. 'Affan. He "built az-Zawra'",⁶⁰ in his time the building activity reached Sal^{c61} and there are eschatological (fitna) traditions connected with this expansion. It must be noted that, in other reports, az-Zawra' is connected to Bagi^c al-Ghargad, which is east of the Mosque of the Prophet. Az-Zubayriyyat (=Baqi^c az-Zubayr = the market of B. Qaynuqa^c) was adjacent to Baqi^c al-Gharqad. The area between Baqi^c al-Ghargad and Bagi^c az-Zubayr was called al-Baggal. Al-Baggal was east of Baqi^c az-Zubayr.⁶² The link between Baqi^c az-Zubayr and az-Zawra' is supplied by two parallel reports on the grave of the Prophet's son Ibrahim. According to one report he was buried in az-Zawra'.⁶³ In another report, when Ibrahim died the Prophet was asked, "Where shall we bury your son", to which he replied, "Near him who was the first of us to arrive at Paradise, "Uthman b. Maz'un". The grave of "Uthman b. Maz^cun was near the kiba ("the sweepings") of B. ^cAmr b. ^cAwf.⁶⁴ That the kiba was in fact in Baqi^c al-Ghargad can be seen from another report: "Uthman was buried in Bagi" al-Ghargad, formerly called Bagi" al-Khabkhaba, near the kiba ('inda mawdi'i l-kiba l-yawma, i.e., near the place which afterwards became known by that name), near the court of Muhammad b. al-Hanafiyya.⁶⁵ Besides the study of these parallel reports, the information on the construction carried out by Uthman b. Affan in az-Zawra' should be linked perhaps with another detail concerning construction by "Uthman, pointing to Bagi" al-Ghargad. Al-Maga^cid were shops (dakākīn) near the court of Uthmān, close to the gate of the Mosque of the Prophet in the east.⁶⁶ When the Prophet's son Ibrahim

⁶⁰ Ta'rīkh ya'qūbī, II, p. 166, l. 9: wa-fī hādhihi s-sana (=27AH) banā 'uthmān dārahu wa-banā z-zawrā'. Cf. Yaqūt, Buldān, s.v. Zawrā', p. 156: wa-z-zawrā' aydan dār 'uthmān b. 'affān bi-l-madīna. And see Ya'qūbi, Mushākalat an-nās li-zamānihim, ed. William Millward, Beirut, 1962, p. 13; Mas^cūdī, Murūj adh-dhahab, ed. Pellat, Beirut, 1966f, III, p. 76.

⁶¹ ad-Diyarbakri, Ta'rikh al-khamis, Cairo, 1283, II, p. 269, I. 9 from bottom.

62 JSAI 6(1985), ch. I.

⁶³ Samh., II, pp. 84–85; cf. p. 851. 3:... fa-yustafadu tasmiyatu dhalika l-mawdi^c bi-z-zawra' aydan.

⁶⁴ Lisân al-^carab, s.v. kbw:,,, ^cinda farațină ^cuthmân b. maz^cun, wa-kâna gabr ^cuthmân ^cinda kibă banî ^camr b. ^cawf, ay kunăsatihim. Cf. Samh., II, p. 84, 1.^c 2 from bottom (Ibn Zabala):... wa-dufina ^cuthmân b. maz^cun ^cinda kuttâb banî ^camr b. ^cuthmân.

⁶⁵ Ibn Sa^cd, III, p. 397; Samh., II, pp. 84., 1. 8; 85, l. 8.

66 See also Ibn Battuta, I, pp. 272-273.

died, the prayer for him took place in al-Maqā^cid.⁶⁷ The eastern gate referred to was behind ^cUthmān's court. From it one could go out to Baqī^c al-Gharqad. In Baqī^c al-Gharqad there were the graves of most Medinans, and the graves of Ibrāhīm and al-Hasan b. ^cAlī b. Abī Tālib were also there.⁶⁸ We may safely conclude that az-Zawrā' was located in the centre of Islamic Medina.

⁶⁷ Samh., II, p. 376, 1. 10.

⁶⁸ Muhammad b. 'Abd al-Mun'im al-Himyari, ar-Rawd al-mi'(tar fi khabari l-aqtar, ed. Ihsan 'Abbas, Beirut, 1975, s.v. Tayba (a report on the wall built 263AH).

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ON ARABS OF THE BANŪ KILĀB EXECUTED TOGETHER WITH THE JEWISH BANŪ QURAYZA*

The student of early Islam always keeps a watchful eye open for the rare, sometimes unique record which has somehow survived from the heyday of Islamic historiography and illuminates an aspect of history otherwise unknown to us. One such record concerns a clan of Arab proselytes whose men were executed by the Muslims together with the men of the Jewish Banū Qurayza.

The massacre of the Banū Qurayza has recently been studied in this journal.¹ It must be observed that it represented a novelty in Medinan politics, and in tribal Arab politics in general: before Islam, the annihilation of an adversary was never an aim of war. When, after their great victory in the battle of Bu'āth on the eve of Islam, the Aws killed many of the defeated Khazraj, someone allegedly shouted: "O company of the Aws, be gentle and do not destroy your brothers, because having them as neighbours is better than having foxes as neighbours."² This is a genuine reflection of pre-Islamic tribal attitudes and practices.

As is often the case in early Islamic literature, the evidence about a certain matter is not where it is "supposed to be". The same happens here: we learn of these Arabs from information concerning the Prophet's wives (a subject still awaiting a thorough scholarly discussion). Ibn al-Kalbī, in a long report certainly taken from his lost monograph on the Prophet's wives, Kitāb azwāj al-nabī (s),³ lists the Prophet's marriages in chronological order. Two of his wives concern us here. We can roughly

²Abū l-Faraj al-Isfahānī, Kitāb al-aghānī, Būlāq 1285 A.H., XV, 164:16.

³ Ibn al-Nadīm, *Fibrist*, Beirut 1398/1978 (reprint of the Cairo 1347 A.H. edition), 142:1.

^{*} I wish to express my gratitude to Professor Shaul Shaked for commenting on this paper.

¹ M.J. Kister, "The Massacre of the Banū Qurayza: a Re-examination of a Tradition". M. Rodinson ("A Critical Survey of Modern Studies on Muhammad", in M. Swartz, Studies on Islam, New York-Oxford 1981, 77, n. 142) draws attention to the "painful irony" in R. Paret's remark that this event should not be judged in the light of our moral conceptions, for "the customs of that time in the conduct of war were, in many respects, more brutal than we are accustomed to in the age of the convention of Geneva"; R. Paret, Mohammed und der Koran: Geschichte und Verkündigung des arabischen Propheten, Stuttgart 1957, 112. Not that Rodinson himself is unaware of the existence of the same mitigating circumstances: "It is not easy to judge the massacre of the Qurayza", he writes. "It must be remembered that the customs of the time were extremely primitive"; M. Rodinson, Mohammed, New York 1974, 213, quoted by Kister, op. cit., 63n.

date their marriages to the Prophet through other marriages, for which we have dates.

The two marriages took place after that of Maymūna al-Hilāliyya, for which we have a firm date: it happened during the 'umrat al-qadā' (Dhū l-Qa'da, 7 A.H.). Later the Prophet married, consecutively, the two women mentioned below. Then we find another undated marriage (or near-marriage) to a woman of the Banū Abī Bakr b. Kilāb, and then we again arrive at a firm date: the marriage to Asmā' bint al-Nu'mān al-Kindiyya, in Rabī' al-Awwal of 9 A.H.⁴ We may conclude that the two women who concern us here married the Prophet between Dhū l-Qa'da of 7 A.H. and Rabī' al-Awwal of 9 A.H.

Ibn al-Kalbī says:

Then the Messenger of God (s) married a woman of the Banū Kilāb b. Rabī'a called al-Nashāt bint Rifā'a, and they [i.e.,, the members of her clan] were allies [hulafa', which can also be translated "clients", see below] of the Banū Rifā'a of Qurayza (wa-kānū hulafā'a li-Banī Rifā'a min Qurayza).⁵

Ibn al-Kalbī continues:

Then the Messenger of God (s) married al-Shanbā' bint 'Amr al-Ghifāriyya, and they [i.e., the members of her clan] were also the allies of the Banū Qurayza. Some claimed that she was of Qurayza and that her pedigree [i.e., her precise Qurazī pedigree] was forgotten because of the destruction of the Banū Qurayza (wa-kānū aydan hulafā'a li-Banī Qurayza, wa-ba'duhum yaz'umu annahā Quraziyya wa-qad juhila nasabuhā li-halāk Banī Qurayza). It was also said that she was of Kināna.⁶

Ibn al-Kalbī adds that al-Shanbā' was menstruating at the time she was brought to the Prophet, and Ibrāhīm (i.e., the Prophet's son by Māriya the Copt) died before she became pure again. She said: "Had he been a prophet, the dearest person to him would not have died. So the Messenger of God divorced her."⁷

⁴ Tab., III, 166-7 [I, 1774 of the Leiden edition]; *Işāba*, VII, 497:-1.

⁵ Ibn al-Kalbī adds that some called her Sanā, saying that she was of Sulaym; cf. Lecker, The Banū Sulaym, 85f. This indicates a confusion with the Sulamī Sanā.

⁶ For the name Shanbā' see also *Lisān al-'arab*, s.v. '.b.y., 7 (a poetess called al-Shanbā' bint Zayd b. 'Umāra). The Kināna version involves no difficulty, because the Ghifār are a subdivision of the Kināna.

⁷ Tab., *loc. cit.* Another reason for an unconsummated marriage to an unnamed Ghifārī woman is reported elsewhere: the Prophet found a trace of leprosy on her body; Ibn Kathīr, *Bidāya*, V, 300:15. See also Zurqānī, III, 267:23; *lṣāba*, II, 618. Remarking on the Prophet's marriage to a woman of the Layth, Wāqidī says: "And our friends deny this and say that he never married a woman of the Kināna"; *TMD*, *Mukht.*, II, 289.

Rather surprisingly, the dictionaries of Companions and Ibn Sa'd's *Țabaqāt* do not have an entry on either al-Nashāt or al-Shanbā'.⁸ In addition, no information on these wives is found in the monograph by Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthannā on the wives of the Prophet, which altogether fails to mention them.⁹

Al-Shanbā' also appears in a report going back to Anas b. Mālik and Ibn 'Abbās. She and another wife of the Prophet were among the fifteen wives who were forbidden to remarry after the Prophet's death, in spite of the fact that their marriages with the Prophet had not been consummated. In the other woman the Prophet found a trace of leprosy. As to al-Shanbā', the reasons for not consummating her marriage are the same as those quoted above from Ibn al-Kalbī, namely that she had menstruated, and when consummation became possible, she made a vicious remark about the death of the Prophet's son Ibrāhīm.¹⁰

Our main concern here is the valuable new information about al-Nashāt and her clan found in Ibn 'Asākir's *History of Damascus*. He mentions her among the thirteen wives with whom the Prophet had intercourse. This is followed by the words:

And these Banū Rifā'a¹¹ are of the Banū Kilāb b. Rabī'a b. 'Āmir b. Ṣa'ṣa'a. They were the allies of the Banū Qurayẓa, [more precisely] of the Banū Rifā'a of Qurayẓa. They were killed with them when they were killed and all of them perished (wa-l-Nashāt bint Rifā'a, [* min Banī Rifā'a] wa-Banū Rifā'a hā'ulā'i min Banī Kilāb b. Rabī'a b. 'Āmir b. Ṣa'ṣa'a, wa-kānū ḥulafā'a fī Banī Qurayẓa, fī Banī Rifā'a min Banī Qurayẓa, fa-uṣībū ma'ahum yawma uṣībū fa-'ngaradū).

¹¹ Sic; but they were not mentioned earlier in the text and could have been omitted due to haplology.

⁸This was noticed by Sālihī, Azwāj al-nabī, 248, 250.

⁹Abū 'Ubayda, Tasmiyatu azwāj al-nabī (s) wa-awlādihi, ed. Nuhād al-Mūsā, Majallat Ma'had al-Makhţūţāt al-'Arabiyya 13 (1967), 244-79; another edition, by Yūsuf 'Ali Badīwī, appeared in Beirut and Damascus in 1410/1990. I am indebted to Professor Maribel Fierro for helping me obtain a copy of the latter edition. For quotations from Abu 'Ubayda's monograph see TMD, Sīra, 433; Ṣāliḥī, Azwāj al-nabī, passim.

¹⁰ TMD, Mukht., II, 270-1. The wording merits some attention. While Ibn al-Kalbī says: fa-'arakat ("she menstruated") hīna dakhalat 'alayhi, the TMD has: lammā udkhilat 'alayhi lam takun bi-l-m.s.y.ra fa-'ntazara bihā l-yasra. Wa-māta Ibrāhīm 'bn rasūli 'llāhi (\$) 'alā tafī'ati (printed: tafī'a) dhālika, fa-qālat: law kāna nabiyyan mā māta ahabbu l-nāsi ilayhi wa-a'azzuhu[m] 'alayhi. Fa-tallaqahā wa-awjaba lahā l-mahra wa-hurrimmat 'alā l-azwāj. Cf. TMD, Sīra, 136 (lam takun bi-l-yasīrati lammā udkhilat fa-'ntazara bihā l-yasīra[!]). (The passage in TMD, Tahdh., I, 300:14 is garbled.) Instead of m.s.y.ra (the editor suggests: lam takun bi-l-yasra, ay lam takun layyinata li-'nqiyād[!]) and al-yasīra, read probably: lam takun bi-l-muyassara, i.e., since she had menstruated, her state did not permit sexual intercourse.

We find in the same source that when the Prophet's wives "were given the choice between this world and the latter one", i.e., between a commitment not to remarry after the Prophet's death and divorce, al-Nashāt chose to remarry after him and he divorced her.¹²

A parallel report reveals the source of this information. Al-Mufaddal b. Ghassān al-Ghallābī in his Ta'rīkh quotes, with an isnād going back to Sayf b. 'Umar, from Abū 'Umar (sic) 'Uthmān b. Miqsam (al-Burrī), from Qatāda, a report on the Prophet's wives which includes a passage almost identical to the one quoted from Ibn 'Asākir: wa-l-Shāt bint Rifā'a huwa[!]¹³ min Banī Kilāb b. Rabī'a b. 'Āmir b. Ṣa'ṣa'a fī Banī Rifā'a min Banī Qurayza, fa-uṣībū ma'ahum yawma uṣībū fa-'nqaradū. Thumma qāla: wa-ammā l-Shāt ḥīna¹⁴ khayyara nisā'ahu bayna l-dunyā wa-l-ākhira fa-'khtārat (sic) an tatazawwaja ba'du fa-țallaqahā.¹⁵

There is some uncertainty concerning the woman's name: some have al-Shāt instead of al-Nashāt. But although al-Shāt is possible as a female name ("the sheep", comparable to Sakhla, Sukhayla, "the lamb, the little lamb"), al-Nashāt, being a *lectio difficilior*, is preferable.¹⁶

The repetition of the name Rifā'a in the above passage from Ibn 'Asākir is problematic. It is the name of al-Nashāt's father, the name of her Kilābī clan and the name of the Qurayza subdivision connected with her Kilābī clan. One MS of Ibn 'Asākir calls the Qurayza subdivision Rufay'a (or Rafī'a; but the former is better). Perhaps Rufay'a, located after two Rifā'as, became Rifā'a through assimilation.¹⁷

¹⁶ In addition, the nun is attested both in Tabarī and in the Ta'rūkh madinat Dimashq (though not in its Mukhtaşar); nashāt means "dry tree"; see Lisān al-'arab, the end of s.v. n.sh.y. It is possible that Tradition gave her a pejorative byname: after all, the Prophet divorced her when she chose to remarry after his death. But perhaps her name is derived from nasha'a, "to grow up".

¹⁷ TMD, MS Cambridge 2927, I, 157b (wa-kānū khulafā[!] min[!]) Banī Qurayza fī Banī R.f.y.'a min Banī Qurayza fa-usībū ma'ahum yawma usībū fa-'nqaradū). Zurqānī, III, 268:1, says that al-Mufaddal, in his Ta'rīkh, on the au-

¹² Wa-ammā al-Nashāt, ķīna khuyyira nisā'uhu bayna l-dunyā wa-l-ākhira, fa-'khtārat an tazawwaja ba'dahu fa-tallaqahā; TMD, Sīra, 138f; TMD, Mukht., II, 272 (in this source she is called al-Shāt). In TMD, Tahdh., I, 301:7, the name al-Nashāt is corrupt: '.shā'a, al-th.n.ya.

¹³ Perhaps a corruption of Aum referring to the omitted phrase: *min Banf Rifa'a. ¹⁴ Sic, one expects: fa-Afna. See also above, n. 12.

¹⁵ Şālihī, Aswāj al-nabī, 248. See on al-Mufaddal (d. 246/860), in Abū Bakr al-Khaţīb al-Baghdādī, Ta'rīkh Baghdād, Cairo 1349/1931, XIII, 124 (a Başran by origin, lived in Baghdad, transmitted, among others, from Wāqidī); Ibn al-'Imād, Shadharāt al-dhahab, Cairo 1350, II, 112 (wa-lahu ta'rīkh mufīd). Al-Mufaddal is quoted in Akhbār al-dawla l-'abbāsiyya, ed. 'Abd al-'Asīz al-Dūrī and 'Abd al-Jabbār al-Muṭṭalibī, Beirut 1971, 34. On 'Uthmān b. Miqsam see Ibn Hajar, Lisān al-mīzān, Beirut 1407/1987, IV, 179f; al-Sam'ānī, al-Ansāb, ed. 'Abdallāh 'Umar al-Bārūdī, Beirut 1408/1988 (note, however, that his kunya in these sources is Abū Salama, not Abū 'Umar); Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, Beirut 1380/1960-1388/1968, VII, 285 (wrongly: al-Barsamī, instead of al-Burrī; he died at the time of al-Mahdī).

But these are marginal matters. We learn from the rare piece of information quoted above that when the Banū Qurayẓa were executed, their Kilābī allies (or clients) were also slain with them. The execution of the allies strongly suggests that they were Jewish proselytes, moreover, that they probably refused to embrace Islam and save their lives. We know that the women and children of Qurayẓa were sold into slavery.¹⁸ Al-Nashāt is not said to have been a slavegirl; this may be an indication that the Arab women captured in the fortress of Qurayẓa were not sold. Alternatively, they could have been ransomed by their fellow tribesmen.

It is plausible that the execution of these Kilābīs by the Muslims was somehow connected to the attack on the Muslims at Bi'r Ma'ūna which was led by 'Amir b. al-Tufayl al-Kilābī (of the Banū Ja'far b. Kilāb, the leading clan of the Kilāb). Assuming that Bi'r Ma'ūna took place at the beginning of 4 A.H. (in the month of Safar) and Banū Qurayza at the end of 5 A.H. (in Dhū l-Qa'da),¹⁹ we may reach the conclusion that the Muslim relatives of those killed at Bi'r Ma'ūna enthusiastically carried out the Kilābī execution some two years later.²⁰ But it could have been the other way round: the Damascene scholar Makhūl (d. 112/730 or later), whose Hadith was transmitted, among others, by Zuhri and Ibn Ishāq, dates Bi'r Ma'ūna after the Khandaq (i.e., after the siege of Banū Qurayza which took place immediately after the Khandaq).²¹ If Makhūl is right, then 'Amir b. al-Tufayl may have avenged at Bi'r Ma'ūna the execution of his fellow Kilābīs by the Muslims. In this case the relation between the violent clashes of Khandaq/Banū Qurayza and Bi'r Ma'ūna is not only chronological but also causal. In other words, 'Amir b. al-Tufayl was driven by anger and frustration. The Sulamīs, who provided part of the troops at Bi'r Ma'ūna, had an account of

²⁰On Bi'r Ma'ūna cf. Kister, "The Expedition of Bi'r Ma'ūna".

thority of Qatāda, mentions Shāt (sic) bint Rifā'a (we already know that in al-Mufaddal's book she is called al-Shāt); he follows this with the mention of al-Shanbā' bint 'Amr al-Ghifāriyya, remarking that her marriage was consummated (dakhala bihā).

¹⁸ Kister, "The Massacre of the Banū Qurayza: a Re-examination of a Tradition", 94.

¹⁹ J.M.B. Jones, "The Chronology of the maghāzī: A Textual Survey", BSOAS 19 (1957), 249 f.

²¹ Jones, "The Chronology", 249 = Ibn Kathīr, Bidāya, IV, 71: wa-aghraba Makhūl raḥimahu 'llāh ḥaythu gāla innahā kānat ba'da l-khandaq, which Jones translates: "Ibn Kathīr states ... that Makhūl was presenting an unusual version in putting it after al-Khandaq". But in this context the term aghraba (similarly: gharīb, gharā'ib) connotes a Hadīth which is reported by one authority only. See for example TMD, XL, ('Abd al-Hamīd b. Habīb — 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Abdallāh), ed. Sukayna al-Shihābī, Damascus 1407/1986, 315 (a traditionist is blamed for al-aḥādīth al-gharā'ib 'llatī kāna yajī'u bihā), 316 (the same person is blamed for aḥādīth tafarrada bihā, la tu'rafu). On Makhul see F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, Leiden 1967 f, I, 404.

their own to settle with the Muslims.²² All this is of course hypothetical.

There must have been other Bedouin proselytes with the Qurayza. The poet Jabal b. Jawwāl al-Tha'labī of the Banū Tha'laba b. Sa'd b. Dhubyān (a subdivision of the Ghaṭafān) was a Jewish proselyte who "was with Qurayza" (kāna yahūdiyyan ma'a Banī Qurayza), i.e., he was their ally (or client). He composed an elegy on the Nadīr leader Huyayy b. Akhṭab and another elegy bewailing the fate of the Nadīr and the Qurayza. Later he embraced Islam.²³

The term $hulaf\bar{a}$, which defines the status of the Kilābīs is ambiguous and can be understood both as "allies" and "clients". The latter possibility suggests that they lived permanently in or near the court of Qurayza; the preposition $f\bar{i}$ ($hulaf\bar{a}$ ' $f\bar{i}$..., "clients living in the midst of ... ") possibly points in this direction. But a parallel text quoted above has the variant $hulaf\bar{a}$ ' li-..., "allies of ...". Admittedly, a client status is more indicative of proselytizing to Judaism. We know that the Jews of Taymā' demanded that Bedouins of the Balī convert to Judaism before allowing them to settle in their castle.²⁴

There is yet another possibility, which seems to me more likely. The Kilābīs may have formed auxiliary forces from outside Medina, called in by the Jews in times of crisis. We know that such forces formed an integral part of the Jews' defence system²⁵ and indeed this type of military cooperation was an important element in the relationship between the settled population and the nomads in Arabia.²⁶

²⁴ Al-Bakrī, Mu'jam mā 'sta'jama, ed. Mustafā al-Saqqā, Cairo 1364/1945-1371/1951, I, 29.

²² Kister, "The Expedition of Bi'r Ma'ūna", 350 f. On the participation of the Kilābīs see op. cit., 355 f.

²³ Işāba, I, 454 (from Ibn al-Kalbī); Ibn Hishām, al-Sīra al-nabawiyya, ed. al-Saqqā, al-Abyārī and Shalabī, Beirut 1391/1971, III, 285; Hassān b. Thābit, Dīwān, ed. Walid 'Arafat, London 1971, no. 94 (wa-kāna yahūdiyyan fa-aslama ba'du); Ibn al-Kalbī, Jamharat al-nasab, ed. Nājī Hasan, Beirut 1407/1986, 427, omits his father's name ("Jabal b. Şafwān" etc.). Note the enigmatic statement of Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām (quoted in the Işāba, loc. cit.): Jabal, he says, was a descendant of al-Fițyawn b. 'Amir b. Tha'laba. On the Banū Tha'laba b. Sa'd b. Dhubyān cf. F.M. Donner, "Some Early Arabic Inscriptions from al-Hanākiyya, Saudi Arabia", JNES 43 (1984), 188 f; cf. Lecker, The Banū Sulaym, 3f.

²⁵ Cf. for example the anticipated military aid of the Ghatafān (who were to arrive from their territory outside Medina) to the Banū Nadīr; al-Wāqidī, Kitāb almaghāzī, ed. Marsden Jones, London 1966, I, 368 (wa-yumiddukum hulafā'ukum min Ghatafān).

²⁶ Cf. the military role of the bādiya as reflected in the alleged mild reproach of the Prophet to ' \bar{A} 'isha, when she referred to a certain tribe as a'rāb: yā ' \bar{A} 'isha, laysū bi-a'rāb, hum ahlu bādiyatinā wa-naḥnu ahlu ḥādiratihim fa-idhā du'ū ajābū fa-laysū bi-a'rāb; Abū 'Ubayd, Kitāb al-amwāl, ed. Muḥammad Khalīl Harrās, Cairo 1396/1976, 280.

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THE HUDAYBIYYA-TREATY AND THE EXPEDITION AGAINST KHAYBAR*

The treaty concluded at Hudaybiyya in Dhū l-Qa'da, 6 AH/March, 628 AD¹ poses several intriguing questions.² Discussion in this paper is limited to one of them, namely the connection between the Hudaybiyya-treaty and the expedition against the Jewish oasis of Khaybar which, as is well-known, took place shortly afterwards.

I

The minute accounts of the negotiations between the Prophet and Quraysh which preceded the concluding of the Hudaybiyya-treaty, and to no less extent the text of the treaty itself, do not fail to reflect the apparently lenient position adopted by the Prophet throughout the negotiations. He does not seem to have offered Quraysh any tough bargaining; to the contrary, some of the concessions he made were related to the very essence of his prophetic mission. He complied with the pagans' demand that *bi-'smi llāhi r-raḥmāni r-raḥīm* be replaced by the old Arab *bi-'smika llāhumma* and that *muhammad rasūlu llāhi* be replaced by *muḥammad b. 'abdallāh.*³ He agreed to send back to Mecca anybody from Quraysh who would come to him (either a Muslim or intending to embrace Islam) without the permis-

- This study is extracted from a Ph.D. thesis written under the supervision of Prof. M.J. Kister at the Hebrew University, Jerusalem. An earlier version was read at the colloquium "From Jähiliyya to Islam, aspects of social, cultural and religious history in the period of transition", held at the Institute for Advanced Studies of the Hebrew University, June 6th-12th, 1980.
- ¹ On the chronology see J. Wellhausen, *Muhammed in Medina*, Berlin, 1882, p. 18 (Dhū I-Qa'da 6AH started on the 13th of March, 628); L. Caetani, *Annali dell'Islam*, Milano, 1905, II, LXVI.
- See now César E. Dubler & Ursula Quarella, "Der Vertrag von al-Hudaybiyya als Wendepunkt in der Geschichte des frühen Islam", in Aslatische Studien 21 (1967), pp. 62-81; Miklos Muranyi, "Die Auslieferungsklausel des Vertrages von al-Hudaiblya und ihre Folgen", in Arabica 23 (1976), pp. 275-295 (— Muranyi); F.M. Donner, "Muhammad's political consolidation in Arabia up to the conquest of Mecca", in Muslim World 69 (1979), pp. 229-247, esp. pp. 240-247 (— Donner).

³ Ibn Hishām, III, 331-332. On alldhumma see F. Buhl, El^{1,2}, s.v.

sion of his guardian (*wall*).⁴ Moreover this stipulation was not reciprocal, a feature which is outstanding in its one-sidedness.⁵

Considering these grave concessions⁶ one expects to find benefits on the Muslims' part which were meaningful enough to account for what the Prophet sacrificed in terms of strength and prestige. It has been suggested that the Prophet benefited by the "recognition of Medina by Quraysh as a power equal in importance to Mecca", or in other words by regarding him as a partner with equal rights to a treaty.⁷ Another suggestion was that he benefited by the permission to perform the "little pilgrimage" (*'umra*) the following year.⁴ However, one QurashI concession, which was by far the most important achievement of the Prophet, has as yet to be discussed.⁹

A unique passage in a treatise on *flqh*, which was already connected to the affair of Hudaybiyya more than forty years ago seems to provide the missing QurashI concession. In his book *Muslim conduct of state¹⁰* the prominent Muslim scholar Muhammad Hamīdullāh analyzed carefully the situation in Arabia when the Hudaybiyya-treaty was concluded:

At that time, he (i.e., the Prophet Muhammad) had the embittered Jews in the formidable colony of Khaibar, in the north; and the irritated, though much exhausted, Quraish of Mecca in the south. A Khaibar-Mecca coalition was imminent. At least this mugh was certain that, if the Muslims marched towards Mecca, the Jews would storm the empty and undefended MadInah; and if the Muslims attacked Khaibar, the same was the fear on the part of the Meccans,¹¹ and the Muslims at that time were not sufficiently powerful to undertake both the expeditions at once, or at least to spare sufficient force to defend the metropolis of Islam when the expedition against either Mecca or Khaibar had left the city.

- ⁴ Cf. Watt, p. 48: "The clause about returning persons under protection (chiefly minors and clients presumably) was a concession to the feelings of Quraysh which cost the Muslims little. The son of one of the Meccan negotiators is said to have come to Muhammad... and to have been told he must return to Mecca".
- ³ Cf. Watt, *loc. cit.::* "The fact that this clause was not reciprocal is perhaps mainly an expression of Muhammad's belief in the superior attractiveness of Islam".
- For attempts to minimize them cf. e.g. Lammens, El¹, s.v. Hudaybiya; above, notes 4 and 5. Cf. Muranyi, p. 277.
- ⁷ See F. Buhl, E^{II}, s.v. al-MadIna; idem, Das Leben Muhammeds, trans. Schaeder, Heidelberg, 1955, p. 290. See also Watt, pp. 48, 51; R. Paret, Mohammed und der Koran, Stuttgart, 1957, p. 115; Dubler & Quarella (above, note 2), pp. 63, 77-78. Cf. Muranyi, p. 277.
- See Muranyi, p. 279.
- * Cf. Donner, pp. 241-242 and below, note 12.
- A "first partial German edition" appeared in Germany forty-five years ago. I used the 3rd revised edition, Lahore, 1953, p. 277.
- ¹¹ Reference to as-Sarakhsi, al-Mabsut, Cairo, 1324, X, p. 86.

The Hudaybiyya-treaty

Moreover the Iranians had just suffered a decisive defeat at Ninevah at the hands of the Byzantines, and it was just the time for Arabia to postpone its internecine feuds and take advantage of the international situation, and at least free the Arabian provinces toiling under the Iranian yoke, e.g., Bahrain, 'Uman and Yaman. The Prophet wanted a free hand regarding Khaibar and Iran, and to that end was prepared to concede terms even derogatory to his prestige.¹² The first part of this analysis can be corroborated by further evidence

(see below). The second can however be adopted only in a modified form,

12 Surprisingly enough Hamidulläh concludes by saying (p. 282): "The main object of the treaty was to get permission to visit the national sanctuary of the enemy"; idem, Le prophète de l'Islam, Paris, 1959, I, pp. 392-393 (quoting, beside al-Mabsil, also as-Sarakhsi's interpretation on ash-Shaybani's Kitab as-siyar, and see below). Commenting on the one-sided "extradition" clause of the Hudaybiyya-treaty and on the position of Jews in the Prophet's umme HamIdullah remarks: "The only conclusion permissible in both the cases cited above, viz. the clause in the constitution and the clause in the armistice, is that 'Necessity knoweth no law' but demands concessions", see his "Sources of Islamic Law — a new approach", in Islamic Quarterly, 1 (1954), p. 207; idem, Battlefields, p. 41: "The pact with the Meccans at Hudaibiyah had left the Prophet Muhammad with his hands free to deal with the growing danger of Khaibar. The Meccans had agreed to remain neutral in case the Muslims attacked Khaibar". Cf. ibid, p. 33: "The Quraishites were given all they really desired and also their amour-propre was satisfied in return for their remaining neutral in case Muslims were at war with a third party. The Meccans may or may not have known that in this way they were deserting the Jews of Khaibar, and consequently they were also losing Jewish help. against the Muslims". It is however hardly conceivable that the QurashIs came to terms with the Prophet disregarding the impact upon Khaybar, see below, III.

It is noteworthy that Caetani, Annali, II, p. 11 (7AH, s8) has already observed, that the Hudaybiyya-treaty assured the Prophet that he would not be attacked by Quraysh while marching on Khaybar; cf. M. Rodinson, Mohammed, trans. Anne Carter, Penguin Books, 1971, p. 252. And see now the penetrating remarks made by Donner (pp. 242-243): "...the cessation of hostilities between Muhammad and the Quraysh... allowed him to turn his full attention to subduing tribal groups and major towns north of Medina. He had... attempted to do this in the period immediately following the battle of the Trench, but had failed, probably because of Medina's difficult strategic situation; for at that time Medina was located between two hostile centers - Mecca to the south and other towns allied to Quraysh (notably Khaybar, where the exiled Medinese Jews had taken refuge) to the north. Muhammad's position between these two hostile centers made it difficult for him to attack the weaker northern towns since any sustained siege attempted against Khaybar or other towns in the northern Hijāz would have left Medina itself vulnerable to an attack by the Meccans from his rear... As long as a state of war existed with Meccans, then, Muhammad would remain locked powerless between Mecca and Khaybar. This strategic dilemma made it imperative for Muhammad to neutralize, at least for a time, the ability of one of these centers to attack him. A truce with the Meccans could do just that; by freeing him of the threat of a Meccan invasion, it would allow him to focus his energies on bringing the northern towns under his control". Cf. however Donner's concluding passage (p. 247): "The reinterpretations proposed here cannot be considered decisively proven, of course, and in view of the state of our sources they may remain forever beyond decisive proof or disproof".

emphasizing the relationship between Persia and the Jews of Arabia.

It seems appropriate to reproduce here as-Sarakhsī's (d. 483/1090)¹³ interpretation on ash-Shaybānī's (d. 189/804) Kitāb as-siyar al-kabīr.¹⁴ The passage (pp. 297-298) concerns a Muslim troop which comes across a town of the ahl al-harb. The Muslims are not powerful enough to overcome that town, but they want to cross its territory in order to reach other people and fight against them. The people of the town demand from them not to take a certain route (a'fūnā an lā tamurrū fī hādhā t-farlq) and in return the town's people will not kill or take captive any of them. If it is to the benefit of the Muslims (fa-in kāna dhālika khayran li-l-muslimīna) there is no harm (fa-lā ba's) in undertaking this and taking another route, even if it is longer and less convenient (wa-in kāna ab'ada wa-ashaqqa). This is followed by as-Sarakhsī's comments (see Appendix):

Because they (- the Muslims) cannot be secure that they (- the town's people) will not pursue them and kill one or two of those who are at the rear of the troop, and this truce (muwāda'a) secures them from it. Indeed the Messenger of God (5) agreed in the truce on the day of Hudaybiyya to obligations which were more critical (a'zam) than this, since the people of Mecca imposed on him to undertake to return to them any of them who would come to him as a Muslim. He fulfilled this obligation to them until it was abrogated because there was in it a benefit (nazar)¹⁵ for the Muslims, owing to the agreement (muwdta'a) which was between the people of Mecca and the people of Khaybar. It prescribed that if the Messenger of God (s) marched on one of the two parties, the other party would attack Medina. And he made a truce (fa-wāda'a) with the people of Mecca so as to secure his flank when (*idhd*) he would march on Khaybar. And we know that there is no harm in accepting an obligation like this if there is in it a benefit (nazar) for the Muslims.

The Meccan-Khaybari treaty was not an ordinary treaty. Usually allies

¹³ W. Heffening, EP, s.v.

¹⁴ Ed. Şalāh ad-Dīn al-Munajjid, I, Cairo, 1958, p. 298. For German and English translations of this passage see Hans Kruse, "Die Bagründung der islamischen Völkerrechtslehre", in Saeculum, 5 (1954), p. 232; and the English translation of the same, "The foundation of Islamic international jurisprudence", in Journal of the Pakis. Hist. Soc. 3 (1955), pp. 250-251. The section dealing with siyar in ash-Shaybānī's Kitāb al-aşl was translated into English by M. Khadduri, The Islamic law of nations, Shaybanī's Siyar, Baltimore, 1966. On ash-Shaybānī's life and writings see op. cit., pp. 26-45; W. Heffening, EI¹, s.v.; Kruse, Saeculum, pp. 224ff; idem, JPHS, pp. 237ff.

¹⁵ This seems to be the proper rendering, cf. ash-Shaybānī's words quoted above: fa-in kāna dhālika khayran li-l-muslimīna; I could not find however this meaning of nazar in the dictionaries. Cf. perhaps Tāj al-'arīls; Lane, An Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v. (nazara lahum means a'ānahum).

undertake to come to the rescue of the other party in the other party's territory, where the attack is actually taking place. In this case however the common enemy of Mecca and Khaybar, the Prophet, was located between the two parties, and a troop from either side could hit the Muslims' defenseless base at Medina before hurrying to the rescue of either Khaybar or Mecca. The Prophet's flank was secured from a Qurashī attack by the first stipulation of the Hudaybiyya-treaty. It was an *amān*-provision, typical to many treaties of the Prophet's time: "They have agreed to lay aside war for ten years during which men can be safe and refrain from hostilities" (*istalaḥā 'alā wad'i l-ḥarb 'ani n-nās 'ashra sinīna ya'manu flhinna n-nāsu wa-yakuffu ba'duhum 'an ba'din*).¹⁶ In this case however this *amān*-provision had a special significance: it contradicted, and therefore abrogated, the treaty of Mecca with Khaybar.

Π

Another reference, which is as yet not completely clear, to a treaty between Mecca and Khaybar is included in a report on a man from the tribe of Sulaym by the name of al-Hajjāj b. 'Ilāt.¹⁷ According to Wāqidī(II, 703) he came to Mecca from Khaybar after its conquest. Realizing that if it became known that he had embraced Islam (and that the Prophet had conquered Khaybar) he had no hope to collect money from his Meccan debtors, as well as money he had with his Qurashī wife, he turned the defeat of Khaybar into a defeat of the Prophet. He informed the Meccans that the Jews had defeated the Muslims and that the Prophet himself had been taken captive. The Khaybaris had however refrained from killing him themselves, so as to send him to Mecca and have him killed among his fellow tribesmen in retaliation for the Jews and the Meccans who had been killed. Then follows a rather obscure utterance of al-Hajjaj: wa-li-hādhā fa-innahum yarji ūna ilaykum yatlubūna l-amāna fī 'ashā'irihim wayarji una ilā mā kānu 'alayhi. fa-lā taqbalu minhum wa-qad sana'u bikum mā gad sana'ū, "And therefore they (i.e., the people of Khaybar) will apply to you seeking an assurance of security for their clans(?) and a return to their previous conditions (i.e., regarding their relations with you; this is proba-

¹⁶ See Ibn Hishām, III, p. 332. For an English translation see A. Guillaume, *The life of Muhammad*, Oxford, 1955, p. 504. The different versions as to the period agreed upon do not concern us here. Watt's suggestion (pp. 49, 51) that the giving up of the blockade of Mecca is implied here merely adds another concession of the Prophet. Cf. op. cit., p. 51: "...in stopping the blockade Muhammad had made a great military and economic concession, and what he had gained in return was chiefly among the *imp onderabilia*". And cf. Donner, pp. 243-244.

¹⁷ See on him *Işdba*, II, 33-35 (al-Fihrf should be read: al-BahzI, *Usd al-ghāba*, I, p. 381, line 9).

bly an indication to a treaty between the two parties); you should not comply with their request after what they had done to you".¹⁸ It is not clear what development in the relationship between Mecca and Khaybar is meant here; however some unspecified harmful action on the part of the Jews is referred to.¹⁹

Indeed the list of the Prophet's demands transmitted to Quraysh by 'Urwa b. Mas'ūd ath-Thaqafi,²⁰ as preserved in the *Ta'rtkh* of Ibn Abī Shayba²¹ includes the following demands: to allow me (— the Prophet) access to the Ka'ba (*wa-yukhallūna baynī wa-bayna l-bayt*) so that we (the Muslims) perform the "little pilgrimage" and sacrifice our slaughter animals (*hady*); to establish between me and them (— Quraysh) a truce (*wa-yaj'ahīna baynī wa-baynahum muddatan*),²² during which their wives will give birth to many children (*tarbulu flhā nisd'uhum*), their roads will be secure (*wa-ya'manu flhā sirbuhum*) and they will not interpose between me and "the people" (*an-nās*). The Prophet added that he would fight "for this cause" (*'alā hādhā l-amr*, i.e., for the cause of Islam) "the red and the black" (i.e., all mankind, everyone who would resist him) until God would render him victorious or until he would die.

That "the people" implies the people of Khaybar and that an imminent battle with them is referred to can be deduced from what follows: "If the people defeat me, this is, after all, what you (— Quraysh) want; and if God renders me victorious over them, Quraysh will be able to make their choice: either to fight (i.e., fight against the Prophet) after an appropriate preparation or to make peace (literally: enter the peace) after having increased in number (*wdfirina*, i.e., after having grown stronger).²³

- ¹⁸ Cf. Wāqidī, ed. A. von Kremer (*History of Muhammad's campaigns*), Calcutta, 1856, p. 396; (*op. cit.*, prefaçe, pp. 5-6, 23-24); Wāqidī, the abridged German translation by J. Wellhausen (*Muhammed in Medina*, Berlin, 1882), pp. 289-291.
- ¹⁹ The partial account of Ibn 'llät's utterances found in Ibn Hishäm, III, p. 360, line 9 is less conspicuous about the common cause of Mecca and Khaybar. They'd rather have him so this version goes killed in Mecca in retaliation for the Meccans (or rather: the Meccan leaders) whom he killed (*fa-yaqtulühu bayna azhurihim bi-man kāna azāba min rijālihim*. On *rijāl* cf. Wāqidī, I, p. 191.
- ²⁰ See on him *Işāba*, IV, pp. 492-494.
- ²¹ Ms. Berlin, 9409, fol. 57a. The *isnåd* (see fol. 56a, line 1) is: Abū Usāma (i.e., Hammād b. Usāma Abū Usāma, d. 201/816, see on him *Tadhkirat al-huffāz*, I, pp. 321-322) Hishām (i.e., Hishām b. 'Urwa, d. 146/763, GAS, I, pp. 88-89) his father (i.e., 'Urwa b. az-Zubayr, d. 94/713, see GAS, I, pp. 278-279). On the book see H. Schützinger, "Ibn Abi Šaiba und sein Ta'rīx", in Oriens, 23-24 (1974), pp. 134-146.
- ²² The term *mudda* is in this case identical to the term *muwāda'a*, see e.g. Wāqidī, II, pp. 729, line 2 from bottom; 730, lines 4, 9; 731, line 1.
- ²³ fa-in aşābanī n-nās fa-dhāka lladhī turīdūna, wa-in aşharanī llāhu 'alayhim ikhtārū: immā gātalū mu'iddīna wa-immā dakhalū fī s-silm (vocalised in the Ms. as-salm) wāfirīna. See also op. cit., fol. 62b (... Zuhrī—'Urwa b. az-Zubayr; I added some variants from

At this point Ibn Abī Shayba seems to offer an outstanding insight into the background of the Muslims' abstention from performing the "little pilgrimage" that year and their consent to postpone it to the next year. After 'Urwa b. Mas'ūd ath-Thaqafī had convinced Quraysh to accept the Prophet's demands Suhayl b. 'Amr and Mikraz b. Hafş²⁴ were sent to the Prophet with the following directions: "Go to Muhammad, and if he grants you what 'Urwa has mentioned make an agreement with him, on condition that he will withdraw from us this year and not reach the Ka'ba, so that those of the Bedouins who will hear of his advent will hear that we have repelled him" (...fa-qādiyāhu 'alā an yarji'a 'āmahu hādhā 'annā wa-lā yakhluşa ilā l-bayt ḥattā yasma'a man yasma'u bi-masīrihi mina l-'arab annā

Wāqidī, II, p. 593), the message to Quraysh transmitted by Budayl b. Warqā' al-Khuzā'ī: innī lam āti li-gitāl aķadin, innamā ji'tu agdī nuskī wa-atūfu bi-hādhā l-bayt (Wāqidī ad. fo-man saddanā 'anhu gātalnāhu, wo-guraysh gawm gad adarrat bihimi l-ḥarb wa-nahakathum) wa-illa fa-hal li-guraysh fi ghayri dhalika? hal lahum ila an umaddahum muddatan ya'manùna fThā wa-yastajimmūna wa-yukhallūna fThā (Wāqidī: fīmā) baynanā wa-bayna n-nās (Wāqidī ad. wa-n-nāsu aktharu minhum. Cf. Dahlān, II, p. 37, line 4; Zurgānī, II, p. 187, line 5 from bottom, quoting 'Urwa b. az-Zubayr: ...fa-in shd'ū mādadtuhum... wa-yukhallī baynī wa-bayna n-nās min kuffāri l-'arab wa-ghayrihim fa-in zahara amrī 'alā n-nās kānū ſīhā bi-l-khiyār, an yadkhuhī ſīmā dakhala n-nās wa-bayna (sic) an yuqdtilii (Wilqidi: kanii bayna an yadkhulii... aw yuqdtilii) wa-qad jammii (cf. Waqidi: jama'u) wa-a'addu. And cf. Ta'rikh jabari, II, 623-624 (Zuhri-'Urwa-al-Miswar b. Makhrama and Marwan b. al-Hakam); as-Suyut, al-Khasa'is al-kubra, ed. M.Kh. Harräs, Cairo, 1387/1967, II, pp. 25-26; Zurgäni, II, pp. 187-188, who omit the reference to the possibility that "the people" may overcome the Prophet and to the fact that the truce with the Prophet will enable Quraysh to prepare for war with him. However Ibn Hajar, Fath al-bart, V, p. 247, line 3 quotes from Ibn 'A'idh (evidently from his maghazi, see GAS, I, p. 302) on the authority of Zuhrī the missing reference to the possibility of the Prophet's defeat: fa-in zahara n-nās 'alayya, fa-dhālika alladht yabtaghūna; this is followed by Ibn Hajar's comment: sa-z-zāhiru anna l-hadhs waga'a min ba'di r-ruwāli la'adduban.

In another account the Prophet's demands are presented to the Qurashis by 'Uthmän b. 'Affän at Baldah (to the west of Mecca), Wägidi, II, pp. 600-601: they should embrace Islam; alternatively they should refrain from hostile activities (*takuffüna*) "and people other than you will handle this with him" (*wa-yall hådhå minhu ghayrukum*, i.e., other people will fight against him). The rest is similar to the above-mentioned account on 'Urwa b. Mas'ūd.

Cf. Ibn Hishām, III, p. 323; Ta'rīkh ļabarī, II, p. 623 (Zuhrī—'Urwa—al-Miswar and Marwān), who quote the Prophet's reaction when he was told that Quraysh had taken steps to block the road to Mecca: yā wayha quraysh, la-qad akalathumu l-harb. mādhā 'alayhim law khallaw baynī wa-bayna sā'iri l-'arab (cf. however Ahmad, Musnad, Cairo, 1313, IV, 323, line 22 [...Yazīd b. Hārūn — Ibn Ishāq — Zuhrī — 'Urwa — al-Miswar and Marwan] ...wa-bayna sā'iri n-nās) fa-in hum aşābūnī, kāna dhālika lladhī arādū, wa-in azharanī llāhu 'alayhim dakhalū fī l-islām wāfirīna, wa-in lam yaf alū qālalū wa-bihim quwwa. Cf. Watt, p. 48; idem, Muhammad, Prophet and Statesman, Oxford University Press, 1964, p. 185.

²⁴ See on them Isaba, III, pp. 212-215; VI, pp. 206-207, respectively (they were both from the Qurashi clan of 'Åmir b. Luayy).

qad şadadnāhu).²³ According to this account, which seems to agree with the purport of the Hudaybiyya-treaty, the Prophet was not compelled to give up the "little pilgrimage" scheduled to take place that year; rather he complied with a Qurashī request.

Ш

Attention should be drawn now to a development outside Arabia which seems to have contributed to the Qurashī willingness to come to terms with the Prophet. A link between the affair of Hudaybiyya and the victory of Byzantium over Persia was already suggested by Hamīdullāh (see above, pp. 2-3). One more detail should however be added to his analysis.

As has been observed by Prof. M.J. Kister, Arabia was far from being isolated from the struggle between Byzantium and Persia.

According to the commentaries of Qur'an, XXX, 1-2, the sympathies of the unbelievers of Mecca were with Persia whereas the Muslim community inclined towards the Byzantines. The victories of the Byzantines, it is stressed, coincided with the victories of the Prophet.²⁶

Close links existed between the Jews of Medina, and apparently also the Jews of Khaybar, and Persia. The Jewish tribes of Nadīr and Qurayza carried out for the Persians the collection of taxes from the Aws and the Khazraj until the middle of the sixth century.²⁷ Presumably the Jews' links with the Persians continued also after that time;²⁸ the Hudaybiyya-treaty, which played a crucial role in Khaybar's defeat can be linked with the defeat of the Persian emperor Khusro Parwez by the Byzantine emperor Heraclius.²⁹ The news of Parwez' death on the 29th of February, 628

- ²³ Ibn Abī Shayba, *loc. cit.* For the *isnād* see above, note 21. The same report (with slight variants) can be found in Abū Yūsuf, *Kitāb al-kharāj*, [Cairo], n.d., p. 228. Abū Yūsuf's account is a "combined tradition", quoted from three authorities: Hishām b. 'Urwa his father (cf. above, note 21), Muhammad b. Ishāq and al-Kalbī. Abū Yūsuf remarks, that their reports were not identical (zāda ba'duhum 'alā ba'din fī l-hadīth). Cf. Ibn Hishām, II, 331 (— Zuhrī): thumma ba'athat quraysh suhayl b. 'amr... wa-qālū lahu: i'ti muhammadan fa-sāliḥhu, wa-lā yakun (sic) fī sulḥihi illā an yarji'a 'annā 'āmahu hādhā, fa-wa-llāhi lā taḥaddathu l-'arab annahu dakhalahā 'alaynā 'anwatan abadan; and cf. Wāqidī, II, p. 605; Donner, pp. 240-241, 243, note 40.
- ²⁶ "Al-Hīra", in ARABICA 15 (1968), pp. 143-144. And see F. Altheim & R. Stiehl, Finanzgeschichte der Spätantike, Frankfurt a.M., 1957, pp. 141ff.
- ²⁷ Altheim-Stiehl, op. cit., pp. 149ff; idem, Die Araber in der alten Welt, V/1, Berlin, 1968, pp. 363f; Kister, op. cit., pp. 145-149; F. Buhl, El¹, s.v. al-Madīna, p. 84.
- ²⁸ Cf. Altheim-Stiehl, Finanzgeschichte, pp. 151ff.
- ²⁹ Cf. ibid, p. 159ff., esp. p. 161.

On the victorious march conducted by Heraclius into Persia see J.B. Bury, A History of the later Roman Empire, London, 1889 (repr. Amsterdam, 1966), II, pp. 227-244; A. Rustum, ar-Rūm, Beirut, 1955, I, 226-228; A.N. Stratos, Byzantium in the seventh century, I, trans. M. Ogilvie-Grant, Amsterdam, 1968, pp. 204-234; cf. now W.E. Kaegi

reached the Prophet "on the day³⁰ of Hudaybiyya" and he and those who were with him rejoiced.³¹ According to other accounts the Byzantines overcame the Persians "on the day of Hudaybiyya".³² According to yet another account they overcame the Persians "on the day of Hudaybiyya" and the news came on the day when the "pledge of good pleasure" (*bay'atu r-ridwān*) took place.³³

The Hudaybiyya-treaty was another manifestation of shrewd and pragmatic statesmanship on the part of the Prophet Muhammad.³⁴

Jr., "Two notes on Heraclius", in *Revue des Études Byzantines*, 37 (1979), pp. 224-227.
The use of *yawm* in the sense of "several days" was observed by Dr. U. Rubin (see his forthcoming article in *Journal of Semitic Studies*).

Cf. Durr manthūr, V, p. 151, line 20; Futūh mişr, p. 34, line 19: thumma azhara llāhu r-rūma 'alā fāris zamana l-hudaybiyya fa-fariha l-muslimūna bi-zuhūr ahli l-kitāb. The mention of the rejoicing of the Muslims is probably a reflection of Qur'ān, 33 (ar-Rūm), 4: ...wa-yawma'idhin yafrahu l-mu'minūna (Dr. Rubin has kindly communicated this remark to the present writer). See also below, note 32.

- ³¹ Ta'rīkh ţabarī, II, pp. 186-187, 218; Th. Nöldeke, Geschichte der Perser und Araber, Leiden, 1879, pp. 303, 382; Buhl, Das Leben Muhammeds, p. 284, note 69 ("...während er auf dem Zuge nach Mekka war"); A.J. Butler, The Arab conquest of Egypt, Oxford, 1902, pp. 125, 128, note. And cf. Ta'rīkh khalīſa, I, p. 47. However according to another account he died in September 628, Altheim—Stiehl, op. cit., p. 151; Caetani, Annali, I, p. 738, note 1; Butler, op. cit., p. 139, note.
- ³² Tafsîr al-khāzin, V, p. 167, line 25. (Cf. line 26: wa-qīla kāna yawma badrin); p. 168, line 21: fa-udīla ar-rūm 'alā fāris 'inda dhālika wa-ghalabūhum wa-qatalūhum wa-māta kisrā wa-jā'a l-khabar ilā n-nabiyyi ş yawma l-hudaybiyya fa-fariha wa-man kāna ma'ahu mina l-muslimīna bi-dhālika; cf. above, note 30.
- ³³ Tafstr qur; ubf, XIV, p. 5, line 14 (Qatāda, 'Ikrima). Cf. however Tafstr ; abart, XXI, p. 14, line 24: fa-azhara llāhu r-rūma... wa-kāna dhālika marji'ahu mina l-hudaybiyya (Qatāda).
- ³⁴ Cf. now M.J. Kister, "Some reports concerning al-Tā'if", in Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam 1 (1979), pp. 1-18. And cf. G. von Grunebaum, Classical Islam, trans. K. Watson, London, 1970, p. 42: (Hudaybiyya was) "an episode in the conflict between Muhammad and the Meccans which I feel represents the climax of the Prophet's statesmanship"; this observation gains now renewed justification.

ABBREVIATIONS

- Dahlān Ahmad Zaynī al-mashhūr bi-Dahlān, as-Sīra an-nabawiyya wa-l-āthār al-muhammadiyya, Cairo, 1310.
- Donner F.M. Donner, "Muhammad's political consolidation in Arabia up to the conquest of Mecca", MW 69 (1979), pp. 229-247.
- Durr manthūr as-Suyūțī, ad-Durr al-manthūr jī t-tafsīr bi-l-ma'thūr, Cairo, 1314.
- Fath al-barī Ibn Hajar al-'Asqalānī, Fath al-barī sharh sahīh albukhārī, Būlāq, 1301.
- Futuh misr Ibn 'Abd al-Hakam, Futuh misr, ed. Ch. Torrey, New Haven, 1922.
- GAS F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, Leiden, 1967 f.
- Hamīdullāh, Battlefields M. Hamīdullāh, The battlefields of the Prophet Muhammad, Woking, 1373/1953.
- Ibn Hishām Ibn Hishām, as-Sīra an-nabawiyya, ed. as-Saqqā, al-Abyārī, Shalabī, Beirut, 1391/1971.
- Işāba Ibn Hajar al-'Asqalānī, al-Işāba fī tamyīzi ş-şahāba, ed. al-Bijāwī, Cairo, 1392/1972.
- Muranyi Miklos Muranyi, "Die Auslieferungsklausel des Vertrages von al-Hudaibiyya und ihre Folge", Arabica 23 (1976), pp. 275-295.
- Tadhkirat al-huffāz adh-Dhahabī, Tadhkirat al-huffāz, ed. Hyderabad, 1376/1956.
- Tafsīr al-khāzin Lubābu 1-1a'wīl fī ma'ānī 1-1anzīl, Cairo, 1381.
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10

XI

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APPENDIX: AS-SARAKHSI'S COMMENTARY

لأنهم لا يأمنون أن يتبعوهم فيقتلوا الواحد والاثنين ممن في أخريات العسكر . وهذه الموادعة تومنهم من ذلك . وقد قبل رسول الله صلعم في الموادعة يسوم الحديبية من الشرط ما هو أعظم من هذا . فإن أهل مكة شرطوا علية ان يرد عليهم كل من أتى مسلما منهم (sic) . ووفى لهم بهذا الشرط إلى أن انتسخ . لأنه كان فيه نظر للمسلمين لما كان بين أهل مكة وأهل خيبر من المواطأة على أن رسول الله صلعم إذا توجه إلى أحد الفريقين أغار الفريق الآخر على المدينة . فوادع أهل مكة حتى يأمن من جانبهم إذا توجه إلى خيبر . فعرفنا أن مثل هذا الشرط لا بأس بقبوله إذا كان فيه نظر للمسلمين .

THE BEWITCHING OF THE PROPHET MUHAMMAD BY THE JEWS: A NOTE A PROPOS 'ABD AL-MALIK B. HABIB'S MUKHTAŞAR FI L-TIBB

The critical edition of 'Abd al-Malik b. Habīb's Mukhtaşar fi l-ţibb prepared by Camilo Álvarez de Morales and Fernando Girón Irueste, together with a Spanish translation and a detailed introduction on medicine in al-Andalus¹, adds a major new text to the quickly expanding inventory of important Arabic and Islamic texts.

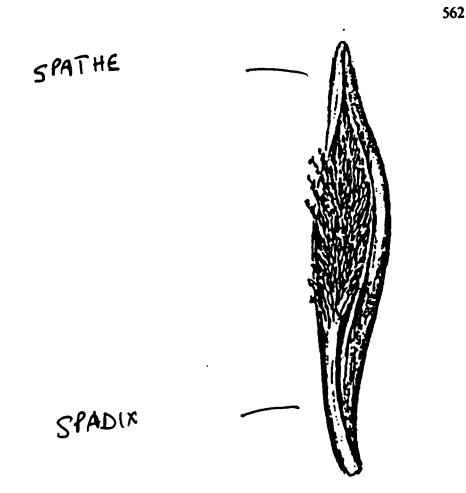
The following comments by no means aim at detracting from the scientific value of this work; when the deciphering of a difficult manuscript is involved, it is only natural that occasionally a better reading can be suggested.

It is of course commonplace that the texts written by Andalusian authors, while certainly having their local particularities, are at the same time an integral part of the general Arabic and Islamic literature. This can be demonstrated by the following case, in which the correct reading of a place-name mentioned by Ibn Habīb comes from the History of Medina written by Samhūdī (d. 911/1505).

The estate as-S.h.ra (vocalised as-Sahra; text: p. 47; translation: p. 79) owned by Abū Hurayra is in fact ash-Shajara. Samhūdī says that Abū Hurayra lived in ash-Shajara when it was still uncultivated. It was Mu'āwiya's governor in Medina Marwān b. al-Hakam who granted him this land and constructed for him a dam.²

¹ Madrid: Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas, Instituto de Cooperación con el Mundo Árabe, 1992. Fuentes Arábico-Hispanas, 2.

² Samh., II, 1066. Another point of detail concerns the two doctors who were with 'Uthmān b. 'Affān. One was sent by Mu'āwiya and the other by 'Abdallāh b. Rabī'a (text: p. 11; translation: p. 45). But one expects the latter to be 'Abdallāh b. *Abī* Rabī'a



The dates of the type called 'ajwa which are recommended by the Prophet for breakfast (text: p. 40; translation: p. 72) should come mimmā bayna lā batayhā, (bayna is missing in the edition), i.e., «from the area between the two lava flows of Medina», in other words from Medina. The Prophet's description of the 'ajwa dates (loc. cit.) as mina l-h.b.r. should read: mina l-janna, «they are from Paradise».³

The following notes concern the bewitchment of the Prophet by the daughters of Labīd b. al-A'şam al-Yahūdī (text: p. 86; translation:

of Makhzūm who was 'Uthmān's governor in the Yemen, more precisely in al-Janad; see e.g. *Işāba*, VI, 80. In other words one doctor came from Syria and the other came from the Yemen.

³ Abū l-Qāsim Mahmūd b. 'Umar az-Zamakhsharī, al-Fā'iq fī gharīb al-hadīth, ed. al-Bijāwī and Muhammad Abū l-Fadl Ibrāhīm, Cairo, 1971, s.v. b.s.l. (Adam brought the 'ajwa from Paradise); Ibn Manzūr, Lisān al-'arab, Beirut, 1968, s.v. 'j.w., 31R (al-'ajwa mina l-janna).

p. 113). We are told here that the daughters, who numbered three or four, did this by means of *khuff t.l.'. dhālika*, rendered «por medio de una zapatilla». The correct reading is *juff tal' dhakar*, i.e., the spathe of a spadix of a male palm-tree; *juff* means «the spathe of the palm-tree, the envelope of the tal'», tal' being «spadix, or spadix in its spathe». The device of bewitchment (its description varies) was put into the spathe. *Tal'* is defined as «what comes forth from the palm-tree and becomes dates if the tree is female; and if the tree is male it does not becomes dates, but is eaten in its fresh state, or is left upon the palm-tree a certain number of days until there becomes produced in it a white substance like flour, [i.e., the pollen,] having a strong odour and with this the female is fecundated». We know that in this case the tree was male, in other words its spathe included the above mentioned white substance.

Considering the role of the white substance in nature there is little wonder that its odour was compared to that of sperm. One lexicographer defines the *tal* as «a certain white thing that appears from the spathe of the palm-tree, to the colour of which that of the teeth is likened, and to the odour thereof that of the sperma».⁵

The employment of a spathe of a male palm tree to bewitch the Prophet provides a clue to the desired effect (or at least one of the desired effects), namely harming the Prophet's sexual potency. This is expressly said in the sources although curiously Ibn Habīb does not mention it, while mentioning other symptoms. It is unlikely that Ibn Habīb was unaware of the sexual effect of the bewitchment; Ibn Hishām, for example, mentions only this effect.⁶ Does Ibn Habīb opt for a «milder» version because he is more «protective» with regard to the Prophet? Do anti-Muslim polemics play a role here?

This case of bewitchment is not always linked with Labīd's

⁴ A parallel version has gishr tal'a; Muqātil, Tafsīr, II, 257.

⁵ Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.vv. juff, tal'.

⁶ Ibn Hishām, as-Sīra an-nabawiyya, ed. as-Saqqā, al-Abyārī and Shalabī, Beirut, 1391/1971, II, 162 (Labīd, wa-huwa 'lladhī akhkhadha rasūla 'llāhi Ş. 'an nisā'ihi, he «withheld the Messenger of God [by means of enchantment] from his wives»). See also Zurqānī, I, 385:5 from below (kāna yarā annahu ya'tī n-nisā'a wa-lā ya'tīhinna); 'Abd ar-Razzāq, al-Muşannaf, ed. Habīb ar-Raḥmān al-A'zamī, Beirut, 1390/1970-1392/1972, XI, 13 (wa-ḥubisa rasūlu 'llāhi Ş. min [sic, one expects here 'an] 'Ā'isha khāşşatan ḥattā ankara başarahu); Ibn Sa'd, II, 198 [wa-ukhkhidha 'ani n-nisā' wa-'ani t-ta'ām wa-shsharāb).

daughters. Some mention his sisters⁷ while others speak of Labīd himself (although as is well known women are usually associated with witchcraft).⁸ The early Qur'ān commentator Muqātil b. Sulaymān says, in his commentary on the first of the two *mu'awwidhatāni* (i.e., the last two chapters of the Qur'ān by which one charms oneself against evil⁹) that the Prophet was bewitched by Labīd b. 'Āşim b. Mālik al-Yahūdī, «and some say: Ibn A'şam».¹⁰

It is not clear what exactly was put in the spathe, in other words, what the physical agents of witchcraft were. Most common in our sources is the mention of knots (knot-magic) and their number is also given: eleven.¹¹ The number had to be eleven: this is the total number of verses in the *mu'awwidhatāni*, reportedly revealed on that occasion, which were associated by the exegetes from early on with the bewitchment of the Prophet. The Prophet recited these chapters, and with each verse one knot was untied.¹² Abū 'Ubayda (Ma'mar b. al-Muthannā, d. ca. 210/825) interprets the *naffāthāt* of Qur'ān, 113 as a reference to the daughters of Labīd b. al-A'şam al-Yahūdī who bewitched the Prophet.¹³ By providing a specific name, no doubt taken from an earlier source, Abū 'Ubayda gives this chapter of the Qur'ān a *sabab nuzūl*.¹⁴ Muqātil (d. 150/767) shows that the association between the *Mu'awwidhatāni* and the bewitchment is no later than the middle of the second century but it should probably be dated

⁷ Ibn Sa'd, II, 197.

⁸ See e.g. Rāzī, *Tafsīr*, XXXII, 195, who explains why Qur'ān, 113 mentions specifically female witches, *naffāthāt*. The main thing about witchcraft, he says, is to concentrate on the matter (or «bind the heart to it»), something achieved only by women *li-qillati 'ilmihinna wa-shiddati shahwatihinna*. Inadvertently, Rāzī has crossed the thin line separating women who practice witchcraft from women in general.

⁹ 113: Sūrat al-Falaq and 114: Sūrat an-Nās. When the plural mu'awwidhāt is used, no. 112: al-Ikhlāş is counted with them.

¹⁰ Muqātil, *Tafsīr*, *loc. cit.* It is not uncommon to find in Muqātil evidence which is not found elsewhere; other sources which I could check do not know the name of Labīd's grandfather.

¹¹ For examle, Muqātil, loc. cit.: Labīd... sahara n-nabiyya Ş. fī ihdā 'ashrata 'uqda fī watar, «...in a string».

¹² Muqātil, *loc. cit.*; Qurtubī, *Tafsīr*, XX, 253. It is not clear why Tha'labī in his *Tafsīr* (quoted in Ibn Kathīr, *Tafsīr*, Beirut, n.d., IV, 574) mentions twelve knots.

13 Razī, Tafsīr, XXXII, 196.

¹⁴ Surprisingly, jumhūr al-mufassirīna who associate the Mu'awwidhatāni with Labīd b. al-A'şam (Rāzī, Tafsīr, XXXII, 187) does not include Țabarī (Jāmi' al-bayān fī tafsīr al-qur'ān Bulaq, 1321-1330, XXX, 2251) who does not mention Labīd in his commentary on Qur'ān, 113. even earlier, to the dawn of the Qur'ān exegesis. Naturally, there is no unanimity about this: al-Hasan al-Başrī and others considered chapter 113 to be Meccan.¹⁵

In addition to knots we also find, as is common in the practice of witchcraft, something taken from the Prophet's body and an item closely associated with him, namely combings of the Prophet and teeth taken from his comb.¹⁶ These could only be obtained by a person who had access to the Prophet: one report speaks of a Jewish servant of the Prophet who reluctantly provided these items to «the Jews». The man who handled the bewitchment was Labīd b. al-A'şam.¹⁷

Finally, there is a reference to image-magic, namely a waxen representation of the Prophet in which needles were inserted.¹⁸ When the Prophet extracted the needles one by one, he felt pain followed by relief.¹⁹

¹⁵ Qurtubī, Tafsīr, XX, 251.

¹⁶ E. g. Qurțubi, Tafsir, XX, 253.

¹⁷ Qurtubī, Tafsīr, XX, 254 (anna ghulāman mina l-yahūd kāna yakhdumu n-nabiyya §. fa-dassat ilayhi l-yahūd wa-lam yazālū bihi (i.e., he was reluctant to cooperate) hattā akhadha mushāţata ra'si n-nabiyyi S... wa-akhadha 'idda min asnāni mushţihi fa-a'ţāhā l-yahūd fa-saharūhu fīhā, wa-kāna 'lladhī tawallā dhālika Labīd...). A more hostile (and therefore better) variant for fa-dassat, «they came secretly», or «they plotted», is fa-dabbat, «they crept»; Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr, IV, 574, from Tha'labī, Tafsīr. Obviously the above report does not identify the Jewish servant of the Prophet with the man who actually bewitched him, namely Labīd. Elsewhere we are told that the Prophet was bewitched by his servant Labīd; Bayhaqī, Dalā'il, VII, 92 (kāna li-rasūli 'llāhi S. ghulām yahūdī yakhdumuhu yuqālu lahu Labīd b. A'şam, wa-kāna tu'jibuhu khidmatuhu, fa-lam tazal bihi yahūd hattā sahara n-nabiyya \$.); cf. Rubin, «The "Constitution of Medina": some notes», 8 = Suyūţī, Durr, VI, 417 = Bayhaqī, Dalā'il. The other reports speaking of the Prophet's bewitchment by Labīd importantly do not make him the Prophet's servant.

¹⁸ There seems to have been an aversion to saying this explicitly; Bayhaqī, Dalā'il, VII, 94 (...juff ţal'a... fa-idhā fīhā (sic) mushţ rasūli 'llāhi Ş. wa-min murāţati ra'sihi, wa-idha timthāl min sham' — timthāl rasūli 'llāhi Ş. — wa-idhā fīhā (one expects here fīhi!) ibar maghrūza wa-idhā watar fīhi ihdā 'ashrata 'uqda).

¹⁹ Wa-ja'ala lā yanzi'u ibratan illā wajada lahā alaman, thumma yajidu ba'da dhālika rāhatan. That the needles were inserted into the waxen image is confirmed by Zurqānī, I, 385:4 from below (...fī l-'uqadi l-ihdā 'ashrata wa-timthāli sh-sham'i 'lladhī 'alā şūrati n-nabiyyi Ş. FIHI ibar maghrūza, kamā fī riwāya); also Fath al-bārī, X, 196:15 (wajada... timthāl min sham' — timthāl rasūli 'llāhi Ş. — wa-idhā FIHI ibar maghrūza... wa-kullamā naza'a ibratan wajada lahā alaman thumma yajidu ba'dahā rāhātan). Alternatively, the needles are said to have been inserted into the knots; 'Alī b. Burhān ad-Dīn al-Halabī, Insān al-'uyūn fī sīrati l-amīni l-ma'mūn (as-Sīra al-halabiyya), Cairo 1320 A.H., II, 105 (according to the same source some said that the image was made of dough). The story of the Prophet's bewitchment is an episode in the troubled relationship between the Prophet and the Jews of Medina. Reading it as a straightforward historical record is out of question both because of the context and because of the theological question of «God's preservation of the Prophet» (*'isma*) which is involved here. In any case we can probably employ the above evidence as an indication of the forms of witchcraft practiced by the Jews of Medina on the eve of Islam.²⁰

The use (or alleged use) of a waxen image brings to mind a detail from the story of Mālik b. al-'Ajlān, the Medinan Arab who some three generations before the time of the Prophet²¹ inflicted a painful blow on the Jews with the help of a foreign power. After this event the Jews formed images of Mālik in their synagogues and cursed him whenever they entered them.²² Regardless of the historicity of this specific detail, the Jews of Medina were thought to have been involved in such practices.

The association with fecundity brings to mind the alleged rejoicing in Medina at the birth of 'Abdallāh b. az-Zubayr, the great rival of the Umayyads. The reason for the rejoicing was the fear that the Muhājirūn had been bewitched by the Jews so that no children would be born to them.²³ Again, the historicity of this story may be dubious,

²⁰ Cfr. Joshua Trachtenberg, Jewish magic and superstition: A study in folk religion, New York, 1984 (published for the first time in 1939), 127.

²¹ His great-grandson was a Companion of the Prophet; Ibn Hazm al-Andalusi, Jamharat ansāb al-'arab, ed. 'Abd as-Salām Hārūn, Cairo, 1382/1962, 353.

²² Abū l-Faraj al-Işfahānī, Kitāb al-aghānī, Būlāq, 1285 A.H., XIX, 97 (wa-şawwarati l-yahūdu Mālikan fi biya'ihim wa-kanā'isihim fa-kānū yal'anūnahu kullamā dakhalūhā. Of the terms biya' and kanā'is, the latter usually designates synagogues. (Cfr. da'wa muşawwara in Ibn al-Kalbī, Nasab Ma'add wa-l-yaman al-kabīr, ed. Nājī Hasan, Beirut, 1408/1988, II, 625?). Cfr. Hassān b. Thābit, Dīwān, ed. W. 'Arafāt, London, 1971, 16. A similar story is told by Hamdānī about the cursing of al-Hasan b. Qaḥīaba by the Byzantines: wa-li-shiddati nikāyati l-Hasan fī r-Rūm şawwarathu fī l-biya' wa-'alā (-{uruq wa-kānū yadribūna bihi l-mathala; Hamdānī, Kitāb qaşīdat ad-dāmigha, ed. al-Akwa', Cairo [1384/1964], 569. (The book is not available to me now.)

²³ Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Istī'āb fī ma'rifati l-aṣḥāb, ed. 'Alī Muḥammad al-Bijāwī, Cairo n.d., III, 906 (wa-dhālika annahum qīla lahum inna l-yahūd qad saḥaratkun fa-lā yūladu lakum); Ibn 'Asākir, Ta'rīkh madīnat Dimashq, the volume beginning with 'Abdallāh b. Jābir, ed. Sukayna ash-Shihābī and Muţā' aţ-Ţarābīshī, Damascus 1402/1981, 390f, 392 (when the Jews found out that God had annulled their stratagem, they altered it and wrote an enchantment in which they turned harm into benefit and benefit into harm, lammā 'alimū anna 'llāha tabāraka wa-ta'ālā abţala kaydahum hawwalū, fa-katabū tibban, fa-ja'alū mā yadurru yanfa'u wa-ma yanfa'u yadurru.

but the Jews of Medina were believed to have engaged in such practices.

Towards the end of the first Islamic century (in the late eighties or early nineties) there was a Jew in Medina who engaged in the same field of witchcraft. 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, who was then the governor of Medina for al-Walīd b. 'Abd al-Malik, was informed of this Jew, Zur'a b. Ibrāhīm, who was of the people of Khaybar. He «used, by means of witchcraft, to estrange the women from the men and the men from the women» (afsada n-nisā'a 'alā r-rijāl wa-r-rijāl 'alā n-nisā' bi-siḥrihi).²⁴

We return now to Labīd. He was called *munāfiq*, «hypocrite»²⁵ which suggests that he converted to Islam. In other words when he is called al-Yahūdī, it is in the sense of «the former Jew». The same is true for the leaders of the Jews who reportedly hired him to bewitch the Prophet: they embraced Islam outwardly and were hypocrites.²⁶ It is true that elsewhere we find that an unnamed man of the Ahl al-Kitāb (probably Labīd is meant) bewitched the Prophet. He is mentioned by Zuhrī with reference to the question of whether or not a witch of Ahl al-'Ahd (i.e., Ahl adh-Dhimma) should be executed. Zuhrī's answer was negative and he provided this precedent: the Prophet did not execute the man of Ahl al-Kitāb who had bewitched him.²⁷ But the former version seems to be preferable because the legal context of the latter is also a possible motive for fabrication.

There is a strong indication that Labid was originally a Yemenite, which should point at the source of the witchcraft ascribed to him. While his precise tribal affiliation is still obscure, there is a *nisba*

²⁴ The pious governor expelled him to Syria where he was certainly not treated as a criminal: he alighted with a mawlā of the caliph becoming his servant (fa-kāna fi khidmatihi), later the caliph received his conversion to Islam (becoming his mawlā, or patron); Ibn Manzūr, Mukhtaşar ta'rīkh Dimashq, IX, ed. Nasīb Nashshāwī, Damascus, 1405/1985, 35f (there are further details on his skills as a magician and conjurer). The fact that he was killed when the Abbasid troops entered Damascus in 132/750 suggests that he was closely associated with the Umayyads. The activity of this convert as a transmitter of Hadīth is noteworthy: he transmitted, among others, from 'Aţā' b. Abī Rabāḥ, Nāfi' mawlā Ibn 'Umar and 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz and he was a source of Ibn Ishāq (which is reminiscent of the accusation that Ibn Ishāq transmitted from «Jews», i.e., Jewish converts); Awzā'ī accused him of fabricating Hadīth; Ibn 'Asākir, Ta'rīkh madīnat Dimashq, Facsimile edition, 'Ammān: Dār al-Bashīr, VI, 405, 407.

²⁵ Fath al-bārī, X, 192 (rajul min B. Zurayą halīfu l-yahūd wa-kāna munāfiqan).

²⁶ Ibn Sa'd, II, 197.

²⁷ Ibn Sa'd, II, 199.

which is probably reliable: he is called as-Sahūlī,²⁸ probably after a tribal group of Himyar which gave its name to the village (rather: the region) in the Yemen called as-Sahūl which is famous for its white cotton clothes, the Sahūliyya.²⁹ The nisba as-Sahūlī shows that Labīd was an alien in Medina, which is congruous with his status as halīf.

In sum, Labīd, this practitioner (or alleged practitioner) of «black magic», was a Jew from the Yemen who settled in Medina.³⁰ This leads to the assumption that the magic practices linked with him or with his family came to Medina from the Yemen.

One assumes that Labīd was the client of Jewish members of the B. Zurayq. One such member is mentioned in the legendary story of Tubba''s expedition to Medina. In one of its versions we find a Jewish woman of the B. Zurayq called Fukayha who brought Tubba' water from the well called Rūma.³¹

²⁸ Samh., II, 1136; Majd ad-Dîn Muhammad b. Ya'qūb al-Firūzābādi, al-Maghānim al-muţāba fī ma'ālim ţāba, Riyād, 1369, s.v. Dharwān, 147.

²⁹ Yaq., s.v. Suhūl; Bakrī, Mu'jam mā 'sta'jama, ed. Muştafā s-Saqqā, Cairo, 1364/1945-1371/1951, s.v. Sahūl. For the location of as-Sahūl region see Hamdānī, Şifat jazīrat al-'arab, ed. Muhammad b. 'Alī al-Akwa', Riyād, 1394/1974, 102n; also 344 [ed. D. H. Müller, Leiden, 1884f, 189:24] (the road between al-Janad and Dhimār and Şan'ā' goes through as-Sahūl, then Haql Qatāb, then Dhimār). Cfr. Muqaddasī, Ahsan at-taqāsīm, ed. de Goeje, Leiden, 1906, 113 (Dhimār - Yahşib as-Sahūl - ath-Thujja al-Janad); Yaq., s.v. ath-Thujja (the distance from ath-Thujja to al-Janad on one hand and as-Sahūl on the other is eight parasangs).

³⁰ Uri Rubin, «The "Constitution of Medina": some notes», 7f, discusses Labīd's status in the context of the Jewish participation in the «Constitution». Rubin emphasizes Wāqidī's statement, wa-kāna halīfan fī B. Zurayq and concludes that he «belonged to one of those Jewish groups who had established hilf relations with the Banū Zurayq and lived among them». But in this case we can hardly speak of a group. The nisba as-Sahūlī shows that we have here a Jewish family from the Yemen which emigrated to Medina and formed a clientage with the B. Zurayq of the Khazraj.

³¹ Ibn an-Najjar, ad-Durra ath-thamīna fī ta'rikh al-Madīna, printed as an appendix to al-Fāsī's Shifā' al-gharām bi-akhbār al-balad al-harām, Cairo, 1956, II, 344 (fadakhalat 'alayhi 'mra'a min B. Zurayq mina l-Yahūd, etc.).

When the Prophet came to Medina, the Rūma well was in the hands of a Jew; Işāba, II, 544 (Rūma kānat li-fulāni l-Yahūdī); Samh., II, 968, 970 (kānat rakiyyatan li-Yahūdī). The Işāba has a pedigree of Fukayha, quoted from Ibn Hishām's Kitāb at-Tījān fī mulūk Himyar. Cfr. Yaq., s.v. Bi'r Rūma, where the woman is called Fākiha; more importantly, it is said that she and her children were the richest people among the B. Zurayq to the advent of Islam; see also Samh., II, 970 (from Ibn Zabāla). The stone building near Rūma was said to have belonged to Jews; Ibn Najjār, loc. cit. (qīla innahu kāna dayran [!. read dāran] li-Yahūd); cfr. Samh., II, 971, quoting Ibn an-Najjar: qīla innahu kāna dāran li-l-Yahūdī; read:li-l-Yahūd because no specific Jew is mentioned by Ibn an-Najjār.

ХП

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Curiously, the well called Dharwān in which the witchcraft device was hidden has a namesake in the Yemen: Dharwān is a fortress in al-Haql near Şan'ā'; Yaq., s.v. Dharwān. In one version of the story the well is called Dhū Dharwān; Ibn Sa'd, II, 196; cfr. Dhū Arwān in Yaq., s.v. Dharwān. The prefix Dhū is of course common in Yemenite names.

The conversion of Himyar to Judaism and the Jewish Banū Hadl of Medina*)

The reported mass conversion of the Himyarites to Judaism at the beginning of the fifth century C. E. is depicted by Islamic tradition as the consequence of a miracle effected by two Jewish scholars. According to a famous report which is quoted in many sources, Judaism was imported to the Yemen from Yathrib (Medina).¹) The protagonists of this semi-legendary report are two Jewish scholars who, having converted the Himyarite king Tubba' As'ad Abū Karib to Judaism,²) managed to prove to his fellow Himyarites through a miracle that the Jewish religion was superior to idol worship, thereby causing their conversion to Judaism.³)

A. F. L. Beeston has recently discussed this report. He doubts that the story of As'ad Abū Karib's conversion speaks of conversion to Judaism; for although Tabarī concludes it with what Beeston calls his "editorial comment" ("this was the beginning of Judaism in Yaman"), the actual account never uses the term "Judaism". Beeston concludes:

Could it not be that the original story related to the abandonment of polytheism in favour of monotheistic Rahmanism (in the latter half of the fourth century), rather than to a full commitment to Judaism?⁴)

^{•)} My thanks are due to my colleague Professor Simon Hopkins who read this paper and commented on it.

¹) One expects the proselytizing to Judaism to be based on a local nucleus of Yemenite Jews.

²) Abū Karib reigned in the first third of the fifth century; W. W. Müller, "Survey of the history of the Arabian Peninsula from the first century A. D. to the rise of Islam", in Abdelgadir M. Abdalla, Sami Al-Sakkar and Richard Mortel (eds.), *Studies in the History of Arabia*, vol. 11: Pre-Islamic Arabia, Riyad 1404/1984, 128 f. Cf. Smith, "Events in Arabia in the 6th century A. D.", 445.

³) See e.g. Ibn Hishām, I, 27 f. (28: fa-asfaqat 'inda dhālika Himyar 'alā dīnihi fa-min hunālika wa-'an dhālika kāna aşlu l-yahūdiyya bi-l-Yaman, "at that Himyar agreed together to join his religion and this was the origin of Judaism in the Yemen"; another report has: fa-asfaqat 'inda dhālika Himyar 'alā dīnihimā); Yāqūt al-Hamawī, Mu'jam al-buldān, Beirut 1957, s.v. Ri'ām (on his way back from Medina Tubba' was escorted by two Jewish ahbār); Ibn al-Kalbī, Kitāb al-aṣnām, ed. Aḥmad Zakī Bašhā, Cairo 1373/1924, 12 (the two aḥbār destroyed the idol Ri'ām, wa-tahawwada Tubba' wa-ahlu l-Yaman).

⁴) "Judaism and Christianity in pre-Islamic Yemen", 278; Tab., II, 109 [I, 905].

Elsewhere, in the context of an argument that the "Rahmanist cult" was not Judaism, Beeston says:

But when one looks carefully at the story as told by Tabarī, it is striking that the narrative itself contains no explicit mention of Judaism, but only speaks of "their $d\bar{n}n$ "; it is only after the conclusion of the narrative that we get the obviously editorial comment, "This was the beginning of Judaism in Yaman". Obviously, Tabarī himself thought that Abūkarib and the Himyarites were converted to Judaism, but it is doubtful whether the original tradition envisaged anything more than what might be called "Jewish inspiration". Yet even if Abūkarib and his immediate circle were fully professing Jews, it still remains unproven that all succeeding kings from his reign down to that of Yūsuf [Dhū Nuwās], and all the other authors of Raḥmanist inscriptions, should have been Jews.⁵)

In what follows it is argued that:

1. The abovementioned report, whatever its historical value, speaks explicitly of conversion to Judaism and not to some obscure form of monotheism.⁶)

³) Beeston, "Himyarite Monotheism", 151. For a discussion of Beeston's paper (in connection with the introduction of Christianity into South Arabia) see I. Shahid, *Byzantium and the Arabs in the Fourth Century*, Washington 1984, 100 f. For the term "Rahmanism" see already D.S. Margoliouth, *The Relations between Arabs and Israe-lites prior to the Rise of Islam*, London 1924, 71, who suggests that "the term Judaism" applied to the Jewish tribes of Medina indicates "some form of monotheism which for want of a better term we call Rahmanism, such as is found in the southern parts of the Peninsula, which may indeed have taken its leading ideas from Judaism, but was by no means identical therewith".

⁶) The connection between Himyar and Judaism was certainly much older; cf. H.Z. Hirschberg, Yisra'el be-'arav, Tel-Aviv 1946, 53 f. (in Hebrew); idem, "Tombs of Himyarites in Beth Shearim", in Bulletin of the Jewish Palestine Exploration Society 11 (1943-45), 25-34 (in Hebrew); F. Altheim and R. Stiehl, Die Araber in der alten Welt, III, Berlin 1966, 16 f.; E. Ullendorff, "Hebraic-Jewish elements in Abyssinian (Monophysite) Christianity", in JSS, 1 (1956), 219 f. Cf. on the report in question H.Z. Hirschberg, "The Jewish kingdom of Himyar (Yemen)", in Y. Yesha'yahu and Y. Tobi (eds.), The Jews of Yemen, Jerusalem 1975, 23 (in Hebrew); idem, "Arabic sources for the history of Jews in Arabia (I)", 82 f. (in Hebrew).

Objection to the report on the mass conversion of the Himyarites stems also from its implications for the composition of the modern Jewish Yemenite community; cf. Y. Kafih, "The ties of Yemenite Jewry with the Jewish centres", in *The Jews of Yemen*, 31; S. D. Goitein, *The Yemenites: History, Communal Organization, Spiritual Life*, ed. by M. Ben-Sasson, Jerusalem 1983, 333, 344 (both in Hebrew); Reuben Ahroni, *Yemenite Jewry: Origins, Culture and Literature*, Bloomington 1986, 42 ("... Yemen's Jewish settlements were populated not by Judaised Himyarites but by Jews from the tribes of Israel who had migrated to Yemen"); 47 ("It would seem that the

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Khālid al-'Asalī, "'Abd Kulāl amīr Ḥimyarī", in *Majallat al-'Arab*, 5 (1970-71), 631, argues that we have no evidence from the inscriptions that the kings of Yemen converted to Judaism. In his opinion religion in South Arabia drew closer to monotheism than to idol worship.

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2. One of Ibn Ishāq's sources for this report was the grandson of a Jewish Kindite who emigrated to Medina from the Yemen, which accounts for his interest in the history of Judaism in the Yemen.

1. The report speaks of Judaism

Regarding Beeston's assumption that the words "This was the beginning of Judaism in Yaman" are an editorial comment of Țabari, reference should be made to Ibn Ishāq's biography of the Prophet (in the recension of Ibn Hishām) which shows that the comment is in fact Ibn Ishāq's, not Țabari's. What is more, it is even older, and should be attributed to Ibn Ishāq's informant, Abū Mālik b. Tha'laba b. Abī Mālik al-Qurazi, or perhaps even to Abū Mālik's informant, a Qurashite who died at the time of Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik. In other words, the comment forms an integral part of the story and is not an editorial addition.⁷)

There are further indications that the text in question indeed deals with the introduction of Judaism into the Yemen or, more precisely, among the Himyar. It is stated explicitly that Tubba' As'ad Abū Karib "brought the Jews" from the Hijāz to the Yemen (wa-huwa 'lladhī jā'a bi-l-Yahūd min ardi l-Hijāz ilā l-Yaman).⁸)

It so happens that one of the volumes of Hamdānī's *Iklīl* (the fifth: *al-sīra al-wustā*, "The History of the Middle Era"), covers precisely the period of roughly one century between As'ad Abū Karib and Dhū Nuwās, the famous Jewish king of Himyar.⁹) Unfortunately, this volume is not extant.

*) Ibn Habīb, *Muhabbar*, ed. Ilse Lichtenstaedter, Hyderabad 1361/1942, 367. See also above, n. 3 and below, n. 10. Note that according to one version, Tubba' was accompanied to the Yemen by three rabbis (which may account for the plural $yah\hat{u}d$); these, the report goes on, were the first Jews to enter the Yemen; Samhūdī, I, 188.

³) Hamdānī, *Iklīl*, I, Introduction, p. *zāy*; VIII, 9. F. Altheim and R. Stiehl, *Die Araber in der alten Welt*, VI, Berlin 1968, 375, estimate that 70-80 years separated the reigns of As'ad Abū Karib and Dhū Nuwās.

Judaised Himyarites would never have been considered as perfect Jews by the Jewish authorities, who were known to be very strict in matters of conversion"). For a biting criticism of this book see Y. Shulhud (J. Chelhod) in *Majallat al-'arab*, 22 (1987-88), 634-640.

²) See Ibn Hishām, I, 28. Note that the Yemen appears as the passive recipient of religious movements started elsewhere in the stories about its conversion to Islam and about the introduction of Shī'ism and Jahmiyya; see Ahmad b. 'Abdallāh al-Rāzī al-Ṣan'ānī, Kitāb ta'rīkh madīnat Ṣan'ā', ed. Husayn b. 'Abdallāh al-'Amrī, Ṣan'ā' 1401/1981, 393 f. (Dhikr awwal man qadima Ṣan'ā' bi-qawli l-rawāfid; awwal man adkhala Ṣan'ā' kalāma l-Jahmiyya etc.).

Those called by Beeston "two propagandists from Yathrib" are described in the text as *habrāni min ahbār yahūd min Banī Qurayza*, *'ālimāni rāsikhāni*, "two learned men of the Jews, (more precisely) of Banū Qurayza, well-versed scholars with a firm footing in knowledge". Clearly this text can only speak of the transference to the Yemen of the form of Judaism that existed in Yathrib.¹⁰)

2. The Hadl connection

In his report on the introduction of Judaism among the Himyar, which is in fact part of a long report on Tubba''s expeditions, Ibn Ishāq

About the continuity in the adherence of the Himyarites to the Jewish faith from As'ad Abū Karib onwards see Smith, "Events in Arabia in the 6th century A. D.", 462 ("the dynasty was Jewish in faith and connected with Yatrib ... There is no reason to distrust Arab traditions that 'As'ad Abū-karib, the 'Abī-karib 'As'ad of the inscriptions, who lived in the first half of the 5th century, accepted the Jewish faith at Yatrib; kings of the second half of that century in Himyar professed it"). He refers on this to H. StJ. B. Philby, *The Background of Islam*, 116-119, which is not available to me. Cf. also I. Shahīd, *Byzantium and the Arabs in the Fifth Century*, Washington 1989, 174f. (concerning Sozomen's statement in his *Historia Ecclesiastica*, that many Arabs adopted Judaism [in the 4th and 5th centuries], Shahīd argues that "the Christianization of Oriens in these two centuries may have led in part to the spread of Judaism in western Arabia"; Shahīd's observation is based on the assumption that Sozomen speaks of Arabia; see op. cit., p. 170).

¹⁰) Tab., II, 105 [I, 902]. See also Hamza al-Isfahānī, Ta'rīkh sinī mulūk al-ard wa-l-anbiyā', Beirut n.d. 104 (the last Tubba', called here Tubba' b. Hassan b. Tubba', was sāḥib al-ḥabrayni wa-ṣāḥib Makka wa-l-Madīna ... thumma innahu 'nşarafa ilâ l-Yaman ma'a l-ḥabrayni wa-tahawwada wa-da'ā l-nāsa ilayhi fa-bidhālika dakhalati I-yahūdu I- Yaman). Incidentally, the report on Dhū Nuwās in the same source (106) assumes that he was not born Jewish but converted to Judaism: he was introduced to Judaism while travelling through Yathrib, it excited his admiration and he converted (wa-kāna nazala Yathriba mujtāzan bihā fa-a'jabathu l-yahūdiyya fa-tahawwada). See also Mas'ūdī, Murūj al-dhahab, ed. Ch. Pellat, Beirut 1966 f., II, 198, who tells about Tubba' Abū Karib that he returned to the Yemen having converted to Judaism, wa-qad tahawwada, wa-ghalabat 'alā l-Yamani l-yahūdiyyatu waraja'ū 'an 'ibādati I-asnām. The sentence wa-arāda hadma I-Ka'ba fa-mana'ahu man kāna bihā min ahbāri l-Yahūd makes little historical sense; read: ... fa-mana'ahu min dhālika man kāna ma'ahu min ahbāri l-yahūd, as in MS T. See Ibn Qutayba, Kitāb al-ma'ārif, ed. Tharwat 'Ukāsha, Cairo 1969, 635: wa-madā yurīdu Makkata, wama'ahu hādhā l-yahūdiyyu wa-rajul ākhar mina l-yahūd 'ālim, ga-humā l-habrāni. The same source goes on to say that when this Tubba', the last Tubba', returned to the Yemen, he was escorted by the two scholars, having converted to Judaism and having believed in Moses and in what had been revealed in the Torah, fa-bi-dhālika dakhalati I-yahūdiyyatu I-Yaman. Mas'ūdī (Kitāb al-tanbīh wa-l-ishrāf, ed. de Goeje, Leiden 1894, 202) remarks about the story of the two scholars brought by Tubba' Abūkarib: wa-kāna dhālika sababa tahawwudi kathīr min ahli l-Yaman wa-dhālika mashhür fi akhbārihim.

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uses materials from a few informants. One of them is of particular interest for us here, namely the abovementioned Abū Mālik b. Tha'laba b. Abī Mālik al-Qurazī. His grandfather was *a Jew of Kinda* who emigrated to Medina from the Yemen (or rather from Hadramawt).¹¹) Abū Mālik's link with Judaism on the one hand and with the Yemen on the other naturally explains his interest in the history of Judaism in the Yemen.¹²)

Abū Mālik b. Tha'laba merits closer attention. It is true that his *nisba* is al-Qurazī, but we have a clear indication that his family was linked rather to the Banū Hadl than to Qurayza: when his grandfather came from the Yemen to Medina, he married the daughter of Ibn Sa'ya of the Banū Hadl, the "brothers" of the Banū Qurayza in whose midst they lived and whose clients they were until the advent of Islam.¹³) It can be

¹³) Samhūdī, I, 163 (note the preposition ma'a which indicates their status as clients of Qurayza: wa-kana ma'a Qurayza fī dārihim ikhwatuhum Banū Hadl); Ibn Sa'd, al-Ţabaqāt al-kubrā, al-qism al-mutammim li-tābi'ī ahl al-Madīna wa-man ba'dahum, ed. Ziyād Muḥammad Mansūr, Medina 1408/1987, 136 (wa-l-kāhināni Qurayza wa-l-Naqīr, wa-akhūhumā l-Hadl). Concerning the client status of the Hadl see the important gloss in Ibn Kathīr, al-Bidāya wa-l-nihāya fī l-ta'rīkh, Beirut 1974, II, 309:2 from below: ... Banū Hadl ikhwat Banī Qurayza, kānū ma'ahum ("they were their clients") fī jāhiliyyatihim thumma kānū sādatahum fī l-islām. M.Gil, "The origin of the Jews of Yathrib", in Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam 4 (1984), 210, suggests (incorrectly) that they had "some connection" with the 'Amr b. 'Awf. He renders the passage in question: "... B. Hadl ... were together with Qurayza during the jāhiliyya and then under Islam (that is evidently upon Muḥammad's arrival in Medina) became the masters of the B. Qurayza". But assuming that the advent of Islam introduced a major change in the status of the Hadl vis à vis Qurayza, ma'a which is the opposite of sāda (masters) should be rendered "clients".

It was his pendulous lower lip which reportedly gained the eponym Hadl this nickname; Samhūdī, I, 163 (*wa-innamā summiya Hadlan bi-hadlin kāna fī shafatihi*). This is probably a pejorative nickname, because "one having pendulous lips" is a euphemism for "an Abyssinian" or "a Negro"; *loc. cit.* (*ahdal al-shafatayni* is an *aswad* who is either a *Habashī* or a *Zanjī*). Both aspects of the nickname, the phys-

¹¹) See M.Lecker, "Abū Mālik 'Abdallāh b. Sām of Kinda, a Jewish convert to Islam", in *Der Islam* 71 (1994) 280-282.

¹²) Ibn Ishāq was accused of transmitting traditions taken from "the Jews", i.e. descendants of Jewish converts to Islam; M.J. Kister, "The massacre of the Banū Qurayza: a re-examination of a tradition", in Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam, 8 (1986), 75 f.; at the background of this accusation lies the presumption, that such informants are unreliable; cf. op. cit., 80. Abū Mālik is a concrete example of one such informant. Curiously, Abū Mālik quotes the report not, as one would expect, from a fellow Hadlite (or Qurazite), but from an important figure of the Qurashite clan Banū Taym, Ibrāhīm b. Muḥammad b. Țalḥa b. 'Ubaydallāh. In the sixties of the first century A. H. Ibrāhīm was in charge of the kharāj of Iraq for Ibn al-Zubayr and he lived to the days of Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik; Muş'ab b. 'Abdallāh al-Zubayrī, Kitāb Nasab Quraysh, ed. E. Lévi-Provençal, Cairo 1953, 283. Obviously, this dignitary was interested, perhaps later in his life, in historical matters.

said that when the grandfather Abū Mālik came from the Yemen, he associated himself directly with the Banū Hadl and indirectly with the Banū Qurayẓa, the masters of the Hadl. Hence the *nisba* al-Quraẓī attached to the name of Abū Mālik b. Tha'laba b. Abī Mālik is rather misleading: his grandfather Abū Mālik was a client of the Banū Hadl who were in turn the clients of Qurayẓa.

Abū Mālik's association with the Banū Hadl should presumably be linked with the tribal affiliation of the two protagonists in one version of our story. The sources differ as to their identity. In a report quoted by Ibn Ishāq (probably from an informant other than Abū Mālik b. Tha'laba) the two are called Ka'b and Asad and are said to be of Qurayza.¹⁴) But we are concerned here with a rival version which makes them Hadlites. Unfortunately, in the fragment of the story which Ibn Ishāq quotes from Abū Mālik, the two scholars are anonymous and unaffiliated, but evidence found in Samhūdī's Wafā' shows that the two scholars were of the Hadl. I submit that the Hadl connection, namely Abū Mālik's association with the Hadl on the one hand and the identification of the two ahbār as Hadlites on the other, implies that the two unnamed scholars mentioned by Abū Mālik are indeed the two Hadlites mentioned below.

We turn now to the details of the Hadlite version. We arrive at the names and Hadlite affiliation of the two scholars by combining two passages from Samhūdī's famous history of Medina.

At the end of the chapter on the settlement of the Anṣār (or "the would-be Anṣār") in Yathrib/Medina, Samhūdī quotes the 2nd/8th century historian of Medina Ibn Zabāla who reports that when Tubba' (viz. As'ad Abū Karib) came to Medina and wanted to destroy it, two learned men of Qurayza (*sic*), Suḥayt¹⁵) and Munabbih, persuaded him to abandon his plan because "at the end of time" the city would become the destination of the Hijra (*muhājar*) of a prophet called Aḥmad, of the sons of Ishmael. But elsewhere in Samhūdī's book there is a more accurate indication of their tribal affiliation: Samhūdī mentions the

ical appearance of the eponym and the pejorative sense, are also found in "al-Hublā", "the pregnant woman", which was the nickname of the eponym of a Khazraj clan; see e.g. Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 354 (luqqiba bi-dhālika li-'izami baṭnihi, "... because of the hugeness of his abdomen").

¹⁴) Tab., II, 105 [I, 902] (wa-kāna 'smu l-ḥabrayni Ka'ban wa-Asadan wa-kānā min Banī Qurayza wa-kānā 'bnay 'amm wa-kānā a'lama ahli zamānihimā).

¹⁵) Below we shall find him named: Sukhayt. It is hard to tell what his correct name was because both Sukhayt and Suhayt exist as proper names; see Ibn Mākūlā, *al-Ikmāl*, ed. al-Yamānī, Hyderabad 1381/1962, IV, 267 f. Hirschberg, "Arabic sources for the history of Jews in Arabia (I)", 85, n. 14, notes the existence of two different versions concerning the identity of the *ahbār* (he wrongly vocalizes this name: Sahīt).

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Banū Hadl in the chapter dealing with the Jewish tribes and their territories and among others he records the two sons of the eponymous Hadl, Sukhayt and Munabbih.¹⁶) Obviously, these are the same as Suḥayt and Munabbih and we realize that they were of the Hadl, the clients of Qurayza, not of Qurayza themselves. This is then the Hadlite version concerning the identity of the two scholars who saved Medina. The fragment from Ibn Zabāla relates only the saving of Medina by the two rabbis, but on the basis of the other reports on Tubba's expedition we may assume that the complete report gave them the role of accompanying Tubba' to Mecca and later to the Yemen.

Islamic texts often refer to the Jewish rabbis who were the Prophet's contemporaries unfavourably.¹⁷) However, the *ahbār* are sometimes portrayed favourably in the context of *dalā'il al-nubuwwa*, "the proofs of (Muhammad's) prophethood", namely when they are given the role of foretelling the appearance of Muhammad. By mentioning the anticipated Hijra of the Prophet to Medina the two Jewish scholars persuaded Tubba' not to destroy the city. They also prevented Tubba' from acting against the Ka'ba.¹⁸)

In the semi-legendary story on the proselytizing of Himyar we meet Jewish ahbār presented in a positive light. Islamic tradition found no difficulty in recording the victory of Judaism, which is viewed as the precursor of Islam, over idol worship. According to Islamic tradition, these rabbis were providentially guided both when they destroyed idol worship among the Himyar and when they anticipated the arrival of Muhammad.

In sum, as we have seen the reports on the role of the *aḥbār* speak explicitly on the conversion of Himyar to Judaism. In addition, we have seen that one of Ibn Isḥāq's authorities on the conversion of Himyar to Judaism was the grandson of a Kindite Jew who emigrated to Medina.

¹⁶) See Samhūdī, I, 190 (Ibn Zabāla: when Tubba' came to Medina and wanted to destroy it, ... jā'ahu habrāni min Qurayza yuqālu lahumā Suhayt wa-Munabbih ...), 163 (Banū Hadl ... wa-min wuldihi ... wa-Sukhayt wa-Munabbih 'bnā Hadl). The fragment which Ibn Ishāq quotes from Abū Mālik b. Tha'laba and the fragment from Ibn Zabāla may belong to one and the same report.

¹⁷) Mālik b. al-Dayf is "the fat rabbi", *al-habr al-samīn*; Jalāl al-Dīn al-Suyūţī, *al-Durr al-manthūr fī al-tafsīr bi-l-ma'thūr*, Cairo 1314 A. H., II, 29, on Qur'ān 6,92 (in the context of polemics).

¹⁸) Ibn Hishām, I, 22, 24; Tab., II, 105, 107 [I, 901, 903]. The technique by which Ibn Ishāq weaves this passage into his report is transparent to us because it is introduced by the words fa-baynā Tubba' 'alā dhālika min harbihi wa-harbihim yuqātiluhum wa-yuqātilūnahu idh jā'ahu habrāni ... (from Tab.; Ibn Hishām has: ... 'alā dhālika min qitālihim idh jā'ahu habrāni ...). Albrecht Noth would have called this phrase "Übergangsfloskel"; cf. his Quellenkritische Studien zu Themen, Formen und Tendenzen frühislamischer Geschichtsüberlieferung, Bonn 1973, 155 f.

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JUDAISM AMONG KINDA AND THE RIDDA OF KINDA

Islamic sources indicate that on the eve of Islam, the Jews were the largest religious community in the Yemen. Ya⁴qubi says that all the inhabitants of the Yemen were Jewish, while Ibn Hazm says that all the Himyarites and many Kindites were Jews. Our attention is focused on Kinda, who inhabited both the Yemen and Hadramawt. We hear about a mass conversion to Islam of Jewish Kindites, who lived in the Yemen. Concerning the famous tribal leader al-Ash^cath b. Qays of Kinda who lived in Hadramawt, coinciding reports indicate that before he embraced Islam, he had been Jewish. The sources point to an analogy between the massacre of Kinda, at the end of their rebellion shortly after the Prophet Muhammad's death, and the massacre of the Jewish Banā Qurayza in Medina several years earlier.

THE RELIGIOUS SITUATION IN THE YEMEN on the eve of Islam was diverse. Its population included idol worshippers. Christians, Jews, and Zoroastrians (viz., the descendants of the Persian conquerors of the Yemen, the so-called Abnā²).¹

Naturally, we do not possess statistical evidence concerning the relative numbers of the different religious communities. Yet our evidence indicates that on the eve of Islam, the Jews were by far the largest religious community in the Yemen (and probably in Hadramawt as well). A passage found in the *History* of Ya^cqübi (d. 284/ 897) is particularly important for our discussion. Ac-

cording to Yacqubi, the Arabs were initially either Hums or Hilla,2 then part of them converted to Judaism while others became Christian or Zoroastrian. In the first category, that of Jews, he mentions all the inhabitants of the Yemen who were converted by two Jewish rabbis (ahbar) brought to the Yemen by Tubbar. In addition. Ya^cqubl specifically mentions groups of Yemenite (or "southern") origin who were converted to Judaism. He probably differentiates between the conversion to Judaism of the inhabitants of the Yemen and the conversion of the said groups, because the former took place in the Yemen itself at the behest of Tubba^c, while the latter took place outside the Yemen and was not part of what Ya^cqubi seems to envisage as the mass conversion of its inhabitants. In the latter category we find the Aws and Khazraj, who became Jewish after their emigration from the Yemen, because they were neighbors of the "Yahud Khaybar and Qurayza and Nadlr." We also find in this category people of the Banti al-Harith b. Karb (who lived in Najran and its vicinity), people of Ghassan (who could have converted to Judaism either in Madina or in Syria), and people of Judham (who could have converted in Palestine).3

I am indebted to Professor Simon Hopkins for a thorough criticism of this study. The map on p. 637 was drawn by Mrs. Tamar Soffer at the Cartography Laboratory of the Geography Department, The Hebrew University.

¹ The Zoroastrians of the Yemen are mentioned in Balädhurf, Furth, 93, 97, in connection with the levying of *fizya* (poll tax) from them. As to idol worshippers, historiographical tradition assumes that upon the advent of Islam, there were in the Yemen to idol worshippers. This is reflected in the Propher's injunction (or alleged injunction) to levy a poll tax of one dinar from every adult (*multalim* or "one who has reached puberty") in the Yemen (be he Jewish, Christian, or Zoroastrian), in e.g., Bal-Idhurf, *Furth*, 97; see also (loc. cit.) the Propher's instructions to Muc'adh b. Jabal, whom he sent to the Yemen, on how he should go about converting the Ahl al-Kitib there (he should do it by stages, one "pillar of Islam" at a time). However, it is clear that idolarry persisted in the Yemen until the advent of Islam; see, for instance, Yäqüt, s.v. "Yaghūth."

² See Encyclopaedia of Islam, 2nd ed., s.v. "Hums" (W. M. Wett).

³ Ys²q0bl, Ta²rlkh (Beirut: Där Şâdir-Där Bayr0t, 1379/ 1960), 1:257: ihumma dakhala qawm mina I-^carab fl dini I-yahûd... fa-ammä man tahavwada minhum fa-l-Yaman biasrihä, käna Tubba^c hamala habrayni min ahbäri I-yahûd ilä I-Yaman fa-abjala I-awthäna wa-tahawwada man bi-l-Yaman,

In addition, it is interesting that Yemenite historiographical tradition takes for granted that even after the defeat of Dhū Nuwās in 525 c.E., the Yemen remained predominantly Jewish. This is shown by the legendary conversation between the Himyarite hero Sayf b. DhI Yazan and the Byzantine emperor who denied him military aid against the Ethiopians. The Emperor allegedly explained that the Yemenites were Jewish and the Ethiopians were Christian, "and it is contrary to religion to help the divergent against the similar."⁴

On Jews in Najrän, where the above-mentioned Banü al-Härith b. Ka^cb were the dominant factor, we hear concerning the agreement between the Prophet and the Christian envoys from Najrän (which related to taxation and other matters): wa-dakhala yahūd Najrān ma^ca *l-naşārā fi l-şulņ wa-kānū ka-l-atbā^c lahum*, "and the Jews of Najrän entered the agreement together with the Christians and were as their subordinates."⁵

The Jewish community in Najrān was old. One report (which is possibly apologetic) tells us that more than a century before 'Umar's expulsion of the Najrānites, the Jewish king Dhū Nuwās came to Najrān following a complaint of its Jews about the Christians' domineering behavior (fa-shakā ilayki yahūd Najrān gkalabata l-nasārā, wa-dhālika annahu waqa'a bayna l-yahūd

⁴ Mas^cOdi, Murûj, 2:203 (Qayşar. antum yahûd wa-l-Habasha naşârâ wa-laysa fi l-diyâna an nanşura l-mukhâlif ^calâ l-muwâfiq).

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wa-l-naşārā fitna bi-Najrān).⁶ Historiographical legend dates the origins of Judaism in Najrān to the period preceding the settlement there of the Härith b. Ka^cb tribe: it was the kāhin al-Af^cā al-Najrāni, Bilqis' governor in Najrān and her envoy to Solomon, who spread the Jewish faith among his people.⁷

JUDAISM AMONG KINDA ON THE EVE OF ISLAM

While Himyar was the dominant tribe in the Yemen, it appears that Kinda, part of which inhabited the Yemen, was the dominant tribe in Hadramawt. It is explicitly reported that Judaism was more widespread among Himyar than it was among Kinda; Ibn Hazm says that the whole of Himyar and many of Kinda were Jewish.⁸ The Kindites in the Yemen and Hadramawt who were not Jewish were presumably idol worshippers.⁹

⁸ Iba Hazm, Ansåb, 491 (wa-kānat Himyar yahūdan wakathIr min Kinda); Ibn Rusta, 217. Cf. Nashwin b. Sa^cid I-Himyari, Shams al-^culūm (Die auf Südarabien bezüglichen Angaben Naiwan's im Šams al-^culūm, ed. ^cAzim al-Din Ahmad (London: Gibb Memorial Series, 1916)), 112: wa-kānati I-yahūdiyya fi I-jāhiliyya li-Himyar wa-Kinda wa-Bani I-Hārith wa-Kināna.

⁹ Christianity among Kinda is usually associated with the Kindite groups who lived in northern Arabia, although al-^cibād min Kinda, who are said to have owned many villages and palm trees in a certain wild in Hadramawt (Hamdäni, Şifa, 171 (ed. Müller, p. 86, l. 16)), may well have been Christian.

J. S. Trimingham's statement (Christianity among the Arabs in Pre-Islamic Times [London: Longman; Beirut: Librairie du Liban, 1979], 276) that "the Kinda ruling clan professed Christianity" is far too sweeping; his evidence relates to Hira and Dümat al-Jandal, not to the Yemen or Hadramawt. Because he assumes that "people of Düma were certainly Christian," he has to explain away (p. 277, n. 88) the report about the destruction of the idol Wadd in Düma in the time of the Prophet; he resolves the difficulty by suggesting that the reports which do not mention the destruction of an idol during the expeditions against Düma are "more reliable." Similarly, when I. Shahid, Encyclopaedia of Islam, 2nd ed., s.v. "Kinda," speaks of Christianity among Kinda, he has in mind Hira, not the Yemen or Hadramawt. He says: "The house of Äkil al-Murăr adopted Christianity, and must have been an important factor in disseminating

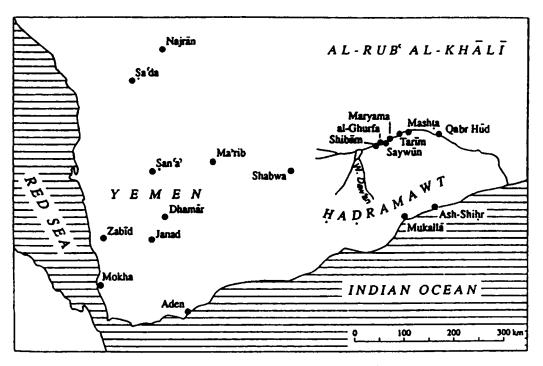
wa-tahawwada gawm mina l-Aws wa-l-Khazraj ba^cda khurûjihim mina l-Yaman li-mujāwaratihim yahûd Khaybar wa-Qurayza wa-l-Nadîr wa-tahawwada qawm min Bani l-flârith b. Ka^cb wa-gawm min Ghazsān wa-gawm min Judhām. The words wa-tahawwada man bi-l-Yaman show that Ya^cqūbi uses Yaman in the geographical, not the genealogical, sense.

⁵ Balädhurf, Furth, 89. The above statement seems misplaced. Instead of following immediately upon the report on the sulh, it appears among the reports on the expulsion of the people of Najrān to Syria and Iraq by 'Umar b. al-Khajjāb. Indeed, we know that Jews from Najran were among those expelled by "Umar; note that Tab., 4:112 [1:2595], curiously, mentions only Jews in this context: wa-fiha (year 20 A.H.) ajla yahud Najran ilā l-Kūfa, fimā za^cama l-Wāqidī. (The verb za^cama, "he claimed," refers here to the date, not to the fact of the expulsion.) Cf. H. Z. Hirschberg, Yisra²el be-^carav (Tel-Aviv, 1946; in Hebrew), 110, who does not know of Jews in Najran in Muhammad's time. Also Irfan Shahid, "Byzantium in South Arabia," Dumbarion Oaks Papers 33 (1979): 76, 78 (reprinted in Byzantium and the Semitic Orient before the Rise of Islam [London: Variorum Reprints (no. 9), 1988]), mentions in this context only the Christians of Nairan.

⁶ Nashwan al-Himyari, Mulak Himyar wa-aqyal al-Yaman wa-sharhuha l-musamma Khulaşat al-sira al-jami'a li-'aja'ib akhbar al-mulak al-tababi'a, ed. Isma'il b. Ahmad al-Jarafi and 'All b. Isma'il al-Mu'ayyad (Beirut: Dar al 'Awda, 1978), 148.

Obviously, Jews and Christians continued their coexistence in Najran after the massacre of its Christians by Dhu Nuwas.

⁷ ^cUmärs, *Ta^srikh al-Yaman*, 133 (from Ibn Khaldün, ^cIbar).



Southern Arabia, with sites mentioned herein

There are further attestations of Judaism among Kinda:¹⁰

1. The Sakāsik of Kinda

We know of Arabs in the Yemen who were Ahl Kitäb, viz., Jewish or Christian proselytes. Abū 'Ubayd al-Qiisim b. Salläm (d. 224/838) reports that the Prophet accepted the poil tax from the people of the Yemen who were Arab (wa-hum 'arab), because they were Ahl

¹⁰ See also M. Lecker, "Abū Mālik 'Abdallāh b. Sām, a Jewish Convert to Islam," *Der Islam* 71 (1994): 280-82. Kitāb, and that he also accepted it from the people of Najrān, the Banū al-Hārith b. Ka^cb. Abū ^cUbayd follows this with a *hadīth* showing that the people of Najrān were Christian.¹¹ Abū ^cUbayd argues that only Arabs who practiced idol-worship, but not those who were Ahl Kitāb, were to be converted to Islam forcibly, or, to use his expression, were to be given the choice between conversion to Islam and death.¹²

There are clear indications that Mu^cadh b. Jabal al-Anşāri, who governed part of the Yemen in the Prophet's time, officiated in an area populated by Jews. (Being an Anşārt from Madina, which had a large Jewish population, he was particularly qualified for disseminating Islam in a predominantly Jewish environment.)¹³ Two of the *hadlths* adduced by Abū ^cUbayd in the section dealing with the (lawfulness of) taking the poll tax from

it in central and northern Arabia." Regarding Judaism among Kinda, Shahid mentions correctly that the father of Ash'ath b. Qays adopted Judaism (see more on this below) and that Kinda "is counted among the Arab tribes who adopted Judaism in prefalamic times, and it must have been this Kinda in the south that became Judaised." Elsewhere, Shahid (*Byzantium and the Arabs in the Fifth Century* [Washington, D. C.: Dumbarton Oaks Research Library and Collection, 1989], 175, n. 38) argues convincingly that "Kinda was a client of Himyar in South Arabia, and the most natural explanation for its adoption of Judaism is the assumption that they adopted the religion of their overlords."

¹¹ Which may possibly indicate that when Abū ^cUbayd speaks of Ahl al-Kitäb in the Yemen, as opposed to the mainly Christian Najrän, he has in mind Arabs who were proselytized to Judaism.

¹² Abū ^cUbayd, Amwdl, 34f.

¹³ The Prophet's governor in Hadramawt, Ziyäd b. Labid, was also an Anşâri.

Arabs who are Ahl Kitlib (bdb akhdhi l-jizya min ^carab ahli l-kitlib) relate to Mu^clidh; both deal with Jews, not with Christians.

The first hadith concerns the directions reportedly given by the Prophet to Mu^cadh b. Jabal when he dispatched him to the Yemen: Mucadh was ordered to levy from each adult one dinar (per year) or its equivalent. Significantly, a Yemenite source of the sixth/twelfth century glosses the word "adult" as "Jewish adults" (wa-min kulli hälim-ya^cni mina l-yahud-dināran).¹⁴ The second hadith tells of a letter reportedly sent by the Prophet to Mu^cadh in the Yemen. In it we find an explicit clue that Mu^cādh's subjects were Jewish: " ... and every adult, be he a man or a woman, pays one dinar or its equivalent in (the striped cloth called) ma^cdfir. No Jew may be lured away from his faith" (... wa-la yuftanu yahüdt can yahüdiyyatihi). The context obviously suggests that exemption from the poll tax must not be used in order to attract the Jews (i.e., the Jewish proselytes among the Arabs) to Islam.

The historicity of the letter is immaterial for our argument; what matters is the fact that the report assumes that the subjects of Mu^cādh's jurisdiction were predominantly Jewish. His jurisdiction was centered on the Yemenite town al-Janad and the surrounding region, although he was reportedly disseminating Islam all over the Yemen and Hadramawt.¹⁵

In terms of the tribes involved, Mu^cädh's activity in the Yemen was linked in particular with two branches of Kinda, parts of which inhabited the Yemen, namely the Sakāsik and the Sakūn. According to Mu^cādh's own testimony (or alleged testimony), when the Prophet sent him to the Yemen, be ordered him, among other things, to position himself between the (territories of) the Sakūn and the Sakāsik (*fa-nzil bayna l-ḥayyayni l-Sakūn* wa-*l-Sakāsik*).¹⁶ Mu^cādh's marriages to a woman of the

¹⁶ Tabarani, Kabir, 20:90; cf. Iba Sa^cd, 7:424 (where there is mention of two couriers sent by Mu^cadh to the Prophet yawma

Sakāsik and to another of the Sakān confirm his link with them.¹⁷

The evidence concerning Mu^cadh's activity in the Yemen toward the end of the Prophet's life forms the necessary background for discussing a unique report concerning a mass conversion of Jews to Islam which took place in al-Janad. The report in question, which includes supernatural and polemical elements, speaks of a mass public conversion held in al-Janad during the first Friday prayer of Rajab (the seventh month of the Islamic year). The prayer was attended by the Banu al-Aswad, a subdivision of the Sakāsik. The Banū al-Aswad, we are told, were the dominant group among the Sakilsik, who were the inhabitants of the Janad region (... al-Sakāsik, wa-hum ahl mikhläfi l-Janad). It is also reported that Mu^cādh brought the Banū al-Aswad a letter from the Prophet. Beside the Banū al-Aswad who had already converted to Islam, the Friday prayer was also attended by a group of Jews (wa-fihim jam^c mina l-yahûd).¹⁸ Mu^cādh managed to answer a difficult question directed to him by the Jews (the "keys to Paradise," he told them, were the testimony an lā ilāha illā llāhu waķdahu lā sharika lahu) and when he explained to them that the

nazala bayna l-Sakūn wa-l-Sakāsik wa-qātala ķattā aslama I-nds). According to Tab., 3:228 [1:1852f.]; Ibn Makula, al-Ikmdl, 1:96, 'Ukāsha (or 'Ukkāsha) b. Thawr was put by the Prophet in charge of these two branches of Kinda, as well as of the Banti Mucawiya of Kinda. G. Rex Smith, "The Early and Medieval History of San^ca², ca. 622-953/1515," in San^cd²: An Arabian Islamic City, ed. R. B. Serjeant and R. Lewcock (London: World of Islam Festival Trust, 1983), 53, incorrectly includes Mu^cāwiya b. Kinda, which is a subdivision of Kinda, in his "list of governors of the Yemen resident in San^ca²." (This name of a tribal group has somehow crept into the list of the Prophet's governors in the Yemen; see Ion al-Dayba", Bughyar al-mustafid fi ta'rikh madinat Zabid, ed. 'Abdalläh al-Habshi [Şan°ā': Markaz al-Dirāsāt wa-l-Buhūth al-Yamani, 1979], 20.) Incidentally, instead of Wabr b. Yuhannis in Smith's "list of governors," read: Wabr b. Yuhannas; cf., e.g., Taj al-caras, s.v. h.n.s. (the Prophet's messenger to Fayriz [al-Daylami] is said here to have been Yuhannas b. Wabara I-Azdi).

¹⁷ It is reported that a man of the Sakäsik was Mu^cädh's *sikr*, i.e., father-in-law or brother-in-law; *Nasab Ma^cadd*, 1:196. For Mu^cädh's marriage to a woman of the Sakün see Tab., 3:230f. [1:1855] (the background is his flight, together with Abū Mūsä al-Ash^cart, from the rebel al-Aswad al-^cAnsi; they took shelter with the Sakün and the Sakäsik, respectively).

¹⁸ The context suggests that they were also of the Banü al-Aswad, but this is not certain. We may have to allow for the possibility that the report also speaks of Jews of other subdivisions of the Sakāsik.

¹⁴ CUmar b. CAll al-Ja^cdi (Iba Samura), Tobaqat fuqaha³ al-Yaman, ed. Fu³8d Sayyid (Cairo, 1957 [reprint Beirut: Dir al-Kutub al-Cilmiyya, 1401/1981]), 18.

¹⁵ Tab., 3:228 [1:1852] (the Prophet sent Mu^cädh as a teacher [mu^callim] for the people of the Yemen and Hadramawt); Janadi, Sulâk, 90 (wa-kāna Mu^cādh yataraddadu ["be travelled frequently"] bayna mikhlāfayi (-Janad wa-Hadramawt); ljāba, 2:363f. (Mu^cādh proselytizing a kāhin of Himyar in Şan^cā³); Hamdāni, Ik/II, ed. Muḥammad b. ^cAlī al-Akwa^c (Beirut: Manshūrāt al-Madina, 1407/1986), 1:266f. and ljāba, 1:204 (Mu^cādh probably proselytizing in Şa^cāa); Ibn Sa^cd, 3:586 (when the Prophet died, Mu^cādh was still his governor in al-Janad).

Prophet had anticipated their question (and of course had provided him with the correct answer), they were convinced: "His words to them were the reason for the conversion of the Jews (viz., the Jewish Arabs) who had remained behind" (wa-kāna qawluhu lahum sababan Ilislāmi man ta'akhkhara mina l-yahūd). This reportedly happened in a huge place of assembly (mahfil ^cazīm), where people from different places congregated, and subsequently the people became accustomed to arrive at al-Janad every year on the first Friday of Rajab to pray the well-known prayer (i.e., in commemoration of their conversion to Islam).¹⁹

Al-Ash^cath b. Qays of Kinda, a Jewish convert to Islam

Al-Ash^cath, son of Qays al-Kindi (d. 40/660 or 42/ 662), was one of the most important tribal leaders of the early Islamic period.²⁰

Interestingly, a mass conversion of Jews to Islam stands in sharp contrast to the several conversions of Jews in Medina at the time of the Prophet, which took place on an individual basis.

²⁰ Ash^cath is a nickname, his name being Ms^cdlkarib. Ash^cath means "one having his hair shaggy, or dishevelled." Also, "having the hair defiled with dust, and matted, or compacted, in consequence of its being seldom anointed" (Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon). Note that the practice of rendering the hair shaggy (etc.) as an act of mourning is documented in a Yemenite source; see Ahmad b. 'Abdalläh al-Räzi al-Şan^cān, Kitöb ta⁵rlkh madinat Şan^cā², 2nd ed., ed. Husayn b. 'Abdalläh al-fanri ('Şan^cã², 1401/1981), 399 (Moses and Aaron mourning the death of Aaron's two sons). But it is more plausible that this nickname has a military context: being a warrior, Ash^cath neglected his 40pearance and was not given to the pleasures of life.

His prestige among his tribesmen was based on the distinguished position of his family, his own charisma and his skills as a military commander. But while there can be no doubt about these factors, the evidence concerning him is by no means free from exaggeration and intertribal polemics: some of the statements promulgated by Yemenite informants are unreliable and can only be used to demonstrate his status among the Yemenites, in general, and Kinda, in particular. For example, we are told that when he was captured by the Madhhij (more precisely, the Zubayd and Härith b. Kacb subdivisions of the Madhhij), he ransomed himself by paying three thousand camels, i.e., three times the usual ransom of "kings" (and many more times the ransom of ordinary people). Ash^cath was the first to be accompanied, while riding, by an infantry escort. In addition, he was the first to be escorted by men carrying maces (a^cmida), who walked before and behind him. In Kūfa, after the conquests, Kinda fulfilled a promise which Ash^cath had made to al-Hasan b. All, that upon al-Hasan's visit to his newly wedded wife who was Ash^cath's daughter, he would be treading on the cloaks (urdiya) of the Kindites. They stood in two ranks at the sides of the road, their cloaks forming a carpet which extended from al-Hasan's residence to Ash^cath's gate. The purport of this and similar stories is clear: Ash^cath enjoyed the unbounded admiration of the Kindites (of Küfa) and commanded absolute power over them.21

The story of the ransom merits further examination because it clearly reveals the intertribal polemics involved here. A report which is manifestly hostile to Ash^cath maintains that he betrayed the Banū al-Hārith b. Ka^cb, with whom he had concluded a pact (^caqd wasulh). Having been taken captive in the above-mentioned raid against them, he undertook to pay a ransom of two

¹⁹ Janadi, Suläk, 90. See also ^cUmära, Ta³rikk al-Yaman, 7 (when the common people of al-Janad and its vicinity say haj), they mean the ziydra to its mosque on the first Friday of Rajab). Note that Janadi, the author of the Sulak, was himself of the Sakäsik (Bahā' al-Din Muhammad b. Yarqub b. Yūsuf al-Janadi al-Saksaki al-Kindi, d. 732/1332; Encyclopaedia of Is-Iam, 2nd ed., s.v. "al-Dianadi" [C. L. Geddes]). Concerning the leading position of the Banü al-Aswad at that time see Janadi, Sulāk, 89 (wa-kānat riyāsatuhum idh dhāka li-gawm minhum yuqelu lahum Banū al-Aswad). That al-Janad is in the land of the Sakäsik is confirmed by Hamdani, Sifa, 77 (ed. D. H. Müller, p. 54, J. 18]. See, on the mosque of Janad, Paolo M. Costa, "The Mosque of al-Janad," in Arabian and Islamic Studies: Articles Presented to R. B. Serjeant . . . , ed. R. L. Bidwell and G. R. Smith (London and New York: Longman, 1983), 43-67.

²¹ Ibn Qutayba, Awd³il, ed. Muhammad Badr al-Din al-Qahwaji and Mahmüd al-Arnā³04 (Beirut and Damascus: Dár Ibn Kathir, 1407/1987), 47 (ransom), 22 (riding; a remark of Maymūn b. Mihrān (in TMD MS, 3:47) may allude to the Persian origin of this practice: when the Muhājirūn saw a Dihqān riding while surrounded by men on foot, they said: "May God curse him! What a tyrant he is!" qdtalahu llāhu jabbāran); Suyūți, al-Wasā³il ilā ma^crifat al-awd³il, ed. Ibrāhim al-^cAdawi and ^cAli Muḥammad ^cUmar [Cairo: al-Khānji, 1400/1980]), 104 (a^cmida); TMD MS, 3:46 (cloaks). For the ransom, see also Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:145f.; Ibn Qutayba, Ma^cārif, ed. Tharwat ^cUkāsha (Cairo: Dār al-Ma^cārif, 1969), 555 (who is specific about the polemical context of such reports: wa-qāla man yaſtakhiru min ahli 1-Yaman: al-Ash^cāth b. Qays aktharu 1.^carab kullihā fidā³an etc.).

hundred young she-camels. But he paid only half that amount and the rest remained unpaid until the advent of Islam, which abolished the practices of the Jähiliyya (including this specific ransom).²² This relatively small ransom would certainly not have become proverbial.²³

The historian may wish to determine whether Ash^cath paid one hundred camels (evading the payment of the rest), or perhaps thirty times that amount.²⁴ Was Ash^cath the most expensive ransomed captive in the history of tribal Arabia, or a crook? One thing is certain—harmonizing arithmetic will get us nowhere. We should simply take note of the fact that as a result of intertribal polemics, contradictory claims are sometimes mutually neutralizing. In any case, this is by no means the general state of our evidence and in many cases we seem to be treading on firmer ground.

Ash^cath's Jewish descent is attested in a few mutually independent sources. Our starting point is a piece of political propaganda related to the rebellion, in 82/701, $_{9}$ ^g of Ash^cath's grandson, ^cAbd al-Rahmān b. Muhammad

²³ Cf. Maydäni, Amihål, 2:380: uwfaru fidd³an mina l-Ash^ceth.

²⁴ The advertising of the version with three thousand camels was of course in the interest of the receivers (or alleged receivers) of this huge ransom; cf. W. Caskel, *Gamharat an-Nasab*, *Das genealogische Werk des Hildm ibn Muhammad al-Kalbi* (Leiden: Brill, 1966), 2, s.v. "Ma^cdikarib b. Qais" (this "exaggerated claim" appears in two verses of the poet ^cAmr b. Ma^cdikarib of the Banü Zubayd; cf. Abü ^cAli al-Qāli, *Dhayl al-amdit wa-l-nawādir* [Cairo: Dir al-Kutub, 1344/1926], 145f., 150).

It could have been recorded by men such as Abū I-Kannäs (printed: 1-Kayyās!) Iyās b. Aws b. Hāni² of the Banū Jabala b. 'Adi (Ash'ath's clan), who was Kalbi's source for the genealogy of Kinda. That he was Kalbi's source is stated by Kalbi's son, Ibn al-Kalbi; Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:142 (wa-minhu akhadha Muhammad b. al-St^oib nasaba Kinda). The Fihrist of Iba al-Nadim (Cairo, 1347 A.H. [reprint Beirut, 1398/1978]), 140, quotes al-Kalbi's own testimony, reported by his son, concerning his reliance on this informant for the genealogy of Kinda: wa-akhadhiri nasaba Kinda ^can Abi I-Kannāsi I-Kindi wa-kāna a^clama 1-nds. (Caskel, 2:47, vocalizes: Abū 1-Kubās.) On the loss of Ibn al-Kalbi's Kitāb mulūk Kinda, see G. Olinder, The Kings of Kinda of the Family of Abil al-Murdr, Lands Universitets Årsskrift, a.s. (Lund, 1927), 16f., who mentions in this context the connection between Muhammad al-Kalbi and Iba al-Ash^cath (Muhammad participated in Ibn al-Ash^cath's revolt); Olinder cites Ch. Lyall, "Ibn al-Kalbi's account of the First Day of al-Kuläb," in Orientalische Studien Theodor Nöldeke zum siebzigsten Geburtstag gewidmet von Freunden und Schülern, ed. C. Bezold (Gieszen, 1906), 128. See also Ibn Safd, 6:359.

b. al-Ash^cath, usually referred to as Ibn al-Ash^cath. The passage in question is preserved by Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthannä (no doubt in his Mathälib monograph which deals with "vices" or "faults"): a Persian called Sibukht, son of Dhakkar, is said to have been the great-grandfather of the rebel's grandfather, Ash^cath. When 'Abd al-Rahmān rebelled against 'Abd al-Malik, the poet Farazdaq called him, in his verses, "Ibn Sibukht" ("the son [viz., the descendant] of Sibukht") and "Sibukht b. Dhakkar." Sibukht, we are told, was an 'ilj (a Persian) of the people of Faris (i.e., the province of Firs; the ^cilj came from Tawwaj, a town in Firs). This Persian, who was a shoemaker, crossed the sea to Hadramawt.25 In the satirical poem just mentioned, Farazdaq also referred to 'Abd al-Rahman/Sibukht as "the weaver of the Yemenites" (hawwaku l-yamanina) and "the village weaver" (hawwâk garya).26

The claim that Ibn al-Ash^cath was a descendant of a man called Sibukht was equivalent to a statement that he was a descendant of a Persian Jew; the above-mentioned Abū ^cUbayda Ma^cmar b. al-Muthannä, who was of Jewish origin, was himself pejoratively called Sibukht, because this was a typical name of Jews.²⁷ Farazdaq did not

²⁶ Diwdn, ed. R. Boucher (Paris: Adolphe Labitte, 1870), Arabic text, 1:207f.; translation, 2:623f. (Sibukht is interpreted as "nom d'un prince persan qui avait excité Abd-el-Rahman à la révolte"[!] in the Beirut edition (Dar Şādir-Dār Bayrūt, 1380/ 1960), 1:238f. In the latter edition, the rebel's pedigree was abridged almost beyond recognition (^cAbd al-Rahmān b. Muhammad b. Ma^cdikarib al-Kindi; rend: ^cAbd al-Rahmān b. Muhammad b. Ma^cdikarib al-Kindi; rend: ^cAbd al-Rahmān b. Muhammad b. al-Ash^cath b. Quys b. Ma^cdikarib al-Kindi). In both editions of the Diwdn the Persian name is vocalized Saybukht and, because the transmitters of the poem no longer knew that Dhakkar was a proper name, they replaced Sibukhta l-dalāli b. Dhakkara (Iba Rusta) with the corrupt Saybukhta l-dalāli WA-dhakkara.

²⁷ See M. Lecker, "Biographical Notes on Abü ^cUbayda Marmar b. al-Muthanni," forthcoming.

Philippe Gignoux interpreted the name as "souvé par les Trois," adding, "c.h.d. par la Trinité selon le Christianisme?"; see Iranisches Personennamenbuch, ed. Manfred Mayrhofer and Riddiger Schmitt, vol. 2: Misteliranische Personennamen, fasc. 2: Noms propres sassanides en moyen-perse épigraphique, by P. Gignoux (Vienna: Österreichischen Akademie der Wissenschaften, 1986), 157, s.v. "Sö-buxt." However, Theodor Nöldeke, "Geschichte des Artachilt i Pipakin aus dem Pohlewi übersetzt."

²² Muhabbar, 244.

²⁵ Iba Rusta, 205 (kāna jaddu l-Ash^cath b. Qays b. Ma^cdikarib b. Sibukht b. Dhakkar ^ciijan min ahli Fāris Iskāfan fa-qata^ca l-bahra min Tawwaj ilâ Hadramawi). On Tawwaj, see M. Hinds, "The First Arab Conquests in Färs," IRAN 22 (1984): 39-53.

create the story about the alleged non-Arab descent of this family, he merely relied on a tradition circulating in Iraq. His audience must have been familiar with the unpleasant connotation of the name Sibukht.

Weaving is also linked with this family elsewhere: Ash^cath is called Ibn al-Hā⁵ik and al-Hā⁵ik b. al-Hā⁵ik.²⁰ The mention of weaving, a trade certainly not practised by this family was, according to the cultural code of the Umayyad period, an insulting (and no doubt false) allusion to non-Arab descent.

The mention of the Jewish-Persian shoemaker from Färs belongs to a particularly virulent piece of political propaganda. There is no trace of Persians in Ash^cath's pedigree; his name is Ash^cath b. Qays b. Ma^cdikarib b. Mu^cāwiya b. Jabala b. ^cAdī.²⁹ It is doubtful that any-

For Sibukht in the pedigree of an Egyptian transmitter of *hadith* see Ibn Mäkülä, al-Ikmdl, 4:387. See al-Sam^cäni, al-Ansab, ed. ^cAbdalläh ^cUmar al-Bärüdi (Beirut: Där al-Jinän, 1408/1988), s.v. "al-Sabukhti" (sic), 3:212.

²⁸ See I. Goldziher, "Die Handwerke bei den Arabern," in his Gesammelte Schriften, ed. Joseph Desomogyi (Hildesheim: G. Olms, 1967f.), 3:318, n. 24, quoting Tab., 6:380 [2:1121] and Aghāni, 14:143, 1. 2, respectively. "All called Ash^cath hā² ik b. hā² ik, mundīja b. kāfār. We are told in this context that weaving is not a specific reference to Ash^cath, but to the Yemenius in general; Ibn Abi Hadid, 1:96, 99. See also Encyclopaedia of Islam, 2nd ed., supplement, s.v. "hā² ik" (M. A. J. Beg).

²⁹ Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:139. One could argue that the Persian names were replaced with Arabic ones, but this seems improbable. A rare passage from a lost book is preserved in Ibn al-^cAdim, Bughyat al-palab ft ta²rikh Halab, facsimile ed. (Frankfurt a. M.: Institute for the History of Arabic-Islamic Science, 1989), 4:448. It is from a book by AbB I-Husaya Muhammad b. al-Qüsim al-Nassüba al-Tamimi: "The Arabs were often angry with Ash^cath b. Qays b. Ms^cdiksrib al-Kindi. They would deay his affiliation to Kinda and make him a descendant of Sibukht. But this is incorrect and unacceptable (... rubbama ghadibar ^calayhi l-^carabu fa-nafathu ^can Kinda wa-alhaqathu bi-Sibukht, wa-hādhā mina l-bāțili Iladhi lā yuqbalu)." The abovebody in the Umayyad period took these "revelations from the family's history" seriously, but the story was meant to be an insult. The disparate claims made concerning Ash^cath's ransom (see above) show that what was told and recorded about this family involved strong emotions and fanciful inventions. But the slanderous story is not completely unfounded; it elaborates on the family's Jewish descent, furnishing its enemies with an effective weapon. It must, however, be emphasized that the verbal lashing was not caused by the family's Jewish descent; the family drew fire because it was one of the most important tribal families and, as such, inevitably immersed in politics.

Before adducing further indications of Ash^cath's Jewish descent, we should dwell on the treacherousness ascribed to this family, with reference, as we shall presently see, to its Jewish origin. A section of the Muhabbar entitled "the Arabs who have the deepest inborn disposition to treachery" (a^craq al-^carab ft l-ghadr),³⁰ which is clearly hostile to the family, includes a survey of the treacherous acts committed by Ibn al-Ash^cath (thus dating its composition to the Umayyad struggle against him, in the eighties of the first Islamic century) and by his ancestors down to his great-great-grandfather. This is done in the style which is familiar from the adab collections of "three (or four, or five, etc.) in a genealogical row

mentioned Muhammad b. al-Qäsim identifies Sibukht as "the king of Kinda and Hadramawt, Siadåd's brother" and provides him with a pedigree going back to Säsän. Muhammad b. al-Qäsim is probably right in rejecting the false claim concerning Ash^cath's Persian origin and in placing it in the context of intertribal polemics, but his identification of Sibukht seems to be unsound. The title of Muhammad b. al-Qäsim's book poses a problem. Ibn al-^cAdim has Kitäb al-qar^c we-l-sh.h.r. which can be read Kitäb al-far^c wa-l-shajar, not an inappropriate title for a book on genealogy. However, the short item on this author in Hadiyyat al-^cAriftn (Istanbul, 1955), 2:58, which informs us that he was a Başran and died in 400 A.H., lists the following books: Akhbār al-furz wa-ansābuhā, Kitāb al-ansāb wa-l-akhbār and Kitāb al-Munāfarāt bayna l-qabā^sil wa-ashrāf al-^cashā^sir waaqqiyat al-hukkām baynahum ft dhālika.

³⁰ A similar formula (but one that relates to violent death, a^craqu l-nås ft l-qati) is used by Abä ^cUbsyda with regard to the family of al-Zubayr b. al-^cAwwäm, where we find men of six generations, starting from al-Zubayr's grandfather, whose lives ended with a violent death; Abū l-Mahāsin Yūsuf b. Ahmad al-Yaghmūri, Nār al-qabas al-mukhtaşar min al-muqtabas ft akhbār al-nuhāt wa-l-udabā³ wa-l-shu^carā³ wa-l-^culamā³, ed. R. Sellheim (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1384/1964), 114; Muhabbar, 189. See also Muhabbar, 249 (Sa^cld b. ^cUyayna b. Hişn is a^craq al-nās ft l-ri²āsa).

in Beiträge zur Kunde der Indogermanischen Sprachen 4 (Göttingen, 1879), 49, n. 4, interpreted the name as "die Drei (wahrscheinlich 'guter Gedanke, gutes Wort, gute That' humat, hücht, huwarst) haben erlöst." Obviously, Nöldeke did not have a Christian connotation in mind. Professor Shaul Shaked (to whom I am indebted for help on this point) proposed to interpret the name as "sauvé par le médiateur (i.e., Mithra)"; see Gignoux, loc. cit. Professor Shaked suggested that although there were Christians who carried this name, it was common among Zoroastrians. Hence it is not plausible that it had a typically Christian import. It stands to reason, he added, that it had a Zoroastrian meaning.

who were such-and-such" (one-eyed, *qāq*īs, etc.). Of these treacherous people we are mainly concerned here with Ash^cath's father Qays.³¹ It is told that he attacked the tribe of Muršd (a subdivision of the Madhhij) in breach of a provisional truce (*walth ild ajal*). This was on Friday, one day before the truce was to expire. "He was Jewish, and he said: 'I am not permitted to fight tomorrow.'" He received his punishment, to be sure, for his army was defeated and he himself was killed.³² We are told that Ash^cath's grandfather Ma^cdikarib was similarly perfidious. He concluded a truce with Mahra (*^caqada li-Mahra şulhan*), but raided them in violation of it. He paid with his life.³³

³² Muhabbar, 2441.; cf. Manāqib Mazyadiyya, 527 (two sons of Qays were killed); also pp. 269f. (the kings of Kinda who were in Najd (and) ruled Hajar and other places in the land of the Arabs were jahiliyya and idol worshippers, while Qays b. Mafdikarib was reported to have been Jewish). Also Ibn Rusta, 229 (the difficult term walth is replaced here by inifily; this report, at the very end of Ibn Rusta's book, is truncated and the climat concerning the attack on Friday is missing). For a Yemenite nickname, 'urf al-ndr, given to the treacherous Ash'ath, see Tab., 3:338 [1:2010]; cf. perhaps Aghdml, 12:156, l. 12 (the treacherous Bant Mingar of Tamim were nicknamed a ref albighdl). For the term walth, see Kister, "The Massacre of the Band Qurayza," 82f. The Muhabbar passage shows that the truce called walth had a date of expiration; indeed this is an integral element in every truce. On the death of Ash^cath's father at the hands of the Murid see also Nasab Macadd, 1:145.

³³ The manner in which his corpse was allegedly mutilated is reminiscent of the happy ending in some versions of "Little Red Riding Hood": The Mahra split his belly open and filled it with pebbles; then they said to him: "Be satiated, may you never be satiated, O som of the harlots of Dariyya"; *Mulabbar*, 245. Ibn "Abblis reportedly reminded Ash"ath of this event. From the former's insulting comment we learn that Ash"ath's father was injured on that occasion ("a slave of Mahra killed your grandfather wa-*ja"ana ft sti abile"*); Tabarāni, *Kabir*, 1:238. An injury in the buttocks is particularly humiliating because it means that the injured was fleeing from the battlefield. The revilement of Ash"ath's father can be balanced by the pasegyrical poems dedicated to him by al-A"shā; see A"shā (Maymūn), Dhwān, nos. 2-5, 68, 71, 76, 78. The mention of Dariyya could refer to

In the lifetime of the Prophet, Ash^cath is supposed to have had a land dispute with a Jew (who was presumably both his neighbor and relative).³⁴ We know that Ash^cath had a Jewish paternal aunt. This fact is mentioned in the following two hadlths. A man of Kinda who was at some time the governor of Mesopotamia (or the Jazira) reports on the authority of Ash^cath that after a paternal aunt of his had died, he came to the caliph 'Umar b. al-Khattāb demanding (his permission to receive) her legacy. However, "Umar gave it to the Jews. In the other hadith the Madinan fagih Sulayman b. Yasar (d. ca. 100/718) quotes from Muhammad b. al-Ash^cath the following: A paternal aunt of his father33 died in the Yemen. His father mentioned this to ^cUmar b. al-Khattab, but the caliph decreed that only her coreligionists would inherit her bequest (lā yarithuhā illā ahlu dīnihā).36 The hadīths are not concerned with mathalib and do not serve any propagandistic aims; as such they may be accepted as factual and trustworthy statements. Obviously, our sources are interested in them for the legal point at issue, viz., inheritance by believers of a different faith, but we may use them as further corroboration of Ash^cath's Jewish descent.³⁷

With a Jewish father and a Jewish paternal aunt, Ash^cath himself must have been Jewish too. While he converted to Islam, his aunt and other relations chose to remain Jewish.³⁸ This conclusion calls for a fresh reading of the reports concerning Ash^cath and Kinda in particular those connected with the rebellion (*ridda*) of Kinda and the massacre at Nujayr.³⁹ This will now be attempted.

the Kindite presence in Najd before they (or rather most of them) returned to Hadramaws.

³⁴ Ahmed b. Hanbel, Musnad (Cairo: al-Majbe^ca al-Maymaniyya, 1313 [reprint, Beirut]), 5:211; *TMD MS*, 3:33.

³⁵ 'Amma lahu; one expects here: 'amma li-abihi.

³⁶ ^cAbd al-Razzâq, *al-Muşannaf*, ed. Habib al-Rahmān al-A^czami (Beirut: al-Majlis al-^cIImi, 1390/1970-1392/1972), 6:17. See the faulty text in Ibn Sa^cd, 5:65; Ibn Hajar al-^cAsqalāni, *Tahdhib al-tahdhib* (Hyderabad, 1325), 9:65. On Sulaymān see op. cit., 4:228f.

³⁷ Not surprisingly, the evidence concerning Ash^cath's Jewish paternal sumt can also be found in the context of *mathalib*: "Warda, daughter of Ma^cdikerib, the paternal aunt of Ash^cath, was *married to a Jew* and died childless. Ash^cath came to ^cUmar b. al-Khanab demanding her inheritance. ^cUmar told him: 'People of two (different) faiths do not inherit from each other' (*la mirdtha li-ahli millatayni*)"; Iba Rusta, 205.

³³ It is of course extremely unlikely that they converted to Judaism under Islam.

³⁹ See Encyclopaedia of Islam, 2nd ed., s.v. "al-Ash^cath b. Kays" (H. Rockendorf). Cf. perhaps Tabarini, Kabir, 10:222

³¹ He was nicknamed, following a war injury, *al-ashajj*, "a man having a mark of a wound by which his forehead has been broken"; Iba Abi l-Hadid, 1:97. According to another version, *al-ashajj* was Ash^cath himself; Iba Durayd, *Jamharas allugha*, ed. Ramzi Ba^clabakki (Beirut: Där al-^cIlm li-l-Maläyin, 1967-88), 1:65; Encyclopaedia of Islam, 1st and 2nd eds., s.v. "al-Ash^cath b. Kays" (H. Reckendorf).

THE MASSACRES OF THE KINDITES AND THE QURALITES

The episode which concluded the *ridda* of Kinda was the siege of Nujayr and the massacre of the besieged. Hamdānī lists al-Nujayr among the fortresses of Hadramawt and says that it belonged to the Banū Ma^cdikarib of Kinda.⁴⁰ This is presumably a reference to the offspring of Ash^cath's grandfather, Ma^cdikarib b. Mu^cāwiya b. Jabala.⁴¹ Following the siege, hundreds of men were massacred, women and children were enslaved. The sources significantly point to an analogy between this massacre and the well-known massacre of the Jewish Banū Qurayza several years earlier. This analogy merits a detailed investigation in the light of the evidence on Judaism among Kinda.⁴²

The massacre of the Banū Qurayza was probably inspired by the Prophet (although the verdict was conveniently proclaimed by Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh).⁴³ The resemblance between the two massacres begins with the legal status of the capitulating men and women. In both cases, they capitulated according to the procedure called nuzal ^calā hukm, "the consent of the besieged to descend from their fortification, agreeing in advance to accept the verdict of the besieger."⁴⁴ The besieged Qurayza, and later

(Ash^cath is surprised that ^cAbdallåh b. Mas^cüd does not fast on ^cÅshürå²). An expedition carried out by Ash^cath against the Banü al-Härith b. Ka^cb (see, e.g., Ibn Rusta, 229) could have been one carried out against his coreligionists (Judaism among the Härith b. Ka^cb is mentioned by Ibn Rusta, 217; above, a. 5), or against Christians, or against pagans (on Christians and pagans among the Härith b. Ka^cb see Encyclopaedia of Islam, 2nd ed., s.v. "al-Härith b. Ka^cb" [J. Schleifer]).

⁴⁰ Hamdāni, *Iklil*, ed. Muḥammad b. 'Ali al-Akwa' (Beirut: Manshūrāt al-Madina, 1407/1986), 8:157.

⁴¹ A verse from a panegyrical poem dedicated to Ash^cath's father clearly links him to wild al-Nujayr; A^cshi (Maymün), Dhwile, no. 71, 1. 2.

⁴² The massacre at Nujayr was not the only one during the ridda. A similar event took place in Dabä in ⁴Umän. Its people agreed to the terms of capitulation dictated by the Azdī taxcollector appointed by the Prophet. The Azdī's verdict was that their noblemen (ashrāf) would be executed and their women and children taken captive. One hundred of their noblemen were executed; Iba Hubayah, 1:121f. See Iba A⁴tham, Furah, 1:60f.

⁴³ See Kister, "The Massacre of the Bant Qursyza." 90 ("the Prophet could indeed trust Safd b. Mufadh and rely on his decision: after all, he had been entrusted with arranging the murder of Kafb b. al-Ashraf").

⁴⁴ Kister (loc. cit.) refers to the hubm of Sefd b. Mufadh as arbitration and judgment: "The Prophet preferred to transfer the authority of arbitration and judgment to Sefd b. Mufadh." But, the besieged Kinda at Nujayr, agreed in advance to accept whatever decision that would be made by the leader of the victorious party.

As in the case of the Qurayza, the basic facts are not disputed (variations concerning the numbers of those slaughtered notwithstanding). Ziyåd b. Labid beheaded their askråf,⁴³ who numbered seven hundred,⁴⁴ calå dam wåkid, which presumably means "at the same spot." A parallel report has: fi sa^cid wåkid, "in the same tract of even ground." The sight of the slain Kindites at Nujayr reportedly reminded an Anşärl of the slain Qurayza (famå huwa illå an ra³aytuhum fa-shabbahtu bihim qatlå Bani Qurayza yawma qatalahumu l-nabi [ş]).⁴⁷

At Nujayr an unknown number of Kindites (the reports vary) were spared through negotiations carried out between Ash^cath and the besiegers. The precise details are obscure and disputed, obviously because the evidence is contaminated by apologetics and mutual accusations. While betraying the majority of the besieged, Ash^cath may well have rescued a considerable number of people from his own family and clan.⁴⁸

as Kister correctly remarks, the Qurayza "were compelled to surrender unconditionally." "Judgment" is slightly better than "arbitration," but it is still not very felicitous. In fact, the Prophet delegated to another his power to decide the fate of those who surrendered unconditionally. Arbitration takes place between equals. Ahmad Barakat (Muhammad and the Jews: A Reexamination (New Delhi: Vicas, 1979), 771., 80; with references to Wägidl, 2:510f.; Ibn Sa²d, 2:75) speaks of "the appointment of Sa²d as hakam," which he renders "umpire" and "judge" (pp. 78, 80, respectively; see also pp. 92f. for a discussion of takkim, "arbitration"). But when the sources which he quotes mention Sa²d's hukm, they do it with reference to the above-mentioned procedure of nuzal ^calå hukm. In short, this hukm (not hakam) means "ruling," not "arbitration."

45 See above, n. 42.

⁴⁶ Another version puts their number at eight hundred; ^cAakart, Awd²il, 311.

⁴⁷ Ibn Hubaysh, 1:138. This Anşāri tells us also that Ziyād b. Labid's refusal to allow their burial was more unbearable for the survivors than the killing itself. See, on the Anşāri in question, *Jaba*, 6:476. In stirring verses, allegedly recited during the siege of Nujayr, Ziyād instigated his men to prepare for "the battle of *Ahzāb*"; [pseudo-]Wāqidi, *Kitāb al-ridda wa-nubdha min futāk al-^cIrāq*, ed. Muhammad Hamidullāh (Paris: Éditions Tougui, 1409/1989), 115. This appears to be yet another allusion to Qurayza: the *Ahzāb*, or "parties," were the tribal troops which besieged Madina during the battle of the Khandaq ("the Trench"), shortly before the siege of the Qurayza.

⁴⁴ One version mentions seventy men; Abū al-Rabi^c Sulaymán b. Müsä al-Kalä^ci, Hurüb al-riddo, ed. Ahmad Ghunaym

Ash^cath's role (or alleged role) in the capitulation of Nujayr is closely related to the mode of the conquest. According to one report, he handed over Nujayr to the Muslims under Ziyād b. Labid (he "opened it," i.e., opened its gates).⁴⁹ From the legal point of view the "opening of the gates" means that Nujayr was taken by force and did not surrender. Taking by force (^canwatan) automatically entitled the conquerors to kill the men and enslave the women and children; in other words, in this scenario the procedure of *nuzūl*^calā hubm with its problematic implications is dismissed.³⁰

In the "opening of the gates" story, Ash^cath takes all the blame for the fate of his fellow tribesmen. Who stands to gain from his vilification? Above all, Ziyād b. Labid, the commander-in-chief of the Muslim army. That this was a question of Ziyād's guilt against Ash^cath's is shown by the following imaginary dialogue (which is yet another piece of historical apologetics). After Ziyād executed seven hundred of their *ashrāf*, we are told, the Kindites blamed Ash^cath:

(Cairo, 1399/1979), 206. See Ibn A^ctham, Fusuh, 1:67: wa-nazala *l-Ash^cath b. Qays mina l-hisn fl ahli baytihi wa-^cashlratihi* min ru²asa⁵ banl ^cammihi ma^ca ahâlihim wa-amwâlihim {read probably: wa-mawâlihim} wa-awlādihim. Ash^cath had promised to obtain for all of his fellow Kindites a guarantee of security, but in the end he assured the safety of his own family and property; see Ibn A^ctham, Fusuh, 1:66 (fa-zanna ahlu l-hisn anna l-Ash^catha qad akhadha lahumu l-amân bi-ajma^cihim fa-sakatú wa-lam yaqûlû shay²an).

⁴⁹ E.g., Ibn Hubaysh, 1:137. According to Tab., 3:337 (1:2009), the Qurashites 'Ikrima b. Abi Jahl and al-Muhājir b. Abi Umayya, not the Anşâri Ziyād b. Labid, negotiated with Ash*ath. "Opening" is rather euphemistic; cf. the blunter expressions in Manāqib Mazyadiyya, 77: fa-wāja*a l-Ash*athu l-muslimina wa-dallahum 'alā 'awrati l-Nujayr, "Ash*ath concurred with the Muslims and directed them to the gap in Nujayr's defences." According to Ibn A*tham, Futāh, 1:52, Ash*ath had regretted his rebellion before any fighting took place(!).

⁵⁰ Cf. the alleged letter of Abū Bakr concerning Nujayr which suggests three alternatives: taking by force, nuzůl ^calå hubm, and an agreement of capitulation (which should include their expulsion). The first alternative involves killing the warriors and enslaving the women and chikdren; Tab., 3:337 [1:2008] (fa-in zafirtum bi-l-qawm fa-qtulå l-muqātila wa-sbū l-dhurriyya in akhadhtumühum ^canwatan, aw yanzilä ^calå hubml, fain jarð baynakum sulh qabla dhðlika, fa-^calå an tubhrijähum min diyðrihim). Curiously, in a report of Madū²ini we find the phrase şulh al-Nujayr; Balādhurt, Ansāb (al-Shaykhāni), 87; below, n. 98.

- Kindites: Ash'ath has betrayed us. He obtained a guarantee of security for himself and his family, but not for us. Yet he descended undertaking to obtain it for all of us. We descended trusting that we had an amán (fa-nazalnä wa-na/ma āminūna), and we were killed.
- Ziyid: I have not given you a guarantee of security.
- Kindites: You have spoken the truth. Ash^cath has deceived us.³¹

In this peculiar dialogue Ziyād receives a full acquittal from none other than the Kindite survivors themselves. The Kindites are aware that any complaints they may have in connection with the slaughter of their relatives should be addressed to Ash^cath.⁵²

An even more fantastic report puts the blame on two Kindites (and of course on Ash^cath). acquitting both Abū Bakr and his governor Ziyäd. We are told that the besieged and the besiegers agreed to let Abū Bakr decide the fate of the former (*fa-sālaḥūhum ^calā an yanzilā ^calā hubm Abī Bakr*). Two Kindite messengers were sent to Madina and a deadline was set for their return. Abū Bakr ordered the besieged to be spared and released, but the good tidings were belated because of the envoys' evil intentions: someone on the way told them that al-Muhājir b. Abī Umayya³³ had been defeated and they slowed their pace deliberately (perhaps anticipating that their fellow Kindites would achieve an even greater victory). Meanwhile Ash^cath despaired and betrayed the besieged, obtaining a guarantee for ten of them.³⁴

The Qurayza were Jewish and the same is true for Ash^cath and certainly for many of the besieged Kindites. The analogy between the Qurayza and the Kinda at Nujayr can help us understand why the Kindites were punished so harshly after they had ceased to be a military threat.³⁵

⁵¹ Ibn Hubaysh, 1:138.

⁵² It may be relevant here that a grandson of Ziyåd b. Labid was involved in transmitting reports on his grandfather's role in Hadramawt during the *ridda*; Iba Hubaysh, 1:131, 136.

⁵³ That he is presented in this source as the main figure in the slege cannot be discussed here (see also above, n. 49).

⁵⁴ ^cAskarf, Awd³/l, 310 (as we have seen, the reports on the numbers of those rescued differ). Cf. Tab., 3:337 [1:2009].

³⁵ In addition, the specific mention of ashraf in connection with the massacre of Nujayr may reveal a deliberate attempt to wipe out the political and military leadership of Kinda. Admittedly, not all of them were executed: after the massacre, eighty survivors of baqdyd mulak Kinda were sent in chains to Abu Bakr; Ibn A^ctham, Fuißh, 1:68. See also p. 69 (Ash^cath suggests the ransom of himself, "these kings" and every captive in the

But this was not simply an emulation of the Prophet's conduct in dealing with insurgent Jews; it is tempting to assume that Madinan politics, more specifically the rivalry between the Aws and the Khazraj, might shed some light on this episode. It was Sa^cd b. Mu^cādh of the Aws who proclaimed the verdict of Qurayza; at Nujayr it was the turn of Ziyād b. LabId of the Khazraj to show that, when it came to punishing the enemies of Islam, he could be as merciless as Sa^cd.²⁶

1. Captivity: Female captives from Nujayr

In this section we shall examine a few specific cases of women who were taken captive at Nujayr. One of them was later found with the Banū Nahd, a subdivision of the Quda^Ca, and another with the Banū Ghutayf, a subdivision of the Murād (which presumably indicates the participation of both tribes in the siege of Nujayr).³⁷

But two women captured by Quraysh are of more interest to us. One was Bushra bint Qays b. Abi I-Kaysam, who bore Sa^cd b. Mälik (better known as Sa^cd b. Abi Waqqāş), his sons 'Umar and Muhammad, and his daughters Hafsa, Umm al-Qāsim and Umm Kulthūm.⁵⁰ Elsewhere she is called Māwiyya and is provided with a more detailed pedigree: Māwiyya bint Qays b. Macdikarib b. Abi I-Kaysam b. al-Simt b. Imri²i I-Qays b. ^cAmr b. Mu^cāwiya.³⁹ The biographies of Māwiyya's two sons reflect the fact that their mother was of Kinda: Muhammad rebelled with the Kindite Ibn al-Ash^cath and was executed by Hajjāj; the Kinda of Kūfa gave the other son, 'Umar, their support "because they were his maternal uncles."40 In the case of CUmar, the link with Kinda continued: he had two sons, each of whom was called ^cAbd al-Rahmān; the younger ^cAbd al-Rahmān (^cAbd al-Rahman al-aşghar), and a daughter named Umm 'Amr.

Yemen; when Abū Bakr released Ash^cath from his chains, he also released those who were with him of the kings of Kinda).

⁵⁶ Concerning the competition between the Aws and the Khazraj in the context of the struggle against the Jews, see Ion al-Athlr, al-Nihdya ft gharth al-hadlth wa-l-athar, ed. Tähir Ahmad al-Zäwi and Mahmäd Muhammad al-Tanähi (Cairo, 1385/1965), s.v. s.w.L; Ion Hishäm, al-Stre al-nahew/yya, ed. al-SaqqI, al-Abyärt and Shalabi (Beirut, 1391/1971), 3:286 (the expedition against Salläm b. Abt 1-Huqayq). were born of a Kindite mother, Umm Yahyā bint 'Abdallāh b. Mafdikarib b. Qays b. Mafdikarib of Kinda.⁴¹ Umm Yahyā's grandfather, Mafdikarib b. Qays b. Mafdikarib, was none other than our Ash'ath.⁴² In other words, 'Umar b. Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş, whose Kindite mother was taken captive at Nujayr, married Ash'ath's granddaughter.

Far more important was Zur^ca bint Mishrah, whose father was one of the kings of the Banu Wall'a, the royal family of Kinda on the eve of Islam. She bore the great ^cAbdalläh b. ^cAbbäs almost all his children, from his firstborn, 'Abbas, to the youngest, 'Ali (nicknamed al-sajjād, "the man who prostrates himself much"). 'All was born on the night of 'All b. Abl Tālib's murder (in Ramadān, 40 A.H.) and thus received his name. The other children of the couple were 'Ubaydalläh, al-Fadl, Muhammad, and ^cAbd al-Rahmān, and there was also a daughter, Lubāba. In other words, one realizes that the royal family of Kinda contributed to the ^cAbbāsid line.⁶³ When Zur^ca was brought to Ibn ^cAbbās, she was technically a slave, but at the same time she belonged to one of the most prestigious families in Arabia. 'All b. 'Abdalläh b. 'Abbas, "the father of the ('Abbasid) caliphs," was of course the most important son of Ibn ^cAbbās.⁴⁴

In the aftermath of the battle of the Harra (63/683), when the Madinans were forced to pledge allegiance to the caliph Yazīd b. Mu^cāwiya according to a particularly humiliating formula, ^cAlī b. ^cAbdallāh b. ^cAbbās, who was then in his early twenties, was spared this treatment by the intervention of the Kindites in the Umayyad army, who constituted, as we are told in this context, its major segment (wa-kānat Kinda mu^czama l-jaysh).⁴⁵

2. Captivity: The court of Ramla bint al-Harith in Madina

Finally, a point of detail concerns the site in Madina where the captives of Nujayr were imprisoned, namely,

⁵⁷ Teb., 3:340 [1:2012f.].

SI Loc. eit.

³⁹ Ibu Safd, 3:137; 5:168 (read Māwiyya instead of Māriya). ⁶⁰ Ibu Safd, 6:221 (Muhammad); Tab., 5:524 (2:460) (^cUmar, ⁶⁴ A.R.). Cf. Tabarāni, *Kabir*, 1:337*f*. (^cAll b. Abi Tālib tells Ash^cath about the anticipated appearance of the terrible ^cabd *Thapy*, viz., Hajjāj).

⁶¹ Ibn Se⁴d, 5:168. (Another son, ^cAbdalläh al-asghar, was born of an unnamed woman of Kinda.)

⁶² Isāba, 1:87f.

⁶³ Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:175; Ibn al-Kalbi, Jamharat al-nasab, ed. Näji Hasan (Beirut: ⁶Alam al-Kutub-Maktabat al-Nahda al-⁶Arabiyya, 1407/1986), 32; Muş^cab, Nasab, 281.; anon., Akhbár al-dawia 1.⁶Abbásiyya, ed. ⁶Abd al-⁶Aziz al-Dert and ⁶Abd al-Jabbár al-Muțțalibi (Beirut, 1971), 117.

⁶⁴ Ibn Qudāma, Tabyin, 160. In Muş^cab, Nasab, 29, it is ^cAll's son Muhammad who is called Abd I-khala²if.

⁶⁵ Managib Mazyadiyya, 79. Cf. Mas^codi. Muruj, 3:268, 269 (^cAll was protected by his maternal uncles of Kinda and troops of Rabi^ca).

the court (ddr)⁴⁴ of Ramla bint al-Hārith.⁴⁷ Several years earlier, the men of Qurayza were incarcerated in the court (ddr) of Usāma b. Zayd, while the women and children were imprisoned in the court of Ramla bint al-Hārith.⁴⁴ Also, the captives of Dabā, who included warriors as well as women and children, were jailed by Abū Bakr in the same court.⁴⁶ In the time of the Prophet this very court was also used for hosting tribal deputations, such as the Nakha^c deputation of two hundred.⁷⁰ and the Khawlān deputation of ten.⁷¹

It could be argued that this is a mere literary topos, but it is more plausible that Ramla's court was chosen because it was sufficiently spacious and because Ramla berself was a trustworthy woman. The literary option becomes improbable when one considers the location of Ramla's court. In order to find this out we turn to Ramla's pedigree: it shows that she was of the Khazraj, more precisely of the Najjär, more precisely of the Banü Tha^claba b. Ghanm b. Mälik b. al-Najjär. Our detailed genealogical and geographical evidence on the Anşär allows us to translate this pedigree into geographical reality.

A useful source for Ansäri genealogies is a book entitled al-Istibşär fl nasab al-şahāba mina l-anşār, "The attentive observation concerning the genealogy of the Companions among the Anşär." which was written by Muwaffaq al-Din Ibn Qudāma al-Jammā^cIII al-Maqdisi (d. 620/1223).⁷³ What makes the Istibşār so useful is its division into many small sections, each dedicated to a little tribal group. For example, the clan of Ramla bint al-Hārith, the Banū Tha^claba b. Ghanm b. Mālik b. al-Najjār (certainly not a large one), is divided into three subsections, which gives us a clear idea of its subdivisions.⁷³

69 Ibn Hubaysh, 1:122.

⁷⁰ Ibn Sa^cd, 1:346 (Ramla bint al-Hārith); 5:531 (Ramla bint al-Hadath[!], which is bow WägidI called her father; *Işāba*, 7:651).

⁷² He was born in 541/1146 in Jammf'il (nowadays, Jammf'in), not far from Nablus (Shechem), and emigrated to Damascus with his family as a boy of ten, following the Crusader occupation; Ibn Qudāma, *Tabytn*, the editor's introduction, 19; Yāqūt, s.v. "Jammā'il." On Muwaffaq al-Dia's account about the battle of the Horns of Hattin (in which he participated), see B. Z. Kedar, "The Battle of the Horns of Hattin: Another View," *Cathedra* (Jerusalem) 61 (September 1991), 96 (in Hebrew).

When we browse through the details about these Banū The labe b. Ghanm, we realize that Ramia's court was located at the very heart of Islamic Madina, near the Prophet's mosque and the rooms of his wives. For instance, one of the Banū Thaclaba was Häritha b. al-Nu^cmān, who had manāzil, presumably "empty plots," near the manazil of the Prophet. Whenever the Prophet married a new wife. Häritha gave up one of his mandzil (fa-kāna kullamā aḥdatha rasūlu llāhi [ş.] ahlan tahawwala lahu Hāritha b. al-Nu^cmān ^can manzil ba^cda manzil).⁷⁴ The two orphans who had owned the land on which the Prophet's mosque was built were also of the Thaclaba.75 In other words, Häritha, the orphans, and no doubt Ramia as well, were in fact the Prophet's closest neighbors. The captives who were kept in Ramla's court and the delegations which were housed in it were near the Prophet's mosque, at the centre of Islamic Madina, among people whom the Prophet could trust.

APPENDIX: THE JEWISH HARLOT HIRR BINT YÂMIN IN THE *RIDDA*

Concerning the ridda of Kinda we have an unusual text from Ibn Habib's Kitab al-Muhabbar (pp. 184-89) which deals, from a peculiar angle, with the ridda in the Hadramawt region of the Kinda and Hadramawt tribes.

The text, which was studied by A. F. L. Beeston some forty years ago.⁷⁴ tells of the joyous reception given in Hadramawt to the news of the Prophet's death.⁷⁷ There were in Hadramawt six women of the Kinda and Hadramawt tribes who had longed for the death of the Prophet

⁶⁶ For the translation of *dår* as "court" see Kister, "The Massacre of the Banū Qurayza," 65, 74, n. 39.

⁶⁷ TMD MS, 3:41. See an entry on Ramla in Işāba, 7:651.

⁴ Wilgidi, 2:512.

⁷¹ Ibn Sa^cd, 1:324.

⁷³ Ibn Qudâma, Istibşār, 561. See Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 349.

⁷⁴ Ibn Sa^cd, 3:488. For mandzil, see Ibn Durayd, Ishtiydq, ed. ^cAbd al-Salām Hārûn (Cairo: al-Khānji, 1378/1958), 363: Shurahbil b. as-Sim;... wa-huwa lladhi qasama mandzila Himş bayna ahlihā hina ftatahahā.

⁷⁵ Ibn Qudāma, Istibşār, 63f.

⁷⁶ Beeston, "The So-called Harlots of Hadramawt." R. B. Serjeant reports that "this passage was not received at all well by some Hadramls who considered it an aspersion on their ancestors, although it has the ring of authenticity": "Historians and Historiography of Hadramawt," BSOAS 25 (1962): 241; published also in *Studies in Arabian History and Civilization* (London: Variorum, 1981).

⁷⁷ Incidentally, the man who brought the news of the Prophet's death to Hadramawt is not Jahbal of Kulayb (*Mu-habbar*, 184, 186; Beeston, "The So-called Harlots of Hadramawt," 16), but Juhayl (b. Sayf) of the tribe of Kalb; Ibn Hazm, Ansdb, 458, 1. 13.

and, when it happened, dyed their hands with henna and played on the tambourine.⁷⁶ They were joined by twentyodd harlots from Hadramawt (*baghāyā Hadramawt*, in the geographical sense), who emulated them. This corresponds to a passage later in the same report (p. 187): the Yernenite women (*niswa min ahli l-Yaman*) who longed for the death of the Prophet were joined by singing-girls (*qiyān*) of Kinda and prostitutes (^cawāhir) of Hadramawt. Twelve of the so-called harlots are named. A few of them can be identified (see below), thanks to the relatively detailed information we have on the genealogies of Kinda.

As Beeston noticed, the word "prostitutes" in this case should not be taken literally." Indeed there can be no doubt that the women (or at any rate most of them) were not harlots but respectable women of different Kindite and Hadramite clans. The reference to these women as harlots was not a light matter; when the report was recorded, the *ridda* was an event of the recent past.⁶⁰

The title of the Muhabbar story is: al-niswa almutamanniyât mawta rasüli llâhi (s.) wa-qişşatuhunna, "the women who desired the death of the Messenger of

79 Beeston, "The So-called Harlots of Hadramawt," 20: "... they cannot have been common prostitutes, since three of the women named were members of the noble class, the airdf, and four of them belonged to the royal tribe of Kindah." He assumed that "these women, or some of them, were in fact priestesses of the old pagan religion of South Arabia, who hoped that the death of Muhammad would afford them a chance of staging a revival of the old religion." Their "singing and dancing," Boeston suggested, was "an incitement to their fellow-tribesmen to rise and try to throw off the yoke of the new religion, which had deprived the pagan priests and priestesses of positions of considerable power and influence." The "revival of the old religion" theory seems to me improbable. Beeston dismisses the other alternative, namely that the term "harlot" was "simply an opprobrious epithet employed by their political antagonists among the Muslims" because "something more than this lies behind it." In my opinion, the term was simply a piece of invective; see below.

⁸⁰ The source of the *Mukabbar* report (on whom see below) is familiar with the families involved; in two cases, a woman mentioned in the report is said to have been the *jadda* (grandmother, or perhaps great-grandmother) of a certain person. God and their story." The employment of the verb tamanna in this context is not accidental; it connotes an illegitimate sexual desire and should be linked with the alleged immorality of these women.⁸¹

The following paragraphs discuss information on these women gleaned from the genealogies of Kinda. The first two women in the list are designated mina l-ashrdf, while a third sharifa is unnamed. In the case of al-'Amarrada bint Ma^cdikarib, who is listed first, this "nobility" means belonging to the dominant royal line of Kinda at that time, viz., the Banū Wali^{ca, 42} But the other sharifa whose name is given, Hunayda bint Abi Shamir, was probably the younger sister of a man called Hāni⁵ b. Abi Shamir, who died before Islam. Her pedigree shows her to have been a member of Ash^cath's clan, the Banū Jabala b. ^cAdl.³³ About the third, unnamed, sharifa we only know that she was from Tin^ca (imra⁵a min Tin^ca sharifa mā summiyat).

Another woman in the list who can be identified is Ibnat al-Awdaj b. Abi Karib of Kinda, whose brother, according to the *Muhabbar* report discussed here, was killed at Nujayr. She was also of Ash^cath's clan, the Banü Jabala b. ^cAdi; in fact, *two brothers* of hers, Bashir and Qays, sons of al-Awdaj b. Abi Karib, were killed at Nujayr.⁶⁴ An identification can also be suggested for Asmā⁵ bint Yazid b. Qays of the Banū Wahb of Kinda. Her father was Yazid b. Qays b. Salama of the Banū Wahb, more precisely the Banū Hujr b. Wahb; he was

Note also that in a letter allegedly sent by Abū Bakr to the governor of Hadramawt it is mentioned that beside dyeing their hands and playing on their tambourines, the women also "displayed the beautiful places of their bodies" (wa-azharna mahātinahunna).

82 See above, n. 63.

⁸³ Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:142 (Hāni³ b. Abi Shamir, kāna sharifan jāhiliyyan). Perhaps his sister's name was Hunay³a, not Hunayda.

⁶⁴ Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:143. See also Balädhuri, Futüh, 145 (Bashir b. al-Awdaj [printed al-Awdah!] and Yazid b. Amänät are mentioned in an elegy of Ash^cath on those who died at Nujayr). Because she had two brothers who were killed there, the word akhühä in Muhabbar, 185, should probably be read akhawähä. In the Muhabbar, her father's name is wrongly printed al-Awdah(!).

⁷⁸ On Yemenite women (the text speaks of slaves) dyeing their hands and feet to celebrate a festival, see Ibn Sa^cd, 5:540 (on the occasion of the Fitr and the Adhä, Täwüs al-Yamäni ordered all his slavegirls, black and otherwise, to dye their hands and feet; he used to say: "This is a festival," *innahu yawm* ^cld).

⁸¹ A famous woman, called al-mutamanniya with reference to her illegitimate sexual desires, was Hajjāj's mother, who coveted a handsome man of the Banū Sulaym; Lisān al-^carab, s.v. m.n.y., 294a; M. Lecker. The Banū Sulaym: A Contribution to the Study of Early Islam (Jerusalem: Institute of Asian and African Studies, The Hebrew University, 1989), 79, n. 80.

nicknamed qdri³ Bant Salama and came to the caliph Mu^cawiya as an envoy.⁸³

At least one, but probably two, of the women were of a clan called Banū al-^cĀtik. The father of Malka bint Amānāt b. Qays b. al-Hārith b. Shaybān b. al-^cĀtik, known for his longevity, was a Companion who came to the Prophet as an envoy. Her brother Yazīd b. Amānāt and another member of the Banū al-^cĀtik, Ma^crūf b. Qays b. Shuraḥbīl, were killed at Nujayr.³⁶ Malka bint Qays b. Sharāḥil, whose brother was killed at Nujayr, was probably the sister of Ma^crūf b. Qays b. Shuraḥbīl of the same clan, who was killed at Nujayr.⁴⁷

Special attention should be given to two women mentioned in the list. One is al-Tayhā⁵ al-Hadramiyya (of the Hadramawt tribe), the mother of Ash^cath's [half-] brother Sayf b. [Qays b.] Ma^cdikarib.⁸⁸

The other is the only woman on the list specifically said to have been Jewish, namely Hirr bint Yāmīn al-Yahūdiyya.³⁹ Her description is particularly venomous. We are told that she was not an ordinary harlot: her name "became synonymous with prostitution, and people said: "more whoring than Hirr" (yudrabu bihā l-mathal fi l-zinā fa-yuqālu: aznā min Hirr). Her distinction is well attested in the literature of amthāl.³⁰ It is reported that

^{\$7} Nasab Ma^cadd, loc. cit. The names Sharibil and Shurahbil may be found interchangeably; cf. Olinder, "Ål al-Gaun of the family of Åkil al-Murir," 211.

⁸⁸ His father's name was omitted from the Muhabbar report. See Işâba, 3:237 (Ibn al-Kalbi: wa-umm Sayf hâdhă al-Tayhā, qayma min Hadramawi, wa-kiya ihdä l-shawāmit). In Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:141, ber name is corrupted (al-Shahhā²); it is also corrupted in Balādhuri, Furāh, 142 (al-Thabjā²). Umm Sayf 's hand was cut off in Mashia; Muhabbar, 188 (kamā quņi^cat bi-Mashiata Ummu Sayfi). The statement that the women's hands were cut off after the siege of Nujayr ('Askari, Awā²il, 311) can only relate to some of them. "immoral people used to visit her in the Jähiliyya in turn to commit sinful acts" (wa-kāna l-fussāq yatanāwabūnahā li-l-fisq fi l-jāhiliyya).⁹¹

Thé Muhabbar also tells us (p. 188) that Hirr practiced fornication with a slave called al-Az^car and bore him a son called Habib. Habib in his turn had an illegal liaison with a slavegirl who bore him a child called Buhayr.⁹² This grandson of Hirr emigrated to Kūfa and claimed falsely to be of the Hadramite tribe (wa-ttakhadha nasaban ilâ Hadramawt). The falsity of this claim was divulged in verses of a genuine Hadramite called Shartk b. Shaddād al-Tin^cI. Shartk "reminded" Buhayr that Abū Bakr had amputated his grandmother's hand, and that his "maternal uncle" Mawraq was dhū l-katd²if, "the owner of the smith's tongs," i.e., a blacksmith. This is a reference to Hirr's brother Mawraq, who was a blacksmith (qayn).⁹³

There are some indications concerning the source of the Muhabbar report (or part of it). Our starting point is the role of two Hadramites, father and son. As we have seen, Sharik b. Shaddād al-Tin^ci al-Hadrami divulged Buhayr's lowly descent. Although he is called al-Tin^ci, the Muhabbar report shows him to be a resident of Kūfa. This is confirmed by the fact that this very Sharik b. Shaddād al-Hadramī was among the companions of Hujr b. ^cAdI who were expelled from Kūfa in 51/671 by Mu^cāwiya's governor, Ziyād b. Abihi.⁴⁴ This gives us a *terminus ante quem* for the episode with Hirr's grandson Buhayr which took place in Kūfa.

The Muhabbar mentions not only Sharik, but also his father Shaddād (pp. 186f.). We are told that Shaddād b. Mālik b. Dam^caj, a sharif from Tin^ca, played a positive role during the *ridda*. He was allegedly one of the two righteous men who informed Abū Bakr (in verse) about

²⁵ Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:156.

⁸⁶ Nasab Ma^cadd, 1:160; Işâba, 1:110; İbn al-Athir, Usd alghâba fi ma^crifat al-şahâba (Cairo: al-Maţba^ca al-Wahbiyya, 1280 A.H.), 1:114.

⁸⁹ In Muhabbar, 188 (in a verse), she is called Hirra. For the name Yāmin, see, e.g., Işāba, 7:173 (there was a Yāmin b. 'Amr among the Banū al-Naqīr). For another Hirr (of Kalb) see Kister, "On the Wife of the Goldsmith from Fadak and her Progeny," Le Muséon 92 (1979): 322 = Nasab Ma^cadd, 2:562.

⁹⁰ Maydini, Amihal, 1:326 (Ibn al-Kalbi calls her Hirr bint Yämin); Hamza b. al-Hasan al-Işfahāni, al-Durra al-fäkhira fi l-amihāl al-sā²ira, ed. ^cAbd al-Majid Qaţāmish (Cairo: Dār al-Ma^cārif, [1966]), 213f.

⁹¹ This is an explanatory sentence attached to the above proverb in Mahmüd b. ⁴Umar al-Zamakhshart, al-Mustagsä fi amthäl al-⁴arab (Beirut: Där al-Kutub al-⁴limiyya, 1397/1977), 1:150.

⁹² For the vocalization see Ibn Mäkülä, *al-lkmål*, 1:203 (the vocalization Bahir here appears to be erroneous). Ibn Mäkülä mentions a grandson of Buhayr, al-Qäsim b. Kathir b. Buhayr b. Habib b. Az^car al-Hadrami, who was killed fighting on the side of Zayd b. ^cAll b. al-Husayn (viz., in 121/739). This pedigree confirms that Buhayr's father was called Habib and his grandfather [al-]Az^car.

⁹³ Muhabbar, 185. His trade is possibly a hint of the non-Arab descent of the family. Incidentally, Beeston, "The Socalled Harlots of Hadramawt," 19, vocalizes: Shurayk, but I see no reason for this.

⁹⁴ Tab., 5:271 [2:136]. He was later executed by Mu^cāwiya; op. cit., 277 [2:143].

the goings-on in Hadramawt and remained steadfast in their faith.⁹⁵ Shaddād and his son Sharik occupy a prominent place in the *Muhabbar* report. Moreover, Shaddād's conduct during the *ridda* is presented in the most favorable terms. This may indicate that the report (or part of it) was composed by Sharik or by another descendant of Shaddād. This assumption brings us back to the abovementioned unnamed *sharifa* from Tin^ca. Shaddād was also a *sharif* from Tin^ca, and he may well have been related to this woman. If indeed the report originated with a descendant of his we may have an explanation of the fact that the woman's identity was not disclosed.

The import of the Muhabbar report is not the rejoicing in Hadramawt over the Prophet's death, but the ridda of Kinda as a whole. Two of the women are said to have had brothers who died at Nujayr, the site of the final episode of the ridda of Kinda. The so-called harlots were dispersed in the following localities: Tarim, Mashta, al-Nujayr, Tin^ca, Shabwa, and Dhamär(?).¹⁰ These place names probably make up the map of the ridda in Hadramawt.

The section on the women that introduces us to the ridda of the Kinda and Hadramawt tribes implies that it was not caused by political or religious differences with the Islamic state and its governor in Hadramawt. Rather, it all happened because of women of dubious reputation. Then follows a section dealing with the two righteous men, who not only refrained from joining the rebels, but informed the caliph in Madina (in verse) about the rejoicing baghāyā. One of them was Imru³u l-Qays b. 'Abis of Kinda and the other was the above-mentioned Shaddad b. Malik of Hadramawt.97 Both sincere informants to the caliph demanded that the hands of the immoral women be amputated.⁹⁶ When the caliph wrote to the governor, al-Muhājir b. Abi Umayya, he ordered him to march to the women with his horses and infantry and cut off their hands. Allegedly, there was no other assignment. Fighting was to take place only if they met with resistance and after due procedure was followed. The actual

fighting is given one sentence only: the Kindites and Hadramites insisted on fighting al-Muhājir, then most of them withdrew (..., thumma raja^ca ^canhu ^cammatuhum). He fought and defeated them (i.e., the rest), then he captured the women and cut off their hands. Most of them died and some of them emigrated to Kūfa.⁹⁹

This probably turns the facts upside down. The amputation of the women's hands was an *outcome* of Kinda's total defeat, not a predetermined *target of war*. The report plays down and completely trivializes the terrible bloodshed of the *ridda* by bringing the women to the fore and suppressing the role of the men. This trivialization (a form of historical apologetics) is the manner in which the tribal or local tradition handles the grievous events of the *ridda*.¹⁰⁰

ABBREVIATIONS

- Aghāni = Abū I-Faraj al-Işfahāni. Kitāb al-aghāni (Cairo: Būlāq, 1285 л.н.).
- Işâba = Ibn Hajar al-^cAsqalāni. al-Işâba fi tamyiz al-şahāba. Ed. ^cAli Muḥammad al-Bijāwi (Cairo: Dār Nahḍat Miṣr, 1392/ 1972).
- Manāgib Mazyadiyya = Abū I-Baqā³ Hibat Allāh. al-Manāgib al-mazyadiyya. Ed. Şāliņ Mūsā Darādika and Muhammad ^cAbd al-Qādir Khrisāt (^cAmmān: Maktabat al-Risāla al-Hadītha, 1404/1984).
- Muhabbar = Muhammad b. Habib. Kitab al-Muhabbar. Ed. Ilse Lichtenstaedter (Hyderabad, 1361/1942).
- Nasab Ma^cadd = Ibn al-Kalbi. Nasab Ma^cadd wa-l-yaman alkabir. Ed. Nâji Hasan (Beirut: ^cĂlam al-Kutub-Maktabat al-Nahda al-^cArabiyya, 1408/1988).
- Tab. = al-Tabari. Ta²rikh al-rusul wa-l-mulûk. Ed. Muhammad Abû l-Faql Ibrâhim (Cairo: Dâr al-Ma^cârif, 1380/1960-1387/1967). References to the Leiden edition are added between square brackets.
- TMD MS = Ibn ^cAsäkir. Ta³rikh madlnat Dimashq, facsimile edition in 19 vols. (^cAmmän: Där al-Bashir, n.d.)

putation of the hand, of a singing-girl who abused the Prophet, see Tab., 3:341 [1:2014]. See Beeston, "The So-called Harlots of Hadramawt," 19. And cf. Balädhuri, Ansdb (al-Shaykhāni), 87 (Madā²inī: after the sulh of Nujayr, al-Muhājir amputated the hand of a singing-girl who had abused Abū Bakr).

99 Muḥabbar, 188.

¹⁰⁰ The ridda of ^cUman provides another example of the same apologetic approach: contrast the mild tribal/local tradition with the violent "mainstream" tradition (represented by Ibn al-Athir's Kamil) in Nūr al-Din ^cAbdalläh b. Humayd al-Sälimi, *Tuhfar* al-a^cyān bi-strat ahl ^cUmān, ed. Abū Ishāq Ibrāhīm Iţfish al-Mizābi (Cairo: Maţābi^c Dār al-Kitāb al-^cArabi bi-Mişr, 1380/ 1961), 69f. (dhikr waq^cat Dabd).

⁹⁵ He is presumably identical with Shaddad b. Dam^caj mentioned in Tab., 3:484 [1:2218] (as the commander of the troops of Hadramawt and al-Şadif who set out from Madina to Iraq in 14 A.H.).

⁹⁶ The famous Dhamär is of course in the Yemen, not in Hadramawt.

⁹⁷ The balance between the two tribes is kept: there was a "face-saving" act of a virtuous man from each of them.

⁹⁸ This somehow conforms to the rule that the "punishment should fit the crime," because they were guilty of dyeing their hands with henna and of playing on the tambourine. On the extraction of the central incisor (*thaniyya*), in addition to the am-

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Kinda on the Eve of Islam and during the Ridda*

Evidence about the *ridda* of Kinda is as mottled as it is for other events which Islamic historiography includes under the title of *ridda*. Tendentious writing and apologetics, contradictions and a complete lack of dates make the historian's task very hard indeed. Yet there is much that can be established (with varying degrees of probability) about those sanguinary events. Since no meaningful study of the short though eventful period of the *ridda* alone is possible, several related topics are also discussed below.

The protagonist in this article is al-Ash'ath (henceforth: Ash'ath) b. Qays whose rise to the leadership of Kinda was an outcome of the *ridda*.¹ This is above all a study of tribal history: Ash'ath was a tribal leader operating in a tribal setting. It is, therefore, vital to have precise genealogical information, as tribal genealogies are the essence and cannot be cursorily referred to in a footnote.

Two auxiliary tools were prepared to accompany this study: a map and a genealogical chart, based on a book by Ibn al-Kalbī, Nasab Ma'add wa-l-yaman al-kabīr, which was made available for research in a printed edition just a few years ago.² Over and again it will be demonstrated that the combination of genealogy and history, in this case the genealogy of Kinda and events in the *ridda*, is imperative. Fortunately, to investigate the early Islamic period is not only our main quest but also that of the Islamic genealogists, which makes their writings particularly valuable.

As usual much time and effort had to be dedicated to the comparison and reconstruction of texts simply because so many of them are in an unsatisfactory condition. The tools at our disposal are those of Arabic philology, without which no serious work on early Islamic

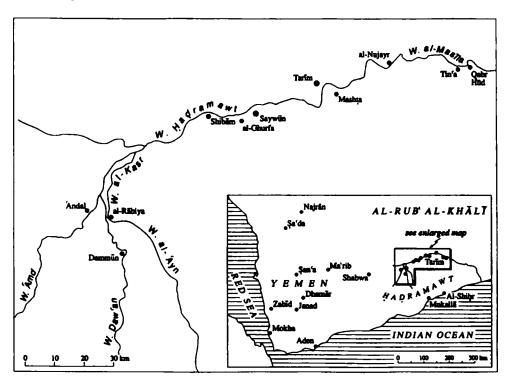
O Royal Asiatic Society, reproduced by permission from Cambridge University Press.

^{*} I wish to thank Prof. Griaznevitch of St Petersburg for generously sharing with me some of his vast repository of information on South Arabia; also Dr E. Rezvan of St Petersburg for establishing the contact with Prof. Griaznevitch and for translating the communications from the Russian. The map on p. 334 was drawn by Mrs Tamar Soffer at the Cartography Laboratory, Geography Department, the Hebrew University.

¹ On Ash'ath's Jewish origin see M. Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda and the ridda of Kinda" (forthcoming, JAOS). The famous philosopher al-Kindī was his descendant; see Ibn al-Qiftī, Ta'rīkh al-hukamā', pp. 366; Ibn al-Nadīm, Fihrist (Cairo, A.H. 1347), p. 357.

² Ed. Nājī Hasan (Beirut, 1408/1988), pp. 136f. The reader of this book should be warned, though, that the edition contains hundreds of errors. (I have also consulted Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, pp. 425f.) Much poorer than the Nasab Ma'add is the recent "edition" of a genealogical book by Ahmad b. Muhammad b. Ibrāhīm al-Ash'arī al-Qurtubī entitled al-Ta'rīj fi l-ansāb wa-l-tanwih li-dhawi l-ahsāb, prepared by Dr Sa'd 'Abd al-Maqsūd Zalām, 'amīd kulliyyati l-lughati l-'arabiyya in al-Azhar (Cairo, 1407/1986). The number of errors renders this edition unusable, which is lamentable because the book includes evidence not found elsewhere.

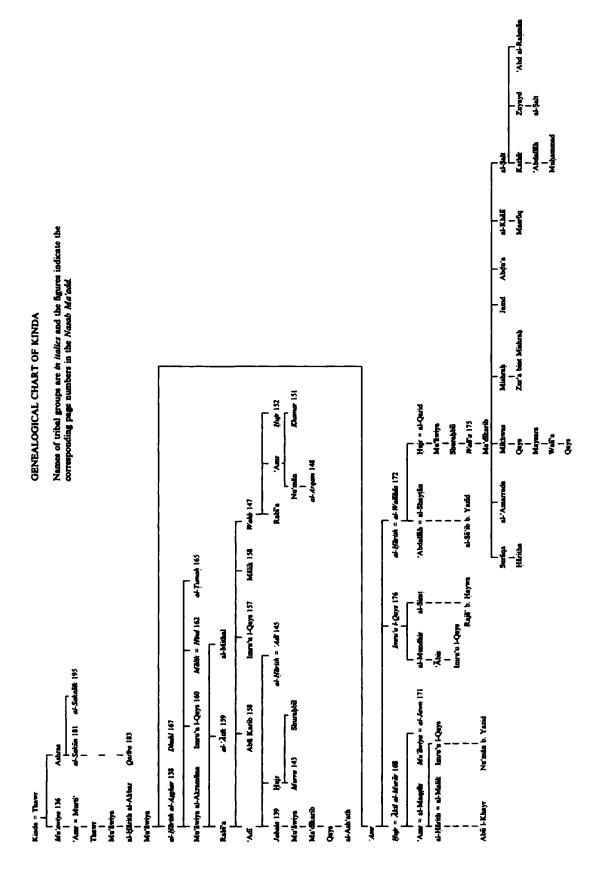
history can be carried out. At the present stage of our knowledge working with Arabic texts means establishing correct names (e.g. the Khamar Kindite clan is not to be called Himyar or any of the other variants found such as J. M. R. Khumr, Humr or Ahmaz), discovering lacunae and so on.



I. Kinda on the eve of Islam (a) The 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya and al-Ḥārith al-Aşghar b. Mu'āwiya

The Kinda were divided into three branches (see genealogical chart) made up of the Mu'āwiya and the brother-related Sakūn and Sakāsik. This study is mainly concerned with the Mu'āwiya who, prior to Islam, played a far more important role compared to the other two Kinda branches, Ash'ath in turn originated, from a subdivision of the Mu'āwiya branch called al-Hārith (al-Aṣghar) b. Mu'āwiya (the latter being a different Mu'āwiya; see the chart). A second subdivision of the Mu'āwiya branch was the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya. The fundamental division of Kinda into the Banū 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya and the Banū al-Hārith (al-Aṣghar) b. Mu'āwiya clearly emerges in the reports about the *ridda.*³ Not surprisingly, the existence of two separate subdivisions is also reflected in the geographical evidence (see map). Thus in a passage on the fortresses of Hadramawt we find that al-Nujayr belonged to the Banū Ma'dīkarib (Ma'dīkarib being presumably Ash'ath's grandfather),

⁸ Tabarī, iii, pp. 334f. [i, pp. 2004f.].



XV

while Tarīm was the "site of the kings of Banū 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya"; one of these kings, Abū l-Khayr b. 'Amr, a descendant of Hujr Ākil al-Murār, is specifically mentioned.⁴

(b) Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda supersede Banū Hujr Ākil al-Murār

The Banū Hujr Åkil al-Murār were Kinda's royal family during the heyday of Kindite power in Arabia which lasted for almost a century, beginning sometime in the second half of the fifth century,⁵ while the Banū Walt'a of the Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda obtained the ascendancy on the eve of Islam. The shift in power occurred after Kinda's return to Hadramawt which Olinder, dating it to the end of the sixth century, plausibly links with the Persian conquest of South Arabia. He adds:

The Kindites in Hağar and al-Mušakkar must absolutely have been dependent on the Persians, who during the second half of the sixth century developed a strong disposition for political expansion exactly on the Persian bay. And when this expansion was extended to South Arabia, the Kindites, after their adversities in Nağd and al-Yamāma, ought to have greeted with delight the possibility of returning as the confederates of the Persians to their old country and of entering into their old connections with their tribesmen in this neighbourhood.⁶

The Kinda were led back from northern Arabia to Hadramawt by a member of the Banū Hujr Âkil al-Murār.⁷ In Hadramawt, however, the Banū Hujr Âkil al-Murār's supremacy was challenged by their brothers, the Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda, who gained control before the advent of Islam, possibly with the tacit agreement of the Persian court. Precious evidence concerning this matter is linked with the above-mentioned descendant of Hujr Âkil al-Murār, namely Abū l-Khayr b. 'Amr. He came to Khusro as an envoy to ask for military assistance against the Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda but was poisoned by the Persians (probably during his journey).⁸ His deputation, which must have been sent after Kinda's

⁴ Hamdānī, Iklīl, viii, pp. 157f. (the title of this section is husun Hadramawt wa-mahāfiduhā; cf. Beeston et al., Sabaic Dictionary, s.v. mhfd ("tower"); Biella, Dictionary of Old South Arabic, s.v. ("tower, fortification"). Another locality linked with this Abū l-Khayr is Yatrib; Hamdānī, Iklīl, ii, p. 46 (Yatrib bi-l-tā' madīna bi-Hadramawt nazalathā Kinda kāna bihā Abū l-Khayr b. 'Amr al-Kindī wa-Tarīm (sic); cf. Yāqūt, s.v. Yatrib. See also below, the end of n. 8. ⁸ El^a, s.v. Kinda (I. Shahīd), p. 118.

⁴ Olinder, "Ål al-Ğaun of the family of Åkil al-Murār", pp. 228f.

⁸ Hamdānī, Iklīl, viii, pp. 157f. (wa-Tarīm mawdi'u l-mulūk min Banī 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya minhum Abū l-Khayr b. 'Amr l-wāfid 'alā kisrā li-yastamidda minhu 'alā banī l-Hārith b. 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya; Bakrī, Mu'jam ma 'sta'jama, ed. Muştafā l-Saqqā (Cairo, 1364/1945-1371/1951), s.v. Tarīm (...yastamidduhu 'alā qawmihi); Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 170 (...yastajīshuhu 'alā Banī Mu'āwiya; read: ...'alā Banī al-Hārith b. 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya); cf. D. H. Müller, Die Burgen und Schlösser Südarabiens (Wien, 1879), p. 90 (...yastamiddu minhu 'alā 'bni l-Hārith b. Mu'āwiya). See a German translation op. cit., p. 44; see an English translation in N. A. Fāris, The Antiquities of South Arabia (Princeton, 1938), p. 58. Incidentally, Fāris refers to Țabarī, iii, pp. 334-5 [i, pp. 2004-6] "for the struggle

return to Hadramawt and the conquest of the Yemen by a Persian expedition force, reflects the involvement of the Persian court in Kinda's internal politics.

The Banū Walī'a, presumably Kinda's leading family on the eve of Islam and during the *ridda*, were the descendants of Hujr al-Qarid b. Al-Hārith al-Wallāda.⁹ The sources mention four Walī'a kings: Mikhwas, Mishraḥ, Abḍu'a and Jamd. Reportedly they had visited the Prophet in Medina and then apostatized and were killed. The four had a sister, al-'Amarrada,¹⁰ and we also know of a nephew of the kings called Hāritha b. Surāqa (i.e. the kings also had a brother called Surāqa).

Surāqa is the protagonist of an often-quoted incident during the *ridda* involving a young she-camel of the Banū 'Amr taken by the Islamic governor. Only one source, a modern history of Hadramawt (probably on the basis of a local Hadramite tradition) has a pedigree of Hāritha which is detailed enough to link him to the Banū Walī'a (see chart): Hāritha b. Surāqa b. Ma'dīkarib b. Walī'a b. Sharāhīl b. Mu'āwiya.¹¹

These were no longer the days of Kindite greatness in northern and eastern Arabia: the kingship of the Banū Walt'a meant the possession of a Wädī including all that was in it (wa-innamā summū mulūkan liannahu kāna li-kulli wāḥid minhum wādin yamlikuhu bimā fihi).¹⁸

Caskel calls this envoy Abū l-Gabr (ii, s.v.; i, no. 238: Abū l-Gabr b. 'Amr b. Yazīd b. Shurahbū b. al-Hārith b. 'Amr al-Maqsūr b. Hugr Ākil al-Murār). Caskel plausibly assumes that the Khusro in question was Khusro I (Anūshirwān, 531-79). He also assumes that the Kindite envoy asked for help against the Banū Mu'āwiya (al-Jawn), but the latter assumption is wrong. As we have just seen, according to the *Ikli*1, Abū l-Khayr's enemies were the Banū al-Hārith (al-Wallāda) b. 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya.

While the text just quoted implies that Abū l-Khayr lived in Tarīm, elsewhere he is specifically said to have lived in Yatrib; Hamdānī, Şifa, p. 173 [ed. Müller, i, p. 87:13]: wa-Yatrib madīna bi-Hadramawt nazalathā Kinda wakāna bihā Abū l-Khayr b. 'Amr.

⁹ Al-garid means "in their language": "the generous". His father was nick-named al-Walläda because he had many children (li-kathrati wuldihi); Ibn Sa'd, v, p. 13.

¹⁰ But according to Hamdānī, *Iklī*, viii, p. 211, Abdu'a was the sister of Jamd, Mishrah and Mihwas(!). Hamza, *Ta'rīkh*, p. 101, records "the four kings and their sister Abdu'a", placing them at the time of Hurmuz b. Shāpūr (Hurmuz I, 272-3!). A dubious report specifies that there were seven kings: the above four, in addition to Ash'ath, Wadī'a and Walī'a; Ibn Hubaysh, i, p. 134. Caskel, ii, s.v. Mišrah b. Ma'dīkarib vocalizes: Gamad(!) and Ibn Durayd, *Ishtiqāq*, 367, does the same; but see al-Sam'ānī, *al-Ansāb*, ed. 'Abdallāh 'Umar al-Bārūdī (Beirut, 1408/1988), s.v. al-Jamdī, ii, p. 86, Cf. Ibn Hajar, *Işāba*, i, 553, s.v. Jamd al-Kindī. On Mishrah's daughter Zur'a see Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda", n. 63.

¹¹ 'Alawi, *Ta'rikh Hadramawi*, i, p. 151. Cf. Ibn Hubaysh, i, p. 133 (Häritha b. Suräqa b. Ma'dīkarib); Ţabarī, iii, p. 332 [i, p. 2002] (Abū al-Sumayt Häritha b. Suräqa b. Ma'dīkarib). In 'Askarī, *Awā'il*, p. 309, this man is called Masrūq b. Ma'dīkarib (which may represent another, independent, version concerning his identity). Another nephew of the kings called Masrūq b. al-Khālī (cf. Caskel, i, no. 239 and ii, s.v. al-Halī b. Ma'dīkarib) was killed ''on the day of Nujayr''; *Nasab Ma'add*, i, p. 177. Note that Ibn al-Kalbī mentions a poet called Abū Hunayy Masrūq b. Ma'dīkarib among the descendants of 'Abdallāh/al-Shaytān b. al-Hārith al-Wallāda b. 'Amr, ascribing to him a typically defiant verse in connection with the *ridda*; *Nasab Ma'add*, i, p. 173. But being a descendant of 'Abdallāh/al-Shaytān, he could not have been of the Banū Walī'a (see chart).

¹³ Ibn Sa'd, v, p.13. We have evidence of palm-trees belonging to the Banū Walī'a: it is reported that the Kindite Yazīd b. Farwa b. Zurāra b. al-Arqam (see the Banū al-Arqam in the chart) granted protection to Khālid b. al-Walī'd when he cut the palm-trees of the Banū Walī'a (ajāra Khālid b. al-Walī'd yawma qaţa'a nakhla Banī Walī'a); Nasab Ma'add, i, 149. Cf. perhaps Tabarī, iii, p. 336 [i, p. 2007] (Khālid b. fulān [= so-and-so] al-Makhzūmī takes part in a raid to the Sāhil of Hadramawt ordered by 'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl [of the Makhzūm]); Abū I-Hasan al-Khāzrajī, al-Kijāya wa-l-i'lām fiman waliya l-Yaman wa-sakanahā min mulūk al-islām, partial edition by Rādī Daghfūs, Les cahiers de Tunisie, XXVII (1979), (entitled: al-Yaman fi'ahdi l-wulāt), p. 37 (Khālid b. al-Walīd is listed among the governors sent by the Prophet to the Yemen), pp. 38, 44f. The above-mentioned Wādīs are presumably identical with the mahājir (sing. mahjar) which are associated elsewhere with the tribal leaders of Kinda. Thus Wādī al-Zurqān ([pseudo-]Wāqidī, *Ridda*, p. 110; the text is garbled) is no doubt identical with

between the ban0-'Amr and the ban0-al-Härith". But the text in Tabari, which relates to the ridda, is irrelevant here.

II. Notes on the ridda of Kinda

(a) The "assigned portion" (tu'ma) promised by the Prophet to the Banū Walī'a

Islamic historiography about the *ridda* has no grey colours: one can always tell the "good" from the "bad". It is surprising therefore to find claims of misconduct directed not against the rebels but against the Islamic state itself and its governor in Hadramawt. The latter were usually protected through the process of sifting, selecting and censoring the huge amount of source material on the *ridda*, which reduced it to the scanty and incomplete reports which we now have. In the case discussed below this "safety net" failed and a report which ran contrary to the dominant tone survived.

The matter at issue was that a μ 'ma (an "assigned portion") from the taxes of Hadramawt promised by Muhammad to the Banū Wall'a was later denied them by the governor of Hadramawt. The less problematic part of the story, namely the part concerning the Prophet's promise, was included in the report about Kinda's deputation to Muhammad found in Ibn Hubaysh's *Ghazawāt*, where it is quoted from Wāqidī, from 'Abdallāh b. Kathīr, from 'Abdallāh b. Abī Bakr b. [Muḥammad b. 'Amr b.] Hazm al-Anṣārī (d. 130/747 or 135/752).¹³

When the deputation of Kinda came intending to embrace Islam, Muhammad granted the Banü Walt'a of Kinda a μ 'ma from the fruit (*thimār*) of Hadramawt [i.e. presumably from taxes levied in kind]. The Prophet also made it incumbent upon the Ahl Hadramawt to carry it to them and wrote for the Banü Walt'a a letter to this effect.¹⁴

It is also reported that Muḥammad appointed Ziyād b. Labīd al-Bayādī al-Anṣārī as the governor of Ḥadramawt in compliance with the Kindites' request that he put at their head "one of them" (an yab'atha 'glayhim rajulan minhum). Ziyād certainly was not of Kinda; however, being of the Azd, he was a "southern" Arab.

The fact that 'Abdallāh b. Abī Bakr's report about the *ridda* of Kinda begins with the visit of their deputation and the *µ*'*ma* granted to them by the Prophet clearly indicates that this Anṣārī informant sought to provide some broader historical context. However, at this point his report is truncated, before we can find out exactly how the *µ*'*ma* is related to the

Mahjar al-Zurqān (Tabarī, iii, p. 335 [i, p. 2006]). Cf. Yāqūt, s.v. Zurqān: mahjar al-Zurqān, wa-l-mahjar ka-lnāhiya li-l-qawm. Mahjar/mahjir is "The tract surrounding a town or village"; the mahājir of the kings (aqyāl) of the Yemen were "places of pasturage, whereof each of them had one, in which no other person pastured his beasts"; Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v. However, as owners of mahājir we find not only the kings of Walī'a but also two leaders of the Hārith b. Mu'āwiya subdivision: thumma inna Banī 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya...kharajū ilā l-mahājir, ilā aḥmā' ḥamawhā ("... to places of pasturage declared as ḥimās or 'places of pasture prohibited to the people other than their owner"). This is followed by the names of the four kings and their sister al-'Amarrada, each having a mahjar of his/her own, who were the leaders of the Banū 'Amr: wa-kānat Banū 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya 'alā hā'ulā'i l-ru'asā'. The Hārith b. Mu'āwiya had their own mahājir: wa-nazalat Banū 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya mahājirahā; two leaders of the Hārith are specifically recorded: fa-nazala l-Ash'ath b. Qays mahjaran wa-l-Simī b. al-Aswad Mahjaran; Tabarī, iii, p. 334 [i, p. 2004]. Cf. Beeston et al., Sabaic Dictionary, s.v. mhgr ("land reserved for s.o.'s exclusive use"); Biella, Dictionary of Old South Arabic: Sabaean Dialect, s.v. ("enclosed [pasture] land").

¹³ See on him F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, i (Leiden, 1967), p. 284; J. Horovitz, "The earliest biographies of the Prophet and their authors", *Islamic Culture*, 11 (1928), pp. 22f. As to 'Abdallah b. Kathīr, his son Muhammad was the governor of Medina during the caliphate of al-Mahdī; see below, n. 101.

¹⁴ Ibn Hubaysh, i, p. 131 (at'ama rasûlu 'llâhi (s) Banî Walt'a min Kinda şu'ma min thimār Hadramawt wa-ja'ala 'alâ ahl Hadramawt naglahâ ilayhim). ridda. What Ibn Hubaysh excluded we can learn from another source, a book on $aw\bar{a}'il$ preserving a passage from Madā'inī:¹⁸

... the deputation of Kinda which included the Banū Walta and Ash'ath came to him [i.e. to the Prophet]. The Prophet granted the Banū Walta a *ju'ma* from the *sadaqāt* [this term replaces here the term *thimār*] of Hadramawt. The Prophet appointed as the governor of Hadramawt Ziyād b. Labīd who made it [viz. the *ju'ma*] regular for them [i.e. in principle]. [But] then something [i.e. an emergency] happened which called for their relinquishment of it for one year. They refused, and Ziyād declined giving it to them, so they both disagreed and the Banū Walta apostatized (*fa-aj'ama rasūlu 'llāhi Banī Walta ju'ma min sadaqāt Hadramawt wa-'sta'mala 'alā Hadramawi Ziyād b. Labīd al-Bayādī wa-ajrāhā lahum, thumma ḥadatha amr awjaba an yatajāfaw 'anhā sanatahum, fa-abaw wa-abā Ziyād an yu'țiyahum iyyāhā, wa-'khtalafū fa-'rtaddat Banū Walt'a).¹⁶*

This rare report about holding back the μ 'ma untypically puts some of the blame for the Banū Walī'a rebellion on the governor of Hadramawt. By so doing it provides some "mitigating circumstances" for the rebels. (Many Islamic historians must have considered this report inconvenient or we would have found it in other sources as well.) Could holding back the μ 'ma be an apologetic Kindite invention? Presumably not: as the wording suggests, the source is not hostile to the governor, whose conduct it defends. He did not abolish the μ 'ma high-handedly and in principle left the rights of the Kindites intact. It was an emergency measure which called for the temporary relinquishment of the allowance. His conduct is justified, while the Kindites are depicted as arrogant.¹⁷

It can be said that we owe the survival of this rare report to the fact that Islamic historical tradition is so diverse.

(b) The righteous Kindite Imru'u l-Qays b. 'Abis

This section deals with a recurrent theme in the historiography about the *ridda*, namely the role (or rather the alleged role) of "the righteous, non-rebelling man".¹⁸

Hujr Åkil al-Murār and al-Hārith al-Wallāda, the respective eponymous fathers of the two leading families of Kinda before Islam, had a brother called Imru'u l-Qays, one of whose descendants, the Prophet's Companion Imru'u l-Qays b. 'Åbis, concerns us here (see chart). During the ridda he held steadfastly to Islam and was severe with those who apostatized (wa-kāna shadīdan 'alā mani 'rtadda). Because of his role in the ridda he is described as al-rajul al-sāliḥ, "the righteous man". Reportedly he even killed his paternal

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¹⁸ Possibly taken from Madã'inī's Kitāb al-ridda, recorded in Ibn al-Nadīm, Fihrist (Cairo, A.H. 1347), p. 149.
¹⁹ Askarī, Awā'il, p. 309 (under the title awwal man mashati l-rijāl ma'ahu wa-huwa rākib al-Ash'ath b. Qays).
All this, as we are told later in the same report, took place during the lifetime of Muhammad. See also Balādhurī, Futûh, p. 141 (irtadda Banû Wali'a qabla wafāti l-mabī [5]).

¹⁷ Elsewhere the "safety net" provided for the conduct of the Islamic state and its governor in Hadramawt is thicker. Cf. Sayf b. 'Umar's report in Tabari, iii, p. 331 [i, p. 2000]. Also Ibn Abi I-Hadid, i, p. 97 (Ziyid b. Labid gave the Banü Wali'a the *u*'ma *[fa-dafa'ahā Ziyād ilayhim*], but they demanded that Ziyid transport it to their land on his camels because they had no camels of their own).

¹⁸ See also Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda", Appendix, n. 97.

uncle.¹⁹ The ideological background of this slaying is borne out by the following short conversation between the uncle and Imru'u l-Qays:

The uncle (when he saw the sword in his nephew's hand and realized that he was about to be slaughtered]: "Are you going to kill your uncle?"

Imru'u l-Qays (answering with an incontrovertible truth and stabbing him at the same time): "You are my uncle, and Allah is my God".³⁰

For the circumstances (or alleged circumstances) of this purported dialogue we turn to another source: this episode occurred when the Kindite rebels were being taken out of the Nujayr fortress to be executed. "Imru'u l-Qays", it is explicitly stated, "took part in the siege".²¹ The dialogue between Imru'u l-Qays and his uncle reflects tension between old and new loyalties. By executing a close relative the new convert is initiated into the new faith, proving that his new loyalty is stronger than the old one.²²

In another typical ridda scene the "good" (Imru'u l-Qays) meets the "bad" (Ash'ath) and admonishes him. The latter, laughing, haughtily dismisses the cogent arguments of the former and offers to grant Ziyād the governor protection (a-wa-lā yarḍā Ziyād an nujīrahu [misprinted an yukhbirahu] fa-yakūna bayna azhurinā?). This story teaches not only that treachery and haughtiness were punishable but also that the Kinda had several righteous people who remained loyal to Islam.²³ One would expect the establishment of the latter point to be among the most important goals of apologetic tribal tradition concerning the ridda.

¹⁹ On Imru'u I-Qays see al-Amidī, al-Mu'talif wa-l-mukhtalif, ed. 'Abd al-Sattār Aḥmad Farrāj (Cairo, 1381/19961), p. 5 (read wa-kāna lahu ghanā' fi l-ridda instead of ... 'anā' ...). Āmidī (p. 6) refers to akhbār on Imru'u -Qays in the chapter about Kinda's poets in his book, now lost, Kitāb al-shu'arā' al-mashhūrīna; cf. C. Brockelmann, Geschichte der arabischen Literatur, I. Supplementband (Leiden, 1937), p. 172. Rajä' b. Haywa, whom 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'AzIz owed his nomination as caliph, was also said to have been a descendant of this Imru'u l-Qays. It is of course no accident that Rajā' transmitted a Hadīth dealing with Imru'u l-Qays b. 'Åbis; Ibn Hajar, Isāba, i, p. 112. Others said that Rajā' was a mawlā or client of Kinda; see C. E. Bosworth, "Rajā' ibn Haywa al-Kindt and the Umayyad caliphs", Islamic Quarterly, XVI (1972), p. 37; reprinted in C. E. Bosworth, Medieval Arabic Culture and Administration (London, 1982), iii; Khalifa b. Khayyät, Kitäb al-jabagät, ed. Akram Diys' al-'Umarf (Riysd, 1402/1982; reprint of the 1387/1967 edition), p. 310. The rarity of the statement that Rajā' was a mawlā paradoxically enhances its reliability (one assumes that it was effectively suppressed elsewhere). In addition, in matters of descent one is inclined to opt for the less favourable possibility. However, in this specific case there is some difficulty: not only do we have a full pedigree of Rajā', showing him to be a full-fledged member of Kinda, but it is also claimed that his grandfather (whose name is disputed) was a Companion of the Prophet; see e.g. Muhammad b. Ahmad al-Dhahabī, Siyar a'lām al-nubalā', iv, ed. Shu'ayb al-Arnāwūț and Ma'mūn al-Şāghirjī (Beirut, 1401/1981), p. 557; Ibn 'Asākir, TMD, Mukht., viii, p. 312; Abū l-Hajjāj Yūsuf al-Mizzī, Tahdhīb al-kamāl fi asmā' al-rijāl, ed. Bashshār 'Awwād Ma'rūf (Beirut, 1405/1985f.), ix, 151. While the claim for Companion status may be dubious, it presumably indicates the Arab origin of this family. Beside the genealogical link, Imru'u l-Qays b. 'Abis and Rajā' b. Haywa (who lived two generations after him) had something else in common: both lived in Baysan (in the latter's case, only until his move to Filastin); see e.g. Ibn 'Asākir, TMD, Mukht., v, p. 41; viii, p. 312. ("Maysān" in Bosworth, loc. cit. is erroneous, as has already been pointed out by M. Gil, A History of Palestine, 634-1099, translated by Ethel Broido [Cambridge, 1992], p. 121n.) ²⁰ Ibn Hazm, Ansab, pp. 428f.

¹¹ Ibn Hajar, Isāba, i, p. 112, from Marzubānī (kāna mimman hadara hisāra hisni l-Nujayr fa-lammā ukhrija lmurtaddūna li-yuqtalū wathaba 'alā 'ammihi li-yaqtulahu etc.).

²² Note that in the battle of Yarmūk this Imru'u l-Qays (and not a member of the two more prestigious families, Hujr Äkil al-Murār and al-Hārith al-Wallāda) was in command of a squadron of cavalry (kurdūs); Ibn Hajar, Isāba, i, p. 112, from Sayf b. 'Umar's Futūh.

²³ Ibn A'tham, Futüh, i, p. 47 (wa-'ftataga l-gawmu farigayni etc.).

The ridda of Kinda

A statement that many Kindites "did not apostatize" is equivalent to one that "they cooperated militarily with the Islamic state against their fellow Kindites" (see below). However, the impression that might be created by the above story, namely that Imru'u l-Qays's *clan* was among the loyal, appears deceptive. First, if indeed he was among the besiegers of Nujayr while his paternal uncle was one of the besieged, then we have a clue that even his own family did not support him. Second, a woman of Imru'u l-Qays b. 'Ābis's clan (i.e. the Imru'u l-Qays b. 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya) was taken captive at Nujayr.²⁴

(c) The clans who fought with the forces of the Islamic State

All the Banū Qatīra, a subdivision of the Sakūn, "stood steadfastly" and did not apostatize. In other words, they fought against the Kindite rebels and participated in the siege of Nujayr.²⁶

Significantly, when, on the eve of the *ridda*, Ziyād b. Labīd arrived to levy the taxes of the Banū 'Amr, he was accompanied by young men (i.e. tribal troops) of the Hadramawt and the Sakūn.²⁶ Before the surprise attack on the Banū 'Amr (below, Section II (e)), the rebels were joined by fellow Kindites of the Sakāsik and Sakūn branches.²⁷ It was only *after* the surprise attack that the Sakāsik and Sakūn joined the government's forces led by Ziyād b. Labīd because they "guarded themselves exceedingly" ('*ttaqaw 'alā anfusihim*). In Ziyād's army there were reportedly 4,000 Muhājirūn and Anṣār (an unrealistic figure) and 500 Sakāsik and Sakūn.²⁸ Here it should be observed that there is a certain element of inaccuracy in the reference to the Sakūn and Sakāsik as if they formed unified, homogeneous, bodies adopting common policies. In fact these were large tribal groups loosely connected through their common descent (or a notion thereof) and dispersed over large territories. In other words, in different reports "Sakūn" and "Sakāsik" may well mean different combinations of tribal groups belonging to these two branches of Kinda.

The pattern of playing off one branch of Kinda against the other is self-evident. In employing this strategy the Islamic state could always rely on old rivalries.²⁹

²⁴ She was Māwiyya bint Qays b. Ma'dīkarib b. Abī I-Kaysam b. al-Sim; b. Imri'i I-Qays b. 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya; Ibn Sa'd, iii, p. 137; v, p. 168 (read Māwiyya instead of Māriya). Note that the combination "al-Sim; b. Imri'i I-Qays" appears also in Rajā' b. Haywa's pedigree; Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, p. 429; see chart.

²³ In some sources (Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 183, 184; Ibn Durayd, Ishtiqāq, pp. 369, 371; Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, p. 429) the clan's name is vocalized: Qutayra. See a most explicit statement on the role of the Qatīra in Abū I-Baqā', Monāgib Mazyadiyya, p. 77 (Abū Bakr sent against the rebellious kings of Kinda al-Muhājir b. Abī Umayya and Ziyād b. Labīd, wa-ma'ahumā Banū Qatīra, wa-hum qawm min Kinda aqāmū 'alā I-islām fa-lam yattaddā). See also Balādhurī, Funāh, p. 140 (all the Kinda apostatized except the Sakūn); Ibn Hubaysh, i, p. 136 (wa-kānat Qatīra min Kinda qad thabatat 'alā I-islām lam yarji' minhā rajul wāḥid). On the Banū Qatīra's role see also Ibn Hubaysh, i, p. 136 (one of them carried a fictitious letter from Abū Bakr, in fact written by Ziyād b. Labīd), p. 138 (eight men of the Qatīra escorted the captives from Nujayr to Medina), p. 141 (Qatīra's share in the spoils of Nujayr). Also Tabarī, iii, p. 336 [i, p. 2007] (one of the besieged at Nujayr curses the besieging Banū Qatīra and their commander who was of the Banū al-Mughīra, viz. 'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl who was of Makhzūm's Banū al-Mughīra).

³⁶ Jabarī, iii, pp. 332 [i, pp. 2002f.]; see also p. 333 [p. 2003] (wa-ghadibat al-Sakūn li-Ziyād wa-ghadibat lahu Hadramawt). Incidentally, this shows that while part of the Hadramawt tribe was on the rebels' side (Balādhurī, Futūh, p. 143: wa-kānat Hadramawt atat Kinda munjidatan lahā), another part fought with the forces of the Islamic state.
³⁷ Jabarī, iii, p. 334 [i, p. 2005].

²⁹ For fighting in the Jähiliyya between the Sakūn and Mu'āwiya branches of Kinda (the former were led by a man of the Qatira) see Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 184.

(d) Kindite clans in the battles preceding the siege of Nujayr

In order to write a narrative history of Kinda's ridda it will be essential to employ local, hitherto unpublished, historiographical treatises from Hadramawt which undoubtedly include evidence left out of mainstream Islamic historiography. This can be demonstrated by details, unknown in the major works, found in a history of Hadramawt written in modern times by the Hadramite historian al-YIfi'i.²⁰ For example, al-YIfi'I (who unfortunately provides no references whatsoever) knows that the sister of the four kings of Banū Walf'a, al-'Amarrada,³¹ was more influential than her four brothers. He also says that these five members of the Wall'a family, whose power was unlimited, exchanged letters with the kings of the Yemen and Byzantium to whom they sent precious gifts, the best of which were horses. The five had wineries in the capital city of their kingdom, Dammün³² in the middle part of Hadramawt.³³

30 Şalāh 'Abd al-Qādir al-Bakrī al-Yāfi'ī, Ta'rīkh Hadramaws al-siyāsi, I (Cairo, A.H. 1354), pp. 71f. ⁸¹ Tabari, iii, p. 334 [i, p. 2004].

³⁸ Cf. Ibn Khaldūn, Kitāb al-'ibar (Beirut, 1956f.), ii, 576: Kinda...wa-madīnat mulkihim Dammūn. According to Hamdani, Sife, p. 170 [ed. D. H. Müller, p. 86:5], Dammun was inhabited by the offspring of al-Härith al-Malik b. 'Amr al-Maqsūr b. Hujr Ākil al-Murār (wa-sākin Dammūn banū al-Hārith ...). Prof. Griaznevitch wrote to me: "In the medieval Arabic historical and geographical literature this toponym became famous because it was mentioned in two verses of Imru'u l-Qays (d. in the first half of the VIth century). According to the context of the verses mentioned above, this was the settlement in Hadramawt in which the poet was living for some time. One of the informants of al-HamdanI (Xth century) told him that Dammun...is one of the two settlements (hajarāni) which are situated on the opposite sides (north and south)... of the huge rock situated in the middle of Widt Daw'an. The settlement on the south side of the rock is said to be named Khawdun or Khaydun (probably this is the modern village Munayzara), the one on the north side is Dammün. Here I had the possibility to investigate the poorly preserved ruins of ancient settlement which could be a castle of a medium size. The modern big settlement al-Hajarayn ('two towns') is situated on the western slope of the rock Some 20-25 km from the modern al-Hajarayn in Widt 'Amd the ruins of the city of 'Andal are situated. It is the place which is mentioned in one of the verses of Imru'u I-Qays as the aim of several raids in which the poet took part. This could confirm the location of Dammuun - a place in western Hadramawt where the legendary poet was living The polemic about the true location of Dammun is still going on mainly among the local historians/local patriots. It is connected with the fact that in Hadramawt there is another place with the same name, the northwestern suburb of Tarim ... Al-Hamdani also indicates the existence of another Dammun in central Hadramawt, in the region situated east of the modern Katn-Shibām up to Tarīm and its environs and called al-Sarir in antiquity"

²³ Pp. 74f. YafiTs account of the ridda is problematic, though: it is hard to distinguish between his own analysis and his evidence. YIRT is obscure concerning the identity of the aforementioned HIRitha b. SurIqa (see above, p. 337): while his description of the events suggests (p. 76) that Häritha b. Suraqa b. Ma'dikarib b. al-Härith (read: b. Wall'a) was not of the Wall'a, we later find (p. 77) that the Banü Wall'a joined him and fought under his command. Two of YafiTs comments are of special interest. First, a few place-names are incorporated into the description of the event : at the first stages of the ridda, Ziyad, rather than resorting to quiet diplomacy, remained silent ('Itazama I-sukun wa-I-sami) and contented himself with the bay'a of the inhabitants of Shibām, al-Ghurfa, Saywün, Tarīm, Maryama and Dammün (p. 76). Second, there is an important comment about the lack of solidarity between Kinda's different divisions. YIn'I (pp. 78f.) says that contrary to what one could expect, the kings of Kinda in western Hadramawt, in Daw'an, did not gather their forces in order to seek revenge from Ziyad and reinstate in power their brothers, the kings of the East, although Ash'ath had sent his envoys to them shortly before the war. They provided no assistance to Ash'ath, were involved in no hostilities against Ziyäd and his men and did not obstruct al-Muhājir b. Abī Umayya's passage through their territory at al-Kast (see map) on his way from the Yemen and back. Had they fought against him, Yafi'I adds, they would have annihilated his army. For the bay's given to Ziyad by the people of Tarim see also 'Alawi, Ta'rikh Hadramawi, i, p. 151, citing the following local historical work: Muhammad b. 'Abdalläh b. Sulaymän al-Khatib, Bard al-na'im fi manäqib khujabā' Tarīm. Cf. on this book R. B. Serjeant, "Materials for South Arabian history: notes on new MSS from Hadramawt", BSOAS, XIII (1949-51), p. 305 (under the title Burd [!] al-na'im ft nasab al-Ansar khujaba' Tarim).

In this section an attempt is made to identify the tribal groups of Kinda which were involved in the battles preceding the siege of Nujayr.³⁴ (The genealogical chart is particularly useful here.)

Between the surprise attack on the Banü 'Amr b. Mu'äwiya (see below) and the siege of Nujayr there were a few small skirmishes and one major battle, which took place in Wādī Zurgān near Tarīm. Ziyād b. Labīd, whose forces were far superior to those of any one Kinda clan, attacked and destroyed one after the other the Banū Hind, Banū al-'Ātik, Banū Hujr and Banū Khamar. In the first three cases it is explicitly reported that these were all surprise attacks. The Hujr were singled out as "the most excellent warriors of Kinda and their best horsemen" (wa-hum yawma'idhin jamarāt Kinda wa-fursānuhum). Male captives were only mentioned in connection with the Banū Hujr.35

Following these attacks Ash'ath gathered around him an army of "his cousins" the Banū Murra, Banū 'Adī and Banū Jabala (his own clan). He defeated the Muslims near Tarīm, won back the booty and captives and besieged Tarīm, where the Muslims took refuge. When reinforcements led by al-Muhājir b. Abī Umayya arrived, Ash'ath temporarily lifted the siege on Tarīm but renewed it later with the reinforcements inside the town's walls. On Ash'ath's side were the Banü al-Argam under Jabr b. Qash'am, Banü Hujr under Abū Qurra, Banū Khamar under Abū Shamir, and Banū Hind under al-JafshTsh b. 'Amr.³⁶ A reported conciliatory move by the caliph Abū Bakr, who suggested replacing Ziyad with a governor acceptable to the Kindites, was rejected by Ash'ath, and when a young Kindite killed Ziyad's messenger, Ash'ath praised him. The murder alienated Abū Qurra, Abū Shamir and Jabr b. Qash'am, who withdrew with their clans. However, even with reduced troop numbers Ash'ath managed to defeat the Muslim forces of the Muhājirūn and Ansār, who were joined by the Sakāsik and Sakūn, in Wādī Zurgan.37

³⁴ On the siege see also Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda", Section II. Prof. Griaznevitch informed me (written communication) that according to the historical sources, al-Nujayr was east of Tarim. He continued : "The field research organized by the Soviet-Yemeni Joint Expedition in 30.4 and 4.5 1983 demonstrated that previous locations were wrong and gave the possibility to locate the Nujayr castle at the place of the ancient site al-Hajar (' town'). It is situated close to the left side of Wad Masila on the high rocky hill 28 km east of Tarim. It is really possible that this site is connected also with the castle 'Urr Kulayb ('r klybm) captured and destroyed by Sabaic troops at the beginning of the IVth century Field inspection revealed the traces of buildings. Among them were found traces of walls and gates built on the remnants of the ancient structures and of the materials of the ancient edifices. These facts are in conformity with the sources which report that the Kindites 'restored and strengthened' here the ruins of the old castle and constructed and fortified here the new castle called al-Nujayr".

⁸⁶ [Pseudo-]W3qidī, Ridda, pp. 105f; Ibn A'tham, Funih, i, pp. 53f. (al-'Ātik is misprinted as al-'Āqil; Khamar is misprinted as Himyar). Muhammad Hamīdullāh, *Majmā^sat al-wathā ig al-siyāsiyya^ā* (Beirut, 1405/1985), p. 353, who quotes the MS of [pseudo-]WIqidI's Ridda, has al- Atik (correctly), but J.M.R. instead of Khamar. The term jamarat denotes their capability to defend themselves without aid from others (a jamra is "a body of men that congregate by themselves, because of their strength and their great valour"; Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v.). [Pseudo-]Waqidt's Ridda is in fact a fragment of Ibn A'tham's Futuh; M. Muranyi, "Ein neuer Bericht über die Wahl des ersten Kalifen Abū Bakr", Arabica, XXV (1978), pp. 233ff.

³⁶ [Pseudo-]WIchdI, Ridda, p. 107; Ibn A'tham, Futuh, i, p. 54f. (in Ibn A'tham, Himyar is printed instead of

Khamar; al-Jafshish is misprinted as al-Khanfashish and al-Khanfasis, respectively). ³⁷ Ibn A'tham, Futüh, i, pp. 55f. The passage on Zurgān (p. 57) is garbled and [pseudo-]Wāqidī, Ridda, p. 110, should be consulted. Prof. Griaznevitch (written communication) suggests, on the basis of the ridda accounts, to locate Mahjar al-Zurgan (cf. above, n. 12) between Tarim and Nujayr. According to him it is now impossible to locate it more accurately.

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When Ash'ath found out about the imminent arrival of new reinforcements under 'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl, he brought the women and children to the fort of Nujayr and prepared it for a siege. In the meanwhile he won another victory against Ziyād. As well as al-Muhājir b. Abī Umayya, the prominent figures in Ziyād's army included Ibn Qatīra al-Sakūnī (possibly a symbolic figure standing for the Banū Qatīra in general) and, more importantly (since we already know that the Sakūn and Sakāsik fought with the Muslims), Wā'il b. Hujr al-Hadramī: in other words, Wā'il led members of the Hadramawt tribe who were on the Muslim side.

In Ash'ath's camp we find Jafshīsh b. 'Amr, mentioned above, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Muḥriz al-Ṭumaḥī and Murra b. Imri'i l-Qays al-Dhuhlī.³⁸ 'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl's arrival with fresh reinforcements compelled Ash'ath to retreat to his main stronghold (*ḥiṣn a'ẓam*) at Nujayr and the siege began. During the first stage of the siege, the three leaders who had earlier withdrawn (Jabr b. Qash'am, Abū Qurra and Abū Shamir) tried to come to Ash'ath's aid, but were blocked by 'Ikrima. They finally gave up when they found out that Ash'ath was negotiating a guarantee of security.³⁹

The following paragraphs include further discussion of the clans mentioned above. We are told that Ash'ath gathered "his cousins", the Banū Murra, Banū 'Adī and Banū Jabala (his own clan, on whom see below). After the conquests, the Banū Murra b. Hujr b. 'Adī, genealogically defined as a *bațn*, owned a mosque of their own in Kūfa.⁴⁰ It can be shown that Ash'ath's connection with them continued into the Islamic era: it was one of the Banū Murra, Shuraḥbīl b. Murra, whom Ash'ath left as his deputy in Adharbījān when he was governor there.⁴¹

The Banū 'Adī were in fact the Banū al-Hārith b. 'Adī and were also à bain. They too had a mosque of their own (probably in Kūfa).⁴²

As we have seen, the Banū Hind, led by al-Jafshīsh b. 'Amr, supported Ash'ath in his siege on Tarīm. The Banū Hind (presumably called so after their mother) were also known as the Banū Mālik b. al-Hārith al-Aşghar b. Mu'āwiya.⁴³

As to the Banū Jumah b. al-Hārith, 'Abd al-Rahmān (b. al-Hārith) b. Muhriz al-Jumahī, who fought with Ash'ath, probably cooperated with Ash'ath more than two decades later: both fought at Siffîn on 'All's side and 'Abd al-Rahmān was in charge of the shuria of Kūfa (during that battle?).⁴⁴

Murra b. Imri'i l-Qays al-Dhuhlī who fought with Ash'ath was a member of the Banū Dhuhl b. Mu'āwiya b. al-Hārith al-Akbar.⁴⁵

³⁸ Ibn A'tham, Futile, i, pp. 61f. (al-Jumahl is misprinted as al-Hathaml!). Caskel, i, no. 234, vocalizes: at-Jumh, but the reading Jumah is confirmed by Ibn Durayd, Ishtiqäq, p. 363.

³⁰ Ibn A'tham, Futilh, i, pp. 63f.

⁴⁰ Through their mother the Banū Murra were linked to the Banū Wahb b. RabTa (on whom see below): Murra's mother (and his brother Shurahbil's mother) was Hind bint Wahb b. RabTa.

⁴¹ Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 143f.

⁴³ Through their mother they were linked to the Dhuhl b. Mu'āwiya (on whom see below): al-Hārith b. 'Add's mother was granddaughter of Dhuhl; Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 139. ⁴³ Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 162f., 165.

⁴⁴ Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 165. Cf. M. Hinds, "The banners and battle cries of the Arabs at Şiffîn (657 AD)", al-Abhath, XXIV (1971), p. 23, no. 29 (at Şiffîn, Ash'ath carried the banner of the Kinda of Kūfa who were on 'Alī's side), p. 26, no. 43 (Shurahbīl b. al-Sim; carried the banner of the Kinda of Him; who were on Mu'awiya's side). Cf. Ash'ath's alleged role in the murder of 'Alī, El^a, s.v. Ibn Muldjm, 888b (L. Veccia Vaglieri).

⁴⁵Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 167f. Elsewhere two other members of this clan are recorded, namely 'Arfaja b. 'Abdallah (Ibn A'tham, Futuh, i, p. 64) and al-Harith b. Mu'awiya ([pseudo-]Waqidi, Ridda, pp. 98f.).

The ridda of Kinda

As we have seen, the Banū al-'Ātik b. Mu'āwiya were among those attacked by Ziyād b. LabId. In addition, two of their men were killed at Nujayr.46,

In verses ascribed to 'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl about him blocking the three clans on their way to Nujayr, the Banū al-Argam under Jabr b. Qash'am, Banū Hujr led by Abū Qurra, and Banü Khamar under Abū Shamir, 'Ikrima allegedly boasts of having repelled the Banū Wahb.47 This conforms precisely to the genealogical data: indeed all three clans (see chart) were of the Banū Wahb b. Rabla.

The genealogical literature provides further information about these three clans. It can be shown that the Banu al-Argam b. Nu'man b. 'Amr b. Wahb already cooperated with Ash'ath before Islam: Qash'am b. Yazīd b. al-Arqam (Jabr's father) was killed fighting with Ash'ath against the Banū al-Hārith b. Ka'b.48 After the conquests, the Banū al-Argam formed a bain, having a mosque of their own in Kūfa. Jabr b. Qash'am himself is said to have been the first qadi of 'Umar b. al-Khattab in Iraq (i.e. in Kūfa).

The violent politics during the late thirties of the first Islamic century led to the division of the Banū al-Argam from Ash'ath: the former were among the Kindites who left Kūfa and went to Ruha in the Jazīra when 'Alī b. Abī Tālib came there. They reportedly could not bear abiding in a place where 'Uthman b. 'Affan was being cursed. At Şiffin they fought with Mu'āwiya.49

Attention should be drawn in this context to the political role of the clan's "maternal origin". When the Banū al-Arqam left Kūfa after 'Alt's arrival, it is reported that they departed together with "the Kindites who were born by them" (wa-kharaja ma'ahum man waladū min Kinda),⁵⁰ which presumably means "members of other Kindite clans born by women of the Banü al-Argam".

In his passage on the Banū Hujr b. Wahb, Ibn al-Kalbī lists the above-mentioned Abū Qurra Salama b. Mu'awiya b. Wahb whose son 'Amr officiated as qadt in Küfa after Shurayh b. al-Härith.⁸¹ The passage creates a clear sense of continuity because it includes indications that these "most excellent warriors of Kinda and their best horsemen" (see above, p. 343) preserved their power in the Islamic era. They included the following prominent figures: a warrior whose annual 'afa' was 2,500 dinars, the governor of the Sawad for Ziyad (b. Abihi), the governor of Fars for Khalid al-Qasra (who later officiated as governor of Küfa for Yüsuf b. 'Umar al-Thaqafi), and the governor of Qinnasrin for al-Saffāḥ (who went on to become governor of Armenia for al-Manşūr).⁵²

⁴⁴ At least one, but probably two, of the so-called "harlots of Hadramawt" were of the Banū al-'Atik b. Mu'äwiya; see Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda", Appendix, n. 86; Ibn Habīb, Muhabbar, pp. 184f.; cf. A. F. L. Beeston, "The so-called harlots of Hadramawt", Oriens, V (1952), pp. 16-22.

^{\$1} Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 152f; Ibn Hajar, Isaba, vii, p. 332; Ibn Sa'd, vi, p. 148 (the text is garbled).

⁵² Incidentally, one of the so-called "harlots of Hadramawt" was of the Banū Hujr; Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda", Appendix, n. 85.

^{47 [}Pseudo-]Wäqidī, Ridda, pp. 118f.

⁴⁸ Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 145f., 149 (Zurära, Sa'īd and Yazīd, sons of Fazāra b. Zurāra b. al-Arqam, were also killed in the same battle). ⁴⁹ Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 149f. They were 'Uthmānīs; Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, p. 426. • Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 149.

Abū Shamir b. Qays b. Khamar appears in Ibn al-Kalbī's passage on the Banū Khamar b. 'Amr b. Wahb. We know that one of them was a *sharīf* in Ruhā. Indeed, they, like the Banū al-Argam, left Kūfa upon 'Alī's arrival.⁸³

It seems that the Kinda faced an enormous military challenge during the later stages of the *ridda* because of the size of the tribal units mobilized by the Islamic state. The unifying strength of the emergent state changed the balance of power in Arabia. The leaders of Kinda failed to grasp the situation, and did not realize the extent of the risk they were taking by antagonizing the new power. The *ridda* of Kinda is indeed the story of the high price paid by the Kindites for gross miscalculations by their leaders.

(e) The demise of Banū Walt'a and the rise of Ash'ath

The supremacy of the Banū Walī'a (...b. al-Hārith al-Wallāda) of the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya subdivision came to an end during the *ridda*. This presumably made Ash'ath, a member of the less prestigious Hārith b. Mu'āwiya subdivision, the most powerful leader of Kinda.

It is reported that the Banū 'Amr, or more precisely their royal family the Banū Walt'a, made Ash'ath their king and crowned him (mallakūhu 'alayhim wa-tawwajūhu).⁸⁴ This probably followed a surprise night attack launched against the Banū 'Amr, the main target being the Banū Walt'a. The four Banū Walt'a kings and their sister al-'Amarrada were killed in this attack.⁸⁶ The Banū 'Amr were caught unawares and most of them were slain, killing some of their own in the tumult.⁸⁶ Following the many casualties inflicted on them and the enslavement of their women and children, the Banū Walt'a crowned a man who was neither from their family nor even from the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya subdivision. Ash'ath reportedly did not hesitate to take advantage of the Banū Walt'a's wretched state and pressed them, as a precondition for providing help, into making him their king.⁸⁷ Thus the demise of the Banū Walt'a and the severe blow inflicted on the Banū 'Amr made Ash'ath, who was already an important leader before these events, the most important chieftain of Kinda.⁵⁸

⁴⁴ Tabarī, iii, p. 334 [i, p. 2005]. See also Balādhurī, Futuli, p. 140 (she was killed by mistake, the one who killed her took her for a man).

⁵⁴ Balädhuri, *Futup*, p. 143. Elsewhere the four kings are said inaccurately to have been killed at Nujayr; e.g. in Ibn Sa'd, v, p. 13.

⁸⁷ 'Askarī, Awð'il, p. 310 (lā ansurukum hattā tumallikūnī 'alaykum, fa-mallakūhu wa-tauwajūhu). His crowning was done "in the manner in which a king of Qahīān used to be crowned"; Ibn Abī l-Hadīd, p. 98:13 (famallakūhu wa-tauwajūhu kamā yutauwaju l-maliku min Qahīān). Cf. the tribal kings of the Sulaym, Lecker, The Banā Sulaym, Appendix A.

⁴⁴ It should be remarked that according to some, Ash'ath's father was already the most important leader of Kinda, but this presumably unreliable statement is contradicted by the reports about the *ridda*. For example, Kalbī speaks of a direct shift of the leadership, after Kinda's return to Hadramawt, from the Banū Hujr Åkil al-Murār to the Härith subdivision (omitting the Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda altogether; cf. above, Section I(b)). The first who reigned (sāda), he says, was Ash'ath's father, followed by Ash'ath himself, who embraced Islam "wearing a crown"; Ch. Lyall, "Ibn al-Kalbī's account of the First Day of al-Kulāb", in C. Bezold (ed.), Orientalische

⁴³ Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 151 (vocalized: Khumr!); cf. p. 148 (Humr!), p. 149 (Ahmaz!). For the correct vocalization, Khamar, see 'All b. Muhammad Ibn al-AthIr, al-Lubāb fi tahdhīb al-ansāb (Beirut, n.d.), s.v., i, p. 460; also Caskel, i, no. 237.

p. 460; also Caskel, i, no. 237. ⁴⁴ 'Askarî, Awd'il, p. 309. Cf. Abû l-Baqã', Manāgib Mazyadiyya, p. 75 (a verse refers to Ash'ath as al-mu'aşşab bi-l-tāji ghulāman hattā 'alāhu l-gatīru, "one whose head was encircled with a crown from young manhood to the appearance of hoariness"). It is noteworthy that when the Walt'a crowned him, he was no longer a ghulām, but a young man in his early thirties. I could not trace Yazīd b. Ma'dīkarib, the jadd of Ash'ath whose crown Ash'ath is said to have worn during the ridda; [pseudo-]Wāqidī, Ridda, p. 115.

Ash'ath's clan within the Hārith b. Mu'āwiya subdivision was called Banū Jabala b. 'Adī; Jabala was the great-great-grandfather of Ash'ath. Ibn al-Kalbī says that the descendants of Jabala formed a *bațn* and had a mosque of their own in Kūfa.⁵⁰

Other famous members of the Banū Jabala were Shuraḥbīl b. al-Simț, for many years Mu'āwiya's governor in Himș, and Hujr b. 'Adī, one of the closest supporters of 'Alī, who was executed by Mu'āwiya.⁶⁰ During the civil war between 'Alī and Mu'āwiya, Ash'ath and Hujr sided with 'Alī, while Shuraḥbīl supported Mu'āwiya (see above, n. 44). It is noteworthy that an old rivalry existed between Ash'ath and Shuraḥbīl: when still in Kūfa, and before joining his father al-Simț in Himş (at the time of 'Umar b. al-Khaţţāb), Shuraḥbīl had unsuccessfully vied with Ash'ath for the leadership of Kinda.⁶¹ The rivalry between their two families did not in fact originate in Kūfa but back in Hadramawt: from the reports on the *ridda* we learn that Ash'ath and Shuraḥbīl's father, al-Simț, led two separate groups.⁶²

Studien Theodor Nöldeke zum siebzigsten Geburtstag gewidmet von Freunden und Schülern (Gieszen, 1906), p. 153; The Mufaddaliyyði, ed. Ch. Lyzll (Oxford, 1921), i, p. 441 (wa-dakhalii Hadramawi fa-kharaja l-mulk min Bant Äkili l-Murðr wo-söda Banû el-Hörith b. Mu'ðwiya, fo-awwelu man söda minhum Qays b. Ma'díkarib abû l-Ash'ath thumma I-Ash'ath b. Qays, fo-aslama I-Ash'ath wa-huwa mutawwaj; cf. above, n. 54); G. Olinder, The Kings of Kinda of the Family of Akil al-Murar (Lund, 1927), p. 92. Elsewhere Ibn al-Kalbi, quoting his father, reports about an expedition to release a king of the Sakūn captured by the Banū 'Uqayl of the Qays 'Aylān, in which Ash'ath's father led, for the first time, the joint forces of the Sakūn and [the rest of] Kinda and which gave him the status of sharef; Abu -Faraj a-Istahānī, Kitāb el-aghānī (Bulāq/A.H. 1285), xi, p. 131:5 from the bottom (fe-kuwa anwal yawm 'Jiama' at fihi I-Sakun wa-Kinda li-Qays wa-bihi adraka I-sharaf). Cf. Hamza, Ta'rikh, p. 112, where a brief account of the Banu Hujr Akil al-Murar's downfall is concluded with this passage: "When the kingship (mulk) of Kinda came to an end, their leadership (n'asa) shifted to Banu [the word seems to be superfluous] Jabala b. 'AdI b. RabI'a b. Mu'āwiya l-Akramīna, then to Ma'dīkarib b. Jabala, then to Qays, [add: then to Ash'ath], who was the one who came to the Prophet with seventy Kindite notables (ashraf), who then embraced Islam". Note that this text is careful to distinguish between the mulk of Hujr Akil al-Murār and the riase of Ash'ath and his forefathers. The crucial problem in connection with the status of Ash'ath's father is of course his alleged authority over the 'Amr b. Mu'Iwiya subdivision. This problem is addressed by a valuable passage recorded by Ibn al-Qift, Ta'rikh al-hukama', 367, and Ibn Abi Uşaybi'a, 'Uyun al-anba' fi tabagat al-atibba', ed. Nizār Ridā (Beirut, 1965), 285f., in their entries about the philospher al-Kindi who, as has already been said, was a descendant of Ash'ath. Ash'ath and his father were both kings of all Kinda, 'ald jami' Kinda. Ash'ath's grandfather and his greatgrandfather, Ma'dükarib and Mu'äwiya, were, in Hadramawt, the kings of the Banü l-Härith al-Aighar b. Mu'āwiya (see chart). Then this passage takes us beyond the Banū l-Hārith al-Asghar and back to the days of Kindite greatness in northern Arabia: Mu'āwiya, son of al-Hārith al-Akbar, his father al-Hārith al-Akbar, his grandfather Mu'awiya and his great-grandfather Thawr were kings on Ma'add in al-Mushaqqr, al-Yamāma and al-Bahrayn. (Incidentally, the philosopher's father, Ishāq b. al-Şabbāh, was the governor of Kūfa for al-Mahdī and al-RashId. Ibn Abi Usaybi'a adds a remark about the philosopher's high position (he was 'azīm al-manzila) in the courts of al-Ma'mûn and al-Mu'tasim and with regard to the latter's son Ahmad). Concerning Ash'ath's participation in Kinda's deputation to the Prophet, note his admission that the members of the deputation "did not consider him their best " (staytu ... fi wafd la yarawna anni afdaluhum); Ahmad b. Hanbal. Mussad, v, p. 211:23. Consequently, the statement (Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Istl'ab, i, p. 133) that he was the relis of the deputation is suspicious. It is not correct that he led a deputation of the Banū al-Hārith b. Mu'āwiya; cf. Caskel, ii, p. 381.

⁶⁰ Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 138f.

⁴⁰ Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 141, 142. The pedigrees of the three leaders reveal that they belonged to different genealogical lines of the Banti Jabala (Ash'ath:...Mu'äwiya b. Jabala; Shurahbil:...al-Aswad b. Jabala; Hujr:...'Adī b. Jabala).

⁶¹ Balädhuri, Futüh, p. 189 (wa-kāna...bi-l-Kūfa mugāwiman li-l-Ash'ath b. Qays al-Kindi fi l-ri'āsa); Crone, Slaves on Horses, p. 101.

⁶³ Tabari, iii, p. 334 [i, p. 2004]. (The claim that Shurabbil and his father [the text has erroneously: his son], al-Sim;, did not participate in the *ridda* and joined the Muslims, appears apologetic and false.)

(f) Family links between Ash'ath and the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya subdivision

Ash'ath had family links with the Banū 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya which presumably made him more acceptable to them: Ash'ath's mother was of the Banū Hujr Ākil al-Murār, while he himself was married to a woman of the Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda. In other words, he was related to the two main sections of the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya subdivision.

Ash'ath's mother was Kabsha bint Yazīd b. Shuraḥbīl b. Yazīd b. Imri'i l-Qays b. 'Amr al-Maqsūr b. Hujr Ākil al-Murār.⁶³ His maternal uncle was al-Nu'mān b. Yazīd (see chart).⁶⁴ A reflection of this family link can be found in the reports about the *ridda*: when, at a certain stage in the fighting, women of the Banū 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya who had been taken captive called upon the Banū l-Hārith b. Mu'āwiya, and on Ash'ath himself, to rescue them, they cried: ya Ash'athu, ya Ash'athu, khālātuka, khālātuka.⁶⁵

An episode which was said to have taken place during the visit of Kinda's deputation to the Prophet should presumably be related to the fact that Ash'ath's mother was of the Banū Hujr Ākil al-Murār. Ash'ath said to Muḥammad: naḥnu Banū Ākili l-Murār wa-anta 'bnu Ākili l-Murār. The Prophet supposedly did not take this statement too seriously: he smiled and replied that the Kindites should share this relationship with (his uncle) 'Abbās b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib and (his cousin) Rabī'a b. al-Hārith (b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib). Both of them were merchants and during their journeys in Arabia claimed to be of the Banū Ākil al-Murār so as to strengthen their position (yata'azzazāni bi-dhālika), since the Kinda were kings.⁶⁶

Before discussing Ash'ath's marriage to a woman of the Banū Walt'a, we shall digress a little to look at the evidence concerning the pre-Islamic links between Quraysh and

⁶⁴ Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 171, 168f. According to some, Ash'ath's mother was the daughter of al-Härith (al-Malik) b. 'Amr (al-Maqsūr) b. Hujr (Åkil al-Murār); Ibn 'Asākir, TMD MS, iii, p. 36; cf. pp. 34, 35. But the former version seems to be confirmed by the identity of the above-mentioned maternal uncle. Cf. Abū l-Baqā', Manāqib Mazyadiyya, p. 75 (Ash'ath is addressed in a verse: yā 'bna Åli l-Murāri min qibali l-ummi).

⁴⁴ Tabarī, iii, p. 335 (i, p. 2005). It is not clear to me how al-Jawn, "one of the kings of Kinda", could be the paternal cousin of Ash'ath's father Qays, as is claimed in Ibn al-Anbārī, Sharh qasā'id, p. 498.

44 Ibn Hishām, al-Sīra al-nabawiyya, ed. al-Saqqā, al-Abyārī and Shalabī (Beirut, 1391/1971), iv, p. 232; Tabarī, iii, p. 139 [i, p. 1739]. According to other reports referring to this topic, the Kindites stated that the Banu 'Abd Manif were descendants of Hujr Akil al-Murir or, as we find in yet another report, that the Banu Häshim were of Kinda. In some versions the Prophet mentioned, in addition to 'Abbas, Abū Sufyan; see Ibn Sa'd, i, pp. 22f. (p. 23: 'Abbās and Abū Sufyān claimed Kindite descent li-ya'manā bi-l-Yaman); M. J. Kister and M. Plessner, "Notes on Caskel's Gamharat an-Nasab", Oriens, XXV–XXXVI (1976), pp. 58f.; reprinted in M. J. Kister, Society and Religion from Jahiliyya to Islam (London, 1990), iii. In another version of the above exchange with Muhammad, the speaker is al-Jafshish al-Kindi who was reportedly rebuked by Ash'ath for raising the matter with the Prophet (provoking the latter's denial, which was considered detrimental to Kindite interests); Tabarant, al-Mu'jam al-kabir, ii, pp. 285f. (al-Jafshish al-Kindi); Ibn Hajar, Isaba, i, p. 491f. (Ibn al-Kalbi: al-Jafshish is Ma'dan b. al-Aswad [there are other versions concerning his name]; he presented the question to Muhammad three times). Al-Jafshish was not of the Banu Hujt Åkil al-Murär but of their brother clan, the Banu al-Härith al-Wallada. We infer this from his pedigree, reported by Ibn al-Kalbī (in the Isāba); Ma'dān b. Aswad b. Ma'dākarib b. Thumama b. al-Aswad. While this pedigree is admittedly too short to link him to al-Harith al-Wallada, it is almost identical to the pedigree of Masruq b. Ma'dikarib b. Thumāma b. al-Aswad b. Ma'dikarib (read: b. 'Abdallah/al-Shaytan; Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 173) who was, as his pedigree shows, Ma'dan's paternal uncle. See also Qurrubi, Ta'rif fi l-ansab (above, n. 2), pp. 260f. Incidentally, the verse ascribed to al-Jafshish in Ibn Hajar, Isaba, i, p. 492, is ascribed in Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 173 (with one difference) to his paternal uncle Masruq. This could be a case of disputed ascription, but it seems more likely that a passage mentioning al-Jafshish was omitted from Nasab Ma'add. See on Masruq b. Ma'dikarib, above, n. 11.

⁴³ Ibn 'Asäkir, TMD MS, iii, p. 34. Cf. Abū 'Alī al-Qālī, Dhayl al-amālī wa-l-nawādir (Cairo, 1344/1926), p. 149 (Ibn Kabsha is Ash'ath's brother al-Şabāḥ whose mother was Kabsha bint Sharāḥīl b. Ākil al-Murār).

southern Arabia. It is reported about the market of al-Rābiya in Hadramawt⁴⁷ that to reach it one needed protection (*khafāra*), because no state controlled it (*liannahā lam takun ard* mamlaka) and, when there, "he who overcame took the spoil" of his companion (*wa-kāna* man 'azza fihā bazza şāḥibahu). Quraysh (alone) had recourse to the protection of the Banū Ākil al-Murār, while the rest of the people were protected by Āl Masrūq b. Wā'il al-Hadramī. This, the report continues, was considered a noble action (*makruma*) on the part of both families.⁶⁵

'Abbās's pre-Islamic business connections with Hadramawt are at the background of allegedly autobiographical reports beginning with a paternal uncle of Ash'ath nicknamed 'Ufayyif (Shuraḥbīl b. Ma'dīkarib).⁶⁹ One of these reports, which exists in several versions, speaks of 'Ufayyif's visit to Mecca. Its main theme is 'Ufayyif's later frustration about his failure to embrace Islam when there were only three Muslims in the whole world (the Prophet, Khadīja and 'Alī).⁷⁰ The report, which in its early stages of transmission was handed down in 'Ufayyif's family, is certainly fictitious and tendentious. Yet the role given in it to Muḥammad's uncle 'Abbās is of interest to us: when he reached Mecca, 'Ufayyif said here to have been a merchant, alighted with 'Abbās. Another version of the same report (similarly transmitted by 'Ufayyif's family) adduces the following details as an introduction: 'Abbās, who was 'Ufayyif's friend, used to frequent the Yemen (and, one assumes, Hadramawt as well) in order to buy perfume ('*i*tr), which he later sold in Mecca during the time of the pilgrimage.⁷¹ In sum, Kinda's protection of the Qurashī trade at al-Rābiya and 'Abbās's trade in the Yemen are two mutually independent indications of Qurashī activities in the southern part of Arabia.

When the deputation referred to the Prophet's Kindite origin, they reportedly had in mind a Kindite ancestress of his, namely the mother of Quşayy's father Kilāb b. Murra.⁷²

⁶⁹ 'Ufayyif " the small abstinent/chaste one", prohibited (before Islam) the drinking of wine and avoided illicit sexual intercourse; *Nasab Ma'add*, i, p. 140; *Muhabbar*, pp. 237, 239. Cf. Ibn Hajar, *Işāba*, iv, pp. 515, 517. On 'Ufayyif's alleged role in the *ridda* see Ibn A'tham, *Futuh*, i, p. 52.

⁷⁰ In other words, he allegedly forfeited the chance of becoming rub'u l-islām.

⁷¹ Tabarī, ii, pp. 311f. [i, pp. 1160f.] (another version, p. 312 [1162], inaccurately makes 'Ufayyif a half-brother of Ash'ath from his mother's side and his paternal cousin); Ibn Hajar, Isāba, iv, pp. 515f. See the report about the perfume in P. Crone, Meccan Trade, p. 120, n. 67; see also op. cit., pp. 95f.
⁷⁸ Muhammad b. 'Alī al-Ahdalī. Naties al-advise al

²⁸ Muhammad b. 'All al-Ahdall, Nathr al-durr al-maknûn min fadâ'il al-Yaman al-maymûn (Beirut, 1407/1987), pp. 159, 160f. The Himyarite vassal king of the Yemen after the defeat of the Ethiopians, Ma'dîkarib b. Sayf b.

⁶⁷ Prof. Griaznevitch wrote to me about al-Rābiya: "... During the field research of the Soviet-Yemeni Joint Expedition in 1983-84, not far from the exit of the big Wādī 'Ayn to the valley Kasr in the centre of Kinda possessions, the archaeological site al-Rābiya, situated near the right side of the Wādī between the settlements Safila and Adab, was studied. According to local tradition, this was the place of a big market during the Middle Ages".

⁵⁶⁸ Ibn Habīb, Muhabbar, pp. 266f. (where it is erroneously said that Masrūq b. Wā'il was of Kinda); cf. Ahmad b. Muhammad al-Marzūqī, *Kitāb al-azmina wa-l-amkina* (Hyderabad, 1332), ii, p. 165. Both sources are quoted in Crone, Meccan Trade, p. 152, n. 24. (Crone remarks that she knows of "no concrete illustration of Qurashīs there"; yet 'Abbās's business links in Hadramawt [see below] bring us close enough.) The text in Muhabbar is garbled and Marzūqī's text is better concerning the prestige gained by the Hujr Ākil al-Murār family as a result of the protection they provided for Qurashī trade. Muhabbar: wa-kānat makruma li-āli l-baytayni jamī'an wa-šāda banū Ākili l-Murār bi-fadl Quraysh 'alā sā'iri l-nās: Marzūqī: fa-kānat makruma li-āli l-baytayni wa-fadlu ahadihimā 'alā l-ākhar ka-fadli Quraysh 'alā sā'iri l-nās; "... and the advantage of one (i.e. the family of Hujr Ākil al-Murār) over the other (i.e. the family of Masrūq b. Wā'il) is like the advantage of Quraysh over the rest of the people". This statement may stem from intertribal polemics but it is true nonetheless. The cooperation of the Kinda and Hadramawt tribes in guaranteeing the safe arrival of traders at al-Rābiya is noteworthy as is the special link between Kinda and Quraysh. On Masrūq b. Wā'il al-Hadramī see e.g. Ibn Hajar, Isāba, vi, p. 92; Hamdānī, Iklīī, ii, pp. 320, 331.

Obviously such claims merit little confidence.⁷⁸ But in this context attention should be drawn to the 'Awātik, the plural form of the female name 'Ātika, who are known from the Prophet's maternal pedigree as well as from Kinda. In pre-Islamic Arabia the latter 'Awātik, nisā' min Kinda mina l-mulūk, were of course better-known than the former.⁷⁴ As to the former 'Awātik, Muḥammad reportedly declared himself to be the son of the 'Awātik (or, in another version, of the 'Awātik of the Sulaym).⁷⁸ An assumption that the genealogical tradition concerning the Prophet's 'Awātik was modelled on the Kindite 'Awātik may not be far-fetched because the memory of Kinda's glory persisted for a long time in northern Arabia after the disappearance of their kingdom.

We turn now to Ash'ath's marriage to a woman of the Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda.⁷⁶ It took place before the *ridda*: when Ash'ath came to Medina with Kinda's deputation, he reportedly told the Prophet that his wife, the daughter of Jamd, had just given birth to his firstborn son. Ash'ath's father-in-law Jamd was one of the above-mentioned kings of Walī'a slain during the *ridda*.⁷⁷

In sum, Ash'ath, a member of the Hārith b. Mu'āwiya subdivision, was related through his mother and his wife to the two leading lines of the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya subdivision, namely the Banū Hujr Ākil al-Murār and the Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda. When, following the events of the *ridda*, the royal family of Walī'a was crushed, Ash'ath's family links with the 'Amr subdivision made his leadership more acceptable to them.

III. Epilogue

(a) The Prophet's unconsummated marriage to Ash'ath's sister Qutayla

Following his capture during the *ridda* Ash'ath married Abū Bakr's sister Umm Farwa (see below). This marriage could perhaps be associated with the Prophet's unconsummated marriage to Ash'ath's sister Qutayla, but this is not certain. The latter marriage had been agreed upon with Ash'ath in A.H. 10 when he came with Kinda's deputation, but Muhammad had died before Qutayla even left the Yemen.⁷⁸

Dhī Yazan, allegedly called Muhammad's grandfather 'Abd al-Muttalib "the son of our sister"; e.g. al-Mas'ūdī, Murāj al-dhahab, ed. Ch. Pellat (Beirut, 1966f.), ii, p. 207. But this was not connected to his alleged Kindite "mother": Suhaylī (al-Rawd al-wauf, ed. Tāhā 'Abd al-Rā'ūf Sa'd [Cairo, 1391/1971], i, p. 161) explains that 'Abd al-Muttalib's mother was of the Khazraj, who were (like the Himyarite king himself) Yemenites.

⁷² Unsurprisingly, there was no unanimity about the identity of Kiläb's mother; cf. Ibn Habīb, Ummahāt alnabī, ed. Husayn 'Alī Mahfūz (Baghdād, 1372/1952), p. 2b (Kiläb's mother was of the Kināna).

⁷⁴ Ibn al-Anabärf, Sharh qaşā'id, p. 494 (the sons of the 'Awātik fought with Ash'ath's father Qays b. Ma'dīkarib who, together with warriors of the Shaybān, attacked camels belonging to the king of Hīra, 'Amr b. Hind); cf. Ch. J. Lyall, the Mufaddalīyāt: An Anthology of Ancient Arabian Odes (Oxford, 1921f.), ii, p. 184.

⁷⁸ Lecker, The Banu Sulaym, p. 114.

⁷⁸ Note that there was a link on the eponymous level between Ash'ath's clan, the Banū Jabala (of the Härith b. Mu'äwiya subdivision) and the Banū al-Härith al-Wallāda (of the 'Amr b. Mu'äwiya subdivision); *Nasab Ma'add*, i, p. 139 (the mother of Jabala and of his brother Hujr was Lamīs bint Imri'i l-Qays b. al-Hārith al-Wallāda); cf. op. cit., p. 173 (Lamīs was the daughter of al-Hārith al-Wallāda).

⁷⁷ Alī b. Abī Bakr al-Haythamī, Majma' al-zawā'id wa-manba' al-fawā'id (Beirut, 1967), viii, p. 155 (mini 'bnati H.M.D(!]); Ahmad b. Hanbal, Musnad, v, p. 211:27 (correctly, mini 'bnati famd); Jabarānī, al-Mu'jam al-kabīr, i, p. 336 (min binti famd b. Walī'a l-Kindī; read:... Jamd b. Ma'dīkarib b. Walī'a). Ash'ath's child, whose name was al-Nu'mān, died in his infancy; 'Abd al-Qādir b. 'Umar al-Baghdādī, Khizānat al-adab, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn (Cairo, 1967f.), iii, p. 239.

⁷⁸ Ibn Hajar, *Isāba*, viii, pp. 88f (she is called here Qayla; she married Muhammad in A.H. 10, some said: two months before his death); Ibn al-Athīr, *Usd al-ghāba*, v, p. 532; Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *Isti'āb*, iv, pp. 1903f. (the version The ridda of Kinda

Although her marriage to the Prophet Muhammad was not consummated, Qutayla's subsequent marriage to 'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl⁷⁰ was for Muslim scholars a thorny problem, because the remarriage of the Prophet's wives had been prohibited. The marriage to 'Ikrima was considered evil enough, still, did they produce a child? The majority of Islamic scholars believe not: 'Ikrima died childless.⁸⁰ It is explicitly reported about Qutayla: *wa-lam talid li-'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl*,⁸¹ but the more complete version of this statement has two additional words: *wa-lam talid li-'Ikrima illā mukhabbalan*, ''she bore 'Ikrima only a feeble-minded son''.⁸² The latter version is more trustworthy. There is no doubt that most Muslim scholars found the temptation to omit the last two words (*illā mukhabbalan*) irresistible. In early Islamic literature self-censorship must have been widespread and in certain sensitive areas the limitations which most scholars (but fortunately not all of them) voluntarily imposed upon themselves were particularly strict.

It could have been argued that the story of Qutayla's marriage to Muhammad was invented by Kindite *fadā'il*-mongers. 'Urwa b. al-Zubayr (in a reply to a question from the caliph al-Walīd b. 'Abd al-Malik), and Zuhrī (probably not independently of 'Urwa), denied that Muhammad ever married Qutayla or any other Kindite woman beside "the sister of Banū al-Jawn" (about whom see below), whose marriage was not consummated.⁸³ But it appears that the shock expressed in the sources over Qutayla's scandalous marriage to 'Ikrima b. Abī Jahl confirms that her marriage to Muhammad had indeed been agreed upon shortly beforehand.

(b) Qutayla and Asmā' al-Jawniyya

In this section some of the evidence concerning two Kindite women is examined: Ash'ath's above-mentioned sister Qutayla, who was of the Hārith b. Mu'āwiya subdivision, and Asmā' al-Jawniyya, who was of the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya subdivision. The Prophet married both but the marriages were not consummated. Naturally we have more details about Asmā', who met the Prophet, than we have about Qutayla, who did not.

⁸⁰ Muy'ab b. 'Abdalläh al-Zubayri, Kitäb Nasab Quraysh, ed. E. Levi-Provençal (Cairo, 1953), p. 311:2 from the bottom (wa-lam yatruk waladan); cf. Ibn Sa'd, vii, p. 404 (wa-laysa lahu 'aqib); Ibn Hajar, Isāba, iv, p. 539 (walam yu'qib 'lkrima). When Mecca was conquered, 'lkrima was married to his cousin Umm Hakim bint al-Härith b. Hishām and he was still married to her when he died in Shām several years later; Ibn al-Athir, Usd al-ghāba, iv, p. 5:13; Ibn Hajar, Isāba, viii, pp. 193f. There is evidence that when 'lkrima was killed during the conquest of Shām (at Yarmūk or at Ajnādayni), a son of his named 'Umar died with him; Ibn 'Asākir, TMD MS, xiii, p. 341, s.v. 'Umar b. 'lkrima. See also Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, p. 145:5, where there is a lacuna in the text. 'Umar b. 'lkrima could not of course have been born by Qutayla.

⁸⁸ Abū 'Ubayda, Azwāj al-nabī wa-awlāduhu, ed. Yūsuf 'Alī Badīwī (Beirut, 1410/1990), p. 80; al-Şāliķī, Azwāj al-nabī, p. 258. Abū Bakr Ahmad b. al-Husayn al-Bayhaqī, Dalā'il al-nubuwwa, ed. 'Abd al-Mu'tī Qal'ajī (Beirut, 1405/1985), vii, p. 288:5 from the bottom, quoting Abū 'Ubayda, has a corrupt text: fa-lam talid li-'Ikrima illā waladan wāḥidan; wāḥidan appears to be a lectio facilior for mukhabbalan and waladan was added later. Cf. Lisān al-'arab, s.v. kh.b.l., p. 198: makhbūl, mukhabbal is "someone who has no heart", lā fu'āda ma'ahu, a majnūn. ⁸⁸ Ibn Sa'd, viii, pp. 145, 148.

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Qayla is nonsense; her brother gave her in marriage to Muhammad); Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 148 (she was one of those who "gave themselves" to Muhammad).

⁷⁹ Ya'qübi, Ta'rikh, ii, p. 85 (qubida rasūlu 'llāhi qabla khurūjihā ilayhi mina l-Yaman, fa-khalafa 'alayhā 'lkrima b. Abī Jahi). The wording in Ibn Habib, Muhabbar, p. 95, may suggest that Ash'ath gave her to 'lkrima immediately after Muhammad's death: Ash'ath himself carried his sister to Muhammad, hattā idhā faşala mina l-Yaman, balaghathu wafātu l-nabī (s), fa-raddahā fa-zawwajahā 'lkrima b. Abī Jahl.

When the beautiful and young Asmā' married the Prophet, she was a widow.⁸⁴ This unconsummated marriage of the Prophet may have had a political background: after all, she was a descendant of the legendary Hujr Äkil al-Murār.⁸⁵ It is not clear exactly how the marriage was agreed upon: some say that the Prophet asked to marry Asmā' during the visit of Kinda's deputation (*wa-kāna khaţabahā* [5] hīna wafadat 'alayhi Kinda).⁸⁶ However, in another report, which mentions no deputation, we are told that her father proposed this marriage to Muḥammad.⁸⁷

Reportedly Ash'ath's proposal to the Prophet that he should marry his sister Qutayla came immediately after Muhammad's first meeting with Asmā' had failed.⁸⁸ This of course assumes that Ash'ath was in Medina at the time. It is said that Ash'ath described his sister to Muhammad as one who was not inferior to the rejected Asmā' in terms of beauty and nobility (*a-lā uzawwijuka man laysat bi-dūnihā fī l-jamāl wa-l-ḥasab*). But people often exaggerate on such occasions and Ash'ath's testimony is no exception.⁸⁹

Undoubtedly, in the tribal society of pre-Islamic Arabia, the nobility and prestige of Asmā' al-Jawniyya could not be matched, not even by Ash'ath's sister Qutayla. Therefore the kind of legendary anecdotes which were woven around the theme "Asmā' and Muḥammad" could not have been told about Qutayla (that is, had she met Muḥammad). For example, when Asmā' was brought to Muḥammad, he called her but she refused to

⁶⁴ Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 143 (Asmā' bint al-Nu'mān b. Abī l-Jawn b. al-Aswad b. al-Hārith b. Sharāhīl b. al-Jawn b. Ākil al-Murār). There are different versions concerning the precise pedigree of Asmā'; *Nasab Ma'add*, i, p. 172 (Asmā' bint 'Amr b. al-Hārith b. Sharāhīl); al-Ṣāliḥī, *Azwāj al-nabī*, p. 242 (Asmā' bint Ka'b); cf. Ibn al-Anbārī, *Sharḥ qaṣā'id*, p. 498 (Bint 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. al-Jawn).

⁸⁴ It is not clear why the first meeting with Asmä' was a failure: there are several contradictory and mutually exclusive explanations. In addition to Ibn Habīb, *Muhabbar*, p. 94, see e.g. al-Şālihī, *Azwāj al-nabī*, pp. 242f. It is not true that the Prophet had another wife who descended from al-Jawn, as suggested in Ibn Habīb, *Muhabbar*, p. 95, where an unnamed Jawniyya is said to have been brought to Medina by an Anṣārī: elsewhere the same Anṣārī, Abū Usayd of the Banū Sā'ida, is said to have brought the aforementioned Asmā'; Ibn Sa'd, viii, pp. 143f. Ibn Habīb's erroneous assumption that there were two wives of the Banū al-Jawn is rather strange because the *Tabaqāt* of Ibn Sa'd, which should have been available to Ibn Habīb, has a more complete text of the same report (its source is Ibn al-Kalbī) which includes Asmā''s name; Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 145. For the vocalization of the name Usayd see Ibn Mākūlā, *al-Ikmāl*, ed. al-Yamānī (Hyderabad, 1381/1962), i, p. 70.

⁸⁸ Ibn Habīb, Muhabbar, p. 94. This report is from Ibn al-Kalbī, from his father, from Abū Şālih, from Ibn 'Abbās; see Ibn Hajar, Isāba, vii, p. 497 (wa-kāna khasabahā hīna wasada abūhā 'alayhi fi wasa Kinda). Cf. similarly in Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 145 (wa-kāna khasabahā hīna wasadat Kinda 'alayhi ilā abīhā).

⁸⁷ Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 143 (qadima l-Nu'mān b. Abī l-Jawn l-Kindī ...musliman). Significantly, Asmā''s father lived with his brothers near al-Sharaba in Najd; Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 143 (also p. 144: wa-kāni) yakūnūna bi-nāhiyati Najd). On al-Sharaba (''between al-Salīla and al-Rabadha'') see Yāqūt, s.v. This fact is consequential: we realize that part of Kinda remained in Najd even after most of them had returned to Hadramawt (above, Section 1(b)). Had Asmā''s father been a member in Kinda's deputation, this would have indicated that the Kindites who lived in Najd were not cut off from Kinda's main body. However, this is problematic for chronological considerations: the deputation came in A.H. 10 (e.g. Tabarī, iii, p. 138 [i, p. 1739]), whereas the marriage to Asmā' is dated to Rabī' al-Awwal, A.H. 9; Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 145. A.H. 10 is also given as the date of Muhammad's marriage to Qutayla, which was agreed upon with Ash'ath when he came with Kinda's deputation (some said that the Prophet had married Qutayla two months before he died; above, n. 78).

⁸⁸ Ibn Habīb, *Muhabbar*, pp. 94f. ("Qayla"); Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 147 (from Ibn al-Kalbī, from his father, from Abū Şālih, from Ibn 'Abbās).

⁴⁰ Cf. Ash'ath's words to 'Alī b. Abī Tālib when he suggested marrying his daughter Ja'da to 'Alī's son al-Hasan; Ibn 'Asākir, TMD MS, iii, p. 46:1 (he explained Ja'da's advantages over the daughter of another Yemenite leader: fa-hal laka fi ashrafa minhā baytan wa-akrama minhā hasaban wa-atamma jamālan wa-akthara mālan?). Cf. El^a, iii, 242b, s.v. al-Hasan b. 'Alī b. Abī Tālib (L. Veccia Vaglieri). Incidentally, Ash'ath married off two daughters, Habbāna and Qarība, to sons of 'Uthmān b. 'Afīān; see Crone, Slaves on Horses, p. 110 = Caskel, ii, s.vv. Habbāna bt. Ma'dīkarib (who married 'Amr b. 'Uthmān) and Qarība bint Ma'dīkarib (who married Khālid b. 'Uthmān). The ridda of Kinda

come, saying: "You come to me" (ta'āla anta). Or, even worse, Muḥammad is said to have told her to give herself to him. Asmā' replied: "Does a queen give herself to a subject?" (hal tahabu l-malika nafsahā li-l-sūqa?).⁹⁰ Many Muslim scholars must have abhorred the recording of such imaginary exchanges even though their aim was to show how vain Asmā' was. That they were recorded by some of them again demonstrates that no uniform standards were applied by these scholars even when "protecting the Prophet".

(c) Ash'ath's marriage to Abū Bakr's sister

Once he arrived at Medina in chains, Ash'ath's fortunes took a surprising turn: he was given in marriage the caliph's sister Umm Farwa who consequently bore him Muhammad, Ismā'īl and Ishāq.⁹¹ However, there seems to be a more plausible account of this marriage: the father of both Abū Bakr and Umm Farwa, Abū Quhāfa, had given her to Ash'ath in marriage, but it was only to be consummated upon Ash'ath's return to Medina.⁹² According to this account, Abū Bakr (whose father was still alive at that time⁹³) merely allowed the implementation of a marriage link agreed upon with his father.

(d) The Banū 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya in the Islamic period

In the Islamic period the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya subdivision never regained its pre-Islamic ascendancy. This is reflected in the genealogical literature in which we find records of tribal notables in early Islam. According to the genealogists, a governor was a notable (which makes the genealogical literature an essential source of information on early Islamic administration). The chapters on Kinda in the books of genealogy mirror the insignificant role played by the 'Amr subdivision in Islam compared to the role of the Hārith subdivision: the Hārith produced important governors, but almost nobody of rank was to

⁸³ Abū Bakr was survived by his father; al-Balādhurī, al-Shaykhāni Abū Bakr al-Şiddīq wa-Umar b. al-Khaijāb wa-wulduhumā bi-riwāyat al-Balādhurī fī ansāb al-ashrāf, ed. Ihsān Şidqī l-'Amad (Kuwayt, 1989), p. 43.

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⁵⁰ Ibn Hajar, Ijāba, vii, pp. 494, 496. The ta'āla anta story is from Qatāda; Ibn al-Athīr, Usd al-ghāba, v, p. 397:5; al-Şālihī, Azwāj al-nabī, p. 243. Cf. also the complaint of Asmā''s father about the size of Muhammad's bridal money (mahr); Ibn Sa'd, viii, p. 143.

⁹¹ She was reportedly blind (*wa-kānat makfūfa*); 'Askarī, *Awā'il*, p. 311; Ibn Abī l-Hadīd, p. 98:21 (*wa-kānat 'amyā'*). (The handicap probably made her less desirable for other potential husbands.) Cf. Balādhurī, *Futāh*, p. 141 (who omits Ismā'īl and adds three daughters: Qurayba, Hubāba and Ja'da). In this source Abū Bakr's sister is called Qurayba. Cf. Ibn Qutayba, *Ma'ārif*, p. 168: beside Umm Farwa, Abū Bakr also had a sister named Qurayba. Umm Farwa had two former husbands: a man of the Azd, and Tamīm al-Dārī. In Abū l-Baqā', *Manāqib Mazyadiyya*, p. 78, the order is reversed. On Ash'ath's display of generosity on the occasion of his marriage see al-Tha'ālibī, *Thimār al-qulūb fi l-mudāf wa-l-mansīb*, ed. Abū l-Fadī lbrāhīm (Cairo, 1384/1965), pp. 886. (*walīmatu l-Ash'ath*); Ahmad b. Muhammad al-Maydānī, *Majma' al-amthāl*, ed. Muhammad Muhyī l-Dīn 'Abd al-Hamīd (Cairo, 1374/1955), ii, p. 379 (*awlamu mina l-Ash'ath*).

⁹⁸ The text in Tabarī, iii, p. 339 [i, p. 2011] creates the misleading impression that the Prophet gave her in marriage to Ash'ath: wa-qad kāna khataba Umm Farwa bint Abī Quhāfa maqdamahu 'alā rasāli 'llāhi (3) fa-zawwajahu wa-akhkharahā ilā an yaqdama l-thāniya. See also the slightly obscure text in Ibn al-Athīr, Usd al-ghāba, i, p. 98:6: wa-lammā aslama khataba Umm Farwa...fa-ujība ilā dhālika wa-'āda ilā l-Yaman. An important variant is included in the parallel text found in Ibn 'Asākir, TMD MS, iii, p. 42 (the report is from Sayf b. 'Umar): wa-kāna qad khataba Umm Farwa bint Abī Quhāfa ilā Abī Quhāfa maqdamahu etc.; the omission in Tabarī, through a scribal error, occurred because of the repetition of the name Abū Quhāfa. See also op. cit., p. 43 (from Sayf again: tazawwaja l-Ash'ath maqdamahu 'alā rasūli 'llāhi [3] ilā Abī Quhāfa Umm Farwa etc.). In short, it was Abū Quhāfa, not the Prophet, who gave her in marriage to Ash'ath.

be found among the 'Amr.⁸⁴ Put differently, there was discontinuity from Jāhiliyya to Islam and the pre-Islamic nobility of Kinda did not become an Islamic one. The *ridda* physically eliminated Kinda's old leadership and created a gap filled by other, less prestigious, members of the tribe. During the conquests and after them Ash'ath and other members of the Hārith subdivision became the governors of such provinces as Adharbījān (Ash'ath, under 'Uthmān and 'Alī), Himş (Shuraḥbīl b. al-Simț, under Mu'āwiya), Armenia (Hujr b. Yazīd, under Mu'āwiya) and the Jazīra, Armenia and Adharbījān ('Adī b. 'Adī, under Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Malik and 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz).⁹⁶ The Banū 'Amr in general and the Banū Walī'a in particular (see below) had nothing comparable to boast of.

(e) The Banū al-Hārith al-Wallāda in the Islamic period

One or two descendants of al-Hārith al-Wallāda's son 'Abdallāh/al-Shayţān became famous in the Islamic period. Al-Sā'ib b. Yazīd, known also as Ibn Ukht al-Namir, was put by 'Umar b. al-Khaţţāb in charge of the market of Medina. But it must be added that his Kindite affiliation is rather dubious because there are at least three additional versions concerning his origin.⁹⁶ The one-eyed Khārijite rebel 'Abdallāh b. Yaḥyā (*Ţālib al-Ḥaqq*) was also a descendant of the same 'Abdallāh/al-Shayţān.

Of a little more importance was the role played in early Islam by the descendants of al-Hārith al-Wallāda's other son, Hujr al-Qarid, who included the royal family Banū Walt'a. The four kings and their sister who were killed during the *ridda* had a brother called al-Şalt whose sons Kathīr, Zuyayd (diminutive form of Zayd) and 'Abd al-Raḥmān (see chart), all *ḥalīfs* (clients) of Quraysh, reportedly "emigrated" (*hājara*) after the battle of Nujayr.⁹⁷ However, considering the circumstances, the verb *hājara* is more than slightly euphemistic. Zuyayd and Kathīr were born at the time of the Prophet⁹⁸ and the same must have been true for their brother 'Abd al-Raḥmān. This means that they were children during the *ridda*.⁹⁹ One may assume that when their uncles and aunt, the four kings of Walī'a and their sister, were killed during the *ridda*, these children were captured and

⁸⁴ See the section on the 'Amr subdivision in Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, pp. 427f.; far more detailed is the section in Nasab Ma'add, i, pp. 168–78 (gādīs in Hims and Kūfa belonging to the Banū al-Jawn b. Hujr Ākil al-Murār, of the 'Amr b. Mu'āwiya, are recorded on pp. 171f.; Rajā' b. Haywa is mentioned on p. 177).

⁹⁸ See e.g. Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, pp. 425f. Note the curious link between Kinda and Armenia/Adharbījān which emerges clearly from the above information; obviously, the genealogical literature is a good source for tracing such links.

⁶⁶ Ibn Hajar, Isāba, iii, pp. 26f.; Ibn 'Asākir, TMD, Mukht., ix, pp. 201f.; Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 174. Cf. on him R. P. Buckley, "The Muhtasib", Arabica, XXXIX (1992), pp. 60f.

⁸⁷ Ibn Hajar, Isāba, v, pp. 632f. (The relevant passage in Nasab Ma'add [i, p. 176] is garbled. In Caskel, i, no. 239, Zubaid[!] and 'Abd al-Rahmān are incorrectly presented as the brothers of the Wall'a kings; in fact they were the kings' nephews.) Their father al-Salt (who is not reported to have emigrated with his sons) is said to have been appointed by Muhammad in charge of the khars, i.e. as an evaluator, for the purpose of taxation, of the fruit upon the palm-trees (in Hadramawt?); Ibn Hajar, Isāba, iü, p. 444. The source of this report is his grandson, al-Şalt b. Zuyayd b. al-Şalt, a halīf of the Qurashī Banū Jumah who officiated as the qādī of Medina until 114/732; Ibn Sa'd, al-Tabaqāt al-kubrā, al-qism al-mutammim li-tābi't ahl al-Madīna wa-man ba'dahum, ed. Ziyād Muhammad Mansūr (Medina, 1408/1987), pp. 279f. (printed: Zubayd); Khalīfa b. Khayyāţ, Ta'rīkh, ed. Suhayl Zakkār (Damascus, 1968), ii, p. 544.

⁶⁹ Cf. M. Hinds, "Sayf b. 'Umar's sources on Arabia", in Abdelgadir M. Abdadlla, Sami Al-Sakkar and Richard T. Mortel (eds.), Studies in the History of Arabia, i: Sources for the History of Arabia, part ii (Riyād, 1399/1979), p. 8 (concerning Kathīr b. al-Şalt's reports on the ridda, Hinds correctly suggests that he may have been an eyewitness or contemporary of those events).

brought to Medina as prisoners of war. Because of their abilities and their family's prestige the captives rose to prominence, their *halif* (client) status notwithstanding. Already at the time of 'Uthmān, the young Kathīr b. al-Şalt functioned as an arbiter (wa-kāna 'Uthmān aq'adahu li-l-nazar bayna l-nās).¹⁰⁰

During the reign of the Abbasid caliph Abū Ja'far al-Mansūr, a grandson of Kathīr b. al-Şalt, Muhammad b. 'Abdallāh b. Kathīr, was the *qādī* of Medina. When al-Mahdī ascended the throne, Muhammad became the governor of Medina.¹⁰¹ It may be added that the great-great-grandson of one of the Walī'a kings, Qays b. *Walī'a* b. Maysara b. Qays b. Mikhwas, was of the *saḥāba* of al-Mansūr.¹⁰²

In short, several members of the Banü Walt'a managed to achieve some distinction in spite of their humble starting point as slaves of war. Still, the Banū Walt'a were almost uprooted as a result of the *ridda*, and their role became marginal.

After the ridda, Ash'ath, then in his early thirties, lived for some time in Medina with his new wife. Later he played a major role in the conquests, but we do not follow him there.¹⁰³ The vicissitudes of Ash'ath's life during the next three decades, when explored, will provide further stimulating evidence about the history of Islam in its greatest days.

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¹⁰⁰ Ibn Hajar, Işāba, v, p. 633 = Muhammad b. Sallām al-Jumahī, *Tabaqāt fuķūl al-shu'arā'*, ed. Mahmūd Muhammad Shākir (Cairo, 1394/1974), i, p. 134; cf. Lecker, *The Banū Sulaym*, p. 86, n. 111. On the qādī of Medina who was Kathīr's nephew see above, n. 97.
¹⁰¹ Ibn Sa'd, v, p. 14.

¹⁹² Nasab Ma'add, i, p. 176. Qays b. Mikhwas must have been spared during the *ridda* because he was still a small boy. Note the reemergence of the name Walt'a which could indicate that the glory associated with it was stronger than the painful memory of the calamitous *ridda*. Note in connection with this family's status in the Abbasid period that a daughter of one of the four kings brought to Medina as a slavegirl bore 'Abdalläh b. 'Abbās almost all his children, including his youngest son 'Alī who was the father of the Abbasid caliphs; Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda", Section II(a).

¹⁰⁸ Suffice it to mention here that he lost an eye at Yarmûk (Caskel, ii, p. 381, denies that he partook in this battle) and participated in the battles of Qādisiyya, Madā'in, Jalûlā' and Nihāwand. He was the last on the list of witnesses in the document of arbitration between 'Alī and Mu'āwiya. He died aged sixty-three in A.H. 40, forty days after the murder of 'Alī b. Abī Tālib; Abū Nu'aym al-Işfahānī, *Ma'rifat al-ṣaḥāba*, ed. Muḥammad Rādī b. Hājj 'Uthmān (Medina and Riyād, 1408/1988), ii, p. 307; Ibn Qutayba, *Ma'ārif*, p. 586 and Ibn 'Asākir, *TMD MS*, iii, p. 34 (Yarmûk); Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *Isti'āb*, i, p. 134 (the *taḥkīm*; another version dates his death to A.H. 42). Cf. Ibn al-Athīr, *Usd al-ghāba*, i, p. 98:19 (*wa-kāna mimman alzama 'Aliyyan bi-l-taḥkīm wa-shahida lhakamayni bi-Dāmati l-Jāmdal*). Cf. Crone, Slaves on Horses, pp. 110f., who discusses Ash'ath and some of his descendants.

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- Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, Yüsuf b. 'Abdalläh al-Namarī, al-Istī'āb fī ma'rifat al-ashāb, ed. 'Alī Muhammad al-Bijāwī (Cairo, n.d.).
- Ibn Abi l-Hadid, 'Abd al-Hamid b. Hibat Alläh, Sharh nahj al-balägha (Cairo, A.H. 1329).
- Ibn al-Anbārī, Muḥammad b. al-Qāsim, Sharḥ al-qasā'id al-sab' al-țiwāl al-Jāhiliyyāt, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Muḥammad Hārūn (Cairo, 1400/1980).
- Ibn 'Asākir, 'Alī b. al-Hasan, TMD MS Ta'rīkh madīnat Dimashq, Facsimile edition in 19 vols ('Ammān, n.d.).
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- Ibn Hazm, 'Alī b. Ahmad al-Andalusī, Jamharat ansāb al-'arab, ed. 'Abd al-Salām Hārūn (Cairo, 1382/1962).
- Ibn Hubaysh, 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Muḥammad, Kitāb al-ghazawāt al-dāmina..., ed. Suhayl Zakkār (Beirut, 1412/1992).
- Ibn al-Qifțī, 'Alī b. Yūsuf, Ta'rīkh al-hukamā', ed. J. Lippert (Leipzig, 1903).
- Ibn Qutayba, 'Abdallāh b. Muslim, al-Ma'ārif, ed. Tharwat 'Ukāsha (Cairo, 1969).
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- al-Wāqidī, Muḥammad b. 'Umar, Kitāb al-ridda wa-nubdha min futūḥ al-'Irāq, ed. Muḥammad Ḥamīdullāh (Paris, 1409/1989).
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Abū Bakr Muḥammad b. Muslim b. 'Ubaydallāh b. 'Abdallāh b. Shihāb b. 'Abdallāh b. al-Hārith b. Zuhrah b. Kilāb,¹ better known as Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī (d. 124/742), was one of the founders of Islamic tradition in the widest sense of the word.² After a life rich in pioneering scientific achievements, he died at his estate where he retired in his later years. Details of al-Zuhrī's biography are discussed in the first three sections of the present study, while the last three deal with geographical aspects of his estate. The emphasis on the geographical

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¹ Ibn Qudăma al-Maqdisi, *al-Tabyin fi ansāb al-Qurashiyyin*, ed. M.N. al-Dulaymi (Beirut 1408/1988), 303; Dhababi, *Nubalā*', V, 326.

² Cf. on him G.H.A. Juynboll, *Muslim Tradition: Studies in Chronology, Prove*nance and Authorship of Early Hadith (Cambridge 1983), 146f (al-Zuhri, 'perhaps of all *hadith* transmitters occurs most frequently in *isnāds*'). Juynboll argues (149) that 'many of those who had the nisba Zuhri ... may often have been addressed by that name or may have asked to be called by it, in so doing creating confusion with the one great transmitter who was alternatively called Zuhri or Ibn Shihāb'. It seems to me that such a phenomenon (if it existed at all) could only have had a marginal effect.

Al-Zuhri's legal activity and its transmission have recently been studied – in my mind convincingly and with much common sense – by H. Motzki, 'Der Fiqh des Zuhri: die Quellenproblematik', Der Islam 68 (1991), 1-44. Elsewhere Motzki remarks that Ibn Jurayj always refers to him as Ibn Shihāb, while others, such as Ma'mar b. Rāshid, refer to him by the nisba al-Zuhri. Motzki plausibly ascribes this to regional preferences; see his Die Anfänge der islamischen Jurisprudenz. Ihre Entwicklung in Mekka bis zur Mitte des 2./8. Jahrhunderts (Stuttgart 1991), 194f. With regard to the sobriquet Ibn Shihāb, note that a poet called him, in a verse, Muḥammad b. Shihāb; Maqrīzī, Muqaffd, VII, 251. Why was Shihāb used in this sobriquet, rather than an ancestor closer to al-Zuhri? Because compared with the name Muslim and the other names in al-Zuhri's pedigree, the name Shihāb was rare.

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data is methodologically important, as it stems from my conviction that the history of Arabia should be studied with constant reference to the abundant geographical information at our disposal.

1. Al-Zuhrī and the Umayyads

The sources now available to us for al-Zuhrī's biography³ are far more numerous than those which I. Goldziher had access to when writing, a century ago, about al-Zuhrī's relationship with the Umayyads.⁴ But although we are in a position to have more details about al-Zuhrī, Goldziher's brilliant analysis of his links with the ruling family still holds. If anything, like good wine it improves with time.⁵ Yet as we shall see, there were attempts to replace Goldziher's realistic (and not at all unsympathetic) approach with a romantic and apologetic view of al-Zuhrī's links with the Umayyads. The relationship between the Umayyad rulers and the religious scholars of their time is an important factor in the study of both Islamic history and the emergence of Islamic literature.

With regard to the much-quoted passage from al-Ya'qūbī concerning 'Abd al-Malik's wish to replace the pilgrimage to Mecca, then under Ibn al-Zubayr's control, with pilgrimage to Jerusalem, Goldziher remarks that al-Zuhrī 'was given the task of justifying this politically motivated reform of religious life by making up⁶ and spreading a saying traced back to the Prophet, according to which there are three mosques to which people may make pilgrimages: those in Mecca, Medina and Jerusalem'.⁷ Basing himself on a passage from al-Khațīb al-Baghdādī, Goldziher then adds several paragraphs about al-Zuhrī:

How the Umayyads made it their business to put into circulation *hadīths* which seemed to them desirable, and how people of the type of the pious al-Zuhrī acquiesced in being their tools — though they certainly were not guided by selfish motives⁸ but merely by reasons of

³ I am particularly indebted to Ibn 'Asākir's History of Damascus.

⁴ Goldziher regretted having had no access to Ibn 'Asākir; *Muslim Studies*, ed. S.M. Stern, tr. C.R. Barber and S.M. Stern (London 1967-71), II, 46, n. 1. The most detailed *tarjama* of al-Zuhrī used by Juynboll a decade ago (*Muslim Tradition*, 169) was the one found in al-Fasawī's *al-Ma*'rifah wa-al-ta'rīkh, I, 620-43.

⁵ Muslim Studies, II, 43f.

⁶ This is doubtful. Cf. A. Elad, *Medieval Jerusalem and Islamic Worship* (Leiden, 1995), 156-7; below, nn. 36, 88.

⁷ Muslim Studies, II, 44f. See now in great detail Elad, Medieval Jerusalem, 147-63.

⁸ In a footnote Goldziher refers here to al-Zuhri's selflessness, quoting an utterance of 'Amr b. Dînâr; see on it below, n. 63.

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state expediency — is to be seen from evidence preserved by al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī.⁹ Here we find an account ... from 'Abd al-Razzāq (d. 211), a disciple of Ma'mar b. Rāshid (d. 153), in the name of the latter; Ma'mar himself belonged to the group of the disciples of al-Zuhri. This account tells us that the Umayyad Ibrahim b. al-Walid ... came to al-Zuhri with a notebook he had written [my italics; M.L.], and asked his permission to spread the sayings contained in it as hadiths communicated by al-Zuhri. The latter gave his permission easily: 'Who else could have told you the hadiths?' Thus the Umayyad was enabled to circulate the contents of his manuscript as texts taught him by al-Zuhri. This account fully confirms the willingness of al-Zuhri ... to promote the interests of the dynasty by religious means. His piety probably caused his conscience to be troubled occasionally but he could not forever resist the pressure of the governing circles. ... Al-Zuhri did not belong to the circle of the irreconcilable but to those who thought a modus vivendi with the government was desirable. He did not avoid the court but moved unhesitatingly in the ruler's entourage, and we even see him, during a pilgrimage of al-Hajjāj, among the followers of this bogey of the pious. He was employed by Hisham as tutor to the prince and under Yazid II he even consented to accept the office of judge Al-Zuhrī did not have to consider scruples about accepting public office under the Umayyads since he had always shown himself willing to co-operate with the ruling powers.¹⁰

Goldziher's forceful analysis of al-Zuhrī's relations with the Umayyads has been strongly attacked in recent years by some contemporary scholars.¹¹ Before studying the details of this onslaught it would be useful to remind ourselves that a student specializing in a particular religion, any religion, sometimes arrives at conclusions which are incompatible with the beliefs held by the adherents of that religion.

⁹ Kifāyah, 266. We shall have to return to this evidence later.

¹⁰ Muslim Studies, II, 46f. J. Horovitz, 'The Earliest Biographies of the Prophet and their Authors', II, Islamic Culture 2 (1928), 22-50, at 40, says more accurately that al-Zuhrī educated Hishām's children (not just one of them).

¹¹ Cf. however, Kh. 'Athāmina, 'The 'Ulamā' in the Opposition: the "Stick and Carrot" Policy in Early Islam', *The Islamic Quarterly* 36 (1992), 153-78, at 166, who, with reference to Goldziher, speaks of scholars who 'were used by the regime as a vehicle of propaganda to counteract the voices of those who opposed the regime. They were an effective means of propagating traditions which favoured the ruler and defamed his adversaries. In other words, they practised *wad*" *al-hadīth* ("forging of *hadīth*") or were used to disseminate false traditions.' See also 168f. Also O. Livne-Kafri, 'On Jerusalem in Early Islam', *Cathedra* 51 (1989), 35-66 [in Hebrew], at 52f, who correctly remarks that while a few pious persons fought against the Umayyads and refused to accept government offices, many of them were willing to serve them.

Sensitive issues will inevitably cause a rift between non-Islamic scholarship and orthodox Islamic values. Whilst it is true that in many fields of Islamic studies non-Muslim and Muslim scholars work together towards achieving the same scientific goals, a restatement of the fundamental difference in outlook is necessary, because when that is blurred, hypocrisy and lies emerge.¹²

In recent decades we have been witnessing a conscious attempt to detract from the importance of al-Zuhri's Umayyad connection and to present him as an independent scholar.¹³ But before we turn to the revision of al-Zuhri's relations with the Umayyads, let us look at two points of detail on which Goldziher is said to have misunderstood the Arabic text. It is no accident that both relate to al-Zuhri's relationship with the Umayyads.

First, F. Sezgin challenged Goldziher's interpretation of al-Zuhrī's famous statement about the writing down of *hadīth*, *akraha-nā 'alay-hi hā'ulā'i al-umarā'*, which according to Goldziher 'can only be understood on the assumption of al-Zuhrī's willingness to lend his name, which was in general esteemed by the Muslim community, to the government's wishes'.¹⁴ Using unambiguous terms G. Schoeler recently reinstated Goldziher's interpretation of this phrase, correctly rejecting Sezgin's translation.¹⁵ Further evidence supports the interpretation of

¹² See also the section entitled Arabists versus Historians, in P. Crone, 'Serjeant and Meccan Trade', Arabica 39 (1992), 216-40, at 237f.

¹³ This approach is not new; cf. Juynboll, *The Authenticity of the Tradition Literature: Discussions in Modern Egypt* (Leiden 1969), 109.

¹⁴ Muslim Studies II, 47; see F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schriftiums (= GAS; Leiden, 1967f), I, 281. Juynboll (Authenticity, 112) assumes that 'Goldziher's interpretation is not tenable'. Juynboll (Muslim Tradition, 169, n. 32) argues that the version found in al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rikh, I, 633 (kunnā lā narā l-kitāb shay'an, [fa-akrahat-nā 'alay-hi al-umarā', fa-ahbabnā an nuwāsiya bayn al-nās]), 'seems to support Sezgin's interpretation'. Dūrī's translation (The Rise of Historical Writing among the Arabs, ed. and tr. L.I. Conrad (Princeton 1983), 119, is not different from Goldziher's: 'We disliked writing (al-kitāb) until the authorities (alumarā') compelled us to do so; then I decided not to prevent any Muslim from doing likewise.' However, Dūrī qualifies this by adding, 'but this appears to echo the view of hadīth scholars of later times'.

¹⁵ Schoeler, 'Mündliche Thora und Hadīth: Überlieferung, Schreibverbot, Redaktion', Der Islam 66 (1989), 213-51, at 228f: 'Wir hatten eine Abneigung dagegen, das Wissen (sc. die Tradition) niederzuschreiben, bis diese Herrscher uns dazu gezwungen haben. Nun sind wir der Meinung, daß wir es (sc. das Niederschreiben der Tradition) keinem Muslim mehr verwehren sollten.' M.J. Kister calls Sezgin's interpretation of the phrase 'far-fetched'; see Kister, "*Lā taqra'ū al-qur'āna 'alā al-muṣhafiyyīn wa-lā tahmilū al-'ilma 'an al-ṣaḥafiyyīn ...*": Some Notes on the Transmission of *Hadīth*', paper presented at the Sixth Colloquium on 'From Jāhiliyya to Islam', JSAI (forthcoming), where the phrase is thoroughly analysed. this phrase as a reference to writing as opposed to memorizing. Two Umayyad caliphs are mentioned in this context, 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān (65-86/685-705) and Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik (105-25/724-43). The traditionist al-Walīd b. Muslim implies (although he does not specifically mention the writing down of *hadīth*) that al-Zuhrī had already succumbed to Umayyad pressure at the time of 'Abd al-Malik.¹⁶

The evidence concerning Hishām is far stronger. According to one version of the report just quoted, it was Hishām who forced al-Zuhrī to abandon his former objection to the writing down of *hadīth*: al-Zuhrī then dictated it to Hishām's sons (whose mentor he was). Following this, al-Zuhrī allowed ordinary Muslims to write down his *hadīth*.¹⁷ This and other similar records relating to the writing down of *hadīth* should not be read as straightforward historical records. Rather, they are apologetic statements made in connection with the heated debate over the techniques of transmitting *hadīth*. They seek to make value judgements about the practice of writing down *hadīth* by pointing out the alleged circumstances in which the cherished ideal of memorizing was abandoned in favour of writing.

Further important proof is included in a report from Wāqidī < Muḥammad b. 'Abdallāh b. Muslim, better known as Ibn Akhī

¹⁶ Khanaja al-Zuhrī min al-Khadrā' min 'ind 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān fa-jalasa 'inda dhāka al-'amūd [al-Walīd was of course pointing to a specific column in the mosque of Damascus] fa-qāla: yā ayyuhā al-nās, innā kunnā qad mana'nā-kum shay'an qad badhalnā-hu li-hā'ulā'i [i.e., the permission to write down hadīth] fata'ālaw hastā uhadditha-kum [viz. while you write down my hadīth]; Dhahabī, Ta'rīkh al-Islām, 243f. On 'Abd al-Malik's purchasing of al-Khadrā' from Khālid b. Yazīd b. Mu'āwiyah see M. 'Abd al-Qādir Khresat, 'al-Qaṭā'i' fī al-'aṣr al-umawī', Dirāsāt ('Ammān) 16,iii (1989), 30-62, at 48 (where the reference given is incorrect).

¹⁷ Kāna al-Zuhrī lā yatruku ahadan yaktubu bayna yaday-hi, fa-akraha-hu Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik fa-amlā 'alā banī-hi. Fa-lammā kharaja min 'indi-hi dakhala al-masjid fa-istanada ilā 'amūd min 'umudi-hi, thumma nādā: yā talabata al-hadīth. Fa-lammā ijtama'ū ilay-hi qāla: innī kuntu mana'tu-kum amnan badhaltu-hu li-amīr al-mu'minīna ānifan, halumma fa-uktubū, fa-kataba 'an-hu al-nās min yauma' idhin; TMD, Zuhrī, 91. Kister, "Lā taqra'ū al-qur'ān 'alā al-muṣḥafiyyīn', suggests that 'the hadīths which al-Zuhrī was bidden to write down for the sons of the Caliph were of an official character. They may have touched upon events which affected people's opinions, such as those connected with the role of some Qurashī enemies of the Prophet who later embraced Islam and became virtuous believers.' Having added further categories of material, Kister concludes: 'These kinds of traditions seem to be the reason why al-Zuhrī was vexed and decided to change his manner of transmission, permitting every Muslim to write down *hadīth*.'

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al-Zuhrī ('al-Zuhrī's nephew' [mentioned later in this study]).¹⁸ Wāqidī once queried al-Zuhrī's nephew about the circumstances in which he had heard a certain *hadīth* from his uncle. The nephew answered:

I was with him when Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik ordered him to write down [or rather, to dictate] for him his *hadīth*, and he seated before him secretaries (*kuttāb*) to whom al-Zuhrī dictated while they recorded. I used to attend this. Sometimes I had to relieve myself and I would stand up. My uncle used to stop dictating until I returned to my seat.¹⁹

Paradoxically, the detail concerning the nephew's going to the lavatory is the most important component in this report: al-Zuhri's nephew seeks to establish that he was present throughout the sessions during which his uncle dictated his hadith to Hisham b. 'Abd al-Malik's secretaries or, in other words, that he was a trustworthy transmitter of his uncle's hadith. The reliability of the nephew's claims does not concern us here. However, al-Zuhri's dictation of his *hadīth* to Hishām's secretaries is relevant for us and appears to be authentic, since it forms the background to the account; it is something taken for granted. This is yet another report on this subject, totally independent of the aforementioned one in which we were told of how Hisham forced al-Zuhri to dictate hadith to his (Hishām's) sons. It is important to emphasize that the secretaries (kuttāb) were of course government officials, as is made clear by the frequent references to sultan and wulat in the context of al-Zuhri's dictation (see below).

Reportedly, the envoy who brought al-Zuhrī Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik's request that he dictate (*hadīth*) to him (i.e., to Hishām) was 'Uqayl b. Khālid al-Aylī. Al-Zuhrī complied.²⁰ 'Uqayl, a *mawlā* of the Umayyads, more precisely of the family (*āl*) of 'Uthmān b. 'Affān, is known to have worked for the Umayyad state. Al-Mājishūn

¹⁸ For an entry on Ibn Akhī al-Zuhrī see TMD, Mukht., XXII, 328f. Muḥammad's father, who was al-Zuhrī's elder brother, was a *ḥadīth* transmitter; Tahdh., VI, 29.

¹⁹ Ibn Sa'd, Qism mutammim, 453 (kuntu ma'a-hu haythu amara-hu Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik an yaktuba la-hu hadītha-hu wa-ajlasa la-hu kuttāban yumlī 'alay-him al-Zuhrī wa-yaktubūna. Fa-kuntu ahduru dhālika fa-rubbamā 'aradat lī al-hājah faaqūmu fi-hā fa-yumsiku 'ammī 'an al-imlā' hattā a'ūda ilā makān-ī). See the same report in TMD, MS, XV, 559f; al-Mizzī, Tahdhīb al-kamāl, XXV, 558.

²⁰ Ibn Khalfün al-Andalusi, Asmä' shuyükh al-imäm Mälik b. Anas, ed. M.Z.M. 'Azb (Cairo n.d.), 110: wa-yuqälu inna-hu käna rasüla Hishäm ilä al-Zuhri fi an yumliya 'alay-hi, fa-amlä 'alay-hi al-Zuhri.

(= Ya'qūb b. Abī Salamah) said, "Uqayl was a shurtī here ('inda-nā) in Medina, and he died in Egypt in 141' (758-9).²¹

One of Hishām's secretaries who wrote down al-Zuhrī's *hadīth* can probably be identified as Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamzahib. Dīnār al-Himsī (d. 162/779), a *mawlā* of the Banū Umayyah. He was a secretary of Hishām in al-Rusāfah, where he received *hadīth* from al-Zuhrī. He also accompanied al-Zuhrī on a pilgrimage to Mecca.²² Yahyā b. Ma'īn reported that Shu'ayb was one of the secretaries (*kuttāb*) who recorded al-Zuhrī's *hadīth*: 'Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamza wrote down al-Zuhrī's *hadīth* when he dictated it for the rulers, being a secretary' (*kataba 'an al-Zuhrī imlā'an li-l-sultān, kāna kātiban*).²³ There are indications that Shu'ayb was (at some point) the secretary (*kātib*) of al-Zuhrī himself.²⁴ This *kātib*-office may have been connected to al-Zuhrī's role as *qādī* (on which see below).

Shu'ayb, then, is a specific example of an official who wrote down al-Zuhri's *hadīth* in al-Ruṣāfah, on Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik's orders. In other words, the general statement about the secretaries who were ordered to write down al-Zuhri's *hadīth* matches the evidence about one of them. This confirms the involvement of the Umayyad state in recording al-Zuhri's *hadīth*.²⁵

We know of yet another person who participated in 'al-Zuhri's dictation (*imlā*') for the rulers': Yūnus b. Yazīd (al-Aylī, a *mawlā* of

²¹ Dhahabī, *Nubalā*', VI, 302. This remark has more to do with 'Uqayl's reputation as a *hadīth* transmitter than with a genuine interest in his biography.

²² TMD, MS, VIII, 76. Shu'ayb was the mawlā of Ziyād (viz. Ziyād b. Abīhi); TMD, MS, VIII, 76:-1. He was the official in charge of Hishām's nafaqāt (wa-kāna min kuttāb Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik 'alā nafaqāti-hi wa-kāna al-Zuhrī ma'a-hum bial-Ruṣāfah); TMD, MS, VIII, 80:25; Abū Zur'a, Ta'rīkh, I, 433; II, 715.

²³ TMD, MS, VIII, 78:13. Dhahabī explains (Nubalā', VII, 188) that by sultān, Yahyā means Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik. Cf. the slightly different wording of Yahyā in TMD, MS, VIII, 79:4 (shahida al-imlā min al-Zuhrī li-al-sultān); also 80:10 (wa-kāna samā'u-hu min al-Zuhrī ma' al-wulāh imlā min al-Zuhrī 'alay-him). See also Abū Hātim's remark (79:7): hadara Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamzah al-Rusāfah haythu amlā al-Zuhrī, fa-samā'u-hu min al-Zuhrī imlā. Another expert remarks (79:18): wa-kāna samā'u-hu min al-Zuhrī ma'a al-sultān. 'Alī b. al-Madīnī (79:21) adds another aspect when he refers to the form of Shu'ayb's 'notebooks': kutub Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamzah tushbihu kutub al-dīwān, which Ibn 'Asākir interprets as an expression of disapproval (yurīdu 'Alī b. al-Madīnī bi-dhālika mā hakā-hu Yahyā b. Ma'īn anna-hu sami'a-hu ma'a al-wulāh). For a positive appraisal of Shu'ayb's transmission from al-Zuhrī see Yahyā b. Ma'īn, Ma'rifat al-rijāl, I, 120f.

²⁴ Yahyā b. Ma'īn, quoted in Tahdh., IV, 351, says: Shu'ayb min athbat al-nās fi al-Zuhrī, kāna kātiban la-hu. Another expert, al-Khalili, quoted in Tahdh., IV, 352, says: kāna kātib al-Zuhrī.

²⁵ Yahya b. Ma'in is also quoted in Su'alat Ibn al-Junayd, 394.

Mu'āwiyah b. Abī Sufyān). Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn referred in this context both to him and to the abovementioned Shu'ayb.²⁶

It is not clear to what extent our *hadith* collections reflect the government's significant role in the earliest stages of the writing down of *hadith* but at any rate it is a major factor to be reckoned with when studying the emergence of early Islamic literature.

The second point of detail on which Goldziher is said to have misunderstood the Arabic text concerns his interpretation of the story about the Umayyad prince who, in Goldziher's words, 'came to al-Zuhri with a notebook he had written, and asked his permission to spread the sayings contained in it as *hadiths* communicated by al-Zuhri'. The exact wording is crucial for our discussion: 'Abd al-Razzāg < Ma'mar: ra'aytu rajulan min Banī Umayyah yuqālu la-hu Ibrāhīm b. al-Walīd jā'a ilā al-Zuhrī bi-kitāb fa-'arada-hu 'alay-hi thumma qāla: uhaddithu bi-hādhā 'an-ka yā Abā Bakr? qāla: la-'amrī fa-man yuhaddithu-kumūhu ghayri? In the source just quoted this is immediately followed by a variant version in which the passage ja'a ilā al-Zuhrī bi-kitāb fa-'arada-hu 'alay-hi, is replaced by wa-'arada 'alay-hi kitāban min 'ilmi-hi.27 This variant is important because of its explicit statement, perhaps overlooked by Goldziher, that the notebook included, or was supposed to have included, al-Zuhri's own 'ilm.28 Ibn Sa'd, in a volume recently published,29 has a less precise version: wa-'arada 'alay-hi kitāban min 'ilm, instead of ... min 'ilmi-hi. The editor of this volume of Ibn Sa'd, Ziyad Muhammad Manşūr, challenges Goldziher's interpretation. He criticizes Goldziher for overlooking the reference to the technique of hadith transmission called 'ard which many, including al-Zuhri, considered to be legitimate.³⁰ According to Mansūr, al-Zuhri's words fa-man yuhaddithu-kumūhu ghayrī mean 'Who but me knows these hadīths and can transmit them to you and give you permission to transmit them further?' Manşūr has in mind the ninety hadiths transmitted only by al-Zuhri and no one else (ay man ya'lamu bi-hādhihi al-ahādīth ghayrī hattā yuhadditha-kum wa-yujīza-kum bi-hā, idh thabata anna al-Zuhrī infarada bi-tis'īna hadīthan lā yarwī-hā ghayru-hu). This,

²⁶ Su'ālāt Ibn al-Junayd, 307 (Yūnus b. Yazīd shahida al-imlā'a min al-Zuhrī lil-sultān wa-Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamza shahida al-imlā'a). On Yūnus see below, n. 105/05. (The above-mentioned 'Uqayl b. Khālid was also a mawlā of the Umayyads who lived in Aylah.)

- ²⁷ Al-Khaşīb al-Baghdādī, Kifāyah, 266.
- ²⁸ Goldziher certainly knew the term 'ard; see Muslim Studies, II, 205n.
- ²⁹ Qism mutammim, 172.
- ³⁰ Cf. Juynboll, Authenticity, 112.

Manşūr adds, is the meaning of the text, not what the Jew Goldziher claimed (*lā kamā za'ama al-yahūdī Goldziher*), namely that Ibrāhīm wrote a *sahīfah*, brought it to al-Zuhrī, and asked for his permission to disseminate the *hadīths* included in it as though he had heard them from him. Manşūr concludes by saying that the text explicitly states that Ibrāhīm presented the *hadīths* to his teacher al-Zuhrī using the technique known as 'ard ('arada 'alā shaykhi-hi 'ardan), which many Muhaddithūn consider to be on the same level as samā'.³¹

While Mansur's criticism about the technical term 'ard may be justified to some extent, on the whole he misinterprets the report while Goldziher understands it correctly. It is true that the kitab min 'ilmi-hi, which the prince 'presented' to al-Zuhrī ('arada)³² was supposed to include al-Zuhri's own 'ilm which he transmitted or dictated to the prince, who in his turn wrote it down in a notebook. In other words, the wording does not suggest that the hadiths in the notebook were invented by the prince. But this point of detail does not affect Goldziher's overall interpretation of the text. The crux of the matter is not al-Zuhri's approval of the 'ard technique but his allegedly sloppy and irresponsible application of it. Mansur is wrong in assuming that the text does not indicate reprehensible conduct on al-Zuhri's part in connection with the transmission of hadith. Al-Zuhri's alleged answer to the prince, 'Who else could have told you the hadith?' is adduced by al-Zuhri's student, Ma'mar b. Rāshid, in order to convey to us that al-Zuhrī had no intention of checking the contents of the kitāb presented to him for inspection. (This is not the only criticism made by Ma'mar about al-Zuhri's practices in transmitting hadith. Ma'mar accused al-Zuhri of employing the same method as al-Hakam b. Utaybah: both used to ascribe the *hadīth* of one informant to another.³³)

³¹ Ibn Sa'd, Qism mutammim, 172n. Cf. E. Kohlberg, 'al-Uṣūl al-Arba'umi'a', JSAI 10 (1987), 128-66, at 139; reprinted in idem, Belief and Law in Imāmī Shī'ism (London 1991), no. VII.

³² Goldziher rendered this 'a notebook he had written'; the German original has here: 'mit einem fertigen Hefte kam'.

³³ TMD, Zuhrī, 129 (kāna al-Zuhrī fî aṣhābi-hi mithl al-Hakam b. 'Utaybah fî aṣhābi-hi, yanqulu hadītha ba'di-him ilā ba'd). A variant version (loc. cit.) has: kāna... yarwī 'an 'Urwah wa-Sālim al-shay'a ka-dhālika. The naql of which Wāqidī was accused is the same as the one ascribed to al-Zuhrī; Dhahabī, Nubalā', IX, 463 (kāna yanqulu al-hadītha). Interestingly, as a specific example of Wāqidī's practice of naql, hadīths which he claimed to have been from al-Zuhrī are mentioned (rawā... ahādītha 'an al-Zuhrī laysat min hadīthi-hi). It is perhaps no accident that al-Hakam b. 'Utaybah al-'Ijlī was a member of the Umayyad administration at the time of Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik, more precisely he was qādī in Kufa during the governorship of Khālid al-Qasrī; Wakī', III, 22f.

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That a flaw in al-Zuhri's practice as *hadith* transmitter is meant here can be shown by another, similar, report. It records the criticism of the great-great-grandson of 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb, 'Ubaydallāh b. 'Umar (147/764), who, like Ma'mar b. Rāshid, was al-Zuhri's student:³⁴

I have seen Ibn Shihāb when one of his 'books' [kitāb min kutubi-hi, i.e., a written collection or notebook including hadīths transmitted from al-Zuhrī] was brought to him. And he was asked [by his student who brought him the 'book']: 'O Abū Bakr, this is your book and your hadīth, shall we transmit it on your authority?' He said: 'Yes.' He did not read it out and it was not read out to him.³⁵

The same criticism was levelled at al-Zuhrī in connection with the Umayyad prince. J. Horovitz interprets 'Ubaydallāh's words correctly when he says that al-Zuhrī 'was blamed for having allowed a volume containing Hadîth reported by him, which was submitted to him for approval, to be passed on to posterity, without first looking through it'. Horovitz continues, plausibly linking this to the aformentioned story of the Umayyad prince: 'According to one version it was Ibrâhîm ibn Al-Walîd to whom he gave such a permission.' Horovitz adds that 'it was possible in that way to adduce in the name of Al-Zuhri reports which he himself never knew'.³⁶

Two other versions of the above-mentioned report about 'Ubaydallāh provide further elucidation: 'Ubaydallāh testifies that it was he himself, not an anonymous person, who brought a 'book' to al-Zuhrī and received immediate permission to transmit it. In one version al-Zuhrī (briefly) looked at the 'book' (*dafa'tu ilā bni Shihāb kitāban naṣara fī-hi fa-qāla: rwi-hi 'annī*). The other version emphasizes that al-Zuhrī did not even look at the book: it was given to him folded.³⁷

³⁴ GAS, I, 89.

³⁵ Ibn Sa'd, Qism mutammim, 173. In Duri, Rise, 120, quoting Dhahabī, Tarājim rijāl, 69, the translation is wrong: "Ubayd Allāh ibn 'Umar reported, "I used to see al-Zuhrī give [someone] a book which he neither recited [to the students] nor had recited to him [by the students]." In 'Ubaydallāh's report, al-Zuhrī receives a notebook (yu'tā al-kitābah, i.e., for inspection) and does not give it. In Duri, Rise, n. 296, instead of: al-Khațib al-Baghdādī, Ta'rīkh Baghdād, I, 266, read: al-Khațib al-Baghdādī, Kifāyah, 266. Cf. Juynboll, Muslim Tradition, 155, n. 57 (who, I believe, provides the wrong context).

³⁶ Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 48. Horovitz's concluding sentence reveals an important area of disagreement between him and Goldziher: 'That he invented Hadîth in order to promote the interests of the Umayyads is, however, unacceptable.'

³⁷ TMD, Zuhri, 151 (ataytu al-Zuhri bi-kitāb mudraj fa-qultu: atui hādhā 'an-ka? gāla: na'am). See also al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rīkh, II, 823 (where the same 'Ubaydallāh b. 'Umar says: ashhadu 'alā Ibn Shihāb anna-hu kāna yu'tā bi-al-kitāb min

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As we have seen, it was Ma'mar b. Rāshid who criticized al-Zuhrī for his conduct with the Umayyad prince, Ibrāhīm b. al-Walīd. It is important to note that according to Ma'mar's testimony, the knowledge (or *hadīth*) which he himself received from al-Zuhrī was transmitted to him impeccably, namely he read it out to al-Zuhrī, who in turn authorized him to transmit it on his (al-Zuhrī's) authority (viz. he considered the student's reading to the teacher to be on a par with the teacher's reading to the student).³⁸

So much for the allegations made concerning Goldziher's command of Arabic with regard to al-Zuhrī's association with the Umayyads. Far subtler is the revision of the evidence with the aim of blunting its message. This is done by focusing on some marginal pieces of evidence at the expense of the central ones. As we shall soon find out, al-Zuhrī's contemporaries (and later medieval Muslim scholars as well) were more critical of his relations with the Umayyads than some of our contemporaries.³⁹

M.M. Azami writes about al-Zuhrī, quite oblivious to the aversion of the pious to entering government service, so intelligently analysed by Goldziher a century ago:⁴⁰

The gravest charge against him is his co-operation with the ruling family. There were many great scholars who co-operated with the government and held offices. ... Therefore, it cannot be a charge against someone that he accepted an office in the government, provided that his conduct was right.⁴¹

The Indian scholar N.A. Faruqi writes about al-Zuhrī: 'He was closely associated with the Umayyad court. But ... in matters of

kutubi-hi fa-yataıaffahu-hu wa-yansuru fi-hi thumma yaqūlu: hādhā hadīthī a'rifuhu khudh-hu minnī); Yahyā b. Ma'īn, Ma'rifat al-rijāl, II, 149 ('Ubaydallāh: kuntu arā al-Zuhrī yu'tā bi-al-daftar mā qara'a-hu wa-lā 'uriḍa 'alay-hi, fa-yuqālu la-hu: narwī hādhā 'an-ka? fa-yaqūlu: na'am).

³⁸ Al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rikh, II, 827 (qara'tu al-'ilm 'alā al-Zuhri fa-lammā faraghtu min-hu qultu: uhaddithu bi-hādhā 'an-ka? qāla: wa-man haddatha-ka bi-hādhā ghayri?).

³⁹ See also Kister, 'The Sirah Literature', in A.F.L. Beeston et al. (eds.), The Cambridge History of Anabic Literature: Anabic Literature to the End of the Umayyad Period (Cambridge 1983; = CHALUP), 352-67, at 365: 'The favours bestowed on al-Zuhrī by the Umayyads and the close relations between him and the rulers aroused the suspicions of independent hadīth scholars as to his integrity.'

⁴⁰ Muslim Studies, II, 47f. For rich documentation, accompanied by a balanced analysis, of the two types of religious scholars, namely those who were willing to co-operate with the rulers and take up government offices, and those who opposed it, see 'Athāmina, 'The 'Ulamā' in the Opposition'.

⁴¹ M.M. Azami, Studies in Early Hadith Literature (Indianapolis 1978), 288.

historical and religious significance, he observed accuracy and impartiality and did not yield to timely political pressures.⁴²

'Abd al-'Azīz al-Dūrī, who has written extensively on al-Zuhrī, makes a remarkable effort at establishing al-Zuhrī's independence of the Umayyad court. He says that 'there is an account reported from al-Zuhrī which indicates that he was critical of 'Abd al-Malik during the period of the struggle with Ibn al-Zubayr'.⁴³ The same line of thought was adopted, probably independently, by Azami (who does not list Dūrī in his bibliography): 'Undoubtedly he was attached to the Caliph's court from the time of 'Abd al-Malik to Hishām's. It is also true that he had been heavily in debt several times, that was paid off by Caliphs, yet his relation with the Caliphs was not always smooth.' Azami also argues that 'it would be unfair to history, to deduce from al-Zuhrī's relation with the Umayyad dynasty, that he was a tool in their hands, and that they exploited his name, fame and knowledge to circulate false traditions in their favour'.⁴⁴

Returning to Dūrī, we notice an attempt to distance al-Zuhrī from the court:

Though he did make occasional and intermittent visits to the Umayyad court, al-Zuhri's studies probably kept him in Medina most of the time. Later he moved to Adāma, in southern Palestine near the boundary of the Hijaz, and from there made trips to the Hijaz and to Damascus (the Umayyad court) 'for academic purposes' (*li-'ilmi-hi*).⁴⁵

However, a traditionist from al-Ruşāfah reports that al-Zuhrī stayed in al-Ruşāfah throughout the caliphate of Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik

⁴² N.A. Faruqi, Early Muslim Historiography (Delhi 1979), 237, n. 1.

⁴³ Dūrī, Rise, 118; Dūrī, 'al-Zuhrī', BSOAS 19 (1957), 1-12, at 11, citing Balādhurī, Ansāb, XI, 163, read probably: 167. The dating of the utterance attributed to al-Zuhrī to the struggle with Ibn al-Zubayr does not belong to the text but to Dūrī's interpretation; in fact, the wording seems to suggest that it was made after the time of 'Abd al-Malik. Cf. TMD, Mukht., XV, 224. According to Dūrī (Rise, 117n), Goldziher's remarks concerning al-Zuhrī's relations with the Umayyads 'are not very critical'; see also Dūrī, 'al-Zuhrī', 10n (they are 'hardly critical').

⁴⁴ Azami, Studies in Early Hadith Literature, 288f.

⁴⁵ Dūrī, Rise, 118f. Cf. Dūrī, 'al-Zuhrī', 11 (where *li-'ilmi-hi* is rendered 'as a scholar'). Dūrī suggests that it is more likely that al-Zuhrī settled in Damascus at the time of Yazīd II and Hishām (but there is evidence that he had settled there already at the time of 'Abd al-Malik; see Section 2 below). The meaning of *li-'ilmi-hi* is obscure to me. The wording of the passage in question is: wafada al-Zuhrī 'alā 'Abd l-Malik wa-istawtana al-Shām wa-kāna yataraddadu ilā al-Hijāz wa-yaḥujju wa-yafiqu [read: wa-yafidu] 'alā Banī Umayyah li-'ilmi-hi; Dhahabī, Tarājim rijāl, 70. Concerning Adāma, note that it was only when al-Zuhrī grew old that he retired to his estate there; see below, n. 160.

(*khilāfata Hishām kulla-hā*), namely for nineteen years and eight months.⁴⁶ Dūrī does mention that al-Zuhrī officiated as *qāḍī* for Yazīd b. 'Abd al-Malik and was the tutor of Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik's children,⁴⁷ but he then quotes in detail a dispute between al-Zuhrī and Hishām:

... from a fierce argument which transpired between him and Hishām, we can see that al-Zuhrī had not fallen under the influence of the Umayyads. Hishām asked him who was meant in the Qur'ānic verse, 'whichever of them takes upon himself the greater part of it'⁴⁸ and al-Zuhrī replied, 'It was 'Abd Allāh ibn Ubayy'. 'You lie', Hishām cried, 'It was 'Alī!'. Al-Zuhrī replied, 'I lie?! May you have no father! By God, even if a herald were to cry out from heaven that God had permitted lying, still I would not lie'. Such was al-Zuhrī the scholar.⁴⁹

This revision of al-Zuhri's links with the Umayyads lacks a sense of proportion. Even if we accept as historical al-Zuhri's critical comment concerning 'Abd al-Malik and his reported dispute with Hishām, they do not establish him as an independent intellectual. Al-Zuhri himself appears to have taken pride in his long relationship with the Umayyads, or at least this is what we read in an allegedly autobiographical tradition going back to him.⁵⁰

⁴⁶ Al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rīkh, I, 636. On this Ruṣāfi, Hajjāj b. Abī Manī', see Tahdh., II, 207f; Ibn Sa'd, VII, 474. Another Ruṣāfi testifies that he stayed with al-Zuhrī in al-Ruṣāfah for ten years; Yāqūt, the end of s.v. Ruṣāfat al-Shām; Abū Zur'ah, Ta'rīkh, I, 432; cf. Tahdh., s.v. Muḥammad b. al-Walīd, IX, 502f. When Mālik b. Anas criticized him for leaving Medina after having exhausted its knowledge (talabta al-'ilm ḥattā idhā kunta wi'd'an min aw'iyati-hi tarakta al-Madīnah wa-kharajta 'an-hā), al-Zuhrī answered: innamā kuntu anzilu al-Madīnah wa-al-nās idh dhāka nās; al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rīkh, I, 621.

⁴⁷ See also N. Abbott, 'Collection and Transmission of *Hadith*', in *CHALUP*, 289-98, at 294. In 123/741, shortly before his death, al-Zuhrī made the pilgrimage with Hishām's son Yazīd; Ibn Sa'd, *Qism mutammim*, 165. This confirms the report that going to the pilgrimage with Hishām's children was part of al-Zuhrī's role as their mentor and that he did not depart from them until his death; Dhahabī, *Ta'rīkh al-Islām*, 233 (*wa-hajja Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik sanata sitt wa-mi'a wa-ma'a-hu al-Zuhrī, hasara-hu ma'a wuldi-hi yufaqqihu-hum wa-yu'allimu-hum wa-yahujju ma'a-hum fa-lam yufāriq-hum hattā māta).*

48 Qur'an 24:11.

⁴⁹ Dūrī, Rise, 118, 119. See Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 40f: 'The intercourse between the Khalîfah and his learned court-theologian, as Al-Zuhri has been called, did not always run so smoothly.' It was Goldziher who called al-Zuhrī 'court-theologian', and Horovitz meant this as a mild criticism. Cf. Kister, 'The Sirah Literature', 364 (the context of the story is 'the attempts made by the Umayyads and their governors to denigrate 'Alī in the Sirah ... Al-Zuhrī courageously refuses to transfer the guilt of slandering of 'Ā'ishah from 'Abdullāh b. Ubayy to 'Alī).

⁵⁰ Dhahabī, Nubalā', V, 331 (...wa-tuwuffiya Abd al-Malik fa-lazimtu bna-bu al-Walīd, thumma Sulaymān, thumma 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz, thumma Yazīd ... thumma lazimtu Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik ...). Al-Zuhrī's contemporaries and later medieval Muslim scholars had another perception altogether of al-Zuhrī's links with the Umayyads. For example, Makhūl said, 'What a [great] man he could have been, had he not ruined himself by associating with the kings.'⁵¹ Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn (233/847) said of al-Zuhrī kāna sulṭāniyyan.⁵² Because of this, Yaḥyā preferred the transmission of another scholar to al-Zuhrī's. The famous Mu'tazilite, 'Amr b. 'Ubayd (d. 144/761),⁵³ once reprimanded a man whom he had seen in al-Zuhrī's company, asking, 'What business do you have with the napkin of the rulers?'⁵⁴ The abovementioned Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn would not allow a comparison between al-Zuhrī and al-A'mash. The former considered the 'ard and *ijāza* techniques to be lawful and served in the administration of the Umayyads (*wa-kāna ya'malu li-Banī Umayyah*), whereas the latter (who was obviously opposed to these techniques) was poor and patient and avoided the rulers.⁵⁵

The ascetic Abū Hāzim Salamah b. Dīnār is reported to have admonished an Umayyad governor in the presence of al-Zuhrī and other scholars, saying, 'The best of rulers (*umarā*') is one who loves the scholars ('*ulamā*'), and the worst of scholars is one who loves the rulers.'⁵⁶

⁵¹ Dhahabi, Nubalā', V, 339 (ayyu rajul huwa lawlā annahu afsada nafsa-hu bisuhbat al-mulūk). This passage was quoted by Horovitz, El¹, s.v. al-Zuhri; Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 45.

- 52 Su'ālāt Ibn al-Junayd, 355.
- 53 GAS, I, 597; El², s.v. (W.M. Watt).
- ⁵⁴ TMD, Zuhri, 162 (mä laka wa-li-mindil al-umarä').

⁵⁵ Al-Hākim al-Naysābūrī, *Ma'rifat 'ulūm al-hadīth*, ed. M. Husayn (Hyderabad; reprint Medina 1397/1977), 54. See also Sufyān b. 'Uyayna's comment concerning the reliability of Ibn Jurayj's transmission from al-Zuhrī: kāna bn Jurayj yajī'u ilā al-Zuhrī wa-ma'a-hu kitāb fa-yaqūlu: arwī hādhā 'an-ka?; Ibn Abī l-Dunyā, al-Ishrāf fi manāzil al-ashrāf, ed. N. 'A. Khalaf (Riyadh 1411/1990), 198. Al-Zuhrī's answer, needless to say, was positive.

⁵⁶ Dhahabi, Nubalä', VI, 101; TMD, Mukht., X, 67. Having been informed by Salamah about the difference between the 'ulamā' of yore and the contemporary 'ulamā', the caliph Sulaymān b. 'Abd al-Malik allegedly promised to reduce his contacts with al-Zuhrī, who was present at the meeting, to the minimum; TMD, Mukht., X, 68f (wa-la-azhadanna fi al-Zuhrī min ba'd al-yawm). See also Kister, 'The Sinah Literature', 365 (Salamah wrote to al-Zuhrī that the oppressive rulers 'have turned him into the axle of the wheel of their falsehood and into a bridge for their deceit and error'); 'The 'Ulamā' in the Opposition', 159 quotes another passage from the same letter; see also 163. The statement that Salamah officiated as qādī in Medina (see GAS, I, 634) is based on a corrupt text: instead of: kāna yaqdī fi masjid al-Madīnah (Tahdh., IV, 144), and wa-kāna yaqdī bayn al-fajr wa-al-'aşr fi masjid al-Madīnah (TMD, Tahdh., VI, 219), read: wa-kāna yaquṣṣu ba'd al-fajr wa-ba'd alaşr fi masjid al-Madīnah; Ibn Sa'd, Qism mutammim, 332; Dhahabī, Nubalā', VI, 101; TMD, Mukht., X, 66. We clearly have two stereotyped figures here: on the one hand, the rich scholar who associates with the rulers without any scruples, and on the other, the ascetic or *zāhid*. Islamic literature is fond of such contrasts, but the literary stereotypes do not lack a factual basis. Even Mālik b. Anas is reported to have admonished al-Zuhrī for using his knowledge in order to achieve worldly gains.⁵⁷

Of course, the criticism directed at al-Zuhrī did not prevent Mālik or the other critics from transmitting his *hadīth*: al-Zuhrī's imprint on the nascent Islamic literature was so formidable, that he could not be ignored. Another traditionist spoke of al-Zuhrī admiringly, without, however, omitting to mention his association with the government.⁵⁸ Inevitably, this approach finally prevailed: al-Zuhrī's enormous collection of *hadīth* was indispensable.⁵⁹ The same dilemma can be witnessed in the case of Wāqidī, whose large collection of material had to be used in spite of the doubts expressed about his indiscriminate techniques.⁶⁰

⁵⁷ TMD, Zuhrī, 154: amā balagha-ka anna rasūl Allāhi (s) qāla: man talaba shay'an min hādhā al-'ilm alladhī yurādu bi-hi wajh Allāh [the words yaṭlubu bi-hi here are superfluous] shay'an min gharad al-dunyā [read: min 'arad al-dunyā, 'the frail goods of the present world'] dakhala al-nāra? A fuller version of this anecdote (Juynboll, Muslim Tradition, 169f) includes the background to this critical comment: 'Mālik b. Anas... once visited al-Zuhrī with a couple of other people to hear traditions with him. Al-Zuhrī appeared hesitant until a eunuch sent by the Umayyads came to him and likewise asked him about traditions. Then al-Zuhrī opened up.' Juynboll remarks correctly that the report 'points to the controversial issue about al-Zuhrī having, or not having, been under Umayyad pressure regarding the promulgation of hadīths, and that this was taken as a blemish on his character'. ⁵⁸ TMD, Zuhrī, 161 (law kuntu kātiban al-ḥadīth 'an aḥad kuntu kātiba-hu 'an al-Zuhrī, min [sic] rajul ahyā 'ilm tilka al-bald, min rajul yaṣḥabu al-sultān).

⁵⁹ 'Athāmina, 'The 'Ulamā' in the Opposition', 166, writes: 'The excommunication of collaborators centred mainly upon the academic field; *muhaddithün* banned the traditions of this group and refrained from attending their study circles. Among the most prominent of those banned was Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī, who was so severely banned that his study group disintegrated completely.' But 'Athāmina reads too much into his evidence, which consists of Ma'mar b. Rāshid's testimony that when he came to al-Zuhrī in al-Ruṣāfah, nobody used to ask the latter about the *badīth*, so he would bestow (his knowledge) on him (i.e. abundantly) (*fa-lam yakun ahad yas'alu-hu 'an al-badīth, fa-kāna yulqī 'alay-ya*); Abū Nu'aym, *Hibyat al-awliyā'* (Cairo n.d.; reprint Beirut 1387/1967), III, 363. Ma'mar's statement should not be taken at face value (cf. the testimony of a traditionist quoted in Abū Zur'ah, *Ta'rīkh*, I, 432: *kuntu aqna'u bi-al-Ruṣāfah 'alā Ibn Shihāb* etc.). Ma'mar merely states that as long as he stayed in al-Ruṣāfah, he had al-Zuhrī all for himself.

⁶⁰ This is clearly reflected in Dhahabī, Nubalā', IX, 454f (wa-jama'a fa-aw'ā wa-khalata al-ghathth bi-al-samīn wa-al-kharazah bi-al-durr al-thamīn fa-iṭṭaraḥū-hu ('they cast him away') li-dhālika, wa-ma'a hādhā fa-lā yustaghnā 'an-hu fi al-maghāzī wa-ayyām al-ṣaḥābah wa-akhbāri-him). See also Dhahabī, Nubalā', IX, 469 (wa-qad

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES ON IBN SHIHÅB AL-ZUHRI

Al-Zuhri's problematic link with the court also colours remarks made about him by two prominent *hadīth* scholars, 'Amr b. Dīnār and al-Awzā'i. 'Amr b. Dīnār said, 'I have not seen a man more skilled in tracing up [or ascribing, or attributing] a tradition to its author than al-Zuhrī, and I have never seen anyone who had less respect for the *dirham* than him. The *dirham*s were in his eyes nothing more than dung.'⁶¹ Goldziher adduces the second part of 'Amr's utterance as evidence of al-Zuhrī's selflessness.⁶² But while this conclusion may well have been correct,⁶³ it is the first part of the utterance which provides its context. 'Amr is aware of the fact that al-Zuhrī could be accused of receiving bribes from the Umayyads in return for forging *hadīth*. He therefore states that this was impossible. A man with such little respect for money simply could not

taqarrara anna al-Wāqidiyya da'īf yuhtāju ilay-hi fi al-ghazawāt wa-al-ta'rīkh... ammā fi al-farā'id ['concerning the things made obligatory on a person by God', viz. the religious law] fa-lā yanbaghī an yudhkara). It should be noted that Wāqidī, exactly like al-Zuhrī one century earlier, was in financial hardship when he came to the capital Baghdad (qadima Baghdād fi dayn lahiqa-hu) and, again like al-Zuhrī, Wāqidī officiated as qādī (under al-Ma'mūn); Dhahabī, Nubalā', IX, 457. Note Wāqidī's autobiographical report, comparable to al-Zuhrī's autobiographical report, about his arrival in Baghdad and his first meeting with the wazīr Yaḥyā b. Khālid al-Barmakī; Dhahabī, Nubalā', IX, 459.

At some stage, probably late in his life, al-Zuhrī abandoned *hadīth* altogether, possibly motivated by the criticism directed at him. *TMD*, *Zuhrī*, 156, records a story of al-Hasan b. 'Umāra, who was the *qādī* of Baghdad at the time of al-Manşūr, in which this detail appears as a matter of common knowledge: *ataytu al-Zuhrī ba'da an taraka al-hadīth* etc. On al-Hasan see *Tahdh*., II, 304f.

⁶¹ TMD, Zuhrī, 96 (mā ra'aytu ahadan anassa li-l-hadīth min al-Zuhrī, wa-mā ra'aytu ahadan al-dirham ahwanu 'alay-hi min-hu, in kānat al-darāhim 'inda-hu illā bi-manzilat al-ba'r). As is usually the case with Ibn 'Asākir's Ta'rīkh Dimashq, we find several other versions of this saying. See also E.W. Lane, Anabic-English Lexicon (London 1863-93), s.vv. nassa, anassu: nassa al-hadīth means 'he traced up, or ascribed, or attributed, the tradition to the author thereof, resting it on his authority, by mentioning him, or mentioning, uninterruptedly, in ascending order, the persons by whom it had been handed down, up to the author'. Cf. TMD, Zuhrī, 98 ('Amr b. Dīnār: ... fa-lam ara ahadan asnada li-l-hadīth min al-Zuhrī).

⁶² Muslim Studies, II, 46n, quoting al-Tirmidhī, Ṣaḥīḥ (Būlāq 1292/1875), I, 104. Cf. Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 40 (where the name of 'Amr b. Dīnār is garbled).

⁶³ See the version of this utterance in Maqrīzī, Muqaffā, VII, 245: mā ra'aytu anassa li-l-hadīth min Ibn Shihāb wa-lā ra'aytu ajwada min-hu, mā kānat al-danānīr wa-al-darāhim 'inda-hu illā bi-manzilat al-ba'r. But cf. TMD, Zuhrī, 97: mā ra'aytu shaykhan anassa li-l-hadīth al-jayyid min hādhā al-shaykh. Also Ibn Hanbal's utterance, quoted in Ibn Rajab al-Hanbalī, Sharh 'ilal al-Tirmidhī, ed. Ş. al-Sāmarrā'ī (reprint Beirut 1405/1985), 118: al-Zuhrī aḥsanu ḥadīthan wa-ajwadu al-nāsi isnādan. have been bribed. In other words, there was no motive, therefore there was no crime.

As for Awzā'ī, in his appraisal of al-Zuhrī he strikes a respectable compromise: 'Al-Zuhrī never endeavoured to conciliate a ruler whom he visited [or 'he never acted with dishonesty towards him'], and of the *tābi'ūn* who lived to the caliphate of Hishām none was a greater expert on *fiqh*.'⁶⁴ In other words, al-Zuhrī was indeed a frequent visitor at court, but he did not hesitate in expressing his opinion even if it was unpopular, and did not lose his integrity. Awzā'ī's statement is not implausible: after decades of close association with the Umayyad court, al-Zuhrī may well have enjoyed freedom of speech. In any case, Awzā'ī's sober approach to al-Zuhrī, motivated by both respect for his scholarly achievement and the indispensability of his work, is far more plausible than the attempt to 'distance' al-Zuhrī from the Umayyads.⁶⁵

The worst accusation which the pious could make against al-Zuhrī concerned his service in the state administration. Al-Zuhrī's work as *qādī* for Yazīd b. 'Abd al-Malik was mentioned by Goldziher.⁶⁶ Horovitz pointed out that al-Zuhrī served as *qādī* under 'Umar II as well.⁶⁷

⁶⁴ TMD, Zuhri, 161: mä adhana Ibn Shihāb qaṭṭu li-malik dakhala 'alay-hi walā adrakat khilāfat Hishām aḥadan min al-tābi'in afqaha min-hu; var.: mā dāhana Ibn Shihāb malikan min al-mulūk qaṭṭu idhā dakhala 'alay-hi; Maqrīzī, Muqaffā, VII, 243. Incidentally, 'Abd al-Malik is said to have referred to Mu'āwiya as alkhalīfa al-mudāhin; Khalīfa, Ta'rīkh, I, 349.

⁶⁵ Cf. N. Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, I: Historical Texts (Chicago 1957), 16, who refers to 'Abd al-Malik's 'patronage of the traditionist-historians 'Urwah ibn al-Zubayr and al-Zuhri'. Also Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, II: Qur'anic Commentary and Tradition (Chicago 1967), 22, where she speaks of al-Zuhri's 'more than forty years of service under Umayyad patronage'; 23: al-Zuhri's new patrons, first Yazīd II (101-5/720-24) and then Hishām (105-25/724-42), made special demands on his time and knowledge'. However, Abbott emphasizes in a footnote: 'The hasty assumption by Sprenger and Muir, followed by Guillaume ... and others, that Umayyad pressure forced al-Zuhrī to large-scale forgery of badith should be definitely and finally abandoned'; Abbott, Studies in Arabic Literary Papyri, II, 33, n. 8.

⁶⁶ We also know that Yazīd summoned al-Zuhrī together with a scholar of the Ansār, 'Abdallāh b. Mughīth al-Zafarī; Ibn Mākūlā, *al-Ikmāl*, VII, ed. N. al-'Abbās (Cairo n.d.), 278:12: 'Abdallāh ... kāna 'āliman, hamala-hu Yazīd b. 'Abd al-Malik ilay-hi ma'a al-Zuhrī fa-lam yazal muqīman 'inda-hu bi-al-Shām. Also TMD, Mukht., XIV, 79: 'Abdallāh ... istaqdama-hu Yazīd b. 'Abd al-Malik fa-kāna 'inda-hu ma'a al-Zuhrī.

⁶⁷ Horotivz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 38: 'Under 'Umar II (99-101/717-20) Al-Zuhri decided legal questions', quoting Ibn 'Abd al-Hakam, Futuh Misr waakhbāru-hā, ed. Ch. Torrey (New Haven 1922), 104 (a case was brought before 'Umar II, wa-Ibn Shihāb qādī-hi yawma'idhin). Horovitz's somewhat vague phrasing We can now add a third term in office attested to in a passage which (if it is not garbled) shows that he was already 'Abd al-Malik's $q\bar{a}d\bar{a}$.⁶⁸

We have further evidence concerning al-Zuhri's work in state administration. We know that he was a tax collector, an office which must have been far worse than that of judge in the eves of the pious. In an evaluation of al-Zuhri as a transmitter of hadith it was commented wa-kāna ya'malu li-Banī Umayya. This is no doubt meant to point out a flaw in his record.⁶⁹ Exactly what kind of 'amal is meant we find out elsewhere: 'Al-Zuhrī went out to collect taxes', kharaja al-Zuhrī fi si'āyah. The term si'āyah is glossed as the levying of the sadagah tax.⁷⁰ In the report just quoted, al-Zuhri's role as tax collector forms the background to the main theme, namely his unintentional shedding of a man's blood (fa-asaba rajulan bi-shay') while carrying out his official duty. Another report on the same incident (in which there is no mention of the si'āyah) explicitly refers to bloodwit to be paid to the relatives of the deceased.⁷¹ Sufyan b. 'Uyaynah spelt out the circumstances in which al-Zuhrī caused the man's death: 'He was made a tax collector, then he flogged a man and the man died.'72

The report that al-Zuhrī was a tax collector is confirmed by another, going back to al-Zuhrī himself:

I have never written down anything [i.e., of the *hadīth* transmitted to me]. Having been put in charge of the levying of taxes (*wa-la-qad walītu al-sadaqah*), I came to Sālim b. 'Abdallāh [i.e. Sālim b. 'Abdallāh b. 'Umar b. al-Khattāb]. He took out for me the *kitāb al-sadaqah* [i.e.,

may indicate that he felt that the single piece of evidence he had to support al-Zuhri's judgeship under 'Umar II was insufficient. But the only Ibn Shihāb mentioned in *Tahdh.*, XII, 299, is our Ibn Shihāb and the report seems to be sound. Incidentally, the plaintiff could not have been 'Umar's elder brother al-Asbagh (*Futuh Misr*, 104:12) who died in 86/705, thirteen years before 'Umar ascended the throne; *TMD*, *MS*, III, 63; read instead: Banū l-Asbagh (as in *Futuh Misr*, 104:15).

⁶⁸ TMD, Zuhri, 109; TMD, MS, XV, 1027 (... wa-kāna qādiyan bayna yaday 'Abd al-Malik).

69 TMD, Tahdh., VI, 54.

⁷⁰ Al-si'āyah huwa al-muşaddiq (sic; read probably [sāhib] al-si'āyah huwa al-muşaddiq); Abū Zur'ah, Ta'rīkh, I, 536. This should perhaps be linked to the following report about al-Zuhrī (al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rikh, I, 632): kāna yashtarī tamr al-sadaqah thumma yad'ū ilay-hi al-a'rāb fa-yaqsimu-hu bayna-hum.

⁷¹ Ibn Sa'd, V, 214 (asāba al-Zuhrī daman khaṣa'an fa-kharaja wa-taraka ahlahu wa-daraba fustātan etc.); Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 34.

⁷² Ibn Sayyid al-Nās, al-Nafh al-shadhī fi sharh Jāmi' al-Tirmidhi, ed. A.M. 'Abd al-Karīm (Riyadh 1409/1988), 544: tawallā al-si'āyah fa-'azzana najulan fa-māta. For the source used by Ibn Sayyid al-Nās see GAS, I, 623, no. 2. The editor of al-Nafh alshadhī reproaches Ibn Sayyid al-Nās (on p. 541n) for adducing this report. In general, his comments are an interesting portrayal of some contemporary Islamic attitudes. a document about the levying of the sadaqah tax], read it out to me and I memorized it. Then I went to [Abū Bakr b. Muhammad b.] 'Amr b. Hazm. He read out to me the kitāb al-'uqūl [viz. a document on bloodwit] and I memorized it.⁷³

Al-Zuhrī's appointment as a tax collector is the backdrop to this autobiographical report, while its central concern is his boasting that he could commit to his memory a complete, and complex, document read out to him once. The context of this account suggests that the two documents, on the *sadaqah* and the '*uqūl* respectively, were relevant to the duties of a tax collector. The preservation of these documents in the Umayyad period is of paramount importance. The *kitāb al-sadaqah* in question related to the taxing of livestock, namely camels and sheep.⁷⁴ The *kitāb al-'uqūl* is probably the document known in Islamicist jargon as the '*Ahd al-Ummah* or 'The Constitution of Medina'.⁷⁵ When was al-Zuhrī a tax collector? Sālim b. 'Abdallāh's death in 106/724 is our *terminus ante quem*. (Abū Bakr b. Muḥammad died more than ten years later.)

At some point al-Zuhrī was the chief of the *shurṭah* for one of the Umayyad caliphs. An autobiographical report by the traditionist Khārijah b. Muṣʿab (d. 168/784) nicely demonstrates the traditionists' dilemma about al-Zuhrī, and includes this rare piece of information about the latter:

⁷³ Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Tamhīd, VI, 108f; cf. Maqrīzī, Muqaffā, VII, 244. On 'Amr b. Hazm see Lecker, 'Amr b. Hazm al-Anṣārī and Qur'ān 2, 256: "No compulsion is there in religion", Oriens (forthcoming). See also Kister, '"Lā taqra'ū lqur'āna 'alā l-muṣhafiyyīn" = Ibn Hazm, al-Ihkām fī uṣūl al-ahkām, ed. M.A. 'Abd al-'Azīz (Cairo 1398/1978), I, 289-300. On the preservation of documents from the time of the Prophet, cf. Lecker, 'On the Preservation of the Letters of the Prophet Muḥammad', in L.I. Conrad (ed.), History and Historiography in Early Islamic Times: Studies and Perspectives (forthcoming).

⁷⁴ Cf. Ibn Zanjawayh, Kitāb al-Amwāl, ed. Sh. Dh. Fayyād (Riyadh 1406/1986), II, 803: ... 'an Ibn Shihāb fi al-sadaqās, qāla: hādhihi nuskhat kitāb rasūl Allāh (s) fi al-sadaqah, wa-hiya 'inda āl 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb, qāla Ibn Shihāb: aqra'a-nī-hā Sālim b. 'Abdallāh fa-wa'aytu-hā 'alā wajhi-hā wa-hādhā kitāb tafsīri-hā: lā yu'khadhu 'alā shay' min al-ibil al-sadaqah hattā tablugha etc.; see also 807 (camels and sheep), 853f (sheep).

⁷⁵ A *hadīth* of 'Alī has that the Prophet wrote for each *bațn* or tribal group its 'uqūl, glossed as provisions concerning the duties of the 'āqilah, or the group of relations on the father's side responsible for the payment of bloodwit. The amounts of money to be paid as compensation in the case of specific injuries were prescribed; Lisān al-'arab (Beirut 1968), s.v. b.t.n., 54: wa-fī hadīth 'Alī 'alay-hi al-salām: kataba 'alā kull baṭn 'uqūla-hu ... ay kataba 'alay-him mā taghnamu-hu al-'āqilah min al-diyāt fa-bayyana mā 'alā kull qawn min-hā. XVI

I came to al-Zuhrī when he was the chief of the *shurtah* for one of the [caliphs of the] Banū Marwān. I saw him riding [i.e., in a state procession], holding a *harbah* [javelin] in his hand, and before him [in the procession] were the people [i.e., the members of the *shurtah* force under his command], holding *kāfirkūbāt* [cudgels, or whips]. I said [to myself]: 'May God render this scholar ugly' (*qabbaha Allāhu dhā min 'ālim*). I left without hearing [*hadīth*] from him. Then [i.e., years later] I regretted [it], I came to Yūnus [i.e., Yūnus b. Yazīd al-Aylī] and heard from him the *hadīth* of al-Zuhrī (*fa-sami'tu min-hu 'an al-Zuhrī*).⁷⁶

In this report Khārijah's regret at not having transmitted from the despised chief of the *shurtah* forms the main theme.

Finally, in the context of al-Zuhri's role in the shurtah reference should be made here to the statement made by one of Bukhāri's teachers, Muḥammad b. Ishkāb al-Baghdādī (d. 261/874),⁷⁷ that al-Zuhrī was a jundī. Al-Dhahabī, who quotes this statement, adds that he had the rank of amīr: kāna fī rutbati amīr. Elsewhere, al-Dhahabī gives this description of al-Zuhrī: kāna ... muḥtashiman jalīlan bi-ziyy al-ajnād lahu sūrah kabīrah fī dawlati Banī Umayya, 'He had many dependents and servants, was a man of eminence, was dressed in the outfit of the ajnād, and enjoyed high rank in the state of the Banū Umayyah.'⁷⁸ Al-Dhahabī remarks that the fact that al-Zuhrī dyed his hair, wore the outfit of the jund and served (khadama) Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik drew criticism from people of little understanding.⁷⁹

Another despised symbol of association with the worldly rulers was the existence of a doorkeeper (*bawwāh*, or *ādhin*). Sufyān b. 'Uyaynah once heard al-Zuhrī complain to Muḥammad b. Isḥāq that he had not seen him for some time. 'This *ādhin* of yours prevented

⁷⁶ TMD, MS, V, 407; TMD, Mukht., VII, 324; TMD, Tahdh., V, 29. Concerning the kāfirkūbāt see al-Jāḥiz, al-Bayān wa-al-tabyīn, ed. 'A. al-S. Hārūn (Cairo 1395/ 1975), I, 142; al-Jāḥiz, Rasā'il, ed. 'A. al-S. Hārūn (Cairo 1384/1964), I, 20.

'Athāmina, 'The 'Ulamā' in the Opposition', 166 (where I first found this passage) infers from this that al-Zuhrī was 'banned'; cf. above, n. 59. On processions (under the 'Abbāsids and the Fâțimids) cf. El², s.v. Mawkib, section I (P. Sanders). ⁷⁷ Tabdh., IX, 121f.

⁷⁸ Dhahabī, Nubalā', V, 341, 337. Cf. the accusation directed at the traditionist Shahr b. Hawshab al-Shāmī (d. ca. 111/729), a mawlā who was at some point in charge of the treasury (bayt al-māl), that he wore the outfit of a jundī (... min tazayyīhi bi-ziyy al-jund); Tahdh., IV, 372. Shahr was of the people of Damascus, or, according to some, of the people of Hims; TMD, Mukht., XI, 5.

⁷⁹ Al-Dhahabī, al-Ruwās al-thiqās al-mutakallam fi-him bi-mā lā yūjibu raddahum, ed. M.I. al-Mawşilī (Beirut, 1412/1992), 26: wa-kadhā takallama man lā yafhamu fi al-Zuhrī li-kawni-hi khadaba bi-al-sawād wa-labisa ziyy al-jund wa-khadama Hishām b. Abd al-Malik. me from entering,' replied Ibn Ishāq. So al-Zuhrī told his *bauwāb* to let him in whenever he came.⁸⁰

One or more of al-Zuhri's offices may be linked with his stay in Egypt at the time of 'Abd al-Malik. From an autobiographical report of al-Zuhri we learn that 'Abd al-Malik sent him to his brother, 'Abd al-'Azīz, then governor of Egypt.⁸¹ This had to take place before 'Abd al-'Azīz's death in 86/705.⁸²

Al-Zuhrī was reportedly in financial hardship and debt when, as a young man in his twenties or early thirties, he arrived in Damascus.⁸³ Later in his life different people are supposed to have reminded him of those difficult times. Mālik b. Anas reportedly spoke of a mawlā of the open-handed al-Zuhrī who reminded his master of his former monetary problems advising him, after he had become rich, to keep his money for himself.⁸⁴ In addition, Rajā' b. Haywah is said to have told al-Zuhrī to stop spending so lavishly. 'I am not sure,' Rajā' said, 'that "these people" will not withhold from you what they have' (*lā āmanu an yaḥbisa hā'ulā'i al-qawm mā bi-aydī-him 'an-ka*).⁸⁵ In other words, Rajā' feared that the Umayyads would stop remunerating al-Zuhrī. Typically, 'these people' is a euphemistic designation of the Umayyads, and no explicit mention is made of money.

2. Al-Zuhri's First Meeting with 'Abd al-Malik and 'the *Hadith* of the Three Mosques'

The precise date of al-Zuhri's meeting with 'Abd al-Malik is important in connection with his role in promoting the Islamic sanctity of

⁸⁰ Ibn Shāhīn, Ta'rīkh asmā' al-thiqāt mimman nuqila 'an-hum al-'ilm, ed. 'A. al-M.A. Qal'ajī (Beirut 1406/1986), 280f. See also Abū Zur'ah, Ta'rīkh, I, 537.

⁸¹ Magrizi, Mugaffa, VII, 247.

⁸² Al-Kindī, Kitāb wulāt Misr (Beirut 1407/1987), 49. The statement (Muqaffā, VII, 247) that before he was sent to Egypt, al-Zuhrī had been attached to Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab for eight years, until Sa'īd died (*hattā tuwuffiya*) must be an error because Sa'īd died in 94/713; GAS, I, 276.

⁸³ TMD, Zuhrī, 12 (Ibn Abī Dhi'b: kāna bn Shihāb qad dāqat hālu-hu wanahiqa-hu dayn). See Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 37: 'Like so many before him, he had gone to Damascus in the hope to free himself from harsh financial circumstances.' Admittedly, the details on al-Zuhrī's troubles serve a literary aim, too: they seek to create a sharp contrast between his state before his crucial meeting with the caliph and after it. In the Islamic literature there are many similar stories about the humble beginnings of the rich and famous.

⁸⁴ Dhahabi, Nubalā', V, 338 (kāna bn Shihāb min askhā al-nās, fa-lammā asāba tilka al-amwāl, gāla la-hu mawlan la-hu wa-huwa ya'izu-hu: gad ra'ayta mā marra 'alay-ka min al-dīq, fa-'nzur kayfa takūnu, amsik 'alay-ka mālaka).

⁸⁵ Ibn Kathīr, *Bidāyah*, IX, 343:-2.

Jerusalem. Al-Zuhrī is the key figure in al-Ya'qūbī's famous report about 'Abd al-Malik's wish to provide the Muslims of Shām with a substitute for the Ka'bah: when the people complained to 'Abd al-Malik about his prohibiting the pilgrimage to Mecca, al-Ya'qubi says, the caliph replied: hadha bn Shihab al-Zuhri yuhaddithu-kum anna rasūl Allāhi gāla: lā tushaddu al-rihāl illā ilā thalāthati masājid: al-masjid al-harām wa-masjidī wa-masjid bayt al-maqdis'. 'Here is Ibn Shihāb al-Zuhrī who transmits to you the Prophet's saying: "The saddles of the camels shall only be fastened for a journey to three mosques, namely the Ka'bah, my own mosque [i.e., in Medina] and the mosque of Jerusalem.""86 The caliph allegedly sought support from the young al-Zuhri who helped him repel his critics.87 According to al-Ya'qūbī, 'Abd al-Malik intended to provide a substitute for the Ka'bah against the background of his conflict with Ibn al-Zubayr. There may well have been other motives behind 'Abd al-Malik's project, but it is not to be expected that al-Ya'qubi (or for that matter any other medieval historian) would furnish us with a detailed and balanced account of these motives.

A discussion on whether or not the scene described by al-Ya'qūbī really took place, or whether al-Zuhrī invented the *hadīth* or merely transmitted it, seems futile to me. Suffice it to say that the *hadīth* was transmitted in the Umayyad period and that its transmission was expedient to Umayyad objectives.⁸⁸ The fact that al-Zuhrī is mentioned in some of the *isnāds* of this *hadīth* indicates that he was one of its transmitters, though he was certainly not the only one.⁸⁹

⁸⁶ Al-Ya'qūbī, *Ta'rīkh* (Beirut 1379/1960), II, 261 [ed. M. Houtsma (Leiden 1883), II, 311].

⁸⁷ 'The hadith of the three mosques', < (...) 'Abd al-Razzāq < Ma'mar < al-Zuhri < Sa'id b. al-Musayyab < Abū Hurayrah, appears at the very beginning of Muhammad b. Ahmad al-Wâsiţi, Fadă'il al-bayt al-muqaddas, ed. I. Hasson (Jerusalem 1979), 3f; the same is true for Diyã' al-Din Muhammad b. 'Abd al-Wāhid al-Maqdisi, Fadā'il Bayt al-Maqdis, ed. M.M. al-Hāfiz (Damascus 1405/1985), 39f, who quotes different variants of this hadīth equipped with different isnāds, including this one: ... Sufyān b. 'Uyaynah < al-Zuhri < Sa'id b. al-Musayyab < Abū Hurayrah.</p>

⁸⁸ Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 35, disputes Goldziher's assumption that al-Zuhrī invented this *hadīth*: 'If the report of Ya'qūbī deserves any credence at all, then we must take it that Al-Zuhri rushed to 'Abdul Malik from Madīnah to communicate to him a Hadîth heard from the authorities in Madīnah, of which he could hope that it would help the Khalîfah in his political projects. That he himself invented it, as some have implied, is unbelievable Whatever one may think about the authenticity of the Hadîth, there is no ground whatever to doubt but that Al-Zuhri really had heard the Hadîth from the mouth of Sa'îd ibn Al-Musaiyab.'

⁸⁹ Goldziher mentioned that in Abū Dāwūd 'the *hadīth* of the three mosques' is equipped with the *isnād*: al-Zuhrī < Sa'īd b. al-Musayyib [or al-Musayyab] < Abū

In a section of his book on the *hadīth* literature entitled 'Did al-Zuhrī Provide a Substitute for the Pilgrimage? Refutation of al-Ya'qūbī and Goldziher', Azami argues that

al-Zuhrī's meeting with 'Abd al-Malik ... did not take place earlier than 81 A.H. ... As he began to build the Dome of the Rock in 69 A.H., he might have announced his decree on the substitute for *al-Hajj* on the authority of al-Zuhrī in the beginning of the year 69 A.H.⁹⁰ At this time al-Zuhrī was somewhere between ten and eighteen years of age. It is inconceivable that a mere child of ten or a boy of eighteen had already achieved such a great fame and respect — not in his native land al-Madīnah, but far away in the anti al-Madīnah region, Syria — that he was able to cancel the divine obligatory order of *al-Hajj* and was in a position to command a substitute.⁹¹

Azami's information on the date of al-Zuhri's arrival in Damascus is incomplete; as we shall see there is sufficient evidence linking al-Zuhri's arrival with the war between the Umayyads and Ibn al-Zubayr. Obviously, this date is closely connected to al-Zuhri's year of birth. It was al-Zuhri himself who attempted to establish that he

Hurayrah < the Prophet; *Muslim Studies*, II, 45, n. 7; Abū Dāwūd, *Sunan*, ed. A.S. 'Alī (Cairo 1371/1952), I, 469. Horovitz noticed that in the canonical collections of *hadīth* this alleged saying of the Prophet is sometimes quoted with the *isnād*: al-Zuhrī < Sa'īd b. al-Musayyab < Abū Hurayrah, and sometimes the *hadīth* is provided with another *isnād* which does not mention al-Zuhrī at all; Horovitz, *El*¹, s.v. al-Zuhrī; Horovitz, 'Earliest Biographies', II, 35. On this *hadīth* see Kister, ''You Shall Only Set out for Three Mosques": A Study of an Early Tradition', *Le Muséon* 82 (1969), 173-96; reprinted, with additional notes, in idem, *Studies in Jāhiliyya and Early Islam* (London 1980), no. XIII; Elad, 'Why did 'Abd al-Malik Build the Dome of the Rock? A Re-examination of the Muslim Sources', in J. Raby and J. Johns (eds.), *Bayt al-Maqdis: 'Abd al-Malik's Jerusalem*, I (Oxford 1992), 33-58, at 43f. On whether the Prophet uttered these words, F. Buhl, *Das Leben Muhammeds*², trans. H. Schaeder (reprint Heidelberg 1955), 373n, writes: 'Daß der Prophet dies nie gesagt haben kann, bedarf für jemanden, der auch nur eine flüchtige Kenntnis von seiner Geschichte hat, keines näheren Beweises.'

⁹⁰ A more plausible date would be the year in which the Dome was completed, namely 72/691-2 or 73/692-3; Elad, *Medieval Jerusalem*, 44-45, 53, 153; idem, 'The History and Topography of Jerusalem during the Early Islamic Period', *JSAI* 14 (1991), 41-70, at 58. The beginning of 'Abd al-Malik's Temple Mount project should possibly be linked with his victory, at Ajnādayn in Filastīn, over forces loyal to Ibn al-Zubayr under Nātil b. Qays (on this battle see al-Mas'ūdī, *Murūj al-dhahab*, ed. Ch. Pellat [Beirut 1966-74], III, 299). This (second) battle of Ajnādayn appears to have been the turning point in 'Abd al-Malik's struggle against Ibn al-Zubayr. See also G. Rotter, *Die Umayyaden und der zweite Bürgerkrieg (680-692)* (Wiesbaden 1982), 183 ('Mit diesem Sieg gewann 'Abdalmalik die Offensive gegenüber dem Hiğāz zurück').

⁹¹ Azami, Studies in Early Hadith Literature, 290f.

first came to Damascus during the struggle against Ibn al-Zubayr. In another relevant report originating with al-Zuhrī (see below) it is stated that he came to visit the caliph Marwān b. al-Hakam (who reigned in 64-5/683-4) after having reached the age of puberty (*wafadtu 'alā Marwān wa-anā muhtalim*). The mention of puberty points to 50/670 (or 51/671) as the year of al-Zuhrī's birth.⁹² Ahmad b. Şālih⁹³ stated that when the battle of the Harrah took place (63/ 683), al-Zuhrī was already mature, old enough to apprehend it or to take part in it.⁹⁴

Why did al-Zuhrī attempt to establish a date of birth which was as early as possible? Because the earlier the year of his birth, the more Companions of the Prophet he could meet and learn from.⁹⁵ But the

⁹² Beside these two dates, his birth is also dated to 56 AH and 58 AH; *TMD*, *Zuhri*, 36f, 42. According to Ibn al-'Imād, *Shadharāt*, I, 162, al-Zuhrī died in Ramadan 124 aged 74. This dates his birth to 50 AH. However, others said that he died aged 66 (which brings us to 58 AH) or 72 (which brings us to 52 AH); Maqrīzī, *Muqaffā*, VII, 250. Horovitz (*EI*¹, s.v. al-Zuhrī) suggested that he was probably born in 50 or 51 AH, and his view is accepted by Azami, *Studies in Early* Hadīth *Literature*, 278n. But later in his book Azami is less committed to this statement: on p. 288, Azami rejects the claim that al-Zuhrī, who 'was then between seven and fifteen years of age', visited Marwān b. al-Hakam; on p. 290 he states, as we have just seen, that in 69 AH al-Zuhrī 'was somewhere between ten and eighteen years of age'. Dūrī, 'al-Zuhrī', 1, dates his birth to 51-2/671. If indeed al-Zuhrī was seventy-two when he died in 124/742 (Dūrī, *Rise*, 41), then he was born in 52 AH.

The 56 AH and later versions seem to rule out any role of al-Zuhri during the conflict with Ibn al-Zubayr, who was defeated and killed in 73 AH. Yahyā b. Bukayr said, quoting al-Layth b. Sa'd, that al-Zuhri came to 'Abd al-Malik in 82 AH. According to Yahyā, al-Zuhrī was born in 56 AH, and when al-Zuhrī's claim that he had visited Marwān was mentioned to him, he rejected it, stating that he came to 'Abd al-Malik in 82 AH; *Tahdh.*, VIII, 154; *al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rīkh*, III, 333. Yahyā b. Ma'īn denied that al-Zuhrī transmitted from Ibn 'Umar who died in 74/693, and Juynboll (*Muslim Tradition*, 169, quoting *Tahdh.*, IX, 450) infers that he is thereby 'establishing a *terminus post quem* for al-Zuhrī to have started his tradition collection'. However, if indeed al-Zuhrī had come to Damascus before the fighting against Ibn al-Zubayr was over (see below), then the *terminus post quem* was a few years earlier.

⁹³ Al-Mișri; see Tahdh., I, 39f. See also Dhahabi, Ta'rikh al-islām, 247 (qad jama'a Ahmad b. Şālih al-Mișri 'ilm al-Zuhri).

⁹⁴ Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, al-Tamhīd, X, 8: qad adraka al-Zuhrī al-Harrah wa-huwa bāligh wa-'aqala-hā—azunnu-hu qāla: wa-shahida-hā. (The transmitter was not certain about the precise wording of Ahmad's statement.) According to Muhammad b. Yahyā al-Dhuhlī (ibid; see on him GAS, I, 134), al-Zuhrī was born in, or about, 50 AH.

⁹⁵ Cf. Dhahabī, Ta'rīkh al-islām, 227: al-Zuhrī was born in 50 AH wa-ṣalaba al-'ilm fi awākhir 'aṣr al-ṣaḥāba wa-la-hu nayyif wa-'ishrūna sana. Also Ibn al-'Imād, Shadharās, I, 162: he met ten Companions. See the list of these Companions in Magrīzī, Mugaffā, VII, 240. existence of a motive does not automatically lead to the conclusion that al-Zuhri's claims were false: indeed it could be argued that in al-Ya'qūbi's famous report 'Abd al-Malik referred to al-Zuhrī as someone who was at hand, ready to confirm that a pilgrimage to Jerusalem was an acceptable practice (*hādhā bn Shihāb al-Zuhrī yuḥaddithu-kum* etc.). In any case, al-Zuhrī's first meeting with 'Abd al-Malik, which could probably have taken place in 72/691-2 or 71/690-91, should be separated from his permanent settlement in Damascus several years later.⁹⁶

According to one autobiographical report (which is traced back to al-Zuhrī himself), al-Zuhrī first arrived in Damascus and met 'Abd al-Malik a decade or more after the extinguishing of Ibn al-Zubayr's rebellion. The date is indicated by the mention of 'Abd al-Malik's governor in Medina at that time, namely Hishām b. Ismā'īl al-Makhzūmī.⁹⁷ Hishām was appointed governor of Medina in 83/ 702.98 He was replaced in Rabi^{*} al-Awwal of 87 AH, having been in office for about three years and eleven months.⁹⁹ But the chronological indication included in this report is problematic. When we take a closer look at it, we discover two contradictory statements. In the opening passage al-Zuhri mentions a general state of destitution in Medina, following the fitnah of 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwan, as the immediate cause of his travel to Damascus (asāba ahla l-Madīna hāja zamāna fitnati 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān fa-'ammat ahla l-balad). The mention of the fitnah or civil war and the general state of affairs are attributable to the conflict with Ibn al-Zubayr and are therefore incongruous with the reference to Hisham b. Isma'il's governorship, which began some ten years after the fitnah. The internal contradiction indicates that the report is made up of two separate accounts ascribed to al-Zuhri, which include conflicting statements about the time of his arrival in Damascus. The opening passage of this

⁹⁶ Horovitz (*EI*¹, s.v. al-Zuhrī) suggested, relying on al-Ya'qūbī's report, that al-Zuhrī visited 'Abd al-Malik's court before Ibn al-Zubayr's fall in 73/692: 'If Ya'kūbī's story is worthy of belief, al-Zuhrī must have brought the hadī<u>th</u> to Damascus at latest in 73 (692), the year in which the anti-caliph fell, and could not have been more than 23 then. This stay of al-Zuhrī's in Damascus, if it is historical at all, could only have been a temporary one; his permanent settlement in Damascus only took place at a considerably later date.'

⁹⁷ TMD, Zubri, 17f, 23f.

98 Tab., VI, 384 [II, 1127] (citing Wāqidī).

⁹⁹ Tab., VI, 427 [II, 1182]. For 82/701 as the date in which al-Zuhrī and 'Abd al-Malik 'established their relationship of scholar and royal patron', see Abbott, Studies in Arabic Listerary Papyri, II, 21f. problematic report conforms to al-Zuhri's claim (on which see more below) that he arrived in Damascus towards the end of the struggle against Ibn al-Zubayr. The mention of Hishām b. Ismā'il also contradicts the indication (see Section 3 below) that al-Zuhrī was already with 'Abd al-Malik in Jerusalem before the plague of 79/698 or '80/699.

It could be argued that the mention of Hishām b. Ismā'īl roughly conforms to the report, again an autobiographical one, according to which al-Zuhri arrived in Damascus during Ibn al-Ash'ath's revolt (82/701). However, this is not the case. The precise wording is important: qadimtu Dimashqa zamāna taharruki bn al-ash'ath, wa-'Abd al-Malik mashghūl yawma'idhin bi-sha'ni-hi.¹⁰⁰ Fortunately, 2 variant text is found in the Ta'rikh of Abū Zur'ah al-Dimashqi:101 wa-kāna maqdamu bn Shihāb Dimashqa zamana Mus'ab, wa-'Abd al-Malik yawma'idhin mashghul bi-sha'ni-hi. In other words, we have here Mus'ab b. al-Zubayr, not Ibn al-Ash'ath.¹⁰² Obviously, 'Mus'ab' is the correct reading: Abū Zur'ah infers from this report that al-Zuhri had arrived in Damascus before 'Abd al-Malik marched against Mus'ab and that this includes an indication concerning his birth year: fa-dallanā hadīthu bni Shihāb hādhā anna maqdama-hu Dimashqa qabla rahīl Abd al-Malik ilā Musʿab, wa-hādhā dalīl ʿalā sinni-hi, 'This hadith of Ibn Shihab proves that he had come to Damascus before 'Abd al-Malik's departure to [the expedition against] Mus'ab, and this is a proof concerning his age.'103 This report (in both the 'Ibn al-Ash'ath' and 'Muş'ab' versions) is quoted by Abū Zur'a < Ahmad b. Şālih < 'Anbasah b. Khālid¹⁰⁴ < Yūnus¹⁰⁵ < al-Zuhri.¹⁰⁶ By replacing Ibn al-Ash'ath with Mus'ab we go back one decade in time. Hence this is yet another statement that al-Zuhrī came to Damascus during the struggle against Ibn al-Zubayr. The sources do not link al-Zuhri's arrival in Damascus with the revolt of Ibn al-Ash'ath.

100 TMD, Zuhri, 34.

¹⁰¹ Cf. on him G. Rotter, 'Abū Zur'a al-Dimašqī (st. 281/894) und das Problem der frühen arabischen Geschichtsschreibung in Syrien', *Die Welt des Orients* 6 (1970-71), 80-104.

¹⁰² Abū Zur'ah, Ta'rīkh, I, 583f. Cf. I, 408 (Ibn al-Ash'ath).

¹⁰³ Abū Zur'ah, *Ta'rīkh*, I, 584.

¹⁰⁴ b. Yazīd al-Aylī, a mawlā of the Umayyads; Tahdh., VIII, 154.

¹⁰⁵ I.e. Yūnus b. Yazīd al-Aylī, who was also a *mawlā* of the Umayyads and 'Anbasah's uncle; *Tahdh.*, XI, 450f. On Yūnus see M. Muranyi, 'Abd Allāh b. Wahb: Leben und Werk; al-Muwația': Kitāb al-muḥāraba (Wiesbaden 1992), 206f.

¹⁰⁶ How did 'Muş'ab' become 'Ibn al-Ash'ath'? It is plausible that Muş'ab was first corrupted to Ash'ath, and at a later stage the 'Ibn' was added in order to 'adapt' the report to historical fact. Abū Zur'ah relates al-Zuhrī's first arrival in Damascus to the dispute about al-Zuhrī's birth year and quotes from two informants the account that al-Zuhrī' was born in 50 AH.¹⁰⁷ However, one of his informants also told him, having reported the 50 AH birth date: 'I have not heard a reliable statement concerning al-Zuhrī's age' (*innī lam asma' li-l-Zuhrī bi-sinn a'rifu-hā*). Answering his question about his source for dating al-Zuhrī's birth to 50 AH, the second informant said that his source was one of the Banū Zuhrah (*ba'd al-Zuhriyyīna*).¹⁰⁸

The battle against Muş'ab b. al-Zubayr in Iraq and Muş'ab's death had taken place before al-Hajjāj was sent by 'Abd al-Malik to fight Ibn al-Zubayr in Arabia.¹⁰⁹ Al-Zuhrī's role in transmitting 'the *hadīth* of the three mosques' should not be related to 69/688, as Azami suggested, but to 72/691 or 71/690.

On the basis of the available evidence it can be argued that al-Zuhri first came to Damascus before the end of the struggle against Ibn al-Zubayr, in time to play a role in the promulgation of 'the hadith of the three mosques'. But the young al-Zuhri's support for 'Abd al-Malik precisely at that point was more meaningful than it at first seems. We realize this when we consider an important historical fact, namely the role played by other members of al-Zuhri's clan, the Banū Zuhrah of Quraysh, in supporting Ibn al-Zubayr. Al-Zuhri's father was a partisan of Ibn al-Zubayr.¹¹⁰ More importantly, Ibn al-Zubayr's last two governors in Medina, Jābir b. al-Aswad b. 'Awf and Talhah b. 'Abdallāh b. 'Awf, who were cousins, were of the Banū Zuhrah.¹¹¹ This indicates widespread support for Ibn al-Zubayr among the Banū Zuhrah who lived in Medina. Jābir officiated as the governor of Medina between 68/687-8 and 71/690-91.112 In 71/690 he was replaced by Talhah, who was Ibn al-Zubayr's last governor in Medina. Talhah fled when an expedition force dispatched

107 Abū Zur'ah, Ta'rīkh, I, 584.

¹⁰⁸ Abū Zur'ah, *Ta'rīkh*, I, 613; paragraph no. 1744 on p. 613 belongs immediately after paragraph 1645 on p. 584.

¹⁰⁹ Abū Žur'ah, *Ta'rīkh*, I, 583. The battle against Muş'ab was in 72/691; Yāqūt, s.v. Maskin; *El*², s.v. 'Abd Allāh b. al-Zubayr (H.A.R. Gibb); Rotter, *Die Umayyaden*, 230 (the expeditions took place in the first half of 72/summer-autumn 691 and the decisive battle was fought in October 691).

¹¹⁰ Horovitz, *El*¹, s.v. al-Zuhrī. Moreover, the father belonged to Muş'ab b. al-Zubayr's troop; Ibn Khallikān, *Wafayāt al-a'yān*, ed. I. 'Abbās (Beirut 1968-72), IV, 178.

¹¹¹ Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 131.

112 Waki', I, 124.

by 'Abd al-Malik under Țăriq b. 'Amr arrived in Medina.¹¹³ Țăriq captured Medina in 72 AH.¹¹⁴ These are the presumed circumstances of al-Zuhri's first arrival at 'Abd al-Malik's court. Al-Zuhri did not flee; on the contrary, he joined the victorious party to which he could offer a sharp intellect and great ambition.

3. The Caliph 'Abd al-Malik and al-Zuhrī in Īliyā' (Aelia Capitolina)

There is yet another piece of evidence linking al-Zuhrī, 'Abd al-Malik, and Jerusalem. This is contained in an utterance by al-Zuhrī himself reported by the abovementioned Shu'ayb b. Abī Hamzah al-Himsī:¹¹⁵

I heard 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwan in Iliya' exhorting the people [i.e. from the pulpit, in a *khutbah*], before the outbreak of the plague (*waja*') which caused him to leave for al-Muwaqqar, with these words: 'The knowledge will soon pass away, so let anyone having knowledge reveal it without exceeding with regard to it the due limit [or without zealotry] and without ignoring [or neglecting] it.'¹¹⁶

We are not concerned here with the alleged official endorsement of the collection of 'knowledge', obviously in the form of *hadith*, but with the setting of the scene. Firstly, concerning al-Muwaqqar: it is true that elsewhere it is associated with 'Abd al-Malik's son, Yazid,¹¹⁷ which is

¹¹³ Tab., VI, 166 [II, 818]. According to Balādhurī, Ansāb, XI, 37, Țalḥah replaced Jābir in Şafar, 70 AH (= August 689); Rotter, Die Umayyaden und der zweite Bürgerkrieg, 184. For an earlier term of Jābir in this office see Rotter, loc. cit., 186n= Balādhurī, Ansāb, V, 189 (<Madā'inī).

¹¹⁴ Khalīfah, *Ta'rīkh*, I, 341. *TMD, MS*, VIII, 488, quotes Khalīfah, who says that Țăriq captured Medina at the end of 72 AH. Wāqidī (*TMD, MS*, VIII, 488) says that 'Abd al-Malik appointed Țăriq as the governor of Medina in 73/692 and that he remained in office for five months.

¹¹⁵ See above, n. 22.

¹¹⁶ Abū Zur'ah, Ta'rīkh, I, 409 (sami'tu 'Abd al-Malik bi-İliyā', qabla an yaqa'a al-waja' alladhī kharaja min-hu ilā al-Muwaqqar, khaṣīban, yaqūlu: inna al-'ilma sa-yuqbadu qabdan sarī'an, fa-man kāna 'inda-hu 'ilm fa-l-yuxhir-hu ghayra ghālin fi-hi wa-lā jāfin 'an-hu). See this passage also in TMD, MS, X, 516; TMD, Mukht, XV, 228. On the Umayyad attempts to write down the hadīth cf. now Schoeler, 'Mündliche Thora', 227f.

¹¹⁷ Yāqūt, s.v.; Jarīr, Dīwān, ed. N.M. Amīn Țāhā (Cairo [1969]), I, 480 (al-Muwaqqar... wa-bi-hā kāna yanzilu Yazīd b. Abd al-Malik).

Al-Zuhri's student al-Walid b. Muhammad al-Muwaqqari al-Balqawi was the *mawla* of Yazid b. 'Abd al-Malik; *Tahdh.*, XI, 148f. Cf. A. Rippin, 'al-Zuhri, *Naskh al-Qur'an* and the problem of early *Taffir* texts', *BSOAS* 47 (1984), 22-43, at 29:7.

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presumably due to the fact that the latter often stayed there. However, al-Muwaqqar may well have belonged to the Umayyads beforehand.¹¹⁸

Secondly, the report suggests (without explicitly saying so) that 'Abd al-Malik fied to al-Muwaqqar from Jerusalem.¹¹⁹ The relative dating of 'Abd al-Malik's alleged *khuṭbah*, a marginal point in this report, looks particularly reliable. It is also important: the caliph flees from the plague to safety¹²⁰ when it strikes his permanent place of residence, or the place where he lives over an extended period of time.¹²¹ In other words, the report may suggest that 'Abd al-Malik stayed in Jerusalem for a length of time.¹²²

¹¹⁸ See also Elad, *Medieval Jerusalem*, 156n. Cf. al-Hamdānī, *Şifat jasīrat al-'arab*, ed. M. b. 'A. al-Akwa' (Riyadh 1394/1974), 334 [ed. D.H. Müller (Leiden 1884f), 182], who lists al-Muwaqqar among the places inhabited by the tribe of Salīh (*masākin Salīh*).

That the passage from Abū Zur'ah which is discussed here deals with 'Abd al-Malik, not with his son Yazīd, is shown by an abridged version of it found elsewhere. This version, while omitting the background details important for us here, confirms that the protagonist is 'Abd al-Malik; Ibn Kathīr, *Bidāyah*, IX, 64:-7 (al-Zuhrī: *sami'tu 'Abd al-Malik yaqūlu fī khuṭbati-hi*) etc.

¹¹⁹ On a visit of al-Zuhrī to Jerusalem see also Elad, 'The History and Topography of Jerusalem', 55. We also find a reference to 'Abd al-Malik's presence in Jerusalem in connection with his Temple Mount project; Uns jalīl, I, 272, 273: 'When 'Abd al-Malik came to Jerusalem and ordered the Dome to be built on the venerable Rock, he sent out letters' etc.; 'Abd al-Malik described to the engineers what he desired with regard to the building of the Dome and its structure, and they made for him while he was in Jerusalem (wa-huwa bi-Bāyt al-Maqdis) the small dome east of the Dome of the Rock which is called the Dome of the Chain.' M. Rosen-Ayalon, The Early Islamic Monuments of al-Haram al-Sharīf: An Iconographic Study (Jerusalem 1989), 26, believes the claim that the Dome of the Chain was a model to be Mujīr al-Dīn's own invention. But it is doubtful that he invents anything; plausibly, he quotes earlier sources. On 'Abd al-Malik's arrival in Jerusalem on the occasion of the project cf. Elad, Medieval Jerusalem, 156.

¹²⁰ A humorous conversation between Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik and an anonymous person, who advised him not to leave Damascus for al-Rusāfah, includes the remark that no caliph had ever been infected by the plague; Tab., VII, 207 [II, 1737f], quoting Madā'inī (*lā takhruj, fa-inna l-khulafā' lā yuț'anūna wa-lam nara khalīfa fu'ina*). Hishām refused to experiment on himself (*a-turīdūna an tujarribū bī*?). But cf. Uns jalīl, I, 271: Marwān b. al-Hakam died in the *tā'ūn* (Damascus, Ramadan 65 AH). For other versions concerning the cause of Marwān's death see al-Diyārbakrī, *Ta'rīkh al-khamīs* (Cairo 1283/1866), II, 307.

¹²¹ Cf. the section entitled 'The Question of Plague and Agricultural Expansion' in Conrad, 'Historical Evidence and the Archaeology of Early Islam', in S. Seikaly et al. (eds.), Quest for Understanding: Arabic and Islamic Studies in Memory of Malcolm H. Kerr (Beirut 1991), 263-82, at 269f, and in particular Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik's stay in al-Ruşāfah whenever plague broke out in Damascus; Conrad, 'Arabic Plague Chronologies and Treatises', Studia Islamica 54 (1981), 51-93, at 75.

¹²² Cf. Rosen-Ayalon, *The Early Islamic Monuments*, 1.

Thirdly, the chronological aspect is of particular interest to us here. It is suggested that this plague was the one which broke out in Shām in 79/698 or 80/699. The source reporting the latter date states that the plague prevented the people of Shām from taking part that year in the *ghazw*, i.e., the annual expedition against Byzantium.¹²³ The source giving the former date also mentions the absence of the people of Shām from the expedition.¹²⁴

Admittedly, these are not the only possible dates, as we know of another plague which according to some took place during the reign of 'Abd al-Malik, who died in Damascus in Shawwāl, 86 AH.¹²⁵ According to Aṣma'ī, 'Abd al-Malik died during the plague known as 'The Plague of the Maidens' (*al-fatayāt*) or 'The Plague of the Notables' (*ashrāf*), or shortly thereafter.¹²⁶ However, because 'Abd al-Malik died in Damascus, it seems impossible to connect the 86/705 plague with that which caused him to flee Jerusalem for al-Muwaqqar. Moreover, the year of 'The Plague of the Maidens/Notables' is uncertain: while Aṣma'ī dates it during the reign of 'Abd al-Malik, Madā'inī dates it to Shawwāl 87/September-October 706,¹²⁷ that is one year after 'Abd al-Malik's death

In view of all this it is argued that the 79/80 AH plague is more probable and that 'Abd al-Malik's stay in Jerusalem took place before its outbreak.

4. Al-Zuhri's Estate in the Region of Shaghb wa-Badā

Al-Zuhrī was a loyal and trustworthy supporter of the Umayyads and for this he was rewarded generously. The sources on al-Zuhrī's biography abound with stories about the Umayyad caliphs paying his debts. The context of the reports on these debts is invariably

¹²³ Khalifah, Ta'rikh, I, 360 (wa-fi-hā [80 A.H.] asāba ahl al-Shām tā'ūn shadīd fa-lam yakun la-hum dhālika al-'āma ghazw).

¹²⁴ İbn al-Jawzi, Muntazam, VI, 203 (wuqū'u al-ṣā'ūn bi-l-Shām hattā kāda al-nās yafnawna min shiddati-hi, wa-lam yughza tilka al-sanah). The text in Ibn Kathir, Bidāyah, IX, 27, is clearer: fa-fi-hā [79 AH] waqa'a tā'ūn 'azīm bi-al-Shām hattā kādū yafnawna min shiddati-hi wa-lam yaghzu fi-hā ahad min ahl al-Shām li-du'fihim wa-qillati-him.

¹²⁵ Ibn Kathir, Bidāyah, IX, 68.

¹²⁶ Conrad, 'Plague Chronologies', 55f, quoting Ibn Qutaybah, *Ma'ārif*, 601 (*wa-māta fi-hi 'Abd al-Malik b. Marwān aw ba'da-hu bi-qalīl*). Among the notables who died in this plague Asma'ī includes 'Alī b. Asma', who was no other than his great-grandfather; Ibn Durayd, *al-Ishtiqāq*, ed. 'A. al-S. Hārūn (Cairo 1378/1958), 272.

¹²⁷ Conrad, 'Plague Chronologies', 62, 68f, 83f. See also Ibn al-Jawzi, Muntazam, VI, 267, who adduces both versions. favourable to al-Zuhrī, because they serve to emphasize his generosity. Al-Zuhrī was no ascetic, he was fond of perfume, the use of which symbolized a high standard of living. Al-Zuhrī's nephew (Ibn Akhī al-Zuhrī) was once asked whether his uncle used perfume. He replied: 'I could smell the musk from the whip of his ridingbeast.'¹²⁸ The granting of estates to family members and loyal supporters was common among the Umayyad caliphs.¹²⁹

The stories about al-Zuhrī's generosity have already been mentioned (obviously, the extravagant cases were more readily recorded). It is told that al-Zuhrī could afford to be in debt because of the large revenues he received from his estates: wa-kāna fī 'uqadi-hi wafā'un li-dayni-hi, 'his [revenues from his] estates were enough to cover his debts'.¹³⁰ 'Uqdah is 'an estate consisting of land, or of land and a house, or of a house or land yielding a revenue'.¹³¹ Having been blamed for being in debt, al-Zuhrī reportedly said that the debt only amounted to twenty thousand dinars while each of his five springs (or underground canals, a'yun) yielded (annually) forty thousand dinars. He added that his only heir was his grandson, to whom he would not mind bequeathing nothing. The informant explains that the said grandson was an immoral person.¹³² In this context it is important to note that al-Zuhrī is said to have 'planted' the palm trees in his estate when he became old,¹³³ an indication that al-Zuhrī's

128 Ibn Kathīr, Bidāyah, IX, 347.

¹²⁹ In addition to the estate discussed below, al-Zuhrī had a court in Medina: in an allegedly autobiographical report going back to al-Zuhrī himself, it is claimed that upon his first meeting with 'Abd al-Malik the caliph ordered a court in Medina to be bought for the young scholar; *TMD*, *Zuhrī*, 29 (*wa-shirā' dār qațī'a bi-al-Madīnah*). Perhaps the meeting did not proceed exactly as described in this report; however, al-Zuhrī's ownership of a court in Medina must be a historical fact.

¹³⁰ TMD, Zuhri, 167 (where both versions of this sentence are slightly garbled). Cf. al-Ma'rifah wa-al-ta'rikh, I, 632 (fa-kāna fi diyā'i-hi mā qadā dayna-hu).

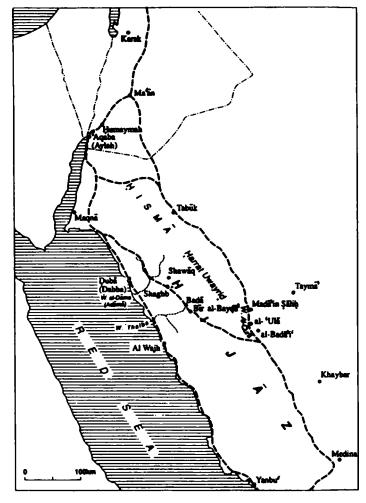
¹³¹ Lane, Arabic-English Lexicon, s.v.

¹³² Lī khamsatu a'yun kullu 'ayn min-hā thamanu(!) arba'ina alfa dīnar wa-laysa yarithuni illā bnu bni hādhā, wa-mā ubālī an lā yaritha 'anni shay'an... wa-kāna bnu bni-hi fāsiqan; TMD, Zuhrī, 172. Instead of: thaman, read: tamunnu, 'they bestow', as in Maqrīzī, Muqaffā, VII, 250. The water from the spring ('ayn) may have been brought to the cultivated land by means of an 'underground canal' (qanāt or faqīr); cf. 'Arrām b. al-Aşbagh al-Sulamī, Asmā' jibāl Tihāmah, in Nawādir al-makhrūtāt, ed. 'A. al-S. Hārūn, II (Cairo 1393/1973), 413, where it is said concerning a certain village: wa-miyāhu-hā 'uyūn tajrī taḥt al-ard, fuqur kulluhā, wa-al-fuqur wa-al-qanā wāḥid, wa-wāḥid al-fuqur — faqīr.

Al-Zuhri may have bequeathed his property (or part of it) to his nephew, the well-known Ibn Akhi al-Zuhri; see above, n. 18.

¹³³ See below, n. 160.

XVI



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Location map of Zuhri's estates

property or part of it was developed by al-Zuhrī himself. Agricultural work was carried out by slaves and indeed we find, in another context, evidence that al-Zuhrī owned slaves (*'abīd*): he used to give away everything he had, and when his own money was exhausted, he would borrow from his friends, and then from his slaves.¹³⁴

¹³⁴ Naturally our informant is aware of the legal point at issue ('is it lawful for someone to borrow money from his slaves?'). See e.g. *TMD*, Zuhri, 170 (wa-lä yarä bi-dhälika ba'san). Al-Zuhri's mawlä Zakariyyä b. 'Īsā al-Shaghbi (on Shaghb see below), who transmitted from him, might have been a manumitted slave; Sam'āni, s.v. al-Shaghbi; al-Dhahabi, al-Mushtabih fi al-rijāl, asmā'i-him wa-ansābi-him, ed. 'A.M. al-Bijāwi (Cairo 1962), II, 397.

Far more important in the context of al-Zuhri's estate is the report about a merchant who, on his way to the pilgrimage, bought wheat (burr) from al-Zuhri, who was then in his garyah, for a total of four hundred dinars which he was to pay on his way back from the pilgrimage.¹³⁵ We not only learn from this report that al-Zuhrī grew wheat on his estate, but also that the estate was located on the pilgrim road, well placed to sell its products to the pilgrims. In fact, this may have been its raison d'être. Indeed, the estate, situated between the pilgrim roads of Syria and Egypt, was most favourably located for this purpose: Shaghb wa-Badā (after which the whole region was called) are two wadis which belonged (at some unspecified period) to the jurisdiction of Aylah. 'On them' (wa-'alay-himā) there was an estate where al-Zuhrī used to stay, between the (pilgrim) roads of Egypt and Syria.¹³⁶ Shaghb (or Shaghbā) and Badā are also names of villages located near these wadis. The inland route between Aylah and Medina passed through Shaghb, then Bada (see map).¹³⁷ Two stations south of Badā, at al-Suqyā south of Wadi al-Qurā, the Syrian road and the Egyptian inland road converge.¹³⁸ Al-Zuhrī asked to be buried in the middle of the road (see below); the road in question is the inland Egyptian pilgrim road.

It is noteworthy that the small village Badā had a *fadā'il*-tradition of its own which (perhaps not surprisingly) linked it to Egypt. Yāqūt describes Dabbah (which appears in the modern maps as Duba) as a village in Tihāmah on the shore near Shām (*mimmā yalī al-Shām*). He adds that opposite it (*bi-ḥidhā'i-hā*, i.e., inland) there is a village

¹³⁵ TMD, Zuhri, 175f (citing al-Shāfi'i). The variant bazz (e.g. in Dhahabi, Tarājim rijāl, 73; Dhahabi, Ta'rīkh al-Islām, 246f) is erroneous: in the context of al-Zuhri's garyah, burr is preferable.

¹³⁶ Sam'ānī, s.v. al-Shaghbī: Badā wa-Shaghb, wa-humā wādiyān min Aylah wa-'alay-himā day'ah kāna yanzilu-hā al-Zuhrī... bayna tarīq Misr wa-al-Shām. The preposition wa-'alay-himā may suggest that the estate was irrigated by water from the two wadis. Cf. Jāsir's remark (Manāsik, 650, n. 5), that the Shaghb and Badā wadis converge. Badā and Shaghb are mentioned in the description of a place called Julayya: it is near Wadi al-Qurā, behind Badā and Shaghb; Maghānim, 89; Naşr, Amkina, 56b. On Wadi al-Qurā see A.A. Nasif, 'The Identification of the Wādī 'I-Qurā and the Ancient Islamic Site of al-Mibyāt', Arabian Studies 5 (1979), 1-19 (on p. 8 he states that it 'extends over an area of about 50 km. from Madā'in Şāliḥ in the north to al-Badāyi', a railway station in the south'; see map).

¹³⁷ Manāsik, 650. Jāsir reports (n. 4) that Badā still exists as a village of 300 inhabitants.

¹³⁸ Manāsik, 650, 653; al-Hasan b. 'Abdallāh al-Işfahānī (Lughda), Bilād al-'Arab, ed. H. al-Jāsir and Ş.A. al-'Alī (Riyadh 1968), 396. On this Suqyā (Suqyā al-Jazl) see al-Fākihī, Akhbār Makkah, ed. 'A. b. 'A. b. Duhaysh (Mecca 1407/1987), II, 368; Yāqūt, the end of s.v. Suqyā. called Badā¹³⁹ which is the village of the prophet Ya'qūb. Badā, located seventy miles from Dabbah, has an irrigation canal (*nahr jārin*). From Badā, Yāqūt concludes, Ya'qūb went on to his son Yūsuf in Egypt.¹⁴⁰ Because of its association with Ya'qūb, Badā was also called Badā Ya'qūb.¹⁴¹

At some point during the caliphate of Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik the crown prince, al-Walīd b. Yazīd, ordered the cutting down of the trees on al-Zuhrī's estate in Shaghb wa-Badā (written Badan wa-Shaghb). In the background was al-Zuhrī's attempt to convince Hishām that he should depose al-Walīd. Since the legal status of the land was at issue, we are told in this context that al-Zuhrī bought the estate from people who received it from the Prophet as a grant. The Prophet's letter was held by al-Zuhrī.¹⁴²

Beside Shaghb and Badā, a place called Th.l.bah/Th.l.yah is also associated with al-Zuhrī's estate. The correct name is Thalba. It is preserved in the name of Wadi Thalbah which can still be found on the modern maps of Saudi Arabia south of Shaghb. In 124/742, it is reported, al-Zuhrī arrived at his estates (*amwāl*) in Thiluyah(!), in [the region of] Shaghb wa-Badā, where he stayed for some time. Then he became ill and died. He determined in his will that he be buried in the middle of the road (*fa-awṣā an yudfana 'alā qāri'at al-ṭarīq*).¹⁴³

¹³⁹ Written Badan, with a tanwin.

¹⁴⁰ Yāqūt, s.v. Dabba. Musil, The Northern Hejāz (New York 1926), 135n, approximately confirms the distance between Dabbah and Badā as given by Yāqūt: in fact, Badā is 130 km., or over seventy miles, south-east (misprinted south-west in Musil) of Dabbah. Musil also remarks (135n, 313) that Badais mentioned by Ptolemy in the middle of the second century CE, to the south of Soaka (= Shawāq), is our Badā. For Soaka see the map in H.I. MacAdam, 'Ptolemy's Geography and the Wadi Sirhan', in P.-L. Gatier et al. (eds.), Géographie historique au proche-orient (Paris 1988), at 66. In al-Qalqashandī, Şubh al-a'shā fī şinā'at al-inshā, ed. M.H. Shams al-Dīn (Beirut 1407/1987), III, 445, instead of: kūnat Badā Ya'qūb wa-Shu'ayb, read: ... wa-Shaghb. Cf. correctly in Maqrīzī, Kitāb al-mawā'iz wa-al-i'tibār fī dhikr al-khijaī wa-al-akhbār, ed. G. Wiet (Cairo 1911f), I,i, 311 (kūnat Badā wa-Shaghb). Cf. Musil, The Northern Hežāz, 256.

141 Yāqūt, s.v. Shaghbā.

¹⁴² TMD, Mukht., XXVI, 366-67; TMD, MS, XVII, 947:17 (... ishtarā-hu min qawm kāna al-nabī [s] aqta'a la-hum, fa-akhraja kitāba-hu). In both sources, read 'Hishām b. 'Abd al-Malik' instead of ''Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz'. For a grant of the Prophet in the same area see Lecker, The Banū Sulaym: A Contribution to the Study of Early Islam (Jerusalem 1989), 185f, 194f: Qālis on the inland pilgrim route between Aylah and Medina. It is one station before Shaghb; al-Ya'qūbī, Buldān, ed. de Goeje (Leiden 1892), 341:-4; Musil, The Northern Heğāz, 322.

¹⁴³ Ibn Sa'd, Qism mutammim, 185 (< Wāqidī); TMD, Zuhrī, 42. (Cf. Lane, Anabic-English Lexicon, s.v. gāri'at al-țarīq: 'The higher, or highest, part of the road; the part that is trodden by the passengers'.) Wāqidī's information creates for us an His wish was fulfilled and he was buried in the middle of the road so that passers-by would pray for him.¹⁴⁴

Thalbah is also mentioned in connection with Ibn Akhī al-Zuhrī, 'al-Zuhrī's nephew' (= Muḥammad b. 'Abdallāh) who was murdered by his slaves on his estate in Thalbah. They were acting on orders from his son, who wanted the bequest. Years later the son was himself murdered by the slaves.¹⁴⁵ We know that al-Zuhrī declared his lands *sadaqah* (charitable endowment). According to the testimony of his nephew, upon doing so al-Zuhrī appointed a *mawlā* of his to supervise the endowment because his nephew was too young. When the *mawlā* died, during al-Zuhrī's lifetime, his nephew was put in charge.¹⁴⁶

arithmetical problem: if indeed al-Zuhrī was born in 58 AH, he could not have been seventy-five when he died in 124! Cf. above, n. 92. It seems unlikely that Wāqidī, in his Ta'rīkh (cited in TMD, Zuhrī, 47), claimed that al-Zuhrī died aged ninety; probably sab'īna should be read, instead of: tis'īna; see also Elad, Medieval Jerusalem, 154, n. 35. Cf. TMD, Zuhrī, 41 (where the place is called Thalaba). Ibn Kathīr, Bidāyah, IX, 344:7, has two corrupt variants of the name.

¹⁴⁴ TMD, Zuhri, 188f (citing al-Zubayr b. Bakkār). In Ibn Qutaybah, Ma'ārif, 472, we find an explicit statement that he was buried on his estate: wa-dufina bi-māli-hi 'alā qāri'at al-ṭarīq... wa-al-mawḍi' alladhī dufina bi-hi ākhiru 'amal al-Ḥijāz wa-awwalu 'amal Filastīn, wa-bi-hi day'atu-hu. See also Ibn 'Abd al-Bart, al-Tamhīd, VI, 113 (wa-kānat wafātu-hu bi-day'ah la-hu bi-nāḥiyat Shaghb wa-Badā, marida hunālika wa-awṣā an yudfana 'alā qāri'at al-ṭarīq fa-dufina bi-mawdi' yuqālu la-hu Adāmā wa-hiya khalf Shaghb wa-Badā wa-hiya auwal 'amal Filastīn wa-ākhir 'amal al-Ḥijāz); al-Iştakhrī, Masālik al-mamālik², ed. de Goeje (Leiden 1927), 27:-3 (... 'alā Badan wa-Shaghb qaryah bi-al-bādiyah kānū banū Marwān aqṭa'ū-hā al-Zuhriyyah al-muḥaddith wa-bi-hā qabru-hu).

¹⁴⁵ Ibn Sa'd, Qism mutammim, 453 (qatala-hu ghilmānu-hu bi-amri bni-hi fi amwāli-hi bi-Thalya[!] bi-nāḥiyati Shaghb wa-Badā. Wa-kāna bnu-hu safihan shāținan qatala-hu li-l-mīrāth, wa-dhālika fi ākhiri khilāfati Abī Ja'far, thumma wathaba ghilmānu-hu 'alay-hi fa-qatalū-hu ba'da sinīna aydan). See also TMD, MS, XV, 558:-5, 560:2 (qatala-hu ghilmānu-hu bi-amri bni-hi fi amwāli-hi bi-Thalba [this is the correct place-name] bi-nāḥiyat Shaghb wa-Badā; TMD, Mukht., XXII, 330 (he was murdered fi amwāli-hi bi-nāḥiyati Shaghb wa-Badā; the murder took place in 152/ 769). According to another report, the nephew's murder took place in 157/774; E. Sachau, 'Studien zur ältesten Geschichtsüberlieferung der Araber', Mitteilungen des Seminars f. orientalische Sprachen (Berlin), 2. Abt. 7 (1904), 154-96, at 165 = al-Dhahabī, Tadhhīb al-tahdhīb; al-Mizzī, Tahdhīb al-kamāl, XXV, 559.

¹⁴⁶ The nephew reported: habasa al-Zuhrī amwālan la-hu wa-dafa'a-hā ilā mawlan la-hu fa-māta al-mawlā fi hayāti-hi fa-ja'alanī makāna-hu wa-kuntu yawma taṣaddaqa bi-hā wa-dafa'a-hā ilā al-mawlā lam ablugh thumma adraktu ba'da-hu (read: ba'du?); al-Khaṣṣāf, Aḥkām al-awqāf (Cairo 1322/1904), 17f. Note that elsewhere we find that upon al-Zuhrī's death, 'Shaghb' (i.e., probably al-Zuhrī's estate in the Shaghb wa-Badā region) was sold in order to cover his debts; Dhahabī, Nubalā', V, 342. Perhaps only part of it was sold. For the identity of the man who managed al-Zuhrī's estate (wakīl al-Zuhrī bi-day'ati-hi [bi-]Shaghb wa-Badā), see al-Mizzī, Tahdhīb al-kamāl, XVIII, 491-2.

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Regarding the reliability of the *hadīths* which a traditionist from Aylah (the above mentioned 'Uqayl b. Khālid al-Aylī) transmitted from al-Zuhrī, it is reported that al-Zuhrī used to stay in Aylah and that he had an estate there.¹⁴⁷ In actual fact, the estate was far from Aylah (although at some point the region of Shaghb wa-Badā belonged to the jurisdiction of Aylah).¹⁴⁸

5. Other Estates Owned by Qurashis in the Same Region

At this point we digress a little to discuss the information about two Qurashī notables who owned estates in the region of Shaghb wa-Badā. They were attracted to the area by its favourable agricultural conditions and its location near the pilgrim roads. The two Qurashīs were the fourth caliph, 'Alī, and the father of the 'Abbāsid caliphs, 'Alī b. 'Abbāsi.

Ibn Shabbah provides rich evidence about the estates of 'Alī b. Abī Ţālib. However, we are only concerned here with those located in the rugged tract called Harrat al-Rajlā'. These included two wadis, al-Ahmar and al-Baydā', and a few wells.¹⁴⁹ About al-Ahmar we are told: wa-la-hu bi-Harrat al-Rajlā' min nāhiyat Sh. b Z.y.d. wādin yud'ā al-Ahmar.¹⁵⁰ Instead of Sh. b. Z.y.d., read Shaghb wa-Badā. This reading can be corroborated by the following identification of the other wadi owned by 'Alī in Harrat al-Rajlā', namely al-Baydā'. Some 60 km. south-east of Shaghb as the crow flies we find on the modern maps of Saudi Arabia Bi'r al-Baydā', near a wadi of the same name (see map). This is presumably 'Alī's estate, and wadi al-Ahmar should be looked for in the same vicinity.

We now turn to 'Alī b. 'Abdallāh b. 'Abbās. At the end of his extensive history of Medina, Samhūdī (d. 911/1505) includes a geographical dictionary of place-names in Medina and its vicinity. Under Badā he says that 'Alī b. 'Abdallāh b. 'Abbās and his children lived there (*Badā: mawdi' qurb Wādī al-Qurā kāna bi-hi manzil 'Alī*

¹⁴⁷ Wa-kāna al-Zuhrī yakūnu bi-Ayla wa-li-l-Zuhrī hunāka day'a wa-kāna yakrubu 'an-hu hunāka; Tahdh., VII, 256. On 'Uqayl see above, n. 21.

148 See above, n. 136.

¹⁴⁹ Ibn Shabbah, Madinah, I, 219f, especially 224f.

¹⁵⁰ See also Samhūdī, II, 1186. Jāsir, who adduces the same text, has, instead of Sh.'b Z.y.d.: Sh.'.b. R.b.dā; Jāsir, Fī Shimāl gharb al-jazīrah (Riyadh 1401/1981), 306 (the second bā' is without a diacritical point), 513. Cf. S. A. el-Ali, 'Muslim Estates in Hidjaz in the First Century A.H.', JESHO 2 (1959), 247-61, at 257 (Shi'b Zayd). b. Abdallāh b. al-Abbās wa-awlādi-hi).^{15v} A passage in the Lisān al-'arab, which was compiled some two centuries before Samhūdī's history, and in Ibn al-Athīr's *hadīth* dictionary, compiled about three centuries before Samhūdī's history,¹⁵² takes us a little further: wa-fi hadīth al-Zuhrī annahu kāna la-hu māl bi-Shaghb wa-Badā, humā mawdi'āni bi-al-Shām, wa-bi-hi [presumably, in the region of Shaghb wa-Badā] kāna muqāmu 'Alī b. 'Abdallāh b. 'Abbās wa-awlādi-hi ilā an

waṣalat ilay-himi al-khilāfah. This information is of course problematic: the well-known place associated with 'Alī b. 'Abdallāh b. 'Abbās and his sons is al-Humaymah, situated south-west of Ma'ān (see map).¹⁵³ These texts, though not completely clear, are very interesting. They appear to reflect a variant version concerning the place inhabited by the 'Abbāsids prior to their revolution.

The aforementioned information about 'Alī b. Abī Ţālib's estates leads to the following identification of Harrat al-Rajlā': since wadi al-Ahmar was in Harrat al-Rajlā', in the vicinity (*min.nāhiyat*) of Shaghb wa-Badā, Harrat al-Rajlā' must be identical to the Harrah known today as Harrat 'Uwayrid (see map). The same conclusion is reached if we assume that wadi al-Baydā' is identical, as has just been argued, with its namesake found on the modern map of Saudi Arabia.¹⁵⁴

¹⁵¹ Samhūdī, s.v., II, 1145. Among the owners of estates in the nearby Wadi al-Qurā we find the third caliph 'Uthmān, who declared his estate a charitable endowment (*sadaqab*); cf. el-Ali, 'Muslim Estates', 256; Ibn Sa'd, III, 77. Also 'Alī b. Abī Ţālib owned a *sadaqab* in Wadi al-Qurā; 'Abd al-Razzāq, al-Mușannaf, ed. H. al-R. al-A'zamī (Beirut 1390/1970-1392/1972), X, 375 (written once, erroneously: Wadi Umm al-Qurā).

¹⁵² Lisān al-'arab, s.v. sh.gh.b.; Ibn al-Athīr, al-Nihāya fi gharīb al-hadīth wa-alathar, ed. Ţ. A. al-Zāwī and M. M. al-Ţanāḥī (Cairo 1385/1965), s.v. sh.gh.b.

¹⁵³ See e.g. Bakrī, s.v. Adhruh, 130; Balādhurī, Ansāb, III, 79f ('Alī died at al-Humaymah in 117/735), 87 (Muhammad b. 'Alī b. 'Abdallāh, who died in 124/742, had in al-Humaymah 500 trees, and [every day] he used to pray under each of them two nak'ahs); cf. Akhbār al-dawlah al-'Abbāsiyyah, ed. 'A. al-'A. al-Dūrī and 'A. al-J. al-Muțțalibī (Beirut 1971), 108 ('Alī b. 'Abdallāh b. 'Abbās bought a qaryah called al-Humaymah in a rustāq located between Shām and Medina); El², s.v. al-Humayma (D. Sourdel).

¹⁵⁴ The identification of Harrat al-Rajlā' with Harrat 'Uwayrid appears to conform to Aşma'i's identification of Harrat al-Rajlā' as a Harrah in the territory (*diyār*) of the Banū al-Qayn b. Jasr (a subdivision of the Qudā'ah) located between Medina and Shām; Yāqūt, s.v. al-Harrah al-Rajlā'. The Banū al-Qayn lived (viz. in the early days of Islam) fi aknāf al-Shām, 'on the sides (or edges) of Shām'; Ibn Hazm, Ansāb, 454. Elsewhere we find that Harrat [al-]Rajlā' is in the territory of Judhām; Bakrī, s.v. Harrat al-Rajlā', 436. See also Ibn Hishām, al-Sīrah al-nabawiyyah, ed. al-Saqqā, al-Abyārī and Shalabī (Beirut 1391/1971), IV, 243. The Judhām were the neighbours of the Banū al-Qayn. An estate of 'Alī called al-Quşaybah was (in) nāḥiyat Fadak... bi-a'lā Ḥarrat al-Rajlā'; Ibn Shabbah, Madīnah, I, 225. See also Samhūdī, II,

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES ON IBN SHIHÅB AL-ZUHRI

6. The Boundary between Palestine and the Hijāz. in the Early Islamic Period

The modern maps of Saudi Arabia are an indispensable tool in the study of the history of pre-Islamic and early Islamic Arabia. The place-names associated with al-Zuhrī's estate, namely Shaghb, Badā, Thalbah and Adāmā, can all be found within a small area of northwestern Saudi Arabia (see map). This merits special emphasis. I believe that a growing tendency, among Arabists and Islamicists, to relate the literary evidence to the geographical one is an inevitable development in the study of Arabia. We now have better maps than ever before, as well as new editions of medieval Arabic texts on the geography of Arabia, and specialized surveys of certain areas prepared by local scholars. All these research devices make it easier for us to locate, within obvious limitations, many of the places mentioned in the primary sources.

The evidence concerning al-Zuhtī's estate often refers to the boundary between Shām, more precisely the Filastīn district, and the Hijāz.¹⁵⁵ For instance, it is said that al-Zuhtī's tomb is in Adāmā 'behind' Shaghb wa-Badā, which is the boundary between Filastīn and the Hijāz. In it (i.e., in Adāmā), the report continues, there was an estate belonging to al-Zuhtī, where he lived. The source of this account is al-Husayn b. al-Mutawakkil al-'Asqalānī (Ibn Abī al-Sarī,

1186; Jāsir, Fī shimāl gharb al-jazīrah, 306, 513, 580f. Cf. Jāsir, op. cit., 512 (Harrat 'Uwayrid used to be called of old Harrat al-Kuraytīm); Hamad al-Jāsir, Abū Alī al-Hajarī wa-abhāthu-hu fī tahdīd al-mawādi' (Riyadh 1968), 231.

¹³⁵ Shaghb, Badā and Adāmā were already mentioned in connection with the northern Hijāzī border by Abdullah al-Wohaibi, *The Northern Hijaz in the Writings* of the Arab Geographers 800-1150 (Beirut 1973), 251-2, who employed the entry on al-Zuhrī in Ibn Khallikān's *Wafayāt al-a'yān* (= ed. I. 'Abbās [Beirut 1968-72], IV, 177-9), as well as the geographical works of Yāqūt, al-Bakrī and Naşr al-Iskandarānī. See also H. Lammens, 'L'ancienne frontière entre la Syrie et le Higāz: Notes de géographie historique', in *l'Arabie occidentale avant l'Hégire* (Beirut 1928), 295-331, especially 315-16, 325, 330.

Ibn Khallikān (178) has two forms of the last-mentioned place-name: Adāmā and Adamā; see also *Wafayāt al-a'yān*, ed. M.M. al-D. 'Abd al-Hamīd (Cairo 1948), III, 318. Ibn Khallikān adds a new place-name to those already mentioned above in connection with al-Zuhrī. He quotes a passage from [Ibn 'Abd al-Barr's] al-Tamhīd according to which al-Zuhrī died in his house in Na'f, defined as a *qaryah 'ind al-qurā al-madhkūrah*, i.e., Shaghb, Badā and Adāmā/Adamā. Surprisingly, there is no mention of Na'f in Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *al-Tamhīd*, VI, 113. 'Na'f' (if it is not a corruption of 'Shaghb') might have been identical with the village called al-Na'f on the road to al-Hijr, between al-'Ulā and Tabūk; for its mention see Jāsir, Fī Shimāl gharb al-jazīrah, 586. d. 240/854).¹⁵⁶ He said about al-Zuhrī's grave, which he had seen, that it was elevated, plastered with gypsum, and white.¹⁵⁷ The place-name Adāmā is probably preserved in Wadi al-Dāmah (see map) and Adāmā should be looked for along this wadi.¹⁵⁸

There are contradictory statements, possibly referring to different periods, concerning the administrative district to which Adāmā belonged. On the one hand, we are told that Adāmā, while being close to the Hijāz, was outside it (i.e., in Filasţīn).¹⁵⁹ On the other hand, we find that al-Adāmā' (*sic*) was one of the regions (*a'rāḍ*) of Medina (i.e., it was included in the Hijāz). The source of the latter statement also reports that al-Zuhrī had palm trees there which he planted when he became old (*asanna*). We are told that al-Adāmā', which some call al-Udāmā' (these are variants of the name Adāmā), is a place in the lands of the Quḍā'ah in Shām.¹⁶⁰ Indeed, the 'Udhrah, a subdivision of this area: Shaghbā (= Shaghb), 'the village of al-Zuhrī', was in the land of the 'Udhrah.¹⁶¹

The statement that the northern border of the Hijāz was at Shaghb wa-Badā¹⁶² presumably includes the Shaghb wa-Badā region

¹⁵⁶ Not to be confused with his brother Muhammad, who was also called Ibn Abī al-Sarī. Yahyā b. Ma'īn referred to Muhammad as *muhaddith Filasţīn*; Dhahabī, *Nubalā*', XI, 161.

¹⁵⁷ TMD, Zuhrī, 181 (ra'aytu qabr al-Zuhrī bi-Adāmā, wa-hiya khalfa Shaghb wa-Badā, wa-hiya awwalu 'amal Filastīn wa-ākhiru 'amal al-Hijāz, wa-bi-hā day'atu al-Zuhrī allatī kāna fi-hā, wa-ra'aytu qabra-hu musannaman, mujassasan, abyada). Also Ya'qūb b. Sufyān al-Fasawī (d. 277/890) saw the grave; see his al-Ma'rifah waal-ta'rīkh, III, 348. He reports that al-Zuhrī was buried in an elevated piece of ground, fi nashz/nashaz min al-ard (erroneously printed nashar). Cf. the expression qāri'at al-tarīq above, n. 143. Sam'ānī (d. 562/1167, in s.v. al-Zuhrī) still reports that al-Zuhrī's grave is well known and that it is a place of pilgrimage (mashhūr yuzāru), but he may be quoting an earlier text.

¹⁵⁸ Upon the Arabization of this place-name, the 'A' became an article.

¹⁵⁹ TMD, Zuhri, 46 (al-Zuhri died in Adāmā, qarib min ardi l-Hijāz wa-hiya min a'māl Filasțin) Ibn al-Jawzi, Muntazam, VII, 235.

¹⁶⁰ Nașr, Amkinah, 17a; Yāqūt, s.v. Adāmā (citing Nașr).

¹⁶¹ Yāqūt, s.v. Shaghbā. Also Yāqūt, s.v. Badan: 'a valley near Aylah on the shore, and some said: in Wadi al-Qurā, and some said: in Wadi 'Udhrah near Shām'. The three definitions refer to one and the same place. The Banū 'Udhrah are known to have inhabited the nearby Wadi al-Qurā as well. See also *Maghānim*, 206: Shaghbā/Shaghb is the village of al-Zuhrī. Also Yāqūt, s.v. Shaghb: it is an estate 'behind' (viz. to the north-west of) Wadi al-Qurā which belonged to al-Zuhrī, and his tomb is in it. As we have seen (above, n. 154), the Banū al-Qayn b. Jasr of the Qudā'ah were associated with the adjacent Harrat al-Rajlā' (identified above with the modern Harrat 'Uwayrid).

¹⁶² Bakrī, 10f. Cf. the incomplete quotation of this text in Samhūdī, II, 1182; *Maghānim*, 102; Yāqūt, s.v. al-Hijāz, 219 (who specifies that the text is from Aşma'ī's *Kitāb jazīnat al-'arab*). in the Hijāz.¹⁶³ The same state of affairs is roughly reflected in the accounts about the expulsion of the Jews from the Hijāz by the caliph 'Umar b. al-Khaṭṭāb. He expelled the Jews of Khaybar and Fadak, but not those of Taymā' and Wadi al-Qurā, because the latter were included in *ard al-Shām*. He considered the area 'beneath' (*dūna*, i.e., south of) Wadi al-Qurā part of the Hijāz, and the area 'beyond' it (*warā'a dhālika*, i.e., Wadi al-Qurā itself and the area north of it) part of Shām.¹⁶⁴

There are further indications, derived from the reports about the conflict between the Umayyads and Ibn al-Zubayr, that the border between the Hijāz and Shām (more precisely, Filastin) was in the vicinity of Wadi al-Qurā. The northern Hijāz was an important venue during this conflict, hence the relative wealth of evidence.¹⁶⁵ At some point — Ibn al-Zubayr's governor in Medina was then al-Hārith b. Hātib al-Jumahī — we hear of Khaybar and Fadak being included in al-Harith's jurisdiction: he was ordered by Ibn al-Zubayr to appoint a certain Anşārī as the governor of these two agricultural settlements.¹⁶⁶ With regard to an attack on this governor we hear of a boundary between Sham and Ibn al-Zubayr's territory (i.e., the Hijāz): when an expedition force sent by 'Abd al-Malik reached the northern edge of Ibn al-Zubayr's area of jurisdiction, Ibn al-Zubayr's tax collectors fled. Then 'Abd al-Malik advanced and encamped at Wadi al-Qurā, from where he sent his cavalry to attack Khaybar and Fadak.¹⁶⁷ The reference to the evacuation of Ibn al-Zubayr's

¹⁶³ Muqaddasī explicitly includes Badā Ya'qūb in the Hijāz; Aḥsan al-taqāsīm², ed. de Goeje (Leiden 1906), 69, 84 (Badā Ya'qūb is on jāddat Mişr).

¹⁶⁴ Al-Wāqidī, *Kitāb al-maghāzī*, ed. M. Jones (London 1966), II, 711. Note that one medieval scholar argued that Tabūk and Filasţīn(!) were part of the Hijāz; Samhūdī, s.v. Hijāz, II, 1184:1. The scholar in question is not al-Huraqī(!) but Ibrāhīm al-Harbī; see Bakrī, 12 and Yāqūt, s.v. al-Hijāz, 219.

Incidentally, 'Umar b.' 'Abd al-'Azīz instructed his governor in Egypt, Hayyān b. Shurayh, to expel Coptic criminals to Shaghb wa-Badā; Muranyi, '*Abd Allāh b. Wahb*, 313.

¹⁶⁵ The information given below refers to different stages in the conflict.

¹⁶⁶ On these events see the section entitled 'Der Zugang zum Higäz' in Rotter, Die Umayyaden, 182f.

¹⁶⁷ Balādhurī, Ansāb, XI, 35 (fa-lammā nazala awwala 'amal bn al-Zubayr mimmā yalī al-Shām haraba 'ummālu-hu wa-sāra 'Abdu l-Malik hattā nazala Wādiya al-Qurā wa-wajjaha min-hā [sic] khaylan etc.). In connection with Ibn al-Zubayr's governor in Wadi al-Qurā we come across a valuable detail, namely that Ibn al-Zubayr's governor in Wadi al-Qurā we come across a valuable detail, namely that Ibn al-Zubayr's governor in Wadi al-Qurā we come across a valuable detail, namely that Ibn al-Zubayr's governor in Wadi al-Qurā we come across a valuable detail, namely that Ibn al-Zubayr was storing there a large quantity of dates received as taxes (i.e., in kind); see Balādhurī, Ansāb, XI, 49; Balādhurī, Ansāb, V, 363 (wa-kāna li-bn al-Zubayr bi-hā tamr kathīr min tamr al-sadaga). A governor of Ibn al-Zubayr in Wadi al-Qurā is mentioned in the account of the battle of al-Rabadhah (65/684-5), which took place northern border by his tax collectors is important. After their flight (no doubt together with their garrisons), 'Abd al-Malik could come to Wadi al-Qurā, formerly under Ibn al-Zubayr's control, and send his cavalry deep into Ibn al-Zubayr's territory. In sum, the boundary between the two parties, which was at the same time the boundary between the Hijāz and Shām, was in the vicinity of Wadi al-Qurā.

At a later stage in the conflict the name of Țăriq b. 'Amr, a mawlā of 'Uthmān b. 'Affān, emerges.¹⁶⁸ Again we find a reference to Ibn al-Zubayr's fiscal administration: 'Abd al-Malik instructed Țăriq 'to camp at [i.e., to patrol] the area between Aylah and Wadi al-Qurā, prevent Ibn al-Zubayr's tax collectors from spreading, defend the area between him [i.e., Ibn al-Zubayr] and Shām, and close up a gap should he discover one'.¹⁶⁹ Wadi al-Qurā was the base of Țāriq b. 'Amr's operations against Ibn al-Zubayr: it is reported that after the attack on Ibn al-Zubayr's men at Khaybar, Țāriq returned to Wadi al-Qurā, and his patrols¹⁷⁰ remained active in the area between Medina, Wadi al-Qurā and Aylah.¹⁷¹

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when the caliph Marwan b. al-Hakam was still alive: a troop under Hubaysh b. Duljah al-Qaynī sent by Marwan arrived at Wadi al-Qurā, and Ibn al-Zubayr's governor there fled; Rotter, *Die Umayyaden*, 158f; Balādhurī, *Ansāb*, V, 150f.

¹⁶⁸ See an entry about him in *TMD*, *MS*, VIII, 488f; *Tahdh.*, V, 5f. For the date see Rotter, *Die Umayyaden*, 186. See above, nn. 113, 114.

¹⁶⁹ Balādhurî, Ansāb, XI, 36 (wa-amara-hu an yanzila bayna Aylah wa-Wādī al-Qurā fa-yamna'a 'ummāla bn al-Zubayr mina li-'ntishār wa-yahfaza mā bayna-hu wa-bayna al-Shām wa-yasudda khalalan in zahara la-hu). A slightly different version of these instructions (TMD, MS, VIII, 488; TMD, Tahdh., VII, 43) refers to 'Abd al-Malik's tax collectors in this border area between the dominions of 'Abd al-Malik and Ibn al-Zubayr: wa-amara-hu an yakūna fimā bayna Aylah ilā Wādī al-Qurā madadan li-man yahtāju ilay-hi min 'ummāl' Abd al-Malik b. Marwān aw man kāna yurīdu qitāla-hu min aṣhābi bn al-Zubayr.

¹⁷⁰ Presumably, this is the meaning of the term sayyārah.

¹⁷¹ Balādhurī, Ansāb, XI, 36f.

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- TMD, Tahdh. Tahdhib ta'rikh Ibn Asākir, ed. Badrān (Damascus 1399/1979).

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES ON IBN SHIHAB AL-ZUHRI

 TMD, Zuhri — the entry on Zuhri from TMD, ed. al-Qujāni (Beirut 1402/1982).
 Uns jalil — Mujir al-Din al-Hanbali al-'Ulaymi. al-Uns al-jalil bi-ta'rikh al-Quds wa-al-Khalil (Amman 1973).

Waki', Muhammad b. Khalaf. Akhbār al-qudāt, ed. al-Marāghī (Cairo 1366/1947). Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn. Ma'rifat al-rijāl, ed. al-Qaṣṣār (Damascus 1405/1985). Yāqūt al-Ḥamawī. Mu'jam al-buldān (Beirut 1957).

XVII

The death of the Prophet Muhammad's father: did Wāqidī invent some of the evidence?*

The theory of "continuing growth" in early Islamic historiography, especially during the 2nd/8th century, is common among contemporary scholars studying the history of early Islam.¹ Most common is the comparison between our two best-known sources for the life of the Prophet, Ibn Ishāq (d. 150/767) and Wāqidī (d. 207/823).² This article looks at what early Islamic historiography has to say about the death of the Prophet's father, 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Muțtalib, in order to arrive at some general observations on the emergence of Islamic historiography.

Prof. MICHAEL COOK analysed the divergent reports on 'Abdallāh's death and compared Wāqidī to his predecessors. His findings were as follows:³

• I am indebted to Prof. MICHAEL COOK and Prof. ETAN KOHLBERG for their comments on an earlier draft of this article.

¹ Cf. for example G. HAWTING: al-Hudaybiyya and the conquest of Mecca: a reconsideration of the tradition about the Muslim takeover of the sanctuary. In: Jerusalem studies in Arabic and Islam (JSAI) 8 (1986), 14ff. ("sanctuary material" in the accounts of the conquest of Mecca seems to increase in our sources the later they are), 17.

² P.CRONE: Meccan Trade and the Rise of Islam. Princeton 1987, 223, who ascribes "the steady growth of the information" to the storytellers, says: "It is obvious that if one storyteller should happen to mention a raid, the next storyteller would know the date of this raid, while the third would know everything that an audience might wish to hear about it"; op. cit., 224: "Wāqidī ... will always give precise dates, locations, names, where Ibn Ishāq has none ... But given that this information was all unknown to Ibn Ishāq, its value is doubtful in the extreme. And if spurious information accumulated at this rate in the two generations between Ibn Ishāq and Wāqidī, it is hard to avoid the conclusion that even more must have accumulated in the three generations between the Prophet and Ibn Ishāq." But cf. IDEM: Slaves on Horses: The Evolution of the Islamic Polity. Cambridge 1980, 13 ("... the Muslim tradition was the outcome, not of a slow crystallization, but of an explosion; the first compilers were not redactors, but collectors of debris whose works are strikingly devoid of overall unity").

³ M. COOK: Muhammad. Oxford 1983, 63 ff.

Ibn Ishāg reported that 'Abdallāh died while his wife was pregnant with Muhammad - though in one line of transmission a statement has been added to the effect that he may rather have died when Muhammad was twenty-eight months old. and that God knows best which is right. Ma'mar [b. Rāshid, d. 154/770] likewise (if we take the account he transmits to be essentially his own) has 'Abdallah die while Muhammad is still in the womb, and is able to give a short account of the circumstances: 'Abdallah had been sent by his own father, 'Abd al-Muttalib, to lay in stores of dates in Yathrib, and died there. Two further scholars of this generation are quoted by a ninth-century compiler for the view that 'Abdallāh died when Muhammad was twenty-eight months old, or perhaps it was seven. The conclusion to be drawn from this range of opinions is obvious: the scholars of the first half of the eighth century agreed that 'Abdallah had died early enough to leave Muhammad an orphan; but as to the details, God knew best.

By the later eighth century times had changed, and it was Wāqidī who knew best. Wāqidī knew that 'Abdallāh had gone to Gaza on business, had fallen ill on the way back, and died in Yathrib after leaving the caravan he was with to be nursed by relations there. Wāqidī was further able to specify 'Abdallāh's age at death and the exact place of his burial. Naturally he also knew when the event took place, namely while Muḥammad was still in the womb. He was aware that this was not the only account of the matter, but pronounced it the best. This evolution in the course of half a century from uncertainty to profusion of precise detail is an instructive one. It suggests that a fair amount of what Wāqidī knew was not knowledge. Similar effects have been demonstrated in Wāqidī's treatment of the course and chronology of much later events in the biography of Muḥammad.⁴

An alternative hypothesis to the one of "continuing growth" is put forward in this article. The linear approach to the development of Islamic historiography is, I submit, based on the miscon-

⁴ Wāqidī's "superior knowledge" reflects the continuing evolution of story-telling; COOK: *Muḥammad*, 66. Also 67: "We have seen what half a century of story-telling could achieve between Ibn Isḥāq and Wāqidī", etc.

ception of its earliest, formative, phases. There was an initial phase of rapid expansion in the 1st/7th century. In this first phase, which preceded the appearance of systematic compilations, Islamic historiography came into existence in the form of an enormous body of historiographical records preserved (both in written form and as oral tradition⁵) by people mainly interested in the history of their families and clans. Thanks to these early experts whose scope and ambition were rather limited, Islamic historiography made a stormy appearance, gaining immense proportions within several decades of the 1st/7th century. The huge bulk of historiographical material was the outcome of the fact that several, perhaps many, historiographical traditions, which were sometimes competing and at other times in agreement with each other, were simultaneously produced.⁶ Following this sprouting of historiographical materials, a large body of evidence came to be scattered among many experts. To the extent that these experts arranged their materials, they must have followed the obvious chronological order. However, they did not endeavour to prepare a complete, systematic biography of Muhammad.

The next phase, which began in the latter half of the 1st/7th century and continued into the 2nd/8th, saw the appearance of compilers such as Zuhrī (d. 124/742), Ibn Ishāq (d. 150/767),

⁹ Note in this context the important observations of G. WIDENGREN: Oral tradition and written literature among the Hebrews in the light of Arabic evidence with special regard to prose narratives. In: AO 23 (1954), 201-62, at 212. "[I]t is wrong to contrast oral and written tradition too much in an ancient Semitic culture ... Writing down is codified oral tradition, and as such primarily intended to be read aloud, to be recited." WIDENGREN continues, with reference to his study (which is not available to me) Literary and Psychological Aspects of the Hebrew Prophets. Uppsala 1948, 56, 63 ff., 121 ff.: "I further distinguished between various forms of literature, stressing the fact that one form, the ayyām-literature, for a long time circulated only in oral transmission whereas other forms - sīrah- and hadīt-literature, the learned literature - were written down from the outset. The case of written or oral transmission is thus dependent also upon the special category of literature." Contrast R.S. HUMPHREYS: Islamic History: A Framework for Inquiry². Princeton 1991, 69: "The Arabic narrative sources represent a rather late crystallization of a fluid oral tradition."

⁶ Cf. G. WIDENGREN'S observation concerning the *ayyām* literature (*Oral tradition*, 237): "All parallel traditions in the *ayyām*-literature ... are not to be understood as reflexions of one and the same basic narrative or as developments of a more simple tradition. We are also entitled to say that from the outset two or more relations of the same event were circulating, for sometimes two such traditions are entirely irreconcilable."

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Wāqidī (d. 207/823) and several others. These scholars sifted the enormous and amorphous body of evidence which was made available to them by their predecessors. Each selected records which he considered, in accordance with his own criteria, to be relevant and reliable. The scholars of the second phase, who were in fact compilers, did not invent anything. Their compilations diverged because they used different sources, or selected differently from the evidence recorded by their predecessors. In other words, rather than growing, the bulk of historiographical material shrank. Zuhrī, Ibn Isḥāq, Wāqidī and the other compilers added nothing (or almost nothing) of their own to the materials they transmitted and redacted.

Having sifted the evidence available to them, the compilers sometimes edited the records they chose to include in their histories,⁷ often creating a new story. It was new in the sense that it had not existed in this redacted form in any earlier source. However, they did not invent new details. It is true, their editorial practices seriously impair the reliability of their compilations, but they did not concoct evidence. Indeed, the compilers were liberal in their arrangement of the discrete reports they had selected.⁸ They also provided the phrases necessary to bridge these reports,⁹ and at times introduced slight changes in the transmitted material.

At the end of this general, hypothetical presentation, it should be observed that underlying the theory of "continuing growth" is our rather deficient knowledge of early Islamic historiography, much of which is lost or known only through quotations in later sources. Because of this handicap it is difficult, no, impossible to work with a small selection of primary sources. A comparison between Ibn Ishāq and Wāqidī gives one a rather limited view of early Islamic historiography.

To find out what the sources report about 'Abdallāh's death we have to turn not only to texts with titles such as $S\bar{i}ra$, $Magh\bar{a}z\bar{i}$ and $Ta'r\bar{i}kh$, but also to a variety of other texts because the evi-

[•] Cf. A. NOTH: Quellenkritische Studien zu Themen, Formen und Tendenzen frühislamischer Geschichtsüberlieferung. Bonn 1973, 54ff., 155ff.

⁷ Cf. WIDENGREN: Oral tradition, 258: "[A]n author deserves the name of an 'author' only with the utmost reserve. He is much more of a collector and redactor whose chief task is to sift and arrange his material."

[•] Cf. M.LECKER: Wāqidī's account on the status of the Jews of Medina: a study of a combined report. In: JNES (forthcoming).

dence we are looking for could have wandered about everywhere in the Islamic literature. There are different versions competing for recognition as historical fact, but their claim is weakened by their disagreements. So, in this specific case, the quest for precise historical evidence looks hopeless. However, our understanding of the history of Islamic historiography can be furthered by the analysis of the texts available to us. More specifically, it can be shown that Wāqidī's presumed "superior knowledge" came from one of his sources and belonged to the major historiographical movement of the 1st/7th century.

Ibn Ishāq, in the recension of Ibn Hishām (d. 218/833), links 'Abdallāh's death to his wife's pregnancy by stating that 'Abdallāh died shortly after his wife had become pregnant.¹⁰ But our best source on 'Abdallāh's death is Ibn Sa'd (d. 230/845; I, 99 ff.), most of whose evidence comes from Wāqidī. After quoting Wāqidī, Ibn Sa'd adds another source who made a different claim on this matter. In other words, differences, a salient feature of early Islamic historiography, are not buried away; the opposing view is quoted and disputed.

Let us start with Wāqidī as quoted by Ibn Sa'd. We find out that the most detailed evidence about the death of the Prophet's father reached Wāqidī from two informants: Mūsā b. 'Ubayda al-Rabadhī (d. 153/770) < Muḥammad b. Ka'b al-Qurazī (d. 118/736); and Sa'īd b. Abī Zayd < Ayyūb b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Abī Ṣa'ṣa'a.¹¹ The terminology employed here by Wāqidī typi-

¹⁰ Thumma lam yalbath 'Abdullāh b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib abū rasūli llāhi (ş) an halaka wa-umm rasūli llāhi (s) hāmil bihi; Ibn Hishām, I, 167. Bayhaqī, Dalā'il, I, 187, has an isnād going back to Yūnus b. Bukayr < Ibn Ishāq: wa-qad halaka abūhu 'Abdullāh wa-hiya hublā, qāla: wa-yuqālu inna 'Abdallāh halaka wa-l-nabī (s) bn thamāniya wa-'ishrīna shahran, wa-'llāhu a'lamu ayyu dhālika kāna.

¹¹ Mūsā: Ibn Hajar al-'Asqalānī. Tahdhīb al-tahdhīb. Hyderabad 1325 A. H., X, 359. For Ibn Hanbal's physical reaction when a hadīth from Mūsā b. 'Ubayda < Muḥammad b. Ka'b < Ibn 'Abbās, was brought to him, see op. cit., 358: 3. On Mūsā see also Ibn Sa'd. al-Tabaqāt al-kubra, al-qism al-mutammim li-tābi'ī ahli l-Madīna wa-man ba'dahum. Ed. ZIYĀD MUḤAMMAD MANṢŪR. Medina 1408/1987, 407 ff. Muḥammad: F.SEZGIN: Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums (GAS). Leiden 1967 ff., I, 32. Sa'īd b. Abī Zayd al-Zuraqī is quoted by Wāqidī several times: see Wāqidī, I, 272 (Uḥud), II, 438 (al-Ifk), 528 (Qurayza), 572 (Hudaybiyya) and 633 (Khaybar). In the last-mentioned place we find the name of Sa'īd's grandfather: al-Mu'allā. Ayyūb: Abū l-Hajjāj Yūsuf al Mizzī. Tahdhīb al-kamāl fī asmā' al-rijāl. Ed. BASHSHĀR 'AWWĀD MA'RŪF. Beirut 1405/1985 ff., III, 482 ff. (Ayyūb b. 'Abd al-Rahmān b. Sa'sa'a; some called him Ayyūb b. 'Abd al-Rahmān

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cally belongs to the realm of $had\bar{i}th$ transmission: he introduces the report with the verb $q\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, "both of them said", an indication that he received from these two informants, Mūsā and Saʿīd, identical texts.¹² Moreover, in the manner common among transmitters of *hadīth*, Wāqidī¹³ differentiates between the modes in which he received the report from Mūsā and Saʿīd. For the former, Wāqidī uses the term *akhbaranā*, whereas concerning the latter he says *haddathanā*.¹⁴ Ibn Saʿd preserves the terms used by his teacher Wāqidī.¹⁵

The detailed report which Wāqidī received from the two abovementioned authorities is our starting point, called the "Gaza version". It relates that 'Abdallāh went to Gaza in a Quraysh caravan. On the way back (i.e. some time before the caravan arrived at Medina) he became ill and consequently asked to stay in Medina with his maternal uncles (*akhwāl*), the Banū 'Adī b. al-Najjār of the Khazraj. (As is well known, the mother of the Prophet's grandfather, 'Abd al-Muțtalib, was of the 'Adī b. al-Najjār, hence the reference to them as 'Abdallāh's maternal uncles.) He sojourned with them for one month. Meanwhile, 'Abd al-Muțtalib sent to his ailing son his first-born son al-Hārith, but by the time he came to Medina, 'Abdallāh had died and was buried in the court (*dār*) of al-Nābigha, who was a member of the above-mentioned 'Adī b. al-Najjār.¹⁶ We are also told that

b. 'Abdallāh b. Abī Ṣa'ṣa'a [see this name below]). Wāqidī quotes Ayyūb b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. Abī Ṣa'ṣa'a through one intermediary: I, 149 (Badr), 345 (the expedition of Abū Salama to Qaṭan), II, 498 (Qurayẓa), 520 (Qurayẓa).

¹² Cf. Wāqidī, II, 761, where Wāqidī specifies that his two sources provided unequal reports: *haddathanī* ... wa-*haddathanī* ..., zāda ahaduhumā 'alā sāhibihi fī l-hadīth, qālā.

¹³ Whose transmission techniques, it should be added, were not always acceptable to certain *muhaddithūn*; see LECKER: *Wāqidī's account on the status of the Jews of Medina*.

¹⁴ Cf. Ibn al-Ṣalāḥ. 'Ulūm al-ḥadīth. Ed. NŪR AL-DĪN 'ITR. Medina 1972, 119 ff. Concerning his own transmission from Wāqidī, Ibn Sa'd uses the term akhbaranā: akhbaranā Muḥammad b. 'Umar b. Wāqid al-Aslamī.

¹³ I believe that Wāqidī could not have claimed falsely that Mūsā b. 'Ubayda al-Rabadhī and Sa'īd b. Abī Zayd had transmitted to him an identical *hadīth* which they had not, because their *hadīth* was available to other *hadīth* scholars of Wāqidī's generation, who could scrutinize his transmission.

¹⁶ The court of al-Nābigha was in the territory of the 'Adī b. al-Najjār west of the Prophet's mosque; 'Alī b. Aḥmad al-Samhūdī. *Wafā*' al-wafā bi-akhbār dār al-muṣṭafā Ed. MUḥAMMAD MUḤYÌ L-DĪN 'ABD AL-ḤAMĪD. Cairo 1374/1955 (reprint Beirut), I, 213.

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Muhammad's mother was then pregnant and that 'Abdallah died aged twenty-five.

We shall return to Wāqidī shortly, but first we have to examine some variants, Balādhurī (d. 279/892) adduces an abridged form of the Gaza version. In this source, as well as in Ibn Sa'd, this version is concluded with a reference to 'Abdallāh's age at the time of his death, i.e. twenty-five. At this point Balādhurī adds:

And some said that he [- 'Abdallāh] was twenty-eight [i.e. when he died] and that his father [i.e. 'Abd al-Muttalib] sent to him [i.e. when he was ill in Medina] his brother al-Zubayr b. 'Abd al-Muttalib, who was present at his death. He was buried in the court of al-Nābigha.¹⁷

This new version presumably mentions Gaza as well (to some extent this is suggested by the context in which Balādhurī adduces it), and hence it can be considered a sub-version of the Gaza version,¹⁸ and can be dubbed the "Zubayr version". It differs in certain aspects from the Gaza version: 'Abdallāh's age, the identity of 'Abd al-Muțțalib's envoy and his presence at 'Abdallāh's death.¹⁹

Another sub-version of the Gaza version came from an unspecified source and survived, as far as I could check, only in a very late collection of biographies of famous women written by an inhabitant of Mosul some two centuries ago:

When Āmina was two-months pregnant with the Messenger of God, 'Abd al-Muttalib instructed his son, 'Abdallāh, to travel to Gaza in Syria (Shām) in order to procure for them [i.e. for the members of his family] what they needed in clothing, food and other items. He went with the merchants and bought for them [i.e. for his family members] food, clothing and other items. When the merchants returned, 'Abdallāh returned with them. 'Abdallāh fell ill on the way, and when

¹⁷ Balādhurī, Ansāb, I, 92.

¹⁸ The possibility that it was created by contamination cannot of course be ruled out.

¹⁹ In Abū l-Ḥasan 'Alī b. Muḥammad Ibn al-Athīr. Usd al-ghāba fī ma'rifat al-saḥāba. Cairo 1280 A. H., I, 13 ff., this remark follows: 'Abdallāh, al-Zubayr and Abū Ṭālib were born by the same mother. It is presumably an integral part of the Zubayr version. Now the mention of Abū Ṭālib might indicate a Shī'ite provenance of the Zubayr version. 'Abdallāh's age according to this version, twenty-eight, may serve as this version's hallmark. they arrived at Medina, his illness became serious. So he stayed behind in it [i.e. in Medina] with his maternal uncles, the Banū al-Najjār. He remained in Medina for several days, and then he died and was buried there. He was thirty years old. When news of his death reached 'Abd al-Muttalib, he was overwhelmed with grief and cried. The Messenger of God was then a foetus in his mother's womb and this was after two months (wa-kāna ... hamlan fī baţni ummihi wa-dhālika ba'da shahrayni).²⁰

There are obvious similarities between this report, which we can classify as Gaza version^b, and the former one, Gaza version^a, but its independence (which, I argue, goes back to the first phase of Islamic historiography), is of course determined by the differences in it and not the similarities. For example, 'Abdallāh did not simply set out for Gaza (as in Gaza version^a), he was sent there by his father; 'Abdallāh did not die one month after his arrival at Medina (Gaza version^a), he died several days after his arrival; most importantly, when he died, 'Abdallāh was thirty (not twenty-five as in Gaza version^a, or twenty-eight, as in the Zubayr version); and, finally, when he set out, his son Muḥammad was a two-month old foetus (in the Gaza version^a the foetus's age is not specified).

Why are these numbers important? Because now that we have Gaza version^b it may be realized that when thirty is given as an alternative version for 'Abdallāh's age at the time of his death, or when Muhammad is said to have been a two-month old foetus,

²⁰ Yāsīn b. Khayr Allāh al-'Umarī (d. after 1232/1817). al-Rawda al-fayhā' fī tawārīkh al-nisā'. Ed. 'ImāD 'ALI HAMZA. Beirut (?) 1407/1987, 140. There is some ambiguity concerning the two-month period mentioned twice in this report. The following remarks of Yāsīn al-'Umarī show that according to him, Muḥammad was a foetus of two months when his father died: the marriage took place in Rajab, so 'Abdallāh died in Ramadān (the seventh and ninth month of the Islamic year, respectively). It should of course be added that the Prophet is traditionally said to have been born in Rabī' al-Awwal, the third month of the Islamic year; Ibn Hishām, I, 167. See also below, n.22. A variant of a version mentioned later in this article (the dates version), which includes the statement that upon his father's death the Prophet was a foetus of six months, is found in the Qur'ān commentary of Maḥmūd Shihāb al-Dīn al-Ālūsī (d. 1270/1854; EI², s.v. al-Ālūsī). Rūḥ alma'ānī. Cairo 1345 A. H., XXX, 161: ruwiya anna 'Abda l-Muṭṭalib ba'atha bnahu 'Abdallāh abā rasūli llāhi (s) yamtāru tamran min Yathrib fa-tuwuffiya wa-rasūlu llāhi [s] janīn qad atat 'alayhi sittatu ashhur. 17

these are actually faint signals from Gaza version^b which for some unknown reason was pushed aside in Islamic historiography. The date in which this version came into being is unknown, but if the hypothesis concerning early Islamic historiography submitted in this article is correct, it should be dated to the beginnings of Islamic historiography. After a long hiatus, which in this extreme case lasted eleven centuries, it reappeared in the aforementioned collection of biographies of prominent women. If this is correct, then there can hardly be a better demonstration of the relative insignificance of the designations "early" and "late" in Islamic historiography.²¹

An example of a faint signal of the type just mentioned can be quoted from the *Sīra Ḥalabiyya*, compiled in the 11th/17th century: it adduces, without further details, the two-month pregnancy of the Prophet's mother alongside other versions (which are similarly vestiges of independent stories).²²

Having reviewed the presumed sub-versions of the Gaza version, we return to Wāqidī (as quoted by Ibn Sa'd). Wāqidī knew

²¹ Cf. WIDENGREN: Oral tradition, 253 ("... a source of a considerably later date than other texts ... may in certain cases contain traditions in a more original form which in older sources have been exposed to abridgements"). And see the observation of M.J. KISTER (The Sirah Literature. In: The Cambridge History of Arabic Literature: Arabic Literature to the End of the Umayyad period. Ed. A. F. L. BEES-TON et alii. Cambridge 1983 [CHALUP], 367) concerning the importance of the late sira compilations: "The late compilations ... contain an immense wealth of material derived from early sources. Some of these traditions, stories, reports and narratives are derived from lost or hithertho unpublished sources. Some traditions, including early ones, were apparently omitted in the generally accepted Sīrah compilations, faded into oblivion, but reappeared in these late compilations." Cf. IDEM: On the papyrus of Wahb b. Munabbih. In: BSOAS 37 (1974), 562-71, where KISTER traces a report found in the sira of Wahb b. Munabbih (d. 110/728) in later, mainly Shi'ite, literature. Of particular interest for us, in connection with the emergence of Islamic historiography, are KISTER's conclusions which present Wahb's sirā as a composite (and hence elaborate) work (p. 571): "The report of the papyrus is thus a version combining Shi'ite traditions with the Sunni ones. If it is accepted as a fact that the papyrus records the tradition as transmitted by Wahb, it can be seen to shed new light on the tradition of the Shi'a at the end of the first century A.H. and to mirror the first extant attempt at combining the contradictory Shi'ite and Sunni versions of the story of the Hijra." (For a specific case of a version bridging Shi'ite and Sunni tradition see op. cit., p. 569.)

²² I, 49:6 from the bottom: qīla: wa-inna mawta wālidihi (s) kāna ba'da an tamma lahā min hamlihā shahrāni, wa-qīla [— another version] qabla wilādatihi bi-shahrayni, wa-qīla [— yet another version] kāna fī l-mahd hīna tuwuffiya abūhu, bna shahrayni. of other versions on this matter which he regarded as less reliable than Gaza version^a: "This", he stated, "we consider to be the most reliable version concerning 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Muttalib's death and his age when he died" (hādhā huwa athbatu l-aqāwīl wa-lriwāya fī wafāti 'Abdillāh b. 'Abd al-Muttalib wa-sinnihi 'indanā). Athbat (sometimes Wāqidī uses thabt) is a technical term reflecting the existence of differences among his sources. Of the rival versions (aqāwīl) on this matter Wāqidī quotes only one, from Ma'mar < Zuhrī (d. 124/742):

'Abd al-Muttalib sent 'Abdallāh to Medina in order to procure for him provisions of dates (*yamtāru lahu tamran*), and he died.

Zuhri's report is called the "dates version". The Gaza component is missing from Zuhri's report altogether, but we cannot tell from this small fragment whether or not Zuhri had other details in common with the two informants from whom Wāqidī quoted Gaza version^a (i.e. Mūsā b. 'Ubayda al-Rabadhī and Sa'īd b. Abī Zayd), such as the Prophet's mother being pregnant and 'Abdallāh's burial place. Later in the article it will be shown that he had.

Was this really Zuhrī's report, dating back to roughly one century before Wāqidī's time, or did Wāqidī or someone else make it up? At this point we can benefit from the spread of Zuhrī's materials in the Islamic literature and trace his report in other sources. The *Muşannaf* of 'Abd al-Razzāq (d. 211/827), for example, has, at the beginning of the chapter titled *Kitāb almaghāzī*, a long report where the birth of the Prophet is placed after his father's death ('Abd al-Razzāq < Ma'mar < Zuhrī).²³ This means that, according to this report, when 'Abdallāh died, the Prophet's mother was pregnant. If we juxtapose Zuhrī's report as quoted in the two sources consulted above, it can be shown that it remains the same (slight variations hotwithstanding):

- Ibn Sa'd: ba'atha 'Abd al-Muțțalib 'Abdallāh ilā l-Madīna yamtāru lahu tamran fa-māta.
- 'Abd al-Razzāq: thumma ba'atha 'Abd al-Muțțalib 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib yamtāru lahu tamran min Yathrib fa-tuwuffiya 'Abdullāh bihā.

²³ 'Abd al-Razzāq b. Hammām al-Ṣan'ānī. *al-Muṣannaf*. Ed. ḤABĪB AL-RAḤMĀN AL-A'ẓAMĪ. Beirut 1390/1970-1392/1972, V, 317. 19

'Abd al-Razzāq continues: wa-waladat \overline{A} mina rasūla llāhi (s) fa-kāna fī hajri 'Abd al-Muțțalib, "then \overline{A} mina gave birth to the Messenger of God and he was in the protection of 'Abd al-Muțțalib". It can now be stated that according to Zuhrī, 'Abdallāh died when his wife was still carrying the future Prophet in her womb (cf. above, n. 10).

That the report coming from $W\bar{a}qid\bar{i} < Ma'mar < Zuhr\bar{i}$ is the same as that from 'Abd al-Razz $\bar{a}q < Ma'mar < Zuhr\bar{i}$ speaks in favour of the reliability of these transmitters, and so we can reconstruct Zuhri's report on this matter.²⁴ Significantly, if we can trust quotations from earlier sources, we can also date the disputes long before W $\bar{a}qid\bar{i}$'s own time; indeed, I submit, we can date them to the earliest phase of Islamic historiography in the 1st/7th century.

More support for the assumption that texts were reliably transmitted can be drawn from another copy of the passage just quoted (again allowing for slight changes). Its *isnād* goes back to ['Abdallāh] b. Wahb < Yūnus [b. Yazīd al-Aylī] < Zuhrī:²⁵

 ba'atha 'Abd al-Muțțalib 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib yamtāru lahu tamran min Yathrib, fa-tuwuffiya 'Abdullāh b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib, wa-waladat Āmina rasūla llāhi (ş) b. 'Abdillāh fa-kāna fī hajri jaddihi 'Abd al-Muțțalib.

Zuhrī's passage remains unchanged when it is quoted with an *isnād* including the above-mentioned 'Abdallāh b. Wahb and Yūnus b. Yazīd: al-Zubayr b. Bakkār (d. 256/870)²⁶ < Muḥammad b. al-Ḥasan = Ibn Zabāla (d. towards the end of the second century A. H.)²⁷ < Ibn Wahb < Yūnus < Zuhrī:

• Ba'atha 'Abd al-Muțțalib 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib yamtāru lahu tamran min Yathrib fa-tuwuffiya bihā.²⁸

²⁴ It must again be emphasized that the reliability of the transmitters does not bring us any closer to the historical facts some of which, as we have just seen, are disputed.

²⁵ Bayhaqī, *Dalā'il*, I, 187.

²⁶ It is probably from his lost book Akhbār al-Madīna, on which see GAS, I, 318.

²⁷ GAS, I, 343 ff. For a quotation from Ibn Zabāla in al-Zubayr b. Bakkār's Akhbār al-Madīna see Ibn Hajar, *Isāba*, VI, 57.

²⁸ Ibn 'Asākir, TMD, Sīra, I, 64ff.

We again meet the same passage from Zuhrī (slight changes notwithstanding) as a component in a report about the circumstances of Åmina's marriage to 'Abdallāh. Tabarī quotes it (< one transmitter) < Ibn Sa'd < Wāqidī < Ma'mar "and other transmitters" (wa-ghayrihi) < Zuhrī. The following is the passage which concerns us:

 wa-ba'athahu abūhu ilā l-Madīna fī mīra yaḥmilu lahum tamran fa-māta bi-l-Madīna fa-ba'atha 'Abd al-Muțțalib bnahu l-Hārith fī talabihi hīna abta'a fa-wajadahu qad māta.²⁹

It seems to me that the invention of evidence was not on the agenda of these scholars; as far as preserving their predecessors' reports was concerned, they were on the whole reliable transmitters. This observation may apply to some transmitters and not to others, but I argue that within the obvious limits. viz. where the sources allow us to do so, the earliest stratum of Islamic historiography can be reconstructed on the basis of the assumption that the transmitters, or some of them, reliably reproduced the reports of their predecessors. In other words, if a report said to be from Zuhri is found in different sources with two or more independent chains of transmitters, then, rather than thinking of these transmitters as having a plot to invent a report and ascribe it to Zuhri, we should regard this as a report originating with Zuhri.³⁰ The focus on Zuhri and his contemporaries has a clear advantage for the study of early Islamic historiography: later scholars such as Ibn Ishaq and his contemporaries, not to mention Waqidi and other still later scholars, will no longer be our point of departure. Reconstructing the materials of Zuhri and his contemporaries from later sources means tracing the roots of early Islamic historiography to the 1st/7th century.

A few more passages based on a text found in Tabari³¹ about the reconstruction of Zuhri's report are in place here. Wāqidī (in Ibn Sa'd) only quotes Zuhri's report in order to dispute its statements on both the circumstances of 'Abdallāh's marriage³² and the background of 'Abdallāh's arrival at Medina (which is the

²⁹ Țabari, II, 246 [I, 1081 ff.].

³⁰ Zuhri's materials are ubiquitous and their reconstruction is not an implausible project. The reconstruction of Zuhri's sources is of course a more intricate matter.

³¹ II, 246 [I, 1081 ff.].

³² Cf. Ibn Sa'd, I, 94ff.

point concerning us here).³³ If we compare Tabari's text to the parallel text in Ibn Sa'd, we find, besides other differences, a point of particular interest: the mention of al-Harith b. 'Abd al-Muttalib as his father's envoy. This is not because the detail is itself new - al-Hārith, as we saw above, was his father's envoy according to Gaza version^a, from Wāqidī < Mūsā b. 'Ubayda and Sa'īd b. Abī Zayd - but because we do not yet have it from Zuhrī, of whose report Ibn Sa'd quotes, via Wāqidī, only a small fragment.³⁴ The mention of al-Hārith by Zuhrī (in Tabarī) is important for us because it suggests that Zuhri's report originally included details about 'Abdallah's illness and death among the Banu al-Najjār. The short fragment which Wāgidī (in Ibn Sa'd) quotes from Zuhri³⁵ does not include this presumed section of Zuhri's report. Following as it does after the detailed Gaza version⁴, this fragment could create the misleading impression that this was all that Zuhri had to say on the matter. This impression is wrong, as we learn from Tabari and 'Abd al-Razzāg beforehand. According to the text found in 'Abd al-Razzāg (above, p.18 f., Zuhrī dated 'Abdallah's death before the Prophet's birth. This is also said in Gaza version^e. According to the text found in Tabari, Zuhri said that al-Hārith was 'Abd al-Muttalib's envoy, which again is in agreement with Gaza version^a. The passages referred to in 'Abd al-Razzāg and Tabarī indicate that the passage quoted in Ibn Sa'd from Wagidi is but a small fragment of Zuhri's report; more precisely, it probably only reflects the points of disagreement between Gaza version^a and Zuhri's dates version. Zuhri, omitting Gaza, had 'Abdallah sent directly to Medina, but the rest of his report was in agreement with Gaza version^a. Confirmation (or

³³ In Ţabarī < one transmitter < Ibn Sa'd, Wāqidī's negation of Zuhrī's report is more strongly phrased compared with the one found in Ibn Sa'd's *Ţabaqāt*. The former text reads as follows: wa-l-thabt 'indanā, laysa bayna aṣḥābinā fīhi khtilāf, anna 'Abdallāh b. 'Abd al-Muțțalib aqbala mina l-Shām ..., and he concludes: laysa bayna aṣḥābinā fī hādhā khtilāf.

³⁴ Something may be said here about the historicity of al-Hārith's mission. While Wāqidī's informants Mūsā and Sa'īd differ with Zuhrī over the circumstances of 'Abdallāh's arrival at Medina (the Gaza version vs. the dates version, respectively), they agree with Zuhrī that it was al-Hārith who was sent to the ailing 'Abdallāh by his father 'Abd al-Muttalib. The agreement of two otherwise divergent reports is important; al-Hārith's mission may have a stronger claim for historicity compared to the Zubayr version (above, p. 13).

» Ba'atha 'Abd al-Muțțalib 'Abdallāh ilā l-Madīna yamtāru lahu tamran famāta. refutation) of this reconstruction will only be possible when we find a fuller version of Zuhrī's account on the death of the Prophet's father.³⁶

The Banū 'Adī b. al-Najjār play a significant role in the story of 'Abdallah's death. One of the isnads mentioned by Wagidi is: Sa'īd b. Abī Zayd < Ayyūb b. Abd al-Rahmān b. Abī Sa'sa'a. It is the latter transmitter who concerns us here. From a report in Tabarī we learn that his full name was Ayyūb b. 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Abdallāh b. Abī Sa'sa'a and that he was of the Banū 'Adī b. al-Najjār (akhī banī 'Adī b. al-Najjār). Elsewhere we find him as Ibn Ishāg's source for a story involving a woman of the Banū 'Adī, Umm al-Mundhir Salmā bint Oays, whom Ayyūb calls "one of the maternal aunts of the Messenger of God", 37 obviously with reference to the family links between the Prophet and the Banū 'Adī b. al-Najjār.³⁸ When Ayyūb, a member of the Banū 'Adī, gives a report about his fellow 'Adawiyya Salmā bint Qays to Ibn Ishāq, he in fact transmits an item from the tribal history of the Banū 'Adī. When he reports to Wāgidī's informant Sa'īd b. Abī Zavd about 'Abdallah's death among his maternal uncles, the Banū 'Adī, he is doing the same thing. The "maternal uncleship" is mentioned in his report (Gaza version^a) three times and, as we have seen, a specific member of the Banū 'Adī, al-Nābigha, in

²⁴ For the time being we may turn to a fragment which Balādhurī (Ansāb, I, 92: 10) quotes from an unspecified source: wa-kāna 'Abd al-Muțțalib ba'athahu ilā l-Madīna yamtāru lahu tamran, fa-nazala 'alā akhwālihi min banī l-Najjār fa-māta 'indahum. Of course we already know about the role played by the Banū 'Adī (see more on it below), but we do not yet know it from Zuhrī.

Incidentally, this is followed in Balādhurī by a third version concerning 'Abdallāh's stay in Medina: he came to visit his maternal uncles, fell ill and died (*wa-yuqālu: bal atāhum zā'iran lahum fa-mariḍa 'indahum wa-māta*). We can call this the visit version. A slightly longer fragment of a text including this version appears to suggest that 'Abdallāh brought Muḥammad to Medina when he was seven months old: *wa-qīla: bal kharaja bihi ilā akhwālihi zā'iran wa-huwa bnu sab'ati ashhur*; Ibn Sayyid al-Nās. '*Uyūn al-athar.* Cairo 1956, I, 25.

³⁷ Țabarī, II, 591 [I, 1496 ff.]. The story is about a man of the Jewish Qurayza whom she saved from the fate of his fellow tribesmen. Elsewhere (Țabarī, Leiden edition, III, 2474 [*al-Muntakhab min kitāb dhayl al-mudhayyal*]) we find Ayyūb b. 'Abd al-Raḥmān quoting, through one informant, another story about the same woman, in this case told in first person. Being a member of the 'Adī b. al-Najjār, Ayyūb's great-grandfather was not identical to Abī Ṣa'ṣa'a/'Amr of the Māzin b. al-Najjār, on whom see e. g. Ibn Qudāma al-Maqdisī, *al-Istibṣār fī nasab al-ṣaḥāba min al-ansār*. Ed. 'ALI NUWAYHID. Beirut 1392/1972, 83 ff.

³⁴ Above p. 14.

whose court 'Abdallāh was buried, is also mentioned in it. Having identified Ayyūb as a member of the Banū 'Adī, we realize that the version concerning 'Abdallāh's death which Wāqidī supports, i.e., Gaza version^a, belongs to the tribal history of the 'Adī b. al-Najjār and it is only natural that it brings them to the fore. With regard to the history of Islamic historiography it is noteworthy that both Ibn Ishāq and Wāqidī made use of material from Ayyūb: the former did it directly, while the latter, who died half a century later, did it through one intermediary.

On what grounds did Wagidi prefer Gaza version^a to the dates version? For the time being the question cannot be answered because it must be discussed on the basis of more information. As an example of the kind of information needed, another case can be mentioned where Wagidi disputes a claim made by Zuhri. At the end of a report detailing the tribal military units that took part in the Battle of the Khandag (5 A.H.) and their leaders, Wagidi adduces evidence relating to the participation of the Banū Murra (a subdivision of the Ghatafan). According to Zuhri, and the Banū Murra themselves, none of them participated in the battle: their leader, al-Hārith b. 'Awf, convinced that Muhammad would finally have the upper hand, advised them in an eloquent speech to disperse in their land rather than join the forces besieging Medina. Waqidī adduces this obviously apologetic report only in order to refute it: he quotes two important sira authorities who testified that the Banu Murra, under the command of al-Harith b. 'Awf, did participate in the battle. Here, too, Wagidī resorts to the term athbat (see above, p.18) to indicate his preference for the latter version.³⁹

Having analysed the different versions quoted by Wāqidī, we return to a matter briefly mentioned above in order to show that one of the claims made is of Shī'ite provenance. After quoting Wāqidī, Ibn Sa'd adduces two different statements about Muḥammad's condition upon his father's death. His source is Ibn al-Kalbī (d. 204/819), who in turn cites two earlier authorities, his father al-Kalbī (146/763) and 'Awāna b. al-Ḥakam (147/764): when 'Abdallāh died, the Messenger of God was twenty-eight months old, and some said: seven months old. Ibn Sa'd rejects

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³⁹ Wāqidī, II, 443 ff. (... fa-kāna hādhā athbata 'indanā, annahu shahida l-Khandag fī qawmihi, etc.).

these claims: the report that Muhammad was then in the womb is more reliable.⁴⁰

Of special significance is the claim that when 'Abdallāh died, Muhammad was a two-month old baby.⁴¹ The Shī'ite provenance of the version with the two-month old baby is attested to in Ya'qūbī (d. 284/897): according to Ja'far b. Muhammad (viz. the sixth *imām* of the Imāmī Shī'ites Ja'far al-Ṣādiq or "the Veracious", d. 148/765),⁴² 'Abdallāh died two months after the Prophet's birth. In another claim, which Ya'qūbī quotes and rejects, 'Abdallāh died before the Prophet's birth.⁴³ (As we have seen, Zuhrī, Ibn Ishāq and Wāqidī held this rejected view.) Ya'qūbī also says that according to some, when his father died, the Prophet was one year old. He adds that 'Abdallāh died aged

⁴⁰ Ibn Sa'd, I, 100. Muhammad b. Habīb. *al-Muhabbar*. Ed. I. LICHTENSTAEDTER. Hyderabad 1361/1942, 9:1, said that when 'Abdallāh died, Muhammad was twenty-eight months old (and when his mother died, he was eight years old). Cf. IDEM. *al-Munammaq fī akhbār Quraysh*. Ed. KHURSHĪD AHMAD FĀRIQ. Beirut 1405/1985, 431, where we find, at the very end of the book, a version of the report about the Quraysh delegation to Sayf b. Dhī Yazan which is not from Ibn Habīb. According to this version, both of Muhammad's parent had died before he became two years old. Cf. al-Mas'ūdī. *Murūj al-dhahab*. Ed. CH. PELLAT. Beirut 1966 ff., III, 13 (when his father died, the Prophet was a foetus but this is disputed: some say that he was one month old then, while others say that it occurred in his second year).

⁴¹ The isnād goes back to (...) al-Zubayr b. Bakkār < Ibn Zabāla (above, n.27) < a certain 'Abd al-Salām (b. 'Abdallāh) < (Ma'rūf) b. Kharrabūdh; Ibn 'Asākir, *TMD*, Sīra, 64. (Concerning the isnād cf. op cit., 57.) Other details provided by Ma'rūf b. Kharrabūdh are: when his mother died, the Prophet was four years old, and when his grandfather 'Abd al-Muțțalib died, he was eight; (on his deathbed) 'Abd al-Muțțalib appointed (Muḥammad's uncle) Abū Țālib as his guardian (faawṣā bihi ilā Abī Ţālib).

⁴² El², s. v. Dja'far al-Şādik (M.G.S. HODOSON).

⁴³ Ya'qūbī, *Ta'rīkh*, II, 10 (wa-gāla ba'duhum innahu tuwuffiya qabla an yūlada, wa-hādhā qawl ghayr ṣaḥīḥ lianna l-ijmā'a 'alā annahu tuwuffiya ba'da mawlidihi). W.G. MILLWARD: al-Ya'qūbī's sources and the question of Shī'a partiality. In: Abr Nahrain 12 (1971-72), 52, adduces Ya'qūbī's text in order to demonstrate that al-Ya'qūbī "relies heavily on Ja'far as the safest authority on contentious points. Where differences of opinion or conflict of evidence exist between two or more traditions on the same point, he gives precedence to Ja'far's version"; see also op. cit., 70. Cf. CRONE: Slaves on Horses, 11 ("Ya'qūbī gives us nothing like the Shī'ite experience of Islamic history, mereley the same body of tradition as the Sunni Țabarī with curses in appropriate places"). The two-month version was also reported by Ibn Abī Khaythama (probably in his Ta'rīkh); see Zurqānī, I, 109. 25

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twenty-five among his father's maternal uncles, the Banū al-Najjār, in the court known as Dār al-Nābigha.

Thanks to Ya'qūbī we know that the claim that Muhammad was born two months before his father's death is Shī'ite. This suggests a Shī'ite provenance of Ibn al-Kalbī's claims that at that time Muhammad was twenty-eight or, alternatively, seven months old.⁴⁴

Conclusions

Admittedly, we have made little progress as far as the historical facts linked to the death of the Prophet's father are concerned, but we have established that there are good reasons for reconstructing the rival versions, dating back, I argue, to the 1st/7th century. Every detail, no matter how trivial, is important in the description of the rich fabric of early Islamic historiography, our knowledge of which is still rather inadequate.

⁴⁴ It is noteworthy that the modern Shi^{*}ite commentator of the Qur'an MUHAMMAD HUSAYN AL-TABATABAT says that when his father died, the Prophet was in his mother's womb; see his al-Mīzān fī tafsīr al-gur'ān. Beirut 1394/1974, XX, 310. Al-Fadl b. al-Hasan al-Tabrisi. Majma' al-Bayan fi tafsir al-qur'an. Beirut 1374/1954-1377/1957, XXX, 137, adduces two versions: the Prophet was then in his mother's womb, and, according to some, his father died a short time (mudda galīla) after his birth. The Shī'ite claim that Muhammad was a baby when his father died is also attested in rajaz verses attributed to the dying 'Abd al-Muttalib who made 'Alī's father, Abū Ţālib, Muhammad's guardian; Ya'qūbī, Ta'rīkh. II. 13 (fāragahu wa-hwa dajī'u l-mahdi fa-kunta ka-l-ummi lahu fī lwajdi). Presumably, the image of "Muhammad in the cradle" is part of a larger Shi'ite scheme concerning the role played by 'Ali's father in raising Muhammad. Ibn Hazm al-Andalusi (d. 456/1064). Jamharat ansāb al-'arab. Ed. 'ABD AL-SALĀM HĀRŪN. Cairo 1382/1962, 17, states that when his parents died, the Prophet was a child (fi haddi l-tufūliyya). Elsewhere he specifies that when his father died, Muhammad was not yet three, and when his mother died, he was not yet seven; Ibn Hazm. Jawāmi' al-sīra. Cairo n.d., 6. Surprisingly, in a short treatise by Ibn Hazm, entitled Jumal mina l-ta'rīkh, we find that when his father died, Muhammad was in his mother's womb; see Khulāsa fī usūl al-islām wa-ta'rīkhihi: risālatāni jadīdatāni li-'bn Hazm al-Andalusī. Ed. Abū 'ABD AL-RAHMĀN AL-ZĀHIRĪ and 'ABD AL-HALIM 'UWAYS. Cairo 1397 A.H., 11. According to al-Suhayli (d. 581/1185). al-Rawd al-unuf. Ed. TAHA 'ABD AL-RA'UF SA'D. Cairo 1391/1971, I, 184, most scholars agree that when his father died, the Prophet was in the cradle. See also Zurgānī, I, 109. The references to the Andalusians Ibn Hazm and Suhaylī may suggest that the Shī'ite version was widespread in al-Andalus.

The complexity of early Islamic historiography, demonstrated by the evidence analysed above, goes beyond Ibn Ishāq and Wāqidī. A comparison between these two compilers gives a rather limited idea of the historiographical movement of early Islam.

On the whole, the suspicion sometimes implied in modern research that Wāqidī fabricated some of his evidence, is unfounded. Wāqidī did not invent Zuhrī's dates version precisely as he did not invent the Gaza version. When Wāqidī mentions something Ibn Ishāq does not,⁴⁵ this probably means that the former chose, for whatever reason, to include a point which the latter chose to discard.⁴⁶

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⁴⁵ Assuming that it is not mentioned in Ibn Ishāq's lost book *al-Sīra al-kubrā*; for a passage from this book which is not found in Ibn Hishām, see Ibn Hajar, *Isāba*, V, 500.

46 See already J.M.B. JONES: The Maghazi Literature. In: CHALUP, 349, who observes, in connection with the charge that Wāqidī plagiarized Ibn Ishāq: "The similarities in the two texts are to be explained by the fact that both writers were drawing on a common corpus of material." Cf. IDEM: Ibn Ishaq and al-Waqidi: the dream of 'Atika and the raid to Nakhla in relation to the charge of plagiarism. In: BSOAS 22 (1959), 46, 47, 51. In the latter article (which preceded the former by more than twenty years), JONES argues that Ibn Ishaq and Waqidi "draw freely upon gass material" and that the similarities between them should be ascribed to their use of "a common repertoire, rather than plagiarism on al-Wagidi's part"; "they were drawing upon a common reservoir of *gass* material"; "the greater part of the sira was already formalized by the second century A. H. and ... later writers shared a common corpus of gass and traditional material, which they arranged according to their own concepts and to which they added their own researches". While on the whole this formulation seems to be accurate, the presumed role of the gass in the formation of the sira still awaits a thorough study; cf. on the storytellers CRONE: Meccan Trade, 215ff.; above, nn. 2, 4).

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XVIII

Biographical notes on Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthannā*

Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthannā (henceforth: A'U) was one of the major contributors to Arab and Islamic civilization in the 2nd/8th century. Though he was probably not an attractive figure, it was his character and presumably his Jewish origin which made him extremely unpopular among many of his Başran contemporaries. The sources abound with anecdotes about this unusual intellectual who devoted his life to scholarship and aroused both feelings of admiration and rancour. There is much that remains obscure due to insufficient biographical evidence on him but occasionally one gets a glimpse of "the real A'U".

**

A'U was a *mawla*. He thrived thanks to the open-minded approach of the Islamic society at its inceptive stages towards non-Arab converts, for all the prejudice against them, and the Muslims' preparedness to acknowledge their contributions and talents. Conversion to Islam was, of course, a fundamental requirement. Together with his new religion, the convert adopted the emerging civilization which accompanied it. Through the vehicle of Arabic the convert who possessed the necessary intellectual gifts and the right disposition could compete with other *mawalt*, and with the Arabs in the field of historical and linguistic studies.

A'U, who died ca. 210/825, was one of the most prolific compilers in the golden age of classical Arabic literature. H.A.R. Gibb assumes that almost half the information on pre-Islamic Arabia transmitted by later authors comes from A'U. Gibb convincingly refutes Goldziher's assump-

^{*} I am grateful to Professor M.J. Kister, Professor Sh. Shaked and Professor W. Madelung for commenting on an earlier draft of this study.

tion that A'U was a Shu'ubi and argues, against Goldziher, that he was a Khārijite. In a recent study W. Madelung agrees with Gibb that he was not a Shu'ubi but argues that he was not a Khārijite either. It will be argued below that since the testimonies about A'U's Khārijism come from his students and admirers, they should be trusted even in the absence, for the time being, of positive evidence concerning A'U's adherence to specific Khārijite doctrines (¹).

1. Abū 'Ubayda : Subbukht (Sibbukht/Sibukht)

Goldziher writes :

According to one account (which is, however, rather curious) he owed his by-name, Abū 'Ubayda, to the fact that his grandfather had been a Jew. "Abū 'Ubayda was a nickname given to Jews and the famous philologist is said to have become very angry when addressed by this nickname" (²).

Goldziher misread the passage. The Arabic text says : wa-Nissakht laqab Abt 'Ubayda wa-huwa sm min asma'i l-yahūd luqqiba bihi ta'ridan bi-anna jaddahu kāna yahūdiyyan wa-kāna Abū 'Ubayda wasikhan tawīla l-azfār abadan wa-l-sha'r, wa-kāna yaghdabu min hadha l-laqab, "And Nissakht [!] is the nickname of A'U, and it is a [typical] name of Jews which was given to him as a nickname with reference to

(1) On A'U see C. Brockelmann, Geschichte der arabisbeen Literatur, Leiden 1943-1949 (GAL), I, 102f; GAL, Supplementband, I, 162 (in both places there is reference to his Jewish descent); F. Sezgin, Geschichte des arabischen Schrifttums, Leiden 1967f (GAS), VIII, 67f (where there is no reference to the Jewish descent); I. Goldziher, Muslim Studies, ed. S.M. Stern, trans. C.R. Barber and S.M. Stern, London 1967-71, I, 179f; EP, s.v. Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna (H.A.R. Gibb); idem, "The social significance of the Shuubiyya", in Studies on the Civilization of Islam, ed. by S.J. Shaw and W.R. Polk, Princeton 1962, 62f, esp. 67f; idem, Arabic Literature: An Introduction, Oxford 1963, 54f ("His exhaustive fund of detailed information on the histories of the tribes, both before and after the rise of Islam, was the main source from which later historians drew their materials"; cf. Tha'lab's words: man arada akbbara l-jabiliyya fa-'alaybi bi-kutub Abi 'Ubayda wa-man arada akbbara l-islām fa-'alaybi bi-kutubi l-Madā'int; Nūr al-qabas, 109); W. Madelung, "Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna as a historian", in Journal of Islamic Studies 3 (1992), 47-56, at 48 ("the claim of al-Jahiz that Abo 'Ubayda was a Kharijite, and more specifically a Sufri, does not inspire confidence"), 53f. On the Shu'ubiyya see also R. Mottahedeh, 'The Shu'ubiyah controversy and the social history of early Islamic Iran", in IJMES 7 (1976), 161-82, at 161f.

(2) Muslim Studies, I, 186f. See also Mubammedanische Studien, I, 203: "Nach einer, übrigens recht sonderbar klingenden Nachricht, hätte er den Beinamen Abû 'Ubejda eben dem Umstande zu verdanken, daß sein Großvater Jude war" etc. The passage referred to is in Agbant, XVII, 19. I have dealt with A'U's Jewish descent briefly in a Hebrew article which is to appear in a Festschrift dedicated to Professor Moshe Gil.

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the fact that his grandfather had been Jewish. A'U was dirty, his nails and hair were always long. He was annoyed by this nickname" (³).

The passage is an interpretation of a satirical verse by the Başran poet, Ibn Munādhir (d. 198/813), who was a contemporary of A'U. The long nails of "Nissakht", i.e. of A'U (rather, a powder prepared by grinding the nails) should be made an ingredient in a medicine for the person who is the target of Ibn Munādhir's verses. Ibn Munādhir kills two birds with one stone : he injures his adversary and at the same time insults A'U by referring to his long nails and Jewish origin (⁴).

The correct form of "the typically Jewish name" given to A'U was Subbukht (or Sibbukht, an Arabized form of Sibukht, Sibukht) (⁵). 'Allan al-Shu'ubī, who was a contemporary of A'U and died at the beginning of the third century A.H., says: A'U yulaqqabu b.s.b.b. (read: bi-Subbukht), min abl Faris, a'jamt l-asl. Abl Faris, "the people of Faris" are presumably "the Persians" in general, not the inhabitants of the Fars province east of the Persian Gulf (⁶).

2. Further discussion on Abû 'Ubayda's Jewish descent

Goldziher is somewhat equivocal on the claims that A'U was of Jewish descent and finally rejects them as unsound. The section about A'U in his *Muslim Studies* begins (180) with the following definition: "By descent he was an 'Ajamī, but by affiliation he belonged to the Arab tribe of Taym". There is no reference here to the claims about the Jewish descent. Later in the same section (186f) Goldziher gives the impression that he accepts as factual A'U's admission of his Jewish descent: "A'U did not avoid – as did most of his contemporaries in his position – pointing

(3) Perhaps Goldziher read the first word as *wa-nasakbtu*. In the Dar al-Kutub edition of the *Agbant*, XVIII, 189, it is vocalised: wa-Nissakht, variants: S.n.kh.t., Sh.b.kh.t.

(5) The Marzuban of Hajar at the time of the Prophet was not Usaybukht but Astbukht (with a prosthetic *altf*); cf. Muhammad Hamīdullah, *Majmū'at al-watbā'iq al-siyāsiyya*⁵, Beirut 1405/1985, 153f (his father's name was certainly not 'Abdallah); *Isāba*, I, 199f. In Yāqūt, *Buldān*, s.v. al-Bahrayn, we find the correct name: *Stbukbt marzubān Hajar*.

(6) Fibrist, 79f; ed. Flügel, 53; B. Dodge, The Fibrist of al-Nadim, New York & London 1970, I, 115. 'Allan's words are probably taken from his K. al-mathalih; GAS, I, 271; II, 61. Ibn al-Qifti, Inbab al-ruwat, III, 285, quoting 'Allan, has: Subbukht. See also Taj al-'arūs, IV, ed. 'Abd al-'Alim al-Tahawi, Kuwait 1378/1968, s.v. s.b.kh.t.: Subbukht, "the nickname of A'U"; it also adduces a variant: Sabbukht, and mentions a 4th/10th century traditionist called Subbukht. See also Jahiz, Bayan, II, 214 (Subbukht); Ibn al-Mu'tazz, Tabaqat al-shu'ara', ed. 'Abd al-Sattar Ahmad Farraj, Cairo 1375/1956, 120 (Niskhatt !). See more about this name in Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda and the ridda of Kinda", in JAOS (forthcoming), section 1.2, entitled "al-Ash'ath b. Qays of Kinda, a Jewish convert to Islam".

⁽⁴⁾ On Ibn Munadhir see EP, s.v. (Ch. Pellat). For more details on his relationship with A'U see Zubaydi, *Tabaqat al-nabwiyyina*, 177f.

to his own origin. He boasts that he, the genealogist of the Arab tribes who criticises their descent, heard from his own father that the latter's father had been a Persian Jew". But Goldziher does not believe these accounts: "He repaid in the same coin all those who held it against him that he was a non-Arab" (?). Goldziher sums up: "This, of course, does not mean much. Muslim genealogists were bent on proving the Jewish descent of anybody whom they disliked for any reason... [G]enealogists only had to follow existing patterns when using this motive for their genealogical taunts". Then, having mentioned other false claims of Jewish descent, Goldziher says (188): "These examples may serve to illustrate the genealogical accusation which A'U's enemies made against him. But we saw that he used the same trick himself when necessary".

Mistrust of the claim about A'U's Jewish descent is also expressed by Gibb and, more recently, by B. Lewis (⁸). Lewis discusses "the attribution of a Jewish origin or ancestry in order to discredit an individual, a group, a custom, or an idea". A'U's history was one such case in point: "A similar charge was made against the philologist Abu 'Ubayda by his enemies, and by Abu 'Ubayda himself against an Umayyad governor whom he wished to denigrate" (⁹).

Brockelmann (above, n. 1) and Madelung correctly accept the testimony concerning his Jewish descent (¹⁰). The Başrans of the 2nd/8th century were naturally divided into Arabs and non-Arab *mawali*, claims and counter-claims were constantly in the air. There must have been many false allegations (¹¹) but sometimes, as in this case, the evidence is overwhelming. It may be added that the genealogical literature and even

(7) These comments introduce an argument between A'U and the Başran poet, Aban b. 'Abd al-Hamid al-Lahiqi (d. ca. 200/815), who was to become the court poet of the Barmakids. When Aban, a *mawla*, remarked that A'U, who faulted the genealogy of others, was himself without a proper Arab genealogy (*yaqdabu fi l-ansab wa-la nasaba labu*), A'U responded by saying that the authorities were negligent when they did not levy the poll-tax from Aban al-Lahiqi since he and his family were Jewish and in their homes there were the books of the Torah but no Qur'ans. The best proof of their Jewishness, A'U added, was the fact that most of them claimed to know the Torah by heart but did not keep in their memory even the little amount of the Qur'an necessary for praying. See e.g. Yaqut, *Udaba*', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 156; *Agbant*, XX, 78. On Aban see *El*², s.v. Aban b. 'Abd al-Hamid al-Lahiqi (S.M. Stern); *Agbant*, XX, 73f.

(8) Gibb, in *El*², s.v. Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthannā: (A'U's father or grandfather) "was said, on dubious authority, to have been Jewish"; B. Lewis, *The Jews of Islam*, Princeton 1984, 103.

(9) This is a reference to A'U's claim, quoted by Goldziher, that one of the ancestors of Khalid b. 'Abdallah al-Qasrt was a Jew from Tayma'. More recently it was claimed that the rector of al-Azhar when Goldziher visited Cairo was the son of a rabbi who converted to Islam; see L.I. Conrad, "The near east study tour diary of Ignaz Goldziher", in *JRAS* 1990, 105-26, at 123.

(10) "Abū 'Ubayda", 47.

(11) Contrast Madelung, "Abu 'Ubayda", 54f.

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the category dealing with "faults" (*matbalib*) are sometimes a source of sound evidence (1^2) .

In A'U's case, besides the remark that he was referred to by "the typical Jewish name" Subbukht, there are other indications that he was indeed of Jewish descent.

To begin with we have this entertaining dialogue between A'U and an anonymous person:

Anonymous [with malice in his voice]: "You have mentioned the people [unfavourably] and have faulted their genealogy. By God, you must tell me about your father and his origin"!

A'U [indifferently]: "My father informed me that his father was a Jew in Bajarwan" (13).

This report owes its preservation to its literary and theatrical appeal rather than to an interest in A'U's descent. The beginning of the dialogue could suggest that the terrible A'U was about to be humiliated, no doubt in public, on the grounds of his own faulty descent. This descent may well have been a matter of common knowledge in Başra; a public scene about it, however, was different. But the shrewd A'U does not cooperate with the anonymous attacker: he simply acknowledges his Jewish origin, and does so with grace, in the style of family-*isnAds* which are common, for example, in accounts of one's exploits in the battles of early Islam. This charming dialogue is about malice defeated by faked innocence. It may well have been invented, but in order to be meaningful it had to stand on a factual foundation.

Ibn Khallikān, probably on the basis of earlier materials available to him, assumes that A'U's Bājarwān was in Armenia/Adharbījān (see map) (¹⁴). There are further indications pointing to this Armenian Bājarwān. First, A'U was of Persian origin. This is borne out by the name Subbukht and by 'Allān's reference to him as being *min abl Fāris, a'jamt*

(12) Cf. the use of genealogical information in M.J. Kister, "On the wife of the goldsmith from Fadak and her progeny", in *Le Muséon* 92 (1979), 321-30 and in Lecker, "A note on early marriage links between Qurashis and Jewish women", in *Jerusalem Studies in Arabic* and Islam 10 (1987), 17-39.

(13) Fibrist, 79. See also Yaqut, Udaba', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 156; Ibn Khallikan, V, 240 (the anonymous speaker was a dignitary, ba'd al-ajilla). Sezgin, in Abu 'Ubayda, Majaz al-qur'an, I, introduction, 9 assumes that A'U was joking about his origin.

(14) Ibn Khallikan, V, 243. Madelung ("Abū 'Ubayda", 47) and Gibb (EP, s.v. Abū 'Ubayda Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna; idem, Arabic Literature: An Introduction, 55) assume that Bajarwan in Mesopotamia, near Raqqa, is meant here; see also E. Wagner, Abū Nuwas: Eine Studie zur arabischen Literatur der frühen 'Abbastdenzeit, Wiesbaden 1965, 29.

The "northern" Bajarwan (see El², s.v. [D.M. Dunlop]) is in Moqan between Ardabil and Bardha'a; G. Le Strange, *The Lands of the Eastern Caliphate*, Cambridge 1905, 175f, 230. On its conquest see Yaqut, *Buldan*, s.v. Adhrabijan; Baladh., *Futub*, 455f (*bisn Bajarwan*, 456; *qal'at Bajarwan*, 459). On the battles in this vicinity against the Khazars (in 112/730) see *l-aşl* (¹⁵). Second, A'U was interested in the Islamic conquest of Armenia as is shown by the fact that he compiled a book titled *Futūb* Arminiya (¹⁶). On the subject of *futūb*, A'U compiled two further monographs, *Futūb al-Abwāz* and *K. al-Sawād wa-fatbibi*. However, the conquests of the *Sawād* and the neighbouring Ahwāz were a kind of local history for the Başran A'U.

A similar account of a frustrated attempt to humiliate an important figure in public is linked with 'Amr b. al-'As. Someone asked him about the identity of his mother (in the hope that he would blunder or become angered). 'Amr allegedly replied without hesitation, that his mother was such and such a person, that she had been captured by the Bedouin and sold in the market of 'Ukaz, and that having been the slavegirl of two prominent Qurashis, she became the property of 'Amr's father, to whom she bore excellent sons (*fa-waladat labu fa-anjabat*). Then 'Amr added virulently: "And if a gift was promised to you [i.e. for posing the insulting question], go ahead and take it" (¹⁷).

Further indications of A'U's Jewish descent will be discussed below.

3. Abū 'Ubayda's walā'

We already know that A'U's grandfather was a Jew from Bājarwān. We also know that his father, al-Muthannā (an Arab name) (¹⁸), was already a Muslim and lived in Başra. An 8th/14th century source reports that A'U's *father* was Jewish (¹⁹), suggesting that it was A'U's father al-Muthannā who converted to Islam. But this statement is not to be believed (and probably results from an infelicitous abridgement of a text) because it clashes with what we are told elsewhere about A'U: "His origin was

D.M. Dunlop, *The History of the Jewish Khazars*, Princeton 1954, 72f. On Armenia in the Sassanian period see D.M. Lang, "Iran, Armenia and Georgia", in *The Cambridge History of Iran*, III, i, 518f. Note in particular the deportation by Shapur II in 365 of a large number of Armenian Jews (521); also the fact that "Armenian personal names are very largely Iranian in origin, and predominantly Parthian" (526). For the deportation see also S.W. Baron, *Social and Religious History of the Jews*, New York 1952, II, 204, 404f.

(16) Fibrist, loc. cit. And cf. perhaps the extract from A'U's K. al-taj (on this book cf. Madelung, loc. cit.) in Bakrt, s.v. Balanjar, which reports, among other things, about the conquest by Salman b. Rabt'a of the area between Adharbijan and Bab al-Abwab. Salman died in Balanjar north of Bab al-Abwab.

(17) Usd al-gbaba, IV, 115f; see also al-Åbī, Natbr al-durr, ed. Muhammad 'Alī Qarna, Cairo 1980f, II, 82. Cf. Lecker, "The estates of 'Amr b. al-Ås in Palestine: notes on a new Negev Arabic inscription", in BSOAS 52 (1989), 24-37, at 28.

(18) Which does not exclude the possibility that he also had a Persian name.

(19) Yamani, Isbarat al-ta'yin, 350: wa-yuqalu inna ababu kana yabūdiyyan.

⁽¹⁵⁾ Note also that A'U knew some Persian; Madelung, "Abū 'Ubayda", 53=Tab., VII, 43f [II, 1492]. Madelung mentions correctly that this was "fairly common in Başra in his time".

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Jewish, his grandfather was converted to Islam by a kinsman of Abū Bakr, and he became the *mawla* of the Banū Taym" (i.e. the Taym b. Murra of Quraysh) (²⁰).

Concerning A'U's *wala*', Abū Sa'īd al-Sukkarī (d. 275/888) makes a dubious statement. He says that A'U was a *mawla* of the Banū Sallama who belonged to the Banū Taym b. Murra. This obscure Sallama, we are told, was Umm 'Abd al-Rahman (²¹). The identity of Sallama is elucidated by a passage from the genealogy of the Banū Taym:

And 'Umayr b. 'Uthmān b. 'Amr b. Ka'b b. Sa'd b. Taym b. Murra begot 'Abd al-Raḥmān b. 'Umayr whose mother is Sallāma, a slavegirl after whom they [viz. 'Abd al-Raḥmān's children] are called. And Sallāma's children claimed that she had been a servant (kanat takbdumu) of the Prophet (\$) (²²).

It goes without saying that those who referred to the members of this family as Banū Sallāma instead of Banū 'Abd al-Rahmān b. 'Umayr, did so to tease them. Sallāma was probably a typical name of a slavegirl (²³) and reference to descent from a slavegirl was perhaps the most common form of *matbālib*. The manner in which the genealogist quotes her children about her alleged service to the Prophet is noteworthy: while providing the information, he distances himself from it as if he were saying, 'this is a claim made by an interested party and it should be treated accordingly'. It is noteworthy that instead of denying Sallāma's identity or her social status, the descendants attempted to secure for her (and themselves) some distinction by claiming that she had served the Prophet. Few could be misled by this allegation.

Al-Sukkari's statement concerning A'U's *wala'* is not supported by further proof. There is much evidence, however, to support an alternative statement which refers to another family of the same Banū Taym b. Murra, viz. the Banū 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar.

To begin with, there was a family link between A'U and this family of the Banu Taym: the *qadi* of Başra 'Uthmān b. 'Affān (!) was A'U's maternal uncle $(^{24})$. This family link with the *qadi* of Başra should be associated

(20) Aslama jaddubu 'ala yaday ba'd al Abi Bakr fa-'ntama ila wala' Taym; Kbizana, VI, 53-Bakri, Simt al-la'ali, 808. The use of al ("family") does not indicate that the Taymi in question was a direct descendant of Abū Bakr but that he was of the Banū 'Amr b. Ka'b b. Sa'd b. Taym b. Murra, the leading line of the Qurashi Banū Taym b. Murra; Mus'ab, Nasab, 275 (wa-buwa bayt bant Taym).

(21) Nür al-qabas, 109. The same source adds that those who vocalise the name Salama, as if it were a man's name, are wrong. On al-Sukkart (Abū Sa'īd al-Hasan b. al-Husayn) see GAS, VIII, 97.

(22) Baladh., Ansab, 856b.

(23) Cf. Ibn Makula, al-Ikmal, ed. 'Abd al-Rahman b. Yahya al-Yamani, Hyderabad 1381/1962, IV, 344.

(24) Nur al-qabas, 109. True, a kbal is not always strictly a maternal uncle and by extension it may mean "a relation from the side of one's mother". Thus it can be said about the

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with A'U's scholarly interests (see below): among the books he compiled there was a monograph entitled K. qualit al-Basra (²⁵).

As to the identity of the *qadt* in question, the name 'Uthmän b. 'Affan is of course garbled. The correct name is 'Umar b. 'Uthmän b. 'Umar b. Musa b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar. He was the *qadt* of Basra at the time of Haron al-Rashid. Not only was he a *qadt* of Basra in the lifetime of A'U but, as his pedigree shows, he was of the very Taymi family to whom A'U's *wala'* belonged, i.e. the Banu 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar. Haron al-Rashid appointed 'Umar as the *qadt* of Basra but later he stayed away from his office simply by not returning from a pilgrimage to Mecca and remaining in Medina. 'Umar's father, 'Uthmän, provides an interesting case of transition from the Umayyads to the 'Abbāsids, since he officiated as *qadt* both under the last Umayyad and the second 'Abbāsid caliph (²⁶).

In his K. al-mathalib A'U explains why a member of "his" Taymi family, 'Umar b. Musā b. 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar, was "reminded" in a satirical verse that he had a paternal uncle called Ma'bad, whom he is said to have resembled: Ma'bad was a mawlā and a half-brother of 'Umar's father on the mother's side (wa-kāna Ma'bad mawlan wa-kāna akhā abībi liummibi) (²⁷).

A'U's *wala'* and the conversion of his grandfather to Islam are linked. His grandfather presumably embraced Islam at about the middle of the first Islamic century. The expression *aslama jaddubu 'ala yaday ba'd al Abt Bakr fa-'ntama ila wala' Taym* (above n. 20) indicates a voluntary conversion of a freeborn man. In other words, the *wala'* link followed conversion to Islam, not manumission. There is no evidence that A'U's grandfather was taken captive in a military expedition or handed over to the Muslims in fulfillment of a capitulation treaty. We know that his TaymI patron, 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar (see below), was involved in large-scale slave-trading but there is no indication that this is relevant for us here, in other words, that this was a *wala'*-by-manumission.

On the slave-trade it is reported that 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar bought captives (*raqtqan mina l-sabyi*) from 'Umar b. al-Khattab, together with 'Abdallah b. 'Amir (b. Kurayz of the Banu Umayya, who later became the governor of Basra) (²⁸). The total amount of money and the number of

members of a certain group that they are someone's "maternal uncles" if one of his ancestresses belonged to them. For such "maternal uncles" of the Prophet see Lecker, *The Banū Sulaym:* A Contribution to the Study of Early Islam, Jerusalem 1989, 115n, 116n, 117.

⁽²⁵⁾ Yaqut, *Udaba'*, s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 162:2 from below; *Fibrist*, 80. The passage from A'U in *Nur al-qabas*, 123, although it concerns the first *qadt* of Medina, may belong to the introduction to this monograph.

⁽²⁶⁾ Mus'ab, Nasab, 290f; Baladh., Ansab, 856b (who describes 'Umar as being one of the eminent and eloquent people of Quraysh, min unjub Quraysh wa-bulagba'iba).

⁽²⁷⁾ Qali, Amali, II, 191f.

⁽²⁸⁾ Few non-Qurashis were presumably given a stake in this profitable business.

slaves are not reported, but we know that when the two partners could not pay 80,000 dirhams, the remainder of the sum agreed upon with 'Umar, it was Talha b. 'Ubaydallāh who helped them settle the debt (²⁹). As to the number of slaves involved, prices naturally fluctuated according to demand and the slave's condition. As slave prices we find mentioned 50, 100 and even 700 dirhams (³⁰). If we assume, for example, that each slave cost 500 dirhams, it could be concluded that the remainder of the debt involved 160 slaves. The original transaction may well have included thousands of slaves.

The precise identity of the Taymi patron is important in order to establish the date of the conversion of A'U's grandfather. Whilst it is reported that A'U was a *mawla* of the Banu Taym b. Murra of Quraysh, in some sources (e.g. the *Fibrist*) we find that he was a *mawla* of the Banu 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar al-Taymi (³¹). There is no contradiction between the two statements: the latter is simply more specific. We have a rich body of evidence on this Taymi family and some of it is relevant to A'U's family history.

Ma'mar b. 'Uthmān al-Taymī, the paternal uncle of the above-mentioned Talha b. 'Ubaydallāh, was a Companion of the Prophet $(^{32})$ who embraced Islam when the Prophet conquered Mecca. According to some, his son 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar was also a Companion, while by other accounts he only saw the Prophet because when the latter died, the former was still a small boy. 'Ubaydallāh was probably killed in Iştakhr (the dates given are 23, 29 and 30 A.H.). This, however, clashes with a report on a visit by 'Ubaydallāh to the caliph Mu'āwiya which may suggest that he lived to at least 40 A.H. Or it might have been his son 'Ubaydallāh b. 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar (one of the two 'Ubaydallāhs may have been omitted) (³³) who visited the caliph (³⁴).

(29) See e.g. Isaba, V, 57.

(30) 'Abd al-Razzaq al-San'ani, *al-Musannaf*, ed. Habib al-Rahman al-A'zami, Beirut 1390/1970, VIII, 189, 163 (700 dirhams, at the time of 'Uthman).

(31) Misprinted in Yamant, Isbarat al-ta'yin, 350: 'Abdallah b. Ma'mar.

(32) He was a cupper, according to Ibn Rusta, al-A'laq al-maftsa, ed. de Goeje, Leiden 1892, 215; also according to Ibn al-Kalbi, Matbalib, MS Dar al-Kutub: bab al-sina'at... wa-man kana minbum bajjaman... Ma'mar b. 'Utbman... kana bajjaman wuldubu bi-l-Basra wa-l-Madina. The mention of Ma'mar's offspring in Basra and Medina shows that those responsible for the list of cuppers were aware of its implications for their Arab contemporaries. In Ibn Qutayba, Ma'arif, 576 Ma'mar is listed among those who played the 'ūd.

(33) The omission of the name of one's father is common; moreover, when the two names are identical, as in this case, we may think of a kind of haplology. For example, 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar mentioned together with Mus'ab b. al-Zubayr in Tab., VI, 117 [II, 751] is no doubt 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar; 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar (op. cit., 118) [II, 752] is an error: read.... b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar.

(34) Ibn 'Abd al-Barr, *al-Isti'ab ft ma'rifat al-asbab*, ed. 'Alī Muhammad al-Bijawī, Cairo n.d., III, 143 (erroneously printed 'Abdallah instead of 'Ubaydallah); *Isaba*, V, 55f. 'Ubaydallah, The history of 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar is of course closely related to that of A'U's family. Abu Bakr's kinsman who received the conversion of A'U's grandfather to Islam was presumably no other than 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar, because A'U was said to have been the *mawla* of the Banu 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar al-Taymi. The mention of 'Ubaydallah could date the conversion of A'U's grandfather to the twenties of the first Islamic century, but the forties or fifties of that century seem to be more plausible (i.e. assuming that 'Ubaydallah lived to the time of Mu'awiya, or that it was his son, 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah, who accepted the conversion of A'U's grandfather).

The case of A'U's grandfather is comparable to that of another *mawla* of 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar called Abu I-'Ilj, who rebelled against Hajjaj in the early eighties of the first century A.H., during the caliphate of 'Abd al-Malik (in fact, he could have been A'U's grandfather). Abu I-'Ilj and a grandson of 'Ubaydallah, 'Umar b. Musa b. 'Ubaydallah, were among the staunchest supporters of Ibn al-Ash'ath. Having been captured in Khurasan, they were executed by Hajjaj (³⁵). Abu I-'Ilj who was still active in military exploits in the eighties of the first century could hardly have been the *mawla* of a man killed in the twenties. Again we must conclude that either 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar lived to the forties or fifties, or that his son, 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar, is being referred to.

'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah, who was the son of a slavegirl, was given both his father's name and his *kunya*, Abū Mu'ādh (³⁶). At the time of Ibn al-Zubayr he played a role in the administration of Başra. According to some, Ibn al-Zubayr appointed him as the governor of Başra. Others say that Ibn al-Zubayr appointed 'Ubaydallah's brother, 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah, who in turn appointed 'Ubaydallah as his deputy. 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah fought with Muş'ab b. al-Zubayr in his last battle (72/691-2) and, following his defeat, fled and was later granted safety. 'Abd al-Malik appointed him governor of Sūs (in Ahwāz), "which fell short of what was due to him" (*taqstran bibi*, i.e. he deserved a higher position) (³⁷).

killed in Istakhr, was nicknamed *al-sbabtd*; Baladh., *Ansab*, 854a; Farazdaq refers to his son 'Umar as *ibn al-sbabtd*; op. cit., 854b; *Diwan*, Beirut 1380/1960, I, 236; Tab., IV, 176f [I, 2697] (23 A.H.), 264 [2829] (in Mukran), 265 [2830] (sent to Fars and killed in Istakhr); *Nür al-qabas*, 198 (killed at the time of 'Uthman). Faced with the discrepancy between the two reports about 'Ubaydallah, Ibn Hajar suggests unconvincingly (*Isaba*, V, 57f) that there were two 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar.

(35) Tab., VI, 373 (wrongly: 'Amr instead of 'Umar) [II, 1109: 'Umar, correctly], 374 [1110] (82/701); Baladh., Ansab, 854a-b. On the attempt of 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah to save the life of his nephew see below.

(36) This should possibly be related to the fact that his mother was a slavegirl. Curiously, 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah had a son named 'Ubaydallah; Baladh., *Ansab*, 855b ("three 'Ubay-dallah in a row", a genealogist would say).

(37) Baladh., Ansab, 854a; Tab., V, 528 [II, 465] (how 'Ubaydallah became his brother's deputy; cf. Naga id, 742:16; Baladh., Ansab, XI, 97). When Mus'ab b. al-Zubayr departed from

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It may be added that 'Abd al-Malik also pardoned 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah for his service in Ibn al-Zubayr's administration. After 'Umar served as the governor of Başra for Ibn al-Zubayr and as the governor of Fārs under Muş'ab b. al-Zubayr, 'Abd al-Malik made him the governor of Bahrayn (³⁸). 'Umar even married Muş'ab's widow, 'À'isha bint Talha b. 'Ubaydallāh, who was 'Umar's relative. She was one of the most famous women of her time. The marriage took place when 'Abd al-Malik sent him from Damascus to fight the Khārijite Abū Fudayk, and it was consummated in Hīra (³⁹). 'Umar died near Damascus when on his way to 'Abd al-Malik to intercede for his nephew, 'Umar b. Mūsā b. 'Ubaydallāh, who had rebelled against Hajjāj (⁴⁰).

3.1. Abū 'Ubayda's walā' and his scholarly interests

Possible links between A'U's biography and his scholarly interests have already been pointed out with regard to his monographs about the conquest of Armenia and the judges of Başra. Other monographs by A'U demonstrate that part of his scholarly energy was directed to events in Başra and its vicinity, where his Taymī patrons, being an important element in the Qurashī elite, played a remarkable role. He presumably incorporated in his writings on these events the family history of his patrons (⁴¹).

Presumably A'U's *wala'* was behind his interest in the battle which took place in 71/690 at Jufra near Başra between troops loyal to 'Abd al-Malik, under the command of Khālid b. 'Abdallāh b. Khālid b. Asid, and the Zubayris, under 'Ubaydallāh b. 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar al-Taymi,

Başra, he left 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah as his deputy; Tab., VI, 152 [II, 798]. See two variant reports in Baladh., *Artsab*, IVi ('Abbas), 426 (A'U: the people of Başra appointed for the governorship 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar); 427 (Ibn al-Kalbi: they appointed 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah, who made his brother his deputy).

(38) Baladh., Ansab, 854b. Also Tab., VI, 119 [II, 753]; Baladh., Ansab, XI, 111 (governor of Fars for Mus'ab).

(39) Ibn 'Asåkir, *Ta'rtkb madtnat Dimasbq (Tarājim al-nisā'*), ed. Sukayna al-Shihābī, Damascus n.d., 212 (note the admiring comment concerning his virility).

(40) Ibn Qudama, *Tabytn*, 333. A decade earlier, in 73 A.H., 'Umar b. Mosa was severely injured while fighting under his uncle's command against the Kharijites; Tab., VI, 193 [II, 852].

(41) It is no accident that the first report in his *K. al-'aqaqa wa-l-barara* concerns a *mawla* of the Taym; see *Nawadir al-makbtütat*, ed. 'Abd al-Salam Harun, II, Cairo 1393/1973, 352. A'U, quoting Abū 'Amr b. al-'Ala', reports about gifts sent by 'Abdallah b. Jud'an of the Taym to the king of Hira and to Khusro; Baladh., *Ansab*, 859b. A'U, quoted by Ibn Shabba, reports on how Hajjaj tricked Muhammad b. Mūsā b. Talha b. 'Ubaydallah of the Taym and made him fight the Khārijite Shabib; Tab., VI, 248 [II, 928]. The last-mentioned report comes rather close to the Taymi family that concerns us here: Muhammad was the son-in-law of 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar (A'U was, as already mentioned, the *mawla* of the Banū

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who was Mus'ab b. al-Zubayr's deputy in charge of Basra (⁴²). The Jufra ("a round space in the ground") was originally called after Nafi' b. al-Harith (b. Kalada), then it was named after the above-mentioned Khalid (⁴³). A'U dedicated a monograph to this event which the *Fibrist* calls *Jufrat Khalid* (*misprinted: Jafwat Khalid*) (⁴⁴).

A'U's interest in the history of his TaymI patrons is perhaps behind another monograph of his, entitled *Mas'ūd b. 'Amr wa-maqtalubu* (⁴⁵). Large extracts from this monograph can probably be found in TabarI (⁴⁶) and BaladhurI (⁴⁷).

Baladhuri's extracts from this monograph are appropriately concluded (426f) with a report concerning A'U's Taymi patrons: when the plague called *al-Jarif* ("the torrential or sweeping plague") hit al-Basra, its governor was 'Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar al-Taymi. His mother was among the dead but no one (of rank) could be found to carry her

'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar). The same can be said about the comment, from both A'U and Aşma'ı, that the estate near Mecca called by the common people (*al-'amma*) Bustan Ibn 'Amir, was in fact Bustan Ibn Ma'mar and belonged to 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar; Yaqut, *Buldan*, s.v. Bustan Ibn Ma'mar; cf. Lecker, *The Banit Sulaym*, 16, 39f. This "Ibn Ma'mar" was in fact Ma'mar's grandson, not his son. Even a great-grandson of Ma'mar, 'Umar b. Musa b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar, is referred to (in verse) as Ibn Ma'mar; Qalt, *Amalt*, II, 191.

(42) Tab., VI, 152f [II, 798] ('Ubaydallah b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar who is also referred to as Ibn Ma'mar although he was Ma'mar's grandson); Yaqut, *Buldan*, s.v. al-Jufra (the Taymi is called here 'Abdallah b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar!); Bakri, s.v. ('Ubaydallah b. 'Abdallah b. Ma'mar!); *Naqa'id*, II, 749:5, quoting Mada'ini ('Umar b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar; this variant is possible: we know that such man existed).

(43) Tab., VI, 152:2 from below [II, 799]. On the battle see also *Naqa'id*, II, 749f. On land in Başra granted to Nāfi' see *Usd al-gbaba*, V, 8.

(44) I owe this keen emendation of the text to our undergraduate student Tariq Abū Rajab. Cf. Ibn al-Qift1, *Inbab al-ruwat*, III, 285: *Hufrat Kbalid* (!). This monograph of A'U is probably the source of A'U's report found in *Naqa'id*, II, 750:13 on the aftermath of the battle of Jufra. It is quoted from A'U by Abū 'Uthman Sa'dan b. al-Mubarak (d. 220/835), on whom see *Naqa'id*, introduction, XI; also the index, III, 126; GAS, VIII, 125f; *Fibrist*, 105. See extracts from the same monograph in Baladh., *Ansab*, IVi ('Abbas), 464-67.

(45) Fibrist, 80.

(46) Tab., V, 508f [II, 439], 513f [II, 445] (wa-amma A'U fa-innabu, fima baddatbant... [two transmitters] qassa min kbabar Mas'ūd wa-'Ubaydillab b. Ziyad wa-akbibi etc.). Among others, A'U quotes the descendants of the protagonists: members of Ål Ziyad (b. Abihi) and their mawali (513 [445], remarking, wa-l-qawm a'lamu bi-baditbibim), and a descendant of Mas'od (516 [449]).

(47) See Baladh., Ansab, IVi ('Abbas), 401-405, 406, 407-409 (note, in a report of Mada'ini on p. 407, the appointement by Ibn al-Zubayr of 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar as the governor of Basra and 'Umar's appointement of his brother, 'Ubaydallah, as his deputy until his return from the extraseasonal pilgrimage), 411-16 (note on p. 413 A'U's dental of the claims that Mas'od b. 'Amr was killed by a Khārijite, or by a group of Khārijites who had fled from

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coffin. So, four Persians (a'laj) were hired to carry it. "And he was then the *amir*", our source concludes in obvious shock (⁴⁸).

The aftermath of the Mas'ûd b. 'Amr affair, in which A'U's Taymi patrons were deeply involved, may well have formed part of this monograph. After Mas'ûd was killed, the companions of Nāfi' b. al-Azraq and Nāfi' himself went to Ahwāz. 'Ubaydallāh b. 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar, who was the deputy of his brother 'Umar, sent a third brother, 'Uthmān, to fight the Khārijites. At the battle which ensued at Dūlāb the Khārijites were victorious and 'Uthmān was killed, together with many of his troops (⁴⁹).

The history of Başra in the mid-sixties of the first century, to which A'U dedicated his monographs *Jufrat Khalid* and *Mas'ūd b. 'Amr wa-maqtaluhu*, was for A'U a kind of family history, both glorious and painful. In his Başran milieu his own family history could no longer be referred to.

jail; also on pp. 414f the role of 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar in pacifying Basra in the aftermath of Mas'ud's murder), 417, 418-27. Note that on pp. 420, 421, 423 (also 465, 466) A'U sticks to the wording of his informants: when one of them gives the Kharijites the pejorative nickname Haruriyya, A'U preserves it. Elsewhere in his texts one finds the terms Khariji and Khawarij which presumably reflect the usage of A'U's informants. It appears that the designations used in A'U's texts cannot be employed as evidence concerning his own political and theological preferences; cf. Madelung, "Abu 'Ubayda", 49: "He [A'U] usually calls them *Khawarij* or Haruriyya, names of which they did not approve, and only exceptionally *sburat*, a name which they themselves also used. He refers to their opponents as *abl al-qibla*, thus implying that the rebels were in fact outside the fold of the Muslim community".

As a kind of precursor for his recent study on A'U, Madelung wrote in 1981 about A'U's account of these events: "Abū 'Ubayda's account of the events in Başra until 'Ubayd Allah {b. Ziyad}'s departure is clearly much better informed than those of the other, mostly Kūfan, historians"; W. Madelung, "'Abd Allah b. al-Zubayr and the Mahdt", in *JNES* 40 (1981), 291-305, at 301.

(48) In Tab., V, 612 [II, 580], the same report is quoted from Ibn Shabba in the events of 65 A.H. The historical context, i.e. the murder of Mas'ud b. 'Amr in 64/684, suggests that A'U had in mind the first wave of this plague which started in Basra in 64/684 (in which case Tabari's inclusion of the report in the events of 65 A.H. is wrong); cf. G. Rotter, "Natural catastrophies and their impact on political and economic life during the second *fitna*", in T. Kha-lidi (ed.), *Land Tenure and Social Transformation in the Middle East*, Beirut 1986, 230. But cf. the report in Baladh., *Ansab*, IVi ('Abbas), 464f, again quoted from A'U, which goes back to the same source (although on p. 427 he is called Sa'b b. Yazid, while on p. 464 he is named Mus'ab b. Zayd!): the *ta'ūn al-jarif* took place in Basra in 69 A.H.; its governor was then 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar who had been appointed to this post by Mus'ab (b. al-Zubayr). For the numbers of the dead in the *ta'ūn* (first wave) see Ibn al-Jawzi, *al-Muntazam ft ta'rtkb al-mulūk wa-l-umam*, ed. Muhammad 'Abd al-Qadir 'Ata and Mustafa 'Abd al-Qadir 'Ata, Beirut 1412/1992, VI, 25.

(49) Tab., V, 613 [II, 580] (from 'Umar b. Shabba); Baladh., Ansab, XI, 84; 97 ('Umar b.

4. Abu 'Ubayda: "son of a dyer", "son of a weaver"

Another indication of A'U's Jewish descent is probably the nickname given to him by his lifelong adversary, Aşma'ı, who was some thirteen years younger than him. Aşma'ı was an Arab of the Bahila tribe (not the most prestigious of tribes, one may observe) (⁵⁰). We have evidence that A'U paid very close attention to the Bahila tribe. He compiled a book titled *Matbalib Babila* (⁵¹), which one could relate to his troubled relationship with the Bahili (or pseudo-Bahili) Aşma'ı. But then he also compiled another book entitled *Manaqib Babila*, "The Merits of Bahila", which cannot be accounted for in the same way (⁵²).

Asma'l disparagingly called the *mawla* A'U Ibn al-Sabbagh, "the son of the dyer (of garments)". The background for this was A'U's ignorance of the habitat in Arabia of a certain tree (53).

Now, in this context any trade would point at non-Arab descent. But from Jahiz (d. 255/869), who was also a Başran and died some forty years after the two great rival philologists, we receive an indication that when Aşma'ı spoke of dyeing, he had in mind a specifically Jewish trade: it so

'Ubaydallah [the governor of Basra] sent his brother 'Uthman, and some said that ['Umar's brother and deputy] 'Ubaydallah sent him).

(50) See Aşma'i's apologetic remark in Ibn al-Kalbi, Jambarat al-nasab, ed. Naji Hasan, Beirut 1407/1986, 460. Cf. the humorous story about a teacher of Aşma'i who, envious of his student's success, introduced to Aşma'i's students the scholar's father who was tending goats outside Başra. He explained that he did it so that the next day Aşma'i would not claim to belong to the Qurashi Banu Hashim; Yaqut, Udaba', s.v. 'Ata' b. Mus'ab, XII, 169. That the affiliation of Aşma'i's family to Bahila was doubted can be seen from the slanders allegedly hurled at Aşma'i's grandfather, 'Ali b. Aşma', by Mus'ab b. al-Zubayr; Tab., VI, 154 [II, 802]: "Do you, the former slave of the Banu Tamim, assert a descent from Bahila?" (a-'abd li-Bant Tamtm marratan wa-'azyun min Babila?). In Baladh., Ansab, IVi ('Abbas), 471 we find: anta 'abd li-Bant Tamtm marratan wa-'arabi min Babila marratan (see the same in op. cit., IVb, ed. M. Schloessinger, Jerusalem 1938, 162f), but 'azyun is a lectio difficilior. See also Sirafi, Akbbar al-nabwiyyina l-Başriyyina, 46.

(51) Goldziher, Muslim Studies, I, 186.

(52) See Fibrist, 80. The same madh/dbamm approach is reflected in the titles K. ma'athir al-'arab and K. mathalib al-'arab; Yaqut, Udaha', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 162. For extracts from Mathalib Bahila see probably Nür al-gahas, 117, 125f. Rich documentation for Mathalib Bahila was made available to A'U through the satirical verses of Farazdaq.

(53) Ibn al-Anbari, Nuzbat al-alibba' ft tabaqat al-udaba', Cairo 1294 A.H., 148. For his part A'U turned down magnanimously the suggestion that he mention that Aşma'i made a false claim to be one of Bahila: "Let him be one of them' (da'ūbu yakun minbum), meaning that he gains no prestige through them because they made no impression in the Jahiliyya and had no virtues" (la atbara labum ft l-jabiliyya wa-la manaqib); Nūr al-qabas, 125. Alternatively, when A'U was told that Aşma'i claimed a false genealogy (da't), he said: "Liar, no one claims a false descent to Aşma'i'; R.A. Nicholson, "The Risalatu'l-Ghufran: by Ab0'l-'Ala al-Ma'arrt. Summarized and partially translated", in JRAS 1900, 652n. Cf. similarly Ibn Khal-likan, IV, 90. A'U had a sharp tongue: kana A'U jabbaban ("one who encounters people with speech in which there is roughness"); Ibn al-Qifti, Inbab al-ruwat, III, 284.

happens that the first trade on Jāhiz's list of trades typical to the Jews is the dyeing of garments (54).

It may be in place here to discuss one of the trades mentioned by Jahiz as typical to the Jews. He lists dyers, tanners, cuppers, butchers and *sha"abs*. Different explanations have been suggested for the last-mentioned trade. In fact, a *sha"ab* is a repairer of wooden bowls (⁵⁵). A crack called *sha"b* which is repaired by the *sha"ab* (⁵⁶) is one found in a wooden bowl (*al-gas'a al-khashabiyya*) (⁵⁷).

(54) Jahiz, Rasa'il, III, 316 (al-Radd 'ala l-nasara): wa-la tajidu l-yabūdiyya illa sabbagban aw dabbagban aw bajjaman aw qassaban, aw sba' 'aban. On this text see J. Finkel, "A risala of al-Jahiz", in JAOS 47 (1927), 311-34, esp. 327f; A. Grossman, "The attitude of the caliph al-Ma'mun to the Jews", in Zion 44 (1979), 109, n. 39; idem, "Animosity to the Jews on economical and social background in the Islamic caliphate during the 9th and 10th centuries", in Sh. Almog (ed.), Antisemitism Tbrough the Ages, Jerusalem 1980, 209, 196, n. 38 (both articles are in Hebrew). J. Sadan has recently studied Jahiz's text in depth, see his "Some literary problems concerning Judaism and Jewry in Medieval Arabic sources", in M. Sharon (ed.), Studies in Islamic History and Civilization in Honour of David Ayalon, 353-98, at 353f. Sadan (356, end of note; 362f) supports, against reservations expressed by Goitein, the validity of Jahiz's information concerning the typical Jewish trades in his time, quoting the testimony of an anonymous manuscript dated to the middle of the 4th/10th century. It speaks of the large number of Christian (and Muslim) physicians compared to the small number of Jewish physicians. But then we have the testimony of A'U's contemporary al-Shafi'i (d. 204/820) who laments that the Arabs lost the knowledge of medicine and entrusted the Jews and Christians with it; Dhahabi, Nubala', X, 57.

(55) Finkel (328) renders the *sba"ab:* "cobbler" while Sadan, op. cit., 355n renders "menders", following Ch. Pellat (*Le milien basrien et la formation de Gabiz*, Paris 1953, 232: raccomodeur, "mender, repairer"; and idem, *The Life and Works of Jabiz*, trans. by D.M. Hawke, London 1969, 87: "tinkers").

(56) Al-sad'u lladbi yasb'abubu l-sba"ab wa-islabubu aydan al-sbab, from Ibn al-Sikkii; the sba"ab is the mula" im and his craft is called sbi'aba; Taj al-'ariis, s.v.

(57) Sam'ani, s.v. al-Sha"ab, III, 430. The *sba"ab* mentioned by Sam'ani is especially relevant for us here because he lived in Başra in the second century A.H. His trade was also called *rammam* ("repairar, mender") and consisted of repairing wooden bowls (*qişa'*), see also the entry in Ibn Abi Hatim, *al-Jarb wa-l-ta'dtl*, Hyderabad 1371/1952 - 1373/1953, VIII, 102. Elsewhere the verb *sba'aba* is related to wooden drinking-cups: *rajul mur'ab wa-ra' ab, idba kana yasb'abu sudū'a l-qadab wa-yuslibu bayna l-qawm; Lisān al-'arab, s.v. r.'b., 398b; also al-ru'ba, al-qij'a mina l-kbasbab yusb'abu biba l-inā' wa-yusaddu biba tbulmatu l-jafna, 399a. A sba"ab is sābib aqdāb wa-qişā', "the owner of wooden drinking-cups and*

There is, however, another version about the nickname given A'U by Aşma'ı: he called him "the weaver's son" (*ibn al-ba'ik*) (⁵⁸). This could of course be a reference to any non-Arab, be he Jewish, Christian or Zoroastrian. But in the present context it is probably a reference to A'U's Jewish origin. Similarly, when Farazdaq calls the rebel Ibn al-Ash'ath "the weaver of the Yemenites" and "the weaver who lives in a village", he alludes to his Jewish origin (⁵⁹). There is another relevant example of a Jewish weaver: the Kufan grammarian, nicknamed Ibn al-Ha'ik, was a man of Jewish origin (*wa-aslubu yabūdt*) from Hira called Harun (⁶⁰).

5. Abū 'Ubayda's origin and his role in the compilation of the *mathālib*

A'U's Jewish origin is also related to the emergence of the mathalib literature in what may be dubbed "the legendary history of the genre". It is recounted that A'U's predecessors in this field were Ziyad b. Abihi (d. 53/673) and A'U's contemporary, al-Haytham b. 'Adi. Each of them reportedly had his own personal reason for entering the field of mathalib. When Ziyad claimed to be the son of Abu Sufyan b. Harb, he knew that the Arabs, aware of his real descent, would not acknowledge this for him, so he compiled this book, attaching to the Arabs every vice and disgrace. He was followed by al-Haytham b. 'Adi who was a da'i, "one who claims as his father a person who is not his father". A'U started afresh and added new materials. The reason was that he was of Jewish descent (liannahu kāna vahūdiyvan)⁽⁶¹⁾. In other words, when A'U's enemies made use of his descent, he defended himself with the argument that "no one was perfect". This rather curious and certainly unsatisfactory explanation of the emergence of *mathalib* literature (which was of course an important pre-Islamic and early Islamic field, cultivated in the first place by the Arabs themselves) (62) takes A'U's lewish descent for granted.

wooden bowls"; Ibn al-Kalbi, *al-Matbalib*, MS Dar al-Kutub (*man kana minbum sba"aban*). Both Ibn al-Kalbi and A'U mentioned that the father of the poet Yazid b. Mufarrigh al-Himyari (the great-grandfather of al-Sayyid al-Himyari) was a *sba"abi*ri Tabala; Ibn Khallikan, VI, 343. This is a typical *matbalib* account.

(58) Kbizana, VI, 306. Also: he used to call him constantly "the weaver's son"; Abu al-Tayyib al-Halabi, Maratib al-nabwiyyina, 50 (wa-kana l-Asma'i idba dbakara Aba 'Ubayda qala: dbaka bnu l-ba'ik). Read in JRAS 1900, 652n, instead of ibn al-bayila: ibn al-ba'ik.

(59) See Lecker, "Judaism among Kinda and the ridda of Kinda", section 1.2.

(60) Fibrist, 111 (erroneously printed Ibn al-Ha'il). See also Zubaydi, Tabaqat al-nabwiyytna, 151 (Harun b. al-Ha'ik), GAS, IX, 142 (d. ca. 300/913).

(61) Khizana, VI, 53-Bakri, Simt al-la'alt, 807f.

(62) See e.g. Jahiz, Bayan, I, 318f. A'U, Ibn al-Kalbi, al-Haytham b. 'Adi and the other genealogists merely transmitted reports that had been recorded by their predecessors.

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There is yet another aspect of A'U's interest in the *matbalib*. It involves his strained relationship with his fellow Başrans and, one may add, his free spirit and sense of humour. Defying the whole intelligentsia of his hometown, not just the members of a specific tribe, he reminded the people of Başra how hypocritical they had been when some three thousand intellectuals (*mā ftbim illā muḥaddith aw lughawt aw nabwt aw* 'arūdt aw akhbart) escorted their fellow Başran, al-Nadr b. Shumayl, who, out of hardship, was forced to emigrate. A'U described how al-Nadr, obviously unwilling to leave Başra, sat down in the Mirbad, the famous marketplace of Başra, and declared emotionally that had he had the minimal subsistence (he mentioned a small quantity of beans per day), he would not have left. Nobody in that huge crowd of cultured people escorting him volunteered to guarantee this and al-Nadr went to Khurāsān, where he accumulated a great wealth (⁶³).

Al-Nadr, who died in 204/819, was A'U's contemporary. In other words, when A'U recorded his departure he was dealing with an event which took place only a short time earlier. His own popularity with the intelligentsia of Basra does not seem to have bothered him much.

6. Abū 'Ubayda's appearance

The sources which refer to A'U's appearance are naturally hostile to him. One such source, quoted above, says that he was dirty and his nails and hair were always long (⁶⁴). For all his erudition, we are told elsewhere, A'U was dirty, and his beliefs and descent were unsound (*wa-kana ma'a dbalika kullibi wasikban madkhūla l-din madkhūla l-nasab*) (⁶⁵). An-

(63) Zubaydi (d. 379/989), Tabaqat al-nabwiyyina, 55. Al-Zubaydi quotes Abu 'Ali (al-Qali) who says: dbakara A'U fi matbalib abl al-Basra etc. See also Yamani, Isbarat al-ta'yin, 350: wa-li-Abt 'Ubayda kitab fi matbalibi l-'arab wa-kitab fi matbalib abli l-Basra; 364: wa-mimma dbakarabu A'U min matbalib abli l-Basra etc. (= the story of al-Nadr's departure); Ibn Khallikan, s.v. al-Nadr b. Shumayl, V, 379: dbakarabu A'U fi kitab matbalib abli l-Basra. Note the important variant reading here (on its source see op. cit., IV, introduction, p. jim): ... matbalibi l-'arab min abli l-Basra. If this variant reading reflects the original title of this monograph, it may indicate that A'U's K. ma'atbir al-'arab and K. matbalib al-'arab are in fact K. ma'atbir al-'arab [min abli l-Basra] and K. matbalib al-'arab [min abli l-Basra]. The above references to Ibn Khallikan (d. 681/1282) and Yamani (d. 743/1342) demonstrate that in the biographical literature, as in other branches of Islamic literature, the tags "early" and "late" do not mean much.

(64) Cf. Madelung, "Abū 'Ubayda", 48: "The biographical tradition about Abū 'Ubayda portrayed him, in spite of general recognition of his vast learning, with distinct hostility. Besides personal blemishes and a dirty, unkempt appearance, it accused him of having heen a Khārijite and a Shu'ūbī scandalmonger ever intent on exposing the defects of the Arabs and faulting the genealogies of famous men". Madelung arrives at the conclusion "... that he enjoyed shocking his contemporaries with his scandalous revelations as he shocked them with his untidy exterior".

(65) Fibrist, 79.

other source combines his appearance with other faults: he mispronounced the letter ra' (or other letters), his clothes were dirty and he was foulmouthed (*wa-kana althagah wasikha l-thiyab badht'a l-lisan*) (⁶⁶). Although the rancour towards him is evident, one could argue that the testimony in the sources must not be repudiated.

However, the factual value of the accounts concerning his appearance is questionable because of the link, often attested to in the sources, between Jewish descent and lack of cleanliness. The Jews have a bad reputation in early Islamic literature. Among other accusations, they are said to be dirty. Thus Jahiz remarks, in the text quoted above, that the clothes of the Christians are cleaner than those of the Jews. (The clothes of secretaries, valets of kings, physicians, perfumers and money-changers, trades which Jahiz mentions as being typical to the Christians, are usually cleaner than those of dyers, tanners, cuppers, butchers and repairers of wooden bowls, trades which Jahiz associates with the Jews.)

But Jahiz goes further than this possibly objective observation, saying that when the commoners see the Jews and the Christians, they assume that the Jewish religion compares to other religions in the same way as their trades compare to other trades, and that their unbelief is the filthiest kind of unbelief, since they are the filthiest of all nations (wa-anna kufrahum aadharu l-kufri idh kānū hum aadharu l-umam). To this one could add the Hadith in which the Prophet enjoins the Muslims to clean their courtyards and not leave them (squalid) like the courtyard of the Jews (nazzifū afniyatakum wa-lā tada'ūbā ka-bābati l-yabūd) (67). In short, the reputation of the lews in general should be linked to the claims concerning the appearance of A'U who was of Jewish descent. For A'U's adversaries the fact that his family had been Muslim for decades had little import and he was accused of the vice of uncleanliness often attributed to his grandfather's co-religionists. One may quote in this context the wise words of al-Riyāshi (al-'Abbās b. al-Farai, d. 257/871) in connection with the accusations against A'U: "He who slanders the people cannot be immune from them" (68).

(66) Dhahabi, *Ta'rikb al-islām*, the volume on the years 201-210 A.H., ed. 'Umar 'Abd al-Salām Tadmuri, Beirut 1411/1991, 399. The problem called *lutbgba* affects the pronunciation of *qaf, sin, lām* and *ra*'; Jāhiz, *Bayan*, I, 34f.

(67) Lisan al-'arab, s.v. b.w.b.; see also M. Gil, Palestine During the First Muslim Period, Tel Aviv 1983, I, 117, n. 236 (Hebrew); also Ibn Qutayba, Adab al-katib, ed. M. Grünert, Leiden 1900, 66 (wa-ft l-badtib: al-yabūd antanu kbalqi llabi 'adbiratan, ay fina'an, "of all mankind, the Jews have the most stinking courtyards").

(68) Zubaydi, Tabaqat al-nabuiyyina, 177 (man waqa'a ft l-nas lam yaslam 'alaybim; one expects: ...minbum). Similarly we are told that al-Haytham b. 'Adi was hated because, while learning about the people's origins, he disclosed their faults (ta'arrada li-ma'rifati usūli l-nas wa-naqli akbbaribim fa-waradat ma'ayibu l-qawmi [l-] mastūra fa-kuriba li-dbālika); Ibn al-Qifti, Inbāb al-ruwāt, III, 365. Note that no malice is ascribed to Haytham: the repro-

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In sum, the common association in our sources of Jews and uncleanliness casts serious doubts on the historical value of the evidence concerning A'U's appearance. Charges of uncleanliness were made against Muslims of Jewish descent with reference to an accepted popular sentiment about the Jews as being less scrupulous in this regard than their Muslim neighbours.

7. Abū 'Ubayda and the interpretation of the Qur'an and Hadith

A'U's specialization in certain fields of the Arab heritage was at the expense of the basic Islamic sciences. Dhahabi (748/1374) lists the topics in which A'U was not knowledgeable (!): they included above all the Qur'an, but also the Prophet's *sunna*, the *fiqb* and the differences in the *a'immat al-ijtibad*, the sciences of the ancient Greeks, logics and the branches of philosophy (⁶⁹). Tha'lab (d. 291/904) says that A'U did not know the Qur'an by heart and could only recite it while reading it (⁷⁰).

Yet A'U contributed to the fields of the Qur'an and Hadith as well. He is said to have been the first to compile a book about the difficult words in the Hadith. He took materials for it from his teachers, Yūnus b. Habib and Abū 'Amr b. al-'Ala' (⁷¹). In other words, A'U is said to have been the first to organize in a book the dispersed materials which he received from his teachers. In his book on *ghartb al-baditb* Abū 'Ubayd al-Qasim b. Sallām relied (*itamada*) on A'U's book. Abū 'Ubayd's book on *ghartb al-qur'an* was also culled from (*muntaza' min*) A'U's book on the same subject, "and for all this [i.e. for all his dependence on A'U, a man of questionable reputation in religious matters], he [Abū 'Ubayd] was a reliable transmitter of Hadith and a pious man, and there was no objection to him" (⁷²).

(69) Dhahabi, Nubala', IX, ed. Shu'ayb al-Arna'ut and Kamil al-Kharrat, 447.

(70) Tabdh., X, 248 (wa-la yabfazu l-qur'ana wa-innama yaqra'ubu nazaran); cf. Fibrist, 79 (wa-idba qara'a l-qur'ana qara'abu nazaran). Ibn Qutayba, Ma'arif, 543 goes even further: "For all his erudition, he would often deviate from the metre of a verse of poetry which he recited and break it, and he would even err when reading the Qur'an" (wa-kana ma'a ma'rifatibi rubbama lam yuqimi l-bayta idba ansbadabu batta yaksirabu wa-yukbt'u idba qara'a l-qur'ana nazaran). For his deficient command of the metres cf. below, the testimony of Abu Hatim al-Sijistani.

(71) Yaqui, Udaba', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 155 (wa-buwa awwalu man sannafa gbartba l-badttb). But cf. Ibn Khallikan, IV, 61 who says concerning Abū 'Ubayd al-Qasim b. Sallam: wa-yuqalu innabu awwalu man sannafa fi gbartbi l-badttb.

(72) Abû al-Tayyib al-Halabi, *Maratib al-nabwiyyina*, 93. Abû 'Ubayd's dependence on A'U (and on his other teachers) is duly acknowledged in his book; see Abû 'Ubayd, *Gbartb al-badtib*, I, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10 etc. See also *GAS*, VIII, 71.

duction of the faults was a by-product, not the goal, of his genealogical inquiries. The same could also be said, I believe, about the other early genealogists including A'U.

Hadith was not a major field of interest for A'U and Dhahabi says correctly that he was not a *sabib baditb*. Yet he transmitted Hadith from Hishām b. 'Urwa, Abū 'Amr b. al-'Alā' and others. Among those who transmitted Hadith from him we find 'Alī b. al-Madīnī, the above-mentioned Abū 'Ubayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām, Abū Hātim al-Sijistānī and 'Umar b. Shabba (⁷³).

Had A'U chosen to become a *sabib baditb*, we would have been deprived of much of his contribution to Arabic studies. The ideal *muhadditb* merely forms a living bridge between two generations of *muhadditbūn* by transmitting, with the utmost fidelity, an unchanged corpus of diverse materials. A'U knew better than that. His curiosity and thirst for *new* knowledge created an ever-expanding stockpile of raw materials which at a later stage provided items for his specialized monographs on different subjects.

A'U's attitude to the interpretation of the sacred texts of Islam is presented as being diametrically opposed to that of Asma'i. The latter, we are told, applied himself to acts of devotion (*shadid al-ta'allub*) and abstained from interpreting any expression found in the Qur'an. Moreover, he avoided interpreting any expression at all if it had a parallel or even a derivative (*nazir awi shtiqaq*) in the Qur'an or Hadith. Also, he would not interpret poetry which included satire (*hija'*) (⁷⁴). This should not be taken too literally though: the many quotations from Asma'i in Abu

(73) For example, see the entry on A'U in Abû l-Hajjaj Yûsuf al-Mizzi, *Tabdbib al-kamâl fi asma' al-rijal*, ed. Bashshar 'Awwad Ma'rûf, Beirut 1405/1985 - 1413/1992, XXVIII, 316-21.

In a difficult passage A'U is accused of being the source of forty-five dubious Hadiths (la asla laba) which Abu 'Ubayd al-Qasim b. Sallam included in his book (al-)Gbartb al-Musannaf; Nür al-qabas, 314f. Wa-fibi on p. 315 goes back to the Gbartb al-Musannaf on p. 314. The source of difficulty is the fact that (al-)Gbartb al-Musannaf is a dictionary organized according to subjects (K. kbalq al-insan, K. al-nisa', K. al-libas etc.) and does not include Hadith; GAS, VIII, 82f; Ramadan Abdel-Tawab, Das K. al-Garib al-Musannaf von Abü 'Ubaid und seine Bedeutung für die nationalarabische Lexikographie, Heppenheim 1962, 39f. A comparison with a parallel text shows that the above passage is garbled and that Abu 'Ubayd's book which allegedly incorporates misleading materials from A'U is actually his Gbartb al-baditb in which, as has just been remarked, he relied on A'U; Nür al-qabas: wa-qala Abū 'Amr: fibi kbamsatun wa-arba'üna baditban etc.; complete the missing sentence from Ta'rikb Bagbdad, XII, 413: wa-kitab Gbartb al-baditb fibi aqallu min mi'atay barf: sami'u, wa-l-baqi: qala l-Asma't wa-qala Abū 'Amr, wa-fibi kbamsatun wa-arba'üna baditban etc.

(74) Abū al-Tayyib al-Halabi, Maratib al-nabwiyyina, 48. Cf. Tabdb., VI, 417: kana l-Aşma'i yattaqt an ("guarded himself exceedingly from") yufassira baditba rasūli llabi (ş wa-alibi) kama yattaqt an yufassira l-qur'ana; Sirafi, Akbbar al-nabwiyyina l-Başriyyina, 47: wa-yatawaqqa tafstra sbay' mina l-qur'an wa-l-baditb 'ala tartqi l-lugba. This is followed by an anecdote in which Aşma'ı regrets having interpreted a difficult word in the Hadith. See further examples in Suyū, Muzbir, II, 325f; El², s.v. al-Aşma'ı, 718a (B. Lewin); Goldziher, Muslim Studies, II, 364. It is also reported that Aşma'ı honoured his student Abū Hatim al-Sijistani for his knowledge of the Qur'an and upon Abū Hatim's arrival he would rise and embrace him; Nūr al-qabas, 226.

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'Ubayd's *Gharth al-hadtth* (75) are proof enough that Asma'i was intensively active in the interpretation of difficult words in the Hadith. They are probably taken from Asma'i's book *Gharth al-hadtth* (76). In sum, the claim dissociating Asma'i from the interpretation of the Hadith is incorrect.

The same can be said of the claim dissociating Asma'l from the interpretation of the Our'an. The delightful (though perhaps ahistorical) anecdote told by the triumphant A'U himself on how he defeated Asma't's objection to his *Majaz al-gur'an* (7) could have been used as evidence that Asma'l objected to the interpretation of the Qur'an. But there is evidence that Asma'i compiled a book entitled Gharth al-qur'an (78). This is a clear indication that he did not disapprove of Qur'an interpretation. According to Abu 'Ali al-Farisi, the real reason behind the fact that Asma' avoided interpreting the Qur'an was not his piety but his pretension and opposition to A'U since the latter preceded him in compiling a book about the Qur'an (kana yaf alu dhalika riya'an wa-'inadan li-A'U liannahu sabagahu ila 'amal kitab fi l-gur'an) (79). It should be added that also Abu Zayd Sa'id b. Aws al-Ansari, the third great philologist of Basra at the time of A'U and Asma'i, interpreted the Qur'an (and the Hadith) (80). In other words, the study of the Qur'an could not have been neglected by a philologist vying for eminence in the late second century A.H.

While it is untrue that Asma't avoided interpreting the Qur'an and Hadith, he may have tried to create the impression that he did. When asked to interpret a difficult word in the Hadith, he gave the required explanation only after this apologetic introduction: "I do not interpret

(75) E.g. I, 30, 32, 33, 35, 37, 39, 40, 41 etc.

(76) Fibrist, 82 (it held about two hundred folios and the 4th/10th century author of the Fibrist saw it in the handwriting of al-Sukkart); Ibn Khallikan, III, 176; GAS, VIII, 208n, 76 ("bei Suyūtī fälschlich Garib al-qur'an"; but note that the Hadiyyat al-'arifin [Bağdadli Ismail Paşa, Hadiyyat al-'arifin, asma' al-mu'alliftn wa-atar al-musannifin, ed. Kilisli Rifat Bilge ve Ibnülemin Mahmut Kemal Inal, Istanbul 1951-5, I, 623] mentions a book entitled K. gbartb al-badttb wa-l-kalam al-wabsbt).

(77) See e.g. H. Ritter in Oriens 2 (1949), 297 - Ta'rtkb Bagbdad, XIII, 255. For criticism of the Majaz see Abu 'Ubayda, Majaz al-qur'an, I, introduction, 16f. On the Majaz see also E. Kohlberg, A Medieval Muslim Scholar: Ibn Tawūs and bis Library, Leiden 1992, 171, no. 159 (entitled Gbarth al-qur'an).

(78) Suyui, *Bugbya*, II, 113-Dawudi, *Tabaqat al-mufassirina*, I, 355. For an example of Asma'i's work in this field see perhaps Maqdisi, *Muntaqa*, 6: Asma'i quotes through an intermediary 'Ikrima's interpretation of *tara'ib* (Qur'an, 86, 7) with reference to a verse of poetry. For an anecdote showing that in his criticism of A'U's *Majaz al-qur'an* Asma'i was applying double standards see Sirafi, *Akbbar al-nabwiyyina l-Basriyyina*, 48.

(79) Yaqut, Udaba', the end of s.v. al-Hasan b. Ahmad Abu 'Ali al-Farisi, VII, 261. (80) GAS, VIII, 79. (*ufassiru*) the Hadith of the Messenger of God (s) but the Bedouin (al-'arab) say" etc. (⁸¹).

While it could be shown that Asmai did interpret the Qur'an and Hadith, it is also true that for some, A'U, unlike Asmai, was unacceptable. Of these two only Asmai could boast that Malik b. Anas (who is listed among Asmai's teachers) transmitted Hadith from him and only Asmai could put to his credit praise from Shafii on his trustworthiness (⁸²).

8. Abū 'Ubayda and "the written word"

Two leading experts on *isnad*, 'Alī b. al-Madīnī and Yahyā b. Ma'īn, recommended A'U with varying degrees of warmth. The latter said that "there is nothing objectionable in him" (*laysa bibi ba's*), while the former, who was A'U's student, praised him saying that his transmission was accurate and that he would quote from the Bedouin only correct things (*fa-absana dbikrabu wa-sabbaha riwayatabu wa-qala: kana la yabkt 'ani l-'arab illa l-shay'a l-sabib*) (⁸³). The reference to the Bedouin shows that when Ibn al-Madīnī speaks of A'U's accurate *riwaya*, he does not reserve this to the field of Hadīth but has in mind A'U's work in general. It is not difficult to see why A'U was considered a reliable transmitter: he applied the same meticulous approach both to the tribal materials and to the limited amount of Hadīth which he transmitted. In both cases he prepared careful written accounts or "books" which included his informants' words.

A'U did not possess the remarkable memory of his rival Aşma'i (⁸⁴). He was a scholar of the written word, not of oral transmission. This can be demonstrated by his own testimony about his studies with Yunus b. Habib: "I have been going to Yunus b. Habib for forty years, filling my *alwab* every day [with records] from [the knowledge preserved in] his memory" (⁸⁵).

(81) Maqdisi, Muntaqa, 22.

(82) Tabdh, VI, 416 (ma ra'aynı bi-dbalika l-'askar asdaqa labja mina l-Asma'ı). According to Yahya b. Ma'in, 'Abd al-Malik b. Qurayr mentioned in Malik's book is erroneous and should read: 'Abd al-Malik b. Qurayb, i.e. al-Asma'ı; Maqdisı, Muntaqa, 28.

(83) Dhahabi, *Nubala'*, IX, ed. Shu'ayb al-Arna'ut and Kamil al-Kharrat, 445f. On Bukhart's quotations from A'U's *Majaz (al-Qur'an)* cf. *Tabdb.*, X, 247. Ibn Hajar remarks that Bukhart did not mention A'U's full name (he called him either "Ma'mar" or "Abu 'Ubayda") and that he often dropped his mention altogether (*min gbayr 'azw)*. This is comparable to the attitude of the canonical Hadith to Waqidi: there is only one Hadith of his in the six canonical collections, in the *Sunan* of Ibn Maja; moreover, Ibn Maja does not name Waqidi, referring to him instead as *sbaykb lana*; Lecker, "Waqidi's account on the status of the Jews of Medina: a study of a combined report", in *JNES* (forthcoming), the end of section 3.

(84) Aşma'i boasted that he knew by heart 16,000 poems of the *rajaz* metre (*urjūza*); Ibn Shabba, quoted in Ibn Khallikan, III, 171. See also *op. cit.*, 173f.

(85) Ibn Khallikan, VII, 244f (ikbtalaftu ila Yūnus b. Habib arba'ina sana amla'u kulla

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That A'U needed his books close at hand is made clear by Abū Nuwās's reaction to the news that Aşma'ī and A'U were invited to Hārūn al-Rashīd. The poet, an admirer of A'U, said: "If they let him have his book[s], he will read for them the chronicles of the past and the present" (66).

A'U's dependence on his books and his inadequate experience with "real life" form the backdrop to the account about the famous competition between Asma' and A'U before Haron al-Rashid's chamberlain (bajib), al-Fadl b. al-Rabi' (or before Hārūn al-Rashīd himself). Asma'ī, in his version of the encounter, reports that his venerable colleague wrote a book on horses comprising fifty volumes (the figure is of course unreal), whereas his own book on the same subject included only one volume. But his colleague refused to identify the limbs of a real horse, saying: "I am not a veterinarian, this (science) is merely something I took from the Bedouin". Asma'i, who won the horse as a prize for his excellent description, ends his story with the following climax: "When I wanted to infuriate him [i.e. A'U], I rode it and came to him" (87). We have a very similar account from A U. (In his account, the contest takes place before Harun al-Rashid himself). After Asma'i had completed his limb-by-limb description of the horse, A'U was asked by the caliph for a comment. "He was partly accurate and partly wrong", he said. "What he got right he learned from me. As to the things he was wrong about, I do not know from where he got them"! (88) These are anecdotes, not documentary evidence. Yet it is important that the versions of both rivals agree that it was Asma'i, not A'U, who could relate the literary evidence to the limbs of a real horse. A'U's knowledge was academic and he was more at ease with books than with horses (89).

yawm alwabt min bifzibi). We learn from A'U's stinging remarks on Kaysan al-Nahwi that a *lawb* or wooden tablet is where one takes notes. Later they are copied from the *lawb* to a *daftar; Nur al-gabas,* 179.

(86) In amkanübu min sifribi qara'a 'alaybim akbbara l-awwalina wa-l-akbirina; Ta'rikb Bagbdad, X, 414. Cf. op. cit., XIII, 256 (amma A'U fa-'alim ma turika ma'a asfaribi yaqra'uba, "A'U is a scholar [who excels] as long as they let him read from his books"). It is indeed reported that he read to Rashid from his books; Ibn al-Qifti, Inbab al-ruwat, III, 277 (qadima Bagbdada fi ayyām Harīn al-Rasbid wa-qara'a 'alaybi biba asbya'a min kutubibi). Abu Nuwas described A'U as "a skin stuffed with knowledge" (adim tuwiya 'ala 'ilm); Yaqut, Udaba', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 155. The esteem was mutual: A'U said that Abu Nuwas was for the modern poets (al-mubdatbūn) what Imru'u l-Qays had been for the ancient ones; Ibrahim b. Muhammad al-Bayhaqt, al-Mabasin wa-l-masāwi', Beirut 1380/1960, 429. Yet Abu Nuwas dedicated to him some satirical verses; Wagner, Abū Nuwas, 30f.

(87) Suyuti, Bugbya, II, 113-Dawudi, Tabaqat al-mufassirina, I, 355.

(88) Ibn al-Qifti, Inbab al-nuwat, III, 279.

(89) As a means of transportation A'U used a donkey; see e.g. Ta'rtkb Baghdad, XIII, 255. Cf. what he says about donkeys in Nür al-qabas, 123f.

9. Abū 'Ubayda's Khārijism

As has been mentioned, Gibb argues that A'U was a Khārijite, while Madelung argues that he was not.

To begin with we should put the discussion in proportion. Heretical (or unorthodox) views were in vogue among the philologists of Başra (⁹⁰). Ibrahim al-Harbi (d. 285/898) says that the *ahl al-'arabiyya* in Başra were all *ashab ahwa'* except four, who were *ashab sunna*, i.e. Abu 'Amr b. al-'Ala', al-Khalil b. Ahmad, Yūnus b. Habib and Aşma'i (⁹¹). A'U belonged to the majority, the *ashab al-ahwa'*.

The Fibrist (see above) says that A'U's belief was unsound (madkbūl al-din). Elsewhere, in a comparison between Aşma'ı and A'U, we are told that the former was "prompter with the reply", considered by people as more satisfactory and, unlike A'U, was not accused of anything with regard to "his religion" (⁹²). Some accusations made in the context of A'U's heretical views are not supported by further evidence and are therefore unreliable. A'U was accused of being a Qadarite, an accusation denied by Abu Hatim al-Sijistānī (⁹³). Others accused him of having a touch of *i'tizal* of which he was cured, as is evident from his transmission (of Hadith) and from his books (⁹⁴).

The accusation regarding A'U's Khārijism is the most serious one and the one for which we have evidence from different sources. It could best be investigated by reference to A'U's own writings such as his lost *K. khawārij al-Babrayn wa-l-Yamāma* (⁹⁵). But since such writings are extant only in the form of extracts in later sources (which are selective and may be suspected of suppressing problematic reports), we have to make do with the biographical evidence in the form of testimonies coming from A'U's students. One hears from them only laudatory remarks about their

(90) An analogy with Communism in the Hollywood film industry before Mc-Carthy may be helpful.

(91) Tabdh., VI, 416; EP, s.v. al-Aşma'ı, 718b (B. Lewin). This did not prevent Jahiz from accusing Aşma'ı (unjustly, of course) of being a Manichaean; Ta'rtkb Bagbdad, X, 418; Yaqut, Udaba', s.v. 'Amr b. Bahr al-Jahiz, XVI, 89.

(92) Zubaydi, Tabaqat al-nabwiyyina, 171 (wa-lam yuttabami l-Asma'i fi sbay' min dinibi).

(93) Zubaydī, *Tabaqāt al-nabwiyyina*, 175. Coming from an informant friendly to A'U such as Abū Hātim, the accusation that he was hopeless with regard to the metres of poetry seems to be reliable; Yaqūt, Udaba', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthannā, XIX, 156 (wa-kana ma'a 'ilmibi idbā qara'a l-bayta lam yuqim i'rābabu wa-yunsbidubu mukbtalifa l-'arīid). See also above, n. 70.

(94) Zubaydi, Tabaqat al-nabwiyyina, 177 (wa-kana A'U qad mussa bi-ba'di li-'iizal illa annabu qad bari'a min dbalika bima zabara fi riwayatibi wa-kutubibi).

(95) Yaqui, *Udaba'*, s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 162. For A'U's accounts, preserved in Tabari, about the Kharijite rebellions in the Umayyad period, see Madelung, "Abu 'Ubayda", 49f. Cf. above, n. 47.

great teacher and it is obvious that they did not consider "divulging the secret of his Khārijite views" as seriously flawing the record of their late mentor.

One such student was Jahiz $(^{96})$ who was a fellow-Basran and died a few decades after A'U $(^{97})$. Jahiz is even more specific: A'U was a Kharijite of the Sufriyya sect $(^{98})$. A'U is also said by some to have been an IbadI $(^{99})$.

Jahiz, who quotes A'U on numerous occasions (100), cannot be suspected of inventing the statement about A'U's Khārijism. There is no evidence that Jahiz was ever hostile to A'U; on the contrary, he admired him. There is no trace here of the venomous accusations made by A'U's enemies. In a word, Jahiz's testimony is trustworthy.

Further testimonies to the same effect come from two other students of A'U who knew him well. Abu Hatim al-Sijistani says that A'U favoured him (kana yamilu ilayya) because he considered him to be one of the Kharijites of Sijistan. A'U used to ask Abu Hatim to recite their poetry and would express grief for them (wa-yatalabbafu 'alaybim)(¹⁰¹). In another utterance Abu Hatim mentions the Sufriyya: "A'U was a Sufrite and used to hide it". This is followed by verses of 'Imran b. Hittan (a Sufrite) recited by A'U. Abu Hatim also says that A'U would often recite their poetry and conclude with this verse: "These were people who, when they built, built well, when they made a vow, they kept it, and when they made a treaty, they honoured it scrupulously" (¹⁰²).

(96) For a rare case where A'U quoted Jabiz and not vice versa see Agbant, XIV, 142:6 from below.

(97) Jahiz, Bayan, I, 347 (wa-mimman kana yara ra'ya l-kbawarij... wa-lam yakun ft l-ard kbariji wa-la jama'i a'lama bi-jamt'i l-'ilm minbu). The latter part of this utterance is frequently quoted in the biographical dictionaries while the former is omitted. Ibn Hajar (Tabdb., X, 247) goes even further, eliminating from Jahiz's utterance any mention of the Kharijites: lam yakun ft l-ard a'lamu bi-jamt'i l-'ulum minbu. Cf. Ch. Pellat, "Djahiz et les kharidjites", in Folia Orientalia 12 (1970), 205; idem, "al-Gahiz hérésiographe", in Bulletin d'études orientales 30 (1978), 151.

(98) Jahiz, Hayawan, III, 402.

(99) Yaqut, Udaba', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 156. He "inclined to" (i.e. sympathized with) the Ibadis; Abu al-Tayyib al-Halabi, Maratib al-nabwiyyina, 45 (wa-kana A'U yamilu ila madbbabi l-ibadiyya mina l-kbawarij).

(100) See e.g. Jahiz, Rasa'il, II, 225f (A'U, among others, is recommended as a reliable source of *akbbar*, as opposed to Abû Mikhnaf and others), see also idem, *Bayan*, III, 366f-Madelung, "Abû 'Ubayda", 52; *Bayan*, III, 265f (Jahiz quotes from A'U the story of a Kharijite whom he met in his hiding place in Basra), 23f (Jahiz learned from A'U, Aşma'ı, and others), A'U is quoted in Jahiz, *Rasa'ıl*, IV 122 (*wa-badba sbay'sami'nıbu min Abi 'Ubayda wa-minbu* stamlaytu badba l-ma'na), Jahiz, Hayawan, III, 471 (*wa-qala lt A'U*, an admiring comment about al-Nazzam's promptness in answering a question).

(101) Cf. Madelung, "Abū 'Ubayda", 49: "The report merely confirms Abū 'Ubayda's lively interest in the history of the Khārijite movement. He presumably saw in Abū Hātim a potential informant".

(102) Ūla'ika qawmun in banaw absanû l-buna wa-in 'abadû awfaw wa-in 'aqadû sbaddû; Nûr al-gabas, 110f. Al-Tawwazi (or al-Tawwaji) says that A'U, violently moved by verses of the Khārijite leader Qatari b. al-Fujā'a, reproached him for mentioning Qatari without his proper title and *kunya*, namely *amtr al-mu'mintna Abū Na'ama*. Al-Tawwazi also reports how he complied with A'U's request (which he made when he returned to his senses) not to disclose what he had heard. He only mentioned it after A'U's death (¹⁰³).

A more complete version of the same report puts it in its correct context:

Al-Tawwazi said: When I wanted to animate (an unashshita) A'U, I would ask him about the akhbar of the Khärijites and produce from him a flood of information (104). I came to him once and found him with head bowed, scratching up the ground in the courtyard of the mosque. And the sun had neared him. I greeted him but he did not answer. So I recited the verse: "And there is no good in life for a man, if he becomes a worthless thing" (wa-ma li-l-mar'i khayrun ft bayatin idba ma'udda min saqati l-mata'i). He looked at me and said: 'Woe unto you, do you know whose verse it is?' I said: 'Qatati's'. He said: 'Shut up, may God break your teeth! Would you not say: Amīr al-Mu'minīna Abū Na'ama'! Then he became attentive (intababa) and said: 'Hide it for me'. I said: 'It is buried' (biya bintu l-ard)" (105).

This rather appealing little scene is described by an affectionate student, faithful to the memory of his late teacher, while at the same time allowing himself to make fun, in a harmless manner, of his teacher's Khārijism (106).

As a matter of curiosity it may be added that the Taymi family to whom A'U's *wala'* belonged played an outstanding role in the fight against the Khārijites. When 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar was the governor of Fārs for Muş'ab b. al-Zubayr, he fought against Qatarī b. al-Fujā'a and severely injured him (with a blow on Qatarī's forehead he earned him his nickname *al-mufallaq*, "the cleaved"). 'Umar also killed the Khārijite Abū Fudayk in Baḥrayn. His son, 'Ubaydallāh b. 'Umar, was killed by the

(103) E.g. Maratib al-nabwiyyina, 45f. See an entry on al-Tawwazi in GAS, VIII, 89f; on Qatari see GAS, II, 350 ("Abū 'Ubaida scheint seine Gedichte sehr geschätzt zu haben", with reference to al-Husri, Zabr al-adab [-ed. Zakt Mubarak, Beirut 1972, 1077f]). One is inclined to agree with Madelung, "Abū 'Ubayda", 49 that "Abū 'Ubayda allowed himself a joke at the expense of his credulous student" and that he "enjoyed shocking his students with such a fake confession"; but one may wish to separate the curious scene from the matter of common knowledge which was at its background, namely A'U's Khārijism. The Khārijite views of A'U are also mentioned by Ibn Qutayba, Ma'ārif, 543 in a passage which is particularly hostile to him.

(104) Literally: I would slit him open and release "the middle of the sea", fa-ab'aju minbu tbabaja babr.

(105) Nur al-qabas, 110 (al-Tawwazi).

(106) In Daraquini's view, A'U's Kharijite views detracted from his value as a traditionist; Yaqui, Udaba', s.v. Ma'mar b. al-Muthanna, XIX, 155: la ba'sa bibi illa annabu yuttabamu bi-sbay' min ra'yi l-kbawarij wa-yuttabamu bi-l-ibdatb. The obscure ibdatb is probably the

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Khārijites in Fārs and the fate of his brother, 'Uthmān b. 'Ubaydallāh b. Ma'mar, was the same (¹⁰⁷).

If the biographical information about the great philologist is to be trusted, we should accept as historical the evidence concerning his Khārijism. The testimonies about it are from his students and admirers, therefore they should be trusted even in the absence, for the time being, of positive evidence concerning A'U's adherence to specific Khārijite doctrines.

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A'U, a *mawla* of Judeo-Persian descent and a protégé of an important Qurashī family, dedicated his life to the preservation of the Arab heritage which his Jewish grandfather had adopted together with the Islamic faith. He could not properly pronounce all the characters of the Arabic alphabet and it is no accident that he had difficulties with the metres of Arabic poetry. But during his long life he collected and recorded many thousands of accounts transmitted to him by his informants, creating an enormous repository of raw material which he later used when he compiled his many monographs. His *matbalib* monographs represent only a fraction of his work and when they are overemphasized at the expense of his other monographs, it is done in order to defame him.

A'U died in ca. 210/825 (different years are given) aged ninety-three or ninety-eight or ninety-nine. He went on compiling books to the very time of his death (108).

accusation of homosexuality; see e.g. Dhahabi, Nubala', IX, 447. As a result of the latter accusation, the bukkam (i.e., in this context, the qadts) did not accept his word and his testimony; Ibn al-Qifti, Inbah al-ruwat, III, 282 (with a specific example of a case in which his testimony was rejected by the qadt 'Abdallah b. al-Hasan al-'Anbari); see in detail Wagner, Abū Nuwas, 30f. With regard to the accusation of homosexuality, perhaps the link between A'U and his katib Rufay' b. Salama Abū Ghassān al-'Abdi, nicknamed Damādh (- al-fastla, "a palm shoot"), merits attention. See on him Fibrist, 81 (rawa 'an A'U wa-kāna yuwarriqu kutubabu); Ibn al-Qifti, Inbab al-ruwat, II, 6 (wa-kāna katiba A'U ft l-akbbar). The new edition of Yaqui, Udaba', by Ihsān 'Abbās (Beirut 1993, III, 1307f) has an entry on Rufay' where he is described as the katib and close friend of A'U (katib A'U ...wa-sabibubu l-mukbtassu bibi). More significantly, the entry contains two verses of Rufay' reflecting homosexual tendencies.

(107) Baladh., Ansab, XI, 124, 134; Mus'ab, Nasab, 288 (read 'Umar instead of 'Amr), 289; Ibn Qudama, Tabytn, 332 (al-mufallaq), 336f ('Uthman b. 'Ubaydallah); Baladh., Ansab, 855a-b ('Ubaydallah b. 'Umar), 856b ('Uthman b. 'Ubaydallah); Tab., VI, 119f [II, 753] ('Umar and the Kharijites in Fars, 68 A.H.), 193 [II, 852] (Abu Fudayk, 73 A.H.). See also J. Wellhausen, The Religio-Political Factions in Early Islam, trans. by R.C. Ostle and S.M. Waltzer, Amsterdam 1975, index, s.v. 'Umar b. 'Ubaydallah b. Ma'mar.

(108) Ibn al-Qifti, Inbab al-ruwat, III, 280, 283 (wa-lam yazal yuşannıfu batta mata wa-qad asanna). See also Abu Hayyan al-Tawhidi, al-Başa'ir wa-l-dbakba'ir, ed. Ibrahim al-Kaylani, Damascus 1964, III, i, 201-202 (A'U died in 209 A.H. aged ninety-nine; asked about the cause of his illness, A'U gave this unusual answer: badba Abu Isbaq dakbaltu ilaybi ХVШ

His erudition gained him the admiration of his fellow Basrans who were, however, alienated by his sharp tongue and perhaps some conceit (109).

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musalliman fa-ja'a bi-mawz ka-annabu uyuru l-masakin fa-akibartu minbu fa-kana sabata 'illati'). One version (Yaqut, Udaba', s.v. al-Hasan b. al-Husayn al-Sukkari, VIII, 97) dates A'U's death to 219 A.H.

(109) According to Ibn Shabba, A'U used to say: "There are no two horses who came to close quarters in pagan or Islamic times but I know of them and their riders-; Goldziher, *Muslim Studies*, I, 180-Suyoti, *Muzbir*, II, 402 (*ma Itaqa farasani ft jabiliyya wa-la islam illa 'araftuhuma wa-'araftu farisayhima*). But the English rendering deviates from Goldziher's German original (*Mubammedanische Studien*, I, 195) which correctly indicates that A'U referred to his study of the *ayyam*: *Es gibt nicht zwei Rosse ...die in heidnischer oder muhammedanischer Zeit aneinander geriethen» etc. See R.A. Nicholson, *A Literary History of the Arabs*, Cambridge 1930, 344, quoting Goldziher: *[N]either in heathen nor Muhammadan times... have two horses met in battle but that I possess information about them and their riders-. However, A'U was not pompous. Asked about the date of his birth, he mentioned the answer which the poet 'Umar b. Abt Rabi'a' had given to the same question. The poet said that he had been born when 'Umar b. al-Khattab was murdered, adding, «what virtue was uprooted and what evil established». As to himself, A'U said, he was born when al-Hasan b. Abt I-Hasan (al-Hasan al-Başrı) died, "and my answer is the same as the one given by 'Umar b. Abt Rabi'a'; Ibn al-Qifti, *Inbab al-ruwat*, III, 283.

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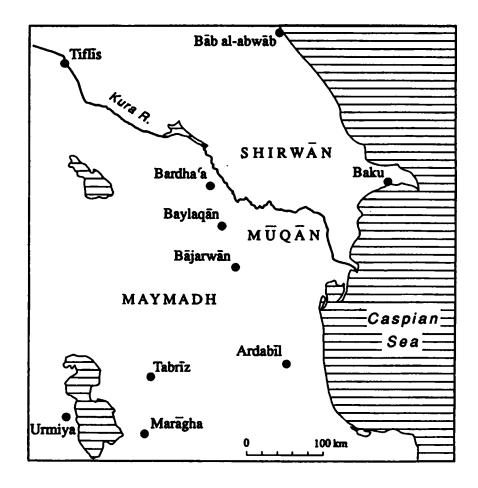
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Addenda et corrigenda

I IDOL WORSHIP

p. 331, second paragraph: the passage from Ibn Shabba's Kitāb Makka (=Akhbār Makka) found in Ibn Hajar, al-Iṣāba fī tamyīz al-ṣaḥāba, ed. 'Alī Muḥammad al-Bijāwī, Cairo 1392/1972, I, 498, is identical to the passage on p. 345, no. 8. This confirms the assumption that al-Maqrīzī is quoting this specific book of Ibn Shabba.

p. 332, n. 10, l. 1 from end (continuing on the next page): =VIII

p. 333, end of n. 10: =VIII

p. 334, n. 17: =VIII

p. 337, l. 8: the reading Manāf is supported by the abovementioned passage from the *Iṣāba*. However, al-Suhaylī, *al-Rawḍ al-unuf*, ed. Ṭāhā 'Abd al-Rā'ūf Sa'd, Cairo 1391/1971, II, 214, has: Manāt.

See also III, 269, n. 80. The printing errors were corrected in the Arabic text at the end of this article.

II EARLY MARRIAGE LINKS

p. 21, n. 10, l. 7=VIII

p. 24n, l. 6, read: Hind bint al-Walīd b. 'Utba, instead of: Hind bint 'Utba.

p. 27, l. 4, read: Rabī a, instead of: Rabī.

p. 29, l. 12, read: Prophet's, instead of: phet's.

p. 34, n., l. 12: =VIII

p. 38, l. 7, add new reference: see XVII

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III ZAYD B. THĀBIT
   p. 260, n. 10, right column, l. 13, read: p. 267, n. 58, instead
of: p. 9, n. 58.
   p. 262, end of n. 21: =XIV
   p. 263, n. 32: =IV
   p. 263, n. 34: =XII
   p. 264, end of n. 39: =V
   p. 264, beginning of n. 41: =VIII
   p. 264, n. 42: =V
   p. 269, n. 80, end of first paragraph: =I
   p. 269, n. 81: =V
   p. 269, n. 83: =V
   IV 'AMR B. HAZM
   p. 61, n. 23: =XVI
   V HUDHAYFA B. AL-YAMĀN AND 'AMMĀR B. YĀSIR
   p. 152, n. 7: =XIV
   p. 158, n. 31: =VIII
   p. 160, n. 44, l. 1: =VIII
   161, n. 46: see now M. Lecker, "Did Muhammad conclude
treaties with the Jewish tribes, Nadīr, Qurayza and Qaynuqā'?",
in Israel Oriental Studies 17 (1997), 29-36.
   161, end of n. 48: =VIII
   VI YAHŪD/'UHŪD
   p. 170, n. 4, l. 2: =VIII
   VII WĀQIDĪ'S ACCOUNT
   p. 18, n. 15: =XVI
   p. 23, end of n. 38: =XVI
   p. 26, n. 51: =XIV, 645f.
   VIII MUHAMMAD AT MEDINA
   Māl throughout this article should be translated as "fruit-
garden", "orchard", rather than "estate".
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p. 47, l. 4: "All of Banū Murra, the descendants of both 'Āmir and Sa'd, inhabited Rātij". This is wrong: only the descendants of the latter lived there. For a revised discussion of the Banū Murra see my Muslims, Jews and pagans: Studies on Early Islamic Medina, Leiden 1995, 24-25.

IX MARKETS OF MEDINA

p. 133, n. *: =VIII

pp. 134-35: the assumption that the market of Muzāḥim was near Ibn Ubayy's fortress of the same name (and hence belonged to Ibn Ubayy; see also I. Hasson, "Contributions à l'étude des Aws et des Hazrağ", in *Arabica* 36 [1989], 1-35, at 17) is probably wrong.

p. 138: On the Banū 'Ațiyya see now my Muslims, Jews and Pagans, index, s.v.

XIV JUDAISM AMONG KINDA

p. 640, n. 27: =XVIII

p. 641, n. 29: In the printed edition of Ibn al-'Adīm's Bughyat al-ţalab (ed. Suhayl Zakkār, Damascus 1408-1409/1988, IV, 1896), the name of the book is Kitāb al-q.r.' wa-l-shajar. But the reading Kitāb al-far' wa-l-shajar is probably confirmed by a passage from al-Majlisī, Biḥār al-anwār, Tehran 1376/1957ff., LI, 290: ... 'alā mā dhakarahu Abū l-Ḥasan al-Nassāba al-Iṣfahānī fī Kitāb alfar' wa-l-shajar. Abū l-Ḥasan (read: Abū l-Ḥusayn?) al-Iṣfahānī may well have been identical with Abū l-Ḥusayn Muḥammad b. al-Qāsim al-Tamīmī al-Baṣrī.

XV KINDA ON THE EVE OF ISLAM

333, n. 1: =XIV

p. 335, left column, last line; 336, ll. 2 and 21; nn. 4 and 8: read: Abū l-Jabr, instead of: Abū l-Khayr. See 337n; M.J. Kister, "The campaign of Hulubān", in *Le Muséon* 78 (1965), 425-36 (reprinted in idem, *Studies in Jāhiliyya and Early Islam*, London: Variorum reprints, 1980, no. IV). 337, end of n. 10: =XIV 339, n. 18: =XIV 343, n. 34, l. 1: =XIV 345, n. 46, l. 2: =XIV 345, n. 52: =XIV

p. 353, n. 91: read: Umm Farwa had three former husbands, instead of: ... two former husbands. See Ibn Habīb, al-Muḥabbar,

ed. Ilse Lichtenstaedter, Hyderabad 1361/1942, 452. 355, n. 102=XIV, p. 645.

XVI IBN SHIHĀB AL-ZUHRĪ
p. 35, n. 58, read: al-balad, instead of: al-bald.
39, n. 73, l. 3: =IV
p. 54, l. 11: see also The Encyclopaedia of Islam², s.v. 'Udhra.
p. 55, n. 144, l. 2 from end, read: Zuhriyya, instead of: al-Zuhriyyah.

XVII THE DEATH OF THE PROPHET'S FATHER p. 12, n. 8: =VII p. 14, n. 13: =VII p. 24, n. 40, l. 7, read: parents, instead of: parent. XVIII ABŪ 'UBAYDA MA'MAR B. AL-MUTHANNĀ p. 73, end of n. 6: =XIV p. 75, n. 12: =II p. 86, n. 59: =XIV p. 92, end of n. 83: =VII

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