SAHÎH AL-BUKHÂRÎ

TRANSLATED FROM THE ARABIC
WITH EXPLANATORY NOTES AND INDEX

BY
MUHAMMAD ASAD
(LEOPOLD WEISS)

VOLUME I — PART I

THE ARAFAT PUBLICATIONS
SRINAGAR · KASHMIR
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POSTAGE EXTRA.
IT is with a sense of pride that THE ARAFAT PUBLICATIONS have embarked upon the great literary venture of producing an English version of “Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī.” Whereas the Holy Qur’ān has repeatedly been translated into English, the Muslims have been somewhat negligent with regard to the most authentic compilation of Traditions which, as the Translator rightly remarks in his preface, is a key to the full understanding of Islām.

The material difficulties of this new enterprise can be easily appreciated if we realise that the text of “Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī” is more than three times that of the Qur’ān; and the explanatory notes—containing as they do references to the entire, extremely extensive, literature on Hadith and an independent investigation of their historical background—will in all probability double its volume. It can be said without exaggeration that this is one of the largest literary enterprises ever attempted in the modern world of Islām. THE ARAFAT PUBLICATIONS are bringing out this important contribution to the revival of Islāmic religious thought with the hope that the educated Muslim public will help them to accomplish this great task. The spiritual life of nations rests on the foundations of their cultural past; and the culture of the Muslims is inseparably linked with the personality of the Prophet whose sayings and deeds are commemorated in “Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī.”

It has been earlier announced that each part of this work will comprise about 120 pages; it remains, therefore, to explain why the first part is considerably shorter. While it was in the press, we received numerous letters from presumptive subscribers urging us to print the Arabic text with full “i'rāb,” that is, with vowel signs, as otherwise its reading would be difficult for those who are not intimately acquainted with the Arabic language. As a matter of fact, we had originally intended to use vocalised types; but as the compositors in this country do not, as a rule, know Arabic, frequent mistakes in vowel signs would be unavoidable; consequently, proof-reading and correction would require much more time, and the production of each part would be considerably delayed. And so, after some hesitation, we purchased from Germany the types which the reader sees in this issue. But the increasing demands for a vocalised Arabic text compelled us to revise our plans, and we have ordered a large new set of vocalised types and decided to double our press staff. This new, unforeseen expenditure, burdensome as it is on our budget, will, so we hope, add an attraction more to our work.

The present edition may be regarded as preliminary. All subsequent parts will be printed in vocalised types, and the first part will be later reprinted in those types and supplied gratis to our permanent subscribers in order to make the whole book uniform. Those wishing to purchase the first part only will receive the present edition; and if they subsequently decide to enlist as permanent subscribers, they will receive the reprinted (vocalised) first part gratis.

We feel confident that the Muslim public will appreciate our efforts to produce this monumental work in a garb worthy of its contents, and will enable us, by subscribing to this publication, to complete it within the shortest possible time.

THE ARAFAT PUBLICATIONS.
ṢAḤĪḤ AL-BUKHĀＲĪ

BEING THE TRUE ACCOUNTS OF THE SAYINGS AND DOINGS OF THE PROPHET MUḤAMMAD/HANDED DOWN FROM HIS COMPANIONS TO THOSE WHO FOLLOWED THEM/AND COMPILED IN THE THIRD CENTURY AFTER THE HIJRAH BY IMĀM ABŪ ‘ABD ALLĀH MUḤAMMAD IBN ISMĀ‘ĪL IBN AL-MUGHĪRAH AL-BUKHĀRĪ

TRANSLATED FROM THE ARABIC WITH EXPLANATORY NOTES AND INDEX BY MUHAMMAD ASAD (LEOPOLD WEISS)

VOLUME 1

PART 1

THE ARAFAT PUBLICATIONS SRINAGAR · KASHMIR

1935
Vol. I.
Part I.
VERILY, IN THE APOSTLE OF GOD YE HAVE A GOOD EXAMPLE FOR HIM WHO LOOKETH FORWARD UNTO GOD AND THE LAST DAY, AND REMEMBERETH GOD MUCH.

(SŪRAH XXXIII, 21)
I SHOULD have added to this volume a brief Introduction dealing with the history and the
codification of Hadith; but, in the course of a talk we had on this subject, the great Muslim
poet-philosopher, Dr Sir Muhammad Iqbal, emphatically pointed out to me the necessity of a
more elaborate treatise which would serve not only as an introduction to the study of Traditions
as such, but also as a new philosophical valuation of Traditions in the conceptual structure of
Islam. The necessity of such a work had already been clearly demonstrated in Sir Iqbal's emin
ently valuable "Lectures on the Reconstruction of Muslim Religious Thought"; and his direct
suggestion appealed to me at once. I began working on this subject early this year, and the
material soon grew to very considerable dimensions.

I realised that it would be impossible to approach the problem of Traditions without at the
same time tracing the evolution of the Islamic Canonic Law, the Shari'ah, in the Qur'an; and
this, in its turn, would necessitate an intensive scrutiny, from the ideological point of view, of the
life of Muṣṭafā himself. The Traditions are pre-eminently historical; and it would become neces¬
Sary also to investigate the Islamic conception of history. The methods of the early Tradition¬
ists will have to be discussed in full detail; their tests of authenticity of Ḥadith will have to be
justified or modified in the light of the historical and psychological findings of the present age.
Such a study of the subject, I can safely anticipate, would, to a very great extent, vindicate the
methods of the early Traditionists, and especially those of Al-Bukhārī, the greatest among them.
Moreover, the strange prejudices that the European orientalists have brought to bear on the sub¬
ject will have to be dispassionately cleared, till the unbiased reader is able to realise that never
has there existed a historical document, relating to a past event, more firmly based on facts or
better authenticated by formal and internal evidence than the work which represents the climax
of the science of Traditions, namely, "Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī." And perhaps the most important part
of such an Introduction will have to be the appreciation of the attitude the Muslims have through
the ages adopted towards some fundamental aspects of the Shari'ah; which attitude, to anticipate
again, will be found largely reflecting the meanderings of Neo-Platonic philosophy which loomed
in the minds of Muslim thinkers from the second century of the Hijrah onwards, and which do not
in every case coincide with the intentions of the Prophet and his Companions.

Such a study of the subject requires considerable time; and in order not to delay the publica¬
tion of my translation of "Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī," I have decided to postpone the publication of the
Introduction to some later date. When completed, it will be a fair-sized volume, to be published
uniformly with this edition of "Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī," and will, I feel confident, facilitate the study
of Ḥadith in their relation to the philosophy of the Shari'ah.

In anticipation of this larger Introduction I shall confine myself here to a few remarks of a
general nature.

"Hadith" primarily denotes a narrative or a report; in the Islamic theological usage it has
come to mean the records of the sayings and doings of the Prophet Muḥammad, and is hence
translated as “Tradition.” It was as much from the Master’s example as from the Qur’ān that his Companions derived their beliefs and their rules of conduct; and for later generations, which had not the life of the Prophet before their eyes, the exact knowledge of the Traditions became an even greater necessity. The prodigious memory of the Arabs, so amply borne out by history, was a great advantage for a faithful preservation of Traditions. Besides, even in the lifetime of the Prophet a few Companions (e.g., ‘Abd Allāh ibn ‘Amr) used to commit these reports to writing. Increasing distance from the time of Prophet made this practice imperative. Till the second century after the Hijrah, however, there was no system in these collections, and the individual Traditions were hardly even critically sifted. In consequence, much unreliable material got mixed up with the genuine; and as a reaction to this, critical investigation of Traditions was taken up and rapidly developed into a science.

In the case of historical documents relating to a time anterior to their composition the means of verification are (a) the corroboration of historical evidence from independent sources and (b) the investigation of the reliability of the authorities concerned. This principle was applied to the Traditions. Different accounts bearing on the same subject were critically compared, and the line of narrators (which is called “isnād”) was subjected to a very intensive scrutiny. In order that a Tradition be recognised as sound (“ṣaḥīḥ”), all facts about the lives of its narrators, commencing with the Prophet’s Companion who first reported it, must be historically established. Every narrator must be known as truthful, pious, just and possessing a faultless memory. If two or more men who otherwise could be regarded as reliable, narrate conflicting Traditions, they automatically lose their claim to reliability.

It is not intended to give here the full methodology of Ḥadith; this brief account should merely explain one of the reasons for the extraordinary esteem in which the work of Al-Bukhārī is held throughout the World of Islām. This appreciation is due to the utmost severity and the sense of responsibility with which its author approached the problem of Hadith. His standards of investigation are far more rigorous than those of any other Traditionist before or after him; and it can safely be said that they answer to the most exacting demands of historical criticism. But this is not the only reason of his greatness. Unlike other compilers of Traditions, Al-Bukhārī did not content himself with the work of collecting and carefully sifting, but was intent upon drawing definite conclusions from Traditions—conclusions extending over the whole range of Islāmic conceptions from the fundamental doctrines to the smallest facts of practical life. To that end he divided his work in short sections according to the subject-matter, and added to almost every section explanations (“tarājim al-abwāb”), which in reality are ingeniously compiled arguments of one great idea that runs like a refrain through the whole work: the idea that Islām is is not mere belief, but an entity composed of belief and action, and that action is an essential element of the faith. He always supports his own views with verses of the Qur’ān or sayings of the Prophet, or both; and to these he usually adds sayings of Companions and Tābi‘īn (Successors of Companions). The result of his work is, on the whole, an astonishingly modern refutation of the scholastic theologians who, with their Greek philosophies and their play of words, had overlaid and dulled the lucid image of Islām.

It is impossible in the limited space of this preface to render full justice to the greatness of Al-Bukhārī’s service to the cause of Islām. The Introduction will show that, but for “Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī,” Islām would to-day be difficult to understand and still more difficult to practice.

* * *

The idea of translating this work occurred to me during my five years’ sojourn at Al-Madina, where I was studying Traditions in the Prophet’s Mosque. In that serene atmosphere the necessity of finding once more a direct contact with the spirit of pristine Islām presented itself to me with overwhelming force. It is not enough, I realised, to know what this or that great man
of the past thought about matters Islámic; it is not enough to live in the shadow of thoughts that have been, and to discuss the doctrinal differences and hair-splitting dialectics of a period so remote from us that it can hardly have any direct bearing on the exigencies of our present life. We should go back to the original sources of Islám and, after a terribly long interval, begin to be Muslims again.

The intense pressure of changing conditions of life forces the Muslims to abandon all hesitancy and decide which road of cultural development they will take: towards a realisation of Islám, or away from it. We can no more overlook the fact that Islám, which once was an inspiring spiritual force, is now gradually losing its grip on the younger generation educated on Western lines. The causes of this decline are many, and it is not within our scope to investigate them here. We are only concerned with the question: what spiritual forces to-day can be applied to revive the religious conscience of Muslims? The answer is almost commonplace. What we to-day most urgently need is a new understanding and a vivid appreciation of the true teachings of Islam. But to achieve this we must once again make real the sayings of the Prophet of Islam—real, as if he were speaking directly to us and for us. We must turn to the voice of the Greatest Man who thirteen hundred years ago roused the heart of a corrupted and darkened world from spiritual death; the mighty call of hope and promise that inspired men to action and self-sacrifice.

It is in the Ḥadith, the authentic reports of the sayings and doings of the Prophet Muḥammad, that the spirit of Islam finds its most concrete expression. They show with unmistakable clearness the Last Prophet's attitude towards various aspects of religious and social life, and are thus the only means of avoiding misunderstanding and wilful misrepresentation of the Qur'anic teachings. There cannot possibly be a more competent arbiter of these teachings than he through whom they have been revealed to humanity. The Sunnah of the Prophet is, in fact, the only key to a full understanding of Islám; and we know Sunnah only through Ḥadith.

But are Ḥadith reliable?—that is, do they represent the genuine accounts of the sayings and doings of the Prophet, or have they been, partly or wholly, invented during a later period?

A definite answer to this question is obviously of the utmost importance to the ideological future of Islám; but inspite of its importance no serious attempt seems to have been made by Muslims to vindicate the authenticity of Traditions from a modern, scientific point of view. On the other side, this authenticity has been repeatedly challenged in the fairly voluminous European literature on this subject; and it cannot be denied that the writings of European orientalists have to a large extent shaken the belief of educated Muslims in the reliability of Ḥadith. A close scrutiny of those writings will reveal the fact that the methods of their investigation do not quite correspond to the idea of historical fairness, otherwise so strictly insisted upon. The deep-rooted Western bias against Islam, born during the Crusades and perpetuated during the subsequent centuries of politico-cultural hostility between the Western and the Muslim Worlds, has found its adequate expression in the orientalist literature of Europe; and this bias is indirectly reflected in the writings of many modern Muslim critics of the Traditions who have, consciously or unconsciously, succumbed to the lure of the Western Civilisation. The analysis of the modern objections against the Traditions is, of course, a far too vast a problem for the limited scope of this preface; and now I can only request the Muslim public to wait for the publication of the Introduction.

One could ask: Assuming that Ḥadith as such are genuine and reliable, do the present-day conditions of world and society permit the full application of Sunnah to the practical life of Muslims, or would such an application constitute a permanent drawback to the cultural possibilities of the Muslim World?

In answer to this question—which will be discussed in detail in the Introduction—I may mention here the following Qur'ān-verses:

«Whatsoever the Apostle giveth you, take; and whatsoever he forbiddeth you, avoid.» (Sūrah lix, 7)
Thus the necessity, for a Muslim, of following the Sunnah of the Prophet is firmly established in the Qur’ān itself. If this is so, and if, on the other hand, Sunnah were not practicable at this or any other time, the only possible conclusion would be that Qur’ānic injunctions are, in themselves, meaningless and impracticable. For a Muslim who regards the Qur’ān as the Word of God this proposition is clearly impossible. Consequently, if we have reason to believe that the sources from which we draw our knowledge of the Sunnah—that is, the Traditions—are historically reliable, then this Sunnah must be practicable at all times and cannot be a drawback to Muslim life. We must be able to show that Sunnah, rightly understood and practiced in its genuine spirit, will provide every necessary stimulus for the development of Muslim society.

But what does “Sunnah, rightly understood,” mean? Has its interpretation been fixed for us, once for ever, at some remote period of the past? This would seem to be the attitude of the majority of Muslims. Since times immemorial they have ceased to think independently on the teachings of Islām and contented themselves again and again to repeat ideas and conceptions formed not later than in the fourth century after the Hijrah; and this is perhaps one of the main reasons of the cultural decay of the Muslim World. None can say that the works of the early Muslim generations could be dispensed with in our days; but are we to assume that all possibilities of religious knowledge have been exhausted by those early works, and that nothing remains for us but to follow without the right to criticize and interpret?

Obviously, it cannot be so. We have no right to assume that the Holy Qur’ān and the Traditions of our Prophet could ever cease to be accessible to the searching intellect of man. The very greatness of these two primary sources of religious knowledge consists in the fact that, the more our worldly knowledge progresses, the more new and hitherto hidden meanings appear in them. The piety and the religious ardour may be lower in our days than in the early centuries of Islām; but certainly not our means of understanding. The interpretation given to the teachings of Islām by Muṣṭafā and his Companions will for ever remain binding on a Muslim; beyond this, he is free to use his own intellect and his own conscience. This, and nothing else, was the attitude of the great Imāms. They never pretended to be infallible; they were learned men devoted to the search after truth, and they knew that the duty of thinking could never cease to be a duty for man. It was a duty for Ibn Ḥazm as well as for Ibn Rushd; for Al-Ghazālī as well as for Ar-Rāzī; for Ibn Taimiyah as well as for Ibn Khaldūn or Shāh Wāli Allāh; and it is a duty for you and for me.

A revival of Islām is impossible without an intensive inquiry into its original spirit. We must build further and higher on the foundations erected by the past generations. We cannot pretend that the teachings of Islām could ever be exhausted in all their depth; we are all travellers aiming at new discoveries in the domain of the spirit—discoveries of new meanings, new beauties in the Word of God and the Example of His Prophet, upon whom be blessings and peace.

And in this endeavour of ours we cannot find a better aid than the immortal “Ṣаḥīḥ al-Bukhārī.”

* * *

While translating this book, I have tried to render its meaning as literally as possible—sometimes, I am afraid, at the expense of the English language. Whatever I had to say myself has been
confined to the explanatory notes; and wherever an addition was unavoidable for the sake of clearness in the text itself, I have used brackets to enclose the additions thus made.

Each Tradition has been divided, by means of different types, into its two parts, the documentary evidence of transmission (" isnâd ") and the textual substance (" matn "). Al-Bukhârî's " tarâjim al-abwâb " have been printed in a type smaller than that of the " isnâd. " Each chapter (" kitâb") is followed by a synopsis of its subject-matter and a table indicating the different compilations in which the same Traditions have been quoted with or without variations. I have confined myself to the principal works only, namely, the " Şihâh as-sittah," Imâm Mâlik's " Muwaṭṭâ" and the " Musnad" of Imâm Ahmâd ibn Ḥanbal. " Şihâh as-sittah" and " Muwaṭṭâ" are existing in so many editions that it would be irritating to quote volume and page; but they are so well known that the interested reader will find no difficulty in tracing the Traditions in question. Only in the case of the " Musnad," which is arranged according to the names of the first narrators, volume and page had to be mentioned. The edition used was that printed in Cairo in the year 1313 H.

My translation of " Şâhîh al-Bukhârî " is based on three of the most accurate of all existing editions: Maṭba'ah al-Amiriyyah, Cairo, 1313 H. (published by order of Sultan 'Abd al-Ḥamid), Dâr at-ṭibâ'ah al-ʿAmirah, Cairo, 1315 H., and Maṭba'ah al-Maimaniyyah, Cairo, 1323 H.

After the completion of this work an Index will be published in which the reader will find biographies of all persons (including the narrators) mentioned in " Şâhîh al-Bukhârî," as well as references to all names of places and technical expressions occurring in this work.

I shall not conclude these lines without expressing my thanks to my friend, Maulana 'Atâ' ar-Râḥmân Hoshiârpuri ar-Râḥmâni, for his invaluable help in elucidating some of the technical intricacies of this work and his patient advice at a time when the burden of this undertaking almost overwhelmed me.

SRINAGAR. Ramadân, 1354 H. (December, 1935).

MUḤAMMAD ASAD.
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H. — Hijrī Era; C. — Christian Era; Tr. — Tradition; I, 12 — Chapter I, Note 12
I

HOW THE REVELATION BEGAN

vol. I. Part. I
THUS SAID IMAM 'ABD ALLAH MUHAMMAD IBN ISMA'IIL IBN IBRAHIM IBN AL-MUGHIRAH AL-BUKHARI:

IN THE NAME OF GOD, THE MOST GRACIOUS, THE DISPENSER OF GRACE.

I

HOW THE REVELATION TO THE APOSTLE OF GOD BEGAN

And the Word of God—glorified be His name—: “Behold, We revealed unto thee as we revealed unto Noah and the Prophets after him.”

HEARD the Apostle of God say: “Behold, the actions are but [judged] according to

1. This introductory remark originates from Abu 'Abd Allah Muhammad ibn Ma'zur al-Firabri, the disciple of Al-Bukhari responsible for the text we are using. He heard the "Sahih" twice from the lips of Al-Bukhari: once in his native town Firab in the year 248 H. and once in Bukhara in the year 252 H. (FB i, 2).

2. Al-Bukhari opens his collection of Traditions with this chapter because the belief in the reality of Divine Revelation and, consequently, the Prophethood of Muhammad is the main pillar of Islam. Revelation supplies an essential need of mankind. The human understanding is strictly limited in its possibilities: our mind is unable, by virtue of its nature, to understand the totality of things; our power of synthesis is restricted to elements provided by our experience. Thus, for example, we can't comprehend infinity or eternity; nay, we don't even know what life is. In order to arrange our spiritual and material existence according to standards of perfection we necessarily need the guidance of something more than the normal reasoning qualities and the subjective rationalism inherent in the human being; we need someone who is illuminated by a message coming from the Absolute, in one word, a Prophet. Indirectly, the belief in Prophethood is equivalent to a belief in the existence of a Divine purpose underlying the creation and maintenance of the worlds. The opening chapter describes not only the actual beginning of the revelation, but also the attitude of some of Muhammad's contemporaries (like Abu Sufyan and Heraclius) towards his prophetic mission.

3. Q. iv, 163.—This is to show that the Revelation granted to Muhammad was, in its essence and origin, similar to those granted to the former Prophets. The essentials were always the same; the Qur'an only modified the laws governing man's conduct in individual and social life. But, apart from the fact that the former Revelations have been corrupted and mutilated, they were, from the very outset, purposely either limited in their scope—as for example that of Jesus, which related to certain aspects of spiritual life alone while the bodily life was left in the background—or suited only to a certain time and certain people—as was the case with the Revelation of Moses. In such cases the limitation was prompted by the necessity of gradually preparing a world intellectually and morally not yet fully developed for the coming of a teaching more universal, more exhaustive in its co-ordination of the spiritual and the material elements of the human nature—the teaching of Islam.
the intentions; and, behold, unto every man is due but what he intended. Thence, whoso migrath for the sake of this world or to wed a woman, his migration is [accounted] for that unto which he migrated.

(2) ‘Abd Allâh ibn Yûsuf related to us, saying: Mâlik told us, on the authority of Hishâm ibn ‘Urwhah, on the authority of his father, on the authority of ‘A’ishah, Mother of the Faithful:

A L-HÂRITH ibn Hishâm asked the Apostle of God and said: “O Apostle of God, how doth the revelation come unto thee?”—And the Apostle of God said: “Sometimes it cometh unto me like the ringing of a bell—

4. The word hijrah (going forth, emigration) has several meanings in the Islamic shar'î'ah: one is the emigration of Muslims from a place of danger to a place of security, as in the case of the Companions of the Prophet who, in order to escape the persecutions of the Quraish, emigrated from Mecca to Abyssinia; another is the emigration from a place where unbelie夫 reigns to a place where it is possible to live according to the tenets of Islam, as in the case of the Companions who emigrated with the Prophet or after him from Mecca to Al-Madinah. As the latter entailed great hardships and the giving up of home and, in many cases, of family bonds for the sake of God and his Prophet, it was regarded as an action of great merit. It happened, however, that even in the lifetime of the Prophet some people emigrated from Mecca to Al-Madinah for the sake of worldly gains only, and particularly for the sake of an easy marriage (‘UQ i, 33 f.).

The Arabs in pre-Islamic times used to give their daughters in marriage to those only who could boast of a lineage not less noble than that of the girl. But when Islam proclaimed the principle of equality of all Muslims, many of the early Believers hastened to offer their daughters in marriage to other Muslims without regard of their descent. Several Meccans of lower classes took advantage of the facilities existing in the Muslim community of Al-Madinah, and to such ones refers this saying of the Prophet. But as the term hijrah often connotes a purely spiritual “emigration” from the domain of evil to that of righteousness (cf. Tr. 10), the above saying contains a general ethical principle far beyond the individual case or cases to which it originally referred.

5. It is significant that Al-Bukhâri placed this Tradition at the head of his compilation though it does not bear upon the subject of this chapter, viz., the beginning of revelation. He obviously did it in recognition of the fact that this saying of the Prophet expresses one of the fundamental ethical principles of religion and, moreover, touches a problem which has intrigued the philosophers of all times: the problem of Free Will. The idea of God’s omniscience presupposes that of a Divine pre-ordination of all events and, consequently, of human actions. The old question, how man can be held responsible for his actions though they have been pre-ordained by God’s Will, is answered in the above Tradition. Not his actions are decisive for man’s spiritual destiny, but his intentions (the intentions which immediately precede and accompany the action), and not those which have been abandoned or changed at the moment of action. Man’s intentions are an expression of the intricate psychic mechanism which we call soul. And, though frequently influenced by the various functions of the body, this soul is an independent, self-contained entity and stands in a direct, if inexplicable, relation to the Divine Will (amr, as it is called in the Qur’ân). It is with our souls alone that we can comprehend and feel the existence of God: and we never could comprehend it if His existence were foreign to us in its essential quality. Because of this intimate and exalted relation to God the human soul partakes in the Divine prerogative of freedom which is absent in all material complexes, be they things or events. Thus, if we are unfree in—and, therefore, in a higher sense, not responsible for—our actions owing to their material, created, character, we are free in our intentions, because they are of a spiritual, that is, primary or creative, quality—and, therefore, responsibility is attached to them—As to the word “intention” it may here be remarked that both in the Qur’ân and in the Traditions it is never used in the sense of a passing “wish,” but in that of a living impulse endowed with the quality of consciousness and directly related to the subsequent event, whatever shape the latter—being pre-ordained, and thus beyond the control of our free will—may ultimately take. This stress upon “intention” is certainly in line with the general trend of the Islamic teachings directed upon the development of inner wakefulness and consciousness in man.

6. ‘Urwhah ibn az-Zubair.

7. Title of honour given to the wives of the Prophet in the Qur’ân (xxiii, 6).

8. The expression “like the ringing of a bell” points to a peculiar disturbance of the Prophet’s sense of hearing.
and that is most hard on me; then it leaveth me, and indeed I retain in my memory what it said. And sometimes the angel assumeth the likeness of a man for me and speaketh unto me, and I retain in my memory what he saith.”

‘A’ishah said:

And, verily, I saw him whilst the revelation descended upon him on a day severe with cold; then it left him—and, behold, his brow was streaming with sweat.

(3) Yahyā ibn Bukair related to us, saying: Al-Laith related to us, on the authority of ‘Uqail, on the authority of Ibn Shihāb, on the authority of ‘Urwa ibn az-Zubair, on the authority of ‘A’ishah, Mother of the Faithful, who said:

**THE first** [kind] of revelation to which the Apostle of God was initiated was the true dream during sleep⁹; and he never saw a dream but it came like the dawn of the morn.¹⁰ Thereafter the solitude became dear unto him, and he withdrew into seclusion in the cave of Hira¹¹ and there applied himself to ardent devotions¹² when he was about to receive this kind of revelation. Similar to the chaotic maze of colours which we observe whenever our optical sense is violently disturbed—be it by a physical agency or by an overwhelming emotion,—the Prophet’s acoustic sensations were in such a case transformed into a maze of sounds without distinction, resembling the continuous buzzing or ringing of a bell. Shāh Wali Allah of Delhi was of the opinion (ST p. 6 f.) that this disturbance of the Prophet’s acoustic faculties was a means to isolate him, before the coming of the revelation, from the impressions of the outer world and so to enable him entirely to devote himself to the spiritual voice of the angel. This vehement change from the customary, that is, sensual, orientation to a purely spiritual one was necessarily full of anguish (“and that is most hard on me”). In the other cases, when the angel appeared “in the likeness of a man,” the medium of revelation was transferred from a purely spiritual plane to the orbit of human, sensual perceptions; and thus the receiving of the revelation was less excruciating. But, as this also taxed the Prophet’s power of concentration to the utmost, it never was quite free of anguish.—‘A’ishah’s subsequent description of the Prophet’s state during certain revelations obviously refers to the first kind.

9. The first of these prophetic dreams occurred in the month of Rabi‘ al-awwal in the year 13 B.H. (February, 610 C), when the Prophet had just completed his fortieth year (Al-Baihaqi, apud FB i, 21).

10. i.e., with the clearness of light after darkness.

11. A hill, with three miles north-east of Mecca, to-day known as Jabal Nūr (“Mount of Light”), because there the first verses of the Holy Qur’ān were revealed.

Many conjectures have been made as to the length of the Prophet’s retirement at Hira’, and whether it took place only once or on several occasions. IH (i, 150) states that there were several such times of seclusion, namely, “one month in every year.” But this is contradicted by the authentic Tradition (SM, Kitāb at-tafsīr) in which the Prophet distinctly declares that he remained one month (in all) at Hira‘. Moreover, it is evident from Tr. 3 of our work that Muḥammad’s love of solitude dated from the beginning of the prophetic dreams, the first of which, according to Al-Baihaqi (cf. I, 9) took place about 6 months before Gabriel’s appearance at Hira‘; so there can have been no question of his withdrawing into solitude “one month in every year.” We must, therefore, assume that he withdrew into the cave only once, and spent there about one month; this seclusion was interrupted by his short visits home for the sake of taking provisions.

12. It is somewhat difficult exactly to translate the term ṭāḥannūf. Ṭāḥannūf is derived from ḍanth, and means “avoidance of sin.” But as this does
Read! And thy Sustainer is the Most Bountiful! 16

And thus the Apostle of God returned, his heart trembling, and came unto Khadijah bint Khuwailid and said: “Wrap me up! Wrap me up!” 17 And they wrapped him up until the awe left him. Then he told Khadijah what happened and said unto her: “Verily, I fear for myself.” 18—Thereupon Khadijah said: “Nay, by God! Never will God humiliate thee! Behold, thou fulfillst the duties of kinship, and supportest the weak, and bringest gain to the destitute, and art bounteous toward a guest, and helpest those in genuine distress.”

Then Khadijah went with him unto Waraqah ibn Nafii al-‘Abd al-‘Uzza, a son of Khadijah’s uncle. He had embraced Islam. But whereas Jacob resisted, that almost nothing remains in him but the faculty of receptive qualities, his ability to listen to the voice of his innermost self and to himself the words of Divine Truth behind the perceptible things, was laid bare before him. He was endowed with nothing but the highest sensitiveness and power of exact registration. The primary duty of a Prophet, in contrast with that of any other spiritual leader, is not to produce images and ideas born in his own mind: it consists only in the reading out of the unseen book of Divine Truth and the reproducing of its meaning to mankind without additions or subtractions. In the word “Read!” which opened the first revelation to Muhammad this call to Perfect Prophethood is already fully expressed. The Law of God, the Eternal Truth behind the perceptible things, was laid bare before him, waiting to be understood by him in its innermost meaning. Thus it would be wrong to translate here “‘ura” by “recite”—though the Arabic language certainly permits it—because recitation implies the delivery before an audience of something committed to memory—and at the moment of the angel’s first appearance there was nothing as yet in the Prophet’s memory, and there was no audience. On the other hand, “reading” implies the conscious following and mental assimilation of words or ideas from an outside source; and this, without doubt, was the thing required from the Prophet. At first he was under the illusion of having been ordered to read actual script, and this, he knew, he could not do because he was illiterate. But when the angel concluded this Revelation, the Prophet understood, in sudden illumination, that he was ordered to recite the spiritual message of the Supreme Being and the magnitude of this task with all its implications of responsibility and self-sacrifice overwhelmed him and filled him with awe. 17

16. Q. xcvi, 1/3.—This beautiful story of the Prophet’s first encounter with the Angel of Revelation reminds us, in certain points, of Jacob’s wrestling with the angel as described in Genesis, Ch. 32. But whereas Jacob resisted, Muhammad surrendered himself entirely to the angel’s embrace: and here the highest quality of Prophethood is manifested. The perfect Prophet is he who, at the time of revelation, eliminates his own dynamic personality to such a degree that almost nothing remains in him but the faculty of reception. This probably is the most difficult task ever set before man. In the average human being the impetuosity of feelings, desires and nervous sensations overpowers and dims his purely receptive qualities, his ability to listen to the voice within him or from above him. To be a Prophet means no more and no less than to be full and empty at one and the same time: a human being filled with the consciousness of his life and the natural impulses of action and self-assertion—and, at the same time, a passive, purely receptive instrument endowed with nothing but the highest sensitiveness and power of exact registration. The primary duty of a Prophet, in contrast with that of any other spiritual leader, is not to produce images and ideas born in his own mind: it consists only in the reading out of the unseen book of Divine Truth and the reproducing of its meaning to mankind without additions or subtractions. In the word “Read!” which opened the first revelation to Muhammad this call to Perfect Prophethood is already fully expressed. The Law of God, the Eternal Truth behind the perceptible things, was laid bare before him, waiting to be understood by him in its innermost meaning. Thus it would be wrong to translate here “‘ura” by “recite”—though the Arabic language certainly permits it—because recitation implies the delivery before an audience of something committed to memory—and at the moment of the angel’s first appearance there was nothing as yet in the Prophet’s memory, and there was no audience. On the other hand, “reading” implies the conscious following and mental assimilation of words or ideas from an outside source; and this, without doubt, was the thing required from the Prophet. At first he was under the illusion of having been ordered to read actual script, and this, he knew, he could not do because he was illiterate. But when the angel concluded this Revelation, the Prophet understood, in sudden illumination, that he was ordered to recite the spiritual message of the Supreme Being and the magnitude of this task with all its implications of responsibility and self-sacrifice overwhelmed him and filled him with awe.

17. Because he shivered from the excitement caused by the vision. The calming influence of a cover drawn over the whole body was known to the Arab hakanah (sing., kahan), or soothsayers, of pre-Islamic times, and it is very probable that its use by the Prophet led the heathen Quraish to the erroneous assumption that he belonged to the same class of visionaries.

18. The fear expressed by the Prophet had its origin in the noble humility of his soul: he thought himself unworthy of the exalted position of Prophethood. The explanation given by some of the commentators, that he was afraid of death or of having become insane, is purely hypothetical and, moreover, not corresponding with Khadijah’s answer to the Prophet: “… never will God humiliate thee,”—which means: “… never will God confer a task upon thee which thou art unable to perform.” The suggestion of other commentators, that he was afraid of persecution by his countrymen, is entirely without foundation. As it is evident from the subsequent talk between the Prophet and Waraqah ibn Nafii, the Prophet had no notion of a danger from that direction until Waraqah told him so.
—that is, worship\(^{13}\)—
during many nights ere he went home and
provided himself with food therefor; then he
would return unto Khadijah and provide
himself with food for a similar [number of
days]—until the truth\(^{14}\) came unto him whilst
he was in the cave of Hîrâ'; the angel came
unto him and said: “Read!”—He said: “I am
not of those who read.”\(^{15}\)

He said [in his narrative]: Then he
took me and pressed me until all strength
went out of me; thereupon he released me
and said: “Read!”—I said: “I am not of
those who read.” Then he took me and
pressed me again until all strength went
out of me; thereupon he released me and said:
“Read!”—And I said: “I am not of those
who read.” Then he took me and pressed
me a third time; thereupon he released me
and said: “Read in the name of thy Sustainer
Who hath created—created man from a clot!

not at all comply with the subsequent remark “that is, worship,” we must accept the second reading tahanfân as correct:
and it is, in fact, a well-known linguistic peculiarity of the Arabs that in their speech they often transform the consone
f into th. Now, the word tahanfân is not of Arabic origin, but probably derived from the Canaanite-Aramaic hanfâĐ which literally means “one who turns away.” In Syriac it was prominently used to describe one who turns away from
his religion, a renegade; so the Roman Emperor Julian the Apostate who gave up Christianity and reverted to the old
Roman faith is called, in Syrian-Christian manuscripts, Yûlûâna hanfâĐ; the same term often was applied to the Mani-
chaeans and Sabaeans, presumably owing to the fact that their religions contained Christian elements without fully sub-
scribing to the doctrines of the Christian Church. When the Arabs, in pre-Islamic times, adapted this word to their
language they used it in its original sense of “turning away,” namely, from idolatry and, subsequently, from every kind of
worldliness. Thence tahanfân came to denote the ardent devotions (mainly consisting of long vigils and prayers) of
the unitarian God-seekers who, consequently, were called hunafa' (sing., banif)—a designation which was to become
familiar to Muslims owing to its association, in the Qur'ân, with the name of Abraham. There it is almost synonymous
with “Unitarian.”

13. This comment originates from the famous tābî (i.e., “successor” of the Companions) Ibn Shihâb, one of the
narrators of the above Tradition.

14. “Truth” means revelation in wakeful state, as contrasted with that in dream. Some Traditions (e.g., \(\text{IH i,}
151\) ) report that the appearance of Gabriel at Hîrâ' was a dream-experience, like the Prophet’s former visions; but Al-
Bukhârî’s version, which admittedly is more reliable (and, moreover, supported by SM, Kitâb at-tafsîr), does not allow
of such an interpretation.

The appearance of Gabriel at Hîrâ' and, consequently, the first revelation of the Qur'ân, took place, according to all
authorities, during the month of Ramâdân, 13 B.H. (July or August, 610 C.), but there is no agreement as to the exact
date. If, as some commentators assume, the first revelation coincided with the lailat al-qadr (“Night of Destiny”), then
it would have been one of the last ten nights of Ramâdân, because the Prophet mentioned in other Traditions these ten
nights as those among which the lailat al-qadr is to be sought.

15. These words of the Prophet are sometimes translated as “What shall I read.” From the linguistic point of
view this interpretation is by no means impossible: the particle mîd can be used in an interrogative sense (“what”) as
well as in a negative (“not”). But almost all philological authorities (with the single exception of Al-Akhfash, apud
\(\text{UQ i, 67}\) ) are, for grammatical reasons, against this interpretation. The translation “I am not a reader” or “I am not of
those who read” appears, therefore, to be the correct one.
Christianity in the Time of Ignorance and wrote the Hebrew script, and did write in Hebrew out of the Gospel whatever God willed him to write; and he was an old man and had become blind. And Khadijah said unto him: "O uncle's son, hearken unto thy brother's son."—And Waraqah said unto him: "O my brother's son, what dost thou see?" Thereupon the Apostle of God told him what he had seen. And Waraqah said unto him: "That [was] the Angel of Revelation whom God sent down upon Moses. O, would that I were a youth! Would I were alive when thy people drive thee away!"—Then the Apostle of God said: "Why! Are they to drive me away?"—He said: "Yea. Never came a man with the like thou hast come with but was persecuted. And if thy day [of need] witnesseth me [alive], I shall help thee with a powerful help."—Thereafter Waraqah took no part [in these matters] until he died. And the revelation broke off.

(4) Ibn Shihab said: And Abū Salamah ibn 'Abd ar-Rahmān told me that Jābir ibn 'Abd Allāh al-Ansārī said:

19. "Time of Ignorance" (jāhilīyah) is the period before the announcement of Muḥammad's prophetic mission.
20. Waraqah was not in reality an uncle of the Prophet, though they belonged to the same branch of Quraish; but it is an Arab custom, prevalent even in these days, to address an old and respected man as "uncle"; hence Khadijah's expression "thy brother's son."
21. Most commentators agree that Waraqah died before the Prophet began preaching Islam in public, i.e., before the persecution by the Quraish started. Only Ibn Iṣḥaq (apud FB i, 21) mentions that Waraqah was present when Bīlāl was maltreated on account of his adherence to the Prophet; but as this account is contradicted by the evidence of Traditions in the compilations of both Al-Bukhārī and Muslim, it must be regarded as a historical mistake.
22. Between the first revelation mentioned in the above Tradition and the next one mentioned in the following account of Jābir ibn 'Abd Allāh a period of about three years elapsed during which the Prophet received no revelation. This period is called "the break in the revelation" (fatrat al-waḥthah). It was a time of deepest distress for the Prophet. The absence of revelation almost led him to believe that his first experience at Hira' was an illusion; and it was only due to Khadijah's undaunted faith in his prophetic mission that he did not entirely lose his courage.
23. Al-Bukhārī opens the isnad of this Tradition with the name of Ibn Shihāb az-Zuhri (who was not his contemporary) not because the links between him and the latter are missing, but because the line of narrators between Ibn Shihāb and the author is here the same as in Tr. 3. The particle "and" before Abū Salamah denotes that Ibn Shihāb az-Zuhri related this Tradition in conjunction with the foregoing one, as if he had said: "Urwah ibn az-Zubair (cf. isnad of Tr. 3) told me this and this, and Abū Salamah told me, in addition to this, the following." Therefore the author places the "corroboration" (maddā’ah) of both Traditions after Tr. 4 (see I, 25/26). It obviously was this peculiarity of the isnad which led some historians who were not Traditionists to the mistaken notion that the event related in Tr. 4 took place immediately after that related in Tr. 3, or even that both Traditions refer to one and the same event differently narrated. The wording of Tr. 4 ("whilst speaking of the break in the revelation") makes it clear beyond any possibility of doubt that the Prophet's second encounter with the angel Gabriel occurred at a much later time, namely, after the "break in the revelation" (cf. I, 22).
AND—while speaking of the break in the revelation—[the Prophet] said in his narrative: [Once,] whilst I walked, I heard a voice from heaven and I lifted my eyes—and there was the angel who had come unto me at Hírâ', sitting on a throne between heaven and earth. And he inspired me with awe, and I returned home and said: “Wrap me up! Wrap me up!” Then God, the Most High, sent down [the Revelation]: “O thou wrapped in a cloak! Arise and warn!” to His Words: “... and pollution shun!”—Thereupon the revelation became intensive and continuous.

‘Abd Allâh ibn Yûsuf and Abû Sâlih concurred with him⁴⁵; and Hilâl ibn Raddâd concurred with him,⁴⁶ [likewise] on the authority of Az-Zuhri. And Yûnus and Ma‘mar said “his shoulders.”⁴⁷

(5) Mûsâ ibn Ismâ‘il related to us, saying: Abû ‘Awânah related to us, saying: Mûsâ ibn Abî ‘A‘ishah related to us, saying: Sa‘îd ibn Jubair related to us, on the authority of Ibn ‘Abbâs, concerning the Word of the Most High: “Move not thy tongue with this to make haste with it.” [Ibn ‘Abbâs] said:

THE Apostle of God was severely affected by the revelation, and would move his lips.⁴⁸

And Ibn ‘Abbâs said: “I shall move them for thee in the same way as the Apostle of God would move them.” And Sa‘îd said: “I shall move them in the same way as I saw Ibn ‘Abbâs move them”—and he moved his lips.

Thereupon God, the Most High, sent down [the Revelation]: “Move not thy tongue...
with this to make haste with it. Behold, upon Us resteth the putting together there- of and the reciting thereof." 59

[Explaning, Ibn 'Abbās] said: "It is for Him to put it together in thy heart and [then] thou shalt recite it."

"And when We recite it thou [but] follow its recitation." 60

[In 'Abbās] said: "—and listen unto it and remain silent."

"Thereafter, behold, its manifestation resteth upon Us." 61

[In 'Abbās] said: ] "—thereafter, behold, it resteth upon Us to make thee recite it."

And after that, when Gabriel came unto him, the Apostle of God would listen, and when Gabriel departed the Prophet would recite it in the way [Gabriel] had recited it.


THE Apostle of God was the most generous of men; and he was more generous than ever during Ramaḍān, when Gabriel came unto him—and he would come unto him every night during Ramaḍān and impart the knowledge of the Qur’ān unto him;—then, indeed, the Apostle of God was more generous in [doing] good than the speeding wind. 63

(7) Abū l-Yamān al-Hakam ibn Nāfī related to us, saying: Shu‘aib told us, on the authority of Az-Zuhri, who said: ‘Ubayd Allāh ibn ‘Abd Allāh ibn ‘Urbah ibn Mas‘ud told me that ’Abd Allāh ibn ‘Abbās informed him that

...
ABU SUFYÂN ibn Ḥarb told him that Heraclius sent for him whilst he was in a small caravan of Quraish; they were trading in Syria during the truce which the Apostle of God had granted to Abū Sufyân and the heathen Quraish. Then they came unto him; and they were in Jerusalem [at that time]. Thereupon he called Abu Sufyân Ṣakhir ibn Ḥarb ibn Umayyah, father of Mu‘awiyah, the first Caliph of the dynasty of Banū Umayyah. Up to the conquest of Mecca by the Muslims, Abū Sufyân was one of the leaders of the heathen Quraish and bitterly opposed to the Prophet Muhammad. He, however, embraced Islam on the eve of the conquest of Mecca and was, from that time onward, a staunch supporter of the Muslim cause. He died at the age of 88 in Al-Madinah during the reign of the Caliph ‘Uthmān (IS viii, 70). At the time of the incident described in the above Tradition, Abū Sufyân was still an opponent of the Prophet.

35. Heraclius, Emperor of Byzantium (610-641 C.), was one of the most remarkable rulers of his period. Originally a general of the Byzantine armies, he usurped the throne by a coup d’état at a time when the Empire was near to destruction owing to defeaters suffered at the hands of their hereditary foes, the Persians. During the years that followed the Persians conquered Anatolia, Syria and Egypt, and threatened Constantinople itself. It was with the utmost exertion that Heraclius ultimately succeeded in stemming the tide and turning the balance of war in his favour. In 622 C. he defeated the Persians and drove them out of Asia Minor; and during the following years the Byzantines invaded Persian territories and put the enemy entirely on the defensive. In the beginning of December, 626, the Persian armies were completely routed and some weeks later their king Khusrū Parviz fled to his capital, to be murdered there by his own son in February, 628. Immediately afterwards a treaty of peace was concluded between Persia and Byzantium which restored the frontiers according to the status quo.

During the severe fight which shook both Empires to their foundations, the Emperor Heraclius made a vow that, if God would grant him a victory over the Persians, he would perform a pilgrimage on foot to Jerusalem. In fulfillment of this vow he set out from Hims, in Syria, in autumn, 628. On his reaching Jerusalem he received from his vassal, the Christian–Arab Prince of Ghassān, the first news of the appearance of the Prophet Muhammad in far-off Arabia.

The story of this message and Heraclius’ premonitions which preceded it are described in the first half of Ibn an-Naṣūr’s account, which the narrator Az-Zuhri (cf. insād), in disregard of the chronological order, places after the story of Abū Sufyân. In reality, the events described in the first part of Ibn an-Naṣūr’s story (that is, up to Heraclius’ words: “it is this people’s king that hath now appeared”) provided the first reason for the Emperor’s calling for Abū Sufyân and his questioning him about the new Prophet. The second part of Ibn an-Naṣūr’s story (Heraclius’ letter to his friend in Constantinople, the latter’s answer, and the subsequent discussion at Hims with the Byzantine chiefs) stands, in its chronological order, after Abū Sufyân’s story. In Tabari’s Tārikh al-kabir (in which, however, the last part of the story, as given by Ibn an-Naṣūr, is omitted) the chronological order is exactly preserved, and there we find the account how Heraclius, made nervous by the result of his astrological observations and the meeting with the Prophet’s messenger Dīyah, sent his officers to ransack Jerusalem for people from the Arab Peninsula, so that he might personally inquire from them about the truth of the Prophet’s appearance. As a result of this search Abū Sufyân was found and brought to the Emperor (Tabari, apud Muḥammad Riḍā, Muḥammad, p. 330).

This somewhat abstruse arrangement of the story has caused several historians to believe that it refers, from beginning to end, to one consequence of events. So e.g., Shibli Nu‘mān commits in his valuable Strat an-nabī (i, 342) the awkward mistake to denote as not authentic a Tradition quoted by Ahmad ibn Ḥanbal (MIH iv, 74) because it is mentioned there that Heraclius’ answer to the Prophet was read to him by Mu‘awiyah—and at the time of Abū Sufyân’s meeting the Emperor Heraclius (in the year 7 H.) Mu‘awiyah had not yet accepted Islam! Shibli’s objection is not valid because the said Tradition very distinctly refers to the Prophet’s second message which was dispatched through Dīyah from Tabuk in the year 9 H. (cf. I, 59), while Mu‘awiyah accepted Islam at the time of the conquest of Mecca, i.e., in the year 8 H.

36. This refers to the Truce of Ḥudaybiyyah, concluded in the month of Dhū ‘1-Qa‘dah, 6 H. (February, 628 C.) between the Prophet and the Quraish of Mecca.

37. Ibn ‘Abbās mentions here the name of Abū Sufyân not only because of his important role in the following story, but also because he was the most prominent leader of the Meccan Quraish before their acceptance of Islam.

38. Ilyā—i.e., the name used in the Arabic text—is an abbreviation of Aelia Capitolina, the official designation of Jerusalem at that period.
them to his council chamber; and around him were the great ones of Byzantium. Thereafter he called them and called his interpreter and said: “Which of you is by birth the nearest unto that man who claimeth to be a prophet?” And Abū Sufyan said [in his narrative to Ibn ‘Abbās]: I said: “I am the nearest of them by birth.”—Then [Heraclius] said: “Draw him nearer unto me and bring his companions nearer and let them stand behind him.” Thereafter he said to his interpreter: “Tell them: Behold, I am going to ask this one about that man; and if he lieth unto me, ye belie him.” [Abū Sufyan] said: And, by God, had it not been for shame that they would disclose my lie, indeed I would have lied about him.

Thereafter, the first he asked me was: “How is his descent amongst you?”—I said: “He is a man of birth amongst us.”—He said: “And did any of you ever say this saying before him?”—I said: “No.”—He said: “And was there a king amongst his forefathers?”—I said: “No.”—He said: “And do the noble ones of the people follow him or the poor amongst them?”—I said: “Rather the poor amongst them.”—He said: “Do they increase or decrease [in numbers]?”—I said: “Rather they increase.”—He said: “And doth any of them turn apostate out of disgust with his religion, after having embraced it?”—I said: “No.”—He said: “And ye suspect him of lying before he said what he said?”—I said: “No.”—He said: “And did he break his pledges?”—I said: “No. But we are at truce with him, and we do not know what he will do with it.”


39. viz., to abandon idolatry and to worship the One God.

40. Before his claim to Prophethood, Muhammad was renowned in Mecca for his truthfulness, and was called al-amin (“the trustworthy”). Nobody of the Quraysh doubted his veracity until he began propounding his doctrine of the Oneness of God which was opposed to the religious practices of the heathen Quraysh: but as soon as he did it the latter began to call him a liar.

41. Thus insinuating the possibility of treachery on the part of the Prophet.
[Abū Sufyān] said: And I could not not say a word with something [of a slight] in it save this one word.\(^{42}\)

He said: “Did ye fight him?” —I said: “Yea.”
—He said: “How, then, was your fight with him?” —I said: “The war between us and him is [up and down like] well-buckets: he wins from us and we win from him.” —He said: “What is it that he enjoineth upon you?”
—He said: “He saith: Worship God alone and associate naught with Him; and give up the sayings of your forefathers. And he enjoineth upon us prayer and truthfulness and purity and the duties of kinship.”

Thereupon he said to the interpreter: “Tell him: I asked thee about his descent—and thou saidst he is a man of birth amongst you; and so are the Apostles: they are sent from amongst the nobility of their people. And I asked thee whether any of you had said that saying [before]—and thou saidst, no; and I asked [unto myself]: ‘If anyone had said that saying before him, indeed I would say, the man followeth a saying that hath been said before him.’ And I asked thee whether there was a king amongst his forefathers—and thou saidst, no; and I said [unto myself]: ‘Had there been a king amongst his forefathers, I would say, he claimeth the kingdom of his forefather. And I asked thee whether ye suspected him of lying before he said what he said—and thou saidst, no; and indeed I know that he would not have withheld from lying unto men if he had lied unto God. And I asked thee whether the noble ones of the people followed him or the poor amongst them—and thou

\(^{42}\) In Ṭabari’s Ṭarrīkh al-kabīr (apud Muḥammad Riḍā, Muḥammad, p. 331 f.) we find an analogous Tradition, in which Abū Sufyān describes his futile efforts to influence the Emperor against the new Prophet. He particularly wished to minimise the personality of Muḥammad and the effect of his teachings on his countrymen. But the astute Emperor prevented him from displaying his own opinions and ordered him merely to answer the questions which were put to him. Thus, as is shown later on in this Tradition, Heraclius was able to form an independent opinion with regard to the Prophethood of Muḥammad. His eventual rejection of Islam was, as will be seen, due not to a doubt whether Muḥammad was a Prophet, but to worldly apprehensions.
saidst that the poor amongst them followed him; and these are the followers of the Apostles. And I asked thee whether they increase or decrease [in numbers]—and thou saidst that they increase; and such is the case with faith to the very end. And I asked thee whether any [of them] had turned apostate out of disgust with his religion, after having embraced it—and thou saidst, no; and such is the case with faith whenever its joy mergeth into the hearts. And I asked thee whether he breaketh his pledges—and thou saidst, no; and such [is the case with] the Apostles: they do not break their pledges. And I asked thee about the things he enjoineth upon you—and thou saidst that he enjoineth you to worship God and to associate naught with Him, and that he forbiddeth you the worship of idols and enjoineth upon you prayer and truthfulness and purity.

"Thence, if what thou sayest is true, he will take possession of the place where these two feet of mine stand!" And, indeed, I knew he was to appear, [though] I did not think he would be from amongst you. And if I but knew that I could be loyal unto him, indeed I would endeavour to meet him; and if I were with him, indeed I would wash his feet."
Thereafter he called for the letter which the Apostle of God had sent with Dihyāh who had transmitted it to Heraclius. Then he read it, and, behold, this was in it: “In the name of God, the Most Gracious, the Dispenser of Grace. From Muhammad, God’s slave and Apostle, unto Heraclius, the Chief of Byzantium. Peace be upon whose followeth the right guidance. And thereupon: Behold, I call upon thee with the call of Islam. Accept Islam, and thou shalt be saved; God will give thee thy reward twofold. And if thou wilt turn away, then, indeed, upon thee be the disgrace of the humble folk. ‘O People of the Scripture! Come unto the word that we and ye have in common: that we shall worship none but God and associate naught with Him; and that we shall not take one another for lords instead of God. And if they turn away, then say: Bear witness that we [are they who] submit [unto God].”

anticipated—and the events related at the end of Ibn an-Nāṭūr’s story confirm his anticipation—that, as the public opinion in the Byzantine Empire was fanatically opposed to everything which was not professedly Christian, it would be impossible for him to change his religion and to follow Muhammad without losing his throne. Ultimately, as will be seen, this consideration prevailed upon his better intentions.

47. Dihyāh ibn Khalifah al-Kalbi, a Companion of the Prophet who often acted for the latter as a confidential messenger. The letter of which he was the bearer was dispatched by the Prophet in the last month of the year 6 H., immediately after his return from Hudaibiyah. Dihyāh was ordered first to proceed to Al-Farāth ibn abi Shamr, the Christian-Arab king of Ghassān (see following Note), and then to Heraclius. He did so, and on his arrival at Busra, where the King of Ghassān had his residence, the latter deputed ‘Adi ibn Ḥātim, a Christian Arab, to accompany him on his further journey. The two reached Jerusalem in the month of Muḥarram, 7 H. (628 C.), and were immediately introduced to the Emperor (Muḥammad Rida, Muhammed, p. 330).

48. A town in the district of Hawrān in southern Syria, to-day known as Bostra. It was the northernmost point which the Prophet, as a boy, reached during his Syrian journey in the company of his uncle Abū Ṭalib; and it was the first town in Syria conquered by the Muslims under Khalid ibn al-Walid in the year 13 H. (634 C.). Its rulers were the Banū Ghassān, an Arab dynasty professing Christian and famous for their patronage of Arab poetry. They were under the suzerainty of the Byzantine Emperors and were pledged to defend the frontiers of the Empire against the Persians and their vassals, the Arab rulers of Al-Ḥira in the ‘Iraq. When the Persians under Khusrū Parviz conquered Syria (613-614), the Banū Ghassān were driven out of their country, but were restored to power in 628, after Heraclius’ decisive victory over the Persians (cf. I, 35).

49. i.e., “on account of thyself as also of thy followers whom thy example will induce to embrace Islam.”

50. Al-qurṣān, the word used in the text, is not Arabic but probably of Greek origin; at that time it was already incorporated into the Syrian-Arab border language. It literally means “peasants” (‘UQ i, 100 f.). The humble folk, as a rule, blindly follow their leaders; the Prophet intended to say that, if Heraclius were to reject the True Religion, his followers would do the same and, in consequence, be disgraced before God. Thus Heraclius’ guilt would be twofold.

51. “People of the Scripture” are those who recognise Revealed Books; in the usage of the Qur’ān it always refers to Jews and Christians.

52. The second part of the letter is a quotation from the Qur’ān (iii, 64). FB (i, 34) mentions some not very reliable accounts, according to which Heraclius placed the Prophet’s letter in a golden casket and treated it ever afterwards
Abū Sufyān [further] said: Thereupon, when [Heraclius] said what he said and finished the reading of the letter, the uproar became great in his presence and the voices grew loud, and we left. And when we left, I said unto my friends: “Verily, the cause of Abū Kabshah’s son hath prevailed; behold, the king of Banū ’l-Asfar is afraid of him.” And I remained convinced that we would emerge victorious, till [at the end] God infused Islam into me.

And Ibn an-Nāṭūr, the governor of Jerusalem and friend of Heraclius, was a bishop of the Christians of Syria. He relateth:

WHEN Heraclius came to Jerusalem, one morning he rose worried in his soul; then some of his priests said unto him: “Indeed, we are astonished at thy countenance.”

Ibn an-Nāṭūr [further] said: And Heraclius was a seer who observed the stars. And when they asked him, he said unto them: “Behold, last night, when I observed the stars, I saw that the King of...”

with the greatest respect. The same sources affirm that the casket and its contents were handed down from every Byzantine Emperor to his successor until they came (it is not said how) into the possession of the Christian kings of Spain. After that every trace of the letter is lost.

53. Some commentators think that Abū Kabshah was the name of one of the Prophet’s ancestors, and that Abū Sufyān, by calling him “Abū Kabshah’s son,” was merely following the old Arab custom of using the name of a remote ancestor as a patronymic. But this seems to be a mere conjecture, as there is no conclusive historical evidence of any person of that name among the Prophet’s ancestors, either on the paternal or on the maternal side. Moreover, it is quite apparent that Abū Sufyān, who at that time was most bitterly opposed to the Prophet, used this name in a derisive sense. This induced other commentators to believe that Abū Kabshah was a nickname of Al-Ḥārit ibn ‘Abd al-Uzza, the husband of Ḥalimah the Prophet’s nurse; and that it was used by the heathen Quraish in order to throw a slight upon the Prophet, as his father ‘Abd Allah belonged to the aristocracy of Quraish, while Al-Ḥārit was a simple Bedouin of the Banū Sa‘d tribe. But a far more convincing explanation is furnished by Ibn Qutaibah, Al-Khaṭṭābī and Ad-Dāraquṭnī (apud FB i, 30). They mention a man of the tribe Khuzā‘ah who, long before the advent of Muḥammad, challenged the Quraish on account of their idolatry. He was a star-worshipper, and his name, according to Az-Zubair, was Abū Kabshah Wajz ibn ‘Amir ibn Ghālib. Thus the name “Abū Kabshah’s son” seems to have been given by the Quraish to the Prophet in derision of his efforts to efface idolatry.

54. “Sons of the Yellow one”—a nickname given by the Arabs to the Byzantines owing to their fair complexion (Ugh i, 274).

55. This part of the Tradition does not belong to Abū Sufyān’s narrative. Its narrator is Ibn an-Nāṭūr. According to Abū Nu‘aim (Dala‘īl an-nabuwah, apud FB i, 31), Az-Zuhri heard it directly from the lips of Ibn an-Nāṭūr whom he met at Damascus in the period of ‘Abd al-Malik ibn Marwân; at that time he had already embraced Islam.—As already explained (I, 35), the first part of Ibn an-Nāṭūr’s story chronologically precedes that of Abū Sufyān.

56. The Arabic word șālib has several meanings: if used in association with another person it means “friend” or “companion,” while in connection with a country or town it stands for “ruler” or “governor.”
Circumcision hath now appeared. Who, then, circumciseth from amongst this nation? —They said: "Nobody circumciseth but the Jews; and their existence may not bother thee. Write unto the cities of thy kingdom, and they will kill whoso there is of the Jews."

Thereupon, whilst they were thus occupied, there came unto Heraclius a man whom the king of Ghassân had sent to inform [the Emperor] about the Apostle of God. Then, when he had heard his tale, Heraclius said: "Go and see whether he is circumcised or not." Then they looked at him and reported him to be circumcised. And [Heraclius] asked him about the Arabs; thereupon he said: "They circumcise."—Then Heraclius said: "It is this people's king that hath now appeared!"

Thereafter Heraclius wrote unto a friend of his at Constantinople who was his equal in knowledge. And Heraclius proceeded toward Himṣ; and ere he reached Himṣ there came unto him a letter from his friend in which he agreed with the view of Heraclius regarding the appearance of the Prophet and that [indeed] he was a Prophet.

Thereupon Heraclius invited the great men of Byzantium into his castle at Himṣ. Then he gave an order concerning its doors, and they were locked; then he rose and said: "O ye people of Byzantium! Do ye care for...

57. Heraclius was perturbed because he read in the appearance of the "King of Circumcision" a danger for himself.
58. In this version it would appear as if 'Adi ibn Ḥātim, the messenger of the king of Ghassân (cf. I, 47), had come to Heraclius alone, and as if the subsequent incident related to him. But in another version of the same Tradition (cf. I, 35) it is distinctly stated that "there came the messenger of the Ruler of Buṣrâ together with a man of the Arabs"—who, obviously, was no other than Dihyah al-Kalb, the bearer of the Prophet's letter to Heraclius. As is quite evident from that version, Heraclius' question about circumcision was addressed to him; but as he was himself a follower of the Prophet his answer did not satisfy the Emperor, and he sent for Abû Sufyân in order to obtain the evidence of one who could not be supposed to be prejudiced in favour of the Prophet.
59. The expression thumma ("thereafter") does not mean that the events related in this part of Ibn an-Natûr's story happened immediately after those previously related. As has been explained in I, 35, the first part of Ibn an-Natûr's story chronologically precedes that of Abû Sufyân. From the word thumma onward the narrative refers to a considerably later time. During the expedition of Tabûk (Rajab, 9 H.—September/October, 630 C.) the Prophet sent another message to Heraclius in which he gave him to choose between three possibilities: acceptance of Islam, payment of jizvah, or fight. On this occasion, as before, Dihyah ibn Khalifah was the Prophet's messenger (MIH iv, 74; FB i, 33).
salvation and wisdom, and that your kingdom be confirmed? Then ye will vow allegiance unto that Prophet. Then they hurried to the doors with the hurry of wild asses, and found them locked. And when Heraclius saw their repugnance and despaired of [the possibility of accepting] the faith, he said: “Bring them back unto me!” And he said: “Behold, I said these words of mine now so that I might try therewith your ardour with regard to your religion; and now I have seen.” Then they prostrated themselves before him and were pleased with him. And this was the last of Heraclius [regarding this matter].

60. In another Tradition referring to the same incident (MIH iv, 74) it is told that Heraclius put before his councillors the Prophet’s alternative: to accept Islam, to pay a tribute, or to fight (I, 59). They vehemently opposed the first two possibilities and decided to fight.

61. Ibn Ḥajar al-Asqalānī (FB i, 33) erroneously assumes that this means “so far as the narrator (Ibn an-Nāṭūr) knew.” He obviously confuses the events related above with those narrated by Abū Sufyān; this is evident from his (Ibn Ḥajar’s) subsequent remark that after this occurrence other letters were exchanged between the Prophet and Heraclius. But, as has been already explained (I, 35, 59), this part of Ibn an-Nāṭūr’s story refers to the Prophet’s second message, from Tabuk,—and after that, in fact, all relations between the Prophet and Heraclius ceased, which fully justifies Ibn an-Nāṭūr’s remark: “And this was the last of Heraclius (regarding this matter).”

It seems, however, that Heraclius never got the better of his uneasy feelings as regards Islam. From the very beginning of the fight between the Muslims and the Byzantine Empire, which fell in the later part of Heraclius’ reign, he, who during his whole previous life always personally led his armies, remained conspicuously absent from the scene of war. In his last years he was continuously tormented by abstract fears and premonitions and died, broken in body and in spirit, in February, 641 (cf. Vasiliev, History of the Byzantine Empire; Diehl, Byzance, Grandeur et Décadence; Stein, Studien zur Geschichte des byzantinischen Reiches).

62. This refers to similar versions of the same Tradition which Al-Bukhārī brings in other chapters of his work (cf. Synopsis).
SYNOPSIS OF “HOW THE REVELATION BEGAN”

SEVEN TRADITIONS

Quoted, in full or in part, in the following compilations:

(K. stands for “Kitāb”; A. for “Abwāb”)

| Tr. 1: | SB | Bad’al-wahī, K. al-imān, K. al-’itq, Hijrat an-nabi, K. an-nikāh, K. al-imān wa ’n-nudhūr, K. al-ḥiyal |
|       | SM | K. al-ḥijād |
|       | N  | K. al-imān, K. at-ṭāhārah, K. al-’itāq, K. at-ṭalāq |
|       | T  | A. al-ḥudūd |
|       | AD | K. at-ṭalāq |
|       | IM | A. az-zuhd |
|       | MIH| 2, 25 |

| Tr. 2: | SB | Bad’al-wahī, K. bad’al-khalq |
|       | SM | K. al-faḍā’il |

| Tr. 3: | SB | Bad’al-wahī, K. at-tafsīr, K. at-ṭabī’ir |
|       | SM | K. al-imān |
|       | N  | K. at-tafsīr |
|       | T  | A. at-tafsīr |

| Tr. 4: | SB | Bad’al-wahī, K. at-tafsīr. |
|       | SM | K. al-imān |

| Tr. 5: | SB | Bad’al-wahī, K. at-tafsīr, K. faḍā’il al-Qur’ān |
|       | SM | K. aṣ-ṣalāḥ |
|       | T  | A. at-tafsīr |

|       | SM | K. faḍā’il an-nabi |

|       | SM | K. al-magḥāzi |
|       | N  | K. at-tafsīr |
|       | T  | A. al-isti’dhān |
|       | AD | K. al-adab |

This chapter on Revelation was conceived by Al-Bukhārī as a sort of Introduction to his work; and for this reason he did not divide it in sections like the other chapters.

In Arabic, wahī (revelation) means a communication from without, which, to the exclusion of all others, the receiver alone can perceive (A). According to some authorities, this communication, whether by words, sounds or signs, must be rapid (Rgh). In the theological usage it denotes a direct or indirect message from God to a Prophet, that is, a revelation. Sometimes this word stands also for the contents of that message or revelation. (This is indicated, in the translation, by the use of a capital R.) The difference between wahī (revelation), which is restricted to Prophets only, and ilhām (inspiration), which is shared alike by Prophets and other persons of a high degree of spiritual realisation, consists in the fact that ilhām invariably appears as the product of one’s own spiritual activity, a sort of illumination from within, which possibly is the result of the working of the subconscious mind, suddenly emerging into consciousness; while wahī has always the character of a message from an outside source. Thus, the verses of the Qur’ān were revealed; while the personal sayings and doings of the Prophet, which are the subject-matter of the Traditions, were inspired, the only exceptions being the “Sacred Traditions” (al-aḥādīth al-qudsiyah), in which the Prophet repeats Words of God received through revelation, but not forming part of the Qur’ān. As inspiration depends on spiritual activity alone, it can be experienced by everyone who purifies his mind and attains to a high degree of psychical sensitiveness; but revelation depends on an outside factor, that is, a Divine communication, and is, therefore, beyond the pale of human endeavour as such.
The first Tradition of this chapter contains the fundamental principle of Islam: “Actions are judged according to intentions.” Whatever man does with a good intention and for the sake of God alone, will be judged by Him according to the intention which prompted the action. This Tradition discountenances intolerance and lack of charity in spiritual matters. A good intention will always have its value, whatever its overt result may be; and thus sincere search after truth will be rewarded as such, even if one errs in the methods chosen for its attainment.

Of the remaining six Traditions only two (3 and 4) directly refer to the beginning of Muṣṭafā’s revelation; three (2, 5 and 6) deal with the Prophet’s reaction to revelations; and the last (7) describes the reactions of his opponents towards his claim to Prophethood.

Another very important point in Tr. 7 must be mentioned here. In the Prophet’s letter to Heraclius occurs the sentence: “...and that we shall not take one another for lords instead of God.” The word arbaḍ (here translated as “lords”) is the plural form of raḥb which, if used with reference to God, means “Sustainer”; while with reference to a human being it denotes one who protects and directs those who depend on him. This latter meaning applies also to the spiritual leaders of a community, because it is they who lay down rules of conduct and morality. For a Believer, the supreme moral leadership is vested in God; therefore, the right leader can only be he who acts as an interpreter of the Divine Commandments. If he deviates from this principle and gives commandments contradictory to those of God, he usurps—in practice if not in theory—the status of the supreme law-giver; and those who follow him make him a “lord instead of God.” The spiritual leaders of the “People of Scripture” (Jews and Christians) of that epoch used to corrupt the teachings of the former Prophets and thus led people astray. The Qur’ān-verse, of which the sentence above is an extract, demands that the Word of God should be regarded as the final criterion of our beliefs and actions. The teachings of learned men and spiritual leaders should never be accepted blindly, but should always be subjected to the test of the Word of God. But if this verse is addressed to the “People of the Scripture” it nevertheless applies to Muslims as well. It is true, in their case the original Revelation has not been corrupted, or mutilated in the same sense as the older Revealed Books: the text of the Qur’ān and the records of the Prophet’s Sunnah still remain intact; but they have been so overloaded with imaginary and sometimes quite misleading interpretations that the average Muslim can only with difficulty find his way through this maze. Most of the spiritual miseries and social difficulties of the present-day Muslim World could have been avoided if only our ancestors had always understood that it is the Word of God and the Sunnah of His Prophet to which we must intelligently and ultimately look for guidance; instead, they have denied themselves the right of thinking which God has conceded to them, they have ceased to make use of their own judgment in matters religious and submitted with blind awe to the sound of great names of the past. However great those great men were, they were but human and liable to errors of judgment. To regard them as infallible is to divest them of a very human characteristic and almost to elevate them to “lords instead of God.”

All the seven Traditions of this chapter give us very instructive glimpses of the Prophet’s moral character. We see before us a man, earnest and upright by nature, burdened with the tremendous weight of a world-wide mission, at first almost succumbing under this weight, then, as time wears on, gaining in strength and breadth of purpose, until he outshines all other men, in his greatness and clearness and simplicity.
II

THE BOOK OF FAITH
In the Name of God, the Most Gracious, the Dispenser of Grace.

II

The Book of Faith

—and it is word and deed, and it increaseth and decreaseth.

1. i.e., faith.

2. From the linguistic point of view, imān is derived from the root amn (security); it denotes security from fear or rest of mind (Rgh.; A)—and thence, in the theological sense, the faith in God and the sincere acceptance of the Islamic shari‘ah (Q). The theological definition of faith and the question, whether it increases and decreases with the circumstances, or is a stationary force in the human soul, has for centuries been the focus of hot controversies among the Muslim thinkers. Among the numberless conflicting opinions we easily can discern four main groups of thought which define āqīd as follows:

(a) Belief in heart (‘aqīd bil-qalb) only. This belief implies, according to some exponents of the Ash‘ari and Māturīdī schools of thought, the acknowledgment (taṣdiq) of the existence of God and the fact that He has sent Prophets, of whom Muhammad is the last, to guide mankind according to His Will. Those attributes of God which are not clearly expressed in the Qur‘ān and the Sunnah are not an object of āqīd and, therefore, the belief in them is open to individual conceptions and not an indispensable condition of salvation. The Jahmiyyah school of thought (so called after Jahm ibn Safwān, a theologian who lived towards the end of the Umayyad period) reduces the conception of ‘aqīd bil-qalb to a mere platonic knowledge of God gained by reason.

(b) The saying “There is no deity but God, and Muhammad is the Apostle of God.” According to Ghailān ibn Muslim ad-Dimashqī, Faḍl ar-Raqāqāsh, and others, the above saying (which for them is equivalent to āqīd) must be based upon cognition of God in heart, but this cognition does not form part of faith. The Karrāmīyāh went even further and declared that no such cognition is necessary at all, and that all requirements of āqīd are fulfilled with the pronunciation of the formula of faith. They obviously confused āqīd with islām in its narrowest, formal sense.

(c) Belief in heart (‘aqīd bil-qalb) together with an oral profession of this belief (shahādah bil-lisān). This position is held by Imām Abū ʿAbd Allāh al-ʿAbbasī, Imām Abū ʿAbd Allāh al-ʿAbbasī, Imām Abū ʿAbd Allāh al-ʿAbbasī, and others. According to them, faith essentially is the acknowledgment (taṣdiq) of Truth, and as such it neither can increase nor decrease; it is stationary because of the element of certainty conditional to acknowledgment; a certainty capable of increasing or decreasing is no certainty at all. Thus, the status of a Faithful (muḥāsin) is the result of intellectual conviction plus its profession. Good or bad actions may increase or decrease the individual merits of man, but they have no direct influence upon his āqīd.—The idea that faith is formally independent of actions, whether right or wrong, has been developed to its extreme by the Murjī‘ah, who declared that belief and its oral profession are sufficient for the attainment of salvation, and that the latter can be achieved even if the individual intentionally violates all Divine Commandments. This antinomian view, commonly regarded as heretic by all orthodox Muslim schools of thought, is, together with that of the Jahmiyyah mentioned in the first group, the intellectual forerunner of a form of Sufism known as be-shar’ (i.e., not submitting to the law of shari‘ah) which, during the third century after the Hijrah, found its culminating point in the ecstatic pantheism of Mansūr Al-Ḥallāj. The Murjī‘ah, as well as the Jahmiyyah, have long since ceased to exert a noticeable influence on Muslim theology.

(d) Belief in heart (‘iqyād bil-qalb) together with its outward profession (shahādah bil-lisān) and the full submission (inṣiyād) to the commandments of God and His Prophet. The last mentioned element of āqīd so defined varies in intensity according to man’s actions—and, therefore, āqīd, of which inṣiyād is a part, is eo ipso capable of increasing and decreasing. Mental acknowledgment is but a part of the composite entity which we call faith; the right actions (al-ʿamāl as-salihāh), in which the submission to the Divine Will finds its expression, are not a condition of faith as such, but a condition of its completeness or perfection. By performing right actions, man strengthens his faith; correspondingly, he weakens it by omitting good actions or committing wrong ones. But even apart from actions faith can increase or decrease with man’s capability of approaching the true meaning of God’s attributes, and of adapting his attitude of mind, his likes and dislikes, to the requirements of the Divine Law. This school of thought is represented by most of the Companions of the Prophet, the asḥab al-ḥadīth, the Imāms Mālik, Shafi‘i, Ahmad ibn Ḥanbal, Al-Awzā‘i, Al-Bukhārī, and other learned men of lesser degree. (Note continued on next page.)
From this outline of the different theological conceptions of imdān it appears that the dissensions between the various Muslim schools of thought, so far as this problem is concerned, were actuated by two main points: firstly, whether imdān is a purely spiritual matter or is composed of external elements as well, and, secondly, whether it is stationary or changing.

As regards the first problem, the overwhelming majority of Muslim theologians, supported by arguments from the Qur’ān and the Sunnah, identify themselves with either of the groups mentioned under (c) and (d)—that is, with the idea that faith is composed both of spiritual elements (belief, knowledge, etc.) and their outward manifestation (profession of the formula of faith in one case, and profession plus actions in the other). In this respect, the difference between the theologians of the group (c), e.g., Imām Abū Ḥanīfah, and those of the group (d), to whom Imām Al-Bukhārī belongs, consists only in the question whether right actions are an integral part of faith or not. This difference is merely a formal one. Those in group (d) assert that right actions are a part of faith, and indispensable for its completeness, but not for its reality—that is, if a man does not perform right actions he does not cease to be a Faithful (provided his belief and its profession comply with the requirements of the shari‘ah), but his faith is not perfect; while the theologians of group (c) do not regard right actions as indispensable for the completeness of faith in itself, but, nevertheless, as an important factor in man’s endeavour to attain full salvation in the Hereafter. Thus, according to both schools of thought, right actions (or intentions, as has been made clear in the first Tradition of this work) are decisive factors in the ultimate shaping of man’s spiritual destiny. The too subtle differentiations between actions as “part” or “supplement” of faith belong to the rather antiquated philosophical armoury of Neo-Platonism, and have long since lost all attraction for the modern mind. If we free ourselves from the word-play of the mutakallimūn (scholastic theologians)—and it is high time for Muslims to do so—we at once realise that, so far as the question of the composition of faith is concerned, there is little difference between the views enumerated under (c) and (d).

There is, however, a difference in the second part of the problem—that relating to the question whether individual faith can increase and decrease.

If we take faith in the sense of mental acknowledgment (tasdiq) with the necessary element of full certainty in it, as, e.g., Imām Abū Ḥanīfah does, it is clear that it can neither increase nor decrease: it is simply existent or non-existent. But this, it seems, is too narrow a conception of the spiritual phenomenon, “faith,” because it limits it to a mere intellectual function. In reality, faith is an extremely complex entity. It is not simply an attitude of mind based on conviction or reasoning alone, but rather an inner movement, a sum total of many spiritual forces and currents which—as in every other movement, spiritual or material—almost permanently vary in their intensity, even if their basis, the intellectual acknowledgment of a truth (that is, belief), remains unchanged. Modern psychological research has brought forward many interesting evidences of this fact which, moreover, finds its expression in the Qur’ān itself. There we often find the word hudā (guidance) substituted for imdān; and spiritual “guidance” is certainly a very complicated phenomenon. Its coming into existence depends on many widely different factors. To mention only a few: time and occasion; the intellectual status of the man concerned; his previous experiences; his physical condition; the influence of his social surroundings, etc. Thus, “guidance” is not simply a one-sided Divine function from without the individual but a play of many forces and influences, actions and reactions—in one word, a movement like that implied in the term “faith” for which it is substituted. Faith and guidance are essentially dynamic. The dynamic quality inherent in faith makes for the actual difference between faith and belief. Belief, as defined above, has (as long as it exists) the same degree of intensity; while faith, which is based on belief—but no more identical with the latter than a house is identical with its foundations—is subject to increase and decrease.

This conception (gained, perhaps, by methods of reasoning somewhat different from our present ones) is the foundation on which Al-Bukhārī builds his compilation of The Book of Faith. The arrangement of Traditions and the explanations which he has added to different sections of this chapter tend to prove that the Prophet himself conceived imdān as a fluctuating, complex phenomenon; and there is hardly a doubt left that Al-Bukhārī has succeeded in his task. The increase and decrease of faith (not to be taken in the sense of quantity, but that of intensity) is a psychological fact which cannot be seriously denied; and its practical importance lies in the enhancement of actions as one of the determining factors not only of man’s status in the Hereafter, but also of his status as a Faithful (mu’min) in the life of this world. This is entirely in keeping with the general philosophy of Islam which calls upon man to exert his active qualities to the utmost.

Beyond this, the dialectical differences about faith of the early mutakallimūn have only a historical value. They merely represent a stage in the development of Muslim thought, and should not be taken as final verdicts on a problem which is bound, as our psychological knowledge progresses, to reveal new depths and radiations. Instead of passively relying on the intellectual labours, however valuable, of the past generations, the Muslims must again learn to apply their own powers of reasoning to the philosophical problems of Islam.—

It is evident from Al-Bukhārī’s definition of faith as composed of “word and deed” that in the term “deed” he comprises external right actions (al-a’mal qaṣāliḥah) as well as the action in the heart (amal bil-qalb), that is, belief. This idea he again and again re-iterates in the headings of various sections of this chapter.

In the following he quotes verses of the Qur’ān, a Tradition of the Prophet, and various sayings of Companions and tab‘ūn in support of his view that right actions are a part of faith, and that it increases and decreases.
And God, the Most High, said: "... that they may add more faith to their faith."—"And We increased them in guidance."—"And God increaseth in guidance those who have followed the guidance."—"And as for those who have followed the guidance, He increased them in guidance and granted them their fear of God."—"... and that those who have faith may increase in faith."—"And His Word: "Which of you hath this (sūrah) increased in faith?—As for those who have faith, it hath increased them in faith,"—"And the Word of the Most High: "... therefore fear them!—but it increased them in faith."—"And the Word of the Most High: "It did but increase them in faith and submission (unto God)." 10

And "love for the sake of God and hatred for the sake of God" are (part) of the faith.11

And ‘Umar ibn ‘Abd al-‘Azīz wrote unto ‘Adi ibn ‘Adi: "Behold, unto the faith belong duties and beliefs and the (avoiding of) things forbidden and the (doing of) things done or ordered by the Prophet. And whoso hath accomplished these (conditions) hath accomplished the faith; and whoso hath not accomplished them hath not accomplished the faith. And if I remain alive, I will show them unto you until ye act upon them; and if I die, I shall not be desirous of your companionship." And Abraham said: "... but that my heart be at ease."16

3. Q. xlviii, 4.
4. vs. xviii, 13.—As to the use of the word hudad (guidance) instead of imān, see II, 2.
5. s. xix, 76.
6. vs. xlvi, 17.
7. lxxiv, 31.
8. s. ix, 124.
9. s. iii, 173.
10. s. xxxiii, 22.
11. This is a fragment from an authentic Tradition (quoted in AD, Kithāb al-imān, on the authority of Abū Dharr), which runs as follows: "The most excellent of actions are love for the sake of God and hatred for the sake of God." Al-Bukhārī did not incorporate it in his own compilation because he did not hear it directly from any of the transmitters. Here he intends to show that "actions" do not necessarily consist in external manifestations, but may be "actions of the heart"—in another word, intentions—as well.
12. ‘Umar ibn ‘Abd al-‘Azīz ibn Marwān, Commander of the Faithful (99—101 H.) of the dynasty of Banū Umayyah, called ‘Umar the Second (after ‘Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb) owing to his great righteousness and piety. In the Muslim opinion he almost ranks with the Four Right-Guided Caliphs (Abū Bakr, ‘Umar, ‘Uthmān and ‘Ali) and is generally described as "the fifth of the Right-Guided Caliphs." His mother was Ḥafṣah bint ‘Āṣim, a granddaughter of ‘Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb. Once, before his accession to the Caliphate, he led the prayers and Anas ibn Mālik, the famous Companion of the Prophet, prayed behind him; thereafter Anas was reported to have said: "I never saw anyone who, in his prayers, resembled the Prophet more than this youth." (‘UQ i, 133). He was the first who thought of systematically collecting the Traditions of the Prophet which till then were preserved only in scattered notebooks and the memory of the tābi‘ān, and issued orders to that effect to all his governors. This collection, however, did not reach us. It either was never completed—‘Umar died after a short rule of two years and five months, and his successors did not share his religious zeal—or else it was lost shortly after his death.
13. ‘Adi ibn ‘Adi al-Kindī, a tābi‘ from the Ja‘zrah (Northern Mesopotamia) and its governor on behalf of ‘Umar ibn ‘Abd al-‘Azīz. The above is an extract of ‘Umar’s letter to him (quoted in the Kithāb al-imān by Ḥamd ibn Ḥanbal, apud FB i, 36), probably written in connection with the intended collection of the Prophet’s Traditions (see preceding Note).
14. i.e., by presenting to the Muslims a collection of the Prophet’s Traditions which would show the way Muṣṭafā himself understood and practised Islam.
15. Q. ii, 260. With this verse Al-Bukhārī conclusively proves that faith is capable of increasing. The Prophet Abraham who uttered these words, after having requested God to show him the raising of the dead to life, was not
And Mu'ādh said: "Sit down with us so that we may at once perform an act of faith." 16—And Ibn Mas'ūd said: "Certainty is the sum total of faith." 17—And Ibn 'Umar said: "Man doth not attain the true meaning of the fear of God until he dismisseth whatever doubt there is in [his] heart." 18

And Mujāhid said: "He hath ordained for you" 19—that is—"We have commended unto thee, o Muhammad, together with him 20 one and the same religion." 21

NOTE.—Here follows, in the original text, a saying of Ibn ‘Abbās; it has been omitted here because it exclusively bears on linguistic matters and is, therefore, not of general interest. The reader will find it, without translation, under No. 1 in Appendix A to this volume.

SECTION I

THE SAYING OF THE PROPHET: "ISLĀM IS BUILT UPON FIVE THINGS"

(8) 'Ubaid Allāh ibn Mūsā related to us, saying: Hanzalah ibn abī Sufyān told us, on the authority of 'Ikrimah ibn Khālid, on the authority of Ibn 'Umar, who said:

THE Apostle of God said: "Islam is built upon five things: the testimony that lacking in faith; but he knew that, if he were to witness resurrection with his own eyes, all possible doubts would be dispelled for ever. He believed that God had this power; the mental acknowledgment (taṣdiq) was already there. But his faith would become more intensive if he were allowed to obtain full certainty by witnessing it with his bodily eyes (‘ain al-yaqīn). This verse clearly shows that an occasional doubt does not destroy the reality of faith, but that it is not perfect until the last doubt is dispelled. Furthermore it clearly shows (though this is another subject) that even the Prophets are human and sometimes subject to weaknesses of the spirit like other mortals. The only difference between them and the rest of mankind is that they receive Divine Revelations which are a constant correcting factor in their lives (cf. II, 58).

16. The Arabic word used in the text is nu’mīn, literally: "that we may have faith." But Mu'ādh ibn Jabal al-Anṣāri, who said these words, was a famous Companion of the Prophet and, as his history proves, a man of firm faith. Anṣāri, who said these words, was a famous Companion of the Prophet and, as his history proves, a man of firm faith. His words, therefore, can only mean: "let us do a thing which will strengthen our faith."—or, as I have translated: "let us perform an act of faith." In both cases this saying indicates that faith can be strengthened by actions, and that right actions, in themselves, are a part and an expression of faith. The action alluded to was probably the reciting of the Qurʾān, dhikr, or the narrating of the Prophet’s Traditions. The person thus addressed was the tābī‘i Aswād ibn Hīlāl (Ibn abī Shaibah, Māṣūmah, apud ‘UQ i, 136).

17. The use of the words “sum total of faith” (al-imān kulluḥa) indicates that in the conception of the Companions (and this is the highest criterion after the Word of God and the Sunnah of the Prophet) faith is an entity composed of different parts, and certainty is not (as e.g. Imām Abū Ḥanīfah and Al-Ashʿarī assume) one of those parts, but their ultimate result.

18. Here again the idea is expressed that freedom of every kind of doubt represents the highest degree of faith, and that doubts, so long as they do not overwhelm the beliefs, are not absolutely incompatible with faith (cf. II, 15). This saying of 'Abd Allāh ibn 'Umar is supported by several Traditions of the Prophet which express similar ideas.

19. Reference to Q. xlii, 13: "He hath ordained for you that religion which He commended unto Noah.”

20. i.e., Noah.

21. In his endeavour further to define faith, Al-Bukhārí quotes the above Qurʾān—verse and its explanation by the tābī‘i Mujāhid to show that the religion of Muhammad is in its essentials identical with that of the former Prophets (cf. I. 3). He obviously regards din (religion or, more exactly, the entity of religious commandments) as identical with imān: he takes this term not only in its primary meaning “faith,” but also as denoting the object of faith, i.e., the contents of Divine Revelations. This reasoning of Al-Bukhārī is very unsatisfactory. As has been explained before (II, 2), imān is a spiritual function born in the human heart and then outwardly manifested; while din is the sum total of religious commandments, both spiritual and material, originating from an outside agency (the authority of God or His Prophet) and recognised by the Faithful as binding. It is imān which prompts man to submit to din; and, consequently, both cannot be identical.
there is no deity but God and that Muḥammad is the Apostle of God, and the observance of prayer, and the paying of the sacred tax, and the pilgrimage to Mecca, and the fast of Ramaḍān.”

22. A full explanation of this subject will be found in The Book of the Sacred Tax of this work.

23. This saying of the Prophet contains a fundamental definition of Islām; it is, by the way, one of the best authenticated of all existing Traditions. Al-Bukhārī brings it in The Book of Faith obviously for two reasons: firstly, because it contains a dogmatic declaration of the tenets of Islām, and, secondly, because for him (as well as for others of the early aḥāb al-hadīth) the term īmān is often equivalent to īmān. It must be borne in mind that this does not refer to the external form of Islām which consists in the oral testimony “there is no deity but God, and Muḥammad is the Apostle of God,” and which secures to the formal status of a Muslim in the society of Muslims, but refers to Islām in its innermost meaning, that is, sincere submission to God and His commandments for the love and fear of Him; in other words, Islām not in its relation to human society alone, but in its relation to God. Parallel to this conception of īmān and īmān, Al-Bukhārī sometimes uses the terms muslim and muʾmin as indicating one and the same thing (e.g., in Tr. 10). Whenever muslim is used in contrast to muʾmin (e.g., in the explanation of Section xviii and in the subsequent Tradition) it merely indicates the formal status obtained by the pronunciation of the formula of faith.

This presentation of the five principal tenets (arkān) of Islām has a deep meaning which has eluded many Muslim thinkers. It was not at random that the Prophet chose five from among the many tenets of Islām. These five prominent points exemplify the principal aspects of a right-guided life, and have thus been elevated, though each of them is real and self-contained, to symbols of the entire circle of human existence.

The centre of this circle is the idea of God’s Oneness. God said in the Holy Qurʾān:

وما خلق الله_triangle الألفية الا لبدين

“I have not created Jinn and Man but they worship Me” (Q. li, 56).

The conception of “worship” in Islām is different from that in any other religion. Here it is not restricted to the purely devotional practices but extends over the whole of man’s practical life, individual and social. If the object of our life on the whole is the worship of God, then we necessarily must regard this life, in the totality of all its aspects, as one complex moral responsibility. Thus, all our actions, even the seemingly trivial ones, must be performed as acts of worship, that is, performed consciously as constituting a part in God’s universal plan. The achievement of this purpose is impossible so long as we divide our life into two parts, the spiritual and the material; they must be bound together, in our consciousness and our actions, into one harmonious entity. Our notion of God’s Oneness must be reflected in our striving towards a co-ordination and unification of the various aspects of life. Therefore, Islām undertakes to define not only the metaphysical relations between man and his Creator, but also—and with scarcely less insistence—the earthly relations between the individual and his social surroundings. The worldly life is not regarded as a mere shade of the Hereafter that is to come, but as a self-contained, positive entity. God himself is a Unity not only in essence, but also in purpose; and, therefore, His creation is a Unity, possibly in essence, but certainly in purpose.

This idea undoubtedly underlies the Tradition which we are now considering. It shows us in a practical and, at the same time, symbolic way how everyone of us can reproduce, within the limits of his earthly life, the unity of Idea and Action. This is the meaning of the Five Principal Tenets of Islam. Let us regard them one by one.

The testimony that there is no deity but God and that Muḥammad is the Apostle of God. The first part of this formula presumes the recognition, by man, of the existence of a single, unchanging Creative Cause underlying the universe, and separated from this universe by the fact of its unique independence from all causality; and the second part declares that this creative, conscious power, which we call God, exerts a permanent guiding influence on mankind by sending Apostles who act under direct Divine Revelation. Man recognises himself as a purposeful unit in a system, and submits to God’s plan by following His guidance.

The observance of prayer. In this term the relation between God and man is defined as that between the Dispenser of Grace and the needy; and the duties of man resulting from this relation are condensed in the symbol “prayer” which embraces formal ritual as well as spiritual devotion in all its manifestations.

The paying of the sacred tax. This tax (zakāh) is a symbol of social obligation. There exist, in fact, many more duties towards the community, and some of them, as e.g., jihād, require a far higher sacrifice; but as a Muslim is only occasionally called upon to perform them, while zakāh is a permanent, ever-recurring institution, the Prophet has chosen the latter to symbolise man’s social duties in their widest sense.

The fast of Ramaḍān. The obligation of fasting during a whole month, from dawn to sunset, requires a good deal of self-control and perseverance and is, therefore, an excellent means of cultivating discipline of body and spirit. But beyond
SECTION II

THE COMPONENTS OF THE FAITH

And the Word of God, the Most High: “It is not righteousness that ye turn your faces to the East and the West; but righteousness is he who believeth in God and the Last Day and the angels and the Scripture and the Prophets, and giveth (his) possessions, for love of Him, to kinsfolk and the orphans and the needy and the wayfarer and those who ask and for the freeing of slaves; and observeth prayer and payeth the sacred tax; and [so are] those who fulfill their promise when they make one, and the patient in tribulation and adversity and time of stress. These are the God-fearing.” 35—“Successful indeed are the Faithful.” 36


On the authority of the Prophet, who said: “Faith is [composed of] sixty and odd27 branches—and shame is a branch of faith.”

this, the pangs of hunger and thirst which the Muslim experiences during Ramaḍān make him vividly imagine the sufferings of the needy, and make him ready to help his fellow-beings whenever he can. That this was the Prophet’s own experience is shown in Tradition 5.

The pilgrimage to Mecca. The foremost goal of this pilgrimage is the assembling of Muslims from different parts of the world. They shall learn to understand one another and know the needs of Muslim countries other than their own. And this is the practical method of promoting the great Commonwealth of Islâm, the brotherhood of men bound together by the same ideal of devotion to God, Whose Oneness, as also the unity of all Muslims, are symbolised in the qiblah of Mecca. And here the circle is closed: the last of the five tenets touches again upon the metaphysical problem expressed in the first.

As can be gleaned from this short analysis, the five principal tenets of Islâm fully circumscribe Islâmic life: man’s metaphysical orientation in the universe; the relations between Creator and created, and the duties of the latter towards the first; the practical relations between men as members of the society; the development of man’s moral character; and the erection of the Islâmic Commonwealth as a practical proposition, in order that the rule of the Divine Law be established on earth.—

As it is impossible to exhaust this problem within the limits of one note, each item will again be dealt with in detail in the commentary on those chapters of this work which bear upon the subjects in question.

24. In the text the expression āmana, “he has faith,” is used. But it is evident from the context that here only the intellectual side of faith, i.e., belief, is meant: in the remaining portion of this verse other components of faith are mentioned which, when co-existing with belief, express the “fear of God” (tawwâd)—here, as in many other verses of the Qur’ân, equivalent to “faith.” In such cases āmana must be translated by “he believes.”

25. Q. ii, 177.—The purpose of religion does not consist in the thoughtless performance of external acts of devotion, but in the highest development of human qualities as regards the attitude of man towards God and his fellow-beings, for Al-Bukhârî this is a proof that faith does not consist of belief and its profession alone (as e.g., Imâm Abû Ḥanîfah assumes), but of many other components as well; only the simultaneous presence of all those components—some of them spiritual and some, like actions, material—makes one’s faith complete (cf. II, 2).

26. Q. xxiii, 1.

27. In the speech of the Arabs the numbers 10, 40, 60, 70, 100, etc., very often stand for “many,” and do not necessarily denote a positive, exact number. Similarly, round numbers of 1000 and above usually denote “a multitude.” Thus, in the above Tradition, the Prophet meant to say that faith is composed of many parts, and that shame is one of them.
SECTION III
A [TRUE] MUSLIM IS HE FROM WHOSE TONGUE AND HAND MUSLIMS ARE SAFE

(10) Ādām ibn ābī Iyās related to us, saying: Shu'bah related to us, on the authority of Ābd Allāh ibn ābī 's-Safar and Ismā'il, on the authority of Ash-Sha‘bī, on the authority of Ābd Allāh ibn 'Amr,

ON the authority of the Prophet, who said: “A [true] Muslim is he from whose tongue and hand Muslims are safe; and a [true] Emigrant is he who migrated from that which God hath forbidden.”

Abū ‘Ābd Allāh50 said: Also, Abū Mu‘āwiyah51 said: Dā‘ūd related to us, on the authority of Āmir, who said: I heard [this Tradition from] Ābd Allāh ibn ‘Amr, on the authority of the Prophet;—and Ābd al-Al‘ā52 said: on the authority of Dā‘ūd, on the authority of Āmir, on the authority of Ābd Allāh, on the authority of the Prophet.

SECTION IV
WHICH [KIND] OF ISLĀM IS THE MOST EXCELLENT?

(11) Sa‘īd ibn Yaḥyā ibn Sa‘īd al-Qurashi related to us, saying: My father53 related to us, saying: Abū Burdah ibn Ābd Allāh ibn ābī Burdah related to us, on the authority of Abū Burdah,54 on the authority of Abū Musa, who said:

THEY said: “O Apostle of God! Which [kind] of Islām is the most excellent?”

28. Brotherhood of Muslims is one of the fundamental doctrines of Islām; and, therefore, one who injures his brethren by words or actions cannot be regarded as a Muslim in the true sense of the word.
29. Regarding the meaning of hīrah, from which muḥājrīn (emigrants) is derived, see I. 4. Here the term is extended to its spiritual meaning: it denotes not only the bodily emigration from a place where unbelief reigns, but also the giving up of forbidden things in obedience to God’s commandments. These words have been uttered by the Prophet to check the pride of some of the early muḥājrīn who, on account of the fact that they had followed the Prophet when he emigrated from Mecca to Al-Madinah, thought themselves better than the anṣār of that place. Before God, the status of a Muslim is not based on external circumstances, but on his sincere submission to the Divine Commandments.
30. i.e., Al-Bukhārī. This appendix refers to two other versions of the same Tradition.
31. The version of Abū Mu‘āwiyah came (according to FB i, 42) to the knowledge of Al-Bukhārī through the Musnad of Ishaq Ibn Rāhawaih, and not directly from Abū Mu‘āwiyah who died in the year 195 H., i.e., when Al-Bukhārī was but one year old. As it is against Al-Bukhārī’s principle to identify himself with a Tradition unless he personally heard it from the narrator, he only mentions it here without quoting its text. Similar is the case with the subsequently mentioned version of ‘Ābd al-Al‘ā.
32. Yaḥyā ibn Sa‘īd al-Qurashi.
33. Grandfather of the preceding narrator.
34. The use, in Arabic, of a superlative—both in an appreciative and in a negative sense—does not always mean that the object in question is superior to anything else; it only implies that it ranks among the most superior things;
—He said: “That one’s from whose tongue and hand Muslims are safe.”

SECTION V

THE GIVING OF FOOD IS (AN ACT) OF ISLÂM

(12) ‘Amr ibn Khâlid related to us, saying: Al-Laith related to us, on the authority of Yazîd, on the authority of Abû ‘l-Khair, on the authority of ‘Abd Allâh ibn ‘Amr:

A MAN asked the Prophet: “Which [act] of Islam is the best?”—He said: “To give food [to the needy] and to greet whom thou knowest and whom thou dost not know.”

SECTION VI

IT IS (PART) OF THE FAITH TO DESIRE FOR ONE’S BROTHER WHAT ONE DESIRETH FOR HIMSELF

(13) Musaddâd related to us, saying: Yahyâ related to us, on the authority of Shu’bâh, on the authority of Qatâdah, on the authority of Anas, on the authority of the Prophet; —andâ on the authority of Husain al-Mu’âllim, who said: Qatâdah related to us, on the authority of Anas,

O N the authority of the Prophet, who said: “None of you hath faith until he desireth for his brother what he desireth for himself.”

SECTION VII

LOVE OF THE APOSTLE IS (PART) OF THE FAITH

(14) Abû ‘l-Yamân related to us, saying: Shu’aib told us, saying: Abû ‘z-Zinâd related to us, on the authority of Al-‘Arâj, on the authority of Abû Hurairah:

T HE Apostle of God said: “By Him in Whose hand is my soul! None of you

thus, the superlative used above does not exclude the possibility of other matters occupying the same rank in Islam as the one which the Prophet, in this Tradition, described as “the most excellent”; as is evident from Tr. 12, where the giving of food to the needy is described as the “the best” act of Islam. As will often be seen in this work, similar is the case with expressions of depreciation.

35. This refers to the narrator Yahyâ who received this Tradition from two sources, namely, Shu’bâh and Husain al-Mu’âllim.
hath faith until I am dearer unto him than his father and his child.”

(15) Ya'qūb ibn Ibrāhīm related to us, saying: Ibn Ulayyāh related to us, on the authority of 'Ābd al-'Azīz ibn Sūhāb, on the authority of Anas, on the authority of the Prophet;—also, 'Ādam related to us, saying: Shu′bān related to us, on the authority of Qatādah, on the authority of Anas, who said:

THE Prophet said: “None of you hath faith until I am dearer unto him than his father and his child and the whole mankind.”

SECTION VIII
THE SWEETNESS OF THE FAITH

(16) Muḥammad ibn al-Muthannā related to us, saying: 'Abd al-Wahhāb ath-Thaqafi related to us, related to us, saying: Ayyūb related to us, on the authority of Abū Qilābah, on the authority of Anas.

On the authority of the Prophet, who said: “Whoso hath three things in him hath come upon the sweetness of faith: that God and His Apostle be dearer unto him than aught beside them; that, when he loveth a man, he love him but for the sake of God; and that he loathe to return into Unbelief same as he loatheth to be thrown into fire.”

36. The love of the Prophet is but another word for the love of God. A Faithful cannot but assign to the Prophet the highest place in his estimation. As long as Muṣṭafā was alive this love of Muslims was attached not only to his spiritual but also to his physical personality, and many Companions are known to have been ready to sacrifice their own life and that of their nearest relations in order to protect the Prophet’s life. After his death there can be no more any question of preferring his life to that of others; but the regard for his memory, his character, his actions and his commandments is and for ever will remain a criterion of true faith. Our love for the living manifests itself in the desire to protect their life and their well-being; the love for the great among the dead is not fulfilled by mere exaltation of their memory in words and thoughts, but it consists, more than in anything else, in the sincere desire to live and to behave as they would have us behave. The true lover of the Prophet is not he who, while disregarding his commandments, prattles of love for the Beloved: it is he who obeys the Prophet’s orders without regard for his own convenience, and obeys them with joy, because they come from Muṣṭafā.

37. Al-Bukhārī received this Tradition from two sources. The letter b in the Arabic text is an abbreviation of tabw’il (transfer)—a technical term indicating the “transfer” of the same Tradition to another line of narrators.

38. cf. Tr. 13 and corresponding Note.

39. The “sweetness of the faith” is that element of faith which makes man realise with joy the increase of his own strength owing to his unreserved submission to God. If one throws away all considerations save his devotion to a cause which he regards as sacred, no difficulty can discourage and no setback can distress him.
SECTION IX

A SIGN OF THE FAITH IS THE LOVE OF THE ANSÂR

(17) Abû 'l-Walid related to us, saying: Shu'bah related to us, saying: 'Abd Allâh ibn 'Abd Allâh ibn Jabr told me, saying: I heard Anas [relate this Tradition],

ON the authority of the Prophet, who said: “A sign of the faith is the love of the Ansâr, and a sign of hypocrisy is the hatred of the Ansâr.”

SECTION X

(18) Abû 'l-Yamân related to us, saying: Shu'aib related to us, on the authority of Az-Zuhri, who said: Abû Idrîs 'A'idh Allâh ibn 'Abd Allâh told me:

'UßADAH ibn aṣ-Ṣâmit—who had been present at Badr and had been one of the elders on the night of Al-‘Aqâbah—[said]:

40. Al-anṣâr (lit., the helpers) were the Muslims of Al-Madinah who received and wholeheartedly supported the Prophet and his Companions after their emigration from Mecca. Their selfless help came at a time when the fortunes of Muhammad and his Companions were at the lowest ebb, and it proved a turning point in the history of Islam. The original motive for this saying of the Prophet was a friction between the muhâjirûn (Emigrants) and the anṣâr of Al-Madinah. Some of the muhâjirûn claimed a privileged status not only on the grounds of their earlier adherence to the Prophet, but also because they belonged to the same tribe and country as he; and they tried to impose this assumed superiority of theirs over the anṣâr. But as this was no less than a revival of the pre-Islamic tribal or national instincts which already had been discredited by the Islamic conception of ummah, that is, the brotherhood of people bound together by the same religious ideal, the Prophet most severely condemned this antagonism. The muhâjirûn were the provoking party; and upon them, for being called anṣâr, the Prophet said: “A sign of love of the cause itself; and the hatred of the helpers amounts to a hatred of the cause. Like many other sayings of the Prophet pronounced on special occasions, this one also has a general meaning relating to all those who help the cause of Islam when it is in difficulties.

41. i.e., the battle of Badr in the year 2 H., which ended in the first decisive victory of the Muslims over the heathen Quraish.
The Apostle of God, surrounded by a group\(^3\) of his Companions, said: "Pledge unto me that ye will associate naught with God, and will not steal, and will not commit adultery, and will not kill your children,\(^{44}\) and will not utter slander invented by yourselves,\(^{45}\) and will not rebel against [the rules of] right conduct.\(^{46}\) And whoso of you fulfilleth [this pledge], his reward [resteth] upon God. And whoso committeth aught of these [sins] and then is punished in this world, this [punishment] be his atonement\(^47\); and whoso committeth aught of these, and thereafter God, the Most High, covereth him,\(^48\) he be [left] unto God: if He will he shall forgive him, and if He will he shall punish him."—And we thus pledged unto him.\(^49\)

two women. 'Abbas ibn 'Abd al-Mu'ttaliib, the Prophet’s uncle, accepted Islam that very night. He afterwards addressed the men of Aws and Khazraj and explained to them the difficulties they would have to encounter if they undertook to protect the Prophet and his religion from the persecutions of the Quraish; but they solemnly promised to help the cause of Islam and to defend it with their lives: thence the appellation anagar (helpers) by which the early Muslims of Al-Madinah came to be known in history. Then the Prophet selected twelve men from among them and appointed them as elders over the new Muslim community of Yathrib. One of them was 'Ubâdah ibn as-Sânît, the narrator of Tr. 17; he had been a member of the first and second secoverations at Al-'Aqabah.

In consequence, the Quraish doubled their efforts to crush Muhammad and his followers. When the persecutions reached their climax, the Prophet ordered all his Companions to emigrate to Yathrib. He waited until they departed, and then left Mecca, accompanied by Abû Bakr and 'All, and reached Yathrib on the 12th of Rabi' al-awwal, 1 H.

3. 'Iṣbah, here translated as "group," denotes a company of 10—40 persons.

4. Allusion to the barbarous custom of the pre-Islamic Arabs who used to kill those of their new-born daughters which were regarded as superfluous.

5. Literally: "which you make up between your hands and feet."

6. Al-ma'râf, here translated as "right conduct," literally means "that which is known"—that is, known as good. It implies the sum total of all rules of conduct laid down by God and His Prophet. Thus the Prophet, after having emphatically pointed out the sins of which the heathen Arabs were particularly guilty, concluded his appeal with the demand that they should follow all Islamic injunctions in general.

The vow thus formulated was the one which Muhammad demanded, on the occasion of the first deputation to Al-'Aqabah, from the men of Yathrib. It has since been known as "the vow of women" (ba'it an-nisa') because the Prophet was ordered in the Qur'an (1x, 12) to accept such a vow from Muslim women.

47. The punishment which sharti'ah imposes on different crimes and transgressions is an atonement not only for this world but also for the next, because God does not punish men twice for the same thing.

48. i.e., if his guilt is not discovered.

49. The term ba'itah ("vow" or "pledge") plays a very prominent part in Islam. It generally denotes a solemn pledge of allegiance given to a leader by his followers and binding them to absolute obedience. After having pledged oneself in such a way a Muslim cannot be released from the obligations resulting thereof except in three cases: if the person to whom the pledge was made dies, or relinquishes his leadership, or orders his followers to do things forbidden by the shari'ah or to cease doing things ordered by the sharti'ah. According to the Islamic Law, it is a duty of Muslims, whenever they organise themselves, to elect a leader and to take a vow of allegiance. Thus, ba'itah is a cardinal point in the Islamic conception of authority and a conditio sine qua non of the social and political collaboration of Muslims, and, consequently, the basis of the Islamic State Constitution. (Note continued on next page.)
SECTION XI

THE FLIGHT FROM SEDUCTIONS IS (AN ACT) OF RELIGION

(19) ‘Abd Allâh ibn Maslamah related to us, on the authority of Mâlik, on the authority of ‘Abd ar-Rahmân ibn ‘Abd Allâh ibn ‘Abd ar-Rahmân ibn abi Sa’â’ah, on the authority of his father, on the authority of Abû Sá‘îd al-Khudri, who said:

THE Apostle of God said: “Ere long the best property of a Muslim will be small cattle; he will go with it unto the summits of mountains and unto places where rain descendeth, that he might fly with his religion from seductions.”

SECTION XII

THE SAYING OF THE PROPHET: “I KNOW MORE ABOUT GOD THAN ANY OF YOU.”

And, behold, knowledge is an action of the heart, according to the Word of God, the Most High: “. . . but He will take you to task for that which your hearts have earned.”

(20) Muâmmad ibn Sa‘îd al-Bikandi related to us, saying: ‘Abdah told us, on the authority of Hishâm, on the authority of his father, on the authority of ‘A’ishah, who said:

WHENEVER the Apostle of God bade them [anything] he bade them [to perform] actions according to their capacity.

Sometimes, however, this term is merely used in its primary meaning of a solemn promise only morally binding on those who make it, as in the case of the vow demanded by the Prophet at Al-Aqabah. Later on, at Al-Madinah, when the Muslim community developed into an independent political unit, ba‘ith assumed its full practical as well as moral meaning; since then it stands as a symbol of allegiance to a Muslim authority.

50. The term fitnâh applies to everything which leads man astray from the right path: in the first instance, to depravities and corruptions of every kind; in the second, to persecutions, because they may force man to forsake his religious and social duties; and, ultimately, to such things as in themselves are not wrong, but may, by virtue of man’s extreme attachment to them, cause a deviation from the right path (cf. Q. lixiv, 14/15).

51. ‘Abd ar-Rahmân ibn ‘Abd Allâh.

52. At the time prophesied in the above Tradition the religious corruption will be so great that it will be difficult for a Muslim to remain immersed in the affairs of the world and at the same time to live a righteous life. Then the only solution, for a religiously minded man, will be complete retirement from public life. The picture of a shepherd’s life is not to be taken literally, but as a symbol of such retirement.

53. Q. ii, 225.—“. . . that which your hearts have earned” refers to the recognition of God’s Oneness and the intention of submission to His commandments.

54. ‘Urwa ibn az-Zubair.

55. i.e., his Companions. Whenever, in Traditions, the pronoun “they” is used without any direct hint as to who are the persons thus alluded to, the Companions of the Prophet are meant.

56. Islam is not an ascetic religion. It does not compel man to do things which are above his strength, nor to renounce things towards which his natural instincts drive him.
[Once] they said: “Behold, we are not like unto thee, o Apostle of God; behold, God hath forgiven thee of thy sin that which is past and that which is to come.” 57 Then he grew wrathful till the wrath was visible on his face; thereupon he said: “Behold, I am he who feareth God more than any of you and knoweth more about God than any of you!” 58

SECTION XIII

IT IS [A SIGN] OF FAITH THAT ONE LOATHE TO RETURN INTO UNBELIEF SAME AS HE LOATHETH TO BE THROWN INTO FIRE

(2) Sulaimān ibn Ḥarb related to us, saying: Shu’bāh related to us, on the authority of Qatādah, on the authority of Anas, 59

ON the authority of the Prophet, who said: “Whoso hath three things in him hath come upon the sweetness of faith: he unto whom God and His Apostle are dearer than aught beside them; and loveth man but for the sake of God; and loatheth to return into Unbelief, after God hath saved him, same as he loatheth to be thrown into fire.” 60

SECTION XIV

[CONCERNING] DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN THE FAITHFUL WITH REGARD TO ACTIONS

(22) Ismā’īl related to us, saying: Mālik related to me, on the authority of ‘Amr ibn Yahyā al-Māzinī, on the authority of his father. 60

57. Allusion to Q. xlvi, 2. The Companions thought that, in order to attain salvation, they should do more by way of devotions and other duties than the Prophet, because he was promised immunity by God, and what was enough for him was, perhaps, not enough for them. That they were mistaken in this assumption is shown in the Prophet’s answer.

58. “Fear of God” (one of the several meanings of taqwa) bears on the creative aspect of faith, because it compels man to do certain things and to abstain from others. It is not possible to fear God without knowing about Him and His attributes; and so the Prophet, who knew more about God than any other man, feared God more than any other man. Thus he indicated that he could not be supposed, only because God had granted him this privilege, to demand less of himself than of the other Muslims. On the contrary, the devotion and the actions required of him were heavier than those required of other men. The privilege of unconditional pardon for his sins refers to mistakes which he might have committed or would commit in future, and not to an intentional omission of duties imposed on all the Faithful. It is absurd to deny to the Prophet the possibility of committing mistakes, as some of the Muslim theologians do. Erring is human, and none is above error except God. But the mistakes of the Prophet were always, and immediately, corrected by Divine Revelation; and this is the difference between the Prophets and other mortals.

59. cf. Tradition 16. True to his system of placing Traditions according to the subject he has on hand, Al-Bukhārī quotes the same saying (with a different isnād) again, this time as an emphasis on the negative element in faith, that is, loathing of Unbelief, while in Tr. 16 the sweetness of faith was emphasised.

60. Yahyā ibn ‘Umar—or, according to An-Nawawī, ibn ‘Uthmān—al-Māzinī (’UQ i, 197).
ON the authority of the Prophet, who said: “Those of the Paradise will enter the Paradise, and those of the Fire the Fire; then God, the Most High, will say: ‘Take out [from the Fire] in whose heart there was as much of faith as a grain of mustard seed!’ Then they will be taken out of it, already scorched; and will be thrown into the River of Rain, or of Life,”

—Málík was doubtful [about this word]—

“then they will grow as the herb groweth along the river-bed; didst thou not see that it cometh out yellow and folded?”

Wuhaib said: ’Amr related to us, “of Life” and he said: “mustard seed of good.”

(23) Muhammad ibn Ubaid Allah related to us: Ibřāhīm ibn Sa’d related to us, on the authority of Šāliḥ, on the authority of Ibn Shihāb, on the authority of Abū Umāmah ibn Sahl, who heard Abū Sa’īd al-Khudri say:

THE Apostle of God said: “Whilst I slept, I saw people passing before me, and they wore shirts, some of which reached the breast, and some were even less. And there passed before me ’Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb, and he wore a trailing shirt.”—They said: “And how didst thou interpret this, o Apostle of God?”—He said: “[As] religion.”

61. “Those of the Paradise” : that is, those who deserve Paradise owing to the righteous actions they performed during their life in this world; and, correspondingly, “those of the Fire” are the wrongdoers.
62. cf. the isnād of this Tradition.
63. The word hayd (rain) and hayd (life) are almost identical in sound; thence the uncertainty on the part of the narrator. All authorities among the Traditionists agree that hayd is the right word: they are supported in this view by the appendix attached by Al-Bukhārī to this Tradition. But even if the Prophet had said ‘hayd (rain) the meaning would remain the same. For the Arabs living in a hot, dry country rainfall is practically synonymous with life. Up to this day the Bedouins of Arabia sometimes employ the word ‘hayd as signifying “life.”
64. i.e., revive.
65. i.e., tender and of light colour—thus indicating the freshness of new life in the pardoned sinner.
66. He was not a contemporary of Al-Bukhārī; the medium between him and the latter was Mūsā ibn Ismā’īl (FB i, 55).
67. Thus correcting the doubt of the narrator Mālik.
68. Instead “of faith.”
69. i.e., ardour of submission to religious commandments. As has been remarked in II, 21, it is faith which prompts
SECTION XV

SHAME IS [PART] OF THE FAITH

(24) 'Abd Allâh ibn Yusuf related to us: Mâlik told us, on the authority of Ibn Shihâb, on the authority of Sâlim ibn 'Abd Allâh, on the authority of his father:  

THE Apostle of God passed by a man of the Anšâr exhorting his brother in the matter of shame; and the Apostle of God said: "Leave it! For, behold, shame is [part] of the faith." 71

SECTION XVI

"AND IF THEY REPENT AND OBSERVE PRAYER AND PAY THE SACRED TAX, THEN LEAVE THEIR WAY FREE" 72

(25) 'Abd Allâh ibn Muhammad related to us, saying: Abu Rawh al-Harami ibn Umârah related to us: Shu'bah related to us, on the authority of Wâqid ibn Muhammad, who said: I heard my father, on the authority of Ibn 'Umar:

THE Apostle of God said: "I have been bidden to fight people until they bear witness that there is no deity but God and that Muhammad is the Apostle of God, and observe prayer and pay the sacred tax." Then, if they do so, they will save from me their blood and their possessions, except [what they might forfeit] within the bounds of Islam; and their reckoning is with God." 75

man to submit to the Divine Commandments, and, therefore, the word of the Prophet refers to the force of faith as well as to the right actions prompted by it; this is Al-Bukhari's justification for placing this Tradition under the heading of Section xiv. The allusion to 'Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb implies that his religious ardour was greater than that of the other men whom the Prophet saw in his dream.

70. 'Abd Allâh ibn 'Umar ibn al-Khaṭṭāb.

71. Obviously, the brother had done or intended to do something wrong; and the Prophet meant to say: "Leave this talk about shame, and talk to him about faith instead; if his faith were perfect he would know how to behave."

72. Q. i. 5.

73. Muhammad ibn Zaid ibn 'Abd Allâh.

74. This Tradition is an explanation of the Qur'ân verse quoted by the author as the heading of this Section. And as it is stated in other verses of the Qur'ân that, besides the acceptance of Islam or fight, there is another alternative for Unbelievers engaged in hostilities with Muslims, namely, the acceptance of the the temporal rule of the shari'ah and the payment of jizyah, so also the Prophet stated this alternative in other Traditions which later will be quoted. Neither the verses of the Qur'ân nor Traditions can be interpreted individually, but must be taken in conjunction with other Qur'ân-verses or Traditions.

75. That is, if they accept Islam they are no more liable to punishment for their earlier misdeeds; but if after that they commit crimes they will be punished, like every other Muslim, under the law of shari'ah. And it is upon God alone to decide whether their acceptance of Islam was sincere or directed by fear or worldly motives.
SECTION XVII

(CONCERNING) THOSE WHO SAY THAT FAITH IS ACTION

—according to the Word of God, the Most High: “This is the Paradise which ye will inherit for that which ye used to do.” 76
—And several learned men 77 said, concerning the Word of the Most High: “Then, by God, we shall question them about what they used to do.” 78—that is, about the saying: “There is no deity but God.” 79—And the Word of the Most High: “For the like of this, then, let the workers work.” 80

(26) Ahmad ibn Yûnus and Mûsâ ibn Ismâ’il related to us, saying: Ibrâhim ibn Sa’d related to us: Ibn Shihâb related to us, on the authority of Sa’id ibn al-Musayyab, on the authority of Abû Hurairah:


SECTION XVIII

IF (THE ACCEPTANCE OF) ISLÂM IS NOT SINCERE, BUT DUE TO OUTWARD SUBMISSION AND FEAR OF FIGHT

—[then it is of the kind mentioned] in the Word of the Most High: “The nomad Arabs said: ‘We have faith!’—Say [unto them]: ‘Ye have no faith, but say, We submit.’” 83
And if it is sincere, then it is according to His Word—glorified be His name—“Behold, the religion with God is

76. Q. xliii, 72.—Throughout the Qur’ân faith is said to be the condition for entrance into Paradise; and here Paradise is said to be the reward for actions. Therefore it is only logical to say that faith, in itself, is action.
78. Q. xv, 92/93.
79. In the opinion of those learned men (see II, 77) the question on the Day of Judgment “what they used to do” refers to man’s faith in the Oneness of God; thus, again, faith is regarded as action.
80. Q. xxxvii, 61.—cf. II, 76.
81. The man who asked was the Companion Abû Dharr al-Ghifârî (FB i, 59).
82. A full explanation of the term jihâd and of the obligations, for a Muslim, arising out of it will be found in The Book of Jihâd. Here it may suffice to say that jihâd generally means a war undertaken in the cause of Islâm, and sometimes also a moral or material endeavour, other than war, for the sake of God.
83. Q. xlix, 14.—The word aslâmâ is here to be taken in its formal sense only, as denoting the action of outward surrender to the laws of Islâm, so far as the human society is concerned. For the relation between the terms islâm and imân, see II, 23.
(27) Abū 'I-Yāmān related to us, saying: Shu'āib told us, on the authority of ʿAẓ-Zuhārī, who said: ʿAmīr ibn ʿSaʿd ibn ʿAbī Waqqās told me, {ON THE AUTHORITY OF ʿSAʿD: THE APOSTLE OF GOD BESTOwed GIFTS ON A GROUP OF MEN} whilst I, ʿSaʿd, was sitting [with him]; and the Apostle of God omitted a man who appeared unto me the best of them. {87} Then I said: "O Apostle of God! What is thy objection against such and such? For, by God, I regard him as a Faithful."—Then he said: "Or a Muslim..." Then I remained silent for a while; thereafter, what I knew of him overwhelmed me, and I repeated my saying and said: "What is thy objection against such and such? For, by God, I regard him as a Faithful."—Then he said: "Or a Muslim..." Then I remained silent for a while; thereafter, what I knew of him overwhelmed me, and I repeated my saying, and the Apostle of God repeated [his]. There¬after he said: "O ʿSaʿd! Behold, I bestow a gift upon a man—whilst another is dearer unto me than he—for fear that God might precipitate him into the Fire." {88}

84. Q. iii, 19.

85. Q. iii, 85. This verse contradicts the idea, prevalent in our days among some Muslims, that the choice of religion is a matter of individual preference, and that every unitarian religion is equally good in the sight of God, provided man lives a righteous life. The Qurʾān says: "Whoso seeketh as religion other than Islām, it will not be accepted from him."—that is, the path of Islām is the only right path. God in His infinite clemency will certainly take into account the good deeds performed by people of other creeds, but this does not mean that those creeds as such are regarded as equal to Islām. Salvation, according to the tenets of Islām, can be obtained only by him who recognises the Oneness of God and the Prophethood of Muhammad (peace be upon him) as the only and necessary requisite for the attainment of the Kingdom of Heaven. The recognition of Muhammad's Prophethood is by no means a theoretical matter. You cannot say: "I believe that this man is a Prophet"—and at the same time claim that the commandments he issued and upon the fulfillment of which he insisted are not universally binding. Muhammad himself regarded his mission as world-wide and directed his injunctions to mankind at large. He had not been sent to a particular community: it is nothing but the acceptance of his guidance which brings men together into the community of Muslims. To say that Muhammad is a Prophet, but that his commandments are binding on Muslims only, is a contradiction in itself; for to deny the universal obligation of following him is to question his truthfulness and, consequently, his Prophethood.

86. The word ṭaʿīr used in the Arabic text denotes a group of no less than three and no more than ten men.

87. His name was Juʿālī ibn Surāqah ad-Damrī; he was one of the muḥāḍirūn (FB i, 60).

88. The Prophet meant to say that none can with certainty know whether another person is really a Faithful or merely a Muslim in the formal sense (cf. II, 23); this knowledge is with God alone. ʿSaʿd ibn ʿAbī Waqqās, the narrator of the above Tradition, thought that the Prophet distrusted the man in question; but it is apparent from the last sentence of this Tradition that the Prophet himself had no misgivings as to the faith of that man; he simply denied himself and his followers the right to pronounce a final judgment in a matter in which God alone can discern the truth.

89. The people to whom the Prophet distributed gifts probably were newly converted Bedouins. He did not feel
Also, Yûnus, Sâlih, Ma‘mar, and the son of Az-Zuhri’s brother narrated this, on the authority of Az-Zuhri.

SECTION XIX

THE GREETING IS (AN ACT) OF ISLâM

And ‘Ammâr said: “He who combineth three things hath combined the faith [in himself]: justice out of thy free will, the offering of greeting unto everyone, and the spending [on others] whilst [thou art thyself] poor.”

(28) Qutaibah related to us, saying: Al-Laith related to us, on the authority of Yazid ibn abi Habib, on the authority of Abu ’l-Khair, on the authority of ‘Abd Allah ibn ‘Amr.

SECTION XX

INGRATITUDE TOWARD THE MATE

—and there are different degrees of kufr; regarding this there exists a Tradition, on the authority of Abû Sa‘îd, on the authority of the Prophet.

(29) ‘Abd Allah ibn Maslamah related to us, on the authority of Mâlik, on the authority of Zaid ibn Aslam, on the authority of ‘Ata’ ibn Yasâr, on the authority of Ibn ‘Abbâs, who said:

THE Prophet said: “I was shewn the Fire: and most of its inmates were women who had been ungrateful.” —Someone said: “Had they been ungrateful toward God?” —He said: “They had been ungrateful toward the mate and ungrateful with regard to favour [received]: if thou always hast shewn favour unto one of them, [and] there-after she seeth aught of thee [which certain as to their firm adherence to the new faith and was afraid they might, if they did not receive any gifts (which obviously were few), leave the fold of Islam and, in consequence, be punished by God. With regard to his Companion Ju‘ail he had no such fears.

90. Muhammad ibn ‘Abd Allah ibn Muslim.

91. The word in the Arabic text, kufr (from kufr) literally means “covering up” or “denial”; in its well-known theological sense it denotes the refusal to admit truth, i.e., unbelief. Kufr with regard to favours received (which is the subject of the subsequent Tradition) is, therefore, synonymous with “ingratitude.”

92. Literally: “kufr less than kufr.” Here this word has been left without translation, because the object of the author is to show that not every kind of kufr is identical with a denial of God, or Unbelief. It is evident from the preceding Note that this term can be applied to other “negations” as well, and does not necessarily mean that a person who commits any of them ceases to be a Believer.

93. This Tradition is quoted in The Book of Menstruation of this work.
displeaseth her], she saith: 'I never experienced any goodness from thee!'”  

SECTION XXI

SINS ARE [A RELIC] OF THE TIME OF IGNORANCE

—and none can be called an Unbeliever for committing aught of them, except for ascribing partners [unto God]—according to the saying of the Prophet: “Behold, thou hast something of the Time of Ignorance in thee”; and the Word of God, the Most High: “Behold, God forgiveth not that a partner be ascribed unto Him, and forgiveth [all] beyond that unto whom He will.”

(30) Sulaimán ibn Harb related to us, saying: Shu‘bah related to us, on the authority of Wāsil,

On the authority of Al-Ma‘rūr, who said: I met Abū Dharr at Ar-Rabadhah, and he wore a double garment, and his slave wore a double garment; and I asked him about this. Then he said: “Behold, I had abused a man and offended him on the subject of his mother. Then the Prophet said unto me: ‘O Abū Dharr! Didst thou offend him on the subject of his mother? Behold, thou hast something of the Time of Ignorance in thee.” They are your brethren.

94. The last sentence of this Tradition does not, of course, apply to all women; it only shows an unfortunate tendency prevalent in many women, and implies a warning to these.

95. See I, 19.

96. This is a refutation of the preposterous attitude of many ‘ulamā‘ in the past and the present who—like the Khudrīyūn of yore—are only too ready to apply the designation of Unbeliever (kāfir) to anyone who, while believing in God and His Prophet Muhammad, in practice disobey this or that of God’s or the Prophet’s commandments. In reality, such people can only be called ‘dī contains (‘disobedient’), while a kāfir (in the accepted theological sense) is only he who denies God or His Prophet or the Revealed Book.

97. See subsequent Tradition.

98. Q. iv, 48.

99. A place about three stages from Al-Madinah, on the way to Al-‘Irāq.

100. The Arabic word hulūlah denotes a garment, generally new, consisting of two pieces of the same material: a loin-cloth (izdr) reaching to above the ankles and a loose wrap (ridā‘) worn over the shoulders. This was the dress of the Arabs at the time of the Prophet; it is still worn in Al-Yaman and Al-Hadramawt.

101. Al-Ma‘rūr was astonished to see Abū Dharr’s slave wearing the same clothes as his master.

102. In another version of the same Tradition, quoted by Muslim, the words “of my brethren” (i.e., brethren in faith) are added. The Traditionist Walīd ibn Muslim says (according to FB i, 65) that the man in question was Bilāl, the mu‘ādhbin of the Prophet; Abū Dharr, in his previous haughtiness, abused him because he thought himself better than a former slave.

103. Allusion to the harsh treatment of slaves in pre-Islamic times.
these servants of yours whom God hath placed under your authority. And whoso hath his brother under his authority shall give him to eat of what he eateth himself, and shall clothe him with what he clotheth himself. And burden them with naught which is above their strength; and if ye burden them, then help them.” 104

SECTION XXII

"AND IF TWO GROUPS OF THE FAITHFUL FALL TO FIGHTING, THEN MAKE PEACE BETWEEN THEM.” 105

—and He called them “the Faithful.” 106

(31) 'Abd ar-Rahmân ibn Mubârak related to us: Hammâd ibn Zaid related to us: Ayyûb and Yûnus related to us, on the authority of Al-Hasan,

ON the authority of Al-Ahnaf ibn Qais, who said: I went to the succour of that man; and Abû Bakrah met me and said: “Where dost thou go?” —I said: “To the succour of that man.” —He said: “Go back! For, behold, I heard the Apostle of God say: ‘If two Muslims meet with their swords, then the slayer and the slayed [will go] into the Fire.’ —Then I said: ‘O Apostle of God! This [may be the case with] the slayer; but what about the slain?’ —He said: ‘Behold, he was bent upon slaying his companion.” 108

104. The social justice of Islam demands that those in authority treat their subordinates (slaves, servants, employees) as human beings with the same human rights as they enjoy themselves. The social distinction of men, necessary in every organised society, is based on the difference of the duties they have to perform, and not on a difference with regard to their human status. Abû Dharr, thus reprimanded by the Prophet, at once took the lesson and dressed his own slave in the same clothes he himself used to wear.

105. Q. xl ix, 9.

106. This is Al-Bukhârî’s argument against the Khârijîyah and the Mu’tazilah (a school of thought which flourished some time during the ‘Abbâside Caliphate). The Mu’tazilah declared that one who commits great sins (kalāb’idr) ceases to be a Faithful; and the Khârijîyah went further and called everyone who committed even a minor sin, an Unbeliever (cf. II, 2). But in the above Qur’ân-verse the designation “Faithful” is used even in respect to those who commit one of the greatest sins in Islam, namely, hostility against other Muslims. Thus it is shown that no sin, with the exception of a direct or indirect denial of the Oneness of God, can cause a Faithful to lose his status as such (cf. II, 96).

107. The person referred to was ‘Ali ibn Abi Ṭalib, and the occasion the “battle of the camel” in which ‘Ali fought against ‘A’ishah, Ṭalhâ and Zubair (10th Jumâdâ’th-thânîyah, 36 H.—4th December, 656 C.).

108. All Muslims are brethren and should, therefore, be good companions.
SECTION XXIII

[THERE ARE] DIFFERENT DEGREES OF WRONG

(32) Abū 'l-Walid related to us: Shu'bah related to us;—he said: Also, Bishr related to me, saying: Muhammad related to us, on the authority of Shu'bah, on the authority of Sulaimān, on the authority of Ibrahimīm, on the authority of 'Alqamah, on the authority of 'Abd Allāh;

WHEN [the verse] “Those who have faith and do not obscure their faith with wrongdoing” was revealed, the Companions of the Apostle of God said: “Which of us doth not commit a wrong?”—Then God sent down [the Revelation]: “Behold the ascribing of partners [unto God] is indeed a tremendous wrong.”

SECTION XXIV

THE MARKS OF A HYPOCRITE

(33) Sulaimān Abū 'r-Rabi' related to us: Ismā'il ibn Ja'far related to us: Nāfī' ibn Malik ibn 'Abī 'Amir Abū Suhail related to us, on the authority of his father, on the authority of Abū Hurairah.

ON the authority of the Prophet, who said: “The sign of the hypocrite is threefold: when he speaketh, he lieth; when he maketh a promise, he keepeth it not; and when he is trusted, he betrayeth.”

(34) Qabīsah ibn 'Uqbah related to us, saying: Ṣufyān related to us, on the authority of Al-'A'mash, on the authority of 'Abd Allāh ibn Murrah, on the authority of Masrūq, on the authority of 'Abd Allāh ibn 'Amr:

109. Literally: “wrong less than wrong.”
110. i.e., Al-Bukhārī. As to the meaning of the letter ḫ in the Arabic text, see II, 37.
111. Q. vi, 82.—With this verse Al-Bukhārī proves that faith is not necessarily annihilated by wrongdoing: it is only “obsured,” that is, lessened in value and in force.
112. Q. xxxi, 13.—The adjective “tremendous” in connection with “wrong” implies that there must exist lesser degrees of wrong as well; therefore the heading of this Section: “(There are) different degrees of wrong.” The wrong which consists in ascribing of partners to God is of such a nature as to annihilate faith. Beyond this, every wrong is pardonable.
113. Malik ibn Abī 'Amir.
The Prophet said: “Whoso hath four things in him is an utter hypocrite; and whoso hath something of these in him hath something of hypocrisy in him until he giveth it up: when he is trusted, he betrayeth; when he speaketh, he lieth; when he giveth a pledge, he breaketh it; and when he contendeth, he revileth.”

Shu‘bāh concurred with him.

SECTION XXV

THE VIGIL DURING THE NIGHT OF DESTINY IS AN ACT OF THE FAITH

(35) Abū l-Yamān related to us, saying: Shu‘āib told us, saying: Abū ‘z-Zinād related to us, on the authority of Al-A‘raj, on the authority of Abū Hurairah, who said:

The Apostle of God said: “Whoso keepeth awake during the Night of Destiny with faith and in view of God alone, shall be forgiven that which is past of his sin.”

SECTION XXVI

JIHĀD IS AN ACT OF FAITH


On the authority of the Prophet, who said: “God [saith]: ‘I promise unto

114. In the preceding Tradition the Prophet speaks of three things as being characteristics of a hypocrite; in this Tradition he mentions four. This does not mean that these three or four bad traits of character are the only ones which make for hypocrisy: they are its most outstanding signs. Such an enumeration of the most outstanding traits of one and the same thing is typical for the Arabic idiom, and is very often found in Traditions. It never excludes the possibility of other elements of the same thing being equally significant, and is thus a parallel to the Arabic use of superlatives, as explained in II. 34.

115. i.e., with Sufyān (cf. isnād), thus corroborating the latter’s version.

116. This night of Ramaḍān is believed to be the one on which the first verses of the Qur‘ān were revealed, in which case it probably would be the night of the 17th of Ramaḍān. But the commentators are not unanimous on the subject of the date; their widely differing opinions are the result not of historical evidence but of guesswork. It would, however, appear from Traditions (e.g., Tr. 49) that this night is one of the last ten nights of Ramaḍān. Most commentators accept the 27th of that month as the probable date. The Prophet has stated, on several occasions, that on the Night of Destiny every sincere supplication of a true Believer will be fulfilled, and he, therefore, requested his followers to keep awake during that night and to pray to God. Owing to the uncertainty regarding the date, pious Muslims devote the last ten nights of Ramaḍān to these vigils and prayers.

117. In the original, the first half of this sentence is in the third person and the second half in the first person. As it is impossible literally to render into English this idiomatic peculiarity (called ilīfāt) of the Arabic language, the
him who goeth forth [to fight] in My way, prompted by faith in Me and belief in My Apostles, that I will let him return [alive] with whatever he hath obtained of reward and spoil, or will let him enter the Paradise."

"And [said the Prophet,] were it not for the hardship it would cause to my community; indeed I would long to be killed in the way of God, [and] thereafter [again] to be made alive, [and] thereafter [again] to be killed, [and] thereafter [again] to be made alive, [and] thereafter [again] to be killed."}

SECTION XXVII

SUPEREROGATORY WORSHIP DURING RAMADAN IS [PART] OF THE FAITH

(37) Ismā‘īl related to us, saying: Mālik related to me, on the authority of Ibn Shihāb, on the authority of Ḥumayd ibn ‘Abd ar-Rahmān, on the authority of Ābu Hurairah:

whole sentence has been rendered in the first person. A Tradition in which God Himself is made to speak is called ḥadīth qudsi ("Sacred Tradition").

118. i.e., title to reward in the Hereafter.
119. Spoils obtained in jihād do not diminish the moral value of man's endeavour, provided the original motive was the desire to serve the cause of God.
120. i.e., if he is killed in the war.
121. The Prophet knew (because he demanded it from his followers) that all his actions would for all times be the standard of behaviour for Muslims; therefore, if he would go out with every expedition every Muslim would think himself individually obliged to do the same under all circumstances. In reality, jihād is an obligation for the Muslim community as such, but not necessarily for every member of the community, provided the necessary number of fighters is available. Should all Muslims join the army in each and every war, there would none be left to perform the peaceful social duties, and the consequence would be an utter disorganisation of the society and its misery. This the Prophet certainly did not wish to happen; and so he restrained himself on several occasions from going to war, thus indicating that the duty of jihād is not under all circumstances universal.
122. Sariyāsh (from sīr, secret or secrecy) denotes a military expedition consisting of no more than 400 men who, owing to their small number, can move with considerable rapidity and secrecy. A military detachment of more than 400 men is called jaish.
123. In this saying of the Prophet is emphasised the supreme importance of jihād which will be discussed in the commentary on The Book of Jihād. It remains here to point out Al-Bukhārī’s motive for placing this Tradition between others dealing with the merits of worship and fasting during Ramadān. The primary meaning of jihād is "great endeavour" or "great exertion"; and this can also apply to the exertion of fasting during a whole month and vigils during ten consecutive nights (cf. II, 116). Further, in the above Tradition dealing with jihād the expression "prompted by faith in Me" clearly indicates that the motive of a true mujāhid must be the desire to please God. In the preceding and subsequent Traditions on Ramadān a very similar phrase, "for the love of God," invariably occurs. Hence it is apparent that Al-Bukhārī, always intent on proving that right actions are part of the faith, wished to emphasise the merit of actions of a very exerting nature undertaken to please God alone.
124. The term tawāwuṣ generally applies to supererogatory acts of worship (nawāfil; sing., nafs) performed beyond the obligatory acts (fard ‘id; sing., fard).
THE Apostle of God said: “Whoso spendeth Ramadān with faith and for the love of God, shall be forgiven that which is past of his sin.”

SECTION XXVIII
IT IS [PART] OF THE FAITH TO FAST DURING RAMADĀN FOR THE LOVE OF GOD

(38) Ibn Salām related to us, saying: Muhammad ibn Fudail told us, saying: Yahyā ibn Sa‘īd related to us, on the authority of Abū Salamah, on the authority of Abū Hurairah, who said:

THE Apostle of God said: “Whoso fasteth during Ramadān with faith and for the love of God, shall be forgiven that which is past of his sin.”

SECTION XXIX
THE [ISLĀMIC] RELIGION IS EASY TO PRACTICE

And the saying of the Prophet: “The religion dearest unto God is that which is based on the belief in His Oneness and is easy to practice.”

(39) ‘Abd as-Salām ibn Muṭahhar related to us, saying: ‘Umar ibn ‘Āli related to us, on the authority of Ma‘n ibn Muhammad al-Ghifārī, on the authority of Sa‘īd ibn Sa‘īd al-Maqbūrī, on the authority of Abū Hurairah:

On the authority of the Prophet, who said: “Behold, the [I slāmic] religion is easy to practice; and none may overdo this religion but it overwhelmeth him.” So take

125. Regarding the literal meaning of ḥanif, see I, 12. Here, as in the Qur‘ān, this word is to be taken in its secondary meaning of one who believes in the Oneness and Indivisibility of God in all His manifestations and lives a righteous life. As the noun form ḥanif was associated in the Qur‘ān with the name of Abraham, the commentators generally interpret ad-dīn al-ḥanīfiyyah as “the religion of Abraham.” This, however, does not help us because we know nothing definite about the religion of Abraham except that it was based on the belief in the Oneness of God. Accordingly, the adjective ḥanīfi (fem., ḥanīfiyyah) has been translated as “based on the belief in the Oneness of God.”

126. The inṣād of this Tradition did not stand the test stipulated by the author, and he did not formally incorporate it in his compilation. It can be found, with complete inṣād, in MIH i, 236.

127. Exaggeration in religious matters is discouraged in Islām because it tends to detract man from the natural way of living and “overwhelms” him in the sense of imposing too great a strain on his physical and psychical faculties. It is said in the Qur‘ān (ii, 286): “God imposeth not upon any soul a duty beyond its capacity.” Islām is a programme of natural living; and it strongly disapproves of austerities and acts of self-denial (raḥbānīyyah) favoured by other religions as a means of spiritual progress. The teachings of Islām, so far as the activity of man is concerned, can be compressed into a few words: “Make the best use of all your capacities and faculties for your own and for others’ sake—and don’t try to go beyond that.” It can be said with fairness that the extravagant devotional practices of so many Sūfis do not coincide with this elementary principle of Islām; their austerities betray the influence of non-Islāmic (mainly Christian...
the middle path and approach [perfection]\(^{128}\) and be of good cheer, and take to your aid the prayers in the morning, in the afternoon and a little [also] at night.\(^{129}\)"

**SECTION XXX**

**PRAYER IS [PART] OF THE FAITH**

And the Word of God, the Most High: “And God did not wish that your faith be of no avail”\(^{130}\)—that is, your prayers toward the [Sacred] House.\(^{131}\)

\(^{128}\) *i.e.*, according to your capacity.

\(^{129}\) Ghadwah, rawnah, duljah: these three expressions originally denote walking during certain times of the day, *viz.*, in the morning, the afternoon and the late evening; hence, figuratively, these times in themselves or any actions generally performed at these times. Here they stand for the daily prayers: in the morning (fajr), in the afternoon (zuhr and 'asr) and at night (maghrib and 'isha').

\(^{130}\) *Q.* ii, 143. — This refers to the change of the *qiblah* (see II, 136) from Jerusalem to Mecca, ordered in Rajab, 2 H. Before this and the preceding and the following verses were revealed, the Muslims used to pray in the direction of the Temple of Jerusalem; and some of the Companions thought that now that the change was ordered their earlier prayers had lost their value. To allay their fears God revealed the above Qur'ān-verse stating that nothing is futile that has been done in good faith.

\(^{131}\) There is some difference of opinion regarding the expression *al-bait* (the house) used here by Al-Bukhārī. It generally denotes the “House of God” in Mecca, *i.e.*, the Ka'bah; but it is obvious that Al-Bukhārī refers to prayers which had been offered towards Jerusalem. The older commentators have tried their best to explain away this difficulty, but the reasoning of most of them is far-fetched and unconvincing. Only a few (among them An-Nawawi) have given the right interpretation, and a simple one too: they say that Al-Bukhārī used this word in abbreviation of *al-bait al-maqdas* (“the Sacred House”), that is, Jerusalem.

The substitution of *salātakum* (your prayer) for *imānakum* (your faith) in Al-Bukhārī's explanation is forced and unnecessary. The meaning of the Qur'ān-verse in question (ii, 143) is obvious; it expresses the cardinal Islamic doctrine that actions are judged by intentions. Faith was the motive of the early Muslims behind the prayers towards Jerusalem, and it was faith that gave value to those prayers; the action itself was secondary. Al-Bukhārī's substitution of "your prayer" for "your faith" means no less than a substitution of the effect for the cause—a logical mistake similar to his identification of *dhi* and *imdān* (cf. II, 21).

\(^{132}\) When the Prophet, on his *hijr ah* from Mecca, reached the outskirts of Al-Madinah (about noon on the 12th of Rabi‘al-awwal, 1 H.), he stopped at the village Qubā’ and stayed a fortnight in the house of Kalkhum Ibn Haram al-Aws. After having built there a mosque—the first in Islam—he proceeded to the town and alighted at the house of Ābu Ayyūb al-Anṣārī, a sub-tribe of Khazraj. Now, neither Ābu Ayyūb nor Kalkhum were directly related to the Prophet. But the latter's great-grandfather, Ḥāshim, had married Salma bint 'Amr of the tribe of Banū Najjār, who was the mother of 'Abd al-Muṭṭalib, the Prophet's grandfather. Thus he was related to the Banū Najjār and indirectly through them to Ābu Ayyūb (‘UQ i, 284). The expressions "grandparents" or "maternal uncles" are, therefore, not to be taken literally. It is an Arab custom to apply these designations not only to direct relatives but also to other members of their tribes.
or he said: his maternal uncles of the Ansār; and he prayed sixteen or seventeen months toward Jerusalem, although he would have loved to have his Qiblah toward the House of God. And the first prayer which he prayed toward Mecca was a prayer of the afternoon, and a group of his Companions prayed with him. Then a man of those who had prayed with him went out and passed by people in a mosque, and they were bowing down [in prayer]; and he said: “I take God for my witness: verily, I have prayed with the Apostle of God toward Mecca.” So they turned, as they were, toward the House of God.

And the Jews had been pleased when he had prayed toward Jerusalem in common of the Anṣār; and he prayed sixteen or seventeen months toward Jerusalem, although he would have loved to have his Qiblah toward the House of God. And the first prayer which he prayed toward Mecca was a prayer of the afternoon, and a group of his Companions prayed with him. Then a man of those who had prayed with him went out and passed by people in a mosque, and they were bowing down [in prayer]; and he said: “I take God for my witness: verily, I have prayed with the Apostle of God toward Mecca.” So they turned, as they were, toward the House of God.

And the Jews had been pleased when he had prayed toward Jerusalem in common

133. *i.e.*, the narrator of Abū Ishāq (*cf.* *isnād*).
134. *See II, 132*.
135. The uncertainty regarding the length of this period is attributed to the narrator Zuhair (*cf.* *isnād*), and is quoted by Al-Bukhārī and other Traditionists in several Traditions corresponding to the one given above. In some compilations, however, there are versions in which it is positively stated that the period was 16 months; in others, that it was 17 months. This apparent uncertainty can easily be explained if we bear in mind that the Arabs generally include in their calculations the full calendar month of the beginning and that of the end of a period. Now, the Prophet reached Al-Madinah on the 12th of Rabi’ al-awwal, 1 H. (as to this the opinions are unanimous); and the Qur’ān-verses relating to the change of the qiblah were revealed, according to several authentic Traditions, about the middle of Rajab, 2 H.—that is, about 16 months after the Prophet’s arrival at Al-Madinah. Those of the Companions and *tabi‘un* who declare that the period was 17 months obviously count Rabi’ al-awwal, 1 H., and Rajab, 2 H., as full months.

136. *Qiblah*: the direction towards which one turns his attention; hence, the direction of prayers.
137. *i.e.*, the Ka’bah in Mecca. The Prophet was aware that the Temple of Jerusalem was the qiblah of the Jews and the Christians, and he desired (*cf.* Q. ii, 144) that Muslims should have a qiblah of their own, which would symbolise their unity and their spiritual independence from the ritual of non-Muslims. In fact, the subsequent command to Muslims, to face in their prayers a central point common to them alone, has powerfully contributed to that instinctive feeling of unity which to this day, in spite of so many differences and sectarian dissensions, binds the Muslims together into one single *ummah* and makes them realise that they are a group of their own, different from the rest of the world. It is impossible to over-estimate this feeling of unity, so clearly foreseen by the Prophet: to this the Muslims owed their former greatness, and it will remain, so long as Muslims exist, their basic social conception.

138. On that day the Prophet had already finished two *rak‘ah* of the afternoon prayer, when the Qur’ān-verse ordering the change of the qiblah from Jerusalem to Mecca was revealed; and the Prophet immediately turned round (his followers doing the same) and finished the remaining two *rak‘ah* with the face towards Mecca. According to the most authentic Traditions (*cf.* *UQ* i, 286; *FB* i, 340) this happened in the Prophet’s mosque (*al-masjid an-nabawī*), there exist some other, but not equally reliable Traditions which mention the mosque in the suburb of Banū Salamah—today known as *al-masjid al-qiblatain* ("the mosque of the two qiblāhs")—as the one in which the change was ordered. This obvious mistake is explained in II, 140.

139. His name was ‘Ubayd. There were several Companions of that name, and it is not certain whether the one in question was ‘Ubayd ibn Nahih, ‘Ubayd ibn Bishr or ‘Ubayd ibn Wahb (*UQ* i, 286).
140. It was the mosque of Banū Salamah, subsequently called *al-masjid al-qiblatain* ("the mosque of the two qiblāhs").

This name, due, of course, to the event described in 40, gave rise to the erroneous assumption that it was in this mosque that the Prophet received the revelation commanding the change of the qiblah. As a matter of fact, the revelation came in the Prophet’s mosque (*al-masjid an-nabawī*) and was immediately communicated to people praying in the mosque of Banū Salamah and the next morning to those praying in the mosque of Qubā (*UQ* i, 286).

141. *i.e.*, without interrupting their prayers.
with the People of the Scripture. And when he turned his face toward the House [of God], they disapproved of it.  

Zuhair  

Men had died before [the Qiblah] was changed, and [others] had been killed; and we knew not what to say of them. Then God, the Most High, sent down [the Revelation]: “And God did not wish that your faith be of no avail.”

SECTION XXXI
MAN’S SINCERE ISLĀM

Malik  

He heard the Apostle of God say: “If man embraceth Islam and is sincere in it,  

God will forgive him every evil deed he [previously] had committed. And after that, the requital shall be: for a good deed, ten times to seven hundred times; and for an evil deed, one time—unless God forgiveth it.”

Ishaq ibn Mansur related to us, saying: ‘Abd ar-Razzâq related to us, saying: Ma’mar told us, on the authority of Hammâm, on the authority of Abû Hurârah, who said:

...and the People of the Scripture, if they were to turn their face toward the House of God, would have disapproved of it.  

Zuhair related to us, on the authority of Al-Barâ’, in the course of this Tradition:

Men had died before [the Qiblah] was changed, and [others] had been killed; and we knew not what to say of them. Then God, the Most High, sent down [the Revelation]: “And God did not wish that your faith be of no avail.”

(41) Malik said: Zaid ibn Aslam told me that ‘Aţâ’ ibn Yasâr told him that Abû Sa’îd al-Khuḍrî told him that

(42) Ishaq ibn Mansur related to us, saying: ‘Abd ar-Razzâq related to us, saying: Ma’mar told us, on the authority of Hammâm, on the authority of Abû Hurârah, who said:

...and the People of the Scripture, if they were to turn their face toward the House of God, would have disapproved of it.  

Zuhair related to us, on the authority of Al-Barâ’, in the course of this Tradition:

Men had died before [the Qiblah] was changed, and [others] had been killed; and we knew not what to say of them. Then God, the Most High, sent down [the Revelation]: “And God did not wish that your faith be of no avail.”

(41) Malik said: ‘Abd ar-Razzâq related to us, saying: Ma’mar told us, on the authority of Hammâm, on the authority of Abû Hurârah, who said:

142. The Jews of Al-Madinah had hoped that the Prophet would continue praying towards the qiblah of Jerusalem, and thus enhance their religious prestige in Arabia.

143. This additional paragraph is, in reality, part of another, analogous, Tradition (quoted in The Book of Qur’an-Eggesis of this work) which the author received from Abû Nu’aim, on the authority of Zuhair; the rest of the isnād is there the same as that at the beginning of Tr. 40. The author has added it here because it refers to the same subject and, moreover, explains the circumstances which led to the revelation of Q. ii, 143, quoted at the head of this Section.

144. Malik ibn Anas was not a contemporary of Al-Bukhârî; there must have been, therefore, an intermediate narrator between them. Because of the omission of that narrator’s name the Tradition quoted under this isnād is mu’allaq ("suspended") and not mu‘tāl ("finally connected"). Ordinarily such a defect would detract from the authenticity of a Tradition; but in this case the authenticity is warranted by the fact that the same Tradition has been quoted with full and independent isnād by several other Traditionists of repute like An-Nîsäî, Ad-Dâraquqînî, Al-Baihaqî.

145. Literally: “and his Islām has become good.”

146. That is, according to the moral importance of the particular action. Regarding the use of numbers in the Arabic idiom, see II, 27.

147. God in His mercy will multiply the merit of good deeds, but will not increase the weight of sins; and He might even completely forgive the sins of a Faithful.
THE Apostle of God said: “If any of you is sincere in his Islam, each good deed he doeth shall count tenfold to seven-hundredfold, and each evil deed he doeth shall count as one.”

SECTION XXXII
THE CULT DEAREST UNTO GOD IS THAT WHICH DURETH LONGEST

(43) Muhammad ibn al-Muthannā related to us, saying: Yahyā related to us, on the authority of Hishām, who said: My father told me,

ON the authority of ‘Ā’ishah: The Prophet came unto her, and with her was a woman; so he said: “Who is she?”—She said: “Such and such”—and she mentioned how much [that woman] used to pray. He said: “Enough! Only that is incumbent upon you which ye are able to do. And, by God! God will not grow tired [of you], but ye will grow tired; and the cult dearest unto Him is that which the worshipper can permanently endure.”

SECTION XXXIII
THE INCREASE OF FAITH AND ITS DECREASE

The Book of Prayer

And the Word of the Most High: “And we increased them in guidance, and those who have faith may increase in faith.”—And He said: “To-day I have perfected your religion for you.” And if aught of a perfect thing is omitted, then it is imperfect.

148. In this context dīn connotes only the devotional practices, i.e., cult.
149. ‘Urwah ibn az-Zubair.
150. In another version of the same Tradition (SB, The Book of Prayer) it is said that that woman belonged to the Banū Asad clan of Quraisy; again other versions (MM, Salāt al-lail; SM Kitāb as-salāh) give her full name as Al-Hawlā’ bint Tuwaiṭ ibn Habīb. She was related to Khadrijah (FB i, 75). All the above versions mention that she hardly slept at night but spent all her time in prayers.
151. cf. II, 127.—In the version quoted by Imām Mālik (MM, Salāt al-lail) the Prophet is said to have been so disgusted with this misconception of piety that one could read disgust (kārāhiyyah) from his face.
152. i.e., “God will never grow tired of giving you rewards, but you will grow tired of worship if you overdo it.”
153. Q. xviii, 13.
155. v, 3.
156. i.e., a perfect thing cannot increase in quality—otherwise it would not be perfect—but it can decrease and lose its perfection. For Al-Bukhārī dīn and imān are identical terms: and so he quotes the above-mentioned Qur’ān verse as a proof of the possibility of qualitative changes in faith. But as has been said before (II, 21), Al-Bukhārī’s
Muslim ibn Ibrāhīm related to us, saying: Hishām related to us, saying: Qatādah related to us, on the authority of Anas, on the authority of the Prophet, who said: “Out of the Fire will come who so hath said: ‘There is no deity but God’ and hath had a barley-grain’s weight of good in his heart; and out of the Fire will come who so hath said: ‘There is no deity but God’ and hath had a wheat-grain’s weight of good in his heart; and out of the Fire will come who so hath said: ‘There is no deity but God’ and hath had an atom’s weight of good in his heart.”

Abū ‘Abd Allāh¹⁵⁴ said: Abān said: Qatādah related to us: Anas related to us [the same Tradition], on the authority of the Prophet, [saying] "of faith" instead "of good."

Al-Ḥasan ibn ḥa-Shabbāh related to us that he heard Ḥa’īr ibn ‘Awn [say]: Abū‘l-‘Umais related to us, saying: Qais ibn Muslim told us, on the authority of Tāriq ibn Shihāb, on the authority of ‘Umar ibn al-Khāṭṭāb: A man of the Jews¹⁵⁹ said unto him: "In your book there is a verse which ye read; had it been revealed unto us, the Jewish

contention that ḅīn and īmān are one and the same thing cannot be justified. Here his mistake is even more obvious because in this Qur’ān-verse ḅīn very clearly means the sum-total of religious commandments, otherwise known as shari‘ah. When the shari‘ah was still in its initial stages, before it was completed, the Muslims who followed it could, nevertheless, have had perfect faith. Faith is not an equivalent of mere observance of rules and commandments. It is a spiritual phenomenon: the acceptance of a certain relation by a faithful towards the object of his faith. So long as the faithful believes that object to be real or perfect, his faith is perfect; and the actual quality of the object does not necessarily interfere with the reality or completeness of his faith. This argument of Al-Bukhārī can, therefore, safely be dismissed as invalid. The evidence of increase and decrease of faith, however, is abundantly forthcoming from other passages in the Qur’ān and the Traditions and does by no means lose its weight if we reject an untenable argument.

Faith, however weak, will ultimately secure salvation to man, provided that it was real. This beautiful parable is for Al-Bukhārī a further proof that faith is not identical with mere mental acknowledgment (tadṣīda) which need not possess the quality of intensity, but that it is a force and a movement in the human heart, and can therefore increase and decrease. In some versions of this Tradition, like the one above, the expression "good" (khāl) is used for faith, which is justifiable from the ethical point of view: goodness brings us nearer to the Will of God, and this is the purpose of faith as well. In some other versions, however, (like the one mentioned in the appendix to this Tradition) the word "faith" is explicitly used.

¹⁵⁷. i.e., Al-Bukhārī.

¹⁵⁸. This man (according to FB i, 78) was Ka‘b al-Āḥbār, a Jew of Al-Yaman. He was one of the most learned men of Arabia (ḥabīb) is the plural form of habr, which was a title of scholarship among the Jews). During the Caliphate of ‘Umar he came to Al-Madinah and soon became highly esteemed for his learning and trustworthiness. Some of the most important of the Companions (e.g., Abu Hurairah and ‘Abd Allāh ibn ‘Abbās) were his disciples, and the Caliph ‘Umar himself took such a liking to him that he kept him in his company. He entered Jerusalem with ‘Umar in the year 15 Ḥ. and embraced Islam two years later. He died during the reign of ‘Uthmān in the year 32 Ḥ., according to some authorities, 34 Ḥ. (TT viii, 438 ff.; Is iii, 635 ff.).
people, we would indeed have made the day [of its revelation] a festival.”—He said: “Which verse is it?”—He said: “‘To-day I have perfected your religion for you and completed My favour unto you and chosen Islam as your religion.’”—Umar said: “Indeed we know that day and the place where [this verse] was revealed unto the Prophet: he was at ‘Arafah, on a Friday.”

SECTION XXXIV

THE SACRED TAX IS (PART) OF ISLÂM

And His Word: “And they have been bidden naught save to worship God, sincere unto Him in religion, as Unitarians, and to observe prayer and to pay the sacred tax; and that is the right religion.”

(46) Ismâ‘îl related to us, saying: Mâlik ibn Anas related to me, on the authority of his uncle Abû Suhail ibn Mâlik, on the authority of his father, who heard Ṭalhâ ibn Ubad Allah say:

THERE came unto the Apostle of God a man from Najd, his hair in disorder; we heard him shouting but did not comprehend what he said until he came nearer. Then it became clear that he was asking about the duties of Islam. And the Prophet said: “Five prayers during the day and the night.”—Then [the man] said: “Am I bound to offer more than these?”—He said: “No, unless thou doest more of thy own accord.” [Then] the Apostle of God said: “And the

160. The plain of ‘Arafah or ‘Arafât (east to Mecca) where the pilgrims assemble on the 9th of Dhû ‘l-Hijjah. That day is the climax of the ḥajj, the Pilgrimage to Mecca, and is a specific day. The above Qur’ân-verse (v. 3) was revealed to the Prophet on Friday, the 9th Dhû ‘l-Hijjah, 10 H. (March, 632 C.), on the occasion of his “Farewell”-Pilgrimage (hijjat al-wida’). Regarding Al-Bukhârî’s peculiar interpretation of this verse, see II, 156.

161. In the original: hunafâ’. See I, 12 and II, 125.
162. Q. xcviii, 5.
164. Najd (lit., highland) comprises all Central Arabia between the Hijâz Mountains and Al-‘Irâq, and between the Syrian Desert and the great southern desert Rub’al-Khâlî. As its name indicates, it is elevated above the coastal lowlands (Tihamah) of Western Arabia and the country of Al-‘Aṣâr, or Al-‘Gasû, on the coast of the Persian Gulf.
165. i.e., about the duties incumbent upon a Muslim. Obviously he himself was already a Muslim, and therefore the Prophet did not mention to him the kalîmah (the testimony that there is no deity but God and that Muhammad is the Apostle of God). From another version of this Tradition, quoted by the author in The Book of Fasts, it clearly appears that the man inquired about the practical commandments (âbâd) only, and not about the fundamentals which he already knew.
fast of Ramaḍān.”—He said: “Am I bound to fast more than this?”—He said: “No, unless thou dost more of thy own accord.” Then the Apostle of God mentioned the sacred tax unto him: [and] he said: “Am I bound to give more than this?”—He said: “No, unless thou dost more of thy own accord.” Then the man went away, saying: “By God! I shall do no more than this, and no less!” —[And] the Apostle of God said: “He will be successful if he is sincere.”

SECTION XXXV
TO FOLLOW FUNERALS IS (AN ACT) OF THE FAITH

(47) Ahmad ibn ‘Abd Allâh ibn ‘Ali al-Manjûfi related to us, saying: Rawh related to us, saying: ‘Awf related to us, on the authority of [both] Al-Hasan and Muhammad, on the authority of Abî Hurairah:

THE Apostle of God said: “Whoso followeth the funeral of a Muslim with faith and for the love of God, and remaineth with it until the prayers have been offered and the burial is over, behold, he shall receive a double reward, each part of which will be like Uḥud; and whoso prayeth over the dead body and then returneth before it is buried, behold, he shall receive a single reward.”

‘Uthmân al-Mu‘addhin concurred with him, saying: ‘Awf related to us the same, on the authority of Abî Hurairah, on the authority of the Prophet.

166. In this enumeration of duties incumbent upon a Believer the pilgrimage to Mecca, the fifth of the ārkân of Iṣlâm, is omitted. Probably the event referred to in the above Tradition took place before the time the pilgrimage became obligatory, that is, before the year 6 H.

167. Literally: “shall receive two qirâḍ of reward, each qirâḍ...” etc. A qirâḍ was an ancient unit of weight, differing according to the custom of localities. Here it is used in the sense of “unit” or “part.”

168. A mountain about three miles north-west of Al-Madinah, famous for the battle fought there between the Muslims and the heathen Quraish in Shawwāl, 3 H. (January, 624 C.). It is called Uḥud (a derivation of āḥad, one) on account of its isolation from other mountains. It is the highest mountain in the immediate vicinity of Al-Madinah, and thus the Prophet used its name as a metaphor for the greatness of the reward of a pious act.

169. Literally: “one qirâḍ.”

170. i.e., with the narrator Rawh (cf. isnād).
SECTION XXXVI

(OF) THE FEAR OF THE FAITHFUL THAT HIS WORK MIGHT FAIL WITHOUT HIS BEING AWARE OF IT

And Ibrahim at-Taimt said: "I never compared my word with my deed but was afraid I might be accused of a lie."—And Ibn abi Mulaikah said: "I knew thirty Companions of the Prophet, and all of them were afraid they might be guilty of hypocrisy; none of them would say that he had faith [equal to that] of Gabriel or Michael."—And it is reported of Al-Hasan: "None but a Faithful feareth it; and none but a hypocrite deemeth himself secure from it." And one must take care not to persist in fratricide and disobedience [unto God] without repentance, owing to the Word of God, the Most High: "... and will not knowingly persist in the wrong they did." 176

(48) Muhammad ibn ‘Ar’arah related to us: Shu’bah related to us, on the authority of Zubaid, who said: I asked Abū Wa’il about the Murji’ah, and he said: ‘Abd Allāh related to me:

THE Prophet said: "To abuse a Muslim is an evil deed, and to fight him, [an act of] unbelief." 178

(49) Qutaibah ibn Sa’id told us: Ismā’il ibn Ja’far related to us, on the authority of Humaid, on the authority of Anas, who said: ‘Ubādah ibn aṣ-Ṣāmit told me:

THE Apostle of God went out to tell [people the date of] the Night of Destiny, and [he met] two men of the Muslims [who] began to quarrel. 180 Then he said: "Behold, I went out to tell you [the date of] the Night of Destiny, and these two began

171. i.e., of hypocrisy.
173. i.e., hypocrisy.
174. Self-complacency and lack of sincerity not only in his relations with others but also towards himself are characteristics of the hypocrite; and he never even suspects himself of hypocrisy. On the contrary, the man of sincere faith, moved by the desire to reach perfection, is always prone to finding fault with himself.
175. Literally: "fighting"—here obviously fight between Muslims (see Tr. 48); and all Muslims are brethren.
176. Q. iii. 135.
177. See II, 2.
178. i.e., an act nearly tantamount to unbelief, and not unbelief—because the committing of a sin, with the exception of shirk (ascribing of partners to God), does not deprive man of his status as a faithful (cf. II, 106).
179. See II, 116.
180. It is said that these two men were the Prophet's Companions, 'Abd Allāh ibn abi Ḥadrada aud Ka'b ibn Mālik (FB i, 84).
to quarrel, and I forgot it. But haply this may be good for you. Look for it on the [twenty-second], the [twenty-ninth] and the [twenty-fifth] of Ramadan."

SECTION XXXVII

GABRIEL’S QUESTION TO THE PROPHET ABOUT FAITH, ISLÁM, SINCERITY IN ACTION, AND THE HOUR AND THE PROPHET’S ANSWER TO HIM

Thereafter he said: “Gabriel came to teach you your religion—and [thus the Prophet] defined all this as religion; and to the deputation of ‘Abd al-Qais the Prophet defined [this] as the faith.”—And the Word of the Most High: “And whoso seeketh as religion other than Islám, it will not be accepted from him.”

Musaddad related to us, saying: Ismá’il ibn Ibráhím related to us, saying: Abú Ḥayyán at-Támi told us, on the authority of Abú Zur’áh, on the authority of Abú Hurairah, who said:

ONE day the Prophet shewed himself unto the people, and there came a man unto him and said: “What is faith?”—
[The Prophet] said: “Faith is, to believe in God and His angels and the meeting with Him and His Apostles; and to believe in the Resurrection.”—He said: “What is Islām?”—He said: “Islām is, to worship God and to associate naught with Him, to observe prayer, to pay the obligatory sacred tax, and to fast during Ramaḍān.”—He said: “What is sincerity in action?”—He said: “To worship God as if thou saw Him; for if thou dost not see Him, behold, He seeth thee.”—He said: “When [will be] the Hour?”—He said: “He who is asked hath no more knowledge [about this] than he who asketh.” But I will tell thee its portents: when the slave-girl will give birth to her master, and when the obscure camel-herdsman will errect high buildings. There are five things which nobody knoweth save God.” Then the Prophet recited [the Qur’ān-verse]: “Behold, with God is the knowledge of the Hour . . .”

Then [the man] went away. And [the Prophet] said: “Bring him back!” But they saw naught [of him]. Then he said: “That [was] Gabriel; he came to teach people their religion.”

Abū ‘Abd Allāh said: [The Prophet] defined all this as [elements] of the faith.

189. cf. II, 24.

190. Thus the Prophet himself rejected the idea, so popular among certain Muslim schools of thought, that he was endowed with limitless knowledge of the future and the hidden (‘ilm al-ga‘īb).

191. This prediction of the Prophet has in the past been frequently discussed; and the speculations as to its meaning are legion. Some commentators accepted it in its literal sense as predicting real, if isolated, events; others thought that in the period preceding the Hour there will be a general tendency towards parents’ becoming slaves of their children, and ignorant nomads’ actually dwelling in palaces. It seems to me, however, that the Prophet did not intend this to be a literal prediction: in these “portents” he gave us an extremely concise, symbolical picture of a time when all our social conceptions would be utterly confused and things incredible to-day would be common. Such an idea could hardly have been more poignantly expressed than by the symbolic image of a mother owned by her son as a slave, or of obscure nomads emerging from their deserts with a sudden taste for culture and the practical means of satisfying it. And as these two images are entirely different in their ethical aspects—the one expressing a loathsome debasement of human relations, the other the development of a hitherto helpless and insignificant part of humanity to a new, positive appreciation of culture and its values—so also the period before the Hour (and there is no idication as to its duration) will have good as well as bad traits. Its main characteristic, however, will be the complete reversion of all social conditions and conceptions.

192. Q. xxxi. 34.

193. i. e., Al-Bukhārī.
SECTION XXXVIII

(51) ‘Ibrāhim ibn Ḥamzah related to us, saying: ‘Ibrāhim ibn Sa’d related to us, on the authority of Šāliḥ, on the authority of Ibn Shihāb, on the authority of ‘Ubaid Allāh ibn ‘Abd Allāh: ‘Abd Allāh ibn ‘Abbas told him, saying: 194

A BŪ SUFYĀN told me that Heraclius said unto him: “I asked thee whether they increase or decrease [in numbers]—and thou saidst that they increase; and such is [the case with] faith to the very end. And I asked thee whether any [of them] had turned apostate out of disgust with his religion after having embraced it—and thou saidst, no; and such is [the case with] faith: whenever its joy mergeth into the hearts, none gets disgusted with it.”

SECTION XXXIX

(COncerning) The merit of him who keepeth himself aloof (from certain things) for the sake of his religion

(52) Abu Nu‘aim related to us, saying: Zakariyyah related to us, on the authority of Ṭāhā, who said: I heard An-Nu‘mān ibn Bashīr say:

I HEARD the Apostle of God say: “The lawful is obvious and the forbidden is obvious; and between these two are the doubtful things, and not many may discern [the borders of] these. And whoso feareth the doubtful things, keepeth himself aloof [from them] for the sake of his religion and his honour. And whoso entereth the doubtful things is like unto a herdsman who grazeth his flocks in the vicinity of a reserve 196:

194. The following is a part of a Tradition almost word for word identical with Tr. 7; the isnad is here partly different. Al-Bukhārī’s motive for repeating it here is Heraclius’ view about faith and Prophethood, which he probably gained from the old Scriptures, and which is certainly representative of his time and his community.

195. i.e., the followers of Muḥāmmad (cf. Tr. 7).

196. Such pasture grounds reserved for the use of royal herds to this day exist in Arabia. They are sometimes very extensive, but always only roughly demarcated by natural landmarks. Tresspass by other herders is generally punished by confiscation of their cattle unlawfully grazing in the reserve.
he may peradventure enter upon it. Now, behold, every king hath a reserve: and, behold, the reserve of God are the things He hath forbidden. And, behold, in the body there is a bit of flesh: if it is sound, the whole body is sound, and if it is diseased, the whole body is diseased;—now, behold, it is the heart.”

SECTION XL
THE GIVING OF THE QUINT IS (AN ACT) OF THE FAITH

(53) 'Ali ibn Ja’d related to us, saying: Shu’bah told us,

ON the authority of Abü Jamrah, who said: I used to visit Ibn ‘Abbás, and he would let me sit on his bed. Then he said: “Stay with me, and I shall give thee a portion of my possessions.” And I stayed with him for two months. Thereafter he said:

“Behold, when the deputation of ‘Abd al-Qais came unto the Prophet, he said: ‘Who are these people?’”

—or “Who are this deputation?”

“They said: ‘Rabî’ah.’—He said: ‘Welcome unto these people!’”

—or “unto this deputation”

197. i.e., one-fifth of all booty obtained in war, which must be handed over to the public treasury (cf. Q. viii, 41).
198. ‘Abd al-Qais, or Banu ‘Abd al-Qais, a tribe which belonged to the great tribal family of Rabi’ilah (see II, 200) and which derived its name from its ancestor ‘Abd al-Qais ibn Afsâ ibn Du’mi. Their dwelling places were in ancient Al-Bahrain (to-day known as Al-Ḥasâ). They possessed several towns and fortified settlements, the most important of which was Hajar—a name sometimes applied to the whole country of Al-Bahrain. Nothing conclusive is known about the religion of ‘Abd al-Qais before Islam; but it is almost certain that there were some Christians among them; this perhaps was due to the frequent intercourse between this tribe and the Christian-Arab principalities of Al-Hirah. According to An-Nawawi (Nw. KItâb al-imân), one Munqîdih ibn Ḥabbân, of ‘Abd al-Qais, used to trade in dates between his country and Yathrib. There he once met the Prophet and was converted by him to Islam. The Prophet entrusted to him a letter to the tribe of ‘Abd al-Qais in which he invited them to embrace Islam. But Munqîdih was afraid of his people and did not declare his Islam openly for a very long time, until one day his wife surprised him at prayers and informed her father, Mundhir ibn ‘A’idh al-Aslajj, one of the chiefs of ‘Abd al-Qais. Subsequently the elders of the tribe discussed the matter among themselves and decided to accept Islam; and to that extent a deputation under the leadership of Mundhir al-Aslajj was sent to Al-Madinah in the year 8 H.

The narrator of this Tradition, Abü Jamrah, belonged himself to the tribe of ‘Abd al-Qais, and so Ibn ‘Abbás told him the story of the deputation to the Prophet.

199. This doubt as to which were the actual words of the Prophet is attributed to one of the narrators of this Tradition, Abü Jamrah or Shu’bah (most probably the latter, cf. FB i, 97).
200. Rabî’ah, a great group of northern Arab tribes tracing their origin to Rabi’ilah ibn Nizâr, a descendant of ‘Adnân. The tribe of ‘Abd al-Qais belongs to this group.
"[who come] without humiliation and without regret!"—They said: 'O Apostle of God, we are not able to come unto thee except during a sacred month, because between us and thee there is this tribe of Unbelievers, Muḍar. So bid us a definite thing that we might tell it to those we have left behind, and enter the Paradise with its help.' And they asked him about the [strong] drinks. Thereupon he bade them four things and forbade them four. He bade them to have faith in God alone, saying: 'Do ye know what is faith in God alone?'—They said: 'God and His Apostle know it.'—He said: 'The testimony that there is no deity but God and that Muhammad is the Apostle of God, the observance of prayer, and the paying of the sacred tax, and the fast of Ramadan, and the giving of the quint of the booty.' And he forbade them four things: the ewer, the gourd, the barrel of palm-wood and the vessel polished with resin.

201. The men of 'Abd al-Qais had accepted Islam out of their free will, without having ever been at war with Muslims; they had not been constrained by political exigency nor tempted by expectations of worldly gain. They were, from the very beginning, ardent Muslims; this is borne out by the fact that (according to a Tradition quoted by the author in The Book of Friday) the first mosque—after the Prophet's mosque in Al-Madinah—was built in Al-Bahrain.

202. In the text: during the sacred month. The pre-Islamic Arabs held four months sacred, namely, Muḥarram, Rajab, Dhu 'l-Qa'dah and Dhu 'l-Ḥijjah; and during these months no fight was allowed and all blood-feuds had to be suspended. It is clear that the deputation meant all the four sacred months, because it was then safe for them to proceed through enemy's territory to Al-Madinah. Therefore, I have translated it into 'a sacred month' to express the generalisation of this term.

203. Muḍar, another great group of 'Adnāni tribes descended from Muḍar ibn Nizār, a brother of Rabī'ah (see II, 200). They inhabited a great part of Najd, halfway between Al-Madinah and Al-Bahrain. Their traditional enmity with the Rabī'ah-group, to which the tribe of 'Abd al-Qais belonged, was almost proverbial.

204. i.e., a commandment which would definitely show them the right path, so that they would not need often to come to the Prophet for enlightenment.

205. In reality, the Prophet gave them five and not four commandments; but one of these, namely, the formula of faith, was no new commandment to them because they were already Muslims; so Ibn Abbas was justified in speaking only of four. The Prophet re-iterated the formula of faith to them in order to show that the four new commandments are subordinated to the basic doctrine of the Oneness of God and the Prophethood of Muḥammad. The omission of ḥajj among these commandments is due either to a lapse of memory on the part of one of the narrators or to the fact that the Prophet thought it would be extremely difficult for the people of 'Abd al-Qais to perform the pilgrimage in face of the enmity of the Muḍar-tribes who occupied the territory between Al-Bahrain and Al-Ḥijaz.

206. The Arabs in pre-Islamic times used these four kinds of vessels for making and keeping wine; and so the Prophet figuratively used their names for wine itself. Al-hantam was a ewer or jar made of earthenware with hair and animal blood. The dried and hollowed-out gourd (ad-dubba') was used by the people of at-Ṭa'ā' who would fill it with grapes and then bury it in the earth until its contents fermented. An-nagīr was a barrel made of hollowed-out palm-stems in which date-wine was made in Al-Yaman. Al-muzaffat was a wooden vessel polished and made watertight with resin (Musnad of Abu Dā'ūd at-Ṭayālīsī, apud FB i, 100).
—or, perhaps, he 207 said: “the vessel polished with tar”—

“And he said: ‘Remember these [commandments] and tell them to those you have left behind.’ ”

SECTION XLI
CONCERNING (THE SAYINGS): “ACTIONS ARE (JUDGED) ACCORDING TO THE INTENTION AND THE LOVE OF GOD (WHICH PROMPTED THEM); AND UNTO EVERY MAN IS DUE WHAT HE INTENDED.”

And this applieth to faith, the ablution, the prayer, the sacred tax, the pilgrimage to Mecca, the fasting and [all other] commandments. And God, the Most High, said: “Say: Everyone acteth in his own way—[that is] according to his intention. Man’s spending on his family for the love of God 209 will be accounted] a work of charity. And the Prophet said: “. . . but [there remain] jihād and intention.” 210

(54) ‘Abd Allāh ibn Maslamah related to us, saying: Mālik told us, on the authority of Yahyā ibn Sa’īd, on the authority of Muḥammad ibn Ibrāhīm, on the authority of Ḥaqqāḥ ibn Ma’āqil, on the authority of Ḥāshim ibn Thābit, on the authority of Muḥammad ibn ‘Abbās, that the Apostle of God said: “The actions are judged according to the intention; and unto every man is due what he intended. Thence, whose migrateth for the sake of God and His Apostle, his migration is accounted for the sake of God and His Apostle; and whoso migrateth for the sake of this world or to wed a woman, his migration is accounted for that unto which he migrated.”

(55) Hajjāj ibn Minḥāl related to us, saying: Shu’bāh related to us, saying: ‘Adī ibn Thābit told me, saying: I heard [this Tradition from] ‘Abd Allāh ibn Yazīd, on the authority of Abu Ma’sūd,

ON the authority of the Prophet, who said: “If a man spendeth on his family for the love of God,211 it will be accounted] a work of charity.”

207. See II, 199.
208. Q. xvii, 84.
209. i.e., in sincere recognition of one’s moral duties.
210. This is a fragment of a Tradition on the authority of Ibn ‘Abbās, quoted by the author in The Book of Jihād; it emphasizes the value of intention, the subject of this Section.
211. See II, 209.
THE Book of Faith

The Book of Faith

SECTION XLII

The Saying of the Prophet: "Religion consisteth in loyalty unto God, His Prophet, the Leaders of the Muslims, and the Muslims on the Whole."

And the Word of the Most High: "... if they be loyal unto God and His Apostle." 212

(56) Al-Hakam ibn Nafi' related to us, saying: Shu'aib told us, on the authority of Az-Zuhri, who said: 'Amir ibn Sa'd related to me, on the authority of Sa'd ibn abi Waqqas, who told him:

The Prophet said: "Behold, thou spendest naught for the love of God but shalt be rewarded for it—even for the morsel thou puttest into the mouth of thy wife."

(57) Musaddad related to us, saying: Yahyā related to us, on the authority of Ismā'il, who said: Qais ibn abi Hāzim related to us,

On the authority of Jarir ibn 'Abd Allāh, who said: I pledged unto the Apostle of God observance of prayer, paying of the sacred tax, and loyalty toward all Muslims.

(58) Abu'n-Nu'man related to us, saying: Abu 'Awānāh related to us, on the authority of Zaid ibn 'Ilāqah, who said:

I HEARD Jarir ibn 'Abd Allāh speak on the day Al-Mughirah ibn Shu'bah died. 213 He rose and praised God and glorified Him, and said: "Incumbent upon you is to fear God alone Who hath no partner, and [to maintain] dignity and quiet until a [new] governor cometh unto you; and, behold, he soon will come unto you." Thereafter he said: "Ask forgiveness of God for your [dead] governor, for, behold, he [himself] loved to forgive."

Then he said: "And furthermore: "Behold, I came unto the Prophet and said: 'I

(59) Haditha al-hukum bi-naa'īf Qal: 'Akhīra shubabī

45. Al-Mughirah ibn Shu'bah was governor of Al-Kūfah during the reign of Mu'āwiya; he died in the year 50 H. On his death-bed he appointed Jarir ibn 'Abd Allāh to act as his deputy until the arrival of the new governor. To prevent unrest among the populace of Al-Kūfah, Jarir delivered this sermon from the pulpit of the mosque.

212. Q. ix, 91.

213. Al-Mughirah ibn Shu'bah was governor of Al-Kūfah during the reign of Mu'āwiya; he died in the year 50 H.
will pledge unto thee my allegiance to Islâm. Then the Prophet prescribed unto me [the duties of Islâm], and [among them] loyalty toward all Muslims; and thus I pledged unto him.²¹⁴ By the Lord of this mosque! Behold, I give you a loyal advice indeed.” Then he asked forgiveness of God, and descended [from the pulpit].

²¹⁴ cf. Tr. 57.
SYNOPSIS
OF
"THE BOOK OF FAITH"

FIFTY-ONE TRADITIONS

Quoted, in full or in part, in the following compilations:

(K. stands for "Kitab", A. for "Abwab")

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In the preceding chapter Traditions were quoted dealing with a fundamental aspect of Muhammad's message, namely, its Divine origin. This chapter deals with man's positive attitude towards that message, that is, Faith. The ideologies of religion are, in themselves, abstract conceptions, resembling a codex of laws before its application to life and its conditions. It is this application alone which transforms an ideological postulate into an organising force of life. The concrete reality of religion does not begin with the Divine enunciation of laws (Revelation) but with the reaction of human beings towards it; it begins at the moment of man's acceptance of the postulates as objectively true and morally binding; that is, it begins with Faith. Faith, not Law, is the foundation stone of religion; and Faith, not Law, is the creative force in it. The laws of religion are but formative: their purpose is to guide the creative force of faith into constructive channels and to shape man's thoughts and deeds so as to enable him to improve his spiritual faculties and to contribute his full share towards the progress, moral and material, of his fellow-beings.

It is not within our scope to attempt here a definition of faith. In the explanatory notes on this chapter the sheer impossibility of such a definition has again and again been expressed. Faith, like Truth, has unfathomable depths and innumerable facets. It is an elemental movement full of changes, a perplexing combination of feeling, knowledge, desire, impulse, and many a psychical phenomenon inexpresable in language. Within a human soul, faith is influenced and moulded not only by outward circumstances but also by the incommensurable reaction of its elements upon one another. This complexity of faith is evident from the Traditions of The Book of Faith and from Al-Bukhari's explanations. It cannot be said that he had consciously appreciated the full intricacy of this extraordinary manifestation of the human spirit; this is hardly to be expected of the exponent of an epoch which had no particular inclination for investigating and analysing the psychology of the human mind. But he understood—and this was a great step forward—that it is impossible to approach this problem with a clear-cut intellectual definition, because the phenomenon of faith is not stationary but essentially dynamic ("increasing and decreasing").

In this respect Al-Bukhari categorically differs from schools of thought like the Murji'ah (see II, 2), who restricted belief to mere faith in heart and thus divorced it from its outward manifestation, that is, action. The unavoidable consequence of such a restriction would be the elimination from Islam of one of its most fundamental features, namely, its concern with the practical life of man and society. Had the Murji'ah, who at the time of Al-Bukhari possessed considerable influence, succeeded in impressing their ideas on the Muslim mind, Islam would have rapidly assumed the role of present-day Christianity, in which belief and worship are entirely dissociated from the realities of life. The influence of the Murji'ah has been destroyed by the work of Al-Bukhari, which proves that action is not an accessory of faith but its indispensable element; but if the Murji'ah as such are only a historical reminiscence, their idea has out-lived them and can be encountered to-day in many doctrinaires of all denominations, for whom the observance of appearances is more essential than the spirit and the purpose of religion.
The Book of Faith, with the mosaic-like arrangement of its sections and the explanations (tardīm al-abwāb) given by the author, is conceived as a polemical weapon against those two tendencies. The sections i, ii, xxv—xxviii, xxxiv—xl, are so many arguments against the Murji‘ah. They show that the Prophet himself regarded action as an indispensable part of faith, that is, as something without which the latter is not complete. On the other side, transgressions or even sins (with the exception of the ascribing of partners to God) do not necessarily destroy faith, as the Khārijiyah thought. The arguments against them are contained in the sections xx (showing that not every kufr is equivalent to unbelief in the theological sense of the word—cf. II, 92), xxi—xxiii, xxi (which shows that even a sincere Muslim is not supposed to be free of sins), xxxviii, and xli. But the polemic against the Khārijiyah and Murji‘ah, important as it is, is not the sole purport of this chapter. The positive qualities required of a Muslim are shown in many Traditions, and particularly in the sections ii—viii, which expound the idea of the brotherhood of the Faithful under the supreme leadership of the Last Prophet. The intensely practical character of Islam is perhaps nowhere illustrated with such a lucidity as in Tr. 12, in which the Prophet describes the giving of food as the best act of Islam. Thus, the providing of means of livelihood to our fellow-beings is elevated to a primary religious obligation; and before trying to “save the soul” of our hungry brother, we must give him to eat, so that he may live and be able to worship God, the Giver of Life. The practical goal of the Islamic shari‘ah is the construction of social conditions in which all individuals will find equal opportunities for their spiritual and material development. This practical, social purpose of the shari‘ah gives the Muslims the moral right to strive for its establishment in the world. The Prophet said (Tr. 25): “I have been bidden to fight people until they bear witness that there is no deity but God and that Muhammad is the Apostle of God . . .” Adversaries of Islam see in this Tradition a proof of their allegation that Islam is bent upon propagation of religion with the sword, that is, upon forcing the recognition of its fundamentals on non-believers under the threat of death or humiliation. Nothing is further from truth than this: for the use of force in those early days of Islam had for its object not the spreading of beliefs, but the establishment of certain social conditions regarded as beneficial to all. As to beliefs, the liberty of conscience is authoritatively laid down in the Qur‘ān:

لا أكره في الدين

“There is no compulsion in religion (Surah ii, 256)”
—and is, moreover, clearly expressed in other Traditions bearing on the same subject (cf. II, 74). None can be forced to believe anything against his convictions. But if Muslims believe that the social system of Islam is the most favourable for the moral and material development of mankind, they are morally obliged to work, as hardly as they can, for its establishment throughout the world. The Christian Inquisition of the Middle Ages tried forcibly to convert people to Christianity so that their souls might be saved; but Islam tries to secure only the working of a social system which, by its very equity and reasonableness, may enable non-Muslims living within its realm gradually to recognise and voluntarily to accept the spiritual values of Islam as well. “And this” (I am quoting from my book, Islam at the Crossroads) “is the moral justification of the aggressive activism of Islam, the justification of the early Islamic conquests and its so-called ‘Imperialism.’ For Islam is ‘imperialist,’ if we must use this term; but this kind of Imperialism is not prompted by love of domination, it has nothing to do with economic or national selfishness, nothing with the greed to increase our own comforts at other people’s cost, nor has it ever meant the coercion of non-believers into the belief of Islam. It has only meant, as it means today, the construction of a worldly frame for the best possible spiritual development of man. Moral knowledge, according to the teachings of Islam, automatically forces moral responsibility upon man. A mere Platonic discernment between Right and Wrong, without the urge to promote the Right and to destroy the Wrong, is a gross immorality in itself. In Islam, morality lives and dies with the human endeavour to establish its victory upon earth.” Muslims have certainly no more reason to be ashamed of the use of force during their past history than the nations of the West who forcibly suppress immoral traffic in women, drug traffic, exploitation of labour or the cremation of widows on the funeral pyres of their husbands. In both cases the use of force can be justified by the moral conviction that it is meant for the best of humanity. The changed conditions of life in the present age, the widening of knowledge, the improvement of communications, newspapers, the increasing mutual understanding of nations:—all these factors may, perhaps, gradually eliminate the necessity of employing force in the service of social reform, and may replace the sword by intellectual persuasion. But the fact remains that the sword of Islam has very considerably contributed to the moral and material progress of mankind; and it is not for Muslims to apologise for their ancestors who took it up in the service of humanity.—
In the fifty-one Traditions of *The Book of Faith*, and in Al-Bukhari’s *tārījim al-abwāb*, faith and religion are shown as possessed of many aspects, all leading towards a unity of Idea and Action, so sublimely anticipated in the ethical and practical programme of Islam. For Islam does not content itself with the shaping of man’s spiritual disposition, but shows to him also the way of practically projecting this disposition into the outward formation of life and society. As life is two-sided, spiritual and material, so there must exist for each abstract (ethical or metaphysical) postulate of religion a concrete counterpart in the form of a practical social proposition. This golden rule of the Islamic *shari'ah* has often been misunderstood by non-Muslims, particularly Christians, who think that there is too much “materialism” in Islam. They have grown accustomed to regard religion from a purely transcendental point of view, and to dissociate “the spirit” from the material exigencies of human life. In Islam, spirit and matter cannot be so neatly separated with regard to their functions, as is done in Christianity. The so-called “materialism” of the *shari'ah* is nothing but a recognition of the complex quality of life. In other words, Islam does not regard the world of matter as accidental, but as part of a God-willed totality; and there can be no reality in religion unless it succeeds in co-ordinating spirit and matter, volition and nature, belief and social necessity, into one harmonious whole. This co-ordination of all realities of life is the greatest achievement of Islam.
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