PROPHETS AND PROGENITORS IN THE EARLY SHI'A TRADITION*

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INTRODUCTION

As is well known, the Shi‘ī belief that ‘Ali should have been Muḥammad’s successor was based on the principle of hereditary Califate, or rather Imamate. ‘Ali’s father, Abū Ṭalib, and Muḥammad’s father, ‘Abdallāh, were brothers, so that Muḥammad and ‘Ali were first cousins. Since the Prophet himself left no sons, the Shi‘a regarded ‘Ali as his only rightful successor.¹

Several Shi‘ī traditions proclaim ‘Ali’s family relationship (qaraiba) to Muḥammad as the basis for his hereditary rights. For the sake of brevity we shall only point out some of the earliest. A number of these early Shi‘ī traditions center around the “brothering”, i.e. the mu‘akhah which took place after the hijra; this was an agreement by which each emigrant was paired with one of the Anṣār and the two, who thus became brothers, were supposed to inherit each other (see Qur’ān, IV, 33).² ‘Ali, as an exception, was paired not with one of the Anṣār but with the Prophet himself.³

A certain verse in the Qur’ān (VIII, 72) was interpreted as stating that the practice of mu‘akhah was confined only to the Muhājrīn and the Anṣār, to the exclusion of those believers who had stayed back in Mecca after the hijra. They retained the old practice of inheritance according to blood-relationship.⁴ This practice, which was introduced in al-Madīnah, affected the hereditary rights of the families of the Muhājrīn who were supposed to leave their legacy to their Anṣārī

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¹ The ‘Abbasids on their part claimed similar hereditary rights for their ancestor, al-‘Abbās b. ‘Abd al-Muṭṭalib, who was the prophet’s uncle. See on the ‘Abbās - Shī‘ī debate I. Goldziher, Muslim Studies, ed. by S.M. Stern (London, 1971), II, 97 ff. Al-‘Abbās, according to an anti-‘Abbāsī, Shī‘ī tradition, hesitated to become Muḥammad’s heir because he was too old and too poor. Therefore Muḥammad preferred ‘Ali who received his ring, armour and the rest of his personal effects. See Tāl, 166–169. A clear anti-‘Abbāsī tendency is reflected in another Shī‘ī tradition to the effect that al-‘Abbās was neither able to put on Muḥammad’s armour nor to ride his mule (Ibn Shahrashūb, II, 151–152, see also 249).

² See e.g. W.M. Watt, Muḥammad At Medina, Oxford 1956, p. 249.

³ See e.g. Ibn Hishām, II, 150; Ibn Shahrashūb, II, 32–33; Ibn al-Bitrīq, Umda, 83 ff. According to other sources, however, the “brotherhood” between ‘Ali and Muḥammad had been established during an earlier mu‘akhah at Mecca. In the Madani mu‘akhah ‘Ali was paired with Sahl b. Ḥunayf. See Ibn Habīb, al-Muḥabbar (ed. I. Lichtenstaedt) rep. Beirut n.d. p. 70–71.

“brothers”. As a result, the *mu‘ākhāh* was soon abrogated and the old hereditary principle resumed. Some Qur’ānic verses (VIII, 75; XXXIII, 6) are interpreted as referring to this abrogation. These verses assert that blood-relations (*ulū l-arḥām*) are more worthy than other believers.

The Shi‘a however maintains that these same verses denote quite the opposite. They do not abrogate the *mu‘ākhāh* but rather assert ‘Alī’s preeminent position among the rest of the believers who took part in this agreement. According to the Shi‘a, ‘Alī was entitled to inherit his “brother” Muḥammad not only by virtue of the agreement but also on account of his being Muḥammad’s next of kin, that is, he was Muḥammad’s heir both in accordance with the old principle and the new one. It follows that the Qur’ānic verses which state that blood-relations are more worthy than other believers refer to ‘Alī’s superior position among the participants in the *mu‘ākhāh*.

Such an interpretation is recorded already on the authority of Zayd b. ‘Alī (d. 122 A.H.) who, referring to Qur’ān VIII, 75, stated that ‘Alī was both a Muhājir (i.e. took part in the *mu‘ākhāh* as Muḥammad’s “brother”) and a blood-relation. Jābir b. Yazīd (d. 123/128/129 A.H.) is also quoted as stating in his *tafsīr* on this verse that ‘Alī was entitled to inherit Muḥammad both by virtue of the religion (the *mu‘ākhāh*) and by virtue of kinship; he was Muḥammad’s heir as the Prophet had declared: “You are my brother in this world and in the world to come and you are my heir (*warithi*).” Jābir b. Yazīd stated also that by right of his being Muḥammad’s “brother”, ‘Alī received his legacy, his arms, his belongings and his mule. It is evident that these traditions, although dealing with Muḥammad’s personal legacy, were conceived by the Shi‘a as implying his religious inheritance as well.

This material, if authentically quoted from the early sources, leads to the conclusion that as early as the end of the first century A.H. the Shi‘a tenet on ‘Alī’s hereditary rights already came to a full literary expression.

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5 See e.g. loc. cit., Suhayl II, 252.
6 See GAS, I, 556 ff.
8 GAS, I, 307.
9 Ibn Shahrashub, II, 35. The Shi‘a sometimes stresses that al-‘Abbās was not entitled to inherit Muḥammad because, unlike ‘Alī, he was not a mūhājir, and therefore was not included in the agreement. See loc. cit.
10 Ibid., 18.
11 In fact, not only ‘Alī’s rights, but also those of al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn were asserted on the basis of their close kinship to Muḥammad. They were ‘Alī’s sons from his wife Fāṭima, daughter of Muḥammad. Sometimes they are described as Muḥammad’s own sons, without mention of ‘Alī, their real father. The Prophet was quoted as stating: “all sons belong to their fathers except the sons of Fāṭima; I am their father and family” (Khargūsh, Tübingen, 12a; Ibn Shahrashub, III, 158. And see also Nahī, III, 9, a discussion of the possibility of counting a daughter’s sons among one’s own offspring). A further tradition maintains that as long as Muḥammad was alive, al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn never called ‘Alī by the name of “father” (Khargūsh, Tübingen, 13b; Ibn Shahrashub, II, 306–307; Khuwārizmī, 8). Al-Ḥasan and
Prophets and Progenitors in the Early Shi'a Tradition

The most explicit formulation of the early Shi'i view concerning 'Ali's hereditary rights was, perhaps, the doctrine of Nūr Muḥammad. This doctrine deals with Muḥammad’s pre-existent luminous substance which is seen as a blaze upon the forehead of each of its carriers. In the most elaborate form of the doctrine, this luminous prophetic substance is said to have been placed within the loins of the first progenitor of Muḥammad, namely Adam. The Muḥammadan light continued with Adam until the conception of Sheth, when it was transferred to Eve. At the birth of Sheth it shone upon his forehead, and in the same way it was passed on from one to another of the pure progenitors of Muḥammad until it reached Muḥammad himself. Among Muḥammad’s progenitors the most noteworthy were Adam, Sheth, Noah, Abraham and Ishmael. From Ishmael the light was transferred to his son Kedar, and from Kedar to the rest of his posterity, the Arab ancestors of Muḥammad.

According to the Shi'a, the process of transmission went on until it reached 'Abd al-Muṭṭalib, the common grandfather of Muḥammad and 'Alī. Then it was divided into two parts, Muḥammad’s light being placed in the loins of his father ‘Abdallāh, and ‘Alī’s in those of Abū Ṭālib. From ‘Alī, to whom his share of the light was transferred on his birth, it was transmitted to the following Imāms, thus serving as the core of their divine nature. The Shi'a circulated the view about the division of Nūr Muḥammad in order to assert that Muḥammad and ‘Alī inherited from their respective fathers an equal share of prophetic light, ‘Alī thus becoming the only legitimate successor (waṣāyy) of Muḥammad.

The doctrine of Nūr Muḥammad presents Muḥammad and the following Shi'i Imāms as continuing the divine line of Muḥammad’s pure ancestors. In other words, those ancestors are regarded as the origin of the divine nature and religious authority of Muḥammad and the Imāms.

This doctrine corresponds by its traducian character to Arabic pre-Islamic al-Ḥusayn were even represented as having Muḥammad’s outer appearance (see Bukhārī, IV, 227, V, 33; Ya‘qūbī, II, 117; Tirmidhī, XIII, 196. Other persons too were said to have looked like the Prophet. See Zurqānī, VII, 17; Fath al-Bārī, VII, 76–77; Ya‘qūbī, II, 117).


13 See IOS, 5, pp. 98 ff. The widely current tradition according to which Muḥammad said: ‘ālī minn wa-ana minhu, is explained according to the concept of Nūr Muḥammad. The particle min is explained as min li-l-tabyin, denoting identity, hence the rendering of the tradition would be: “‘Alī is myself and I am ‘Alī”. The basis of this interpretation are the traditions according to which Muḥammad and ‘Alī were created from the same prophetic light which wandered through the loins of their common ancestors, till it was split in the loins of ‘Abd al-Muṭṭalib. (Ibn al-Bīrīq, 'Umda, 104 ff.) The ‘Abbāsids, for their part, introduced a tradition about a divine light called Nūr al-Khilāfa, which was inherited by the ‘Abbāsīd Calīfs from Ḥashim, through al-'Abbās and his descendants (Mustadrak, III, 331 and see also Muslim Studies, II, 61). Another tradition counteracts the Shi'i view by pointing out that the Calīfs who actually ruled the Muslim community prior to ‘Alī, i.e. Abū Bakr, ‘Umar and ‘Uthmān, had also an equal share in Nūr Muḥammad which is said to have been split between their respective fathers (Sawa’īq, 82–83).
views. It would be fitting to quote Goldziher’s words concerning Arab paganism:

Just as the Arabs took for granted the inheritance of physical characteristics, they also assumed that moral attributes were handed down in the same way. Virtues and vices being passed on from the ancestors, the individual could prove his muruwwa best by being able to point out that the virtues which make the true muruwwa were transmitted from noble ancestors, or that he had ancestors who had nothing undistinguished to leave to him as the Sunna followed by the descendants. “He is elevated by the vein — i.e. the blood — of his ancestors”, or “Noble veins lift him up” to his ancestor is the usual description of a man’s inheritance from noble ancestors...  

This very outlook was applied to Muhammad within the framework of the doctrine of Nur Muhammad according to which the Prophet inherited his prophetic virtues, i.e. the Muhammadian light, from his forefathers. It would seem that the concept of Nur Muhammad represents the common Shi‘i outlook concerning the origin of the prophetic and religious authority of Muhammad and the Shi‘i Imams. Referring to the doctrine of Nur Muhammad, Goldziher has confirmed that “Zwar in fester, einheitlich-dogmatischer Formulierung erscheint diese traducianistische Theorie nicht, aber man kann sie als die allgemein anerkannte schi‘itische Anschauung vom Charakter der Imame betrachten.”

However, a close scrutiny of the available Shi‘i sources reveals yet another view concerning the origin of the position of ‘Alî and the rest of the Imams as the only legitimate religious leaders of the Muslim community after Muhammad. Unlike the hereditary doctrine of Nur Muhammad, which may be defined as physical and Arab-oriented in its essence, this doctrine is “testamentary” and may be defined as spiritual, with a clear non-Arab orientation.

According to this doctrine, the light by which ‘Alî came to be Muhammad’s only successor became incarnate in him only at the last moment of Muhammad’s life. In fact, this light is regarded as a part of the divine spirit which transmigrated from Muhammad to ‘Alî at the former’s death. It follows that this spiritual light, which is generally known as the Divine light (Nur Allah) is essentially different from Nur Muhammad which, as part of the ancestral sperm had come to him not from Muhammad but from his father, Abû Tâlib.

The spiritual light is said to have been transmitted to ‘Alî as a part of Muhammad’s testament (waṣfyya). This consisted of all his divine spiritual virtues, namely his eternal knowledge, the worldly existence of which was to be continued through ‘Alî and after him through all the Shi‘i Imams. The symbol of this eternal knowledge (‘ilm) is the divine light of the Imami spirit which transmigrates from generation to generation.

Like Nur Muhammad, the Divine light is also regarded as having been transmitted through a universal line of chosen carriers, the first of whom was Adam. But unlike Nur Muhammad which, as an ancestral sperm, was confined to the genealogical line of Muhammad’s progenitors, the Divine light, as an independent spiritual

14 Muslim Studies, I, 46.
15 Vorlesungen, 218.
entity is able to wander through any line of chosen human beings. Thus it is said to have reached Muhammad from Ishmael not through his Arab progenitors — the posterity of Ishmael — but through the Judaeo-Christian prophets of Banū Isrā‘īl to whom the light was transferred from Ishmael via his Hebrew brother, Isaac. Hence, the origin of the religious authority of Muhammad and the Shi‘ī Imāms is said to have been closely related to the ancient non-Arab heritage of the Judaeo-Christian prophets, notably Moses and Jesus. These did not, of course, have any ancestral relation to Muhammad.\(^{16}\)

Some noteworthy points of this doctrine will be examined below, according to the available source material. An attempt will also be made to elucidate the relation between this non-Arab “testamentary” doctrine and the Arab, hereditary doctrine of Nīr Muḥammad.

I. THE UNIVERSAL WĀṢĪYYA

As is well known the Shi‘a held the belief that ‘Alī had received from the Prophet a secret knowledge of a divine religious character, which was in due course passed on to the following Imāms as well.\(^{17}\) A Shi‘ī tradition relates that before his death, Muhammad summoned ‘Alī, embraced him and communicated to him a thousand chapters of knowledge, each one opening into a thousand more. On the day of his death Muhammad reportedly said: “Call the beloved of my heart,” he then took him under his coverlet and imparted mysteries and secrets to him, till at length he died.\(^{18}\)

‘Alī’s esoteric knowledge was elevated quite early to the rank of a universal religious heritage which came to him, through Muhammad, from the preceding prophets. The concept which developed was that the universal religious heritage wandered successively from each prophet to his wāṣīyy till it came to Muḥammad and from him to his own wāṣīyy, ‘Alī. This concept is reflected in a tradition recorded by the Shi‘ī author al-Ya‘qūbī (d. 278 A.H.). According to this tradition it was already Mālik b. al-Ḥārith al-Ashtar\(^{19}\) who on ‘Alī’s accession declared: “This is the wāṣīyy of the awṣiyyā‘ and the heir to the knowledge of the prophets.”\(^{20}\)

\(^{16}\) To some extent, this view is parallel to the Ismā‘īlī doctrine about the cyclical manifestation of the ‘aql through the nāṭiqs: they were Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, Muḥammad and the seventh Imām. The examination of the exact relation between the two views remains, however, beyond the scope of this study.

\(^{17}\) See e.g. Vorlesungen, 224; M.E.S. Hodgson, “How Did The Early Shi‘a Become Sectarian?”, JAOS, 75 (1955), pp. 11 ff.

\(^{18}\) See Rice, op. cit., 42. Some of the Shi‘t traditions concerning this matter were recognized by the Sunna as well. See e.g. Mustadrak, 139 ultra (from Aḥmad). Some Shi‘t sects (like the Zaydfs) held that ‘Alī had inherited only Muḥammad’s knowledge but not the leadership (which was given to Aḥb Bākr). See e.g. Nahj, I, 46.

\(^{19}\) See about him Ansāb, V, 43 ff., 59 ff.

According to the Shi'i outlook in its most elaborate form the first of the prophetic figures to possess this universal heritage was no other than Adam. It was revealed to Adam by Allah, and from Adam it was transmitted from generation to generation through the prophets and their successors (awṣiyā'), till it reached the Shi'i Imams. This knowledge is the only true one; any other knowledge, not possessed by the Aḥl al-Bayt, is false.\(^2\)

The Shi'i view which regards the Imams as possessing religious knowledge inherited from the prophets, is reflected in the interpretation of Qur'ān XLII, 13, where it is stated that the religion (dīn) which was enjoined upon the Muslims is the very religion that had been prescribed (waṣṣā, i.e. given as a waṣṭiya) to Noah, Abraham, Moses and Jesus. The Shi'a maintains that this verse actually refers to the exclusive religion of the Aḥl al-Bayt which is identical with the religion of the prophets. Aḥl al-Bayt alone are the true heirs of these prophets;\(^2\) by virtue of their knowledge the Imams have free authority with regard to the Holy Scriptures. 'Alī was said to have declared that he had inherited from Muḥammad the complete knowledge of the Tawrāh as well as that of the Injīl (the Gospel). This statement was made by 'Alī in al-Kūfa while he was wearing Muḥammad's armour, turban and ring, and holding his sword.\(^2\)

This knowledge, though the essence of the universal heritage transmitted from generation to generation, was nevertheless only one component of the waṣṭiya which was passed on from each prophet to his successor. This waṣṭiya contained some concrete elements as well, the most important of which was the tābūt, i.e. the Ark. According to our sources, the Ark was brought by Adam from Paradise.\(^2\) It was made - so the tradition goes - of diamond or white pearl, with two doors locked with a golden chain and two emerald handles. In it were deposited "the testament and the brocade" (al-'ahd wa-l ūṣba).\(^2\) The tābūt is said to have been used for prophetic purposes. Sheth, who was the waṣṭiya of his father Adam, opened the tābūt which had been assigned to him by his father, in order to learn

\(^2\) See e.g. Bihar, XXIII, 39: inna l-'iḥl iladhi aḥbaṭa adam lam yurfa. wa-l-'iḥl yutawārath, wa-kull shay'min al-'iḥl wa-āthār al-rusul wa-l-anbīyā' lam yakun min ahl hadhā l-bayt fa-huwa bāfīl. . . . See also 'Ila, 591.
\(^2\) Bihar, XXIII, 366. . . . fa-qāla fi kitābī: "shar'a lakum min al-dīn" yā al muḥammad "mā wāṣṣā bihi mūhan"; fa-qad wāṣṣā ba-nū wāṣṣā bihi mūhan. "wa-l-Īdīh waḥaynā īlaykā" yā muḥammad "wa-nā wāṣṣāna bihi ībrāhīmā" wa-īsmā'īla wa-tshāqa wa-yā'qūba "wa-nīsā wa-ta'sa"; fa-qad 'alimā biwa-bātqūna min 'ilmā wa-stawda'na. fa-nāhnu warathat al-anbīyā' wa-nāhnu warathat utū t-ūsm līm al-rusul.
\(^2\) Khuwarizmt, 47 (from al-Bayhaqī). Another Shi'ī tradition says that the tablets of Moses, the Gospel, the sūhif ībrahīm and the zabūr are in the possession of the Shi'ī Imams. See M.J. Kister, "Haddithū 'An Banf Isrā'īl", JOS, 2 (1972), p. 232.
\(^2\) See Ţabarī, Tafṣīr, II, 384: Thalātab, 236.
\(^2\) Ithbat, 93; Khargūshī, 8b. And see also Qur'ān, II, 248, the zabūr contains "the Shechina and the relics of what the family of Moses and the family of Aaron left." The traditions say - in accordance with Jewish legend - that the relics of Moses and Aaron deposited in the Ark, consisted of the broken tablets of the Law, as well as of the staff of Moses, the clothes of Moses and Aaron, the Torah, the manna etc. See e.g. Ţabarī, op.cit., 387–388.

46
Prophets and Progenitors in the Early Shi'a Tradition

about the time of Noah’s appearance. The prophet Hūd commanded his people to open the waṣīyya (i.e. the tābūt) once a year. Abraham is also said to have opened the tābūt in order to reveal the future of his posterity.

As a symbol of Israelite prophethood the tābūt is, of course, transmitted only through the prophets of Banū Isrā’īl. The Shi’is however, who held that the line of the ancient prophets was followed by the line of the Shi’i Imāms, used to point to some of their own insignia as equivalent to the tābūt. The Imām ‘Alī al-Riḍā reportedly declared that the armour of Muhammad was assigned from Imam to Imam just as the tābūt had been forwarded from prophet to prophet.

Another item of the waṣīyya was the “greatest name of God” (al-ism al-a’zam). This divine name was also contained in the tābūt and it consisted of seventy three letters. Each prophet was entrusted with a certain number of those mysterious letters, but the greatest number, seventy two letters, was revealed only to Muḥammad. Allāh kept for Himself the last letter as an eternal secret. The ism al-a’zam was entrusted, after Muḥammad, to the Shi’i Imāms. ‘Alī and the Imāms were given the same number of letters with which Muḥammad had been invested.

Muḥammad’s famous sword, Dhū l- Faqār is also described by some early traditions as dating back to ancient times. A tradition quoted from the Tafsīr of al-Suddī (d. 128 A.H.), says that it was made of the leaves of the myrtle (ās) of Paradise, and was brought down to earth by Adam. It bore an inscription saying that the sword would be transmitted from prophet to prophet till ‘Ali would inherit it from Muḥammad. This sword continued to wander through the Imāms up to the Mahdi. It seems that this particular tradition about Dhū l-Faqār reflects the tradition about Moses’ staff which is also said to have been made of the myrtle of Paradise, and brought down by Adam. It was handed down from prophet to prophet till Moses himself received it from Shu’ayb (Jethro).
The *jafr* of the Shi’i Imams\(^{38}\) is also regarded as an inheritance from the preceding prophets. Only prophets or *awṣiyā*\(^{39}\) were allowed to look into it. Sometimes a red *jafr* is mentioned which contains Muhammad’s arms, and sometimes a white *jafr* which contains the Torah of Moses, Jesus’ Gospel, David’s Psalms and the rest of the Holy Scriptures.\(^{40}\)

We shall now turn to the traditions which speak about the actual transmission of the various items of the *waṣiyya* in its universal course. One of these traditions counts the names of all the carriers of the prophetic-Imami heritage, Adam being the first of them. Adam’s *waṣiyyy* was Sheth who, in turn transmitted the *waṣiyyy* to his own *waṣiyyy*, and so forth till it reached Idrīs, the second prophet after Adam. After Idrīs, the *waṣiyyy* reached the next prophet, Noah, who received it from Idrīs through the latter’s *awṣiyā*. Noah’s *waṣiyyy* was Shem who continued the line of transmission till the *waṣiyyy* reached Abraham. Abraham’s successor was Ishmael who, in turn, invested his brother Isaac with the prophetic heritage of the *waṣiyyy*. Isaac assigned it to Jacob, Jacob to Joseph and so forth till at length it reached Moses through Jethro. Moses who is regarded as the first prophet of Banū Isrā‘īl, the last of whom was Jesus,\(^{41}\) is said to have transmitted the prophetic heritage to Joshua, Joshua to David, David to Solomon and so forth till it reached Jesus. The last of Jesus’ *awṣiyā*, namely Barda, transmitted the *waṣiyyy* to the Muslim prophet Muḥammad. Muḥammad assigned it to ‘Alī and the line of transmission was now followed through all the Shi’i Imāms.\(^{42}\)

This tradition serves in the Twelver-Shi’a as an illustration of the *nass* principle, i.e. the delegation of authority through designation. The tradition concludes with a statement ascribed to Muḥammad to the effect that the only legitimate Imām is he who has the *nass* of his predecessor, i.e. ‘Alī is Muḥammad’s only legitimate *waṣiyyy*.\(^{43}\)

\(^{38}\) See e.g. Madelung, *loc. cit.*.


\(^{40}\) Ibn Shahrāshūb, I, 218. See also Kister, *op. cit.*, 232. And see about the insignia of the Umayyads and the ‘Abbasids which were passed on in succession, *Muslim Studies*, II, 60–61.

\(^{41}\) See e.g. Ṭabarī, *Ta’rtkh*, I, 451; *Ma‘arif*, 26. Isaac, however, is sometimes counted as the first Hebrew prophet. See *Biḥār*, XI, 56.

\(^{42}\) Ibn Shahrāshūb, I, 215–216; Rajab al-Barst, 58; *Biḥār*, XXIII, 57–58. The principle of the successive *waṣiyyy* was sometimes severely criticised by members of Ahl al-Bayt themselves. See Ibn Sa’d, V, 324–325; *Vorlesungen*, 260, note 5.

\(^{43}\) According to the principle of the *nass*, the prophet had expressly designated and appointed ‘Alī as his successor before his death (see e.g. *Muslim Studies*, II, 112 ff; Hodgson, *op. cit.*, 10 ff.). One can trace this idea back to the very beginning of the second century A.H. An explicit literary expression of it is found in Muḥammad’s biography as compiled by Ibn Ishaq (d. 150/151 A.H.). The material used in his book stems from the beginning of the second century. According to an instructive tradition, as it is quoted from Ibn Ishaq by al-Ṭabarī (through Salama b. al-Fadl), Muḥammad assembled all the children of ‘Abd al-Muṭṭalib, embraced ‘Alī who had been the only one ready to assist the Prophet, and declared: “This is my brother, my *waṣiyyy* (i.e. successor) and my *khālfat* upon you. Obey him and do his bidding! ” (Ṭabarī, *Ta’rtkh*, II, 319–321. In Ṭabarī’s *Taṣfīr*, XIX, 75, the text seems to be deliberately shortened: *... inna ḥadīḥa akhī wa-kadīḥa wa-kadīḥa*. See also Ibn Shahrāshūb, I, 305–306 (Ibn
Prophets and Progenitors in the Early Shi'a Tradition

The most instructive element of the tradition just mentioned is the clear distinction drawn between the verb awṣā and the verb dafa'a. Whereas awṣā means 'to bequeath' or 'to enjoin upon', dafa'a means just 'to deliver'. This distinction is parallel to the distinction made between prophets and awṣiyā. Each prophet in our tradition is said to have 'enjoined' the waṣiyā on his waṣiy, whereas each waṣiy just 'delivers' the waṣiyā to the following awṣiyā till it is 'delivered' to the next prophet, who in turn 'enjoins' it on his own waṣiyā. This distinction is based on the view that the awṣiyā between every two prophets are no more than intermediary agents, whose task is merely to 'push' (dafa'a) the divine heritage onwards so that its successive transmission is assured. Only the prophets are granted the authority to 'bequeath' or to 'enjoin' this heritage on their successors. Most significant is the fact that Muḥammad himself is said to have 'delivered' the waṣiyā to 'Alī - a clear allusion to the fact that 'Alī, although a waṣiy, has a most elevated position parallel to that of Muḥammad himself, therefore the divine heritage has been 'delivered' to him and not 'enjoined' upon him.44

The details of the actual transmission of the waṣiyā with its various items may be found in sporadic traditions dealing each with a certain prophet. The recurring motif in these traditions is the appearance of Allāh to each carrier of the waṣiyā before his death. Allāh reveals to him the identity of his waṣiyā elected by Allāh to receive the waṣiyā. The traditions about the designation of Sheth (Hibat Allāh) as Adam's waṣiyā, for instance, are widely current in Shi'ī literature. Adam, it is related, was commanded by Allāh before his death to entrust Sheth with the knowledge and the faith as well as with the ism al-a'zam and the rest of the prophetic heritage. This would make Sheth an authoritative guide for his contemporary believers, providing them with deliverance from error.45 The various items of Adam's waṣiyā, it is related, were deposited in the tābūt, and Sheth was ordered to transmit it to his posteriority before his own death.46 Other traditions deal with

Ishāq and al-Tabarî); Suyūṭī, I, 306–307, 308–309 (from Ibn Ishāq without the declaration of 'Alī's waṣiyā). Ibn Hishām in his compilation has omitted this tradition altogether.) This tradition was later used by the Shi'a for its anti-'Abbasid aims. A Shi'I tradition relates that 'Alī was once asked why he and not his uncle (al-'Abbās) had been entitled to be Muḥammad's heir. As an answer, 'Alī quoted the above tradition (Tabarî, Ta'rikh, II, 321–322; Ibn Shahrāshūb, I, 306–307; 'Ilal, 170). According to Abū Mikhnaf (d. 157 A.H.), in al-Mukhtar's days (the middle of the first century A.H.) the title waṣiyā as attached to 'Alī was already widespread. Al-Mukhtar reportedly referred to Muḥammad b. al-Ḥanafiyya, 'Alī's son, as al-mahdiyy ibn al-wasiyy. See Anṣāb, V, 218.

44 See about the distinction between awṣā and dafa'a, Bihār, XXIII, 59. But on the other hand, 'Alī's position as a waṣiyā is generally regarded as parallel to the position of the previous awṣiyā'. See e.g. Bihār, XI, 41 (from Baṣīr al-Darajāt): wa-imna 'alt b. aṭīb tālib kana hibat allāh l-muḥammad, waritha 'ilm al-awṣiyā wa-'ilm man kana qablahu, ammā inna muḥammadan waritha 'ilm man kana qablahu mīn al-anbiyyā.

45 'Ilal, 195. See also Bihār, XXIII, 20; 64 (from Taṣīr al-'Ayyāshi). XI, 44.

46 Bihār, XI, 265. And see also ibid., XXIII, 60 ff. (Taṣīr al-‘Ayyāshi). For further traditions about Sheth see ibid., XI, 229, 45, 263; Ibn Sa'd, I, 28: Tabarî, Ta'rikh, I, 160–161. Sometimes, however, Abel is mentioned as Adam's first waṣiyā, Sheth being the second. See Bihār, XI, 227–229, 240. Other traditions maintain that Sheth was only the third waṣiyā, being preceded by Abel and his son. See ibid., XI, 245–246 ('Ayyāshi).
Noah who embarked the ark with the *tābūt*[^47] and bequeathed it to his son, Shem[^48].

As one would expect, a special tradition describes the transmission of the prophetic *waṣīyya* from Muḥammad to ‘Alī. The pattern of this tradition is identical to that of the above-mentioned traditions which deal with the preceding prophets. Thus it becomes clear that the traditions about the *waṣīyya* of the preceding prophets were circulated in order to reinforce the religious significance of ‘Alī’s position as Muḥammad’s legitimate *waṣīyy*. The ancient *awṣiyyah* mentioned in those traditions may be regarded as ‘Alī’s prototypes. Before Muḥammad’s death, so the tradition goes, Allah appeared to him and informed him about his approaching death. He commanded him to assign to ‘Alī his knowledge and faith as well as the *ism al-aʿzam* and the legacy of knowledge and prophethood, so that the transmission of the divine heritage would be followed through the prophet’s offspring.[^49]

Some of the above-mentioned traditions were also incorporated into the Sunni compilations of *ḥadīth*, for example the tradition about the transmission of the prophetic heritage from David to Solomon.[^50] This tradition also mentions light: *Nūr Allāh*, i.e. the light of Allāh, which is the main element in the prophetic heritage. It is quite obvious that since the Divine light is mentioned as a part of the *waṣīyya*, this doctrine is closely related to the well-known view about the reincarnation of the Imāmi eternal spirit in the corporeal bodies of its carriers. This luminous spirit is said to have been in existence prior to the creation of the world[^51].

The Divine light and the *waṣīyya* together represent the doctrine of the prophetic heritage in its most elaborate form. This is fully demonstrated in al-Masʿūdī’s *Ithbāt al-Waṣīyya li-l-Imām ‘Alī b. Abī Ṭālib*. In this book, whose acknowledged aim it is to prove that ‘Alī was indeed Muḥammad’s legitimate *waṣīyy*, one is confronted with a detailed and systematic review of the successive transmission of the light and the other items of the *waṣīyya* from Adam to the last Shiʿī Imām, through all the prophets.[^52] However, at one point, namely when the Divine light and the prophetic heritage reach Muḥammad through Jesus’ disciples (p. 89), the sequence of the story is interrupted by a group of traditions of quite a different nature. These traditions evince in detail the Arab oriented doctrine of *Nūr Muḥammad*, and one is thus able to obtain a clear picture of the wandering of *Nūr Muḥammad* through all the genealogical ancestors of the Prophet. Although fundamentally different from each other,[^53] the author of the *Ithbāt* has woven the two groups of traditions into a single version as if forming two complementary aspects of the same process. The story of *Nūr Allāh* and the *waṣīyya* is resumed at the point of its transmission from Muḥammad to ‘Alī (p. 122).

[^47]: Ibid., XI, 266.
[^48]: See about Noah’s *waṣīyya* ibid., XXIII, 33, XI, 46–47, 288–289.
[^49]: Ibid., XI, 48, XXIII, 225–226 (‘Ayyāshī), 249 (Furāt); Jawāhir, 210.
[^50]: See Mustadrak, II, 587.
[^51]: See e.g. *IOS*, 5, p. 104 ff.
[^52]: Quotations from *Ithbāt al-Waṣīyya* are found in Simt, I, 17, 52, 69, 74, 137 etc. The book is referred to as *Kitāb al-Waṣīyya*; its author is not mentioned by name.
[^53]: See below.
The *Ithbat* mentions by name all those who had carried the prophetic heritage before Muhammad, both prophets and *awṣiyā*'. Among the *awṣiyā* are mentioned priests and Levites. Between Joseph and Jethro priests of the family of Eli are mentioned, beginning with Phinehas who is regarded as the son of Joshua. After Solomon, Levites of the family of Asaph son of Berechiah are mentioned, up to Zechariah who transmitted the light to Jesus. Most of these names are difficult to identify. The major events in the days of some of the carriers of the *waṣiyya* are also recorded. From Asaph son of Berechiah onwards some references are made to the contemporary history of the Persians, especially to the building of a number of prominent Persian cities and to the names of the contemporary kings. Alexander the Great is also mentioned.

These references are most significant, for they are meant to allude to the close relation of Persians and Greeks to those chosen persons from whom Muhammad has inherited the Divine light. In other words, the Greeks and the Persians, like the Jews and the Christians, have participated in the origin of Muhammad's prophethood. As a matter of fact, a straightforward tradition to this effect is recorded in another source. According to this tradition, Muhammad possessed a carpet inherited from the preceding prophets, beginning with Adam. After Muhammad this carpet was in the possession of the Shi'i Imams. Among the persons who had owned the divine carpet prior to Muhammad one finds Dhūl-Qarnayn as well as Alexander the Great and Shābūr b. Ardashīr. The tendentious nature of this tradition is clear enough.

II. AHL AL-BAYT AND BANU ISRA'IL

The testamentary doctrine of the *waṣiyya* considered above is based on the conviction that the position of the Shi'i Imams among the Muslim believers is parallel to that of the *awṣiyā* among the Banū Isrā'īl. It seems that the Shi'a took a special interest in the stories about the prophets of Banū Isrā'īl (*qisas al-anbiyā*) in order to establish the principle of the *nass*. According to the most elaborate form of this principle, the delegation of Muhammad's authority to 'Ali and from him to the following Imams, was only a part, though a most essential one, of a universal process that started with Adam and continued through the prophets of Banū Isrā'īl.

It may be useful to draw attention to a few more Shi'i traditions which confirm the close analogy between 'Ali and the Imams and the *awṣiyā* of Banū Isrā'īl. As is well known it was already 'Abdallah b. Saba', 'Ali's contemporary, to whom the teaching was ascribed that 'Ali's relation to Muhammad was like that of Joshua to Moses. This means that 'Ali was entitled to be Muhammad's successor just as
Joshua had been Moses’ successor. Though the assumption that this teaching was originally circulated by Ibn Saba’ is hardly historical, one is nevertheless able to assert its early date. At least it is quite evident that this teaching was already well-known by the middle of the second century A.H., for it has been recorded in the Ta’rikh of ‘Alī b. Ṣaba‘ (d. 182 A.H.), from which it is quoted by Ibn Shahrāshūb. The same tradition was also recorded by Ahmad b. Ḥanbal. Another tradition is that which likens ‘Alī’s relation to Muhammad with that of Aaron to Moses. Sunnī scholars, however, claimed that since Aaron had died before Moses, the tradition was invalid with regard to ‘Alī’s authority after Muhammad’s death.

The names of ‘Alī’s two sons, from Fāṭima are related to the names of Aaron’s two sons. The angel Gabriel, it is said, revealed to the Prophet the names of Aaron’s two sons, Shubbar and Shubbayr, which were written in the Torah, and ordered him to give these names to ‘Alī’s two children. The rendering of these names was al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn. The tradition to this effect was recorded by al-Baladhuri (d. 279 H) and by Ahmad.

‘Alī is also “coupled” with another ancient wasiyy, namely, Shem, who was the successor of his father Noah. The relation between ‘Alī and Shem is demonstrated through a tradition to the effect that some Yemenites, “survivors from the ancient family of Noah” came to the Prophet and told him about Shem, the wasiyy of their prophet Noah. Upon being asked to mention his own wasiyy, Muhammad pointed to ‘Alī. ‘Alī himself performed a miracle by which he raised Shem from his grave, and the latter testified that ‘Alī was the wasiyy of Muhammad.

In fact, ‘Alī’s position as Muhammad’s wasiyy was regarded as parallel to the position of all the preceding awsiyy. Muhammad, it is related, told ‘Alī that his relation to Muhammad was like that of Sheth to Adam, Shem to Noah, Isaac to Abraham, Aaron to Moses and Petrus to Jesus. Sometimes the traditions stress even the superiority of ‘Alī to the rest of the awsiyy. Muhammad is made to
declare that Sheth was the waṭiyy of Adam, Joshua was Moses’ waṭiyy, Asaph was Solomon’s, Petrus was Jesus’ and ‘Ali was his own waṭiyy. Concluding his statement Muhammad declared that ‘Ali was the best of all the awsiyyā’ in this world and in the world to come.\footnote{Ibn Sharāshub, II, 247. See also Ithbāt, 166; Bihār, XI, 30.}

An even higher degree of the Shi‘ī veneration for ‘Ali is reflected through traditions to the effect that ‘Ali’s position was parallel to that of the prophets themselves. Some traditions assert ‘Ali’s relation to Noah. It is said that Noah had dug ‘Ali’s grave 700 years before the Deluge.\footnote{Ibn Shahrāshub, II, 172; Ithbāt, 152.} It is also related that Adam, Noah and ‘Ali were buried in the same grave.\footnote{Ithbāt, 153.} Other traditions point to ‘Ali’s relation to Abraham. While walking together in al-Madīna, Muhammad and ‘Ali were saluted by the trees, which compared them to Moses and Aaron, as well as to Noah and Abraham.\footnote{Khuwarīzarīf, 221; La‘īl, I, 354–355.} ‘Ali’s relation to Jesus can be deduced from a tradition saying that the Prophet once addressed ‘Ali with the following statement: “You are like Jesus; some people have loved him, therefore they perished, and some people have hated him, therefore they also perished.”\footnote{Khuwarīzarīf, 233, 226. And cf. ‘Iqd, IV, 312 (from al-Shā‘bb).}

Various elements from the biographies of ancient figures recur in ‘Ali’s own biography. Thus we find a tradition stating that the day of ‘Ali’s death corresponded to the day of the revelation of the Qur’ān, to the day of Joshua’s death, as well as to the day of Jesus’ Ascension.\footnote{Ithbāt, 154.} The biographies of the previous prophets served as a model for ‘Ali’s own behaviour. Once at al-Kūfah, ‘Ali explained to his followers why he had refrained from fighting his enemies, quoting similar examples from the lives of Abraham, Lot, Joseph, Moses, Aaron and Muhammad.\footnote{‘Iltāl, 148–149.} Some of his spiritual traits reflect those of preceding prophets. He possessed the knowledge of Adam, the comprehension of Noah, the abstinance of Yahyā (John the Baptist), and the power of Moses.\footnote{Khuwarīzarīf, 40–41, 45; Nahj, II, 429 (from Ahmad); La‘īl, I, 355–356. See also Ibn Shahrāshub, II, 286; Rajab al-Barstī, 56.} On the Day of Resurrection, it is said, Allāh will invest ‘Ali with the power of Gabriel, the light of Adam, the hilm of Riḍwān (the doorkeeper of Paradise) and the beauty of Joseph.\footnote{Ibn Shahrāshub, III, 27.}

Not only ‘Ali’s position and biography but also those of the Imāms in general were conceived as reflecting the history of the religious figures of Banū Isrā‘īl.\footnote{A Shi‘ī tradition maintains that by Children of Israel Āl Muḥammad are meant. See Kister, op. cit., 233.} Already Muhammad b. al-Hanafīyya reportedly declared (on the basis of Qur’ān II, 49) that the position of the Shi‘īs among the Muslim community was the same as that of the Banū Isrā‘īl among the people of the Egyptian Pharaoh – their sons had been slain and their daughters kept alive.\footnote{Ibn Sa‘d, V, 95. See also Kister, op. cit. 233 (from Furā‘ī). The same comparison be-
twelve Imāms was established, Muḥammad himself was quoted as predicting their appearance:

There is going to happen among my community what has already happened among the children of Israel, (and the happenings will be similar to each other) like a pair of shoes and like two feathers of an arrow — they have had twelve captains (i.e. of the tribes). ⁸⁰

The Imams are sometimes compared to Jesus’ disciples, whose number was twelve. ⁸¹ Some prominent Imāms are compared to ancient religious figures. Muḥammad, it is related, said that ‘Alī was his own similitude, al-Ḥasan was the similitude of Ibrāhīm, al-Ḥusayn — that of Moses, and ‘Alī b. al-Ḥusayn was the similitude of Aaron. ⁸²

Some traditions center around al-Ḥusayn. His superiority to his brother al-Ḥasan is also based on examples from the history of the people of Israel. It is claimed, for instance, that al-Ḥasan, although al-Ḥusayn’s eldest brother, was not permitted to be the forefather of the succeeding Imāms, just as Moses, although the eldest, ⁸³ did not beget the line of priests, who were Aaron’s descendants; similarly, the Imāms were descended from al-Ḥusayn’s offspring. ⁸⁴ Al-Ḥusayn’s martyrdom was compared to that of John the Baptist. ⁸⁵

Al-Ḥasan’s significance was also established on biblical foundations. A tradition relates that Jesus appeared to him in a dream and advised him to inscribe upon his ring the last verse of the Gospel. ⁸⁶ Finally, a reference must be made to a Shi’i tradition concerning al-Ḥasan and al-Ḥusayn, which has been included in the canonical compilations of ḥadīth. This tradition relates that the Prophet used to pronounce incantations (‘awwadha) over them just as Abraham used to over Isaac and Ishmael. ⁸⁷

Ibn Shahrāštīb, I, 258: Kā’in fi ummatt mã kāna fi bant īsra’īl hadhwa 1-na’ili bi-l-na’ili wa-l-qudhda bi-l-qudhda; kāna fihim ʾithna ashīra naqīban. See more such traditions ibid., 254; 258 ff. A similar comparison is made between the sins committed by the two communities. See e.g. Suyuttī, III, 14 ff; Ibn al-Bīṯrīq, ‘Umda, 178.

⁸⁰ Ibn Shahrāštīb, I, 258: Kā’in fi ummatt mã kāna fi bant īsra’īl hadhwa 1-na’ili bi-l-na’ili wa-l-qudhda bi-l-qudhda; kāna fihim ʾithna ashīra naqīban. See more such traditions ibid., 254; 258 ff. A similar comparison is made between the sins committed by the two communities. See e.g. Suyuttī, III, 14 ff; Ibn al-Bīṯrīq, ‘Umda, 178.

⁸¹ Iḥḥāṭ, 259.

⁸² Khuwarizmi, 85.

⁸³ This, of course, goes contrary to the evidence of the Old Testament.

⁸⁴ Ḩīl, 209. See also Ibn Shahrāštīb, III, 207; cf. Biḥār, XXIII, 70. The Zaydīyya, of course, recognized other Imāms as well.

⁸⁵ See various traditions about the two of them, Ibn Shahrāštīb, III, 234, 237; Khargoshī (Tübingen) 21b–22a; Jawahir, 314, Laʾālī, I, 391.

⁸⁶ Khargoshī (Tübingen), 21a.

⁸⁷ Bukhārī, IV, 179; Khargoshī (Tübingen), 20a–20b; Ibn Shahrāštīb, III, 155.
Prophets and Progenitors in the Early Shi'a Tradition

The above examples provide us with some idea of the extent to which the early Shi'a was aware of the close relation between Ahl al-Bayt and the Banū Isrā'il.88

III. THE EARLY FOUNDATIONS

The Shi'i preoccupation with traditions which deal with the prophets of Banū Isrā'il as pre-figuring its own heroes, dates back to the earliest stages of its development. In fact, the Shi'a seems to be responsible for the main flow89 of Judaeo-Christian motifs into the Muslim literature already since the first century A.H. This assumption finds support in Goldziher's observation that in the first century A.H. those who were concerned with religious matters were mainly Shi'is90 (this Shi'i religious activity caused almost simultaneously the counteraction of the Umayyad rulers91). Therefore it seems probable that the belief in the identity of fate between Banū Isrā'il and the Muslim community as a whole92 has its origin in the more restricted Shi'i form of this outlook concerning the close relation between the history of Banū Isrā'il and that of Ahl al-Bayt.93

At any rate, the Shi'i belief concerning the successive transmission of the

88 On the other hand, the similarity between Ahl al-Bayt and Banū Isrā'il, as emphasized by the Shi'a, was the very target for criticism by the opponents of the Shi'a. Al-Sh'abt, for instance, (d. 103 A.H.) reportedly reproached the Rāfīdītes, counting numerous points of identity between them and the Jews. See 'Iqd, II, 409–410. And perhaps it is of some significance that the Umayyad calif, Yazīd I, used to say that his monkey was an old man of Banū Isrā'il who had become a monkey because of his sins (Ansāb, IVb, p. 1). About the Shi'i use of the Bible for its own purposes see also Vorlesungen, 260, note 6. It is noteworthy that the Sunnī califs as well were sometimes presented as continuing the line of the prophets of Banū Isrā'il. See Muslim, VI, 17.

89 This flow contained, in fact, traditions covering a wide range of subjects. See Kister, op. cit. 221 ff, 226 ff. As is shown by Kister, a great number of these traditions reflect the widely accepted opinion that the Holy Books of the Jews and Christians included information about the Muslim prophet and his community (ibid., 225). Here also one can trace the early expressions of this idea in its more restricted Shi'i form. A tradition to the effect that 'Alī's merits are enumerated in the Holy Scriptures of the Christians is recorded on the authority of Naṣr b. Muzāḥim (d. 212 A.H.) in Nahj, I, 288–289 (from his Kitāb Sīfṭān); cf. many more traditions which concern the prediction that 'Alī would be Muhammad's wasīṭiy, in: Ibn Shahārashūb, I, 38, II, 90 ff; Bihār, XV, 236–239; 'Iṣal, 136. And see also, Kister, op. cit., 222.

90 Muslim Studies, II, 39. See also 43 ult. In fact, those religious circles who indulged in the Judaeo-Christian literature during the first century consisted of both Shi'i and ascetics; see, e.g., S.D. Goitein, “Isrā’īliyyāt”, Tarbiz, 6 (1936), p. 89 ff, 510 ff.

91 The Umayyads did not fail to ascribe to themselves the same attributes of sacredness which the Shi'a was using with regard to 'Alī and his family. See Vorlesungen, 85 (from Ibn Sa'd, V, 94). See also, ibid., 98 (where pro-Umayyad panegyrics from al-Farazdaq are quoted). About the Umayyad reaction to the pro-'Alid traditions see also Muslim Studies, II, 43 ff.

92 Kister, op. cit., 232.

93 Already al-Mukhtar is reported to have expressed this idea. See below. For further early Shi'i expressions of this idea see above, note 79.
A passage in Flavius' *Antiquities of the Jews* may be quoted in this context. This passage deals with the patriarchs who preceded Noah. They are presented as forming a line through which their authority is handed down from generation to generation: “Sheth begot Enos... who when he had lived 912 years, delivered the government to Cainan his son... Cainan... had his son Mahalaleel... This Mahalaleel... died having his son Jared... He lived 962 years, and then his son Enoch succeeded him... Now Methusaleh, the son of Enoch... had Lamech... to whom he delivered the government... Now Lamech when he governed 777 years appointed Noah his son to be ruler of the people... and retained the government 950 years.”

The patriarchs in the early Judaeo-Christian literature are also presented as transmitting from generation to generation a religious testament which is not accessible to any changes. One of the Apocrypha, namely *The Book of Jubilees* clearly formulates this idea. At the conclusion of Noah’s testament to his sons he says:

Thus Enoch, the father of your father enjoined upon Methuselah his son, and Methuselah enjoined upon Lamech his son, and Lamech enjoined upon me all that which his father had enjoined upon him. And I enjoin upon you, my sons, just as Enoch enjoined upon his son in the first generation; he lived in the seventh generation and commanded and enjoined upon his sons and upon the sons of his sons till his death.

These traditions about the transfer of the ruling authority and the religious testament of the ancient patriarchs from generation to generation (which, as we have seen, form in the Shi'a only the first stage of the universal course of the Imami wasiyya), found their way into Muslim sources as early as the end of the first century A.H.

The name of Ibn Ishaq has already been mentioned above (note 43). Referring to his attitude towards the history of the world beginning with Adam, R. Sellheim says:

Ibn Ishaq's Gesamtkonzeption ist jedenfalls entsprechend ausgefallen. Für ihn bildet das Erscheinen das Islam Fortsetzung und Schluss der 'heiligen Geschichte' der Juden und Christen; er ordnet die Geschichte des Propheten und des neuen Glaubens in die Geschichte der göttlichen Offenbarung ein, welche selbstverständlich mit Adam beginnt; er betracht-

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94 The general Christian-Gnostic or Neo-Platonic origin of this idea has been indicated time and again. See e.g. Von Grunebaum. *Islam.* (London, 1964) p. 161-162; I. Goldziher, “Neo-Platonische Und Gnostische Elemente Im Ḥadīth”, *ZA*, 22 (1909), p. 337.


97 In fact, the idea of a divine heritage wandering through a line of prophetic figures who were chosen (istafā) by Allāh) for their divine mission, is known already in the Qur'ān, but this is not the subject of the present study.
Prophets and Progenitors in the Early Shi‘a Tradition

tet die Weltgeschichte – natürlich nur soweit ihm bekannt – als Heilsgeschichte mit dem Höhe- und Endpunkt Muhammed. Eine solche Konzeption war aber zugleich eine Legitimation für das arabische Chalifat, welche für sich selbst sprach.98

Sellheim’s assumption that Ibn Ishaq wrote his book in order to meet the urgent needs of the ‘Abbāsid Califs (al-Mansūr) has led him to conclude that Ibn Ishaq’s intention was to show that ‘Alī was not entitled to be Muhammad’s successor.99 But the Shi‘ī tradition mentioned above (n. 43) which presents ‘Alī as Muhammad’s appointed wasīyy, as it is quoted from Ibn Ishaq by al-Tabari, seems to indicate that Ibn Ishaq’s pro-‘Abbāsid tendency is not quite so self-evident. Furthermore, his interest in the sacred history of the world seems also to be merged with specific Shi‘ī views.99a For a close examination of Ibn Ishaq’s traditions concerning the ancient patriarchs, as quoted by al-Tabari from the former’s Kitāb al-Mubtada‘,100 shows that the main point of these traditions is the successive transmission of the wasīyya of those patriarchs. These traditions were apparently meant to illustrate the developing Shi‘ī concept of the successive transmission of both political and religious authority.

Let us examine some of these early traditions mentioned by Ibn Ishaq. Most of them are quoted from Ahl al-Tawrāh, i.e. Judaeo-Christian sources.101 The patriarchs in these traditions are described as rulers who succeeded one another. The first ruler, namely Adam, was “Allāh’s elect confidant” (safīyy al-rahmān).102 Adam and his successors acted both as practical rulers and as religious authorities. The religious activity consisted mainly of the struggle against Cain and his sinful descendants. In their testimonies they command their successors to isolate themselves from Cain’s posterity, who will be obliterated by the Deluge which they predict.102a Adam, according to Ibn Ishaq, informed Sheth about the seven years’

98 R. Sellheim, op. cit., 40–41. Apart from the ancient Judaeo-Christian history, Ibn Ishaq’s Kitāb al-Mubtada‘ also contained the pre-Islamic history of the southern Arabs and that of the Quraysh in Mecca. See ibid., 43.
99 Ibid., 50–51.
99a And see about Ibn Ishaq’s tashayyur, Ta‘rīkh Baghdad, I, 224; ‘Uyun al-Athar, I, 13.
100 Omitted completely in Ibn Hishām’s version. Since he was interested only in the genealogical Arab descent of Muhammad, Ibn Hishām has preserved only those passages of Ibn Ishaq which deal with the ancient history of the Arabs.
101 Al-Tabari quotes the material from Ibn Ishaq through Ibn Humayd who quotes it from Salama b. al-Fadl (d. 191 A.H.). The riwaya of Salama is considered the most complete one. See Ta‘rīkh Baghdad, I, 221.
102 The term safīyy (pl. asfīyā) is used with reference to the Shi‘ī Imams as well, i.e. they have the safwa.
102a It is most significant that the struggle of the patriarchs against the posterity of Cain recurs as a central motif in later Shi‘ī traditions as well. It serves as a model for the conflict between the Shi‘īs and their enemies. Sheth, for instance, is presented as the leader of his Shi‘a, who dwelt in the valley, in contrast to Cain and his posterity who dwelt on the mountain, (Ithbat, 18). It is further related that Sheth practiced taqiyya because of the persecution of Cain’s posterity, and his taqiyya was taken as a model by the Shi‘a (see Bihar, XI, 241: ... wa-li-dhalika yasa‘una ft aqwaminta al-taqiyya li-anna lanā ft ibn adam uswatun. See also ibid., 263–264, 227–229, 240.
Uri Rubin

Deluge and wrote the wasīyya for him. Sheth, as Adam’s wasīyya was charged with the government after Adam’s death.\textsuperscript{103} As a prophet, Allah also revealed to him fifty scriptures.\textsuperscript{103a} The wasīyya of Adam contained some objects which were put on stairs (fi mi’raj) so that the name of Allah would not be forgotten. Among these objects was the horn which Adam had brought from Paradise.\textsuperscript{104} Of Enos, who succeeded his father Sheth, Ibn Ishāq says:

After the death of Sheth, his father, Enos took upon himself the administration of the kingdom and ruled his subjects, replacing his father Sheth. As was mentioned, he retained his father’s way of conduct, not displaying any change or alteration.\textsuperscript{105}

Quoting Ahl al-Tawrāh, Ibn Ishāq relates that Jared’s son, Enoch, i.e. Idrīs, was a prophet. Allah revealed to him thirty scriptures. He fought Cain’s posterity and enslaved some of them. He was the wasīyya of his father Jared. He inherited from his father all that had been entrusted to him by his own father.\textsuperscript{106} Continuing the story of the patriarchs from Ahl al-Tawrāh, Ibn Ishāq relates that Enoch appointed his son Methuselah as his successor in the management of the Godly government, and assigned to him and to his family the wasīyya before he ascended to heaven. He told them that Allah would inflict punishment upon Cain’s posterity and forbade them to associate with them.\textsuperscript{107} Ahl al-Tawrāh are also mentioned as the source of the following account about Methuselah who retained his father’s belief in Allah. Before his death he appointed his son Lamech as his successor to the government (istikhlafahu ‘alā amrīhi), and entrusted him with that which his own father had enjoined upon him (concerning Cain’s posterity).\textsuperscript{108}

So far Ibn Ishāq. It has already been mentioned that the material in his book seems to date back to the very beginning of the second century A.H. Many elements in his account correspond both to Flavius and to some of the Apocrypha, especially to The Book of Jubilees which seems to be — though indirectly, of course — one of his main sources.\textsuperscript{109}

\textsuperscript{103} Tabari, Ta’rīkh, 1, 152: ... wa-kataba wasiyyatahu fa-kana shith ft-mā dhukira wasiyya abthi adam ‘alayhi l-salam wa-ṣārat al-rī‘a līsīn ba‘di waftt adam li-shith.

\textsuperscript{103a} Loc. cit. According to other sources, scriptures were revealed already to Adam. See e.g. Ithbāt, 18, and see also Tha’labī, 88; Bihār, XI, 43. And see about the scriptures of Adam, Sheth and Enoch in the Apocryphal book, Secrets of Enoch, XXXII, 11.

\textsuperscript{104} Tabari, op. cit., 159.

\textsuperscript{105} Ibid., 163: wa-qama intah ba‘d mudhiyyi abthi shith li-sabtihi bi-siyasat al-mulk wa-tadbtr man tahta yadayhi min ra‘iyathī maqama abthi shith. wa-lam yazal fi-mā dhukira ‘alā minhāj abthi, la yiqafu minhu ‘alā taqyiyr wa-la tabdīl.

\textsuperscript{106} Ibid., 170.

\textsuperscript{107} Ibid., 172–173: ... fi-stakhilafahu ukhintah ‘alā amri allah wa-aqaylahu wa-ahla yaththi qabla an yurfa‘a wa-a‘lamahum anna allah ‘azza wa-jalla sa-yu‘adhabihu walada qāyiin wa-man khilatuhum wa-māla ilayhim, wa-nahāhum ‘an mukhlaṣatihim.

\textsuperscript{108} Ibid., 173. The wasiyya of Lamech to Noah see ibid., 174.

\textsuperscript{109} This becomes quite evident from the fact that Ibn Ishāq has recorded the names of the wives of the ancient patriarchs (ibid., 163, 164, 170, 172, 173, 203). The only probable source for this information seems to be Book of Jubilees, IV, ff. which contains the same names. Some of the names in the present form of their Arabic transcription, however, were
Later authors continued to record the traditions about the \textit{wasiyya} of the ancient patriarchs. The Kūfī author Ibn al-Kalbī (d. 204, 206 A.H.), as quoted by Ibn Sa'd, recorded a tradition on the authority of his father (d. 146 A.H.), which says:

Sheth the son of Adam begat Enos and many people. To him Sheth delivered his \textit{wasiyya} (\textit{wa-ilayhi awsa shith}). Enos begot Cainan and many people, and to him the \textit{wasiyya} (was delivered). Cainan begot Mahalaleel and people with him, and to him the \textit{wasiyya} (was delivered). Mahalaleel begot Jared and people with him, and to him the \textit{wasiyya} (was delivered)\ldots \textsuperscript{110}

The \textit{wasiyya} of Enoch, Methuselah and Lamech is mentioned in the same manner.\textsuperscript{111}

An illuminating example of the early Shī‘ī interest in the history of the old faiths is found in the book of the Shī‘ī author al-Ya‘qūbī. As is well known, this book contains detailed traditions about the history of the world since Adam. The \textit{wasiyya} of each prophetic figure is also mentioned, and unlike Ibn Ishaq, al-Ya‘qūbī occasionally mentions the \textit{wasiyya} of prophets succeeding Noah as well. 

But the most elaborate form of the Shī‘ī doctrine of the \textit{wasiyya}, conceived as being successively transmitted from Adam through the prophets up to the last Shī‘ī Imam, is found in al-Mas‘ūdi’s \textit{Ithbāt al-Wasiyya}. The coherent outlook exhibited in this book is, as we can now see, based on Judaeo-Christian elements brought into the Muslim literature by Shī‘ī authors at an early date.

IV. PROPHETS AND PROGENITORS

The Shī‘ī doctrine of the \textit{wasiyya} in its most complete form is clearly at variance with the doctrine of \textit{Nūr Muḥammad}. According to the former, Muhammad and the Imāms possess a divine heritage and a hallowed light which has come down to them from the preceding prophets. The latter regards the prophetic light of Muḥammad and the Imāms as coming from Muḥammad’s Arab progenitors. What, then, is the relation between these two different Shī‘ī views concerning the position of the Imāms as possessing an ancient authoritative heritage?

As a reaction to the wide use made of Judaeo-Christian elements in the build-up of the merits of Muḥammad and the Imāms,\textsuperscript{111a} it seems that already within

\begin{footnotes}
\textsuperscript{110} Ibn Sa'd, I, 39.
\textsuperscript{111} Ibid., 40.
\textsuperscript{111a} As far as Muḥammad himself was concerned, the Judaeo-Christian elements, as well as Persian ones, were used since the first century A.H. as a model for his prophetic person, mainly for apologetic purposes, in order to demonstrate that his virtues were no less divine than those of the previous prophets. See e.g. Sellheim, \textit{op. cit.}, 53 ff., 59 ff.
\end{footnotes}
the early Shi'a a contrary trend emerged, which strove to establish the divine character of Muḥammad and the Imāms on pure, original Arab foundations. The main question to be answered was whether the prophetic authority of Muḥammad and the Imāms should be based on Judaeo-Christian foundations, or whether this same authority should not rather be presented as based on the divine heritage of Muḥammad's Arab ancestors. In contrast to the testamentary doctrine of the universal waṣīyya of the prophets of Banū Isrā'īl, the doctrine of Nūr Muḥammad represents the Arab side. It stresses the fact that Muḥammad's prophetic light came to him from his progenitors who are presented as pure, immaculate and completely free from jāhilī paganism by virtue of Muḥammad's light. Hence the distinction of the Arab heritage. At a later stage, Muḥammad's progenitors are even presented as prophets or awṣīyā' on their own account, and thus elevated to an equal rank with the awṣīyā' of Banū Isrā'īl.

Those Shi'iūs who stressed the Arab origin of Muḥammad's prophethood were responsible for traditions which assert that even the so-called Judaeo-Christian heritage was in fact of a purely Arab origin. This tendency is demonstrated in an
Prophets and Progenitors in the Early Shi'a Tradition

instructive passage in al-Mas'ūdī’s Ithbāt al-Waṣīyya. The same passage is also recorded in al-Khargushi’s Sharaf al-Nabīyy. The correct meaning of this passage can be understood only against the background of the doctrine of the waṣīyya. As we have seen, one of the main items of the waṣīyya was the tābūt, i.e. the Ark, which since Adam was passed on through all the prophets. The tābūt is said to have been transmitted from Abraham to Ishmael and from Ishmael to Isaac, and from Isaac to the rest of the Hebrew prophets. The passage in the Ithbāt to which we allude deals with the tābūt when in the possession of Ishmael. In contrast to the usual doctrine of the waṣīyya, this particular passage contains a tradition to the effect that Ishmael bequeathed the waṣīyya and the tābūt to Kedar his son (and not to his brother Isaac). He did so because he had seen on Kedar’s forehead the blaze of Nūr Muḥammad. The transmission of the tābūt to Kedar emphasizes the close relation of this prophetic instrument to one of the most prominent Arab ancestors of Muḥammad. It also means the complete exclusion of the Hebrew Isaac from the line of the carriers of the waṣīyya. In fact, the following parts of the tradition reassert that Isaac was destined to remain outside the line of divine heritage. It is related that Kedar thought, that his successor and heir to the Muḥammadan light was to be born by a woman of Isaac’s posterity; he married 200 of them and waited for 200 years, but did not beget a son. It was not until he was ordered through a divine revelation to marry a woman of pure Arab descent, that he begot his successor Hamal, who inherited the Nūr Muḥammad.

As for the tābūt, it is related that Isaac’s posterity tried to take hold of it, but Kedar refused to give it away. However, since after all the tābūt was known to have belonged to the prophets of Banū Isrā‘īl, Kedar is said to have finally delivered it to Jacob. The description of this event is, however, quite apologetic, and is designed to stress the merits of Kedar, even though he gave away the tābūt. The main point is that this Arab ancestor had the tābūt in his possession before the prophets of Banū Isrā‘īl, and it was he who brought it to them from Arabia. Allāh ordered him to do this because he was a waṣīyy and not a prophet. Jacob himself, upon receiving the tābūt from Kedar, is said to have honoured him and treated him with great deference. He bid his sons to welcome Kedar, blessed him for marrying

114. Ithbāt, 94 ff. This passage belongs to the traditions about Nūr Muḥammad which al-Mas‘ūdī has woven into the main group of traditions dealing with the universal waṣīyya (see above).
115. 10a ff.
116. About Isaac as Ishmael’s successor see also Tabart, Ta’rtkh, I, 314, 317.
117. See above part I.
118. Ithbāt, 94; Khargushr, 10a. See also Tha’labr, 236.
119. Kedar and Nebajoth, sons of Ishmael, were important figures in the genealogy of Quraysh. Quraysh were known as the “children of Kedar and Nebajoth”, See e.g. Ibn Hishām, I, 135; Ibn Sa’d, -I, 57; Ansāb, I, 52; Azraqī, I, 64. Cf. also Ma‘ārif, 16. Nebajoth is sometimes considered Kedar’s son. See Ibn Shahrāshub, I, 135.
120. Ithbāt, 94–96; Khargushr, 10a–10b.
a woman of pure Arab descent, and predicted the birth of his son Hamal, of which he knew through some miraculous portents. It is Jacob who declared that Allah had decreed that Muhammad would be descended only from pure Arab ancestors. When Kedar died, Allah sent people of the posterity of Isaac and they buried him near Mecca.\(^1\)

A further tradition, recorded by al-Khargushi in his *Sharaf al-Nabiyy*, contains a reference to the *tābūt* when still in the possession of Abraham. According to this tradition, the tidings of Muhammad’s appearance were hidden within this very object belonging to the Hebrew prophets. Abraham, it is related, opened it for his sons to see the future through it. They beheld in it all the prophets, of whom Muhammad was the last. They saw also the first four Califs standing with him. The most important part of this tradition consists of the statement that Abraham’s sons saw in the *tābūt* that all the prophets were destined to be born out of Isaac’s loins; Muhammad was the only prophet who was to be born from the loins of Ishmael. Thereupon Abraham blessed his son Ishmael whose posterity will be honoured by the birth of Muhammad.\(^2\) Thus, Ishmael’s superiority to Isaac as Muhammad’s predestined ancestor,\(^3\) had already been indicated in the main prophetic vessel of Banū Isrā’īl, even before it came into their possession. These traditions about the precedence of Ishmael and Kedar over their contemporary Hebrew prophets, i.e. Isaac and his posterity, belong in fact to a long line of traditions of the same tendency.\(^4\) I. Goldziher has already dealt with traditions of this kind, stressing their special significance for the Arab-Persian debate within the general framework of Islam. Isaac, Goldziher shows, was considered the ancestor of the Persians or non-Arabs in general.\(^5\) It seems, however, that this observation holds good mainly for the more advanced stage of the Arab-Persian conflict when it was brought into the open. But the above-mentioned traditions, which place the *tābūt* at the centre of the contest between Ishmael and Isaac and their respective descendents, do not yet reflect the Arab-Persian debate but rather the Arab-Banū Isrā’īl one, which took place within the early Shi‘a.

This inner Shi‘i conflict centered around the symbol of the *tābūt* already in al-Mukhtar’s days, i.e. at the beginning of the second half of the first century A.H. Al-Mukhtar had in his possession the chair that was regarded as having been ‘Alī’s and as such was highly venerated. It was thought to have divine qualities similar to those of the *tābūt* of Banū Isrā’īl. On the basis of the Qur’ānic description of the *tābūt* (II, 248), the chair was presented as containing the *sakīna*, and also a divine knowledge by which the future could be told.\(^6\) Al-Mukhtar himself reportedly

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\(^1\) *Ithbāt*, 96–97; Khargushi, 106–11b; Tha’labi, 236–237. About Kedar’s superiority to Jacob see also Simt, I, 150 (from *Kitāb al-Ttjan*, in the name of Wahh).

\(^2\) Khargushi, 96–10a. Cf. Tha’labi, 236.

\(^3\) For the predestined descent of Muhammad from the line of Ishmael, see also Ibn Shahrashub, I, 246; Ibn al-Jawzf, I, 61; Khargushi, 86b, 87a, 135b; Ibn Kathir, 342–343; Suyuti, I, 24; Ibn Sa’d, I, 163, 164; *Bihar*, XV, 207.

\(^4\) See more traditions about it in *Ithbāt*, 37; Simt, I, 146; *Iqad*, V, 89.

\(^5\) *Muslim Studies*, I, 135–136.

\(^6\) See *Tabart*, *Tarikh*, VI, 85.
supported the elevation of the chair to the rank of the prophetic tābūt, by stating that “whatever had happened to the people of the past will happen to this people (the Muslims). Banū Isrā'īl had possessed the tābūt which contained the relics left by the family of Moses and Aaron, and this (chair) is like the tābūt.”

Those who indulged in the veneration of the tābūt, performing various rites around it, were mainly Arabs of southern descent. This veneration was considered as a Jewish practice and was condemned as such by Ibn al-Ashtar. It was even regarded as contradicting the essence of the original Islamic faith, i.e. the belief in the revelation of Muḥammad. An explicit statement to this effect was made by Aḥšā Hamdān who condemned in his verses the veneration of the so-called tābūt: “I am a man who loves the clan (āl) of Muḥammad, and I prefer the revelation which is written in the scrolls (i.e. the Qurʿān).” The expression āl muḥammad seems to be used here against those who preferred the so-called tābūt, which according to Qurʿān II, 248 contained the relics left by āl mūsā wa-āl hārūn. Thus al-Aḥšā wanted to make clear that he preferred the original prophetic heritage of āl muḥammad to that of āl mūsā and āl hārūn. In other words, he preferred the Arab heritage to the Judaeo-Christian one.

We may therefore conclude that as early as the beginning of the second half of the first century A.H., two different orientations were at work within the Shiʾa. On the one hand, there were those who tried to establish the veneration for the Shiʾi heroes on Judaeo-Christian models, the ʿIrāqī Arabs of southern (Yemenite) descent being some of the earliest among them. On the other hand, there were those who endeavoured to stress the pure Arab nature of the Shiʾi conviction. As their outlooks finally crystallized, the former stressed the close relation of Muḥammad and Ahl al-Bayt to the heritage of the preceding prophets, while the...
Uri Rubin

latter elaborated the relation of the Prophet and *Ahl al-Bayt* to the heritage of Muhammad’s Arab progenitors.\(^{135}\)

It would seem, then, that the circulation of traditions about *Banū Isrā‘īl* met not only with the resistance of orthodox theologians,\(^{136}\) but also with that of Shī‘ī ones, who were, perhaps, among the first to expound the original Arab nature of the Islamic faith.

**ABBREVIATIONS**


\(^{135}\) They belonged, probably, to Qurash, or rather Mudar circles. The doctrine of *Nūr Muhammad* is centered around the glorification of northern ancestors like Khuzayma, Mudrika, Nizār etc. (See e.g. *IÖS*, 5, p. 75 ff, 91 ff). In fact, the glory of Quraysh was openly expressed in a tradition based on the models of the doctrine of *Nūr Muhammad* (ibid., 102). The traditions of *Nūr Muhammad* were supposedly originated by both Meccan and Medinian circles. They reflect the tendency to glorify these two cities. For example, Mecca is said to have been delivered from Abraha’s siege by virtue of *Nūr Muhammad* (ibid., 95). On the other hand, *Nūr Muhammad* is said to have been created from the dust of Muhammad’s grave in al-Madīna (ibid., 97). One of the first Medinian authors, who circulated the traditions about the Muhammadan light of the Prophet’s progenitors was al-Waqīdī (ibid., 91).

\(^{136}\) See about it *Muslim Studies*, II, 131; Kister, op. cit., 234 ff.
Prophets and Progenitors in the Early Shi'a Tradition

La'alt — Al-Suyuṭī, Al-La'alt al-Musnū'a ft Al-Aḥādīth al-Mawṣū'a, Cairo, 1352 A.H.
Sīmt — Al-ʿĪṣāfī, Sīmt al-Nujum al-Awālī, Cairo, 1380 A.H.
Tabārī, Taʿṣīr — Al-Ṭabarī, Jāmiʿ al-Bayān ft Taṣīr al-Qurʾān, Būlāq, 1323 A.H.
—, Taʾrīkh Baghdād — Al-Khāṭīb al-Baghdādī, Taʾrīkh Baghdād, Cairo, 1931.
Thaʾlabī — Al-Thaʾlabī, Qīsas al-Anbīyāʾ, Beirut, n.d.
Zurqānī — Al-Zurqānī, Sharḥ ʿalā l-Mawṣūḥib al-Laduniyya li-l-Qastallānī, Cairo, 1329 A.H.