The Recovery of the Past

Citation for published version:

Link:
Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer

Document Version:
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Published In:
Journal of the British Institute of Persian Studies

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THE RECOVERY OF THE PAST: IBN BĀBAWAYH, BĀQIR AL-MAJLISĪ AND SAFAWID MEDICAL DISCOURSE

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Abstract
Although best known in the West for his compilation of the Imams’ ahādīth, *Man lā yaḥḍuruhu al-faqīh*, Muḥammad b. ‘Alī al-Qummī (d. 381/991–92), known both as al-Shaykh al-Ṣadūq and Ibn Bābawayh, also compiled a series of other collections of these texts, and these have so far been less well-studied. This paper suggests that knowledge of some and access to them declined after the fall of Baghdad to the Saljuqs in the 447/1055. Muḥammad Bāqir al-Majlisī (d. 1110/1699) was a key figure in the “recovery” of these collections. However, his use of the texts of these works in the section of his *Bihār al-anwār* examined here bespeaks an agenda very different from that of Ibn Bābawayh.

Keywords
Shī‘ism; Ibn Bābawayh; Bāqir al-Majlisī; medicine; Safawids

I. INTRODUCTION
This paper considers the fortunes of the lesser known compilations of the Imams’ *ahādīth* assembled by Muḥammad b. ‘Alī al-Qummī (d. 381/991–92), known as both al-Shaykh al-Ṣadūq and Ibn Bābawayh, in his own time through to the latter years of Iran’s Safawid period (907–1134/1501–1722).

Ibn Bābawayh is perhaps best-known today as the compiler of *Man lā yaḥḍaruhu al-faqīh* (“He Who has no Jurisprudent with Him”, hereafter referred to as *al-Faqīh*), the second of the four early collections of Twelver *ahādīth* of which three were assembled in the Buyid period (334–447/945–1055). However, Ibn Bābawayh was also responsible for a series of other collections which have attracted very little attention from scholars in Shī‘ī studies to date.

This paper will argue that while in the later Buyid period all of his compilations were known to scholars in the community in the centuries following the 447/1055 fall of Baghdad to the Saljuqs, interest in these texts declined and their general availability was limited. Only in the later years of the eleventh/seventeenth century can there be said to have been a marked rise in both the availability of copies of his works and interest in Ibn Bābawayh’s legacy.

Muḥammad Bāqir al-Majlisī (d. 1110/1699), in his recourse to those collections of Ibn Bābawayh other than *al-Faqīh*, was both representative of and gave further encouragement to the new interest in Ibn Bābawayh’s legacy in this period. Close attention to the manner in which al-Majlisī utilised Ibn Bābawayh’s collections, in *Bihār*’s *materia medica* in particular, will show that al-Majlisī’s interest in their traditions was not somehow random, however. The traditions assembled by Ibn Bābawayh will be seen to have had their own dynamic in his collections. In *Bihār*, al-Majlisī actively but selectively appropriated the texts in these other of Ibn Bābawayh’s compilations in the context of his own specific, and very different “agenda”, itself reflective of the spiritual dynamic particular to the later Safawid period.

II. IBN BĀBAWAYH AND HIS COMPILATIONS
Ibn Bābawayh, born in Qum c. 305–6/918, passed his seven decades as a member of the first generation of believers who both knew nothing other than the
Imam’s absence but also enjoyed an atmosphere of religious tolerance under the Zaydi Buyids in which to explore the implications of this reality. At the height of their territory, the Buyids’ three amirates comprised an area that stretched from west of Baghdad, and included Kufa and Basra to the south, to Qazvin, Qom and Rayy in the north, and, south-east, through Fars and along the Persian Gulf and through Kerman to modern-day Baluchistan. Ibn Bābawayh, enjoying good relations with the Buyidi court, travelled widely throughout the region. Between 339/949 and 347/957 he is known to have moved to Rayy, and from then Rayy seems to have been his chief residence: it was there to which he seems to have returned between most journeys and it is there he died. But, as to those journeys, he made at least three trips to Khurasan, and is known to have spent time in Nishapur, Tus and Sarakhs as well as, further into the north-east, in Transoxiana, Marv and Balkh. At some point also he visited Ilaq, in southern Uzbekistan, as well as Samarqand and Farghana. To the West, he visited Hamadan, Baghdad and Kufa as well as Mecca and Medina. He is said also to have visited Gurgan and Astarabad.2

Authors of some of the best-known general studies of Muslim hadith to date have, in fact, mostly concerned themselves with Sunni hadith and have paid scant attention to these compilations of the Imams’ traditions, and even less to Ibn Bābawayh.3

It is only scholars of Twelver Shi‘ism who have paid any attention to Ibn Bābawayh. Generally, however, they have done so in the context of noting, first, that the two centuries following the occultation of the Twelfth Imam c. 260/873–74 produced three “Muhammads”, sc. Muhammad b. Ya‘qūb al-Kulaynī (d. 329/941), Ibn Bābawayh and Muhammad b. al-Hasan al-Tusi (d. 460/1067) and, second, of identifying Ibn Bābawayh solely with reference to al-Faqīh which, together with al-Kulaynī’s earlier al-Kafi and al-Tusi’s later Tahdhib al-akhkam and al-Istihsar, are said to comprise “the four books” (al-kutub al-arba’a) of Twelver aḥadith assembled in these years.4

In fact, however, Ibn Bābawayh assembled a number of other important hadith compilations during his lifetime. Taken together, these other collections contain slightly more texts than al-Faqīh’s approximately 6000 narrations.5

Thus his Ma‘ānī al-akhbār, completed perhaps as early as 331/942–43, contains some 809 texts organised in 419 chapters.6 His Kamāl al-dīn wa-tamām al-ni‘ma fi ithbāt al-ghayba wa-kashf al-ḥayra, dated to c. 360/970–71, and perhaps as early as 354/964–65, is arranged in fifty-eight chapters, in two sections, and contains over 580 texts.7 This figure does not include the many traditions Ibn Bābawayh cited in his lengthy introduction to the work. His ‘Uyūn akhbār al-Riḍā contains about 941 traditions organised into sixty-nine chapters over two volumes. His al-Amāli, also known as al-Majālis, produced over 367–68/977–79, contains some 1010 texts, divided into ninety-seven majālis, most of them dated.8 Al-Tawhid contains some 583 traditions,9 al-Khiṣāl includes some 1255 texts in twenty-six chapters,10 and his ‘Ilal al-sharā’i‘

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2 The introduction to Ibn Bābawayh 1361/1982: 17–18, best dates his whereabouts. See also Newman, forthcoming.
4 E.g. Browne actually misidentified “the four books” as “works on Shi‘a theology, jurisprudence and Tradition”. See Browne 1924: 353–60, esp. 358–59. D.M. Donaldson’s extended discussion of “the four books” more than compensated for this error. See Donaldson 1933: 284–90. For more recent discussions of the four in “introductory” works

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organised into 647 chapters over two sections, contains 1147 texts. Ibn Bābawayh’s travels, which afforded him the opportunity to become acquainted with the contemporary scattered pockets of the community, may have been unparalleled in his own time, and these compilations well attest to his understanding of its needs and concerns of that community.

The 1147 traditions of ʻIlal al-sharā‘i’ (‘The Causes of the Legal Rulings’) reflect an effort to lay bases for a distinctive body of theological and legal discourse over and above what material had been collected on these by al-Kulaynī in al-Kāfī.

The opening chapters of volume one include traditions on creation, the prophets and messengers, Adam, men and women, Iblīs, the early prophets, humans and their forms and attributes. Subsequent chapters turn to the rise of Islam, the person and role of the Prophet, ʻAlī and his having been designated by the Prophet as the latter’s successor, Fāṭima, a hujja—a reference to the Imam—as always being present, the succession of the various Imams and the occultation. Later chapters contain traditions on ritual cleanliness (jahāra). Volume two contains traditions on prayer, al-zakāt and al-ḥuḍūd, fasting, the Ḥajj, food, marriage and divorce, the punishments (al-hudūd), and miscellaneous traditions on such issues as inheritance.

The 583 traditions in al-Tawḥīd (‘Unity’) were an effort to demonstrate the compatibility of some aspects of the faith with broader, ‘mainstream’ Sunnī, if not, also, distinctly Mu‘tazilī views of the justice and unity of God. In this, for example, he also rejected any anthropomorphist understandings of the Divine. This collection’s treatment of determinism shows his ideas to have been akin to the moderate Mu‘tazilī views of the Baghdadī Mu‘tazila.

Nevertheless, at the core of Imami belief was the acceptance of the place and role of the Imams. Having devoted more than half of al-Tawḥīd’s chapters to demonstrate the faith’s acceptance of Islam’s core, if general, belief system, clearly in response to criticism, Ibn Bābawayh embarked on delineating the distinguishing features of the Twelver faith—the bestowal by God of the infallible twelve Imams and the last thereof as the Proof (al-hujja), who upholds the command of God (al-qā’im bi-amr Allāh), the Lord of the Age (sāhib al-zamān), the Vicegerent of the Beneficent One (khalīfat al-Raḥmān) on His earth and the one who is present in the earth but invisible (ghā’ib).

The 941 traditions of ʻUyūn akhbār al-Riḍā (‘The Sources of The Statements on al-Riḍā’) were assembled at the request of the Buyid vizier al-Sāhib Ibn ʻAbbād (d. 385/995). The traditions in the first volume’s thirty chapters include texts on the mother of Imam ʻAlī al-Riḍā (d. 203/818), the Imam’s own birth, his father and his father’s death, al-Riḍā as having been clearly appointed by his father the Imam Mūsā (d. 128/799), the seventh Imam, as the latter’s successor, various debates held with representatives of other faiths in the presence of the caliph al-Ma’mūn (reg. 198–218/813–33), sessions held between the caliph and the Imam on a variety of issues, and the Imam’s views on a variety of subjects, ranging from divine leadership to the marriage of Fāṭima and the characteristics of the Prophet. The bulk of the second volume’s traditions deal with the Imam’s summons to Khurasan by the caliph; the Imam’s appointment as the latter’s successor and why the Imam accepted the appointment; those who were displeased with the appointment; the Imam’s premonitions of his death and burial; the reasons why the caliph ordered the Imam to be poisoned; and the Imam’s designation of his successor.

Al-Amālī’s accounts of some ninety-seven sessions (majālis), most of them dated, address a wide variety of different subjects.

The 580 traditions in Kamāl were assembled in the aftermath of a visit to Khurasan and attest to the still-strong presence of confusion about the Imam’s absence that Ibn Bābawayh found within some sections of the community there. The volume’s traditions address both the occultations of earlier prophets, proof of the existence of the twelfth Imam, God’s promise that the earth would never be devoid of a hujja and the rewards to be accorded those who wait patiently for the latter’s return. Ibn Bābawayh noticeably included numerous references to, and actual citations, of written communications from the Hidden Imam to named individuals and traditions about signs whose appearance would portend the reappearance of the Imam.

The 1255 traditions of al-Khiṣāl (‘The Traits of Character’) were organised into twenty-six chapters. Unusually for such compilations generally, and those of Ibn Bābawayh in particular, these chapters are organised into citations of characteristics on the basis of, and with reference to, any number that is cited in

the tradition. Thus, for example, traditions related to the number one all appear together. The themes of the traditions included involve manners, ethics and good, and personal characteristics.

In Ibn Bābawayh’s time, the future and continued existence of the faith was as unclear as were key, distinctive doctrinal and practical matters. If al-Faqīḥ attested to the continued need for guidance as to the latter, the community was clearly also still struggling to assert its own distinctive body of doctrine in the face of continued, severe external challenges—pace al-Tawḥīd, for example. Portions of the community were still beset by doubts as to the continued presence of the Imam, pace Kamāl. Distinctly Shī‘ī visions of both the earliest days of human existence and aspects of the law were still being formulated—pace ‘Ilal. ‘Uyūn’s traditions bespeak, at least, Ibn Bābawayh’s concern for the community in his own time, in a period of apparent tolerance just as had been “enjoyed” by ‘Ali al-Riḍā. The same vizier for whom Ibn Bābawayh compiled this collection, though friendly to the faith, did also have his very distinctly Sunnī and anti-traditionist “moments”.

Altogether, these compilations contain more than 6300 narrations, slightly more than the total number in al-Faqīḥ, with the total number of traditions across all of Ibn Bābawayh’s collections still some thousands less than the total number of traditions in al-Kulaynī’s al-Kāfī. Yet these other collections have still to receive any detailed examination by scholars in the field.13

III. IBN BĀBAWAYH’S LEGACY FROM THE BUYIDS TO THE SAFAWIDS

Al-Faqīḥ itself attracted varying attention in the immediately succeeding centuries. In his rijāl work Ahmad b. ‘Alī al-Najāshī (d. 450/1058–59), when listing Ibn Bābawayh’s contributions, named these other collections but did not name al-Faqīḥ as a separate item; instead, he cited its books as separate titles.14 Al-Najāshī’s contemporary al-Ṭūsī—himself the compiler of two of the “four books”—praised Ibn Bābawayh as a pre-eminent scholar of the Imams’ hadith, noted that many prominent later scholars narrated texts from him, and referred to al-Faqīḥ as well as his other collections. However, he also noted that Ibn Bābawayh’s collection Madīnāt al-‘ilm—also mentioned by al-Najāshī but, as per the discussion below, lost by the mid-Safawid period—was “larger (akbār)” than al-Faqīḥ.15

However, between the fall of Baghdad to the Saljuqs in 447/1055 up to the onset of the Safawid period, conventionally dated from Shah Ismāʿīl I’s 907/1501 entrance into Tabriz, Ibn Bābawayh’s various works appear to have attracted declining interest.

The later Twelver rijāl scholar Muḥammad b. ‘Alī, Ibn Shahrashūb (d. 588/1192), mentioned only Madīnāt al-‘ilm, al-Tawḥīd, Maʿānī, ‘Ilal, al-Amālī, and Kamāl.16 According to Kohlberg’s study of the library of Raḍī al-Dīn, Ibn Ṭāwūs (d. 664/1266), the latter had access to most of Ibn Bābawayh’s better-known compilations as well as Madīnāt al-‘ilm.17 Jaʿfar b. Ḥasan al-Ḥilli, al-Muḥaqqiq (d. 676/1277), may have been the earliest Twelver scholar to have

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12 These included the appointment in 367/977 of the Sunnī Muʿtazilī Qāḍī ‘Abd al-Jabbār (d. 415/1024–25) as chief judge in Rayy. See also Newman, forthcoming.
13 See the sources cited in n. 4 above. A notable exception is Amir-Moezzi 1994. On 20–21, he lists these others, and in his bibliography he offers publication information, and their texts feature throughout the course of his discussion. See also n. 15 below.

On al-Kāfī, al-Faḍlī (81) cites the total as 16,199, including both the sections on usūl and on furtī. Akhtar (20) gives the total as 14,939, not counting those in al-Ranwa, the eighth and last of the published volumes. See also al-Tīhrānī 1353–98/1934–77: 17: 245, who says approximately 16,000, and Amir-Moezzi 1994: 158 n. 143, who gives the total as 16,100. In all of these instances, however, the number of texts given reflects the numbered texts where often the compiler cited more texts in a chapter than those that are numbered in the printed editions.

16 Ibn Shahrāshūb N.D.: 111–12. In Maʿālim, also, Madīna was said to be divided into ten sections, but cf. al-Tīhrānī 1353–98/1934–77: 20: 251–53.
17 Kohlberg 1992: 105, 109, 119–21, 167, 190, 194, 210, 217, 237, 240–41, 246, 285, 368, 372. To be sure, not all of these were available in their entirety. See, for example, 105, 119–21, 167, 268, 287, 302, 317, 378, 379, 391. Of these that can be dated, Ibn Ṭawāṣṣ did have access to a copy of Ibn Bābawayh’s Maʿānī al-akhbār made in 331/942–43. See Kohlberg 1992: 237–38.
referred to “the four books” of the Imams’ aḥadīth as those listed as such above. However, in his short entry on Ibn Bābawayh, Ḥasan b. Yūsuf al-Ḥillī, al-ʻAllāma (d. 726/1325), in his own rijāl work, repeated al-Ṭūsī’s praise of Ibn Bābawayh verbatim al-ʻAllāma (d. 726/1325), in his own entry on Ibn Bābawayh, Ḥasan b. Yūsuf al-Ḥillī,

If the number of copies of a given text made is an indicator of that text’s general availability over a given period, a preliminary search for manuscript copies of these of Ibn Bābawayh’s compilations—especially in holdings across Iran where, arguably, the largest number of Shi‘ī texts might be found today—suggests that from the end of the Buyid period to 907/1501 copies of most of Ibn Bābawayh’s key compilations were in fact scarce.

Thus, for example, as the accompanying chart notes (Table 1), of the total of eighty-nine copies of Kamāl identified, seventy-three (82%) have been located; of these, one has been dated to this period, to the early ninth/fifteenth century. Twenty-nine copies of Ibn Bābawayh’s al-Tawḥīd have been located; of these twenty-three (79%) can be dated. Only one was completed in this period, in 904/1498. One hundred and fourteen copies of his ʻUyūn were located, with eighty (70%) datable. Two were made over this period, one each in the eighth/fortieth and ninth/fifteenth centuries. Of forty-six copies of his al-Khiṣāl, thirty (65%) can be dated; only one of these was made in this period, in the ninth/fifteenth century. A total of twenty-two copies of his al-Amālī have been located, thirteen (60%) of which thirty (65%) can be dated; only one of these was made in this period, to the end of the Buyid period. Twenty-four copies of his al-ʻIlāl have been located, of which thirty (60%) can be dated. None were made through the period up to the capture of Tabriz. Forty-six copies of Ibn Bābawayh’s Maʿānī have been located, thirty-two (69%) of which thirty (60%) have been dated. None were made in the period to 907/1501.

As to that work of his that is the best known work today, a total of ninety-eight manuscripts of al-Faqīh have been identified, eighty-three (85%) of which have been dated. Only one is dated to this period, to the sixth/twelfth century.

These statistics cannot be taken as absolute, of course. But that so few copies of these texts seem to have been made between the fall of Baghdad and seizure of Tabriz does suggest that very few were in circulation. Scattered across the region as the ‘ulamā’ of the community were from 447/1055 to 907/1501, scholars of the faith may not have had access to any more than their own personal copies of any of these, if that. It follows that it cannot be assumed that in these years any of these texts—let alone those few for which copies were made over these years—were widely accessible to all of the various pockets of the faithful dispersed throughout the region.

IV. IBN BĀBAWAYH AND HIS LEGACY FROM 907/1501 TO 1050/1640

Contemporary with, if not directly inspired and encouraged by, the establishment of the faith in Iran by the Safawids, the tenth/sixteenth century has been said to have witnessed something of a revival of interest in the Imams’ aḥadīth and their study. Nevertheless, in the early years of the dynasty the availability of Twelver Shi‘ī manuscripts in pre-Safavid Iran. The texts brought to Iran in the pre-Safavid period and over the first Safavid century were mainly non-aḥadīth works; indeed, works in fiqh predominate, with copies of these works and/or the authors of the works themselves dating mainly to the post-Buyid period. See Ja‘fariyan 2003: 351–69.

As will be suggested in Newman, forthcoming, there was a marked dearth of copies of all the early compilations of the Imams’ aḥadīth in these centuries, paralleling but also perhaps encouraging a relative scholarly lack of interest in the study of these sources and rijāl as well, in favour of such other discipies as fiqh, for example.

21 Titles of any of the early collections of the Imams’ aḥadīth are not among those listed by Ja‘fariyān in his discussion of the availability of Twelver Shi‘ī manuscripts in pre-Safavid Iran. The texts brought to Iran in the pre-Safavid period and over the first Safavid century were mainly non-ḥadīth works; indeed, works in fiqh predominate, with copies of these works and/or the authors of the works themselves dating mainly to the post-Buyid period. See Ja‘fariyan 2003: 351–69.

22 See the discussion of the interest of the Lebanese-born scholars Zayn al-Dīn b. ‘Allī, al-Shāhīd al-Thānī (d. 965/1558), and his student, Ḥusayn b. ‘Abd al-Ṣamad (d. 984/1576)—the father of Bahā’ al-Dīn Muḥammad, known as Shaykh Bahā’ī (d. 1030/1621)—in the Imams’ traditions and their contribution and that of Bahā’ī to the rise of ḥadīth criticism (‘ilm al-dirāya or dirāyat al-ḥadīth) in Stewart 2003: 174–79.
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availability of the works of Ibn Bābawayh remained limited.

If al-Muḥaqiq al-Ḥillī first referred to “the four books” of the Imams’ ahadith as those listed as such above, Shaykh Bahā’ī’s father Shaykh Ḥusayn Ḥusayn referred to Ibn Bābawayh’s Madīnat al-‘ilm as one of the five aṣāḥil. Bahā’ī himself considered Madīna a more valuable work than al-Faṣīḥ and, according to a later biographer, used it more than al-Faṣīḥ.23 At some point early in the second Safawid century, however, Madīnat al-‘ilm was no longer accessible in Iran.24

As to Ibn Bābawayh’s other works, as the accompanying chart (Table 1) shows, in the period from 907/1501 to 1000/1591, at least four copies of ūṣalī. Bahā’ī himself considered Madīna a more valuable work than al-Faṣīḥ and, according to a later biographer, used it more than al-Faṣīḥ.23 At some point early in the second Safawid century, however, Madīnat al-‘ilm was no longer accessible in Iran.24

As to Ibn Bābawayh’s other works, as the accompanying chart (Table 1) shows, in the period from 907/1501 to 1000/1591, at least four copies of al-Faṣīḥ and three of Kamāl were produced, all after 951/1544. Two copies of Ma‘ānī were produced, both also after 951/1544. The same obtains for al-Khiṣāl, ‘Ilal and Ṭāḥī. One copy of al-Tawḥīd was produced, but also later in the period. No copies of al-Amālī can be dated to this period.

Over the early decades of the next century, the availability of copies of some of his other compilations improved, but only slightly. In the years 1001/1591 to 1050/1640, preliminary research has identified nine copies of al-Faṣīḥ as having been produced, compared with four for the previous one hundred years. Six copies of Kamāl have been dated to this fifty-year period, compared to four over the previous century. As to his other collections, but two copies of ‘Ilal were made, compared with two for the previous century.

Two copies of al-Khiṣāl can be dated to this period, as compared, also, with two for the earlier period. The same can be said for his al-Tawḥīd and Ṭāḥī. One copy of Ma‘ānī has been dated to this fifty-year period, compared with two over the previous century. No copies of al-Amālī have been identified as produced in this period.

To be sure, the Safawid period also witnessed the flourishing of commentaries and marginal notes, shurūḥ and ħawāshī, respectively.25 But, parallelizing the fact that few copies of Ibn Bābawayh’s collections seem to have been made in this period, few scholars seem to have made these particular collections the subject of such commentaries. For the period up to 1050/1640, al-Tāhrānī records three shurūḥ on al-Faṣīḥ, one each by Shaykh Bahā’ī, by Shaykh Muḥammad b. Ḥasan b. al-Shahīd al-Thānī (d. 1030/1621) and by Murād Tafrīshī (d. 1051/1641), and five ħawāshī, one each by the same three scholars, another by Qāḍī Nūrallah al-Shūshtarī (d. 1019/1611) and the fifth by Mīr Dāmād (d. 1040/1630–31).26 But he records no shurūḥ as having been written on al-Tawḥīd, al-Khiṣāl, Ṭāḥī, Kamāl, ‘Ilal, al-Amālī or Ma‘ānī.

Ḥusayn al-Karākī (d. 1001/1591–92), cousin to ‘Alī al-Karākī (d. 940/1534), who served Shahs Ismā‘īl I and Ṭahmāsp I, is listed as having composed a ħāshiya on Ṭāḥī. There are no ħawāshī listed for al-Tawḥīd, al-Khiṣāl, Kamāl, ‘Ilal, al-Amālī or Ma‘ānī as having been composed by scholars working in this period.27

No commentaries at all, of either genre, have been identified for Ibn Bābawayh’s Madīnat al-‘ilm.

V. IBN BĀBAWAYH AND HIS LEGACY FROM 1051/1641 TO 1100/1688

In contrast to all the previous centuries since 447/1055, in the second half of the eleventh Hijrī century, that is from 1051/1641 to 1100/1688, preliminary research into numbers of manuscripts recorded as copied as well as the commentaries and marginal notes comp-


25 On commentaries on philosophical treatises in the tenth/sixteenth century, see Pourjavady 2011.

26 al-Tāhrānī 1353–98/1934–77: 14: 93–94. A ħāshiya on al-Faṣīḥ composed by a scholar who died in 1000/1591 is listed (6: 223–24). As the dates of composition of these texts are not always clear, these are listed herein by the death date of the scholar in question.

posed suggests that interest in Ibn Bābawayh’s collections expanded exponentially.28

As the accompanying chart (Table 1) notes, some fifty-two copies of al-Faqīh can be dated to this period, whereas eight were produced in the previous fifty years. These fifty-two represent some 54% of the total of ninety-eight copies of al-Faqīh identified and 63% of the eighty-three copies of the text that can be dated.

As to Ibn Bābawayh’s other collections, fifty-three copies of Kamāl were produced from 1051/1641 to 1100/1688, where six were made in the previous half-century. This is equivalent to 59% of the total of eighty-nine copies identified and 74% of the twenty-three total of forty-four copies identified, and 60% of the total of eighty datable copies. Twenty-two copies of al-Khiṣāl were produced in this period, whereas two were produced in the period 1051/1641 to 1075/1664. The others are not known to have been translated.31

Overall, even if the Safawid-period data are not absolute, it does suggest that the general awareness of and direct experience with Ibn Bābawayh’s collections may have been greater over the half-century to 1100/1688 than in all the years from the fall of Baghdad to the Saljuqs to 1051/1641.32

This was a period, also, when translations of earlier texts were undertaken. It was not widely done in respect of Ibn Bābawayh’s compilations, but one scholar, a contemporary of Mirzā ‘Abdallāh ‘Afandī, did undertake translations of al-Amālī, al-Khiṣāl, and ʻUyūn. There are a further two translations of ʻUyūn, one dated to c. 1065/1654 and the second to 1075/1664. The others are not known to have been translated.31

Four ḥawāshī on al-Faqīh were composed by scholars alive in this period. Two were composed by members of the al-Majlisī family: one by a son-in-law of Taqī al-Majlisī and another by the latter’s eldest son ʻAzizallāh (d. 1074/1663). The other two were composed by Sayyid Aḥmad al-ʻAlawī (d. between 1054/1644 and 1060/1650), student and son-in-law of Mīr Dāmād, and Sayyid Husayn b. Muḥammad, known as Khalīfa Ṣulṭān (d. 1064/1654), vizier to both Shahs ʻAbbās I and ʻAbbās II. There are no ḥawāshī by scholars who died in this period recorded for al-Tawḥīd, al-Khiṣāl, ʻUyūn, Kamāl, ʻIlal, al-Amālī or Maʻānī.30

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Such was the extent of the renewed interest in these works in these later years of the Safawid period that both Muhammad b. al-Hasan, al-Hurr al-ʻĀmilī (d. 1104/1693) and Bāqir al-Majlisī’s own student Afandī, in their respective biographical dictionaries, praised Ibn Bābawayh and recorded those of his works then extant as including all of his works listed above, except, as noted, Madīnāt al-ʻilm.32

VI. BĀQIR AL-MAJLISĪ, BIḤĀR AND THE LATE SAFAWID PERIOD SPIRITUAL DYNAMIC

Paralleling the rising scholarly interest in the Imams’ aḥādīth, and support for the study thereof, it was also in the later Safawid period that the community produced the equivalents to the pre-447/1633 “three Muḥammads” who had compiled “the four books”. This period of Safawid history is also known for its “three Muḥammads”, sc. Muhammad b. Murtaḍā Fayḍ al-Kāshānī (d. 1091/1680), Bāqir al-Majlisī and Muhammad b. Ḥasan, al-Hurr al-ʻĀmilī, each of whom produced a compilation of these traditions. Al-Kāshānī completed his al-Wāfi, still largely unexplored by scholars in the field, by 1068/1658; al-Ḥurr completed his Wasā’il al-Shī’a by 1088/1677; and by 1081/1670 al-Majlisī had finished some volumes of his Biḥār al-anwār.33

Among the many charges levelled against al-Majlisī since the early years of the last century,34 in the 1980s and more recently, is that he falsified traditions.35

This charge was not borne out by an earlier examination of his work on medical theory and practice on offer in volume fourteen, Kitāb al-Samā’ wa l-ʻĀlam, on cosmology and natural history,36 a volume completed by Majlisī c. 1105/1693.37

At the same time, however, al-Majlisī’s Biḥār was not without its own purpose. In the later seventeenth century Safawid Iran, al-Majlisī faced a spiritual dynamic which had already challenged and defeated several prominent clerics on the scene, despite their close connections to the court.

In the decades commencing in 1043/1633–34 some twenty essays appeared attacking a resurgence of veneration for Abū Muslim (d. 136/754), the Iranian ‘Alid agent of the ‘Abbasid movement in Khurasan, attacking urban-based story-tellers for promoting the tradition, singling out Bāqir al-Majlisī’s father and defending the Tājik sayyid Mīr Lawḥī (d. after 1081/1670–71). The latter had attacked Taqī al-Majlisī in the latter years of the reign of Shah ‘Abbās I (reg. 985–1038/1587–1629) for his alleged public association with the Abū Muslim tradition and claimed to have been physically assaulted in the streets by al-Majlisī’s supporters. This anti-Abū Muslim diatribe evolved into a broader polemic directed against a rising interest in Sufi messianism among lower and middle-ranking urban elements, the latter only encouraged over the succeeding decades by several sets of economic crises and natural disasters.

Especially during the second vizierate of the Iranian sayyid and noted scholar Khalīfa Ṣultān (1055–64/1645–54), during the reign of Shah ‘Abbās II, the court moved to associate itself with both sides in this discourse. Anti-Sufi elements kept their posts at court, but others were brought forward in an attempt to moderate the tension. The latter included Muhammad Bāqir al-Sabzawārī, who was first made a teacher at Isfahan’s ‘Abdallāh Shūshtarī School and then, in the early 1060s/1650s, the city’s Shaykh al-Islām and Imām Juma’, the latter bespeaking his authority over the capital’s Friday prayer. Despite his best efforts, however, the anti-Sufi discourse, and that on such other problematic issues as the legitimacy of Friday prayer during the Imam’s absence and the crises, continued apace.

In these years also ‘Abbās II invited Muḥsin Fayḍ al-Kāshānī (d. 1091/1680), son-in-law and student of

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34 See Browne 1924: 120; 403. See also Browne 1924: 194–95, 366, 404; Lockhart 1958: 32–33, 70, 71 n. 1, the latter citing Browne 1924: 120.
37 Kohlberg 1990.
that is attested for the period from 1051/1641 onwards. Interest in his collections and the traditions generally was encouraged by both his own father’s involvement with these lesser-known collections of Ibn Bābawayh and also the growing awareness of the situation that obtained.38

In a move signalling the centre’s continued preference for an approach to this spiritual strife which attempted to identify the court with all sides to these polemics and to transcend them and thereby maintain its authority, Bāqir al-Majlisī himself was in 1098/1687 appointed the city’s Shaykh al-Islām. His having studied with or taught the major protagonists in the various polemics of the time, and his father’s own experience, meant that Bāqir al-Majlisī was acutely aware of the situation that obtained.38

VII. AL-MAJLISĪ AND IBN BĀBAWAYH IN BIḤĀR: SHI‘ISM AND HUMAN ANATOMY BETWEEN THE BUYID AND SAFAWID PERIODS

As Kohlberg has noted, Biḥār actually began life as an index of texts from ten collections of Twelver akhābār. Al-Majlisī completed this index in 1070/1659, the year of his father’s death, and only a few years after his own father’s production of Arabic and Persian commentaries on Ibn Bābawayh’s al-Faḍīḥī for ‘Abhās II and at the same time as the other two Muḥammads were working on their compilations. Of the ten collections utilised by al-Majlisī for this index, six were collections assembled by Ibn Bābawayh: al-‘Amālī, al-Khīṣālī, ʿUyūn, ‘Ilal, Maʿānī and al-Tawḥīd.39 Thus al-Majlisī’s interest in and work with these lesser-known collections of Ibn Bābawayh was a cornerstone of the larger Biḥār project from the very first and overlapped with, if it was not further encouraged by, both his own father’s involvement with the work of Ibn Bābawayh and also the growing interest in his collections and the traditions generally that is attested for the period from 1051/1641 onwards.

Where the traditions assembled in al-Wāfī and Wasā‘īl were organised into chapters along the lines of works of fiqh, Biḥār emerged as a compendium of ahādīth on a wide variety of subjects “involving practically the entire corpus of Imamite hadīth” and comprising many texts and much material believed to have been lost.40 As such the project (which remained incomplete at al-Majlisī’s death) attested an effort to strike a middle ground between the contemporary spiritual extremes by firmly privileging the revelation of the Imams themselves and by re-emphasising that revelation as the ultimate sources of knowledge on all matters of doctrine and practice.

By the time of al-Majlisī’s appointment in 1098/1687, Biḥār was a project already well advanced. Indeed, c. 1105/1693, within years of his appointment, al-Majlisī had completed important sections of the compilation, including volume fourteen, which addressed issues of cosmology and natural history and which included material on anatomy.

Portions of volume fourteen in particular bespeak an effort to find common ground between potentially conflicting elements of the Galenic, “rationalist”, medical discourse and that on offer in the Imams’ traditions. Suggesting contemporary knowledge of and continued recourse to each, al-Majlisī carefully utilised aspects of each to validate the other. In such an undertaking he was well within the norm of Twelver medical discourse dating at least to the Buyid period.41

In this process, in three of the most important chapters in volume fourteen, those on issues of human anatomy, al-Majlisī’s debt to Ibn Bābawayh is especially clear. Of the total of forty-seven texts cited in these three chapters, twenty-five (53%) traditions appeared in earlier collections of Ibn Bābawayh. Of these twenty-five, eighteen (72%) came from ‘Ilal alone. Indeed, ‘Ilal provided 38% of the total of forty-seven traditions in these three chapters.

Chapter forty-six, “The faculties (quwāā) of the soul (nafs) and their senses (mashā‘īr) of the external and internal senses (al-ḥāwāsī al-zāhīra wa ’l-bāṭīna)” addresses human anatomy and covers some forty pages in the

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38 On these developments see Newman 2006: s.v., esp. 98–99.

39 Kohlberg 1990. Ibn Bābawayh’s Ma‘ānī is noticeable for its absence.

40 Kohlberg 1990. Malādhār al-akhyār, al-Majlisī’s multi-volume collection of the Imams’ statements, organised by fiqh chapters, has been published (Qum 1408/1987) but has yet to be critically addressed by the field.

1403/1983 Beirut edition of *Biḥār*. The lengthy discussion included references to eight texts. Of these four had been cited in Ibn Bābawayh’s *al-Amālī*, *ʿIlal*, *Kamāl* al-*ḍīn*, al-*Ṭawḥīd* and al-*Khīsāl* and two were cited by al-Majlisī as having come from *ʿIlal*.

Al-Majlisī opened the chapter with references to several verses from the Qurʾān and the comments of the Shīʿī *mufassir* al-Ḥasan b. Muḥammad al-Qummī al-Nīshāpūrī (d. 728/1327–8) on these. He then cited eight traditions. All are traceable to earlier compilations of the Imams’ traditions. Four of them, the first three and five, had been cited by Ibn Bābawayh. The first text appeared in Ibn Bābawayh’s *al-Amālī*, *ʿIlal* and *Kamāl*, although al-Majlisī only cited it as from the first. The second text came only from *ʿIlal*.

In each of these two traditions, the Sixth Imam, Jaʿfar al-Ṣādiq (d. 148/765), compared the role of the heart in the management of the various functions of the body and equated the role of the heart with the role of the Imam in the community. Of the other sixteen texts in this chapter of *ʿIlal*, in the second and sixth, the Imams al-Ṭawḥīd and Jaʿfar respectively mentioned “the natural dispositions (al-ṭabāʿiʿ)” as four. In the sixth, the Imam named these as the blood, bile, al-riḥ and phlegm (al-balgham). In the third, error (al-ghalṭa) was said to reside in the kidneys, life in the lungs (al-riyya) and intellect (al-ʿaqīf) in the heart. In the fourth, it was said that when God created the dust of Adam, he took from each of the four spirits (al-riyyāh) its own temperament. The fourteenth and fifteenth texts cited the Imam as noting the special qualities with which God endowed “our Shīʿa” and their souls (arwāḥ) when he created them.

The third tradition in *Biḥār*’s chapter forty-six had appeared in both *al-Khīsāl* and *al-Ṭawḥīd*. Here the Imam noted that each believer possessed four eyes: two that allowed sight of his faith and his world and two, in the heart, that allowed sight of what was hidden (al-ghayb) and what came after. Al-Majlisī then commented that he had discussed the heart, its health (al-ghayb) and what came after. Al-Majlisī then commented that he had discussed the heart, its health (al-ghayb) and its own temperament. The fourteenth and fifteenth texts cited the Imam as noting the special qualities with which God endowed “our Shīʿa” and their souls (arwāḥ) when he created them.

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(al-qadā) and fate (al-qadar). In the first of these, God was said to have created these and in another He was said to have created destinies (maqāḍīr) 5000 years before He created the heavens and the earth.\footnote{Al-Majlīsī 1403/1983: 250; Ibn Bābawayh 1362/1403/1983: 1: 240; Ibn Bābawayh N.D.: 366–67/1, 1, 7.}

The fifth of the eight traditions in al-Majlīsī’s chapter forty-six, the last of the eight texts in this chapter cited from Ibn Bābawayh, had been part of a longer text in al-Tawḥīd.\footnote{Al-Majlīsī 1403/1983: 58: 252–53/5.} In this text the Imam Ja’far discussed the process of vision. Sight was said by a questioner to be the smallest (asghar) of the five senses, as small as lentils (al-‘adasa) or smaller. The Imam then asked the questioner to look behind himself and above himself and to say what he saw. “I see sky, earth, far and near, dust and mountains and rivers”, to which the Imam replied that what allowed this was something the questioner had said was small as lentils or smaller. This text, al-Majlīsī then commented, did not contradict the proposition that sight takes place owing to the emanation of rays (al-shu’ā’).\footnote{Ibn Bābawayh N.D.: 122–23/1, 8. The first of these, that cited by al-Majlīsī, is also cited in al-Kulaynī 1388/1968 1: 79/4, as one of six traditions on the creation in the first chapter in Kitāb al-Tawḥīd in al-Uṣūl min al-Kāfī, although this was not apparently noted by al-Majlīsī.}

\emph{Bihār}’s chapter forty-seven was a further chapter on anatomy (tashrīḥ), on the parts of the body. Of the thirty-six texts in the chapter, eighteen came from \textit{‘Ilal}, al-Khiṣāl and \textit{Uyūn}, and thirteen of the eighteen came from \textit{‘Ilal} alone. The first ten traditions came from these three, and of these six were drawn from \textit{‘Ilal}.\footnote{Ibn Bābawayh N.D.: 122–23/1, 8. The first of these, that cited by al-Majlīsī, is also cited in al-Kulaynī 1388/1968 1: 79/4, as one of six traditions on the creation in the first chapter in Kitāb al-Tawḥīd in al-Uṣūl min al-Kāfī, although this was not apparently noted by al-Majlīsī.}

The long first text was the ninth of sixteen traditions in \textit{‘Ilal}’s chapter on the natural dispositions (al-ṭabā‘i), cravings (al-shahawāt) and affections (al-maḥabbāt), a text that seems not to have appeared in any of the well-known earlier collections of the Imams’ traditions. Chapter forty-six’s second text had come from this chapter in \textit{‘Ilal}; others of this chapter’s traditions have been discussed above.

This ninth text in this chapter of \textit{‘Ilal} both described the four things (ashyā’) of which the body was created, named them as the terms yellow and black bile, blood and phlegm, discussed the physician (al-ṭabiḥ), and his knowledge of the relationships between the four, and their associated qualities of cold, damp, dryness and heat, illness (al-saqam) as resulting from an excess or deficiency thereof and what medicaments would restore the balance.\footnote{Ibn Bābawayh 1385/1966: 110–11/9.}

These four “things” in fact corresponded to the four humours (akhlāṭ) of the Galenic tradition, just as the idea of balance/imbalance in these was basic to the Galenic understanding of illness and wellness. Indeed, following this text, al-Majlīsī offered a lengthy discussion interpreting the terms appearing in this tradition as equivalent to that anatomical vocabulary on offer in the Arabic-language Galenic medical tradition, in the process frequently citing al-Qāmūs of the Shiraz-born scholar al-Fayrūzābādī (d. 817/1414). Al-Majlīsī also noted variations to the text in another copy of \textit{‘Ilal}.

The second and third traditions were drawn from al-Khiṣāl, where they also had apparently first appeared. After each, al-Majlīsī offered a comment. The second was the sole tradition in a section of al-Khiṣāl entitled “The building of the body on four things (ashyā’).” In this, the Imam Ja’far identified the four as the pneuma (al-rūḥ), the intellect (al-‘aql), blood and the soul (al-nafs). If the spirit leaves (kharaja), he said, the intellect will follow it. If the spirit sees something, the intellect records it, and the blood and the soul will remain. Al-Majlīsī then commented that al-nafs referred to the animal pneuma (al-rūḥ al-hayawānī) and al-rūḥ to the speaking faculty (al-nafs al-nāṭīqa), the anatomical terminology employed in the Galenic medical tradition.

The third text in \emph{Bihār}’s chapter forty-seven was the sole tradition in the immediately following section in al-Khiṣāl on the four faculties and the four fires (nīrān). Herein, the Imam Ja’far described the body as composed of fire (al-nār), light (al-nūr), al-rūḥ—often synonymous with al-rūḥ—and water. The first, said the Imam, allows man to eat and drink; with the second he sees and thinks; with the third he hears and smells; and the last allows him to taste what he eats and drinks. Each of the four fires, each of which was
named, affected individual eating and drinking processes.\(^{55}\)

Al-Majlisî then commented on the four fires, explaining, for example, that of these four the fire that “eats and drinks” referred to al-\(\text{harārā}\) al-\(\text{gharīziyya}\), i.e. the Arabic anatomical term from Galenic discourse that is translated as “the innate heat”, which he said was born of the fire. He also defined other terms in the text with reference to their Galenic equivalents. The water, he said for example, referred to the saliva. In this reconciliation process al-Majlisî also referred both to al-\(\text{Qāmūs}\) and the dictionary of the Sunni Ismā‘îl b. Ḥammād al-Jawharī (d. e. 393/1003).

The fourth and fifth texts in chapter forty-seven came from '\(\text{Uyūn}\)' with the fifth also having appeared in \('\text{Ilal}\). Neither had apparently been cited in any earlier collections of the Imams’ traditions.

The overwhelming majority of \('\text{Uyūn}\)’s 941 traditions involve or otherwise relate to the Eighth Imam 'Ali al-Ridā. However, chapters two, four and five, seven to nine and ten contain traditions on, respectively, the Imam al-Ridā’s mother, the Imam Mūsā’s designation of his son ‘Ali al-Ridā as the Imam, Mūsā and the ‘Abbasid caliph Hārūn al-Rashīd (reg. 170–93/786–809), and the reasons for the formation of the Wāqīf Shī‘a, who held that the Imamate ended with the Imam discussed the “four temperaments” in language very similar to that used by the Imam Mūsā in his father’s preceding text.

In \('\text{Ilal}\)’s chapter forty-seven, the fourth text is the very short eighth of fourteen texts in \('\text{Uyūn}\)’s seventh chapter on relations between the Imam’s father, Mūsā, and the caliph Hārūn. The third, fourth and fifth texts in this chapter detail the 179/795 arrest and release of Mūsā by the caliph. The ninth sees the caliph trying to trick the Imam by asking that, if there were two caliphs, were two sets of taxes to be paid? The tenth gave more detail on the process of the arrest. The eleventh noted Imam Mūsā’s fear that the caliph would have him killed. In the last, Hārūn explained he had no choice but to treat the Imam badly.

In the eighth text, that cited in \('\text{Bīhār}\), the caliph asked the Imam Mūsā about the four temperaments (al-\(\text{tabā‘ā}\) i ‘al-\(\text{arba‘ā}\) a). The Imam identified these as the wind (al-\(\text{rīḥ}\)) which, he explained, was like a king who treated his people well; the blood, like a servant that could kill its master; the phlegm, like an enemy that would always find a way; and the gall (al-\(\text{mirra}\)), which was like the earth that causes things on it to grow.\(^{56}\)

After citing this text, al-Majlisî again commented on the meaning of these terms, in an effort to reconcile these with those in Galenic medical discourse. Thus, for example, he suggested that al-\(\text{rīḥ}\) probably referred to the yellow bile or the animal pneuma, and that al-\(\text{mirra}\) referred to both the yellow and black bile together. In closing, he noted that he had seen discussions like this “in the works of the ancient physicians (al-\(\text{aṭībā‘ā}\) ) and philosophers (al-hukmā)”.\(^{57}\)

The fifth text in \('\text{Bīhār}\)’s chapter forty-seven had appeared in both ‘\(\text{Uyūn}\) and ‘\(\text{Ilal}\). In ‘\(\text{Uyūn}\), this was the eleventh of thirty-five traditions on what the Imam al-Ridā gave as the reasons for a variety of things. Other traditions in this chapter included questions to the Imam on why God sent the flood, on the terms applied to the followers of Jesus, on why the line of the Imam al-Ḥusayn, and not that of his brother al-Ḥasan, was followed, and for how many was the sacrifice of a camel a sufficient offering on the ‘Īd al-Aḍḥā. In this short text, cited by Ibn Bābawayh via his own father, the Imam discussed the “four temperaments” in language very similar to that used by the Imam Mūsā in \('\text{Bīhār}\)’s preceding text.

In ‘\(\text{Ilal}\), this text was the second of the sixteen in \('\text{Ilal}\)’s chapter on “the natural dispositions (al-\(\text{tabā‘ā}\) i’), cravings (al-shahawāt) and affections (al-mahabbāt)”.\(^{57}\)

Chapter forty-seven’s sixth text was the fifth of the sixteen traditions in the same chapter of ‘\(\text{Ilal}\), where it appears to have been cited for the first time. The Imam Ja‘far is cited as discussing the functions of fire (al-\(\text{nār}\)), light (al-\(\text{nūr}\)), al-\(\text{rīḥ}\) (often synonymous with al-\(\text{rūḥ}\)) and water, in terms recalling those in chapter forty-seven’s third text, cited from al-Khiṣāl, although this tradition is longer. The Imam identified the functions of these four, stating, for example, that the blood in the body was like water in the earth and that nothing could survive without it. The Imam said that human beings were created out of the matter (sha’n) of this world and the next.\(^{58}\)

Al-Majlisî, in a lengthy comment, defined the various terms used by the Imam in the tradition, again

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\(^{56}\) Ibn Bābawayh (b), N.D.: 1: 80–81/8.


\(^{58}\) Ibn Bābawayh 1385/1966: 107/5.
equating these with the Arabic anatomical terminology of the Galenic medical discourse, although he ended with a note that the tradition was certainly not free of confusion (tashwīṣ) and hidden secrets (aṣrār ghaybiyya).

The long seventh text in this chapter of the Bihār was the first of the sixteen traditions in this same chapter of ‘Ilal. Here the Imam Ja’far cited the Imam ‘Alī as discussing the creation process itself. Here also appeared a reference to the four ṣabāʿi’ī, named as bile, blood, phlegm and al-riḥ. Al-Majlīṣī then, again, explained certain terms in the text as references to the Galenic anatomical terminology: al-riḥ, he suggested, might refer to the yellow bile while the bile in question might refer to the black bile. He referred to the tafsīr of ‘Ali b. Ibrāhīm al-Qummī (d. after 306/919), one of the earliest Twelver Qur’ān commentaries, that there are four ṣabāʿi’ī: the two biles, the blood and the phlegm, with the blood being located in the east, the phlegm in the north, the yellow bile in the south and the black in the west.

The eighth text in this chapter of Bihār was the sixth of the sixteen traditions in ‘Ilal. The Imam Ja’far referred to the ṣabāʿi’ī as the blood, bile, al-riḥ and phlegm, to the four supports (daʿāʾīm) as ‘aql, understanding (jahm), memory and ‘ilm (knowledge), and to the four pillars (arkān) as light, fire, al-riḥ and water. The text seems to have appeared in ‘Ilal for the first time.

The ninth text in this chapter was the eighth of the sixteen texts in the same chapter of ‘Ilal. Al-Majlīṣī had cited this text as the second of chapter forty-six’s eight traditions. The text focused on the role of the heart in the management of the various functions of the body and equated that role with the role of the Imam in the community. This tradition also was apparently cited in ‘Ilal for the first time.

In the chapter’s short tenth tradition, the third of ‘Ilal’s chapter of sixteen traditions, it was said that error (al-ghalaṭa) was resident in the kidney, life in the lungs (al-riyya) and al-‘aql in the heart.

Chapter forty-seven’s twelfth text was the fourth of the sixteen traditions in this same chapter of ‘Ilal, and was also apparently cited in ‘Ilal for the first time. Here, it was said that when God created the dust of Adam, He commanded the four spirits (al-riyāḥ) and took from each its temperament (tabīʿa).

Traditions eighteen to twenty-two of this chapter form the second cluster of texts cited from Ibn Bābawayh here.

In the eighteenth tradition, which is said to be in ‘Ilal but does not appear in the two published editions of the text used for this research, sc. an undated Qum edition and the 1385/1966 Najaf one, the four ṣabāʿi’ī are identified as “the two biles”, blood, al-riḥ and phlegm.

The nineteenth tradition was included both in ‘Ilal and al-Khiṣāl. In ‘Ilal, it was the first and sole long tradition in a chapter on the creation of the organs (aʿdāʾ) and the extremities (jawāriḥ). In the presence of the caliph al-Manṣūr (reg. 136–58/754–75), the Imam Ja’far asked an unidentified Indian why certain anatomical structures had been created as they were. “Why is the nose between the two eyes?” was one such question. “Why is the heart [in the shape of] a pine nut?” was another. To each the Indian replied he did not know. The Imam then offered what today would be considered a teleological, functionalist argument. Thus, for example, the nose was between the eyes to divide the light coming into each into equal portions. The heart is in the shape of a pine nut because it is inverted (munakkas) and its head was made fine (daqīq) so that it could enter the lungs. Their coolness fans it such that the brain (dimāgh) is not scorched by its heat. The Indian was amazed and asked where the Imam had obtained such knowledge. Imam Ja’far replied that he had it from his antecedents and they from the Prophet, from Gabriel, from God Himself.

In al-Khiṣāl the text was the only tradition in a section entitled “Nineteen questions that al-Ṣādiq posed of the Indian doctor in the presence of al-Manṣūr, and he did not know, and al-Ṣādiq informed him of the answers”. This appeared in the chapter on the number nineteen. Al-Majlīṣī then offered a lengthy commentary that included “lay” explanations of the tradition’s anatomical terms, in the process of which he referred to such sources as the dictionary of the Sunnī Ismāʿīl al-Jawhari.

The twentieth tradition in chapter forty-seven was the sixth and last text in a chapter of ‘Ilal on

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"the bitterness (al-marāra) in the ears, the sweetness (al-'udhāba) in the lips (al-shafatayn), the salinity (al-mulawwiha) in the eyes and the coldness (al-burūda) in the nose". This was the first time this tradition seems to have been cited in a major collection. As for others of the texts in this chapter of 'Ilal, in the second of the six, the Imam asked if the listener knew why God had given these qualities to these parts of the anatomy. When the listener replied that he did not know, the Imam gave distinctly functionalist explanations in each case. Thus, for example, sweetness was put in the lips so that man could discover the pleasure of what he ate and drank. In the third and fourth traditions in this chapter of 'Ilal, the first to be cited below, the Imam offered similar explanations.

In the sixth and last of these traditions in the chapter of 'Ilal, that cited in Bihār, similar questions were raised and similar explanations offered: thus the bitterness in the ears acted as a barrier (hijāb) for the brain (dimāgh). Al-Majlisī then noted that he had cited many similar texts elsewhere.

The twenty-first tradition in this chapter of Bihār was the sole text in a chapter in 'Ilal on why hair did not grow in the palm of the hand but did grow on the back of the hand. The text seems to have been cited for the first time in 'Ilal. Here, the Imam first explained that the palm was like land on which there was a great deal of walking; on such land nothing could grow. Second, the palms were doors that encountered things, and there was no hair thereon so that in touching, softness or coarseness could be sensed without the hair acting as a barrier. Again, al-Majlisī then offered a brief further commentary, offering lay explanations for some of the Imam’s phrases and in the process again citing al-Qāmūs.

The twenty-second text, the last in this second cluster of Ibn Bābawayh’s traditions in Bihār’s chapter forty-seven, was the third of the six traditions in the same chapter in 'Ilal on bitterness, sweetness, salinity and coldness, discussed above.

Only two more texts from works of Ibn Bābawayh appear among the remaining traditions of the total of thirty-six in this chapter.

The twenty-sixth text is said to appear in 'Ilal, though it does not appear in the two editions consulted. In this text, it was said that the reason women have more ribs than men is related to the place of the embryo (janīn), such that a woman’s cavity (jawf) can expand for the child.

An unnumbered text from 'Ilal appearing after the twenty-eighth text is said to be “similar” to the twenty-eighth one. In the latter tradition itself, which had appeared in al-Kāfī, the Imam Ja’far quoted the Prophet as saying that man has 360 blood vessels (’urūq, sing. ’irq), of which 180 are “moving” and 180 are “silent”, and that if the “moving” vessels are silent one cannot sleep and that if the “silent” vessels move also, one cannot sleep and that the Prophet praised God 360 times each morning and evening. The unnumbered text from 'Ilal, noted herein as “similar” to al-Kāfī’s text, had appeared as the sole text in a chapter on the Prophet’s praising of God 360 times. In fact, the text (matn) of each of these two traditions is nearly identical although the chain of transmitters for each does feature some different names.

With the Galenic and tradition-based medical discourses on anatomy now reconciled, in chapter forty-eight, “On what al-ḥukamā’ and al-aṭibbā’ say on the anatomy of the body and its parts”, al-Majlisī related in detail, without comment or criticism, and minus any citations from the Qur’ān or the Imams’ traditions, the entire corpus of anatomical terminology on offer in the writings of Muslim scholars in the Galenic medical tradition.

Chapter forty-nine, with three traditions, addressed the differences in the appearances (suwar) of what had been created (al-makhlūqa’), and “the situation of the Blacks (al-sūdān), the Turks, and the Slavs (al-ṣaqāliba). All three traditions had appeared in 'Ilal, each apparently for the first time.

The first two had appeared in 'Ilal’s early chapters on creation. The first of these was the last of thirteen traditions in its ninth chapter on “The creation of crea-

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tion and the differences in their conditions (ikhtilāf aḥwālīhim)”. These thirteen traditions in the main stressed the fact that it was obligatory on those of every age to know their Imam and to give him their obedience. Indeed, after the first tradition, in which the Imam Ja’far cited the Imam Ḥusayn as so stating to his followers, Ibn Bābawayh himself says: “By this it is meant that those of every age know that God is He who did not leave them in any age without an infallible Imam.”

As for others of the thirteen texts in 'Ilal, in the second one, the Imam Ja’far stated that God created his creatures “to manifest His power and to oblige them to render obedience to Him”. In the third, also cited in both Ibn Bābawayh’s al-Tawḥīd and al-Kāfī,70 the Imam al-Riḍā said that God created “what He wished as He wished to demonstrate His wisdom (ḥikma) and the truth of his lordship (ḥaqiqat rubūbiyyatihī).” In the long fourth of the thirteen texts, the Imam referred to a conversation between Adam and God as to why God had not created everything in the same form. God explained that He had created a myriad of differences between humans to reflect on Himself so that, for example “the rich person would look on the poor person and praise me and thank me”.

That cited by al-Majlisī as the first of three texts in chapter forty-nine was the last of these thirteen, and was a text apparently not cited in earlier collections. The Imam al-Riḍā was asked why God had not created everything in the same form. God explained that He had created a myriad of differences between humans to reflect on Himself so that, for example “the rich person would look on the poor person and praise me and thank me”.

The second of al-Majlisī’s traditions in this chapter of Bihār was the sole text in a different chapter in 'Ilal on why there were Blacks (al-sūdān), Turks, Slavs (al-saqāliba) and Yājūj and Mājūj. In this tradition, Nūḥ was said to have been asleep in his boat when a wind exposed his nakedness. Ḥām saw his father and did not cover him whereas his other sons did see their father and did cover him. Thus God made Ḥām father of the Arabs, and Yāfith father of the Slavs, the Turks, Mājūj and Yājūj, and China. Sām or Shem, as he is also known, is identified by al-Ṭabarī as father of the Arabs.72

and, based on al-Qāmūs, identifying the “Slavs” as coming from the Khazar region, between Bulghār and Qustantīniyya.72

The last of the three texts in this chapter of the Bihār appeared in yet another location in 'Ilal, as the thirty-third of thirty-four texts in a chapter of miscellaneous (nawādir) traditions. In 'Ilal, where it appeared apparently for the first time in a collection of the Imams’ traditions, the full text was quite long and included a long sanad back to the Prophet. This version recounts a series of questions addressed to the Prophet and his replies. The questions commenced with why al-Furqān, the Meccan sura XXV of the Qur‘ān, was named as such. The questioner then asked why the sun and moon did not give off equivalent light, why night (al-layl) was so called, why the stars seem to be small and large, why the world (al-dunyā) was thus named and why the resurrection (al-qiyāma) was thus called. The questioner also asked the Prophet about the first day after creation and why it was called yawm al-ḥad, and about each of the successive days, why Adam was called Adam, and whether Adam was created from one lump of clay (fīn wāḥid) or from all clay (fīn kulluhū). In the original, after this query and reply the questioner tabled additional queries and received replies.

Of all of the questions recorded in the original, only this last question, the one about Adam and the lump of clay, and its reply make up al-Majlisī’s third and last text in chapter forty-nine. To this question, the Prophet replied that Adam was created from all clay and that if he had been created from one clay then people would all be of the same form and unable to tell one from another. Dirt (al-turāb), the Prophet continued, can contain whiteness, green, blond-ness (aṣhab), dust colour (aḥbar), red and blue. In it also is what is sweet (ʿadhīb), salty, coarse (khashīn), soft (layyīn) and brown (aṣhab). Therefore these all appear in people, based on the colours of the dirt.

Al-Majlisī ended the chapter with a reference to al-Fayrūzābādī’s discussion of the colours mentioned...
in the tradition, citing examples from the colours of hair.73

VIII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Of the remaining chapters in this section of Biḥār, fifty to eighty-eight contain some 498 traditions on different illnesses and their cures. Of these, considerably fewer were drawn from Ibn Bābawayh’s collections: forty-four, nearly 9%, had previously been cited by Ibn Bābawayh alone. But, whereas ʿIlal had provided the largest number of traditions for three chapters of this volume discussed above, al-Khiṣāl provided the largest number of Ibn Bābawayh’s traditions cited in these thirty-eight chapters, sc. twenty-two, or 50%; this represented 4% of all the traditions in these chapters. The bulk of al-Khiṣāl’s two traditions, sc. fourteen of them, appeared in a chapter on such “cures” as cupping (al-hijāma), clysters (al-ḥuqna), snuff (al-suʾūṭ) and vomiting (al-qayʿ). Of those on cupping, for example, two came from a chapter in al-Khiṣāl on the number seven (which included traditions on the days of the week) and referred to the practice of the Prophet undergoing cupping on Mondays.74

By contrast, and despite the recent resurgence of claims that al-Majlisī forged traditions, of those traditions considered in Biḥār’s chapters forty-six, forty-seven and forty-nine, it was clearly carefully selected traditions from those of Ibn Bābawayh’s collections other than al-Faqīh that played a key role in al-Majlisī’s furthering the very particular elements of Biḥār’s broader, particular agenda, even as these texts had played markedly different roles in their original settings.

As for the compilations themselves of Ibn Bābawayh, whereas al-Faqīh remains the best known of these among Western scholars, in the Buyid period his other collections were at least as well known as al-Faqīh among the community’s scholars. With the end of the Buyid period, knowledge of and, especially, access to all of Ibn Bābawayh’s contributions would seem to have gradually declined.

Only some six centuries later, in the latter years of the eleventh/seventeenth century in Safawid Iran, did this situation begin to be reversed, although in the intervening years at least two of his works were lost to posterity; one of them, Madīnat al-ʿilm, was held by those who knew it to have been more significant than al-Faqīh itself.75

It can be no coincidence that the rising interest in all of Ibn Bābawayh’s works, as suggested by the growing numbers of copies made of them, can be dated to those years that also witnessed the growing veneration of Abū Muslim, the concomitant rise in anti-Abū Muslim discourse, the rise of urban-based Sufi messianism and its counter-polemical. The interest in, and the appeal to, the traditions was part and parcel of the period’s very dynamic spiritual discourse. Certainly, even if his quest to find Madīna failed, al-Majlisī found the collections of Ibn Bābawayh’s traditions other than al-Faqīh of great importance as he sought to reconcile the period’s differing parties by appealing to what distinguished them as Twelver Shīʿa — the Imams and their traditions as the source of a distinctive body of both doctrine and practice—and, in this case in particular, to these traditions as part of a broader, inclusive medical discourse. In the process, both Biḥār and these of Ibn Bābawayh’s much earlier collections also stand revealed as sources which can further the understanding of Twelver Shīʿī medical discourse.76

Equally important, al-Majlisī stands with others of the period, including a legion of unknown copyists, as having played a key role in recovering these of Ibn Bābawayh’s compilations for posterity. It can be no coincidence that the manuscripts used for many of the modern editions of these texts were copies produced in the Safawid period and after.77

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75 For the other, see n. 24.
76 See, for example, Pormann and Savage-Smith 2007: 72–73, 150.
77 Thus five manuscripts were used for the undated Qum edition of al-Tawḥīd used here: all were made in the eleventh/seventeenth century. Four of these are dated by year, with the earliest stemming from 1073/1662. The edition of Kamāl was produced using seven manuscripts: one is not dated, the earliest is from 960/1552 and the remaining five were made between 1054/1644 and 1090/1679. The second edition of al-Faqīh (Qum, 1392), utilised fourteen manuscripts: of the thirteen that can be dated, one was made before 1000/1591 and the remaining twelve were made between 1034/1624 and 1101/1689.
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