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Voyelles: a, i, u,  $-\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{u}$ . Diphtongues: aw, ay.

# ARABICA

## JOURNAL OF ARABIC AND ISLAMIC STUDIES

VOLUME XLI



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# THE FIRST-CENTURY CONCEPT OF HIĞRA\*

BY

#### PATRICIA CRONE

In sources for the first century of Islamic history, the word hiğra is used of two different types of emigration. Most commonly, it refers to emigration from Mecca to Medina in the time of the Prophet: this is the classical meaning of the word. But at other times it stands for emigration from Medina and other parts of Arabia to garrison cities in the conquered lands after the Prophet's death, which is not classical usage. Participants in both types of emigration are known as muhāğirūn. How are the two meanings of the word related?

Most scholars undoubtedly envisage the classical meaning as original and the non-classical usage as a later development. "Hijra no longer meant Flight, but emigration (with wife and children) to a military and political centre in order to serve there", as Wellhausen says with reference to the post-conquest period. In a recent study Madelung adopts the same view and traces the non-classical usage to 'Umar: "The duty of hijra acquired renewed, if changed, significance with the expansion of Islam after the death of Muḥammad"; reaffirmed by the caliph 'Umar, the "renewed emigration. ... was no longer directed to Medina but to the newly founded garrison towns in the conquered territories. With this interpretation, the duty of hijra, based on the precedent of the Prophet's time, remained a vital institution throughout the

Umayyad caliphate''2. Thereafter, one takes it, the concept reverted to the meaning that it had in the Prophet's days.

But there is something uncomfortable about a reconstruction in which a concept is born with its classical meaning so that evidence for the century after the Prophet's death must relate to a diversion rather than the development from which the classical concept emerged. One would have expected the first century to be formative. This is not how the sources see it, of course, for they systematically equate their own, classical Islam with that of the Prophet and the Rāšidūn and so have no choice but to dismiss the pre-classical period as diversionary or positively aberrant. For example, they assure us that the caliphal title was born under Abū Bakr in its classical form of halīfat rasūl allāh, though it was not actually used in that form until the 'Abbasid period: this was because the Umayyads 'changed' it3. They also assure us that the canonical taxes were fixed by the Prophet and Umar, but that the Umayyads changed them too4, and that the Umayyads were in general wont to introduce innovations, though the original rules always won out in the end because the scholars 'remembered' how things had been under the Prophet and the Rāšidūn. But this is history as legitimation. In Madelung's reconstruction it is 'Umar who changes the original concept of higra, not the Umayyads, who merely favour the un-classical idea; but one suspects the sources of doctrinal rewriting yet again. Is it not possible to propose a history of the concept of higra in which the classical notion is the outcome of an evolution rather than its starting point? This is what will be attempted here.

## Emigration in the Qur'an

The Qur'an is generally assumed to be a faithful record of Muḥammad's utterances, indeed the only reliable record that we possess. Wansbrough has cast doubt on this assumption, with considerable justification in my opinion<sup>5</sup>, but his theory is not suffi-

<sup>\*</sup> I should like to thank Uri Rubin for permission to quote his unpublished article, and Michael Cook, Frank Stewart and Fritz Zimmermann for helpful comments on earlier drafts of mine.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> J. Wellhausen, The Arab Kingdom and its Fall, Calcutta 1927, p. 25 (my italics). For the non-classical concept see also K. Athamina, «A rāb and Muhājirūn in the Environment of the Amṣār», Studia Islamica 66 (1987), p. 9, and the richly informative survey by U. Rubin, «Hiǧra and Muhāǧirūn in Early Islam», unpublished paper presented at the Fourth International Colloquium on the transition 'From Gahiliyya to Islam', Jerusalem 1987, to which I am much indebted.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> W. Madelung, «Has the Hijra Come to an End?», Revue des Etudes Islamiques 54 (1986) (Mélanges D. Sourdel), p. 226.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> P. Crone and M. Hinds, God's Caliph. Religious Authority in the First Centuries of Islam, Cambridge 1986, ch. 2.

<sup>4</sup> See for example Wellhausen, Kingdom, pp. 277ff.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> J. Wansbrough, Quranic Studies, Oxford 1977; id., The Sectarian Milieu, Oxford 1978.

ciently concrete to be usable in the present context. Since the Qur<sup>3</sup>ānic evidence cannot simply be left aside, and since further the scholars who have worked on *hiğra* subscribe to the conventional view of the provenance and transmission history of the Qur<sup>3</sup>ān, I shall meet them halfway by adopting it myself for purposes of the present argument.

The Qura does not actually use the term higra, but it pays considerable attention to emigrants (man yuhāģiru, al-muhāģirūn). of whom it strongly approves. They are identified as believers (2:217/215 [the figures separated by a dash refer to the Egyptian and Flügel editions respectively]; 8:71, 73/73, 75; 9:19/20; 29:25; 33:5/6), and their emigration is regularly presented as a response to maltreatment: we hear of "those who emigrated and were expelled from their habitations, those who suffered hurt in My way" (3:194), "Those who emigrated in God's cause after they were wronged" (16:40/43), of "poor muhāģirūn who were expelled from their homes and their property" (59:7/8), and of "those who emigrated min ba'di mā futinū'', usually translated "after persecution" (16:109/111); when people complain of being mustad afun fi 'lard, the angels ask why they have not emigrated (4:96/99); and those who emigrate in God's cause are assured that they will find muragaman katīran, sometimes translated "many refuges" (4:99/101). But no persecution seems to be envisaged in the passage on Lot, who believed in Abraham saying, "I will emigrate unto my Lord" (29:25), unless the words are to be construed as Abraham's.

Emigrants, who were often poor (cf. 24:21/22; 59:7/8), are contrasted with unbelievers and believers who have stayed behind: emigrants should not have friends in either group, though they should assist their co-religionists when the latter ask for help as long as it does not require action against allies (4:88/91; 8:71/73). The Qur³ān makes it clear that Muḥammad has emigrated (33:49) and that others are expected to join him (4:88/91; 8:71/73; 60:9/10); rewards are held out to those who go out muhāğiran ilā 'llāh warasūlihi even if they die on the way (4:99/101). We are not told where people emigrated from or to, though it is clear that their destination was a place with earlier inhabitants, who were also believers (59:8/9).

The most striking characteristic of emigrants in the Qur³ān is their association with holy war. Rewards are held out to "those who emigrated ... and fought and were slain" (3:194), "those who

emigrated and were slain or died" (22:57), "those who believe and have emigrated and struggled with their possessions and their selves in the way of God" (8:71/73; 9:19/20), "those who believe and have emigrated and struggle in the way of God" (8:73/75), "those who have believed afterwards and emigrated, and struggled with you" (8:74/76), "those who emigrated after persecution, then struggled and endured" (16:109/111); and one verse seems to identify *ğihād* as an activity peculiar to emigrants as distinct from those "who have given refuge and help" (8:71/73). Emigration and warfare are meritorious for being performed fi sabīl allāh, suggesting that they could also be performed in a non-religious vein (as warfare obviously could); and it seems reasonable to infer that higra, ğihād and qitāl alike were secular terms in pre-Islamic times. This is also suggested by the fact that the Our'an hardly ever associates them with earlier prophets. One would have expected Abraham and Moses to figure prominently as muhāģirūn, and Moses to be presented as a war-leader too, given that Abraham was not only the first monotheist, but also the first to separate himself from his unbelieving people (as Ḥadīth is well aware), while Moses staged the exodus from Egypt which culminated in the Israelite conquest of the Holy Land. But Lot is the only prophet before Muhammad to be descibed as a muhāģir; and not a single earlier prophet is depicted as a progatonist of ğihād/qitāl.

## Emigration to garrison cities

Most Islamicists probably assume the Qur²ānic and the classical concepts of *ğihād* to be identical or so closely related that the one developed into the other without intervening links. But is it not possible that the non-classical concept of *hiǧra* was such a link? Since the evidence has not been systematically collected before, I shall begin by listing all the attestations of the non-classical concept known to me<sup>6</sup> (except for the Ḥāriǧite material, which will be considered later). The order of the list is chronological and based on the approximate time to which the passages refer, not on their time of origin or the dates of the works in which they are preserved.

<sup>6</sup> I owe many of the attestations to the authors cited above, notes 1-2, especially Rubin, and also to J.M.D.M. Jūda, al-ʿArab wa ʾl-arḍ fī ʾl-ʿIrāq fī ṣadr al-Islām, Amman 1979, pp. 228ff.

- 1. The Prophet predicted that "you will emigrate to Syria and conquer it".
- 2. The Prophet said that "there will be hiğra after hiğra", adding that "the best people on earth will be those who attach themselves most closely to Abraham's place of emigration (muhāğar)".
- 3. Abū Darr described Syria as ard al-hiğra in conversation with the Prophet<sup>9</sup>.
- 4. The Prophet cursed those who turned bedouin after having emigrated (man badā ba da hiğratihi), but exonerated those who did so in times of fitna 10. Since there was no fitna in the Prophet's time, this must refer to people who abandoned their hiğra after his death, be it in Kūfa (below, nos. 32-3), Basra (nos. 33, 43), the Yemen (no. 56) or Medina 11.
- 5. The Prophet told his followers to invite the enemy to convert before engaging them in battle: if they accept, then "invite them to transfer from their abode to the abode of the emigrants" (altahawwul min dārihim ilā dār al-muhāģirīn), and tell them that they will have the same rights and duties as the Muhāģirūn; if they refuse to move, "then tell them that they will be like the bedouin Muslims (a'rāb al-muslimīn), who are subject to God's law on a par with the believers, but who do not share in the fay' or the ġanīma unless they fight ǧihād with the Muslims. And if they refuse to adopt Islam, then ask them to pay ǧizya'' 12. The Prophet is here speaking of non-

<sup>7</sup> Ibn Hanbal, al-Musnad, Cairo 1895, vol. v, p. 241.

<sup>9</sup> 'Alī b. Abī Bakr al-Haytamī, Mağma' al-zawā'id wa-manba' al-fawā'id, third printing, Beirut 1982, vol. v, p. 223; al-Muttaqī al-Hindī, Kanz al-'ummāl fī sunan al-aqwāl wa 'l-af'āl, second edition, Hyderabad 1945-75, vol. v, p. 469, no. 2597 (contrast no. 2602 at p. 470, which omits this for an identification of Medina as the Prophet's muhāğar).

10 Haytamī, Magma' al-zawā'id, vol. v, p. 254; M.J. Kister, "Land Property and Jihād", Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient 34 (1991), p. 279n, both citing al-Ţabarānī; cf. C.E. Bosworth, "A note on Ta'arrub in Early Islam", Journal of Semitic Studies 34 (1989), p. 359.

11 Cf. below, notes 143-5.

Arabs joining (or refusing to join) the Muhāǧirūn outside Arabia, not of Arabs joining those in Medina, as is clear partly from the fiscal terminology he employs and partly from the fact that the tradition is also ascribed to CUmar<sup>13</sup>.

- 6. In 12/633f Ḥālid b. al-Walīd offered the people of Ḥīra the same rights and duties as the Muslims if they would convert, get up and emigrate (in aslamtum wa-nahaḍtum wa-hāġartum) 14.
- 7. The Arab who killed the Persian Ruzbih in the battle of Ḥuṣayd in Iraq in 12/633f was one of the Barara: every clan that migrated (hāǧarat) in its entirety was known as al-Barara, whereas groups that migrated in part were known as al-Ḥiyara, so the Muslims consisted of Ḥiyara and Barara<sup>15</sup>.
- 8. <sup>c</sup>Amr b. Ma<sup>c</sup>dikarib apostatized in the Yemen, then he hāğara ilā 'l-<sup>c</sup>Irāg and converted<sup>16</sup>.
- 9. <sup>c</sup>Amr b. Ma<sup>c</sup>dikarib addressed the participants in the battle of Qādisiyya, fought between 14/635 and 17/637, as ma<sup>c</sup>šar almuhāģirīn<sup>17</sup>.
- 10. Groups of Taġlib, Namir and Iyād from the Ğazīra hāğara to al-Madā'in, whence they later transferred to Kufa<sup>18</sup>.
- 11. <sup>c</sup>Umar instructed Sa<sup>c</sup>d b. Abī Waqqāṣ to create a *dār hiġra wa-manzil ģihād* for the Muslims<sup>19</sup>, or a *dār hiġra wa-qayrawānan*<sup>20</sup>, or a *dār hiġra* for the Arabs who were with him. So he went to al-Anbār to make it a *dār al-hiġra*, then he went to Kuwayfa and then to the site on which Kufa was built in 17/638<sup>21</sup>.
- 12. The poet al-Muhabbal and his son hāğara to Başra<sup>22</sup>.

13 Madelung, «Hijra», pp. 232f., citing al-Ṭabarī, Τα τη al-rusul wa 'l-mulūk, ed. M. J. de Goeje and others, Leiden 1879-1901, ser. i, pp. 2713f.

<sup>14</sup> Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2041.

15 Sayf in Tabarī, ser. i, p. 2069; cf. the glossary, s.v. brr.

<sup>18</sup> Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2482. <sup>19</sup> Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2360.

<sup>20</sup> Al-Balādurī, Kitāb futüh al-buldān, ed. M.J. de Goeje, Leiden 1866, p. 275.

<sup>21</sup> Al-Dīnawarī, al-Ahbār al-ṭiwāl, ed. V. Guirgass, Leiden 1888, p. 131.

<sup>22</sup> Ibn Outayba, Ši<sup>c</sup>r, vol. i, p. 240.

<sup>8</sup> Abū Dāwūd, al-Sunan, ed. M. M.-D. 'Abd al-Ḥamīd, Beirut n.d., vol. iii, no. 2482; Ibn Ḥanbal, al-Musnad, ed. A.M. Shākir, Cairo 1950-, vol. vii. no. 5562 (m2); vol. xi, nos. 6871, 6952; Ibn 'Asākir, Ta'rīḥ madīnat Dimašq, vol. i, ed. Ş.D. al-Munaǧǧid, Damascus 1951, pp. 149ff.; further references in Rubin, 'Hiǧra and Muhāǧirūn', note 68.

<sup>12 &#</sup>x27;Abd al-Razzāq b. Hammām al-Ṣan'ānī, al-Muşannaf, ed. Ḥ.-R. al-A'zamī, Beirut 1970-2, vol. v, no. 9428; Ibn Abī Šayba, Kilāb al-muşannaf fī 'l-ahādīt wa 'l-ātār, ed. M.A. al-Nadwī, Bombay 1979-83, vol. xii, nos. 12678, 1400; Abū

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup>Ubayd al-Qāsim b. Sallām, *Kitāb al-amwāl*, ed. M.Kh. Harās, Cairo 1968, pp. 303f., no. 523; al-Wāqidī, *Kitāb al-maġāzī*, ed. M. Jones, London 1966, vol. ii, p. 757 (different *isnād*); further references in Rubin, "Hiǧra", note 83.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Ibn Qutayba, al-Ši<sup>c</sup>τ wa 'l-šu<sup>c</sup>aτā', ed. A.M. Shākir, Cairo 1966-7, vol. i, p. 372.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Abū 'l-Farağ al-Işfahānī, Kitāb al-aġānī, Cairo 1927-74, vol. xv, p. 215, bottom; Ibn Abī Šayba, Muşannaf, vol. xii, no. 15590.

- 13. Rabī<sup>c</sup>a, the son of al-Namir b. Tawlab, hāğara to Kufa<sup>23</sup>.
- 14. When Saǧāḥ converted to islam, she hāǧarat to Baṣra<sup>24</sup>.
- 15a. Kilāb b. Umayya b. al-Askar al-Laytī hāğara to Medina in the caliphate of <sup>c</sup>Umar according to some; according to others, he had already done so in the time of the Prophet <sup>25</sup>; he and his brother subsequently hāğara with Sa<sup>c</sup>d b. Abī Waqqāş, i.e. to Iraq <sup>26</sup>.
- 16. Kurayb b. Abraha and his brother Abū Šamir hāǧara to Egypt in the caliphate of CUmar<sup>26a</sup>.
- 16. In 17/638 ʿAlī told ʿUmar that Kufa was *li ʾl-hiǧra baʿda ʾl-hiǧra*²⁻.
- 17. 'Umar held the best person to be a man endowed with a home, family and property who learns about Islam and who reacts by driving his camels to "one of the abodes of emigration (dār min dūr alhiǧra)", where he sells them and spends the money on equipment in the path of God, staying among the Muslims and confronting their enemy <sup>28</sup>.
- 18. Tustar reneged on its agreement, so the *muhāǧirūn* had to conquer it<sup>29</sup>.
- 19. Between 19/640 and 21/642 'Utmān b. Abī 'l-'Āṣ conquered Tawwağ in Fārs, fa-sayyarahu dār hiǧra³o.
- 20. The Coptic saint Samuel of Qalamūn predicted the coming of "this *umma* who are the *muhāģirūn*" and *ummat al-hiğra al-<sup>c</sup>arabiyya*<sup>31</sup>.

- 21. The Muslims appear as *Magaritai* in two Egyptian papyri of 642 and 643<sup>32</sup>.
- 22. <sup>c</sup>Umar identified the participants in a campaign against Kurds as muhāģirūn<sup>33</sup>.
- 23. Umar encouraged people to emigrate, saying hāǧirū wa-lā tahaǧǧarū³⁴.
- 24. 'Umar spoke of the Muslims as divided into muhāģirūn, Anṣār and bedouin. His muhāģirūn clearly included emigrants to garrison cities, not just those to the Prophet's Medina: they were "beneath the shades of swords", they and their families were to be paid their fay' in full, and they were not to be kept too long in the field (lā tuǧammarū)<sup>35</sup>.
- 25. Isho'yahb refers to the Muslims as Mahgre in a letter written not later than the mid-640's 36.
- 26. The Muslims appear as Mahgre, mahgraye in a Syriac account of a religious dispute set in  $644^{37}$ .
- 27. Of Nu<sup>c</sup>mān b. <sup>c</sup>Ubāda al-Bakrī we are told that he stayed in Fars, wa-lam yakun hāğara ilā 'l-Baṣra. Presumably this means that he had stayed on in Fars in 30/650, when Tawwaj ceased to be a dār hiğra and its troops were transferred to Basra<sup>38</sup>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> Ibn Qutayba, Ši<sup>c</sup>r, vol. i, p. 309; Jūda, al-<sup>c</sup>Arab, p. 231, with reference to Balādurī, Ansāb, MS, vol. ii, p. 788.

<sup>24</sup> Baladuri, Futuh, p. 100.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Aġānī, vol. xxi, pp. 9f.; Ibn Ḥağar, al-Iṣāba fī tamyīz al-Ṣahāba, ed. A. Sprenger and others, Calcutta 1856-73, vol. i, pp. 28, 125f., s.vv. 'Ubayy b. Umayya', 'Umayya b. al-Askar'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Ibn Hağar, İşāba, vol. i, p. 127, on the ultimate authority of al-Zuhrī.
<sup>26a</sup> Ibn 'Abd al-Hakam, Futūh Mişr wa-ahbāruhā, ed. C. C. Torrey, New Haven 1922, p. 113.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2514.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Ibn al-Mubārak, *Kitāb al-ģihād*, ed. N. Ḥammād, Beirut 1971, no. 164.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Balādurī, Futūḥ, pp. 381f; Abd al-Razzāq, Musannaf, vol. v, no. 9656; al-Saraḥsī, Sarḥ kitāb al-siyar al-kabīr li-Muḥammad b. al-Hasan al-Saybānī, Cairo 1957, vol. i, p. 259.

<sup>30</sup> Dînawarî, Ahbār, p. 141.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup> R. Basset (ed. and tr.), «Le Synaxaire arabe jacobite (Rédaction copte)» in *Patrologia Orientalis*, ed. R. Graffin and F. Nau, vol. iii, Paris 1909, p. 408; J. Ziadeh (ed. and tr.), «L'Apocalypse de Samuel, supérieur de Dair el Qalamoun», *Revue de l'Orient Chrétien* 20 (1915-17), pp. 377, 382, 389 and *passim*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> A. Grohmann, "Aperçu de papyrologie arabe", Etudes de Papyrologie 1 (1932), pp. 41f (PERF 558, 643 A.D.); id. "Greek Papyri in the Early Islamic Periodi the Collection of Archduke Rainer" ibid., 8 (1957), pp. 28f (PERF 564, 642 A.D.); cf. H. and R. Kahane, "Die Magariten", Zeitschrift für Romanische Philologie 76 (1960).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup> Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2718. 2721,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup> Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2729f; Ibn Sa'd, *Kitāb al-Tabaqāt al-kabīr*, ed. E. Sachau and others, Leiden 1904-21, vol. iii/1, p. 324. Compare W. Madelung, "Apocalyptic Prophecies in Hims in the Umayyad Age", *Journal of Semitic Studies* 31 (1986), p. 178, where 'Umar encourage Yemenis to emigrate in an apocalyptic vein.

<sup>35</sup> Țabarī, ser. i. p. 2775.

<sup>36</sup> Isho'yahb, Liber Epistularum, ed. and tr. R. Duval, Paris 1904-5, pp. 97 = 73. In the opinion of S.H. Griffith, "The Prophet Muhammad, his Scripture and his Message according to the Christian Apologies in Arabic and Syriac from the First Abbasid Century", in La vie du prophète Mahomet, Colloque de Strasbourg, octobre 1980, Paris 1983, pp. 122f, the terms Mahgre and Mahgraye have nothing to do with higra, only with Hagar (but he is less categorical in note 3, and even less so in his "Free Will in Christian Kalām", Le Muséon 100 (1987), pp. 151ff).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup> F. Nau, «Un colloque du Patriarche Jean avec l'émir des Agaréens», Journal Asiatique, 11th series, 5 (1915), pp. 248, 251f = 257, 260ff.

<sup>38</sup> Al-Balādurī, Ansāb al-asrāf, vol. xi (= Anonyme arabische Chronik) ed. A. Ahlwardt, Greifswald 1883, p. 149; cf. M. Hinds, «The First Arab Conquests in Fārs», Iran 22 (1984), pp. 45-7.

- 28. In 30/650f 'Utmān initiated a complex land exchanged in favour of Medinese participants in the conquest of Iraq who had decided to stay in Medina instead of making the hiǧra to Iraq (min ahl al-Madīna mimman aqāma wa-lam yakun yuhāǧir ilā 'l-'Irāq)³9.
- 29. 'Utmān referred to the Syrians as muhāģirūn in ard al-hiğra 40.
- 30. In Kufa in the time of  ${}^{c}U\underline{t}m\bar{a}n$  al-Aštar told an Asadī that "your people only converted because they were forced and only emigrated  $(\hbar a gar \bar{u})$  because they were poor" 41.
- 31. The poet Ḥakīm b. Qabīṣa b. Dirār al-Dabbī likewise told his son that "you have not emigrated for the sake of Paradise, but for the sake of bread and dates" 42.
- 32. The poet Labīb b. Rabī<sup>c</sup>a visited the Prophet, converted and returned to his people; then he *hāǧara* to Kufa; after his death in 41/661 his sons returned *ilā 'l-bādiya a<sup>c</sup>rāban*<sup>43</sup>.
- 33. At the time of Mu<sup>c</sup>āwiya's accession the population of Mosul and the Ğazīra consisted of Kufans and Basrans who had abandoned their *hiğra*, so Mu<sup>c</sup>āwiya established the military district of Qinnasrīn for them (*maṣṣarahā wa-ḡannadahā*)<sup>44</sup>.
- 34. Mu<sup>c</sup>āwiya lorded it over ǧamā<sup>c</sup>at al-muslimīn min al-Anṣār wa 'l-muhāǧirīn in the year of his accession according to al-Čāḥiz<sup>45</sup>. Apparently, there were no Muslims of other kinds (except perhaps bedouin, cf. above, no. 24).
- 35. The Muslims appear as Mahgraye in a Syriac colophon dated 63/682 46.
- 36. After the death of Yazīd I in 683, 'Ubaydallāh b. Ziyād tried to ingratiate himself with the Basrans by telling them that he had

39 Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2854.

43 Ibn Sacd, Tabagāt, vol. vi, pp. 20f.

44 Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2673f.

46 W. Wright, Catalogue of Syriac Manuscripts in the British Museum, London 1870, p. 92. been born among them and that his father had made his hiğra to them (mā muhāğar abī illā ilaykum)<sup>47</sup>.

- 37. The Muslims also appear as *Mahgraye* in the works of Jacob of Edessa (d. 708) and other Syriac sources of the Umayyad period 48.
- 38. Taġlib in the Jazīra were bedouin; after the battle of Marǧ Rāhiṭ, when they were feuding with Qays, they contacted their muhāǧirūn in Azerbayjan<sup>49</sup>.
- 39. The bedouin is distinguished from the *muhāģir* in a verse by the Taġlibī poet al-Quṭāmī<sup>50</sup>.
- 40. The same distinction is made in a verse by the  $Ta^{5}$  poet Iyas b. Mālik<sup>51</sup>.
- 41. Confronted with the Azāriqa at Dūlāb in 65/685, the governor of Basra promised any *mawlā* who would join him the stipends of an Arab and any bedouin who would join him the stipends of a *muhāğir*<sup>52</sup>.
- 42. When al-Ḥaǧǧaǧ arrived as governor of Iraq in 75/694, he recited a verse by an anonymous Asadī poet with the line muhāǧir laysa bi-carabī<sup>53</sup>.
- 42a. The father of the Ḥāriǧite rebel Šabīb b. Yazīd was min muhājirat al-Kūfa. He had emigrated from Kufa to Mosul<sup>53a</sup>.
- 43. A poem in praise of al-Muhallab attributed to Di<sup>c</sup>bil says that the Basrans, threatened by the Azāriqa, "had decided to move to the bedouin, fearing that they might perish. They almost reached a state of extreme suffering, after nobility and after the hiǧra" <sup>54</sup>. In other words, they had decided to abandon their hiǵra to Basra.

49 Aġānī, vol. xii, p. 205.

51 Abū Tammām, Hamasa, p. 294.

52 Agānī, vol. viii, p. 417.

<sup>40</sup> Ibn al-Mubārak, Ğihād, no. 194 (with parallels in the note thereto).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup> Al-Balādurī, Ansāb al-ašrāf, vol. v, ed. S.D.F. Goitein, Jerusalem 1936, p. 45<sup>10</sup>: Ibn Aftam, Kitāb al-futūh, Hyderabad 1968-75, vol. ii, p. 192.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup> Abū Tammām, *Hamasae carmina cum Tebrisii scholiis*, ed. G. Freytag, Bonn 1828-51, p. 792.

<sup>45</sup> Al-Ģāḥiz, 'Risāla fi banī Umayya' in his Rasā'il, ed. Ḥ. al-Sandūbī, Cairo 1933, pp. 293f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>47</sup> Al-Ğāḥiz, al-Bayān wa 'l-tabyīn, ed. 'A.-S.M. Hārūn, Cairo 1960-61, vol. ii, p. 130.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup> Cf. the examples in P. Crone and M. Cook, *Hagarism*, the Making of the Islamic World, Cambridge 1977, pp. 11, 164<sup>35</sup>, 173<sup>30</sup>, 213<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>50</sup> Al-Quṭāmī, Dīwān, ed. J. Barth, Leiden 1902, no. IV:25.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>53</sup> Ğāḥiz, Bayān, vol. ii, p. 309, top. For other attestations, see Rubin, 'Higra and Muhagirūn', note 15.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>53a</sup> Ibn Hazm, *Gamharat ansāb al-<sup>c</sup>arab*, ed. <sup>c</sup>A.-S. Hārūn, Cairo 1962, p. 327; cf. P. Crone, 'Were the Qays and the Yemen Political Parties', forthcoming in *Der Islam* 71, p. 39.

<sup>54</sup> Al-ʿAwtabī, al-Ansāb, Oman (wizārat al-turāt al-qawmī) 1984, vol. ii, p. 138
= M. Hinds (tr.), An Early Islamic Family from Oman: al-ʿAwtabī's Account of the Muhallabids, Manchester 1991, p. 45, §50.

- 44. In the Greek papyri issued by Qurra b. Šarīk al-ʿAbsī, governor of Egypt 709-14 AD, and others, the Muslim soldiers appear as Mōagaritai and mauleis/mauloi<sup>55</sup>.
- 45. In a story set between 93/712 and 95/714 Muqātil b. Ḥayyān relates how he abandoned his position as judge in Samarqand, went to Buḥārā and emigrated (hiǧrat kardam) from there to Marw<sup>56</sup>.
- 46. Some Isfahānīs in Basra were said to owe their presence there to conversion and emigration (aslamū wa-hāğarū)<sup>57</sup>.
- 47. The misdeeds of the Umayyads, according to al- $\check{G}\bar{a}hiz$ , included their habit of returning (non-Arab) converts to their villages  $ba^cda$  'l- $hi\check{g}ra^{58}$ .
- 48. In his fiscal edict 'Umar II declared himself obliged to "open the gate of hiğra for the people of Islam". He continues: "As for Islam....whoever accepts Islam, whether Christian or Jew or Zoroastrian....and joins himself to the body of Muslims in their abode, and who forsakes the abode wherein he was before, he shall have the same rights and duties as the Muslims.......As for emigration (hiğra), we open it up to whoever may emigrate of the bedouin and who sells his cattle and transfers from his bedouin abode to the abode of emigration (dār al-hiğra), to warfare against our enemy. Whoever does that shall have an equal share with the Muhāğirūn in that which God has given them of booty" 59.
- 49. Ğabhā<sup>3</sup>, a bedouin poet of the Umayyads period, was told by his wife that "it would be best for you if you were to emigrate (hāǧarta) to Medina, sell your camel and enroll for stipends (iftaraḍta fī 'l-ʿaṭā̄)<sup>60</sup>.
- 50. In 109/727 Asad al-Qasrī, the governor of Ḥurāsān, made a speech in which he asked God to take him back to his *muhāǧar* and *waṭan*, presumably meaning Syria <sup>61</sup>.

56 Balhī, Fadā il-i Balh, ed. 'A.-H. Ḥabībī, Tehran 1350, p. 79.

57 Balādurī, Futūh, p. 366.

58 Ğāḥiz, 'Risāla fī banī Umayya', p. 297.

- 52. Bilāl b. Abī Burda al-Aš<sup>c</sup>arī, deputy for Ḥālid al-Qasrī in Basra until 120/738, reminded a Tamīmī that Ḥīra was his  $d\bar{a}r$   $a^{c}rabiyya$  and Basra his  $d\bar{a}r$  higra63.
- 53. 'Umayr b. Hāni' al-'Ansī, a member of Yazīd III's Yamaniyya, encouraged people to pay allegiance to Yazīd, saying that 'there are only two hiğras, the hiğra to God and His Messenger and the hiğra to Yazīd''64.
- 54. The Farāhīd had their homes (manāzil) in Oman and their muhāǧar in Mosul; the Ḥimām had their homes in Oman and their muhāǧar in Mosul and Basra, as we are told sub anno 129/746-765.
- 55. Emigrants from the Yemen to Ḥimṣ are referred to as muhāģirūn, and Syria as their muhāģar, in apocalyptic prophecies dating from the Umayyad and early Abbasid periods; here too emigrants are contrasted with bedouin 66.
- 56. In a letter to Ibrāhīm b. 'Ubaydallāh al-Ḥaǧabī, governor of the Yemen for Hārūn al-Rašīd (786-809 AD), the Yemeni writer Bišr b. Abī Kubār al-Balawī says that 'The amīr, may God preserve him, knows how long I have loved and respected him, and that I have emigrated with him (wa-hiǧratī maʿahu), and that I am one of those who 'spent and fought before the victory' (cf. Qur. 57:9/10), and further that I have not reverted to bedouinism after emigrating (innī lam ataʿarrab baʿda 'l-hiǵra)' '67.

67 W. al-Qādī (ed.), Bišr b. Abī Kubār al-Balawī, Beirut 1985, pp. 175f.

<sup>55</sup> H.I. Bell (ed.), Greek Papyri in the British Museum, vol. iv (The Aphrodito Papyri), London 1910, index, s.vv. '\*mōagaritēs' (over 50 attestations), '\*mauleus', and p. xxxiv; cf. also R. Rémondon, Papyrus grees d'Apollônos Anô (Documents de fouilles de l'Institut français d'archéologie orientale du Caire XIX), Cairo 1953, p. 12.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>59</sup> Ibn 'Abd al-Ḥakam, *Sīrat 'Umar b. 'Abd al-'Azīz*, ed. A. 'Ubayd, fifth printing, Damascus 1967, pp. 94f = H.A.R. Gibb (tr.), "The Fiscal Rescript of 'Umar II.", *Arabica* 2 (1955), pp. 2f.

 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>60</sup> Aġānī, vol. xviii, p. 95.
 <sup>61</sup> Tabarī, ser. ii. p. 1498.

<sup>51.</sup> Al-Ḥaṣan, presumably al-Baṣrī (d. 110/728), held that "the hiğra of the bedouin (is effected) when they join their dīwān". Al-Šaybānī explains that "hiğra was a duty in the beginning", and al-Saraḥsī adds that "it is part of al-Ḥasan's doctrine that he did not consider this rule to have been abrogated and that a bedouin who converts must (in his view) inscribe his name in the dīwān al-ġuzāt in order to become a muhāğir, the purpose of hiğra being warfare in those days".62.

<sup>62</sup> Saraḥsī, Śarḥ, p. 94. Cf. also below, note 131.

<sup>63</sup> Athamina, 'A'fāb and Muhajirūn', p. 10, note 33, citing Balādurī, Ansāb, MS, fol. 737b; cf. C. Pellat, Le milieu Başrien et la formation de Gāhiz, Paris 1953, index s.v. 'Bilāl b. Abī Burda'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>64</sup> Al-Dahabī, Mīzān al-i'tidāl, ed. 'A.M. al-Biğāwī, Cairo 1963, vol. iii, p. 297; cf. J. van Ess, Theologie und Gesellschaft im 2. und 3. Jahrhundert Hidschra, Berlin and New York 1991-, vol. i, p. 94.

Al-Azdī, Ta'rih al-Mawsil, ed. 'A. Ḥabība, Cairo 1967, pp. 93, 96.
 Madelung, 'Apocalyptic Prophecies', pp. 153, 162f, 166f, 169; cf. id., 'Hijra', p. 233.

The concept of hiğra in these passages conforms to that of the Qur³ān in that it is closely associated with warfare. A dār al-hiğra is a military centre (manzil ğihād, qayrawān, miṣr and ğund, cf. nos. 11, 33); and a muhāğir is a resident of such a centre, where he is registered as a soldier and receives stipends from the proceeds of the immovable spoils of war known as fay' (nos. 5, 17, 24, 41, 48, 51). Unlike the Qur³ān, the first-century material never envisages hiğra as a response to persecution; and despite the Qur³ānic inclusion of 'poor Muhāǧirūn' among the recipients of booty bestowed by God on His Messenger (Q. 59:6f/7f), the stress on the fiscal entitlements of the muhāǧir is new; so too is the contrast between muhāǧirūn and bedouin (nos. 5, 24, 32, 38-43, 48, 51, 52, 55, 56; cf. also 17, 49) and between the former and mawālī (nos. 41, 44, cf. also 48). But these changes are not problematic.

Such persecutions as the Muslims may have suffered obviously came to an end when they gained the upper hand in Arabia. They continue to emigrate in order to fight holy war, however, and the conquests resulted in the acquisitions of massive tracts of land which might have been distributed among the actual conquerors, but which 'Umar decided to keep in public ownership as so-called fay', rewarding the conquerors by paying them stipends out of the tax income instead: the conquerors could then be kept together as soldiers in garrison cities instead of dispersing (and ultimately disappearing) as landlords and peasants among the conquered peoples. This raised questions about precisely who was entitled to a share. In Umayyad practice it is clear that emigration to a garrison city and regular service there were normally required for a stipend, and this view is attributed to 'Umar too: "the fay' belongs to the inhabitants of these garrison cities and those who join them, help them and stay among them", he is reputed to have announced when he instituted the  $d\bar{\imath}w\bar{a}n^{68}$ ; "he who hurries to higra hurries to stipends", as he is also said to have put it 69 (though he is credited with the alternative view as well 70). An emigrant thus came to be identified as a person endowed with fiscal rights which bedouin and

68 Tabarī, ser. i. p. 2414.

Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, vol. iii, p. 475. 2 up (likewise).

non-Arabs lacked; for the former had not emigrated and thus could not claim a share in the fay'; and though the latter might well have converted and emigrated to a garrison city, they were equally unable to claim a share in the spoils of conquests because they (or their ancestors) had fought on the wrong side: both were accordingly paid less than emigrants for such military services as they might perform (no. 41).

Some would grant non-Arab Muslims the same rights as emigrants (nos. 5, 48), and the distinction between Arab and non-Arab soldiers had largely disappeared by the late Umayyad period, but few seem to have been willing actually to count non-Arab Muslims as emigrants: as Qurra b. Šarīk's papyri distinguish between muhāģirūn and mawālī (no. 44), so 'Umar II distinguishes between the higra of bedouin and the mere firag of non-Arab converts (no. 48), while the Prophetic tradition refers to the latter's emigration as simple tahawwul (no. 5; contrast the otherwise similar offer to the Arab Hīrans in no. 6). By the ninth century, authors such as al-Balādurī and al-Ğāhiz unselfconsciously thought of non-Arab converts who emigrated to garrison cities as muhāģirūn (nos. 46, 47); many others must have called their emigration a higra too, for in Iran making a hiğra apparently came to mean no more than moving to the provincial capital 71, while the tenth-century Qādī al-Nu<sup>c</sup>mān held every convert to be a muhāğir, now in the spiritual sense of someone who has made a mental journey to God and His Prophet 72. But first-century Muslims apparently saw higra as an act which only Arabs could perform. Whether this reflects an allusion, in the word muhāģir, to descent from Hagar is a question which need not detain us here 73.

All the above developments, however, turn on the fact that the concept of *hiğra* now included emigration to military centres outside Arabia, and the question is how this wider meaning of the term is

<sup>69</sup> Abū ʿUbayd, Amwāl, p. 319, no. 547 (man asraʿa ilā al-hiğra asraʿa bihi al-ʿaṭāʾ);

Yumar held that all Muslims (not just soldiers in garrison cities) were entitled to a share in the fay', except for slaves (Yahyā b. Ādam, Kitāb al-harāğ, ed. Th.W. Juynboll, Leiden 1896, p. 6; similarly Abū 'Ubayd, Amwāl, p. 304, end of no. 523).

<sup>71</sup> Cf. the list, no. 45. Muqātil b. Ḥayyān was already a muhagir, in so far as non-Arabs could be thus described: he did not go to Marw in order to convert and join the army or other institutions of government, being a Muslim and government employee before he set out.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>72</sup> Al-Ñu<sup>c</sup>mān b. Muḥammad, *Da<sup>c</sup>ā<sup>5</sup>im al-islām*, ed. <sup>c</sup>A.A. al-Fayḍī, Cairo 1951-60, vol. ii, no. 1194 (man daḥala fī 'l-islām ṭaw<sup>c</sup>an fa-huwa muhāǧir). Note also that Abū <sup>c</sup>Ubayd has no qualms about glossing the yataḥawwalū of the Prophetic tradition cited in no. 5 as yuhāǧirū (Amwāl, p. 304, no. 523).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>73</sup> Crone and Cook, *Hagarism*, pp. 8f. Non-Muslims, on the other hand, had no compunction about labelling converts Mahgraye (cf. ibid, p. 160<sup>57</sup>).

to be explained. It is in answer to this question that Madelung proposes reinterpretation by 'Umar. 'Umar does indeed figure prominently in the above list; and though the non-classical use of the word is also attested before his caliphate (nos. 1-7), this could (and in several cases clearly must) be dismissed as back-projection. It was 'Umar who gave orders for the establishment of garrison towns, who decided not to distribute the conquered lands among the conquerors, who set up the dīwāns for the payment of stipends and who ruled (or is said to have ruled) that only muhāğirūn were entitled to a share. It would thus seem reasonable to infer that the very notion of hiğra to garrison cities was 'Umar's brainchild too.

But why do we take it for granted that the concept of emigration had to be changed in order to include movement to military centres outside Arabia? Given that 'Umar and the Prophet were contemporaries, and indeed intimate associates, the presumption must surely be that they operated with the same concept of emigration. This presumption may strike us as odd because we all think of higra (or rather the 'real' as opposed to the Ethiopian higra) as a process which began in 622 and came to an end in 630, when Mecca was conquered, or as a single event of 622, so that any higra encountered therefore must be a reinterpretation or re-enactment of the original idea; but we owe this line of thought to the tradition, not to the Qur'an. The Qur'an nowhere states that emigration must go to a particular place, be it in Arabia or elsewhere, in order to count as hiğra. On the contrary, it seems to suggest the opposite: "whoso emigrates in the way of God will find in the earth muġāraman katīran" (Q. 4:99/101). It does convey the impression that Muḥammad had a single centre in Arabia, and we may accept that this centre was Yatrib; but since the Quroan never reveals its identity, it would be difficult to present Yatrib as intrinsic to the Quranic concept of emigration. Nor does the Quroan present the duty of higra as finite; on the contrary, higra and holy war are linked with such regularity that one would assume them to stand and fall together. Holy war remained a duty far beyond the lifetime of the Prophet, and we now find that the same is true of higra. Why then assume that 'Umar reinterpreted the concept? The prima facie reading of the evidence is that he simply continued it.

Here as so often, our perspective is skewed by classical conceptions, for we tacitly accept with our sources that the Prophet's incomparability places him in a category of his own: higra in his

time was one thing, higra thereafter something else. Obviously, if hiğra in the time of the Prophet was a unique process—Hiğra with a capital H-then all later emigration must be imitation and/or reinterpretation of the original idea; but what the continued use of the notion of higra suggests is precisely that this view of things is secondary. Like the Qur'anic concept, that which prevailed in the first century and a half was open-ended: Medina was Muhammad's abode of emigration, but emigration continued to both this and other abodes of emigration after his death: one could still engage in higra to Medina in the time of Umar and the Umayyads (nos. 15, 49); one could make a higra away from Medina too (nos. 15, 28), to one of the centres outside Arabia (a movement which later authors would describe as mere tahawwul74); and one could abandon one's hiğra in any of these centres by engaging in the reprehensible act of tacarrub bacda 'l-higra. One abandoned one's higra by becoming a bedouin or a peasant as opposed to remaining a soldier wherever one happened to be inscribed 75, not just by leaving Medina, for a dar al-higra was simply an armed camp or mobilization centre to which one went to fight the infidels whoever and wherever they might be. There is no sense in this material of an original hiğra with a capital 'H' verses an imitative one of less importance. All Arabs in all garrison cities are Muhāğirun, be they in Arabia or elsewhere, and all are unselfconsciously referred to as such in official documents, poetry, incidental remarks and by their non-Muslim subjects.

If Muḥammad operated with a closed concept of hiğra for eight years and 'Umar introduced the open-ended version which predominated for the next hundred years, one wonders how the original concept survived: for once all emigrants to garrison cities had come to be known as Muhāǧirūn, the emigrants to Muhammad's Medina can hardly have been distinguished from everyone else by that very title, and one would have expected the cheap currency to drive out the expensive variety. By contrast, it is easy to see how the closed concept could have driven out the open-ended one, given that the obligation to live as a Muhāǧir in a mobilization centre lost relevance in the course of the Umayyad period, whereas

<sup>74</sup> Cf. Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, *Tabaqāt*, ser. i. p. 13: <sup>c</sup>Abdallāh b. Abī <sup>3</sup>Awfā al-Aslamī tahawwala from Medina to Kufa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>75</sup> Cf. F. Løkkegaard, *Islamic Taxation in the Classic Period*, Copenhagen 1950, pp. 82f; Kister, «Land Property and *Jihad*», pp. 279f.

the Qur'ānic references to emigrants in Muḥammad's time ensured that the earliest Muhāǧirūn would be remembered even if the original use of the term was forgotten. In other words, the openended concept must have been the first. What the evidence suggests is not that 'Umar reinterpreted the concept of hiǧra to include emigration to garrison cities, but on the contrary that later generations reinterpreted it so as to exclude it.

#### The emergence of the classical concept

If this is correct, how and when did the classical concept emerge? We may start by surveying the material in which the open-ended concept of *hiğra* is under attack. It falls into three groups.

First, numerous traditions present Muḥammad as exempting individuals and tribal groups from the duty of hiğra, or abolishing it altogether, before the conquest of Mecca, or without reference to it. Thus he allowed Salama b. al-Akwa<sup>c</sup> al-Aslamī to live in the desert when he asked for permission to do so <sup>76</sup>; alternatively, he exempted the entire bedouin section of Aslam from the duty of emigration in a letter stating that "they are Muhāǧirūn wherever they are" or he exempted the Aslamī emigrants in Medina, saying "inhabit the ravines/dwell in the desert, O Aslam ... you are Muhāǧirūn wherever you are" 18. Ibn CUmar held Aslam to be the

only Muslims to be allowed to live in the desert 79, but the classical tradition knows of many more. Thus the Prophet is said to have written to B. 'Amr of Huzā'a that "I give those of you who emigrate the same rights as I have myself, even if they emigrate in their own land" 80. When four hundred men of Muzayna came to Medina in 5/626, the Prophet gacala lahum al-higra fī dārihim, telling them that "you are Muhāģirūn wherever you are" 81. Three Absīs had heard from their qurra that one could not be a Muslim without emigrating (lā islām li-man lā hiğrata lahu), but the Prophet assured them that this was not so: "fear God wherever you are; God would not defraud you of ought of your deeds (cf. Qur. 52:20/21) even if you lived in al-Damad and Ğāzān" 82. A man desirous of ğihād and hiğra, but endowed with property that needed his presence, was similarly reassured that God would not defraud him of ought of his deeds even if he lived in al-Damad and Ğāzān 83, while another was told that it would not harm him to live in the vicinity of al-Damad of Gazan 84. A certain Fudayk had heard that he who does not emigrate will perish (man lam yuhāğir halaka), but the Prophet told him to pray, pay zakāt, shun evil and to live among his people wherever he wanted 85. Šaddād b. Asīd al-Sulamī fell ill in Medina, but did not want to leave for a more salubrious place because he did not want to undo his higra, but the Prophet told him to go, "for you are a Muhāğir wherever you are''86. Others were exempted from the duty of emigration to Medina by swearing allegiance to Muḥammad on higrat al-badiya/al-badī or bay at al-carabiyya, as

<sup>76</sup> Ibn Sacd, Tabagāt, vol. iv/2, p. 39.

<sup>77</sup> Ibn Sa'd Tabaqāt, vol. i/2, p. 24 = J. Wellhausen (tr.), «Ibn Sa'd, die Schreiben Muhammads und die Gesandtschaften an ihn» in his Skizzen und Vorarbeiten, vol. iv, Berlin 1889, p. 113, no. 29. (There is no reference to hiğra in connection with the settled section.) Similarly Wāqidī, Maġāzī, vol. ii, p. 782, where the Prophet makes the statement orally rather than in writing in response to a comment by Burayda b. al-Ḥaṣīb. For a different interpretation of this and other exemptions from the duty of hiğra, see A. Cheikh-Moussa and D. Gazagnadou, «Comment on écrit l'histoire.... de l'Islam», Arabica 40 (1993), pp. 228ff.

<sup>78</sup> Thus according to Salama b. al-Akwa<sup>c</sup>, who invoked the Prophet's collective exemption of Aslam when he was accused of *irtidād can al-hiģra* by Burayda b. al-Ḥaṣīb al-Aslamī and whose version presents the Aslamīs as emigrants in Medina by making them express fear of committing that very sin (Abū ʿUbayd, Amwāl, p. 314, no. 539; Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad, vol. iii, pp. 361f; iv, 55.5; Ḥaytamī, Maģma ʿal-zawā ʾid, vol. v, pp. 253f). According to other versions, Salama merely invoked his personal dispensation when he was accused of undoing his higra (see the references given below, note 145; the accuser is here al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ); and still others have it that he only left Medina when ʿUtmān was killed, not in the time of the Prophet (al-Buḥārī, al-Ṣaḥīḥ, ed. L. Krehl and T.W. Juynboll, Leiden 1862-1908, vol. iv, p. 373.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>79</sup> Rubin, "Hiğra", note 105, citing Haytamī, Mağma<sup>c</sup> al-zawā<sup>2</sup>id, vol. v, p. 254-9.

<sup>80</sup> Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, *Tabaqāt*, vol. i/2, p. 25 = Wellhausen, *Skizzen*, vol. iv, pp. 114f, no. 32; Wāqidī, *Maġāzī*, vol. ii, pp. 749f.

<sup>81</sup> Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, Tabaqāt, vol. i/2, p. 38 = Wellhausen, Skizzen, vol. iv, pp. 135f, no. 76.

<sup>82</sup> Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, *Tabaqāt*, vol. i/2, p. 42 = Wellhausen, *Skizzen*, vol. iv, p. 140, no. 79, where the names are corrupt. Al-Damad and Ğazān were places between Yemen and Mecca (Yāqūt, *Muʿjam al-buldān*, ed. F. Wüstenfeld, Leipzig 1866-73, s.vv, citing the 'Absī tradition s.v. 'al-Damad').

<sup>83</sup> Yaḥyā b. Ādam, Harāğ, p. 59.
84 Yāqūt, Buldān, s.v. 'al-Damad'.

<sup>85</sup> Abū ʿUbayd, Amwāl, p. 311, no. 534; Haytamī, Mağmaʿ al-zawā ʾid, vol. v, p. 255, middle.

<sup>86</sup> Rubin, "Hiğra", note 109, citing Mağma al-zawa'id, vol. v, p. 254, and other sources.

opposed to hiğrat al-bātta/al-hādir or baycat al-hiğra87. Some bedouin were positively advised by the Prophet to stay by their camels on the grounds that one could do good works "even across the seas" 88. There was no duty to emigrate physically at all: "If you perform the prayer and pay the alms, you are a Muhāğir even if you die in al-Ḥaḍar/al-Ḥaḍrama/al-Ḥaḍramawt", an anonymous bedouin was told89; "the earth is God's and the worshippers are God's, so wherever one of you finds it good to live, there let him fear God and stay", the Prophet said on another occasion 90. A muhāģir was not someone who emigrated physically, but rather someone who shunned what God has forbidden, as several Prophetic traditions inform us, invoking the root meaning of hgr91, or someone who abandoned polytheism (i.e. a convert)92. Just as the best ğihād is prayer, so shunning sins is the best higra 93. Or higra is a morally neutral act which acquires its meaning from intention: for just as the emigrant may turn to God and his Apostle, so he may turn to things of this world, depending on what his niyya is94.

Secondly, a number of traditions tell us that the Prophet formally abolished the duty of hiğra when he conquered Mecca, or that the

88 Abū Dāwūd, Sunan, vol. iii, no. 2477; Nasā'ī, Sunan, vol. vii, p. 144 and the commentaries thereto; other references in Rubin, «Hiğra», note 117.

duty came to an end when he died 95. The former idea is by far the best attested. "Stay in your residences, for the duty of higra has come to an end; but *žihād* and intention continue'', he proclaimed on the conquest of Mecca according to one version 96. "There is no hiğra after the conquest (of Mecca), only ğihād and intention", as the classical lā hiğra tradition has him say 97. Practically all versions are careful to point out that holy war continues, and many add that people should respond when they are called up. Other traditions show us the new dispensation in action. Thus Muǧāšic b. Mascūd al-Sulamī told the Prophet that he and his brother (or nephew) wished to pay him allegiance 'alā 'l-hiğra, to which the Prophet replied that there was no higra any more, but that they could swear allegiance on Islam and holy war98. Murra b. Wahb al-Tagafi and his son Ya<sup>c</sup>lā received much the same reply <sup>99</sup>. Şafwān b. Umayya and other Meccans who wished to emigrate to Medina after the conquest returned to Mecca because the higra had been closed 100. And when Muğāhid wished to emigrate to Syria, Ibn 'Umar replied that "there is no higra (any more), but there is gihād, so go and offer yourself", assuring him that he was free to return if he wished 101.

Thirdly, a small number of counter-traditions argue against the above material by having the Prophet declare that "the duty of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>87</sup> Abū 'Ubayd, Amwāl, p. 313, no. 537; Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad, vol. ii, pp. 160.3, 191.12, 193.12, 195.10 (ed. Šākir, vol. viii, no. 6487; vol. ix, nos. 6792, 6813; vol. ix, no. 6837); al-Nasā<sup>2</sup>ī, al-Sunan, with the commentary of al-Suyūṭī and the supercommentary of al-Sindī, Cairo 1987, vol. vii, p. 144; Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, Tabaqāt, vol. iv/2, p. 66; Hayṭamī, Maǧma<sup>c</sup> al-zawā²id, vol. v, p. 252; Rubin, 'Hiǧra', notes 110-11, 116, citing these and other sources.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>89</sup> Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, ed. Šākir, vol. xi, no. 6890; vol. xii, no. 7095; Haytamī, Magma al-zawā id, vol. v, pp. 253f; Rubin, «Hiğra», note 122, with yet another reference.

<sup>90</sup> Haytamī, Mağma' al-zawā'id, vol. v. p. 255, middle (first noted by Rubin).
91 Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad, ed. Šākir, vol. x, no. 6515; vol. xi, no. 6806, 6814,
6925, 7017, etc. (see the subject index s.v. 'al-hiğra'); vol. xii, no. 7086; Abū Dāwūd, Sunan, vol. iii, no. 2481; al-Ṭahāwī, Muškil al-āṭār, Hyderabad 1333, vol. iii, p. 259f (who also invokes Fudayk, cf. above, note 85): Rubin, 'Hiğra', notes 123, 125, citing other sources.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>92</sup> Nasā<sup>3</sup>ī, Sunan, vol. vii, p. 144f, where both <sup>c</sup>Umar and Abū Bakr on the one hand and the Anṣār on the other are muhāǧirūn in this sense; compare above, note

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>93</sup> Ibn Ḥanbal, *Musnad*, ed. Šākir, vol. viii, no. 6487; vol. xi, nos. 6792, 6813 (all of which proceed to discuss *hiǧra* in the literal sense); Ibn Ḥaǧar, *Iṣāba*, vol. iv. p. 832, s.v. 'Umm Anas *zawĕ* Abī Anas'.

<sup>94</sup> Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, ed. Šākir, vol. i, no. 168; Buḥārī, Ṣaḥāḥ, vol. iii, p. 35.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>95</sup> This view is sponsored in an Iraqi tradition attributed to 'Umar (Nasā'ī, Sunan, vol. vii, p. 146.6; first noted by M. Cook, Early Muslim Dogma, Cambridge 1981, p. 101); it is rejected in the tradition referred to below, note 110.

<sup>96</sup> Abū 'Ubayd, Amwāl, p. 311, no. 532.

<sup>97</sup> Ibn Abī Šayba, Muşannaf, vol. xiv, nos, 18776-8; 'Abd al-Razzāq, Muşannaf, vol. v, nos. 9711-13; Abū 'Ubayd, Amwāl, p. 311, no. 533; Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, ed. Šākir, vol. iii, no. 1991; vol. iv, no. 2396; vol. xi, no. 7012; Abū Dāwūd, Sunan, vol. iii, no. 2480; Buḥārī, Ṣahīḥ, vol. ii, p. 267; Nasā'ī, Sunan, vol. vii, p. 146; and so on. There is also a version which has al-īmān wa-l-niyya (Haytamī, Mağma' al-zawā'id, vol. v, p. 250, 4 up).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>98</sup> Ibn Abī Šayba, Muşannaf, vol. xiv, no. 18779; Buhārī, Şahīh, vol. iii, pp. 145f (maġāzī; adds faith): Ibn Saʿd, Tabaqāt, vol. vii/1, p. 19; Haytamī, Maǧmaʿ alzawāʾid, vol. v, p. 250 (slightly different): Tahāwī, Muškil, vol. iii, pp. 252f, 253f (several versions); further references in Ğūda, al-ʿArab, p. 228, note 3; Rubin, «Hiğra», note 136.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>99</sup> Ibn Abī Šayba, Muşannaf, vol. xiv, no. 18777; Nasā<sup>2</sup>ī, Sunan, vol. vii, p. 145; Taḥāwī, Muškil, vol. iii, p. 253; further references in Rubin, «Hiğra», note 137.
<sup>100</sup> al-Balādurī, Ansāb al-ašrāf, vol. i, ed. M. Hamīdullāh, Cairo 1959, pp. 262f;

Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad, vol. iii, pp. 430f; Ṭahāwī, Muškil, vol. iii, pp. 253, 254f; Haytamī, Maǧma<sup>c</sup> al-zawā ²id, vol. v, p. 250, middle; Rubin, «Hiǧra», notes 138, 169

<sup>101</sup> Buḥārī, Ṣaḥīḥ, vol. iii, p. 146.

hiğra will not come to an end as long as infidels are fought'', or "as long as ğihād continues" '102. "Hiğra will not come to an end until repentence does, and repentence will not come to an end until the sun rises in the west", Muʿāwiya cites him as saying 103.

#### Group 1

What then can we make of this material? Modern scholars generally accept the traditions of group 1, or some of them, at face value and infer that Muḥammad relaxed and eventually abolished the duty of hiğra because Medina was becoming overcrowded: "There seems to have been....a definite policy of requiring Muslims to be—or to become—settled people. As the number of converts from nomadic groups rose, however, this policy became increasingly difficult to implement", Donner says 104; "As the conversions to Islam increased throughout Arabia, the duty of emigration to Medina no doubt became more and more unrealistic and was, if not formally abolished as the Meccan and Medinese traditions affirmed, left in abeyance", as Madelung puts it 105. But this interpretation is difficult to accept.

In the first place, is there not something implausible about the idea that the Prophet should have abandoned the duty of hiğra because Medina was filling up? If one abode of emigration was getting overcrowded, the obvious response would surely have been to set up another. When the bedouin of twentieth-century Arabia were fired by the idea of settling as holy warriors, they established a plurality of huğar, not just a single one, and the Muslims of seventh-century Arabia can hardly have been so witless as to aban-

102 Abū ʿUbayd, Amwāl, p. 312, no. 537; Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad, vol. iv, p. 62, 7 up; Ṭahāwī, Muškil, vol. iii, pp. 257f; Haytamī, Mašmaʿ al-zawāʾid, vol. v, pp. 250f; Nasāʾī, Sunan, vol. vii, pp. 146f; cf. Madelung, "Hijra", pp. 227f.

don a policy of sedentarization and/or recruitment on the unsurprising discovery that not all the inhabitants of Arabia could be accommodated in a single town 106. If recruits continued to be needed, as they clearly did, one would have expected new abodes of hiğra to be established, and so indeed they were. It merely so happens that the new dūr al-hiğra (cf. above, no. 17) were established by caliphs rather than the Prophet, in Syria, Iraq, Egypt and Iran rather than in Arabia, and that this causes us automatically to classify the new foundations as wholly different from the first. But we should not see early Islamic history through classical eyes.

In the second place, the material is inconsistent <sup>107</sup>, and moreover so didactic in tone as to leave no doubt that it is using history to make doctrinal points. Many traditions, for example, go out of their way to get their message across by first having the bedouin expound the view to be refuted, whereupon the Prophet explains the true position: "our *qurrā*' say that there is no Islam for whoever does not emigrate" <sup>108</sup>, "Oh Messenger of God, we are afraid of apostatizing after having emigrated" <sup>109</sup>, "Oh Messenger of God, where should I make the *hiğra*? To you wherever I am, or to a particular land or a particular people? And will it be cut off when you

<sup>103</sup> Abū Dāwūd, Sunan, vol. iii, no. 2479; Dārimī, Sunan, vol. ii, pp. 239f; Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad, ed. Šākir, vol. iii, no. 1671; Nasā'ī, Sunan, vol. vii, pp. 146f; Ḥayṭamī, Maǧmaʿ al-zawā'id, vol. v, pp. 250f; cf. also Madelung, «Hijra», p. 227; Rubin, «Hijra», note 143. This tradition was often understood as being about spiritual hiǧra.

<sup>104</sup> F.M. Donner, The Early Islamic Conquests, Princeton 1981, p. 80.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>105</sup> Madelung, «Hijra», p. 232. Madelung only takes some of the traditions to reflect developments in the Prophet's time; others in his view reflect the desire of Yemeni Himṣīs of the Umayyad period to discourage bedouin immigration, but it is not easy to see how he discerns the difference.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>106</sup> In Donner's view, the policy of sedentarization was not abandoned; rather, the bedouin were allowed to settle in their own land instead of Medina, this being the meaning of higra fi dārihim (Conquests, pp. 79f). But the traditions make it abundantly clear that bedouin who were allowed to 'emigrate in their own homes' were thereby allowed to remain bedouin.

<sup>107</sup> Cf. the information on Aslam. If the entire tribe, or its bedouin members, had been granted status as emigrants regardless of their whereabouts, why did Salama need personal permission to live in the desert? And if he only left when Utman was killed, how can he have asked for permission to leave in the days of the Prophet? (Cf. above, notes 76-8) Rubin's answer to the first question is that Salama represents Aslam at large in the story of his individual permission ('Hijra', note 104); but the formulation does not suggest as much and the contexts do not tally: the letter in which the Prophet exempts all bedouin Aslamīs from the duty to emigrate is addressed to Aslam in their own land, whereas Salama depicts the Aslam who received collective dispensation as emigrants in Medina. If moreover all Aslam, or their bedouin members, had been dispensed from the duty to emigrate one way or the other, how could an eminent Aslami Companion such as Burayda b. al-Hasīb be unaware of it? (cf. above, note 78). If Burayda was unaware of it, how can the Prophet have issued the dispensation in his presence? (cf. above, note 77). And if all and sundry individuals and tribes had received dispensation too, how could Ibn 'Umar think that Aslam were unique (note 79)?

<sup>108</sup> Ibn Sacd, above, note 82.

<sup>109</sup> Ibn Ḥanbal in note 78 above.

die?''<sup>110</sup>, the bedouin ever so innocently ask, whereupon the Prophet explains that they can be emigrants wherever they are. The traditions of group 2 and 3 also take that form at times: "Oh Messenger of God, they say that only emigrants will enter Paradise", Ṣafwān b. Umayya asks, to be reassured by the Prophet that there is no hiğra after the fath; "Oh Messenger of God...they claim that hiğra has come to an end", a Sa<sup>c</sup>dī says, to be reassured by the Prophet that hiğra will continue as long as infidels are fought<sup>111</sup>. The material clearly reflects a debate, not developments in the thought of an individual.

In the third place, the traditions are dominated by the dichotomy between emigrants and bedouin which was commonplace in the Umayyad period, but hardly in Muḥammad's time. The Qur'ān does of course denounce the bedouin as fickle, but not with reference to their unwillingness to emigrate, which it does not mention at all 112; and though it prohibits social relations (walāya) with those who have not emigrated (Q. 8:71/73; cf. 4:88/91), it neither says nor implies that non-emigrants were bedouin, as opposed to settled Arabs or a mixture of both.

In historical fact, Muḥammad must have been as eager to recruit settled people as bedouin, or more so, and settled Arabs can hardly have found it any easier to emigrate than bedouin, tied as they were to their land. One would accordingly have expected the tradition to pay much attention to their problems, but it does not. It knows of a settled Arab who sold his land in order to emigrate to Medina 113, and it assures another (clearly as pars pro toto) that emigration was not necessary for salvation 114; but for the most part it simply allows

settled groups to stay where they were by having the Prophet write them letters in which the duty of hiğra is tacitly replaced by that of separation from infidels (firāq al-mušrikīn), or in which neither separation nor emigration is mentioned at all, so that one is in danger of forgetting that the duty of emigration had ever applied to settled people 115. By contrast, the tradition offers an abundance of stories about bedouin making the hiğra to Medina, their dislike of being there, their merit in having come, their accursedness in going back, their permission to go back, their exemption from the duty to come and so on, as if hiğra invariably involved a transition from bedouin to urban life 116. It is for this reason that Donner interprets the duty of hiğra in the Prophet's time as a duty to settle 117, a view that Rubin is close to espousing too 118; but it seems more natural to infer that the material reflects later conditions.

Haytamī, Mağma' al-zawā'id, vol. v, pp. 252f). Šākir reads the second question ilayka haytumā kunta, "to you wherever you [Muhammad] are", whereas Rubin translates "wherever I am"; since the answer is that people are emigrants unto God and His Messenger wherever they are, Rubin's reading seems preferable. Šākir reads the final question idā mutta inqata'at, "will it come to an end when you die?", whereas Rubin translates "will it be annulled when I die?"; and here it is Šākir's version that must be right (cf. above, note 95). In other words, the tradition affirms that the duty of hiğra will go one for ever, but only in a spiritual sense.

Nasā<sup>7</sup>ī, Sunan, vol. vii, pp. 146.1 and ult.; also 147.4; cf. above, notes 100, 102.

<sup>112</sup> Pace Madelung, "Hijra", pp. 229f.

<sup>113</sup> Ibn Sa'd, *Tabaqāt*, vol. 1/2, p. 55, on 'Abdallāh b. Aswad al-Sadūsī.

<sup>114</sup> Yahyā b. Adam, above, note 83.

<sup>115</sup> Cf. Ibn Sa'd, Tabaqāt, vol. 1/2, pp. 15ff = Wellhausen, Skizzen, vol. iv, pp. 97ff. That many of these letters were addressed to wholly or partly settled tribes is clear from the nature of the property they discuss. Not one requires the recipients to emigrate. One explicitly exempts them from the duty (B. 'Amr of Ḥuzā'a, cf. above, note 80), while another exempts their bedouin section without imposing it on their settled members (Aslam, cf. above, note 77). The rest either require the recipients to separate from infidels (vol. i/2, pp. 21-3, 25, 30 = pp. 107, 109-12, 114, 128: wa-fāraqa al-mušrikīn, twice replaced by wa-hāraba al-mušrikīn (at p. 22 = 109) or else make no mention of separation or emigration at all. It is not clear whether the fīrāq is to be envisaged as actual departure or as mere termination of friendly relations with infidels. Rubin interprets it as actual departure («Hijra», section B, 3), but those who are to engage in it are often confirmed in their possession of their lands and wells and merely required to hand over a fifth of their booty, pay zakāt (on their animals) or sadaqa on their fruits, keep the roads safe and so on. One would not have inferred that they left.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>116</sup> I. Goldziher, Muslim Studies, tr. S.M. Stern, London 1971-, vol. ii, pp. 224; Rubin, 'Hijra', section B, 4.

<sup>117</sup> Donner, Conquests, p. 79. For arguments against this interpretation, see the review by E. Landau-Tasseron in Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam 6 (1985), pp. 501f (add Haytamī, Maģma al-zawā id, vol. v, p. 255.4 where Āiša identifies the emigrants of Muḥammad's time as ahl al-qurā). Ibn Ḥaldūn goes to the other extreme when he claims that bedouin were not required to emigrate at all in the Prophet's time (cited in Madelung, "Hijra", pp. 225f).

<sup>118</sup> Rubin, 'Hijra', section A, argues that the original meaning was 'transfer to a town', with reference to hǧr in the sense of town and lexicographical material. But though one would agree with him that there is more to the concept than the severance of ties, the lexicographers simply reproduce the distinction between bedouin and muhaǧirūn current in the Umayyad period; and though hǵr in the sense of town (attested in the South Arabian epigraphical material and in the name of al-Haǧar) could be relevant, both Qur'ān and Ḥadīt suggest that the additional meaning had more to do with getting together for war than with sedentarization as such.

Whereas the Qur'an never contrasts bedouin with emigrants, the Umayyad material regularly does, as has been seen. Possibly, settled Arabs who had stuck to their homes were less conspicuous from the vantage point of the new garrison towns, or less desirable as soldiers, than were bedouin. In any case, settled Arabs who stayed put were now classified as bedouin themselves, in so far as they attracted attention: thus the Hīrans and the Meccans, for example 119. It was the bedouin who had become the paradigmatic shirkers. Hence it was also to them that the Qur'anic prohibition of walaya with non-emigrants was taken to refer; and since the prohibition implied that emigration was necessary for membership of the umma120, bedouinism was widely regarded as tantamount to infidelity: 'Umar II treated bedouin and non-Muslims as close to identical (above, no. 48); al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī equated the higra of bedouin with their conversion (above, no. 51); al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ and others regarded ta arrub ba da 'l-higra as tantamount to apostasy 121, or as a grave sin 122; and the frequency with which Prophetic traditions deny that non-emigrants were exluded from salvation shows that they were widely regarded as doomed to perdition.

All this had changed by early 'Abbasid times, however. Practically all jurists now accepted the bedouin as full members of the umma; and though some continued to deny them a share in the fay' (except in so far as they qualified under Q. 59:7/8)123, the majority granted them that right as well 124, on the grounds that the duty of hiğra had been abolished and that all Muslims were now muhāģirūn in the sense of believers regardless of their whereabouts: it was in support of this view that the traditions of groups 1 and 2 were adduced 125. It does not seem likely that this wholehearted endorsement of the bedouin's status as full members of the umma should have been accomplished in the time of Muhammad, reversed under the Umayyads and then accomplished again by the classical scholars. The developmental scheme is familiar enough, of course, but it seems more economical to assume that the Prophet traditions reflect the debate of the scholars themselves. Some take the duty of hiğra for granted and merely exempt individuals or groups from it while others abolish the duty itself, but all tell us that membership of the umma does not depend on whereabouts. All, in short, are evidence for the process whereby the post-conquest distinction between emigrants and bedouin was effaced and eventually rejected.

### Group 2

The message of the material of group 2 is to some extent identical with that of group 1: faith does not depend on whereabouts; given that higra does not exist any more, all believers, including bedouin, enjoy the same position and are all entitled to a share in the fay'. But whereas the traditions of group 1 abolish the duty of higra by elevating all Muslims to the status of Muhāģirūn in a metaphorical sense, those of group 2 terminate it at a specific point in time, so that the historical stump of the literal duty remains: and it is this stump which is higra in the classical sense of the word. The cut-off point is usually identified as al-fath, which some scholars took to be the events of al-Ḥudaybiyya 126, but which was classically understood as the conquest of Mecca; and in its classical interpretation the material has as much to say about Mecca as it does about emigration, a point to which I shall come back.

Unlike the traditions of group 1, those of group 2 are not normally taken at face value by modern scholars. In Madelung's reconstruction, for example, the duty to emigrate falls into abeyance first in the Prophet's time in response to overcrowding in Medina, reflected in group 1, and next under the early Abbasids

<sup>119</sup> Cf. no. 52 in the list above, and note 153 below.

<sup>120</sup> As Madelung notes («Hijra», p. 230).

<sup>121</sup> Al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ (or Burayda) accused Salama b. al-Akwa<sup>c</sup> of irtidād 'an al-hiǧra (below, note 145; cf. also Kister, «Land Property and jihād», pp. 279f). Compare Abū 'Ubayd, Amwāl, pp. 324f, no. 558, where a general of the early conquests implicitly excludes bedouin from the gamāca. Naturally, the view that those who turned bedouin after emigration were apostates is ascribed to the Prophet himself (Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, ed. Šākir, vol. v, no. 3881; vol. vi, nos. 4090, 4428).

<sup>122</sup> Abū Ubayd, Amwāl, pp. 112f, 309, nos. 203, 530. In the story of al-Nābiga,

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Utmān merely identifies it as makrūh (below, note 144).

<sup>123</sup> The proof text was the Prophetic tradition on a rab al-muslimin, which endorses the Muslim status of the bedouin but denies them a share in the fay' (cf. the list above, no 5; Yahyā b. Ādam, Harāğ, pp. 5f; Abū 'Ubayd, Amwāl, pp. 303-6).

<sup>124</sup> Madelung, "Hijra", pp. 236ff.

<sup>125</sup> Thus Abū (Ubayd, Amwāl, pp. 303ff; Ibn Zayd in Rubin, «Hijra», section

<sup>126</sup> G.R. Hawting, 'al-Hudaybiyya and the Conquest of Mecca', Jerusalem Studies in Arabic and Islam 8 (1986).

in response to long-term developments, reflected in group 2. Though one can dispute his interpretation of group 1, Madelung is undoubtedly right as far as group 2 is concerned. Indeed, the long-term developments account very well for all of the material.

In the course of the Umayyad period, residence in a garrison city ceased to be synonymous with military service; the payment of stipends was gradually restricted to professional soldiers and other public servants, while the bulk of Muslims took to making a living on their own. Under those circumstances it obviously ceased to make sense that people should be obliged to live in garrison cities. Why should their status as members of the umma be doubtful merely because they lived in the desert or in villages? Why should they be branded as backsliders or even apostates if they took to earning their keep as pastoralists or peasants? One could worship God and shun evil wherever one was. The institution of higra remained alive as long as the Umayyads recruited bedouin soldiers, and the Syrians defended it longer than anyone else 127; but it cannot have retained much significance when the 'Abbāsids replaced the Syrian armies with Hurāsānī troops, and it must have been then that the "Ḥiǧāzī position that the duty of hiǧra had been abolished by the Prophet after the conquest ... found backing by consensus'', as Madelung says 128. This accords with the fact that the open-ended concept of higra is densely attested from the conquests to the 720's, but practically gone by c. 800, except in connection with non-Arab converts.

But Madelung's position is not as clearcut as one might like. Although it is in the 'Abbāsid period that he finds a context for the classical lā hiğra tradition, he assumes it to have been in circulation for so long before it won general acceptance that for practical purposes he equips it with the usual history of origin in the earliest times, suspension under the Umayyads and restoration uder the 'Abbāsids: thus he implies that it was known to Mucāwiya, who supposedly disliked it; and he treats it as familiar to 'Umar II, who 'did not accept' this tradition, as he puts it 129. But Mucāwiya's appearance as the transmitter of one of the counter-traditions does not of course mean that moves were afoot for the closure of hiğra

already in his days 130; and given that Umar II never mentions the lā hiğra tradition, it seems more reasonable to infer that he did not know it. Al-Sarahsī and others similarly credit al-Hasan al-Baṣrī with a conscious rejection or qualification of the closed concept of hiğra, though the chances are that he merely took the open-ended concept for granted<sup>131</sup>. Everybody seems to have done so in the mid-Umayyad period, not just the Umayyads and their supporters, but also their inveterate enemies, the Hāriğites. It is well known that the Azāriga, Nağadāt and other Hāriğites of the Umayyad period held higra from the abode of non-Hārigites to be obligatory 132, referred to their camps as abodes of higra 133 and called themselves muhāģirūn 134; and as might be expected, the sources mostly interpret this as an obligation to re-enact the Prophet's emigration rather than to continue it: thus Sālim b. Dakwan credits Nagda with the view that one must make a higra "like the hiğra of the Prophet" and invokes the classical lā hiğra tradition against him 135; and the parallel with the Prophet's Medina is also explicit in al-Ašcarī's account of the Azāriga 136. But

<sup>127</sup> Cf. Cook, Dogma, p. 101 and note 127 thereto; below, note 130.

<sup>128</sup> Madelung, «Hijra», p. 235.

<sup>129</sup> Madelung, «Hijra», pp. 235, 227.

<sup>130</sup> It shows that there was resistance to the abolition of high in circles apt to invoke the Umayyads as their authorities, clearly Syrians (cf. Cook, Dogma, p. 202, note 127, where Marwan is also invoked).

<sup>131</sup> Cf. the list above, no. 51 (al-Ḥasan ''did not consider this rule to have been abrogated''); al-Ṭabarsī, Maǧmaʿ al-bayān li-ʿulūm al-qur'ān, ed. H. al-Rasūlī al-Maḥallātī, Tehran n.d., vol. iii, pp. 562f; al-Ṭūsī, al-Tibyān fi tafsīr al-qur'ān, ed. A.Š. al-Amīn and A.H. Qasīr al-ʿAmūlī, Naǧaf 1957-65, vol. v, p. 166, both ad 8:74f/75f (al-Ḥasan said that ''the hiǧra of the bedouin to garrison cities will continue until the Day of Resurrection'').

<sup>132</sup> Al-Aš<sup>c</sup>arī, *Maqālāt al-islāmiyyīn*, ed. H. Ritter, Instanbul 1929-33, pp. 86f, 89, 91, 115, 120; Sālim b. Dakwān, *Sīra* (in the Hinds Xerox, Cambridge University Library, microfilm Or. 1402), pp. 175, 178f; cf. Cook, *Dogma*, pp. 3f, 17, 97.

siy Elbiary, inicionim Or. 1402), pp. 173, 173, ci. Cook, Bogma, pp. 31, 77. 77.

133 See for example Ibn A<sup>c</sup>tam, Futūh, vol. vii, p. 17 (Sābūr was the dār al-hiǧra of the Azāriqa); al-Mubarrad, al-kāmil fī l-luġa wa-l-adab wa-l-naḥw wa-l-taṣrīf, ed. Z. al-Mubārak and A.M. Śākir, Cairo 1936-7, vol. iii, p. 1053 (the Azāriqa would not declare anyone an infidel in their dār al-hiǧra except for killers of Muslims). Hāriǧites were prone to turning the execution sites of their martyrs into abodes of hiǵra (al-Balāḍurī, Ansāb al-aṣrāf, vol. ivb, ed. M. Schloessinger, Jerusalem 1938, p. 94.10; Mubarrad, Kāmil, vol. iii, p. 1022, both with reference to the 680's; Ibn al-Atīr, al-Kāmil fī 'l-ta'rīḥ, ed. C.J. Tornberg, Leiden 1851-76, vol. v, p. 88, with reference to 105/723-4; M.J. de Goeje (ed.), Kitāb al-u ʿyūn wa-l-ḥadā ʾiq, Leiden 1871, p. 108, 4 up, with reference to the reign of Hišām).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>134</sup> Ibn A<sup>c</sup>tam, Futūh, vol. vi, pp. 46.3, 298.7; vol. vii, pp. 60, ult., 63, 3 up, 68. 10; Mubarrad, Kāmil, vol. iii, p. 1065, 3 up, cf. 1088. 11, 1140, 5 up; Ibn Abī 'l-Ḥadīd, Šarḥ nahğ al-balāġa, ed. M.A.-F. Ibrāhīm, Cairo 1965, vol. iv, p. 149. 5, cf. 161. 14 (Azāriqa).

<sup>135</sup> Sālim, Sīra, p. 175; Cook, Dogma, p. 17, 100ff.

<sup>136</sup> Ašcarī, Magālāt, pp. 88f.

the Hāriğites themselves saw hiğra and ğihād as ongoing duties 137. Like their opponents, they identified emigration to a military centre as indispensable for Muslim status and took the Quranic prohibition of walaya with non-emigrants to exclude social relations with bedouin, from whom they duly dissociated even when the latter shared their views 138; and unlike later heretics, they did not appoint nagībs or  $d\bar{a}^{c}$  is in their abodes of emigration, or call their followers ansār: their concept of hiğra was Qur<sup>3</sup>ānic, not inspired by the Sīra. When the Azāriga attacked Basra, the Basrans feared having to abandon their hiğra by leaving Basra (above, no. 43), whereas the Azāriga refused to acknowledge Basra as a dār al-higra and enjoined emigration to their own camp instead: the concept of emigration was the same on the two sides of the fence. The first evidence for actual re-enactment of the Prophet's higra seems to be furnished by the Hāšimiyya in Ḥurāsān, who called Marw (or Ḥurāsān at large) their dar al-higra 139, appointed da cis and naqibs, and eventually elevated their followers to the status of ansar (al-da wa/al-dawla). It seems gratuitous to assume that the closed concept of higra had been present from the start when it is only in the transitional period between the two dynasties that we begin to see it.

### Group 3

The traditions of group 3 defend the open concept of *hiǧra*, and all are Syrian; it is because Mu<sup>c</sup>āwiya was an authority to the Syrians that he appears as the transmitter of one of them <sup>140</sup>. They

take it for granted that hiğra and ğihād are related activities and assert that both will continue for ever, which agrees with the fact that when the generality of Muslim lawyers declared ğihād to be a fard kifāya, the Syrians took the dissenting view that it was a fard cayn, every Muslim being individually obliged to engage in holy war according to them. The Syrians were so preoccupied with ğihād that they did not know much about anything else, as Mālik is supposed to have told al-Manṣūr<sup>141</sup>, but their attempt to salvage the open-ended concept of hiğra was not successful.

#### The fate of the pre-classical material

It is the traditions of group 2, and above all the classical lā hiğra tradition, which lie behind all conventional accounts of the development of the concept of higra, be they Muslim or Islamicist: all take it for granted that higra in the original sense of the word came to an end in the lifetime of the Prophet. The classical position is neatly illustrated by al-Māwardī, who unselfconsciously crams a whole century's development into the Prophet's life. "The word higra only applies to those who emigrated from their home to Medina in search of Islam", he says, forgetting the muhāģirūn to garrison cities or perhaps dismissing them as pale reflections of the genuine article. "Every tribe that emigrated in its entirety was called al-Barara, while those which emigrated in part were known as al-Hiyara", he continues, automatically taking Sayf's information on Muhāğirūn in Abū Bakr's Iraq to relate to those in Muḥammad's Medina (cf. above, no. 7). "After the conquest (of Mecca) the duty of higra ceased to apply, and the Muslims now came to include both Muhāğirūn and bedouin", he adds, innocently forgetting that the bedouin still had not come to be accepted as full members of the umma by Umayyad times. "In the time of the Prophet the people of sadaqa were known as bedouin while the people of fay' were known as Muhāģirūn'', he concludes, adducing the verse muhāģir laysa bi-carabī cited by al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ in illustration (cf. no. 42) on the automatic assumption that the anonymous poet quoted by al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ was a contemporary of the Prophet 142.

<sup>137</sup> This is clear from their very name, which is a self-designation derived from Q. 4: 99/101 (wa-man yaḥruğu min baytihi muhāģiran ilā 'llāh, cf. R.E. Brünnow, Die Charidschiten under den ersten Omayyaden, Leiden 1884, pp. 28f). Compare also the story of how al-Muhallab sowed dissension among the Azraqites (Mubarrad, Kāmil, vol. iii, p. 1040): he asked them about the fate of two men who go out muhāǧirayn ilaykum, one of them dying on the way and the other managing to arrive, only to fail his milma. This sowed dissension because neither man had passed his exam, but Q. 4: 99/101 promises those who go out muhāǧiran ilā allāh wa-rasūlihi their reward even if they die on the way. The Azāriqa evidently took the Qur³ānic injunction to emigrate to be addressed to themselves, not just to past believers whose obligation had been abolished on the conquest of Mecca.

<sup>138</sup> Sālim, Sīra, p. 173; cf. Cook, *Dogma*, p. 96 (where this is puzzling).
139 Albār al-dawla al-ʿabbāsiyya, ed. ʿA. ʿA. al-Dūrī and ʿA.-J. al-Muṭṭalibī,
Beirut 1971, p. 199; al-Ṣāḥib b. ʿAbbād, *Rasā ʾil*, ed. ʿA.-W. ʿAzzām and Š. Dayf,
Cairo 1947, p. 23, 7.

<sup>140</sup> Cf. above, notes 127, 130.

<sup>141</sup> Van Ess, Theologie und Gesellschaft, vol. i, p. 68.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>142</sup> Al-Māwardī, al-Ahkām al-sultāniyya, ed. M. Enger, Bonn 1853, pp. 210f.

A whole century's development is likewise crammed into the lifetime of the Prophet when the classical texts illustrate the reprehensible act of tacarrub bacda 'l-higra with exclusive reference to departures from the Prophet's Medina, though here some asymmetries survived: for it is not clear why Abū Darr should have accused 'Utman of returning him to bedouinism by exiling him to al-Rabada if the Prophet had declared that one could now be a muhāģir "even in the ravines" 143, or why al-Nābiġa should have needed 'Utman's permission to leave Medina for the desert if the duty of hiğra had been abolished144, let alone how al-Ḥaǧǧāǧ could accuse Salama b. Akwa<sup>c</sup> of irtidad can al-higra some eighty years after the abolition of higra had supposedly been effected 145.

Asymmetries also survived in the form of all the passages on higra in its open-ended sense collected in the above list. They do not seem to have been a source of anguish, presumably because they were taken to refer to higra of a lesser and imitative kind: they were about al-hiğra ba'da l-hiğra, 'the emigration after (the real) hiğra', as 'Alī called it (above, no. 16), carefully making the distinction between hiğra in the Prophet's time and thereafter which Madelung has now reaffirmed. Several types of higra were known to later scholars too, for though all accepted that the historical emigration from Mecca to Medina had come to an end, they obviously did not think that hiğra in the spiritual sense of turning to God or shunning evil had been terminated 146, and many held that physical emigration continued to be a duty on Muslims who fell under infidel rule. In favour of these views they would adduce the counter-traditions of group 3147. Historically, the counter-traditions of group 3 were out to preserve higra as a duty to emigrate physically for service under

144 Aġānī, vol. v, p. 10.

146 Tahāwī, for example, calls the spiritual higra, or higrat al-sū, 'the second higra', explaining that it does not require departure from one's home and that it is the higra which continues after the conquest of Mecca (Muškil, vol. iii, p. 260). legitimate rulers, not as a spiritual journey or as a flight from infidels: what they defended was movement in support of caliphs who represented God's cause, so that joining them was both a physical journey and a spiritual higra ilā allāh wa-rasūlihi, as it had been in the Prophet's time. It was in this vein that 'Umayr b. Hāni' could speak of a higra to God and his Messenger and a higra to Yazīd III (above, no. 53). But Bišr b. Abī Kubār al-Balawī, writing about 800, is the last author to whom this concept of higra is alive (above, no. 56).

#### The meaning of the reinterpretation

The open-ended concept of higra is one of the rare Islamic notions of which we can unequivocally say that they take us back to the beginnings. It encapsulates the fact that Islamic history started with a great departure: to convert was to leave one's home in order to fight for the cause; salvation lay in going forth for heroic ventures and a new world ahead, not in patiently staying by one's fields or camels. Hiğra as originally understood was nothing if not a concept of mobilization. By the same token its lifespan was limited, for it is only at the beginning of a revolution that salvation lies in going forth: one cannot sit on bayonets, as Napoleon is reputed to have said. Muslim society could not remain a camp for ever, however attached the Syrians might be to the idea. Once the new world had been established, the Aufbruchsstimmung of the early days gave way to the settled mentality of the classical pattern, and the open-ended concept of higra had to be closed. 148.

The first-century concept of higra thus evokes a bygone era, and this is perhaps where its main interest lies. But there are also other things of interest to be learnt from its demise. The fact that the Muslims had to divest themselves of the open concept of higra does not explain why they put its end where they did. They might have linked its abolition to the first civil war, for example, or to the waning of the great conquests: the latter would have been historically correct. But given that the Muslims liked to have the Prophet's own verdict on all questions of classical concern, it is not surprising that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>143</sup> Balādurī, Ansāb, vol. v, p. 54; cf. Athamina, «A<sup>c</sup>rāb and Muhājirūn», pp. 11f.

<sup>145</sup> Nasā<sup>3</sup>ī, Sunan, vol. vii, p. 151, ult.; Buḥārī, Şaḥīḥ, vol. iv, p. 373; al-Bayhaqī, Kitāb al-sunan al-kubrā, Hyderabad 1344-55, vol. ix, p. 19; cf. Bosworth, 'Tacarrub', p. 358; above, note 78.

<sup>147</sup> Z.-I. Rhan, The Origins and Development of the Concept of Hijra or Migration in Islam, unpublished PhD thesis, Manchester 1987, pp. 78ff; cf. also Sāliḥ b. Mahdī al-Magbilī, al-Manār fī l-muhtār min ğawāhir al-bahr al-zahhār, Beirut 1988, vol. ii, p. 511: Rubin, "Hijra", notes 180-3, on Ibn Hajar. The issue is discussed in F. Meier, «Über die umstrittene Pflicht des Muslims, bei nichtmuslimischer Besetzung seines Landes auszuwandern», Der Islam 68 (1991).

<sup>148</sup> I owe both the thought in this paragraph and the term Aufbruchsstimmung to Fritz Zimmermann, whose comments on the first draft of this article made the point more vividly than I have been able to do.

they made him abolish the duty of *hiğra* in person, be it at unspecified times or on the *fath*, or by dying. But why did the view that he abolished it on the conquest of Mecca win universal acceptance?

The answer presumably lies in the fact that it could be used to make at least three important statements about Mecca. First, by identifying the conquest of Mecca as the cut-off point, the tradition singles out the conquest of Mecca as the culmination of Muhammad's career: the one and only purpose of emigration had been the fath; though there were to be many futuh thereafter, they were of a different and lesser order, for one could no longer gain the status of muhāğir by enlisting for holy war, be it in Medina (as the Sulamīs and others learnt) or in Syria (as Muğāhid was told). "The cancelling of the implementation of the higra principle after the conquest of Makka. ... reinforced the belief that higra was originally designed to strengthen the Muslim community in al-Madina, so as to increase the military potential of the Muslims in order to use it against Makka", as Athamina puts it 149. The message is that the Prophet's interest was focused on Mecca, the central shrine of Islam, not on conquests outside Arabia 150.

Secondly, the tradition could be used to highlight the Meccan identity of Muḥammad's supporters. "There is no higra today", 'Ā'iša explains with reference to the conquest of Mecca; "the believer used to flee (yafirru) with his religion to God and His Messenger lest he be persecuted for it (yuftana 'alayhi); but as for today, God has made Islam victorious, so the believer can worship God wherever he wants; but ǧihād and sunna (continue)" Here emigration is explicitly identified as flight, clearly on the basis of the Qur'ānic passages on persecution, and the possibility of higra from places other than Mecca is implicitly denied, for the persecution is

envisaged as a purely Meccan phenomenon to which the *fath* has now put an end. The fact that numerous converts emigrated to Medina from places other than Mecca, and that Mecca would hardly have been conquered if this had not been the case, is quietly ignored. That Muhammad's *hiğra* was a flight from persecution is a commonplace view in the literature, and it is of course also as such that *hiğra* is envisaged in the enigmatic story of the emigration to Ethiopia, in which its link with *ğihād* has wholly disappeared and the emigrants are Meccans pure and simple.

Thirdly, the  $l\bar{a}$  hiğra tradition could be used to absolve the Meccans from the stigma of living in the city the Prophet had left, as Cook and Rubin point out with reference to stories in which Qurašīs opt for continued residence in Mecca with the Prophet's blessing, having learnt that the duty of hiğra had come to an end 152. But there was more than Meccan honour to the issue.

Being non-emigrants, the Meccans were regarded as bedouin, with whom one should not intermarry 153 and whose ability to achieve salvation was in doubt, as we learn from the traditions on Ṣafwān b. Umayya and another on Ğubayr b. Muṭ cim, who was assured by the Prophet that the Meccan would be rewarded for their good deeds even if they lived in a fox-hole 154. Mecca was moreover a city in which no Muslim should stay overnight according to Alī 155, in which muhāģirūn should spend no more than three days after completing their pilgrimage according to the Prophet (as Cumar II was told when he enquired about suknā Makka) 156, in

<sup>149</sup> Athamina, «A rāb and Muhājirūn», pp. 8f.

<sup>150</sup> Cf. Tahāwī's explanation of the counter-tradition that higra will continue for as long as infidels are fought: it does not contradict the view that higra was abolished on the conquest of Mecca, for the infidels could be those of Mecca (Muškil, vol. iii, p. 257). Even Noth takes the Qur'ānic duty of gihād for all Muslims to have been relaxed in the lifetime of the Prophet himself, presumably meaning after the conquest of Mecca (A. Noth, Heiliger Krieg und Heiliger Kampf im Islam und Christentum, Bonn 1966, p. 34).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>151</sup> Abū 'Ubayd, Amwāl, p. 312, no. 535; Buḥārī, vol. iii, pp. 35, 146; Ṭahāwī, Muškil, vol. iii, pp. 254. 9, where the drift of the tradition is well brought out. Sunna is presumably a corruption of niyya.

<sup>152</sup> Cook, *Dogma*, p. 100; Rubin, «Hijra», p. 33.

<sup>153</sup> Athamina, "A rāb and Muhājirūn", p. 12, citing Tabarī, Ta rīb, ser. ii, p. 825, where 'Abd al-Malik castigates Ḥālid b. 'Abdallāh b. Ḥālid b. Asīd for having appointed his brother, a rābiyyan min ahl Makka, to the war against the Ḥāriģites; Tabarsī, Maǧmaʿ, vol. iii, p. 563; Tūsī, Tibyān, vol. v, p. 166, both ad 8: 74f/75f, where al-Ḥasan prohibits intermarriage of Muhāǧirūn and bedouin, and 'Umar says ''don't marry the people of Mecca, they are bedouin''.

<sup>154</sup> Above, note 100, and Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, vol. iv, pp. 82, ult., 83. 14, 85. 2; Haytamī, Mağma al-zawā id, vol. v, p. 252, 7 up, on Gubayr b. Mut'im.

<sup>155</sup> Ibn Bābūyah, 'Ilal al-šarā'i', Najaf 1966, p. 452.

<sup>156</sup> Ibn Sa<sup>c</sup>d, *Tabaqāt*, vol. iv/2, p. 77; Taḥāwī, *Muškil*, vol. iii, p. 255, where al-Sā<sup>c</sup>ib b. Yazīd cites al-ʿAlā<sup>c</sup> b. al-Ḥaḍramī's tradition from the Prophet *talāt baʿda al-ṣadar* to ʿUmar II. Al-ʿAlā<sup>c</sup>'s traditions on this subject are also cited in Ibn Ḥanbal, *Musnad*, vol. v, p. 52, middle; and in al-Dahabī, *Siyar aʿlām al-nubalā*<sup>c</sup>, ed. Š. al-Arnaʾūṭ and Ḥ. al-Asad, Beirut 1981-3, vol. i, no. 51 (al-ʿAlā̄<sup>c</sup> b. al-Ḥaḍramī), where numerous other attestations are listed; cf. also Rubin, "Ḥijra", note 168. Al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī, a contemporary of ʿUmar II, is nonetheless credited with a letter on the merit of living in Mecca (van Ess, *Theologie und Geschichte*, vol. ii, p. 46; drawn to my attention by Michael Cook).

which the Prophet himself refrained from setting foot in the houses when he returned from the pilgrimage 157, and in which it was the greatest misfortune for a muhāģir to die 158. No doubt all this was painful to the Meccans, but more importantly it made for an odd sanctuary: how could the holiest place of Islam be so unholy? In fact, all lands abandoned by emigrants were unholy, and returning to live or die in them jeopardized one's status as a believer wherever they might be: Mecca was no exception. It merely happened to be particularly unholy in that it was the Prophet himself who had left it 159. Hence it could not be successfully transformed into the central shrine of Islam unless the Prophet was made to soften the meaning of his departure, and this is what the lā higra tradition and its interpreters achieve. Their message is that the Prophet's mission was an essentially Meccan enterprise from beginning to end: both he and his followers were Meccans, and though they had to flee from Mecca in response to Meccan pressure, their period in Medina was a mere interlude, not a permanent departure, for the one and only object of their higra was al-fath. The Prophet's higra was a reluctant departure, not a rejection: "by God, you are God's best land and the dearest of God's land unto God; if I were not expelled from you, I would not leave", as another tradition has him exclaim on his departure 160.

The closure of the duty of higra is thus connected, not only with the waning of the Umayyad conquest society, but also with the elevation of Mecca to the central sanctuary of Islam. The literary sources contain residues of the view that Muḥammad's ambitions included the conquest of Syria 161, and what the open-ended concept of higra suggests is precisely that the occupation of Mecca was preparatory to conquests on a wider scale: it comes across as a step towards the consolidation of Muslim power in Arabia that was required for campaigns outside it, not as an end in itself. At the same time, literary and archaeological sources seem to indicate that

from the time of 'Umar to 'Abd al-Malik the Muslims prayed in the direction of a central sanctuary in northern Arabia, or to Jerusalem, or to a plurality of sanctuaries, suggesting that the classical status of Mecca may be the outsome of an evolution stretching beyond Muḥammad's lifetime 162. But the closure of the concept of hiğra drives a wedge between Muḥammad's campaigns and the great conquests and firmly identifies Arabia in general and Mecca in particular as the holy land, making the great conquests appear semi-accidental and reducing the rival sanctuaries of the post-conquest period to deviant qiblas for which the Muslims, in so far as they remembered them, unsurprisingly chose to blame the Umayyads 163.

Once again, then, we encounter the evolutionary scheme whereby the Prophet creates an institution which the Umayyads supposedly change and which has been 'restored' by the time the sources set in (though in this case, as in that of hiğra, the 'change' is attested already under 'Umar<sup>164</sup>). Is it not time that we try to go beyond this scheme? The Umayyad period must be one of the most creative centuries of Islamic history, or indeed any history; and yet it is remembered above all as a century of impious deviation from an established tradition. This is an extraordinary fact, and we shall not be able to make sense of this fact, or of the formative period in general, unless we remember that the Muslim recollection of the Prophet reflects the lives and thoughts of all the believers who created a new civilization in allegiance to him, not just those of Muḥammad himself.

<sup>157</sup> Wāqidī, Maģāzī, vol. ii, p. 829.

<sup>158</sup> Rubin, «Hiğra», notes 165-8; Athamina, «A'rāb and Muhāģirūn», p. 12.

<sup>159</sup> Cf. Ibn Bābūyah above, notes 155: 'Alī said that one should not stay overnight in a land hāgara minhā rasūl allāh.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>160</sup> Al-Dārimī, al-Sunan, ed. A.H. Yamānī, Cairo 1966, vol. ii, p. 156, no. 2513.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>161</sup> Cf. Crone and Cook, Hagarism, pp. 7f, for the non-Muslim evidence; Donner, Conquests, pp. 101ff, for the Muslim material.

<sup>162</sup> Cf. Crone and Cook, Hagarism, pp. 23f (and P. Crone, Meccan Trade and the Rise of Islam, Princeton and Oxford 1987, p. 198, note 131); P. Carlier, 'Qastal al-Balqa': an Umayyad Site in Jordan' in M.A. Baḥit and R. Schick (eds.), The Fourth International Conference on the History of Bilād al-Sām during the Umayyad Period, vol. ii, Amman 1989, pp. 118f, 134 (drawn to my attention by R. Hoyland); S. Bashear, "Qur'ān 2: 114 and Jerusalem", Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies 52 (1989), pp. 237f; id. "Qibla Musharriqa and Early Muslim Prayer in Churches", The Muslim World 81 (1991); M. Sharon, "The birth of Islam in the Holy Land" in M. Sharon (ed.), Pillars of Smoke and Fire. The Holy Land in History and Thought, Johannesburg 1988. Compare also the tradition lā yaşluḥu qiblatān fī ard wa-laysa 'ala 'l-muslim ğizya, which must date from the Umayyad period since it was then that converts were made to pay ğizya (Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad, ed. Šākir, vol. iii, no. 1949).

<sup>163</sup> Cf. Ğāḥiz, Risāla fī banī Umayya, p. 296, on the qibla of Wāsiţ.

<sup>164</sup> The first mosque in Kufa, which was orientated to the west rather than the south, was built by Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāṣ, a close companion of the Prophet, in the caliphate of 'Umar (Balādurī, Futūḥ, p. 276).